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- ☐ An **exchange rate** is the rate at which a currency can be traded in exchange for another currency
- ☐ The spot exchange rate is the rate at which currencies can be bought or sold for Immediate delivery.
- ☐ The **forward rate** is an exchange rate set for currencies to be exchanged at a future date.

☐ A **direct quote** is the amount of domestic currency which is equal to one foreign currency unit.

LKR176: US\$1,

☐ An **Indirect quote** is the amount of foreign currency which is equal to one domestic currency unit.

LKR1: US\$0.00568.

EX:

♦ To convert \$1,000 to rupees using the direct quote (Rs. 176.51): \$1,000 176 =Rs. 176,000.

♦ To convert \$1,000 to rupees using an indirect quote (\$0.00568/Rs.1): \$1,000/0.00568 = Rs. 176,000 (corrected for rounding).

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Bid and offer prices

The **bid price** is the rate at which the bank is willing to **buy** the currency.

The offer (or ask) price is the rate at which the bank is willing to self the currency.

If an importer has to pay a foreign supplier in a foreign currency, they might ask their bank to sell them the required amount of the currency.

For example, suppose that a bank's customer, a Sri Lankan trading company, has imported goods for which it must now pay \$10,000.

- (a) In order to pay the bill, the company must obtain (buy) \$10,000 from the bank. In other words, the bank will sell \$10,000 to the company.
- (b) When the bank agrees to sell US\$10,000 to the company, it will tell the company what the spot rate of exchange will be for the transaction. If the bank's selling rate (known as the 'offer', or 'ask' price) is, say, \$0.0057for the currency, the bank will charge the company:

\$0.0057*per* Rs.1

If a Sri Lankan exporting company receives \$10,000 from a customer, the company will want to sell the dollars to obtain Sri Lankan rupees (its home currency). The bank will therefore buy the dollars at a quoted bid price. If the bank quotes a bid price of, say, \$0.0060 for the currency the bank will pay the exporter:

\$10,000 \$0.0060 per Rs.T = Rs. 1,666,667

Note that the bank buys the dollars for less than it sells them; in other words it makes a net profit on the transactions. In this case, the net profit is Rs. 87,718.

The rule is that banks buy (currency) low and sell high.

Question

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Calculate how many dollars an exporter would receive or how many dollars an importer would pay, ignoring the bank's commission, in each of the following situations, if they were to exchange currency at the spot rate.

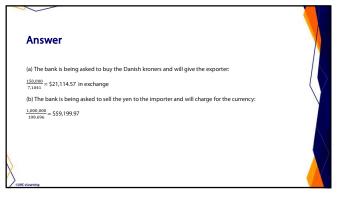
(a) A US exporter receives a payment from a Danish customer of 150,000 kroner. (b) A Us importer buys goods from a Japanese supplier and pays 1 million yen.

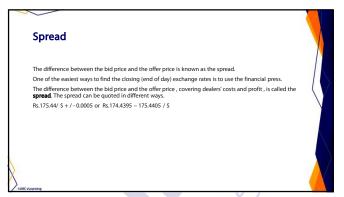
\$/Danish Kr \$/Japanese Yen

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Bank sells(offer) 6,7659 108,696 Bank buys (bid) - 7,1041 - 114,130





7 8

Question

PTA Inc., a Us – based company, is engaged in both import and export activities. During a particular month, PTA sells goods to GH pic, a Sri Lankan supplier, which cost Rs. 5 million.

Required
Calculate the dollar values of the Rupee receipt and payment if the exchange rates were Rs.175.44/\$ + /-1.3

Answer

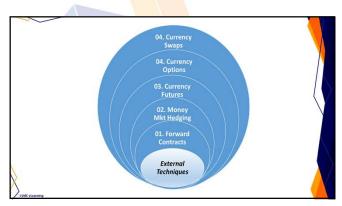
(a) As an exporter, PTA will pay a high rate to buy dollars (sell rupees) – that is, they will be quoted a rate of 175.44 + 1.3 = 176.74 PTA will therefore receive:
(b) As an importer, PTA will treceive a low rate to sell dollars (buy rupees) – that is a rate of 175.44 – 1.3 = 174.14 will therefore pay Rs.5 million / 174.14 = \$ 28,713

04.Matching receipts and payments

03.Netting
02.Invoicing in home currency
01. Leading and lagging

Internal Techniques

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Leading and lagging

Leading involves accelerating payments to avoid potential additional costs due to currency rate movements

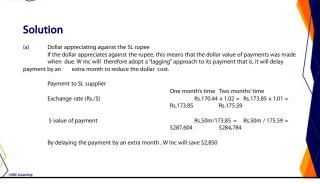
Lagging is the practice of delaying payments if currency rate movements are expected to make the later payment cheaper.

W Inc – a company based in the US – imports goods from Sri Lanka. The company is due to make a payment of Rs.50m to a Sri Lankan supplier in one month's time.

The current exchange rate is as follows.

(a) If the dollar is expected to appreciate against the SL rupee by 2% in the next month and by a further 1% in the second month, what would be W Inc's strategy in terms of leading and logging, and by how much would the company benefit from this strategy?

(b) If the dollar was to depreciate against the SL rupee by 2% in the next month and by a further 1% in the second month, how would W Inc's strategy probably change and what would the resulting benefit be?



(b) Dollar depreciating against the SL rupee

The opposite strategy should now be adopted. As the dollar depreciates, there is an incentive for W Inc to pay as soon as possible. The dollar value of rupee payments will increase as the dollar depreciates; therefore to save money, the company will want to pay on time.

Payment to SL supplier

One month's time

Exchange rate (\$/Rs)

Rs.170.44 x 0.98 = Rs.167.03 x 0.99 = Rs.167.03 x 0.99 = Rs.167.03 = Rs.50m/165.36 = Svalue of payment

Rs.50m/167.03 = Rs.50m/165.36 = \$299,347 \$302,371

By paying on time, W Inc will save \$3,024.

Companies should be aware of the potential **finance costs** associated with paying early and **loss of goodwill** from the supplier which may result in tighter credit terms in the future.

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Invoicing in home currency

One way of avoiding transaction risk is for an **exporter** to invoice **overseas customers in its own domestic currency**, or for an **importer** to arrange with its overseas supplier **to be invoiced in its home currency**

- (a) If a Hong Kong exporter is able to quote and invoice an overseas customer in Hong Kong dollars, then the transaction risk is transferred to that customer.
- (b) If a Hong Kong importer is able to arrange with its overseas supplier to be invoiced in Hong Kong dollars, then the transaction risk is transferred to that supplier.

Although either the exporter or the importer avoids transaction risk, the other party to the transaction will bear the full risk. Who ultimately bears the risk may depend on bargaining strength or the exporter's competitive position (it is unlikely to insist on payment in its own currency if it faces strong competition).

An alternative method of achieving the same result is to negotiate contracts expressed in the foreign currency but at a pre-determined fixed rate of exchange.

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Matching Receipts and Payments

A company can reduce or eliminate its transaction risk exposure by matching receipts and payments. Wherever possible, a company that expects to make payments and have receipts in the same foreign currency should plan to **offset its payments against its receipts in that currency**. The process of matching is made simpler by having **foreign currency accounts** with a bank.

Offsetting (matching payments against receipts) will be **cheaper** than arranging a forward contract to buy currency and another forward contract to sell the currency, provided that:

- Receipts occur before payments
- The time difference between receipts and payments in the currency is not too long

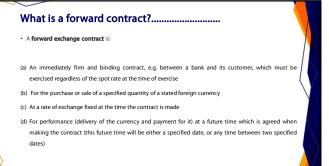
Any differences between the amounts receivable and the amounts payable in a given currency may be covered by a forward exchange contract (covered later in this chapter) to buy or sell the amount of the

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Netting Netting is a process in which credit balances are netted off against debit balances so that only the reduced net amounts remain due to be paid by actual currency flows. Unlike matching, netting is not technically a method of managing transaction risk.

The objective is simply to save transactions costs by netting off inter-company balances before arranging payment. Many **multinational groups** of companies engage in **Intra-group trading**. Where related companies located in different countries trade with each other, there is likely to be inter-company indebtedness denominated in different currencies.



Forward contracts hedge against **transaction exposure** by allowing the importer or exporter to arrange fo a bank to sell or buy a quantity of foreign currency at an **agreed future date**, at a **rate of exchange** determined when the forward contract is made. The trader will know in advance *How much local currency they will receive (if they are selling foreign currency to the bank) *How much local currency they must pay (if they are buying foreign currency from the bank) The current spot price is irrelevant to the outcome of a forward contract. Forward rates as adjustments to spot rates Forward rate cheaner Quoted at discount Forward rate more expensive Quoted at premium

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Quotation of Forward Rates

In Section 2.4 we discussed the spread of spot rates, being the difference between the bid and offer prices. A similar situation applies to the quotation of forward rates – banks will quote a spread based on the forward bid and offer prices. For example, the ϵ /\$ 3-month forward rate might be quoted as:

€1 = \$1.3495 - \$1.3525 or

€1 = \$1.3510 ± 0.0015

As with the spot rate, a company will always be offered the worst rate by the bank.

For example, if the company is selling € (that is, the bank is buying € and paying \$) in three months' time, the bank will offer \$1.3495. If the company is buying € (that is, the bank is buying \$ and paying €) in three months' time, the bank will require \$1.3525 for every € it sells.

Example: Forward Contracts

It is now 31 March 20X1. Washington Inc, a US company, has purchased goods from AB plc, a Sri Lankan importer and exporter. Washington is due to pay Rs. 5m to AB in three months' time, and wants to hedge the foreign currency payment to reduce transaction risk.

The \$/Rs. spot rates on 31 March 20X1 are \$1 = Rs. 170.22 - Rs. 170.72.

The 3-month forward rates have been quoted as \$1 = Rs. 168.32 - Rs. 169.10.

Calculate the amount in \$ that Washington will have to pay if the company hedges the payment using a forward contract.

Washington will want to buy Rs (sell \$) in three months' time, which means that the bank will be selling Rs and buying \$. Washington will be offered the 'worst' rate; that is, the bank will pay Rs. 168.32 for each \$ received from Washington.

The \$ cost of the payment to AB plc will be: Rs. 5m/168.32 = \$29.705

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Failure to Satisfy a Forward Contract

A customer might be unable to satisfy a forward contract for any one of a number of reasons

(a) An importer might find that:

(i) Their supplier falls to deliver the goods as specified, so the importer will not accept the goods delivered and will not agree to pay for them.

(ii) The supplier sends fewer goods than expected, perhaps because of supply shortages, and so the importer has less to pay for.

(iii) The supplier is **late with the delivery**, and so the importer does not have to pay for the goods until later

(b) An **exporter** might find the same types of situation, but in reverse, so that they do not receive any payment at all, or they receive more or less than originally expected, or they receive the expected amount, but only after some delay.

Close-out of Forward Contracts

If a customer cannot satisfy a forward exchange contract, the bank will make the customer fulfil the contract.

(a) If the customer has arranged for the bank to buy currency but then cannot deliver the currency for the bank to buy, the bank will:

(i) Sell currency to the customer at the spot rate (when the contract falls due for performance)

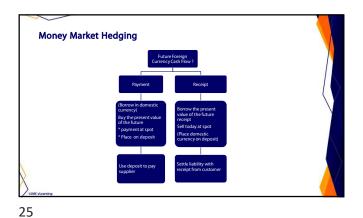
(ii) Buy the currency back, under the terms of the forward exchange contract

(b) If the customer has contracted for the bank to sell them currency, the bank will: (i) Sell the customer the specified amount of currency at the forward exchange rate

(ii) Buy back the unwanted currency at the spot rate

Thus, the bank arranges for the customer to perform their part of the forward exchange contract by either selling or buying the 'missing' currency at the spot rate. These arrangements are known as **closing out** a forward exchange contract.

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Example: Money Market Hedge (1)

A Sri Lankan company owes a Danish supplier Kr3,500,000 in three months' time.

The spot exchange rate is Rs. 1 = Kr0.0044 - 0.0045. The company can borrow in Rs. for three months at 8.60% per annum, and can deposit kroner for three months at 10% per annum.

Required

Calculate the cost in SL rupees with a money market hedge.

Solution

The interest rates for three months are 2.15% to borrow in rupees and 2.5% to deposit in kroner. The company needs to deposit enough kroner now so that the total including interest will be Kr3,500,000 in three months' time. This means depositing:

Kr3,500,000/(1 + 0.025) = Kr3,414,634.

These kroner will cost Rs. 776,053,181 (spot rate 0.0044 – remember the company will always receive the worst rate). The company must borrow this amount and, with three months' interest of 2.15%, will have to repay:

Rs. 776,053,181 x (1 + 0.0215) = Rs. 792,738,324.

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Question Money market hedge (1)

A Thal company owes a New Zealand company NZ\$3,000,000 payable in three months' time. The current exchange rate is NZ\$1 = That baht 19,0300 – 19,0500. The Thal company elects to use a money market hedge to manage he exchange risk.

The current annual borrowing and investing rates in the two countries are :

	New	Thailand
	Zealand	
	96	96
Investing	2.5	4.5
Borrowing	3.0	5.2

Required

 $\label{eq:calculate} \textbf{Calculate the cost to the Thal company of using a money market hedge}.$

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	lmį	Importer		
	Thal Bt	New Zealand Ss		
Now	4 Withdraw funds from Thal accounts \$2,981,366 x 19,0500 = Bt56,795,022	3 put money into NZ account \$3,000,000 / 1.00625 = \$2,981,366		
	5.2 % x 3/12 = 1.3% (ie 1.013)	2.5% x 3/12 = 0.625 (ie 1.00625)		
Three months	5 to compare to a forward Bt56,795,022 x 1.013 = Bt57,533,357	1 pay \$ invoice from supplier 3,000,000 2 pay off with \$ deposit (3,000,000		

Hedging foreign currency receipts

A US company is owed SFr 2,500,000 in three months' time by a Swiss company. The spot exchange rate is \$1 = \$fr 2,2498 = 2.2510.The company can deposit in dollars for three months at 8.00% per annum and can borrow Swiss fmcs for three months at 7% per annum. What is the receipt in dollars with a money market hedge and what effective forward rate would this represent?

Solution

Exporter

Now

4 pay SFr loan U5 account
5fr,2457,002/2,2510 = \$1,091,516
2,500,000/1,0175 = \$fr2,457,002
8% x 3/12 = 2% (i.e.1.02)
7% x 3/12 = 1,75% (ie 1,0175)
Three months

5 to compare to a forward \$
1,091,516 x 1.02 = \$1,113,346

Treceive SFr from export
2,500,000
2 pay off SFr loan with export revenue (2,500,000)

The exporter would receive \$ 1,113,346

Currency futures

A **currency future** is a standardized contract to buy or sell a fixed amount of currency at a fixed rate at a

 $\square \, \textbf{Buying}$ the futures contract means receiving the contract currency

□ Selling the futures contract means supplying the contract currency

Foreign Currency Futures

- A foreign currency futures contract is an alternative to a forward contract
 It calls for future delivery of a standard amount of currency at a fixed time and price
 These contracts are traded on exchanges with the largest being the International Monetary Market located in the Chicago Mercantile Exchange.

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- ☐ Futures are **standardized** contracts that are traded on an organized exchange such as the Chicago Mercantile Exchange or ICE Futures Europe in London. At the time of writing, the Colombo Stock Exchange does not trade futures.
- ☐ The fact that they may not be traded in Sri Lanka does not mean, however, they are not available to Sri Lankan businesses for hedging purposes, as we shall see. Futures fix the exchange rate for a set amount of currency for a specified time period.
- □ When entering into a foreign exchange futures contract, no one is actually buying or selling anything the participants are **agreeing** to buy or sell currencies on pre-agreed terms at a specified future date if the contract is allowed to reach maturity, which it rarely does. Futures are a **derivative** (their value derives from
 □ movements in the spot rate).

Features of currency futures

- □ Futures are generally **more liquid** and have **less credit risk** than forward contracts, as organized exchanges have clearing houses that guarantee that all traders in the futures market will honor their obligations.
- Currency Futures contracts are assumed to mature at the end of March, June, September or December.

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"Ticks"

The price of a currency future moves in 'ticks'. A tick is the smallest movement in the exchange rate and is

Tick value = size of futures contract x tick size

For example, if a futures contract is for £62,500 and the tick size is \$0,0001, the tick value is \$6.25. (Note that the tick size and tick value are always quoted in US dollars.)

What this means is that for every \$0.0001 movement in the price, the company will make a profit or loss of \$6.25. If the exchange rate moves by \$0.004 in the company's favour - which is 40 ticks (0.004/0.0001) - the profit made will be 40 x \$6.25 = \$250 per contract.

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Examples of futures contract specifications – including tick size and tick value –

Currency	Contract Size	Price Quotation	Tick Size	Tick Value Per Contract
British Pound	€62,500	Us\$/€1	\$0.0001	\$6.25
Canadian Dollar	C\$100,000	Us\$/C\$1	\$0.0001	\$10.00
Euro	€125,000	Us\$ / € 1	\$0.0001	\$12.50
Japanese Yen	¥12,500,000	Us\$/¥100	\$0.000001	\$12.50
Swiss Franc	Sfr125,000	US\$/Sfr1	\$0.0001	\$12.50
Australian Dollar	A\$100,000	Us\$/A\$1	\$0.0001	\$12.50

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Basis risk

Basis risk is the risk that the price of a currency future will vary from the price of the underlying asset (the spot rate).

Basis is the difference between the spot rate and the futures price.

Basis risk is the risk that the price of a futures contract will vary from the spot rate as expiry of the contract approaches. It is assumed that the difference between the spot rate and futures price (the 'basis') falls over time but there is a risk that basis will not decrease in this predictable way (which will create an imperfect hedge). There is no basis risk when a contract is held to maturity.

In order to **manage** basis risk, it is important to choose a currency future with the **closest maturity date** to the actual transaction. This reduces the **unexpired basis** when the transaction is closed out.

Hedge efficiency

Hedgers who need to buy or sell the underlying currency or commodity do not use the margin to trade more than they otherwise would. They can use the futures markets quite safely, provided they understand how the system operates.

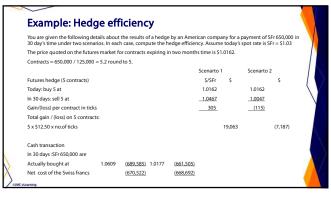
The only risk to hedgers is that the futures market does not always provide a perfect hedge. This can result from two causes.

(a) The first reason is that amounts must be **rounded to a whole number of contracts**, causing inaccuracies.

(b) The second reason is **basis risk** – as discussed above. The actions of speculators may increase basis risk.

A measure of hedge efficiency compares the profit made on the futures market with the loss made on the cash or commodity market, or vice versa.

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Solutions The futures hedge gives slightly more or less than target payment of 5669,500(5Fr 650,000 x 1.03) because of hedge inefficiency. To compute the hedge efficiency in each case, compute gain / loss a presentage. In scenarto 2 the gain cornes from the cash market. Hedge efficiency Target payment (650,000 x 1.03) Actual cash payment 669.500 669,500 661,505 689,585 Gain/(loss) on spot market Futures gain /(loss) (20.085) 7.995 (7,187) 19,063 Hedge efficiency 94.9% 111.2% The hedge efficiency can be further analyzed as follows. In scenario 1, the futures market gave a gain of 305 ticks on 5 contracts. The spot market price lost 309 ticks on the equivalent of 5.2 contracts. Hedge efficiency = $\frac{305 \times 5}{309 \times 5.2}$ = 94.9 %

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In scenario 2 , the spot market gained 123 ticks on 5.2 contracts. The futures price lost 115 ticks on 5 contracts.

Hedge efficiency = $\frac{123 \times 5.2}{115 \times 5}$ = 111.2 %

An alternative measure of the hedge efficiency on the futures market might be its success measured against the results of using a forward contract.

Margins and Marking To Market

There are two types of margin – **initial margin** and **variation margin**.

An **initial margin** is similar to a deposit. When a currency future is set up, the trader would be required to deposit some cash (the initial margin) with the futures exchange in a **margin account**—this acts as security against the trader defaulting on their trading obligations. This money will remain in the margin account as long as the currency future remains 'open'.

We mentioned above the process of calculating the profit or loss on a contract when there is movement in the exchange rate. This profit or loss is received into or paid from the margin account on a daily basis rather than in one large amount when the contract matures. This procedure is known as **marking to market**.

The futures exchange monitors the margin account on a daily basis. If the trader is making significant losses, the futures exchange may require additional margin payments known as **variation margins**. This practice creates uncertainty, as the trader will not know in advance the extent (if any) of such margin payments.

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Which Type of Contract?

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As mentioned above, one of the limitations of currency futures is that currencies can only be bought or sold on exchanges for US dollars. The basic rules for choosing the type of contract are given below.

- $\hfill \square$ Making a payment in a foreign currency (not US\$)
- ☐ Receiving foreign currency on a future date
- $\hfill \square$ Non-American wishing to pay in US\$ on a future date
- $\hfill \square$ Non-American receiving US\$ on a future date

Making a Payment in a Foreign Currency (not US\$)

If you are going to make a payment in a foreign currency (not US\$) on a future date, you will have to buy that currency. To hedge, take the following action.

Step 1 Buy the appropriate foreign currency futures contracts now (just as you would with a forward contract)
Self the same number of foreign currency futures contracts on the date that you the actual currency (dosing out)

Now Later

Futures

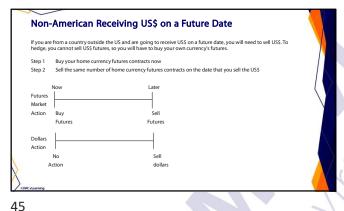
Market
Action
Buy
Sell
Futures

Foreign
Currency
Action
No Buy the
Action currency



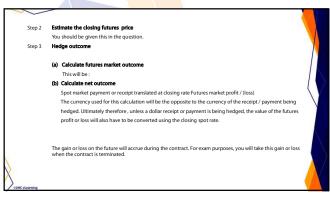
Non-American Wishing to Pay in US\$ on a Future Date If you are from a country outside the US and are going to make a future payment in USS, you will need to buy USS. To hedge, you cannot buy USS futures, so you will have to sell your own currency's futures. Sell your home currency futures contracts now Buy the same number of home currency futures contracts on the date that you buy the US\$ Futures Action Futures

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Dealing With a Futures Question A number of possible stages are involved. Step 1 The setup process This may involve the following steps. (a) Choose which contract You must choose an expiry date after the under (b) Choose type of contract
A company owing € will wish to buy this currency. So will buy € which is the same as buying £ futures. (c) Choose number of contracts To find the number of contracts required, we divide the amount being hedged by the size if the contract. We may also have to calculate how much of the currency of the future is required. To find this, we use today's price for the futures contract and then divide by the size of the futures contracts.

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Example: Hedging A US company buys goods worth €720,000 from a German company, payable in 30 days. The US company wants to hedge against the $\ensuremath{\mathsf{\epsilon}}$ strengthening against the dollar. Current spot is €1 = \$0.9215 - 0.9221 and the futures rate is 0.9245. The standard size of a three-month € futures contract is €125.000. In 30 days' time, the spot is 0.9345 - 0.9351. Closing futures price will be 0.9367. Required Evaluate the hedge.



The exact date of receipt or payment of the currency does not have to be known, because the futures contract does not have to be closed out until the actual cash receipt or payment is made.

□ Because future contracts are traded on exchange regulated markets, counterparty risk should be reduced, and buying and selling contracts should be easy.

Only a limited number of currencies are the subject of futures contracts (although the number of currencies is growing, especially with the rapid development of Asian economies).

☐ The **procedure for converting** between two currencies neither of which is the US dollar is twice as complex for futures as for a forward contract.

In general, the disadvantages of futures mean that the market is much smaller than the currency forward market.

☐ **Hedge Inefficiencies** are **caused** by having to deal in a whole number of contracts and by **basis risk**

Advantages of Currency Futures

☐ The contracts cannot be tailored to the user's exact requirements.

☐ Using the market will involve various **costs**, including brokers' fees.

☐ **Transaction** costs should be **lower** than for forward contracts.

Disadvantages of currency futures

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ou should remember the following table to help you with exam question on futures. Currency futures Sell Buy Currency futures currency currency Buy Sell Receive Buy Currency futures Sell Currency futures ŝ Sell Pav Currency futures Buv Currency futures

Choosing between forward contracts and futures contracts

Although a foreign exchange **futures** contract is conceptually similar to a **forward** foreign exchange contract, there are important differences between the two instruments.

A futures market hedge attempts to achieve the same result as a forward contract, that is to fix the exchange rate in advance for a future foreign currency payment or receipt. As we have seen, hedge inefficiencies mean that a futures contract can only fix the exchange rate subject to a margin of error.

Forward contracts are agreed 'over the counter' between a bank and its customer. Futures contracts are standardised and traded on futures exchanges.

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Question

Futures

AB plc, a company based in the UK, imports and exports to the US. On 1 May it sings three agreements, all of which are to be settled on 31 October:

(a) A sale to a US customer of goods for \$205,500
(b) A sale to a US customer of £50,000
(c) A purchase from a US supplier for \$875,000

On 1 June the spot rate is €1 = 1,5320 \$ and the October forward rate is at a premium of 4.00 − 3.95 cents per pound. Sterling futures contracts are trading at the following price:

Sterling futures (IMM) Contract size € 62,500

Contract settlement date

Contract price \$ per €1

Jun

1,5370

Sep

1,5180

Dec

1,4970

Tick size is 5.6.25

Required

(a) Calculate the net amount receivable or payable in pounds if the transactions are covered on the forward market.

(b) Demonstrate how a futures hedge could be set up, and calculate the result of the futures hedge (if, by 31 October, the spot market price for dollars has moved to 1,5800 − 1,5820 and the sterling futures price has moved to 1,5650.

Answer

(a) Before covering any transactions with forward or futures contracts, match receipts against payments. The sterling receipt does not need to be hedged. The dollar receipt can be matched against the payment giving a net payment of \$669,500 on 31 October.

The appropriate spot rate for buying dollars on 1 May (bank sell low) is 1,5500. The forward rate for October is spot − premium = 1.5500 −0.0400 = 1.5100.

Using a forward contract, the sterling cost of the dollar payment will be 669,500 / 1.5100 = € 443,377. The net cash received on October 31 will therefore be € 443,377 = £, 106,623.

(b) Step 1 Setup

(a) Which contract?

December contracts

(b) Type of contract

Sell sterling futures in May : we sell the sterling to buy the \$ we need.

(c) Number of contracts Here we need to convert the dollar payment to £, as contracts are in £. Using December futures price 669,500 1,4970 = £ 447,228 No of contracts = $\frac{£ 447,228}{62,500}$ = 7.16 contracts (round to 7) Step 2 Closing futures price 1.5650 (given in question) result of futures market (a) Futures market outcome 1,4970 Opening futures price Closing futures price 1.5650 Buv Movement 0.0680 Futures market loss = 0.0680 x 62,500 x 7 = \$ 29,750

(669,500) Spot market payment Futures market loss (29,750) (699,250) Translated at closing spot rate 1.5800 The bank sells low hence we use the £.442,563 rate of 1.5800

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Currency Options

Currency options protect against adverse exchange rate movements while allowing the investor to take advantage of favorable exchange rate movements.

They are particularly useful in situations where the cash flow is not certain to occur (e.g. when tendering for overseas

Types of option – over-the-counter and exchange-traded

Companies can choose whether to buy either of the following.

(a) A tailor-made currency option from a bank, suited to the company's specific needs. These are over-the-counter

(b) A standard option, in certain currencies only, from an options exchange. Such options are **traded** or **exchange**

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- A currency option is an agreement involving a right, but not an obligation, to buy or sell a certain amount of currency
 at a stated rate of exchange (the exercise price) at some time in the future.
- ☐ A forward exchange contract is an agreement to buy or sell a given quantity of foreign exchange, which **must be carried out** because it is a binding contract. However, some exporters might be uncertain about the amount of currency they will earn in several month's time.
- ☐ An alternative method of obtaining foreign exchange cover, which overcomes much of this problem, is the **currency** option. A currency option does not have to be exercised instead, when the date for exercising the option arrives, the importer or exporter can either exercise the option or let the option lapse.

As with other types of option, buying a currency option involves **paying a premium**, which is the most the buyer of the option can lose. The level of option premiums depends on the following factors:

- ☐ The exercise price
- ☐ The exercise price
 ☐ The maturity of the option
 ☐ The volatility of exchange and interest rates
 ☐ Interest rate differentials, affecting how much banks charge

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Basic Terminology

As this will help you to interpret questions and make decisions regarding different types of options.

Call option – the right to buy (the contract currency)
Put option – the right to sell (the contract currency)

In the money – where the option strike price is more favorable than the current spot rate.

At the money – where the option strike price is equal to the current spot rate.

Out of the money – where the option strike price is less favorable than the current spot rate.

For example, if a German company holds a call option to purchase Rs. with a strike price of €0.005 and the current spot rate is €0.004, the option is out of the money, as the current spot rate is more favorable than the option strike price.

A Leuropean option can only be exercised at the date of expiry.

An American option can be exercised at the date of expiry.

A call option gives the buyer of the option the right to buy the underlying currency at a fixed rate of exchange (and the seller of the option would be required to sell the underlying currency at that rate). A put option of yets the buyer of the option the right to sell the underlying currency at a fixed rate of exchange (and the seller of the option would be required to buy the underlying currency at that rate). Exercise price – the price at which the future transaction will take place.

The exercise price is also known as the strike price. It is the price with which the prevailing spot rate should be compared in order to determine whether the option should be exercised or not.

Example: Options

Lis now 1 March. R Inc, a US firm, anticipates that it may receive ϵ 6m from the sale of a European investment in June. It wishes to hedge this potential receipt using options. The current spot rate is $51=\epsilon0.7106$. June options with a value of ϵ 6m and an exercise price of ϵ 0.7200 can be purchased for a premium of ϵ 150,000.

Over-the-counter (OTC) options can be purchased directly and are normally **fixed date** (European) options.

Calculate the outcome of the hedge in each of the following scenarios.

(a) The spot exchange rate in June is €0.6500

(b) The spot exchange rate in June is €0.7500 (c) The sale of the investment does not take place

Over-the-counter (OTC) Options

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Solutions

(a) The spot rate is better than the option rate, therefore the spot rate is used.

This will give a value of \$9,230,769 or \$9,080,769 after the premium (which is paid up front).

(b) The option rate is better than the spot rate, therefore the option will be exercised. This will give a value of \$8,333,333 (or \$8,183,333 after the premium).

(c) If the sale of the investment is abandoned, then the option is no longer necessary. It will be abandoned (as in (a) above). There is no point in exercising the option, as it would cost \$8,443,568 to purchase the euros

R Inc would only receive \$8,333,333 at the option price (before taking the premium into account). The cost to the company of abandoning the option will be the premium of \$150,000.

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Exchange-traded Options

A company wishing to purchase an option to buy or sell sterling mighty use currency options traded on such US markets as the Nasdaq PHLX Exchange. The schedule of prices for ℓ / ξ options is set out in tables such as

Philadelphia SE € / \$ options €31,250 (cents per pound)

		Calls			Puts		
	Strike price	Aug	Sep	Oct	Aug	Sep	Oct
	1.5750	2.58	3.13	-	-	0.67	-
	1.5800	2.14	2.77	3.24	-	0.81	1.32
	1.5900	1.23	2.17	2.64	0.05	1.06	1.71
	1.6000	0.50	1.61	1.71	0.93	2.05	2.69
	1.6100	0.15	1.16	1.71	1.79	2.65	3.30

Note the following points

(a) What is the contract size? The contract size is € (remember that the market is in the US) – for example, September call at a strike

price of \$1.6100 will cost \$0.0116 x \in 31,250 = \$362.50.

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(c) What is a put US\$ per € option ?

The is the option to sell \in (e.g. UK importer having to sell \in to obtain \circ to pay a US supplier so used if need to buy \circ)

(d) Why is an August call at \$1,5800 more expensive than an August call at \$1,5900 ?

\$1.5800 is a better rate than \$ 1.5900, therefore to secure such a rate will be more expensive

(e) Why is a call option exercisable in September more expensive than a call option exercisable in August but

This is because there is a longer period until the exercise date and it is therefore more likely to move between the two

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Both types of options have advantages over the other – the choice of option will depend on particular

Traded options are standard sizes and are thus 'tradable', which means they can be sold on to other parties if not required. OTC options are designed for a specific purpose and are therefore unlikely to be suitable for

Traded options are more flexible, in that they cover a period of time (American options), whereas OTC options are fixed date (European options).

Advantages of OTC options

OTC options can be agreed for a longer period than the standard two-year maximum offered by traded options. This gives greater flexibility and protection from currency movements in the longer term, should the transaction require it.

OTC options are tailored specifically for a particular transaction, ensuring maximum protection from currency movements. As traded options are of a standard size, the full amount of the transaction may not be hedged, as fractions of options are not available.

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osing the correct type of option

The vast majority of options examples which we consider are concerned with hedgers who purchase options in order to reduce risk. We are seldom concerned with option writers who sell options

So, given that we are normally going to **purchase** options, should we **purchase puts or calls**?

- \square A **US company receiving £** in the future and hence wishing to **sell £** in the future can hedge by purchasing £ put options (i.e. options to sell £).
- \square A **US company paying £** in the future and hence wishing to **buy £** in the future can hedge by purchasing £ call options (ie options to buy £).
- $\ \square$ A **UK company receiving \$** in the future and hence wishing to **sell \$** in the future cannot hedge by purchasing \$ put options as they do not exist. They therefore have to purchase £ call options
- ☐ A **UK company paying \$** in the future and hence wishing to **buy \$** in the future cannot hedge by purchasing \$ call options as they do not exist. They therefore have to purchase ₤ put options.

Option calculation technique

assess the impact of options.

Step 1 Set up the hedge

(a) Choose the contract date
(b) Decide whether put or call option is required
(c) Decide which exercise or strike price applies
(d) How many contracts are required
(e) Calculate premium (Price in table x 0.01) x Size of contract x Number of contracts

Step 2 Ascertain closing price

You should be given this in the question

Step 3 Calculate outcome of hedge

You may have to calculate the outcome under more than one closing spot rate.

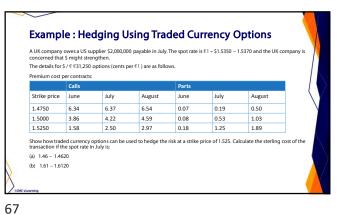
(a) Outcome in options market. This will include:

(i) Exercising the option (ii) Cash flows on exercise

(iii) Converting amount uncovered/over covered at spot rate

(b) Net outcome

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Solutions

Step 1 Set up the hedge

(a) Which date contract? July
(b) Put or call? Put, we need to put (sell) pounds in order to generate the dollars we need.
(c) Which strike price? 1.5250
(d) How many contracts

2.000,000-1.525 = 41.97 say 42 contracts

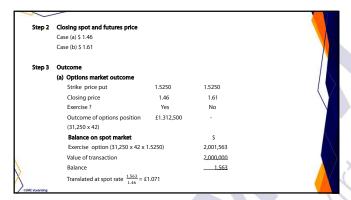
(e) Use July put figure for 1.520 of 1.25. Remember it has to be multiplied by 0.01.

Premium = (1.25 x 0.01) x Contract size x Number of contracts

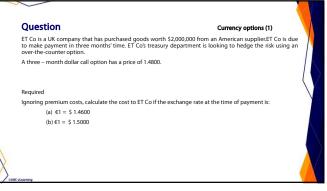
Premium = \$16,406 \times 1.5350 (to obtain premium in \(\frac{1}{2} \), \(\frac{1}{2} \) = \(\frac{1}{2} \), 688

We need to pay the option premium in \$ now. Therefore the bank sells low at 1.5350

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69 70



Answer

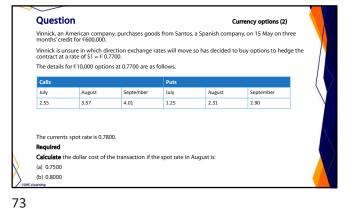
As the option is an over – the counter option, it is possible to have a dollar call option and to cover the exact amount.

(a) If the exchange rate is 1,4600, the option will be exercised and the cost will be:

\[\frac{2,000,000}{1,4000} = \frac{1},351,351 \]

(b) If the exchange rate is 1,5000, the option will not be exercised, and the cost will be:

\[\frac{2,000,000}{1,5000} = \frac{1},333,333 \]



Outcome
(a) Options market outcome
Strike price call 0.77 0.77 0.75 Closing price 0.80 Exercise ?
Outcome of options positions No €600,000 (b) Net outcome \$ Spot market outcome translated at Closing spot rate (600,000/0.80) (750,000) Options position (600,000/0.77) (779.221) (21,420) (800,641) (21,420) (771,420)

The following table will be helpful to remember when answering exam questions on currency options.

Transaction on future date		Now		Option on future date	
Receive	Currency	Buy	Currency put	Sell	Currency
Pay	Currency	Buy	Currency call	Buy	Currency
Receive	\$	Buy	Currency call	Buy	Currency
Pay	\$	Buy	Currency put	Sell	Currency

Note that this table only applies to traded options. It would be possible to purchase a dollar put or call option the counter.

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Currency Options vs Forward and Futures Contracts

A hedge using a currency **future** will produce approximately the same result as a currency **forward** (subject to hedge inefficiencies). When comparing currency options with forward and futures contracts, we usually find the following.

- (a) If the currency movement is adverse, the option will be exercised. However, the hedge will not normally be as good as that of forward or futures contracts – this is due to the premium cost of the option.
- (b) If the currency movement is favorable, the option will not be exercised. The hedge will normally be better than that of forward or futures contracts, as the option allows the holder to profit from the improved exchange rate.

Consider a US company X with a subsidiary Y in France which owns vineyards. Assume a spot rate of \$1 = 60.7062. Suppose the parent company X wishes to raise a loan of 61.6 million for the purpose of buying another French wine company. At the same time, the French subsidiary Y wishes to raise \$1 million to pay

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Currency swaps Currency swaps effectively involve the exchange of debt from one currency to another. Currency swaps can provide a hedge against exchange rate movements for longer periods than the forward market and can be a means of obtaining finance from new countries. Swap procedures A swap is an arrangement whereby two organizations contractually agree to exchange payments on different terms, for example in different currencies, or one at a fixed rate and the other at a floating rate. In a currency swap, the parties agree to swap equivalent amounts of currency for a period. This effectively involves the exchange of debt from one currency to another. Liability on the main debt (the principal) is not transferred and the parties are liable to counterparty risk if the other party defaults on the agreement to pay interest, the original borrower remains liable to the lender.

- $\ \square$ In practice, most currency swaps are conducted between banks and their customers.
- $\ \square$ An agreement may only be necessary if the swap were for longer than, say, one year.

for new up-to-date capital equipment imported from the US. The US parent company X could borrow the \$1 million and the French subsidiary Y could borrow the \$1 million, each effectively borrowing on the other's behalf. They would then swap currencies.

US
Bank

1 Us Co borrows
\$1 m in US

1 French Co borrows
\$1 m in US

2 The companies swap £1.6m and \$1 m and each invests in the other country

Example: Swapping Currencies

Benefits of Swaps

(a) **rexxibility**Swaps are **easy to arrange** and are **flexible**, since they can be arranged in any size and are reversible.
(b) **Cost**

Transaction costs are low, only amounting to legal fees, since there is no commission or premium to be paid

(c) Market avoldance

The parties can **obtain the currency they require** without subjecting them exchange markets. (d) Access to finance

The company can gain **access to debt finance in another country**, and currency where it is little known, and consequently has a poorer credit rating, than in its home country. It can therefore take advantage of lower interest rates than it could obtain if it arranged the currency loan itself.

than it could obtain it it arranged the currency loan itself.

(e) Flanacial restricturting

Currency swaps may be used to restructure the currency base of the company's liabilities. This may be important where the company is fuding overseas and receiving revenues in foreign currencies, but its borrowings. are denominated in the currency of its home country. Currency swaps therefore provide a means of reducing exchange rate exposure.

(f) Conversion of debt type

At the same time as exchanging currency, the company may also be able to **convert fixed rate debt** to **floating rate or vice versa**. Thus it may obtain some of the benefits of an interest rate swap in addition to achieving the other purposes of a currency swap.

(a) Liquidity improvement

A currency swap could be used to **absorb excess liquidity** in one currency which is not needed immediately, to create funds in another where there is a need.

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Example: Currency Swap

Step 1 ET Co, a Sri Lankan company, wishes to invest in Germany. It borrows Rs. 20 million from its bank and pays interest at 5%. To invest in Germany, the Rs. 200 million will be converted into euros at a spot rate of Rs. 1 = €0.005. The earnings from the German investment will be in euros, but ET Co will have to pay interest on the swap. The company arranges to swap the Rs. 200 million for €1m million with ZRS Co, a company in the Eurozone. ZRS Co is thus the counterparty in this transaction. Interest of 6% is payable on the €1 million. ET Co can use the €1 million it receives to invest in Germany.

Step 2 Each year when interest is due:

(a) ET Co receives from its German investment cash remittances of €60,000 (€1 million 6%).

(b) FT Co passes this 660 000 to 7RS Co so that 7RS Co can settle its interest liability

(c) ZRS Co passes to ET Co Rs. 10 million (Rs. 200 million 5%).

(d) ET Co settles its interest liability of Rs. 10 million with its lender

Step 3 At the end of the useful life of the investment, the original payments are reversed with ET Co paying back the €1 $million\ it\ originally\ received\ and\ receiving\ back\ from\ ZRS\ Co\ the\ Rs.\ 200\ million.\ ET\ Co\ uses\ this\ Rs.\ 200\ million\ to\ repay\ the$ loan it originally received from its UK lender.

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Disadvantages of Swaps

(a) Risk of default by the other party to the swap (counterparty risk)

If one party became **unable to meet its swap payment obligations**, this could mean that the other party risked having to make them itself.

(b) Position or market risk

A company whose main business lies outside the field of finance should **not increase financial risk** in order to make speculative gains.

There may be a risk of **political disturbances or exchange controls** in the country whose currency is being used for a swap.

Swaps have arrangement fees payable to third parties. Although these may appear to be cheap, this is because the intermediary accepts **no liability** for the swap. (The third party does however suffer some spread risk, as they warehouse one side of the swap until it is matched with the other, and then undertake a temporary hedge on the futures market.)

Jalle all'illo