### Financial Market Microstructure

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## The Market Microstructure Approach

**Some definitions** (the term is originally due to Garman (1976))

- O'Hara (1995): "The study of the process and outcomes of exchanging assets under explicit trading rules..."
- Madhavan (2000): "The process by which investors' latent demands are ultimately translated into transactions."
- Biais, Glosten, and Spatt (2005): "The investigation of the economic forces affecting trades, quotes, and prices."

### Main Questions

- ① **Liquidity:** What are the determinants of market liquidity? Liquidity risk? Measures (bid-ask spreads and depth)?
- Price Discovery: How and to what extent do prices impound new information? At what speed?
- Volatility: What are the determinants of price changes at high frequency? How do volatility and liquidity interact?

## Market Liquidity

### Definition

An asset's liquidity is a measure of:

- The speed at which an asset can be bought and sold.
  (The faster, the more liquid.)
- The price impact of the traded quantity. (The smaller the impact, the more liquid.)
- The cost of a "round-trip." (The cheaper, the more liquid.)

### Why Do We Care?

- Illiquidity means lower returns on portfolios: (i)
  Portfolio managers care about market liquidity, and (ii) the brokerage industry devises trading strategies to minimize costs due to illiquidity.
- Illiquidity affects asset prices/cost of capital: (i)
  Illiquidity acts as a "tax" on asset payoffs and (ii) is a source of risk.
- Price discovery affects the allocation of capital in the economy.

### Actual Markets: Does Price Reflect Fundamentals?



## An example on liquidity and cost of capital

👺 MB Trader ELTR 📕 🔲 🛙					
Name	Bid	Size	Name	Ask	Size
MLCO	18 1/4	10	LEHM	18 3/8	20
GSCO	18 1/4	20	MASH	18 1/2	10
PRUS	18 1/4	30	AGED	18 5/8	17
BEST	18 1/8	10	SHWD	18 5/8	10
TSCO	18 1/16	10	TSCO	18 3/4	50

Mid quote = (18.25 + 18.375)/2 = 18.3125Transaction price  $\simeq 18.3125 \pm 0.0625$ Transaction cost  $\simeq 0.34\%$  of 18.3125

## Small transaction cost, large price impact

### Example

Stock A is an immediate perpetuity paying \$1 per year. The required return on capital is r = 5% per year. What is the current price for stock A? Answer \$21

Suppose that at resale transaction costs are s = 0.34% of the price. What is the current price for stock A?

## Small transaction cost, large price impact

### Example

Stock A is an immediate perpetuity paying \$1 per year. The required return on capital is r = 5% per year. What is the current price for stock A? Answer \$21

Suppose that at resale transaction costs are s=0.34% of the price. What is the current price for stock A? Suppose each investor plans to keep the perpetuity for one year and then resell to another investor..

$$P = \frac{1 + P(1 - 0.0034)}{1.05} \Rightarrow P = \frac{1.05}{0.0534} = 19.66 = 21(1 - 6.4\%)$$

## Market Informational Efficiency

Does the price of an asset reflect all information about the asset's fundamentals?

### Definition

- Weak form efficiency: Trading prices incorporate all past public information.
- Semi-Strong form efficiency: Trading prices incorporate all present and past public information.
- Strong form efficiency: Trading prices incorporate all public and private information available in the economy.

## Roadmap

- Key concepts
- Auctions
- Quote-driven markets: static models
  - Inventory models
  - Information models
- Quote-driven markets: dynamic models
  - Market efficiency and herd behavior
  - Robust price formation
- Limit Order Markets

## The Market Microstructure Approach

### It recognizes the role of:

- Heterogeneity among Market Participants. Participants in security markets have various objectives (e.g., dealers differ from final investors; hedgers differ from speculators, etc.).
- Institutional framework. Market design and market regulation matter.
- Private Information. Informational asymmetries among market participants are prevalent in securities markets.

- Customers
- Dealers
- Intermediaries

- Customers: Agents willing to trade the security:
  - <u>Institutional investors</u> (pension funds, mutual funds, foundations): Hold and manage the majority of assets; account for the bulk of trading volume; trade large quantities.
  - <u>Individual Investors</u> (retail traders, households, banks):
    Account for the bulk of trades; trade smaller quantities.
- Dealers
- Intermediaries

- Customers
- Dealers: Large professional traders who trade for their own accounts and provide liquidity to the market.
- Intermediaries

- Customers
- Dealers
- Intermediaries:
  - <u>Brokers:</u> Match customer orders but do not trade for their own account.
  - Specialists (NYSE): Are responsible for providing liquidity and smoothing trade on given securities.
  - Market Makers: Agents that stand ready to buy and sell the security at their bid and ask prices respectively, providing liquidity.

## Institutional Framework: Market Types

- Call Auction Markets: Occur at specific times (e.g., at the opening or at the fixing); investors place orders that are executed at a single clearing price that maximizes the volume of trade.
- Continuous Auction Markets (or limit order markets): Investors trade against resting orders placed earlier by other investors (e.g., Euronext, Toronto SE, ECNs).
- Dealer Markets (or quote-driven markets):
  Market-makers post bid and ask quotes at which investors can trade (e.g., Bond Markets MTS, FX markets).
- Alternative Trading Systems (ATS)
  - Electronic Communication Networks (ECN): Continuous order-driven anonymous markets (e.g., Island, Instinet, Archipelago, Redibook).
  - Crossing Networks (CN): Cross multiple orders at a single price determined in a base market (e.g., POSIT, Xtra XXL).

### Most Common Orders

- Buy limit order: Order to buy up to a quantity q for a price not larger than p.
- Sell limit order: Order to sell up to a quantity q for a price not smaller than p.
- Buy market order: Order to buy a quantity q at the best current market conditions.
- Sell market order: Order to sell a quantity q at the best current market conditions.

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## A game theoretical approach

The market for **one** financial asset:

- Market Participants: set of players N
- Institutional framework:
  - Set of actions X<sub>i</sub> available to market participant i
  - Set of action profiles X := ×<sub>i∈N</sub>X<sub>i</sub>
  - No trade action:  $x_0 \in X$
  - Asset allocation rule  $Q: X \to \mathbb{R}^N$
  - Cash allocation rule  $P: X \to \mathbb{R}^N$
  - $\circ \forall x \in X$ :

$$\sum_{i\in N}Q_i(x)=\sum_{i\in N}P_i(x)=0$$

- Asset fundamental value v
- Participant i's monetary payoff from transaction x:

$$\tilde{v}Q_i(x) + P_i(x)$$

 Participant i's utility after transaction x, given initial wealth Ŵ:

$$U_i(\tilde{W}_i + \tilde{v}Q_i(x) + P_i(x))$$
, and the second  $V_i(\tilde{W}_i + \tilde{v}Q_i(x) + P_i(x))$ 

## Model of uncertainty

- $\circ$   $\Omega$ : set of all possible states of Nature (finite).
- $\mathcal{A}$ : Set of all subsets of  $\Omega$ .
- $\pi: \mathcal{A} \to [0, 1]$ : probability measure of  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- $\circ$   $\mathbf{v}: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ : Value of the asset  $(\tilde{\mathbf{v}})$ .
- $W_i : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ : Value of agent *i* initial portfolio  $(W_i)$ .
- $U_i : \Omega \to \text{Set of possible utility functions: Utility of agent } i$ .

### **Partitions**

### Definition

- A partition  $\mathcal{P}$  of  $\Omega$  is a collection of nonempty, pairwise disjoint subsets of  $\Omega$  whose union is  $\Omega$ .
- $\circ \mathcal{P}(\omega)$  denotes the element of  $\mathcal{P}$  that contains the state  $\omega$ .

## Modelling incomplete information using partitions

- All agents start with common prior  $\pi$  over  $\Omega$ .
- Agent *i* receive private information that we described as a partition  $\mathcal{P}_i$  over  $\Omega$ : if the true state is  $\omega$ , then agent *i* is informed that the true state belongs to the set  $\mathcal{P}_i(\omega)$ .
- If the true state is  $\omega$ , the *type* of agent *i* is  $\theta_i = \mathcal{P}_i(\omega)$ .

### An example

```
 \begin{aligned} & \Omega = \{\omega_{1}, \omega_{2}, \omega_{3}, \omega_{4}, \omega_{5}\}, \, \pi(\omega) = 0.2 \\ & \bullet \, v(\omega_{1}) = 1; \, v(\omega_{2}) = 2, \, v(\omega_{3}) = 3, \, v(\omega_{4}) = 4, \, v(\omega_{5}) = 5 \\ & \bullet \, \, \mathcal{P}_{1} = \{\{\omega_{1}, \omega_{2}, \}, \{\omega_{3}, \omega_{4}\}, \{\omega_{5}\}\} \\ & \bullet \, \, \mathcal{P}_{2} = \{\{\omega_{1}, \omega_{3}, \}, \{\omega_{2}, \omega_{4}\}, \{\omega_{5}\}\} \\ & \bullet \, \, \mathcal{P}_{3} = \{\{\omega_{1}\}, \{\omega_{2}, \}, \{\omega_{3}\}, \{\omega_{4}\}, \{\omega_{5}\}\} \\ & \bullet \, \, \mathcal{P}_{4} = \{\{\omega_{1}, \omega_{2}, \omega_{3}, \omega_{4}\}, \{\omega_{5}\}\} \end{aligned}
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Agent 1 and 2 receive different partial information; Agent 3 is perfectly informed; Agent 4 is the least informed.

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If for example \omega = \omega_3, then for agent 1 E[\tilde{v}|\mathcal{P}_1(\omega_3)] = 3.5 for agent 2 E[\tilde{v}|\mathcal{P}_2(\omega_3)] = 2 for agent 3 E[\tilde{v}|\mathcal{P}_3(\omega_3)] = 3 for agent 4 E[\tilde{v}|\mathcal{P}_4(\omega_3)] = 2.5
```



## Joining and Meeting Partitions...

Let  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{P}'$  be two partitions of  $\Omega$ .

#### Definition

Partition  $\mathcal{P}$  is said to *refine* partition  $\mathcal{P}'$  if every element  $\theta$  of  $\mathcal{P}$  is contained in some element  $\theta'$  of  $\mathcal{P}'$ .

#### Definition

The meet of the partitions  $\mathcal{P}_i$  and  $\mathcal{P}_j$ , that we will denote  $\mathcal{M}_{ij}$ , is the finest partition that is refined by both  $\mathcal{P}_i$  and  $\mathcal{P}_j$ .

#### Definition

The join of the partitions  $\mathcal{P}_i$  and  $\mathcal{P}_j$ , that we will denote  $\mathcal{J}_{ij}$ , is the least fine partition that refines both  $\mathcal{P}_i$  and  $\mathcal{P}_j$ .

## Sharing Information and Common Knowledge

### If the state is $\omega_3$ ...

- What could agent 1 and 2 know if they share their information?
- What could agent 1 and 4 know if they share their information?
- What is that agent 1 and 2 commonly know?

## Common Knowledge: Informally

# Something is common knowledge if we both know that it's true:

- and I know that you know it's true;
- and you know that I know it's true;
- and I know that you know that I know it's true;
- and so on, for any string of beliefs we put together.

## Common Knowledge Formally

### Lemma

If the true state is  $\omega$ , then what is common knowledge for player i and j is  $\mathcal{M}_{ij}(\omega)$ .

## **Sharing Information Formally**

### Lemma

If the true state is  $\omega$ , then if player i and j share their information they both know  $\mathcal{J}_{ii}(\omega)$ .

## Bayesian Equilibrium

- Let  $\mathcal{P}_i$  be the set of possible types for agent i.
- Let  $\mathcal{P}_{i}^{t}$  be the set of agent i's possible information about past actions at time t.
- A strategy for player i is a mapping:

$$\sigma_i: \mathcal{P}_i \times_{t>0} \mathcal{P}_i^t \to \Delta X_i$$

 A Bayesian Nash equilibrium is a strategy profile  $\{\sigma_i, \dots, \sigma_N\}$  such that for all player i and all histories  $h \in H$ and all t

$$\sigma_i(\theta_i, h) \in \arg\max_{x_i \in X_i} E[U_i(\tilde{W}_i + \tilde{v}Q_i(x_i, \sigma_{-i}) + P_i(x_i, \sigma_{-i}))|\theta_i, h_i^t(h)]$$

where  $h_i^t(h)$  represents what agent i has observed at time t if the history of action profile is h.

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### Why do people trade in the financial market?

There are two possible reasons for trading:

- Speculating on private information about  $\tilde{v}$ .
- Hedging, when *U<sub>i</sub>* is concave.

## Trading based on information

```
 \begin{aligned} & \Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4, \omega_5\}, \, \pi(\omega) = 0.2 \\ & \mathbf{v}(\omega_1) = 1; \, \mathbf{v}(\omega_2) = 2, \, \mathbf{v}(\omega_3) = 3, \, \mathbf{v}(\omega_4) = 4, \, \mathbf{v}(\omega_5) = 5 \\ & \mathbf{P}_1 = \{\{\omega_1, \omega_2, \}, \{\omega_3, \omega_4\}, \{\omega_5\}\} \\ & \mathbf{P}_2 = \{\{\omega_1, \omega_3, \}, \{\omega_2, \omega_4\}, \{\omega_5\}\} \\ & \mathbf{P}_3 = \{\{\omega_1\}, \{\omega_2, \}, \{\omega_3\}, \{\omega_4\}, \{\omega_5\}\} \\ & \mathbf{P}_4 = \{\{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4\}, \{\omega_5\}\} \end{aligned}
```

```
If for example \omega = \omega_3, then for agent 1 E[\tilde{v}|\mathcal{P}_1(\omega_3)] = 3.5 for agent 2 E[\tilde{v}|\mathcal{P}_2(\omega_3)] = 2
```

Can we say that in state  $\omega_3$  agent 1 and 2 could agree on a trade where agent 1 buys the asset from agent 2 at a price of 2.9?



### No trade theorem

### If

- Initial allocation is ex-ante Pareto optimal
- At  $\omega \in \Omega$  it is common knowledge that a transaction x is acceptable to both parties

### Then,

• Each market participant is indifferent between x and the no-trade action  $x_0$ .

Rational agents starting from common prior cannot trade solely because they have different information.

## No trade theorem (Milgrom and Stokey 1982)

### Theorem

If traders start from common priors and it is common knowledge that all traders are rational and the current allocation is ex-ante Pareto efficient, then new asymmetric information will not lead to trade, provided that traders are strictly risk averse.

### Corollary

If traders start from common priors and have no reason to trade a priori, then they will not trade based on the arrival of new private information.

### An example of the no trade theorem with two Traders

- Two traders: Alice (owns an asset) and Bob (potential buyer).
- The asset's true value is uncertain:
  - Value is either \$100 or \$200, each with probability 50%.
- Both traders are risk neutral, rational and know each other is rational, and agree on the 50% probability.

## Step 1: Common Prior

 Before receiving any private information, both traders believe:

$$E[\tilde{V}] = 0.5(100) + 0.5(200) = 150.$$

 So any transaction can only occur at price 150, and at this price Alice is indifferent between selling or not trading and Bob is indifferent between buying or not trading.

### Step 2: Bob Receives Private Information

- Bob gets a private signal suggesting the value is likely higher.
- Based on his information, Bob offers Alice \$160 for the asset.

## Step 3: Alice's Rationality Check

- Alice knows Bob has private information.
- If the true value were only \$100, Bob would never offer \$160.
- The fact that Bob is willing to pay signals that the true value is high.
- Alice updates her belief and realizes that selling might be a bad idea.

## Step 4: No Trade Occurs

- Alice rejects the offer because Bob's willingness to trade signals a high value.
- No trade happens purely due to asymmetric information.
- This illustrates the No-Trade Theorem:

### Key Insight

If traders are rational and start with a **common prior**, no trade will occur based solely on **asymmetric information**.