

Interest Rate and Credit Models

1. Rates and Curves

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Outline

- 1 LIBOR, OIS, and their derivatives
- 2 Valuation of swaps
- 3 Building the OIS / LIBOR multicurve

Fixed income markets

- Debt and debt related markets, also known as *fixed income* markets, account for the lion share of the world's financial markets.
- Instruments trading in these markets fall into the categories of
 - (i) *cash instruments*, or *bonds*,
 - (ii) *derivative instruments*, such as interest rate swaps (IRS), credit default swaps (CDS), bond futures, etc.
- Bonds are debt instruments issued by various entities (such as sovereigns, corporations, municipalities, US Government Sponsored Enterprizes, etc), with the purposes of raising funds in the capital markets.
- Derivatives are synthetic instruments which extract specific features of commonly traded cash instruments in order to make risk management and speculation easier.

Fixed income markets

- Depending on their purpose, fixed income instruments may exhibit very complex risk profiles. The value of a fixed income instrument may depend on factors such as:
 - (i) the level and term structure of interest rates,
 - (ii) credit characteristics of the underlying entity,
 - (iii) prepayment speeds of the collateral pool of loans,
 - (iv) foreign exchange levels.
- Understanding, modeling, and managing each of these (and other) risks poses unique challenges and opportunities.
- Like all other financial markets, fixed income markets fluctuate, and the main drivers of this variability are:
 - (i) current perception of future interest rates,
 - (ii) liquidity conditions.

Fixed income markets

- Market participants have adopted the convention that a *rally* refers to falling interest rates, while a *sell off* refers to rising rates.
- This somewhat counterintuitive convention is best rationalized by the fact that interest rate sensitive instruments, such as bonds, typically appreciate in value when rates go down and depreciate in value when rates go up.
- By the same token, a fixed income portfolio is *long the market*, if its value goes up with falling rates, and is *short the market* if the opposite is true.
- Each fixed income instrument is a stream of known or contingent *cash flows*. Such cash flows are typically periodic, and are computed as a fixed or floating *coupon*, applied to a *principal* (or a *notional* principal).
- The market has developed various conventions to apply the coupon to the relevant accrual period. Examples of such conventions in the US dollar market are
 - (i) the *money market convention* act/360 (actual number of days over a 360 day year),
 - (ii) the *bond market conventions* 30/360 (based on a 30 day month over a 360 day year).

LIBOR rates

- Much of the activity in the world capital markets is tied to the LIBOR rates. They are widely used as benchmarks for short term (overnight to 1 year) interest rates.
- A LIBOR (= London Interbank Offered Rate) rate, or more properly ICE LIBOR rate is the interest rate at which banks offer (at least in principle) unsecured deposits to each other.
- Daily *fixings* of LIBOR are published by Thompson Reuters on behalf of the Intercontinental Exchange (ICE) on each London business day at 11:30 a.m. London time.
- These fixings are calculated from the quotes provided by a panel of participating banks. The details on the composition of the panels and how the fixings are calculated can be found on the web site www.theice.com/iba/libor.
- ICE LIBOR was formerly known as the BBA (British Banking Association) LIBOR until the BBA relinquished its control over LIBOR following the *LIBOR scandal*.

LIBOR rates

- LIBOR rates are not regarded risk free, but the participating banks have high credit ratings.
- LIBOR is currently quoted in five major currencies: US Dollar (USD), British Sterling (GBP), Euro (EUR), Japanese Yen (JPY), and Swiss Franc (CHF).
- For each currency, LIBOR rates of seven different maturities are quoted: 1 day, 1 week, 1 month, 2 months, 3 months, 6 months, and 12 months.
- The LIBOR rates and the market practices surrounding them vary somewhat from currency to currency. For example, the prevalent maturity in the USD is 3 months, and when we refer to the LIBOR rate we mean the 3 month rate. On the other hand, the most popular benchmark in the EUR is the 6 month rate¹.
- In order to keep things simple, throughout this course, we shall focus on the the USD market, and designate the term LIBOR to mean the 3 month LIBOR rate.

¹

The prevalent index rate in the Eurozone is actually the EURIBOR, which is different from the euro LIBOR.



LIBOR rates

- In the USD market, LIBOR applies to deposits that settle two business days from the current date (this date is called the *spot date*), and whose maturity is on an anniversary date (say, 3 months) of that settlement date.
- Determining the anniversary date follows two rules:
 - (i) If the anniversary date is not a business day, move forward to the next business day, except if this takes you over a calendar month end, in which case you move back to the last business day. This rule is known as *modified following business day convention*.
 - (ii) If the settlement date is the last business day of a calendar month, all anniversary dates are last business days of their calendar months.

LIBOR rates

- In addition to spot transactions, there are a variety of *vanilla* LIBOR based instruments actively trading both on exchanges and over the counter (OTC), including:
 - (i) LIBOR futures,
 - (ii) forward rate agreements,
 - (iii) interest rate swaps.
- The markets for LIBOR based instruments are among the most active derivatives markets.
- The significance of these instruments lies in that:
 - (i) They allow portfolio managers and other financial professionals effectively hedge their interest rate exposure. We will discuss it in detail later in this course.
 - (ii) One can use them to synthetically create desired future cash flows and thus effectively manage assets versus liabilities.
 - (iii) They allow market participants easily express their views on the future level and shape of the term structure of interest rates, and thus are convenient vehicles of speculation.

Forward rate agreements

- *Forward rate agreements* (FRAs) are OTC transactions.
 - (i) Transactions are arranged between the counterparties without an involvement of an exchange.
 - (ii) They are typically arranged through a salesman, a voice broker or an electronic platform.
 - (iii) However, FRAs with maturities between 3 days and 3 years are mandated by CFTC to centrally clear (via LCH or CME). We will talk more about central clearing later.
- In a FRA transaction, counterparty A agrees to pay counterparty B LIBOR settling t years from now applied to a specified notional amount (say, \$100 mm). In exchange, counterparty B pays counterparty A a pre-agreed interest rate (say, 3.05%) applied to the same notional.

Forward rate agreements

- The contract matures on an anniversary T (say, 3 months) of the settlement date, and interest is computed on an act/360 day count basis.
- Anniversary dates generally follow the modified following business day convention.
- FRAs are quoted in terms of the annualized forward interest rate applied to the accrual period of the transaction.
- Market participants use FRAs for both hedging and speculation.

Forward rate agreements

- Because of their granular structure, they allow one to hedge the exposure or express the view on rates move on specific days.
 - (i) For example, an *FOMC FRA* is a FRA which fixes the day after a Federal Open Markets Committee meeting.
 - (ii) An *FOMC switch* involves taking opposite positions in a FRA fixing before and after an FOMC meeting.
 - (iii) Likewise, a *turn switch* allows to hedge or express the view on the rate spikes idiosyncratic to the month-, quarter- or year-end.
- Econometric studies of historical rates data show that forward rates are poor predictors of future interest rates. Rather, they reflect the evolving current consensus market sentiment about the future levels of rates.
- Their true economic significance lies in the fact that a variety of instruments whose values derive from the levels of forward rates (such as swaps) can be liquidly traded and used to hedge against adverse future levels of rates.

Eurodollar futures

- *Eurodollar futures*, known also as the LIBOR futures, are *exchange traded* futures contracts on the 3 month LIBOR rate. They trade on the Chicago Mercantile Exchange, often referred to as “the Merc”, which also clears and settles the trades.
- The parties involved in futures trading maintain a cash position in their margin accounts, which serve as a security deposit against default. The Merc makes daily “mark to market” adjustments to the margin account in order to reflect the changes in values of each of the individual contracts.
- In many ways, Eurodollar futures are similar to FRAs, except that their terms, such as contract sizes and settlement dates are standardized.
- Each of the contracts assumes a notional principal of \$1,000,000. Interest on these contracts is computed on an act/360 day count basis assuming 90 day accrual period.

Eurodollar futures

- That means that for a 1 basis point movement in the underlying LIBOR forward rate, the daily mark to market adjustment of the contract is

$$0.0001 \times \frac{90}{360} \times \$1,000,000 = \$25.$$

- The value of the margin account goes up (money is credited to the account) if the rate drops, and it goes down (money is debited from the account) if the rate goes up.
- In order to make a Eurodollar future resemble a bond, the market has adopted the convention according to which the forward rate R underlying the contract is quoted in terms of the “price” defined as

$$100 \times (1 - R).$$

- For example, if $R = 2.32\%$, the quoted price of the contract is 97.68. Unlike a FRA, the Eurodollar future quoted price is linear in the underlying rate.

Eurodollar futures

- At any time, 44 Eurodollar contracts are listed on the Merc.
- Of these contracts, the *quarterly* 40 contracts expire on the third Wednesday of the months of March, June, September, and December over the next 10 years. These dates are referred to as the *IMM dates*².
- As it happens, the third Wednesdays of a month have the fortunate characteristic that they are always good New York and London business days, and are thus convenient for settlement and roll overs.
- The Monday preceding an IMM date is the last trading day of the contract, as the underlying LIBOR rate fixes on that day.
- Of the 40 quarterly contracts, only the first 20 are liquid, the open interest in the remaining 20 being minimal.

² IMM stands for the International Monetary Market

Eurodollar futures

- For the ease of execution, traders group these contracts into *packs* of four, and designate a color code to each of the packs.
- The first four contracts form the White (or Front) pack, followed by the Red, Green, Blue, and Gold packs.
- The first two packs form the *2 year bundle*, the first three packs form the *3 year bundle*, etc.
- In addition, 4 *serial* contracts maturing on the third Wednesday of the nearest four months not covered by the above quarterly contracts are listed.
- Serial contracts are not part of the front pack.
- For example, on January 28, 2019, the following serial contracts are listed: February, April, May, and July. Of these 4 contracts, typically the first two are somewhat liquid.

Eurodollar futures

- Figure 1 below contains a snapshot of the Eurodollar market.
- We have included only the first 20 quarterly contracts and the serial contracts. In addition to the quoted price, we have also included the open interest, i.e. the total number of outstanding contracts, as well as the daily volume, i.e. the number of contracts traded on the day.
- Each of the four quarterly contracts is designated a letter code: H stands for March, M stands for June, U stands for September, and Z stands for December.
- The contract's ticker is a combination of the letter code and the year of expiration. Thus, EDU15 denotes the contract expiring in September 2015.
- The letter codes for the serial contracts are F (January), G (February), J (April), K (May), N (July), Q (August), V (October), and X (November).

Eurodollar futures



Figure: 1. Bloomberg snapshot of the Eurodollar futures market

Swaps

- The *interest rate swap* (IRS) market is by far the largest global derivatives market.
- According to the Bank of International Settlements (BIS) in Basel https://www.bis.org/statistics/d5_1.pdf, the total notional of outstanding swaps as of the first half of 2019 is 390 trillion USD, i.e. $\$3.9 \times 10^{15}$.
- USD denominated swaps account for over 50% of this market (USD 199 trillion), followed by EUR (USD 135 trillion), and JPY (USD 39 trillion).
- By comparison, the total outstanding notional of FRAs is USD 89 trillion.
- Interest rate swaps are traded OTC, with an increasing share of contracts trading over electronic platforms. They are centrally cleared by CME and LCH.

Swaps

- A fixed for floating interest rate swap (or simply swap) is a transaction in which two counterparties agree to exchange periodic interest payments on a pre-specified *notional* amount.
- One counterparty (the fixed *payer*) agrees to pay periodically the other counterparty (the fixed *receiver*) a fixed coupon (say, 3.35% per annum) in exchange for receiving periodic LIBOR applied to the same notional.
- *Spot starting* swaps based on LIBOR begin on a start date 2 business days from the current date and mature and pay interest on anniversary dates that use the same modified following business day conventions as the LIBOR index.
- Interest is usually computed on an act/360 day basis on the floating side of the swap and on 30/360 day basis in the fixed side of the pay.
- Typically, fixed payment dates (“coupon dates”) are semiannual (every 6 months), and floating payment dates are quarterly (every 3 months) to correspond to a 3 month LIBOR.

Swaps

- In addition to spot starting swaps, *forward starting* swaps are routinely traded.
- In a forward starting swap, the first accrual period can be any business day beyond spot. Swaps (spot and forward starting) are quoted in terms of the fixed coupon.
- Swaps are often created on the back of bond issuance. Consider the situation depicted in Figure 2 below.

Swaps

- An issuer (say, a corporation or a government sponsored agency) issues a bond which is purchased by an investor. The issuer pays a periodic coupon and repays the principal at the bond's maturity.
- Because of their high quality credit the issuer can fund their liabilities at a favorable spread to LIBOR rate, and thus enters into a swap with the interest rate derivatives desk of a bank offsetting their coupon payments.

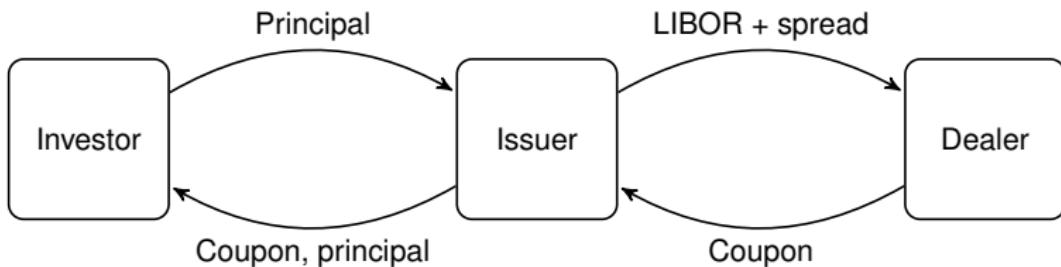


Figure: 2. Swapping a bond

Swaps

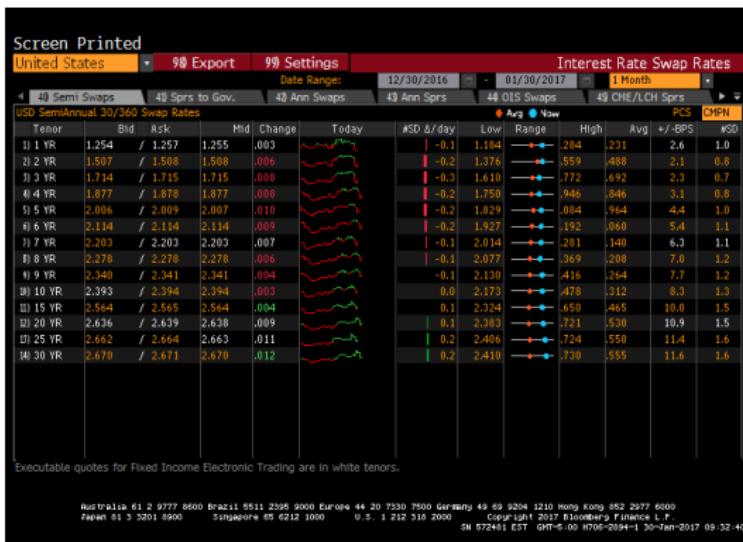


Figure: 3. IBloomberg snapshot of the swap market

IOS

- In the wake of the 2008 credit crunch, LIBOR's credibility as a funding rate was put to question.
- Part of the issue is the *de facto* absence of the interbank unsecured lending market which raises doubts over the validity of the quotes submitted by the participating banks to the BBA.
- As a result, rates referred to as the OIS rates, linked to the overnight rate controlled by the local (to the currency) central bank became increasingly important as benchmark funding rates. OIS is the acronym for *overnight indexed swap*.
- An overnight indexed swap is a fixed for floating interest rate swap where the floating rate is based on a short term (overnight), daily compounded (rather quarterly, as in a LIBOR swap) interest rate.
- By default, both the fixed and floating legs accrue based on the act/360 basis. OIS swaps tend to be of short maturity, ranging from a few days to five years.

IOS

- In the USD market, OIS rates are calculated by reference to daily *fed funds effective rate*. The economic significance of that rate is as follows.
- Under the US law, banks are required to maintain certain minimum levels of reserves, either in the form of reserves with the Fed or as vault cash. The level of reserves depends on the outstanding assets and liabilities of a bank, and is verified at the end of each business day.
- If the bank's reserve falls below the mandated minimum, it must borrow funds in order to remain compliant with the regulations. The bank can borrow from another bank that happens to have an excess reserve, or directly from the Fed itself (at the "discount window").
- The interest rate that the borrowing bank pays to the lending bank is negotiated between them, and the weighted average of the interest rates on all such transactions³ on a given day is the fed funds effective rate for that day.

³The (non-negotiated) rate at which banks borrow directly from the Fed is not included in this calculation. This rate is referred to as the discount rate, and it is typically higher than the fed funds rate.



IOS

- This “fixing” is published the following day between 7 and 8 am. Unlike LIBOR, which is the result of a poll taken among participating banks, the fed funds effective rate is a trading rate, and is thus regarded a more reliable barometer of the current cost of funds.
- The fed funds effective rate is to a large degree controlled by the Federal Reserve Bank which periodically sets a target for its level. In the periods of monetary *easing*, the target fed funds rate is lowered, while in the periods of *tightening*, it is raised.
- Typically, the changes in the target rate are announced after the monthly FOMC meetings, although, historically, unscheduled changes have also been announced.
- The Fed enforces its targets through open market operations at the Domestic Trading Desk at the Federal Reserve Bank of New York.

IOS

- OIS rates in other currencies are referenced by the corresponding overnight rates:
 - (i) In the euro zone, the relevant short rate is EONIA (which stands for *euro overnight index average*). The banks contributing to EONIA are the same as the panel banks contributing to EURIBOR.
 - (ii) SONIA is the acronym for *sterling overnight index average*, the reference rate for overnight unsecured transactions in the sterling market.
 - (iii) SARON (the acronym for *Swiss average rate overnight*) is an overnight interest rates average referencing the Swiss franc interbank repo market.

LIBOR/OIS basis swaps

- The *LIBOR / OIS spread*, defined as the difference between the 3 month LIBOR and 3 month OIS rates, is regarded an important indicator of stress in the capital markets.
- A wider spread is an indication of a decreased willingness to lend by major banks, while a tighter spread indicates easier availability of credit. The LIBOR / OIS spread is thus a barometer of market participants' view of the credit worthiness of other financial institutions and the general availability of funds for lending purposes.
- The LIBOR / OIS spread has been historically hovering around 10 basis points. However, at times of elevated credit stress, the basis between LIBOR and OIS can be quite volatile.
- In the midst of the financial crisis that started in 2007, the spread between LIBOR and OIS was wildly volatile and peeked at an all-time high of 364 basis points in October 2008, indicating a severe credit crunch. Since that time the spread has declined substantially, dropping below 100 basis points in January 2009 and returning to the usual 10-15 basis points by September 2009.
- During the euro crisis, the LIBOR / OIS spread widened again, reaching in December 2011 the levels of 40-60 basis points. It is currently (January 2017) around 35 bp.

LIBOR/OIS basis swaps

- Market participants can implement their views on the future LIBOR / OIS spread through the *LIBOR / OIS basis swap* market.
- A LIBOR / OIS basis swap is a floating for floating swap, in which one counterparty pays the current fixing of 3 month LIBOR, while the other counterparty pays the 3 month OIS rate plus a fixed spread (say, 20 basis points).
- Both legs accrue on the act/360 basis, and the interest payments are netted.
- Table 4 below contains a snapshot of the LIBOR / OIS basis market. Note that the term structure of the LIBOR / OIS basis is downward sloping, as is typically the case.

LIBOR/OIS basis swaps

Term	Spread (bp)
3M	45.88
6M	49.25
9M	51.13
1Y	52.50
18M	53.50
2Y	53.00
3Y	51.63
4Y	49.25
5Y	46.25
7Y	41.38
10Y	34.50
12Y	31.75
15Y	28.88
20Y	25.50
25Y	23.38
30Y	21.88

Figure: 4. Snapshot of the LIBOR / OIS basis swap market

SOFR

- Alternatives to LIBOR, other than the fed funds effective rate, have been proposed.
- Currently, the preferred rate is the *Secured Overnight Financing Rate* (SOFR), and it is expected that within the next few years it will replace LIBOR as the benchmark interest rate.
- SOFR is based on the volume weighted average of the Treasury repo rate, the rate on overnight loans collateralized by US Government Treasuries.
- SOFR fixings are published at approximately 8:00 a.m. EST each business day by the US Federal Reserve Bank of New York on its website

<https://apps.newyorkfed.org/markets/autorates/sofr>.

Fed Fund futures

- There is an active futures market operated by the Merc, similar to the Eurodollar futures market, where the underlying rate is the fed funds effective rate rather than LIBOR.
- There are 36 monthly futures contracts listed, three years out, and they cash settle at the end of the corresponding calendar month. Each contract assumes the notional principal of \$5,000,000.
- Because the daily fixings of the fed funds effective rate tend to be more volatile than those of LIBOR⁴, the settlement value of each contract is the monthly arithmetic average of the daily fixings (with the Friday fixings counting for the following weekend values), rather than the fixing of the rate on the settlement day.
- The first 12 of the the contracts are the most liquid, and Figure 5 below is a snapshot of the fed funds futures.

⁴

This has definitely not been the case recently, especially after the Fed pledged in August 2011 to keep rates low for two years and up until now continues to be "patient".

Fed Fund futures



Figure: 5. IBloomberg snapshot of the Fed Fund futures market

Multicurve paradigm

- We now turn to the problem of the valuation of non-contingent (but not necessarily known) future cash flows. The building blocks required are:
 - (i) *Discount factors*, which allow one to calculate present value of cash received in the future.
 - (ii) *Forward rates*, which allow one to make assumptions as to the future levels of interest rates.
- Until 2008, it was common practice to use LIBOR as both the discount rate, i.e. the interest rate used for calculating the discount factors, as well as the index rate, i.e. the rate used as the forward rate.
- Since then, in the wake of the financial crisis, the industry has been steadily moving away from this practice, and adopted the *multicurve* paradigm to swap valuation.
- Since OIS is a better indicator of the costs of funding, it is used for discounting, while LIBOR is the index rate. It remains to be seen whether the fed funds effective rate will retain this role in the USD market.

Zero coupon bonds

- A *zero coupon bond* (or *discount bond*) is a cash instrument which pays a predefined principal amount, say \$1, at a specified future date.
- More precisely, a zero coupon bond is characterized by two dates, the settlement date S which marks the start of the accrual period, and the maturity date $T > S$ on which the payment is made.
- Its value at settlement is thus the present value (abbreviated PV) of \$1 guaranteed to be paid at time T .
- In practice we are interested in the value $P(t, S, T)$ of the forward zero coupon bond for any *valuation date* $t \leq S$. It is thus the time t value of zero coupon bond (whose face value is \$1) which settles on the date S years from now and matures in T years.
- The forward zero coupon bond $P(t, S, T)$ is also called the (forward) *discount factor*.

Zero coupon bonds

- We note the following two important facts about zero coupon bonds. For all valuation dates t :
 - The value of a dollar in the future is less than its value now, i.e.

$$P(t, S, T) < 1.$$

In other words, we assume a world in which one collects (rather than pay) interest on a deposit.

- As the maturity of the contract increases, its value decreases,

$$\frac{\partial P(t, S, T)}{\partial T} < 0.$$

- Throughout this course we will be assuming that the zero coupon bond prices satisfy these properties.

Zero coupon bonds

- It is worth noting, however, that in distressed market conditions, these properties are known to have been violated.
- For example:
 - (i) During the month of August of 2011, the 1 month and 3 month US Treasury bills traded above par.
 - (ii) The European Central Bank and Swiss National Bank have set the targets of some of their rates negative.
 - (iii) Currently, German Bunds with maturities out to 10Y trade with negative yields. The same is true for the Japanese and some other European government debt markets.
- The economic meaning of negative rates is unclear:
 - (i) President Donald Trump: "I want to know who are the people that buy. Okay? Who are the people that buy and they invest in Germany and end up getting, you know, less money at the period of time - so I have to find these people."
 - (ii) Jamie Dimon, CEO of JPMorgan Chase: "Do you know anybody who has actually bought a negative interest rate bond? The buyers are central banks and insurance companies or index funds or passive funds. I would never buy a negative interest rate bond, unless I was forced. In history when you see something like that, it doesn't necessarily end well."

Zero coupon bonds

- There is a useful no arbitrage relationship involving $P(t, S, T)$.
- Consider a *forward contract* on a zero coupon bond: at some future time $S < T$, we deliver to the counterparty \$1 of a zero coupon bond of final maturity T . What is the fair price of this transaction at time t ?
- We calculate it using the following argument which provides a risk-free replication of the forward trade in terms of spot trades.
 1. At time t we buy \$1 of a zero coupon bond of maturity T today for the price of $P(t, t, T)$.
 2. We finance this purchase by short selling a zero coupon bond of maturity S and notional $P(t, t, T) / P(t, t, S)$ for overall zero initial cost.
 3. In order to make the trade self-financing, we need to charge this amount at delivery. Thus, we have the relation:

$$P(t, S, T) = \frac{P(t, t, T)}{P(t, t, S)} . \quad (1)$$

Zero coupon bonds

- Throughout this course we adopt the following convention. If the valuation date is today, $t = 0$, then we denote the price of the zero coupon bond by $P_0(S, T)$, i.e.

$$P_0(S, T) \equiv P(0, S, T). \quad (2)$$

- In particular, today's value of the discount factor for time T is denoted by $P_0(0, T)$.
- We will be making repeat use of (1) throughout these lectures. In particular, with $t = 0$,

$$P_0(S, T) = \frac{P_0(0, T)}{P_0(0, S)}. \quad (3)$$

Forward rates

- Discount factors can be expressed in terms of interest rates. A convenient (albeit purely theoretical) concept is that of the continuously compounded *instantaneous forward rate* $f(t, s)$.
- For all practical purposes, we can think about $f(t, s)$ as the forward overnight OIS rate. As discussed earlier in this lecture, in the USD market, this is the fed funds effective rate.
- In terms of $f(t, s)$,

$$P(t, S, T) = \exp \left(- \int_S^T f(t, s) ds \right). \quad (4)$$

- This equation is merely the definition of $f(t, s)$, and expresses the discount factor as the result of continuous discounting of the value of a dollar between the value and maturity dates. Consistently with our convention, we shall use the notation:

$$f_0(s) \equiv f(0, s). \quad (5)$$

- Consequently,

$$P_0(S, T) = \exp \left(- \int_S^T f_0(s) ds \right). \quad (6)$$

Forward rates

- Conversely, the instantaneous forward rate can be computed from the discount factor:

$$\begin{aligned} f(t, s) &= -\frac{1}{P(t, S, T)} \left. \frac{\partial P(t, S, T)}{\partial T} \right|_{T=s} \\ &= -\left. \frac{\partial}{\partial T} \log P(t, S, T) \right|_{T=s}. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

- In particular,

$$\begin{aligned} f_0(s) &= -\frac{1}{P_0(S, T)} \left. \frac{\partial P_0(S, T)}{\partial T} \right|_{T=s} \\ &= -\left. \frac{\partial}{\partial T} \log P_0(S, T) \right|_{T=s}. \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

Forward rates

- The OIS forward rate $F(t, S, T)$ for start S and maturity T , as observed at time t , is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} F(t, S, T) &= \frac{1}{\delta} \left(\frac{1}{P(t, S, T)} - 1 \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\delta} \left(\exp \int_S^T f(t, s) ds - 1 \right), \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

where δ denotes the day count factor for the period $[S, T]$.

- The discount factor $P(t, S, T)$ can be expressed in terms of $F(t, S, T)$ by means of the formula:

$$P(t, S, T) = \frac{1}{1 + \delta F(t, S, T)}.$$

Forward rates

- It is convenient to represent the LIBOR forward rate $L(t, S, T)$ for start S and maturity T , as observed at time t , in terms of the instantaneous forward rate $I(t, s)$ by means of a similar relation:

$$L(t, S, T) = \frac{1}{\delta} \left(\exp \int_S^T I(t, s) ds - 1 \right). \quad (10)$$

- We emphasize that the instantaneous rate $I(t, s)$ is specific to the tenor $T - S$ of LIBOR, as different LIBOR tenors trade at a basis to each other.
- The rate $I(t, s)$ is not used for discounting future cash flows; it merely serves as an index rate on a class of fixed income instruments. The LIBOR / OIS spread $B(t, S, T)$ is given by

$$B(t, S, T) = L(t, S, T) - F(t, S, T). \quad (11)$$

Valuation of swaps

- We consider a swap which settles at $T_0 \geq 0$ and matures at T . If T_0 is the spot date, the swap is referred to as a spot starting swap, otherwise it is called a forward starting swap.
- For simplicity, we assume in the calculations below that the notional is \$1.
- Let $T_1^c < \dots < T_{n_c}^c = T$ denote the coupon dates of the swap, and let $0 \leq t \leq T_0$ denote the valuation date.
- The PV of the interest payments on the fixed leg of a swap is calculated by adding up the PVs of all future cash flows:

$$P_0^{\text{fix}}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{n_c} \alpha_j CP_0(t, T_j^c), \quad (12)$$

where C is the coupon rate, $P_0(t, T_j^c)$ are the discount factors to the valuation date, and α_j are the day count fractions on the fixed leg.

Valuation of swaps

- For example, on a standard USD swap paying semi-annual coupon, the α 's correspond to the modified following 30/360 business day convention.
- It is useful to write this formula as

$$P_0^{\text{fix}}(t) = CA_0(t). \quad (13)$$

- The expression

$$A_0(t) = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n_c} \alpha_j P_0(t, T_j^c), \quad (14)$$

is called the *annuity function* (sometimes also called *level function* or *DVO1*) of the swap.

Valuation of swaps

- Likewise, let $T_1^f < \dots < T_{n_f}^f = T$ denote the LIBOR payment dates of the swap. The valuation formula for the swap's floating leg reads then:

$$P_0^{\text{float}}(t) = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n_f} \delta_j L_j P_0(t, T_j^f). \quad (15)$$

- Here

$$L_j = L_0(T_{j-1}^f, T_j^f) \quad (16)$$

is the LIBOR forward rate for settlement at T_{j-1}^f , $P_0(t, T_j^f)$ is the discount factor, and δ_j is the day count fraction applying to the floating leg.

- In the USD, the payments are quarterly, and the δ 's correspond to the modified following act/360 business day convention.

Valuation of swaps

- The PV of a swap is the difference between the PVs of the fixed and floating legs (in this order!):

$$P_0(t) = P_0^{\text{fix}}(t) - P_0^{\text{float}}(t).$$

- A break-even (or mid-market) swap has zero PV:

$$P_0^{\text{fix}}(t) = P_0^{\text{float}}(t).$$

- That uniquely determines the coupon on a mid-market swap:

$$S_0(T_0, T) = \frac{P_0^{\text{float}}(t)}{A_0(t)}, \quad (17)$$

called the *break-even swap rate*.

Valuation of swaps

- Note that the value of the swap rate is independent of the valuation date (even though the PV's of the individual legs of the swap are clearly not).
- Indeed, according to (3), the numerator and the denominator in the above expression both contain the factor $P_0(t, T_0)$, and one can always choose to discount to the settlement date.

Valuation of LIBOR / OIS basis swaps

- Consider a spot or forward starting LIBOR / OIS basis swap of maturity T (say, 10 years), with payment dates on $T_1, \dots, T_n = T$.
- The PV of the LIBOR leg is

$$P_0^{\text{LIBOR}}(t) = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n} \delta_j L_j P_0(t, T_j), \quad (18)$$

while the PV of the OIS leg is

$$P_0^{\text{OIS}}(t) = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n} \delta_j (F_j + B) P_0(t, T_j), \quad (19)$$

where B denotes the fixed basis spread for the maturity T .

- The break-even basis spread is thus given by

$$B_0(T_0, T) = \frac{\sum_j \delta_j (L_j - F_j) P_0(t, T_j)}{\sum_j \delta_j P_0(t, T_j)}. \quad (20)$$

Curve stripping

- So far we have been assuming that the discount factors $P_0(S, T)$ and the LIBOR forward rates $L_0(S, T)$ are known for all $S < T$.
- In practice, interest rate markets are not liquid enough to quote the levels for all these quantities at all times.
- Instead, a relatively small number of liquid benchmark instruments are traded (or, at least, quoted) sufficiently frequently and in sufficient volume in order to form a basis for meaningful inference.
- The curve construction should be based on the prices of such liquidly traded benchmark securities. As this set of securities is incomplete, we need a robust and efficient method involving interpolation and, if necessary, extrapolation.
- It is now our goal to describe an interpolation technique that allows one to calculate the discount factors and LIBOR forward rates from the available market information.

Curve stripping

- The process of curve construction out of liquid market inputs is often referred to as *curve stripping*.
- In reality, we will be simultaneously stripping two interest rate curves: the OIS curve and the LIBOR curve.
- The result can be presented in various forms:
 - (i) As a function $S \rightarrow L_0(S, T)$ with fixed tenor $T - S$ (say, $T - S = 3$ months). The graph of this function is called the LIBOR *forward curve*.
 - (ii) As a function $T \rightarrow P_0(0, T)$. This is called the *discount curve* (or *zero coupon curve*).
 - (iii) As a collection of spot starting swap rates for all tenors. This is called the *par swap curve*.
- Benchmark instruments may include deposit rates, Eurodollar futures, a number of liquid swaps, and a number of liquid LIBOR / OIS basis swaps.

Curve stripping

- For example, one could use the following set of instruments:
 - (i) Fed funds effective rate, LIBOR fixing.
 - (ii) The first 8 quarterly Eurodollar contracts.
 - (iii) Spot starting swaps with maturities 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 12, 15, 20, 25, and 30 years.
 - (iv) Spot starting LIBOR / OIS basis swaps with maturities, 2, 6, 9, 12, and 18 months, and 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 12, 15, 20, 25, and 30 years.
- If more granularity in the short end is desired, one could include some spot starting OIS swaps.
- It is, however, not appropriate to include rates such as 1 week or 1 month LIBOR because of the bases to 3 month LIBOR present in these rates.
- Various approaches to curve stripping have been developed, and we refer the interested reader to the literature. An excellent survey of these techniques is presented in [2].
- Traditionally, these methodologies assume the single curve paradigm, but without much effort they can be extended to the multicurve setup.

Splines and B-splines

- The approach to curve stripping that we take in this course is based on interpolation by means of *regularized B-splines*.
- We collect here a number of basic facts about B-splines. For a complete presentation, we refer to [1].
- A spline of degree d is a function $f(t)$ on \mathbb{R} such that:
 - (i) $f(t)$ is piecewise polynomial of degree d . That means that one can partition the real line into non-overlapping intervals such that, on each of these intervals, $f(t)$ is given by a polynomial of degree d .
 - (ii) $f(t)$ has everywhere $d - 1$ continuous derivatives. That means that the constituent polynomials are glued together in a maximally smooth way, i.e. so that their derivatives to order $d - 1$ match at the ends of partitioning intervals.
- Splines of low degree provide a convenient and robust framework for data interpolation. The choice $d = 3$ (in which case they are called *cubic splines*) is particularly important, as it provides a good compromise between flexibility and computational efficiency.

Splines and B-splines

- A particular type of splines are B-splines. A B-spline of degree $d \geq 0$ is a function $f(t)$ of the form

$$f(t) = \sum_{-\infty < k < \infty} f_k B_k^{(d)}(t), \quad (21)$$

where the *basis functions* $B_k^{(d)}(t)$, $k = \dots, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots$, is a family of degree d splines defined as follows.

- We choose a sequence of *knot points*:

$$\dots < t_{-1} < t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_k < \dots, \quad (22)$$

and set

$$B_k^{(0)}(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } t_k \leq t < t_{k+1}. \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (23)$$

Splines and B-splines

- In other words, the degree 0 basis functions are simply indicator functions of the intervals between the knot points. We then define recursively:

$$B_k^{(d)}(t) = \frac{t - t_k}{t_{k+d} - t_k} B_k^{(d-1)}(t) + \frac{t_{k+d+1} - t}{t_{k+d+1} - t_{k+1}} B_{k+1}^{(d-1)}(t). \quad (24)$$

- It is easy to see that a basis function $B_k^{(1)}(t)$ is tent shaped over the interval $[t_k, t_{k+2}]$, $B_k^{(2)}(t)$ is bell shaped over the interval $[t_k, t_{k+3}]$, etc. Clearly, each $B_k^{(d)}(t)$ is a spline of degree d .

Splines and B-splines

- Here are the key properties of the basis functions:

(i) they are non-negative,

$$B_k^{(d)}(t) \geq 0, \quad (25)$$

(ii) they are compactly supported,

$$B_k^{(d)}(t) = 0, \quad (26)$$

if t lies outside of the interval $[t_k, t_{k+d+1}]$,

(iii) and they add up to 1,

$$\sum_{-\infty < k < \infty} B_k^{(d)}(t) = 1. \quad (27)$$

- One summarizes these three properties by saying that the family of basis functions $\{B_k^{(d)}(t)\}$ forms a *partition of unity*.

Splines and B-splines

- Remarkably and conveniently, differentiating and integrating of the basis functions can be carried out in a recursive way as well.
- For the derivative we have the following recursion:

$$\frac{d}{dt} B_k^{(d)}(t) = \frac{d}{t_{k+d} - t_k} B_k^{(d-1)}(t) - \frac{d}{t_{k+d+1} - t_{k+1}} B_{k+1}^{(d-1)}(t). \quad (28)$$

- The integral from $-\infty$ to t can be expressed in terms of a sum as follows:

$$\int_{-\infty}^t B_k^{(d)}(\tau) d\tau = \sum_{i=k}^{\infty} \frac{t_{k+d+1} - t_k}{d+1} B_i^{(d+1)}(t). \quad (29)$$

Despite its appearance, for each given t , this sum involves finitely many terms only.

- Namely, assume that n is the largest integer such that $t_n \leq t$. Then, the sum extends over those i for which $k \leq i \leq n + d + 1$. We require at least $d + 2$ knot points greater than or equal to t .

Splines and B-splines

- A consequence of the last equality is

$$\int_a^b B_k^{(d)}(\tau) d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^b B_k^{(d)}(\tau) d\tau - \int_{-\infty}^a B_k^{(d)}(\tau) d\tau. \quad (30)$$

- Owing to these recursive properties, B-splines can be easily and robustly implemented in computer code.

Splines and B-splines

- The final bit on cubic B-splines is the issue of calculating an integral of the form

$$\int_a^b B_k''(t) B_l''(t) dt. \quad (31)$$

- Let us assume that there are m knot points w_1, \dots, w_m (i.e. $w_j = t_{j+r}$, $j = 1, \dots, m$, for some r) between a and b , and let us denote $w_0 = a$ and $w_{m+1} = b$.
- Integrating by parts and noting that the third derivative of the basis function $B_l(t)$ is piecewise constant (because $B_l(t)$ is piecewise cubic) yields the explicit formula

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b B_k''(t) B_l''(t) dt &= B_k'(b) B_l''(b) - B_k'(a) B_l''(a) \\ &\quad - \sum_{j=1}^{m+1} B_l'''(w_{j-1}) (B_k(w_j) - B_k(w_{j-1})). \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

This formula is easy to implement in computer code.

Curve construction by B-splines fitting

- Our objective is to construct the instantaneous OIS forward rate $f_0(t)$, and the instantaneous 3 month LIBOR forward rate $l_0(t)$.
- The “instantaneous 3 month LIBOR forward rate” sounds a bit like an oxymoron, but we want to draw a clear distinction between the actual short term (overnight) LIBOR rate and the frictious de-compounded 3 month LIBOR rate $l_0(t)$, as they carry different credits, and cannot be identified with each other.
- We represent each of these rates as a cubic B-spline, as explained above. We assume that the curve starts at $T_0 = 0$ and ends at T_{\max} (say, 30 years), and choose K knot points t_{-3}, \dots, t_{N+4} , with

$$t_{-3} < \dots < t_0 = 0 < t_1 < \dots < t_{N-1} < T_{\max} < t_N < \dots < t_{N+4}.$$

- We let $B_k(t) \equiv B_k^{(3)}(t)$, $k = -3, -2, \dots$, be the k -th basis function corresponding to these knot points.
- The nodes to the left and right of the time interval $[0, T_{\max}]$ are auxiliary nodes required to ensure that the partition of unity property (27) of the basis functions holds inside that interval.

Curve construction by B-splines fitting

- We represent $f_0(t)$ and $l_0(t)$, for $t \in [0, T_{\max}]$, as linear combinations of the basis functions:

$$f_0(t) = \sum_{k=-3}^N f_k B_k(t), \quad (33)$$

and

$$l_0(t) = \sum_{k=-3}^N l_k B_k(t), \quad (34)$$

respectively.

Curve construction by B-splines fitting

- It would be somewhat pedantic, but not impossible, to assume that the basis functions corresponding to the two forward rates are based on different sets of knot points.
- In practice, it turns out that choosing the same knot points for both curves is a good idea.
- Note that, in this representation, the discount factors $P_0(S, T)$, $0 \leq t \leq T \leq T_{\max}$, are simple functions of the f_k 's:

$$P_0(S, T) = \exp \left(- \sum_{k=-3}^N \gamma_k(S, T) f_k \right), \quad (35)$$

where the coefficients

$$\gamma_k(S, T) = \int_S^T B_k(s) ds \quad (36)$$

can be easily computed using formula (30).

Curve construction by B-splines fitting

- For computational efficiency, we should use the fact that $B_k(t)$ is supported in the interval $[t_k, t_{k+4}]$, and thus the integral in (36) actually runs from $\max(S, t_k)$ to $\min(T, t_{k+4})$.
- Likewise, from (10) we infer that the LIBOR forward rates are simple and explicit functions of the l_k 's, namely

$$L_0(S, T) = \frac{1}{\delta} \left(\exp \left(\sum_{k=-3}^N \gamma_k(S, T) l_k \right) - 1 \right). \quad (37)$$

Curve construction by B-splines fitting

- Given (35) and (37), and using formulas (9), (11), and (17), we can express all LIBOR / OIS basis spreads and all swap rates in terms of the f_k 's and I_k 's.
- Our goal is to choose the coefficients f_k and I_k in (33) and (34) consistently with the market data. This will be achieved by minimizing a suitable objective function.
- Suppose now that we are given a number of benchmark rates R_j , $j = 1, \dots, m$, such as those discussed above: fed funds effective rate, LIBOR, Eurodollar implied LIBOR forward rates, swap rates, and LIBOR / OIS bases, etc.
- Let \bar{R}_j denote the current market value of these rates, and consider the following objective function:

$$Q(f, I) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^m (R_j - \bar{R}_j)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \int_{T_0}^{T_{\max}} (f''(t)^2 + I''(t)^2) dt, \quad (38)$$

where $f = (f_{-3}, \dots, f_N)$, $I = (I_{-3}, \dots, I_N)$, and λ is a non-negative constant.

Curve construction by B-splines fitting

- The second term on the right hand side of (38) is the *Tikhonov regularization* term and it plays an important role.
- Its purpose is to penalize the “wiggliness” of $f(t)$ and $I(t)$ resulting from the tendency of splines to overfit the data, at the expense of the accuracy of the fit to the benchmark data.
- The impact of Tikhonov’s regularization is determined by the magnitude of λ : larger values of the coefficient λ imply smoother instantaneous rates and worse fit to the benchmark data.
- One may choose to refine the Tikhonov regularizer by replacing it with

$$\int_{T_0}^{T_{max}} \lambda(t) (f''(t)^2 + I''(t)^2) dt,$$

where $\lambda(t)$ is a non-negative (usually, piecewise constant) function. It is a good idea to choose $\lambda(t)$ smaller in the short end and larger in the back end of the curve.

Curve construction by B-splines fitting

- The minimum of (38) can be found by means of standard Newton-type optimization algorithms such as the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm.
- The Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm applies to an objective function which can be written as a sum of squares of “residuals”.
- This algorithm requires explicit formulas for the partial derivatives of the residuals with respect to the parameters of the problem. In our case, these derivatives can be readily computed.
- Alternatively, the BFGS method can be used.

Curve construction by B-splines fitting

- Figure 6 contains the plot of the instantaneous 3 month LIBOR forward curve based on the market snapshot taken on December 13, 2011. We used weekly time increments in order to detail the shape of the short end of the curve.

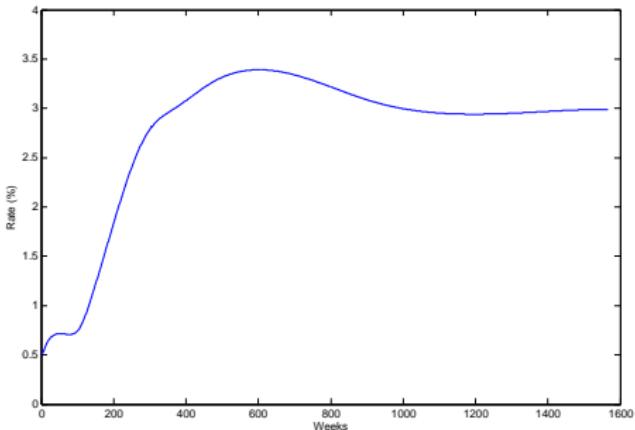


Figure: 6. Instantaneous 3M LIBOR forward curve

Curve construction by B-splines fitting

- Figure 7 presents the plot, based on the same market snapshot, of the spread between the instantaneous 3 month LIBOR forward curve and the instantaneous OIS curve. Note the downward sloping shape of the spread curve.

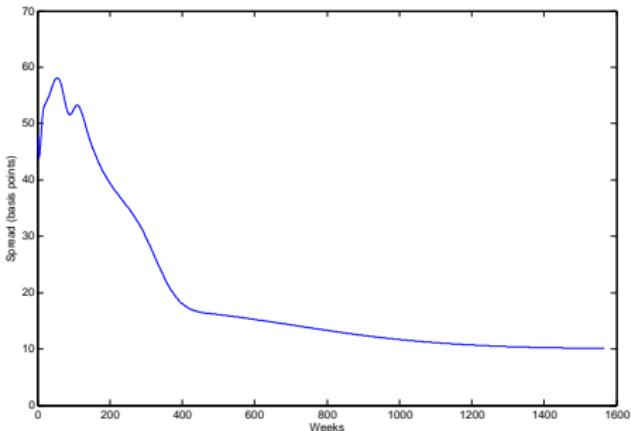


Figure: 7. LIBOR / OIS spread curve

Curve construction by B-splines fitting

- The same forward curve building methodology can be applied to other rates such as the 1 month or 6 month LIBOR curves.
- For example, having constructed the OIS and 3 month LIBOR curves, one can build the 1 month LIBOR curve.
- To this end, we invoke the 3M LIBOR / 1M LIBOR basis swap market⁵, and calibrate the instantaneous forward rate corresponding to 1 month LIBOR.

⁵

The existence of the 3M LIBOR / 1M LIBOR (positive) basis is explained by the banks' preference to lend for 1 month rather than 3 months; thus the compounded 1 month rate is lower than the 3 month rate.

References

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