# Systematic Trading from First Principles

Oden Petersen

October 28, 2025

" $y = X\beta + \epsilon$ , the rest is commentary."

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# About Me



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### Point of This Talk



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#### Outline

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### Securities Markets

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# **Spot Transactions**

The point of trading is to obtain an asset by giving up money, or obtain money by giving up an asset.

If I give q > 0 units of some asset A, and you give me p, then:

- I have **sold** q units of A to you at  $\frac{\$p}{q}$
- You have **bought** q units of A from me for  $\frac{\$p}{q}$

Buying and selling are collectively called 'trading'.

Suppose I own some amount of A and some amount of money. If we let s be +1 for buying and -1 for selling, then the result of any trade is to add qs to the amount of A I own, and add -qps to the amount of money I have.

# Securities Markets and Exchanges

The **market** is the collective activity of all traders. When we don't care who we trade with, we can just 'trade with the market'.

A **securities market** for some asset A, open at a time t, is any standardised way for traders to reach agreements to buy or sell A at a specified **settlement time** T > t.

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For example,  $T = \dots$ 

- t ('spot', e.g. blockchain)
- $t+1, t+2, \ldots$  ('clearing', e.g. equities)
- Last Thursday of month ('futures')

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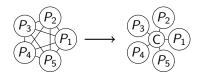
If you agree to give something to someone, you have an **obligation**. If someone agrees to give you something, you have a **right**.

#### Counterparty Risk

If I have an agreement with  $P_1$  to buy 10 units for  $p_1$  at T, and an agreement with  $P_2$  to sell 10 units at  $p_2$  at T, and no further rights/obligations, am I guaranteed to meet my obligations?

#### Centralisation

A **securities exchange** is a centralised venue serving a securities market for **exchange participants** (e.g. ASX, NYSE, TSE, HKEX, LME). Agreements not made through an exchange are often called OTC (over-the-counter).



Centralisation generally reduces search costs and counterparty risk.

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### Netting

Centralisation allows for **netting** of rights and obligations. For any settlement time T, I only need to keep track of the difference between money owed to and by me, and units owed to and by me. The quantity of A owned by me, plus the quantity owed to me, minus the quantity owed by me to others, is known as my **net position** in A. If this is positive, I have a **long position**. If it is negative, I have a **short position**. If it is zero, I am **flat**.

#### Collateralisation

At certain intermediate times t' ( $t \le t' \le T$ ), participants may be required to physically give ('post') something to the exchange to **collateralise** their obligations.

- Money ('margin')
- Assets ('locate'/'borrow')

If an agreement made on the exchange gives you rights to money or assets at T, this is typically as good as posting actual money or assets for an obligation at  $T' \geq T$ .

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# Summary

- Trading is swapping money and assets
- A market is whatever you use to trade
- A securities market is a standardised way to agree to trades
- Agreements consist of rights and obligations
- Finding a counterparty may involve search cost
- Agreements between two parties are subject to counterparty risk
- A securities exchange is a centralised trading venue
- After trades are agreed to on an exchange, they will be settled in some standardised way
- The net quantity of A that I have some claim to can either be positive (long position), negative (short position), or zero (flat).
- Traders may be obligated to post assets ('locate') or money ('margin')

# Trading

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#### Setup

A sequence of trades that collectively increases the amount of money you have and leaves the amount of each asset you have unchanged is clearly favourable.

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Suppose that at each time t we have cash holdings of  $s_t$  and net holdings of  $s_t$  units of some asset  $s_t$ .

Suppose also that trades  $(s_t, q_t, p_t)$  take place at a finite set of distinct times

$$\tau = \{t_1, \ldots t_n\} \subset T = [t_-, t_+],$$

where  $t_{-} < t_{1} < \ldots < t_{n} < t_{+}$ .



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### Setup

A sequence of trades that collectively increases the amount of money you have and leaves the amount of each asset you have unchanged is clearly favourable.

Suppose that at each time t we have cash holdings of  $c_t$  and net holdings of  $a_t$  units of some asset A.

Suppose also that trades  $(s_t, q_t, p_t)$  take place at a finite set of distinct times

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where  $t_{-} < t_{1} < \ldots < t_{n} < t_{+}$ .

Suppose further that  $p_t$  is a right-continuous function  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  with left-limits.

For instance, we could take  $p_t = p_{\max(\tau \cap (-\infty, t])}$  for  $t \ge \min \tau$  and  $p_t = x$  otherwise for some arbitrary x. This is known as the last traded price.

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### Accounting

For any time-varying quantity  $x_t$ , let  $x_t^+$  and  $x_t^-$  denote the right- and left-limits respectively.

Furthermore, define a signed measure  $x_{\omega}$  such that for any interval  $T'=[t'_{-},t'_{+}]$  we have

$$x_{T'} := x_{t_+}^+ - x_{t_-}^-.$$



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$$x_{T'} := x_{t_+}^+ - x_{t_-}^-.$$

Then we have

$$a_{T'} = \sum_{t \in \tau} s_t q_t$$
  $= \int_{t \in T} da,$   $c_{T'} = \sum_{t \in \tau} -p_t (s_t q_t)$   $= \int_{t \in T} -p_t da,$   $p_{T'} = p_{t'_+} - p_{t'_-}^-.$   $= \int_{t \in T} dp.$ 

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# Cash Holdings

It can be shown (see appendix) that the cashflow over the entire interval  $\mathcal{T}=[t_-,t_+]$  is

$$$c_T = \int_{t \in T} - p_t da = p_{t_-} a_{t_-} - p_{t_+} a_{t_+} + \int_{t \in T} a_t^- dp.$$

This is similar in spirit to integration by parts:

$$\int_a^b f \frac{dg}{dx} dx = f(b)g(b) - f(a)g(a) - \int_a^b g \frac{df}{dx} dx.$$

Then we have

$$\$(c_{t_+} + p_{t_+}a_{t_+}) - (c_{t_-} + p_{t_-}a_{t_-}) = \$ \int_{t \in T} a_t^- dp.$$

The quantity  $v_t = p_t a_t$  is known as the **dollar value** of our A holdings **marked** to the price  $p_t$ .

#### Portfolio Valuation

Suppose now that we trade multiple assets, such that  $p_t$ ,  $a_t$  and  $v_t$  are vector-valued, with  $v_t$  the elementwise product of  $p_t$  and  $a_t$ . A collection of assets held in quantities  $a_t$  is known as a **portfolio**.

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$$(c_{t_+} + p_{t_+} \cdot a_{t_+}) - (c_{t_-} + p_{t_-} \cdot a_{t_-}) = \int_{t \in T} a_t^- \cdot dp,$$

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where  $p_{\omega}$  is now a vector-valued measure. Let

$$\Pi_t = c_t + p_t \cdot a_t = c_t + \sum v_t.$$

We call  $\Pi_t$  the **value** of our portfolio **marked** to  $p_t$ .



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# **Profitability**

The quantity  $\Pi_{t_+} - \Pi_{t_-}$  is our **net P&L** (profit and loss) over the interval T, marked to  $p_t$ . Then we have

$$\Pi_T = \int_{t \in T} a_t^- \cdot dp.$$

we can write

$$\Pi_{[t_i,t_{i+1}]} = \int_{[t_i,t_{i+1}]} a_t^- \cdot dp = \int_{t \in [t_i,t_{i+1}]} v_t^- \cdot \frac{dp}{p_t^-},$$

where the quotient  $\frac{dp}{p_t^-}$  is computed elementwise.



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#### Leverage

Suppose we can always make any trade we like at time t with price  $p_t$ . Then we can freely convert a portfolio with value  $\Pi_t$  to that much in cash.

Conversely, we can convert  $\Pi_t$  worth of cash into any portfolio with that value.

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If we begin with a portfolio worth  $\$\Pi_{t_1}$  and make a sequence of trades of the form  $(s_t,q_t,p_t)$  that result in a portfolio worth  $\$\Pi_{t_n}$ , then we could instead begin with a portfolio worth  $L\$\Pi_{t_1}$  and make trades  $(s_t,Lq_t,p_t)$  to arrive at a portfolio worth  $L\$\Pi_{t_n}$ . The ratio L is known as the **leverage ratio**.

### Return on Capital

Because of collateralisation requirements, portfolio management uses up cash.

Consider long-only spot-settled trading. If we were to turn our portfolio into cash, or convert cash into an identical portfolio, we would receive/require  $\$\Pi_t$ .<sup>1</sup>

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If our initial portfolio value were  $\Pi_{t-} + N$  instead of  $\Pi_{t-}$ , and we could simply scale up trade sizes at the same prices, then set

$$L = \frac{\Pi_{t-} + N}{\Pi_{t-}}.$$

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$$L = \frac{\Pi_{t_-} + N}{\Pi_{t_-}}.$$

The **return on capital** is defined as the increase in P&L per dollar added to initial portfolio value, i.e.

$$R_T = \frac{L \int_T d\Pi - \int_T d\Pi}{N} = \frac{\int_T d\Pi}{\Pi_t}.$$

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### Log Returns

If we define

$$\ell_t = \log \Pi_t$$

for any  $t_-^\prime, t_+^\prime$ , then we have

$$R_T = \exp(\ell I_T) - 1,$$

and for any measurable set  $\omega$  we can define

$$R_{\omega} = \exp(\ell_{\omega}) - 1 \approx \ell_{\omega} + O(\ell_{\omega}^2) \text{ (for small } \ell_{\omega}).$$

We call  $\ell_T$  the **log-return** over the interval T.



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# Properties of Returns and Log-Returns

Let  $w_t := \frac{1}{\prod_t} v_t$  be the **weight vector**.

For an interval  $T'=(t_i,t_{i+1}]$ , we have  $a_t^-$  equal to a constant over T', and

$$R_{T'} = w_{t_i}^+ \cdot r_{T'},$$

where the elementwise quotient

$$r_{T'} = \frac{p_{t_{i+1}} - p_{t_i}}{p_{t_i}}$$

is known as the **asset returns** vector over T'. In contrast,  $\ell_{T'}$  is not linear in  $r_{T'}$ .

For a disjoint collection of measurable sets  $\omega_1, \dots \omega_n$  whose union is  $\Omega$ , we have

$$\ell_{\Omega} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell_{\omega_i},$$

$$R_{\Omega} = \left(\prod_{i=1}^n (1+R_{\omega_i})
ight) - 1 pprox \sum_{i=1}^n R_{\omega_i} + O\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |R_{\omega_i}R_{\omega_j}|
ight).$$

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# Summary





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### Market Microstructure

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#### Trade Formation

In practice, the trades we can make at a time t and a price  $p_t$  are limited by our ability to find a willing counterparty.

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The most common type of matching engine design is a **limit-order book** (sometimes called a double auction), which can operate in either a **continuous** or **batched** fashion.

### Limit Order Book

At any point in time, market participants can create a request ('limit order') of the form (s, q, p) to trade up to q units in direction  $s = \pm 1$  at any price  $(p - sm), m \ge 0$ .

The value m is known as the **price improvement**.

They are then said to be "**bid** for p" (s = +1) or "**ask**ing/**offer**ing at p" (s = -1).

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All limit orders active at time t are collected into a **limit-order book**  $\mathcal{L}_t$ . By convention,  $\mathcal{L}_t$  is right-continuous with left limits.

Users can add, cancel and modify orders, subject to exchange-specific rules.

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Whenever  $(+1, q_1, \$p_1), (-1, q_2, \$p_2) \in \mathcal{L}_t$  with  $p_2 \leq p_1$ , both orders could be at least partly satisfied by trading up to  $q_{\text{max}} = \min(q_1, q_2)$  units with one another at a price  $p \in [\$p_2, \$p_1]$ . If such a pair exists the book is said to be **in cross**.

Whenever  $(+1,q_1,\$p_1),(-1,q_2,\$p_2)\in\mathcal{L}_t$  with  $p_2\leq p_1$ , both orders could be at least partly satisfied by trading up to  $q_{\max}=\min(q_1,q_2)$  units with one another at a price  $p\in [p_2,p_1]$ . If such a pair exists the book is said to be **in cross**.

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The ability to quickly find matches for a large number of units at a reasonable price is known as **liquidity**, and is another major benefit of centralisation.

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We can partition  $\mathcal{L}_t$  into  $\mathcal{L}_t = \mathcal{B}_t \cup \mathcal{A}_t$ , with  $\mathcal{B}_t$  the bid orders and  $\mathcal{A}_t$  the ask orders.

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Now define the functions

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ho) &= \sum_{\substack{(+1,q',\$
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The functions  $Q_t(-1, p)$  and  $Q_t(+1, p)$  are known as the **supply curve** and **demand curve** respectively. The function  $M_t(p)$  represents the **matchable quantity** at p.

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# Batch Matching

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- Prior to the **match time**  $t^*$ , users can typically add, modify and cancel limit orders.
- ② At each time  $t \le t^*$ , an **indicative price**  $p_t^*$  will be selected such that  $M_t(p_t^*)$  is maximal. Tiebreaking will depend on exchange rules.
- **③** Finally, at the match time  $t^*$ , some subset of the crossed limit orders will be matched at  $p^*$  for a total quantity  $M_{t^*}(p^*_{t^*})$ . After the match, the book will no longer be crossed.

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Maximising  $M_t(\$p_t^*)$  is equivalent to maximising the sum of qm across all orders, where q is the quantity filled and m is the price improvement. It is common to use this matching style at the beginning or end of a trading day or lunch break, or when there is some kind of market instability such as following a large price move or company announcement. Sometimes  $t^*$  is referred to as a **liquidity event** because of the large volume traded, and the relative insensitivity of  $\$p_{t^*}^*$  to individual orders.

# **Batch Matching Properties**

The following monotonicity properties typically hold:

- ullet  $p_t^*$  nondecreasing in  $\mathcal{B}_t$  and nonincreasing in  $\mathcal{A}_t$
- For each p,  $M_t(p)$  nondecreasing in  $\mathcal{L}_t$
- For individual orders (s, q, p), we will have  $p_t^*$  nondecreasing in  $p_t$  and  $p_t$ .
- For individual orders (s, q, p) and each p', we will have  $M_t(p')$  nondecreasing in q and nondecreasing in p.

# **Batch Matching Properties**

The following monotonicity properties typically hold:

- ullet \$p\_t^\* nondecreasing in  $\mathcal{B}_t$  and nonincreasing in  $\mathcal{A}_t$
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- For individual orders (s, q, p) and each p', we will have  $M_t(p')$  nondecreasing in p and nondecreasing in p.

### Price Priority

Because  $M_t(\$p')$  is nondecreasing in sp, the matching will be designed to obey **price priority**.

If we have two orders  $(s_1, q_1, p_1), (s_2, q_2, p_2)$  with  $s_1p_1 > s_2p_2$ , then the second order cannot be matched unless the first is completely filled.

The order book is often visible to all participants. Traders may be incentivised to wait until immediately before the match time to post orders.

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### Time Priority

If two orders exist at the same price p, the one that reached the matching engine later cannot be matched unless the earlier order is completely filled.

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### Time Priority

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#### Tick Size

Time priority would not have much effect if we could just insert the later order at a price  $p + s\epsilon$  for some very small  $\epsilon > 0$ .

To avoid this, prices must be integer multiples of some small increment  $\$\delta,$  known as the tick size.

In **continuous matching**, a match time is triggered every time a new limit order causes the book to become crossed.

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The only orders involved in the match will be the arriving order and some set of orders  $\mathcal{M}_t$  in the opposite direction.

The arriving order is known as the **active** or **aggressive** order, and the pre-existing orders are known as **passive**.

Typically we are not allowed to match with ourselves. Often the exchange will implement **self-trade protection** so that the quantity of our active and passive orders is simply cancelled out without recording a trade.

Price priority is still used, and time priority is usually used.

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For each q' matched against a passive order (s, q, p), the active order will trade q' units with the passive order at p.

The per-unit price achieved by the active trader will be

$$\$p_t^* = \frac{\sum_{(s,q,\$p) \in \mathcal{M}_t} \$pq}{\sum_{s \in \mathbb{N}_t} pq}$$

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If we aggressively trade a very large quantity, we will exhaust all passive orders we would most prefer to trade with and  $\mathcal{M}_t$  will need to include orders at worse price levels. This is sometimes known as **walking the book**.

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The least favourable price in  $\mathcal{M}_t$  will be given by

$$P_t(sq) = s \min_{\{\$p: Q_t(-s,p) \ge q\}} \$sp.$$

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The unit price of the match will be given by

$$p_t^*(sq) = \frac{1}{q} \int_0^q P_t(sq') dq'.$$

We call the sensitivity of  $p_t^*$  to sq the **instantaneous price impact**.

# Bid-Ask Spread

We call the prices

$$b_t = \lim_{q \to 0^+} p_t^*(-q)$$
  $= \max_{(+1,q,p) \in \mathcal{B}_t} p_t$   
 $a_t = \lim_{q \to 0^+} p_t^*(q)$   $= \min_{(-1,q,p) \in \mathcal{A}_t} p_t$ 

the **bid price** and **ask price** respectively. All bid orders have price at most  $b_t$  and all ask orders have price at least  $a_t$ .

The interval  $[\$b_t,\$a_t]$  is known as the **spread**, and  $\$a_t - \$b_t$  is the **width** of the spread. If  $\$a_t - \$b_t = \$\delta$ , we say that the market for the asset is **large-tick** or **tick-constrained**.

#### Price Proxies

Note that  $p_t^*(0)$  is not yet defined. So long as we choose some price  $m_t$  satisfying  $m_t \in [\$b_t, \$a_t]$ , setting  $p_t^*(0) := \$m_t$  will make  $p_t^*(\cdot)$  nondecreasing.

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Some simple choices for  $m_t$  include:

- $\frac{1}{2}b_t + \$\frac{1}{2}a_t$  (arithmetic **midprice**)
- $\sqrt[8]{b_t a_t}$  (geometric midprice)
- $(1 I_t)b_t + I_ta_t$  (depth-d weighted midprice)
- $\$b_t^{1-l_t}a_t^{l_t}$  (depth-\$d geometrically weighted midprice)

We call  $I_t$  the **book imbalance**.



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We call  $I_t$  the **book imbalance**.

A popular choice for this is

$$I_t = \frac{Q_t(+1, \$b_t)}{Q_t(+1, \$b_t) + Q_t(-1, \$a_t)}.$$

Alternative price proxies are described in the appendix.

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#### Persistent Price Impact

We call the difference  $\lambda_t(sq) = p_t^*(sq) - m_t$  the instantaneous price impact curve of trading q units in direction s.

Buy orders will have nonnegative instantaneous price impact, while sell orders will have nonpositive instantaneous price impact.

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Because aggressive trades remove liquidity from one side of the book, there is also a persistent effect on  $\mathcal{L}_t$  and consequently  $m_t$ . This is known as **persistent price impact**.

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The realised instantaneous price impact is given by

$$\$\lambda_t = \$p_t - \$m_t,$$

while the realised persistent price impact is given by

$$\$\nu_t = \$m_t - \$m_t^{\emptyset},$$

where  $\$m_t^\emptyset$  is the path the microprice process would have taken had we not interacted at all with the matching engine.

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#### P&L with transaction costs

We can write  $p_t = m_t^0 + \nu_t + \lambda_t$ .

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We can write  $p_t = m_t^0 + \nu_t + \lambda_t$ .

$$\$\Pi_{T} = \$ \int_{t \in T} a_{t}^{-}(dm + dn + d\lambda)$$

$$= \$ \int_{t \in T} a_{t}^{-}dm - \$ \int_{t \in T} \nu_{t}da - \$ \int_{t \in T} \lambda_{t}da$$

$$+ \$ ((\nu_{t_{+}} + \lambda_{t_{+}})a_{t_{+}} - (\nu_{t_{-}} + \lambda_{t_{-}})a_{t_{-}}).$$

$$\$ 0 \text{ if } a_{t_{+}} = a_{t_{-}} = 0$$

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Attempts to make  $\nu_t$  and da covary negatively are very hard to pull off and usually considered manipulative.

But if we only use passive execution, it is guaranteed that  $\lambda_t$  and da will covary negatively, and this term will change from a loss to a profit. Trying to make money solely from this term is known as **market making** or **liquidity provision**.

Assuming  $a_{t_-} = a_{t_+} = 0$ ,

$$\$\Pi_T = \underbrace{\$\int_{t\in T} a_t^- dm}_{\text{Midprice P\&L}} - \underbrace{\$\int_{t\in T} \nu_t da}_{\text{PPI Penalty}} - \underbrace{\$\int_{t\in T} \lambda_t da}_{\text{IPI Penalty}}.$$

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With a market-making strategy, we lose a lot of control over  $a_t^-$ . If market participants in general is making money on this term we will tend to lose money. This tendency is referred to as **adverse selection**. In particular, if the priority of our orders are quite low, we will only trade against the aggressive orders with the largest quantity, which tend to be most predictive of midprice changes over a short time horizon. High order priority is therefore extremely valuable for a market making strategy.

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# Market Making Strategy

A highly simplified model of optimal market making is given by Avellaneda and Stoikov (2008). The market maker maintains two limit orders at any time in opposite directions, of the form

$$\left(s, 1, \left(m_t - \gamma q - \frac{1}{2}s\varsigma\right)\right),$$

where  $\gamma$  is a risk-aversion parameter<sup>2</sup> and  $\varsigma$  is the difference between the two prices.

In general, to avoid large  $a_t$ , (which would make our P&L very sensitive to price changes), we want the amount we buy to match the amount we sell.

<sup>2</sup>Defined differently in the paper

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# Market Impact Modeling

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#### Market Data & Market Prices

In order to inform trading activity, market participants receive certain data about the orders and trades on the exchange.

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# Portfolio Management

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# Uncertainty

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# **Decision-Making**

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# Compounding

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# Risk



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# Portfolio Selection

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# Capital Asset Pricing Model

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### Factor Models

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# Statistical Arbitrage



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# **Options Trading**

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# Appendix

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# Proof Sketch for $c_T$ Identity

$$c_{T} = \sum_{t \in \tau} -p_{t}(s_{t}q_{t}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} -p_{t_{i}}(a_{t_{i}}^{+} - a_{t_{i}}^{-}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{t_{i}}a_{t_{i}}^{+} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{t_{i}}a_{t_{i}}^{-}$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} p_{t_{i}}a_{t_{i+1}}^{-} - p_{t_{n}}a_{t_{n}}^{+} + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} p_{t_{i+1}}a_{t_{i+1}}^{-} + p_{t_{1}}a_{t_{1}}^{-}$$

$$= p_{t_{1}}a_{t_{1}}^{-} + -p_{t_{n}}a_{t_{n}}^{+} + \sum_{i=2}^{n} (p_{t_{i}} - p_{t_{i-1}})a_{t_{i}}^{-}$$

$$= p_{t_{1}}a_{t_{1}}^{-} - p_{t_{n}}a_{t_{n}}^{+} + \int_{t \in [t_{1}, t_{n}]} a_{t}^{-} dp$$

$$= p_{t_{-}}a_{t_{-}} - p_{t_{+}}a_{t_{+}} + \int_{t \in T} a_{t}^{-} dp.$$

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#### **Annualised Returns**

The **annualised log-return** over  $\omega$  is  $\ell_{\omega} \frac{1 \text{ year}}{\lambda_{\omega}}$ , where  $\lambda_{\omega}$  is the duration (lebesgue measure) of  $\omega$  in units of time.

The geometrically annualised return over  $\omega$  is

$$(1+R_{\omega})^{rac{1-\mathrm{year}}{\lambda_{\omega}}}-1=\exp\left(\ell_{\omega}rac{1-\mathrm{year}}{\lambda_{\omega}}
ight)-1.$$

The arithmetically annualised return over  $\omega$  is  $R_{\omega} \frac{1 \text{ year}}{\lambda_{\omega}}$ .



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#### Alternative Price Proxies

More generally, we can define the depth-\$d imbalance,

$$I_t(\$d) = \frac{Q_t(+1,\$b_t - \$d)}{Q_t(+1,\$b_t - \$d) + Q_t(-1,\$a_t + \$d)}.$$

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We can also define an exponentially weighted imbalance,

$$I_t(\alpha) =$$

Some microprices with more theoretical backing are discussed in the appendix.

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# Stuff I missed



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