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Introduction to Exchange Rates and the Foreign Exchange Market

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Questions to Consider

1. **What features of exchange rates do we need to understand?**
2. **How does the foreign exchange market operate?**
3. **Why do arbitrage and expectations matter for exchange rates?**

Introduction

- **Exchange rates** affect large flows of international trade by influencing the prices of goods in different currencies, and also affect international trade in assets, via the prices of stocks, bonds, and other investments.
- In the **foreign exchange market**, trillions of dollars are traded each day and the economic implications of shifts in the market can be dramatic.

Introduction

In this lecture, we begin to study the nature and impact of activity in the foreign exchange market.

The topics we cover include:

- Exchange rate basics
- Basic facts about exchange rate behavior
- The foreign exchange market
- Two key market mechanisms: **arbitrage** and **expectations**

An exchange rate (E) is the price of some foreign currency expressed in terms of a home (or domestic) currency.

- Because an exchange rate is the relative price of two currencies, it may be quoted in either of two ways:
  - The number of home currency units that can be exchanged for one unit of foreign currency
  - The number of foreign currency units that can be exchanged for one unit of home currency
- *To avoid confusion, we must specify which country is the home country and which is foreign.*

Defining the Exchange Rate

When we refer to a particular country's exchange rate, we will quote it in units of home currency per units of foreign currency.

- For example:
  - The U.S. exchange rate with Japan is quoted as U.S. dollars per yen (or $/¥).
  - Denmark's exchange rate with the Eurozone is quoted as Danish krone per euro (or kr/€).

TABLE 2-1

Exchange Rate Quotations This table shows major exchange rates as they might appear in the financial media. Columns (1) to (3) show rates on December 31, 2015. For comparison, columns (4) to (6) show rates on December 31, 2014. For example, column (1) shows that at the end of 2015, one U.S. dollar was worth 1.501 Canadian dollars, 6.870 Danish krone, 0.921 euros, and so on. The euro–dollar rates appear in bold type.

		EXCHANGE RATES ON DECEMBER 31, 2015			EXCHANGE RATES ON DECEMBER 31, 2014 *ONE YEAR PREVIOUSLY*		
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Country (currency)	Currency Symbol	Per $	Per €	Per £	Per $	Per €	Per £
Canada (dollar)	C$	1.501	1.389	2.047	1.158	1.402	1.806
Denmark (krone)	DKr	6.870	7.463	10.13	6.154	7.446	9.595
Eurozone (euro)	€	**0.921**	—	1.357	**0.826**	—	1.289
Japan (yen)	¥	120.3	130.7	177.3	119.9	145.1	187.0
Norway (krone)	NKr	8.851	9.612	13.05	7.498	9.072	11.69
Sweden (krona)	SKr	8.431	9.158	12.43	7.828	9.473	12.21
Switzerland (franc)	SFr	1.001	1.087	1.485	0.994	1.202	1.549
United Kingdom (pound)	£	0.679	0.737	—	1.559	0.776	—
United States (dollar)	$	—	**1.086**	1.474	—	**1.210**	1.559

$E_{\$/€}$ = 1.086 = U.S. exchange rate (American terms)

$E_{€/\$}$ = 0.921 = Eurozone exchange rate (European terms)

$$E_{\$/€} = \frac{1}{E_{€/\$}} \qquad 1.086 = \frac{1}{0.921}$$

Appreciations and Depreciations

- If one currency buys more of another currency, we say it has experienced an **appreciation**.
    - We also might say it has *risen in value*, *appreciated,* or *strengthened* against the other currency.
- If a currency buys less of another currency, we say it has experienced a **depreciation**.
    - We also might say it has *fallen in value*, *depreciated*, or *weakened* against the other currency.

Appreciations and Depreciations

In U.S. terms, the following holds true:

- When the U.S. exchange rate $E_{\$/€}$ *rises,* more dollars are needed to buy one euro. The price of one euro goes up in dollar terms, and the U.S. dollar experiences a depreciation. It has fallen in value or weakened against the euro.

- When the U.S. exchange rate $E_{\$/€}$ *falls,* fewer dollars are needed to buy one euro. The price of one euro goes down in dollar terms, and the U.S. dollar experiences an appreciation. It has risen in value or strengthened against the euro.

Appreciations and Depreciations

To determine the size of an appreciation or depreciation, we compute the proportional change, as follows:

- In 2014, at time *t,* the dollar value of the euro was
  $E_{\$/€,t}$ = \$ 1.211.
- In 2015, at time $t + 1$, the dollar value of the euro was
  $E_{\$/€,t+1}$ = \$ 1.086.
- The change in the dollar value of the euro was
  $\Delta E_{\$/€,t}$ = 1.086 − 1.211 = − \$ 0.125.
- The percentage change was
  $\Delta E_{\$/€,t} / E_{\$/€,t}$ = − 0.125/1.211 = − 10.32%.
- Thus, the dollar *appreciated* against the euro by 10.32%.

Appreciations and Depreciations

Similarly, over the same year:

- In 2014, at time *t,* the euro value of the dollar was
  $E_{€/\$,t}$ = € 0.826.
- In 2015, at time $t + 1$, the euro value of the dollar was
  $E_{€/\$,t+1}$ = € 0.921.
- The change in the euro value of the dollar was
  $\Delta E_{€/\$,t}$ = 0.921 − 0.826 = + € 0.095.
- The percentage change was
  $\Delta E_{€/\$,t} / E_{€/\$,t}$ = + 0.095/0.826 = + 11.50%.
- Thus, the euro *depreciated* against the dollar by 11.50%.

Multilateral Exchange Rates

Economists calculate *multilateral* exchange rate changes by aggregating *bilateral* exchange rates using trade weights to construct an average over each currency in the basket. The resulting measure is called the change in the **effective exchange rate**. For example:

- Suppose 40% of Home trade is with country 1 and 60% is with country 2. Home's currency appreciates (-)10% against 1 but depreciates (+)30% against 2.
- To find the change in Home's effective exchange rate, multiply each exchange rate change by the trade share and sum:

$$(-10\% \bullet 40\%) + (30\% \bullet 60\%) = (-0.1 \bullet 0.4) + (0.3 \bullet 0.6) =$$

$$-0.04 + 0.18 = 0.14 = +14\%.$$

- Home's effective exchange rate has depreciated by 14%.

Multilateral Exchange Rates

In general, suppose there are *N* currencies in the basket, and Home's trade with all *N* partners is:

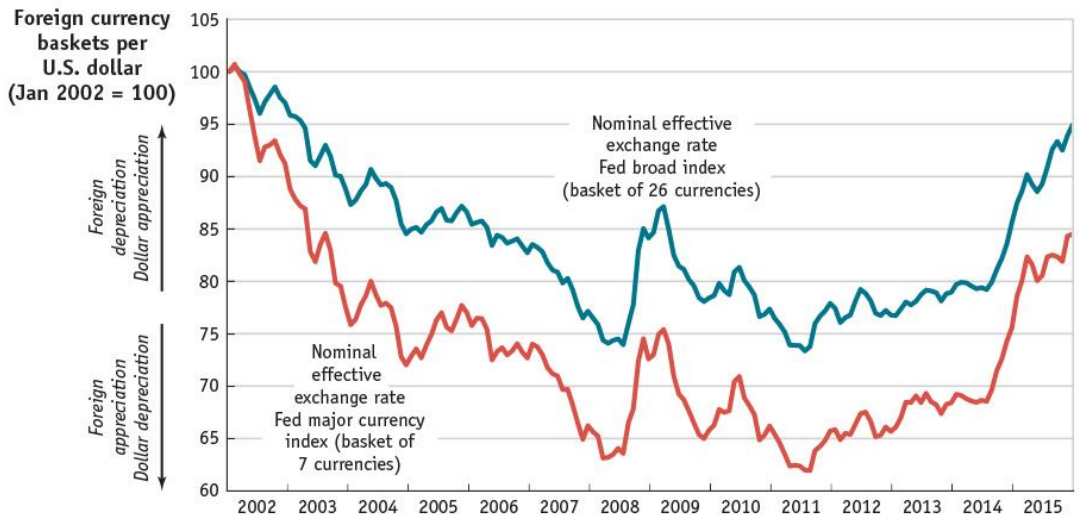
$$\text{Trade} = \text{Trade}_1 + \text{Trade}_2 + \ldots + \text{Trade}_N.$$

Applying trade weights to each bilateral exchange rate change, the home country's effective exchange rate ($E_{\text{effective}}$) will change according to the following weighted average:

$$\frac{\Delta E_{\text{effective}}}{E_{\text{effective}}} = \underbrace{\frac{\Delta E_1}{E_1}\frac{\text{Trade}_1}{\text{Trade}} + \frac{\Delta E_2}{E_2}\frac{\text{Trade}_1}{\text{Trade}} + \cdots + \frac{\Delta E_N}{E_N}\frac{\text{Trade}_N}{\text{Trade}}}_{\text{Trade-weighted average of bilateral nominal exchange rate changes}}$$

Multilateral Exchange Rates

FIGURE 2-1



Effective Exchange Rates: Change in the Value of the U.S. Dollar, 2002–2015 The chart shows the value of the dollar using two different baskets of foreign currencies. Against a basket of 7 major currencies, the dollar had depreciated by 35% by early 2008. Against a broad basket of 26 currencies, the dollar had lost only 25% by 2008. This is because the dollar was floating against the major currencies, but the broad basket included important U.S. trading partners (such as China) that maintained fixed or tightly managed exchange rates against the dollar. These trends only briefly reversed during the global financial crisis of 2008 before continuing up to 2015.

Example: Using Exchange Rates to Compare Prices in a Common Currency

TABLE 2-2

Using the Exchange Rate to Compare Prices in a Common Currency Now pay attention, 007! This table shows how the hypothetical cost of James Bond's next tuxedo in different locations depends on the exchange rates that prevail.

Scenario		1	2	3	4
Cost of the tuxedo in local currency	London	£2,000	£2,000	£2,000	£2,000
	Hong Kong	HK$30,000	HK$30,000	HK$30,000	HK$30,000
	New York	$4,000	$4,000	$4,000	$4,000
Exchange rates	HK$/£	15	16	14	14
	$/£	2.0	1.9	2.1	1.9
Cost of the tuxedo in pounds	London	£2,000	£2,000	£2,000	£2,000
	Hong Kong	£2,000	£1,875	£2,143	£2,143
	New York	£2,000	£2,105	£1,905	£2,105

Exchange Rate Regimes: Fixed Versus Floating

There are two major types of **exchange rate regimes**—fixed and floating:

- A **fixed** (or **pegged**) **exchange rate** fluctuates in a narrow range (or not at all) against some *base currency* over a sustained period. The exchange rate can remain fixed for long periods only if the government intervenes in the foreign exchange market in one or both countries.
- A **floating** (or **flexible**) **exchange rate** fluctuates in a wider range, and the government makes no attempt to fix it against any base currency. Appreciations and depreciations may occur yearly, monthly, by the day, or even every minute.

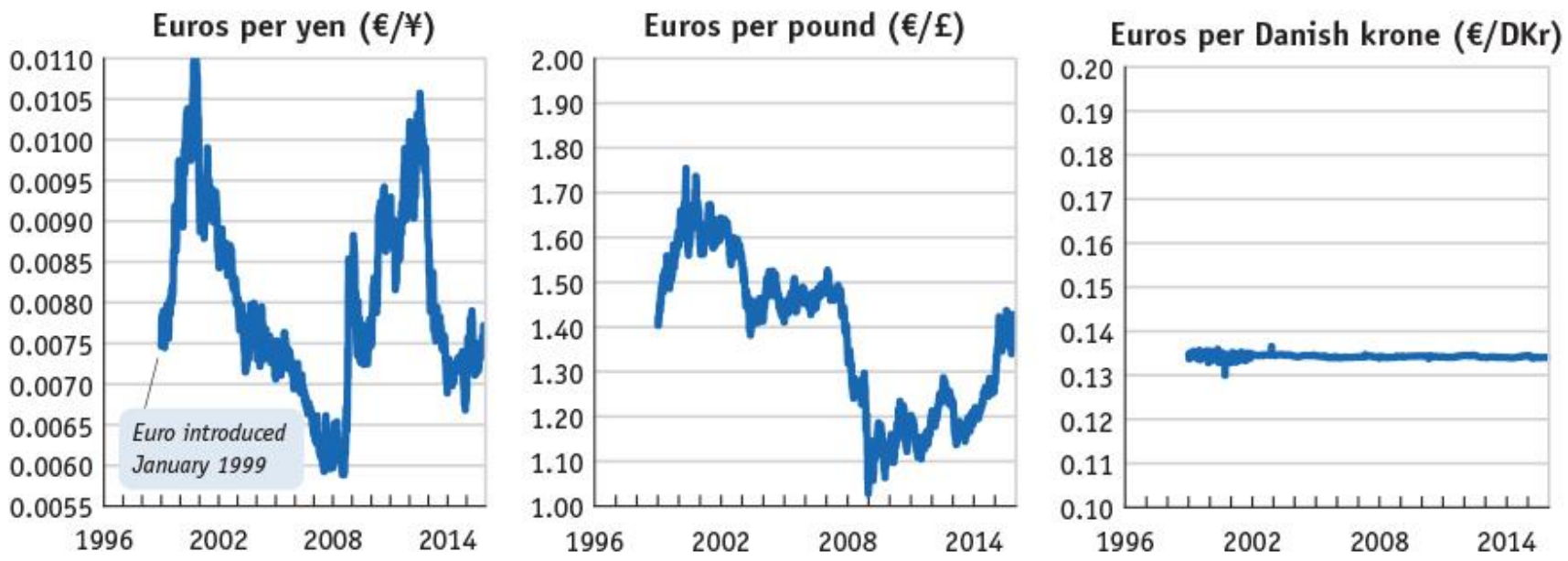
APPLICATION

FIGURE 2-2 (1 of 2) Exchange Rate Behavior: Selected Developed Countries, 1996–2015

This figure shows the exchange rates of three currencies against the U.S. dollar. The U.S. dollar is in a floating relationship with the yen, the pound, and the Canadian dollar (or *loonie*). The U.S. dollar is subject to a great deal of volatility because it is in a floating regime, or **free float**.

APPLICATION

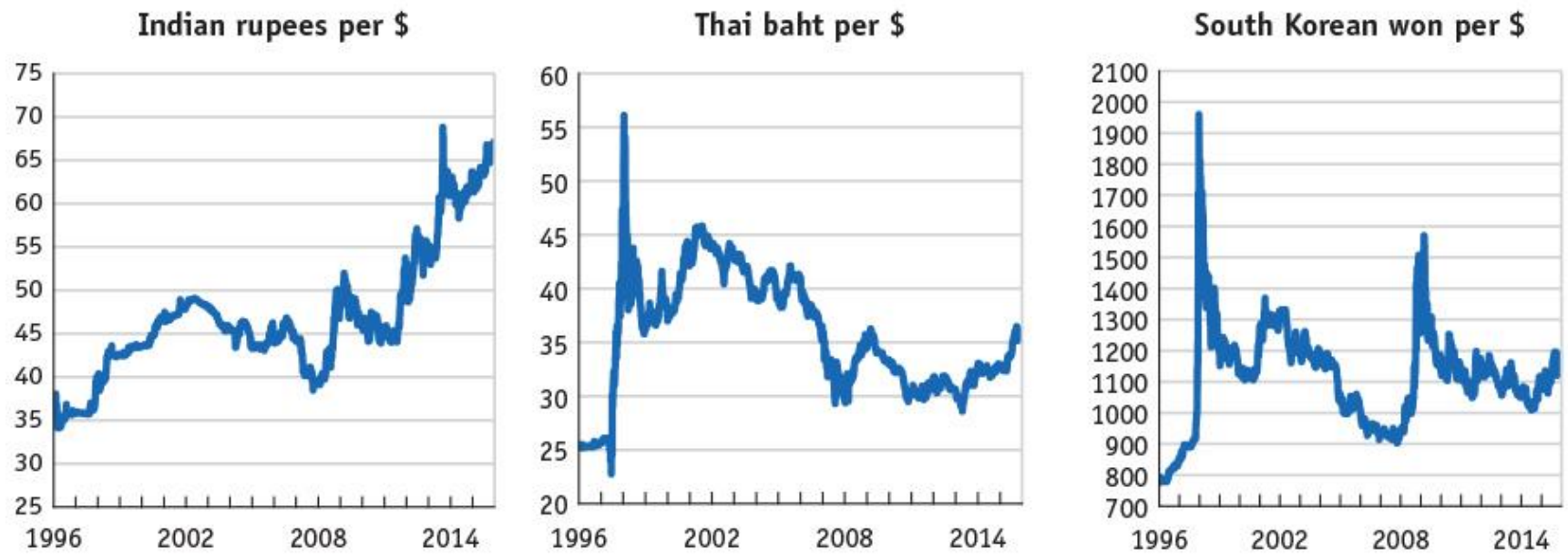
FIGURE 2-2 (2 of 2) Exchange Rate Behavior: Selected Developed Countries, 1996–2015 (cont.)



This figure shows exchange rates of three currencies against the euro, which was introduced in 1999. The pound and the yen float against the euro. The Danish krone provides an example of a fixed exchange rate. There is only a tiny variation around this rate, no more than plus or minus 2%. This type of fixed regime is known as a **band**.

APPLICATION

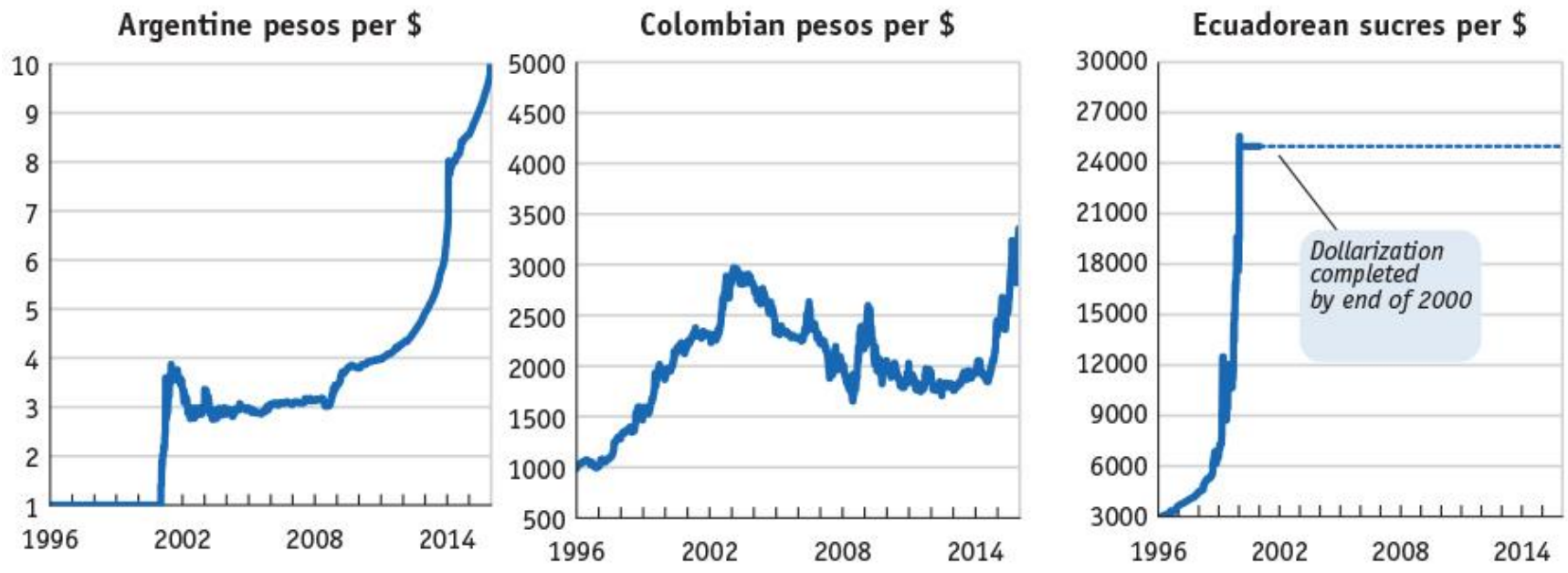
FIGURE 2-3 (1 of 2) Exchange Rate Behavior: Selected Developing Countries, 1996–2015



Selected Developing Countries, 1996–2015 Exchange rates in developing countries show a wide variety of experiences and greater volatility. Pegging is common but is punctuated by periodic crises (you can see the effects of these crises in graphs for Thailand, South Korea, and India). India is an example of a middle ground, somewhere between a fixed rate and a free float, called a **managed float**.

APPLICATION

FIGURE 2-3 (2 of 2) Exchange Rate Behavior: Selected Developing Countries, 1996–2015 (cont.)



Colombia is an example of a **crawling peg**. The Colombian peso is allowed to crawl gradually, and it steadily depreciated at an almost constant rate for several years from 1996 to 2002. **Dollarization** occurred in Ecuador in 2000, a process that occurs when a country unilaterally adopts the currency of another country.

APPLICATION

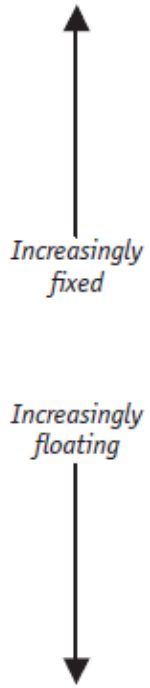
Recent Exchange Rate Experiences

Exchange Rate Regimes of the World

- Figure 2-4 (on the next slide) shows an IMF classification of exchange rate regimes around the world, which allows us to see the prevalence of different regime types across the whole spectrum, from fixed to floating.
- The classification covers 182 economies for the year 2010, and regimes are ordered from the most rigidly fixed to the most freely floating.
- Six of these countries have a **currency board**, a type of fixed regime that has special legal and procedural rules designed to make the peg "harder"—that is, more durable.

APPLICATION

FIGURE 2-4 A Spectrum of Exchange Rate Regimes

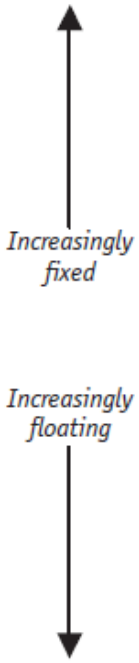


No separate legal tender (52 countries)	*Another currency as legal tender*: (13): Ecuador, El Salvador, Kiribati, Liechtenstein, Marshall Islands, Micronesia, Monaco, Montenegro, Palau, Panama, San Marino, West Bank & Gaza, Zimbabwe *Eurozone*: (19): Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain *Eastern Caribbean Currency Union*: (6): Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines *West African CFA Franc Zone*: (8): Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Niger, Senegal, Togo *Central African CFA Franc Zone*: (6): Cameroon, Central African Rep., Chad, Rep. of Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon
Currency boards (6)	Bosnia and Herzegovina, Brunei, Bulgaria, Djibouti, Hong Kong, Macao
Other pegs (35)	Anguilla, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belize, Bhutan, Bolivia, China, Comoros, Costa Rica, Denmark, Eritrea, Honduras, Iran, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Lesotho, Maldives, Morocco, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands Antilles, Oman, Paraguay, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Solomon Islands, Suriname, Swaziland, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, Venezuela

This figure shows IMF classification of exchange rate regimes around the world for 182 economies in 2010. Regimes are ordered from the most rigidly fixed to the most freely floating. Six countries use an ultra-hard peg called a currency board, while 35 others have a hard peg.

APPLICATION

FIGURE 2-4 A Spectrum of Exchange Rate Regimes (continued)



Bands, crawling pegs, crawling bands (43)	Algeria, Angola, Argentina, Botswana, Burundi, Cambodia, Cape Verde, Croatia, Dominican Republic, Egypt, Gambia, Georgia, Ghana, Guatemala, Guinea, Guyana, India, Iraq, Jamaica, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Malawi, Mauritius, Moldova, Mongolia, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Peru, Rwanda, São Tomé and Príncipe, Sierra Leone, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Uganda, Vietnam, Yemen
Wide bands, managed floating, free floating (46)	Afghanistan, Albania, Armenia, Australia, Belarus, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Czech Republic, Haiti, Hungary, Iceland, Indonesia, Israel, Japan, Kenya, Korea, Liberia, Macedonia FYR, Madagascar, Malaysia, Mauritania, Mexico, Mozambique, New Zealand, Norway, Philippines, Poland, Romania, Russia, Samoa, Serbia, Seychelles, Singapore, South Africa, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Zambia

An additional 43 counties have bands, crawling pegs, or crawling bands, while 46 countries have exchange rates that either float freely, are managed floats, or are allowed to float within wide bands.

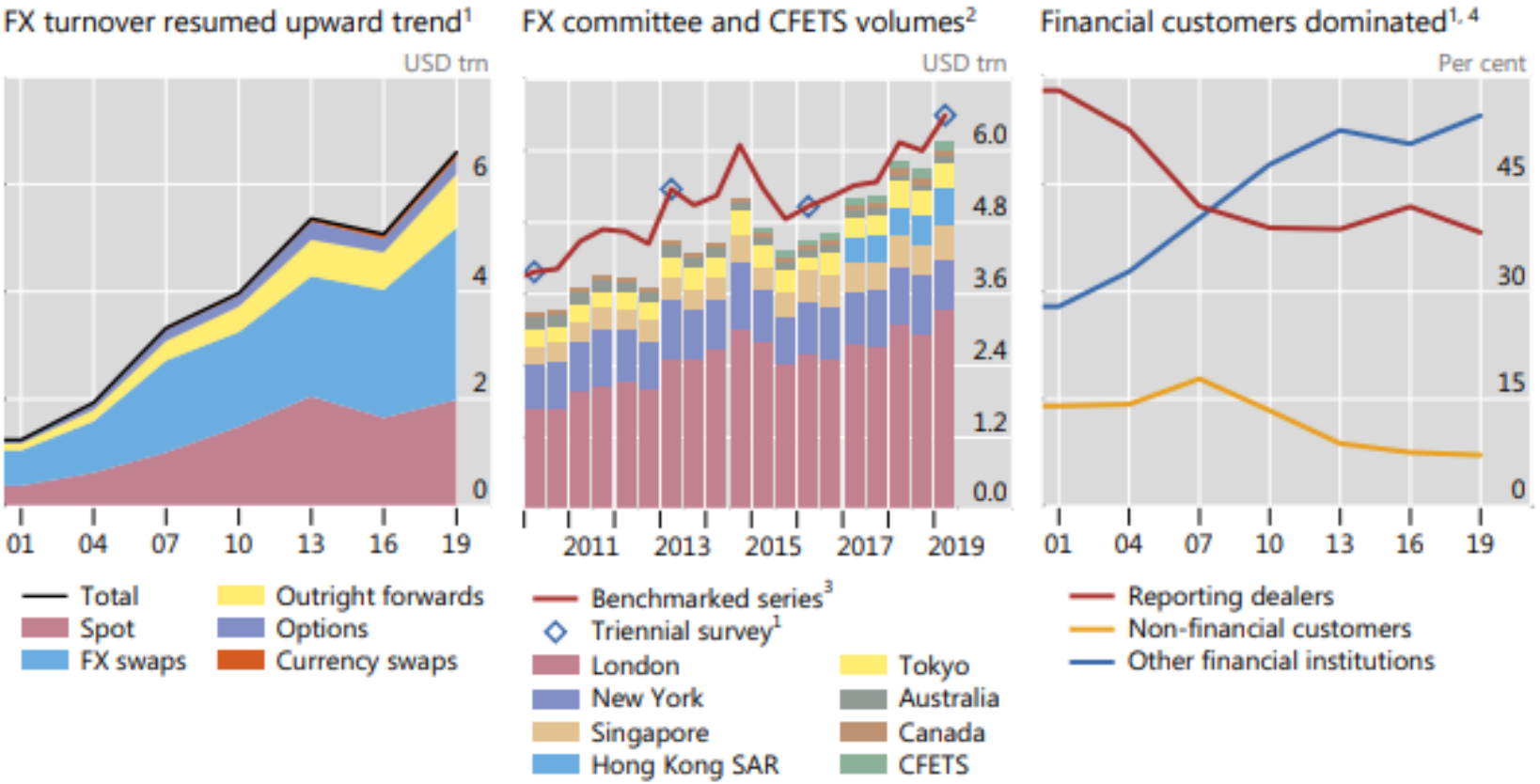
Exchange rates the world over are set in the **foreign exchange market** (or **forex** or **FX market**).

- The forex market is not an organized exchange: Trade is conducted "over the counter."
- In January 2013, the global forex market traded $5.3 trillion per day in currency (BIS data).
- The three major foreign exchange centers are located in the United Kingdom, the United States, and Japan.
- Other important centers for forex trade include Hong Kong, Paris, Singapore, Sydney, and Zurich.

3 The Market for Foreign Exchange

FX turnover rises with more trading in FX swaps and by financials

Graph 1



[1] Adjusted for local and cross-border inter-dealer double-counting, ie "net-net" basis; daily averages in April. [2] Semiannual data, referring to April and October. Additional increase in stacked bars due to the inclusion of China Foreign Exchange Trade System (CFETS) turnover in April 2015 and the Hong Kong Treasury Markets Association survey in April 2017. [3] The benchmarking using the proportional Denton technique allows us to assess the evolution of FX trading volumes between Triennial surveys. For a description, see Bech (2012). [4] Expressed as a share of total turnover.

Sources: M Bech, "FX volume during the financial crisis and now". BIS Quarterly Review. March 2012. pp 33–43; foreign exchange committee surveys; Bloomberg; BIS Triennial Central Bank Survey; authors' calculations.

https://www.bis.org/publ/qtrpdf/r_qt1912f.pdf

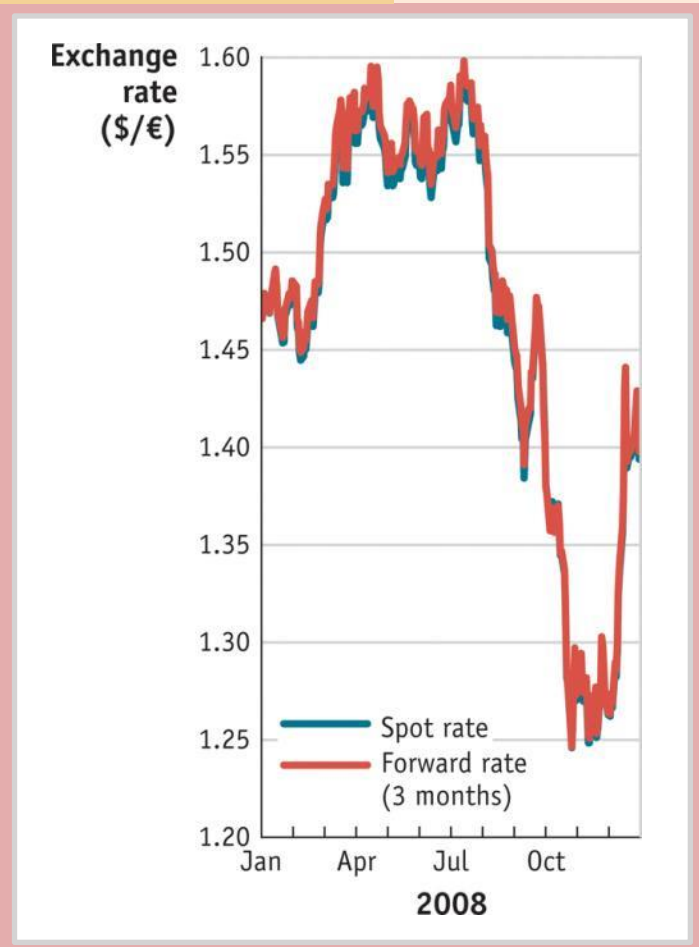
The Spot Contract

- The simplest forex transaction is a contract for the immediate exchange ("on the spot") of one currency for another between two parties. This is known as a **spot contract**.
- The exchange rate for this transaction is referred to as the **spot exchange rate**.
- The use of the term "exchange rate" always refers to the spot rate for our purposes, unless otherwise noted.
- The spot contract is the most common type of trade and appears in almost 30% of all forex transactions (in 2019).

Derivatives

- In addition to the spot contracts other forex contracts include **forwards**, **swaps**, **futures**, and **options**.
- Collectively, all these related forex contracts are termed **derivatives**.
- The spot and forward rates closely track each other.

FIGURE 2-5



APPLICATION

Foreign Exchange Derivatives

Forwards

A forward contract differs from a spot contract in that the two parties make the contract today, but the *settlement date* for the delivery of the currencies is in the future, or forward. The time to delivery, or *maturity*, varies. However, because the price is fixed as of today, the contract carries no **risk**.

Swaps

A swap contract combines a spot sale of foreign currency with a forward repurchase of the same currency. This is a common contract for counterparties dealing in the same currency pair over and over again. Combining two transactions reduces **transactions costs**.

APPLICATION

Foreign Exchange Derivatives

Futures

A futures contract is a promise that the two parties holding the contract will deliver currencies to each other at some future date at a prespecified exchange rate, just like a forward contract. Unlike the forward contract, futures contracts are standardized, mature at certain regular dates, and can be traded on an organized futures exchange.

Options

An option provides one party, the buyer, with **the right to buy** (*call*) **or sell** (*put*) a currency in exchange for another at a prespecified exchange rate at a future date. The buyer is under no obligation to trade and will not exercise the option if the spot price on the expiration date turns out to be more favorable.

APPLICATION

Foreign Exchange Derivatives

Derivatives allow investors to engage in *hedging* (risk avoidance) and *speculation* (risk taking).

- *Example 1:* Hedging. As chief financial officer of a U.S. firm, you expect to receive payment of €1 million in 90 days for exports to France. The current spot rate is $1.20 per euro. Your firm will incur losses on the deal if the euro weakens to less than $1.10 per euro. You advise that the firm buy €1 million in call options on dollars at a rate of $1.15 per euro, ensuring that the firm's euro receipts will sell for at least this rate. This locks in a minimal profit even if the spot rate falls below $1.15. This is hedging.

APPLICATION

Foreign Exchange Derivatives

Derivatives allow investors to engage in *hedging* (risk avoidance) and *speculation* (risk taking).

- *Example 2:* Speculation. The market currently prices one-year euro futures at $1.30, but you think the dollar will weaken to $1.43 in the next 12 months. If you wish to make a bet, you would buy these futures, and if you are proved right, you will realize a 10% profit. Any level above $1.30 will generate a profit. If the dollar is at or below $1.30 a year from now, however, your investment in futures will be a total loss. This is speculation.

Private Actors

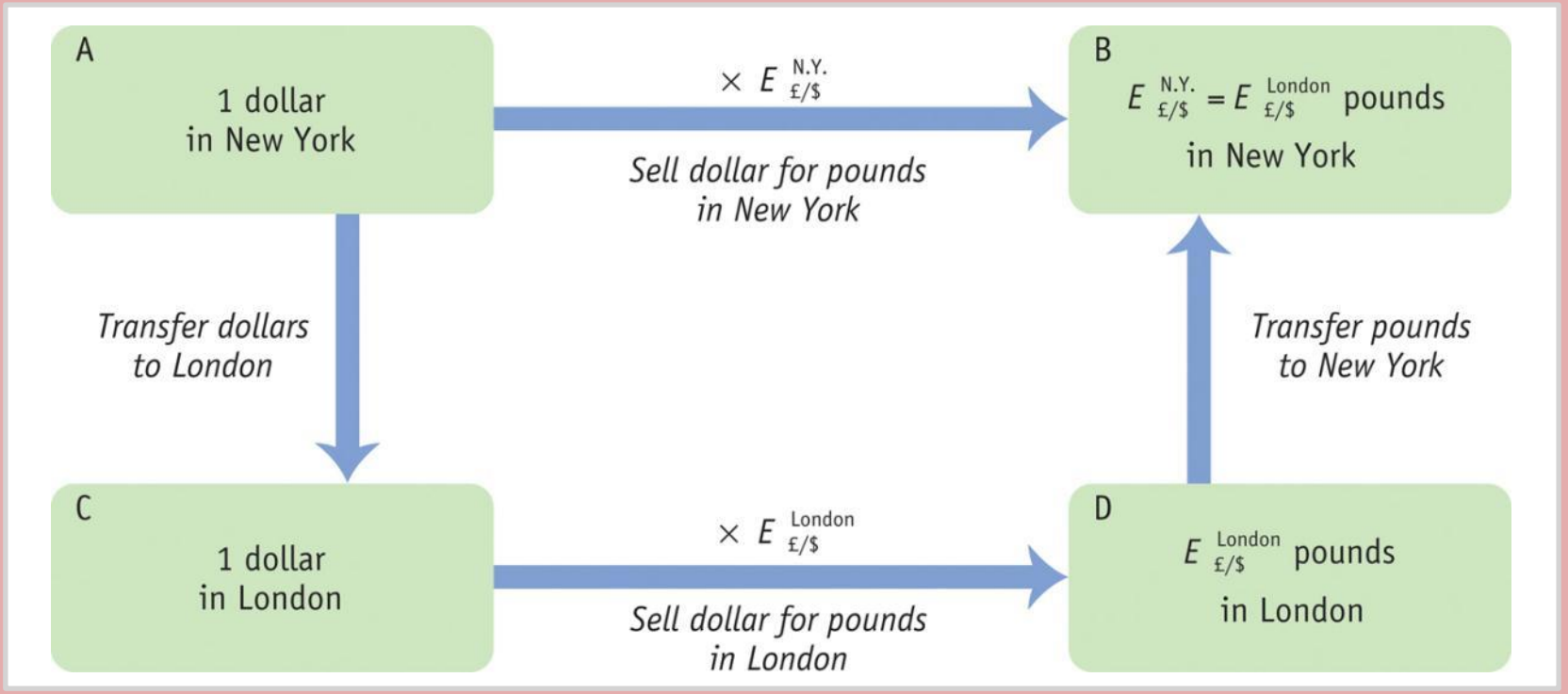
- Most forex traders work for **commercial banks**. About 75% of all forex transactions globally are handled by just 10 banks.
- The exchange rates for these trades underlie quoted market exchange rates.
- Some corporations may trade in the market if they are engaged in extensive transactions in foreign markets.

Government Actions

- Some governments engage in policies that restrict trading, movement of forex, or cross-border financial transactions. These are called a form of **capital control**.
- In line with capital controls, the central bank must stand ready to buy or sell its own currency to maintain a fixed exchange rate.

4 Arbitrage and Spot Exchange Rates

FIGURE 2-6



Arbitrage and Spot Rates Arbitrage ensures that the trade of currencies in New York along the path AB occurs at the same exchange rate as via London along path ACDB. At B the pounds received must be the same, regardless of the route taken to get to B:

$$E^{\text{N.Y.}}_{£/\$} = E^{\text{London}}_{£/\$}$$

Arbitrage with Three Currencies

In general, three outcomes are again possible.

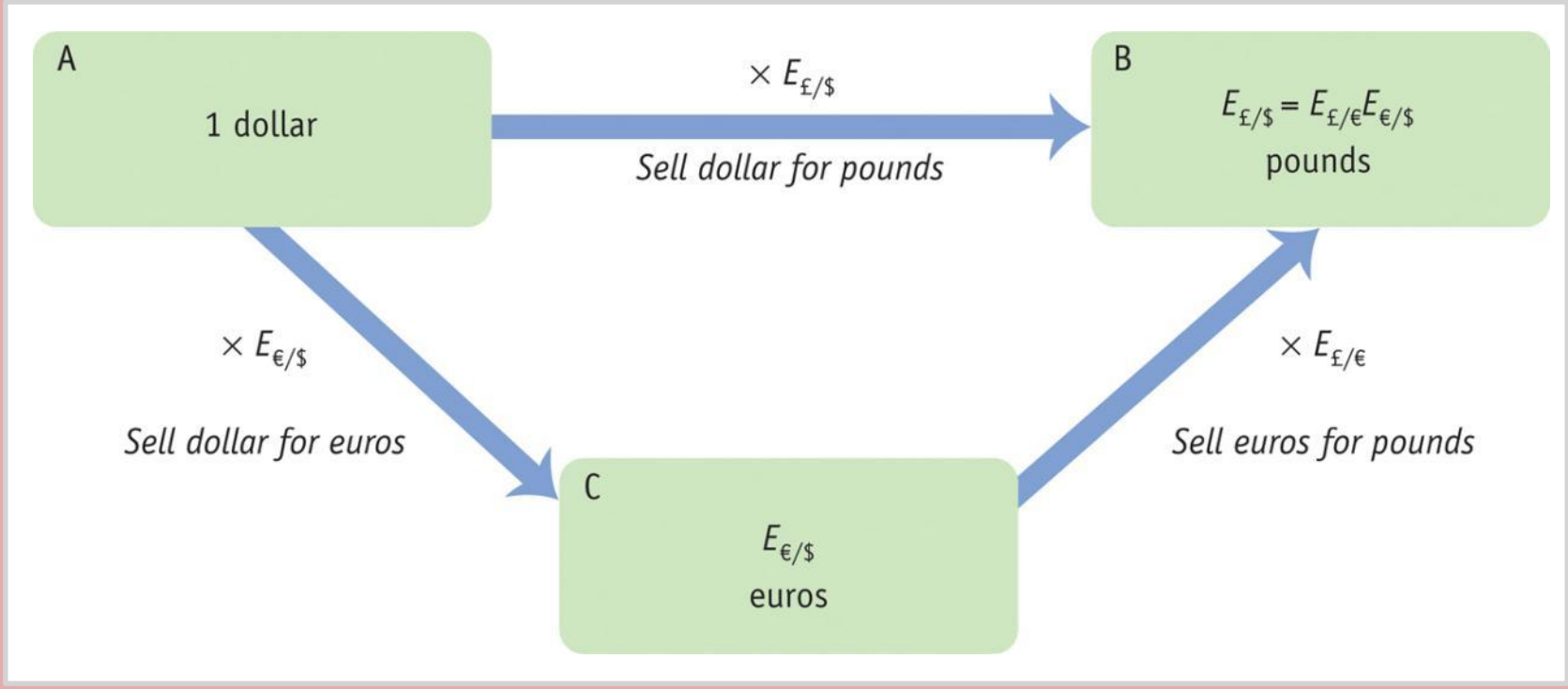
1. The direct trade from dollars to pounds has a better rate: $E_{£/\$} > E_{£/€}\, E_{€/\$}$
2. The indirect trade has a better rate: $E_{£/\$} < E_{£/€}\, E_{€/\$}$
3. The two trades have the same rate and yield the same result: $E_{£/\$} = E_{£/€}\, E_{€/\$}$. Only in the last case are there no profit opportunities. This is the **no-arbitrage condition**:

$$\underbrace{E_{£/\$}}_{\text{Direct exchange rate}} = E_{£/€}\, E_{€/\$} = \frac{E_{£/€}}{\underbrace{E_{\$/€}}_{\text{Cross rate}}}$$

The right-hand expression, a ratio of two exchange rates, is called a **cross rate**.

4 Arbitrage and Spot Exchange Rates

FIGURE 2-7



Arbitrage and Cross Rates Triangular arbitrage ensures that the direct trade of currencies along the path AB occurs at the same exchange rate as via a third currency along path ACB. The pounds received at B must be the same on both paths:

$$E_{£/\$} = E_{£/€}\, E_{€/\$}$$

Cross Rates and Vehicle Currencies

- The majority of the world's currencies trade directly with only one or four of the major currencies, such as the dollar, euro, yen, or pound.
- Many countries do a lot of business in major currencies such as the U.S. dollar, so individuals always have the option to engage in a triangular trade at the cross rate.
- When a third currency, such as the U.S. dollar, is used in these transactions, it is called a **vehicle currency** because it is not the home currency of either of the parties involved in the trade and is just used for intermediation.

An important question for investors is in which currency they should hold their liquid cash balances.

- Would selling euro deposits and buying dollar deposits make a profit for a banker?
- These decisions drive demand for dollars versus euros and the exchange rate between the two currencies.

The Problem of Risk

A trader in New York cares about returns in U.S. dollars. A dollar deposit pays a known return, in dollars. But a euro deposit pays a return in euros, and one year from now we cannot know for sure what the dollar–euro exchange rate will be.

- *Riskless arbitrage* and *risky arbitrage* lead to two important implications, called *parity conditions*.

Riskless Arbitrage: Covered Interest Parity

Contracts to exchange euros for dollars in one year's time carry an exchange rate of $F_{\$/€}$ dollars per euro. This is known as the **forward exchange rate**.

- If you invest in a dollar deposit, your \$1 placed in a U.S. bank account will be worth $(1 + i_{\$})$ dollars in one year's time. The dollar value of principal and interest for the U.S. dollar bank deposit is called the *dollar return.*
- If you invest in a euro deposit, you first need to convert the dollar to euros. Using the spot exchange rate, \$1 buys $1/E_{\$/€}$ euros today.
- These $1/E_{\$/€}$ euros would be placed in a euro account earning $i_{€}$, so in a year's time they would be worth $(1 + i_{€})/E_{\$/€}$ euros.

Riskless Arbitrage: Covered Interest Parity

To avoid that risk, you engage in a forward contract today to make the future transaction at a forward rate $F_{\$/€}$.

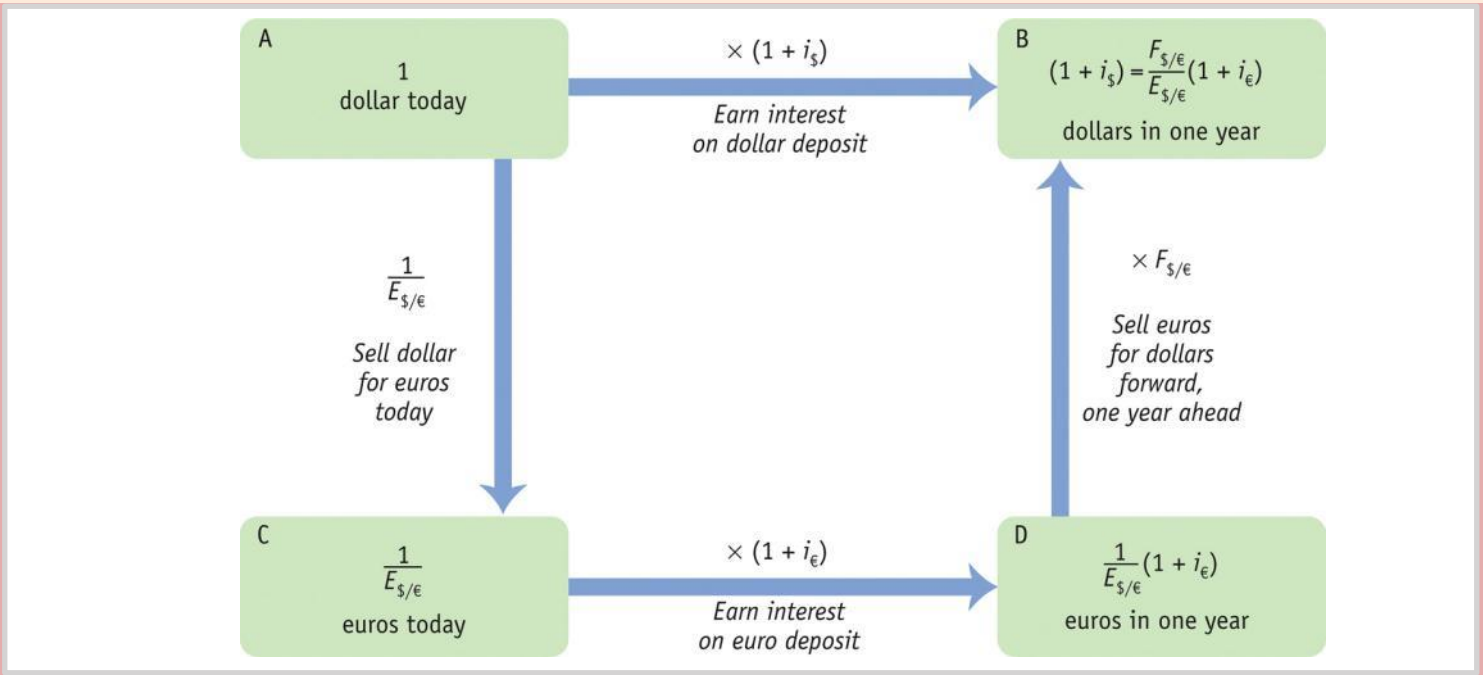
- The $(1 + i_€)/E_{\$/€}$ euros you will have in one year's time can then be exchanged for $(1 + i_€)F_{\$/€}/E_{\$/€}$ dollars, or the dollar return on the euro bank deposit.

$$\underbrace{(1 + i_{\$})}_{\text{Dollar return on dollar deposits}} = \underbrace{(1 + i_{€})\frac{F_{\$/€}}{E_{\$/€}}}_{\text{Dollar return on euro deposits}}$$

- This is called **covered interest parity (CIP)** because all exchange rate risk on the euro side has been "covered" by use of the forward contract.

5 Arbitrage and Interest Rates

FIGURE 2-8



Arbitrage and Covered Interest Parity Under CIP, returns to holding dollar deposits accruing interest going along the path AB must equal the returns from investing in euros going along the path ACDB with risk removed by use of a forward contract. Hence, at B, the riskless payoff must be the same on both paths:

$$(1 + i_{\$}) = \frac{F_{\$/€}}{E_{\$/€}}(1 + i_{€})$$

APPLICATION

Evidence on Covered Interests Parity

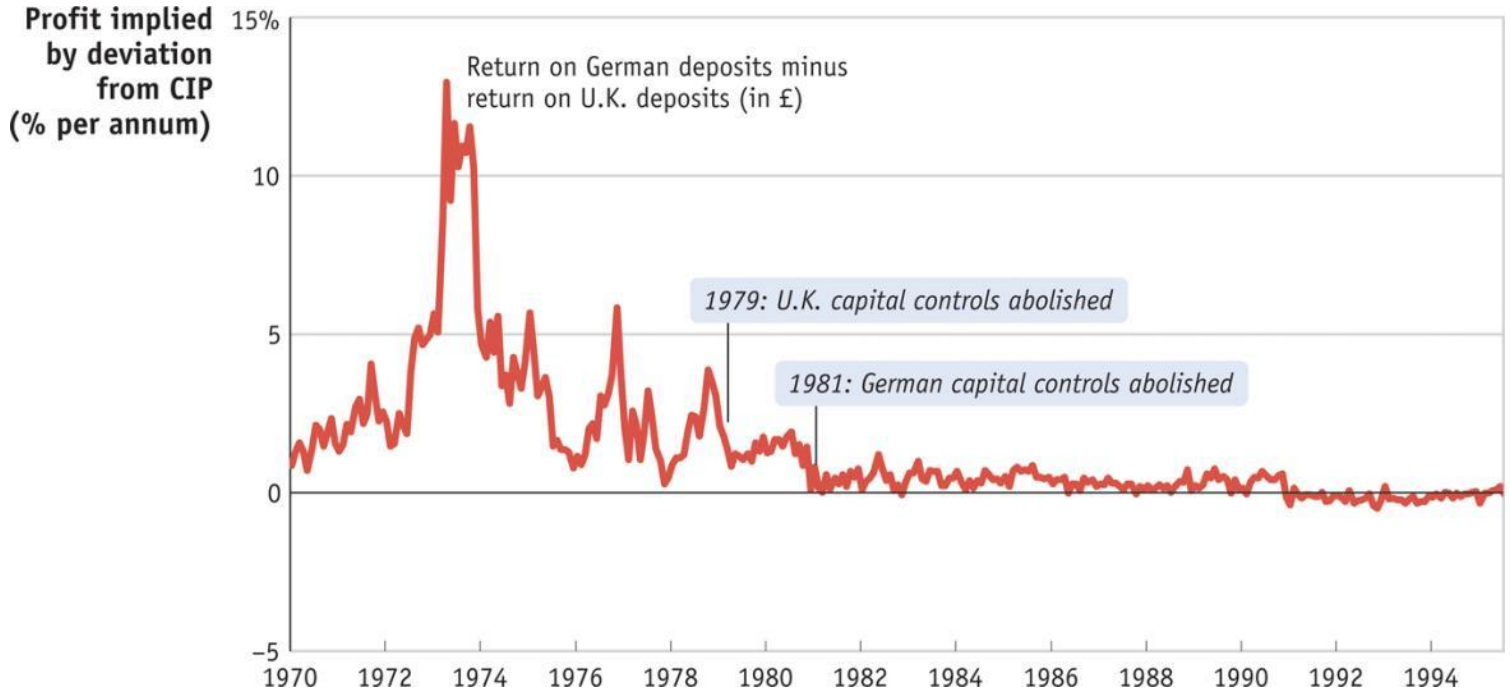
FIGURE 2-9 (1 of 2) Financial Liberalization and Covered Interest Parity

Financial Liberalization and Covered Interest Parity: Arbitrage Between the United Kingdom and Germany The chart shows the difference in monthly pound returns on deposits in British pounds and German marks using forward cover from 1970 to 1995. In the 1970s, the difference was positive and often large: Traders would have profited from arbitrage by moving money from pound deposits to mark deposits, but capital controls prevented them from freely doing so.

APPLICATION

Evidence on Covered Interest Parity

FIGURE 2-9 (2 of 2) Financial Liberalization and Covered Interest Parity (continued)



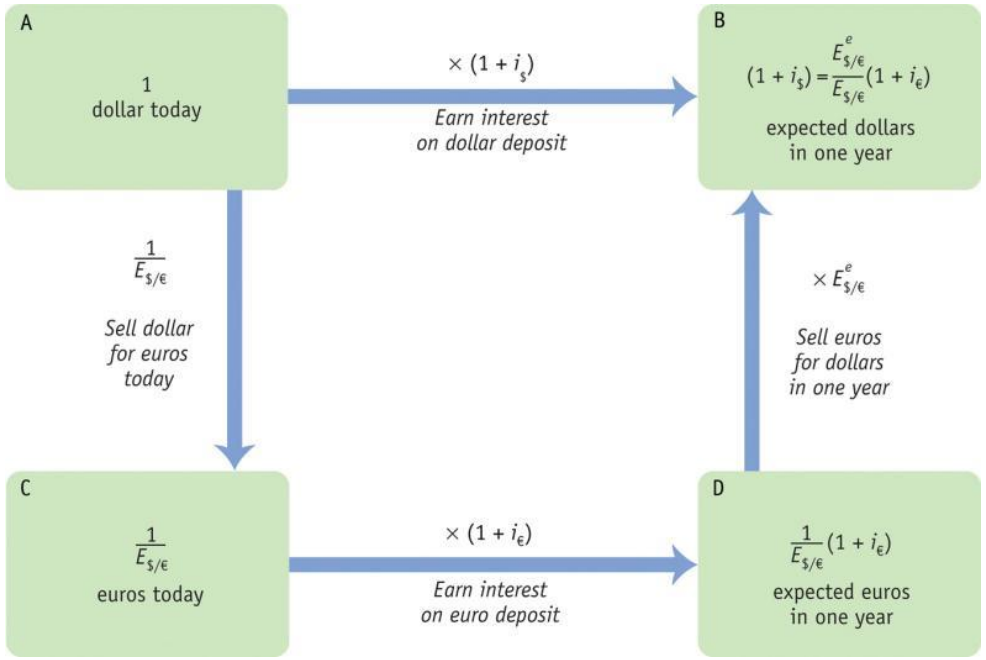
After financial liberalization, these profits essentially vanished, and no arbitrage opportunities remained. The CIP condition held, aside from small deviations resulting from transactions costs and measurement errors.

Risky Arbitrage: Uncovered Interest Parity

- In this case, traders face exchange rate risk and must make a *forecast* of the future spot rate. We refer to the forecast as $E^e_{\$/€}$, which we call the **expected exchange rate**.
- Based on the forecast, you expect that the $(1 + i_€)/E_{\$/€}$ euros you will have in one year's time will be worth $(1 + i_€) \times (E^e_{\$/€}/E_{\$/€})$ when converted into dollars; this is the *expected dollar return* on euro deposits.
- The expression for **uncovered interest parity (UIP)** is:

$$\underbrace{(1 + i_\$)}_{\text{Dollar return on dollar deposits}} = \underbrace{(1 + i_€)\frac{E^e_{\$/€}}{E_{\$/€}}}_{\text{Expected dollar return on euro deposits}}$$

FIGURE 2-10



Arbitrage and Uncovered Interest Parity Under CIP, returns to holding dollar deposits accruing interest going along the path AB must equal returns from investing in euros going along the risky path ACDB. Hence, at B, the expected payoff must be the same on both paths:

$$(1 + i_{\$}) = \frac{E^e_{\$/€}}{E_{\$/€}}(1 + i_€)$$

Risky Arbitrage : Uncovered Interest Parity

What Determines the Spot Rate?

- Uncovered interest parity is a no-arbitrage condition that describes an equilibrium in which investors are indifferent between the returns on unhedged interest-bearing bank deposits in two currencies.

- We can rearrange the terms in the uncovered interest parity expression to solve for the spot rate:

$$E_{\$/€} = E^{e}_{\$/€}\frac{1+i_{€}}{1+i_{\$}} \Rightarrow E^{e}_{\$/€} = E_{\$/€}\frac{1+i_{\$}}{1+i_{€}}$$

Assets and Their Attributes

- An investor's entire portfolio of assets may include stocks, bonds, real estate, art, bank deposits in various currencies, and so on. All assets have three key attributes that influence demand: return, risk, and **liquidity**.
- An asset's **rate of return** is the total net increase in wealth resulting from holding the asset for a specified period of time, typically one year.
- The risk of an asset refers to the volatility of its rate of return.
- The liquidity of an asset refers to the ease and speed with which it can be liquidated, or sold.
- We refer to the forecast of the rate of return as the **expected rate of return**.

APPLICATION

Evidence on Uncovered Interest Parity

- Dividing UIP by CIP, we obtain:

$$1 = E^{e}_{\$/€}/F_{\$/€} \quad \text{, or} \quad E^{e}_{\$/€} = F_{\$/€}$$

- Although the *expected future spot rate* and the *forward rate* are used in two different forms of arbitrage—risky and riskless, in equilibrium they should be exactly the same!

- If both covered interest parity and uncovered interest parity hold, the forward must equal the expected future spot rate.

- Risk-neutral investors have no reason to prefer to avoid risk by using the forward rate versus embracing risk by awaiting the future spot rate.

APPLICATION

Evidence on Uncovered Interest Parity

- If the forward rate equals the expected spot rate, the **expected rate of depreciation** equals the **forward premium** (the proportional difference between the forward and spot rates):

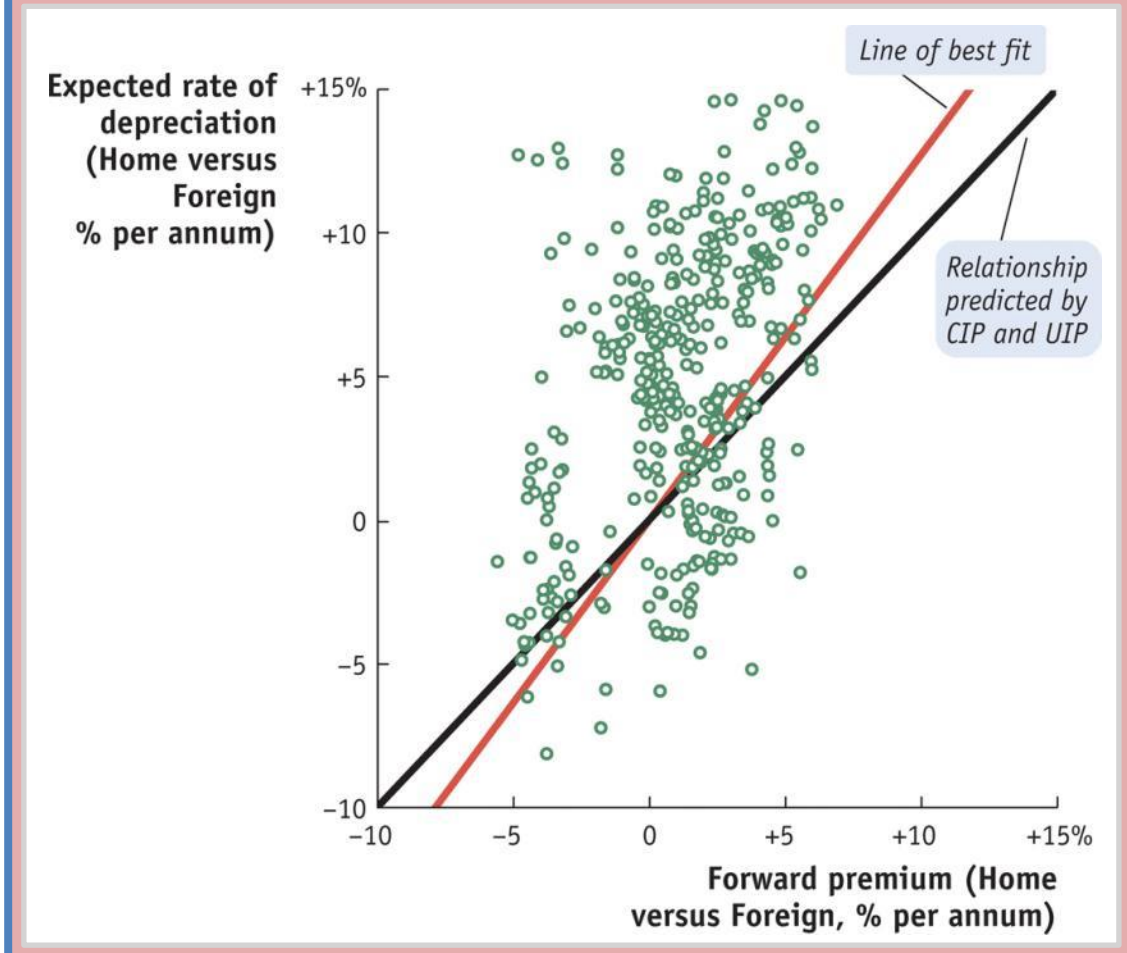
$$\underbrace{\frac{F_{\$/€}}{E_{\$/€}} - 1}_{\text{Forward Premium}} = \underbrace{\frac{E^{e}_{\$/€}}{E_{\$/€}} - 1}_{\text{Expected rate of depreciation}}$$

- A useful scale-free expression independent of currency, both sides typically measured in percent per year.
- While the left-hand side is easily observed, the expectations on the right-hand side are typically unobserved.

APPLICATION

Evidence on Uncovered Interest Parity

FIGURE 2-11



Evidence on Interest Parity

When UIP and CIP hold, the 12-month forward premium should equal the 12-month expected rate of depreciation. A scatterplot showing these two variables should be close to the diagonal 45-degree line.

Using evidence from surveys of individual forex traders' expectations over the period 1988 to 1993, UIP finds some support, as the line of best fit is close to the diagonal.

Uncovered Interest Parity: A Useful Approximation

$$\underbrace{i_{\$}}_{\substack{\text{Interest rate}\\ \text{on dollar deposits}\\ =\\ \text{Dollar rate of return}\\ \text{on dollar deposits}}} = \underbrace{\underbrace{i_{€}}_{\substack{\text{Interest rate}\\ \text{on euro deposits}}} + \underbrace{\frac{\Delta E^{e}_{\$/€}}{E_{\$/€}}}_{\substack{\text{Expected rate of depreciation}\\ \text{of the dollar}}}}_{\substack{\text{Expected dollar rate of return}\\ \text{on euro deposits}}}$$

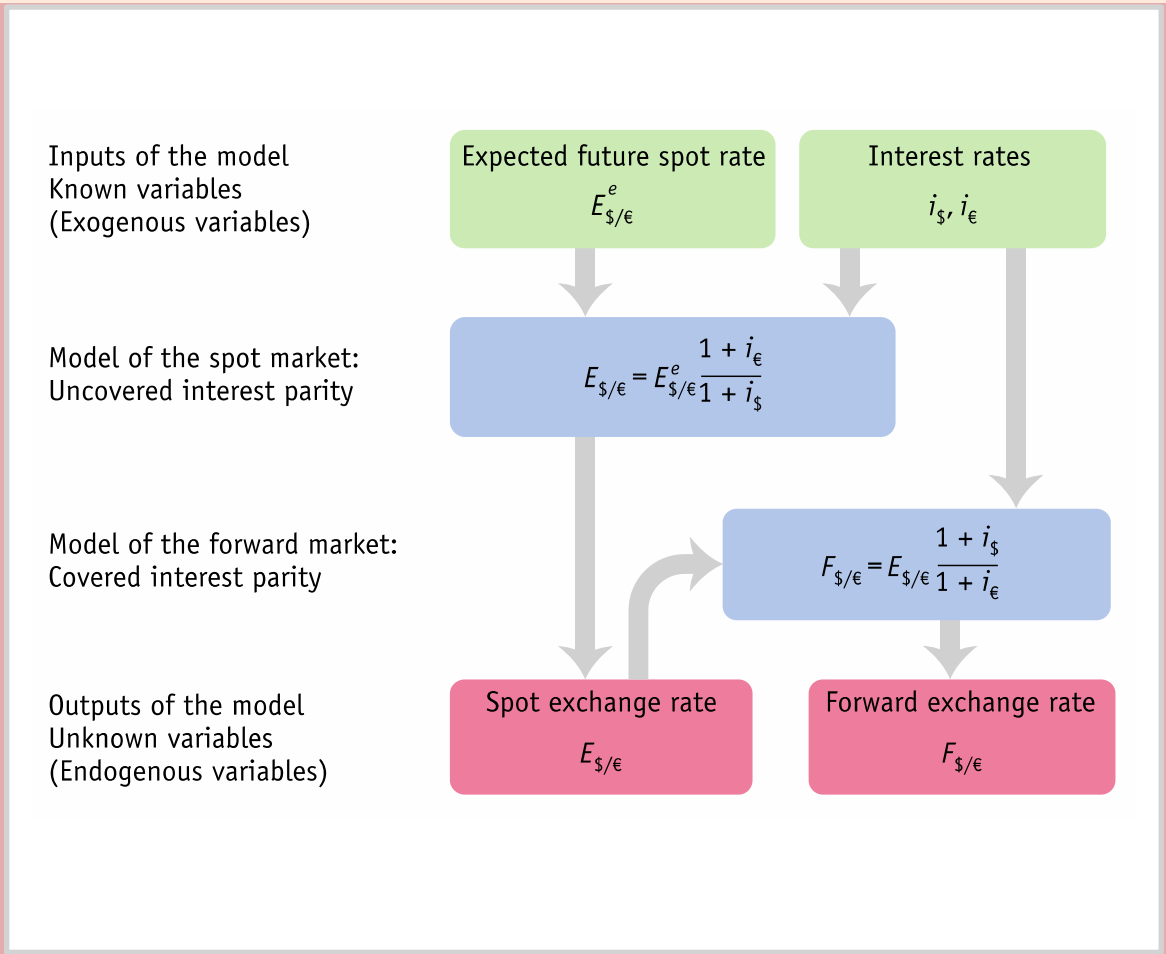
- This approximate equation for UIP says that the home interest rate equals the foreign interest rate plus the expected rate of depreciation of the home currency.

- Suppose the dollar interest rate is 4% per year and the euro 3%. If UIP is to hold, the expected rate of dollar depreciation over a year must be 1%. The total dollar return on the euro deposit is approximately equal to the 4% that is offered by dollar deposits.

Summary

FIGURE 2-12

How Interest Parity Relationships Explain Spot and Forward Rates In the spot market, UIP provides a model of how the spot exchange rate is determined. To use UIP to find the spot rate, we need to know the expected future spot rate and the prevailing interest rates for the two currencies. In the forward market, CIP provides a model of how the forward exchange rate is determined. When we use CIP, we derive the forward rate from the current spot rate (from UIP) and the interest rates for the two currencies.



KEY POINTS

1. The exchange rate in a country is the price of a unit of foreign currency expressed in terms of the home currency. This price is determined in the spot market for foreign exchange.

KEY POINTS

2. When the home exchange rate rises, less foreign currency is bought/sold per unit of home currency; the home currency has depreciated. If home currency buys *x*% less foreign currency, the home currency is said to have depreciated by *x*%.

KEY POINTS

3. When the home exchange rate falls, more foreign currency is bought/sold per unit of home currency; the home currency has appreciated. If home currency buys *x*% more foreign currency, the home currency is said to have appreciated by *x*%.

KEY POINTS

4. The exchange rate is used to convert the prices of goods and assets into a common currency to allow meaningful price comparisons.

KEY POINTS

5. Exchange rates may be stable over time or they may fluctuate. History supplies examples of the former (fixed exchange rate regimes) and the latter (floating exchange rate regimes) as well as a number of intermediate regime types.

KEY POINTS

6. An **exchange rate crisis** occurs when the exchange rate experiences a sudden and large depreciation. These events are often associated with broader economic and political turmoil, especially in developing countries.

KEY POINTS

7. Some countries may forgo a national currency to form a **currency union** with other nations (e.g., the Eurozone), or they may unilaterally adopt the currency of another country ("dollarization").

KEY POINTS

8. Looking across all countries today, numerous fixed and floating rate regimes are observed, so we must understand both types of regime.

KEY POINTS

9. The forex market is dominated by spot transactions, but many derivative contracts exist, such as forwards, swaps, futures, and options.

KEY POINTS

10. The main actors in the market are private investors and (frequently) government authorities, usually represented by the central bank.

KEY POINTS

11. Arbitrage on currencies means that spot exchange rates are approximately equal in different forex markets. Cross rates (for indirect trades) and spot rates (for direct trades) are also approximately equal.

KEY POINTS

12. Riskless interest arbitrage leads to the covered interest parity (CIP) condition. CIP says that the dollar return on dollar deposits must equal the dollar return on euro deposits, where forward contracts are used to cover exchange rate risk.

KEY POINTS

13. Covered interest parity says that the forward rate is determined by home and foreign interest rates and the spot exchange rate.

KEY POINTS

14. Risky interest arbitrage leads to the uncovered interest parity (UIP) condition. UIP says that when spot contracts are used and exchange rate risk is not covered, the dollar return on dollar deposits must equal the expected dollar returns on euro deposits.

KEY POINTS

15. Uncovered interest parity explains how the spot rate is determined by the home and foreign interest rates and the expected future spot exchange rate.

KEY TERMS

exchange rate
appreciation
depreciation
effective exchange rate
exchange rate regimes
fixed (or pegged) exchange rates
floating (or flexible) exchange rates
free float exchange rate regime
band
managed float
exchange rate crises
crawling peg
currency (or monetary) union
dollarization
currency board
foreign exchange (forex or FX) market
spot contract
spot exchange rate
spread
market friction
transaction costs
derivatives
forward
swap
futures
option
commercial banks
interbank trading
corporations
nonbank financial institutions
capital control
official market
black market
intervention
arbitrage
equilibrium
no-arbitrage condition
cross rate
vehicle currency
forward exchange rate
covered interest parity (CIP)
rate of return
risk
liquidity
expected rate of return
expected exchange rate
uncovered interest parity (UIP)
expected rate of depreciation
forward premium

Thank You for your attention!