Fixed Income Analysis

Risk-Neutral Pricing and Binomial Models

Multi-Period Models and the Backward Equation Introduction to Calibration of Binomial Models

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Summary from last week

- We price fixed-income derivatives by constructing a replicating portfolio, typically from bonds with different maturities.
- \bullet The replicating portfolio has the same payoff as the derivative security in all states in the future.
- The arbitrage-free price of the derivative equals the price of the replicating portfolio.
- If a security can be priced by arbitrage, there exists a risk-neutral distribution, such that the price of the security equals the expected, discounted payoff (under the Q -distribution).
- \bullet That is, we can "pretend" that investors are risk-neutral \multimap once the up-down probabilities are modified.
- A more general version of this result is known as the **Equivalent** Martingale Theory, formulated by Harrison and Kreps (1979).
- The two-date examples are sufficient to explain all aspects of the theory (and intuition) of risk-neutral valuation.
- In practice, multi-period models are needed
	- $-$ Some derivative securities make payments at more than one day, e.g., interest-rate caps. All distinct payment dates should be represented in the binomial model (tree).
	- $-$ The real world does not exactly evolve according to a simple binomial model. Instead, the binomial model is an approximation, usually to a continuous distribution such as the normal distribution.
	- $-$ Reducing the step size (and thereby increasing the number of periods) results in a better approximation, see Figures $7.1{-}7.4$ in Tuckman (1995).
- To keep the computational work manageable, we must use a recombining tree (lattice), that is an `up-down' move takes us to the same node as a 'down-up' move.

\mathcal{M} . The period binomial models \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{M} are period binomial models \mathcal{M}

- To account for the nodes in ^a lattice, we use the following notation (n, s) , where $n = 0, 1, \ldots, N$ is the date, and $s = 0, \ldots, n$ denotes the state, numbered from below.
- \bullet Four-period example \leftarrow short-rate tree: T (U,U) \setminus $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$ $\binom{10}{2}$ $T(1; 0) \times$ $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$ $\binom{1}{2}$ $T(1, 1) \setminus$ $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$ $\binom{1}{2}$ $T(Z, U) \setminus$ $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$ @ @ $T(Z, 1)$ \mathcal{L} , where \mathcal{L} $\binom{2}{n}$ $T(Z, Z) \setminus$ $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$ $\left(\begin{array}{cc} 2 & 0 \end{array}\right)$ T (3, U) \searrow $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$ where the contract of the cont \sum_{m} $\left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$ T (5, 1) \setminus $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$ $\left(\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \end{array}\right)$ T (3, 2) \setminus $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$ $\left\langle r(4,2)\right\rangle$ T (3, 3) \setminus $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{2}$ where the contract of the cont \sim \sim \sim \sim \sim @ r(4; 0) $\mathbf{1}$ and \sim 4) \sim 300 \sim 400 \sim 4 ration is a set of the set of the
- Constructing the tree $-$ such that the prices of all N zeros are matched exactly $-$ is an exercise known as calibration.
- Assume we have ^a binomial tree with risk-neutral probabilities.
- Define the following notation:
	- (n, s) indicates that we are at time n, in state s.
	- $r(n, s)$ is the short rate at time n in state s.
	- $p(n, s)$ is the discount factor for one period (in the tree).

If $r(n, s)$ is quoted as the short rate for m periods with simple interest, we have $p(n, s) = 1/\{1 + r(n, s)/m\}$. In chapters 5-7, $m = 2$.

- $(\theta(n, s))$ is the risk-neutral probability of an up-move, that is to state $s+1$ at time $n + 1$, from the current state s at time n.
- $D(n, s)$ is the payment in state s at time n. If the payment is made in the next period, it must be discounted using $p(n, s)$.
- $V(n, s)$ The value (price) of the security in state s at time n.
- The basic idea of the backward equation is calculating $V(0,0)$ the price of the security today.

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- Suppose that the tree covers N dates, that is $n = 0, 1, \ldots, N$.
- At the final maturity $n = N$, the value of the claim is $D(N, s)$ if we are in state s, where s 2 for state s, where $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{A}}$
- If we are in state s at time $N-1$, we can only move to states s (down) and $s + 1$ (up). Therefore, the (present) value of the payments received in the next period is

$$
p(N-1,s)\left[\theta(N-1,s)D(N,s+1)+(1-\theta(N-1,s))D(N,s)\right]
$$

 \bullet If we add the additional payments received in state s , we obtain the total value of the security in (1) $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$

$$
V(N-1,s) = D(N-1,s) + p(N-1,s) \times
$$

\n[θ (N-1,s) V (N,s+1) + (1 - θ (N-1,s)) V (N,s)] (1)
\nsince V (N,s) = D(N,s).

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- Equation (1) is an example of the backward equation.
- In general, for any (n, s) , the no-arbitrage condition implies that

$$
V(n,s) = D(n,s) + p(n,s) \times
$$

$$
[\theta(n,s)V(n+1,s+1) + (1 - \theta(n,s))V(n+1,s)]
$$
 (2)

- \bullet The first step in pricing a fixed-income derivative is specifying the payments in all possible states, that is $D(n,s)$ for all (n,s) .
- Many fixed-income securities (derivatives) only make payments at maturity (expiration). This means that $D(n, s) = 0$ for $n < N$. Examples: European bond options and zero-coupon bonds.
- Second, the backward equation is used recursively. We start from the last date $n = N$ and work backwards using equation (2) until we get to $V(0,0)$.

Numerical example { ¹

• The examples in chapter 7 use the following tree (below, the short rate is for one period):

- Note that there is an error in chapter 7 of Tuckman (1995).
- \bullet The first up probability (0.661) was calculated last week, and the second calculation (0.953) will be explained later.
- The first example is a 1.5Y zero-coupon bonds, where $D(3, s) =$ 1000 for all ^s 2 f0; 1; 2; 3g, and D(n; s) ⁼ ⁰ for ⁿ < 3.
- Price tree for the zero:

- Sample calculations:
	- $-(2,1)$ 978.9525 = 1000.0/1.0215
	- $-$ (1,0) 959.8469 $=$ (0.953 \times 978.9525 $+$ 0.047 \times 980.8730)/1.02
	- $-$ (0,0) 937.7641 $=$ (0.661 \times 954.7405 $+$ 0.339 \times 959.8469)/1.01995

Numerical example { ³

- The second example is ^a security with the following payments at date 2: $D(2,0) = -10$, $D(2,1) = 100$ and $D(2,2) = 500$.
- There are no payments at time 1 or 0, so $D(n, s) = 0$ for $n < 2$.
- Price tree for the security:

- Calculations in the tree:
	- $-$ (1,0) 92.9115 $=$ (0.9525 \times 100.00 $-$ 0.0475 \times 10.00)/1.02
	- $-$ (1,1) 470.3970 = (0.9525 \times 500.00 + 0.0475 \times 100.00)7 1.0225
	- $-$ (0,0) 335.6695 $=$ (0.661 \times 470.3970 $+$ 0.339 \times 92.9115)/1.01995
- Typical situation: we want to price fixed-income derivatives relative to the current yield curve.
- \bullet That is, the zero-coupon bond prices are taken as given \rightarrow therefore the binomial tree should price the zeros correctly.
- Adjusting the tree such that the current (initial) yield curve is matched exactly is known as calibration.
- Calibration means determining the short rate at the nodes of the tree, $r(n, s)$, and the risk-neutral probabilities, $\theta(n, s)$.
- Data input: if the time step is 3 months, we need zeros in maturity intervals of 3 months up to the final horizon, and so on.
- In practice, a certain amount of interpolation between missing maturities is needed.

Introduction to calibration -2 Introduction t . The calibration \mathcal{L} is the calibration \mathcal{L}

- In the simplest case, we have one degree of freedom per time period, namely the zero price for that maturity.
- There are two possibilities:
	- 1. At time n, we fix $\theta(n, s) = 0.5$, and adjust the short rate $r(n, s)$ in the $n+1$ nodes. Note that the $n + 1$ values of $r(n, s)$ are not uniquely determined since there is only one degree of freedom.
	- 2. Specify $r(n, s)$ freely, and adjust the risk-neutral probabilities $\theta(n, s)$. Since there is only one degree of freedom, we need to assume (for example) that $\theta(n, s)$ is the same for all s,
- \bullet The second method is used in chapters 5-7, and we focus on this method today $-$ because it is simpler (at first).
- However, it is widely recognized that fixing $\theta(n, s) = 0.5$ and adjusting $r(n, s)$ is **preferable** — due to faster convergence.
- How is the risk-neutral (up) probability for $n = 1$, $\theta(1, s) = 0.9525$ calculated in the earlier example?
- The node values $r(n, s)$ are specified more or less arbitrarily, and we calculated $\theta(0,0) = 0.661$ last week.
- Tree with unknown $q = \theta(1, s)$

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- Price tree for the 1.5 Y zero, with a yield of 4.33% 937.7041 \setminus $\sqrt{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ \frac \mathcal{L} and the contract of \mathcal{L} $P_{1.5}(1,1) \setminus$ \mathcal{L} and the contract of \mathcal{L} $\big\rangle$ 978.9525 $\big\langle$ $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{2}$ 910.0999 $\sqrt{ }$ $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{2}$ \rightarrow 1000.00 \rightarrow 1000.00 \rightarrow 1000.00
	- \searrow $P_{1.5}(1,0)$ $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}$ @ $90.0130 \times$ $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{2}$ @ 1000.00 $\big\rangle$ 1000.00
- We know that

 $P_{1.5}(1,0) = \{q 978.9525 + (1-q) 980.8730\} / 1.02$ $P_{1.5}(1,1) = \{q 976.0859 + (1-q) 978.9525\} / 1.0225$ • Moreover we have

$$
937.7641 = \frac{1}{1.01995} \{ 0.661 P_{1.5}(1,1) + 0.339 P_{1.5}(1,0) \} \tag{3}
$$

- If we substitute the expressions for $P_{1.5}(1,i)$, $i = 1, 2$, into (3), we get one equation in one unknown, q .
- The solution for q is

 $q = \frac{0.601p(1,1) [11.5(2,2) - 11.5(2,1)] + 0.339p(1,0) [11.5(2,1) - 11.5(2,0)]}{0.001p(1,0) [11.5(2,1) - 11.5(2,0)]}$ 937.764 1×1.01 995 $\{0.661p(1,1)P_{1.5}(2,1)+$ $0.339p(1,0)P_{1.5}(2,0)\}$

- Note that $P_{1.5}(2,0) = 980.8730$, $p(1,0) = 1/1.02$, and so forth.
- The solution is $q = 0.9525$ there is an error in the book.

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