

[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 $[\cdots]$ 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)

©2015 Prof. Yuh-Dauh Lyuu, National Taiwan University

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.^a

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

^aAlternatively, the instantaneous spot rate, or short rate, 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.^a

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 $M \geq T$.

^aIn other words, the (T-t)-period spot rate at time 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,

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

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

$$F(t, T, M) = \frac{P(t, M)}{P(t, T)}, \quad T \le M.$$
 (115)

- The forward price equals the future value at time T of the underlying asset.^a
- Equation (115) holds whether the model is discrete-time or continuous-time.

^aSee Exercise 24.2.1 of the textbook for proof.

• Forward rates and forward prices are related definitionally by

$$f(t,T,L) = \left(\frac{1}{F(t,T,T+L)}\right)^{1/L} - 1 = \left(\frac{P(t,T)}{P(t,T+L)}\right)^{1/L} - 1 \tag{116}$$

in discrete time.

- The analog to Eq. (116) under simple compounding is

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

• In continuous time,

$$f(t,T,L) = -\frac{\ln F(t,T,T+L)}{L} = \frac{\ln(P(t,T)/P(t,T+L))}{L}$$
(117)

by Eq. (115) on p. 969.

• Furthermore,

$$f(t,T,\Delta t) = \frac{\ln(P(t,T)/P(t,T+\Delta t))}{\Delta t} \to -\frac{\partial \ln P(t,T)}{\partial T}$$
$$= -\frac{\partial P(t,T)/\partial T}{P(t,T)}.$$

• So

$$f(t,T) \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} f(t,T,\Delta t) = -\frac{\partial P(t,T)/\partial T}{P(t,T)}, \quad t \le T.$$
(118)

• Because Eq. (118) is equivalent to

$$P(t,T) = e^{-\int_t^T f(t,s) \, ds},\tag{119}$$

the spot rate curve is

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

• The discrete analog to Eq. (119) 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,

$$\frac{E_t[P(t+1,T)]}{P(t,T)} = 1 + r(t). \tag{120}$$

- Relation (120) in fact follows from the risk-neutral valuation principle.^a

 $^{^{\}mathrm{a}}$ Theorem 17 on p. 503.

Risk-Neutral Pricing (continued)

- The local expectations theory is thus a consequence of the existence of a risk-neutral probability π .
- Rewrite Eq. (120) 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

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

$$= E_t^{\pi} \left[\frac{E_{t+1}^{\pi} [P(t+2,T)]}{(1+r(t))(1+r(t+1))} \right] = \cdots$$

$$= E_t^{\pi} \left[\frac{1}{(1+r(t))(1+r(t+1))\cdots(1+r(T-1))} \right]. \quad (121)$$

Risk-Neutral Pricing (concluded)

• Equation (120) on p. 974 can also be expressed as

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

- Verify that with, e.g., Eq. (115) on p. 969.
- 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. 925).

Continuous-Time Risk-Neutral Pricing

• In continuous time, the local expectations theory implies

$$P(t,T) = E_t \left[e^{-\int_t^T r(s) ds} \right], \quad t < T.$$
 (122)

• 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, \ldots, t_n .
- The fixed rate is c per annum.
- The floating-rate payments are based on the future annual rates $f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_{n-1}$ at times $t_0, t_1, \ldots, t_{n-1}$.
- 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

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} E_{t}^{\pi} \left[e^{-\int_{t}^{t_{i}} r(s) ds} (f_{i-1} - c) \Delta t \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} E_{t}^{\pi} \left[e^{-\int_{t}^{t_{i}} r(s) ds} \left(\frac{1}{P(t_{i-1}, t_{i})} - (1 + c\Delta t) \right) \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[P(t, t_{i-1}) - (1 + c\Delta t) \times P(t, t_{i}) \right]$$

$$= P(t, t_{0}) - P(t, t_{n}) - c\Delta t \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(t, t_{i}).$$

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

$$S_n(t) \equiv \frac{P(t, t_0) - P(t, t_n)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(t, t_i) \Delta t}.$$
 (123)

- 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 net wealth change follows

$$-dP(r,t,s_1) + \alpha dP(r,t,s_2)$$

$$= (-P(r,t,s_1) \mu_p(r,t,s_1) + \alpha P(r,t,s_2) \mu_p(r,t,s_2)) dt$$

$$+ (-P(r,t,s_1) \sigma_p(r,t,s_1) + \alpha P(r,t,s_2) \sigma_p(r,t,s_2)) dW.$$

• Pick

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

• 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.

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

$$\frac{\mu_p(r,t,s) - r}{\sigma_p(r,t,s)} \equiv \lambda(r,t) \tag{124}$$

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.

• 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 of the textbook,

$$\mu_p = \left(-\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} + \mu(r, t)\frac{\partial P}{\partial r} + \frac{\sigma(r, t)^2}{2}\frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial r^2}\right)/P,\tag{125}$$

$$\sigma_p = \left(\sigma(r, t) \frac{\partial P}{\partial r}\right) / P, \tag{125'}$$

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

• Substitute μ_p and σ_p into Eq. (124) on p. 987 to obtain

$$-\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} + \left[\mu(r,t) - \lambda(r,t)\,\sigma(r,t)\right] \frac{\partial P}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{2}\,\sigma(r,t)^2 \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial r^2} = rP. \tag{126}$$

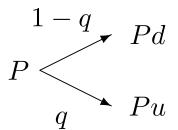
- This is called the term structure equation.
- Once P is available, the spot rate curve emerges via

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

• Equation (126) 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

$$\widehat{\mu} \equiv \frac{qPu + (1-q)Pd}{P} - 1 = qu + (1-q)d - 1. \tag{127}$$

• The variance of that return rate is

$$\widehat{\sigma}^2 \equiv q(1-q)(u-d)^2. \tag{128}$$

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 $\lambda \equiv (\widehat{\mu} r)/\widehat{\sigma}$.
- 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

$$p \equiv q - \lambda \sqrt{q(1-q)} = \frac{(1+r)-d}{u-d},$$
 (129)

which is independent of bond maturity and q.

- Recall the BOPM.
- The bond's expected rate of return becomes

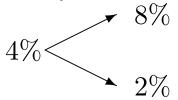
$$\frac{pPu + (1-p)Pd}{P} - 1 = pu + (1-p)d - 1 = r.$$

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

Numerical Examples

• Assume this spot rate curve:

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



Numerical Examples (continued)

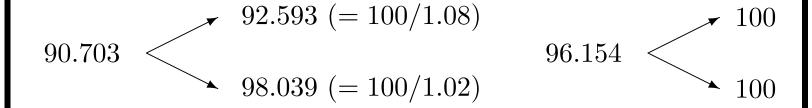
- No real-world probabilities are specified.
- The prices of one- and two-year zero-coupon bonds are, respectively,

$$100/1.04 = 96.154,$$

 $100/(1.05)^2 = 90.703.$

• They follow the binomial processes on p. 996.

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

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

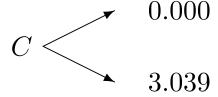
where p denotes the risk-neutral probability of a down move in rates.

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,



• 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:

$$F$$
 92 (= 100 - 8)
98 (= 100 - 2)

• As the futures price F is the expected future payoff, a

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

^aSee Exercise 13.2.11 of the textbook or p. 504.

Numerical Examples: Futures and Forward Prices (concluded)

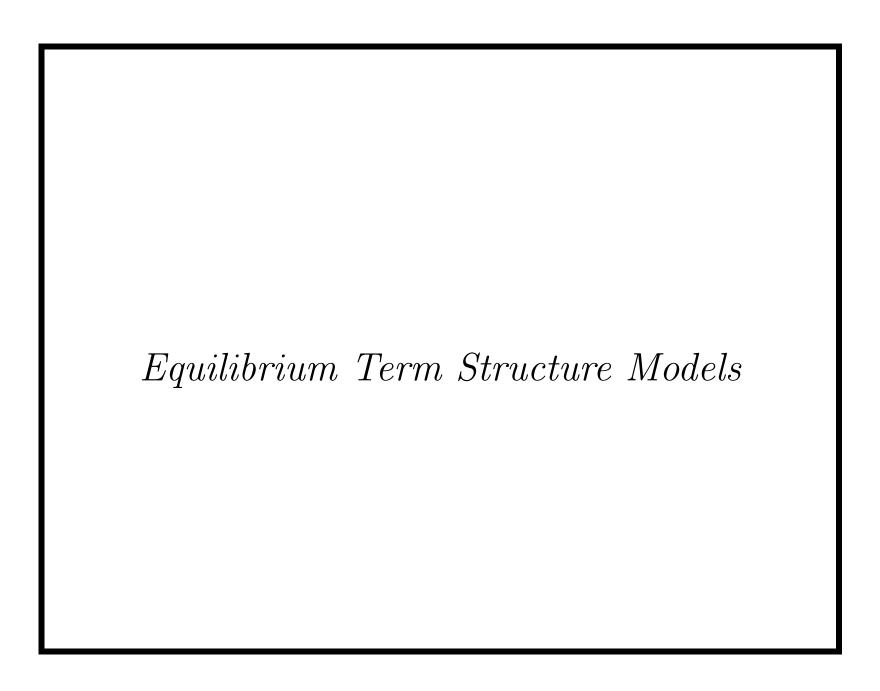
• The forward price for a one-year forward contract on a one-year zero-coupon bond is^a

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

• The forward price exceeds the futures price.^b

^aBy Eq. (115) on p. 969.

^bRecall p. 448.



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. (64) on p. 562.

^aVasicek (1977).

The Vasicek Model (continued)

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

$$P(t,T) = A(t,T) e^{-B(t,T) r(t)}, (130)$$

where

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

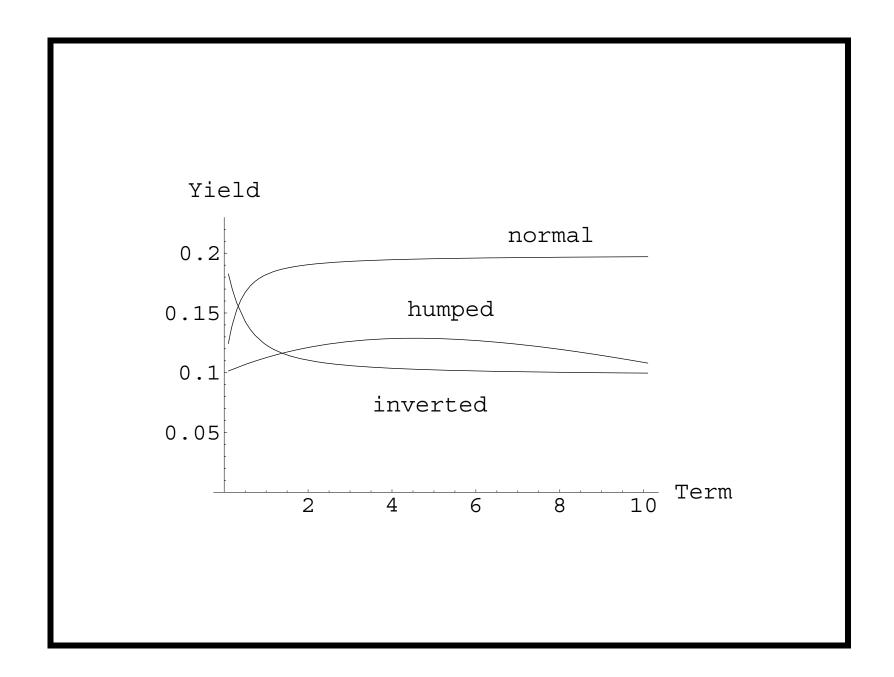
$$B(t,T) = \begin{cases} \frac{1 - e^{-\beta(T-t)}}{\beta} & \text{if } \beta \neq 0, \\ T - t & \text{if } \beta = 0. \end{cases}$$

The Vasicek Model (concluded)

- If $\beta = 0$, then P goes to infinity as $T \to \infty$.
- Sensibly, P goes to zero as $T \to \infty$ 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

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

^aJamshidian (1989).

The Vasicek Model: Options on Zeros (concluded)

Above

$$x \equiv \frac{1}{\sigma_v} \ln \left(\frac{P(t,s)}{P(t,T)X} \right) + \frac{\sigma_v}{2},$$

$$\sigma_v \equiv v(t,T) B(T,s),$$

$$v(t,T)^2 \equiv \begin{cases} \frac{\sigma^2 \left[1 - e^{-2\beta(T-t)}\right]}{2\beta}, & \text{if } \beta \neq 0 \\ \sigma^2(T-t), & \text{if } \beta = 0 \end{cases}$$

• 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

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

^aNelson and Ramaswamy (1990).

Binomial Vasicek (continued)

• Above, $\xi(k) = \pm 1$ with

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

- 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:

$$dr = \beta(\mu - r) dt + \sigma \sqrt{r} dW. \tag{131}$$

- 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

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

• This new process has a constant volatility, and its associated binomial tree combines.

Binomial CIR (continued)

- \bullet 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

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

(see p. 1021).

• When $x \approx 0$ (so $r \approx 0$), the moments may not be matched well.^a

^aNawalkha and Beliaeva (2007).

$$x + 2\sqrt{\Delta t}$$

$$x + \sqrt{\Delta t}$$

$$x$$

Binomial CIR (concluded)

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

$$p(r) \equiv \frac{\beta(\mu - r) \Delta t + r - r^{-}}{r^{+} - r^{-}}.$$
 (132)

- $-r^{+} \equiv f(x + \sqrt{\Delta t})$ 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.

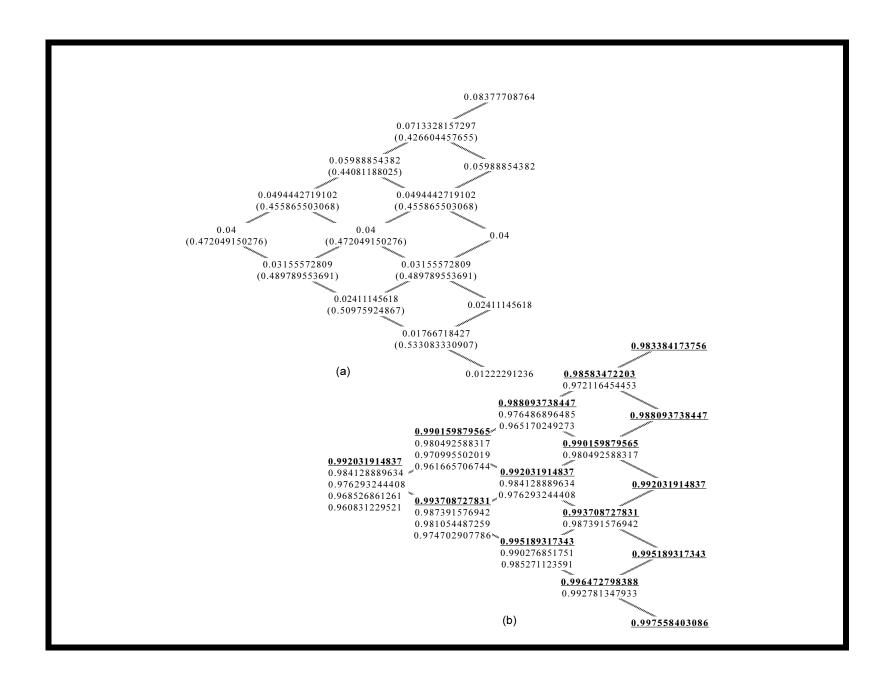
Numerical Examples

• 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. 1024(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.

A General Method for Constructing Binomial Models^a

• We are given a continuous-time process,

$$dy = \alpha(y, t) dt + \sigma(y, t) dW.$$

- Need to make sure the binomial model's drift and diffusion converge to the above process.
- Set the probability of an up move to

$$\frac{\alpha(y,t)\,\Delta t + y - y_{\rm d}}{y_{\rm u} - y_{\rm d}}$$

• Here $y_{\rm u} \equiv y + \sigma(y,t)\sqrt{\Delta t}$ and $y_{\rm d} \equiv y - \sigma(y,t)\sqrt{\Delta t}$ represent the two rates that follow the current rate y.

^aNelson and Ramaswamy (1990).

A General Method (continued)

- The displacements are identical, at $\sigma(y,t)\sqrt{\Delta t}$.
- But the binomial tree may not combine as

$$\sigma(y,t)\sqrt{\Delta t} - \sigma(y_{\rm u}, t + \Delta t)\sqrt{\Delta t}$$

$$\neq -\sigma(y,t)\sqrt{\Delta t} + \sigma(y_{\rm d}, t + \Delta t)\sqrt{\Delta t}$$

in general.

• When $\sigma(y,t)$ is a constant independent of y, equality holds and the tree combines.

A General Method (continued)

• To achieve this, define the transformation

$$x(y,t) \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{y} \sigma(z,t)^{-1} dz.$$

 \bullet Then x follows

$$dx = m(y, t) dt + dW$$

for some m(y,t).^a

• The diffusion term is now a constant, and the binomial tree for x combines.

^aSee Exercise 25.2.13 of the textbook.

A General Method (concluded)

- The transformation is unique.^a
- The probability of an up move remains

$$\frac{\alpha(y(x,t),t) \Delta t + y(x,t) - y_{\mathrm{d}}(x,t)}{y_{\mathrm{u}}(x,t) - y_{\mathrm{d}}(x,t)},$$

where y(x,t) is the inverse transformation of x(y,t) from x back to y.

• Note that

$$y_{\rm u}(x,t) \equiv y(x+\sqrt{\Delta t},t+\Delta t),$$

 $y_{\rm d}(x,t) \equiv y(x-\sqrt{\Delta t},t+\Delta t).$

^aChiu (R98723059) (2012).

Examples

• The transformation is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\sigma\sqrt{z})^{-1} dz = \frac{2\sqrt{r}}{\sigma}$$

for the CIR model.

• The transformation is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{S} (\sigma z)^{-1} dz = \frac{\ln S}{\sigma}$$

for the Black-Scholes model.

• The familiar binomial option pricing model in fact discretizes $\ln S$ not S.

On One-Factor Short Rate Models

- By using only the short rate, they ignore other rates on the yield curve.
- Such models also restrict the volatility to be a function of interest rate *levels* only.
- The prices of all bonds move in the same direction at the same time (their magnitudes may differ).
- The returns on all bonds thus become highly correlated.
- In reality, there seems to be a certain amount of independence between short- and long-term rates.

On One-Factor Short Rate Models (continued)

- One-factor models therefore cannot accommodate nondegenerate correlation structures across maturities.
- Derivatives whose values depend on the correlation structure will be mispriced.
- The calibrated models may not generate term structures as concave as the data suggest.
- The term structure empirically changes in slope and curvature as well as makes parallel moves.
- This is inconsistent with the restriction that all segments of the term structure be perfectly correlated.

On One-Factor Short Rate Models (concluded)

- Multi-factor models lead to families of yield curves that can take a greater variety of shapes and can better represent reality.
- But they are much harder to think about and work with.
- They also take much more computer time—the curse of dimensionality.
- These practical concerns limit the use of multifactor models to two- or three-factor ones.

Options on Coupon Bonds^a

- Assume a one-factor short rate model.
- The price of a European option on a coupon bond can be calculated from those on zero-coupon bonds.
- Consider a European call expiring at time T on a bond with par value \$1.
- Let X denote the strike price.
- The bond has cash flows c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n at times t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n , where $t_i > T$ for all i.

^aJamshidian (1989).

Options on Coupon Bonds (continued)

• The payoff for the option is

$$\max \left\{ \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i P(r(T), T, t_i) \right] - X, 0 \right\}.$$

- At time T, there is a unique value r^* for r(T) that renders the coupon bond's price equal the strike price X.
- This r^* can be obtained by solving

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i P(r, T, t_i)$$

numerically for r.

Options on Coupon Bonds (continued)

- The solution is unique for one-factor models whose bond price is a monotonically decreasing function of r.
- Let

$$X_i \equiv P(r^*, T, t_i),$$

the value at time T of a zero-coupon bond with par value \$1 and maturing at time t_i if $r(T) = r^*$.

• Note that $P(r, T, t_i) \ge X_i$ if and only if $\le r^*$.

Options on Coupon Bonds (concluded)

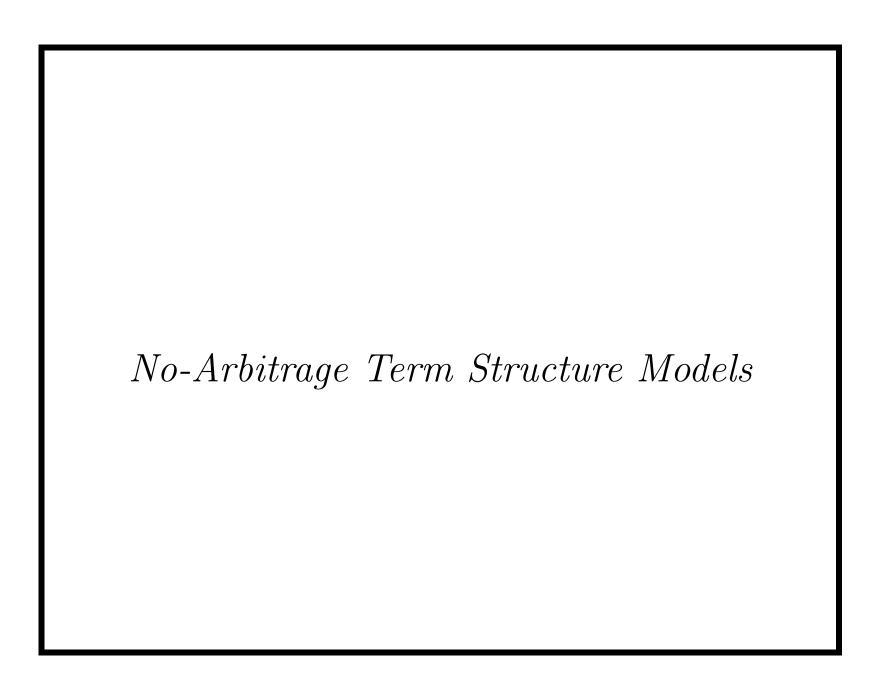
• As $X = \sum_{i} c_i X_i$, the option's payoff equals

$$\max \left\{ \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i P(r(T), T, t_i) \right] - \left[\sum_{i} c_i X_i \right], 0 \right\}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \times \max(P(r(T), T, t_i) - X_i, 0).$$

- Thus the call is a package of n options on the underlying zero-coupon bond.
- Why can't we do the same thing for Asian options?^a

^aContributed by Mr. Yang, Jui-Chung (D97723002) on May 20, 2009.



How much of the structure of our theories really tells us about things in nature, and how much do we contribute ourselves? — Arthur Eddington (1882–1944)

Motivations

- Recall the difficulties facing equilibrium models mentioned earlier.
 - They usually require the estimation of the market price of risk.
 - They cannot fit the market term structure.
 - But consistency with the market is often mandatory in practice.

No-Arbitrage Models^a

- No-arbitrage models utilize the full information of the term structure.
- They accept the observed term structure as consistent with an unobserved and unspecified equilibrium.
- From there, arbitrage-free movements of interest rates or bond prices over time are modeled.
- By definition, the market price of risk must be reflected in the current term structure; hence the resulting interest rate process is risk-neutral.

^aHo and Lee (1986). Thomas Lee is a "billionaire founder" of Thomas H. Lee Partners LP, according to *Bloomberg* on May 26, 2012.

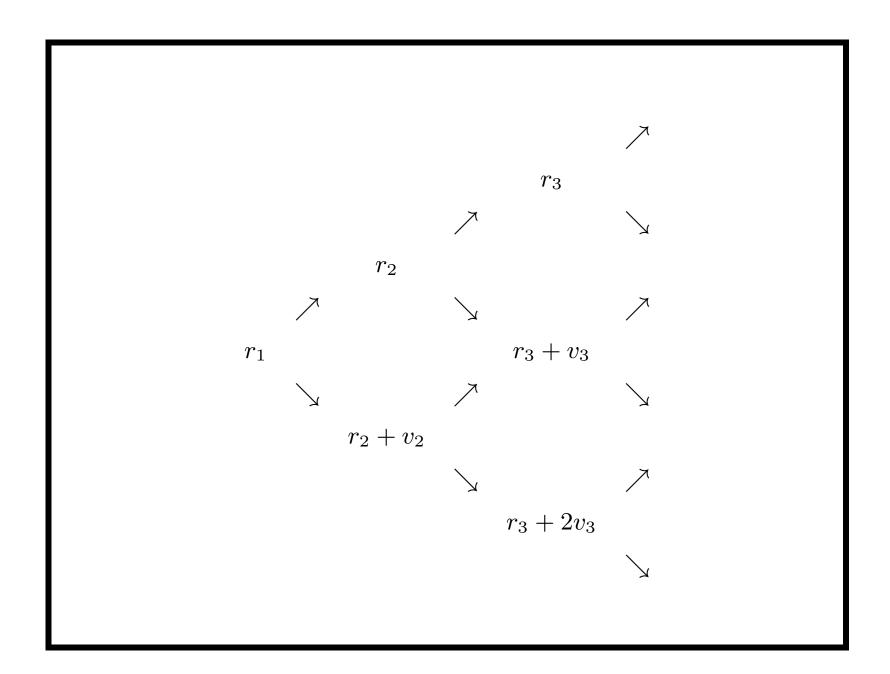
No-Arbitrage Models (concluded)

- No-arbitrage models can specify the dynamics of zero-coupon bond prices, forward rates, or the short rate.
- Bond price and forward rate models are usually non-Markovian (path dependent).
- In contrast, short rate models are generally constructed to be explicitly Markovian (path independent).
- Markovian models are easier to handle computationally.

The Ho-Lee Model^a

- The short rates at any given time are evenly spaced.
- ullet Let p denote the risk-neutral probability that the short rate makes an up move.
- We shall adopt continuous compounding.

^aHo and Lee (1986).



The Ho-Lee Model (continued)

- The Ho-Lee model starts with zero-coupon bond prices $P(t, t+1), P(t, t+2), \ldots$ at time t identified with the root of the tree.
- Let the discount factors in the next period be

$$P_{\rm d}(t+1,t+2), P_{\rm d}(t+1,t+3), \ldots$$
 if short rate moves down $P_{\rm u}(t+1,t+2), P_{\rm u}(t+1,t+3), \ldots$ if short rate moves up

• By backward induction, it is not hard to see that for $n \geq 2$,

$$P_{\rm u}(t+1,t+n) = P_{\rm d}(t+1,t+n) e^{-(v_2+\cdots+v_n)}$$
(133)

(see p. 376 of the textbook).

The Ho-Lee Model (continued)

• It is also not hard to check that the *n*-period zero-coupon bond has yields

$$y_{\rm d}(n) \equiv -\frac{\ln P_{\rm d}(t+1,t+n)}{n-1}$$

 $y_{\rm u}(n) \equiv -\frac{\ln P_{\rm u}(t+1,t+n)}{n-1} = y_{\rm d}(n) + \frac{v_2 + \dots + v_n}{n-1}$

• The volatility of the yield to maturity for this bond is therefore

$$\kappa_n \equiv \sqrt{py_{\rm u}(n)^2 + (1-p)y_{\rm d}(n)^2 - [py_{\rm u}(n) + (1-p)y_{\rm d}(n)]^2}
= \sqrt{p(1-p)} (y_{\rm u}(n) - y_{\rm d}(n))
= \sqrt{p(1-p)} \frac{v_2 + \dots + v_n}{n-1}.$$

The Ho-Lee Model (concluded)

• In particular, the short rate volatility is determined by taking n = 2:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{p(1-p)} \ v_2. \tag{134}$$

• The variance of the short rate therefore equals

$$p(1-p)(r_{\rm u}-r_{\rm d})^2$$
,

where $r_{\rm u}$ and $r_{\rm d}$ are the two successor rates.^a

^aContrast this with the lognormal model (108) on p. 909.

The Ho-Lee Model: Volatility Term Structure

• The volatility term structure is composed of

$$\kappa_2, \kappa_3, \ldots$$

- It is independent of

$$r_2, r_3, \ldots$$

- It is easy to compute the v_i s from the volatility structure, and vice versa (review p. 1047).
- The r_i s can be computed by forward induction.
- The volatility structure is supplied by the market.

The Ho-Lee Model: Bond Price Process

• In a risk-neutral economy, the initial discount factors satisfy

$$P(t,t+n) = (pP_{\mathbf{u}}(t+1,t+n) + (1-p)P_{\mathbf{d}}(t+1,t+n))P(t,t+1).$$

• Combine the above with Eq. (133) on p. 1046 and assume p = 1/2 to obtain^a

$$P_{\rm d}(t+1,t+n) = \frac{P(t,t+n)}{P(t,t+1)} \frac{2 \times \exp[v_2 + \dots + v_n]}{1 + \exp[v_2 + \dots + v_n]},$$
(135)

$$P_{\rm u}(t+1,t+n) = \frac{P(t,t+n)}{P(t,t+1)} \frac{2}{1 + \exp[v_2 + \dots + v_n]}.$$
 (135')

^aIn the limit, only the volatility matters.

The Ho-Lee Model: Bond Price Process (concluded)

- The bond price tree combines.
- Suppose all v_i equal some constant v and $\delta \equiv e^v > 0$.
- Then

$$P_{d}(t+1,t+n) = \frac{P(t,t+n)}{P(t,t+1)} \frac{2\delta^{n-1}}{1+\delta^{n-1}},$$

$$P_{u}(t+1,t+n) = \frac{P(t,t+n)}{P(t,t+1)} \frac{2}{1+\delta^{n-1}}.$$

- Short rate volatility $\sigma = v/2$ by Eq. (134) on p. 1048.
- Price derivatives by taking expectations under the risk-neutral probability.

The Ho-Lee Model: Yields and Their Covariances

• The one-period rate of return of an *n*-period zero-coupon bond is

$$r(t, t+n) \equiv \ln \left(\frac{P(t+1, t+n)}{P(t, t+n)} \right).$$

- Its value is either $\ln \frac{P_{\rm d}(t+1,t+n)}{P(t,t+n)}$ or $\ln \frac{P_{\rm u}(t+1,t+n)}{P(t,t+n)}$.
- Thus the variance of return is

$$Var[r(t, t+n)] = p(1-p)((n-1)v)^2 = (n-1)^2\sigma^2.$$

The Ho-Lee Model: Yields and Their Covariances (concluded)

- The covariance between r(t, t+n) and r(t, t+m) is^a $(n-1)(m-1) \sigma^2.$
- As a result, the correlation between any two one-period rates of return is unity.
- Strong correlation between rates is inherent in all one-factor Markovian models.

^aSee Exercise 26.2.7 of the textbook.

The Ho-Lee Model: Short Rate Process

• The continuous-time limit of the Ho-Lee model is

$$dr = \theta(t) dt + \sigma dW.$$

- This is Vasicek's model with the mean-reverting drift replaced by a deterministic, time-dependent drift.
- A nonflat term structure of volatilities can be achieved if the short rate volatility is also made time varying,

$$dr = \theta(t) dt + \sigma(t) dW.$$

• This corresponds to the discrete-time model in which v_i are not all identical.

The Ho-Lee Model: Some Problems • Future (nominal) interest rates may be negative. • The short rate volatility is independent of the rate level.

Problems with No-Arbitrage Models in General

- Interest rate movements should reflect shifts in the model's state variables (factors) not its parameters.
- Model parameters, such as the drift $\theta(t)$ in the continuous-time Ho-Lee model, should be stable over time.
- But in practice, no-arbitrage models capture yield curve shifts through the recalibration of parameters.
 - A new model is thus born everyday.

Problems with No-Arbitrage Models in General (concluded)

- This in effect says the model estimated at some time does not describe the term structure of interest rates and their volatilities at other times.
- Consequently, a model's intertemporal behavior is suspect, and using it for hedging and risk management may be unreliable.