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Modeling the bid/ask spread: measuring the inventory-holding premium[☆]

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Abstract

The need to understand and measure the determinants of market maker bid/ask spreads is crucial in evaluating the merits of competing market structures and the fairness of market maker rents. This study develops a simple, parsimonious model for the market maker's spread that accounts for the effects of price discreteness induced by minimum tick size, order-processing costs, inventory-holding costs, adverse selection, and competition. The inventory-holding and adverse selection cost components of spread are modeled as an option with a stochastic time to expiration. This inventory-holding premium embedded in the spread represents compensation for the price risk borne by the market maker while the security is held in inventory. The premium is partitioned in such a way that the inventory-holding and adverse selection cost components, as well as the probability of an informed trade, are identified. The model is tested empirically using Nasdaq stocks in three distinct minimum tick size regimes and is shown to perform well both in an absolute sense and relative to competing specifications.

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1. Introduction

Understanding the determinants of the market maker's bid/ask spread is important for a variety of reasons. From an exchange's standpoint, it provides guidance on market design. Should the exchange assign a single specialist to be responsible for making a market, or should it encourage competition among a number of willing market makers? It also provides guidance on setting an optimal minimum tick size. In a competitive market, the tick size can provide market makers with a means of recovering their fixed costs of operation. From a regulator's standpoint, the bid/ask spread provides a means of identifying the fairness of the rents being extracted by market makers. Are market makers extracting abnormally high rents for their services, or are the rents fair considering the market maker's costs of operation?

Prior research has made substantial progress toward understanding the determinants of the bid/ask spread. Initial work, including studies by Demsetz (1968), Tinic (1972), Tinic and West (1972, 1974), Benston and Hagerman (1974), and Branch and Freed (1977), focuses on empirically determining which variables can capture cross-sectional variation in spreads. Stoll (1978b) develops a theoretical model for spreads in order to impose structure on the problem, and provides a useful categorization of the costs of supplying liquidity. Harris (1994) shows that a market's tick size can affect the estimated relation between the bid/ask spread and its determinants. While these studies all have made significant contributions to the understanding of the bid/ask spread, an important unresolved issue is the functional form of the relation between spread and its explanatory variables.

The purpose of this paper is to develop and test a new model of the market maker's bid/ask spread. The model is simple, parsimonious, and well grounded from a theoretical perspective. It incorporates the effects of price discreteness induced by the minimum tick size, order-processing costs, inventory-holding costs, adverse selection costs, and competition. The inventory-holding and adverse selection cost components of spread are modeled as an option with a stochastic time to expiration. This inventory-holding premium embedded in the spread represents compensation for price risk borne by the market maker while the security is held in inventory, independent of whether the trade was with an informed or an uninformed trader. Moreover, the premium can be partitioned in such a way that the inventory-holding and adverse selection cost components can be identified and estimated. Indeed, the model is rich enough to identify the probability of an informed trade. The model is tested using three separate months of Nasdaq common stock data corresponding to three different tick size regimes (eighths in March 1996, sixteenths in April 1998, and decimal pricing in December 2001) and is strongly supported empirically.

The paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 contains a discussion of the theoretical and empirical literature on market maker spreads. We provide a general categorization of the costs associated with market making and a brief review of past work. Section 3 contains the formal development of our theoretical model and contrasts its structure with the models used in earlier work. Section 4 contains an empirical assessment of the model and examines the importance of model specification in providing meaningful inference regarding the determinants of spread. We also highlight problems of variable selection and estimation that can distort inference, estimate the probability of informed trades, and provide a breakdown of the cost components of the spread. Section 5 contains a brief summary.

2. Market making costs

This section describes the cost components of the market maker's bid/ask spread in a cross-sectional framework and examines how past researchers have measured these costs.¹ The discussion of the cost components is organized in the manner of [Stoll \(1978b\)](#), who posits that market maker costs fall into three categories: order-processing costs, inventory-holding costs, and adverse selection costs.² Discussions of the effects of competition and the structural form of the model follow. The proxy variables used in past studies are summarized in [Table 1](#).

2.1. Order processing costs

Order-processing costs are those directly associated with providing the market making service and include items such as the exchange seat, floor space rent, computer costs, informational service costs, labor costs, and the opportunity cost of the market maker's time. Because these costs are largely fixed, at least in the short run, their contribution to the size of the bid/ask spread should fall with trading volume; that is, the higher the trading volume, the lower the bid/ask spread. To some degree, however, this relation may be weakened by the fact that market makers often make markets in more than one security. In such cases, fixed order-processing costs can be amortized over total trading volume across securities. In addition, in a highly

¹ The discussion in this section focuses on the determinants of spread literature for the stock market and how it developed in the years following the pioneering work of [Demsetz \(1968\)](#). It is not meant to provide a comprehensive review of cross-sectional investigations of spreads in the stock market that address a variety of interesting policy issues including market structure (e.g., [Bessembinder and Kaufman, 1997](#); [Ellis et al., 2002](#)), tick size (e.g., [Bacidore, 1997](#); [Bollen and Whaley, 1998](#); [Goldstein and Kavajecz, 2000](#); [Jones and Lipson, 2001](#); [Bessembinder, 2003](#)), and order-processing rules (e.g., [Bessembinder, 1999](#); [Weston, 2000](#)). Nor is it intended to diminish the importance of investigations of the determinants of the bid/ask spread in nonstock markets (e.g., [Neal, 1987](#), on stock option markets; [George and Longstaff, 1993](#), on index options; [Smith and Whaley, 1994](#), on index futures).

² For a comprehensive review of the market microstructure literature, see [Stoll \(2003\)](#).

Table 1

Model specifications used in eight empirical studies of quoted bid/ask spreads. Each specifies spread as a linear function of several variables and are nested in the following general regression equation

$$SPRD = a_0 + a_1 OPC + a_2 IHC + a_3 ASC + a_4 COMP + \varepsilon.$$

Proxy variable definitions are: *SPRD* = quoted bid/ask spread, *S* = share price, *NS* = number of shareholders, *TV* = trading volume, *DTV* = dollar trading volume, *NT* = number of trades, *MC* = market capitalization, *NI* = number of institutional shareholders, %*TD* = percent of trading days with at least one trade, σ_e^2 = idiosyncratic risk, *B* = absolute lagged price change, σ_S = standard deviation of price, *HL* = high/low price range, σ_R = standard deviation of return, *PP* = relative purchasing power, *SS* = number of specialist stocks, *ND* = number of dealers, *NX* = number of exchanges, *CONC* = ratio of primary exchange trading volume to total volume, and *HI* = Herfindahl index. The spread estimate notation is *Abs* for absolute spread and *Rel* for relative spread. The first panel of the table summarizes the sample, and the second panel specifies the spread measure and goodness-of-fit. The remaining panels summarize the regression specifications/results. The symbol +(-) is used to signify a positive (negative) but insignificant relation, and ++(- -) a positive (negative) and significant relation. N = NYSE; A = AMEX; Q = Nasdaq; T = TSE

Category	Variable definition		Study									
			Demsetz (1968)	Tinic (1972)	Tinic and West (1972)	Tinic and West (1974)	Benston and Hagerman (1974)	Branch and Freed (1977)	Stoll (1978b)	Harris (1994)		
<i>Market</i>			N	N	N	Q	T	Q	N	A	Q	N,A
<i>Number of observations</i>			192	192	80	300	177	314	1,734	943	2,474	529 529
<i>Spread estimate</i>			<i>Abs</i>	<i>Abs</i>	<i>Abs</i>	<i>Abs</i>	<i>Rel</i>	In <i>Abs</i>	<i>Rel</i>	<i>Rel</i>	In <i>Rel</i>	<i>Rel</i> <i>Rel</i>
<i>Adjusted R-squared</i>			0.569	0.535	0.836	0.490	0.498 0.803	0.777	0.486	0.687	0.822	0.804 0.987
<i>Order processing costs (OPC)</i>												
	<i>TV</i>								--	--		
	<i>ln TV</i>			--	--	--	--				--	-- --

[illegible]

competitive market, bid/ask spreads should equal the expected marginal cost of supplying liquidity, in which case order-processing costs may be irrelevant.

2.2. *Inventory-holding costs*

Inventory-holding costs are the costs that a market maker incurs while carrying positions acquired in supplying investors with immediacy of exchange (liquidity). Here there are two obvious considerations: the opportunity cost of funds tied up in carrying the market maker's inventory and the risk that the inventory value will change adversely as a result of security price movements. With respect to the opportunity cost of funds, Demsetz (1968, p. 45) argues that price per share is a reasonable proxy.

Spread per share will tend to increase in proportion to an increase in the price per share so as to equalize the cost of transacting per dollar exchanged. Otherwise, those who submit limit orders will find it profitable to narrow spreads on those securities for which spread per dollar exchanged is larger.

His argument is that relative spread (bid/ask spread divided by bid/ask midpoint) should be equal across stocks, holding other factors constant, or the higher the share price, the higher the spread. Market makers try to reduce or close out positions before the close of trading each day, however. If positions are opened and closed in the same day, the marginal cost of financing is zero. Moreover, even if inventory is carried overnight, it is not clear whether it represents a cost or a benefit. If, during the day, most customer orders are buys, the market maker may be short inventory, in which case he will earn (not pay) interest overnight.

Price-change volatility appears to have an unambiguous effect on the bid/ask spread. Market makers often carry inventory in the course of supplying liquidity, and hence bear risk. The size of the spread therefore must include compensation for bearing the risk. Demsetz includes trade frequency and the number of shareholders as proxies for this component of inventory-holding costs. Both variables, he argues, are direct proxies for the transaction rate. The higher the transaction rate, the lower the cost of waiting (price-change volatility equals the price-change volatility rate divided by trading frequency), and hence the lower the bid/ask spread. Tinic (1972) chooses to include a direct measure of volatility; that is, the standard deviation of price as a measure of inventory price risk. Tinic and West (1972) measure price risk as the ratio of the difference between high and low prices to the average share price, Benston and Hagerman (1974) use the stock's idiosyncratic risk, Stoll (1978b) uses the logarithm of the variance of stock returns, and Harris (1994) uses the standard deviation of returns.³

³ Benston and Hagerman (1974) argue that the market maker needs to be rewarded for price risk only to the extent that he is not well diversified or is exposed to traders with superior information (i.e., adverse selection costs). The concept of adverse selection had been introduced a few years earlier by Bagehot (1971).

2.3. Adverse selection costs

Adverse selection costs arise from the fact that market makers, in supplying immediacy, may trade with individuals who are better informed about the expected price movement of the underlying security. For an individual stock, it is easy to imagine that certain individuals possess insider information (e.g., advance news of earnings, restructurings, and management changes). While the intuition underlying why adverse selection may be an important determinant of spread is clear, the selection of an accurate measure of adverse selection costs is not. Branch and Freed (1977), for example, use the number of securities in which a dealer makes a market to proxy for adverse selection—the larger the number of securities managed, the less informed the dealer is, on average, about a particular stock. Stoll (1978a) uses a measure of turnover (dollar trading volume divided by market capitalization)—the higher the turnover, the greater the adverse selection. Glosten and Harris (1988) use the concentration of ownership by insiders—the higher the concentration, the greater the possibility of adverse selection. Harris (1994) uses the market value of shares outstanding—the larger the firm, the more well known and hence the lower the possibility of adverse selection. Easley et al. (1996) use the volume of trading—the higher the trading volume, the greater the activity of uninformed traders relative to informed traders and the lower the adverse selection cost.

2.4. Competition

The level of the market maker's bid/spread is also likely to be affected by the level of competition, particularly in an environment in which barriers to entry in the market for markets are being slowly eliminated. As competition increases, the bid/ask spread approaches the expected marginal cost of supplying liquidity; that is, the sum of inventory-holding costs and adverse selection costs. The larger the number of market makers, the greater the competition and the lower the bid/ask spread. Anshuman and Kalay (1998) show that, if the start-up costs of creating a competing exchange are significant, the tick size (the security's minimum price increment) can be set high enough that market makers can recoup their fixed costs as well as earn an economic profit.

Of the wide variety of proxies that have been used to measure competition, the most precise is the Herfindahl index of concentration introduced into the market microstructure literature by Tinic (1972). The index is

$$HI = \sum_{j=1}^{NM} \left(\frac{V_j}{TV} \right)^2, \quad (1)$$

where V_j is the number of shares traded by market maker j , NM is the number of market makers, and $TV = \sum_{j=1}^{NM} V_j$ is the total number of shares traded by all market makers. The index has a range from $1/NM$ to 1, where $1/NM$ is the lowest concentration (perfect competition) and 1 is the highest (monopoly).

2.5. Structural form

The cross-sectional tests summarized in Table 1 impose a particular functional form on the relation,

$$SPRD_i = f(OPC_i, IHC_i, ASC_i, COMP_i), \quad (2)$$

where $SPRD_i$ is the difference between a security's bid and ask quotes (bid/ask spread), OPC_i is order-processing costs, IHC_i is inventory-holding costs, ASC_i is adverse selection costs, and $COMP_i$ is the degree of competition.⁴ The earliest studies used absolute spread as the dependent variable and allowed the independent variables to enter the regression linearly. Tinic and West (1974), for example, estimate a model of absolute spread with price per share, log of trading volume, price volatility (as measured by the high-low price range divided by price), trading continuity (as measured by the number of days the stock is traded during the sample period divided by the total number of days in the sample period), and the number of markets in which the security is traded, and they find that the adjusted R -squared in the regression is 0.499. They also estimate the model when relative spread is used as the dependent variable, dropping price per share as an explanatory variable, and find that the adjusted R -squared is 0.804. The most powerful explanatory variable turns out to be price volatility, whose coefficient is positive and highly significant.

Using relative spread as the dependent variable is problematic for at least two reasons. First, if the regression equation for the absolute spread is correctly specified based on theoretical arguments, the regression equation for the relative spread is not. For the relative spread regression to be correctly specified, all of the explanatory variables must be deflated by share price. This means running the regression line through the origin. Second, given the high level of the adjusted R -squared, the relative spread regression gives the misleading impression of being a powerful explanatory model of bid/ask spread.⁵ To see this, assume that all stock spreads in the sample are equal to one-eighth. In such an environment, the absolute spread regression model would have no explanatory power. All of the coefficient values would equal zero, except the intercept term whose value would be one-eighth. Now, consider the relative spread regression. Given that the absolute spread is assumed to

⁴ Spread determinant studies now tend to analyze the time-series properties of observed transaction price changes. Roll (1984) pioneers this type of analysis by introducing a serial covariance estimator of the bid/ask spread that relies only on a sequence of transaction prices and provides an estimate only of order processing costs. Stoll (1989) develops a more complex model that allows simultaneous estimation of order processing costs, inventory-holding costs, and adverse selection costs. George et al. (1991) correct for bias in estimation of the spread and its components, and they conclude that adverse selection costs are much smaller than previously reported. Huang and Stoll (1997) provide a general framework that nests a large number of these statistical models and, consistent with George et al. (1991), report empirical evidence that the order-processing cost is the dominant determinant of spread. Other studies have used this type of component analysis to investigate the impact of market structure, news announcements, trade size, and other features of a market on the different components of bid/ask spread. See, for example, Affleck-Graves et al. (1994), Lin et al. (1995), Krinsky and Lee (1996), and Keim and Madhavan (1997).

⁵ For a lucid discussion of the pitfalls of using ratio variables in a regression framework, see Kronmal (1993).

be constant, the variation in the dependent variable is driven only by variation in the inverse of share price. Not surprisingly, explanatory variables such as price volatility are significant in a statistical sense, not because the regression is saying anything meaningful about spreads, but because the price volatility variable has share price in its denominator. As the variation in the share price range across stocks becomes small, the goodness-of-fit of the relative spread regression will become perfect.

The structural form of the model is also a concern. The models discussed thus far were developed through economic reasoning instead of formal mathematical modeling. Given their ad hoc nature, they are open to criticisms regarding model specification and variable selection. In an attempt to analyze the supply of dealer services (liquidity) more rigorously, Stoll (1978b) develops an explicit theoretical model that shows that the relative bid/ask spread of a security equals the sum of inventory-holding costs, adverse selection costs, and order-processing costs, when each cost component has a precise definition. The inventory-holding cost expression includes a term that equals the product of return volatility and the expected time the market maker expects the position to be open, a distinction that had otherwise gone unnoticed in the literature.

3. Model specification

We now develop a formal model of the market maker's bid/ask spread.

3.1. Modeling expected inventory-holding costs

In principle, the market maker's spread needs to include a premium to cover expected inventory-holding costs, independent of whether the trade is initiated by an informed or an uninformed customer. For convenience, assume initially that the length of time a stock will be in inventory is known and short (e.g., minutes). For such a short holding period, it is reasonable to assume that the risk-free rate and the expected change in the true price of the stock are equal to zero.⁶ Suppose the dealer takes a long position in a share of stock as a result of accommodating a customer sell order. To manage the inventory-holding risk of the position, he could potentially short a single stock futures, assuming such a contract traded, until the long stock position is unwound with a customer buy order. If the market maker's objective function is to minimize the variance of the value changes of his hedged portfolio—i.e., operates within a Markowitz (1952) mean–variance framework—and the stock futures market is transaction cost-free, the optimal number of futures contracts for the market maker to sell per share held is determined by

$$\text{Min } E[(\Delta S + n_F \Delta F)^2], \quad (3)$$

where ΔS is the change in stock price, ΔF is the change in futures price, and n_F is the hedge ratio. Setting the first-order condition equal to zero and rearranging shows

⁶ It is also reasonable to ignore cash dividends, as the holding period is intraday while dividends are paid overnight.

that the optimal hedge ratio is $n_F = -\text{Cov}(\Delta S, \Delta F) / \text{Var}(\Delta F)$.⁷ Assuming a zero interest rate and dividend yield rate on the stock and perfect correlation between the stock price changes and the futures price changes, the optimal hedge is to sell one futures contract for each share of stock. Under these ideal market conditions, the market maker is able to eliminate the risk of adverse price changes.

Stock futures do not provide a viable hedging vehicle for stock market makers, however. The main reason is trading costs. For the few stocks whose futures now trade, trading costs in the futures markets are higher and liquidity is lower than in the stock market, and this situation is unlikely to change.⁸ Hedging will not take place in an environment in which the market maker has round-trip trading costs that exceed the revenue he can earn in the stock market.

In the absence of a viable hedging instrument, the market maker faces inventory-holding price risk for which he will demand compensation. We assume that the market maker wants to set his inventory-holding premium (*IHP*) such that he minimizes the risk of losing money should the market move against him; that is,

$$\text{Min } E[(\Delta S + \text{IHP} \mid \Delta S < 0)^2]. \quad (4)$$

The risk measure Eq. (4) is called the lower semi-variance. Setting the first-order condition to zero shows that the minimum inventory-holding premium that the market maker is willing to charge is,

$$\text{IHP} = -E(\Delta S \mid \Delta S < 0) \Pr(\Delta S < 0). \quad (5)$$

According to Eq. (5), the minimum *IHP* equals the expected loss on the trade conditional on an adverse stock price movement times the probability of an adverse stock price movement.

The idea of applying lower semi-variance as a risk measure is not new. [Markowitz \(1959\)](#) was the first to suggest using semi-variance instead of variance as the risk measure in the investor's portfolio allocation decision, noting that variance is too conservative because it regards all extreme returns, positive or negative, as undesirable. Ultimately he chose to use variance because of its familiarity and ease of computation.⁹ The [Markowitz \(1952\)](#) mean–variance framework went on to serve as the foundation of the portfolio separation work of [Tobin \(1958\)](#) and equilibrium capital asset pricing model (CAPM) of [Sharpe \(1964\)](#) and [Lintner \(1965\)](#). [Bawa and Lindenberg \(1977\)](#) develop a capital market equilibrium model in which expected utility maximizing individuals make their portfolio allocation decisions based on the mean and second-order lower partial moment of return distributions. They show

⁷This result was first shown in [Ederington \(1979\)](#).

⁸Until recently, stock futures were not traded in the United States. Outside the United States, the trading activity in stock futures markets (e.g., the Sydney Futures Exchange in Australia and the Hong Kong Futures Exchange in Hong Kong) has been dismal. On November 8, 2002, stock futures began trading on the OneChicago Exchange in Chicago and the Nasdaq Liffe Markets in New York. For the stock futures currently listed, average daily trading volume is less than half of 1% of the average daily volume in the stock market.

⁹[Mao \(1970\)](#) compares the use of expected return–variance and expected return–semi-variance models in the context of capital budgeting. [Markowitz \(1991\)](#) continues to argue the superiority of semi-variance over variance as a risk measure.

that, if the lower partial moment is calculated using the risk-free rate as the target return, the familiar separation and equilibrium properties of the CAPM hold. More recently, the expected loss conditional on an adverse price movement has appeared in the risk management literature, where it has been dubbed expected shortfall and conditional value-at-risk. The virtues of this measure are described in Artzner et al. (1999) and Szegö (2002).

The value of the inventory-holding premium given by the expression on the right hand-side of Eq. (5) equals the value of an at-the-money option with expiration given by the time that the stock is held in inventory. Suppose a market maker who has no inventory accommodates a customer order by buying at the bid. He needs protection against the price falling below his purchase price before he can unwind his position. Conversely, if the market maker has no inventory and accommodates a customer order to buy by selling at the ask, he needs protection against the price rising above his sales price. In the first case, the market maker needs to buy an at-the-money put written on the stock, and, in the second, he needs to buy an at-the-money call. Like individual stock futures, individual stock options do not represent viable hedging vehicles for market makers in stocks. For one thing, the bid/ask spreads in the stock option market are at least as high as in the stock market. For another, the times to expiration and the exercise prices of the available option series are unlikely to match hedging needs. Nonetheless, the Black and Scholes (1973) and Merton (1973) (hereafter, BSM) option valuation framework provides a convenient means for measuring the *IHP*. Suppose the market maker needs to buy a call. Using the BSM option valuation formula, the expected inventory-holding premium may be written

$$IHP = SN\left(\frac{\ln(S/X)}{\sigma\sqrt{t}} + 0.5\sigma\sqrt{t}\right) - XN\left(\frac{\ln(S/X)}{\sigma\sqrt{t}} - 0.5\sigma\sqrt{t}\right), \quad (6)$$

where S is the true stock price at the time at which the market maker opens his position, X is the exercise price of the option, σ is the standard deviation of security return, t is the time until the offsetting order, and $N(\cdot)$ is the cumulative unit normal density function.¹⁰ The expected loss described by Eq. (5) is an at-the-money option, so the valuation formula Eq. (6) simplifies to

$$IHP = S[2N(0.5\sigma\sqrt{t}) - 1]. \quad (7)$$

3.2. Stochastic time to offsetting trade

The difficulty in valuing the expected inventory-holding premium using Eq. (7) is that the market maker, at the time of trade, does not know when an offsetting transaction will occur. The appropriate inventory-holding premium is therefore stochastic:

$$\widetilde{IHP} = S[2N(0.5\sigma\sqrt{\widetilde{t}}) - 1]. \quad (8)$$

¹⁰The inventory-holding premium may also be valued using the put valuation formula, which leads to identical results.

To set the spread at a level that provides sufficient revenue to generate an appropriate expected profit, the market maker must evaluate the expected inventory-holding premium. Defining $p(t)$ as the probability distribution function of an offsetting trade arriving at time t , the expected inventory-holding premium can be expressed as

$$E(\widetilde{IHP}) = \int_0^{\infty} S[2N(0.5\sigma\sqrt{t}) - 1]p(t) dt, \quad (9)$$

which is tantamount to valuing a European-style option with a stochastic time to expiration.¹¹

One way to implement Eq. (9) as a means of estimating the expected IHP is to select a reasonable and tractable distribution for the arrival rate of offsetting trades. Garman (1976), for example, models the arrival of traders as a Poisson distribution. This provides the necessary tractability. Under Poisson arrivals, the probability distribution function of an order arriving at time t is

$$p(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}, \quad (10)$$

where λ is the mean arrival rate. The expected IHP becomes

$$E(\widetilde{IHP}) = \int_0^{\infty} S[2N(0.5\sigma\sqrt{t}) - 1]\lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt. \quad (11)$$

For the problem at hand, however, we can avoid specifying a particular distribution of the arrival of an offsetting order because the expected hedging cost is approximately linear in \sqrt{t} . A proof is contained in Appendix A. Thus, the market maker's expected IHP can be computed as

$$E(\widetilde{IHP}) = S[2N(0.5\sigma E(\widetilde{\sqrt{t}})) - 1], \quad (12)$$

where $E(\widetilde{\sqrt{t}})$ is the expected value of the square root of the time between offsetting trades. This expectation is easily estimated using transaction data and is the only aspect of the distribution of arrivals that is necessary to approximate expected IHP . Fig. 1 shows the expected IHP as a function of the volatility rate and the time between trades. For plausible parameter ranges, the expected IHP can be as high as 16 cents.

3.2.1. Option collar—sharing the upside

The expected inventory-holding premium, modeled as an at-the-money call, may be overstated. If the market maker has no inventory and accommodates a customer buy order by selling at the ask, the expected inventory-holding premium is the value of an at-the-money call. After the call is in place, however, the market maker is not only protected against unexpected increases in the stock price, but also enjoys gains if the stock price falls. If the market is highly competitive, part of this speculative privilege will be bid away, and the expected inventory-holding premium will equal the

¹¹The problem is analogous to that addressed by Merton (1976). Chang et al. (1998) use a similar framework for valuing futures options in information time instead of calendar time.

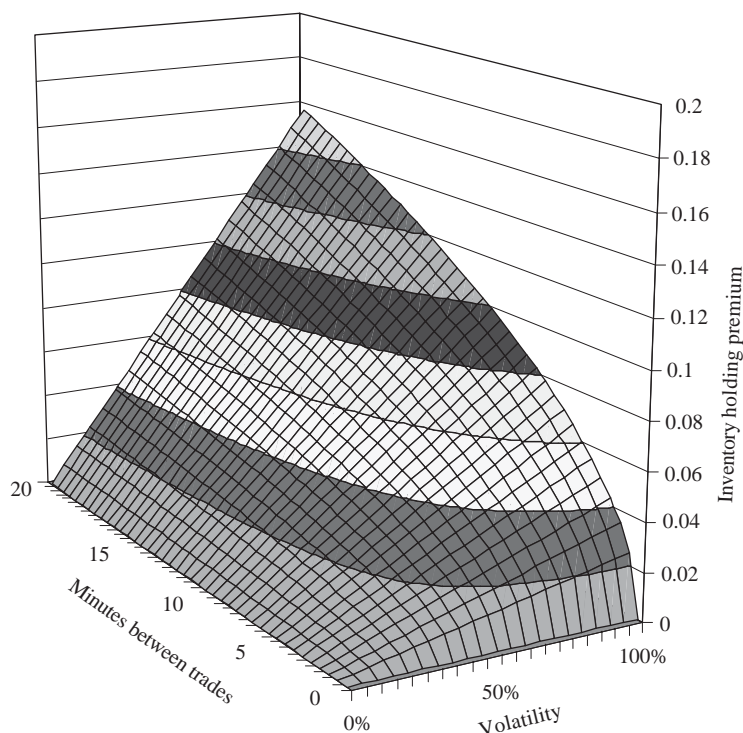


Fig. 1. Relation between expected inventory-holding premium modeled as an at-the-money call and the volatility rate and trading frequency of the stock. Stock price is set equal to \$27.50. Volatility rate varies between 0% and 100%, and number of minutes between trades varies from 0 to 20.

value of the at-the-money call less the value of an out-of-the-money put (an option collar). If the stock price rises, the market maker is protected. If the stock price falls, the market maker's gain is limited to the difference in exercise prices. Naturally, if dealers in the stock market were perfectly competitive and had access to complete and frictionless derivatives markets, the exercise prices of the call and the put would be the same and the inventory-holding premium (the collar value) would be equal to zero. Individual stock futures and options markets are neither complete nor frictionless, however. The difference between the exercise prices of the call and the put will remain as long as there is no cost-effective means of hedging stock price risk.

In practice, however, little is lost by using only the at-the-money call as a measure of the expected *IHP*. A market maker will choose to minimize the inventory-holding premium (i.e., sell the out-of-the-money put) only in a highly competitive market. In such a market, the likelihood of the put going in-the-money is small. Fig. 2 shows the expected *IHP* modeled as an option collar as a function of the volatility rate and the time between trades, and Fig. 3 shows the difference between the expected inventory-holding premium modeled as an at-the-money call (Fig. 1) and the expected hedging costs modeled as an option collar (Fig. 2). The stock price is set equal to \$27.50, the difference between exercise prices is set equal to \$0.25, the average time between

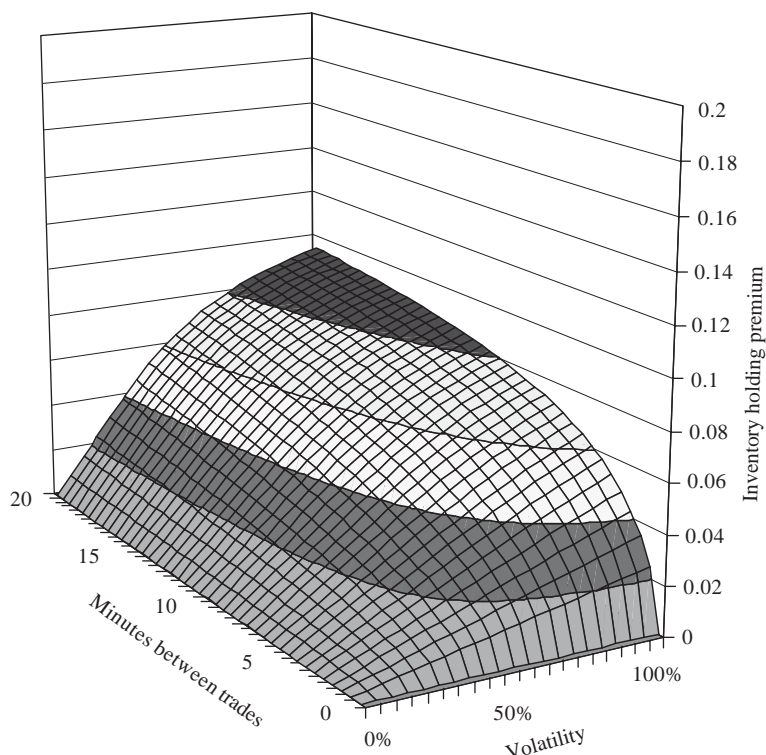


Fig. 2. Relation between expected inventory-holding premium modeled as an option collar (at-the-money call less out-of-the-money put) and the volatility rate and trading frequency of the stock. Stock price is set equal to \$27.50. Volatility rate varies between 0% and 100%, and number of minutes between trades varies from 0 to 20.

trades ranges from 0 to 20 min, and the volatility rate ranges from 0% to 100%. As the figures show, practically no difference exists between the values of the two methods of modeling expected costs. Slight differences appear at the highest levels of volatility and the longest times between trades. These parameter settings are atypical for the Nasdaq stocks in our sample, however. The interquartile range for the volatility rate in the April 1998 sample, for example, is 38.3–62.3%, and the interquartile range for the number of minutes between trades is 1.32–6.28 min. In these ranges, Fig. 3 shows that the value of the out-of-the-money put is negligible. In other words, using the more parsimonious at-the-money call value as an instrument for the expected inventory-holding premium appears well-justified.

This is not the first application of option pricing in the study of market maker spreads.¹² Copeland and Galai (1983) model the adverse selection component of the bid/ask spread as a straddle in which the market maker provides informed traders

¹² In a related context, Day and Lewis (2003) use the value of a barrier option to examine the adequacy of initial margins in the crude oil futures market.

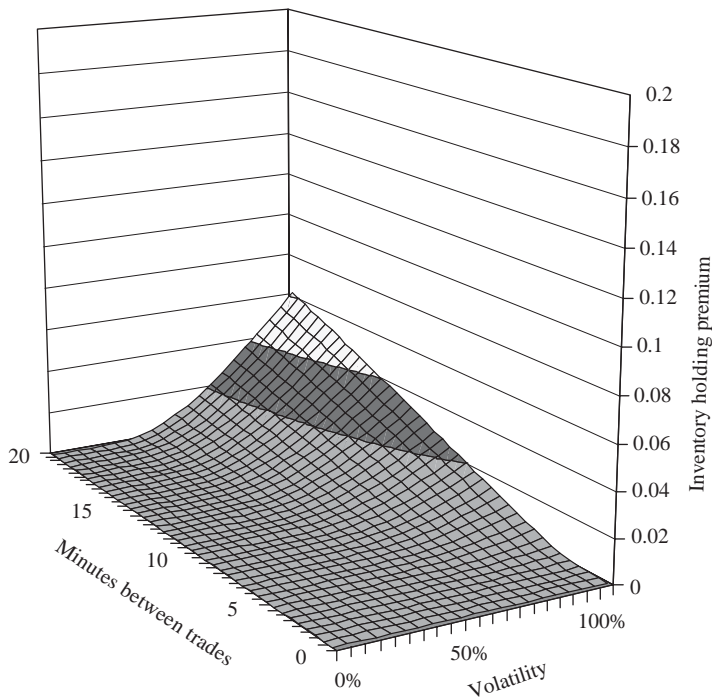


Fig. 3. Difference between expected inventory-holding premium modeled as an at-the-money call and expected inventory-holding premium modeled as an option collar as a function of the volatility rate and trading frequency of the stock. Stock price is set equal to \$27.50. Volatility rate varies between 0% and 100%, and number of minutes between trades varies from 0 to 20.

with a free-trading option to buy at the ask price or to sell at the bid. The option's time to expiration is the interval over which the market maker quotes are held firm. We use an option-based inventory-holding premium to cover both the inventory-holding and adverse selection cost components of the spread. That is, the market maker buys a single at-the-money option as insurance against adverse price movements while the security is held in inventory. The option's life begins once a quote is hit and remains open the expected length of time between offsetting trades. The empirical distinction between the approaches is highlighted in Section 4.

3.3. Informed versus uninformed traders

A market maker will demand different expected inventory-holding premia for trades with informed and uninformed traders. Assume that the market maker currently has no inventory, and a trader steps forward and buys at the market maker's posted ask price, S_{ask} . The market maker, now short a share of stock, is concerned about his expected loss should the share price increase. If the trader is uninformed (U), the expected inventory-holding premium, IHP_U , equals the value of a slightly out-of-the-money call option with an exercise price equal to S_{ask} .

Presumably the true price of the underlying stock is somewhere between the bid and ask price quotes. If the trader is informed (*I*), the true price of the stock rests somewhere above the ask price, in which case the expected inventory-holding premium, IHP_I , equals the value of a slightly in-the-money call. In both cases, the valuation of the IHP is

$$IHP_i = S_i N\left(\frac{\ln(S_i/X)}{\sigma\sqrt{t}} + 0.5\sigma\sqrt{t}\right) - XN\left(\frac{\ln(S_i/X)}{\sigma\sqrt{t}} - 0.5\sigma\sqrt{t}\right), \quad (13)$$

where $i = U, I$ depending upon whether the trade was with an uninformed or an informed trader.¹³

From the market maker's perspective, the expected inventory-holding premium, IHP , equals the sum of the inventory-holding cost and adverse selection cost components of the spread. It can be expressed as a weighted sum of the two premia; that is,

$$IHP = (1 - p_I)IHP_U + p_I IHP_I, \quad (14)$$

where $p_I(1 - p_I)$ is the probability of an informed (uninformed) trade. Under this formulation, the expected IHP does not go to zero as the time between offsetting trades goes to zero. As $t \rightarrow 0$, the inventory-holding premium of an uninformed trade IHP_U approaches zero, but the inventory-holding premium of the informed trade IHP_I approaches the dollar amount the option is in the money (i.e., the difference between the true price and the ask price in the case of a buy, and the difference between the bid price and the true price in the case of a sell). Thus, when the time between offsetting trades is zero, the market maker demands compensation for the expected loss to informed traders: $IHP = p_I IHP_I$.

Another way of interpreting the inventory-holding premium is to rewrite Eq. (14) as

$$IHP = IHP_U + p_I(IHP_I - IHP_U). \quad (15)$$

What Eq. (15) says is that an expected inventory-holding premium of IHP_U exists for all trades, uninformed and informed alike, as a result of the price risk associated with having the security in inventory. For informed trades, however, an incremental expected cost is associated with adverse selection that equals the probability of an informed trade times the incremental cost, $p_I(IHP_I - IHP_U)$. The structure of Eq. (15) also provides a means of estimating the probability of informed trades in one of the regression specifications in Section 3.4.

To illustrate the trade-off between the expected costs of uninformed and informed trades, we conduct a simple simulation. First, assume that the spread equals the sum of the expected costs of trading with uninformed and informed traders: that is,

$$SPRD = (1 - p_I)IHP_U + p_I IHP_I. \quad (16)$$

¹³ In this framework, IHP , which helps determine the level of the bid/ask spread, is a function of the bid/ask quotes. An equilibrium will result, however, because narrowing the difference between the quotes increases the value of the inventory-holding premium of both uninformed and informed traders, and vice versa.

To value the *IHP* for the uninformed trader, we value a slightly out-of-the-money call option. The true stock price is assumed to be equal to the midpoint of the bid/ask spread, and the exercise price is assumed to be equal to the ask price.¹⁴ The bid/ask midpoint is assumed to be \$27.50, and the bid/ask spread is assumed to be \$0.10. The volatility rate of the stock is set equal to 50%. To value the *IHP* for the informed trader, we need to compute a range of option values over a range of true stock prices, because the true stock price is unobservable. Thus, we value an in-the-money (ITM) option, representing compensation for trading with an informed trader, for stock prices between 1% and 10% higher than the exercise price. The average time between offsetting trades is allowed to vary between 5 and 30 min. The simulated values are reported in Table 2. When the true price is only slightly above the ask price, the probability of an informed trade is high. But, if the true price exceeds the exercise price by a large amount, the probability that the trade is with an informed trader is low. The inverse relation reflects the trade-off between the true price and the probability of an informed trade because the spread is held constant. Naturally, if the probability of an informed trade is held fixed, an increase in the price impact of an informed trade will cause the *IHP* of the informed trader, and, hence, the bid/ask spread, to increase.

In the regressions presented in Section 3.4, we approximate the market maker's expected inventory-holding premium as a single, at-the-money call because the probabilities of uninformed versus informed traders sum to one and the informed and uninformed traders have in- and out-of-the-money options, respectively. We also use IHP_U and IHP_I separately in other regressions to focus on the probability of an informed trade.

3.4. Regression model specification

With a means of computing the expected *IHP* in hand, we now formally specify our regression model,

$$SPRD_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 Inv TV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 IHP_i + \varepsilon_i, \quad (17)$$

where $Inv TV_i$ is the inverse of trading volume and MHI_i is the modified Herfindahl index. As noted in Section 1, the market maker's total order-processing costs are largely fixed. This means the order-processing cost per share is directly proportional to the inverse of trading volume. As trading volume approaches infinity, the order-processing cost per share approaches zero. Also noted in Section 1 is that competition among market makers influences the level of spread. Of the proxies used in past research, the Herfindahl index makes the most sense in that it accounts for the number of market makers in a particular stock as well as the relative activity of each market maker. In its raw form, the Herfindahl index has a range from $1/NM_i$ (perfect competition) to 1 (single monopolist), where NM_i is the number of market

¹⁴ Given the symmetry of the problem, the illustration considers only trades at the ask. A complementary analysis can be conducted using a slightly out-of-the-money put whose exercise price equals the bid price.

Table 2

Simulated probability (in percent) of informed trade given percent premium of true price over ask price for informed traders. Stock price is set equal to \$27.50, bid/ask spread is \$0.10, and the volatility rate is 50%. Spread is assumed to be equal to

$$SPRD = (1 - p_I)IHP_U + p_I IHP_I,$$

where p_I ($1 - p_I$) is the probability of an informed (uninformed) trade and IHP_I (IHP_U) is the expected inventory-holding premium for informed (uninformed) trades. IHP_U is an out-of-the-money call option with the stock price equal to the bid/ask midpoint and an exercise price equal to the ask price. IHP_I is an in-the-money call option with an exercise price equal to the ask price and a stock price equal to the exercise price plus a percent in-the-money (ITM) premium

Percent ITM	Number of minutes between trades					
	5	10	15	20	25	30
1	31.53	27.20	23.22	19.45	15.85	12.40
2	15.20	12.78	10.74	8.91	7.23	5.64
3	10.02	8.34	6.95	5.73	4.62	3.58
4	7.47	6.19	5.14	4.22	3.39	2.62
5	5.95	4.92	4.07	3.34	2.68	2.07
6	4.95	4.08	3.38	2.76	2.21	1.71
7	4.24	3.49	2.88	2.36	1.89	1.46
8	3.70	3.04	2.51	2.06	1.64	1.27
9	3.29	2.70	2.23	1.82	1.46	1.12
10	2.96	2.43	2.00	1.64	1.31	1.01

makers. We create and apply a modified version of the Herfindahl index,

$$MHI_i = \frac{HI_i - 1/NM_i}{1 - 1/NM_i}. \quad (18)$$

MHI_i has a range from zero to one, thereby permitting the coefficient of MHI_i in our regression model Eq. (17) to have a more natural interpretation; that is, where $MHI_i = 1$, the coefficient is an estimate of the rent per share being charged by a monopolistic market maker, and where $MHI_i = 0$, the rent is zero.

In estimating the model, the coefficient α_1 is expected to be positive and may be large. After all, it represents the market maker's total order-processing costs. If the market is extremely competitive, however, the market maker may not have the ability to recover fixed costs, in which case the coefficient will be indistinguishably different from zero.¹⁵ The coefficient α_2 should be positive. The fewer the number of dealers and the less evenly distributed the trading volume across dealers, the higher the modified Herfindahl index and the higher the spread. The coefficient α_3 should also be positive. The higher the expected inventory-holding premium, the greater the bid/ask spread. In this initial specification, IHP_i is estimated as a single at-the-money option, with no distinction drawn between informed and uninformed traders. With a

¹⁵ In the empirical tests that follow, total trading volume across dealers, not trading volume for a particular dealer, is used in the cross-sectional regressions. This, too, downward biases the estimate of α_1 .

precise estimate of the expected length of market maker's holding period, the coefficient value should be one.

The regression specification Eq. (17) has a number of virtues. First, unlike past studies, we have identified the structural relation between bid/ask spread and its determinants. As Eq. (13) shows, the marginal costs of inventory-holding and adverse selection are a specific function of share price, return volatility, and the time that the market maker expects the position to be open. Entering the variables separately on the right-hand side of the regression equation, as has been done in past work, obfuscates their role. Fig. 1 shows how expected inventory-holding premium varies with volatility and time until an offsetting trade. The surface features curvature that varies across the input parameter values. The standard linear or log-linear specifications used in prior studies cannot capture the relation between these variables without error.

A second virtue of our theoretical model Eq. (17) is that, unlike the models used in past studies, it is structurally consistent with the presence of an exchange-mandated tick size. The tick size of a security is its minimum allowable price increment. The importance of the tick size in this context is that it sets the lower bound of the market maker's bid/ask spread. For actively traded securities with highly competitive markets, the values of all three regressors on the right hand side of Eq. (17) are near or at zero, and the bid/ask spread equals the intercept term α_0 (the stock's minimum price increment).

Our theoretical model, although specified in terms of the absolute spread, can also be estimated using relative spreads. But, care must be taken to preserve the underlying economic relation. All variables in the regression must be deflated by price per share,

$$\frac{SPRD_i}{S_i} = \alpha_0 \left(\frac{1}{S_i} \right) + \alpha_1 \left(\frac{Inv TV_i}{S_i} \right) + \alpha_2 \left(\frac{MHI_i}{S_i} \right) + \alpha_3 \left(\frac{IHP_i}{S_i} \right) + v_i. \quad (19)$$

This means that there is no intercept term in the relative spread regression Eq. (19) and that the inverse of share price must appear as an explanatory variable. Estimating Eq. (19) is tantamount to running a weighted least squares regression of Eq. (17), where the respective weights are the inverse of share price.

Other regression specifications are also considered. In estimating the inventory-holding premium, we use the average time between trades as a proxy for the market maker's expected holding period. Because trades are being executed by many market makers, our proxy understates the length of the holding period. To estimate the length of the holding period across market makers, we set the coefficient α_3 to one in Eq. (17) and estimate the length of the holding period τ_i by scaling each individual stock's average square root of time between trades by a constant factor. The regression specification is

$$SPRD_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 Inv TV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + IHP_i(\tau_i) + \varepsilon_i. \quad (20)$$

Finally, our model of the inventory-holding premium is sufficiently rich that we can estimate the probability of informed versus uninformed trades across stocks. In Eq. (15) we showed that the inventory-holding premium consists of a common

expected cost across trades, IHP_U plus an incremental expected cost associated with informed trades, $p_I(IHP_I - IHP_U)$. Substituting Eq. (15) into Eq. (20) provides the regression specification,

$$SPRD_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 Inv TV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i) + \alpha_4(IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)) + \varepsilon_i, \quad (21)$$

where the coefficient α_4 represents the probability of an informed trade. Specifying the regression in this manner has two important advantages. First, it removes a serious collinearity problem that would likely exist between $IHP_{I,i}$ and $IHP_{U,i}$. Second, it allows us to test the null hypothesis that the probability of an informed trade is equal to zero.

4. An empirical evaluation

We now evaluate the empirical performance of our theoretical model Eq. (17).

4.1. Data

The trade and quote data used in this study were downloaded from NYSE's Trade and Quote (TAQ) data files. Although the files contain information for all U.S. exchanges, our sample contains only Nasdaq stocks because information on the number of dealers is not available for NYSE and AMEX stocks. Historical files containing the number of dealers making markets on Nasdaq as well as their respective trading volumes are available on a monthly basis on www.Nasdaq-trader.com. To assess the ability of our model to identify the minimum tick size prevailing in the market at the time, three separate months are used in our tests—March 1996, April 1998, and December 2001. While these months are similar to the extent that, in each of these months, the monthly Standard and Poor's (S&P) 500 return was about 1%, and the annualized return volatility based on daily S&P 500 returns was approximately 15%, the minimum tick size prevailing in the market differs. The minimum tick size for Nasdaq stocks was an eighth in the first sample month, March 1996. In June 1997, all exchanges changed the minimum price increment to one-sixteenth, in preparation for decimal pricing at the turn of the century. The sample month of April 1998 is used to represent the one-sixteenth pricing regime. Finally, the switch to decimal pricing occurred in stages beginning in August 2000. By April 9, 2001, the Nasdaq move to decimal pricing was complete. The sample month of December 2001 is used to represent the decimal pricing regime. In the sample months of March 1996 and April 1998, stocks with extremely low share prices could be traded in increments less than the minimum tick size. All stocks with price increments less than an eighth in March 1996 and less than a sixteenth in April 1998 were eliminated from the samples.

For all time-stamped trades on TAQ, we matched the quotes prevailing immediately prior to the trade. From this matched file, we then computed six summary statistics for each stock each day: (1) the number of trades, (2) the end-of-

day share price (the last bid/ask midpoint prior to 4:00 p.m. EST), (3) the number of shares traded, (4) the equal-weighted quoted spread, (5) the volume-weighted effective spread, and (6) the average time between trades.

We have said little about the types of spread measures that have been used in past studies. Most of the studies cited in Table 1 use quoted spread:

$$\text{Quoted spread}_t = \text{ask price}_t - \text{bid price}_t, \quad (22)$$

where the subscript t represents the t th trade of a particular stock during the trading day. The intuition for this measure is that, if a customer buys a stock and then immediately sells it, he would pay the quoted ask price and receive the quoted bid, thereby incurring a loss (a trading cost) equal to the bid/ask spread. This measure assumes that customers cannot trade within the quoted spread. It also assumes only market makers set the prevailing quotes and stand on the other side of customer trades. In general, past research has used the quoted spread at the end of the trading day as the variable of focus. We use an equal-weighted average of the quoted spreads (*EWQS*) appearing throughout the trading day.

More recent investigations of the spreads in the stock market have focused on effective spread.¹⁶ The effective spread circumvents two weaknesses of the quoted spread. It is based on the notion that the trade is only costly to the investor to the extent that the trade price deviates from the true price, approximated by the bid/ask price midpoint,

$$\text{Midpoint}_t = \frac{(\text{bid price}_t + \text{ask price}_t)}{2}. \quad (23)$$

On a round-turn, the cost would be incurred twice, hence the measure of the effective spread is

$$\text{Effective spread}_t = 2|\text{trade price}_t - \text{midpoint}_t|. \quad (24)$$

If all trades take place at the prevailing bid and ask quotes, the effective spread is equal to the quoted spread. If some trades take place within the spread, the effective spread is smaller than the quoted spread.

The effective spread measure assumes that, if a trade takes place above the bid/ask midpoint, it is a customer buy order, and if it takes place below the bid/ask midpoint, it is a customer sell order. The absolute deviation of the trade price from the bid/ask midpoint, therefore, can be interpreted as the cost incurred by the customer or the revenue earned by the market maker. Furthermore, the product of one-half the effective spread times the trading volume can be interpreted as the market maker revenue from the trade. While the effective spread is a better measure for customer trader costs than the quoted spread, it remains overstated in the sense that it fails to account for the fact that trades may be executed between customers and may not involve the participation of the market maker at all. For such a trade, the effective spread averages to zero; that is, the price concession conceded by one customer is awarded the other. Absent knowing the identity of both parties in the trade,

¹⁶See, for example, Christie et al. (1994) and Huang and Stoll (1994). Lightfoot et al. (1986) examine effective bid/ask spreads in the stock option market.

however, no better measure is possible. The volume-weighted effective spread (*VWES*) is a volume-weighted average of the effective spreads of the trades occurring throughout the day.

With the six summary statistics compiled for each stock each day, we compute average values for each stock across all days in the month. To mitigate the effects of outliers, we constrain the sample to include only stocks whose shares traded at least five times each day every day during the month. The March 1996 sample contains 974 stocks; the April 1998 sample, 1,444 stocks; and the December 2001 sample, 1,343 stocks.

Three additional measures are then appended to each monthly stock trade record. First, the modified Herfindahl index is computed. This competition measure incorporates the numbers of dealers making a market as well as their respective trading volumes. Second, the rate of return volatility for each stock is computed using daily returns over the 60 trading days preceding the sample month. The returns were obtained from the Center for Research in Security Prices daily return file, and the daily return standard deviation was annualized using the factor $\sqrt{252}$. Finally, the inventory-holding premium for each stock is computed using Eq. (12), where S is the stock's average share price, σ is the annualized return volatility, and $E(\sqrt{t})$ is the average of the square root of the time between trades.¹⁷ With more than one market maker, this estimate understates the expected inventory-holding premium. If trading volume was uniformly distributed across all dealers, we could multiply the average by the number of dealers. But, this value would cause inventory-holdings to be overstated, because only a handful of dealers account for the lion's share of the trading volume of a stock. We later allow the data to infer the square root of the average time between trades.¹⁸

4.2. Summary statistics

Table 3 contains summary statistics across the stocks in sample. In the top panel, we report spread measures. The equal-weighted quoted spread (*EWQS*) for the stocks in the sample has a mean value of 0.4057 in March 1996, 0.3062 in April 1998, and 0.1092 in December 2001. The move to a smaller tick size has reduced quoted bid/ask spreads. The reduction in spread from the March 1996 to the April 1998 subsamples is also likely have been influenced by a change in Nasdaq order handling rules on January 20, 1997. Specifically, in an attempt to increase the competitive pressure on spreads, the Securities and Exchange Commission forced Nasdaq market makers to display public limit orders on their proprietary trading systems.

¹⁷ Because volatility is expressed on an annualized basis, the time between trades must be measured in years. To accomplish this task, we divide the number of minutes between trades by 390 (the number of minutes in a trading day) and then by 252 (the number of trading days in a year).

¹⁸ Another approach is to infer the equivalent number of independent market makers by using the modified Herfindahl index. $1-MHI$ is the proportion of market makers who are competitive. Multiplying the average time between trades by $1-MHI$ and then by the number of market makers should produce the average time between trades for a typical market maker.

Table 3

Summary of descriptive statistics of variables used in the cross-sectional regressions of spreads for Nasdaq stocks. *EWQS* is the equal-weighted quoted bid/ask spread; *VWES* is the volume-weighted effective bid/ask spread; *REWQS* and *RVWES* are the equal-weighted quoted and volume-weighted effective bid/ask spreads divided by share price, respectively; *S(InvS)* is the (inverse of) share price; *TV(InvTV)* is the (inverse of the) number of shares traded; *ND* is the number of dealers; *MHI* is the modified Herfindahl index; σ is the annualized return volatility of the stock computed over the most recent 60 trading days prior to the estimation month; \sqrt{t} is the average of the square root of the number of minutes between trades; and *IHP* is expected inventory-holding premium as defined by

$$IHP = S[2N(0.5\sigma\sqrt{t}) - 1].$$

To be included in the sample, the stock must have traded at least five times each day in every day during the month. For March 1996 (April 1998), only stocks with prices quoted in eighths (sixteenths) are included

Variable	March 1996 (<i>n</i> = 974)				April 1998 (<i>n</i> = 1,444)				December 2001 (<i>n</i> = 1,343)			
	Mean	25%	Median	75%	Mean	25%	Median	75%	Mean	25%	Median	75%
Spread measures												
<i>EWQS</i>	0.4057	0.2501	0.3711	0.5134	0.3062	0.1809	0.2569	0.3745	0.1092	0.0534	0.0883	0.1354
<i>VWES</i>	0.2739	0.1721	0.2488	0.3418	0.2055	0.1257	0.1726	0.2457	0.0791	0.0396	0.0636	0.0969
<i>REWQS</i>	0.02350	0.01328	0.02023	0.03017	0.01291	0.00779	0.01156	0.01688	0.01396	0.00385	0.00834	0.01792
<i>RVWES</i>	0.01611	0.00888	0.01365	0.02045	0.00877	0.00526	0.00766	0.01143	0.01032	0.00276	0.00606	0.01305
Determinants of spread												
<i>S</i>	22.29	12.34	18.22	27.89	27.49	16.24	23.64	33.87	17.07	5.29	14.27	24.53
<i>Inv S</i>	0.0634	0.0357	0.0549	0.0807	0.0478	0.0295	0.0423	0.0615	0.2484	0.0407	0.0701	0.1877
<i>TV</i>	259,443	49,452	100,441	212,757	303,170	50,352	111,172	255,243	594,679	43,630	112,435	299,200
<i>Inv TV</i>	0.000015	0.000005	0.000010	0.000020	0.000015	0.000004	0.000009	0.000020	0.000017	0.000003	0.000009	0.000023
<i>ND</i>	37	23	29	42	47	24	34	55	115	56	91	140
<i>MHI</i>	0.1402	0.0729	0.1063	0.1743	0.1379	0.0783	0.1133	0.1714	0.1050	0.0607	0.0904	0.1317
σ	0.6086	0.4322	0.5935	0.7448	0.5189	0.3827	0.4946	0.6230	0.8428	0.5602	0.7557	1.0235
\sqrt{t}	2.217	1.424	2.154	2.961	1.866	1.149	1.766	2.506	1.241	0.623	1.092	1.810
<i>IHP</i>	0.0306	0.0175	0.0259	0.0372	0.0281	0.0164	0.0243	0.0346	0.0134	0.0062	0.0107	0.0175

Bessembinder (1999) and Weston (2000) report a substantial narrowing of the spreads as a result.

The reduction is also seen in the levels of the volume-weighted effective spread (*VWES*), 0.2739, 0.2055, and 0.0791, in 1996, 1998 and 2001, respectively. The large difference between quoted and effective spreads indicates that a large number of trades were executed at prices within the prevailing bid/ask quotes. The *VWES* as a proportion of the *EWQS* is about 67% in 1996 and 1998 but is about 72% in 2001. One possible explanation for this increase is that quoted spreads have become so small under decimal pricing that trades within the quotes are less frequent. Summary statistics for relative spreads are also provided in Table 3. The relative volume-weighted effective spread (*RVWES*) averages 1.032% in December 2001 and has an inter-quartile range from 0.276% to 1.305%. The maximum average *RVWES* in December 2001 was 15.558% for Metatec International. Even under decimal pricing, trading less active stocks can still be costly, particularly for low-priced stocks. Metatec's average share price during December 2001 was less than 30 cents.

The second panel contains summary statistics for the variables used as determinants of the spread. The average share price was \$22.29 per share in March 1996, \$27.49 in April 1998, and \$17.07 in December 2001, showing the run-up and then the fall off of tech stocks over this six-year period. The rate of trading activity rose steadily. The average number of shares traded per day is about 259,443 in March 1996, 303,170 in April 1998, and 594,679 in December 2001. The average number of dealers for each stock also rose over the period from 37 in March 1996 to 115 in December 2001. One reason for this increase may have been the increased level of trading activity. The modified Herfindahl index fell from 0.1402 to 0.1050, however, indicating that the Nasdaq market became much more competitive. The average annualized return volatility was 60.86% in March 1996, 51.89% in April 1998, and 84.28% in December 2001, showing the high degree of risk of the technology-laden Nasdaq market. The average of the square root of the time between trades was 2.22 min in March 1996, 1.87 min in April 1998, and 1.24 min in December 2001, showing the increase in trading intensity through time. Finally, the average expected inventory-holding premium (*IHP*) is 0.0306 in March 1996, 0.0281 in April 1998, and 0.0134 in December 2001.

Table 4 contains estimates of the correlation among the variables used in the analysis. A number of interesting results appear. First, the correlations between absolute spreads and relative spreads are fairly small in the first two subsamples (0.347 and 0.373 for the equal-weighted quoted spreads and volume-weighted effective spreads in March 1996 and 0.436 and 0.417 in April 1998) and are negligible in the third (−0.048 for the equal-weighted quoted spreads and −0.046 for the volume-weighted effective spreads in December 2001). Past studies of market maker spreads are split in the use of absolute spread and relative spread as the variable of focus (see Table 1). The low level of correlation between the two measures indicates that the two variables are describing different phenomena. Because the objective of the studies has been to explain the level of spread, focusing on absolute spread seems the more sensible approach.

Table 4

Summary of cross-correlations between variables used in the cross-sectional regressions of spreads for Nasdaq stocks. *EWQS* is the equal-weighted quoted bid/ask spread; *VWES* is the volume-weighted effective bid/ask spread; *REWQS* and *RVWES* are the equal-weighted and volume-weighted effective bid/ask spreads divided by share price, respectively; *S(InvS)* is the (inverse of) share price; *TV(InvTV)* is the (inverse of the) number of shares traded; *ND* is the number of dealers; *MHI* is the modified Herfindahl index; σ is the annualized return volatility of the stock computed over the most recent 60 trading days prior to the estimation month; \sqrt{t} is the average of the square root of the number of minutes between trades; and *IHP* is expected inventory-holding premium,

$$IHP = S[2N(0.5\sigma\sqrt{t}) - 1].$$

To be included in the sample, the stock must have traded at least five times each day in every day during the month. For March 1996 (April 1998), only stocks with prices quoted in eighths (sixteenths) are included

Variable	<i>EWQS</i>	<i>VWES</i>	<i>REWQS</i>	<i>RVWES</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Inv P</i>	<i>TV</i>	<i>Inv TV</i>	<i>ND</i>	<i>MHI</i>	σ	\sqrt{t}
March 1996 (<i>n</i> = 974)												
<i>VWES</i>	0.969											
<i>REWQS</i>	0.347	0.386										
<i>RVWES</i>	0.294	0.373	0.979									
<i>S</i>	0.305	0.286	−0.560	−0.549								
<i>Inv S</i>	−0.304	−0.260	0.707	0.717	−0.744							
<i>TV</i>	−0.258	−0.255	−0.330	−0.307	0.286	−0.217						
<i>Inv TV</i>	0.265	0.347	0.463	0.488	−0.205	0.265	−0.311					
<i>ND</i>	−0.309	−0.318	−0.447	−0.427	0.320	−0.276	0.872	−0.467				
<i>MHI</i>	0.435	0.447	0.337	0.333	−0.031	0.026	−0.205	0.140	−0.353			
σ	0.073	0.109	0.405	0.405	−0.268	0.342	0.018	−0.077	0.067	0.043		
\sqrt{t}	0.335	0.362	0.569	0.554	−0.333	0.352	−0.496	0.774	−0.706	0.407	−0.135	
<i>IHP</i>	0.716	0.721	0.083	0.064	0.410	−0.340	−0.233	0.257	−0.320	0.397	0.223	0.344
April 1998 (<i>n</i> = 1,444)												
<i>VWES</i>	0.986											
<i>REWQS</i>	0.436	0.444										
<i>RVWES</i>	0.383	0.417	0.983									
<i>S</i>	0.468	0.454	−0.422	−0.444								
<i>Inv S</i>	−0.345	−0.321	0.547	0.590	−0.748							
<i>TV</i>	−0.264	−0.250	−0.363	−0.340	0.216	−0.162						
<i>Inv TV</i>	0.566	0.610	0.638	0.657	−0.049	0.157	−0.260					
<i>ND</i>	−0.358	−0.346	−0.573	−0.543	0.299	−0.261	0.849	−0.445				

Table 4. (Continued)

Variable	<i>EWQS</i>	<i>VWES</i>	<i>REWQS</i>	<i>RVWES</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Inv P</i>	<i>TV</i>	<i>Inv TV</i>	<i>ND</i>	<i>MHI</i>	σ	\sqrt{t}
<i>MHI</i>	0.366	0.367	0.392	0.374	−0.041	0.033	−0.209	0.276	−0.371			
$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{t}}$	−0.181	−0.172	0.137	0.149	−0.284	0.299	0.060	−0.165	0.143	−0.047		
<i>IHP</i>	0.821	0.810	0.286	0.241	0.472	−0.349	−0.261	0.482	−0.352	0.344	0.066	0.484
December 2001 ($n = 1,343$)												
<i>VWES</i>	0.990											
<i>REWQS</i>	−0.048	−0.040										
<i>RVWES</i>	−0.060	−0.046	0.995									
<i>S</i>	0.324	0.309	−0.515	−0.525								
<i>Inv S</i>	−0.257	−0.250	0.778	0.779	−0.385							
<i>TV</i>	−0.210	−0.207	−0.145	−0.141	0.107	−0.022						
<i>Inv TV</i>	0.595	0.626	0.275	0.281	−0.109	−0.004	−0.185					
<i>ND</i>	−0.359	−0.361	−0.431	−0.431	0.382	−0.190	0.710	−0.475				
<i>MHI</i>	0.199	0.205	0.473	0.476	−0.372	0.237	−0.214	0.436	−0.537			
$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{t}}$	−0.309	−0.308	0.531	0.536	−0.484	0.548	0.058	−0.141	0.009	0.110		
<i>IHP</i>	0.408	0.426	0.574	0.579	−0.416	0.250	−0.311	0.809	−0.725	0.657	0.027	
	0.877	0.866	−0.190	−0.202	0.455	−0.309	−0.188	0.498	−0.253	0.101	−0.242	0.287

Second, the correlations among the regressors in Eq. (17) are small in relation to the correlation of each of the regressors with the spread measures, providing assurance that multicollinearity is not affecting our regression estimates in any serious way. In December 2001, the correlation between the inverse of trading volume and expected inventory-holding premium is 0.498; the correlation between the inverse of trading volume and the modified Herfindahl index is 0.436; and the correlation between the expected inventory-holding premium and the modified Herfindahl index is 0.101. The correlations of the equal-weighted quoted spread with the *InvTV*, *IHP*, and *MHI* are 0.595, 0.877, and 0.199, respectively.

Finally, the inventory-holding premium is highly correlated with the absolute spread measures *EWQS* and *VWES* (0.877 and 0.866, respectively), while it is inversely correlated with the relative spread measures *REWQS* and *RVWES* (−0.190 and −0.202, respectively). This underscores the importance of proper model specification. Inventory-holding premium is clearly important in the determination of the bid/ask spread, but the relation gets masked when only one of the two variables (spread) is scaled by share price.

4.3. Regression results using at-the-money option to value inventory-holding premium

Tables 5 and 6 contain a summary of the regression results. All of the *t*-ratios are corrected for heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation in the residuals. Table 5 contains the results of the regressions using the equal-weighted quoted spread (Panel A) and the volume-weighted effective spread (Panel B) as the dependent variable. All of the coefficients are positive and significant in a statistical sense. The single most important explanatory variable appears to be the inventory-holding premium. Its coefficient estimate is greater than one, indicating that, as expected, the average time between trades is a downward biased estimate of the expected length of the market maker's holding period.¹⁹ The sign and the significance of the coefficient α_2 indicates that competition among market makers also plays an important role in determining the absolute level of the bid/ask spread. The higher the modified Herfindahl index (the lower the competition), the greater the spread. The coefficient estimate of 0.0520 in December 2001, for example, implies that the quoted bid/ask spread will be 5.2 cents higher in a market with a monopolist than a market with perfect competition. The inverse of trading volume also enters significantly.²⁰ Its magnitude is much smaller in December 2001 than in the previous years, indicating perhaps that the fixed costs of market making have been reduced. Finally, recall that our model Eq. (17) is structured so that the level of the intercept term equals the minimum tick size. The estimate of the intercept term α_0 in March 1996 is 0.1589, and is not significantly different from the minimum tick size in the Nasdaq market, 0.125. The

¹⁹ Later in this section, we allow the data to identify the average of the square root of the time between trades.

²⁰ Wang et al. (1997) recommend running a simultaneous regression system to account for the possibility of joint determination of bid/ask spreads and trading volume. We ran a simultaneous system and found no meaningful effect on the results.

Table 5

Summary of cross-sectional regression results of absolute quoted and effective bid/ask spreads of Nasdaq stocks. EQS_i is the equal-weighted quoted spread of stock i , $VWES_i$ is the volume-weighted effective spread, $InvTV_i$ is the inverse of the number of shares traded, MHI is the modified Herfindahl index, and IHP_i is the expected inventory-holding premium. The value of each variable, except IHP_i and MHI , is computed each trading day, and then the values are averaged across all days during the month. The value of IHP_i is computed using

$$IHP_i = S_i[2N(0.5\sigma_i\sqrt{t_i}) - 1],$$

where S_i is the average share price, σ_i is the annualized return volatility of the stock computed over the most recent 60 trading days prior to the estimation month, and $\sqrt{t_i}$ is the average of the square root of the time between trades. To be included in the sample, the stock must have traded at least five times each day in every day during the month. For March 1996 (April 1998), only stocks with prices quoted in eighths (sixteenths) are included. Panel A (B) contains the results using EQS_i ($VWES_i$) as the dependent variable. The regression specification is

$$SPR_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 IHP_i + \varepsilon_i.$$

Spread	Month	Number of observations	R^2	Coefficient estimates/ t -ratios			
				$\hat{\alpha}_0/t(\hat{\alpha}_0)$	$\hat{\alpha}_1/t(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	$\hat{\alpha}_2/t(\hat{\alpha}_2)$	$\hat{\alpha}_3/t(\hat{\alpha}_3)$
A. Equal-weighted quoted spread							
	March 1996	974	0.5440	0.1589 11.30	1,026.67 2.41	0.3403 5.98	6.0030 11.29
	April 1998	1,444	0.7155	0.0354 2.89	2,344.78 6.40	0.1552 3.08	7.6221 14.39
	December 2001	1,343	0.8022	0.0067 1.21	791.89 6.60	0.0520 2.20	6.2616 13.92
B. Volume-weighted effective spread							
	March 1996	974	0.5751	0.1029 12.06	1,407.01 4.82	0.2342 6.60	3.8253 12.26
	April 1998	1,444	0.7223	0.0295 4.04	2,013.49 7.89	0.0973 3.07	4.7088 15.30
	December 2001	1,343	0.8005	0.0063 1.64	743.82 8.33	0.0222 1.26	4.3304 14.07

intercept estimate is 0.0354 in April 1998, significantly less than the exchange-mandated 0.0625. In December 2001, the intercept estimate is 0.0067, which is not significantly different from one penny.

The second regression uses effective spread instead of quoted spread as the dependent variable. Because many trades take place within the prevailing price quotes, effective spread is a more accurate measure of market maker revenue. Like in the first regression, expected inventory-holding premium has the greatest explanatory power. The expected inventory-holding premium coefficient estimate is less than it was for the quoted spread. Apparently, the average of the square root of the time

Table 6

Summary of cross-sectional regression results of relative effective bid/ask spread of Nasdaq stocks. $RVWES_i$ is the volume-weighted effective spread, $InvTV_i$ is the inverse of the number of shares traded, MHI is the modified Herfindahl index, and IHP_i is the expected inventory-holding premium. The value of each variable, except IHP_i and MHI_i , is computed each trading day, and then the values are averaged across all days during the month. The value of IHP_i is computed using

$$IHP_i = S_i[2N(0.5\sigma_i\sqrt{t_i}) - 1],$$

where S_i is the average share price, σ_i is the annualized return volatility of the stock computed over the most recent 60 trading days prior to the estimation month, and $\sqrt{t_i}$ is the average of the square root of the time between trades. To be included in the sample, the stock must have traded at least five times each day in every day during the month. For March 1996 (April 1998), only stocks with prices quoted in eighths (sixteenths) are included. Panel A contains the results from a regression through the origin, and Panel B includes an intercept. The regression specification is

$$RVWES_i = \alpha_0\left(\frac{1}{S_i}\right) + \alpha_1\left(\frac{InvTV_i}{S_i}\right) + \alpha_2\left(\frac{MHI_i}{S_i}\right) + \alpha_3\left(\frac{IHP_i}{S_i}\right) + v_i.$$

Regression	Month	Number of observations	R^2	Coefficient estimates/ t -ratios				
				Intercept	$\hat{\alpha}_0/t(\hat{\alpha}_0)$	$\hat{\alpha}_1/t(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	$\hat{\alpha}_2/t(\hat{\alpha}_2)$	$\hat{\alpha}_3/t(\hat{\alpha}_3)$
A. Regression with no intercept								
	March 1996	974			0.0765 8.68	965.6146 3.37	0.2681 6.78	4.4775 12.00
	April 1998	1,444			0.0489 5.63	996.102 3.35	0.0779 2.48	3.9864 7.95
	December 2001	1,343			0.0039 2.46	179.0765 1.90	0.0265 2.10	5.6144 10.51
B. Regression with intercept								
	March 1996	974	0.7697	0.0016 2.82	0.0614 7.23	1,243.46 4.36	0.2806 7.04	4.0091 11.15
	April 1998	1,444	0.7201	0.0029 8.33	0.0125 1.81	1,572.935 5.27	0.1299 4.56	2.7176 6.79
	December 2001	1,343	0.8687	0.0004 1.13	0.0038 2.34	190.9308 2.03	0.0277 2.18	5.3737 10.04

between trades is not as poor a measure of holding period as we expected, given the large number of dealers making markets. Furthermore, the intercept estimates are lower than the regression for quoted spread. This is not surprising given that the effective spread can have values as low as zero.²¹ The estimate, 0.1029, in March 1996, for example, represents the level of revenue per share that the market maker can expect to earn for providing liquidity in an extremely active stock.

²¹ The effective spread equals zero in instances in which the quoted spread is an even number of ticks and the trade takes place at the midpoint.

Table 6 contains the results of estimating the regression model Eq. (19). Eq. (19) is simply the absolute spread regression, except that all variables are scaled by share price and the intercept term is suppressed. The choice between using model Eq. (17) or model Eq. (19) should be based primarily on which regression has the most well behaved residuals. Because we are correcting the standard errors for heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation in both cases, however, the inferences should not be strikingly different. As the first panel in Table 6 shows, the results are very similar (to the second panel in Table 5). They should be. They are the same model.

The second panel in Table 6 is included to illustrate what can happen if one inadvertently includes an intercept term in the relative spread regression. While the coefficient estimates of the explanatory variables are about the same order of magnitude as those in the first panel, the meaning of the coefficient of the inverse of share price is lost. Neither that coefficient nor the intercept term provides any meaningful information about the minimum bid/ask spread. Also, the adjusted *R*-squared is considerably larger in the relative spread regression than in the absolute spread regression (e.g., 0.8687 versus 0.8005 in December 2001). This comparison is meaningless, however, and does not in any way suggest that the relative spread performs better.

4.4. Regression results using ad hoc model specifications

Tables 7 and 8 illustrate what can happen when the determinants of spread are specified in an ad hoc fashion. In Section 2, we developed a simple, parsimonious theoretical model of the market maker's bid/ask spread. Its structure accounts for the minimum price variation of the stock and provides an explicit measure of the dollar cost of inventory-holding and adverse selection. Suppose we had not developed a theoretical model but had made well-reasoned arguments for including share price, return volatility, and the average time between trades (the determinants of the inventory-holding premium) together with the inverse of trading volume and the modified Herfindahl index as the determinants of spread. Furthermore, suppose we assume the relation is linear, as is done in some of the past studies. Panel B of Table 7 contains the regression results. Panel A contains the regression results of our structural model Eq. (17) to facilitate comparison.

The results reported in Table 7 are striking in two ways. First, all of the variables enter the model with their expected signs, and each variable is significant in a statistical sense. The intercept term no longer can be interpreted as being the minimum spread. Second, the adjusted *R*-squared levels in the ad hoc regression are dramatically less than for the properly structured model (e.g., 0.5534 in December 2001 for the ad hoc regression versus 0.8005 for the properly specified model). Although both regressions contain the same independent variables, knowing the proper variable definitions and model structure substantially improves performance.

Table 8 also underscores the importance of regression specification. Panel A reports the regression results when the volume-weighted effective spread is regressed solely on the inventory-holding premium, and Panel B contains the regression results when the determinants of the inventory-holding premium are used as the

Table 7

Summary of cross-sectional regression results of absolute effective bid/ask spread of Nasdaq stocks using structural model vis-à-vis an ad hoc model specification. $VWES_i$ is the volume-weighted effective spread, $InvTV_i$ is the inverse of the number of shares traded, MHI_i is the modified Herfindahl index, and IHP_i is the expected inventory-holding premium. The value of each variable, except IHP_i and MHI_i , is computed each trading day and then the values are averaged across all days during the month. The value of IHP_i is computed using

$$IHP_i = S_i[2N(0.5\sigma_i\sqrt{t_i}) - 1],$$

where S_i is the average share price, σ_i is the annualized return volatility of the stock computed over the most recent 60 trading days prior to the estimation month, and $\sqrt{t_i}$ is the average of the square root of the time between trades. To be included in the sample, the stock must have traded at least five times each day in every day during the month. For March 1996 (April 1998), only stocks with prices quoted in eighths (sixteenths) are included. Panel A contains the results for the regression specification

$$VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 IHP_i + e_i.$$

Panel B contains the results for the regression specification

$$VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 S_i + \alpha_4 \sigma_i + \alpha_5 t_i + e_i.$$

Regression	Month	Number of observations	\bar{R}^2	Coefficient estimates/t-ratios					
				$\hat{\alpha}_0/t(\hat{\alpha}_0)$	$\hat{\alpha}_1/t(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	$\hat{\alpha}_2/t(\hat{\alpha}_2)$	$\hat{\alpha}_3/t(\hat{\alpha}_3)$	$\hat{\alpha}_5/t(\hat{\alpha}_5)$	$\hat{\alpha}_5/t(\hat{\alpha}_5)$
A. Structural model									
	March 1996	974	0.5751	0.1029	1,407.01	0.2342	3.8253		
				12.06	4.82	6.60	12.26		
	April 1998	1,444	0.7223	0.0295	2,013.49	0.0973	4.7088		
				4.04	7.89	3.07	15.30		
	December 2001	1,343	0.8005	0.0063	743.82	0.0222	4.3304		
				1.64	8.33	1.26	14.07		
B. Ad hoc specification									
	March 1996	974	0.4724	-0.0291	2,528.72	0.4495	0.0042	0.1366	228.13
				-1.79	4.50	9.49	11.52	8.87	2.40
	April 1998	1,444	0.6668	-0.0628	3,458.72	0.2933	0.0043	0.0656	261.20
				-3.80	6.18	7.85	13.88	4.09	2.68
	December 2001	1,343	0.5534	0.0154	2,419.83	0.1506	0.0015	-0.0047	-303.36
				1.38	11.80	4.05	5.07	-1.06	-5.26

independent variables. In Appendix A, we demonstrate that IHP is perfectly linearly dependent on its three determinants. Nonetheless, when the structure of that relation is not known, the relation with spread is obfuscated. The adjusted R -squared measures reported in the two panels of Table 8 show the dominance of the properly specified IHP .

4.5. Distinguishing between collars and straddles

In Section 2, we argued that an at-the-money option value may overstate the inventory-holding premium because the market maker is allowed to earn money if

Table 8

Summary of cross-sectional regression results of absolute effective bid/ask spreads of Nasdaq stocks using inventory-holding premium vis-à-vis its components. The notation is defined as follows: $VWES_i$ is the volume-weighted effective spread, and IHP_i is the expected inventory-holding premium. The value of each variable, except IHP_i , is computed each trading day, and then the values are averaged across all days during the month. The value of IHP_i is computed using

$$IHP_i = S_i[2N(0.5\sigma_i\sqrt{t_i}) - 1],$$

where S_i is the average share price, σ_i is the annualized return volatility of the stock computed over the most recent 60 trading days prior to the estimation month, and $\sqrt{t_i}$ is the average of the square root of the time between trades. To be included in the sample, the stock must have traded at least five times each day in every day during the month. For March 1996 (April 1998), only stocks with prices quoted in eighths (sixteenths) are included. The regression specification for the results reported in Panel A is

$$VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 IHP_i + \varepsilon_i.$$

Panel B contains the results for the regression specification

$$VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 S_i + \alpha_2 \sigma_i + \alpha_3 t_i + \varepsilon_i.$$

Regression	Month	Number of observations	\bar{R}^2	Coefficient estimates/ <i>t</i> -ratios			
				$\hat{\alpha}_0/t(\hat{\alpha}_0)$	$\hat{\alpha}_1/t(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	$\hat{\alpha}_2/t(\hat{\alpha}_2)$	$\hat{\alpha}_3/t(\hat{\alpha}_3)$
A. Inventory holding premium							
	March 1996	974	0.5196	0.1343 16.34	4.5551 15.23		
	April 1998	1,444	0.6563	0.0420 5.27	5.8295 18.11		
	December 2001	1,343	0.7500	0.0114 3.97	5.0658 20.88		
B. Determinants of inventory-holding premium							
	March 1996	974	0.3713	−0.0222 −1.25	0.0047 12.07	0.1640 9.62	832.54 15.94
	April 1998	1,444	0.5768	−0.0655 −3.29	0.0049 11.58	0.0824 4.85	1097.77 21.09
	December 2001	1,343	0.3699	0.0300 2.78	0.0020 5.89	−0.0188 −3.89	629.88 11.16

the stock price moves in his favor. In a competitive environment, some of the value of this option may be bid away. A way to proxy for this effect is to reduce the value of the inventory-holding premium by the value of a slightly out-of-the money option. Panel A of Table 9 contains the regression results when the inventory-holding premium is modeled as a collar, where the out-of-the-money option is assumed to have an exercise price 0.5% away from the current stock price. Comparing this panel with Panel B in Table 5, the collar leads to a slight improvement in performance using the adjusted R -squared as the performance criterion.

Table 9

Summary of cross-sectional regression results of absolute effective bid/ask spreads of Nasdaq stocks using option collar to value inventory-holding premium vis-à-vis option straddle to model adverse selection. $VWES_i$ is the volume-weighted effective spread, $InvTV_i$ is the inverse of the number of shares traded, MHI_i is the modified Herfindahl index, $COLLAR_i$ is the expected inventory-holding premium modeled as the difference between an at-the-money call and a 0.5% out-of-the-money put, and $STRADDLE_i$ is the adverse selection component of the spread modeled as the sum of the values of an out-of-the-money call (S = bid/ask midpoint and X = ask price) and an out-of-the money put (S = bid/ask midpoint and X = bid price). The values of all variables, except $COLLAR_i$ and $STRADDLE_i$, are computed each trading day, and then the values are averaged across all days during the month. To be included in the sample, the stock must have traded at least five times each day in every day during the month. For March 1996 (April 1998), only stocks with prices quoted in eighths (sixteenths) are included. The regression specifications are

Panel A : $VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 COLLAR_i + \varepsilon_i$;

Panel B : $VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 STRADDLE_i + \varepsilon_i$; and

Panel C : $VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 STRADDLE_i + \alpha_4 S_i + \alpha_5 \sigma_i + \alpha_6 t_i + \varepsilon_i$.

The determinants of the inventory-holding premium are: S_i , the average share price; σ_i , the annualized return volatility of the stock computed over the most recent 60 trading days prior to the estimation month; and t_i , the average of the time between trades

Regression	Month	Number of observations	\bar{R}^2	Coefficient estimates/ <i>t</i> -ratios					
				$\hat{\alpha}_0/t(\hat{\alpha}_0)$	$\hat{\alpha}_1/t(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	$\hat{\alpha}_2/t(\hat{\alpha}_2)$	$\hat{\alpha}_3/t(\hat{\alpha}_3)$	$\hat{\alpha}_4/t(\hat{\alpha}_4)$	$\hat{\alpha}_5/t(\hat{\alpha}_5)$
A. Inventory holding premium modeled as collar									
	March 1996	974	0.5846	0.0739 7.30	2,045.44 6.57	0.3000 8.04	5.1530 12.38		
	April 1998	1,444	0.7756	0.0084 1.12	2,343.94 11.37	0.1225 4.70	5.7189 16.72		
	December 2001	1,343	0.8151	−0.0002 −0.06	926.13 11.36	0.0620 3.29	4.7499 15.06		
B. Adverse selection modeled as straddle									
	March 1996	974	0.2933	0.1641 23.45	2,361.99 7.85	0.4885 9.88	1.2345 2.29		

Table 9. (Continued)

Regression	Month	Number of observations	R^2	Coefficient estimates/ <i>t</i> -ratios						
				$\hat{\alpha}_0/t(\hat{\alpha}_0)$	$\hat{\alpha}_1/t(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	$\hat{\alpha}_2/t(\hat{\alpha}_2)$	$\hat{\alpha}_3/t(\hat{\alpha}_3)$	$\hat{\alpha}_4/t(\hat{\alpha}_4)$	$\hat{\alpha}_5/t(\hat{\alpha}_5)$	$\hat{\alpha}_6/t(\hat{\alpha}_6)$
	April 1998	1,444	0.4234	0.0954 13.04	3,938.00 10.34	0.3010 8.26	1.3777 2.54			
	December 2001	1,343	0.4639	0.0409 14.11	1,818.99 13.78	−0.0541 −1.98	2.6204 8.12			
C. Adverse selection modeled as straddle and determinants of IHP										
	March 1996	974	0.4786	−0.0501 −2.86	2,818.21 4.84	0.4820 9.61	−1.3322 −3.14	0.0047 11.42	0.1556 9.24	360.47 1.98
	April 1998	1,444	0.6724	−0.0927 −5.31	3,464.68 6.04	0.3116 8.52	−1.7268 −4.25	0.0047 13.22	0.1101 6.43	597.63 2.84
	December 2001	1,343	0.5703	0.0231 1.90	2,433.93 12.17	0.1441 4.00	1.3382 4.23	0.0011 3.17	−0.0109 −2.22	−791.25 −5.62

Panel B replaces the collar variable with a straddle. Copeland and Galai (1983) model the adverse selection component of the spread as the sum of the values of a slightly out-of-the-money put and a slightly out-of-the-money call. The put has an exercise price equal to the market maker's bid price, and the call has an exercise price equal to the ask. The stock price is assumed to be the midpoint. We use this straddle value in a regression on the volume-weighted effective spread. The results in Panel B show clearly that the collar specification dominates.

One reason the collar specification might dominate is that the straddle measures only the adverse selection component of the spread while our collar measures the value of both the inventory-holding cost and adverse selection. To proxy for the missing determinant, we use the three determinants of the inventory-holding premium. As the results in Panel C of Table 9 show, the regression performance of the collar model continues to dominate. When the variables are added, the coefficient of the straddle variable has the wrong sign in two of the subsamples.

4.6. Estimating the average time between trades and the probability of informed trades

Based on the marginal improvement of the collar's regression performance relative to the performance of the single option valuation of the inventory-holding premium, we choose to move forward with the more parsimonious specification of *IHP* in Eq. (12). In Section 2, we noted that our regression model could be respecified to permit the estimation of the square root of the average time between trades. See Eq. (20). The left panel of Table 10 contains the regression results. The first set of results corresponds to the volume-weighted regression results reported in Panel B of Table 5. Because the inventory-holding premium is linear in the square root of time to expiration, the coefficient estimate $\hat{\alpha}_3$ can be used to scale the square root of the time between trades in determining the inventory-holding premium. In the March 1996 subsample, for example, the value of $\hat{\alpha}_3$ is 3.8253. If we multiply the average square root of time between trades by this value, compute a new (higher) level of the inventory-holding premium, and reestimate the regression, the coefficient $\hat{\alpha}_3$ in the new regression should be equal to one. This is confirmed in the second set of regression results reported in the left panel of Table 10. Nothing changes in the regression results except the magnitude of $\hat{\alpha}_3$.

We can also use the value of 3.8253 to construct an estimate of the number of active market makers in our sample. Again, the estimate of $\hat{\alpha}_3$ is greater than one because we use the market-wide average of the square root of the time between trades in the calculation of the inventory-holding premium. This understates the time between trades for an individual market maker. The greater the number of active market makers, the longer each one will have to wait for offsetting trades, all else equal. By multiplying the time between trades by the number of active market makers such that the coefficient on the resulting inventory-holding premium is one, we can estimate the number of active market makers in our sample. Because 3.8253 is the appropriate scaling factor for the average square root of the time between trades, 3.8253^2 , or approximately 15, is the appropriate scaling factor for the average time between trades. Thus, in the March 1996 subsample, an average of approximately 15

Table 10

Summary of cross-sectional regression results of absolute effective bid/ask spreads of Nasdaq stocks. The notation is defined as follows: $VWES_i$ is the volume-weighted effective spread, $InvTV_i$ is the inverse of the number of shares traded, MHI is the modified Herfindahl index, and IHP_i is the expected inventory-holding premium. The value of each variable, except IHP_i and MHI_i , is computed each trading day and then the values are averaged across all days during the month. To be included in the sample, the stock must have traded at least five times each day in every day during the month. For March 1996 (April 1998), only stocks with prices quoted in eighths (sixteenths) are included. The first set of regression results in the panel on the left is for the regression specification,

$$VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 IHP_i + \varepsilon_i.$$

The value of IHP_i is computed as an at-the-money option

$$IHP_i = S_i [2N(0.5\sigma_i\sqrt{t_i}) - 1],$$

where S_i is the average share price, σ_i is the annualized return volatility of the stock computed over the most recent 60 trading days prior to the estimation month, and $\sqrt{t_i}$ is the average of the square root of the time between trades. In the second regression we constrain the coefficient α_3 to equal one and estimate the average of the square root of the time between trades for a single dealer. The regression results reported in the right panel are for the regression specification,

$$VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i) + \alpha_4 (IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)) + \varepsilon_i,$$

where $IHP_{U,i}$ is the expected inventory-holding premium for trades with uninformed traders and $IHP_{I,i}$ is the expected inventory-holding premium for trades with informed traders. For a trade at the ask, the value of $IHP_{k,i}$ is computed using

$$IHP_{k,i} = S_{k,i} N\left(\frac{\ln(S_{k,i}/X_i)}{\sigma_i\sqrt{t_i}} + 0.5\sigma_i\sqrt{t_i}\right) - X_i N\left(\frac{\ln(S_{k,i}/X_i)}{\sigma_i\sqrt{t_i}} - 0.5\sigma_i\sqrt{t_i}\right).$$

$IHP_{U,i}$ is valued as an out-of-the-money call option with an exercise price equal to the ask price and a stock price equal to the bid/ask midpoint. $IHP_{I,i}$ is valued as an in-the-money (ITM) call option with an exercise price equal to the ask price and a stock price Percent ITM above the exercise price. For a trade at the bid, the IHP is valued using a put option formula with an exercise price equal to the bid price. All coefficients α_4 are significantly different from zero at the five percent probability level except for those in the December 2001 subsample. None of the coefficients α_3 in the right are significantly different from one except those in the April 1998 subsample

Month	Number of observations	\bar{R}^2	Coefficient estimates/t-ratios				Percent ITM	\bar{R}^2	Coefficient estimates/t-ratios				
			$\hat{\alpha}_0/t(\hat{\alpha}_0)$	$\hat{\alpha}_1/t(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	$\hat{\alpha}_2/t(\hat{\alpha}_2)$	$\hat{\alpha}_3/t(\hat{\alpha}_3)$			$\hat{\alpha}_0/t(\hat{\alpha}_0)$	$\hat{\alpha}_1/t(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	$\hat{\alpha}_2/t(\hat{\alpha}_2)$	$\hat{\alpha}_3/t(\hat{\alpha}_3)$	$\hat{\alpha}_4/t(\hat{\alpha}_4)$
March 1996	974	0.5751	0.1029	1407.01	0.2342	3.8253	1	0.5747	0.0882	1693.60	0.4016	0.9595	0.1094
			12.05	4.81	6.60	12.26	2	0.5752	0.0874	1709.36	0.4120	0.9568	0.0511

							3	0.5757	0.0867	1721.50	0.4147	0.9501	0.0340
	974	0.5751	0.1029	1407.13	0.2342	1.0000	4	0.5759	0.0863	1727.88	0.4157	0.9445	0.0256
			12.06	4.82	6.60	12.26	5	0.5761	0.0861	1731.13	0.4162	0.9403	0.0206
							6	0.5762	0.0860	1732.79	0.4164	0.9372	0.0172
							7	0.5762	0.0860	1733.67	0.4165	0.9349	0.0148
							8	0.5762	0.0860	1734.14	0.4165	0.9331	0.0129
							9	0.5762	0.0860	1734.39	0.4166	0.9316	0.0115
							10	0.5763	0.0859	1734.53	0.4166	0.9305	0.0103
April 1998	1,444	0.7223	0.0295	2013.49	0.0973	4.7088	1	0.7540	−0.0036	2542.47	0.2781	0.8450	0.2079
			4.04	7.89	3.07	15.30	2	0.7572	−0.0057	2589.40	0.2989	0.8289	0.0988
							3	0.7591	−0.0068	2613.09	0.3036	0.8109	0.0657
	1,444	0.7223	0.0295	2013.58	0.0973	1.0000	4	0.7602	−0.0073	2624.49	0.3051	0.7975	0.0494
			4.04	7.89	3.07	15.30	5	0.7607	−0.0075	2630.18	0.3057	0.7881	0.0397
							6	0.7610	−0.0077	2633.17	0.3060	0.7814	0.0331
							7	0.7612	−0.0078	2634.83	0.3062	0.7765	0.0284
							8	0.7612	−0.0078	2635.81	0.3062	0.7728	0.0249
							9	0.7613	−0.0079	2636.40	0.3063	0.7699	0.0222
							10	0.7614	−0.0079	2636.79	0.3063	0.7677	0.0199
December 2001	1,343	0.8005	0.0063	743.82	0.0222	4.3304	1	0.7866	0.0093	813.14	0.1293	1.0589	0.0070
			1.64	8.33	1.26	14.07	2	0.7867	0.0090	816.33	0.1303	1.0559	0.0040
							3	0.7867	0.0088	819.11	0.1311	1.0527	0.0031
	1,343	0.8005	0.0063	743.87	0.0223	1.0000	4	0.7868	0.0087	820.56	0.1315	1.0508	0.0025
			1.64	8.33	1.26	14.07	5	0.7868	0.0086	821.26	0.1317	1.0497	0.0021
							6	0.7868	0.0086	821.61	0.1318	1.0490	0.0017
							7	0.7868	0.0086	821.79	0.1319	1.0486	0.0015
							8	0.7868	0.0086	821.88	0.1319	1.0484	0.0013
							9	0.7868	0.0086	821.93	0.1319	1.0482	0.0012
							10	0.7868	0.0085	821.96	0.1319	1.0480	0.0011

dealers are actively making a market in a particular stock, well below the average total of 37 reported in Table 3.

With the revised estimates of the average of the square root of the time between trades in hand, we now turn to estimating the probability that a trade was executed by an informed trader. The right panel of Table 10 contains the regression results from Eq. (21),

$$\begin{aligned} SPRD_i = & \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i) \\ & + \alpha_4 (IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)) + \varepsilon_i. \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

In place of using a single at-the-money option to value the inventory-holding premium, we use an out-of-the-money option value for uninformed trades and an in-the-money option for informed trades. To value the out-of-the-money option, we assume that the true stock price is the midpoint between the bid and ask prices and that the exercise price is the bid or the ask depending on whether the customer's trade was a sale or a purchase. To value the in-the-money option, however, is more difficult. While we know the option's exercise price (the ask price on a customer purchase and the bid price on a customer sale), we do not know the true price. All that we know is that the true price exceeds the ask price on an insider purchase and is below the bid price on an insider sale. Consequently, in the regressions whose results are reported in the right panel of Table 10, we allow the true price to have a premium from 1% to 10% over the option's exercise price.

The results reported in the right panel of Table 10 are interesting in a number of respects. First, as the insider's true price rises relative to the exercise price, the probability that the trade was executed by an insider falls. This stands to reason because the product of the insider inventory-holding premium and the probability of an informed trade is nearly constant, as was illustrated in Table 2. The probabilities reported in Table 10 for all subsamples are similar to the simulated values of Table 2 using plausible parameter settings. Second, the adjusted *R*-squared values do not move around much as the true price changes. Again, this is a reflection of the fact that the adverse selection component in the inventory-holding premium is relatively constant. Third, the coefficient α_3 is not different from one in the March 1996 and December 2001 subsamples. It is significantly less than one in the April 1998 subsample. Finally, the probability of an informed trade is significantly greater than zero for the March 1996 and April 1998 subsamples, but not for the December 2001 subsample.

Table 11 further refines matters. Included are two panels. The second panel corresponds to the regression specification

$$\begin{aligned} VWES_i = & \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i) \\ & + \alpha_4 (IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)) + \alpha_5 d_i + \varepsilon_i, \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

where d_i is a dummy variable whose value is $IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)$ if the trading volume is above the median value across stocks and is zero otherwise. The coefficient α_5 , therefore, measures the difference in the probability of informed trades for active versus inactive stocks. A negative coefficient would support the Easley et al. (1996) hypothesis that the probability of informed trades decreases with the volume of

Table 11

Summary of cross-sectional regression results of absolute effective bid/ask spreads of Nasdaq stocks. $VWES_i$ is the volume-weighted effective spread, $InvTV_i$ is the inverse of the number of shares traded, MHI_i is the modified Herfindahl index, and IHP_i is the expected inventory-holding premium. The value of each variable, except IHP_i and MHI_i , is computed each trading day, and then the values are averaged across all days during the month. To be included in the sample, the stock must have traded at least five times each day in every day during the month. For March 1996 (April 1998), only stocks with prices quoted in eighths (sixteenths) are included. The regression results in Panel A are for the regression

$$VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i) + \alpha_4 (IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)) + \varepsilon_i,$$

where $IHP_{U,i}$ is the expected inventory-holding premium for trades with uninformed traders and $IHP_{I,i}$ is the expected inventory-holding premium for trades with informed traders. The results in Panel B are for the regression

$$VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i) + \alpha_4 (IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)) + \alpha_5 d_i + \varepsilon_i,$$

where d_i is a dummy variable whose value is $IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)$ if the trading volume is above the median value across stocks and is zero otherwise

Regression	Month	Number of observations	\bar{R}^2	Coefficient estimates/ <i>t</i> -ratios					
				$\hat{\alpha}_0/t(\hat{\alpha}_0)$	$\hat{\alpha}_1/t(\hat{\alpha}_1)$	$\hat{\alpha}_2/t(\hat{\alpha}_2)$	$\hat{\alpha}_3/t(\hat{\alpha}_3)$	$\hat{\alpha}_4/t(\hat{\alpha}_4)$	$\hat{\alpha}_5/t(\hat{\alpha}_5)$
A. Informed and uninformed inventory-holding premiums									
	March 1996	974	0.5762	0.0860 8.18	1734.39 5.14	0.4166 12.32	0.9316 10.24	0.0115 3.83	
	April 1998	1,444	0.7614	-0.0079 -0.88	2637.20 9.88	0.3064 11.62	0.7642 11.67	0.0166 8.92	
	December 2001	1,343	0.7868	0.0086 2.30	821.93 8.58	0.1319 5.52	1.0482 12.41	0.0012 1.27	
B. Informed and uninformed inventory-holding premiums with volume dummy									
	March 1996	974	0.5763	0.0875 8.14	1642.04 4.54	0.4129 11.84	0.9160 9.89	0.0143 3.02	-0.0033 -0.84
	April 1998	1,444	0.7790	0.0022 0.26	2139.73 7.87	0.2863 10.76	0.6501 10.10	0.0274 9.78	-0.0126 -6.07
	December 2001	1,343	0.8020	0.0128 3.83	713.97 7.51	0.1085 5.01	0.9031 11.48	0.0127 6.11	-0.0122 -6.85

trading. The results reported in Panel B are for the regression whose true informed stock price maximized the regression's adjusted R -squared. For the March 1996, April 1998, and December 2001 subsamples, these were Percent ITM levels of 9%, 12%, and 9%, respectively. The results in Panel A of the table are the corresponding rows from the right panel in Table 10.²²

²² Because Table 10 contains only true stock prices from 1% to 10% above the exercise price, the 12% row for the April 1998 sample does not appear.

The results in Table 11 show that the probability of informed trading decreases with volume of trading in all subsamples, although not significantly so in the March 1996 subsample. The magnitude of the coefficient is large in April 1998 and in December 2001. In April 1998, the probability of an informed trade for less active stocks is 2.74% and the probability of an informed trade for more active stocks is 1.48%. When the probabilities are broken up by the trading volume dummy, the probability of an informed trade becomes significantly positive for less actively traded stocks for the December 2001 subsample.

The results in Table 12 partition the average volume-weighted bid/ask spread into its cost components. First, we run the regression

$$VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i) + \alpha_4 d_{1,i} + \alpha_5 d_{2,i} + \varepsilon_i, \quad (27)$$

where $d_{1,i}$ is a dummy variable whose value is $IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)$ if the trading volume is below the median value across stocks and is zero otherwise, and $d_{2,i}$ is a dummy variable whose value is $IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)$ if the trading volume is above the median value across stocks and is zero otherwise. The coefficient estimates are then multiplied by the mean variable values to identify the magnitudes of each cost component. Each cost component is then expressed as a percent of the average volume-weighted bid/ask spread of the subsample. In the March 1996 subsample, for example, the minimum tick size component is 31.95% of the average bid/ask spread, indicating how binding the minimum tick size constraint was during the one-eighth price regime. The minimum tick size is greater than the entire spread in the December 2001 subsample, as is clearly illustrated in Fig. 4. The inventory-holding cost is the largest component of spread across the three subsamples (29.28%, 32.35%, and 44.68% for March 1996, April 1998, and December 2001, respectively), with competition (21.15%, 19.20%, and 14.40%) and order-processing costs (8.92%, 15.79%, and 15.27%) paling by comparison. Likewise adverse selection costs are small, with the exception of the April 1998 subsample.

5. Summary

The need to understand and measure the determinants of market maker bid/ask spreads is critical in evaluating the merits of competing market structures and the fairness of market maker rents. This study develops and tests a new model of the market maker's bid/ask spread. The model is simple and parsimonious, showing that the market maker's bid/ask spread is only a function of the minimum tick size, the inverse of trading volume, competition among dealers, and expected inventory-holding premium. The inverse of trading volume helps isolate the market maker's order-processing costs, and the expected inventory-holding premium accounts for the market maker's exposure to inventory price risk and adverse selection. The expected inventory-holding premium is modeled as an at-the-money option with a stochastic time to expiration. The model shows that the expected inventory-holding premium is a specific nonlinear function of share price, return volatility, and the length of time that the market maker expects his position to remain open. It also identifies the inventory-holding and adverse selection cost components of the spread

Table 12
Summary of cost components of absolute effective bid/ask spreads of Nasdaq stocks. $VWES_i$ is the volume-weighted effective spread, $InvTV_i$ is the inverse of the number of shares traded, MHI is the modified Herfindahl index, and IHP_i is the expected inventory-holding premium. The value of each variable, except IHP_i and MHI , is computed each trading day, and then the values are averaged across all days during the month. To be included in the sample, the stock must have traded at least five times each day in every day during the month. For March 1996 (April 1998), only stocks with prices quoted in eighths (sixteenths) are included. The coefficient estimates are for the regression

$$VWES_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 InvTV_i + \alpha_2 MHI_i + \alpha_3 IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i) + \alpha_4 d_{1,i} + \alpha_5 d_{2,i} + \varepsilon_i,$$

where $IHP_{U,i}$ is the expected inventory-holding premium for trades with uninformed traders and $IHP_{I,i}$ is the expected inventory-holding premium for trades with informed traders. The dummy variables are $d_{1,i}$ whose value is $IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)$ if the trading volume is below the median value across stocks and is zero otherwise and $IHP_{I,i}(\tau_i) - IHP_{U,i}(\tau_i)$ if the trading volume is above the median value across stocks

Month	Number of observations	Summary statistic	Mean volume-weighted effective spread	Minimum tick size	Order processing cost	Competition	Inventory holding costs	Adverse selection costs	
								Inactive stocks	Active stocks
March 1996	974	Coefficient estimate		0.0875	1,642.04	0.4129	0.916	0.0143	0.0110
		Variable mean	0.2739	1	0.000015	0.1402	0.0875	0.8001	1.1253
		Product		0.0875	0.0244	0.0579	0.0802	0.0115	0.0124
		Percent of total		31.95	8.92	21.15	29.28	8.70	
April 1998	1,444	Coefficient estimate		0.0022	2,139.75	0.2863	0.6501	0.0274	0.0148
		Variable mean	0.2055	1	0.000015	0.1379	0.1019	1.4101	1.7947
		Product		0.0022	0.0325	0.0395	0.0663	0.0386	0.0265
		Percent of total		1.08	15.79	19.20	32.25	31.68	
December 2001	1,343	Coefficient estimate		0.0128	713.97	0.1085	0.9031	0.0127	0.0004
		Variable mean	0.0791	1	0.000017	0.1050	0.0391	0.5599	0.9425
		Product		0.0128	0.0121	0.0114	0.0353	0.0071	0.0004
		Percent of total		16.16	15.27	14.40	44.68	9.48	

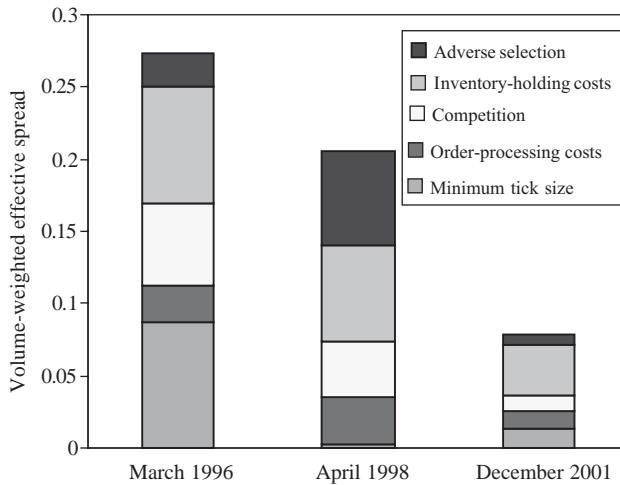


Fig. 4. Estimated components of market maker's bid/ask spread for Nasdaq stocks in March 1996, April 1998, and December 2001.

as well as the probability of an informed trade. A modified Herfindahl index acts as a proxy for competition.

The model is tested using three samples of Nasdaq stock data in the months of March 1996, April 1998, and December 2001, representing three different tick size regimes, and is shown to perform well. In developing and implementing our model of the inventory-holding premium, we resolve two important specification issues. The first is the functional form relating the bid/ask spread to its determinants. Instead of imposing an ad hoc linear or log-linear relation, we construct an option-based component of spread that generates a specific nonlinear function. The second is the appropriate method for transforming a model of absolute spread to a model of relative spread. We illustrate the impact on estimation and inference that these two issues can have when analyzing the determinants of market maker spreads. The model also allows us to estimate the cost components of the spread. The dominant component is inventory-holding cost in all three subsamples. The cost of adverse selection appears to be small, as does the probability of an informed trade.

Appendix A. Proof that at-the-money option value is linear in the square root of time to expiration

This appendix contains the proof that the at-the-money option value,

$$IHP = S[2N(0.5\sigma\sqrt{t}) - 1], \quad (\text{A.1})$$

is linear in the square root of time to expiration.²³ For expositional convenience, express the cumulative normal probability as $N(cx)$, where $c = 0.5\sigma$ and $x = \sqrt{t}$.

²³ This proof is a variation of a more general result shown in Brenner and Subrahmanyam (1994).

Expanding $N(cx)$ into a second-order Taylor series about $x = 0$ results in

$$N(cx) = N(0) + N'(0)x + \frac{1}{2}N''(0)x^2. \quad (A.2)$$

The derivatives in the first- and second-order terms of Eq. (A.2) are

$$N'(d) = \frac{\partial N(d)}{\partial d} \frac{\partial d}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-d^2/2} c \quad (A.3)$$

and

$$N''(d) = \frac{\partial N'}{\partial d} \frac{\partial d}{\partial x} = -d \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-d^2/2} c^2, \quad (A.4)$$

where, for convenience, $d = cx$. Evaluating Eqs. (A.3) and (A.4) at $x = 0$, we get $N'(0) = \sigma/\sqrt{8\pi}$, and $N''(0) = 0$. Substituting into Eq. (A.2), we uncover the linearity of option value in \sqrt{t} :

$$N(cx) = \frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{8\pi}} \right) \sqrt{t}. \quad (A.5)$$

By setting $c = 0.5\sqrt{t}$ and $x = \sigma$, we can also see that an at-the-money option is linear in the volatility rate.

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²⁴ If the market maker liquidates all of his positions by the end of the day, the maximum value of t is one trading day or 1/252 using an annualized volatility rate.

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