Rank-based Markov chains, self-organized criticality, and order book dynamics

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Priorities are i.i.d. with some atomless law. Without loss of generality we can take the uniform distribution on $[-\lambda_{\rm in}, 0]$.



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Proof: the number of emails in the inbox with priority in $[-\lambda,0]$ is a random walk that jumps $k\mapsto k+1$ with rate λ and $k\mapsto k-1$ with rate $\lambda_{\rm out}1_{\{k>0\}}$.

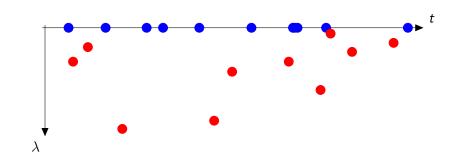
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Proof: the number of emails in the inbox with priority in $[-\lambda,0]$ is a random walk that jumps $k\mapsto k+1$ with rate λ and $k\mapsto k-1$ with rate $\lambda_{\rm out}1_{\{k>0\}}$.

This random walk is positive recurrent for $\lambda < \lambda_{out}$, null recurrent for $\lambda = \lambda_{out}$, and transient for $\lambda > \lambda_{out}$.

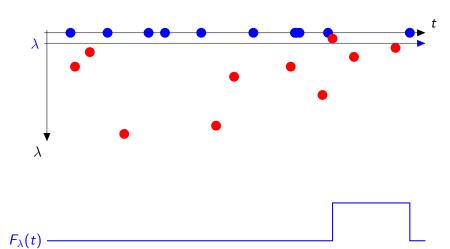
Let $F_{\lambda}(t)$ denote the number of emails with priority in $[-\lambda, 0]$ that are in the inbox at time t.

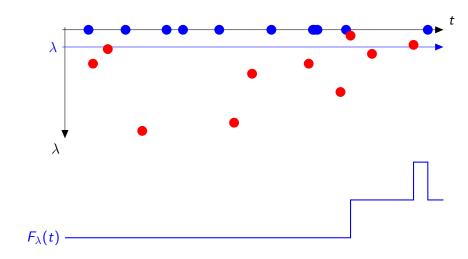
We can read off $F_{\lambda}(t)$ from the Poisson processes describing the arrivals of new emails and answering times.

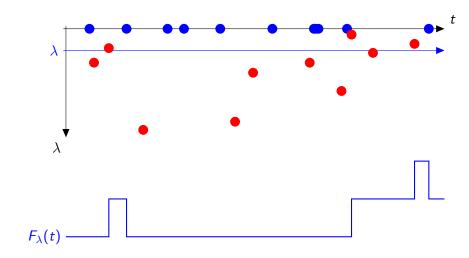


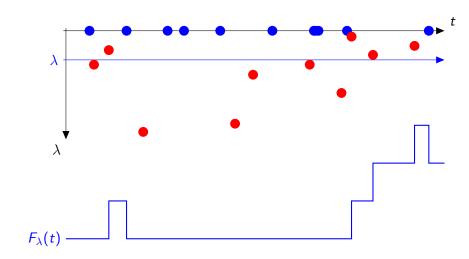
 $F_0(t)$

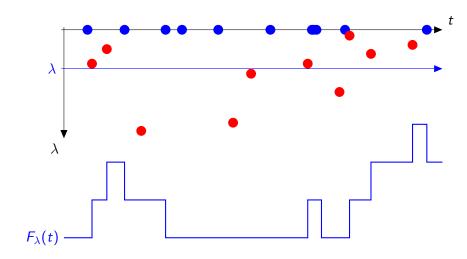


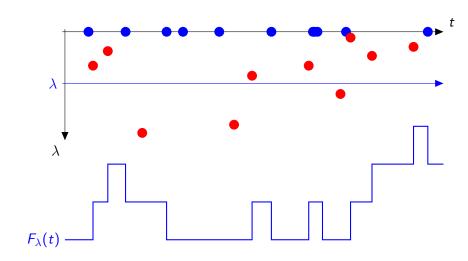




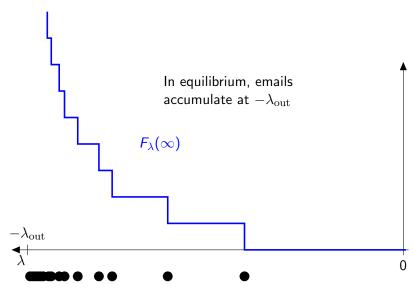




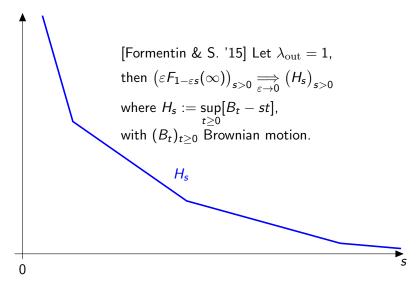




The equilibrium distribution

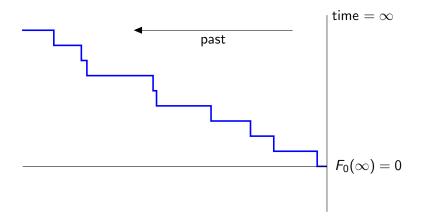


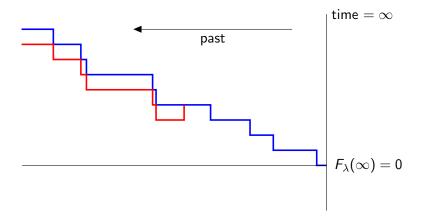
Critical behavior

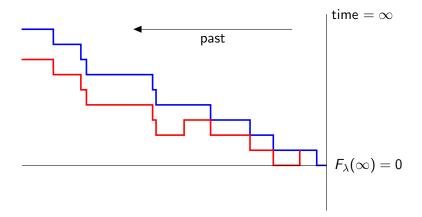


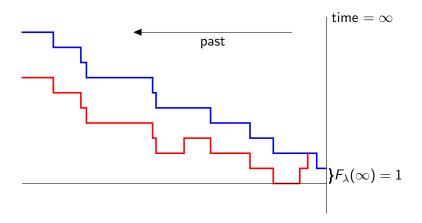
Groeneboom (1983): the concave majorant of Brownian motion.

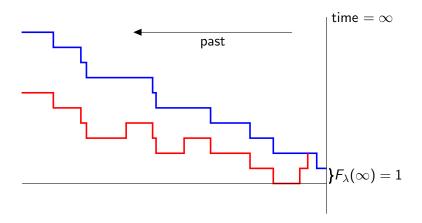


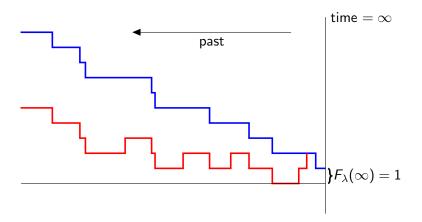


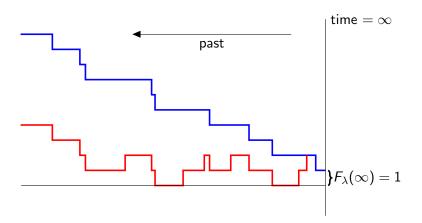


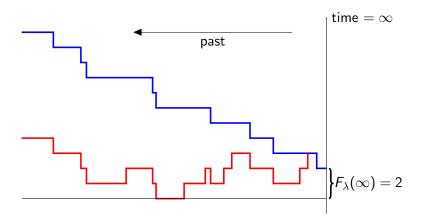


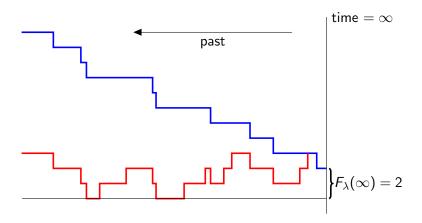


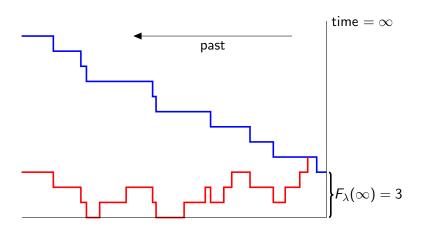












Self-organized criticality

Physical systems with second order phase transitions exhibit *critical behavior* at the point of the phase transition, which is characterized by:

- Scale invariance.
- Power law decay of quantities.
- Critical exponents.

Usually, critical behavior is only observed when the parameter(s) of the system, such as the temperature, have just the right value so that we are at the point of the phase transition, also called (in this context) the *critical point*.

Self-organized criticality

Some physical systems show critical behavior even without the necessity to tune a parameter to exactly the right value.

In particular, this happens for systems whose dynamics find the critical point themselves. Such systems are said to exhibit self-organized criticality.

A classical example are sandpiles, which automatically find the maximal slope that is still stable. Adding a single grain to such a sandpile causes an avalanche whose size has a power-law distribution.

The Bak Sneppen model is another classical example of self-organized criticality and a cornerstone of Bak's (1996) book.

Self-organized criticality

In the email model, the distribution of serving times (of answered emails) has a power-law tail. Indeed, it seems that in equilibrium, at any time, the probability that the last email we have answered had spent a time $\geq t$ in our inbox decays as $t^{-1/2}$.

This is quite different from the usual exponential tails in queueing theory.

This sort of power law decay, with the exponent 1/2, has even been observed in real data, provided time is measured in units proportional to the activity of the owner of the inbox (as judged from the number of emails sent). [Formentin, Lovison, Maritan, Zanzotto, J. Stat. Mech. 2015].

The Bak Sneppen model

Introduced by Bak & Sneppen (1993).

Consider an ecosystem with ${\it N}$ species. Each species has a fitness in [0,1].

In each step, the species $i \in \{1, \ldots, N\}$ with the lowest fitness dies out, together with its neighbors i-1 and i+1 (with periodic b.c.), and all three are replaced by species with new, i.i.d. uniformly distributed fitnesses.

There is a critical fitness $f_{\rm c}\approx 0.6672(2)$ such that when N is large, after sufficiently many steps, the fitnesses are approximately uniformly distributed on $(f_{\rm c},1]$ with only a few smaller fitnesses. Moreover, for each $\varepsilon>0$, the lowest fitness spends a positive fraction of time above $f_{\rm c}-\varepsilon$, uniformly as $N\to\infty$.

The modified Bak Sneppen model

Introduced by Meester & Sarkar (2012).

Instead of the neighbors of the least fit species, choose one arbitrary other species from the population that dies together with the least fit species.

Critical point exactly $f_c = 1/2$.

Critical behavior at f_c : intervals between times when all individuals have a fitness $> f_c$ have a power-law distribution with $\mathbb{P}[\tau \geq k] \sim k^{-1/2}$.

Proof based on coupling to a branching process.



Rank-based models

The email model and (modified) Bak Sneppen model share some common features:

- ▶ Only the relative order of the priorities/fitnesses matter. As a result, replacing the uniform distribution with any other atomless law basically yields the same model (up to a transformation of space).
- ▶ Both models use some version of the rule "kill the minimal element".
- Both models exhibit self-organized criticality.

In what follows, we will look at some other models that fall into the same class. In particular:

- Two toy models for canyon formation.
- ► The Stigler-Luckock model for the evolution of an order book.



A model for canyon formation



We start with a flat rock profile.



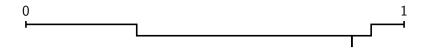
The river cuts into the rock at a uniformly chosen point.



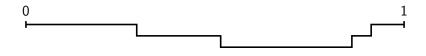
Rock between a next point and the river is eroded one step down.



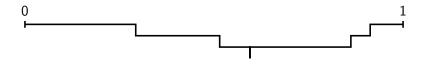
We continue in this way.

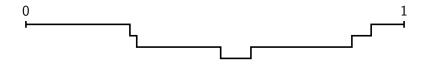


Either the river cuts deeper in the rock.

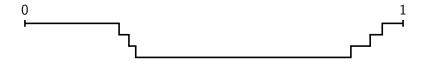


Or one side of the river is eroded down.

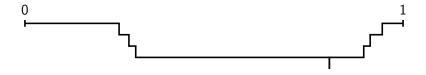












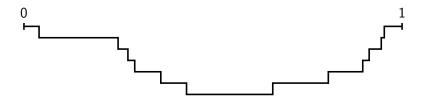




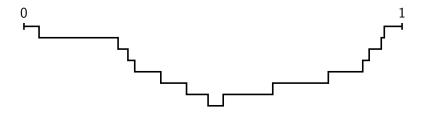


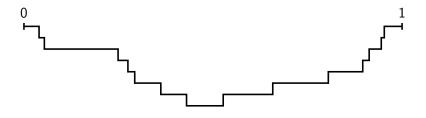


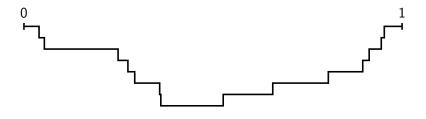


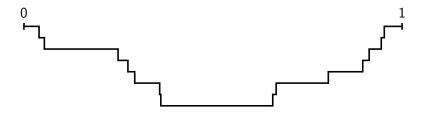


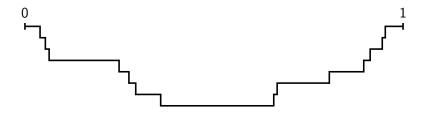








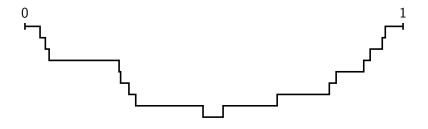


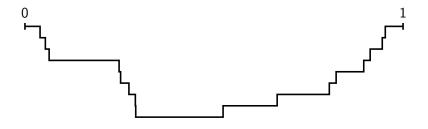


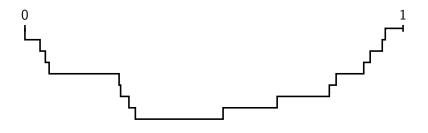


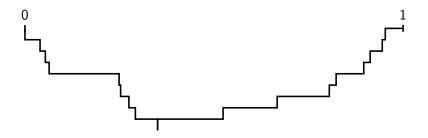


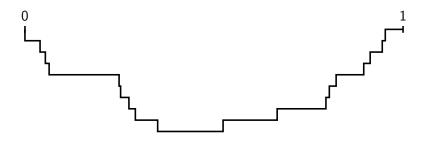


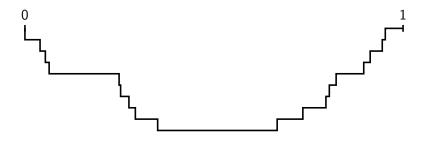


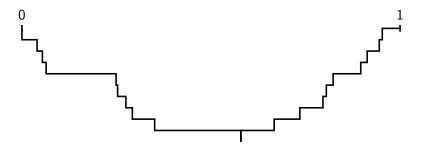


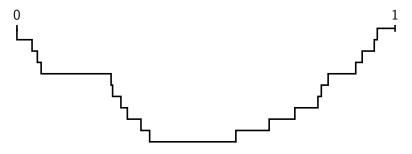


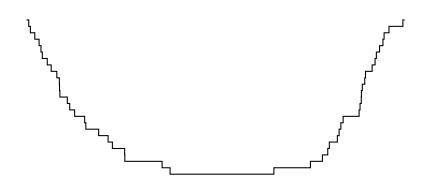












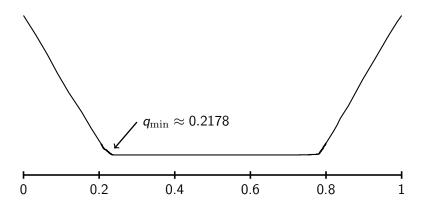
The profile after 100 steps.





The profile after 1000 steps.

A model for canyon formation



The profile after 10,000 steps.

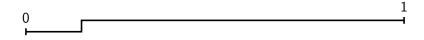
A model for canyon formation

In simulations, the canyon model is very similar to the email model, but it is more difficult to treat mathematically.

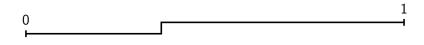
- ► Can we prove the existence of the critical point and explain its value $q_{\min} \approx 0.2178$?
- ▶ In equilibrium, scaling in on the critical point, do we again find the convex hull of Brownian motion?



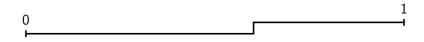
A river flows on the left.



The river either cuts deeped into the rock.



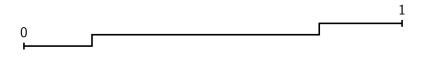
Or the shore is eroded down, starting from a random point.



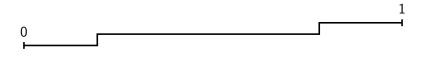
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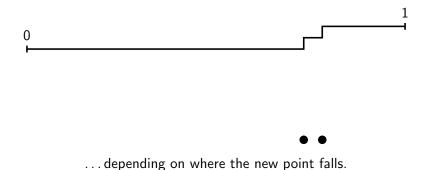
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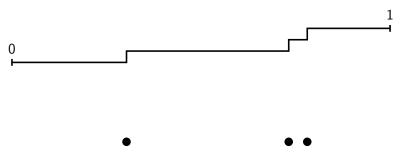


We either make the river deeper...

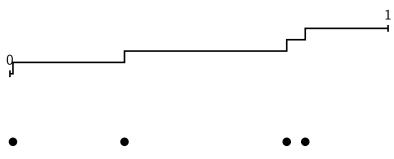


... or we erode the shore,

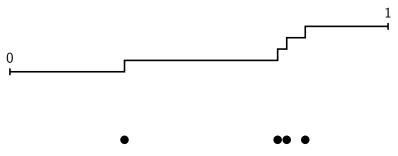




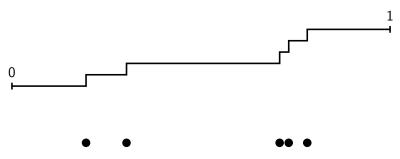
Points on the left of all others are simply added.



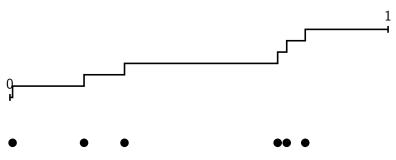
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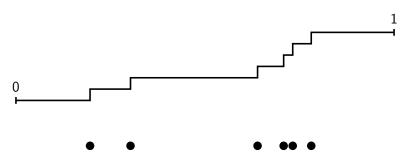
Otherwise, we remove the left-most point.

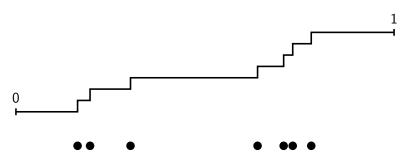


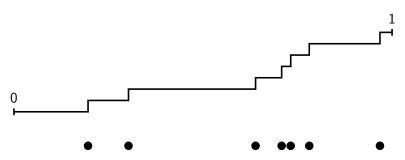
In other words, we always add the new point.

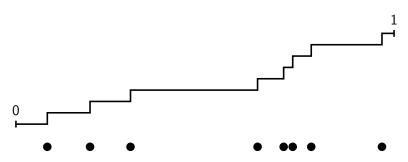


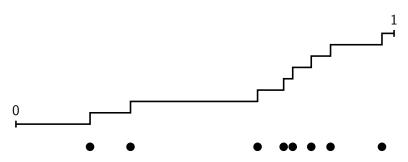
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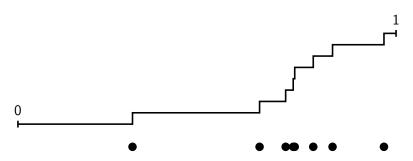


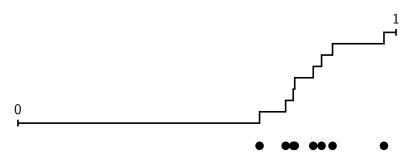


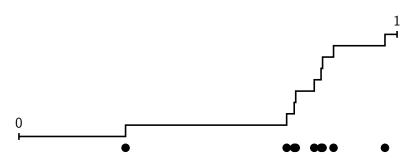


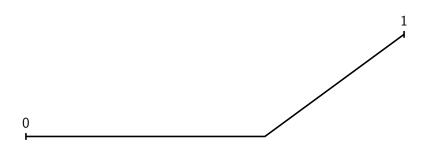












In this model, the critical point is $p_{\rm c}=1-e^{-1}\approx 0.63212.$

The process just described defines a Markov chain $(X_k)_{k\geq 0}$ where $X_k \subset [0,1]$ is a finite set.

Consistency: For each 0 < q < 1, we observe that the *restricted* process

$$\big(X_k\cap[0,q]\big)_{k\geq 0}$$

is a Markov chain.

Theorem 1 The restricted process is positively recurrent for $q < 1 - e^{-1}$ and transient for $q > 1 - e^{-1}$.

Theorem 2 The restricted process is null recurrent at $q = 1 - e^{-1}$.



The critical point

Proof of Theorem 1 Since only the relative order of the points matters, transforming space we may assume that the $(U_k)_{k\geq 1}$ are i.i.d. exponentially distributed with mean one and $X_k \subset [0,\infty]$.

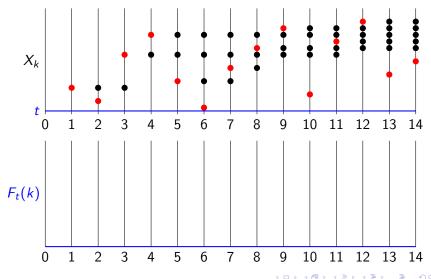
For the modified model, we must prove that $p_{\rm c}=1$.

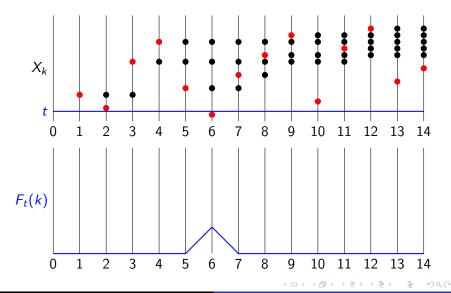
Start with $X_0 = \emptyset$ and define

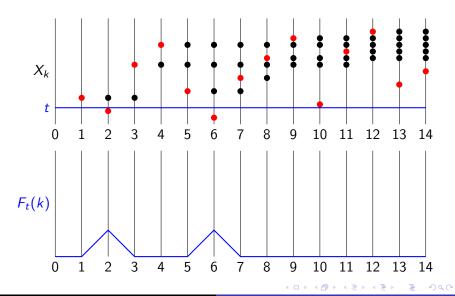
$$F_t(k) := |X_k \cap [0, t]| \qquad (k \ge 0, t \ge 0).$$

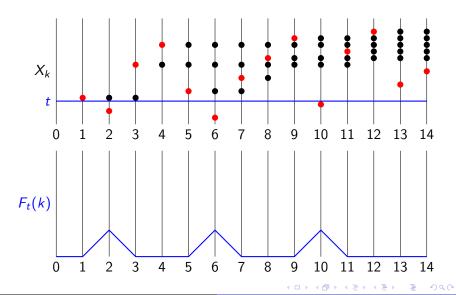
Claim $(F_t)_{t\geq 0}$ is a continuous-time Markov process taking values in the functions $F: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$.

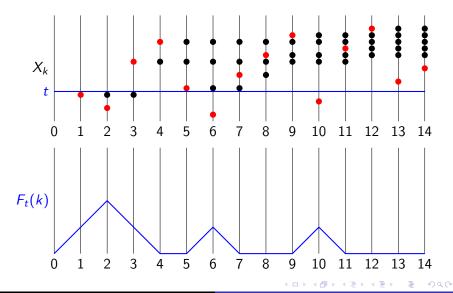


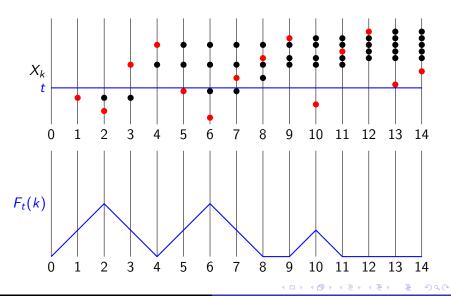


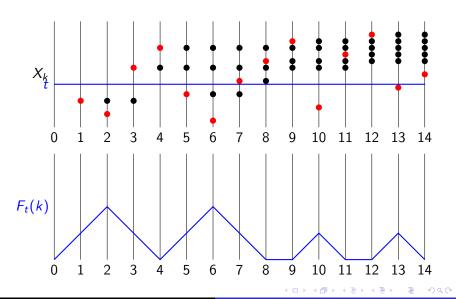


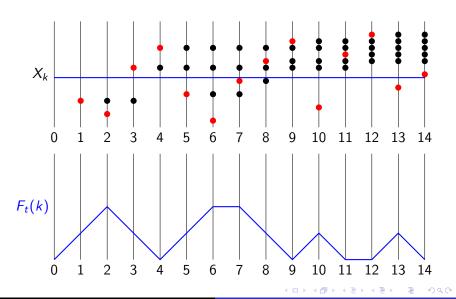


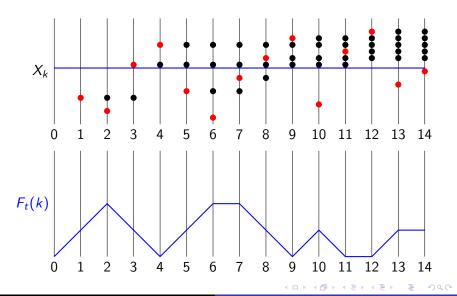


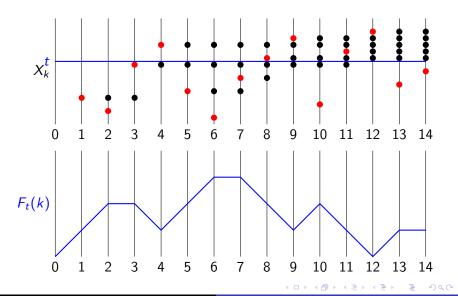


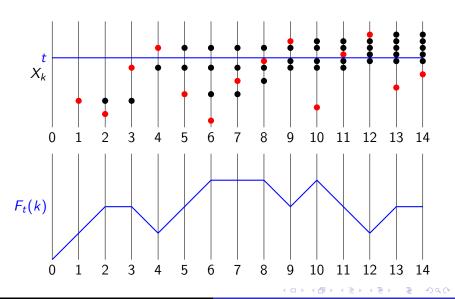


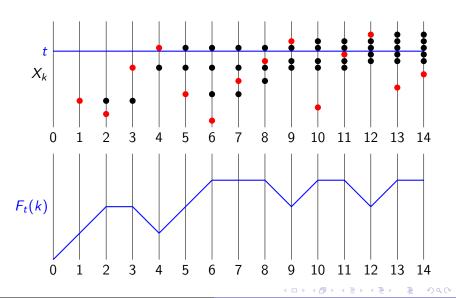


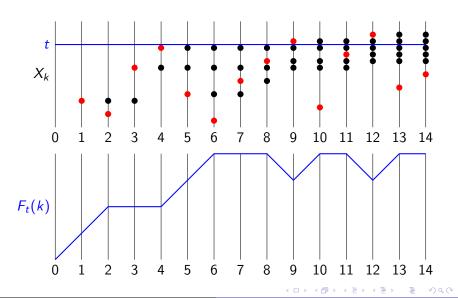


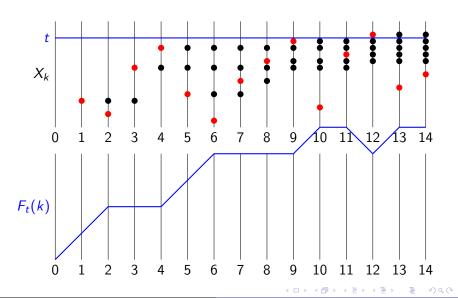


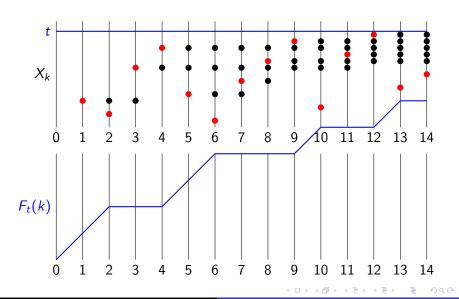












Increments

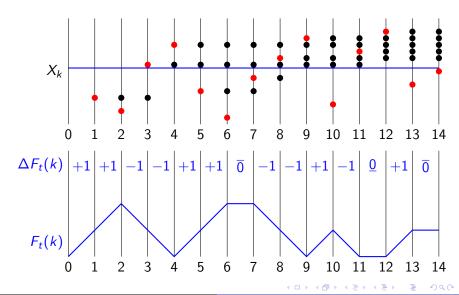
Define

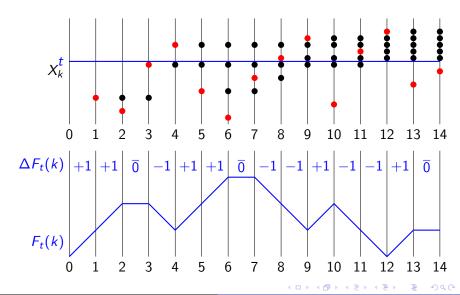
$$\Delta F_t(k) := \left\{ egin{array}{ll} rac{0}{\overline{0}} & ext{if } F_t(k) = F_t(k-1) = 0, \\ \overline{0} & ext{if } F_t(k) = F_t(k-1) > 0, \\ -1 & ext{if } F_t(k) = F_t(k-1) - 1, \\ +1 & ext{if } F_t(k) = F_t(k-1) + 1. \end{array}
ight.$$

At the exponentially distributed time $t=U_k$, the increment $\Delta F_t(k)$ changes from $\underline{0}$ to +1 or from -1 to $\overline{0}$.

At the same time, the next $\underline{0}$ to the right of k, if there is one, is changed into a -1.







A stationary increment process

We can define the Markov process $(\Delta F_t)_{t\geq 0}$ also on $\mathbb Z$ instead of on $\mathbb N_+$.

As long as the density of $\underline{0}$'s is nonzero, the process started in $\Delta F_0(k) = \underline{0} \ (k \in \mathbb{Z})$ satisfies

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbb{P}[\Delta F_t(k) = \underline{0}] = -2\mathbb{P}[\Delta F_t(k) = \underline{0}] - \mathbb{P}[\Delta F_t(k) = -1],$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbb{P}[\Delta F_t(k) = -1] = \mathbb{P}[\Delta F_t(k) = \underline{0}],$$

from which we derive that the $\underline{0}$'s run out at $t_{
m c}=1$ and

$$\mathbb{P}[\Delta F_t(1)=\underline{0}]=(1-t)e^{-t}$$
 and $\mathbb{P}[\Delta F_t(1)=-1]=te^{-t}$ $(0\leq t\leq 1).$



The increment process

The process $(F_t)_{t\geq 0}$, both on \mathbb{N}_+ and \mathbb{Z} , makes i.i.d. excursions away from 0.

For the process started in $X_0 = \emptyset$, define the return time

$$au_t^\emptyset := \inf \big\{ k \geq 1 : X_k \cap [0, t] = \emptyset \big\}.$$

From the density of $\underline{0}$'s for the process $(F_t)_{t\geq 0}$ on \mathbb{Z} we deduce that

$$\mathbb{E}[\tau_t^{\emptyset}] = (1-t)^{-1} \qquad (0 \le t < 1).$$

This proves positive recurrence $\Leftrightarrow t < 1$.

It is not hard to derive from this that the restricted process $(X_k \cap [0,t])_{k>0}$ is transient for t>1.



A weight function

New progress:

Proof of Theorem 2 and alternative proof of Theorem 1

For t > 0, consider the weighted sum over points in X_k

$$W_k^{(t)} := \sum_{x \in X_k} e^x 1_{[0,t]}(x).$$

Then

$$\mathbb{E}[W_{k+1}^{(t)} - W_k^{(t)} \mid \min(X_k) = m] = t - 1_{[0,t]}(m).$$

In particular, the process $W^{(t)}$ stopped at the first time that $\min(X_k) > t$ is

- ▶ A supermartingale for t < 1,
- ▶ A martingale for t = 1,
- ▶ A submartingale for t > 1.



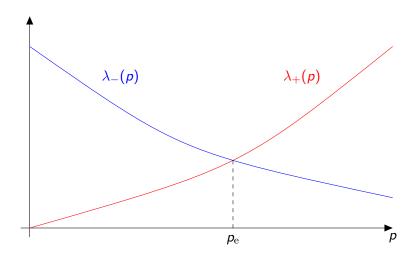
Some classical ecomomic theory

In classical economic theory (Walras, 1874), the *price* of a commodity is determined by *demand* and *supply*.

Let $\lambda_{-}(p)$ (resp. $\lambda_{+}(p)$) be the total *demand* (resp. *supply*) for a commodity at price level p, i.e., the total amount that people are willing to buy (resp. sell), per unit of time, for a price of at most (resp. at least) p per unit.

¹Walras developed the theory of equilibrium markets in his book *Éléments* d' économie politique pure.

Some classical ecomomic theory



Postulate In an equilibrium market, the commodity is traded at the *equilibrium prize* p_e .

Stock & Commodity Exchanges & the Order Book

On stock & commodity exchanges, goods are traded using an order book.

The order book for a given asset contains a list of offers to buy or sell a given amount for a given price. Traders arriving at the market have two options.

Place a market order, i.e., either buy (buy market order) or sell (sell market order) n units of the asset at the best price available in the order book.

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Market orders are matched to existing limit orders according to a mechanism that depends on the trading system.



Luckock (2003) (& again Plačková (2011)) (re-) reinvented the following model.

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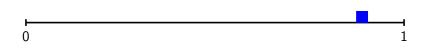
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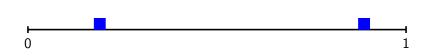
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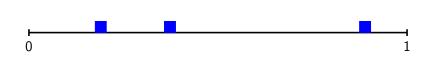
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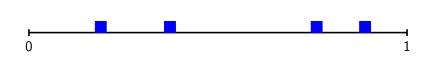


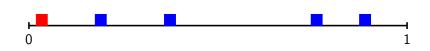


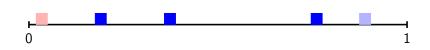


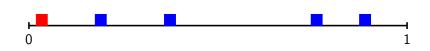


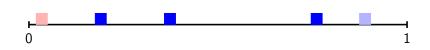


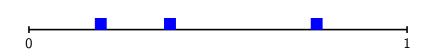


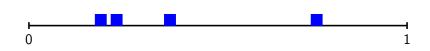


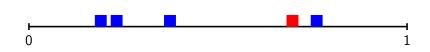


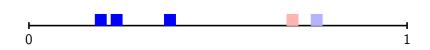


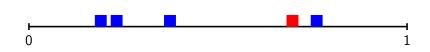


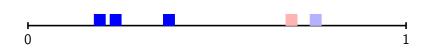








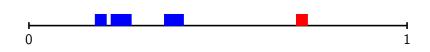




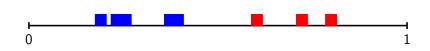




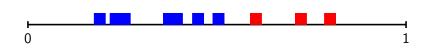


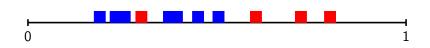




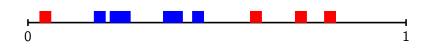


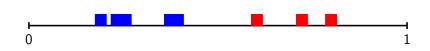


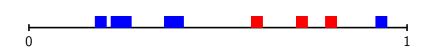


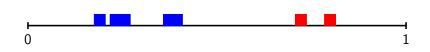




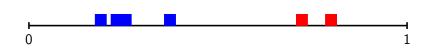


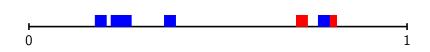


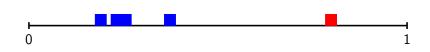


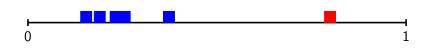


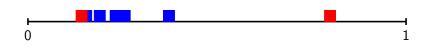


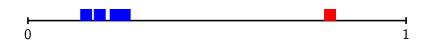


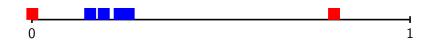


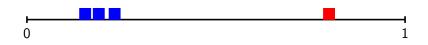


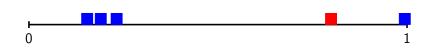


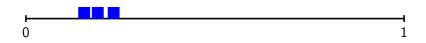




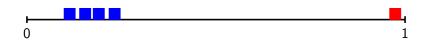


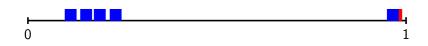




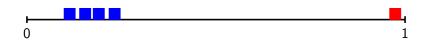


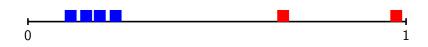


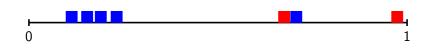


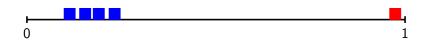


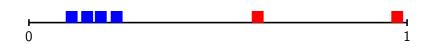


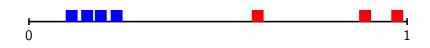




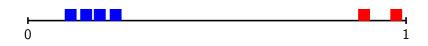














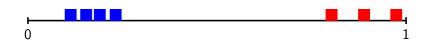








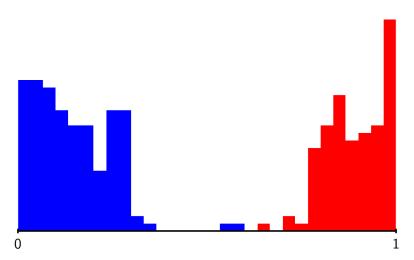






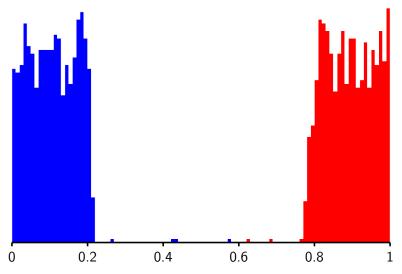


The order book after the arrival of 100 traders.



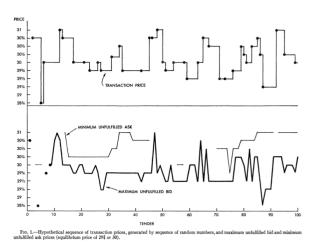
The order book after the arrival of 1000 traders.



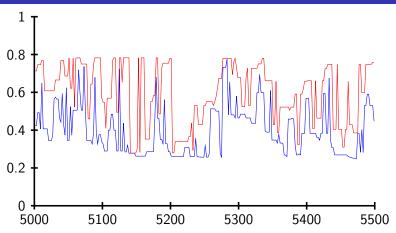


The order book after the arrival of 10,000 traders.

Stigler's model



Stigler (1964) already simulated the same model with μ_{\pm} the uniform distributions on a set of 10 possible prices.



Evolution of the highest bid and lowest ask prices between the arrivals of the 5000th and 5500th trader.



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There are magic numbers $q_{\min} \approx 0.2177(2)$ and $q_{\max} = 1 - q_{\min}$ such that eventually:

Buy limit orders at a price below q_{\min} are never matched with a market order.

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In fact, the model is very similar to the two-sided canyon model and even seems to have the same critical point.



The critical point

Luckock has a **formula** for q_{\min} and q_{\max} .

In particular, for the model on [0,1] with $\lambda_-(x)=1-x$ and $\lambda_+(x)=x$, Luckcock claims: $q_{\min}:=1+1/z$ with z the unique solution of the equation $1+z+e^z=0$.

Numerically, $q_{\min} \approx 0.21781170571980$.

Luckock proves his claim based on the following assumptions:

- The model is stationary.
- ▶ There exist $0 < q_{\min} < q_{\max} < 1$ such that buy (sell) limit orders below q_{\min} (above q_{\max}) are never matched.
- ► All buy (sell) limit orders above q_{min} (below q_{max}) are eventually matched.



Adding market orders

Let $\overline{I}=[I_-,I_+]$ be the interval of possible prices. We assume that $\lambda_\pm:\overline{I}\to[0,\infty)$ are continuous, λ_- is nonincreasing, and λ_+ nondecreasing.

We drop the assumption that $\lambda_{-}(I_{+}) = 0 = \lambda_{+}(I_{-})$.

Instead, with rate $\lambda_-(I_+)$ (resp. $\lambda_+(I_-)$), a trader arrives that places a buy market order (resp. sell market order) if the order book contains at least one sell limit order (resp. buy limit order), and does nothing else.

The advantage of allowing $\lambda_{-}(I_{+}), \lambda_{+}(I_{-}) > 0$ is that the process can be positive recurrent.



Luckock's equation

[Luckock '03] Let M^{\pm} denote the price of the best buy/sell offer. Assume that the process is in equilibrium. Then

$$f_{-}(x) := \mathbb{P}[M^{-} < x]$$
 and $f_{+}(x) := \mathbb{P}[M^{+} > x]$

solve the differential equation

(i)
$$f_- d\lambda_+ = -\lambda_- df_+$$
,

(ii)
$$f_+ d\lambda_- = -\lambda_+ df_-$$

(iii)
$$f_+(I_-) = 1 = f_-(I_+)$$
.

Proof: Since buy orders are added to $A \subset (q_{\min}, q_{\max})$ at the same rate as they are removed

$$\int_{A} \mathbb{P}[M^{-} < x] \, \mathrm{d}\lambda_{+}(\mathrm{d}x) = \int_{A} \lambda_{-}(x) \, \mathbb{P}[M^{+} \in \mathrm{d}x].$$



Luckock's equation

Theorem Assume $\lambda_{-}(I_{+}), \lambda_{+}(I_{-}) > 0$. Then Luckock's equation has a unique solution.

Conjecture A Stigler-Luckock model is positive recurrent if and only if the unique solution to Luckock's equation satisfies $f_-(I_+) > 0$ and $f_+(I_-) > 0$.

I have a proof under the "asymmetry" assumption that $\lambda_-(I_+) \neq \frac{\lambda_+}{\lambda_-}(I_-)$.

With new methods, I am hopeful to prove the full conjecture soon.



Weight functions

Let \mathcal{X}_t^\pm denote the sets of buy and sell limit orders in the order book at time t and consider a weighted sum over the limit orders of the form

$$W_t := \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_t^-} w_-(x) + \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_t^+} w_+(x),$$

where $w_{\pm}: \overline{I} \to \mathbb{R}$ are "weight" functions.

Lemma One has

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\mathbb{E}[W_t] = q_-(M_t^-) + q_+(M_t^+),$$

where $q_-:[I_-,I_+) o\mathbb{R}$ and $q_+:(I_+,I_-] o\mathbb{R}$ are given by

$$\begin{aligned} q_{-}(x) &:= \int_{x}^{I_{+}} w_{+} d\lambda_{+} - w_{-}(x) \lambda_{+}(x) & (x \in [I_{-}, I_{+})), \\ q_{+}(x) &:= -\int_{I_{-}}^{x} w_{-} d\lambda_{-} - w_{+}(x) \lambda_{-}(x) & (x \in (I_{-}, I_{+}]). \end{aligned}$$

Weight functions

Theorem For each $z \in \overline{I}$, there exist a unique pair of weight functions (w_-, w_+) such that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\mathbb{E}[W_t] = 1_{\left\{ \mathbf{M}_t^- \le z \right\}} - f_-(z),$$

where (f_-, f_+) is the unique solution to Luckock's equation. Likewise, there exist a unique pair of weight functions (w_-, w_+) such that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\mathbb{E}[W_t] = 1_{\left\{ \mathbf{M}_t^+ \geq z \right\}} - f_+(z).$$

This gives an interpretation to Luckock's equation even when its solutions take negative values, Moreover, the theorem is useful even in non-stationary settings.

