

# Characterization of foreign exchange market using the threshold-dealer-model

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## Abstract

We introduce a deterministic dealer model which implements most of the empirical laws, such as fat tails in the price change distributions, autocorrelation of price change and non-Poissonian intervals. We also clarify the causality between microscopic dealers' dynamics and macroscopic market's empirical laws.

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## 1. Introduction

Mathematical models of open markets can be categorized into two types. In one type, the market price time series are directly modeled by formulation such as a random walk model, ARCH and GARCH models [1,2], and the potential model [3–5]. The other type is the agent-based model which creates an artificial market by computer programs [6–9]. The agent-based model is able to clarify the relationship between dealers' actions and market price properties. Just like the simple ideal gas model reproducing basic properties of real gas, we can expect that simple dealers' actions can reproduce the empirical laws of market prices.

In this paper we systematically introduce four deterministic dealer models in order to clarify the minimal actions of dealers to satisfy the empirical laws of markets. These are revised models of so-called the threshold model which is originally introduced by one of the authors (H.T.) and coworkers [9] in order to demonstrate that dealers' simple actions can cause deterministic chaos resulting the market price apparently random even the dealers' actions are completely deterministic. We revise the model step-by-step to reproduce most of the empirical laws.

## 2. Construction of the dealer model

In this section, we introduce four models, from the model-1 to the model-4. In each subsection, we describe dealers' bid price dynamics by differential equations. Firstly, we construct the simplest model named the

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model-1 and we compare the statistical nature of the model-1 to the real market to clarify the difference between the model and the real market. Then in Section 2.2 (model-2) and Section 2.3 (model-3) we add new effects to the model-1 supported by real data. Finally, we combine the model-2 and the model-3 to construct the model-4 which largely satisfies known empirical laws.

### 2.1. The model-1

Following the original dealer model [6] we assume an artificial Yen–Dollar market consisted of  $N$  dealers, who are offering limit prices of bid and ask. The dynamics of the  $i$ th dealer's bid price at time  $s$  is given by the following differential equation:

$$\frac{db_i}{ds} = \sigma_i c_i, \quad (1)$$

where  $c_i$  is a positive number and  $\sigma_i$  indicates the dealer's strategy at time  $s$ ,

$$\sigma_i = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{buyer,} \\ -1 & \text{seller.} \end{cases}$$

Namely, if he wants to buy Dollars he raises his bid price monotonically at rate  $c_i$  until he can trade, and if he is a seller he decreases the bid price. For simplicity we assume that the value of spread is a constant,  $L$ , so the ask price,  $a_i$ , is given by  $a_i = b_i + L$ . Large  $c_i$  means that the  $i$ th dealer is quick-tempered. The values of  $c_i$  are given randomly as an initial condition representing that each one's disposition is different. This heterogeneity is important for realizing transaction.

A trade takes place if the model's parameters satisfy,

$$\max\{b_i\} - \min\{b_i + L\} \geq 0. \quad (2)$$

A deal is done between the two dealers who give the maximum and minimum values. The market price is quoted by the mean value,  $[\max\{b_i\} + \min\{b_i + L\}]/2$ . We assume that dealers in this market have a minimum unit of Yen or Dollar, and after a trade the seller and the buyer change the position.

Although the dynamics is completely deterministic, apparently the market prices move up and down following a random walk (Fig. 1(a)). This randomness is caused by the threshold dynamics. Actually, the autocorrelation of the price change vanishes quickly (Fig. 1(b)). Similarly, both the autocorrelation of volatility defined by the absolute values of price changes and that of time intervals of transaction decay quickly (Fig. 1(c,d)). No volatility clustering can be observed in this model and the occurrence of transaction is fairly modeled by a Poisson process. Namely, the model-1 can be understood as a uniform random noise generator. However, the real market data are characterized by fat tails in the price change distributions, non-Poissonian intervals, and the autocorrelation of price change having larger negative value at one tick than model-1. So, we need to add new effects in the following model-2 and model-3.

### 2.2. The model-2

We now focus on transaction intervals to make our model closer to the real market. For comparison with real data we analyze a set of tick-by-tick data of the Yen–Dollar exchange rates for 3 months from January 1999 to March 1999. We pay attention to the periods where the frequency of trading is high, such as 6:00–11:00 on New York time. The time intervals of transactions tend to make clusters as typically shown in Fig. 2, namely, shorter intervals tend to follow after shorter intervals, and longer intervals follow longer intervals. This effect is called as the self-modulation effect and the distribution of transaction time intervals generally has a longer tail than an exponential distribution [10]. It is known that there exists an optimal moving average and by normalizing the transaction intervals by its optimal moving average the normalized transaction intervals follow nearly the Poisson process with the mean value being unity. This result means that we can construct realistic time interval sequence from a Poisson process.

From the artificial time axis of model-1 we construct a new time axis for the model-2 which satisfies the empirical law of the transaction intervals, so that the time axis of model-2 can be recognized as the real time.

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