Asymmetry and Synchronization in Stock Markets



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Dow Jones Industrial Average: Some extreme events during 120 years!



(c) DJIA 1896–2001 (incl. detrended data)

Fluctuations in finance and turbulence are similar: Non-Gaussian distributions !



- 1. Turbulence: Strong velocities vs. quiet, laminar periods: Intermittency Extreme events !
- 2. Inverse statistics: pre-described return level: When reached for the first time: Laminar periods important.
- **3.** Turbulence statistics = Market statistics !!
- 4. Dow Jones Index: Distribution of investment times: well defined maximum, optimal investment horizon.
- Gain/loss levels of same magnitude: maximum for gain is twice the size of maximum of loss: <u>Asymmetry!</u> Absent for single stocks.

- 6. Model: Fear-Factor-Model (FFM), correlations between stocks
- 7. Growth of scientific paradigms: Another example of extreme events
- Extreme events: Positive feed-back -> amplification -> Financial crises, climate changes, cell dynamics,

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The atmosphere behaves chaotic and turbulent





Figure 1a. Typical time trace of $(\partial u_1/\partial t)^2$, representative of the rate of dissipation of turbulent kinetic energy.

How to monitor (and use!) the laminar periods !

Direct Numerical Simulations (DNS):



Not very large !

Shell Models: Discretized approximations to Navier Stokes

Shells in k-space:



Exponentially separated !

Gledzer-Ohkitani-Yamada (GOY) model:

We have N shells, complex Fourier amplitude u_n at shell n:

A dynamical equation for each Fourier amplitude

→ N coupled non-linear ordinary differential equations:

$$\left(\frac{d}{dt} + \nu k_n^2\right) u_n =$$

 $i (a_n k_n u_{n+1}^* u_{n+2}^* + b_n k_{n-1} u_{n-1}^* u_{n+1}^* + c_n k_{n-2} u_{n-1}^* u_{n-2}^*) + f \delta_{n,4},$ with $n = 1, \dots N$, $k_n = r^n k_0$ (r = 2),

Deterministic model !

Boundary conditions

$$b_1 = b_N = c_1 = c_2 = a_{N-1} = a_N = 0.$$

f is an external forcing.



Completely deterministic model !



Strong spikes (extreme events) in between laminar periods !

Probability distribution function for small gradients NOT normal (or Gaussian)!



Fig. 2. Log-linear plot of the PDF of the gradients P(s) versus s/σ , where $\sigma^2 = \langle s^2 \rangle$. $\langle v_0^2 \rangle = 10^{-2}$, $\nu = 10^{-6}$ and N = 19. The full line is the multifractal prediction given by eq. (15). D(h) is given by fig. 1 through eqs. (4) and (5). Dashed line is the K41 prediction, dots are the numerical data.

Inverse statistics: The laminar periods



Normal Kolmogorov statistics:

PredescribelengthscaleCalculatevelocity difference

Inverse statistics:

Predescribevelocity differenceCalculatelengthscale

→ : Like first passage time

(M.H. Jensen, Phys.Rev.Lett. 1999)

Invers statistics distributions



Maximum and a long tail !



Normal multiscaling statistics

Inverse multiscaling statistics

Fluctuations in Turbulence is like in Finance !



⁽c) DJIA 1896–2001 (incl. detrended data)

t [trading days]

20000

30000

10000

"Forward" statistics



Not normal statistics ! Stretched exponential: Extreme events!



Dow Jones Industrial Average



⁽c) DJIA 1896–2001 (incl. detrended data)



If I invest in asset A at time t, how many time units do I have to wait to get a return of $x^{0/0}$?













Inverse statisctis for ρ =0.05



Fit: generalized Gamma function:

$$p(t) = \frac{v}{\Gamma(\alpha/v)} \frac{|\beta|^{2\alpha}}{(t+t_0)^{\alpha+1}} \exp\left\{-\left(\frac{\beta^2}{t+t_0}\right)^v\right\}$$

1

Positive ρ : Gains Negative ρ : Losses



Note: Asymmetry between gains and losses (maybe related to leverage effect.)

DJIA



(a) DJIA (1896.5–2001.7)

(b) DJIA (1960.8-1999.8)

SP500



NASDAQ



FIG. 5: Same as Fig. 3(a), but for the Nasdaq. The historical time period considered is 1971.2 to 2004.6. Again he solid lines represent fit of the empirical data against Eq. (2) with parameters: $\alpha \approx 0.51$, $\beta \approx 4.72$, $\nu \approx 0.73$ and $t_0 \approx 7.92$ (loss distribution); $\alpha \approx 0.51$, $\beta \approx 4.16$, $\nu \approx 2.41$ and $t_0 \approx 0.07$ (gain distribution). Note again that the tail exponents $\alpha + 1$ are very close to the "random walk value" of 3/2 for both distributions.

Inverse statistics for single stocks



Inverse statistics for single stocks



FIG. 7: Same as Fig. 3(a), but for some of the individual companies of the DJIA: (a) Boeing Airways (1962.1–1999.8); (b) General Electric (1970.0–1999.8); (c) General Motors (1970.0–1999.8); (d) Exxon & Mobil, former Standard Oil (1970.0–1999.8).

Averaged over many single stocks



FIG. 8: Averaged gain and loss distribution for the companies listed in table I. The fit is Eq. (2) with values $\alpha \approx 0.60$, $\beta \approx 3.24$, $\nu \approx 0.94$ and $t_0 \approx 1.09$. Note that the tail exponent $\alpha + 1$ is 0.1 above the "random walk value" of 3/2.

NOTE: No asymmetry


This is Gain Loss Asymmetry: - 8 days, + 15 days

How to explain the asymmetry in the market?

- External events (wars, terror, earthquakes, hurricanes) introduces a fear factor in the market
- Psychology of society/market: When stocks begin to fall they do it synchronously
- Under up-trends stocks move more or less randomly

The Fear Factor Model (FFM)



For the log-price of a stock:

With prob. p : *all* stocks move *downwards synchronously*

With prob. 1-p : they do independent biased random walks

- With prob. q : move upward
- With prob. 1-q : move downward

q determined from:

Requirement : s_i(t) is drift-less

p : fear factor N : # of stocks in the index

The Fear Factor Model (FFM)



<u>The q-parameter is determined</u> <u>from the assumption: *indiv.* <u>stock prices are drift-less</u></u>

p + (1-p)(1-q) = (1-p)q

Price-drop Price-rise

p and q are coupled



The Fear Factor Model: The assumptions

Single Stocks

- The price process of a single stock, S(t), makes a Geometrical Brownian Motion:
 - i.e. s(t)=ln[S(t)] is Brownian random process
- s(t) is un-biased (no drift)
- The Stock Index
 - The stock index consists of N stocks
 - The value of the stock index, I(t), is calculated as:

$$I(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} S_i(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \exp(s_i(t)), \qquad S_i(t) = \ln s_i(t)$$

FFModel



FFModel



Fear factor p measures probability for stocks going down synchronously

Let us consider the probability that the DJIA index goes down several days in a row ("mini crashes")

Model results

NOTE the slight asymmetry



Let us consider the probability that the DJIA index drops (m<0) or rises (m>0) several days (*m*) in a row ("mini crashes/rallies")

m=1 : 10% more likely to have a price drop than a price rise

The model catch *also* this feature of the real market excellently!

DJIA





G. 6: The optimal investment horizon τ_{ρ}^* for positive (open circles) and negative (open squares) levels of return $\pm \rho$ for the JIA. In the case where $\rho < 0$ one has used $-\rho$ on the abscissa for reasons of comparison. If a geometrical Brownian price ocess is assumed, one will have $\tau_{\rho}^* \sim \rho^{\gamma}$ with $\gamma = 2$ for all values of ρ . Such a scaling behaviour is indicated by the lower shed line in the graph. Empirically one finds $\gamma \simeq 1.8$ (upper dashed line), only for large values of the return.

Interest rates



Renteresultater DEM 10% ændring



Interest rates FRF 10%



Interest rates DKK 10%



Interest rates USD10Y 10%



Extreme events: Often fast change -> slow response -> positive feed-back mechanism (bi-stability)

Other examples: Climate changes, paradigm shifts



Emergence and Decline of Scientific Paradigms: Another example of Extreme Events !



Scientific paradigms: Fast rise → slow decline (Kuhn: "Scientific revolutions" or "Paradigm shifts")

Scientific paradigms

- Single words, concepts: Nano, string theory, systems biology, climate change, chaos
- Rapid growth \rightarrow Slow decline (asymmetry)
- Scientific paradigms → Global awareness (nanotechnology, climate change)
- How does a person change 'his/her' opinion and concept?

Model ingredients

- An 'infinity of concepts: A person never 'returns' to old concept
- Cooperativity: A person change concept with a weight proportional to the 'size' of the paradigm → A paradigm can 'flush' through the whole world ! Extreme event !
- Certain small probability α to change concept (innovation rate)
- Technically: N=LxL persons on a lattice, 4 neighbors, α ~ 10⁻⁶, 'infinitely' many different concepts

A paradigm/concept has one color



N = 128 x 128, $\alpha \sim 25 \times 10^{-6}$, choose a neighbor, change according to weight

Time series of the dominant paradigm: Avalanches!



Nearly constant temporal 'epoch' independent of α

Waiting times between shifts of dominant state



Number of visited sites



FIG. 4 (color). Distribution of the number of sites *s* that a particular idea visits during its life span for different values of α . Scaling $\sim 1/s^{2.5}$ for comparison (blue line). Note the gap between the main part of the distribution and the bins counting the ideas with system-wide sweeps (crosses). System size is $N = 128 \times 128$.

Conclusions

- Interplay between dominance of concept vs. inability of defending itself → Vulnerability against competing concepts !
- Takeover a chaotic process with multiple new competing ideas
- Existing paradigm eroded in a 'pre-paradigm' phase (Kuhn)
- Takeover on much shorter time scale than the decline

Thomas Kuhn: 5 Paradigm phases

Phase 1- *Pre-paradigm phase*, in which there is no consensus on any particular theory: Several incompatible and incomplete theories.

Phase 2- Normal Science begins, in which puzzles are solved within the context of the dominant paradigm.

Phase 3- If the paradigm proves chronically unable to account for anomalies, the community enters a crisis period.

Phase 4- Scientific revolution: Underlying assumptions of the field are reexamined and a new paradigm is established.

Phase 5- Post-Revolution: Scientists return to normal science, solving puzzles within the new paradigm.

Epidemics and Immunity spreading

- Epidemic spreads 'person to person'
- Immunization very important process, allows complex life to survive an infinity of pathogens
- Disease spreading: to neighbor before immunization

Model ingredients

- The same disease never returns to same person → Immunized against previous diseases
- A disease is transferred to a random neighbor if he/she is not immunized
- Small probability α to introduce a new disease
- An epidemics moves through the system as a wave
- Technically: N=LxL persons on a lattice, 4 neighbors, $\alpha \sim 10^{-6}$

Waves of multiple epidemics



Figure 1. Dynamics of multiple epidemics. 12 consecutive snapshots of a L=256 system with $\alpha = 4 \times 10^{-7}$. There are $\Delta t = 15$ updates per site between the snapshots. Note the wavefronts penetrating each other while the areas left behind the wavefronts are re-colonized from nucleation centers at the colliding fronts. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0013326.g001

 α = 4 x 10⁻⁷

Rise and fall of epidemics



Steady state behavior versus mutation rate α



Snapshots (256 x 256)

New infections/time step Diversity

Accu. immunity/disease Max extension Average duration

Immunity per disease (different α)

 $\alpha = 4 \times 10^{-7}$

 $\alpha = 1 \times 10^{-4}$

Steady state behavior: data collapse



Dynamics to frozen state: NO new diseases



Frozen state scaling



Conclusions

- Very simple epidemics/immunity: epidemic waves quite realistic
- Number of diseases small: series of interpenetrating infections
- Number of diseases large: fragmented fronts
- Natural extensions: time for infection, death of host, back-mutations



Kernel smoothing

We now apply kernel smoothing to give increased weight to datapoints with desired properties.

With the Gaussian kernel:

$$\kappa(c,t) \propto \exp\left[\frac{-(x(t)-c)^2}{\Sigma}\right]$$

where c is the condition, x(t) the series to condition on and Σ the covariance matrix of x(t).


The kernel smoothing approach can be used to give different weight to each datapoint. Hence one can – for example – choose to emphasize inverse statistics originating from days with return of $x^{0/0}$.

How does the inverse statistics look, if yesterday gave a return of 3%?



The following plots are inverse statistics with a barrier of 4 times daily volatility, conditioned on the day before the investment having a return of -5, -4,...,5 times daily volatility.



Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (-5%)



Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (-4%)



Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (-3%)



Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (-2%)



Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (-1%)





Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (1%)



Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (2%)

Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (3%)





Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (4%)

Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (5%)





The following plots are inverse statistics with a barrier of 7 times daily volatility, conditioned on the day before the investment having a return of -5, -4,...,5 times daily volatility.



Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (-5%)



Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (-4%)















Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (32)



Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (4%)



Conditional Inv. Stat. - DJIA (5%)



In general we can track the dependence of the distribution maximum on barrier and return-condition...










































Conditional Inverse Statistics

These priliminary results show us that:

- Due to low volatility, waiting times are largest for small return conditions
- For negative return conditions, the gain-loss asymmetry is conserved
- For positive return conditions, tha gain-loss asymmetry disappears



- Inverse statistics are more pronounced for days following large drops than gains
- Using the technic on finely sampled data opens up the possibility of defining new risk measures
- Inverse statistics does not exist, if one transforms from time to volatility measures. Gain-loss asymmetry is a consequence of volatility dynamics, following a subset of extreme events.

Estimate differences in the DJIA:

$$r_{\Delta t}(t) = s(t + \Delta t) - s(t) ,$$

When does it for first time exceed predescribed level ρ :

where $s(t) = \ln S(t)$. Hence the log-return is nothing but the log-price change of the asset. We consider a situation where an investor is aiming for a given return level denoted ρ , which may be both positive (being "long" on the market) or negative (being "short" on the market). If the investment is made at time t, then the investment horizon is defined as the time $\tau_{\rho}(t) = \Delta t$ so that the inequality $r_{\Delta t}(t) \ge \rho$ when $\rho \ge 0$, or $r_{\Delta t}(t) \le \rho$ when $\rho < 0$, is satisfied for the *first* time. The investment horizon distribution, $p(\tau_{\rho})$, is then the distribution of investment horizons τ_{ρ} (see Fig. 1) averaged over the data.

Tysk 100-dages rentevolatilitet (ej annualiseret)



Where does inverse statistics stem from? We know it has to do with faster movements for negative than positive returns.

Idea:

Lets scale time with volatility such that days with high vol. becomes relatively longer; days with low vol. relatively shorter.



Vol. Stretched Inv. Stat. - DJIA



Vol. Stretched Inv. Stat. - DJIA



Vol. Stretched Inv. Stat. - DJIA



Vol. Stretched Inv. Stat. - DJIA





Vol. Stretched Inv. Stat. - DJIA





Vol. Stretched Inv. Stat. - DJIA



Vol. Stretched Inv. AStat. - DJI



Vol. Stretched Inv. Stat. - DJIA