

Complexity defying macroeconomics

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This article contributes to the literature on complexity and macroeconomic models by exploring the analytical relationship and tensions between complex phenomena and macroeconomics. By evaluating the properties of organised complexity, this article suggests alternative strategies for analysing the macroeconomy. Drawing on F. A. Hayek's notion of organised complexity, I examine how its causal properties relate to the analytical criteria and assumptions that contemporary macroeconomic models use. The purpose is twofold: first, I associate the properties of complexity to the idea of the macroeconomy as an emergent totality arising from the causal interplay between individuals and the organising structure. This conceptually challenges modern macro and frames analytical tensions between complexity and macroeconomic analysis. Second, introducing complexity facilitates breaking away from current analytical and conceptual straitjackets in macroeconomics. Economic inquiry requires looking for alternative ways beyond standard models to analyse the macroeconomy as an emergent totality. This suggests stepping away from current formalistic methods and radical reductionism, in favour of unconventional strategies and approaches that are sensitive to rules, structures, and the causal properties of organised complexity.

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Too large a proportion of recent 'mathematical' economics are mere concoctions, as imprecise as the initial assumptions they rest on, which allow the author to lose sight of the complexities and interdependencies of the real world in a maze of pretentious and unhelpful symbols.
J. M. Keynes, 1936, p. 272

1. Introduction

Economic thinking has entered a new era of unprecedented pluralism (Ostrom, 2010; Holt *et al.*, 2011). There are two major research agendas that have driven economic analysis toward more pluralism: complexity economics and heterodox economics (Hodgson, 2019; Lawson, 2019). One characteristic of this new period is accepting

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that the economy is inherently complex: the economy is being portrayed as a complex system (Dosi and Roventini, 2019).¹ Instead of conceptualising the economy as a well-ordered machine reaching equilibrium, some economists are now interpreting it as a complex evolving system emerging from interactions (Wagner, 2020; Hommes, 2021).

While it holds true that ‘modern economics is more willing to accept that the formal part of economics has limited applicability’ (Holt *et al.*, 2011, p. 363), despite the recent advancements made in bringing complexity and ontological ideas into economics, the complexity vision has not yet permeated macroeconomic thinking (Lawson, 1997; Kirman, 2010; Romer, 2016). Macroeconomics seems to be moving ever further away from complexity since it embraces an ‘analytic macro theory based on abstract, representative agent models that rely heavily on the assumptions of equilibrium’, thus ‘it is less clear what this work has added to our understanding of the macroeconomy’ (Holt *et al.*, 2011, p. 365).

The analytical tension between emergent macroeconomic phenomena and the formal methods and ways of thinking used in macro have long been identified by Hayek (1973), Keynes (1936) and other heterodox economists (Hodgson, 2019; Wagner, 2020). While the concepts of emergence and complexity have made their way back into the social sciences (Lawson, 1997, 2019; Hodgson, 2000), few attempts have been made to try to incorporate them into macroeconomic thinking (Lewis and Wagner, 2017; Wagner, 2020). Therefore, macroeconomics has been seriously impoverished (Romer, 2016).

Lawson (2019, p. 22) has argued that economics is facing ‘an inability to avoid reliance upon unrealistic assumptions’; and thus ‘a continuous failure to achieve explanatory insight have been features of academic economics for the last 60 years’. This situation disregards social ontology,² thus neglecting ‘the functioning of social reality’ which has led to retain economic ‘methods that carry inconsistent ontological presuppositions or “preconceptions”’ (*ibid.*, pp: 9–15). Neglecting to engage explicitly in ontological reasoning has led to promoting techniques which carry ‘ontological commitments that do not fit the nature of social material’ (*ibid.*, p. 9).

Echoing Lawson’s (2016, 2019) concerns, the scope of this paper is to follow Ostrom’s (1982, 1990) advice on understanding the *proper limits* of the methods in economics, once we grasp the nature of the phenomena we seek to explore. In Ostrom’s (1990, p. 24) words, ‘scientific knowledge is as much an understanding of the diversity of situations for which a theory or its models are relevant as an understanding of its limits’. The present analysis focuses on the implications these ideas could bring to formal methods and frameworks used in macroeconomics, challenging the standard way of thinking about macro.

This article suggests that the leading literature and current formalist methods in macroeconomics are unable to represent the macroeconomy as organised complexity and to represent its causal properties (Axtell, 2014). Because of reductionist and debatable assumptions throughout their methods, they inherently overlook causal features of complexity and social reality (Romer, 2016; Lawson, 2019). This situation in macroeconomics has been recently addressed by Wagner (2020), who argues that

¹ See H. Simon (1962, p. 267): ‘Roughly by a complex system I mean one made up of a large number of parts that interact in a non-simple way. In such systems, the whole is more than the sum of the parts, not in an ultimate metaphysical sense, but in the important pragmatic sense that, given the properties of the parts and the laws of their interaction, it is not a trivial matter to infer the properties of the whole’.

² Ontology ‘is investigation into the nature, basic constitution and modes of being of stuff, of all phenomena’ (Lawson, 2019, p. 21).

conventional macro presents the economy as a collection of aggregated variables and the relationships that develop among them. In contrast, [Wagner \(2020\)](#) depicts ‘macroeconomics as system theory’, meaning an analytical framework enriched by theories of complex systems ([Hayek, 2014 \[1964\]](#)) and systems theory ([Pryor, 2008](#)).³ This vision results in a departure in analytical perspective: the ‘macro level’ of society *cannot* be pursued through aggregation over micro level entities, but rather via an ‘open-ended evolutionary framework’ ([Devereaux and Wagner, 2020](#)).⁴

These contrasting visions toward macro theory, alongside the recent critiques put forth by some of their own practitioners (e.g., [Caballero, 2010](#); [Kirman, 2010](#); [Trichet, 2010](#); [Calvo, 2013](#); [Romer, 2016](#)), clearly evidence analytical tensions and intellectual difficulties in macroeconomics. The 2018 special issue on ‘Rebuilding Macroeconomic Theory’ in the *Oxford Review of Economic Policy* gathers several discussions concerning the current tensions and qualms in macroeconomic thinking (e.g. [Stiglitz, 2018](#); see also [Hommes, 2021](#)). Given the identified tensions within macroeconomics, this article contributes to the literature on complex phenomena, macroeconomics, and the relationship between them (see also [Paniagua, 2016a, 2016b](#)).⁵ It explores the theory of complex phenomena and its causal properties in order to show the relevance of heterodox strategies for studying the macroeconomy. It also provides arguments as to why heterodox approaches might be more suitable for representing the macroeconomy as a complex system. Section 2 briefly explores arguments about statistics’ limitations in dealing with complex phenomena and emergence. Section 3 examines the four properties that define both organised complexity and the macroeconomic order. Section 4 reviews three conceptual criteria and assumptions currently employed in macroeconomics—and how they are incompatible with the properties of complexity. Section 5 suggests an ontological and heterodox framework of macro analysis that avoids current reductionism, analytical incompatibilities and the shortcomings of formal models. Section 6 concludes.

2. Social systems and the limitations of statistical modelling

In recognising the complexity vision in economics, [Hayek \(2014 \[1964\]](#), p. 264) and [Pryor \(2008\)](#) argue that, as a form of analysis, statistical linear models (i.e. statistical methods used to analyse linear causation) are analytically incapable of dealing with patterns of complexity based on systems of relations. For [Hayek \(2014 \[1964\]\)](#), and

³ Systems theory focuses on relationships between parts and wholes in which the system has relevant properties irreducible to and distinct from the properties held at the level of the parts that constitute the system ([Bertalanffy, 1968](#)). My approach to macro resonates strongly with systems theory. [Pryor \(2008, p. 545\)](#) argued that macro systems could be treated as ‘causal forces’—that is, as ‘systemic causation’. Systemic causation ‘focuses not on the relationship of individual variables with each other, but on the grouping of characteristics into systems within the various domains’ (*ibid.*, p. 546).

⁴ The themes explored by [Wagner \(2020\)](#) and [Devereaux and Wagner \(2020\)](#), reflect a similar orientation toward macro as developed here. This approach to macro resonates also with—and can be enriched by—systems theory ([Bertalanffy, 1968](#); [Pryor, 2008](#)).

⁵ Some mainstream economists have pointed to some problematical features of the current dynamic stochastic general equilibrium (DSGE) approach. For instance, [Kirman \(1992, 2010\)](#) has undertaken a critical analysis of representative agent modelling. [Janssen \(1993\)](#) and [Stiglitz \(2018\)](#) have provided critical assessments of DSGE models, leading [Stiglitz \(2018, p. 73\)](#) to recognise that ‘the core DSGE models is not good theory’. Paul [Romer \(2016, p. 1\)](#) has even described macro theory as ‘macroeconomic pseudoscience’. [Korinek \(2015\)](#) concluded that the ‘scientific rigor of this [macro] method is questionable’. Macroeconomic practitioners such as [Caballero \(2010\)](#), [Trichet \(2010\)](#), [Howitt \(2012\)](#), and [Calvo \(2013\)](#) have also presented misgivings on the current state of macroeconomics.

also for Weaver (1948) and Ostrom (1982), statistics as a method is unfit to deal with social phenomena that display the essential features of organised complexity.⁶ Hayek (2014 [1964], pp. 264–265) argues that statistical models are unable to illuminate the workings of complex and highly organised phenomena because its methods deliberately ignore the relative positions of elements within the whole. Furthermore, statistical models also turn a blind eye regarding how those elements connect with each other (see also Lawson, 1997).

This suggests that statistical methods used to analyse linear causation, and other formal approaches, face analytical and methodological limits, preventing them from explaining and representing organised complex phenomena since complexity arises from rule-guided interactions between orderly and systematically connected parts (Hayek, 2014 [1964], p. 265). Lawson (2019, pp. 6–7) argues that statistical and formal models applied to social systems and economic reality in general lead to ‘analytical incoherence’ since they carry inadequate ontological presuppositions: a ‘prevalence of closed systems, namely configurations in which event regularities or correlations occur’. Thus, these models are committed to the view that ‘social reality consists of a ubiquity of closed systems of isolated atoms’. Most modelling and statistical attempts of economics are ultimately ‘manifestations of this atomistic ontology’ (*ibid.*, p. 7; see also Ostrom, 1982). Hence, statistical assumptions generally assume away the properties of complexity and the open-ended nature of social reality (Lawson, 1997; Pryor, 2008; Lewis, 2021).

For simplicity, social systems are here conceived as emergent totalities or social ‘wholes’ which result from the causal interplay between the individuals (i.e. the parts) that compose the system and its organising structure (Ostrom, 2005; Lewis, 2021).⁷ Social systems are therefore ‘complex’ since they display relevant properties irreducible to, and distinct from, the properties held at the level of the parts that constitute them (Bertalanffy, 1968; Wagner, 2012). As Herbert Simon (1962, p. 267) noticed, ‘a complex system’ is ‘made up of a large number of parts that interact in a non-simple way’. Furthermore, an *organised* complex system, according to Weaver (1948), is a type of regular order arising from the social relations among the elements.⁸ Thus, it is a special type of order (or regularity) that occurs when elements are organised and ‘inter-related in a complicated, but nevertheless not in helter-skelter, fashion’ (*ibid.*, p. 539).

⁶ A problem of ‘organised complexity’ shows the features of an organisation, meaning that the arrangement of the variables generates an order—an organisational property that possesses emergent features (Simon, 1962). Thus, they are ‘problems which involve dealing simultaneously with a sizable number of factors which are interrelated into an organic whole’ (Weaver, 1948, p. 539). Organised complexity displays a type of interconnectedness among the elements so that they are ‘all interrelated in a complicated, but nevertheless not in helter-skelter, fashion’ (*ibid.*, p. 539).

⁷ Organising social structure means: ‘merely a category that collects together the collective practices, acceptances, [social] positions, rules, rights, obligations and suchlike that are emergent features of human actions and interactions and which relationally organise the individuals as communities’ (Lawson, 2019, p. 61). The important point for Lawson (2022) is that we are not dealing with a long list of different things (organisation, social relations, positions, rights, and obligation), but looking at the same things under different descriptions (Slade-Caffarell, 2020).

⁸ To clarify, social relations are here conceived as ‘to express the manner of connection of social positions ... a social relation just is (or is first and foremost) and accepted set of rights and obligations holding between, and connecting, two or more positions or occupants of positions. Social interaction can be understood as the contingent actualisations of such social relations’ (Lawson, 2019, pp. 56–57). In addition, a social ‘position or rather position occupancy is an accepted status that confers a social identity; to be allocated to a specific position is to acquire the social identity of being so positioned. ... a position is essentially a locus of a set of specific rights and obligations’ (*ibid.*, p. 55).

deeply incompatible with modern macro's methodological criteria and reductionist assumptions.

First, systems that display organised complexity comprise a large number of elements that are related to each other and interact in particular ways (Hayek, 2014 [1964]). Organised complexity is characterised by the existence of elements that establish purposeful and interconnected ways of behaviour among them (Hayek, 1952). All the parts are interrelated in a complicated fashion—but *not* in individually erratic or unknown helter-skelter ways—forming an organic whole, or an organised system of relations (Weaver, 1948). An organised system is 'a coherent structure of causally connected... parts' and as such, 'only certain kinds of regular arrangements' can produce an order (Hayek, 2014 [1964], p. 258).

Second, the specific and orderly interactions between the parts—organised by the structure—are what constitute the system's core elements; they comprise the generative mechanism that produces a complex order and its emergent properties (Colander and Kupers, 2014; Lewis, 2021). Given the myriad of intricate and dynamic interconnections, the interactions cannot be entirely understood or fully represented in detail. However, they can be *indirectly* explained and described in general terms, by either the system of rules or the organising framework configuring them (Ostrom, 2010; Lewis, 2015). Thus, while it is impossible to know, model and completely detail the myriad of interconnections, they can nonetheless be described in terms of the sets of rules and organisational structures that define the positions, rights and obligations 'which relationally organise the individuals as communities' (Lawson, 2019, p. 61). These are the general principles guiding the parts' interactions (Lewis and Wagner, 2017).

Consequently, the key feature in analysing orderly interactions—while bypassing the intractability of formalising the whole dynamic network and the impossibility of accounting for all the interactions generating the whole—is by being able to identify their specific governing rules and organising structures (Ostrom, 2005; Wagner, 2020). Sets of governing rules that define relations are the fundamental aspect generating 'persistent structures of relationships' (Hayek, 1952, p. 142). Complex wholes are 'defined in terms of certain general properties of their structure' and rules (Hayek, 2014 [1964], p. 262). In other words, a complex order must have a set of rules, an organising or a physically guided structure governing the general principles, and properties of interactions (Lewis, 2015). Specific sets of rules define and allow the individual parts to interact with each other *only* in certain orderly ways while proscribing others, in turn, producing an order (Hayek, 2014 [1964], p. 285).

The third property of complexity is that the orderly system generates new emergent properties that are ontologically and causally *irreducible* to the basic elements, if the latter is considered separately from being organised and arranged (Lawson, 2019). Emergent properties are ontologically and qualitatively distinct from the aggregation of all the intrinsic properties that the parts possessed before engaging in the system of relations (Wagner, 2012). A social entity and its properties 'are said to be *emergent* from some lower (or different) level where they arise through the relational organising of lower-level elements, and the emergent properties in question are not possessed by any of the (lower-level) elements that get to be organised' (Lawson, 2019, p. 34). Emergence is 'ultimately a compositional term, and one that involves components being organised rather than aggregated' (*ibid.*, p. 197).

Fourth, emergent properties of complex systems form a constant, endogenous, and unpredictable source of novelty and radical uncertainty (Lewis and Wagner, 2017).

Complex systems exhibit ‘perpetual novelty in the system as mutations lead it to evolve new ecological niches’ (Rosser, 2004, p. 47). Once we conceptualise the macroeconomy along these lines, it becomes clear that system or macro variables do not act directly on one another, since those variables are the product of emergence via the interactions among micro-level entities within the system (Wagner, 2020). Therefore, ‘the injection of novelty is continuous as against being discrete’ (Devereaux and Wagner, 2020, p. 33). The fourth property of complexity is a fundamental lack of steadiness within these systems—meaning the absence of any general equilibrium state or endogenous tendencies toward one (Axtell, 2014).

The presence of emergence and the endogenous recurrence of novel properties indicate that complex systems cannot be meaningfully conceptualised as static equilibrium outcomes (Lawson, 1997; Lewis, 2015). Equilibrium precludes the idea that higher-level patterns and ontological transformations of the parts to the whole are generated by constant change and dynamic interaction among the parts (Wagner, 2012). Based on these four properties, we can distinguish that the macroeconomy and complex macroeconomic wholes that arise from market settings—based on similar kinds of (monetary) relations established by purposeful agents—are much more than the mere aggregation of their parts (Keynes, 1936; Wagner, 2020). It becomes clear that the macroeconomy resembles a complex system or an emergent social totality.

The recent literature (e.g. Kirman, 2010; Holt *et al.*, 2011; Howitt, 2012; Wagner, 2012; Dosi and Roventini, 2019) recognises that the macroeconomy possesses the features of complex systems: causally connected parts, (monetary) interactions defined in general terms by systems of monetary rules and banking frameworks, emergent properties separate from the parts’ initial properties, and out-of-equilibrium dynamics (Axtell, 2014; Wagner, 2020). The macroeconomy thus resembles an ecology of monetary interactions *organised* by a monetary and banking structure (Wagner, 2012). The aforementioned properties pose severe problems for both linear causation models and standard macroeconomic theory that treat the macro economy or social systems as a collection of aggregated variables seeking to establish mere linear relationships among them (i.e. act as if the aggregated variables directly relate to one another in a causal manner) (Pryor, 2008; Devereaux and Wagner, 2020).

3.1 Macroeconomic complexity: *acknowledged but not yet applied*

By extrapolating and by considering the four properties of complexity in economic analysis, it seems clear that the macroeconomy resembles a complex system much more than a linear and mechanical one, and thus displays the four reviewed features (Holt *et al.*, 2011; Dosi and Roventini, 2019; Hommes, 2021). Indeed, as Ostrom states, ‘we need to recognise that not only are humans complex systems; so are the [economic] structures they build’ (Ostrom, 2005, p. 125). Following Keynes (1936) and Hayek (1973), if the macroeconomy resembles a complex system, then it must be treated analytically and conceptually as such; otherwise, the analysis will miss important causal elements (Colander, 2000; Wagner, 2020). Based on that recognition of complexity, both Keynes and Hayek advocated a heterodox and pluralist position in economics and a broad complexity vision of what constitutes the aggregate economy (Lewis, 2015).

This vision concerning the complexity of economic reality indicates that the macroeconomy can no longer be represented as if it were displaying the same types of nature,

equilibrium and systemic-static notions (Kirman, 2010; Stiglitz, 2018). The problem is that such notions conflict with the ideas of dynamic agents' interactions and of an emergent order being sustained through constant processes of change and dynamic relations among the parts (Axtell, 2014). Hence, it is still 'a strange micro foundation—a micro foundation based on assumptions of no heterogeneous agent interaction, when, for many people, it is precisely the heterogeneous agent interaction that leads to central characteristics of the macro economy' (Holt *et al.*, 2011, p. 365; see also Janssen, 1993).

Moreover, the modern modelling approach encompasses strong conceptual biases toward assuming infinite time horizons with a 'well-behaved ergodic steady state' (Korinek, 2015, p. 3). The models are not contingent on notions of order, internally generated structures, or organisations *derived from* changes among parts. In other words, the models are unable to convey the idea that an overall 'order can be preserved throughout a process of [endogenous] change' (Hayek, 2014 [1968], p. 308). Also, these 'steady state' assumptions are problematic because there are many real-world processes that cannot be assumed to always revert back toward steady states (Korinek, 2015; Stiglitz, 2018). Macroeconomists found a way around such problems by assuming the presence of a single representative agent for the whole economy, which can attain a single and stable equilibrium (Smithin, 2004; Kirman, 2010). But such an equilibrium also ignores the fundamental issue of how macro states are generated, as well as how dynamic processes at lower levels of reality constantly sustain them (Lawson, 1997; Lewis, 2015). In other words, the problem with the DSGE vision is that 'resources cannot allocate themselves, for only people can do that. But people do not act within the DSGE model, they merely respond to the allocative imperatives of the equilibrium model' (Devereaux and Wagner, 2020, p. 31).

Thus, assuming a single-equilibrium end state contrasts with both ontological and complexity transformations that rest upon processes of interaction, as well as with the notion of endogenously generated order that define complexity (Hayek, 1973; Lewis, 2015). Consequently, the assumptions of equilibrium, static orders and end states are profoundly incompatible with the notion of a higher-level order sustained by the parts' constant dynamic changes and interactions—which is complexity's fourth property, as reviewed in Section 3.

The second and third shortcomings of macro models jointly stem from their unrealistic and highly reductionist approaches: their atomistic (radically isolated) individual basis is used to construct models of simple aggregative behaviour (Trichet, 2010; Wagner, 2012). They adopt the unwarranted assumption that the aggregates correspond linearly to the hypothetical choices made by a single and isolated representative individual, and that the aggregates would behave similarly (Janssen, 1993; Korinek, 2015).¹³ Estimating macro parameters based on microfoundations 'may be a reasonable estimate for an individual agent facing a specific micro decision, but what does it have to do with the aggregate?... why do we call this strategy microfoundations rather than reduced-form?' (Caballero, 2010, p. 89).

¹³ The 'microfoundations quest' is 'the pure theory of individual choice, essentially divorced from the institutional or social context in which the choice is supposed to take place. The insistence on microfoundations... is therefore the insistence that an explanation of macroeconomic phenomena should be based on the logic of the outcomes of the... atomistic agents, without reference to any higher-level social structure' (Smithin, 2004, p. 3).

Additionally, once we recognise that in all economic systems the *organisational structure* is an essential and causal component of the emergent totality, and that this structure is also ‘extrinsic, and so additional, to the powers of any individual components’, then it becomes easier to acknowledge that the microfoundations of macroeconomics and the representative agent theorising are inappropriate and unjustifiable forms of casual reduction, making them a method that ‘is quite untenable’ (Lawson, 2019, p. 199; see also Janssen 1993). Thus, ‘once we take note of organising structure, an ontological reduction is usually proscribed’ (Lawson, 2019, p. 201). Yet, as Paul Romer (2016, p. 1) has recognised, this is exactly the sort of untenable ‘pseudoscience’ that macro theory has been pursuing.

In sum, these strong assumptions negate the existence of complexity’s first and third reviewed features: they are incompatible with the notions of a coherent structure of causally connected parts and the novel properties of emergence.

4.3 Do rules and organising structures play a relevant role?

The third analytical shortcoming of DSGE models is that they severely disregard the social structures and rules that frame and enable particular sets of orderly interactions, while proscribing others (Hodgson, 2000). Essentially, resorting to the isolated representative agent for formal modelling—implicitly suggesting that the interactions among agents *are irrelevant* in producing macro phenomena—correspondingly also assumes away the role of the social structure and the organising framework that define and guide the organisation, positioning and *kind* of interactions in place (Smithin, 2004; Kirman, 2010; Lawson, 2019).

This one-dimensional way of treating the relation between micro and macroeconomic phenomena has profound implications for how macroeconomists analytically disregard the role of monetary and organising structures, as well as banking rules, in determining macroeconomic phenomena. Contemporary models presume a coherent, simple and direct link at the same level of complexity and ontology, connecting the micro and macro socioeconomic realms (Lewis and Wagner, 2017). Such assumptions in macro models wrongly force the two entirely distinct socioeconomic realms to be ontologically and qualitatively indistinguishable (Wagner, 2012).

Assuming such homogenous properties is inappropriate since, as argued in previous sections, micro and macro phenomena are entirely different ontologically because of the existence of *rule-guided* interactions, organisational structures and emergence (Lewis, 2015; Lawson, 2019). By assuming away social relations, and by treating reality in a one-dimensional fashion, they also preclude any theoretical necessity to concentrate on, and explore the properties of, the organising structures and banking rules, as the ‘complexity link’ between the two ontologically and qualitatively *distinct* micro and macro realms (Hodgson, 2000). An unfortunate but predictable result is that ‘few institutions play important roles in models today’ (Axtell, 2014, p. 38). This is problematic in macro theorising because ‘in most cases factors entirely extrinsic to lower-level components and their interactions are necessarily involved, preventing causal reductions’ (Lawson, 2019, p. 202).

Consequently, recognising (i) the above arguments concerning macro models’ inherent limitations and their severe analytical and philosophical incongruity with complexity, and (ii) the unavoidable presence of the four features of complex phenomena in macroeconomic reality, leads to acknowledging that most macro models, particularly

but also into what it should fundamentally be about: macro analysis should never become too detached from political economy, systems theory and the three basic levels of social reality. Incorporating the notion of complexity and recognising its core properties ‘will be good news to Institutionalists, Post Keynesians, Austrians, and perhaps even Marxists, since they are the schools that have continued to explore complex phenomena such as market processes and comparative institutions despite the disapproval, and often intense opposition, of their colleagues within the mainstream’ (Prasch, 2000, p. 223).

The analysis also suggests that reductionist and formal approaches in macro and DSGE models are flawed both conceptually and methodologically to handle the macroeconomy’s fundamental features. Based on this article’s explorations of complexity and their conceptual implications for macroeconomics, a challenging and unsettling conclusion arises: the realisation that the notion of macroeconomics might not necessarily mean what most economists think it means (Paniagua, 2020, 2021).

If the macroeconomy behaves much like a complex system, then macroeconomics would instead be defined as the organisational and rules-oriented study of money, its processes of production and social positioning (the apparatus of banks and central banks), and its rules-conditioned emergent phenomena. Such a redefinition could encourage macroeconomists to change frameworks and approaches toward heterodox approaches in macro analysis (Wagner, 2020). In order to scientifically study complex phenomena, it is necessary to apply methods of analysis that the nature and properties of the material under study *dictate* using, not vice versa (Hayek, 1952, p. 77).

The study of economics needs to be ‘guided in the choice of its methods in the main by the nature of the problem it [has] to face’ (Hayek, 1952, p. 77), rather than the other way around, which is scientifically unsound (Ostrom, 1982; Romer, 2016). Accordingly, it would be judicious to supersede current formal methods and frameworks that analytically and conceptually undermine the complex reality social scientists seek to study.

Finally, the radical and uncomfortable conclusion of this article is that in order to tackle economic complexity in a constructive and meaningful way, we might have to set aside most current models, techniques of thought and formalist ways of thinking about macroeconomics and money to instead embrace insights from both heterodox economics and systems theory (Lawson, 2016; Wagner, 2020). A heterodox and political-economic analysis of money and banking—one that sidesteps the current models’ reductionist shortcomings and questionable assumptions—could convey the casual properties and essence of complex phenomena, which are, after all, our real subject matter (Paniagua, 2016a, 2016b, 2021).

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