

PROFESSIONAL CAREER CLUB

FREE CERTIFICATION PREP

FORMULA SHEET

CFA Level I

Chartered Financial Analyst · Complete formula reference

92 formulas **9** subject areas

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HOW TO USE THIS SHEET

This sheet covers every quantitative relationship you are expected to know at Level I, grouped the way the exam groups them. It is a revision tool, not a substitute for the curriculum — use it after you have learned a topic, to compress it.

Read it actively. Cover the formula, read the name, and write the formula from memory. If you cannot, that topic is not revised. Level I punishes recall gaps far more than it punishes conceptual gaps.

The ► notes are the things that actually cost marks: sign conventions, which denominator, when a formula does not apply. Those are the traps the item set writers reach for.

Suggested rhythm: one section per sitting, then 20 practice questions from that section on the Professional Career Club question bank before you move on.

QUANTITATIVE METHODS · 14 formulas

The plumbing for everything else. If time value of money is shaky, fixed income and equity will both feel harder than they are.

Present value (single sum)

$$PV = FV / (1 + r)^n$$

Where: r = periodic rate, n = number of periods.

► Match r and n to the same period. A 12% annual rate compounded quarterly means $r = 3\%$ and $n = 4$ per year — this single slip causes more wrong answers than any concept.

Future value of an ordinary annuity

$$FV = PMT \times [(1 + r)^n - 1] / r$$

Where: PMT = level payment at the end of each period.

► For an annuity due (payments at the start), multiply the ordinary-annuity answer by $(1 + r)$.

Present value of an ordinary annuity

$$PV = PMT \times [1 - (1 + r)^{-n}] / r$$

Where: PMT = level payment, r = discount rate per period.

► This is the mortgage / bond-coupon workhorse. Recognise it whenever a question gives you equal payments over a fixed horizon.

Present value of a perpetuity

$$PV = PMT / r$$

Where: PMT = level payment forever.

► The base case for the Gordon growth model — swap r for $(r - g)$ and you have a growing perpetuity.

Population variance

$$\sigma^2 = \sum (X_i - \mu)^2 / N$$

Where: μ = population mean, N = population size.

► Divides by N , not $N - 1$. The exam will hand you a population and hope you reach for the sample formula.

Sample variance

$$s^2 = \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2 / (n - 1)$$

Where: $\bar{X}$ = sample mean, n = sample size.

► The $(n - 1)$ is Bessel's correction — it removes downward bias. Sample formula $\Rightarrow n - 1$, always.

Sharpe ratio

$$S_p = (R_p - R_f) / \sigma_p$$

Where: σ_p = total standard deviation of the portfolio.

► Uses total risk. Meaningless (and misleading) when excess return is negative — a rare but favourite Level I trap.

Holding period return

$$\text{HPR} = (P_1 - P_0 + D_1) / P_0$$

Where: D_1 = any cash distribution received during the period.

- ▶ Do not drop the dividend. Price return and total return differ by exactly D_1 / P_0 .

Bayes' theorem

$$P(A|B) = P(B|A) \times P(A) / P(B)$$

$$P(B) = P(B|A)P(A) + P(B|A^c)P(A^c)$$

Where: $P(A)$ = prior, $P(A|B)$ = updated (posterior) probability.

- ▶ Build the denominator with the total-probability rule first. Nine out of ten Bayes errors are a wrong denominator, not a wrong idea.

Correlation coefficient

$$\rho(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(X, Y) / (\sigma_X \times \sigma_Y)$$

Where: Bounded between -1 and +1, unitless.

- ▶ Correlation is linear association only. A perfect non-linear relationship can still show ρ near zero.

Geometric mean return

$$R_G = [\prod (1 + R_t)]^{(1/n)} - 1$$

Where: Compounded average over n periods.

- ▶ Geometric $\leq$ arithmetic, always, and the gap widens with volatility. Use geometric to describe past performance, arithmetic to forecast a single future period.

Money-weighted return (IRR)

$$\sum CF_t / (1 + r)^t = 0$$

Where: Outflows negative, inflows positive, $t = 0 \dots N$.

- ▶ Sensitive to the timing and size of client cash flows, so it measures the investor. Time-weighted measures the manager — that is the distinction the exam tests.

Time-weighted return

$$(1 + \text{TWR}) = \prod (1 + r_i)$$

Where: r_i = sub-period return between external cash flows.

- ▶ GIPS-preferred because it strips out cash-flow timing the manager does not control.

Fisher relation (exact)

$$(1 + R_{\text{nominal}}) = (1 + R_{\text{real}})(1 + i)$$

Where: i = inflation rate.

- ▶ Approximate form $R_{\text{nom}} \approx R_{\text{real}} + i$ is fine for small numbers. In high-inflation questions (think emerging markets) use the exact multiplicative form.

EXAM TIPS — QUANTITATIVE METHODS

- TVM questions are calculator questions. Know your BA II Plus cold — clear TVM between problems (2ND → CLR TVM) or the previous question will contaminate the next.
- Sign convention: outflows negative, inflows positive. If the calculator gives you a nonsense answer, this is the first thing to check.
- Learn the difference between money-weighted and time-weighted as a sentence, not a formula: "MWR judges the investor, TWR judges the manager."

ECONOMICS · 6 formulas

Low weight, high certainty. These few relationships come up almost verbatim.

GDP — expenditure approach

$$GDP = C + I + G + (X - M)$$

Where: C = consumption, I = investment, G = government spending, X - M = net exports.

- Imports are subtracted because they were already counted inside C, I and G — they are not domestic output.

Money multiplier

$$m = 1 / \text{reserve requirement}$$

$$\Delta \text{ Money supply} = m \times \Delta \text{ Reserves}$$

Where: Maximum deposit expansion from a given reserve injection.

- It is a ceiling, not a prediction — leakage into cash holdings and excess reserves means the real-world multiplier is smaller.

Fisher effect

$$(1 + r_{\text{nom}}) = (1 + r_{\text{real}})(1 + \pi)$$

$$r_{\text{nom}} \approx r_{\text{real}} + \pi$$

Where: π = expected inflation.

- Expected inflation, not realised. Unexpected inflation is what transfers wealth from lenders to borrowers.

Breakeven and shutdown points

$$\text{Breakeven: } P = ATC$$

$$\text{Shutdown (short run): } P < AVC$$

Where: ATC = average total cost, AVC = average variable cost.

- If $AVC < P < ATC$, keep operating in the short run — you are losing money, but the contribution still covers part of the fixed cost. Shutting down loses more.

Price elasticity of demand

$$E_d = \% \Delta Q_d / \% \Delta P$$

Where: Sign is negative; the exam usually asks about the absolute value.

- $|E_d| > 1$ elastic $\Rightarrow$ cutting price raises revenue. $|E_d| < 1$ inelastic $\Rightarrow$ cutting price lowers revenue. $|E_d| = 1 \Rightarrow$ revenue is maximised.

Cross-rate calculation

$$A/C = (A/B) \times (B/C)$$

Where: Chain quoted rates so the middle currency cancels.

- With bid-ask spreads, you always transact on the side that is worse for you. Take the bid on one leg and the ask on the other, then sanity-check that the dealer profits.

EXAM TIPS — ECONOMICS

- Write the currency units next to every number in an FX question. Rates are quoted price/base, and inverting them is the single most common exchange-rate error.
- Elasticity, breakeven and shutdown are near-guaranteed marks. Do not let a low topic weight persuade you to skip them.

CORPORATE ISSUERS · 6 formulas

Cost of capital and leverage. The two leverage measures are almost always tested as a pair.

Weighted average cost of capital

$$WACC = w_d \cdot r_d \cdot (1 - t) + w_p \cdot r_p + w_e \cdot r_e$$

Where: Weights are market-value based, not book-value based.

- Only debt gets the $(1 - t)$ shield — preferred dividends are not tax-deductible. Using book weights is the classic distractor.

Free cash flow to the firm (from net income)

$$FCFF = NI + NCC + \text{Int}(1 - t) - \Delta WC - \text{CapEx}$$

Where: NCC = non-cash charges, Int = interest expense.

- Interest is added back after tax because FCFF is pre-financing — it belongs to debt and equity holders together.

Free cash flow to equity

$$FCFE = FCFF - \text{Int}(1 - t) + \Delta \text{Debt}$$

Where: ΔDebt = net new borrowing.

- Going from FCFF to FCFE, you strip out what the lenders take and add back what they lend. Get the sign of ΔDebt right: net borrowing is positive.

Degree of operating leverage

$$DOL = Q(P - V) / [Q(P - V) - F] = \text{Contribution margin} / \text{EBIT}$$

Where: Q = units, P = price, V = variable cost per unit, F = fixed costs.

- Driven by fixed costs. High fixed-cost businesses (airlines, semiconductors) have violent DOL.

Degree of financial leverage

$$DFL = \text{EBIT} / (\text{EBIT} - I)$$

Where: I = interest expense.

- The % change in EPS for a 1% change in EBIT. Driven by debt, not by the cost structure.

Degree of total leverage

$$DTL = DOL \times DFL = Q(P - V) / [Q(P - V) - F - I]$$

Where: Combined sensitivity of EPS to a 1% change in sales.

- Note it multiplies, not adds. Total leverage compounds — this is why levered, fixed-cost businesses blow up in downturns.

EXAM TIPS — CORPORATE ISSUERS

- DOL and DFL are evaluated at a specific output level. Change Q and the ratio changes — the exam loves asking you to recompute after a sales shift.
- When a question gives you both book and market values of debt and equity, it is testing whether you know WACC uses market weights.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT ANALYSIS · 8 formulas

Ratio mechanics. Learn which averages go in the denominator — that is where the marks hide.

Return on equity (3-factor DuPont)

$$ROE = (\text{NI} / \text{Sales}) \times (\text{Sales} / \text{Assets}) \times (\text{Assets} / \text{Equity})$$

Where: Net profit margin $\times$ asset turnover $\times$ financial leverage.

- This is the decomposition that lets you say why ROE moved. A rising ROE driven purely by the leverage term is a warning, not an achievement.

Return on equity (2-factor)

$$ROE = \text{Net income} / \text{Average total equity}$$

Where: Average of opening and closing equity.

- Stock (balance sheet) over flow (income statement) $\Rightarrow$ average the stock. Applies to ROA and every turnover ratio too.

Return on assets

$$ROA = \text{Net income} / \text{Average total assets}$$

$$ROA = \text{Net profit margin} \times \text{Asset turnover}$$

Where: Measures how efficiently the whole asset base generates profit.

- ▶ Some texts add back after-tax interest to the numerator so the measure is capital-structure neutral. Read the question stem for which version it wants.

Current ratio

$$\text{Current ratio} = \text{Current assets} / \text{Current liabilities}$$

Where: Short-term liquidity coverage.

- ▶ A high current ratio can mean bloated inventory or uncollected receivables. Quick ratio strips inventory out for exactly this reason.

Inventory turnover and days on hand

$$\text{Inventory turnover} = \text{COGS} / \text{Average inventory}$$

$$\text{DOH} = 365 / \text{Inventory turnover}$$

Where: COGS, not revenue — inventory is carried at cost.

- ▶ Using sales in the numerator is the standard distractor. If turnover collapses, inventory is piling up: obsolescence risk.

Receivables turnover and DSO

$$\text{Receivables turnover} = \text{Revenue} / \text{Average receivables}$$

$$\text{DSO} = 365 / \text{Receivables turnover}$$

Where: DSO = average collection period in days.

- ▶ Revenue here, cost there. Rising DSO with flat sales means the company is buying growth with looser credit terms.

Cash flow interest coverage

$$\text{Coverage} = (\text{CFO} + \text{Interest paid} + \text{Tax paid}) / \text{Interest paid}$$

Where: CFO = cash flow from operations.

- ▶ Add interest and tax back because they were already deducted in arriving at CFO. Cash-based coverage is harder to manipulate than EBIT-based coverage.

Cash return on assets

$$\text{Cash ROA} = \text{CFO} / \text{Average total assets}$$

Where: Cash-based counterpart to ROA.

- ▶ When accrual ROA is healthy but cash ROA is not, earnings quality is the story — that gap is the whole point of the ratio.

EXAM TIPS — FINANCIAL STATEMENT ANALYSIS

- Rule of thumb: income-statement item over balance-sheet item $\Rightarrow$ average the balance-sheet item.
- Sustainable growth ties FSA to equity: $g = b \times \text{ROE}$. Expect it to appear in an equity valuation question, not an FSA one.
- For ratio comparisons across firms, check the accounting policies first (LIFO vs FIFO, capitalising vs expensing). A ratio difference may be an accounting difference.

EQUITY INVESTMENTS · 21 formulas

The largest formula block at Level I. Dividend discount, multiples and market mechanics.

Gordon growth model

$$V_0 = D_1 / (r - g) = D_0(1 + g) / (r - g)$$

Where: D_1 = next year's dividend, g = constant growth rate.

- ▶ Requires $r > g$, and requires g to be genuinely perpetual. If the question hands you D_0 , you must grow it one period first.

Justified leading P/E

$$P_0 / E_1 = (1 - b) / (r - g)$$

Where: b = retention ratio, so $(1 - b)$ = payout ratio.

- ▶ Leading uses $(1 - b)$; trailing uses $(1 - b)(1 + g)$. Mixing them up is the single most common equity error at Level I.

Justified trailing P/E

$$P_0 / E_0 = (1 - b)(1 + g) / (r - g)$$

Where: Uses last year's realised earnings.

- ▶ The extra $(1 + g)$ is what turns E_0 into E_1 . Derive it from the leading version instead of memorising both.

P/E ratio (trailing and leading)

$$\text{Trailing: } P_0 / \text{EPS}_0 \quad (\text{last 12 months})$$

$$\text{Leading: } P_0 / \text{EPS}_1 \quad (\text{next 12 months})$$

Where: EPS_0 = realised, EPS_1 = forecast.

- ▶ Leading P/E is forward-looking and preferred for valuation; trailing is observable and preferred for screening.

Sustainable growth rate

$$g = b \times \text{ROE}$$

Where: b = retention rate = $1 - \text{payout ratio}$.

- ▶ The growth a firm can fund internally without issuing new equity or changing leverage. Growth above this requires external financing.

Enterprise value

$$\text{EV} = \text{Market cap} + \text{Debt} + \text{Preferred} - \text{Cash}$$

$$\text{EV} / \text{EBITDA} = \text{enterprise value multiple}$$

Where: Cash is subtracted because an acquirer gets it back.

- ▶ EV/EBITDA is capital-structure neutral, which is why it beats P/E when comparing firms with different leverage.

Equity value per share from enterprise value

$$P_0 = (\text{EV} - \text{Debt} + \text{Cash}) / \text{Diluted shares}$$

Where: Reverses the EV bridge back to equity.

- ▶ Diluted shares, not basic. Options and convertibles are real claims on the equity.

Price-to-book

$$P/B = \text{Market price per share} / \text{Book value per share}$$

$$\text{Justified P/B} = (\text{ROE} - g) / (r - g)$$

Where: Book value = common equity, excluding preferred.

- ▶ $P/B > 1$ whenever $\text{ROE} > r$ — the firm earns more than its cost of equity. That equivalence is worth memorising outright.

Residual income

$$\text{RI}_t = \text{NI}_t - (r \times \text{BV}_{t-1})$$

Where: r = cost of equity, BV = opening book value of equity.

- ▶ Charges a rent on equity capital. Residual income can be negative even when net income is positive — that is the entire insight.

Two-stage dividend discount model

$$V_0 = \sum D_t / (1 + r)^t + [D_{n+1} / (r - g_s)] / (1 + r)^n$$

Where: g_s = stable growth after the explicit horizon.

- ▶ The terminal value is a value at time n , so it gets discounted n periods, not $n + 1$. Off-by-one here is the classic slip.

Terminal value via Gordon growth on FCFF

$$\text{TV}_n = \text{FCFF}_{n+1} / (\text{WACC} - g)$$

Where: FCFF discounted at WACC because it belongs to all capital providers.

- ▶ FCFF pairs with WACC and gives firm value. FCFE pairs with cost of equity and gives equity value directly. Never cross the streams.

Single-stage FCF perpetuity (enterprise value)

$$\text{EV} = \text{FCF}_0 \times (1 + g) / (\text{WACC} - g)$$

Where: g = terminal growth rate.

- ▶ Terminal g cannot exceed long-run nominal GDP growth. If a question implies it does, that is the answer they want you to reject.

Arbitrage pricing theory

$$E(R_i) = R_f + \sum \beta_{i,k} \times \lambda_k$$

Where: λ_k = risk premium per unit of exposure to factor k.

▶ APT is multi-factor and makes no assumption about the market portfolio — that is its advantage over CAPM. It does not tell you what the factors are.

Carhart four-factor model

$$E(R_i) - R_f = \beta_{i,M}[E(R_M) - R_f] + \beta_{i,S} \cdot \text{SMB} + \beta_{i,V} \cdot \text{HML} + \beta_{i,W} \cdot \text{WML}$$

Where: SMB = size, HML = value, WML = momentum.

▶ Fama–French three-factor plus momentum. A manager whose "alpha" disappears once these factors are added was selling beta.

Total return on an equity security

$$R_{\text{total}} = (P_1 - P_0 + D_1) / P_0 = R_{\text{price}} + D_1/P_0$$

Where: Price return plus dividend yield.

▶ Over long horizons the dividend component is a large share of total return — a favourite qualitative statement.

Price return

$$R_{\text{price}} = (P_1 - P_0) / P_0$$

Where: Capital appreciation only.

▶ Most headline indices are price indices. Total-return indices include reinvested dividends and sit meaningfully higher over time.

Average daily volume

$$\text{ADV} = \sum V_i / n$$

Where: V_i = shares traded on day i over an n-day window.

▶ Liquidity proxy. Position size relative to ADV is what drives market impact — this idea reappears throughout Level III.

Free float

$$\text{Float} = \text{Shares outstanding} - \text{Restricted shares}$$

Where: Restricted = insider lock-ups, strategic stakes, treasury, government holdings.

▶ Float-adjusted market cap is what most index providers weight on, so a low-float company has less index weight than its headline market cap implies.

Implied price via comparables

$$P_{\text{target}} = M_{\text{peer}} \times F_{\text{target}}$$

Where: M_{peer} = peer median multiple, F_{target} = the target's own fundamental (EPS, BVPS...).

▶ Comparables inherit the market's mispricing. If the whole sector is expensive, your "fair value" is expensive too.

Cumulative voting

$$V = S \times N$$

Where: S = shares held, N = board seats up for election.

▶ Cumulative voting lets a minority holder concentrate all votes on one candidate — it protects minority representation. Straight voting does not.

Voting power in a dual-class structure

$$VP = (S_A \cdot v_A + S_B \cdot v_B) / \sum S_i v_i$$

Where: v = votes attached to each share in that class.

▶ Economic ownership and voting control come apart here. Founders can hold a small cash-flow stake and still control the board — a standard governance red flag.

EXAM TIPS — EQUITY INVESTMENTS

- Almost every DDM error is one of three things: using D_0 where D_1 belongs, discounting the terminal value one period too many, or applying constant growth to a company that plainly does not have it.

- Justified multiples come from the Gordon model. If you can derive P/E and P/B from $V_0 = D_1/(r - g)$, you never have to memorise them.
- Cash-flow / discount-rate pairing: FCFF $\rightleftharpoons$ WACC $\rightleftharpoons$ firm value. FCFE $\rightleftharpoons$ cost of equity $\rightleftharpoons$ equity value. Dividends $\rightleftharpoons$ cost of equity $\rightleftharpoons$ equity value.

FIXED INCOME · 14 formulas

Pricing, then yield, then risk. Duration and convexity carry the most marks.

Bond price

$$P = \sum C/(1 + r)^t + FV/(1 + r)^n$$

Where: C = coupon per period, r = periodic YTM, n = number of periods.

► A bond is an annuity plus a lump sum. Price and yield always move in opposite directions.

Current yield

$$\text{Current yield} = \text{Annual coupon} / \text{Price}$$

Where: Simplest yield measure.

► Ignores capital gain or loss and time value. For a discount bond it understates the true return; for a premium bond it overstates it.

Macaulay duration

$$D_{\text{Mac}} = \sum [t \times CF_t / (1 + r)^t] / P$$

Where: Weighted average time to receipt of cash flows, in years.

► A zero-coupon bond has Macaulay duration exactly equal to its maturity. That single fact anchors the whole concept.

Modified duration

$$D_{\text{Mod}} = D_{\text{Mac}} / (1 + r)$$

$$\% \Delta P \approx -D_{\text{Mod}} \times \Delta y$$

Where: r = periodic YTM, Δy = change in yield (decimal).

► The minus sign is not decoration. A 0.5% rise in yield on a duration-7 bond is roughly a 3.5% price fall.

Effective duration

$$\text{EffDur} = (P_- - P_+) / (2 \times P_0 \times \Delta y)$$

Where: P_- = price if yields fall, P_+ = price if yields rise.

► Use effective, not modified, whenever cash flows can change with yields — callables, putables, MBS. Modified duration is meaningless for those.

Effective / approximate convexity

$$\text{Convexity} = (P_- + P_+ - 2P_0) / (P_0 \times (\Delta y)^2)$$

Where: Same three prices as effective duration.

► Positive convexity is a free lunch: prices rise more than duration predicts and fall less. Callable bonds go negatively convex near the call price.

Price change with convexity adjustment

$$\% \Delta P \approx -\text{ModDur} \times \Delta y + \frac{1}{2} \times \text{Convexity} \times (\Delta y)^2$$

Where: Second-order correction to the duration estimate.

► The convexity term is always positive (for positively convex bonds), so duration alone always understates the price gain and overstates the loss.

Forward rate from spot rates

$$(1 + z_2)^2 = (1 + z_1)(1 + {}_1f_1)$$

$$(1 + z_n)^n = (1 + z_{n-1})^{(n-1)} \times (1 + {}_{n-1}f_1)$$

Where: z = spot rate, f = implied forward rate.

► Read the notation carefully: ${}_2f_3$ means a 3-year rate starting in 2 years. Getting the subscripts backwards is the entire difficulty here.

Price value of a basis point

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PVBP} &= |P \text{ at } (y + 0.01\%) - P \text{ at } y| \\ \text{PVBP} &= D_{\text{Mod}} \times P \times 0.0001 \end{aligned}$$

Where: Dollar price change for a 1 bp yield move.

- ▶ Same idea as DV01, which you will meet again at Level III for hedging. Money terms, not percentage terms.

Floating-rate note price (discount margin)

$$PV = \sum [(MRR + QM) \cdot FV/m] / (1 + (MRR + DM)/m)^t + FV / (1 + (MRR + DM)/m)^N$$

Where: QM = quoted margin, DM = required discount margin, m = periods per year.

- ▶ If $DM = QM$ the FRN prices at par. $DM > QM$ (credit has deteriorated) prices it at a discount.

Bond equivalent yield (money market)

$$\text{BEY} = [(FV - PV) / PV] \times (365 / \text{days})$$

Where: days = days to maturity.

- ▶ A 365-day, add-on yield. Discount-basis quotes (T-bills) use 360 days and the face value as the base — convert before you compare.

Debt-to-EBITDA

$$\text{Debt} / \text{EBITDA} = \text{Total debt} / \text{EBITDA}$$

Where: Total debt = all interest-bearing debt.

- ▶ Lower is stronger. This is the leverage ratio credit analysts quote first, and it reappears in private debt at Level III.

EBITDA-to-interest coverage

$$\text{Coverage} = \text{EBITDA} / \text{Interest expense}$$

Where: Higher is stronger.

- ▶ Leverage tells you how much debt; coverage tells you whether it can be serviced. Rating agencies want both.

Portfolio effective duration

$$D_{\text{eff, port}} = \sum w_i \times D_{\text{eff, i}}$$

Where: w_i = market-value weight of each bond.

- ▶ Market-value weights, and it assumes a parallel yield-curve shift. For non-parallel shifts you need key rate durations.

EXAM TIPS — FIXED INCOME

- Duration is a first derivative, convexity a second. Duration alone is only accurate for small yield moves — the exam signals a large move when it wants the convexity term.
- Callable $\Rightarrow$ negative convexity at low yields, and $\text{OAS} < \text{Z-spread}$. Puttable $\Rightarrow$ the reverse. Learn the direction, not just the definition.
- Every "which bond has the highest duration" question resolves the same way: longer maturity, lower coupon, lower yield $\Rightarrow$ higher duration.

DERIVATIVES · 9 formulas

No-arbitrage pricing. Put-call parity is the single highest-yield relationship in the topic.

Put-call parity

$$C + X/(1 + r)^T = P + S_0$$

Where: Same strike, same expiry, European options.

- ▶ Memorise it as "fiduciary call = protective put". Rearranging it gives you every synthetic position the exam can ask for.

Forward contract price

$$F_0 = S_0(1 + r)^T$$

$$\text{With continuous dividends: } F_0 = S_0 \cdot e^{(r - q)T}$$

Where: q = dividend yield.

- *Cost of carry. Anything the asset pays you (dividends, coupons) lowers the forward price; anything it costs you (storage) raises it.*

Forward price with discrete income or cost

$$F_0(T) = [S_0 - PV(I) + PV(C)] \times (1 + r)^T$$

Where: I = discrete income over T, C = carrying cost.

- *Income out, cost in — the signs are the whole formula. Present-value them at the risk-free rate before compounding forward.*

Option payoff at expiration

$$\text{Long call: } \max(S_T - X, 0)$$

$$\text{Long put: } \max(X - S_T, 0)$$

Where: S_T = spot at expiry, X = strike.

- *Payoff is not profit. Subtract the premium paid (or add the premium received) to get profit — the exam alternates between the two words deliberately.*

Intrinsic value and time value

$$\text{Call intrinsic: } \max(S - X, 0)$$

$$\text{Put intrinsic: } \max(X - S, 0)$$

$$\text{Time value} = \text{Option price} - \text{Intrinsic value}$$

Where: Intrinsic value is never negative.

- *Time value is largest at the money and decays to zero at expiry. Deep in- or out-of-the-money options have almost none.*

Lower bounds on European options (no dividends)

$$c \geq \max(S_0 - X(1 + r)^{-T}, 0)$$

$$p \geq \max(X(1 + r)^{-T} - S_0, 0)$$

Where: Enforced by no-arbitrage.

- *Below these bounds you can construct a riskless profit. This is why deep-ITM European puts can trade below intrinsic value while calls cannot.*

Value of a long forward during its life

$$V_t = (F_t - F_0) / (1 + r)^{(T - t)}$$

Where: F_t = today's forward price for the same expiry, F_0 = the price you locked in.

- *Value at initiation is zero; price is not. That price/value distinction is tested nearly every sitting.*

Swap fixed rate at initiation

$$s^* = [1 - D(t_n)] / \sum D(t_i)$$

Where: $D(t_i)$ = discount factor for settlement date i.

- *The fixed rate is set so the swap is worth zero at inception. It is a weighted average of the forward rates, not a forecast.*

Swap value after initiation (fixed receiver)

$$V = PV(\text{fixed leg}) - PV(\text{floating leg})$$

Where: PVs computed with current discount factors.

- *On any reset date the floating leg is worth par (notional). That shortcut collapses most swap-valuation questions into one line.*

EXAM TIPS — DERIVATIVES

- Every derivatives price at Level I comes from one idea: two portfolios with identical payoffs must cost the same today. If a question feels hard, build the replicating portfolio.
- Forwards and futures are priced identically at Level I. The difference (daily settlement, interest on margin) is acknowledged and then assumed away.
- Long option = limited loss, unlimited (calls) or large (puts) gain. Short option = the mirror image. Draw the payoff diagram — it is faster than reasoning it out.

ALTERNATIVE INVESTMENTS · 6 formulas

Real estate valuation and fund fee mechanics. Small topic, very predictable questions.

Net asset value per share

$$\text{NAV} = (\text{Total assets} - \text{Total liabilities}) / \text{Shares outstanding}$$

Where: Used for mutual funds, ETFs and fund valuation.

- ▶ ETFs can trade at a premium or discount to NAV; the creation/redemption mechanism is what keeps the gap small.

Net operating income

$$\text{NOI} = \text{Effective gross income} - \text{Operating expenses}$$

Where: EGI = potential gross income less vacancy and credit losses.

- ▶ NOI excludes financing costs, income tax, depreciation and amortisation. Deducting mortgage interest from NOI is the standard trap.

Capitalisation rate

$$V = \text{NOI} / r_{\text{cap}}$$

$$r_{\text{cap}} = \text{NOI} / \text{Value}$$

Where: NOI = stabilised first-year net operating income.

- ▶ Implicitly, cap rate = discount rate – growth. So a falling cap rate means rising values — cap rate compression is the property equivalent of multiple expansion.

Loan-to-value

$$\text{LTV} = \text{Loan amount} / \text{Property value}$$

Where: Higher LTV = more leverage and more credit risk.

- ▶ Roughly 80% is the commercial ceiling; residential can exceed 95% with mortgage insurance. Lenders covenant on LTV and DSCR together.

Debt service coverage ratio

$$\text{DSCR} = \text{NOI} / \text{Debt service}$$

Where: Debt service = annual principal + interest.

- ▶ $\text{DSCR} > 1$ means cash flow covers debt. Commercial lenders typically require 1.20–1.30 — below 1.0 the property cannot pay its own mortgage.

Hedge fund fees (2-and-20)

$$\text{Management fee} = m \times \text{AUM}$$

$$\text{Incentive fee} = p \times \max(0, \text{profit above hurdle})$$

Where: $m \approx 2\%$, $p \approx 20\%$.

- ▶ Order matters. Whether the incentive fee is charged on returns net or gross of the management fee changes the answer — read the stem. A high-water mark means past losses must be recovered before incentive fees resume.

EXAM TIPS — ALTERNATIVE INVESTMENTS

- Almost every real estate question reduces to NOI. Build NOI correctly and the cap rate, DSCR and LTV steps are arithmetic.
- Fee questions are pure sequencing. Write the order down — management fee, hurdle, high-water mark, then incentive — before you compute anything.

PORTFOLIO MANAGEMENT · 8 formulas

CAPM, risk measures and the performance ratios. These recur at Level II and Level III essentially unchanged.

Capital market line

$$E(R_p) = R_f + [(E(R_m) - R_f) / \sigma_m] \times \sigma_p$$

Where: Slope = the market's Sharpe ratio.

- ▶ CML uses total risk (σ) and only holds for efficient portfolios. SML uses beta and holds for any asset. Do not swap them.

CAPM / security market line

$$E(R_i) = R_f + \beta_i [E(R_m) - R_f]$$

$$\beta_i = \text{Cov}(R_i, R_m) / \sigma^2_m$$

Where: Prices systematic risk only.

- ▶ Unsystematic risk earns nothing because it can be diversified away for free. A plot above the SML means undervalued (positive alpha).

Beta from correlation

$$\beta_i = \rho_{i,m} \times (\sigma_i / \sigma_m) = \text{Cov}(R_i, R_m) / \sigma^2_m$$

Where: ρ = correlation with the market.

- ▶ A volatile stock with low market correlation can have a low beta. High σ does not mean high β — a favourite conceptual question.

Two-asset portfolio variance

$$\sigma^2_p = w_1^2 \sigma_1^2 + w_2^2 \sigma_2^2 + 2w_1 w_2 \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \rho_{12}$$

Where: ρ_{12} = correlation between the two assets.

- ▶ The diversification benefit lives entirely in the last term. At $\rho = 1$ there is none; at $\rho < 1$ portfolio risk is less than the weighted average of the parts.

Information ratio

$$IR = (R_p - R_B) / \sigma(R_p - R_B) = \alpha / \text{Tracking error}$$

Where: R_B = benchmark return.

- ▶ Active return per unit of active risk. Sharpe judges the total portfolio; IR judges the active bets inside it.

Treynor ratio

$$T_p = (R_p - R_f) / \beta_p$$

Where: Excess return per unit of systematic risk.

- ▶ Use Treynor when the portfolio is one sleeve of a larger diversified whole — only its systematic risk matters then. Use Sharpe when it is someone's entire wealth.

Jensen's alpha

$$\alpha_p = R_p - [R_f + \beta_p(R_m - R_f)]$$

Where: Actual return minus CAPM-required return.

- ▶ $\alpha > 0$ means the manager beat the return their risk entitled them to. It is the only one of these measures expressed in return units rather than as a ratio.

M-squared

$$M^2 = (R_p - R_f) \times (\sigma_m / \sigma_p) + R_f$$

Where: Levers or de-levers the portfolio to the market's volatility.

- ▶ Expressed in percent, so it is directly comparable across portfolios and directly comparable to the market return itself. Same ranking as Sharpe, friendlier units.

EXAM TIPS — PORTFOLIO MANAGEMENT

- Sharpe and M^2 rank portfolios identically — M^2 just restates Sharpe in percentage terms. Treynor and Jensen rank on beta instead, so they can disagree with Sharpe for an undiversified portfolio.
- If a question stresses that the portfolio is NOT well diversified, it wants a total-risk measure (Sharpe). If it is one component of a diversified whole, it wants a systematic-risk measure (Treynor or Jensen).

FINAL WEEK CHECKLIST

Know cold, no thinking required

- TVM on the calculator, including annuity due and uneven cash flows.
- Duration → price change, with and without the convexity adjustment.
- Put-call parity, and the four synthetics you can rearrange out of it.
- DuPont, in both the 3-factor and 5-factor forms.
- Gordon growth, and the justified P/E and P/B that fall out of it.

The traps that actually cost people the exam

- Periodic vs annual rates. Divide r , multiply n . Every single time.
- D_0 vs D_1 in any dividend model.
- Sample ($n - 1$) vs population (N) variance.
- COGS in inventory turnover, revenue in receivables turnover.
- Effective duration for bonds with embedded options — never modified duration.
- Payoff vs profit on options. The premium is the difference.

How to revise from here

- Do not re-read. Do questions, get them wrong, and read only the topic you got wrong.
- Time yourself at 90 seconds per question. Level I is a speed exam as much as a knowledge exam.
- Track your errors by type, not by topic. "I misread the question" and "I did not know the formula" need completely different fixes.

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