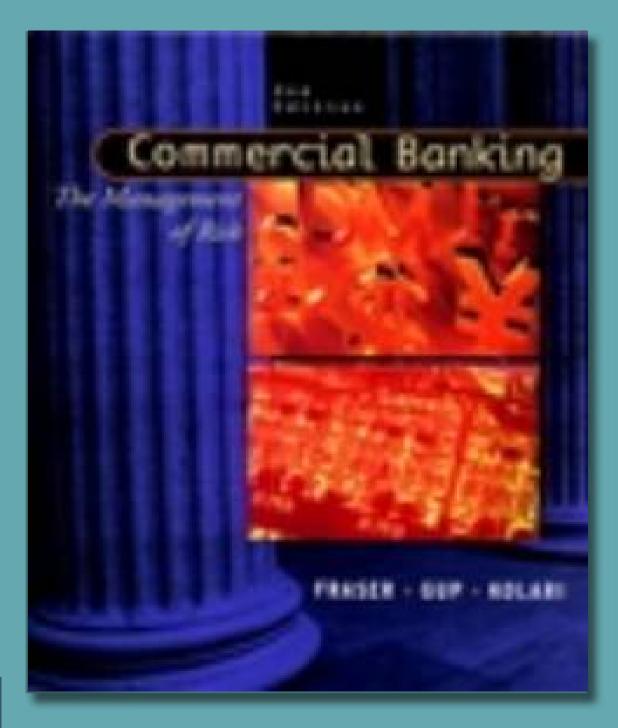
Essex EC248-2-SP Lecture 8

Financial Innovations: Off-Balance Sheet Activities of Banks

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Plan of Talk

• Introduction

- 1. Financial Innovation: Rationale and Types
- 2. Off-Balance Sheet Activities
- 3. Financial Guarantees
- 4. Hedging
- 5. Financial Derivatives
- 6. Securitisation
- 7. Other Off-Balance Sheet Activities
- Wrap-up

Aims and Learning Outcomes

• Aim

 Discuss the various off-balance-sheet activities of banks as a recent and expanding form of financial innovation

• Learning outcomes

- Justify and analyse the process of financial innovation
- Distinguish the main types of financial guarantees
- Understand the role of hedging
- Compare the principal financial derivatives
- Describe the process of securitisation

Financial Innovation: Rationale and Types

- Occurs from the search for (increasing) **profits** as business objective of financial firms
- Especially when stimulated by **changes** in the financial environment, which may arise
 - in *demand* conditions
 - in *supply* conditions, and/or
 - from avoidance of (new) regulation
- Accordingly, one way to classify financial innovation is in three types
 - (a.i) response to *changes in demand conditions*: e.g., adjustable-rate mortgages, financial derivatives
 - (a.ii) response to *changes in supply conditions*: e.g., bank credit and debit cards, electronic banking, junk bonds, commercial paper, securitisation
 - (a.iii) response to *changes in financial* (or tax and other related) *regulations*: e.g., money market mutual funds, sweep accounts
- An *alternative* classification is in two types, according to a rather *functional* criterion
 - (b.i) electronic banking
 - *retail* services: e.g., online banking, various smart cards, ATMs
 - *large-value* transfer systems: e.g., CHIPS, SWIFT
 - (b.ii) off-balance sheet activities
 - financial *guarantees*: e.g., standby letters of credit, bank loan commitments
 - financial *derivatives*: e.g., swaps, options, futures, forward contracts
 - (other) financial *services*: e.g., cash management, investment products, private banking, trust operations

Off-Balance Sheet Activities of Banks

- *Increased* market risk => increased volatility of *profits* due to
 - Sharp fluctuations in interest rates in industrialised countries in the 1980s
 - Low and stable interest rates, but turmoil in emerging markets in the 1990s
 - Hence, much more risk when doing business in global financial markets
- Banks may *reduce* market (interest rate) risk by
 - Dollar gap management and/or duration gap management on B/S
 - Insuring, hedging or transferring it, often by off-B/S activities
- **Off-balance sheet activities**: *financial innovations* that involve *commitments* related to *contingencies* and generate *fees* (from financial *services*) claims do *not* appear on B/S until *exercised* (if at all)
 - 2 broad categories
 - financial guarantees

commitments based on a **contingent claim**: an obligation by a bank to provide funds (lend funds or buy securities) **if** a *contingency* is realised

• derivative instruments

commitments "deriving" from an **underlying financial contract**

- Transforming deposit/lending institutions into *risk management* institutions
- Tremendous growth of off-balance sheet activities of large banks

Financial Guarantees: SLCs

• Financial guarantee

the bank *stands behind* an obligation of an *account* partner to a third party

• Standby letters of credit (SLCs)

- Obligate the bank for an upfront and annual *fees* to pay the beneficiary if the account party *defaults* on a financial obligation or performance contract
- Comparable to an over-the-counter *put* option written by the bank (i.e., the firm can "put" the credit obligation back to the bank)
 - *financial* SLCs: *backup* lines of credit on bonds, notes, and commercial paper which serve as guarantee, e.g. issued by a city and repaid from project users
 - *performance* SLCs: guarantee completion of construction contracts before a given *date*; similar to surety bonds issued by insurance companies to insure against loss/damage
- Considered as contingent *loans*, may be collateralised or backed by deposits
- Contingent *risks* liquidity risk (also called funding risk or quantity risk), capital risk, interest rate risk, and legal risk are inherent in SLCs
- Material adverse change (MAC) clause that enables the bank to withdraw its commitment if the risk of the SLC changes substantially

Financial Guarantees: Loan Commitments

- **Promise** by a *bank* to a *customer* to make a future loan(s) under certain *conditions*
- Most *commercial* and *industrial* loans are made under some form of loan commitment (informal or formal)
 - *Line of credit: informal* commitment to lend funds to a client firm => *no* fee
 - *Revolving loan commitment: formal* agreement to lend funds on demand to a client firm under the terms of the contract, MAC clauses may be used
 - customer pays the bank a commitment (or facility) *fee*
 - protect firms /borrowers/ from *availability* (of credit) risk and from *markup* (or *premium*) risk, by *fixing* it, but the bank /lender/ is exposed to interest rate risk
 - *funding* (or *quantity*, or *liquidity*) *risk* is the *major* risk
 - many borrowers taking down commitments at the same time
 - most likely to occur during periods of *tight credit*
- Some commitments are **irrevocable**, i.e., *unconditional* and binding

Financial Guarantees: NIFs

- NIFs = Note Issuance Facilities
- *medium-term* (2-7 years) *agreements* in which a bank **guarantees** the *sale* of a borrower's *short-term debt securities* (e.g. negotiable promissory notes) at or below *pre-determined* interest rates
- **synonyms** to NIFs
 - revolving underwriting facilities (RUFs)
 - standby note issuance facilities (SNIFs)
- if a borrower cannot readily obtain short-term funds, the bank will **buy** the securities
 - *bank* borrowers usually seek issue of CDs, called a *Roly-Poly CD facility*
 - *nonbank* borrowers seek issue of *Euronotes* (denominated in US dollars at par > \$500'000 but sold outside of the US), called *Euronote* facilities or also *note purchase* facilities, *multiple component* facilities, *transferable* RUFs (TRUFs)
- contingent **risks** to banks here as *underwriters* (i.e., *arrangers* if a single bank or *tender panel* if a group of banks) are credit risk and funding risk

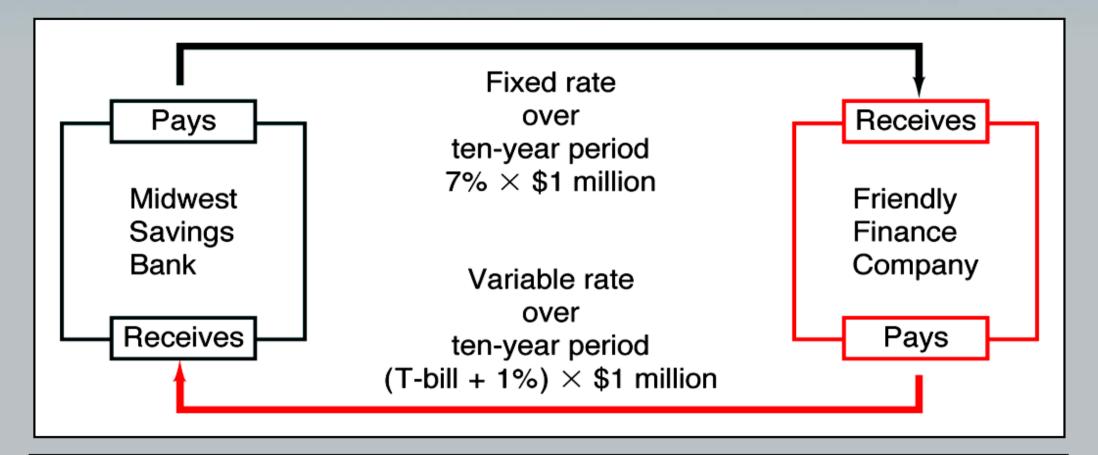
Financial Derivatives: Overview

- **Financial derivatives** = financial instruments
 - "derived" from an *underlying* (existing) financial instrument/contract
 - major types: swaps, forward contracts, futures, options, securitised assets
- Most derivatives *activities* are reported on the balance sheet
 - those with *positive* values are counted as assets
 - and those with *negative* values as liabilities
- But **some** derivatives *activities* are **off**-balance sheet
- *2 types* of **derivatives markets**
 - 1. organised exchanges: CBOT, CME, CBOE, TIFFE, Eurex, Euronext
 - 2. privately traded over-the-counter (OTC) market 24 hours a day
- *Regulators* (including the Commodity Futures Commission, SEC, Federal Reserve, OCC, and FDIC) are very concerned with **derivative exposures** of banks (e.g., liquidity, fraud, human risks)

Financial Derivatives: Swaps

- First **developed** in Europe in 1981, appeared in US in 1982
- **Agreement** usually, b/n 2 counterparties to *exchange* (swap)
 - cash flows (i.e. set of payments, not assets) based upon specified
 - notional principal (amount of money), maturity (period), and interest rates
- **Types** of swaps
 - 1. Interest-rate swaps: exchange of interest payments
 - 1. Coupon swaps: fixed- for floating-rate coupon payments
 - "plain vanilla" interest-rate swap: the most common ("classic", "generic") type
 - No actual transfer of principal, *only* interest payments on debt contracts
 - Useful in managing interest rate *gap* problems in banks and nonbank firms
 - 2. Basis swaps: two different floating rates of interest
 - *3. Cross*-currency swaps: 3 counterparties, whereby *interest* payments b/n A and B are *fixed* and b/n A and C are *floating* but in different *currencies*
 - "plain deal" currency swap: 2 counterparties, *equal* interest payments but different currencies
 - 2. *Currency* swaps: exchange of payments in two different *currencies*
- Heavily **used** in the *OTC* market, with large banks dominating it

"Plain Vanilla" Interest-Rate Swap



- **1.** Notional principal of \$1 million
- 2. Term of 10 years
- **3.** Midwest SB swaps 7% payment for T-bill + 1% from Friendly Finance Co.

Financial Derivatives: Hedges/Forwards

- **to hedge** = to engage in a financial transaction that *reduces or eliminates* risk
- basic hedging principle

Hedging (risk) involves engaging in a financial transaction that **offsets** a *long* position by taking an additional *short* position, *or* **offsets** a *short* position by taking an additional *long* position

long **position** = agree *to buy* securities at future date at a *predetermined* price Hedges by locking in future interest rate (hence, price) *if* funds coming in future *short* **position** = agree *to sell* securities at future date at a *predetermined* price Hedges by reducing price risk from change in interest rates *if* holding bonds

• interest-rate forward contract, as a "classic" hedge

- future sale/purchase of a debt instrument: e.g., the 8s of 2023 TBonds
- pricing and delivery occur at two points in time
- pros
 - 1. Risk-reducing (risk-eliminating)
 - 2. Flexible: parties free to agree on a suitable (nonstandardised) contract
- cons
 - 1. Lack of liquidity: hard to find counterparty
 - 2. Subject to default risk: requires information to screen good from bad risk

Financial Derivatives: Futures

- **Developed** in 1975 at CBOT, to *overcome* deficiencies of forwards
- Futures **contracts** are, in essence, very *similar* to forward contracts
- But they *differ* in the following **features**
 - *Standardised* in terms of quantities (\$ 100'000) and delivery dates (end-quarter)
 - Traded on *organised* exchanges like CBOT
 - Exchange *clearinghouse* as a counterparty to each contract: lowers default risk
 - *Margin* = a small commitment of funds (\$2000 per contract): smooth performance
 - *Marking-to-market* at the end of each day: accounts for a *closing* price at the end of the trading day (*settlement* price) different from the contracted price earlier during the day: e.g. from 115 to 114 => buyer loses 1 point = \$1000, adds to margin, if below the maintenance margin requirement (lower than the initial one)

• Success of futures over forwards

- 1. Futures *more liquid*: standardised, can be traded again, delivery of a range of TBonds with maturities longer than 15 years (not just a specific TB) permitted
- 2. Delivery of a *range* of securities also prevents anyone "cornering" the market
- 3. Mark to market and margin requirements: avoids default risk
- 4. Don't have to deliver physically: *netting* (long and short position of same trader)

Financial Derivatives: Standard Options

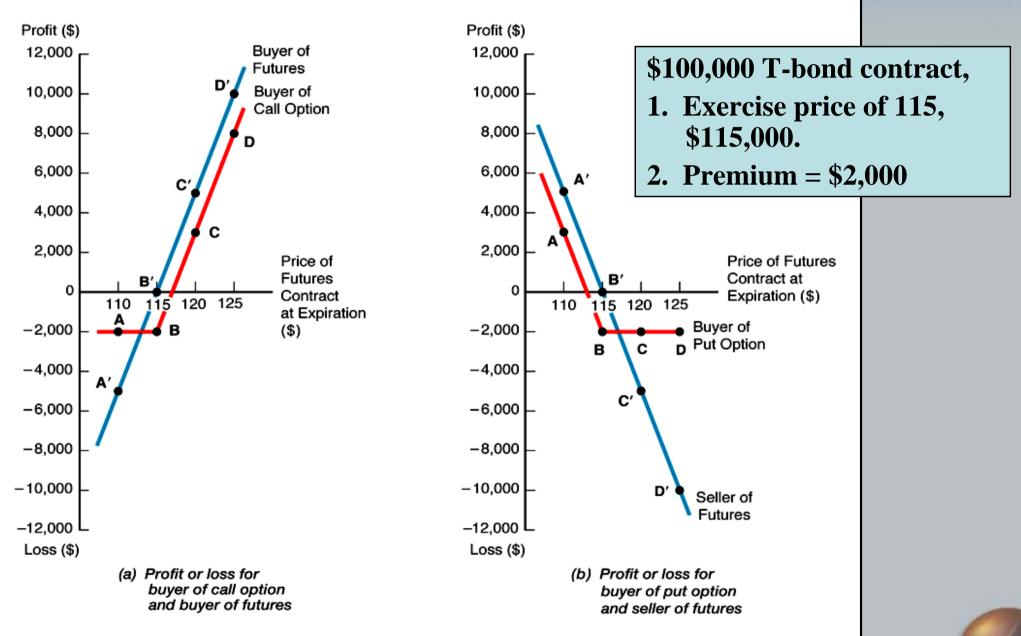
- **Right but not obligation** to buy or sell at a *specified* exercise ("strike") price *on* (*European* option) or *before* (*American* option) a *specified* expiration date
 - *Call* option = right to *buy*: option buyer (owner) pays "premium" to option seller (writer) for this right
 - *Put* option = right to *sell*: buyer pays "premium" to seller for this right
 - Seller of option **must** buy or sell as arranged in the option, so the seller gets a premium for this risk
 - The premium is the *price* of the option
 - The *Black-Scholes* option pricing model can be used to figure out the premium (or price) of an option
 - Long position: buyer, who gains if the price of the option increases
 - *Short* position: seller, who earns the premium if the option is not exercised (because it is not valuable to the buyer of the option)
- Hedging with (futures) options

Buy same number of put option contracts as would sell of futures

Disadvantage: pay premium

Advantage: protected if $i \uparrow$, gain if $i \downarrow$

Profits and Losses: Options vs Futures



Financial Derivatives: OTC Options

- Nonstandardised contracts, unlike exchange-traded options
- *No clearinghouse* to act as a safety net
- Types

Floor-ceiling agreements

- *Ceiling agreements (caps)*: Sets the *max* interest rate on a loan to protect the *customer* from interest rate risk. The bank pays the firm the interest above this ceiling. As such, the bank is the writer of a call option in interest rates (or, alternatively stated, a put option in prices).
- *Floor agreements*: Sets a *min* lending interest rate on a loan to protect the *bank*. The bank is a buyer of a put option in interest rates in this case (or, alternatively stated, a call option in prices).

Interest rate collar: Combines a cap and floor agreement to set *max and min* interest rate limits on a loan.

- Credit risk derivatives

- *Credit option*: for example, an investor buys an option that pays the loss in bond value due to an agency rating downgrade on a bond
- *Total return swap*: for example, bank A swaps payments on a risky loan portfolio for a cash flow stream tied to LIBOR plus some compensation for the credit risk premium that it has given up (i.e., credit risk transfer)

Financial Derivatives: FRAs and Synthetic Loans

- **FRAs** = Forward Rate Agreements
 - OTC interest-rate futures contract for bonds or other financial asset
 - Not traded on organised exchanges as financial futures contracts are
 - *Tailored* to meet needs of parties involved
 - *Not* marked to market daily, so little liquidity risk, as with futures contracts
- **Synthetic loans**: use *interest-rate* futures and options to create synthetic loans and securities
 - Suppose a *firm* believes interest rates will fall in the near future
 - It borrows \$30 million for 120 days on a *floating* rate basis (repriced every 30 days at the CD rate plus 4 percentage points)
 - But the *bank* would prefer to make a *fixed* rate loan in this interest rate environment
 - To convert the variable rate loan to a fixed rate loan, the bank could buy T-bill *futures*
 - If interest rates fall, and T-bill prices rise, the gain on the futures position would *offset* the lower interest earnings on the cash loan position

Financial Derivatives: Securitisation

• Definition

issuance of a debt instrument in which the promised payments are derived from revenues generated by a defined pool of loans

- i.e., packaging of loans into large pools and issuance of securities to investors who earn returns based on repayments on the loans
- Evolution
 - initially (since 1985 in US): home loans, auto loans, credit-card receivables, computer leases, mobile home loans, and small business loans
 - more recent (since 1998 in US) securitisation of collateralised commercial and industrial loans
 - collateralised loan obligations (CLOs)
 - commercial mortgage-backed securities (CMBSs)
- Allows banks to
 - *transfer loan risks* into the financial marketplace: reduce credit risks, gap risk, improve diversification, and provide stable, low-risk service revenues
 - *earn service revenues* for being loan originator, loan packager and/or loan service company
- Securitised assets are counted as off-B/S items only if they have been transferred with recourse,

i.e. the *bank* is still exposed to *risk* associated with the underlying asset

- securitised home loans are *not* off-B/S assets: mortgage-backed
- securitised credit card loans can *still* expose the bank to credit risk: if credit payments fall below some predetermined level, it is obliged to repurchase

Other Off-Balance Sheet Activities (I)

• Loan sales

- Banks can sell loans to a third party as a source of funds: for a *fee* the selling bank often continues to service the loan payment
- With or without recourse sales, where *recourse* means the selling bank *retains* some of the credit risk
- Allow banks to make loans *without relying on deposits* and converts traditional lending to a quasi-securities business
- On the other hand, other buying institutions become *more like banks*

Cash management

Lock box services (post office boxes to collect customer revenues) earn fee income

• Networking

linkages between firms based on *comparative advantages*, otherwise known as a **strategic alliance**

E.g., a bank may *refer* a customer to a brokerage firm and earn part of the customer fee Also, placement of *branch offices* in supermarkets and other retail stores

Other Off-Balance Sheet Activities (II)

• Trade finance

- Some international aspects of trade finance are off-balance sheet

Commercial letters of credit: a letter of credit issued by a bank as a guarantee that the bank's customer will pay a contractual debt => banks bear credit risk and documentary risk (i.e., complexity of intl commerce)

- Acceptance participations

Bankers' acceptance: a bank accepts a time draft (bill of exchange) normally covering the sale of goods and agrees to pay its face value at maturity

Acceptance participations: some banks then sell acceptance participations for all or part of the draft

- Some foreign exchange trading/hedging activities are off-B/S
- *Advisory* and *management* services that earn service *fees*: fairly riskless

Concluding Wrap-Up

• What have we learnt?

- What drives the process of financial innovation and which are its main types
- Why off-balance sheet activities emerged and developed
- How financial guarantees differ from hedging strategies
- What the principal financial derivative instruments are
- How to compare related types of futures and options
- What is meant by securitisation
- Where we go next: to nonbank finance and electronic money as forms of financial innovation