2. Reasoning in Agents

Part 1: Introduction to Reasoning

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What is Reasoning?

- More than thinking
- Taking a set of facts and deriving new ones in a fixed way
- More specifically (usefully):
  - Reasoning to achieve a goal – planning
  - Problem Solving
  - Working out how to get world state A to world state B
What is Reasoning?
An example

- How do I achieve my dream of owning a house by the seaside?
  - Starting world state:
    - I have X amount of money
    - I have many facts about land, the city, planning permission, the housing market etc.
  - How do I achieve my goal state:
    - Where I have a house
    - (preferably one which is the BEST I could get with my money)

- The possibilities in the real world are (nearly!) infinite!

Automated Reasoning

- Objective: carry out such inference automatically - without the need for human intervention
- This is very hard because:
  - The real world is complex (huge number of factors)
    - inaccessible
  - Resources are bounded (finite time and finite memory)
  - Things change (while I am thinking or acting the world may change)
    - dynamic
  - The world is uncertain (I cannot be sure that an action I take will have the expected outcome)
    - non-deterministic
  - There are other actors that might try to (intentionally or unintentionally) thwart my plans!
    - non-deterministic
Key distinctions btw. Reasoning Paradigms
Monotonic vs. Non-Monotonic (I)

- **Monotonic**
  - A logical inference relation is *monotonic* if and only if, for all sets of propositions $S$ and $T$, and for all propositions $A$, if $S$ entails $A$ (e.g. $S \vdash A$) then $(S \cup T) \vdash A$
  - First order logic is monotonic
  - Classical deduction - suitable for reasoning in open-ended situations
  - Absence of $x$ implies $x$ is unknown
  - A proposition $A$ is false with respect to a set of propositions $S$ when $S \vdash \neg A$. 

Monotonic reasoners can be applied to reasoning in open-ended situations. The absence of an element $x$ implies $x$ is unknown. A proposition $A$ is false with respect to a set of propositions $S$ when $S \vdash \neg A$. 

**Reasoning Paradigms**

- Key distinctions between paradigms
- Concrete approaches
Key distinctions btw. Reasoning Paradigms
Monotonic vs. Non-Monotonic (II)

- **Non-monotonic**
  - Logics in which the set of implications determined by a given group of premises does not necessarily grow, and can shrink, when new well-formed formulae are added to the set of premises
  - Absence of $x$ implies $x$ is false - closed world assumption
  - Prolog is non-monotonic
  - Reasoning to conclusions on the basis of incomplete information. Given more information, we are prepared to retract previously drawn inferences.
  - Agents are in general non-monotonic systems.

Abductive vs. Deductive

- **Abductive**
  - A form of inference that works forward to the best explanation
  - Example:
    - $D$ is a collection of data (facts, observations, givens),
    - $H$ explains $D$ (or would, if true, explain $D$),
    - No other hypothesis explains $D$ as well as $H$ does.
    - Therefore, $H$ is probably correct.
  - Good for diagnosis, plan recognition, natural language understanding, vision
  - Explanation is not necessarily true

- **Deductive**
  - Predictive
  - Works from premises to conclusion
  - Inference rules drive the process
  - Uses the existence of facts to infer (via rules) the existence of new facts
  - Conclusion is proven with respect to available facts
Key distinctions btw. Reasoning Paradigms
Forward Chaining vs. Backward Chaining

- **Forward Chaining**
  - An implementation of deduction
  - Rules are used to deduce new facts from existing facts
  - Process continues until no more rules apply

- **Backward Chaining**
  - Works backwards from goal to current situation
  - Rules are used to infer that a (sub)goal holds then the preconditions (left hand side of rule) also hold
  - Process moves backwards down chain of reasoning until no more rules apply
  - Prolog style

Reasoning Paradigms: Concrete Approaches
Essential elements

- A *description* of the world
- A specification of the *goal*
- A *search space* of things to do (possibly vast)
- Some way to traverse the search space
  - Need of some *algorithm*/strategy/heuristic function to guide the traversal.
Reasoning Paradigms: Concrete Approaches

- Approaches
  - Case-Based Reasoning
  - Model-Based Reasoning
  - Qualitative Reasoning
  - Planning Systems
  - Constraint Satisfaction Reasoning
  - Rule-Based Reasoning
  - Ontological Reasoning
  - Symbolic Reasoning
  - Logic Programming

- These are not disjoint. One can have combined approaches such as Constraint Logic-Based Planning Systems.

Reasoning Paradigms: Concrete Approaches
Case-Based Reasoning

- “I remember solving a problem like this some time ago ... “
- Functions:
  - A case-base of previous problem-solution pairs
  - An indexing scheme which classifies problems and cases
- When a new problem arises:
  - Find the closest previous problem(s) and solution(s)
  - Try to adapt the solution(s) to the new problem
  - Apply the new solution
  - Optionally add the new experience to the case-base
- Challenge is how to create initial case base
Reasoning Paradigms: Concrete Approaches
Model-Based Reasoning

- "I understand how this system and its components work based on their input parameters"
  - Component models (e.g. failure modes)
  - Differential equations, logical models, ...
- Combined:
  - Brute force search algorithms
- Often used for system diagnosis:
  - Why is my washing machine not working?
  - Why is this electric circuit failing?

Reasoning Paradigms: Concrete Approaches
Qualitative Reasoning

- "Gravity works downwards, if I jump out of this plane I will probably fall"
- Approximate way of reasoning
  - Useful to reason about too complex (e.g. chaotic, fractal) problems
  - E.g. physical world properties
  - Use "naive" (but often useful) deduction rules
Planning

- “From my current world state I can apply a sequence of possible actions to get to the goal”

- Different types:
  - **State based planning** - we search the combinations of all actions (Domain driven)
  - **Hierarchical Task Network** - we search the possible plans (Knowledge based)

- A lot of different search techniques, world models and reasoning approaches are used
  - Linear/non-linear
  - Continuous/discrete
  - Temporal issues

**Reasoning Paradigms: Concrete Approaches**

**Constraint Satisfaction**

- “The world is a set of interdependent choices. If I make one, it may affect another”

- Problem:
  - A set of variables $V$ (each with a possible set of values $v_1$-$v_n$)
  - A set of constraints linking variables $C(v_i_1, v_i_2, v_i_3)$ such as “if my trousers are green my shirt should not be blue”
  - What are the legal combinations of values for each variable? Or, which choices fit together given the constraints

- Many search techniques
  - Propagating constraint effects, subdividing the constraint graph etc.
  - Related problems: dynamically changing choices/options, uncertainty, ...
  - But algorithms are typically quite expensive (complexity)
  - Domain specific SAT solvers relatively efficient
  - Good heuristics
**Reasoning Paradigms: Concrete Approaches**

**Rule-Based Reasoning**

- “If the light is red STOP, if it is raining I must be wet, …”
- Functions by:
  - Accumulating a set of rules relating PRE-conditions to inferences or actions
  - A fact base allowing the rules to fire iteratively when the facts fit the rule preconditions
  - Heuristics to select one rule when several satisfy the preconditions
- Reasoning happens by traversing the facts available
- We will see more of this later

**Ontological Reasoning**

- There are two approaches
  - Description logic reasoning over ontological knowledge (e.g. class membership inference) - such as RACER etc.
  - Adapting the data models in each of the other schemes to use objects in agreed ontologies - that is, using any of the previous approaches, but the facts are represented via ontologies
Reasoning Paradigms: Concrete Approaches

Symbolic Reasoning

- The world or a portion of it is represented in terms of *formulae in some logic*
- Reasoning is based on inference.
- Different types of logic are used
  - description logic
  - temporal logic
  - BDI logic
  - epistemic logic
  - deontic logic
  - ...
- We will come back on this later

Logic Programming

- “Given this set of rules with pre and post conditions which information can I obtain from it”
- Based in model theoretic principles
- Provides possible views of solutions
- Prolog (with closed world assumption)
- **Answer Set Programming** (no closed assumption)
Reasoning Paradigms
Evolution in Agent Architectures

- Originally (1956-1985), pretty much all agents designed within AI were *symbolic reasoning agents*
- Its purest expression proposes that agents use *explicit logical reasoning* in order to decide what to do
- Problems with symbolic reasoning led to a reaction against this — the so-called *reactive agents* movement, 1985–present
- From 1990-present, a number of alternatives proposed: *hybrid architectures*, which attempt to combine the best of reasoning and reactive architectures

Deductive Reasoning Agents

- Rule-Based Systems
- Symbolic Reasoning Agents
- Deductive Reasoning Agents
- Agent Oriented Programming
Foundations: Rule-based systems
Expert Systems and rules

- Expert Systems provide expert quality advice, diagnoses and recommendations on real world problems
- Designed to perform function of a human expert. E.g. Medical diagnosis - program takes place of a doctor; given a set of symptoms the system suggests a diagnosis and treatment
- The knowledge base of an expert system is often rule based
  - the system has a list of rules which determine what should be done in different situations
  - These rules are initially designed by human expert(s)
  - The rules are called production rules

Foundations: Rule-based systems
Rules

- Each rule has two parts, the condition-action pair
  - Condition - what must be true for the rule to fire
  - Action - what happens when the condition is met
- Can also be thought of as IF-THEN rules
  - IF sunny(weather) AND outdoors(x)
    THEN print "Take your sunglasses x"
  - IF >30(temperature)
    THEN print "take some water"
- The contents of the working memory are constantly compared to the production rules
- When the contents match the condition of a rule, that rule is fired, and its action is executed
- More than one production rule may match the working memory - conflict set
Foundations: Rule-based systems

Recognise-Act Cycle

- The system cycles around in the **recognise-act cycle**
- Whenever a condition is matched, it is added to the **conflict set** - all the rules which are currently matched
- The system must then decide which rule within the conflict set to fire - **conflict resolution**

Symbolic Reasoning Agents

- The classical approach to building agents is to view them as a particular type of **knowledge-based system**, and bring all the associated (discredited?!) methodologies of such systems to bear
- This paradigm is known as **symbolic AI**
- We define a deliberative agent or agent architecture to be one that:
  - contains an explicitly represented, **symbolic model of the world**
  - makes decisions (for example about what actions to perform) via symbolic reasoning
Symbolic Reasoning Agents
Problems to solve

- If we aim to build an agent in this way, there are two key problems to be solved:

1. *The transduction problem:* that of translating the real world into an accurate, adequate symbolic description, in time for that description to be useful...vision, speech understanding, learning

2. *The representation/reasoning problem:* that of how to symbolically represent information about complex real-world entities and processes, and how to get agents to reason with this information in time for the results to be useful...knowledge representation, automated reasoning, automatic planning

Most researchers accept that neither problem is anywhere near solved

- Underlying problem lies with the complexity of symbol manipulation algorithms in general: many (most) search-based symbol manipulation algorithms of interest are highly intractable

- Because of these problems, some researchers have looked to alternative techniques for building agents...
Deductive Reasoning Agents

- How can an agent decide what to do using theorem proving?
- Basic idea is to use logic to encode a theory stating the best action to perform in any given situation.
- Let:
  - $\rho$ be this theory (typically a set of rules)
  - $\Delta$ be a logical database that describes the current state of the world
  - $A_c$ be the set of actions the agent can perform
  - $\Delta \vdash_\rho \phi$ mean that $\phi$ can be proved from $\Delta$ using $\rho$

Action selection

/* try to find an action explicitly prescribed */
for each $a \in A_c$ do
  if $\Delta \vdash_\rho Do(a)$ then
    return $a$
  end-if
end-for

/* try to find an action not excluded */
for each $a \in A_c$ do
  if $\Delta \not\vdash_\rho \neg Do(a)$ then
    return $a$
  end-if
end-for
return null /* no action found */
Deductive Reasoning Agents
Example: the Vacuum World

- Goal is for the robot to clear up all dirt

Possible actions:

\[ Ac = \{\text{turn, forward, suck}\} \]

P.S. \textit{turn} means "turn right"

Rules \(\rho\) for determining what to do:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{In}(0, 0) \land \text{Facing(north)} \land \neg\text{Dirt}(0, 0) & \implies \text{Do(forward)} \\
\text{In}(0, 1) \land \text{Facing(north)} \land \neg\text{Dirt}(0, 1) & \implies \text{Do(forward)} \\
\text{In}(0, 2) \land \text{Facing(north)} \land \neg\text{Dirt}(0, 2) & \implies \text{Do(turn)} \\
\text{In}(0, 2) \land \text{Facing(east)} & \implies \text{Do(forward)}
\end{align*}
\]

...and so on!

Using these rules (+ other obvious ones), starting at (0, 0) the robot will clear up dirt.
Deductive Reasoning Agents

Example: the Vacuum World

- Problems:
  - How to convert video camera input to $Dirt(0, 1)$?
  - Decision making assumes a static environment: calculative rationality
  - Decision making using first-order logic is undecidable!

- Even where we use propositional logic, decision making in the worst case means solving co-NP-complete problems (PS: co-NP-complete = bad news!)

- Typical solutions:
  - Weaken the logic
  - Use symbolic, non-logical representations
  - Shift the emphasis of reasoning from run time to design time

- We will look at some examples of these approaches

Agent Oriented Programming

- Yoav Shoham introduced “Agent Oriented Programming” in 1990:
  - “new programming paradigm, based on a societal view of computation”.

- Key idea: directly programming agents in terms of intentional notions like belief, commitment, and intention.

- The motivation behind such a proposal is that, as we humans use the intentional stance as an abstraction mechanism for representing the properties of complex systems.
  - In the same way that we use the intentional stance to describe humans, it might be useful to use to describe the programming of machines.

- Shoham suggested that a complete AOP system will have 3 components:
  - A logic for specifying agents and describing their mental states
  - An interpreted programming language for programming agents
  - An ‘agentification’ process, for converting ‘neutral applications’ (e.g., databases) into agents

- Relationship between logic and programming language is semantics
Agent Oriented Programming
AGENT0

- AGENT0 is the first AOP language.
- AGENT0 is implemented as an extension to LISP
- Each agent in AGENT0 has 4 components:
  - a set of capabilities (things the agent can do)
  - a set of initial beliefs
  - a set of initial commitments (things the agent will do)
  - a set of commitment rules
- The key component, which determines how the agent acts, is the commitment rule set
- Each commitment rule contains
  - a message condition
  - a mental condition
  - an action

On each 'agent cycle'...

- The message condition is matched against the messages the agent has received
- The mental condition is matched against the beliefs of the agent
- If the rule fires, then the agent becomes committed to the action (the action gets added to the agent’s commitment set)

- Actions may be
  - private: an internally executed computation, or
  - communicative: sending messages

- Messages are constrained to be one of three types:
  - "requests" to commit to action
  - "unrequests" to refrain from actions
  - "informs" which pass on information
2. Reasoning in Agents

Agent Oriented Programming
AGENT0

- A commitment rule:

```
COMMIT(
    (agent, REQUEST, DO(time, action)), ;; msg condition
    [now, Friend agent] AND
    CAN(self, action) AND
    NOT [time, CMT(self, anyaction)]
), ;; mental condition
    self,
    DO(time, action)
)
```

- This rule may be paraphrased as follows:
  if I receive a message from agent which requests me to do action at time, and I believe that:
  - agent is currently a friend
  - I can do the action
  - At time, I am not committed to doing any other action
  then commit to doing action at time
Agent Oriented Programming
AGENT0 and PLACA

- AGENT0 provides support for multiple agents to cooperate and communicate, and provides basic provision for debugging...
- ...it is, however, a prototype, that was designed to illustrate some principles, rather than be a production language
- A more refined implementation was developed by Thomas, for her 1993 doctoral thesis
- Her Planning Communicating Agents (PLACA) language was intended to address 2 severe drawbacks to AGENT0:
  - the inability of agents to plan,
  - the inability of agents to communicate requests for action via high-level goals
- Agents in PLACA are programmed in much the same way as in AGENT0, in terms of mental change rules

An example mental change rule:

```lisp
{{(self ?agent REQUEST (?t (xeroxed ?x)))
  (AND (CAN-ACHIEVE (?t xeroxed ?x)))
  (NOT (BEL (*now* shelving)))
  (NOT (BEL (*now* (vip ?agent))))
  ((ADOPT (INTEND (5pm (xeroxed ?x)))))
  ((agent self INFORM
      (*now* (INTEND (5pm (xeroxed ?x))))))}}
```

- This can be paraphrased as follows:
  - if someone asks you to xerox something, and you can, and you don’t believe that they’re a VIP, or that you’re supposed to be shelving books, then
  - adopt the intention to xerox it by 5pm, and
  - inform them of your newly adopted intention
MetateM

- MetateM is a multi-agent language in which each agent is programmed by giving it a temporal logic specification of the behavior it should exhibit.
- These specifications are executed directly in order to generate the behavior of the agent.
- Temporal logic is classical logic augmented by modal operators for describing how the truth of propositions changes over time.

Temporal Logic operators

- For example, . . .
  - important(agent) means “it is now, and will always be true that agents are important”
  - important(ConcurrentMetateM) means “sometime in the future, ConcurrentMetateM will be important”
  - important(Prolog) means “sometime in the past it was true that Prolog was important”
  - (¬friends(us)) U apologize(you) means “we are not friends until you apologize”
  - apologize(you) means “tomorrow (in the next state), you apologize”.
  - @prepareSlides(me) means “yesterday (previous run) I prepared my slides”.
  - post-doc(me) S year(2003) means “I am a posdoc researcher since 2003”

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**MetateM**

**Execution rules**

- MetateM is a framework for *directly executing* temporal logic specifications
- The root of the MetateM concept is Gabbay’s *separation theorem*: Any arbitrary temporal logic formula can be rewritten in a logically equivalent *past* ⇒ *future* form.
- This *past* ⇒ *future* form can be used as *execution rules*
- A MetateM program is a set of such rules
- Execution proceeds by a process of continually matching rules against a “history”, and *firing* those rules whose antecedents are satisfied
  - Execution is thus a process of iteratively generating a model for the formula made up of the program rules
- The instantiated future-time consequents become *commitments* which must subsequently be satisfied

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**Example**

- An example MetateM program: the resource controller…

\[
\forall x \quad \lozenge \text{ask}(x) \Rightarrow \lozenge \text{give}(x)
\]
\[
\forall x,y \quad \text{give}(x) \land \text{give}(y) \Rightarrow (x=y)
\]

- First rule ensure that an ‘ask’ is eventually followed by a ‘give’
- Second rule ensures that only one ‘give’ is ever performed at any one time
- There are algorithms for executing MetateM programs that appear to give reasonable performance
Concurrent MetateM

- Concurrent MetateM provides an operational framework through which societies of MetateM processes can operate and communicate
- It is based on a model for concurrency in executable logics: the notion of executing a logical specification to generate individual agent behavior
- A Concurrent MetateM system contains a number of agents (objects), each object has 3 attributes:
  - a name
  - an interface
  - a MetateM program

An object's interface contains two sets:
- **environment predicates** — these correspond to messages the object will accept
- **component predicates** — correspond to messages the object may send

For example, a 'stack' object's interface:
```
stack(pop, push)[popped, stackfull]
{pop, push} = environment preds
{popped, stackfull} = component preds
```

- If an agent receives a message headed by an environment predicate, it accepts it
- If an object satisfies a commitment corresponding to a component predicate, it broadcasts it
Concurrent MetateM
Example

- To illustrate the language Concurrent MetateM in more detail, here are some example programs...
- Snow White has some sweets (resources), which she will give to the Dwarves (resource consumers)
- She will only give to one dwarf at a time
- She will always eventually give to a dwarf that asks
- Here is Snow White, written in Concurrent MetateM:

  Snow-White(ask)[give]:
  - ask(x) ⇒ ◊ give(x)
  - give(x) ∧ give(y) ⇒ (x ≠ y)

Concurrent MetateM
Example

- The ‘eager’ dwarf asks for a sweet initially, and then whenever he has just received one, asks again

  eager(give)[ask]:
  - start ⇒ ask(eager)
  - ◎ give(eager) ⇒ ask(eager)

- Some dwarves are even less polite: ‘greedy’ just asks every time

  greedy(give)[ask]:
  - start ⇒ □ ask(greedy)
Concurrent MetateM

Example

- Fortunately, some have better manners; 'courteous' only asks when 'eager' and 'greedy' have eaten

\[
\text{courteous(give)[ask]:} \\
(\neg \text{ask(courteous)} \ S \ \text{give(eager)}) \land \\
(\neg \text{ask(courteous)} \ S \ \text{give(greedy)}) \Rightarrow \\
\text{ask(courteous)}
\]

- And finally, ‘shy’ will only ask for a sweet when no-one else has just asked

\[
\text{shy(give)[ask]:} \\
\text{\texttt{start} } \Rightarrow \ \Box \ \text{ask(shy)} \\
\text{\texttt{ask(x)} } \Rightarrow \ \neg \ \text{ask(shy)} \\
\text{\texttt{give(shy)} } \Rightarrow \ \Box \ \text{ask(shy)}
\]

Concurrent MetateM

Summary:
- An(other) experimental language
- Very nice underlying theory…
- …but unfortunately, lacks many desirable features — could not be used in current state to implement ‘full’ system
- Currently prototype only, full version on the way!
## References


These slides are based mainly in [2] and material from M. Wooldridge, J. Padget and M. de Vos