

# COX, INGERSOLL, AND ROSS (1985)

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## 1 Introduction

The Cox, Ingersoll, Ross (1985) model extends Vasicek's Gaussian framework by ensuring that interest rates remain non-negative while retaining analytical tractability. The short rate  $r_t$  follows a mean-reverting square-root diffusion under the risk-neutral measure  $\mathbb{Q}$ :

$$dr_t = \kappa(\theta - r_t)dt + \sigma\sqrt{r_t}dW_t^{\mathbb{Q}}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\kappa > 0$  governs the speed of mean reversion,  $\theta > 0$  is the long-run mean level, and  $\sigma > 0$  controls volatility. The diffusion term  $\sqrt{r_t}$  implies that volatility is proportional to the square root of the rate level, ensuring nonnegativity provided the Feller condition  $2\kappa\theta > \sigma^2$  holds<sup>1</sup>.

Economically, the model captures the intuition that volatility rises when rates are high and falls when rates are low. It is an equilibrium model: parameters are motivated by economic arguments rather than fitted exactly to the current yield curve. Nevertheless, the CIR model became a cornerstone of interest rate theory because it combines mean reversion, positivity, and affine term-structure solutions.

## 2 Distribution and Intuition

The CIR process (1) admits a known transition density: conditional on  $r_t$ , the future rate  $r_T$  has a noncentral chi-squared distribution with degrees of freedom  $\nu = \frac{4\kappa\theta}{\sigma^2}$  and noncentrality parameter  $\lambda = r_tce^{-\kappa(T-t)}$ , where

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<sup>1</sup>The condition ensures that the mean-reverting drift is strong enough to prevent the short rate from reaching zero. When the inequality holds strictly,  $r_t$  remains strictly positive. When equality holds, the process may touch zero but reflects immediately. If violated, the process can hit zero with positive probability, though it never becomes negative.

$c = \frac{4\kappa}{\sigma^2(1-e^{-\kappa(T-t)})}$ . The conditional mean and variance are

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_t[r_T] &= r_t e^{-\kappa(T-t)} + \theta(1 - e^{-\kappa(T-t)}), \\ \text{Var}_t[r_T] &= \frac{\sigma^2}{\kappa} \left( r_t e^{-\kappa(T-t)} + \frac{\theta}{2}(1 - e^{-\kappa(T-t)}) \right) (1 - e^{-\kappa(T-t)}).\end{aligned}$$

Thus, the short rate reverts to  $\theta$  at speed  $\kappa$ , and its volatility depends on the level of  $r_t$ , preventing negative rates. In contrast to Vasicek, the distribution is skewed and strictly positive. This property makes CIR one of the most economically plausible short-rate models.

### 3 Pricing PDE

Let  $V(r, t)$  denote the price of a derivative depending on  $r_t$ . Applying Itô's lemma to  $V(r, t)$  and constructing a locally riskless portfolio yields the pricing PDE under the risk-neutral measure:

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \kappa(\theta - r) \frac{\partial V}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 r \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial r^2} - rV = 0. \quad (2)$$

This equation generalises Vasicek's PDE by allowing the diffusion coefficient to depend on  $r$ . By the Feynman-Kac theorem,

$$V(r, t) = \mathbb{E}_t^{\mathbb{Q}} \left[ e^{-\int_t^T r_u du} \ell(r_T) \right],$$

for payoff  $\ell(r_T)$  at maturity  $T$ .

## 4 Bond Pricing

### 4.1 Zero-Coupon Bond

The affine structure of (2) implies that the zero-coupon bond price retains the exponential-affine form

$$P(t, T) = A(t, T) e^{-B(t, T) r_t}, \quad (3)$$

where the functions  $A(t, T)$  and  $B(t, T)$  solve a system of Riccati equations:

$$\begin{aligned} B'(T) &= 1 - \kappa B(T) + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 B(T)^2, & B(T, T) &= 0, \\ A'(T) &= -\kappa\theta B(T), & A(T, T) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

The closed-form solution is

$$\begin{aligned} B(t, T) &= \frac{2(e^{\gamma(T-t)} - 1)}{(\kappa + \gamma)(e^{\gamma(T-t)} - 1) + 2\gamma}, \\ A(t, T) &= \left[ \frac{2\gamma e^{(\kappa+\gamma)(T-t)/2}}{(\kappa + \gamma)(e^{\gamma(T-t)} - 1) + 2\gamma} \right]^{\frac{2\kappa\theta}{\sigma^2}}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\gamma = \sqrt{\kappa^2 + 2\sigma^2}$ . The bond yield is  $y(t, T) = -\frac{1}{T-t} \ln P(t, T)$ . As in Vasicek, the yield curve is affine in the short rate but now strictly positive. The CIR bond formula is fundamental because it shows that even with state-dependent volatility, the term structure remains analytically tractable.

## 4.2 Coupon Bonds

A coupon-bearing bond with payments  $c_i$  at times  $T_i$  and notional  $N$  is priced as a sum of zero-coupon bonds:

$$P^{\text{coupon}}(t) = \sum_i c_i P(t, T_i) + NP(t, T_n),$$

using the  $A(t, T)$  and  $B(t, T)$  functions above.

# 5 Options Pricing

## 5.1 Bond Options

A European call on a zero-coupon bond maturing at  $S > T$  with strike  $K$  and expiry  $T$  has payoff  $(P(T, S) - K)^+$ . The price can again be written in closed form under the  $T$ -forward measure because  $P(T, S)$  is lognormal in that measure. The option value is

$$C(t) = P(t, S)\Phi(d_1) - KP(t, T)\Phi(d_2), \tag{4}$$

where

$$d_{1,2} = \frac{\ln \frac{P(t,S)}{KP(t,T)} \pm \frac{1}{2}\sigma_P^2}{\sigma_P}, \quad \sigma_P^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\kappa^2} \frac{(1 - e^{-\kappa(T-t)})^2}{1 - e^{-2\kappa(S-T)}} (1 - e^{-\kappa(S-T)})^2.$$

This formula has the same structure as in Vasicek, but the variance term reflects the level-dependent volatility of the CIR process. Options on coupon bonds are priced as portfolios of zero-bond options via Jamshidian's trick.

## 5.2 Futures Options

An interest rate futures contract is marked-to-market daily, so the futures rate differs from the forward rate by a convexity adjustment. Under CIR, this adjustment has no closed form but can be approximated analytically or computed numerically using bond covariance. The option price is then given by a Black-like or Bachelier-like formula with adjusted futures rate  $F(t, T)$  and variance derived from the CIR dynamics.

## 5.3 Caps, Floors, Caplets, Floorlets

A caplet on  $[T, T + \delta]$  with strike  $K$  and notional  $N$  pays  $N\delta(L(T, T + \delta) - K)^+$ . Using the bond relation  $L(T, T + \delta) = \frac{1}{\delta}(P(T, T)/P(T, T + \delta) - 1)$ , the caplet is equivalent to a put on  $P(T, T + \delta)$ . Therefore, its price is obtained from (4):

$$\text{Caplet}(t) = N\delta(P(t, T)\Phi(d_1) - (1 + K\delta)P(t, T + \delta)\Phi(d_2)),$$

with volatility computed using the CIR bond variance. A floorlet follows by put-call parity, and caps and floors are portfolios of caplets and floorlets across maturities.

## 5.4 Swaptions

A payer swaption gives the right to enter a fixed-for-floating swap at expiry  $T$ . The payoff is  $N(1 - P(T, T_N) - KA(T))^+$ , where  $A(T) = \sum_{j=1}^N \delta_j P(T, T_j)$ . As in Vasicek, it can be expressed as an option on a coupon bond:

$$B_{\text{fix}}(T; K) = P(T, T_N) + K \sum_{j=1}^N \delta_j P(T, T_j),$$

so that the swaption value is  $(1 - B_{\text{fix}}(T; K))^+$ . Jamshidian's trick applies because CIR is a one-factor affine model: there exists a unique  $r^*$  such that  $B_{\text{fix}}(T; K; r^*) = 1$ , allowing decomposition into zero-bond options. A receiver swaption, with payoff  $N(KA(T) - (1 - P(T, T_N)))^+$ , is obtained analogously and satisfies the parity

$$\text{Swpt}^{\text{payer}}(t) - \text{Swpt}^{\text{receiver}}(t) = NA(t)(S(t) - K),$$

where  $S(t)$  is the forward swap rate. Closed-form formulas are not available in CIR, but numerical methods using bond-option valuation or Bachelier approximations under the annuity measure are standard.

## 6 Propositions

Two fundamental propositions underlie pricing in the CIR and, more generally, in all short-rate models.

*Proposition 1 (Spot-measure representation).* Under the risk-neutral (spot) measure associated with the money-market numéraire

$$B_t = e^{\int_0^t r_s ds},$$

the discounted price of any asset is a martingale:

$$\frac{V_t}{B_t} = \mathbb{E}_t^{\mathbb{Q}} \left[ \frac{V_T}{B_T} \right].$$

This proposition formalises risk-neutral valuation: the present value of a payoff is the expected discounted payoff under  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Intuitively, it connects the economic concept of a continuously rolled deposit account with the probabilistic representation of arbitrage-free prices.

*Proposition 2 (Forward-measure representation).* Fix a maturity  $T$  and take the zero-coupon bond  $P(t, T)$  as numéraire. Under the corresponding  $T$ -forward measure  $\mathbb{Q}^T$ , any forward price is a martingale:

$$\frac{V_t}{P(t, T)} = \mathbb{E}_t^{\mathbb{Q}^T} \left[ \frac{V_T}{P(T, T)} \right] = \mathbb{E}_t^{\mathbb{Q}^T} [V_T].$$

This change of measure eliminates discounting, allowing derivative pricing to be expressed directly in terms of forward quantities, such as forward rates or bond prices—whose drift becomes zero under  $\mathbb{Q}^T$ . It is this proposition that leads to tractable valuation formulas for bond and interest rate options in the CIR model.

Together, these propositions provide the mathematical foundation of the term-structure framework. The

first ensures consistency with arbitrage-free pricing under the short rate; the second enables closed-form solutions by choosing convenient numeraires (e.g., a bond or annuity). They underpin all pricing relations derived in CIR, Vasicek, and their extensions.

## 7 Remarks

The CIR model combines economic intuition, positivity, and analytical structure. Its affine nature allows closed-form bond and bond-option pricing while guaranteeing nonnegative rates, unlike Vasicek. However, it cannot perfectly fit the initial yield curve without modification. The extended model, CIR++, introduces a deterministic shift to calibrate exactly the observed term structure while retaining the stochastic dynamics of CIR. Despite its limitations, the CIR model remains a cornerstone of modern term-structure modeling: it connects theory and practice by showing how equilibrium reasoning can coexist with analytical tractability.