

Optimal prepayment rule for mortgage-backed securities

Giulia De Rossi
Tiziano Vargiolu
University of Padova
I-35131 Padova, Italy
vargiolu@math.unipd.it

Evry, June 25 - 27

- ▶ Preliminaries on mortgages and implied options.

- ▶ Preliminaries on mortgages and implied options.
- ▶ MBS and their exposures w.r.to mortgage options.

- ▶ Preliminaries on mortgages and implied options.
- ▶ MBS and their exposures w.r.to mortgage options.
- ▶ Optimal versus non-optimal exercise.

- ▶ Preliminaries on mortgages and implied options.
- ▶ MBS and their exposures w.r.to mortgage options.
- ▶ Optimal versus non-optimal exercise.
- ▶ The importance of assessing the optimal exercise time.

- ▶ Preliminaries on mortgages and implied options.
- ▶ MBS and their exposures w.r.to mortgage options.
- ▶ Optimal versus non-optimal exercise.
- ▶ The importance of assessing the optimal exercise time.
- ▶ Numerical results.

Single mortgage

Concentrate on fixed rate, fixed termination date mortgages on an underlying good (ex. a house).

Single mortgage

Concentrate on fixed rate, fixed termination date mortgages on an underlying good (ex. a house).

Assume that one (the "borrower") borrows at time 0 from a "lender" (usually a bank) a capital P at the nominal instantaneous rate $\rho > 0$, and pays it back with a continuous intensity A in the time window $[0, T]$. Then

$$P = \int_0^T e^{-\rho t} A dt = A \frac{1 - e^{-\rho T}}{\rho}$$

Single mortgage

Concentrate on fixed rate, fixed termination date mortgages on an underlying good (ex. a house).

Assume that one (the "borrower") borrows at time 0 from a "lender" (usually a bank) a capital P at the nominal instantaneous rate $\rho > 0$, and pays it back with a continuous intensity A in the time window $[0, T]$. Then

$$P = \int_0^T e^{-\rho t} A dt = A \frac{1 - e^{-\rho T}}{\rho}$$

In discrete time, instead, the borrower repays the capital with N equal rates A_N at dates kT/N , $k = 1, \dots, N$ at the nominal rate ρ_N prevailing for each small period $[kT/N, (k+1)T/N]$: then

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{A_N}{(1 + \rho_N)^i} = \frac{A_N}{\rho_N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(1 + \rho_N)^N} \right).$$

Prepayment option

In many cases, the borrower has the option to prepay the residual debt of a mortgage at a date $t < T$.

Prepayment option

In many cases, the borrower has the option to prepay the residual debt of a mortgage at a date $t < T$.

Usual convention: the residual debt is given by the remaining rates discounted by the **nominal** (not market) rate.

Prepayment option

In many cases, the borrower has the option to prepay the residual debt of a mortgage at a date $t < T$.

Usual convention: the residual debt is given by the remaining rates discounted by the **nominal** (not market) rate.

If the rates are paid in continuous time, then the residual debt at time t is

$$F_t := \int_t^T e^{-\rho(u-t)} A \, du = A \frac{1 - e^{-\rho(T-t)}}{\rho} \quad (1)$$

Prepayment option

In many cases, the borrower has the option to prepay the residual debt of a mortgage at a date $t < T$.

Usual convention: the residual debt is given by the remaining rates discounted by the **nominal** (not market) rate.

If the rates are paid in continuous time, then the residual debt at time t is

$$F_t := \int_t^T e^{-\rho(u-t)} A \, du = A \frac{1 - e^{-\rho(T-t)}}{\rho} \quad (1)$$

while if the rates are paid in discrete time at time nT/N with $n < N$, then

$$F_n := \sum_{i=n+1}^N \frac{A_N}{(1 + \rho_N)^{i-n}} = \frac{A_N}{\rho_N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(1 + \rho_N)^{N-n}} \right).$$

Prepayment option

In many cases, the borrower has the option to prepay the residual debt of a mortgage at a date $t < T$.

Usual convention: the residual debt is given by the remaining rates discounted by the **nominal** (not market) rate.

If the rates are paid in continuous time, then the residual debt at time t is

$$F_t := \int_t^T e^{-\rho(u-t)} A \, du = A \frac{1 - e^{-\rho(T-t)}}{\rho} \quad (1)$$

while if the rates are paid in discrete time at time nT/N with $n < N$, then

$$F_n := \sum_{i=n+1}^N \frac{A_N}{(1 + \rho_N)^{i-n}} = \frac{A_N}{\rho_N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(1 + \rho_N)^{N-n}} \right).$$

Once that this option is exercised, the contract terminates. This prepayment option has thus the character of a contingent claim of American type.

Effects for the lender

If the borrower exercises the prepayment option at time t , then the lender receives immediately the lump sum F_t instead of the future stream of payments with intensity A (resp. A_N);

Effects for the lender

If the borrower exercises the prepayment option at time t , then the lender receives immediately the lump sum F_t instead of the future stream of payments with intensity A (resp. A_N); the future stream of payments at time t in continuous time has a market value of

$$V_t := \int_t^T B(t, u) A \, du = A \int_t^T B(t, u) \, du \quad (2)$$

while in discrete time its market value at time nT/N is

$$V_n := \sum_{i=n+1}^N A_N B\left(n\frac{T}{N}, i\frac{T}{N}\right) = A_N \sum_{i=n+1}^N B\left(n\frac{T}{N}, i\frac{T}{N}\right)$$

where $B(t, s)$ is the value at time t of a zero-coupon bond with maturity $s \geq t$.

Effects for the lender

If the borrower exercises the prepayment option at time t , then the lender receives immediately the lump sum F_t instead of the future stream of payments with intensity A (resp. A_N); the future stream of payments at time t in continuous time has a market value of

$$V_t := \int_t^T B(t, u) A \, du = A \int_t^T B(t, u) \, du \quad (2)$$

while in discrete time its market value at time nT/N is

$$V_n := \sum_{i=n+1}^N A_N B\left(n\frac{T}{N}, i\frac{T}{N}\right) = A_N \sum_{i=n+1}^N B\left(n\frac{T}{N}, i\frac{T}{N}\right)$$

where $B(t, s)$ is the value at time t of a zero-coupon bond with maturity $s \geq t$.

Thus, the lender is exposed to the risk of early exercise at time $t < T$ of an American option to exchange V_t for F_t .

Risk exposures for the lender

The value of F_t is conventionally fixed and depends only on t and on the deterministic quantities A and ρ .

Risk exposures for the lender

The value of F_t is conventionally fixed and depends only on t and on the deterministic quantities A and ρ .

The value of V_t depends on the evolution of the term structure given by $(B(t, s))_{s \in [t, T]}$.

Risk exposures for the lender

The value of F_t is conventionally fixed and depends only on t and on the deterministic quantities A and ρ .

The value of V_t depends on the evolution of the term structure given by $(B(t, s))_{s \in [t, T]}$.

The optimal exercise of the prepayment option can thus be triggered by market conditions, usually interest rates falling under a certain level.

Risk exposures for the lender

The value of F_t is conventionally fixed and depends only on t and on the deterministic quantities A and ρ .

The value of V_t depends on the evolution of the term structure given by $(B(t, s))_{s \in [t, T]}$.

The optimal exercise of the prepayment option can thus be triggered by market conditions, usually interest rates falling under a certain level.

The borrower has another option (**surrender** option or **default** option): forfeiting the whole contract and lose the physical good. In this case, the lender keeps all the payments previously done and receives the physical good instead of the remaining stream of payments.

Risk exposures for the lender

The value of F_t is conventionally fixed and depends only on t and on the deterministic quantities A and ρ .

The value of V_t depends on the evolution of the term structure given by $(B(t, s))_{s \in [t, T]}$.

The optimal exercise of the prepayment option can thus be triggered by market conditions, usually interest rates falling under a certain level.

The borrower has another option (**surrender** option or **default** option): forfeiting the whole contract and lose the physical good. In this case, the lender keeps all the payments previously done and receives the physical good instead of the remaining stream of payments.

The options of prepayment and of surrendering are alternative to each other: once that the borrower exercises one of the two, the contract expires and (s)he cannot exercise the other.

Mortgage-backed securities (MBS)

MBS: derivative assets based on the cash flows generated by packages of mortgages.

Mortgage-backed securities (MBS)

MBS: derivative assets based on the cash flows generated by packages of mortgages.

The issuer aggregates a pool of mortgages with similar nominal rate and maturity, which is the underlying asset of a MBS.

Mortgage-backed securities (MBS)

MBS: derivative assets based on the cash flows generated by packages of mortgages.

The issuer aggregates a pool of mortgages with similar nominal rate and maturity, which is the underlying asset of a MBS.

Some examples of MBS:

Mortgage-backed securities (MBS)

MBS: derivative assets based on the cash flows generated by packages of mortgages.

The issuer aggregates a pool of mortgages with similar nominal rate and maturity, which is the underlying asset of a MBS.

Some examples of MBS:

- ▶ *pass-through*: the MBS holder receives a fixed fraction of the whole cash flow (principal + interest) generated by the mortgage pool;

Mortgage-backed securities (MBS)

MBS: derivative assets based on the cash flows generated by packages of mortgages.

The issuer aggregates a pool of mortgages with similar nominal rate and maturity, which is the underlying asset of a MBS.

Some examples of MBS:

- ▶ *pass-through*: the MBS holder receives a fixed fraction of the whole cash flow (principal + interest) generated by the mortgage pool;
- ▶ *stripped interest-only MBS (IOs)*: the MBS holder receives a fixed fraction only of the interest quote generated by the mortgage pool;

Mortgage-backed securities (MBS)

MBS: derivative assets based on the cash flows generated by packages of mortgages.

The issuer aggregates a pool of mortgages with similar nominal rate and maturity, which is the underlying asset of a MBS.

Some examples of MBS:

- ▶ *pass-through*: the MBS holder receives a fixed fraction of the whole cash flow (principal + interest) generated by the mortgage pool;
- ▶ *stripped interest-only MBS (IOs)*: the MBS holder receives a fixed fraction only of the interest quote generated by the mortgage pool;
- ▶ *stripped principal-only MBS (POs)*: the MBS holder receives a fixed fraction only of the principal quote generated by the mortgage pool.

MBS and prepayment options

The stream of payments of MBS depends on the type of MBS and on the prepayments of the mortgages which constitutes the pool:

MBS and prepayment options

The stream of payments of MBS depends on the type of MBS and on the prepayments of the mortgages which constitutes the pool:
in case of a prepayment,

- ▶ an IO-holder does not receive anymore interest for that single mortgage,

MBS and prepayment options

The stream of payments of MBS depends on the type of MBS and on the prepayments of the mortgages which constitutes the pool: in case of a prepayment,

- ▶ an IO-holder does not receive anymore interest for that single mortgage,
- ▶ while a PO-holder receives the principal of that mortgage before the natural maturity,

MBS and prepayment options

The stream of payments of MBS depends on the type of MBS and on the prepayments of the mortgages which constitutes the pool: in case of a prepayment,

- ▶ an IO-holder does not receive anymore interest for that single mortgage,
- ▶ while a PO-holder receives the principal of that mortgage before the natural maturity,
- ▶ a pass-through holder receives a lump sum immediately instead of a fixed stream of payments in the future, which usually have similar market values.

MBS and default options

Two particular classes of MBS are the ones guaranteed by GNMA-FNMA.

MBS and default options

Two particular classes of MBS are the ones guaranteed by GNMA-FNMA.

These are two national US associations (Government National Mortgage Association and Federal National Mortgage Association, respectively), which guarantee the mortgage in this way: if a mortgage is defaulted by the borrower before its natural maturity, then the corresponding association (GNMA or FNMA) replaces that mortgage in the pool by a lump sum corresponding to a prepayment (taking in exchange the underlying good).

MBS and default options

Two particular classes of MBS are the ones guaranteed by GNMA-FNMA.

These are two national US associations (Government National Mortgage Association and Federal National Mortgage Association, respectively), which guarantee the mortgage in this way: if a mortgage is defaulted by the borrower before its natural maturity, then the corresponding association (GNMA or FNMA) replaces that mortgage in the pool by a lump sum corresponding to a prepayment (taking in exchange the underlying good).

→ to evaluate a GNMA/FNMA MBS, it is not required to model the risk of default (entirely covered by the corresponding association), and the only sources of risk to be modeled are the interest rates dynamics and the prepayment risk.

MBS and default options

Two particular classes of MBS are the ones guaranteed by GNMA-FNMA.

These are two national US associations (Government National Mortgage Association and Federal National Mortgage Association, respectively), which guarantee the mortgage in this way: if a mortgage is defaulted by the borrower before its natural maturity, then the corresponding association (GNMA or FNMA) replaces that mortgage in the pool by a lump sum corresponding to a prepayment (taking in exchange the underlying good).

→ to evaluate a GNMA/FNMA MBS, it is not required to model the risk of default (entirely covered by the corresponding association), and the only sources of risk to be modeled are the interest rates dynamics and the prepayment risk.

In the sequel, we (first) concentrate on the problem of pricing a GNMA/FNMA type of MBS.

The pricing of (GNMA-FNMA) "rational" MBS

In order to price a GNMA/FNMA MBS one has simply to price, with the aid of the usual no-arbitrage theory, the corresponding stream of payments, which always include an American-style option corresponding to the prepayment option of each borrower.

The pricing of (GNMA-FNMA) "rational" MBS

In order to price a GNMA/FNMA MBS one has simply to price, with the aid of the usual no-arbitrage theory, the corresponding stream of payments, which always include an American-style option corresponding to the prepayment option of each borrower. For example, the price at time t of a pass-through MBS with underlying mortgages having rate A , nominal interest rate ρ and maturity T , would simply be

$$V_t - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[e^{-\int_t^{\hat{\tau}} r_u du} (V_{\hat{\tau}} - F_{\hat{\tau}}) \mid \mathcal{F}_t]$$

where F (residual debt) and V (market value of the residual debt) are respectively given by Equations (1) and (2), $(\mathcal{F}_t)_t$ is a suitable filtration representing the amount of information up to time t (typically the filtration generated by the short rate r), \mathbb{Q} is a suitable equivalent martingale measure and $\hat{\tau}$ is an "optimal" $(\mathcal{F}_t)_t$ -stopping time.

Irrationality of the borrowers

If the borrowers were all rational, then

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left[e^{-\int_t^{\hat{\tau}} r_u du} (V_{\hat{\tau}} - F_{\hat{\tau}}) \mid \mathcal{F}_t\right] = \text{ess sup}_{\tau \in [t, T]} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left[e^{-\int_t^{\tau} r_u du} (V_{\tau} - F_{\tau}) \mid \mathcal{F}_t\right] \quad (3)$$

the ess sup being taken over all the $(\mathcal{F}_t)_t$ -stopping times τ taking values in the interval $[t, T]$.

Irrationality of the borrowers

If the borrowers were all rational, then

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[e^{-\int_t^{\hat{\tau}} r_u du} (V_{\hat{\tau}} - F_{\hat{\tau}}) | \mathcal{F}_t] = \text{ess sup}_{\tau \in [t, T]} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[e^{-\int_t^{\tau} r_u du} (V_{\tau} - F_{\tau}) | \mathcal{F}_t] \quad (3)$$

the ess sup being taken over all the $(\mathcal{F}_t)_t$ -stopping times τ taking values in the interval $[t, T]$.

In particular, it would happen that every borrower of a given pool finds optimal to prepay at the same stopping time $\hat{\tau} \dots$

Irrationality of the borrowers

If the borrowers were all rational, then

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[e^{-\int_t^{\hat{\tau}} r_u du} (V_{\hat{\tau}} - F_{\hat{\tau}}) | \mathcal{F}_t] = \text{ess sup}_{\tau \in [t, T]} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[e^{-\int_t^{\tau} r_u du} (V_{\tau} - F_{\tau}) | \mathcal{F}_t] \quad (3)$$

the ess sup being taken over all the $(\mathcal{F}_t)_t$ -stopping times τ taking values in the interval $[t, T]$.

In particular, it would happen that every borrower of a given pool finds optimal to prepay at the same stopping time $\hat{\tau} \dots$

BUT

Irrationality of the borrowers

If the borrowers were all rational, then

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[e^{-\int_t^{\hat{\tau}} r_u du} (V_{\hat{\tau}} - F_{\hat{\tau}}) | \mathcal{F}_t] = \text{ess sup}_{\tau \in [t, T]} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[e^{-\int_t^{\tau} r_u du} (V_{\tau} - F_{\tau}) | \mathcal{F}_t] \quad (3)$$

the ess sup being taken over all the $(\mathcal{F}_t)_t$ -stopping times τ taking values in the interval $[t, T]$.

In particular, it would happen that every borrower of a given pool finds optimal to prepay at the same stopping time $\hat{\tau} \dots$

BUT

borrower could be not acquainted with rational economic reasoning, not financial market professional and/or not fully informed about the financial markets.

Irrationality of the borrowers

If the borrowers were all rational, then

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[e^{-\int_t^{\hat{\tau}} r_u du} (V_{\hat{\tau}} - F_{\hat{\tau}}) | \mathcal{F}_t] = \text{ess sup}_{\tau \in [t, T]} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[e^{-\int_t^{\tau} r_u du} (V_{\tau} - F_{\tau}) | \mathcal{F}_t] \quad (3)$$

the ess sup being taken over all the $(\mathcal{F}_t)_t$ -stopping times τ taking values in the interval $[t, T]$.

In particular, it would happen that every borrower of a given pool finds optimal to prepay at the same stopping time $\hat{\tau} \dots$

BUT

borrower could be not acquainted with rational economic reasoning, not financial market professional and/or not fully informed about the financial markets.

Even if they are, there could be other non-optimal reasons for exercising their prepayment options in a non-optimal time (for example, the house underlying the mortgage has been sold, or the borrower sees the optimality of prepayment with some delay).

Prepayment (intensity) function

In a given pool, one can observe different prepayment times, optimal as well as non-optimal, for different borrowers. To price a MBS one has to model this non-optimal behaviour.

Prepayment (intensity) function

In a given pool, one can observe different prepayment times, optimal as well as non-optimal, for different borrowers. To price a MBS one has to model this non-optimal behaviour.

This is usually done by using the so-called *prepayment (hazard, risk) function*.

Prepayment (intensity) function

In a given pool, one can observe different prepayment times, optimal as well as non-optimal, for different borrowers. To price a MBS one has to model this non-optimal behaviour.

This is usually done by using the so-called *prepayment (hazard, risk) function*.

Let us call τ the prepayment time of a "typical" single borrower. Define its cumulative distribution function and density with respect to \mathbb{Q} , conditional to a state variable θ :

$$F(t|\theta) := \mathbb{Q}\{\tau \leq t \mid \theta\}, \quad f(\cdot|\theta) = F'(\cdot|\theta)$$

Prepayment (intensity) function

In a given pool, one can observe different prepayment times, optimal as well as non-optimal, for different borrowers. To price a MBS one has to model this non-optimal behaviour.

This is usually done by using the so-called *prepayment (hazard, risk) function*.

Let us call τ the prepayment time of a "typical" single borrower. Define its cumulative distribution function and density with respect to \mathbb{Q} , conditional to a state variable θ :

$$F(t|\theta) := \mathbb{Q}\{\tau \leq t \mid \theta\}, \quad f(\cdot|\theta) = F'(\cdot|\theta)$$

Define the *prepayment function* (analogous of the *default intensity* in credit risk) as

$$\pi(t|\theta) := \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\mathbb{Q}\{t < \tau \leq t + \Delta t \mid \tau > t, \theta\}}{\Delta t} = \frac{f(t|\theta)}{1 - F(t|\theta)}$$

Pricing MBS with the prepayment function

The prepayment function $\pi(t|\theta)$ gives the density of prepayment at time t conditioned to the fact that the borrower has not yet prepaid (and to the state variable θ). It is well known that

$$F(t|\theta) = 1 - \exp\left(-\int_0^t \pi(s|\theta) ds\right),$$
$$f(t|\theta) = \pi(t|\theta) \exp\left(-\int_0^t \pi(s|\theta) ds\right)$$

Pricing MBS with the prepayment function

The prepayment function $\pi(t|\theta)$ gives the density of prepayment at time t conditioned to the fact that the borrower has not yet prepaid (and to the state variable θ). It is well known that

$$F(t|\theta) = 1 - \exp\left(-\int_0^t \pi(s|\theta) ds\right),$$
$$f(t|\theta) = \pi(t|\theta) \exp\left(-\int_0^t \pi(s|\theta) ds\right)$$

Once that we specify the hazard function $\pi(\cdot|\theta)$ and the interest rates dynamics, we can obtain the price of a MBS. For example, the price of a pass-through MBS at time t would be

$$V_t - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left[e^{-\int_t^T r_u du} (V_T - F_T) \mid \mathcal{F}_t\right] =$$
$$= V_t - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left[\int_t^T \pi(u|\theta) e^{-\int_t^u (r_v + \pi(v|\theta)) dv} (V_u - F_u) du \mid \mathcal{F}_t\right]$$

Prepayment function and optimal prepayment

In many models, π depends on the fact that at a given time t it is or not optimal to prepay: for $t \in [0, T]$, define

$$\theta_t := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if at time } t \text{ it is optimal to prepay,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Prepayment function and optimal prepayment

In many models, π depends on the fact that at a given time t it is or not optimal to prepay: for $t \in [0, T]$, define

$$\theta_t := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if at time } t \text{ it is optimal to prepay,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then, for example:

- ▶ Stanton's model: $\pi(t|\theta_t) := \lambda + \rho\theta_t$,

Prepayment function and optimal prepayment

In many models, π depends on the fact that at a given time t it is or not optimal to prepay: for $t \in [0, T]$, define

$$\theta_t := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if at time } t \text{ it is optimal to prepay,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then, for example:

- ▶ Stanton's model: $\pi(t|\theta_t) := \lambda + \rho\theta_t$,
- ▶ Dunn-McConnell's model: $\pi(t|\theta_t) := \lambda(t) + \infty \times \theta_t$,

Prepayment function and optimal prepayment

In many models, π depends on the fact that at a given time t it is or not optimal to prepay: for $t \in [0, T]$, define

$$\theta_t := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if at time } t \text{ it is optimal to prepay,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then, for example:

- ▶ Stanton's model: $\pi(t|\theta_t) := \lambda + \rho\theta_t$,
- ▶ Dunn-McConnell's model: $\pi(t|\theta_t) := \lambda(t) + \infty \times \theta_t$,

with $\lambda, \rho \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $\lambda(t) \in C^0([0, T])$: an exogenous (i.e. non-optimal but happening due to exogenous reasons) prepayment has a hazard function λ (or $\lambda(t)$), while when it is optimal to prepay the hazard function is augmented by ρ (or goes to $+\infty$, i.e. all the borrowers always prepay immediately when it is optimal).

Prepayment function and optimal prepayment

In many models, π depends on the fact that at a given time t it is or not optimal to prepay: for $t \in [0, T]$, define

$$\theta_t := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if at time } t \text{ it is optimal to prepay,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then, for example:

- ▶ Stanton's model: $\pi(t|\theta_t) := \lambda + \rho\theta_t$,
- ▶ Dunn-McConnell's model: $\pi(t|\theta_t) := \lambda(t) + \infty \times \theta_t$,

with $\lambda, \rho \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $\lambda(t) \in C^0([0, T])$: an exogenous (i.e. non-optimal but happening due to exogenous reasons) prepayment has a hazard function λ (or $\lambda(t)$), while when it is optimal to prepay the hazard function is augmented by ρ (or goes to $+\infty$, i.e. all the borrowers always prepay immediately when it is optimal).

→ solving the problem (3), while not sufficient to price a MBS, can be necessary for many models.

Optimal rational prepayment

Assume that the short rate r is Markov, so that $(B(t, s))_{0 \leq t \leq s \leq T}$ can be obtained from r , and has stochastic differential

$$dr_t = \mu(t, r_t) dt + \sigma(t, r_t) dW_t \quad (4)$$

with W Brownian motion and μ, σ such that Equation (4) has a unique strong solution.

Optimal rational prepayment

Assume that the short rate r is Markov, so that $(B(t, s))_{0 \leq t \leq s \leq T}$ can be obtained from r , and has stochastic differential

$$dr_t = \mu(t, r_t) dt + \sigma(t, r_t) dW_t \quad (4)$$

with W Brownian motion and μ, σ such that Equation (4) has a unique strong solution. Then $B(t, T) = \tilde{B}(t, T, r_t)$, where \tilde{B} solves

$$\begin{cases} L\tilde{B} = 0, & (t, r) \in (0, T) \times \mathbb{R}, \\ \tilde{B}(T, T, r) = 1, & r \in \mathbb{R} \end{cases}$$

and L is the infinitesimal generator of r

$$Lf := f_t + \mu f_r + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 f_{rr} - rf$$

Optimal rational prepayment

Assume that the short rate r is Markov, so that $(B(t, s))_{0 \leq t \leq s \leq T}$ can be obtained from r , and has stochastic differential

$$dr_t = \mu(t, r_t) dt + \sigma(t, r_t) dW_t \quad (4)$$

with W Brownian motion and μ, σ such that Equation (4) has a unique strong solution. Then $B(t, T) = \tilde{B}(t, T, r_t)$, where \tilde{B} solves

$$\begin{cases} L\tilde{B} = 0, & (t, r) \in (0, T) \times \mathbb{R}, \\ \tilde{B}(T, T, r) = 1, & r \in \mathbb{R} \end{cases}$$

and L is the infinitesimal generator of r

$$Lf := f_t + \mu f_r + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 f_{rr} - rf$$

Recall that we want to solve

$$\operatorname{ess\,sup}_{\tau \in [t, T]} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}} \left[e^{-\int_t^\tau r_u du} (V_\tau - F_\tau) \mid \mathcal{F}_t \right]$$

Optimal prepayment and free boundary problems

It is well known that the solution to this problem is linked to the free boundary value problem (or variational inequality)

$$\begin{cases} \max(Lf, \psi - f) = 0, & (t, r) \in (0, T) \times \mathbb{R}, \\ f(T, r) = \psi(T, r) (\equiv 0), & r \in \mathbb{R} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where $\psi(t, r) = V(t, r) - F(t)$ is given by

$$\psi(t, r) = A \left(\int_t^T \tilde{B}(t, u, r) du - \frac{1 - e^{-\rho(T-t)}}{\rho} \right)$$

Optimal prepayment and free boundary problems

It is well known that the solution to this problem is linked to the free boundary value problem (or variational inequality)

$$\begin{cases} \max(Lf, \psi - f) = 0, & (t, r) \in (0, T) \times \mathbb{R}, \\ f(T, r) = \psi(T, r) (\equiv 0), & r \in \mathbb{R} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where $\psi(t, r) = V(t, r) - F(t)$ is given by

$$\psi(t, r) = A \left(\int_t^T \tilde{B}(t, u, r) du - \frac{1 - e^{-\rho(T-t)}}{\rho} \right)$$

An optimal stopping time is given by

$$\tau := \inf\{t \leq T \mid f(t, r_t) = \psi(t, r_t)\}$$

Optimal prepayment and free boundary problems

It is well known that the solution to this problem is linked to the free boundary value problem (or variational inequality)

$$\begin{cases} \max(Lf, \psi - f) = 0, & (t, r) \in (0, T) \times \mathbb{R}, \\ f(T, r) = \psi(T, r) (\equiv 0), & r \in \mathbb{R} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where $\psi(t, r) = V(t, r) - F(t)$ is given by

$$\psi(t, r) = A \left(\int_t^T \tilde{B}(t, u, r) du - \frac{1 - e^{-\rho(T-t)}}{\rho} \right)$$

An optimal stopping time is given by

$$\tau := \inf\{t \leq T \mid f(t, r_t) = \psi(t, r_t)\}$$

Unfortunately (5) has an explicit solution in very few cases!

Numerical solution

We now concentrate ourselves on numerical methods involving weak convergence of discrete time processes to solve directly problem (3).

Numerical solution

We now concentrate ourselves on numerical methods involving weak convergence of discrete time processes to solve directly problem (3).

Consider N subdivisions of the interval $[0, T]$: then (3) becomes

$$\text{ess sup}_{\tau \in [n, N]} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[e^{-\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=n}^{\tau} r_i} (V_{\tau} - F_{\tau}) \mid \mathcal{F}_n] \quad (6)$$

with esssup taken over all the $(\mathcal{F}_n)_n$ -stopping times τ taking integer values between n and N , and $V - F$ is given by

$$V_n - F_n = A_N \sum_{i=n+1}^N B\left(n\frac{T}{N}, i\frac{T}{N}\right) - \frac{A_N}{\rho_N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(1 + \rho_N)^{N-n}}\right)$$

with the zero-coupon values B now given by

$$B\left(n\frac{T}{N}, i\frac{T}{N}\right) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}[e^{-\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=n}^{i-1} r_k} \mid \mathcal{F}_n]$$

Numerical solution (2)

If the short rate r is a Markov chain, then the zero-coupon values $B(\frac{n}{N}T, \frac{j}{N}T)$ are deterministic functions of n and r_n , as well as $V_n - F_n$, thus in (6) the conditional expectation is a function of n and r_n .

Numerical solution (2)

If the short rate r is a Markov chain, then the zero-coupon values $B(\frac{n}{N}T, \frac{i}{N}T)$ are deterministic functions of n and r_n , as well as $V_n - F_n$, thus in (6) the conditional expectation is a function of n and r_n .

Thus (6) can be solved by building the Snell envelope and using the Dynamic Programming principle: define recursively the functions W_n , $n = 0, \dots, N$, as

$$\begin{aligned} W_N(r) &:= V_N(r) - F_N(r) \equiv 0, \\ W_n(r) &:= \max\left((V_n - F_n)(r), \mathbb{E}\left[e^{-\frac{1}{N}r_{n+1}} W_{n+1}(r_{n+1}) \mid r_n = r\right]\right) \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

and an optimal stopping time is given by

$$\hat{\tau} := \inf\{n \leq N \mid W_n(r_n) = (V_n - F_n)(r_n)\}$$

Numerical solution (2)

If the short rate r is a Markov chain, then the zero-coupon values $B(\frac{n}{N}T, \frac{i}{N}T)$ are deterministic functions of n and r_n , as well as $V_n - F_n$, thus in (6) the conditional expectation is a function of n and r_n .

Thus (6) can be solved by building the Snell envelope and using the Dynamic Programming principle: define recursively the functions W_n , $n = 0, \dots, N$, as

$$\begin{aligned} W_N(r) &:= V_N(r) - F_N(r) \equiv 0, \\ W_n(r) &:= \max \left((V_n - F_n)(r), \mathbb{E}[e^{-\frac{1}{N}r_{n+1}} W_{n+1}(r_{n+1}) \mid r_n = r] \right) \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

and an optimal stopping time is given by

$$\hat{\tau} := \inf \{ n \leq N \mid W_n(r_n) = (V_n - F_n)(r_n) \}$$

Given r_0 , the computational cost of calculating $(W_n)_n$ depends on the model that we choose for $(r_n)_n$.

Computational cost

The most common choices for the dynamics of $(r_n)_n$ are:

Computational cost

The most common choices for the dynamics of $(r_n)_n$ are:

- ▶ Euler scheme for the SDE of r : the transition kernel of $(r_n)_n$ is Gaussian, and the state space is an infinite set (typically the whole real line).

Computational cost

The most common choices for the dynamics of $(r_n)_n$ are:

- ▶ Euler scheme for the SDE of r : the transition kernel of $(r_n)_n$ is Gaussian, and the state space is an infinite set (typically the whole real line). If the $(W_n)_n$ cannot be calculated in an analytical way, it is very difficult to evaluate them numerically (example: quantisation \rightarrow discrete-space process).

Computational cost

The most common choices for the dynamics of $(r_n)_n$ are:

- ▶ Euler scheme for the SDE of r : the transition kernel of $(r_n)_n$ is Gaussian, and the state space is an infinite set (typically the whole real line). If the $(W_n)_n$ cannot be calculated in an analytical way, it is very difficult to evaluate them numerically (example: quantisation \rightarrow discrete-space process).
- ▶ binomial trees: the state space for $(r_n)_n$ is a finite set, but its cardinality depends on the type of the tree.

Computational cost

The most common choices for the dynamics of $(r_n)_n$ are:

- ▶ Euler scheme for the SDE of r : the transition kernel of $(r_n)_n$ is Gaussian, and the state space is an infinite set (typically the whole real line). If the $(W_n)_n$ cannot be calculated in an analytical way, it is very difficult to evaluate them numerically (example: quantisation \rightarrow discrete-space process).
- ▶ binomial trees: the state space for $(r_n)_n$ is a finite set, but its cardinality depends on the type of the tree. If the tree is recombining, then the cardinality of the state space for r_n grows with n at most linearly.

Computational cost

The most common choices for the dynamics of $(r_n)_n$ are:

- ▶ Euler scheme for the SDE of r : the transition kernel of $(r_n)_n$ is Gaussian, and the state space is an infinite set (typically the whole real line). If the $(W_n)_n$ cannot be calculated in an analytical way, it is very difficult to evaluate them numerically (example: quantisation \rightarrow discrete-space process).
- ▶ binomial trees: the state space for $(r_n)_n$ is a finite set, but its cardinality depends on the type of the tree. If the tree is recombining, then the cardinality of the state space for r_n grows with n at most linearly. If is not, then the state space for r_n can consist of up to 2^n points.

Computational cost

The most common choices for the dynamics of $(r_n)_n$ are:

- ▶ Euler scheme for the SDE of r : the transition kernel of $(r_n)_n$ is Gaussian, and the state space is an infinite set (typically the whole real line). If the $(W_n)_n$ cannot be calculated in an analytical way, it is very difficult to evaluate them numerically (example: quantisation \rightarrow discrete-space process).
- ▶ binomial trees: the state space for $(r_n)_n$ is a finite set, but its cardinality depends on the type of the tree. If the tree is recombining, then the cardinality of the state space for r_n grows with n at most linearly. If is not, then the state space for r_n can consist of up to 2^n points.

We choose to use a recombining binomial tree dynamics for r . If the number of states that r_n can assume is $O(n)$ (in the common binomial case, $= n + 1$), then one can use backward induction to calculate the functions $(W_n)_n$, having to calculate them in every one of the $O(\sum_{n=1}^N n) = O(\frac{N(N+1)}{2})$ nodes of the tree.

Computationally simple trees

Nelson and Rawaswamy (1990) define a *computationally simple tree* as a tree where the number of nodes at each time $n \leq N$ grows at most linearly with the number of time intervals.

Computationally simple trees

Nelson and Rawaswamy (1990) define a *computationally simple tree* as a tree where the number of nodes at each time $n \leq N$ grows at most linearly with the number of time intervals. As noticed before, in this case the total number of nodes up to time N is at most equal to $K \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$.

Computationally simple trees

Nelson and Rawaswamy (1990) define a *computationally simple tree* as a tree where the number of nodes at each time $n \leq N$ grows at most linearly with the number of time intervals.

As noticed before, in this case the total number of nodes up to time N is at most equal to $K \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$.

If we use a binomial tree, typically $K = 1$, and in order to calculate the functions (7) one has to calculate at each node of the tree two expectations (of $V_n(r_n)$ and of $W_{n+1}(r_{n+1})$) over two possible future outcomes and then a maximum, ending up with a bounded number of operations at each node of the tree.

Weak convergence

We build the process $(r_n)_n$ in order to approximate via weak convergence the diffusion process r .

Weak convergence

We build the process $(r_n)_n$ in order to approximate via weak convergence the diffusion process r .

Divide the interval $[0, T]$ in N equal subintervals with length $h := T/N$, and consider a process $(r_t^h)_{t \in [0, T]}$, which is constant on the subintervals and, at each time hk , $k = 1, \dots, N$, jumps upwards or downwards with probability q and $1 - q$, respectively.

Weak convergence

We build the process $(r_n)_n$ in order to approximate via weak convergence the diffusion process r .

Divide the interval $[0, T]$ in N equal subintervals with length $h := T/N$, and consider a process $(r_t^h)_{t \in [0, T]}$, which is constant on the subintervals and, at each time hk , $k = 1, \dots, N$, jumps upwards or downwards with probability q and $1 - q$, respectively. More precisely, take $q_h, R_h^+, R_h^- : \mathbb{R} \times [0, +\infty)$ such that

$$q_h(r, hk) \in [0, 1], \quad -\infty < R_h^-(r, hk) \leq R_h^+(r, hk) < \infty,$$

and define the process r^h such that

$$\mathbb{P}(r_{(k+1)h}^h = R_h^+(r, hk) | r_{hk}^h = r) = q_h(r, hk), \quad (8)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(r_{(k+1)h}^h = R_h^-(r, hk) | r_{hk}^h = r) = 1 - q_h(r, hk), \quad (9)$$

The process r^h is a Markov chain.

Weak convergence

We build the process $(r_n)_n$ in order to approximate via weak convergence the diffusion process r .

Divide the interval $[0, T]$ in N equal subintervals with length $h := T/N$, and consider a process $(r_t^h)_{t \in [0, T]}$, which is constant on the subintervals and, at each time hk , $k = 1, \dots, N$, jumps upwards or downwards with probability q and $1 - q$, respectively. More precisely, take $q_h, R_h^+, R_h^- : \mathbb{R} \times [0, +\infty)$ such that

$$q_h(r, hk) \in [0, 1], \quad -\infty < R_h^-(r, hk) \leq R_h^+(r, hk) < \infty,$$

and define the process r^h such that

$$\mathbb{P}(r_{(k+1)h}^h = R_h^+(r, hk) | r_{hk}^h = r) = q_h(r, hk), \quad (8)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(r_{(k+1)h}^h = R_h^-(r, hk) | r_{hk}^h = r) = 1 - q_h(r, hk), \quad (9)$$

The process r^h is a Markov chain.

Under suitable assumptions on q_h, R_h^+, R_h^- , the processes $(r^h)_h$ converge weakly to r .

Computationally simple trees: the idea

In order to obtain a recombining binomial tree (thus computational simplicity), we must require that the total displacement of a up-movement followed by a down-movement is equal to the analogous displacement when the movements have reverse order.

Computationally simple trees: the idea

In order to obtain a recombining binomial tree (thus computational simplicity), we must require that the total displacement of a up-movement followed by a down-movement is equal to the analogous displacement when the movements have reverse order. This means that the equality

$$\begin{aligned}R^+(r, t) - r + R^-(R^+(r, t), t + h) - R^+(r, t) &= \\ &= R^-(r, t) - r + R^+(R^-(r, t), t + h) - R^-(r, t)\end{aligned}$$

i.e. $R^-(R^+(r, t), t + h) = R^+(R^-(r, t), t + h)$, must be true for all $t = nh$, $r \in \mathbb{R}$.

Computationally simple trees: the idea

In order to obtain a recombining binomial tree (thus computational simplicity), we must require that the total displacement of a up-movement followed by a down-movement is equal to the analogous displacement when the movements have reverse order. This means that the equality

$$\begin{aligned}R^+(r, t) - r + R^-(R^+(r, t), t + h) - R^+(r, t) &= \\ &= R^-(r, t) - r + R^+(R^-(r, t), t + h) - R^-(r, t)\end{aligned}$$

i.e. $R^-(R^+(r, t), t + h) = R^+(R^-(r, t), t + h)$, must be true for all $t = nh$, $r \in \mathbb{R}$.

We now follow Nelson and Rawaswany and present computationally simple trees for two classical models of r .

Weak convergence to the Vasicek model

Assume that r follows the Vasicek model

$$dr_t = \beta(\alpha - r_t)dt + \sigma dW_t, \quad (10)$$

with $\beta > 0$,

Weak convergence to the Vasicek model

Assume that r follows the Vasicek model

$$dr_t = \beta(\alpha - r_t)dt + \sigma dW_t, \quad (10)$$

with $\beta > 0$, and define

$$R_h^+(r, t) = r + \sigma\sqrt{h}, \quad R_h^-(r, t) = r - \sigma\sqrt{h},$$

$$q_h(r, t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{h}\frac{\beta}{2\sigma}(\alpha - r) & \text{if } 0 \leq \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{h}\frac{\beta}{2\sigma}(\alpha - r) \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{h}\frac{\beta}{2\sigma}(\alpha - r) < 0, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Weak convergence to the Vasicek model

Assume that r follows the Vasicek model

$$dr_t = \beta(\alpha - r_t)dt + \sigma dW_t, \quad (10)$$

with $\beta > 0$, and define

$$R_h^+(r, t) = r + \sigma\sqrt{h}, \quad R_h^-(r, t) = r - \sigma\sqrt{h},$$

$$q_h(r, t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{h}\frac{\beta}{2\sigma}(\alpha - r) & \text{if } 0 \leq \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{h}\frac{\beta}{2\sigma}(\alpha - r) \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{h}\frac{\beta}{2\sigma}(\alpha - r) < 0, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

With this choice, one can prove that the sequence $(r^h)_h$ converges weakly to r (drift $\leftrightarrow q_h$, diffusion $\leftrightarrow R_h^\pm$),

Weak convergence to the Vasicek model

Assume that r follows the Vasicek model

$$dr_t = \beta(\alpha - r_t)dt + \sigma dW_t, \quad (10)$$

with $\beta > 0$, and define

$$R_h^+(r, t) = r + \sigma\sqrt{h}, \quad R_h^-(r, t) = r - \sigma\sqrt{h},$$

$$q_h(r, t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{h}\frac{\beta}{2\sigma}(\alpha - r) & \text{if } 0 \leq \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{h}\frac{\beta}{2\sigma}(\alpha - r) \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{h}\frac{\beta}{2\sigma}(\alpha - r) < 0, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

With this choice, one can prove that the sequence $(r^h)_h$ converges weakly to r (drift $\leftrightarrow q_h$, diffusion $\leftrightarrow R_h^\pm$), and we have a computationally simple tree.

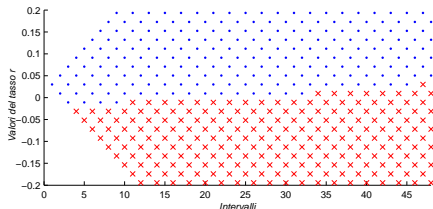
Numerical results for the Vasicek model

We now present a numerical solution of the prepayment problem. We set as model parameters $r_0 = 0.03$, $\beta = 0.02$, $\sigma = 0.1$, $\alpha = 0.15$. For each node, we indicate with a red cross an optimal decision to prepay (stop) and with a white dot an optimal decision to continue.

Numerical results for the Vasicek model

We now present a numerical solution of the prepayment problem. We set as model parameters $r_0 = 0.03$, $\beta = 0.02$, $\sigma = 0.1$, $\alpha = 0.15$. For each node, we indicate with a red cross an optimal decision to prepay (stop) and with a white dot an optimal decision to continue.

The first graphic has $\rho = 0.04$, $T = 2$ years and $N = 48$ subintervals (corresponding to prepayment decisions taken every 15 days).



Numerical results for the Vasicek model

The second graphic has $\rho = 0.04$, $T = 20$ years and $N = 240$ (prepayment decisions every month).

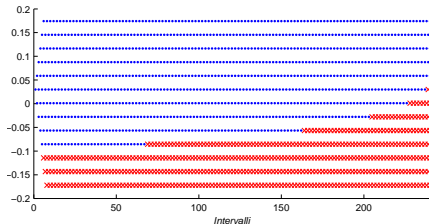


Figure: Optimal prepayment with $N = 240$ (other parameters: $r_0 = 0.03$, $T = 20$, $\rho = 0.04$, $\beta = 0.02$, $\sigma = 0.1$, $\alpha = 0.15$)

Weak convergence to non-gaussian models

In order to build a computationally simple tree for the CIR model, we first make a transform of the state variable $X_t := X(r_t, t)$ with $X \in C^{1,2}$. If r satisfies Equation (4), then

$$dX = \left(\frac{\partial X}{\partial t} + \mu \frac{\partial X}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial r^2} \right) dt + \sigma \frac{\partial X}{\partial r} dW_t.$$

Weak convergence to non-gaussian models

In order to build a computationally simple tree for the CIR model, we first make a transform of the state variable $X_t := X(r_t, t)$ with $X \in C^{1,2}$. If r satisfies Equation (4), then

$$dX = \left(\frac{\partial X}{\partial t} + \mu \frac{\partial X}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial r^2} \right) dt + \sigma \frac{\partial X}{\partial r} dW_t.$$

Now choose X such that

$$X(r, t) = \int^r \frac{dz}{\sigma(z, t)}, \quad (11)$$

With this choice, the diffusion term of $X(r_t, t)$ is constant and we can again build a computationally simple tree in a similar way as we did for the Vasicek model.

Weak convergence to non-gaussian models

In order to build a computationally simple tree for the CIR model, we first make a transform of the state variable $X_t := X(r_t, t)$ with $X \in C^{1,2}$. If r satisfies Equation (4), then

$$dX = \left(\frac{\partial X}{\partial t} + \mu \frac{\partial X}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial r^2} \right) dt + \sigma \frac{\partial X}{\partial r} dW_t.$$

Now choose X such that

$$X(r, t) = \int^r \frac{dz}{\sigma(z, t)}, \quad (11)$$

With this choice, the diffusion term of $X(r_t, t)$ is constant and we can again build a computationally simple tree in a similar way as we did for the Vasicek model.

If X is invertible, then we can come back to the process r by applying the inverse transformation.

Weak convergence to the CIR model

Assume that r follows the CIR model

$$dr = \beta(\alpha - r)dt + \sigma\sqrt{r}dW_t,$$

then the suitable transformation X is given by

$$X(r) := \int^r \frac{dZ}{\sigma\sqrt{Z}} = \frac{2\sqrt{r}}{\sigma}, \text{ with inverse } R(x) := \frac{\sigma^2 x^2}{4} \mathbf{1}_{x>0}$$

Weak convergence to the CIR model

Assume that r follows the CIR model

$$dr = \beta(\alpha - r)dt + \sigma\sqrt{r}dW_t,$$

then the suitable transformation X is given by

$$X(r) := \int^r \frac{dZ}{\sigma\sqrt{Z}} = \frac{2\sqrt{r}}{\sigma}, \text{ with inverse } R(x) := \frac{\sigma^2 x^2}{4} \mathbf{1}_{x>0}$$

In this case it is required, when r is near 0, to make an upward jump J_h^+ which is a multiple of the corresponding downward jump J_h^- . Then, by defining

$$R_h^\pm(x, t) := R(x \pm J_h^\pm(x, t)\sqrt{h}),$$
$$q_h(x, t) := \frac{h\beta(\alpha - R(x)) + R(x) - R_h^-(x)}{R_h^+(x) - R_h^-(x)} \mathbf{1}_{R_h^+(x)>0},$$

the sequence $(r^h)_h$ converges weakly to r and we have a computationally simple tree.

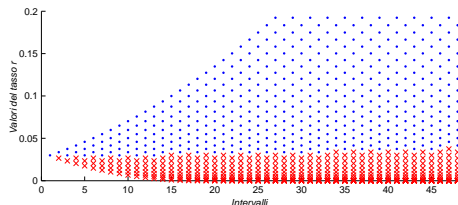
Numerical results for the CIR model

Take as model parameters $r_0 = 0.03$, $\beta = 0.02$, $\sigma = 0.1$, $\alpha = 0.15$. As before, for each node we indicate with a red cross an optimal decision to prepay (stop) and with a white dot an optimal decision to continue.

Numerical results for the CIR model

Take as model parameters $r_0 = 0.03$, $\beta = 0.02$, $\sigma = 0.1$, $\alpha = 0.15$. As before, for each node we indicate with a red cross an optimal decision to prepay (stop) and with a white dot an optimal decision to continue.

The first graphic has $\rho = 0.04$, $T = 2$ years and $N = 48$ subintervals (corresponding to prepayment decisions taken every 15 days).



Numerical results for the CIR model

The second graphic has $\rho = 0.04$, $T = 20$ years and $N = 240$ (prepayment decisions every month).

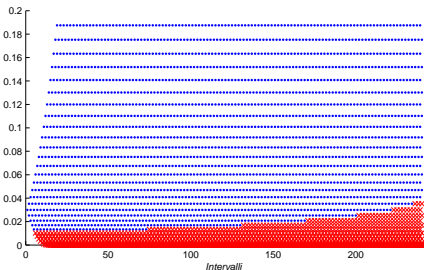


Figure: Optimal prepayment with $N = 24$ (other parameters: $r_0 = 0.03$, $T = 2$, $\rho = 0.04$, $\beta = 0.02$, $\sigma = 0.1$, $\alpha = 0.15$)

Flexibility of the algorithm

The algorithm is flexible enough to incorporate more complex rate structure than the "classical" single rate.

Flexibility of the algorithm

The algorithm is flexible enough to incorporate more complex rate structure than the "classical" single rate.

For example, assume that a mortgage has a so-called entrance rate ρ_1 up to the time T_1 and $\rho_2 > \rho_1$ for the remaining time $[T_1, T]$. Then it is well known that the repayment intensities in the two periods (in continuous time) are

$$A(t) = A_1 = \frac{P\rho_1}{1 - \left(\frac{1}{1+\rho_1}\right)^N}, \quad t < T_1,$$

$$A(t) = A_2 = \frac{P\rho_2}{1 - \left(\frac{1}{1+\rho_2}\right)^{N-N_1}} \frac{1 - \left(\frac{1}{1+\rho_1}\right)^{N-N_1}}{1 - \left(\frac{1}{1+\rho_1}\right)^N}, \quad t > T_1$$

Flexibility of the algorithm

The algorithm is flexible enough to incorporate more complex rate structure than the "classical" single rate.

For example, assume that a mortgage has a so-called entrance rate ρ_1 up to the time T_1 and $\rho_2 > \rho_1$ for the remaining time $[T_1, T]$. Then it is well known that the repayment intensities in the two periods (in continuous time) are

$$A(t) = A_1 = \frac{P\rho_1}{1 - \left(\frac{1}{1+\rho_1}\right)^N}, \quad t < T_1,$$

$$A(t) = A_2 = \frac{P\rho_2}{1 - \left(\frac{1}{1+\rho_2}\right)^{N-N_1}} \frac{1 - \left(\frac{1}{1+\rho_1}\right)^{N-N_1}}{1 - \left(\frac{1}{1+\rho_1}\right)^N}, \quad t > T_1$$

In this case, the prepayment option is written on

$$F_t = \int_0^T e^{-\int_t^u \rho ds} A(u) du, \quad V_t = \int_0^T B(t, u) A(u) du$$

Numerical results for an "entrance rate" mortgage (CIR)

Take as model parameters $r_0 = 0.03$, $\beta = 0.02$, $\sigma = 0.1$, $\alpha = 0.15$.
The following graphic has $\rho_1 = 0.03$ for a period $T_1 = 3$ years and $\rho_2 = 0.04$ for a total of $T = 20$ years and $N = 120$ subintervals (corresponding to prepayment decisions taken every 2 months).

