

Learning to Locate Trading Partners in Agent Networks

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ABSTRACT

This paper is motivated by some recent, intriguing research results involving agent-organized networks (AONs). In AONs agents have a limited number of collaboration partners at any time, represented by edges in a network of agent nodes, and can rewire edges, i.e., change partners, to improve performance. The common underlying research issue in these domains is the search and location of desirable interaction or collaboration partners in a relatively large population. It was found that random selection of partners in each time period produced better performance but incurred larger search costs in a production and exchange economy compared to gradual rewiring of edges in the network. We propose an exponentially decaying exploration scheme that produces similar utilities to random rewiring but with much less rewiring costs. We evaluate the effects of the number of trading partners on connections on the utilities obtained by the agents. We hypothesize on the cause for the observed performance differences and verify that by showing that the observed performance differences with more realistic model of the economy.

1. INTRODUCTION

Given the significant interest and popularity of peer and social networking applications, recent work in multiagent systems have increasingly studied distributed formation and maintenance of social networks [1]. A number of such multiagent systems consist of self-interested agents interacting in open environments where the resources, goals, and requirements of agents change over time. In such domains, a rational agent can often benefit by forming mutually beneficial partnerships with other agents with complementary resources and capabilities. Given the dynamic and open nature of the environments, the local conditions for agents may change as existing agents may leave the environment and new agents may enter the society. The search for effective collaborators, therefore, is a life-long process whereby agents continually seek to locate and harness beneficial relationships. We are interested in studying the dynamics of agent relationships in such decentralized environments where both parties must agree to enter into a collaboration.

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As social networks and peer-to-peer (P2P) networks have received widespread use, various forms of network topologies and their associated properties have been studied in the literature [2]. In this paper, we focus on relationships between producer and consumer agents in a distributed environment. Agents in such an Agent Oriented Network (AON) are connected, at any point in time, with a limited number of other agents but can change their connections over time [9]. To obtain utility, agents need to trade with other agents producing complementary goods. A critical decision problem affecting the viability and success of agents in such an economy is their ability to identify beneficial trading partners. Gaston and desJardins observed that randomly connecting to other agents produced more profitable trades than using more stable wiring patterns [4]. This is an intriguing and counter-intuitive result, as in real economies we observe more stable and healthy partnerships between organizations in supply chains [6]. We wanted to explain this intriguing phenomena by a careful analysis of the experimental results. More importantly, we wanted to study the properties of such an AON under varying network characteristics. In this paper, we focus on the effect of the number of partners of an agent on its net utility. Our goal is to analyze the results from the simulation to both explain the observed phenomena and design more effective topologies to produce efficient agent societies.

2. MODELS

2.1 Production and Exchange Model

Gaston and desJardins have studied a simple production and exchange model to study strategies in AON exchange economies [4]. An AON is a network of agents in which the agents self-organize and can rewire their own connections to other agents [9]. The connections are unidirectional (whether one agent can request to trade with another is separate from whether the second agent can request to trade with the first) and determined unilaterally.

In the Production and Exchange Model used by Gaston and desJardins [4] every agent starts with some supply of two goods and a capacity to produce a fixed amount of only one of them. At each iteration agents choose whether to produce or exchange goods. Agents are greedy and attempt to maximize the utility they gain at each time step. They are also truthful and always provide correct information when proposing a trade.

2.1.1 Trading Model

In this model there are n agents and two goods g_1 and g_2 . g_1 is only traded in whole units while g_2 is infinitely divisible. g_k^i is the amount of good k that agent currently possesses. The utility of agent i is given by the product of its stock of the two goods:

$$U^i = g_1^i g_2^i.$$

In each round the agents are chosen in random order and allowed to trade or produce. First, they have to calculate how much utility they would gain by trading. Each agent is linked to m other agents with whom it can trade. The chosen agent checks its *marginal rate of substitution* (*mrs*) against the *mrs* of each of the agents it is linked with. This value is calculated as follows and truthfully revealed:

$$mrs^i = \frac{g_2^i}{g_1^i}$$

The agents may be able to gain by trading if their *mrs*'s differ. The next step is to decide on the exchange price p_{ij} , which is computed as

$$p_{ij} = \frac{g_2^i + g_2^j}{g_1^i + g_1^j},$$

when agent i is negotiating with agent j . A tax τ is applied to every transaction. At this point a trade is simulated. No actual goods are exchanged until agent i chooses one trading partner. If agent i is trading one unit of g_1 for p_{ij} units of g_2 with agent j and δg_k^i is the amount of good k traded by agent i

$$\delta g_1^i = -\delta g_1^j = -(1 + \tau)$$

$$\delta g_2^i = -\delta g_2^j = (1 + \tau)p_{ij}.$$

This trade is repeated until the utility of neither agent will not increase from further trading. The corresponding utility gain is recorded. Once this simulation has been repeated for every agent that agent i can trade with the most profitable partner, i.e., the trade that would gain i the greatest utility is chosen. The agent then checks if producing could provide more gain in the current time period than gain from its best trade.

2.1.2 Production model

Every agent has a production capacity Δg_i uniformly distributed in the range $[1, q]$ for one of the goods g_1 or g_2 . Thus, if i produces g_1 its change in utility after production is

$$\Delta U^i = \Delta g_1^i g_2^i.$$

Once an agent knows how much utility it can gain by producing, it can choose whether to produce or trade with its best partner. Once it has made this decision and carried out the corresponding action, the agent can choose to rewire its trading connections for the next iteration.

2.1.3 Rewiring Strategies

In this paper we evaluate three rewiring strategies **random mixture**, **random selection**, and **exploration**. The first two were used by Gaston and desJardins [4]. **Random mixture** (*RM*) is the simplest strategy. At each iteration agents randomly reinitialize every connection.

In **random selection** (*RS*) the agent first decides whether it should adapt. It keeps an exponential weighted moving average, V , of the utility gained in each iteration. The utility agent i expects to gain in the next iteration, t , is

$$V_t^i = V_{t-1}^i + \alpha(\Delta U_{t-1}^i - V_{t-1}^i).$$

If $V_t^i < \Theta$ then the agent chooses to adapt. $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ is a learning parameter and Θ a threshold.

If it chooses to adapt, it still must choose which connections to adapt. This decision is also based on an exponentially weighted moving average of connection strengths represented by connection weights. Agent i then updates its connection weight W_t^{ij} for the connection to agent j :

$$W_t^{ij} = W_{t-1}^{ij} + \beta(\Delta U_{t-1}^{ij} - W_{t-1}^{ij}),$$

where ΔU_{t-1}^{ij} is the change in utility that agent i could have received by trading with agent j on iteration t . $\beta \in [0, 1]$ is a learning parameter. The agent rewires every connection where $W_t^{ij} < \Phi$, where Φ is a threshold parameter. New connection weights are initialized to the average of the current connection weights.

We introduce a third rewiring strategy to reduce search and exploration over time. When using the **exploration** (*RE*) strategy, each agent has an initial exploration rate $x_0 \in (0, 1]$. This rate exponentially decays at a rate η such that $x_t = \eta x_{t-1}$. The rewiring rate is based on this x_t as well as V_t^i as described above and the base expected utility, V_0^i . In the **exploration** strategy the probability of an agent rewiring a connection is

$$p_t^i = x_t * (1 - \frac{V_t^i}{V_0^i}).$$

The base expected utility is initialized as the average expected utilities for other agents this agent connects to.

Just as in the *RS* strategy, the agents keep track of a weight, W_t^{ij} , for each connection. However, an agent only rewires the connection with the lowest weight, and only if the connection satisfies the constraint $W_t^{ij} < \Phi$.

2.2 Enhanced Production and Exchange Model

In many real world examples, goods are consumed or agents gain utility through consuming goods rather than by just possessing them. These agents also often have a limited space available for storage which can be expensive.

Therefore we propose a system of clearing. Whenever an agent has both types of goods, it combines them to create a product. Thus, no excess goods are stored. However, some agents are more efficient at this than others. Every agent must use some multiple, G , units of the good they do not produce for every unit of good that they can produce. Thus, if an agent is a producer of good 1 its new utility gain function would be:

$$\Delta U^i = \zeta \min(g_1^i, \frac{g_2^i}{G^i}).$$

The agent loses the corresponding amounts of goods 1 and 2 and gains utility times the parameter ζ .

The agents have a limited \bar{S} , and the maximum amount of the produced good that can be stored is \bar{S} times the production rate. Agents also have a lower bound on the amount of good they have to have before they can try trading. If, at the beginning of their turn, they have less than \underline{S} times their production rate then they do not look for a trading partner.

However, an agent may still end up trading even if it has less than \underline{S} goods. Another agent may still initiate a trade with it. Trading can be an expensive operation. So we do not want the agents to make a huge number of small trades. \underline{S} and \bar{S} comprise an optimal trading window for the agents. If the agent cannot find a trading partner before it reaches \bar{S} then it will start losing production as the produced goods in excess of the capacity must be disposed.

As a final change to the production and exchange model we allowed continuous production. Agents could produce every turn, even if they had traded. Because of the \underline{S} lower limit for trading, the agents will not attempt to trade every iteration.

3. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We now discuss our experimental results. We begin with the results from the Production and Exchange model used in [4] which is followed by results from the Enhanced Production and Exchange Model. The parameters used in the model are as follows: $n=300$, $q=30$, $\tau=0.05$, and m was varied from 2 to 10 in steps of 2. The agent’s learning parameters were set at $\alpha = \beta = \theta = \phi = 0.1$ and both the initial expected utility, V_0^i , and at the beginning of each run, the initial valuation of every connection, W_0^{ij} , were set to 1 following Gaston and desJardins[4]. The exploration strategy began with an exploration rate of $x_0 = 0.3$. The decay rate was $\eta = 0.996$. All results are based on random generated initial network structures.

3.1 Production and Exchange model results

Experiments in this section uses the basic Production and Exchange model used by [4].

3.1.1 Homogeneous Populations

The first set of experiments were run with homogeneous agent populations with only one rewiring strategy used at a time.

Non-continuous Production.

We note that the basic model precludes production when trading. For this model we present, in Table 1, the utilities obtained, the number of trades per agent per round and the number of rewirings per agent per round for both $m = 2$ and $m = 10$.

For small number of connections ($m = 2$), the *RM* Strategy provided slightly higher utility and *RS* and *RE* produced very similar results. If the agent happens to be connected to only poor trading partners in a round then it is less likely to trade and it will produce instead. So long as it trades often enough, this extra production will yield it a greater overall utility. The *RM* agents accrued enough goods and could eventually trade sufficiently to outperform the other wiring strategies. *RS* and *RE* agents quickly found trading partners more often and hence were more likely to trade. This led to too frequent trading and so an overall lower utility as with few partners trades were often not of very high quality.

The increased utility obtained by *RM* agents, however, comes at a considerable cost. These agents rewired all their connections every round. This strategy incurs enormous overhead in situations where finding a new agent and setting up trade with them is an expensive process. Preparing to trade with another agent can be costly if trust relations

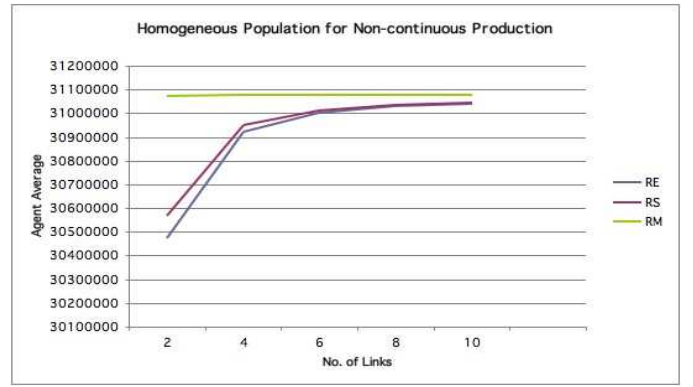


Figure 1: The effect of number of connections per agent, m , on the utilities returned by the three wiring strategies in homogeneous populations of 300 agents when agents do not produce when trading.

are important or if contractual terms need to be negotiated. *RS* and *RE* agents only rewired those connections which did not produce enough utility. We observe that the nature of rewiring patterns are cyclic for both *RS* and *RE* agents. Whenever a connection is rewired, its weight is reset and it takes a few rounds to relearn that a new connection is not useful. A connection that was at some point useful tends to remain useful enough to stay above the cutoff threshold for rewiring.

RS rewires every connection below the threshold all at once while *RE* spreads the rewirings out. Thus the *RE* strategy keeps the rewiring cost from spiking. The sudden spikes in rewiring cost from the *RS* strategy could be problematic in some settings, and particularly when real-time performance guarantees are required. The two strategies are equally effective in finding good trading partners.

When the agents had more connections, e.g., $m = 10$, *RS* and *RE* agents were able to consistently select good trading partners and the utility advantage of the *RM* agent all but vanished. From Table 1 we notice the significant advantage of reduced wiring cost of the other strategies over the *RM* strategies. To better appreciate the effect of the number of connections on the utilities returned by the different wiring strategies we plot the results in Figure 1. We see that with more partners, *RS* and *RE* strategies return higher utilities that reaches close to that of the *RM* agents whose performance is not significantly affected by the value of m .

Continuous Production.

We observed that though the *RM* agents obtained more utility, they actually traded less often. While this anomaly could have been explained by the fact that the *RM* agents made better trades, we did not find any evidence to corroborate that. An alternative conjecture that surfaced at this point was whether it was trading more often that was costing the *RS* and *RE* agents. The intuition was that as agents could either trade or produce, but not both, trading in a given period would preclude the agent from producing and this could have an adverse effect on cumulative utility. To further investigate this conjecture we altered the production and exchange model to allow agents to produce even when

Table 1: Experiments with 2 and 10 connections per agent for a population of 300 agents where agents do not produce when trading.

| Non-continuous Production & Exchange | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------|--------|-----------|----------|----------|-----------|
| | $m=2$ | | | $m=10$ | | |
| | Utility | Trades | Rewirings | Utility | Trades | Rewirings |
| Random Mixture | 31070414 | 0.0175 | 2 | 31078338 | 0.019333 | 10 |
| Random Selection | 30566272 | 0.0185 | .005 | 31044192 | 0.0145 | 0.005167 |
| Exploration | 30471054 | 0.0225 | 0.000333 | 31040828 | 0.018833 | 0.0005 |

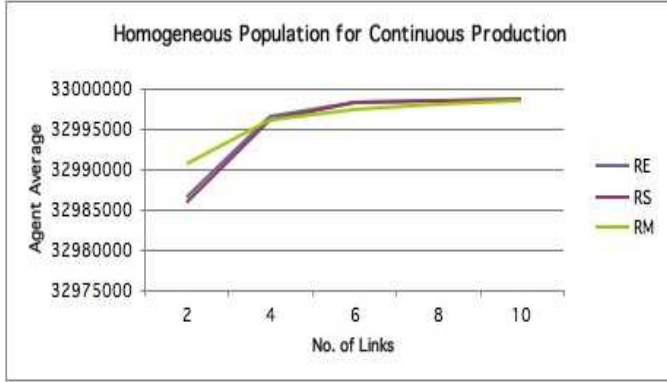


Figure 2: The effect of number of connections per agent, m , on the utilities returned by the three wiring strategies in homogeneous populations of 300 agents when agents do produce when trading.

it is trading (we call this the *continuous production environment*). In this environment, therefore, agents could produce every turn, even if they had traded.

We present the corresponding results for homogeneous groups of agents with 2 and 10 connections in Table 2. As to be expected, with continuous production the utilities of all rewiring strategies improve. More importantly, we observe that for $m = 10$ the *RE* and *RS* strategies now slightly outperform the *RM* strategy. This confirms our conjecture that allowing production while trading, which also corresponds to realistic scenarios, can make more rewiring strategies more competitive. The effects of number of connections on the agent utilities for the continuous production environments are presented in Figure 2. We note that the strategies perform almost at the same level starting at as few as 4 trading partners.

To illustrate the effects of rewiring strategies on the number of rewirings, we plot, in Figure 3, the number of rewirings over the course of a run by homogeneous groups of *RS* and *RE* agents. We do not plot the rewirings of *RM* agents as each *RM* agent rewires each connection every round. Note the periodic, spiked nature of the plot for *RS* agents and the gradually decreasing rewiring trends for the *RE* agents as discussed in the previous section.

3.1.2 Heterogeneous Populations

In the next set of experiments we experimented with heterogeneous agent populations. We included equal proportions of *RM*, *RS*, and *RE* strategies in a population of 300

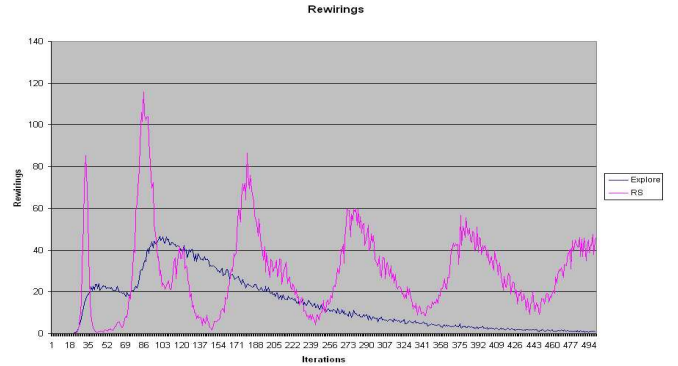


Figure 3: The number of rewirings by homogeneous populations of 300 agents using *RM* and *RE* (Explore) wiring strategies when agents do produce when trading ($m = 10$).

agents. Figure 4 shows the effect of varying m on agent utilities when each rewiring strategy is used by 100 agents in the environments where agents do not produce while trading. The first striking result is that the *RM* agents noticeably outperform the *RS* and *RE* agents. This is true even for higher values of m . Interestingly, there is a drop in performance of the *RS* agents when m increases from 2. By comparing the plots in Figures 1 and 4 we find that the *RM* agents in heterogeneous groups actually perform better than when they did in a homogeneous group for corresponding values of m . The *RS* and *RE* agents, on the other hand, perform worse in heterogeneous groups. This means that the *RM* agents actually benefit at the expense of the *RS* and *RE* agents. This can be explained by the fact that after a good trade *RS* and *RE* agents may need time to trade again with their partners whereas *RM* agents can randomly locate partners that are ready to trade.

We further observe, from plots in Figure 5, that the superior performance of the *RM* agents in heterogeneous populations is sustained even in the continuous production environment and for high values of m . This is particularly interesting as the *RM* agents lost their performance advantage in homogeneous groups for the continuous production environment for high values of m (see Figure 2).

3.2 Enhanced Production and Exchange Model

Experiments in this section uses the Enhanced Production and Exchange Model that we have introduced in section 2.2. For this model we use Minimum Trade Volume(\underline{S})=3 and

Table 2: Experiments with 2 and 10 connections per agent for a population of 300 agents where agents produce when trading.

| Continuous Production & Exchange | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|--------|-----------|
| | $m=2$ | | | $m=10$ | | |
| | Utility | Trades | Rewirings | Utility | Trades | Rewirings |
| Random Mixture | 32990700 | 0.9975 | 2 | 32998468 | 1 | 10 |
| Random Selection | 32985861 | 0.998167 | 0.009667 | 32998614 | 1 | 0.153667 |
| Exploration | 32986554 | 0.999 | 0.0005 | 32998481 | 1 | 0.002333 |

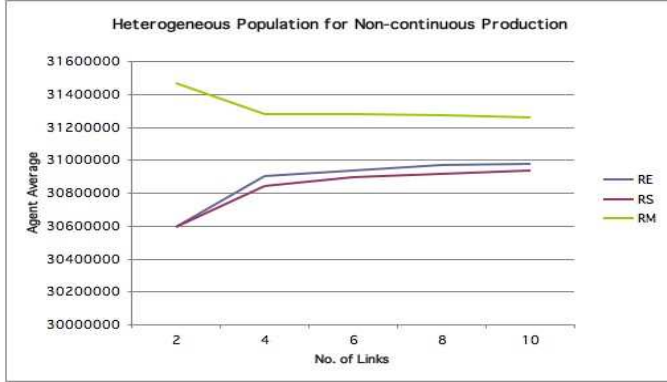


Figure 4: The effect of number of connections per agent, m , on the utilities returned by the three wiring strategies in a heterogeneous population with each rewiring strategy used by 100 agents when agents do not produce when trading.

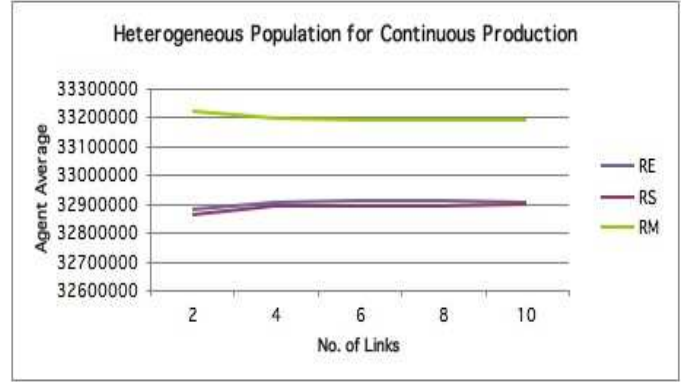


Figure 5: The effect of number of connections per agent, m , on the utilities returned by the three wiring strategies in a heterogeneous population with each rewiring strategy used by 100 agents when agents do produce when trading.

Storage Capacity (\bar{S})=4.

3.2.1 Homogeneous Populations

The first set of experiments was run with homogeneous agent populations. In a homogeneous population, there is significant and interesting effect on the performance of *RE*, *RS* and *RM* strategies when varying other domain characteristics like continuous and non continuous production, \underline{S} , \bar{S} , number of links, etc.

Non-Continuous Production.

The effect of number of connections on the agent utilities for the non-continuous production environment (see Figure 6) shows the advantage of the judicious exploration scheme. In contrast to the basic production and exchange model, the order of performance is *RE* followed by *RS* followed by *RM*. In this model all agents have to accumulate sufficient stock and maintain minimum trade volume before trading. Hence the agents are making less trades, which lower their overall utility somewhat, but this decline is more pronounced for *RS* and particularly *RM* agents compared to *RE* agents. *RM* suffers more because in contrast to the basic model randomly selected agents are less likely to be available for trading at each time instant (in the basic model there are no stock constraints on trading and hence all agents can trade at any time). Since *RE* identifies better trading partner and repeatedly uses the same trading partner unless required to change, *RE* out performs *RS* and *RM*. Similarly

RS also out performs *RM* because it identifies some good partners but not to the extent *RE* is able to do. When m was increased from 2 to 10 in steps of 2 the performance of *RE*, *RM* and *RS* strategies improve but their performance difference is maintained throughout.

Continuous Production.

For continuous production model where agents are allowed to produce even when it is trading there is significant increase in the performance of *RE*, *RS* and *RM* strategies over the non-continuous production situation. This is because the agents could produce every turn, even if they had traded, and hence gain higher utility from these additional stocks. The relative performance of the three strategies follow trends similar to the non-continuous production case. With increase in the value of m the difference between *RE* and *RS* increases. On the other hand the difference between *RS* and *RM* reduces and stabilizes for 6 or more connections.

Effect of change in Minimum Trade Volume and Storage Capacity.

We next observe the effect of change in value of the Storage Capacity (\bar{S}) and Minimum Trade Volume (\underline{S}) on the performance of the rewiring strategies.

We hold \bar{S} constant at 6 and increase the value of \underline{S} from 2 to 6 in steps of 1. This variation significantly affects agents utility (see Figure 8). With increase in value of \underline{S} , the overall

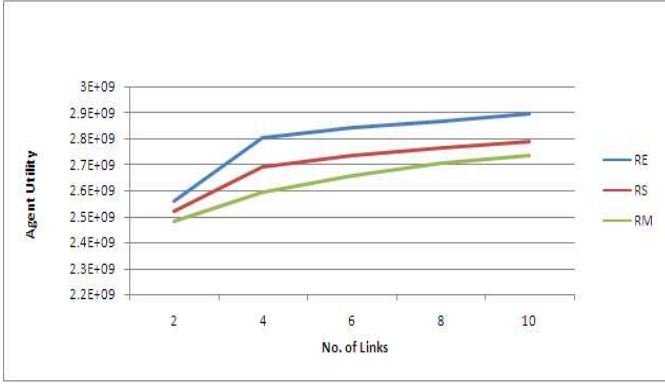


Figure 6: Effect of m in homogeneous populations using the enhanced production and exchange model for non-continuous production.

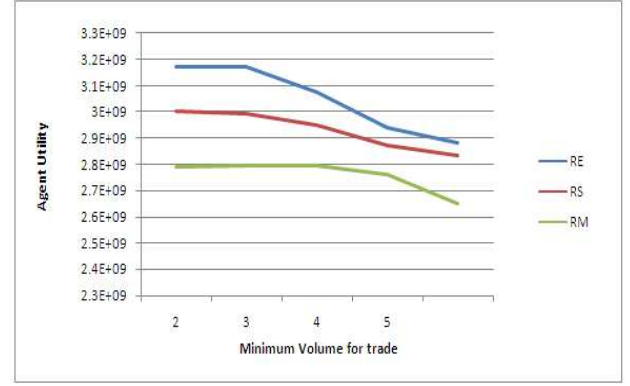


Figure 8: Effect of increasing \underline{S} while holding \bar{S} constant in homogeneous populations using the enhanced production and exchange model with continuous production.

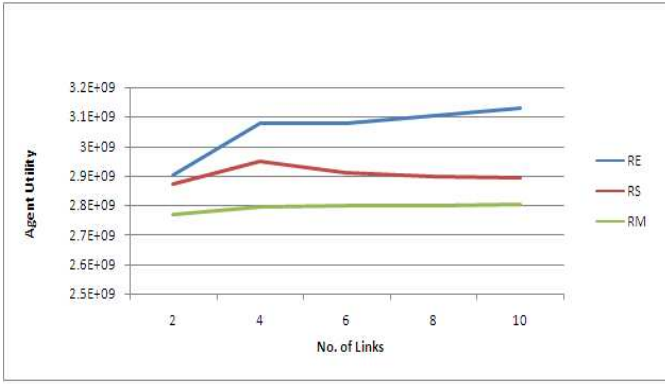


Figure 7: Effect of m in homogeneous populations using the enhanced production and exchange model with continuous production.

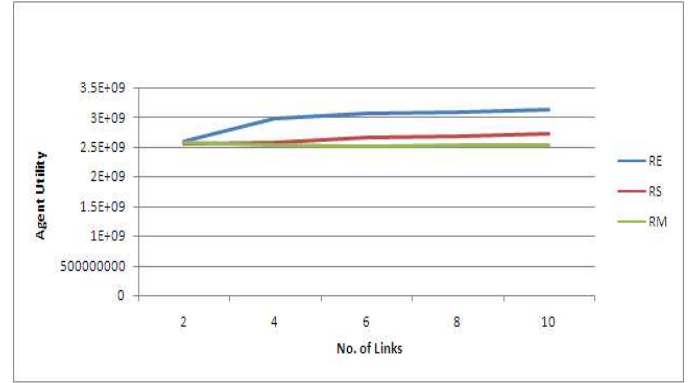


Figure 9: Effect of m in heterogeneous populations using the enhanced production and exchange model for non-continuous production..

performance of agents gradually decreases. When $\underline{S}=2$ and $\bar{S}=6$, agents can produce till they find good trading partner to trade. With increase in value of \underline{S} , the trading window computed as the difference between \bar{S} and \underline{S} reduces. If an agent cannot find good trading partners within the trading window, it loses production opportunity as maximum storage limit is reached.

We have observed similar effects when we keep \underline{S} constant and vary the value of \bar{S} .

We performed an additional experiment to compare the effects of different \underline{S} and \bar{S} while keeping the trading window, i.e., $\underline{S}-\bar{S}$, the same. We used two configurations: C1 with $\underline{S}=3$ and $\bar{S}=5$, and C2 with $\underline{S}=4$ and $\bar{S}=6$. In both cases the trading window is 2. We found that going from C1 to C2 increases the performance advantage of *RE* over *RS* and that of *RS* over *RM*. Also, with the increase in the number of connections, m , the performance of *RE* improves further compared to that of the performance of *RS* and *RM*.

3.2.2 Heterogeneous Populations

In the next set of experiments we experimented with heterogeneous agent populations. We included equal propor-

tions of *RM*, *RS*, and *RE* strategies in a population of 300 agents.

Non-Continuous Production.

In this configuration, when $m=2$, the utilities produced by all the strategies *RE*, *RS* and *RM* are almost equal (see Figure 9). But with increase in the value of m , e.g., when $m=4$, agents have more trading partners per iteration when compared with $m=2$, and able to locate desirable partners with less exploration. *RE* strategy produces higher utility than *RS* and *RM* strategies. For lower values of m , more exploration is necessary to locate compatible trading partners. For sufficiently high m values, therefore, the utilities of *RE* agents increase significantly over *RS* and *RM*.

When we compare the results of the heterogeneous population to the corresponding number of trading partners in the homogeneous population results (see Figure 6), we find that the *RE* strategy actually benefits at the expense of *RM* and *RS* strategy.

Continuous Production.

We also performed experiments with continuous production for heterogeneous populations. The trends are similar to the case of non-continuous production. The primary difference is that the agent utilities are higher as they have more stock to trade with.

4. RELATED WORK

The problem of finding suitable collaborators is an active area of research in multiagent systems. One solution is to use referrals [3, 7, 8, 10]. In this solution agents provide both services and referrals to other agents. Agents which provide high quality service are likely to be recommended by many agents. Agents must, however, learn the trustworthiness and expertise of other agents in order to gauge the value of a recommendation.

Another possible solution to this problem is to use a matchmaker. Agents reveal information to a trusted third party who arranges the connections. Assuming agents truthfully reveal to the matchmaker, optimal matches can be found, computing these optimal matches, however, can be expensive. Also, agents using a centralized matchmaker are vulnerable to a failure in the matchmaker. Distributed matchmaking [5] reduces the scalability problem and improves fault tolerance.

5. DISCUSSIONS

We investigated the effects of introducing exploration into a rewiring strategy for locating effective trading partners within networks in production and exchange economies. Though random rewirings in each round can produce more utilities, it incurs significant cost for changing connections. The proposed decaying exploration rewiring strategy and a more patient random selection strategy incurs significantly lesser rewiring costs. Additionally, the exploration strategy provides certain benefits over random selection: it smooths out the rewirings over time and decreases the number of rewirings required. The performance advantage of the random rewiring strategy diminishes with higher number of connections per agent and when agents are allowed to produce while trading. Interestingly, however, the performance advantage is regained by the random rewiring strategy when all agent types are present in a heterogeneous society.

The *RE* rewiring strategy is cautious in the sense that in one iteration it rewires at most one connection, the connection with the lowest weight if that falls below a threshold. We can experiment with a stochastic decision mechanism that chooses rewiring candidates with a probability proportional to their deviation from the average connection weight.

We believe that the basic production and exchange economy model is oversimplified and does not adequately represent real-life scenarios. We therefore evaluate the performance of the three rewiring strategies in an enhanced production and trade model that includes constraints on minimum trade volumes and storage capacities. In contrast to the basic model, the decaying exploration mechanism outperforms the more random rewiring strategies in this more realistic environments. This performance advantage also suggests the need for investigating smarter learning mechanisms for identifying preferred trading partners.

We plan to study further enhancements to capture more realistic domain constraints. We would like to further study the effects of referrals in these models as well as bi-directional,

mutually-accepted connections in place of the unilateral connections used here.

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