

LECTURE 11: ARGUMENTATION

An Introduction to Multiagent Systems

CISC 7412, Fall 2011

Today

- Last week we looked at negotiation.
 - Mechanisms for getting agents to decide how to divide resources.
- This week we'll look at another approach to agreement.
 - Argumentation
- More general approach than negotiation.
 - Come to agreement about anything that can be described by a set of propositions.

Argumentation

- Argumentation is the process of attempting to agree about what to believe.
- Only a question when information or beliefs are contradictory.
 - If everything is consistent, just merge information from multiple agents.
- Argumentation provides principled techniques for resolving inconsistency.
- Or at least, sensible rules for deciding what to believe in the face of inconsistency.

- Gilbert (1994) identified 4 modes of argument:
 1. *Logical mode* — akin to a proof.
“If you accept that A and that A implies B , then you must accept that B ”.
 2. *Emotional mode* — appeals to feelings and attitudes.
“How would you feel if it happened to you?”
 3. *Visceral mode* — physical and social aspect.
“Cretin!”
 4. *Kisceral mode* – appeals to the mystical or religious
“This is against Christian teaching!”
- Depending on circumstances, some of these might not be accepted.

- For example, can dispute forms of logical inference.
 - Law of excluded middle/Intuitionism
 - Modus tollens
- Lewis Carroll's "What the Tortoise Said to Achilles"



<http://www.ditext.com/carroll/tortoise.html>

Abstract Argumentation

- Concerned with the overall structure of the set of arguments
 - Rather than internals of individual arguments.
 - We'll get to the internals later.
- Write $x \rightarrow y$
 - “argument x attacks argument y ”;
 - “ x is a counterexample of y ; or
 - “ x is an attacker of y ”.

where we are not actually concerned as to what x, y are.

- In case this seems too abstract, here are some arguments we'll be looking at.

p : Since the weather today is sunny, I'm going to go out on my bike.

q : Since today is a weekday and I have to go to work, I can't go out on my bike.

r : Since today is a holiday, I don't have to go to work.

s : Since I took the day off, I don't have to go to work.

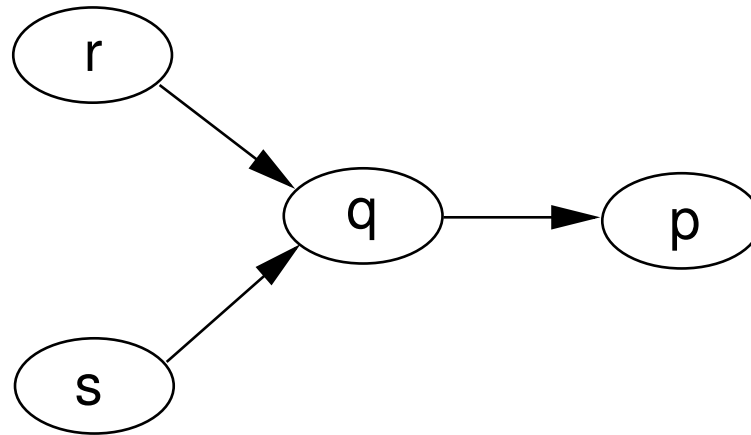
- Without getting too specific, we can see (hopefully) that there is a conflict between some of these arguments.

- An *abstract argument system* is a collection of arguments together with a relation “ $\rightarrow$ ” saying what attacks what.
- Systems like this are called *Dung-style* (or Dungian) after their inventor.

- A set of Dung-style arguments:

$$\langle \{p, q, r, s, \}, \{(r, q), (s, q), (q, p)\} \rangle$$

meaning that r attacks q , s attacks q and q attacks p .



- The question is, given this, what should we believe?

Preferred extensions

- There is no universal agreement about what to believe in a given situation, rather we have a set of criteria.
- A *position* is a set of arguments.
 - Think of it as a viewpoint
- A position S is *conflict free* if no member of S attacks another member of S .
 - Internally consistent
- The conflict-free sets in the previous system are:

$$\emptyset, \{p\}, \{q\}, \{r\}, \{s\}, \{r, s\}, \{p, r\}, \{p, s\}, \{r, s, p\}$$

- If an argument a is attacked by another a' , then it is *defended* by a'' if a'' attacks a' .
- Thus p is defended by r and s .

- A position S is *mutually defensive* if every element of S that is attacked is defended by some element of S .
 - Self-defence is allowed
- These positions are mutually defensive:

$$\emptyset, \{r\}, \{s\}, \{r, s\}, \{p, r\}, \{p, s\}, \{r, s, p\}$$

- A position that is conflict free and mutually defensive is *admissible*.
- All the following positions are admissible.

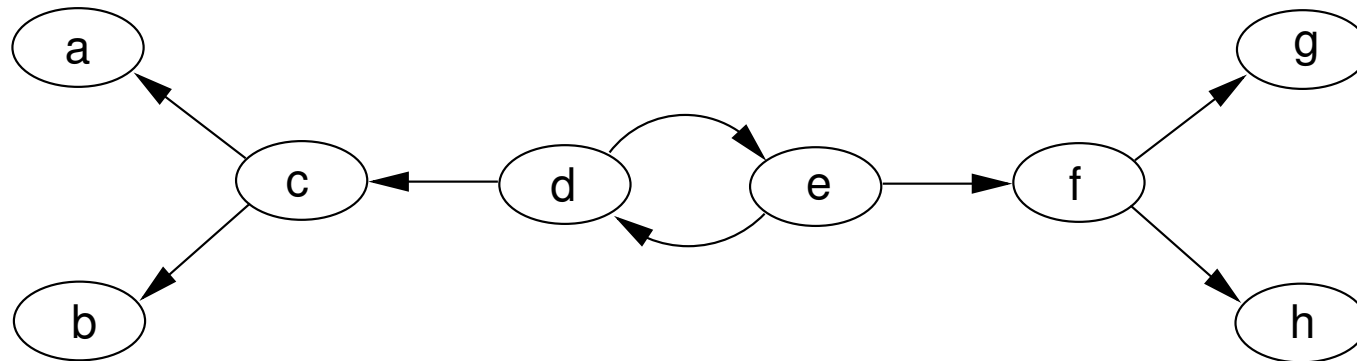
$$\emptyset, \{r\}, \{s\}, \{r, s\}, \{p, r\}, \{p, s\}, \{r, s, p\}$$

- Admissibility is a minimal notion of a reasonable position — it is internally consistent and defends itself against all attackers.

- A *preferred extension* is a maximal admissible set.
 - adding another argument will make it inadmissible.
- In other words S is a preferred extension if S is admissible and no superset of S is admissible.
- Thus $\emptyset$ is not a preferred extension, because $\{p\}$ is admissible.
- Similarly, $\{p, r, s\}$ is admissible because adding q would make it inadmissible.

- A set of arguments always has a preferred extension, but it may be the empty set.

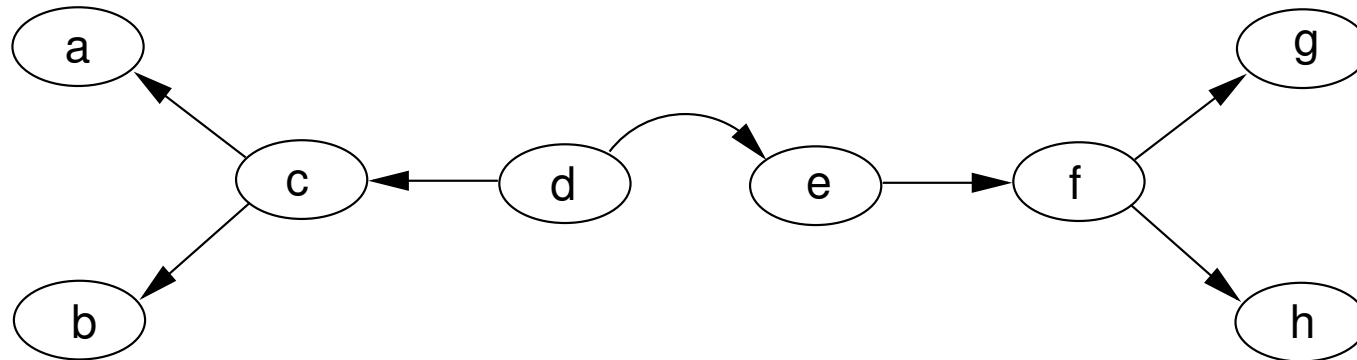
- With a larger set of arguments it is exponentially harder to find the preferred extension.
- n arguments have 2^n possible positions.
- This set of arguments:



has two preferred extensions:

$$\{a, b, d, f\} \quad \{c, e, g, h\}$$

- In contrast:

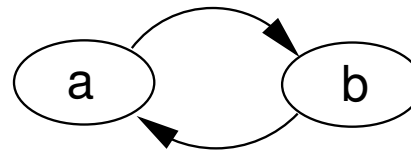


has only one:

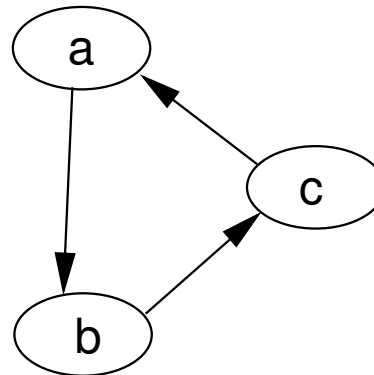
$$\{a, b, d, f\}$$

since c and e are now attacked but undefended, and so can't be in an admissible set.

- Two rather pathological cases are:



with preferred extensions $\{a\}$ and $\{b\}$, and:



which has only $\emptyset$ as a preferred extension.

- The issue with multiple extensions is that we have no way of saying which extension is best.
- Tells us what we might reasonably believe, but not what we should believe.

Credulous and sceptical acceptance

- To improve on preferred extensions we can define
An argument is sceptically accepted if it is a member of *every* preferred extension.
and
An argument is credulously accepted if it is a member of *at least one* preferred extension.
- Clearly anything that is sceptically accepted is also credulously accepted.

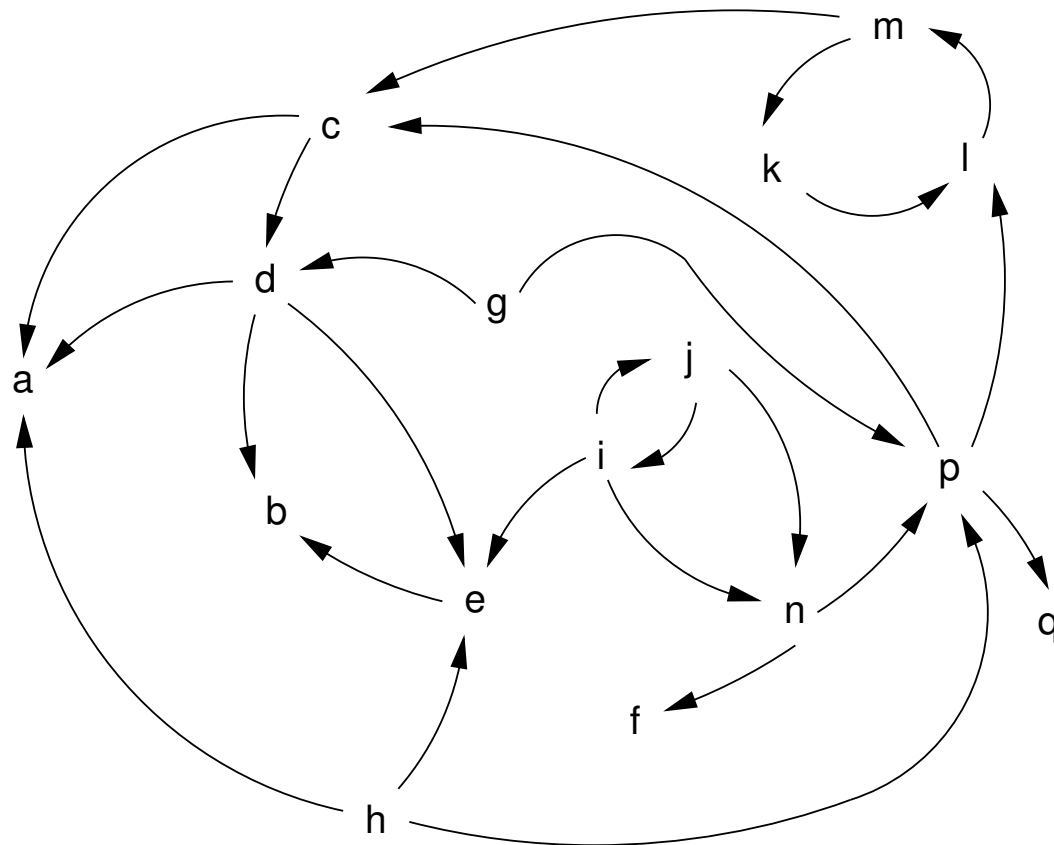
- Can think of arguments in sceptical extensions as being more believable than those in sceptical extensions.
- And those in sceptical extensions as being more believable than those in no extension.

- On our original example, p , q and r are all sceptically accepted, and q is neither sceptically or credulously accepted.

Grounded extensions

- Another approach, perhaps better than preferred extension.
- Arguments are guaranteed to be acceptable if they aren't attacked.
 - No reason to doubt them
- They are IN
- Once we know which these are, any arguments that they attack must be unacceptable.
- They are OUT — delete them from the graph.
- Now look again for IN arguments. . .
- And continue until the graph doesn't change.
- The set of IN arguments make up the *grounded extension*.

- Consider computing the grounded extension of:

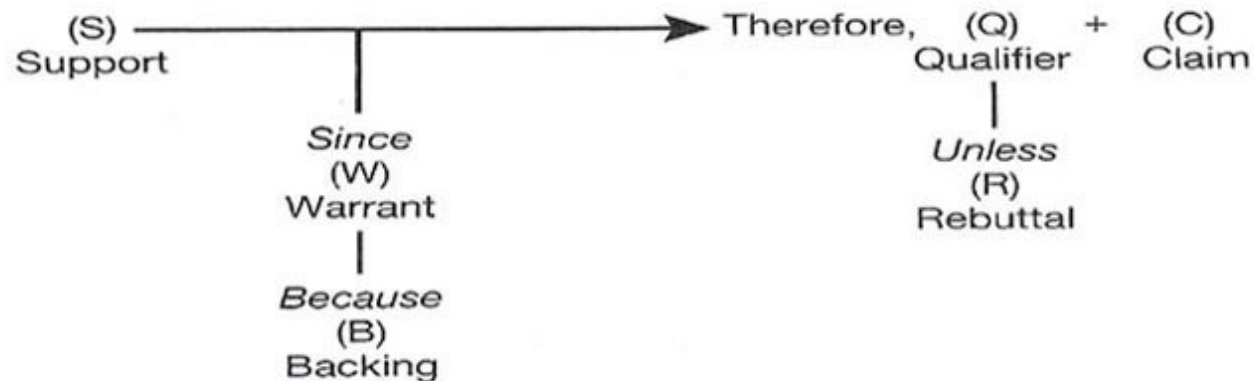


- We can say that:
 - h is not attacked, so IN.
 - h is IN and attacks a , so a is OUT.
 - h is IN and attacks p , so p is OUT.
 - p is OUT and is the only attacker of q so q is IN.

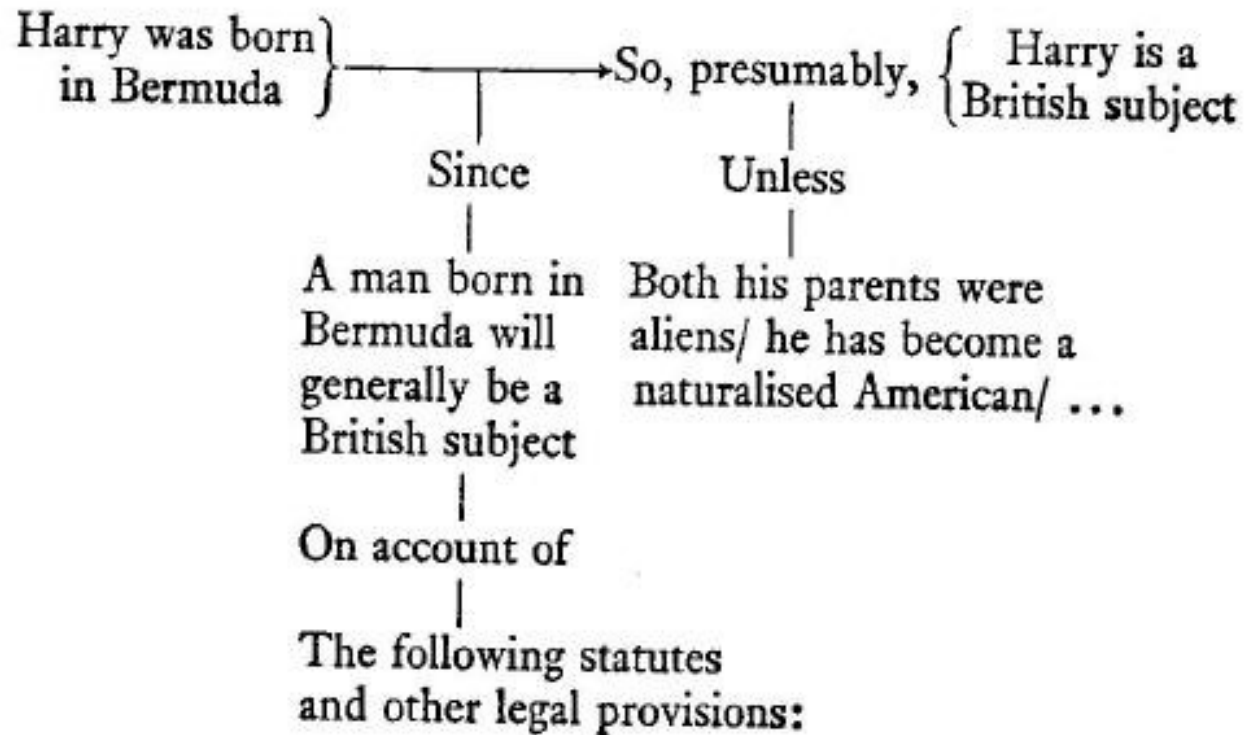
- There is always a grounded extension, and it is always unique (though it may be empty)

Deductive Argumentation

- Argumentation models *defeasible reasoning*.



- Conclusions can be rebutted, premises (and warrants) can be challenged.





Deductive Argumentation

Basic form of deductive arguments is as follows:

$$\Sigma \vdash (S, p)$$

where:

- Σ is a (possibly inconsistent) set of logical formulae;
- p is a logical formula known as the *conclusion*; and
- S is a set of logical formulae (the “support”) such that:
 1. $S \subseteq \Sigma$;
 2. $S \vdash p$; and
 3. There is no $S' \subset S$ such that $S' \vdash p$.
- Often we just write the argument as (S, p) .

Attack and Defeat

- Argumentation takes into account the relationship between arguments.
- Let (S, p) and (S', p') be arguments from some database Σ
- Then (S, p) can be attacked in one of two ways:
 1. (S', p') *rebut*s (S, p) if $p' \equiv \neg p$.
 2. (S', p') *undercuts* (S, p) if $p' \equiv \neg s$ for some $s \in S$.

- Deductive argumentation connects to the abstract ideas we were just looking at.
- A rebuttal or undercut between two arguments becomes the *attack* in a Dungian system.
- Note that a rebut is symmetrical
 - Causes problems with some kinds of extension.
- Once we have identified attacks, we can look at preferred extensions or grounded extensions to determine what arguments to accept.

Example

- Here is one deductive argument.

a denotes “We recycle”

b denotes “We save resources”

$a \rightarrow b$ denotes “If we recycle, then we save resources”

- Formally we get:

$$(\{a, a \rightarrow b\}, b)$$

- Call this argument x .

- A second argument, that conflicts with the first

c denotes “Recycled products are not used”

$a \wedge c \rightarrow \neg b$ denotes “If we recycle and recycled products are not used then we don’t save resources”

- So we have:

$$(\{a, c, a \wedge c \rightarrow \neg b\}, \neg b)$$

- Call this argument y .

- A third argument, that conflicts with the first

d denotes “We create more desirable recycled products”

$d \rightarrow \neg c$ denotes “If we create more desirable recycled products then recycled products are used”

- So we have:

$$(\{d, d \rightarrow \neg c\}, \neg c)$$

- Call this argument z .

- x and y rebut each other.
- z undercuts y .
- What extensions do we have?

Argument strength

- Build on the basic idea by allowing arguments to have a *strength*.
 - Expressed using an order $\preceq$
- Assume that for every pair of arguments A_1 and A_2 , either $A_1 \preceq A_2$ or $A_2 \preceq A_1$ or both.
 - If both, then the arguments are equally strong.
- Then we say that A_1 attacks A_2 if A_1 rebuts or undercuts A_2 *and* $A_2 \preceq A_1$.

Argumentation and Communication

- We have two agents, P and C , each with some knowledge base, Σ_P and Σ_C .
- Each time one makes an assertion, it is considered to be an addition to its *commitment store*, $CS(P)$ or $CS(C)$.
- Commitment stores are information that the agent has made public.
- Thus P can build arguments from $\Sigma_P \cup CS(C)$, and C can use $\Sigma_C \cup CS(P)$.

- We assume that dialogues start with P making the first move.
- The outcomes, then, are:
 - P generates an argument both classify as IN, or
 - C makes P 's argument OUT.

Argumentation Protocol

- A typical persuasion dialogue would proceed as follows:
 1. P has an acceptable argument (S, p) , built from Σ_P , and wants C to accept p .
 2. P asserts p .
 3. C has an argument $(S', \neg p)$.
 4. C asserts $\neg p$.
 5. P cannot accept $\neg p$ and challenges it.
 6. C responds by asserting S' .
 7. P has an argument $(S'', \neg q)$ where $q \in S'$, and challenges q .
 8. ...

Argumentation Protocol II

- This process eventually terminates when

$$\Sigma_P \cup CS(P) \cup CS(C)$$

and

$$\Sigma_C \cup CS(C) \cup CS(P)$$

eventually provide the same set of IN arguments and the agents agree.

- Clearly here we are looking at grounded extensions.

Different dialogues

- Information seeking
 - Tell me if p is true.
- Inquiry
 - Can we prove p ?
- Persuasion
 - You're wrong to think p is true.
- Negotiation
 - How do we divide the pie?
- Deliberation
 - Where shall we go for dinner?

- With appropriate choice of language, can use argumentation to capture all of these kinds of dialogue.



Summary

- This lecture has looked at argumentation as a means through which agents can reach agreement.
- Argumentation allows for more complex interactions than the negotiation mechanisms we looked at last lecture.
- Argumentation can be used for a range of tasks that include negotiation.
 - Also allows for inquiry, persuasion, deliberation.