

Order Book Modeling and Financial Stability

Alessio Emanuele Biondo



Università degli Studi di Catania
Dipartimento of Economia e Impresa
C.so Italia 55, 95129 Catania
Floor IV, Office 23/D
ae.biondo@unict.it

Financial Risk & Network Theory
Cambridge - 13-14 September 2016

Outline of presentation

- I- Intro and motivation
- II- Model description
 - a) Design
 - b) Stylized facts compliance
- III- Policy testing

I - Intro and Motivation

The majority of financial markets adopts an order book mechanism for orders matching (Rosu 2009). Two convergent perspectives:

- A-** The macroeconomic framework of financial markets:
bubbles and crises are often described as emergent aggregate behaviors resulting from individual independent actions, unintendently leading to synchronization.

It might give support to:

- a) understanding** authentic ingredients of **market dynamics**,
- b) explaining price variability**,
- c) addressing policies** that can dampen dangerous fluctuations.

I - Intro and Motivation

The majority of financial markets adopts an order book mechanism for orders matching (Rosu 2009). Two convergent perspectives:

A- The macroeconomic framework of financial markets:

bubbles and crises are often described as emergent aggregate behaviors resulting from individual independent actions, unintendently leading to synchronization.

It might give support to:

- a) understanding** authentic ingredients of **market dynamics**,
- b) explaining price variability**,
- c) addressing policies** that can dampen dangerous fluctuations.

B- The microstructure of order book dynamics:

It allows the analysis of mechanisms determining stock prices from an “inner” point of view: trading strategies, behavioral heterogeneity, composition of the population of investors, stylized facts.

It might give support to:

- a) trading decisions**, specially referring to optimal investment strategies,
- b) market and price impact evaluations**,
- c) design** computer-based **trading algorithms**.

In previous studies, some of the macroeconomic sources of financial avalanches has been discussed (see AEB, Pluchino, Rapisarda, Helbing, 2013a, 2013b; AEB, Pluchino, Rapisarda, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016).

In those contributions, it was stressed that the information spreading and imitative processes are responsible, according to the topology of the social network, of extreme events on financial markets, such as bubbles and crashes.

In previous studies, some of the macroeconomic sources of financial avalanches has been discussed (see AEB, Pluchino, Rapisarda, Helbing, 2013a, 2013b; AEB, Pluchino, Rapisarda, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016).

In those contributions, it was stressed that the information spreading and imitative processes are responsible, according to the topology of the social network, of extreme events on financial markets, such as bubbles and crashes.

As Mitchell (2009) underlines, order book dynamics emerges as a result of local interactions among traders and it is a valid example of a complex system.

In previous studies, some of the macroeconomic sources of financial avalanches has been discussed (see AEB, Pluchino, Rapisarda, Helbing, 2013a, 2013b; AEB, Pluchino, Rapisarda, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016).

In those contributions, it was stressed that the information spreading and imitative processes are responsible, according to the topology of the social network, of extreme events on financial markets, such as bubbles and crashes.

As Mitchell (2009) underlines, order book dynamics emerges as a result of local interactions among traders and it is a valid example of a complex system.

The main motivation of this research is, then, to highlight the most evident micro-structural causes of markets instability, in order to discuss actual chances to control them by means of policies.

Minimal survey

Many models of financial order books exist. Roughly speaking, they follow two different approaches (widely surveyed in Chakraborti et al., 2011, and Parlour and Seppi, 2008).

Minimal survey

Many models of financial order books exist. Roughly speaking, they follow two different approaches (widely surveyed in Chakraborti et al., 2011, and Parlour and Seppi, 2008).

“**Trader-centric**” models are mainly based on frameworks aiming to derive fully-rational trading strategies, more or less explicitly connected to agents’ utility maximization (e.g.: the optimal choice between limit and market orders).

Minimal survey

Many models of financial order books exist. Roughly speaking, they follow two different approaches (widely surveyed in Chakraborti et al., 2011, and Parlour and Seppi, 2008).

“**Trader-centric**” models are mainly based on frameworks aiming to derive fully-rational trading strategies, more or less explicitly connected to agents’ utility maximization (e.g.: the optimal choice between limit and market orders).

“**Facts-centric**” models are addressed to study more the statistical features of the market as a dynamic process than the individual characterization of market participants.

Minimal survey

Many models of financial order books exist. Roughly speaking, they follow two different approaches (widely surveyed in Chakraborti et al., 2011, and Parlour and Seppi, 2008).

“**Trader-centric**” models are mainly based on frameworks aiming to derive fully-rational trading strategies, more or less explicitly connected to agents’ utility maximization (e.g.: the optimal choice between limit and market orders).

“**Facts-centric**” models are addressed to study more the statistical features of the market as a dynamic process than the individual characterization of market participants.

Many of them have inspired parts of the proposed model.

Minimal survey: trader-centric approach (I)

Chakravarty and Holden (1995), where a market maker sets “the official quote” and, after this, traders decide whether to submit limit or market orders by comparing personal evaluation of the asset and the official quote;

Minimal survey: trader-centric approach (I)

Chakravarty and Holden (1995), where a market maker sets “the official quote” and, after this, traders decide whether to submit limit or market orders by comparing personal evaluation of the asset and the official quote;

Foucault (1999), who analyzed the relevance of other traders’ actions on a standing order by adding sequential participation of traders to the model of Chakravarty and Holden (1995), as in a probabilistic multi-step trading game;

Minimal survey: trader-centric approach (I)

Chakravarty and Holden (1995), where a market maker sets “the official quote” and, after this, traders decide whether to submit limit or market orders by comparing personal evaluation of the asset and the official quote;

Foucault (1999), who analyzed the relevance of other traders’ actions on a standing order by adding sequential participation of traders to the model of Chakravarty and Holden (1995), as in a probabilistic multi-step trading game;

Parlour (1998), who considered non-expiring limit orders and demonstrated that the optimal choice between limit orders and market ones should be based on the matching probability for a limit order;

Minimal survey: trader-centric approach (I)

Chakravarty and Holden (1995), where a market maker sets “the official quote” and, after this, traders decide whether to submit limit or market orders by comparing personal evaluation of the asset and the official quote;

Foucault (1999), who analyzed the relevance of other traders’ actions on a standing order by adding sequential participation of traders to the model of Chakravarty and Holden (1995), as in a probabilistic multi-step trading game;

Parlour (1998), who considered non-expiring limit orders and demonstrated that the optimal choice between limit orders and market ones should be based on the matching probability for a limit order;

Hollifield *et al.* (2004), who underlined the key-role of cancellations of orders;

Minimal survey: trader-centric approach (I)

Chakravarty and Holden (1995), where a market maker sets “the official quote” and, after this, traders decide whether to submit limit or market orders by comparing personal evaluation of the asset and the official quote;

Foucault (1999), who analyzed the relevance of other traders’ actions on a standing order by adding sequential participation of traders to the model of Chakravarty and Holden (1995), as in a probabilistic multi-step trading game;

Parlour (1998), who considered non-expiring limit orders and demonstrated that the optimal choice between limit orders and market ones should be based on the matching probability for a limit order;

Hollifield *et al.* (2004), who underlined the key-role of cancellations of orders;

Hollifield *et al.* (2006), who showed that, in a perfectly liquid market, the market’s design may provide incentives to traders either to buy, or to sell, or to abstain from trading, according to their private values;

Minimal survey: trader-centric approach (II)

Kyle (1985), who distinguished between informed and uninformed traders (as in, *inter alia*, Copeland and Galai 1983, Glosten and Milgrom 1985, Glosten 1994), letting the former profit on possibly mispriced orders of the latter;

Minimal survey: trader-centric approach (II)

Kyle (1985), who distinguished between informed and uninformed traders (as in, *inter alia*, Copeland and Galai 1983, Glosten and Milgrom 1985, Glosten 1994), letting the former profit on possibly mispriced orders of the latter;

Bertsimas and Lo (1998), who dealt with the determination of the optimal trading quantity in discrete-time model with transaction costs;

Minimal survey: trader-centric approach (II)

Kyle (1985), who distinguished between informed and uninformed traders (as in, *inter alia*, Copeland and Galai 1983, Glosten and Milgrom 1985, Glosten 1994), letting the former profit on possibly mispriced orders of the latter;

Bertsimas and Lo (1998), who dealt with the determination of the optimal trading quantity in discrete-time model with transaction costs;

Almgren and Chris (2001), who presented an approach similar to the one of Bertsimas and Lo (1998), by maximizing traders' utility as function of trading profits and added a specific cost for uncertainty;

Minimal survey: trader-centric approach (II)

Kyle (1985), who distinguished between informed and uninformed traders (as in, *inter alia*, Copeland and Galai 1983, Glosten and Milgrom 1985, Glosten 1994), letting the former profit on possibly mispriced orders of the latter;

Bertsimas and Lo (1998), who dealt with the determination of the optimal trading quantity in discrete-time model with transaction costs;

Almgren and Chris (2001), who presented an approach similar to the one of Bertsimas and Lo (1998), by maximizing traders' utility as function of trading profits and added a specific cost for uncertainty;

Rosu (2009), who held that differences in prices chosen by traders to post their orders do not depend on asymmetric information but, instead, on different preferences for immediate trading;

Minimal survey: trader-centric approach (II)

Kyle (1985), who distinguished between informed and uninformed traders (as in, *inter alia*, Copeland and Galai 1983, Glosten and Milgrom 1985, Glosten 1994), letting the former profit on possibly mispriced orders of the latter;

Bertsimas and Lo (1998), who dealt with the determination of the optimal trading quantity in discrete-time model with transaction costs;

Almgren and Chris (2001), who presented an approach similar to the one of Bertsimas and Lo (1998), by maximizing traders' utility as function of trading profits and added a specific cost for uncertainty;

Rosu (2009), who held that differences in prices chosen by traders to post their orders do not depend on asymmetric information but, instead, on different preferences for immediate trading;

Rosu (2010), who showed how informed traders may choose between market and limit orders, concluding that the price impact of each trader's decisions is not sufficiently strong to be seen by others;

Minimal survey: facts-centric approach

Bak *et al.* (1997), who modeled a zero intelligence order book model, where buy and sell orders are two different types of particles on a one-dimensional space whose points represent prices and each particle moves along the price line by following a random walk. Such an approach has been followed, among others, by: Bouchaud *et al.* (2009), Farmer and Foley (2009), Farmer *et al.* (2005), and Smith *et al.* (2003);

Minimal survey: facts-centric approach

Bak *et al.* (1997), who modeled a zero intelligence order book model, where buy and sell orders are two different types of particles on a one-dimensional space whose points represent prices and each particle moves along the price line by following a random walk. Such an approach has been followed, among others, by: Bouchaud *et al.* (2009), Farmer and Foley (2009), Farmer *et al.* (2005), and Smith *et al.* (2003);

Maslov (2000), who presented a model similar to the one proposed by Bak *et al.* (1997), where the choice between market and limit orders was probabilistic, and the cancellation of orders was not considered;

Minimal survey: facts-centric approach

Bak *et al.* (1997), who modeled a zero intelligence order book model, where buy and sell orders are two different types of particles on a one-dimensional space whose points represent prices and each particle moves along the price line by following a random walk. Such an approach has been followed, among others, by: Bouchaud *et al.* (2009), Farmer and Foley (2009), Farmer *et al.* (2005), and Smith *et al.* (2003);

Maslov (2000), who presented a model similar to the one proposed by Bak *et al.* (1997), where the choice between market and limit orders was probabilistic, and the cancellation of orders was not considered;

Daniels *et al.* (2003), who proposed a model where submission and cancellation of orders (of both types) are independent Poisson processes;

Minimal survey: facts-centric approach

Bak *et al.* (1997), who modeled a zero intelligence order book model, where buy and sell orders are two different types of particles on a one-dimensional space whose points represent prices and each particle moves along the price line by following a random walk. Such an approach has been followed, among others, by: Bouchaud *et al.* (2009), Farmer and Foley (2009), Farmer *et al.* (2005), and Smith *et al.* (2003);

Maslov (2000), who presented a model similar to the one proposed by Bak *et al.* (1997), where the choice between market and limit orders was probabilistic, and the cancellation of orders was not considered;

Daniels *et al.* (2003), who proposed a model where submission and cancellation of orders (of both types) are independent Poisson processes;

Mike and Farmer (2008), who obtained a very good fit to empirical data of low volatility stocks by adopting a Student's t distribution to model prices of orders and considering empirical long memory of orders flow;

Minimal survey: facts-centric approach

Bak *et al.* (1997), who modeled a zero intelligence order book model, where buy and sell orders are two different types of particles on a one-dimensional space whose points represent prices and each particle moves along the price line by following a random walk. Such an approach has been followed, among others, by: Bouchaud *et al.* (2009), Farmer and Foley (2009), Farmer *et al.* (2005), and Smith *et al.* (2003);

Maslov (2000), who presented a model similar to the one proposed by Bak *et al.* (1997), where the choice between market and limit orders was probabilistic, and the cancellation of orders was not considered;

Daniels *et al.* (2003), who proposed a model where submission and cancellation of orders (of both types) are independent Poisson processes;

Mike and Farmer (2008), who obtained a very good fit to empirical data of low volatility stocks by adopting a Student's t distribution to model prices of orders and considering empirical long memory of orders flow;

Cont *et al.* (2010), who modeled the evolution of the limit order book by focusing on the conditional probability of certain events and assuming that relative prices of orders are drawn from a power-law distribution;

A median approach: ABM (I)

The **agent-based** approach gives the chance to simulate a global environment where interactions among heterogeneous traders give rise to emergent phenomena at the aggregate level. This may also provide analysts with tools for policy assessment.

Recent contributions of this stream of literature are, *inter alia*:

A median approach: ABM (I)

The **agent-based** approach gives the chance to simulate a global environment where interactions among heterogeneous traders give rise to emergent phenomena at the aggregate level. This may also provide analysts with tools for policy assessment.

Recent contributions of this stream of literature are, *inter alia*:

Raberto *et al.* (2001), who designed a demand/supply matching, based on trading choices of heterogeneous agents, for the price determination of a single asset;

A median approach: ABM (I)

The **agent-based** approach gives the chance to simulate a global environment where interactions among heterogeneous traders give rise to emergent phenomena at the aggregate level. This may also provide analysts with tools for policy assessment.

Recent contributions of this stream of literature are, *inter alia*:

Raberto *et al.* (2001), who designed a demand/supply matching, based on trading choices of heterogeneous agents, for the price determination of a single asset;

Chiarella and Iori (2002), who presented an order-driven market model with heterogeneous traders and market/limit orders, to show how different trading strategies affect the dynamics of price, bid–ask spreads, trading volume and volatility and how the market design affects liquidity;

A median approach: ABM (I)

The **agent-based** approach gives the chance to simulate a global environment where interactions among heterogeneous traders give rise to emergent phenomena at the aggregate level. This may also provide analysts with tools for policy assessment.

Recent contributions of this stream of literature are, *inter alia*:

Raberto et al. (2001), who designed a demand/supply matching, based on trading choices of heterogeneous agents, for the price determination of a single asset;

Chiarella and Iori (2002), who presented an order-driven market model with heterogeneous traders and market/limit orders, to show how different trading strategies affect the dynamics of price, bid–ask spreads, trading volume and volatility and how the market design affects liquidity;

Consiglio et al. (2005) who modeled heterogeneous traders in a multiple assets market where compliance to empirical features of financial data is shown to be related to the interplay of investors' financial constraints and to the frictions generated by the trading mechanism itself;

A median approach: ABM (II)

Gil-Bazo *et al.* (2009), who showed that private information (when asymmetrically distributed) among investors may cause bubbles and crashes;

A median approach: ABM (II)

Gil-Bazo *et al.* (2009), who showed that private information (when asymmetrically distributed) among investors may cause bubbles and crashes;

Chiarella *et al.* (2009), who extended the model of Chiarella and Iori (2002) by embedding a utility maximization-driven order submissions for traders, with variable quantity orders, and showed that the chartists component is responsible for heavy tails and clustering of prices;

A median approach: ABM (II)

Gil-Bazo *et al.* (2009), who showed that private information (when asymmetrically distributed) among investors may cause bubbles and crashes;

Chiarella *et al.* (2009), who extended the model of Chiarella and Iori (2002) by embedding a utility maximization-driven order submissions for traders, with variable quantity orders, and showed that the chartists component is responsible for heavy tails and clustering of prices;

Anufriev and Panchenko (2009), who proposed a model where heterogeneous traders à la Brock and Hommes (1998) (i.e. all traders share the same time-invariant expectation for the conditional variance of the sum of price and dividends) are studied under different market architectures, to show how the trading protocol affects properties of the simulated price series;

A median approach: ABM (II)

Gil-Bazo *et al.* (2009), who showed that private information (when asymmetrically distributed) among investors may cause bubbles and crashes;

Chiarella *et al.* (2009), who extended the model of Chiarella and Iori (2002) by embedding a utility maximization-driven order submissions for traders, with variable quantity orders, and showed that the chartists component is responsible for heavy tails and clustering of prices;

Anufriev and Panchenko (2009), who proposed a model where heterogeneous traders à la Brock and Hommes (1998) (i.e. all traders share the same time-invariant expectation for the conditional variance of the sum of price and dividends) are studied under different market architectures, to show how the trading protocol affects properties of the simulated price series;

Tedeschi *et al.* (2009) and (2012), who showed that imitative behaviors let some “market guru” have a role in explaining the distinctive features of empirical data.

II - Model description

Consider a simple single-asset artificial stock market, populated by heterogeneous agents who freely interact by means of their transactions, in a fully connected network.

II - Model description

Consider a simple single-asset artificial stock market, populated by heterogeneous agents who freely interact by means of their transactions, in a fully connected network.

The execution of orders relies on an order book where traders posts both market and limit orders for variable quantities of asset purchases/sales, according to their heterogeneous expectations.

II - Model description

Consider a simple single-asset artificial stock market, populated by heterogeneous agents who freely interact by means of their transactions, in a fully connected network.

The execution of orders relies on an order book where traders posts both market and limit orders for variable quantities of asset purchases/sales, according to their heterogeneous expectations.

The model consists of the repeated iteration of cycles.

II - Model description

Consider a simple single-asset artificial stock market, populated by heterogeneous agents who freely interact by means of their transactions, in a fully connected network.

The execution of orders relies on an order book where traders posts both market and limit orders for variable quantities of asset purchases/sales, according to their heterogeneous expectations.

The model consists of the repeated iteration of cycles.

The series of simulative steps included in each cycle of the model are:

- 1) **expectations setting,**

II - Model description

Consider a simple single-asset artificial stock market, populated by heterogeneous agents who freely interact by means of their transactions, in a fully connected network.

The execution of orders relies on an order book where traders posts both market and limit orders for variable quantities of asset purchases/sales, according to their heterogeneous expectations.

The model consists of the repeated iteration of cycles.

The series of simulative steps included in each cycle of the model are:

- 1) **expectations setting,**
- 2) **strategy setting,**

II - Model description

Consider a simple single-asset artificial stock market, populated by heterogeneous agents who freely interact by means of their transactions, in a fully connected network.

The execution of orders relies on an order book where traders posts both market and limit orders for variable quantities of asset purchases/sales, according to their heterogeneous expectations.

The model consists of the repeated iteration of cycles.

The series of simulative steps included in each cycle of the model are:

- 1) **expectations setting**,
- 2) **strategy setting**,
- 3) **orders setting** (price and quantity),

II - Model description

Consider a simple single-asset artificial stock market, populated by heterogeneous agents who freely interact by means of their transactions, in a fully connected network.

The execution of orders relies on an order book where traders posts both market and limit orders for variable quantities of asset purchases/sales, according to their heterogeneous expectations.

The model consists of the repeated iteration of cycles.

The series of simulative steps included in each cycle of the model are:

- 1) **expectations setting**,
- 2) **strategy setting**,
- 3) **orders setting** (price and quantity),
- 4) **order book formation**,

II - Model description

Consider a simple single-asset artificial stock market, populated by heterogeneous agents who freely interact by means of their transactions, in a fully connected network.

The execution of orders relies on an order book where traders posts both market and limit orders for variable quantities of asset purchases/sales, according to their heterogeneous expectations.

The model consists of the repeated iteration of cycles.

The series of simulative steps included in each cycle of the model are:

- 1) expectations setting,**
- 2) strategy setting,**
- 3) orders setting** (price and quantity),
- 4) order book formation,**
- 5) transactions.**

II - Model description

1) Expectations

The heterogeneity of traders is modeled in two ways: by considering two categories of investors and by allowing further behavioral differentiation within each one.

II - Model description

1) Expectations

The heterogeneity of traders is modeled in two ways: by considering two categories of investors and by allowing further behavioral differentiation within each one.

Part of investors build their opinions by gathering information about the economic activity of the issuer, by studying factors of its competitive advantage and data about its fundamental economic value. Thus, they are named fundamentalists.

II - Model description

1) Expectations

The heterogeneity of traders is modeled in two ways: by considering two categories of investors and by allowing further behavioral differentiation within each one.

Part of investors build their opinions by gathering information about the economic activity of the issuer, by studying factors of its competitive advantage and data about its fundamental economic value. Thus, they are named fundamentalists.

Other investors, form their opinions just by looking at the past performance of the asset price on the market. They consider the past trend as the reference value needed for future inference. For their informative use of past charts, they are named chartists.

II - Model description

1) Expectations

The heterogeneity of traders is modeled in two ways: by considering two categories of investors and by allowing further behavioral differentiation within each one.

Part of investors build their opinions by gathering information about the economic activity of the issuer, by studying factors of its competitive advantage and data about its fundamental economic value. Thus, they are named fundamentalists.

Other investors, form their opinions just by looking at the past performance of the asset price on the market. They consider the past trend as the reference value needed for future inference. For their informative use of past charts, they are named chartists.

Such a simplified classification may appear too naive (Bouchaud *et al.*, 2009). As other classifications proposed (e.g.: informed/uninformed, liquidity hunters/liquidity providers, rational investors/speculators, etc), it allows to consider two opposite market approaches.

II - Model description

Fundamentalists

Fundamentalists are informed traders: they know the true value of the asset. They form their expectations by referring to an exogenous variable, whose dynamics is observable:

II - Model description

Fundamentalists

Fundamentalists are informed traders: they know the true value of the asset. They form their expectations by referring to an exogenous variable, whose dynamics is observable:

$$FV_{\tau_f} = FV_{\tau_f-1} \pm \Theta_t \quad (1)$$

where Θ_t is a bounded random variable, drawn with uniform distribution within the interval $[-\sigma_\Theta, \sigma_\Theta]$ and Θ_0 is set at the beginning of simulations.

II - Model description

Fundamentalists

Fundamentalists are informed traders: they know the true value of the asset. They form their expectations by referring to an exogenous variable, whose dynamics is observable:

$$FV_{\tau_f} = FV_{\tau_f-1} \pm \Theta_t \quad (1)$$

where Θ_t is a bounded random variable, drawn with uniform distribution within the interval $[-\sigma_\Theta, \sigma_\Theta]$ and Θ_0 is set at the beginning of simulations.

However, in order to consider heterogeneity of opinions, the individual information is assumed to be slightly imperfect. Each fundamentalist's expectation is evaluated as:

II - Model description

Fundamentalists

Fundamentalists are informed traders: they know the true value of the asset. They form their expectations by referring to an exogenous variable, whose dynamics is observable:

$$FV_{\tau_f} = FV_{\tau_f-1} \pm \Theta_t \quad (1)$$

where Θ_t is a bounded random variable, drawn with uniform distribution within the interval $[-\sigma_\Theta, \sigma_\Theta]$ and Θ_0 is set at the beginning of simulations.

However, in order to consider heterogeneity of opinions, the individual information is assumed to be slightly imperfect. Each fundamentalist's expectation is evaluated as:

$$_F p_t^{exp} = FV_{\tau_f} \pm \Phi_t \quad (2)$$

where Φ_t is a bounded random variable, drawn with uniform distribution within the interval $[-\sigma_F, \sigma_F]$.

II - Model description

Chartists

Chartists are trend followers. Therefore, the individual price forecast of a chartist is built upon the inspection of past prices. Similarly to *Alfi et al.*(2008), each chartist chooses a time window of a certain length and looks back to that portion of the past market prices series in order to define her personal reference value:

$$RV_t = \sum_{j=(t-\tau)}^t p_j / \tau \quad (3)$$

which is the average of last τ prices included in the chosen observational time window (ranging between $t - \tau$ and t). Then, the individual expected price is:

II - Model description

Chartists

Chartists are trend followers. Therefore, the individual price forecast of a chartist is built upon the inspection of past prices. Similarly to Alfi *et al.*(2008), each chartist chooses a time window of a certain length and looks back to that portion of the past market prices series in order to define her personal reference value:

$$RV_t = \sum_{j=(t-\tau)}^t p_j / \tau \quad (3)$$

which is the average of last τ prices included in the chosen observational time window (ranging between $t - \tau$ and t). Then, the individual expected price is:

$${}_C p_t^{exp} = p_t + \frac{p_t - RV_t}{\tau - 1} \pm \Lambda_t \quad (4)$$

where Λ_t is a random variable with uniform distribution drawn from the interval $[-\sigma_C, \sigma_C]$ so that two traders with same time-window length may still have different expectations.

II - Model description

2) Strategy Setting

No matter which group an investor belongs to, the trading strategy is quite simple:

- if trader i expects a future price greater than the current one, she will decide to post a bid order and she will be a bidder, B_i ;

II - Model description

2) Strategy Setting

No matter which group an investor belongs to, the trading strategy is quite simple:

- if trader i expects a future price greater than the current one, she will decide to post a bid order and she will be a bidder, B_i ;
- if trader i expects a future price smaller than the current one, she will decide to post an ask order and she will be an asker, A_i ;

II - Model description

2) Strategy Setting

No matter which group an investor belongs to, the trading strategy is quite simple:

- if trader i expects a future price greater than the current one, she will decide to post a bid order and she will be a bidder, B_i ;
- if trader i expects a future price smaller than the current one, she will decide to post an ask order and she will be an asker, A_i ;
- in case of stationary expectations, the trading strategy will be set to “hold”, i.e. the trader will neither buy, nor sell.

II - Model description

2) Strategy Setting

No matter which group an investor belongs to, the trading strategy is quite simple:

- if trader i expects a future price greater than the current one, she will decide to post a bid order and she will be a bidder, B_i ;
- if trader i expects a future price smaller than the current one, she will decide to post an ask order and she will be an asker, A_i ;
- in case of stationary expectations, the trading strategy will be set to “hold”, i.e. the trader will neither buy, nor sell.

At the beginning of simulations, all traders are endowed with a given amount of cash money, m_t , and a given quantity of asset, a_t .

II - Model description

3) Orders Setting: Price

Each trader sets the price for her order, according to the decided strategy, as follows.

Similarly to the approach of Lux and Marchesi (1999) and (2000), traders perceive the market pressure: adjustments are allowed in the price settings procedure, because of demand/supply mismatching.

II - Model description

3) Orders Setting: Price

Each trader sets the price for her order, according to the decided strategy, as follows.

Similarly to the approach of Lux and Marchesi (1999) and (2000), traders perceive the market pressure: adjustments are allowed in the price settings procedure, because of demand/supply mismatching.

I- For bid orders:

$$^i_B p_t = ^i_B w_t + \mu [z_1 \Delta n + z_2 \Delta p] \quad (5)$$

where: $\mu, z_1, z_2 \in [0, 1]$ are individual variables computed at each iteration for each agent and measure the influential weight of the market environment; $^i_B w_t$ is the individual willingness to pay of the bidder, measured as the trader's price expectation, net of her personal estimate of askers' willingness to accept, i.e. $(^i p_t^{exp} - ^i_A w_t^{exp})$; Δn is a function of n_B and n_A , which are, respectively, the number of bidders and the number of askers; and, finally, Δp is the price pressure of either excess demand or excess supply.

II - Model description

3) Orders Setting: Price

Each trader sets the price for her order, according to the decided strategy, as follows.

Similarly to the approach of Lux and Marchesi (1999) and (2000), traders perceive the market pressure: adjustments are allowed in the price settings procedure, because of demand/supply mismatching.

I- For bid orders:

$${}_B^i p_t = {}_B^i w_t + \mu[z_1 \Delta n + z_2 \Delta p] \quad (5)$$

where: $\mu, z_1, z_2 \in [0, 1]$ are individual variables computed at each iteration for each agent and measure the influential weight of the market environment; ${}_B^i w_t$ is the individual willingness to pay of the bidder, measured as the trader's price expectation, net of her personal estimate of askers' willingness to accept, i.e. $({}_B^i p_t^{exp} - {}_A^i w_t^{exp})$; Δn is a function of n_B and n_A , which are, respectively, the number of bidders and the number of askers; and, finally, Δp is the price pressure of either excess demand or excess supply.

II- For ask orders:

$${}_A^i p_t = {}_A^i w_t + \mu[z_1 \Delta n + z_2 \Delta p] \quad (6)$$

where ${}_A^i w_t$ is the individual willingness to accept of the bidder, measured as the trader's price expectation, added of her personal estimate of bidders' willingness to pay, i.e. $({}_A^i p_t^{exp} + {}_B^i w_t^{exp})$ and all other variables are defined as before.

II - Model description

3) Orders Setting: Quantity

The quantity to be traded in each order, is decided in two alternative ways:

a- Randomly

Each investor trades a quantity drawn randomly from a feasible interval. Respectively for bid and ask orders, quantities will be set as:

$${}^i q_t^B = \omega \quad \text{and} \quad {}^i q_t^A = \eta \quad (7)$$

where ω and η are uniformly distributed random variables with values drawn, respectively, from the intervals $[1, m_t/p_t]$ and $[1, a_t]$.

II - Model description

3) Orders Setting: Quantity

The quantity to be traded in each order, is decided in two alternative ways:

a- Randomly

Each investor trades a quantity drawn randomly from a feasible interval. Respectively for bid and ask orders, quantities will be set as:

$${}^i q_t^B = \omega \quad \text{and} \quad {}^i q_t^A = \eta \quad (7)$$

where ω and η are uniformly distributed random variables with values drawn, respectively, from the intervals $[1, m_t/p_t]$ and $[1, a_t]$.

b- Rationally

Each investor decides the order quantity as a function of her expectations, according to her optimism/pessimism. Respectively for bid and ask orders, quantities will be set as:

$${}^i q_t^B = \beta(m_t/p_t) \quad \text{and} \quad {}^i q_t^A = \alpha a_t \quad (8)$$

where, similarly to De Long *et al.* (1990), $\beta = 1 - (p_t/p_t^{exp})$ and $\alpha = 1 - (p_t^{exp}/p_t)$ measure, respectively, optimism and pessimism.

II - Model description

4) Order Book Setting

Orders are registered in two sections of the order book, ranked with respect to price:

- bid orders decreasingly,
in such a way that the highest bid price, i.e. the *best bid* (p_t^{best}), is the first of the list, and the trader who posted it, i.e. the *best bidder*, with the highest willingness to pay, has the priority;

II - Model description

4) Order Book Setting

Orders are registered in two sections of the order book, ranked with respect to price:

- bid orders decreasingly,
in such a way that the highest bid price, i.e. the *best bid* ($_B p_t^{best}$), is the first of the list, and the trader who posted it, i.e. the *best bidder*, with the highest willingness to pay, has the priority;
- ask orders increasingly,
in such a way that the lowest ask price, i.e. *best ask* ($_A p_t^{best}$), is the first of the list, and the trader who posted it, i.e. *best asker*, with the lowest willingness to accept, has the priority.

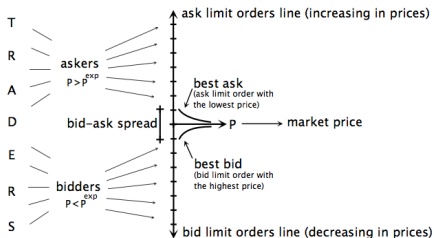
II - Model description

4) Order Book Setting

Orders are registered in two sections of the order book, ranked with respect to price:

- bid orders decreasingly,
in such a way that the highest bid price, i.e. the *best bid* ($_B p_t^{best}$), is the first of the list, and the trader who posted it, i.e. the *best bidder*, with the highest willingness to pay, has the priority;
- ask orders increasingly,
in such a way that the lowest ask price, i.e. *best ask* ($_A p_t^{best}$), is the first of the list, and the trader who posted it, i.e. *best asker*, with the lowest willingness to accept, has the priority.

The “regularity” of orders is also checked: bidders must have sufficient capital to buy the ordered quantity, and askers must have enough stocks to sell the ordered quantity. Irregular orders are deleted. Regular orders have a finite time validity (governed by a parameter): after that period, they are cancelled. Agents cannot have simultaneous active orders.



II - Model description

4) Order Book Setting: Market and Limit Orders

Following the same approach used in Chiarella *et al.* (2009), the taxonomy of orders is restricted to just market and limit orders. The distinction between such types of orders is simple: it derives from the comparison between their prices ($_A p_t$ and $_B p_t$) and the current counter-side prices.

Thus, a bid order with price $_B p_t$ will be:

- a limit order if $_B p_t < _A p_t^{best}$
- a market order if $_B p_t \geq _A p_t^{best}$

II - Model description

4) Order Book Setting: Market and Limit Orders

Following the same approach used in Chiarella *et al.* (2009), the taxonomy of orders is restricted to just market and limit orders. The distinction between such types of orders is simple: it derives from the comparison between their prices ($_Ap_t$ and $_Bp_t$) and the current counter-side prices.

Thus, a bid order with price $_Bp_t$ will be:

- a limit order if $_Bp_t < _Ap_t^{best}$
- a market order if $_Bp_t \geq _Ap_t^{best}$

Symmetrically, an ask order with price $_Ap_t$ will be:

- a limit order if $_Ap_t > _Bp_t^{best}$
- a market order if $_Ap_t \leq _Bp_t^{best}$

II - Model description

4) Order Book Setting: Market and Limit Orders

Following the same approach used in Chiarella *et al.* (2009), the taxonomy of orders is restricted to just market and limit orders. The distinction between such types of orders is simple: it derives from the comparison between their prices ($_A p_t$ and $_B p_t$) and the current counter-side prices.

Thus, a bid order with price $_B p_t$ will be:

- a limit order if $_B p_t < _A p_t^{best}$
- a market order if $_B p_t \geq _A p_t^{best}$

Symmetrically, an ask order with price $_A p_t$ will be:

- a limit order if $_A p_t > _B p_t^{best}$
- a market order if $_A p_t \leq _B p_t^{best}$

It is worth noticing that such a taxonomy of orders is partially inaccurate: many other types of orders exist and market and limit orders work in a more complicated way than the one depicted here. For simplicity, the same approach usually adopted in literature is used here. Next releases of the model, will account for a more detailed reproduction of order types (market, limit, stop, stop loss, etc.) and for other aspects of the order book mechanism, such as, among others, the minimum lot, the depth analysis and the bid-ask spread due to commissions/transaction costs.

II - Model description

Market Orders: Dynamics

When a market order is posted, the transaction is immediately executed at the best price of the counter side of the book. The market maker manages the quantity matching in all possible cases and registers each price used to regulate transactions:

II - Model description

Market Orders: Dynamics

When a market order is posted, the transaction is immediately executed at the best price of the counter side of the book. The market maker manages the quantity matching in all possible cases and registers each price used to regulate transactions:

- a) if $q_t^B = q_t^A$, the regulation is done by assigning to the bidder (asker) the corresponding increase (decrease) in the owned asset quantity, and the decrease (increase) in the quantity of money;

II - Model description

Market Orders: Dynamics

When a market order is posted, the transaction is immediately executed at the best price of the counter side of the book. The market maker manages the quantity matching in all possible cases and registers each price used to regulate transactions:

- a) if $q_t^B = q_t^A$, the regulation is done by assigning to the bidder (asker) the corresponding increase (decrease) in the owned asset quantity, and the decrease (increase) in the quantity of money;
- b) if $q_t^B \neq q_t^A$, the traded quantity of the transaction will be the “shortest side of the market” (i.e. the smallest quantity between the best ask and best bid orders). Money and stocks owned by traders are correspondingly updated.

II - Model description

Market Orders: Dynamics

When a market order is posted, the transaction is immediately executed at the best price of the counter side of the book. The market maker manages the quantity matching in all possible cases and registers each price used to regulate transactions:

- a) if $q_t^B = q_t^A$, the regulation is done by assigning to the bidder (asker) the corresponding increase (decrease) in the owned asset quantity, and the decrease (increase) in the quantity of money;
- b) if $q_t^B \neq q_t^A$, the traded quantity of the transaction will be the “shortest side of the market” (i.e. the smallest quantity between the best ask and best bid orders). Money and stocks owned by traders are correspondingly updated.

The trader who has remained partly unsatisfied, with the unmatched residual quantity, remains queueing in the order book, waiting for a new counterpart. Instead, the trader who has entirely negotiated her order is erased, and her side of the order book is updated.

II - Model description

Market Orders: Dynamics

When a market order is posted, the transaction is immediately executed at the best price of the counter side of the book. The market maker manages the quantity matching in all possible cases and registers each price used to regulate transactions:

- a) if $q_t^B = q_t^A$, the regulation is done by assigning to the bidder (asker) the corresponding increase (decrease) in the owned asset quantity, and the decrease (increase) in the quantity of money;
- b) if $q_t^B \neq q_t^A$, the traded quantity of the transaction will be the “shortest side of the market” (i.e. the smallest quantity between the best ask and best bid orders). Money and stocks owned by traders are correspondingly updated.

The trader who has remained partly unsatisfied, with the unmatched residual quantity, remains queueing in the order book, waiting for a new counterpart. Instead, the trader who has entirely negotiated her order is erased, and her side of the order book is updated.

The successive trader becomes the new “best” trader (with new price and quantity).

II - Model description

Market Orders: Dynamics

When a market order is posted, the transaction is immediately executed at the best price of the counter side of the book. The market maker manages the quantity matching in all possible cases and registers each price used to regulate transactions:

- a) if $q_t^B = q_t^A$, the regulation is done by assigning to the bidder (asker) the corresponding increase (decrease) in the owned asset quantity, and the decrease (increase) in the quantity of money;
- b) if $q_t^B \neq q_t^A$, the traded quantity of the transaction will be the “shortest side of the market” (i.e. the smallest quantity between the best ask and best bid orders). Money and stocks owned by traders are correspondingly updated.

The trader who has remained partly unsatisfied, with the unmatched residual quantity, remains queueing in the order book, waiting for a new counterpart. Instead, the trader who has entirely negotiated her order is erased, and her side of the order book is updated.

The successive trader becomes the new “best” trader (with new price and quantity). The previously unsatisfied trader continues the interrupted transaction with such a new counterpart, at the new best price.

II - Model description

Market Orders: Dynamics

When a market order is posted, the transaction is immediately executed at the best price of the counter side of the book. The market maker manages the quantity matching in all possible cases and registers each price used to regulate transactions:

- a) if $q_t^B = q_t^A$, the regulation is done by assigning to the bidder (asker) the corresponding increase (decrease) in the owned asset quantity, and the decrease (increase) in the quantity of money;
- b) if $q_t^B \neq q_t^A$, the traded quantity of the transaction will be the “shortest side of the market” (i.e. the smallest quantity between the best ask and best bid orders). Money and stocks owned by traders are correspondingly updated.

The trader who has remained partly unsatisfied, with the unmatched residual quantity, remains queueing in the order book, waiting for a new counterpart. Instead, the trader who has entirely negotiated her order is erased, and her side of the order book is updated.

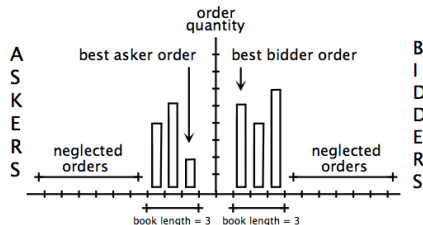
The successive trader becomes the new “best” trader (with new price and quantity). The previously unsatisfied trader continues the interrupted transaction with such a new counterpart, at the new best price.

The update process is possible only for one side of the book and can be repeated until either the unmatched quantity has been entirely negotiated, or the allowed order book length (regulated by a parameter) is reached.

II - Model description

Market Orders: The Order Book Length

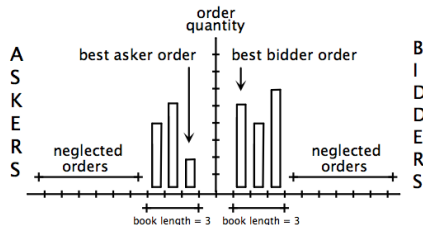
In the figure, the role of the order book length parameter is shown: only the first 3 orders per side will be considered. The best asker is offering 2 shares and the best bidder is demanding 5 shares. The first transaction will be executed for 2 units at the best ask. Then, the best asker is erased. The update process finds the second asker.



II - Model description

Market Orders: The Order Book Length

In the figure, the role of the order book length parameter is shown: only the first 3 orders per side will be considered. The best asker is offering 2 shares and the best bidder is demanding 5 shares. The first transaction will be executed for 2 units at the best ask. Then, the best asker is erased. The update process finds the second asker.

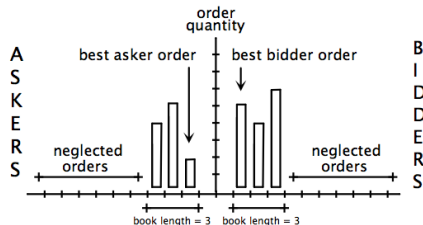


The matching for the remaining unsatisfied demanded quantity will be executed with the next asker, who becomes the new best asker, with her order of 5 shares and her ask price, which is the new best ask now (higher than the previous one).

II - Model description

Market Orders: The Order Book Length

In the figure, the role of the order book length parameter is shown: only the first 3 orders per side will be considered. The best asker is offering 2 shares and the best bidder is demanding 5 shares. The first transaction will be executed for 2 units at the best ask. Then, the best asker is erased. The update process finds the second asker.



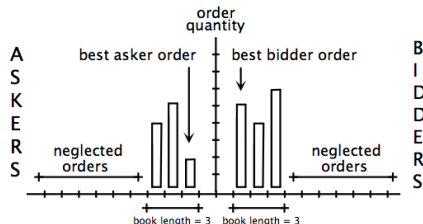
The matching for the remaining unsatisfied demanded quantity will be executed with the next asker, who becomes the new best asker, with her order of 5 shares and her ask price, which is the new best ask now (higher than the previous one).

The second transaction is executed and the best bidder is completely satisfied. The update mechanism does not pass to the next bidder in order to satisfy the latter asker (whose order has remained partially unmatched): further counterparts are scheduled only to substitute the first shortest side of the market.

II - Model description

Market Orders: The Order Book Length

In the figure, the role of the order book length parameter is shown: only the first 3 orders per side will be considered. The best asker is offering 2 shares and the best bidder is demanding 5 shares. The first transaction will be executed for 2 units at the best ask. Then, the best asker is erased. The update process finds the second asker.



The matching for the remaining unsatisfied demanded quantity will be executed with the next asker, who becomes the new best asker, with her order of 5 shares and her ask price, which is the new best ask now (higher than the previous one).

The second transaction is executed and the best bidder is completely satisfied. The update mechanism does not pass to the next bidder in order to satisfy the latter asker (whose order has remained partially unmatched): further counterparts are scheduled only to substitute the first shortest side of the market.

Notice, finally, that no more than 3 counterparts would have been matched in any case.

II - Model description

Limit Orders: Dynamics

When a limit order enters the book, it is ranked accordingly to its price as above explained, and remains active according to the validity settings.

II - Model description

Limit Orders: Dynamics

When a limit order enters the book, it is ranked accordingly to its price as above explained, and remains active according to the validity settings.

A distinctive feature of this model is that, during each simulative run, no fictitious data is inserted in the price series (and consequently in the returns series). Other order book models, e.g. Chiarella and Iori (2002) and Chiarella *et al.* (2009) add a mid price, defined as the average between the best bid and the best ask, when transactions do not occur. In the model here presented, when best quotes do not match, if no market orders are executed, agents continue to update their forecast, generate their prices, and post their orders until some transaction *truly* happens.

II - Model description

Limit Orders: Dynamics

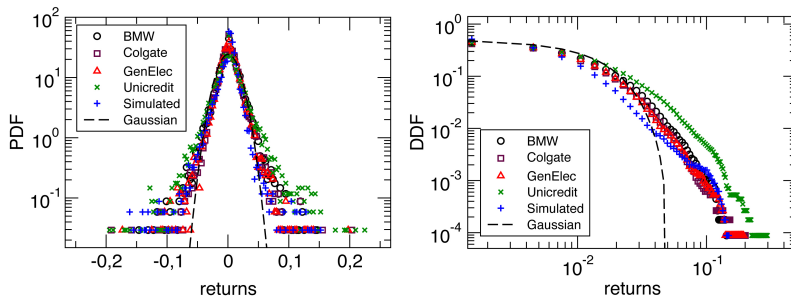
When a limit order enters the book, it is ranked accordingly to its price as above explained, and remains active according to the validity settings.

A distinctive feature of this model is that, during each simulative run, no fictitious data is inserted in the price series (and consequently in the returns series). Other order book models, e.g. Chiarella and Iori (2002) and Chiarella *et al.* (2009) add a mid price, defined as the average between the best bid and the best ask, when transactions do not occur. In the model here presented, when best quotes do not match, if no market orders are executed, agents continue to update their forecast, generate their prices, and post their orders until some transaction *truly* happens.

Moreover, limit orders standing in the book, indirectly express a signal about the “market sentiment”. This induces the dynamic adjustment of the price settings rules, as above explained, by means of Δn and Δp components.

Stylized facts compliance

Fat Tails of Returns PDF

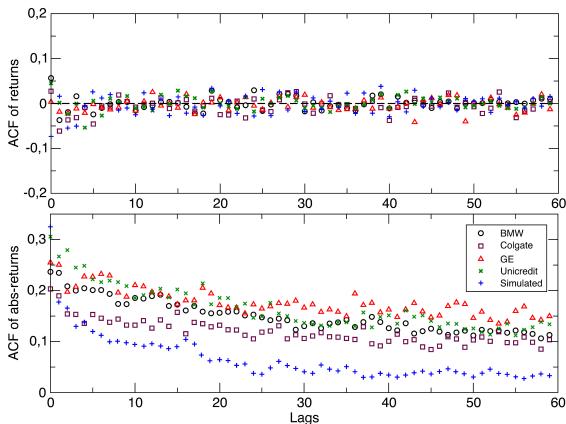


In the left panel of Fig. 1, density functions of empirical returns of five financial time series (daily closings ranging from 2/1/1973 to 30/6/2016) are reported in comparison with simulated returns.

The right panel highlights the same result, by showing the decumulative distribution functions of returns, defined as the probability to find a return greater than a certain value, for all series plotted in the left one.

Stylized facts compliance

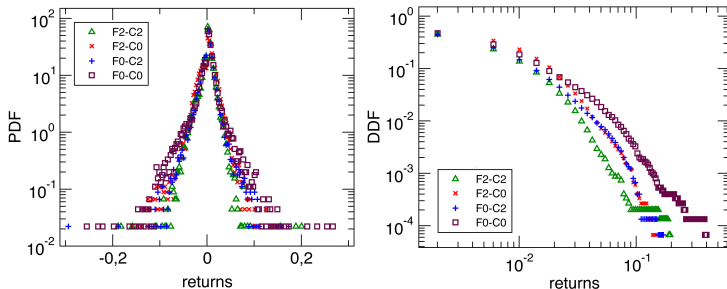
ACF of Returns Distribution and Volatility Clustering



In Fig. 2, the autocorrelation functions of returns of five financial series and simulated returns are reported. In the top panel of Fig. 2, the ACF of plotted returns shows the absence of autocorrelation. In the bottom panel, the ACF of absolute values of returns shows a positive and decaying autocorrelation (*volatility clustering*, Mandelbrot 1963).

Policy Testing

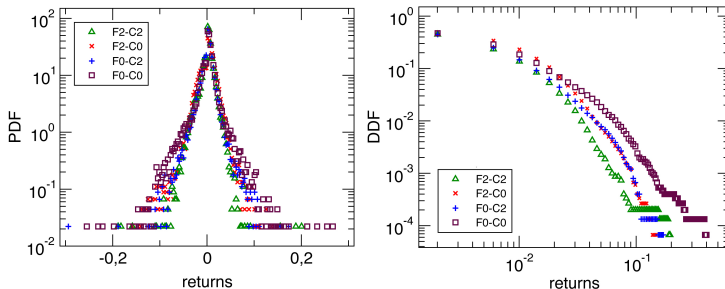
Heterogeneity of Traders



Part of literature (e.g. Chiarella-Iori, 2002, Chiarella *et al.*, 2009) suggests that fat tails are generated by the presence of chartism. Fig. 3 shows that, in the present model, fat tails are not generated by the presence/absence of one of the population components, but by the lack of heterogeneity among investors.

Policy Testing

Heterogeneity of Traders

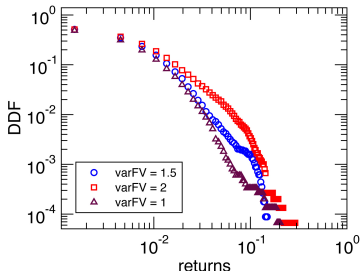
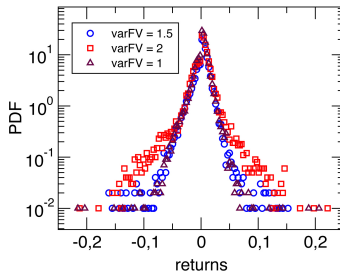


Part of literature (e.g. Chiarella-Iori, 2002, Chiarella *et al.*, 2009) suggests that fat tails are generated by the presence of chartism. Fig. 3 shows that, in the present model, fat tails are not generated by the presence/absence of one of the population components, but by the lack of heterogeneity among investors.

In other contributions, as for example in Consiglio *et al.* (2005), it is suggested that the homogeneity of the population, may be the cause of more extreme price variations. Indeed, the model confirms such a vision: population may be divided in just two groups, but the heterogeneity of traders within each one, dampens returns fluctuations.

Policy Testing

Variability of Fundamental Variable

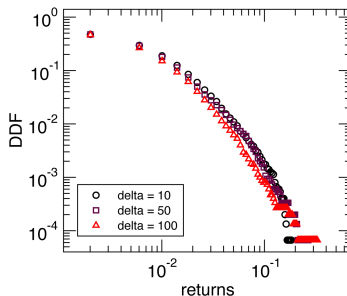
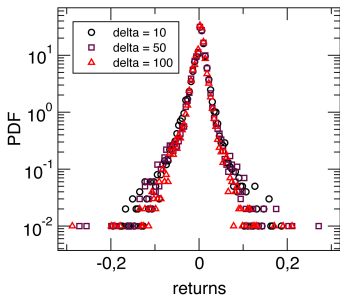


Kirchler and Huber (2007), highlighted that the variability of the fundamental value is the cause of the emergence of fat tails.

Such a conclusion is consistent with results obtained by the model and shown in Fig. 4. Nonetheless, it is not the unique cause. It should be considered in combination with the temporal horizon observed by chartists.

Policy Testing

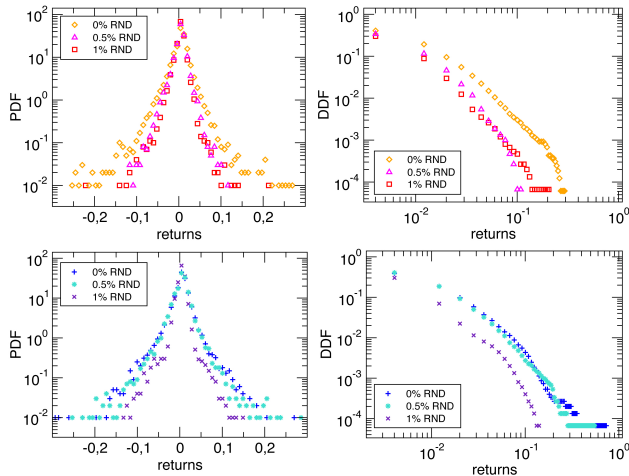
Variability of Chartists' Information



Each chartist sets the length of her observational time window as the sum of two components: one is fixed for everyone, the second is an individual choice. Results plotted in both panels of the Fig. 5, have been obtained by fixing the chartist-window value to $200 + \kappa$, where κ is a bounded random variable, different for each trader, uniformly drawn from the interval $[0, \delta]$.

Policy Testing

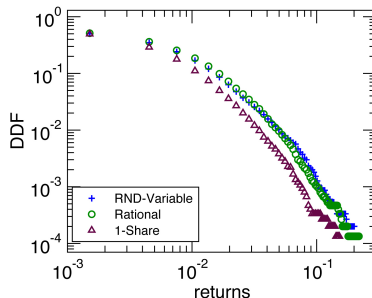
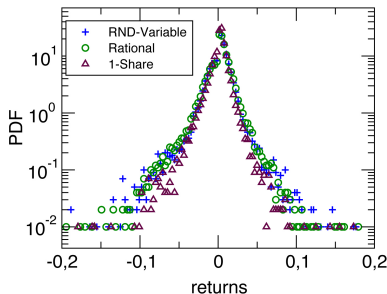
Random Traders



This model confirms that the presence of random investors plays a role in reducing fat tails of returns (top panels 2000 traders, bottom panels 4000).

Policy Testing

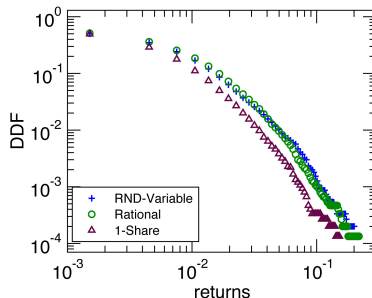
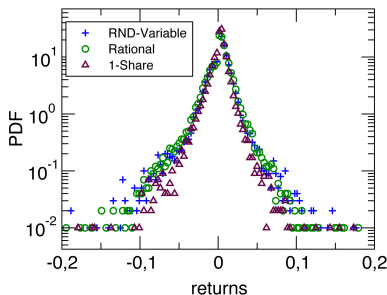
Quantity Setting: Randomness Still Surprises!!



As said above, the presence of random traders may surprisingly help market stabilization. Each random trader decides whether to buy or to hold or to sell just by tossing a coin, and sets her prices at the current market price value. In other words, random traders post market orders at a random pace.

Policy Testing

Quantity Setting: Randomness Still Surprises!!

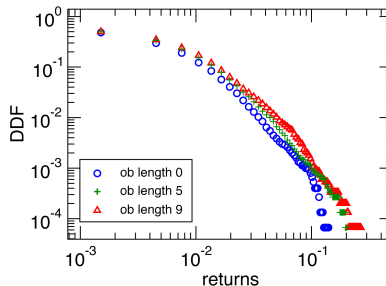
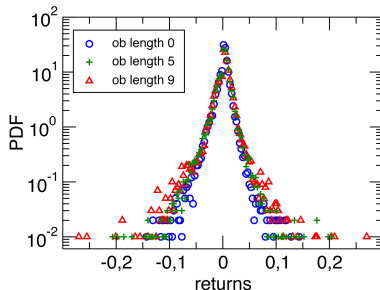


As said above, the presence of random traders may surprisingly help market stabilization. Each random trader decides whether to buy or to hold or to sell just by tossing a coin, and sets her prices at the current market price value. In other words, random traders post market orders at a random pace.

Further, if we look at how non-random investors decide the quantity of shares to buy/sell, the random quantity selection performs (in terms of market stability) very similarly to the rational one (i.e. the order quantity is proportional to the optimism/pessimism of the trader). Fig. 8 shows this evidence and also the typical 1-share case.

Policy Testing

Order Book length



As shown in the above Fig. 9, the order book length parameter plays a crucial role in explaining returns variability. This appears quite natural, since it regulates the number of counterparts that any market order can match progressively, in order to negotiate its desired quantity. In other words, it indirectly shows the price impact of orders. In true markets, true investors have many incentives to minimize the price impact of orders.

A policy on this might obtain results even stronger than showed ones.

Policy Testing

Orders Validity

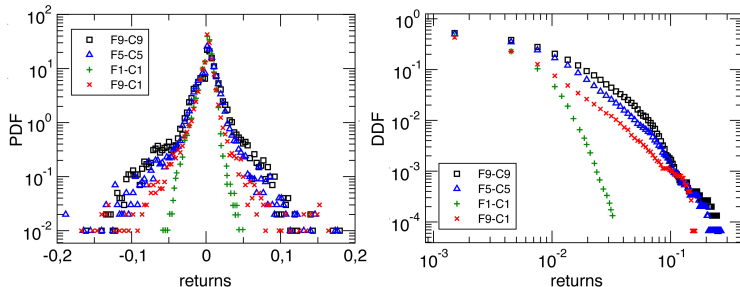


Fig. 10, shows that the validity of orders is the other key variable that can be tuned to dampen fluctuations. Longer lived limit orders remain standing in the book and create a mass of possible transactions if the market price triggers them.

Policy interventions addressed to restrict the validity of orders should consider the individual strategies adopted by traders in order to manage the price/market impact of their investments. These strategies count on different order types and accurate operational timing. As previously anticipated, next releases of the model will care of some of these more advanced issues.

Conclusive Remarks

Presented results highlighted several aspects that can be referred to two relevant addresses of policy interventions:

- **information diffusion:**

the informative problem matters from both a microeconomic and a macroeconomic point of view; in fact, the heterogeneity of traders simulates the degree of the convergence of opinions; and the variability of external variables reflects the credibility of market signals; these aspects represent crucial fields of action for monetary and financial policies;

Conclusive Remarks

Presented results highlighted several aspects that can be referred to two relevant addresses of policy interventions:

- **information diffusion:**
the informative problem matters from both a microeconomic and a macroeconomic point of view; in fact, the heterogeneity of traders simulates the degree of the convergence of opinions; and the variability of external variables reflects the credibility of market signals; these aspects represent crucial fields of action for monetary and financial policies;
- **book mechanism and individual settings:**
limits to either the time validity of orders or the allowed counterparts to match, can give the opportunity to manage the impact of orders, in terms of price variation and market stability, from a centralized point of view.

Conclusive Remarks

Presented results highlighted several aspects that can be referred to two relevant addresses of policy interventions:

- **information diffusion:**

the informative problem matters from both a microeconomic and a macroeconomic point of view; in fact, the heterogeneity of traders simulates the degree of the convergence of opinions; and the variability of external variables reflects the credibility of market signals; these aspects represent crucial fields of action for monetary and financial policies;

- **book mechanism and individual settings:**

limits to either the time validity of orders or the allowed counterparts to match, can give the opportunity to manage the impact of orders, in terms of price variation and market stability, from a centralized point of view.

Refinements of the model will cover both these topics: 1) the information dynamics among traders will be modeled by means of a dedicated layer where behaviors are observable according to different topologies; 2) portfolio analysis will be added, in such a way that the model may compare different trading strategies of both population groups in terms of profitability; 3) conflicts among micro- and macro-targets will be described, and the strategic use of different orders types will be described.

Thank you for your attention.

Order Book Modeling and Financial Stability

Alessio Emanuele Biondo



Università degli Studi di Catania
Dipartimento di Economia e Impresa
C.so Italia 55, 95129 Catania
Floor IV, Office 23/D
ae.biondo@unict.it

Financial Risk & Network Theory
Cambridge - 13-14 September 2016