

Interest Rate Models

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Outline

- 1 Bermudan swaptions
- 2 Valuation of American options
- 3 Hermite polynomials
- 4 Conditional expected values and their estimation

Early termination

- There are fixed income securities that offer a counterparty to exit during a specified period of time.
- These exit options can be
 - (i) *Endogenous* – driven by interest rates only;
 - (ii) *Exogenous* – driven by other risk factors such as credit or prepayment.
- The valuations of instruments have to account for the possibilities for early termination.
- We will focus only on those instruments whose treatment needs only the understanding of interest rate models.

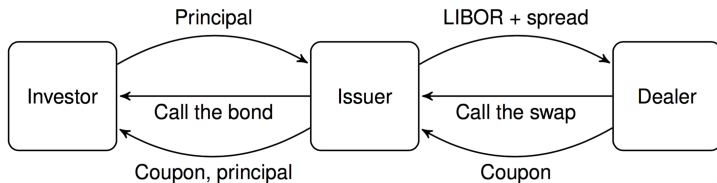
Early termination

- A *callable bond* allows the issuer to repay the principal and cancel all future coupon payments.
- A *puttable bond* allows the bond holder to request the principal earlier and forfeit the future coupons.
- Typically these options are of American style, and they allow for multiple exercise dates.
- LIBOR market model is powerful enough to handle complex interest rate options.
- We will focus on Bermudan swaptions and their valuations using LMM style Monte Carlo simulations.

Bermudan swaptions

- A *callable swap* is a fixed for LIBOR swap that gives a periodic right to the **fixed payer** to cancel the remaining cash flows.
- *Call the swap* is the terminology that describes this action.
- The cancellation dates are pre-determined and cannot happen during the initial *lockout period*.
- Terminology example: *10 no call 2 swap*. This is a 10 year swap that can be called every 6 months, two business days preceding a fixed rate roll date with a 2 year lockout period.
- We will take a look at an example of how callable swaps are used.
- They are usually created on the back of bond issuance.

Bermudan swaptions



- The issuer sells a callable bond to the investor. The issuer has the right to call the bond.
- The issuer has access to a favorable LIBOR spread.
- The issuer finds a dealer willing to be a fixed payer on a callable swap. Callable swap makes the fixed coupons higher.
- If the dealer calls the swap, the issuer will call the bond.

Bermudan swaptions

- A *putable swap* is a fixed for LIBOR swap that gives a periodic right to the **fixed receiver** to cancel the remaining cash flows.
- The fixed rate for a putable swap is lower than the market rate for a regular swap (also known as the swap rate).
- Multiple exercise swap options are called Bermudan swaptions.
- Example: A *semi-annual 1 into 5 Bermudan receiver* is a semi-annual 5.50% 1 year Bermudan receiver swaption into a 5 year swap. The holder has the right to receive a 5.50% on a 5 year swap starting in 1 year from now; or a 4.5 year swap starting in 1.5 years, . . . , or a 6 month swap starting in 5.5 years.
- The total maturity of transactions is 6 years.
- Bermudan swaptions trade over the counter.

Bermudan swaptions

- A callable swap is a basket of
 - Vanilla swap, and
 - Bermudan swaption.
- Example: 10 no call 1 callable swap paying 3%. The fixed payer would obtain the same payoff by entering into
 - Short position (fixed payer) on a 10 year swap paying 3% and
 - Long position in an 1 into 9 Bermudan receiver swaption struck at 3%.
- Calling the callable swap is equivalent to exercising the Bermudan receiver.

Principle of optimality and backward induction

- A big challenge in Monte Carlo based valuations come from the incompatibility of forward moving path generation and the backward moving optimal exercise decision process.
- We will discuss a version of the Longstaff-Schwartz methodology.
- Consider an American option with valuation time $T_0 = 0$ that can be exercised on a set of dates $T_1 < T_2 < \dots < T_n$.
- If the options is exercised at time T_j , the option writer delivers the underlying instrument.
- Let $g_j(T_j)$ be the payoff at the exercise time T_j .

Principle of optimality and backward induction

- The act of exercising an American options is modeled by a stopping time τ .
- Assume that we are working under the terminal forward measure \mathbb{Q} .
- Today's value of the option is

$$V_0 = \max_{\tau} \mathbb{E}^{\mathbb{Q}} [P(0, \tau)g(\tau)],$$

where the maximum is taken over all stopping times τ whose codomain is the set $\{T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n\}$.

- We will use $\mathcal{T}\{T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n\}$ for this set of stopping times.
- We want to determine the optimal stopping time τ^* (or the optimal exercise policy) for which

$$V_0 = \mathbb{E}^{\mathbb{Q}} [P(0, \tau^*)g(\tau^*)].$$

Principle of optimality and backward induction

- The value of the option also satisfies:

$$V_j = \max_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}\{T_{j+1}, T_{j+2}, \dots, T_n\}} \mathbb{E}_j [P(T_j, \tau)g(\tau)],$$

here E_j stands for $\mathbb{E}^{\mathbb{Q}} [\cdot | \mathcal{F}_{T_j}]$.

- Backward induction starts from V_n .
- The valuation starts from the terminal condition

$$V_n = \mathbb{E}_n [g(T_n)].$$

Principle of optimality and backward induction

- At each point in time and each future scenario, we compare the following two quantities:
 - The remaining value of the option (continuation value): The value of the option that would not be exercised at this point;
 - The value of immediate exercise (intrinsic value).
- The higher of the two is the used in moving backward.
- The earliest exercise date at which the intrinsic value exceeds the continuation value is the optimal exercise date.
- The analysis is repeated for all future scenarios.

Principle of optimality and backward induction

- This algorithm is easy to implement for Hull-White model.
- In LMM model the valuations must be done using Monte-Carlo simulations.
- Naive Monte-Carlo is inefficient. Along every path and every future time when exercising is in question, we have to generate many new Monte-Carlo paths.
- It is difficult to estimate the conditional expected values given a future scenario.
- Thus the complexity becomes exponential.

Snell envelope

- We will now assume that the model is one-factor model driven by a single Brownian motion W .
- Multiple factors do not require new ideas, just more cumbersome notation.
- Let us introduce $X_j = \frac{W(T_j)}{\sqrt{T_j}}$.
- Let $X_{1:j}$ denote the vector (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_j) .
- The payoff function $g(T_j)$ at time T_j will be denoted by g_j .
- g_j is a function of path, and when we want to emphasize this we will write $g_j(X_{1:j})$.

Snell envelope

- A Snell envelope is a process $S_j = S_j(X_{1:j})$ that represents the value of the option along the path. Its recursive definition starts with

$$S_n(X_{1:n}) = g_n(X_{1:n}).$$

- The terminal value of the option is simply its payoff.
- We denote by $C_j(X_{1:j})$ the continuation value of the option.

$$C_j(X_{1:j}) = \begin{cases} P_{j,j+1} \mathbb{E}_j[S_{j+1}], & \text{if } j \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$P_{j,j+1}$ is the discount factor between T_j and T_{j+1} .

- We now move backwards for $j = n-1, n-2, \dots, 1$.

$$S_j(X_{1:j}) = \max \{g_j(X_{1:j}), C_j(X_{1:j})\}.$$

Snell envelope

- S_0 is the value of the Snell envelope on its value date and is defined as

$$S_0 = P_{0,1} \mathbb{E}_0[S_1].$$

- The snell envelope satisfies $S_j \geq g_j$. It is the smallest supermartingale with this property.
- Recall that X_s is a supermartingale if $X(s) \geq \mathbb{E}[X(t)|\mathcal{F}_s]$ for $s \leq t$.
- We need to calculate the continuation values and payoff values.
- In order to make these calculations we have to be able to calculate the conditional expectations.
- We will do this using Hermite polynomials and Monte Carlo simulations.

Calculating conditional expectations

- Assume that f is a function that depends on the path $X_{1:j}$. We want to calculate $\mathbb{E}_{j-1}[f(X_{1:j})]$.
- Let us denote $\xi_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T_j - T_{j-1}}}(W(T_{j-1}) - W(T_j))$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}X_j &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{T_j}}W(T_j) \\&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{T_j}}(W(T_{j-1}) + (W(T_j) - W(T_{j-1}))) \\&= \sqrt{\frac{T_{j-1}}{T_j}}X_{j-1} + \sqrt{1 - \frac{T_{j-1}}{T_j}} \cdot \xi_j \\&= \sqrt{\alpha_j}X_{j-1} + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_j}\xi_j, \text{ where } \alpha_j = \frac{T_{j-1}}{T_j}.\end{aligned}$$

Calculating conditional expectations

- Therefore

$$\mathbb{E}_{j-1}[f(X_{1:j})] = \mathbb{E}_{j-1} \left[f \left(X_{1:j-1}, \sqrt{\alpha_j} X_{j-1} + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_j} \xi_j \right) \right].$$

- $X_{1:j-1}$ is deterministic and $\xi_j \sim N(0, 1)$.
- The key is to approximate f by a polynomial.
- Let μ be the distribution function for the standard normal.
- $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x)g(x) d\mu(x)$ is a dot product, and the space $L^2(\mu)$ is a Hilbert space.
- From the basis $\{1, X, X^2, \dots\}$ we can create an orthonormal one using Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization procedure.
- The obtained orthonormal basis consists of *normalized Hermite polynomials* h_0, h_1, \dots .

Hermite polynomials

- We will first guess an orthogonal basis for $L^2(\mu)$.
- Let us first define

$$\Psi(t, x) = e^{-t^2 + 2tx}.$$

- Keeping x as a constant, the function $\varphi(t) = \Psi(t, x)$ has a Maclaurin expansion

$$\Psi(t, x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} H_n(x) \cdot \frac{t^n}{n!}.$$

- The coefficients $H_n(x)$ are polynomials in x .
- They are called Hermite polynomials and we will prove that they satisfy $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} H_n(x) H_m(x) e^{-x^2} dx = 0$ whenever $n \neq m$.

Hermite polynomials

- Notice that the definition of $H_n(x)$ is equivalent to

$$H_n(x) = \left. \frac{d^n}{dt^n} \Psi(t, x) \right|_{t=0}.$$

- Observe that $\Psi(t, x) = e^{x^2} \cdot e^{-(t-x)^2}$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} H_n(x) &= \left. \frac{d^n}{dt^n} \left(e^{x^2} e^{-(t-x)^2} \right) \right|_{t=0} = e^{x^2} \left. \frac{d^n}{dt^n} \left(e^{-(t-x)^2} \right) \right|_{t=0} \\ &= (-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} e^{-x^2}. \end{aligned}$$

- The first few polynomials are: $H_0(x) = 1$, $H_1(x) = 2x$,
 $H_2(x) = 4x^2 - 2$, $H_3(x) = 8x^3 - 12x$.

Hermite polynomials

- Using the Leibnitz formula we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}H_n(x) &= (-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} \left(-2xe^{-x^2} \right) \\&= (-1)^{n-1} \cdot 2 \cdot e^{x^2} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} \left(xe^{-x^2} \right) \\&= (-1)^{n-1} \cdot 2x \cdot e^{x^2} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} \left(e^{-x^2} \right) \\&\quad + (-1)^{n-1} \cdot 2(n-1) \cdot e^{x^2} \frac{d^{n-2}}{dx^{n-2}} \left(e^{-x^2} \right) \\&= 2xH_{n-1}(x) - 2(n-1)H_{n-2}(x).\end{aligned}$$

- The previous equation can also be written as

$$H_{n+1}(x) = 2xH_n(x) - 2nH_{n-1}(x).$$

Hermite polynomials

- A similar calculation gives us

$$H'_n(x) = 2nH_{n-1}(x).$$

- Homework: Use induction to prove that for $n \neq m$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} H_n(x)H_m(x)e^{-x^2} dx = 0.$$

- We now define normalized Hermite polynomials:

$$h_n(x) = \frac{1}{2^{\frac{n}{2}}\sqrt{n!}} H_n\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}}\right).$$

Hermite polynomials

- Normalized Hermite polynomials satisfy:

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{n+1}h_{n+1}(x) &= xh_n(x) - \sqrt{n}h_{n-1}(x) \\ h'_n(x) &= \sqrt{n}h_{n-1}(x).\end{aligned}$$

- Homework: Prove that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h_m(x)h_n(x) \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} dx = 1_{m=n}.$$

- Every function $f \in L^2(\mu)$ can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n h_n(x), \quad \text{where} \\ a_n &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x)h_n(x) d\mu(x).\end{aligned}$$

Addition theorem

- Notice that

$$\begin{aligned}\Psi\left(t, \sqrt{\alpha}x + \sqrt{1-\alpha}y\right) &= e^{-t^2+2t(\sqrt{\alpha}x+\sqrt{1-\alpha}y)} \\ &= e^{-\alpha t^2+\sqrt{\alpha}x} \cdot e^{-(1-\alpha)t^2+\sqrt{1-\alpha}y} \\ &= \Psi\left(\sqrt{\alpha}t, x\right) \cdot \Psi\left(\sqrt{1-\alpha}t, y\right).\end{aligned}$$

- Comparing the Maclauring series and coefficient next to t^n we conclude that

$$H_n\left(\sqrt{\alpha}x + \sqrt{1-\alpha}y\right) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \cdot \alpha^{\frac{k}{2}} \cdot (1-\alpha)^{\frac{n-k}{2}} \cdot H_k(x) \cdot H_{n-k}(y).$$

Addition theorem

- Using the relationship between h_n and H_n we obtain

$$h_n(\sqrt{\alpha}x + \sqrt{1-\alpha}y) = \sum_{k=0}^n \sqrt{\binom{n}{k}} \cdot \alpha^{\frac{k}{2}} \cdot (1-\alpha)^{\frac{n-k}{2}} \cdot h_k(x) \cdot h_{n-k}(y).$$

- Homework: Prove that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h_n(\sqrt{\alpha}x + \sqrt{1-\alpha}y) d\mu(y) = \alpha^{\frac{n}{2}} h_n(x).$$

- Recall that $X_{1:j} = \sqrt{\alpha_j}X_{1:j-1} + \sqrt{1-\alpha_j}\xi_j$.
- We now want to calculate $\mathbb{E}_i[f(X_{1:j})]$ for $i < j$.

Conditional expected value

- Assume first that $i = j - 1$.
- The function $f(X_{1:j})$ can be represented as the Fourier series

$$f(X_{1:j}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k(X_{1:j-1}) h_k(X_j),$$

where

$$c_k(X_{1:j-1}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(X_{1:j}) h_k(X_j) d\mu(X_j).$$

- In the previous formula, X_j is a real number and a variable of integration. The function f depends on $X_{1:j-1}$ and X_j . Therefore, the result of integration $c_k(X_{1:j-1})$ depends on $X_{1:j-1}$.

Conditional expected value

- We now have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{j-1} [f(X_{1:j})] &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k(X_{1:j-1}) \mathbb{E}_{j-1} [h_k(\sqrt{\alpha_j} X_{j-1} + \sqrt{1-\alpha_j} \xi_j)] \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k(X_{1:j-1}) \alpha_j^{\frac{k}{2}} h_k(X_{j-1})\end{aligned}$$

- We can easily extend our method from $i = j - 1$ to the general case $i < j$.

$$\mathbb{E}_i [f(X_{1:j})] = \mathbb{E}_i [\mathbb{E}_{i+1} [\cdots \mathbb{E}_{j-1} [f(X_{1:j})] \cdots]]$$

- The above formulas are exact. However, in practice we cannot usually find the sum of the infinite Fourier series and we cannot evaluate the integral that defines c_k .

Monte Carlo estimation

- Assume that we have generated N Monte Carlo paths $X_{1:n}^i$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$.
- The first step is *truncation* of the series. For some finite κ we will consider the approximation:

$$f(X_{1:j}) \approx \sum_{k=0}^{\kappa} c_k(X_{1:j-1}) h_k(X_j),$$

- Therefore

$$\mathbb{E}_{j-1} [f(X_{1:j})] \approx \sum_{k=0}^{\kappa} \alpha_j^{\frac{k}{2}} c_k(X_{1:j-1}) h_k(X_{j-1}).$$

- Even low values for κ (such as $\kappa = 5$) lead to surprisingly good numerical results.

Monte Carlo estimation

- We will now calculate approximate values for the Fourier coefficients.
- The standard Monte Carlo estimation would approximate the integral in the following way

$$c_k(X_{1:j-1}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(X_{1:j}) h_k(X_j) d\mu(X_j) \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(X_{1:j}^i) h_k(X_j^i).$$

- However, the following trick leads to a much faster convergence:
- We will look for the vector \hat{c} of coefficients \hat{c}_k that minimize

$$\zeta(c_0, c_1, \dots, c_\kappa) = \sum_{i=1}^N \left(f(X_{1:j}^i) - \sum_{k=0}^{\kappa} c_k h_k(X_j^i) \right)^2.$$

Monte Carlo estimation

- The minimizing sequence \hat{c} of

$$\zeta(c_0, c_1, \dots, c_\kappa) = \sum_{i=1}^N \left(f(X_{1:j}^i) - \sum_{k=0}^{\kappa} c_k h_k(X_j^i) \right)^2.$$

satisfies $\nabla \zeta(\hat{c}) = 0$.

- The equation $\nabla \zeta(\vec{c}) = 0$ is equivalent to $G \vec{c} = \vec{b}$, where G is the matrix and \vec{b} the vector that satisfy:

$$G_{\ell k} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N h_k(X_j^i) h_\ell(X_j^i), \quad b_\ell = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(X_{1:j}^i) h_\ell(X_j^i).$$

Monte Carlo estimation

- As $N \rightarrow \infty$ the matrix G converges to the identity matrix.
- Therefore we obtain the following estimate for the expectation

$$\hat{E}[f(X_{1:j})] \approx \sum_{k=0}^{\kappa} \alpha_j^{\frac{k}{2}} \hat{c}_k h_k(X_{j-1}),$$

where

$$\hat{c} = G^{-1} \vec{b}.$$

Optimal exercise

- Assume now that we have N Monte-Carlo paths $X_{1:n}^i$ for $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$.
- *Step 1.* We will first assume that the immediate payoff $g_j(X_{1:j}^i)$ can be calculated without using Monte-Carlo methods.
- For example, the underlying asset for Bermudan swaption is a swap rate that can be priced using multi-curve built with data available at time T_j .
- Since all $g_j(X_{1:j}^i)$ are known we can calculate Snell envelope.

$$C_n(X_{1:n}^i) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad S_n(X_{1:n}^i) = g_n(X_{1:n}^i).$$

Optimal exercise

- Suppose that $C_j(X_{1:j}^i)$ and $S_j(X_{1:j}^i)$ are calculated for some j and all i . We can evaluate

$$\begin{aligned}C_{j-1}(X_{1:j-1}^i) &= P_{j-1,j} \hat{\mathbb{E}}_{j-1} [S_j(X_{1:j})] \\S_{j-1}(X_{1:j-1}^i) &= \max \{ C_{j-1}(X_{1:j-1}^i), g_{j-1}(X_{1:j-1}^i) \} .\end{aligned}$$

- Assume now that the underlying instrument is a contingent claim. Its price is conditional expected value.
- We pre-compute the value of cash flow $p_j(X_{1:n}^i)$ at time T_j for each Monte Carlo path and each j .
- Then we have

$$g_j(X_{1:n}^i) = \mathbb{E}_j [p_j(X_{1:n}^i)] = \mathbb{E}_j [\cdots \mathbb{E}_{n-1} [p_j(X_{1:n}^i)] \cdots] .$$

Optimal exercise

- We can now summarize the procedure: Start with $j = n$ and calculate

$$\begin{aligned}g_\ell(X_{1:n}^i) &= p_\ell[X_{1:n}^i] \quad \text{for all } \ell \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}; \\C_n(X_{1:n}^i) &= 0; \\S_n(X_{1:n}^i) &= g_n(X_{1:n}^i).\end{aligned}$$

- Once the values C_j and S_j are found, we calculate

$$\begin{aligned}p_\ell(X_{1:j-1}^i) &= \hat{\mathbb{E}}_{j-1}[p_\ell(X_{1:j}^i)] \quad \text{for all } \ell \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}; \\C_{j-1}(X_{1:j-1}^i) &= P_{j-1,j} \hat{\mathbb{E}}_{j-1}[S_j(X_{1:j}^i)]; \\S_{j-1}(X_{1:j-1}^i) &= \max\{C_{j-1}(X_{1:j-1}^i), g_{j-1}(X_{1:j-1}^i)\}.\end{aligned}$$

Optimal exercise

- It remains to calculate the optimal exercise time.
- Consider a particular Monte Carlo path
 $X^i = (X_0^i, X_1^i, \dots, X_n^i)$.
- For each path we initialize the the value of the stopping time
 $\tau_*(X^i) = T_n$.
- As we go backward in time we update the value $\tau_*(X^i)$ to T_j if $g_j(X_{1:j}^i) \geq C_j(X_{1:j}^i)$.
- Formally, $\tau_*(X_{1:n}^i) = \min \left\{ j : S_j(X_{1:j}^i) = g_j(X_{1:j}^i) \right\}$.
- The value of the option is the average over all Monte Carlo paths:

$$V_0 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N P_{0,j_*} g_{j_*}(X_{1:j_*}^i),$$

where j_* is the index j for which $\tau_*(X_{1:n}^i) = T_j$.

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