On the Naturally Allied Spiral of Agent-based Computational Economics and Experimental Economics

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AI-Econ Research Center

Department of Economics National Chengchi University Taipei, Taiwan http://www.aiecon.org/ What is the relationship between ACE and EE as two research tools in Economics?

"Natural Allies" (Duffy, 2006)

Nobel Laureates in Economics, 2002



Vernon Smith

Daniel Kahneman

Nobel Laureate in Economics, 1994 and 2012





Reinhard Selten

Alvin Roth

Nobel Laureate in Economics, 1978



- Using experiments with human subjects to generate observations so as to examine economic theory, policy, and market designs has become a widely-accepted research paradigm in economics.
- This helps make economics be an experimental science.

Scaling-Up Issues of EE

- Space Limit
- Budget Limit
- Attention Limit (Fatigue)
- Experimental economics at this point has not carefully reviewed to what extent their obtained results can be sensitive to the number of agents.
- One difficulty is that many experiments are not easy to be scaled-up.



Layout C (UCLA)





Thomas C. Schelling, 1921-

Schelling (2007)

- What I did not know when I did the experiments with my twelve-year-old son using copper and zinc pennies was that I was doing later became known as 'agent-based computational models,' or 'agent-based computational economics.' (Schelling (2007), p. xi.)
- Schelling T (2007) Strategies of Commitment and Other Essays. Harvard University Press.

THOMAS C. SCHELLING 2005 Nobel Laureate in Economics

Strategies of Commitment AND OTHER ESSAYS



Outline

- EE as an Origin of ACE
- Natural Allied Spiral
- Learning-to-Forecast Asset Market Experiments
- Cognitive Double Auction Experiments
- Concluding Remarks

Allocative Efficiency of Markets with Zero-Intelligence Traders: Market as a Partial Substitute for Individual Rationality

Dhananjay K. Gode and Shyam Sunder

Carnegie Mellon University

We report market experiments in which human traders are replaced by "zero-intelligence" programs that submit random bids and offers. Imposing a budget constraint (i.e., not permitting traders to sell below their costs or buy above their values) is sufficient to raise the allocative efficiency of these auctions close to 100 percent. Allocative efficiency of a double auction derives largely from its structure, independent of traders' motivation, intelligence, or learning. Adam Smith's invisible hand may be more powerful than some may have thought; it can generate aggregate rationality not only from individual rationality but also from individual irrationality. Allocative Efficiency of Markets with Zero-Intelligence Traders: Market as a Partial Substitute for Individual Rationality

Dhananjay K. Gode and Shyam Sunder *Carnegie Mellon University*

Zero Intelligence (Entropy Maximization)

Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control 18 (1994) 3-28. North-Holland

Genetic algorithm learning and the cobweb model*

Jasmina Arifovic McGill University, Montréal, Qué. H3A 2T7, Canada

Evolutionary Computation

J Evol Econ (1993) 3:1-22

On designing economic agents that behave like human agents

W. Brian Arthur

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Abstract. This paper explores the idea of constructing theoretical economic agents that behave like actual human agents and using them in neoclassical economic models. It does this in a repeated-choice setting by postulating "artificial agents" who use a learning algorithm calibrated against human learning data from psychological experiments. The resulting calibrated algorithm appears to replicate

Reinforcement Learning



Chapter 19

AGENT-BASED MODELS AND HUMAN SUBJECT EXPERIMENTS

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ACE and Experimental Economics



ACE and EE

Most of the studies combining the two approaches have used agent-based methodology to understand results obtained from laboratory studies with human subjects; with a few notable exceptions, researchers have not sought to understand findings from agent-based simulations with followup experiments involving human *subjects*. (Ibid, p. 951)

ACE and Experimental Economics





Naturally Allied Sprial



LtFEs

- <u>Significance</u>
- Learning-to-Forecast Experiments (LtFEs)
- Earliest LtFEs
- LtF Asset Market Experiments



Gerber, Hens, and Vogt (2002)

 Ninety percent of what we do is based on perception. It doesn't matter if that perception is right or wrong or real. It only matters that other people in the market believe it. I may know it's crazy, I may think it's wrong. But I lose my shirt by ignoring it. ("Making Book on the Buck"Wall Street Journal, Sept. 23, 1988, p. 17)

Learning-to-Forecast Experiments (LtFEs)

- <u>A concentrated task</u> (no trading, no optimization, and so on)
- Market design (endogeneity)
- Repeated game (feedbacks)



Heemeijer et al. (2009)

B.1.2. General information

You are an advisor of an importer who is active on a market for a certain product. In each time period the importer needs a good prediction of the price of the product. Furthermore, the price should be predicted one period ahead, since importing the good takes some time. As the advisor of the importer you will predict the price P(t) of the product during 50 successive time periods. Your earnings during the experiment will depend on the accuracy of your predictions. The smaller your prediction errors, the greater your earnings.

B.1.3. About the market

The price of the product will be determined by the law of supply and demand. The size of demand is dependent on the price. If the price goes up, demand will go down. The supply on the market is determined by the importers of the product. Higher price predictions make an importer import a higher quantity, increasing supply. There are several large importers active on this market and each of them is advised by a participant of this experiment. Total supply is largely determined by the sum of the individual supplies of these importers. Besides the large importers, a number of small importers is active on the market, creating small fluctuations in total supply.



LetFEs: From EE to ACE

LtFES Overlapping Generation Experiments (Marimon and Sunder, 1993, 1994, 1995; Marimon, Spear and Sunder, 1993)

Agent-based Macroeocnomic (Overlapping Generation Model) (Arifovic, 1995, Bullard and Duffy, 19988a, b, 1999; Chen and Yeh, 1999)

Earliest LtFEs

- Marimon R, Sunder S (1993) Indeterminacy of equilibria in a hyperinflationary world: Experimental evidence. Econometrica 61:1073-1107.
- Marimon R, Spear S, Sunder S (1993) Exceptionally driven market volatility: An experimental study. Journal of Economic Theory 61(1):74-103.
- Marimon R, Sunder S (1994) Expectations and learning under alternative monetary regimes: An experimental approach. Economic Theory 4:131-62.

 Marimon R, Sunder S (1995) Does a constant money growth rule help stabilize inflation? Carnegie-Rochester Conference Series on Public Policy 43:111--156.

Complex Dynamics: Grandmont (1985)

As relative risk aversion parameter is increased, the period of cycle also increased



Figure 1. Bifurcation diagram, backward perfect-foresight dynamic (last 50 of 1,000 iterations).

Replicates the figure 4 of Grandmont (1985)

LtFEs and Agent-Based Macroeconomic Model

- Arifovic J (1995) Genetic algorithms and inflationary economies. Journal of Monetary Economics 36(1): 219--43.
- Bullard J, Duffy J (1998a) A model of learning and emulation with artificial adaptive agents. Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control 22: 179--207.
- Bullard J., Duffy J. (1998b) Learning and the stability of cycles. Macroeconomic Dynamics 2(1): 22--48.
- Bullard J, Duffy J (1999) Using genetic algorithms to model the evolution of heterogeneous beliefs. Computational Economics 13(1): 41—60.
- Chen S.-H, Yeh C.-H (1999) Modeling the expectations of inflation in the OLG model with genetic programming. Soft Computing 3(2): 53--62.

Inflation Bottom Up

 $\pi_{i,t}^{e} = f_{i,t}(\pi_{i,t-1}, \pi_{i,t-2}, \dots)$



Forecasting errors as feedbacks to trigger further review and revision

Bullard and Duffy (1998), Figure 2



Figure2. Limiting learning dynamics: 10 replications at each old-agent relative risk aversion; convergence values or last 50 iterations of each replication plotted. \bigcirc Observed after convergence or 2,000 iterations.



Agent-based Financial Markets (Arthur, 1992; Palmer et al, 1994)

Expectationally-Driven Bubbles and Crashes

> LtF Asset Market Experiment



Asset Market Experiments

- In late 1980, the laboratory approach has been extended to the study of financial markets, called the asset market experiments (Smith, Suchanek, and Williams, 1988).
 - Smith V, Suchanek G, Williams A (1988) Bubbles, crashes, and endogenous expectations in experimental spot asset markets. Econometrica 56(5): 1119-1151.

A REVIEW OF BUBBLES AND CRASHES IN EXPERIMENTAL ASSET MARKETS

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Abstract. This paper discusses the literature on bubbles and crashes in the most commonly used experimental asset market design, introduced by Smith *et al.* It documents the main findings based on the results from 41 published papers, 3 book chapters and 20 working papers.

Keywords. Experimental asset markets; Market design; Bubbles

In 1988, Vernon Smith, Gerry Suchanek and Arlington Williams published the results of experiments which would spawn a new twig on the young tree of experimental economic research. Earlier studies had used the double auction design (Smith, 1962), studied intertemporal markets (Forsythe *et al.*, 1982) or investigated securities with homogeneous value to all market participants (Smith, 1965). Yet it was the pioneering work of Smith *et al.* (1988) (hereafter SSW) to combine all of the above. To their surprise, the design they expected to yield informationally efficient prices exhibited large bubbles and crashes. Since then, hundreds of SSW markets have been run, yielding valuable insights into the behavior of economic actors and the factors governing bubbles.

In this paper we collect and aggregate the results from 41 published and 20 working papers.¹ We thereby hope to give readers unfamiliar with this literature a convenient introduction and provide researchers with a reference resource. The study is structured as follows: Section 1 describes the baseline design. Section 2 discusses the results from 25 years of research under this paradigm. Section 3 concludes the paper.

- In the early 1990s, in addition to macroeconomics, another development of agent-based models to economics is the domain of financial markets.
- The literature is known as artificial stock markets.

Agent-Based Artificial Stock Markets: Origin

- Origin: Brain Arthur at Santa Fe Institute (SFI)
- Arthur, B. (1992), "On Learning and Adaptation in the Economy," 92-07-038.
- Palmer, R. G., W. B. Arthur, J. H. Holland, B. LeBaron, and P. Tayler (1994), "Artificial Economic Life: A Simple Model of a Stockmarket," *Physica D*, 75, pp. 264-274.
- Tayler, P. (1995), "Modelling Artificial Stocks Markets Using Genetic Algorithms," in S. Goonatilake and P. Treleaven (eds.), *Intelligent Systems for Finance and Business*, pp.271-288.

Artificial Stock Markets: Further Development

- Arthur, W. B., J. Holland, B. LeBaron, R. Palmer and P. Tayler (1997).
 `Asset Pricing under Endogenous Expectations in an Artificial Stock Market," in W. B. Arthur, S. Durlauf & D. Lane (eds.), *The Economy as an Evolving Complex System II*, Addison-Wesley, pp. 15-44.
- LeBaron, B., W. B. Arthur and R. Palmer (2000), ``Time Series
 Properties of an Artificial Stock Markets,'' *Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control*.
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- LeBaron, B. (1999), "Evolution and Time Horizons in an Agent Based Stock Market,"
Agent-Based Modelling for Financial Markets

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ABSTRACT

1.1 Introduction

An agent-based model (ABM)¹ is a computational model which can simulate the actions and interactions of individuals and organisations, in complex and realistic ways. Even simple ABMs can exhibit complex behavioural patterns and provide valuable information about the dynamics of the real-world system which they emulate. ABMs are not limited by the numerous restrictive and empirically problematic assumptions underlying most mainstream economic models. They can create emergent properties arising from complex spatial interaction and subtle interdependencies between prices and actions, driven by learning and feedback mechanisms. They replace the theoretical assumption of mathematical optimisation by agents in equilibrium by explicit agents with bounded rationality adapting to market forces.

Many approaches have been adopted in modelling agent behaviour for financial ABMs. Agents can range from passive automatons with no cognitive function to active data-gathering decision makers with sophisticated learning capabilities. Indeed, agents

¹From now on we use the abbreviation ABM for both agent-based model and agent-based modelling; it should be clear from the context which is intended.

Forthcoming in Chen S-H, Kaboudan M, and Du Y-R (eds), Handbook on Computational Economics and Finance, Oxford University Press.



- Brock W. Hommes C (1997) A rational route to randomness, Econometrica 65:1059–1095.
- Brock W. Hommes C (1998) Heterogeneous beliefs and routes to chaos in a simple asset pricing model. Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control, 22: 1235-1274.
- Hommes C (2002) Modeling the stylized facts in finance through simple nonlinear adaptive systems. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 99:7221-28.

Adaptive Belief System (Brock and Hommes, 1997, 1998; Hommes, 2002)

Risk Attitude: CARA

Objective Function: Myopic Expected Utility Maximization

Portfolio Optimization (Subjective Forecasts)

Expected Utility Maximization

$Max E_{h,t}(U(W_{h,t+1}))$

$$\Leftrightarrow Max E_{h,t}(W_{h,t+1}) - \frac{\lambda}{2} Var_{h,t}(W_{h,t+1})$$

$$F.O.C \Rightarrow$$

$$E_{h,t}(p_{t+1} + y_{t+1}) - (1+r)p_t - \lambda d_{h,t} Var_{h,t}(p_{t+1} + y_{t+1}) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow d_{h,t}^* = \frac{E_{h,t}(p_{t+1} + y_{t+1}) - (1+r)p_t}{\lambda Var_{h,t}(p_{t+1} + y_{t+1})}$$

Optimal Portfolio and Asset Demand

$$d_{h,t}^{*} = \frac{E_{h,t}(p_{t+1} + y_{t+1}) - (1+r)p_{t}}{\lambda Var_{h,t}(p_{t+1} + y_{t+1})}$$

Model:

(1) Perceived Return : $\overline{E}_{h,t}(p_{t+1} + y_{t+1})$ (2) Perceived Risk : $Var_{h,t}(p_{t+1} + y_{t+1})$

Market Equilibrium

Aggregate Demand

$$=\sum_{h=1}^{H} n_{h,t} d_{h,t}^{*} = \sum_{h=1}^{H} n_{h,t} \frac{E_{h,t} (p_{t+1} + y_{t+1}) - (1+r) p_{t}}{\lambda Var_{h,t} (p_{t+1} + y_{t+1})}$$

Walrasian Makret Clearing Price :

$$\sum_{h=1}^{H} n_{h,t} \frac{E_{h,t}(p_{t+1} + y_{t+1}) - (1+r)p_t}{\lambda Var_{h,t}(p_{t+1} + y_{t+1})} = Z_t$$

4-Type Design

Brock and Hommes(1998) simple linear forecasting rules : $E_{h,t}(x_{t+1}) = f(x_{t-1},...,x_{t-L}) = \alpha_h x_{t-1} + \beta_h$

$$E_{f,t}(x_{t+1}) = 0 \ (fundamentalists)$$

$$E_{2,t}(x_{t+1}) = 0.9x_{t-1} + 0.2$$

$$E_{3,t}(x_{t+1}) = 0.9x_{t-1} - 0.2$$

$$E_{3,t}(x_{t+1}) = 1.01x_{t-1}$$

Brock and Hommes (1998), p. 1264, Figure 11(a)



Brock and Hommes (1998), p. 1264, Figure 11(b)



 Hommes C, Sonnemans J, Tuinstra J, van de Velden H (2005) Coordination of expectations in asset pricing experiments. Review of Financial Studies 18(3): 955-980.

 Hommes C, Sonnemans J, Tuinstra J, van de Velden H (2008) Expectations and bubbles in asset pricing experiments. Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization 67(1):116-133.

Adaptive Belief System (Brock and Hommes, 1997, 1998; Hommes, 2002)

$$P(t) = f(\{P_{i,t-1}^e(t+1)\}_{i=1}^N)$$

$$P(t) = \frac{1}{1+r}((1-n_t)\bar{P}^e(t+1) + n_t P^f + \bar{y} + \varepsilon_t)$$



LtFES Asset Market Experiments (Hommes, et al. 2005)





LtFES Asset Market Experiments (Hommes, et al., 2008)



Fig. 3. Realized prices in the experiment for the different groups.

$$P_i^e(t+1) = \alpha_i + \sum_{j=1}^4 \beta_{i,j} P(t-i) + \sum_{j=0}^3 \gamma_{i,j} P_i^e(t-j) + \epsilon_t$$

$$P_i^e(t+1) = \beta_{i,1}P(t-1) + \epsilon_t$$

$$P_i^e(t+1) = \beta_{i,1}P(t-1) + \gamma_{i,0}P_i^e(t) + \epsilon_t, \ \beta_{i,1} + \gamma_{i,0} = 1$$

$$P_i^e(t+1) = \alpha_i + \sum_{j=1}^4 \beta_{i,j} P(t-i) + \epsilon_t$$

Table C2

Estimation individual forecasting rules (positive feedback).

Participant	с	<i>p</i> ₋₁	<i>p</i> ₋₂	<i>p</i> ₋₃	p_{-1}^e	p^e_{-2}	p^e_{-3}	<i>R</i> ²	AC	Eq.	MSE
1 2 3 4 5 6	-0.790* -0.682* -1.176* -1.121 0.417* -0.817*	1.675 1.340 1.724 1.893 1.443 1.787	0 -0.5007 0 -0.8748 -0.8745 -0.7724	-0.4329 0 -0.3995 0 0 0	-0.2324 0.4642 -0.3069 0 0.4264 0	0 -0.2914 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	0.9965 0.9980 0.9932 0.9971 0.9975 0.9982	No No No No No	81.44 56.36 66.82 61.59 81.76 55.96	0.622 0.708 0.738 0.518 0.529 0.538
7 8 9 10 11 12	0.742* -0.179* 0.657* 0.339* 0.693* 0.223*	1.184 1.463 1.220 1.285 1.368 1.851	0 -0.4552 -0.7315 0 -0.8523 0	-0.1698 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0.5006 0 0.4743 -0.3270	0 0 -0.2887 0 -0.3533	0 0 0 0 -0.1723	0.9964 0.9938 0.9969 0.9969 0.9948 0.9926	Yes No No No No	- 22.95 60.28 91.62 69.30 139.4	0.550 0.536 0.477 0.381 0.472 0.521
13 14 15 16 17 18	0.040* 0.164* -0.251* 2.170* -0.985* -0.1026	1.450 1.069 1.275 1.232 1.251 1.219	-0.4504 -0.4708 -0.2989 0 0 -0.5430	0 0 -0.2706 0 -0.2345 0	0 0.4000 0 0 0.4372	0 0.2984 -0.2662 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	0.9870 0.9943 0.9981 0.9780 0.9900 0.9942	No No No No No	$100.0 \\ 91.11 \\ 64.36 \\ 63.45 \\ 59.70 \\ -0.07$	0.545 0.460 0.649 1.136 0.452 0.417
19 20 21 22 23 24	2.411 1.956* 1.382 2.687 1.475 0.062*	1.084 -0.9115 1.641 1.6274 1.441 1.943	0 0 -0.9729 -0.4900 0 -0.9439	0 0 0 -0.4659 0	0.2635 0 0.3084 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0	-0.3910 0 -0.1816 0 0	0.9940 0.8975 0.9978 0.9934 0.9948 0.9953	No No No No No	55.43 1.02 58.81 60.79 59.24 68.89	0.880 0.875 0.515 0.683 0.858 0.977
25 26 27 28 29 30	34.27 173.7* 2.601 4.160 15.71 13.52	0 0 1.000 1.005 1.004 1.062	0.1203 0 0 0 0 0 -0.5319	0 0 -0.1972 0 0.5544 0.3410	0.3421 0 -0.0384 0 -0.2446 0.2280	0.2670 0 0.1215 -0.1025 -0.4973 -0.0978	-0.3179 0 0.0682 0 -0.1217 -0.2084	0.9892 0.0000 1.0000 0.9981 0.9981 0.9995	Yes No Yes No Yes No	- 173.7 - 42.67 - 65.28	1.578 0.780 1.000 0.705 1.385 0.860
31 32	2.295* 0.7813*	0.8857 1.117	0 0.7796	-0.4284 0	0.5064 0.6513	0 0	0 0	0.9866 0.9927	No No	63.22 69.14	1.336 0.823

Table 2Qualitative estimation results for individual prediction strategies

	AR(1) (Naive)	AR(2)	AR(3)	Adaptive	Other
Group 1	0	5	0	0	<i>B</i> (4,2)
Group 2	4(3)	0	0	1	B(1,2)
Group 3	2	3	0	1	
Group 4	0	3	1	0	B(3,1), B(4,3)
Group 5	3	1	0	1	B (2,1)
Group 6	0	5	0	0	B(2,2)
Group 7	0	4	1	0	B(1,2)
Group 8	0	4	0	0	B(1,1), B(4,3)
Group 9	0	2	0	0	B(1,1), B(2,2), B(2,3), B(4,1)
Group 10	0	2	1	0	$2 \times B(1,1), B(3,0)$
Total	9	29	3	3	16

For each participant we estimated a linear forecasting rule $p_{h,t+1}^e = \alpha_h + \sum_{i=1}^4 \beta_{hi} p_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^3 \gamma_{hj} p_{h,t-j}^e + v_t$, from t = 11 to t = 51. AR(1) means that only α and β_1 are significant at the 5% level. Naive for three of the participants in group 2 refers to the fact that the null hypothesis $\beta_1 = 1$ and all other coefficients equal to 0 cannot be rejected at the 5% significance level. For AR(2) only α , β_1 , and β_2 are significant and for AR(3) only α , β_1 , β_2 , and β_3 are significant. Adaptive refers to the fact that the null hypothesis $\beta_1 + \gamma_0 = 1$, and all other coefficients equal to 0 cannot be rejected at the 5% significance level. B(k, l) refers to a prediction strategy where k is the highest significant lag of the price and l is the highest significant lag of the prediction (which does not necessarily mean that all smaller lags are also significant) in the regression.

Marimon, Spear, and Sunder (1993)

TABLE III

Estimated Forecast Equations for Individual Subjects^a for Economy 5 (See Figs. 6 and 7 for Forecast Data)

Subject no.	$P_{t+1}^{e} = \alpha_0 + \qquad \alpha_1 P_{t-1} + $	$\alpha_2 P_{t-1}^c +$	$\alpha_3 P_t^c$	N	<i>R</i> ²
	Pre-Generation-Shock	Periods (1-14)			
1	0.87 (0.37)		0.43 (0.25)	13	0.62
2	-0.38 (0.89)		1.44 (0.83)	13	0.16
3	0.05 (0.01)		0.98 (0.00)	13	1.00
4	-1.62 (1.48)		2.56 (1.46)	13	0.44
5	-5.76 (3.74)		6.77 (3.75)	13	0.96
6	No significant variables			13	
7	-0.04 (0.16)		1.02 (0.17)	13	0.96
8	-0.37 (0.55)		1.42 (0.51)	13	0.86
9	-2.41(0.35)		3.33 (0.32)	13	0.87
10	1.14 (0.06)		-0.01 (0.01)	13	0.62
11	1.07 (0.03)		-0.03(0.01)	13	0.92
12	0.62 (0.31)		0.47 (0.25)	13	0.68
13	0.03 (0.23)		1.04 (0.20)	13	0.69
14	-0.71(0.26)		1.75 (0.24)	13	0.85
15	-0.13 (0.13)		1.02 (0.11)	13	0.06
	Post-Generation-Shock	Periods (37-67)			
1	0.94 (0.23)	0.24 (0.20)		31	0.60
2	0.77 (0.05)	0.23 (0.05)		31	0.93
3	1.10 (0.07)	0.09 (0.03)		31	0.42
4	0.86 (0.19)	0.22 (0.17)		31	0.57
5	1.07 (0.06)	-0.05(0.06)		31	0.86
6		-0.08(0.02)	0.41 (0.02)	31	0.85
7	0.92 (0.16)	0.16 (0.09)		31	0.17
8	0.97 (0.13)	-0.01(0.12)		31	0.74
9	0.59 (0.06)	0.35 (0.08)		31	0.85
10	0.62 (0.09)	0.40 (0.08)		31	0.85
11	0.73 (0.08)	0.28 (0.08)		31	0.85
12	0.56 (0.09)	0.41 (0.09)		31	0.72
13	0.87 (0.13)	0.14 (0.11)		31	0.58
14	1.09 (0.16)	0.01 (0.15)		31	0.71
15	1.05 (0.07)	-0.05 (0.09)		31	0.85

" Standard errors of estimates are given in parentheses.

Four Bases (Heuristics)

$$P^{e}_{ada}(t+1) = 0.65P(t-1) + 0.35P^{e}_{ada}(t)$$

$$P_{WTR}^{e}(t+1) = P(t-1) + 0.4(P(t-1) - P(t-2))$$

$$P_{STR}^{e}(t+1) = P(t-1) + 1.3(P(t-1) - P(t-2))$$

$$P_{LAA}^{e}(t+1) = 0.5\bar{P}(t-1) + 0.5P(t-1) + (P(t-1) - P(t-2))$$



EE and ACE (Hommes, 2011)



EE and ACE (Hommes, 2011)



Hommes and Lux (2013)

 Using the GAs for individual learning, our paper makes another contribution that goes beyond the limitations of laboratory experiments. Laboratory experiments are costly, because subjects must be paid according to their performance, and typically experimental markets are small because of capacity limitations. After fitting our GA model to individual learning, we can easily investigate price behavior in alternative, more realistic market scenarios through numerical simulations. In particular, we investigate the occurrence of excess volatility when the number of subjects in the market becomes large and/or when the number of rules per individual becomes large. (Hommes and Lux (2013), p.375; Italics added.)

Lager number of subjects (> > 6)
Heterogeneous pools of heuristics



Cognitive Market Experiments

- <u>Significance</u>
- Backgrounds
- Cognitive Capacity in ACE: DA Markets
- Cognitive Capacity in EE: DA Markets



Economic Significance of Intelligence

- Some empirical studies support a positive correlation between Intelligence Quotient (IQ) and income.
- While the correlation coefficient is often found to be less than 0.5, it may increase with age to some extent (Herrnstein and Murray, 1996; Jensen, 1998).



Economic Significance of Intelligence

- Lynn and Vanhanen (2002, 2006) and Lynn (2006) further provided rich resources on the comparative studies of IQ among different countries and races, and indicated that IQ's significance can even come to the social or country level.
- Other similar findings regarding the effect of intelligence on growth (Weede and Kampf, 2002; Jones and Schneider, 2006; Ram, 2007)
- Human capital is approximated by national IQ.

Race Differences in Intelligence

An Evolutionary Analysis Richard Lynn



Cognitive Capacity and Income

- Individual ability and income: Ammon (1895), Moore (1911), Staehle (1943)
- Cognitive ability and wages: Murnane, Willett, & Levy (1995), Cawley, Conneely, Heckman, & Vytlacil (1997), Cawley, Heckman, & Vytlacil (2001), Zax & Rees (2002), Gould (2005), Heckman, Stixrud, & Urzua (2006)

Cognitive Capacity and Financial Portolios

 Cognitive ability and financial portfolios: Christelis, Jappelli, & Padula (2010), Grinblatt, Keloharju, & Linnainmaa (2011)

Cognitive Capacity in Experimental Economics

Cooperation and Coordination:

Segal & Hershberger (1999), Devetag & Warglien (2003), Jones (2008), Burks, Carpenter, Göette, & Rustichini (2009)

- Representation and Depth of Reasoning: Devetag and Warglien (2008)
- Winner's Curse:

Casari, Ham and Kagel (2007).

Question

- We know intellectual quality plays an important role in various aspects of people's economic life.
- We do not have much knowledge about the influence of intellectual quality on human traders' market performance.



Cognitive Capacity in Experimental Economics

- Segal and Hershberger(1999): prisoners' dilemma game
- Devetag and Warglien (2003): dominance-solvable game
- Ohtsubo and Rapoport (2006): beauty contest game
- Casari, Ham and Kagel (2007): common-value auction
- Cornelissen, Dewitte and Warlop (2007): dictator game
- Cappelletti, Guth and Ploner (2008): ultimatum game
- Devetag and Warglien (2008)
- Jones (2008): prisoners' dilemma game
- Burks, Carpenter, Goette, and Rustichini (2009)





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Software-Agent Designs in Economics: An Interdisciplinary Framework

Introduction and Background

Research

ne of the most fascinating and promising research areas in economics is the recent integration of the following three fields of economics: experimental economics, computational economics and nanounomiz (Figure 1). Due to their methodologically interdisciplinary nature, the development of each of the three should interest computer scientists and engineering people [1]. The relationship among experimental economics, agenthand computational economics and neurocconomics is, in games, a relationship between havan agents and software agents. Software agents can be regarded as the effective abstraction or model of human agents which we learn from experimental economics or neural economics.

Experimental Economics and Agent-Based Computational Economics

Experiments with Human Subjects

Among the three, experimental economics is the oldent one and has a eixtyyear history. The first paper was published in 1948 by Edward Chamberlin [2], and his student Vernon Smith, a Nobel Laureate in 2002, continued the laboratory studies with human subjects in the 1960s. The advantage of experimental economics is that it allows us to observe human behavior in a highly controlled environment so that we can give the eco-

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nomic theory a sharper test, i.e., a test hased on less-polluted or less noisy data.

However, the diadvantage is that using human agents can be quite costly, considering the pecuniary incentive paid to the human agents and the physical space required to accommodate their bodies. Therefore, staling-up becomes a severe constraint to experimental economics, and it is hard to conduct experiments with a large number of agents for many iterations. In other words, size is not really a control variable in experiments. Hence, one may question to what extent the results obtained from small experiments can be extended or generalized.



Given the constraint above, it is preferable if the experiments with human subjects can be replaced by simulatione with splacer apent, which is the essence of agent-based computational economics

(ACE). The idea of agenthased modeling in economics also has a long history. Thomas Schelling, a Nobel Laurate in 2005, is well known for his work on the segregation model (or spatial proximity model), which appeared in the late 1960s [3], [4]. However, the term "agent-hased computational economics" (ACE) did not exist in economics until Leigh



FIGURE 1 Economic software agents in an interdisciplinary framework.

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Chapter 21

REASONING-BASED ARTIFICIAL AGENTS IN AGENT-BASED COMPUTATIONAL ECONOMICS

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In this chapter, we compare the development of the artificial agents in two popular kinds of agent-based computational economic models. One is the agent-based models guided by game experiments. The other is the agent-based financial markets. While the conversation between these two classes of agent-based models is rare, the two can be connected through the idea of the generalized reinforcement learning. This is because that the artificial agents in game experiments have been well developed into a hierarchical framework such that the cognitive capacity can be incrementally added to the artificial agents from a low-level one, such as zero-intelligence agents, to a high-level one, such as belief learning agents or level-k reasoning agents. However, this hierarchy has not been found in agent-based financial markéts. Therefore, bridging the two classes of agent-based models through artificial agents can help build financial agents with different level of cognitive capacity. This step is crucial for the cognitive foundation of agent-based financial markets and is related to the recent pilingup empirical studies of cognitive finance.



Zero-Intelligence Agents

Reinforcement Learning Agents

Experience-Weighted Attractions (EWA) Agents

Belief Learning Agents

Level-K Reasoning Agents

Cognitive Capability: One Dimension

Game

Experiments

Artificial Agents with Incremental Cognitive Capability

Table 21.1. Artificial Agents with Incremental Cognitive Capacity.

Models	Memory	Consciousness	Reasoning
Zero-Intelligence	None	None	None
Reinforcement Learning	Short to Long	None	None
Belief Learning	Short to Long	Strong	Weak
EWA Learning	Short to Long	Weak to Strong	Weak .
Sophisticated EWA	Short to Long	Weak to Strong	Weak to Strong
Regime Switching	Short to Long	Weak	None
Novelties-Discovering Agents (Autonomous Agents)	Short to Long	Weak to Strong	Weak to Strong


Does Cognitive Capacity Matter When Learning Using Genetic Programming in Double Auction Markets?

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Abstract. The relationship between human subjects' cognitive capacity and their economic performances has been noticed in recent years due to the evidence found in a series of cognitive economic experiments. However, there are few agent-based models aiming to characterize such relationship. This paper attempts to bridge this gap and serve as an agent-based model with a focus on agents' cognitive capacity. To capture the heterogeneity of human cognitive capacity, this paper employs genetic programming as the algorithm of the learning agents, and then uses population size as a proxy parameter of individual cognitive capacity. By modeling agents in this way, we demonstrate a nearly positive relationship between cognitive abilities and economic performance.

1 Introduction

Information and cognitive capacity are the two sources of bounded rationality of human decision makers. While economists, either theorists or experimentalists, have mainly emphasized the importance of information, the significance of cognitive capacity has been lost but started to regain its position in economic experiments in recent years. We term experimental studies which discuss the implications of the heterogeneous cognitive capacity of human decision makers as cognitive economic experiments to highlight their emphasis on human decision makers' cognitive capability.

Some of the earliest experimental ideas concerning cognitive capacity came from Herbert Simon, who was the initiator of bounded rationality and was awarded the Nobel Memorial Prize in Economics. In problems such as the "concept formation" experiment and the arithmetic problem, Simon pointed out that the problem was strenuous or even difficult to solve, not because human subjects did not know how to solve the problem, but mainly because such tasks could easily overload human subjects' "working memory capacity" and influence their performance when decision supports such as paper and pencil were lacking [I].

More concrete evidence comes from the economic laboratories. Devetag and Warglien (2003) found a significant and positive correlation between subjects'

G. Di Tosto and H. Van Dyke Parunak (Eds.): MAHS 2009, LNAI 5683, pp. 3748, 2010.
Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2010

The Agent-Based Double Auction Markets: 15 Years On

Shu-Heng Chen and Chung-Ching Tai

Abstract Novelties discovering as a source of constant change is the essence of economics. However, most economic models do not have the kind of noveltiesdiscovering agents required for constant changes. This silence was broken by Andrews and Prager 15 years ago when they placed GP (genetic programming)-driven agents in the double auction market. The work was, however, neither economically well interpreted nor complete; hence the silence remains in economics. In this article, we revisit their model and systematically conduct a series of simulations to better document the results. Our simulations show that human-written programs, including some reputable ones, are eventually outperformed by GP. The significance of this finding is not that GP is alchemy. Instead, it shows that novelties-discovering agents can be introduced into economic models, and their appearance inevitably presents threats to other agents who then have to react accordingly. Hence, a potentially indefinite cycle of change is triggered.

Keywords Novelties discovering • Economic changes • Double auctions • Genetic programming • Autonomous agents

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Population Size and WMC

- The idea of using population size as a proxy variable for working memory is first proposed in Casari (2004), who literally treated the population size used in the genetic algorithm equivalent to the number of chunks that human can process at a time.
- Genetic programming is a population-based algorithm, which can implement parallel processing. Hence, on the one hand, the size of the population will directly determine the capability of parallel processing.
- On the other hand, the human's working memory capacity is frequently tested based on the number of the cognitive tasks which humans can simultaneously process (Cappelletti, Guth and Ploner, 2008)
- Dual tasks have been used in hundreds of psychological experiments to measure the attentional demands of different mental activities (Pashler, 1998).
- Hence, the population size seems to be an appropriate choice with regard to mimicking the working memory capacity of human agents.

Experiment Setups

- 300 Runs for each Pop
 - Each run starts with a renew sample of the eight software traders and with a renew demand and supply schedule
- Each Run last for 7,000 trading days
- Each trading day consists of 25 steps
- Each generation of a GP cycle is composed of (2 times Pop) trading days.

Market Architecture



Traders = Sampling without Replacement(10, 7){Kaplan, Ringuette, Skeleton, ZIC, ZIP, Markup, Gjerstad-Dickhaut (GD), BGAN, Easley-Ledyard, Empirical Bayesian} + GP

Market Architecture: One Realization, One Run



Result I

- There are three major findings from these simulations with software agents.
- First, GP traders with different cognitive capacities, from Pop=5 to Pop=100, can all outperform the human-supplied programmed agents, while with different speed in terms.
- GP traders with higher cognitive capacity tend to learn faster and consequently accumulate more wealth.



Result II

- Second, however, GP traders with larger cognitive capacity perform better than GP traders with smaller cognitive capacity; however, this dominance become less significant when cognitive capacity increases further.
 - Remark: Again, double auction market is a rather easy environment that income inequality can be significant only if the gap in cognitive capacity is large enough.



Result III

- Third, if we allow GP traders with lower cognitive capacity more time to learn, the above income gap can disappear if the difference in cognitive capacity among traders is limited; otherwise, the gap can be only narrowed but not disappear.
 - Remark: Therefore, even though the double auction market is an easy environment, it can still generate persistent income inequality if the heterogeneity in cognitive capacity of traders is significant enough. In this sense, Gode-Sunder intelligence irrelevancy hypothesis is invalid.

	P5	P20	P30	P40	P50	P60	P70	P80	P90	P100
	P5 X									
	P20 0.099*	Х								
	P30 0.010**	0.328	Х							
Α	P40 0.002**	0.103	0.488	Х						
	P50 0.000**	0.009^{**}	0.129	0.506	Х					
	P60 0.000**	0.000 **	0.003^{**}	0.034^{**}	0.130	Х				
	P70 0.000**	0.000 **	0.015^{**}	0.121	0.355	0.536	Х			
	P80 0.000**	0.000 **	0.003^{**}	0.036^{**}	0.131	1.000	0.558	Х		
	P90 0.000**	0.000 **	0.011^{**}	0.079^{*}	0.250	0.723	0.778	0.663	Х	
	P100 0.000**	0.000^{**}	0.000^{**}	0.002^{**}	0.009^{**}	0.284	0.093^{*}	0.326	0.150	Х
	P5 X									
	P20 0.571	Х								
В	P30 0.589	0.288	Х							
	P40 0.170	0.060*	0.442	Х						
	P50 0.090*	0.020^{**}	0.236	0.834	Х					
	P60 0.004**	0.001^{**}	0.019^{**}	0.159	0.207	Х				
	P70 0.066*	0.015^{**}	0.191	0.671	0.848	0.280	Х			
	P80 0.016**	0.003^{**}	0.062*	0.333	0.422	0.656	0.577	Х		
	P90 0.043**	0.010^{**}	0.144	0.552	0.714	0.384	0.845	0.658	Х	
	P100 0.001**	0.000 **	0.008^{**}	0.062^{*}	0.091^{*}	0.736	0.150	0.444	0.201	Х

Intelligence Irrelevance Hypothesis

 The intelligence irrelevance hypothesis basically states that competitive market can help determine the price and facilitate trading opportunities, and the gain that one can have from the competitive market is independent of his/her cognitive ability. Is that real?



Alignment from ACE to EE

- Markets: $300 \rightarrow 3$
- Opponents: $10 \rightarrow 7$
 - Sophisticated Traders (the seven)
 - Simple Traders (truth tellers)
- Cognitive Capacity → Working Memory Test (Lewandowsky et al., 2010)
- Subjects: 173 subjects for each series

The Three Markets

M1







 First, cognitive capacity matters. Subjects with higher cognitive capacity perform better than subject with lower cognitive capacity.

Multiple Regression in Simple Environment

Variable	Profit (M1)	Profit $(M2)$	Profit (M3)
Constant	446.17****	546.1192****	593.62****
	(39.27)	(73.3441)	(16.63)
WMC	145.92 * * * *	159.3392***	43.72****
	(29.22)	(54.5807)	(12.38)
X_1	74.70**	151.5478**	7.64
	(37.67)	(70.3491)	(15.95)
X_2	107.25***	-229.4911^{***}	-18.65
	(37.87)	(70.7335)	(16.04)
X_3	-47.95	-47.9077 Buyer o	$pr nof^{-21.54}$
	(38.89)	(72.6339)	(16.47)
X_4	63.68	55.6353	-43.92*
	(53.56)	(100.0330)	(22.68)
X_5	28.27	0.4086	34.01
	(63.85)	(119.2451)	(27.04)
X_6	85.71**	128.6838*	21.43
	(39.95)	(74.6106)	(16.92)
	· · · ·		

Note: Standard errors are in parentheses.

Significant at the 0.1% level: ****

Significant at the 1% level: ***

Significant at the 5% level: **

Significant at the 10% level: *

Multiple Regression in Sophisticated Environment

	Pro	ofit (M1)	Pro	ofit (M2)	Profit (M3)		
Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	
Constant	614.79**** (29.28)	487.75**** (63.9)	627.57**** (26.89)	763.711**** (54.24)	744.5 * * * * (26.39)	567.07 * * * * (57.7)	
WMC	(136.52^{***}) (47.93)	$(46.93)^{143.53***}$	(112.62^{**}) (44.02)	99.176** (39.838)	62.4 (43.19)	52.78 (42.38)	
Male		60.58 (57.35)		60.289 (48.678)		79.25	
Buyer		(56.62)		-333.892**** (48.058)		(51.12) 166.13*** (51.12)	
Online		-23.86 (56.33)		$-3.898 \\ (47.813)$		$58.82 \\ (50.86)$	
Financial		206.1^{**} (83.51)		126.764 * (70.879)		130.46* (75.4)	
Other		-144.09 (100.61)		$29.725 \\ (85.398)$		31.29 (90.85)	
Tool		-42.26 (75.73)		-88.715 (64.281)		-52.04 (68.38)	
Note: Stand	lard errors are i	in parentheses.					

Significant at the 0.1% level: ****

Significant at the 1% level: ***

Significant at the 5% level: **

Significant at the 10% level: *

 Second, cognitive capacity still matters even after learning has been taken into account.

Simple Environment



Observations:

- The High Group outperformed the Low Group in every period of every market.
 - There is obvious learning for both High and Low Groups.
 - The gap between High and Low Groups shrinks overtime.
 Subjects' performance drops when the demand-supply schedule changes.

Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test

	M1			M2			M3		
Period	High	Low	p-value	High	Low	p-value	High	Low	p-value
1	$84 \\ (39.93)$	$57 \\ (97.47)$	0.0434	$82 \\ (60.83)$	$37 \\ (116.73)$	0.0021	$94 \\ (19.85)$	77 (122.14)	0.1328
2	$96 \\ (33.21)$	$68 \\ (89.87)$	0.0015	100 (53.82)	$61 \\ (92.83)$	0.0004	$97 \\ (11.40)$	$95 \\ (11.66)$	0.1279
3	97 (41.91)	$82 \\ (66.50)$	0.0386	$ \begin{array}{c} 102 \\ (67.41) \end{array} $	$65 \\ (118.54)$	0.0037	100 (8.47)	$95 \\ (12.18)$	0.0113
4	$105 \\ (30.75)$	$89 \\ (50.14)$	0.0504	$108 \\ (56.08)$	$68 \\ (123.24)$	0.0048	$100 \\ (11.89)$	$94 \\ (16.00)$	0.0023
5	$104 \\ (37.29)$	$83 \\ (76.24)$	0.0945	$105 \\ (61.38)$	71 (120.53)	0.0171	$101 \\ (11.24)$	$96 \\ (12.86)$	0.0017
6	$103 \\ (45.65)$	$92 \\ (54.12)$	0.2100	110 (57.15)	$82 \\ (93.46)$	0.0065	$102 \\ (9.05)$	$97 \\ (11.94)$	0.0001

Note: Standard deviations are in parentheses.

Complex Environment





Concluding Remarks

- Data under the lab is under control and clean?
 - Not entirely, because human is complex.
- Agent-based model can assure how the data is socially generated.
 - However, have to show that the artificial agents under control are `human'.

Let the naturally allied spiral to constantly spiral!





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