

Spread of Nonbenchmark Bonds

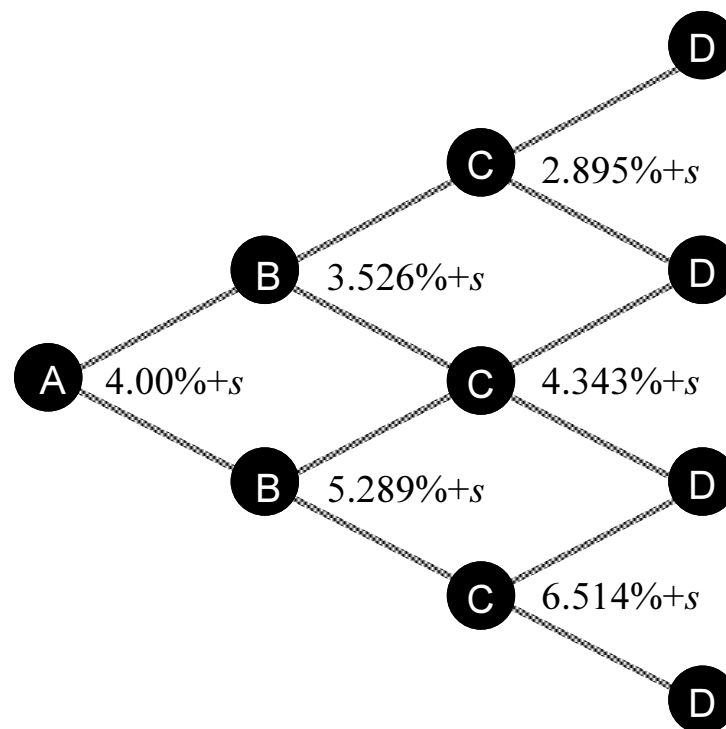
- Model prices calculated by the calibrated tree as a rule do not match market prices of nonbenchmark bonds.
- The incremental return over the benchmark bonds is called spread.
- If we add the spread uniformly over the short rates in the tree, the model price will equal the market price.
- We will apply the spread concept to option-free bonds next.

Spread of Nonbenchmark Bonds (continued)

- We illustrate the idea with an example.
- Start with the tree on p. 946.
- Consider a security with cash flow C_i at time i for $i = 1, 2, 3$.
- Its model price is $p(s)$, which is equal to

$$\frac{1}{1.04 + s} \times \left[C_1 + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{1.03526 + s} \times \left(C_2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{C_3}{1.02895 + s} + \frac{C_3}{1.04343 + s} \right) \right) + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{1.05289 + s} \times \left(C_2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{C_3}{1.04343 + s} + \frac{C_3}{1.06514 + s} \right) \right) \right].$$

- Given a market price of P , the spread is the s that solves $P = p(s)$.



Implied forward rates: 4.0% 4.4% 4.5%

◀ ▶▶ ▶▶ ▶

period 1 period 2 period 3

Spread of Nonbenchmark Bonds (continued)

- The model price $p(s)$ is a monotonically decreasing, convex function of s .
- We will employ the Newton-Raphson root-finding method to solve

$$p(s) - P = 0$$

for s .

- But a quick look at the equation for $p(s)$ reveals that evaluating $p'(s)$ directly is infeasible.
- Fortunately, the tree can be used to evaluate both $p(s)$ and $p'(s)$ during backward induction.

Spread of Nonbenchmark Bonds (continued)

- Consider an arbitrary node A in the tree associated with the short rate r .
- In the process of computing the model price $p(s)$, a price $p_A(s)$ is computed at A .
- Prices computed at A 's two successor nodes B and C are discounted by $r + s$ to obtain $p_A(s)$ as follows,

$$p_A(s) = c + \frac{p_B(s) + p_C(s)}{2(1 + r + s)},$$

where c denotes the cash flow at A .

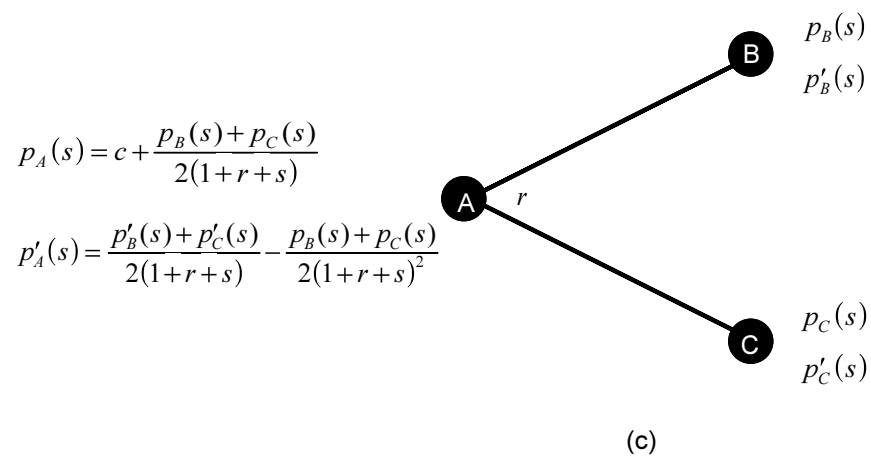
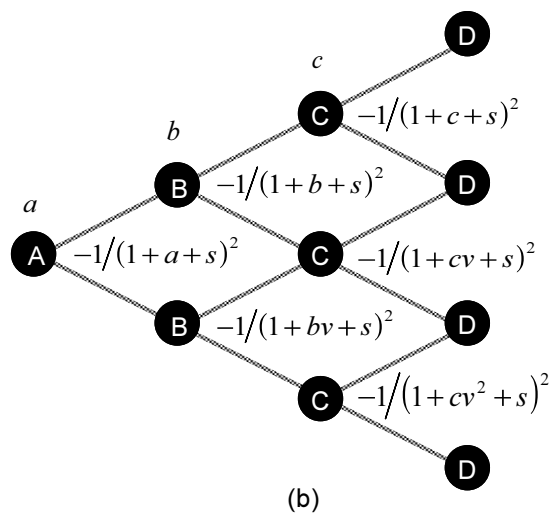
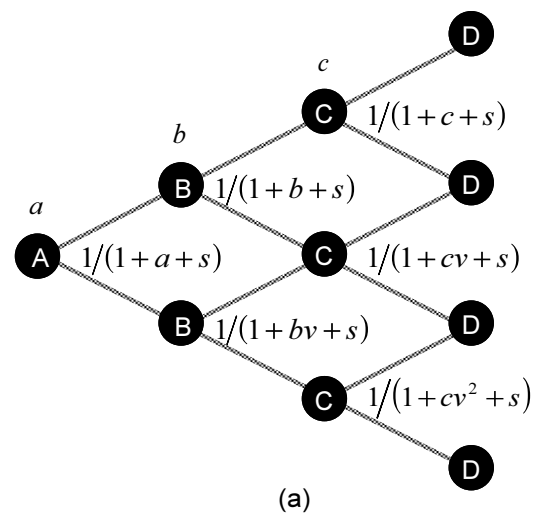
Spread of Nonbenchmark Bonds (continued)

- To compute $p'_A(s)$ as well, node A calculates

$$p'_A(s) = \frac{p'_B(s) + p'_C(s)}{2(1 + r + s)} - \frac{p_B(s) + p_C(s)}{2(1 + r + s)^2}. \quad (111)$$

- This is easy if $p'_B(s)$ and $p'_C(s)$ are also computed at nodes B and C.
- When A is a terminal node, simply use the payoff function for $p_A(s)$.^a

^aContributed by Mr. Chou, Ming-Hsin (R02723073) on May 28, 2014.



Spread of Nonbenchmark Bonds (continued)

- Apply the above procedure inductively to yield $p(s)$ and $p'(s)$ at the root (p. 950).
- This is called the differential tree method.^a
- The total running time is $O(n^2)$.
- The memory requirement is $O(n)$.

^aLyu (1999).

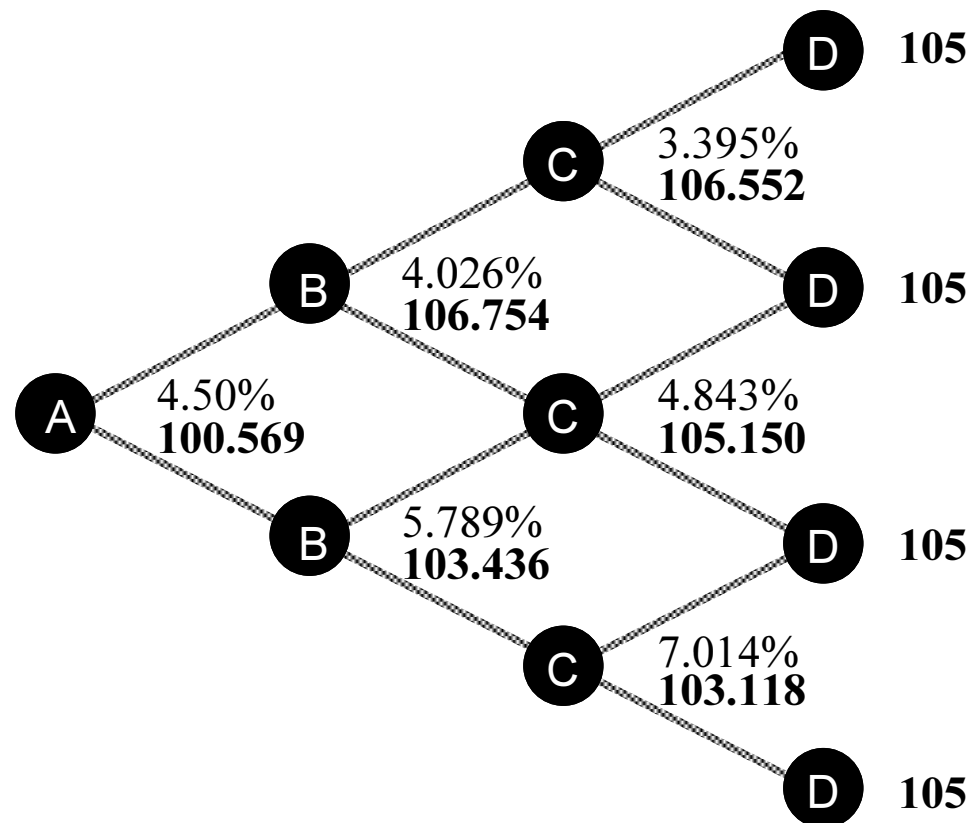
Spread of Nonbenchmark Bonds (continued)

Number of partitions n	Running time (s)	Number of iterations	Number of partitions	Running time (s)	Number of iterations
500	7.850	5	10500	3503.410	5
1500	71.650	5	11500	4169.570	5
2500	198.770	5	12500	4912.680	5
3500	387.460	5	13500	5714.440	5
4500	641.400	5	14500	6589.360	5
5500	951.800	5	15500	7548.760	5
6500	1327.900	5	16500	8502.950	5
7500	1761.110	5	17500	9523.900	5
8500	2269.750	5	18500	10617.370	5
9500	2834.170	5

75MHz Sun SPARCstation 20.

Spread of Nonbenchmark Bonds (concluded)

- Consider a three-year, 5% bond with a market price of 100.569.
- Assume the bond pays annual interest.
- The spread can be shown to be 50 basis points over the tree (p. 954).
- Note that the idea of spread does not assume parallel shifts in the term structure.
- It also differs from the yield spread (p. 119) and static spread (p. 120) of the nonbenchmark bond over an otherwise identical benchmark bond.



Cash flows: 5 5 105

More Applications of the Differential Tree: Calculating Implied Volatility (in seconds)^a

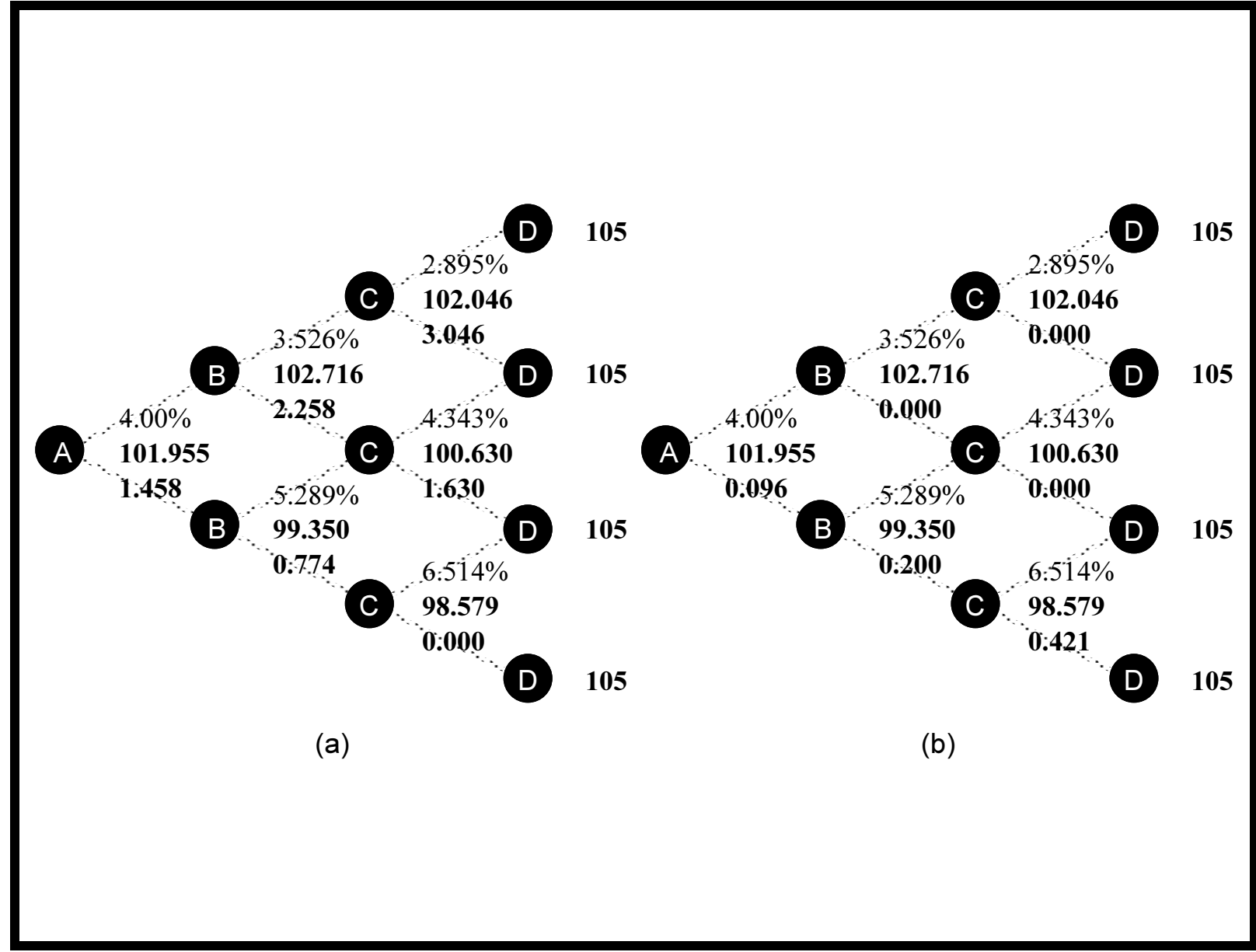
American call			American put		
Number of partitions	Running time	Number of iterations	Number of partitions	Running time	Number of iterations
100	0.008210	2	100	0.013845	3
200	0.033310	2	200	0.036335	3
300	0.072940	2	300	0.120455	3
400	0.129180	2	400	0.214100	3
500	0.201850	2	500	0.333950	3
600	0.290480	2	600	0.323260	2
700	0.394090	2	700	0.435720	2
800	0.522040	2	800	0.569605	2

Intel 166MHz Pentium, running on Microsoft Windows 95.

^aLyuu (1999).

Fixed-Income Options

- Consider a two-year 99 European call on the three-year, 5% Treasury.
- Assume the Treasury pays annual interest.
- From p. 957 the three-year Treasury's price minus the \$5 interest at year 2 could be \$102.046, \$100.630, or \$98.579 two years from now.
- Since these prices do not include the accrued interest, we should compare the strike price against them.
- The call is therefore in the money in the first two scenarios, with values of \$3.046 and \$1.630, and out of the money in the third scenario.



Fixed-Income Options (continued)

- The option value is calculated to be \$1.458 on p. 957(a).
- European interest rate puts can be valued similarly.
- Consider a two-year 99 European put on the same security.
- At expiration, the put is in the money only when the Treasury is worth \$98.579 without the accrued interest.
- The option value is computed to be \$0.096 on p. 957(b).

Fixed-Income Options (concluded)

- The present value of the strike price is
 $PV(X) = 99 \times 0.92101 = 91.18$.
- The Treasury is worth $B = 101.955$.
- The present value of the interest payments during the life of the options is

$$PV(I) = 5 \times 0.96154 + 5 \times 0.92101 = 9.41275.$$

- The call and the put are worth $C = 1.458$ and $P = 0.096$, respectively.
- Hence the put-call parity is preserved:

$$C = P + B - PV(I) - PV(X).$$

Delta or Hedge Ratio

- How much does the option price change in response to changes in the price of the underlying bond?
- This relation is called delta (or hedge ratio) defined as

$$\frac{O_h - O_\ell}{P_h - P_\ell}.$$

- In the above P_h and P_ℓ denote the bond prices if the short rate moves up and down, respectively.
- Similarly, O_h and O_ℓ denote the option values if the short rate moves up and down, respectively.

Delta or Hedge Ratio (concluded)

- Since delta measures the sensitivity of the option value to changes in the underlying bond price, it shows how to hedge one with the other.
- Take the call and put on p. 957 as examples.
- Their deltas are

$$\frac{0.774 - 2.258}{99.350 - 102.716} = 0.441,$$
$$\frac{0.200 - 0.000}{99.350 - 102.716} = -0.059,$$

respectively.

Volatility Term Structures

- The binomial interest rate tree can be used to calculate the yield volatility of zero-coupon bonds.
- Consider an n -period zero-coupon bond.
- First find its yield to maturity y_h (y_ℓ , respectively) at the end of the initial period if the short rate rises (declines, respectively).
- The yield volatility for our model is defined as $(1/2) \ln(y_h/y_\ell)$.

Volatility Term Structures (continued)

- For example, based on the tree on p. 940, the two-year zero's yield at the end of the first period is 5.289% if the rate rises and 3.526% if the rate declines.
- Its yield volatility is therefore

$$\frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{0.05289}{0.03526} \right) = 20.273\%.$$

Volatility Term Structures (continued)

- Consider the three-year zero-coupon bond.
- If the short rate rises, the price of the zero one year from now will be

$$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{1.05289} \times \left(\frac{1}{1.04343} + \frac{1}{1.06514} \right) = 0.90096.$$

- Thus its yield is $\sqrt{\frac{1}{0.90096}} - 1 = 0.053531$.
- If the short rate declines, the price of the zero one year from now will be

$$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{1.03526} \times \left(\frac{1}{1.02895} + \frac{1}{1.04343} \right) = 0.93225.$$

Volatility Term Structures (continued)

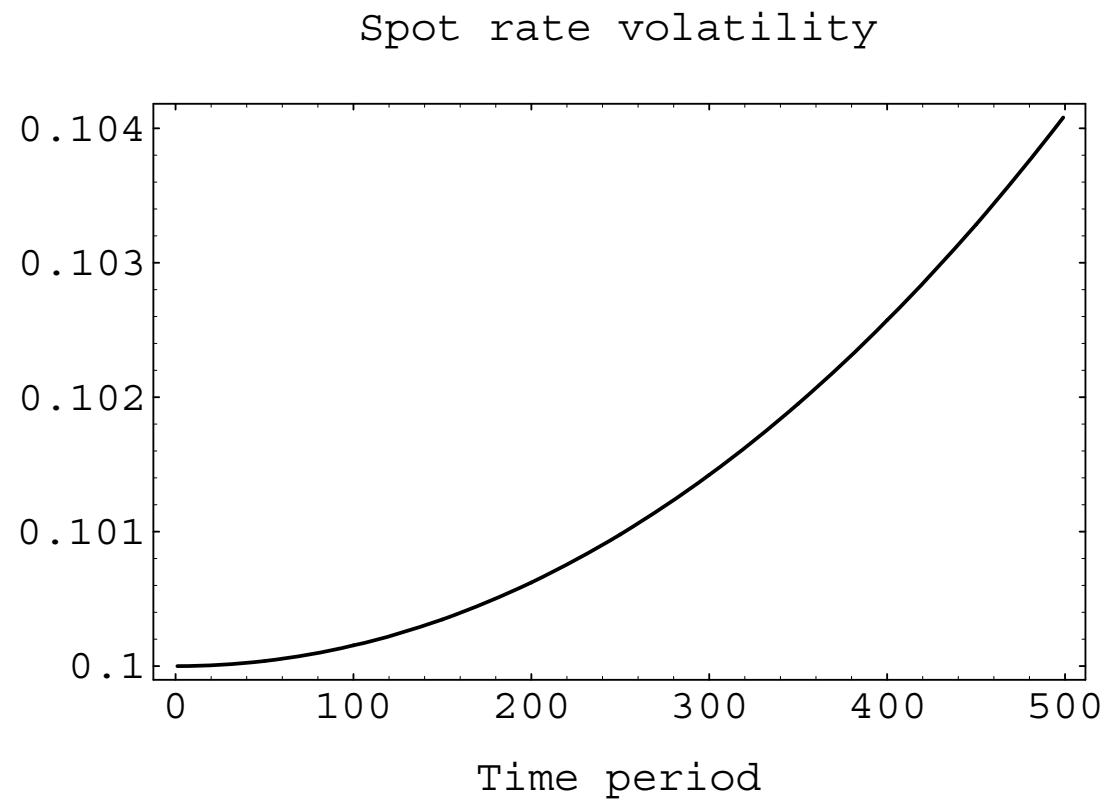
- Thus its yield is $\sqrt{\frac{1}{0.93225}} - 1 = 0.0357$.
- The yield volatility is hence

$$\frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{0.053531}{0.0357} \right) = 20.256\%,$$

slightly less than the one-year yield volatility.

- This is consistent with the reality that longer-term bonds typically have lower yield volatilities than shorter-term bonds.^a
- The procedure can be repeated for longer-term zeros to obtain their yield volatilities.

^aThe relation is reversed for price volatilities (duration).



Short rate volatility given flat %10 volatility term structure.

Volatility Term Structures (concluded)

- We started with v_i and then derived the volatility term structure.
- In practice, the steps are reversed.
- The volatility term structure is supplied by the user along with the term structure.
- The v_i —hence the short rate volatilities via Eq. (107) on p. 918—and the r_i are then simultaneously determined.
- The result is the Black-Derman-Toy model of Goldman Sachs.^a

^aBlack, Derman, and Toy (1990).

Foundations of Term Structure Modeling

[Meriwether] scoring especially high marks
in mathematics — an indispensable subject
for a bond trader.
— Roger Lowenstein,
When Genius Failed (2000)

[The] fixed-income traders I knew
seemed smarter than the equity trader [...]
there's no competitive edge to
being smart in the equities business[.]
— Emanuel Derman,
My Life as a Quant (2004)

Bond market terminology was designed less
to convey meaning than to bewilder outsiders.
— Michael Lewis, *The Big Short* (2011)

Terminology

- A period denotes a unit of elapsed time.
 - Viewed at time t , the next time instant refers to time $t + dt$ in the continuous-time model and time $t + 1$ in the discrete-time case.
- Bonds will be assumed to have a par value of one — unless stated otherwise.
- The time unit for continuous-time models will usually be measured by the year.

Standard Notations

The following notation will be used throughout.

t : a point in time.

$r(t)$: the one-period riskless rate prevailing at time t for repayment one period later

(the instantaneous spot rate, or short rate, at time t).

$P(t, T)$: the present value at time t of one dollar at time T .

Standard Notations (continued)

$r(t, T)$: the $(T - t)$ -period interest rate prevailing at time t stated on a per-period basis and compounded once per period—in other words, the $(T - t)$ -period spot rate at time t .

$F(t, T, M)$: the forward price at time t of a forward contract that delivers at time T a zero-coupon bond maturing at time $M \geq T$.

Standard Notations (concluded)

$f(t, T, L)$: the L -period forward rate at time T implied at time t stated on a per-period basis and compounded once per period.

$f(t, T)$: the one-period or instantaneous forward rate at time T as seen at time t stated on a per period basis and compounded once per period.

- It is $f(t, T, 1)$ in the discrete-time model and $f(t, T, dt)$ in the continuous-time model.
- Note that $f(t, t)$ equals the short rate $r(t)$.

Fundamental Relations

- The price of a zero-coupon bond equals

$$P(t, T) = \begin{cases} (1 + r(t, T))^{-(T-t)}, & \text{in discrete time,} \\ e^{-r(t, T)(T-t)}, & \text{in continuous time.} \end{cases}$$

- $r(t, T)$ as a function of T defines the spot rate curve at time t .
- By definition,

$$f(t, t) = \begin{cases} r(t, t + 1), & \text{in discrete time,} \\ r(t, t), & \text{in continuous time.} \end{cases}$$

Fundamental Relations (continued)

- Forward prices and zero-coupon bond prices are related:

$$F(t, T, M) = \frac{P(t, M)}{P(t, T)}, \quad T \leq M. \quad (112)$$

- The forward price equals the future value at time T of the underlying asset (see text for proof).
- Equation (112) holds whether the model is discrete-time or continuous-time.

Fundamental Relations (continued)

- Forward rates and forward prices are related definitionally by

$$f(t, T, L) = \left(\frac{1}{F(t, T, T + L)} \right)^{1/L} - 1 = \left(\frac{P(t, T)}{P(t, T + L)} \right)^{1/L} - 1 \quad (113)$$

in discrete time.

- The analog to Eq. (113) under simple compounding is

$$f(t, T, L) = \frac{1}{L} \left(\frac{P(t, T)}{P(t, T + L)} - 1 \right).$$

Fundamental Relations (continued)

- In continuous time,

$$f(t, T, L) = -\frac{\ln F(t, T, T + L)}{L} = \frac{\ln(P(t, T)/P(t, T + L))}{L} \quad (114)$$

by Eq. (112) on p. 976.

- Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} f(t, T, \Delta t) &= \frac{\ln(P(t, T)/P(t, T + \Delta t))}{\Delta t} \rightarrow -\frac{\partial \ln P(t, T)}{\partial T} \\ &= -\frac{\partial P(t, T)/\partial T}{P(t, T)}. \end{aligned}$$

Fundamental Relations (continued)

- So

$$f(t, T) \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} f(t, T, \Delta t) = -\frac{\partial P(t, T)/\partial T}{P(t, T)}, \quad t \leq T. \quad (115)$$

- Because Eq. (115) is equivalent to

$$P(t, T) = e^{-\int_t^T f(t, s) ds}, \quad (116)$$

the spot rate curve is

$$r(t, T) = \frac{\int_t^T f(t, s) ds}{T - t}.$$

Fundamental Relations (concluded)

- The discrete analog to Eq. (116) is

$$P(t, T) = \frac{1}{(1 + r(t))(1 + f(t, t + 1)) \cdots (1 + f(t, T - 1))}.$$

- The short rate and the market discount function are related by

$$r(t) = - \left. \frac{\partial P(t, T)}{\partial T} \right|_{T=t}.$$

Risk-Neutral Pricing

- Assume the local expectations theory.
- The expected rate of return of any riskless bond over a single period equals the prevailing one-period spot rate.
 - For all $t + 1 < T$,

$$\frac{E_t[P(t + 1, T)]}{P(t, T)} = 1 + r(t). \quad (117)$$

- Relation (117) in fact follows from the risk-neutral valuation principle.^a

^aTheorem 17 on p. 509.

Risk-Neutral Pricing (continued)

- The local expectations theory is thus a consequence of the existence of a risk-neutral probability π .
- Rewrite Eq. (117) as

$$\frac{E_t^\pi [P(t+1, T)]}{1 + r(t)} = P(t, T).$$

- It says the current market discount function equals the expected market discount function one period from now discounted by the short rate.

Risk-Neutral Pricing (continued)

- Apply the above equality iteratively to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} & P(t, T) \\ = & E_t^\pi \left[\frac{P(t+1, T)}{1+r(t)} \right] \\ = & E_t^\pi \left[\frac{E_{t+1}^\pi [P(t+2, T)]}{(1+r(t))(1+r(t+1))} \right] = \dots \\ = & E_t^\pi \left[\frac{1}{(1+r(t))(1+r(t+1)) \cdots (1+r(T-1))} \right]. \quad (118) \end{aligned}$$

Risk-Neutral Pricing (concluded)

- Equation (117) on p. 981 can also be expressed as

$$E_t[P(t + 1, T)] = F(t, t + 1, T).$$

- Verify that with, e.g., Eq. (112) on p. 976.
- Hence the forward price for the next period is an unbiased estimator of the expected bond price.^a

^aBut the forward rate is not an unbiased estimator of the expected future short rate (p. 932).

Continuous-Time Risk-Neutral Pricing

- In continuous time, the local expectations theory implies

$$P(t, T) = E_t \left[e^{-\int_t^T r(s) ds} \right], \quad t < T. \quad (119)$$

- Note that $e^{\int_t^T r(s) ds}$ is the bank account process, which denotes the rolled-over money market account.

Interest Rate Swaps

- Consider an interest rate swap made at time t (now) with payments to be exchanged at times t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n .
- The fixed rate is c per annum.
- The floating-rate payments are based on the future annual rates f_0, f_1, \dots, f_{n-1} at times t_0, t_1, \dots, t_{n-1} .
- For simplicity, assume $t_{i+1} - t_i$ is a fixed constant Δt for all i , and the notional principal is one dollar.
- If $t < t_0$, we have a forward interest rate swap.
- The ordinary swap corresponds to $t = t_0$.

Interest Rate Swaps (continued)

- The amount to be paid out at time t_{i+1} is $(f_i - c) \Delta t$ for the *floating-rate payer*.
- Simple rates are adopted here.
- Hence f_i satisfies

$$P(t_i, t_{i+1}) = \frac{1}{1 + f_i \Delta t}.$$

Interest Rate Swaps (continued)

- The value of the swap at time t is thus

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i=1}^n E_t^\pi \left[e^{-\int_t^{t_i} r(s) ds} (f_{i-1} - c) \Delta t \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n E_t^\pi \left[e^{-\int_t^{t_i} r(s) ds} \left(\frac{1}{P(t_{i-1}, t_i)} - (1 + c\Delta t) \right) \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n [P(t, t_{i-1}) - (1 + c\Delta t) \times P(t, t_i)] \\ &= P(t, t_0) - P(t, t_n) - c\Delta t \sum_{i=1}^n P(t, t_i). \end{aligned}$$

Interest Rate Swaps (concluded)

- So a swap can be replicated as a portfolio of bonds.
- In fact, it can be priced by simple present value calculations.

Swap Rate

- The swap rate, which gives the swap zero value, equals

$$S_n(t) \equiv \frac{P(t, t_0) - P(t, t_n)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(t, t_i) \Delta t}. \quad (120)$$

- The swap rate is the fixed rate that equates the present values of the fixed payments and the floating payments.
- For an ordinary swap, $P(t, t_0) = 1$.

The Term Structure Equation

- Let us start with the zero-coupon bonds and the money market account.
- Let the zero-coupon bond price $P(r, t, T)$ follow

$$\frac{dP}{P} = \mu_p dt + \sigma_p dW.$$

- At time t , short one unit of a bond maturing at time s_1 and buy α units of a bond maturing at time s_2 .

The Term Structure Equation (continued)

- The net wealth change follows

$$\begin{aligned} & -dP(r, t, s_1) + \alpha dP(r, t, s_2) \\ = & (-P(r, t, s_1) \mu_p(r, t, s_1) + \alpha P(r, t, s_2) \mu_p(r, t, s_2)) dt \\ & + (-P(r, t, s_1) \sigma_p(r, t, s_1) + \alpha P(r, t, s_2) \sigma_p(r, t, s_2)) dW. \end{aligned}$$

- Pick

$$\alpha \equiv \frac{P(r, t, s_1) \sigma_p(r, t, s_1)}{P(r, t, s_2) \sigma_p(r, t, s_2)}.$$

The Term Structure Equation (continued)

- Then the net wealth has no volatility and must earn the riskless return:

$$\frac{-P(r, t, s_1) \mu_p(r, t, s_1) + \alpha P(r, t, s_2) \mu_p(r, t, s_2)}{-P(r, t, s_1) + \alpha P(r, t, s_2)} = r.$$

- Simplify the above to obtain

$$\frac{\sigma_p(r, t, s_1) \mu_p(r, t, s_2) - \sigma_p(r, t, s_2) \mu_p(r, t, s_1)}{\sigma_p(r, t, s_1) - \sigma_p(r, t, s_2)} = r.$$

- This becomes

$$\frac{\mu_p(r, t, s_2) - r}{\sigma_p(r, t, s_2)} = \frac{\mu_p(r, t, s_1) - r}{\sigma_p(r, t, s_1)}$$

after rearrangement.

The Term Structure Equation (continued)

- Since the above equality holds for any s_1 and s_2 ,

$$\frac{\mu_p(r, t, s) - r}{\sigma_p(r, t, s)} \equiv \lambda(r, t) \quad (121)$$

for some λ independent of the bond maturity s .

- As $\mu_p = r + \lambda\sigma_p$, all assets are expected to appreciate at a rate equal to the sum of the short rate and a constant times the asset's volatility.
- The term $\lambda(r, t)$ is called the market price of risk.
- The market price of risk must be the same for all bonds to preclude arbitrage opportunities.

The Term Structure Equation (continued)

- Assume a Markovian short rate model,

$$dr = \mu(r, t) dt + \sigma(r, t) dW.$$

- Then the bond price process is also Markovian.
- By Eq. (14.15) on p. 202 in the text,

$$\mu_p = \left(-\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} + \mu(r, t) \frac{\partial P}{\partial r} + \frac{\sigma(r, t)^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial r^2} \right) / P, \quad (122)$$

$$\sigma_p = \left(\sigma(r, t) \frac{\partial P}{\partial r} \right) / P, \quad (122')$$

subject to $P(\cdot, T, T) = 1$.

The Term Structure Equation (concluded)

- Substitute μ_p and σ_p into Eq. (121) on p. 994 to obtain

$$-\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} + [\mu(r, t) - \lambda(r, t) \sigma(r, t)] \frac{\partial P}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma(r, t)^2 \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial r^2} = rP. \quad (123)$$

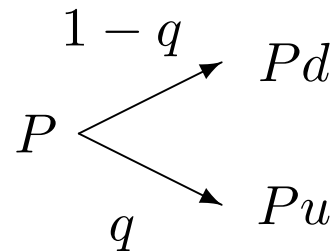
- This is called the term structure equation.
- Once P is available, the spot rate curve emerges via

$$r(t, T) = -\frac{\ln P(t, T)}{T - t}.$$

- Equation (123) applies to all interest rate derivatives, the difference being the terminal and the boundary conditions.

The Binomial Model

- The analytical framework can be nicely illustrated with the binomial model.
- Suppose the bond price P can move with probability q to Pu and probability $1 - q$ to Pd , where $u > d$:



The Binomial Model (continued)

- Over the period, the bond's expected rate of return is

$$\hat{\mu} \equiv \frac{qPu + (1 - q)Pd}{P} - 1 = qu + (1 - q)d - 1. \quad (124)$$

- The variance of that return rate is

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 \equiv q(1 - q)(u - d)^2. \quad (125)$$

The Binomial Model (continued)

- In particular, the bond whose maturity is one period away will move from a price of $1/(1+r)$ to its par value \$1.
- This is the money market account modeled by the short rate r .
- The market price of risk is defined as $\lambda \equiv (\hat{\mu} - r)/\hat{\sigma}$.
- As in the continuous-time case, it can be shown that λ is independent of the maturity of the bond (see text).

The Binomial Model (concluded)

- Now change the probability from q to

$$p \equiv q - \lambda \sqrt{q(1-q)} = \frac{(1+r) - d}{u - d}, \quad (126)$$

which is independent of bond maturity and q .

– Recall the BOPM.

- The bond's expected rate of return becomes

$$\frac{pPu + (1-p)Pd}{P} - 1 = pu + (1-p)d - 1 = r.$$

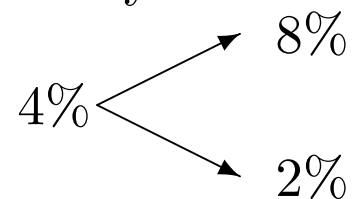
- The local expectations theory hence holds under the new probability measure p .

Numerical Examples

- Assume this spot rate curve:

Year	1	2
Spot rate	4%	5%

- Assume the one-year rate (short rate) can move up to 8% or down to 2% after a year:



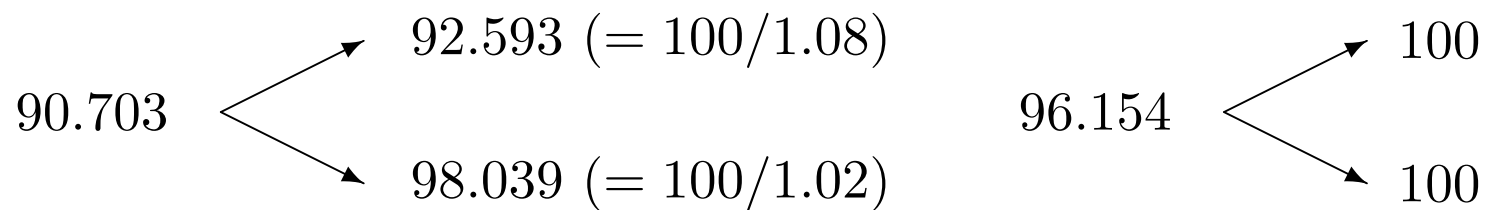
Numerical Examples (continued)

- No real-world probabilities are specified.
- The prices of one- and two-year zero-coupon bonds are, respectively,

$$\begin{aligned}100/1.04 &= 96.154, \\ 100/(1.05)^2 &= 90.703.\end{aligned}$$

- They follow the binomial processes on p. 1003.

Numerical Examples (continued)



The price process of the two-year zero-coupon bond is on the left; that of the one-year zero-coupon bond is on the right.

Numerical Examples (continued)

- The pricing of derivatives can be simplified by assuming investors are risk-neutral.
- Suppose all securities have the same expected one-period rate of return, the riskless rate.
- Then

$$(1 - p) \times \frac{92.593}{90.703} + p \times \frac{98.039}{90.703} - 1 = 4\%,$$

where p denotes the risk-neutral probability of a down move in rates.

Numerical Examples (concluded)

- Solving the equation leads to $p = 0.319$.
- Interest rate contingent claims can be priced under this probability.

Numerical Examples: Fixed-Income Options

- A one-year European call on the two-year zero with a \$95 strike price has the payoffs,

$$C \begin{cases} \nearrow 0.000 \\ \searrow 3.039 \end{cases}$$

- To solve for the option value C , we replicate the call by a portfolio of x one-year and y two-year zeros.

Numerical Examples: Fixed-Income Options (continued)

- This leads to the simultaneous equations,

$$x \times 100 + y \times 92.593 = 0.000,$$

$$x \times 100 + y \times 98.039 = 3.039.$$

- They give $x = -0.5167$ and $y = 0.5580$.
- Consequently,

$$C = x \times 96.154 + y \times 90.703 \approx 0.93$$

to prevent arbitrage.

Numerical Examples: Fixed-Income Options (continued)

- This price is derived without assuming any version of an expectations theory.
- Instead, the arbitrage-free price is derived by replication.
- The price of an interest rate contingent claim does not depend directly on the real-world probabilities.
- The dependence holds only indirectly via the current bond prices.

Numerical Examples: Fixed-Income Options (concluded)

- An equivalent method is to utilize risk-neutral pricing.
- The above call option is worth

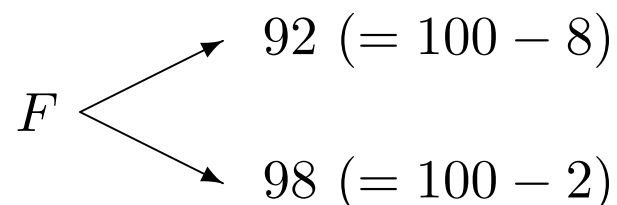
$$C = \frac{(1 - p) \times 0 + p \times 3.039}{1.04} \approx 0.93,$$

the same as before.

- This is not surprising, as arbitrage freedom and the existence of a risk-neutral economy are equivalent.

Numerical Examples: Futures and Forward Prices

- A one-year futures contract on the one-year rate has a payoff of $100 - r$, where r is the one-year rate at maturity:



- As the futures price F is the expected future payoff (see text or p. 510),

$$F = (1 - p) \times 92 + p \times 98 = 93.914.$$

Numerical Examples: Futures and Forward Prices (concluded)

- The forward price for a one-year forward contract on a one-year zero-coupon bond is^a

$$90.703/96.154 = 94.331\%.$$

- The forward price exceeds the futures price.^b

^aSee Eq. (112) on p. 976.

^bRecall p. 454.

Equilibrium Term Structure Models

8. What's your problem? Any moron
can understand bond pricing models.
— *Top Ten Lies Finance Professors
Tell Their Students*

Introduction

- This chapter surveys equilibrium models.
- Since the spot rates satisfy

$$r(t, T) = -\frac{\ln P(t, T)}{T - t},$$

the discount function $P(t, T)$ suffices to establish the spot rate curve.

- All models to follow are short rate models.
- Unless stated otherwise, the processes are risk-neutral.

The Vasicek Model^a

- The short rate follows

$$dr = \beta(\mu - r) dt + \sigma dW.$$

- The short rate is pulled to the long-term mean level μ at rate β .
- Superimposed on this “pull” is a normally distributed stochastic term σdW .
- Since the process is an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process,

$$E[r(T) | r(t) = r] = \mu + (r - \mu) e^{-\beta(T-t)}$$

from Eq. (59) on p. 567.

^aVasicek (1977).

The Vasicek Model (continued)

- The price of a zero-coupon bond paying one dollar at maturity can be shown to be

$$P(t, T) = A(t, T) e^{-B(t, T) r(t)}, \quad (127)$$

where

$$A(t, T) = \begin{cases} \exp \left[\frac{(B(t, T) - T + t)(\beta^2 \mu - \sigma^2 / 2)}{\beta^2} - \frac{\sigma^2 B(t, T)^2}{4\beta} \right] & \text{if } \beta \neq 0, \\ \exp \left[\frac{\sigma^2 (T - t)^3}{6} \right] & \text{if } \beta = 0. \end{cases}$$

and

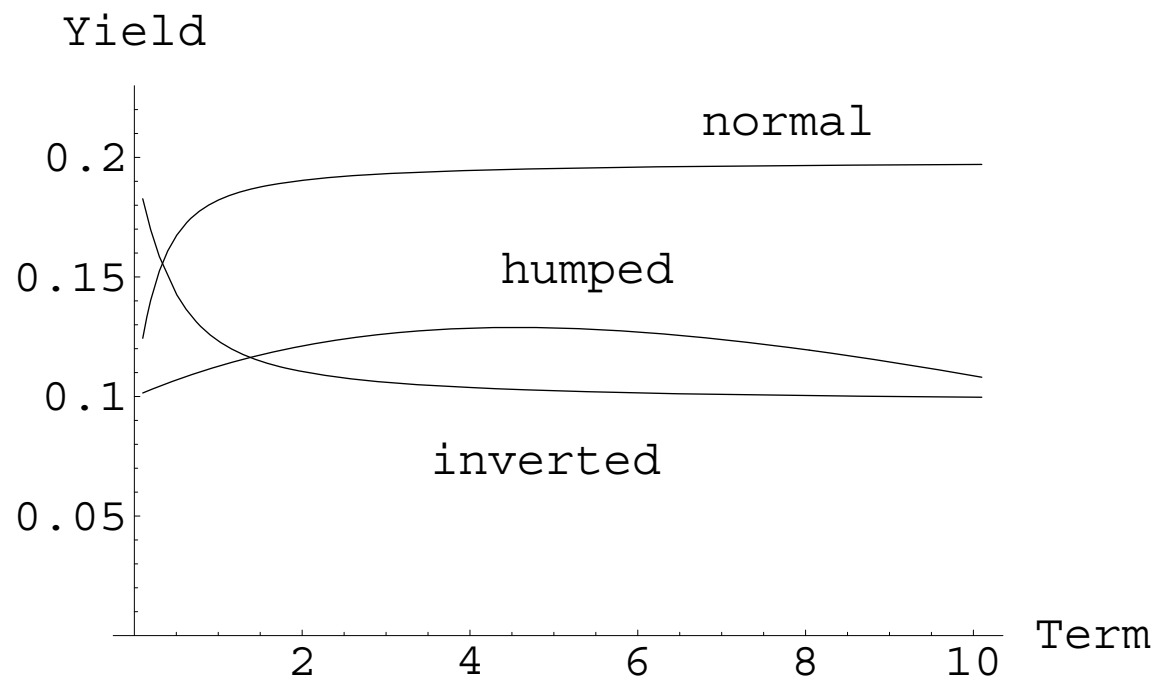
$$B(t, T) = \begin{cases} \frac{1 - e^{-\beta(T-t)}}{\beta} & \text{if } \beta \neq 0, \\ T - t & \text{if } \beta = 0. \end{cases}$$

The Vasicek Model (concluded)

- If $\beta = 0$, then P goes to infinity as $T \rightarrow \infty$.
- Sensibly, P goes to zero as $T \rightarrow \infty$ if $\beta \neq 0$.
- Even if $\beta \neq 0$, P may exceed one for a finite T .
- The spot rate volatility structure is the curve

$$(\partial r(t, T) / \partial r) \sigma = \sigma B(t, T) / (T - t).$$

- When $\beta > 0$, the curve tends to decline with maturity.
- The speed of mean reversion, β , controls the shape of the curve.
- Indeed, higher β leads to greater attenuation of volatility with maturity.



The Vasicek Model: Options on Zeros^a

- Consider a European call with strike price X expiring at time T on a zero-coupon bond with par value \$1 and maturing at time $s > T$.
- Its price is given by

$$P(t, s) N(x) - X P(t, T) N(x - \sigma_v).$$

^aJamshidian (1989).

The Vasicek Model: Options on Zeros (concluded)

- Above

$$\begin{aligned}x &\equiv \frac{1}{\sigma_v} \ln \left(\frac{P(t, s)}{P(t, T) X} \right) + \frac{\sigma_v}{2}, \\ \sigma_v &\equiv v(t, T) B(T, s), \\ v(t, T)^2 &\equiv \begin{cases} \frac{\sigma^2 [1 - e^{-2\beta(T-t)}]}{2\beta}, & \text{if } \beta \neq 0 \\ \sigma^2 (T - t), & \text{if } \beta = 0 \end{cases}.\end{aligned}$$

- By the put-call parity, the price of a European put is

$$XP(t, T) N(-x + \sigma_v) - P(t, s) N(-x).$$

Binomial Vasicek

- Consider a binomial model for the short rate in the time interval $[0, T]$ divided into n identical pieces.
- Let $\Delta t \equiv T/n$ and

$$p(r) \equiv \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\beta(\mu - r) \sqrt{\Delta t}}{2\sigma}.$$

- The following binomial model converges to the Vasicek model,^a

$$r(k+1) = r(k) + \sigma \sqrt{\Delta t} \xi(k), \quad 0 \leq k < n.$$

^aNelson and Ramaswamy (1990).

Binomial Vasicek (continued)

- Above, $\xi(k) = \pm 1$ with

$$\text{Prob}[\xi(k) = 1] = \begin{cases} p(r(k)) & \text{if } 0 \leq p(r(k)) \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } p(r(k)) < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } 1 < p(r(k)) \end{cases} .$$

- Observe that the probability of an up move, p , is a decreasing function of the interest rate r .
- This is consistent with mean reversion.

Binomial Vasicek (concluded)

- The rate is the same whether it is the result of an up move followed by a down move or a down move followed by an up move.
- The binomial tree combines.
- The key feature of the model that makes it happen is its *constant* volatility, σ .

The Cox-Ingersoll-Ross Model^a

- It is the following square-root short rate model:

$$dr = \beta(\mu - r) dt + \sigma\sqrt{r} dW. \quad (128)$$

- The diffusion differs from the Vasicek model by a multiplicative factor \sqrt{r} .
- The parameter β determines the speed of adjustment.
- The short rate can reach zero only if $2\beta\mu < \sigma^2$.
- See text for the bond pricing formula.

^aCox, Ingersoll, and Ross (1985).

Binomial CIR

- We want to approximate the short rate process in the time interval $[0, T]$.
- Divide it into n periods of duration $\Delta t \equiv T/n$.
- Assume $\mu, \beta \geq 0$.
- A direct discretization of the process is problematic because the resulting binomial tree will *not* combine.

Binomial CIR (continued)

- Instead, consider the transformed process

$$x(r) \equiv 2\sqrt{r}/\sigma.$$

- It follows

$$dx = m(x) dt + dW,$$

where

$$m(x) \equiv 2\beta\mu/(\sigma^2 x) - (\beta x/2) - 1/(2x).$$

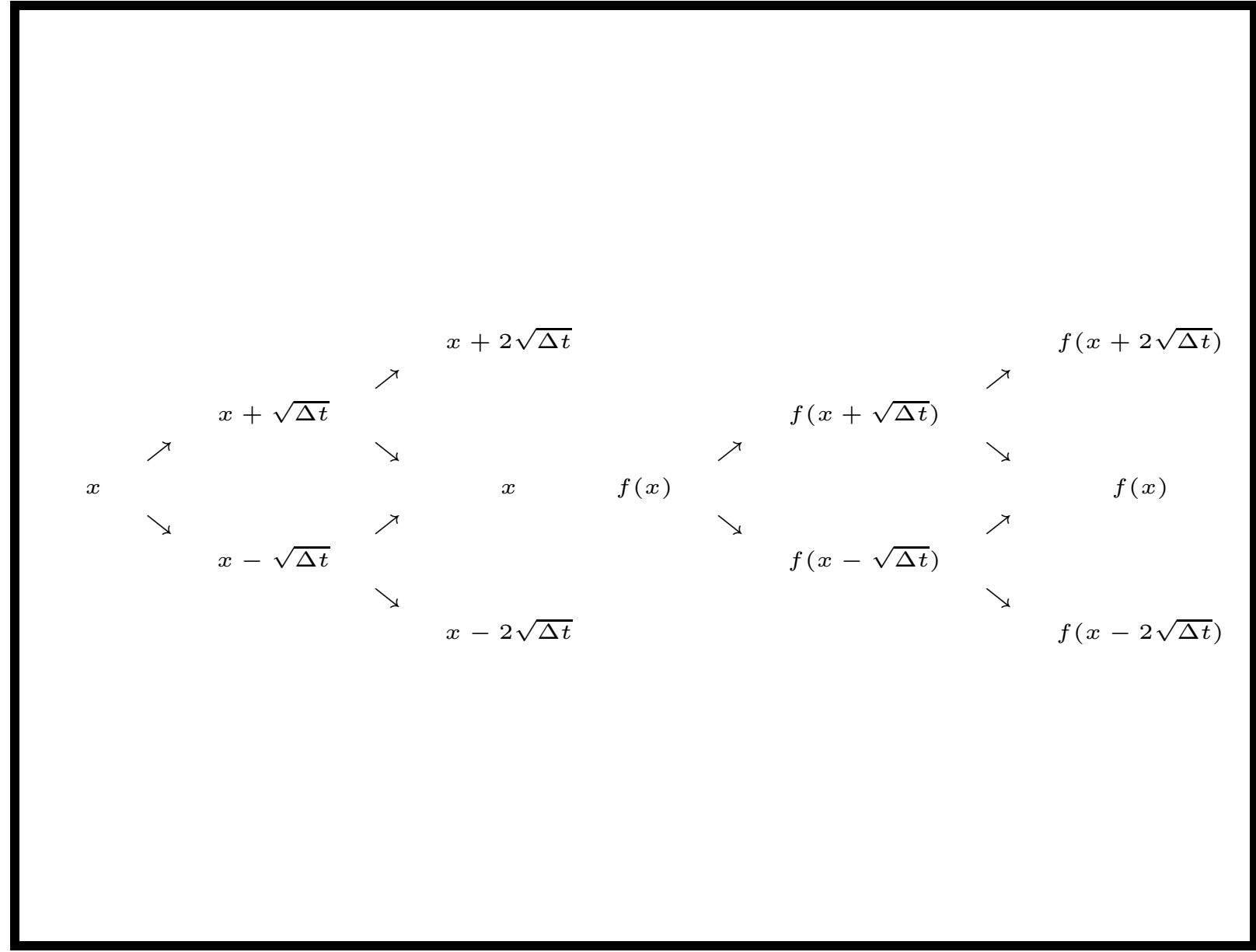
- Since this new process has a constant volatility, its associated binomial tree combines.

Binomial CIR (continued)

- Construct the combining tree for r as follows.
- First, construct a tree for x .
- Then transform each node of the tree into one for r via the inverse transformation

$$r = f(x) \equiv \frac{x^2 \sigma^2}{4}$$

(p. 1028).



Binomial CIR (concluded)

- The probability of an up move at each node r is

$$p(r) \equiv \frac{\beta(\mu - r) \Delta t + r - r^-}{r^+ - r^-}. \quad (129)$$

- $r^+ \equiv f(x + \sqrt{\Delta t})$ denotes the result of an up move from r .
- $r^- \equiv f(x - \sqrt{\Delta t})$ the result of a down move.
- Finally, set the probability $p(r)$ to one as r goes to zero to make the probability stay between zero and one.

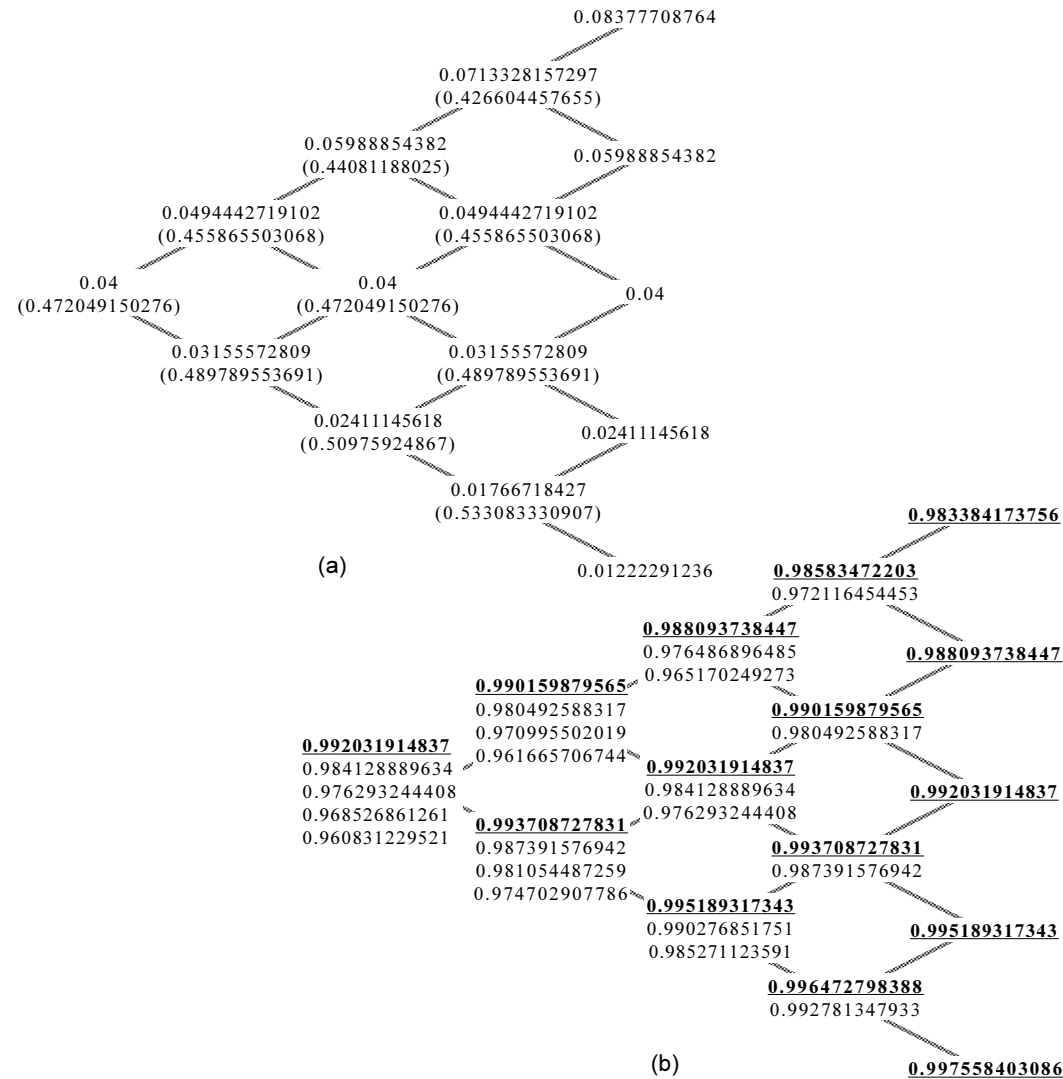
Numerical Examples

- Consider the process,

$$0.2 (0.04 - r) dt + 0.1\sqrt{r} dW,$$

for the time interval $[0, 1]$ given the initial rate $r(0) = 0.04$.

- We shall use $\Delta t = 0.2$ (year) for the binomial approximation.
- See p. 1031(a) for the resulting binomial short rate tree with the up-move probabilities in parentheses.



Numerical Examples (continued)

- Consider the node which is the result of an up move from the root.
- Since the root has $x = 2\sqrt{r(0)}/\sigma = 4$, this particular node's x value equals $4 + \sqrt{\Delta t} = 4.4472135955$.
- Use the inverse transformation to obtain the short rate

$$\frac{x^2 \times (0.1)^2}{4} \approx 0.0494442719102.$$

Numerical Examples (concluded)

- Once the short rates are in place, computing the probabilities is easy.
- Note that the up-move probability decreases as interest rates increase and decreases as interest rates decline.
 - I suspect that

$$p(r) = A\sqrt{\frac{\Delta t}{r}} + B - C\sqrt{r\Delta t}$$

for some $A, B, C > 0$.^a

- This phenomenon agrees with mean reversion.
- Convergence is quite good (see text).

^aThanks to a lively class discussion on May 28, 2014.