Multi-Agent Systems Speech Acts

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OOP vs. AOP



- Objects vs. Agents:
 - "Objects do it for free; agents do it for money."(Jennings, Sycara, Wooldridge, 1998)
 - "Objects do it because they have to; agents because they want to."(Joseph, Kawamura, 2001)
- Communication
 - OOP: Object o_2 can communicate with o_1 by invoking o_1 's method m1 (i.e., $o_1.m1(arg)$). I a way, object o_2 makes the decision to make o_1 to perform some action while o_1 has no control about it.
 - AOP: There is no such thing as method invocation. Agent *i* can try to act in a way to bring about that agent *j* intends what *i* intends, viz., by speech acts.

Typology of agent interaction



- Non-/Quasi-communicative interaction:
 - Shared environment (interaction via resource/capability sharing)
 - "Pheromone" communication (e.g., ant algorithms)
- Knowledge-level Communication:
 - Information exchange: sharing knowledge, exchanging views and plans
 - Collaboration, distributed planning: optimising use of resources and distribution of tasks, coordinating execution
 - Negotiation: reaching agreement in the presence of conflict
 - Human-machine dialogue, reporting errors, etc.

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Speech act theory



- Most multiagent approaches to communication based on speech act theory (started with Austin's book, How to Do Things with Words, 1962)
- Basic idea: treat communication in a similar way as non-communicative action
- Austin (1962): Utterances are produced, and may have effects, like "physical" actions: utterances may change the state of the world:
 - I hereby name this ship H.M.S titanic!
 - Bring me some beer!
 - ⇒Not true or false but appropriate or inappropriate
- In MAS speech act theory is used to specify how utterances can be used to achieve intentions

Speech act theory: Austin



- A speech act can be conceptualised to consist of:
 - Locutionary act (physical utterance)
 - 2 Illocutionary act (intended meaning)
 - 3 Perlocution (effect of the act)
- Two parts of a speech act:
 - Performative: communicative verb used to distinguish between different "illocutionary forces"

 Examples: promise, request, purport, insist, demand, etc.
 - 2 Propositional content: what the speech act is about
- Example:
 - Propositional content: "the window is open"
 - Performative: can be a request/inform/enquire

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Speech act theory



Specification of speech acts in terms of the conditions under which they can be successfully completed.

Austin's felicity conditions for declarations:

- Conventionality of procedure: There must be an accepted conventional procedure for the performative
- Complete execution: The procedure must be executed correctly and completely
- Sincerity and context: the speaker must be sincere and the context must be appropriate errors or interruptions

Searle's properties for success of a *request*:

- I/O conditions: ability to hear request
- Preparatory conditions: requested action can be performed, speaker must believe this, hearer will not perform action anyway
- 3 Sincerity conditions: speaker wants action to be performed

Speech act theory: Searle

speech acts:



 Searle (1972) identified the following categories of performatives, each corresponding to a different type of

- assertives/representatives (informing, making a claim)
- directives (requesting, commanding)
- commissives (promising, refusing)
- declaratives (effecting change to state of the world)
- expressives (expressing mental states)
- Ambiguity problems: "The window is open."
- Detection of performative for natural language understanding:
 - A: "Open the door!" (Directive: Request)
 - B: "Sure!" (Commissive: Promise)
- ⇒Different types of speech acts require different conditions to hold to be meaningful.

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Speech acts: Plan-based semantics



- Communication as action: Preconditions and effects. Thus, we can ask for a plan of speech acts to achieve some goal.
- Cohen and Perrault (1979) proposed applying planning techniques to speech acts (STRIPS-style)
- Preconditions and effects describe beliefs, abilities and wants of participants
- Distinction between can-do and want preconditions
- Identified necessity of mediating acts, since speech acts say nothing about perlocutionary effect
- This has been the most influential approach to using communication in multiagent systems!

Cohen & Perrault: Request



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Specfications

- \blacksquare Request(s, h, α)
 - Cando.pr: Bel_s Can_h $\alpha \wedge$ Bel_s Bel_h Can_h α
 - Want.pr: Bel_s Want_s requestinstance
 - Effect: Bel_h Bel_s Want_sα
- CauseToWant($a1, a2, \alpha$)
 - Cando.pr: Bel_{a1} Bel_{a2} Want_{a2} α
 - Want.pr: –
 - Effect: Bel_{a1} Want_{a1} α
- Guenther wants Jutta to get him some beer. He makes up the following plan:
 - Request(guenther, jutta, getbeer)
 - CauseToWant(jutta, guenther, getbeer)

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Agent communication languages



- Agent communication languages (ACLs) define standards for messages exchanged among agents
- Usually based on speech act theory, messages are specified by:
 - Sender/receiver(s) of the message
 - Performative to describe intended actions
 - Propositional content in some content language
- Most commonly used languages:
 - KQML/KIF
 - FIPA-ACL (today the de-facto standard)

FIPA: Foundation for Intelligent Physical Agents

KQML: Knowledge Query and Manipulation Language

KIF: Knowledge Interchange Format

Cohen & Perrault: Inform



Specfications

- Inform (s, h, φ)
 - Cando.pr: Bel_sφ
 - Want.pr: Bel_s Want_s informinstance
 - Effect: Bel_h Bel_s φ
- \blacksquare Convince(a1, a2, α)
 - Cando.pr: Bel_{a1} Bel_{a2} φ
 - Want.pr: –
 - Effect: Bel_{a1} φ
- Guenther wants Jutta to believe that the Britains have voted for Brexit. He makes up the following plan:
 - Inform(guenther, jutta, brexitvoting)
 - 2 Convince(jutta, guenther, brexitvoting)

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KQML/KIF



- KQML: Knowledge Query and Manipulation Language
- ...is an "outer" language, defines various performatives
- Example performatives:

```
■ ask-if ("is it true that ...")
```

- perform ("please do the following action ...")
- tell ("it is true that ...")
- reply ("the answer is ...")
- Message format:

Example: Advertise a capability

(advertise



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```
:sender
               Agent1
               Agent2
:receiver
:in-reply-to ID1
:reply-with
               ID2
:language
               KQML
:ontology
              kqml-ontology
               (ask-if
:content
                  :sender Agent1
                  :receiver Agent3
                  :language Prolog
                  :ontology blocks-world
                  :content "on(X,Y)"
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```

KQML/KIF



- KQML is not suited as a general content language
- KIF (Knowledge Interchange Format): a logical language to describe knowledge
- essentially first-order logic with some extensions/restrictions
- Examples:

```
■ (forall (?x ?n) (=> (and (real-num ?x) (even-num ?n)) (> (expt ?x ?n) 0)))
```

- (married guenther jutta)
- (forall (?x) (=> (human ?x) (exists ?y (and (amountOfWater ?y) (essentialFor ?y ?x)))))
- KIF can also be used to describe the ontology referred to by interacting agents.

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Example: Dialog



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```
(evaluate
    :sender A
                      :receiver B
    :language KIF
                      :ontology motors
                      :content (val (torque m1))
    :reply-with q1
)
(reply
    :sender B
                      :receiver A
    :language KIF
                      :ontology motors
                      :content (= (torque m1)
    :in-reply-to q1
                                 (scalar 12 kgf.m))
```

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KQML/KIF



- KQML/KIF were very successful, but also some problems
- List of performatives (up to 41!) not fixed (interoperability problems)
- No formal semantics, only informal descriptions of meaning
- KQML completely lacks commissives, this is a massive restriction!
- Performative set of KQML rather ad hoc, not theoretically clear or very elegant
- \sim These lead to the development of FIPA ACL

FIPA ACL

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Basic structure is quite similar to KQML:

- performatives: fixed set of 20 performatives in FIPA
- housekeeping: e.g., sender, receiver, message IDs
- content: the actual content of the message

Example:

```
(inform
    :sender    agent1
    :receiver agent3
    :content (price goodABC 125)
    :language Prolog
    :ontology auction
)
```

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Inform and Request



The meaning of inform and request is defined in two parts:

- feasibility pre-condition: what must be true in order for the speech act to succeed
- rational effect: what the sender of the message hopes to bring about

 $\langle i, inform(j, \varphi) \rangle$

feasibility precondition:

 $B_i \varphi \wedge \neg B_i (B_j \varphi \vee B_j \neg \varphi \vee U_j \varphi \vee U_j \neg \varphi)$

 \blacksquare rational effect: $B_j \varphi$

 $\langle i, request(j, \alpha) \rangle$

■ feasibility precondition: $B_iAgent(\alpha,j) \land \neg B_iI_iDone(\alpha)$

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 \blacksquare rational effect: $Done(\alpha)$

FIPA ACL performatives



performative	passing	requesting	negotiation	performing	error
[info	info		actions	handling
accept-proposal			х		
agree				x	
cancel		x		x	
cfp			х		
confirm	x				
disconfirm	x				
failure					х
inform	x				
inform-if	x				
inform-ref	х				
not-understood					Х
propose			x		
query-if		x			
query-ref		x			
refuse				x	
reject-proposal			х		
request				x	
request-when				x	
request-whenever				x	
subscribe		x			

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Problems



- Impossible for the speaker to enforce those beliefs on the hearer! No way to verify mental state of agent on the grounds of its (communicative) behavior. This is a fundamental problem of all mentalistic approaches to communication semantics!
- Alternative approaches use the notion of social commitments
 - Idea: "A debtor s is indebted to a creditor h to perform action α or to believe proposition φ "
 - \blacksquare [inform(s,h, φ)] $O_{s,h}B_s\varphi$
 - \blacksquare [promise(s,h,\alpha)] $O_{s,h}I_s\alpha$
 - Often public commitment stores are used to track status of generated commitments
 - Benefit: at least (non)fulfilment of commitments can be verified

Communication in GOAL



Moods of messages

- Indicative :
 - "I have run out of milk."
 - Example: send:(amountLeft(milk, 0))
- Declarative: !
 - "I want the door to be closed!"
 - Example: send!(status(door, closed))
- Interrogative: ?
 - "What time is it?"
 - Example: send?(timeNow())
- No inbuilt check of precondition and rational effects.
- Agents may lie, and agents may ignore others' messages.

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Ontologies

- One aspect we have not discussed so far: how can agents ensure the terminology they use is commonly understood?
- A prerequisite for meaningful communication is to agree on a "formal, explicit specification of a shared conceptualization" def ontology!

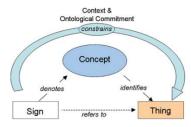


Fig.: Source: [4]

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Sending and receiving messages



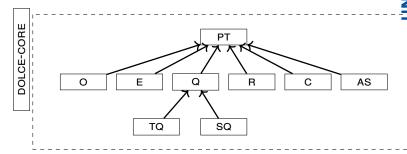
- Fridge runs out of milk and tells the grocery planner.
 - if bel(amountLeft(milk, 0)) then (groceryplanner).send:(amountLeft(milk, 0))
- Grocery planner receives the message and adopts buying milk as a new goal.
 - if (fridge).sent:(amountLeft(milk, 0)) then adopt(buy(milk)).
- Special agent expressions:
 - all: all agents in the MAS
 - allother: all agents except the sending agent
 - some: select some agent randomly
 - someother: random selection among the other agents
 - self: the sender itself

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The DOLCE-CORE Upper-Level ontology (cf., [6])





- Axioms constrain the interpretations. Ideally, the possible interpretations match the intended interpretations.
- Example: $\forall x, y [E(x) \rightarrow \exists y [TQ(y) \land I(y,x)]]$ excludes interpretations in which something is an event but not located in time.

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Ontology engineering



From a domain modeller's perspective, an ontology is a (terminological) knowledge base given by:

- a vocabulary used to describe some given domain
- a specification of the intended meaning of the vocabulary
- possibly, further constraints specifying additional domain knowledge

The aim is:

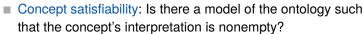
- to specify a common understanding of the domain
- to have a formal and machine-readable model of the domain
- Linking domain-level ontologies to upper ontologies can help to increase interoperability

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Reasoning services





- Concept subsumption: Does concept A subsume concept B, i.e., must each (possible) instance of concept B be an instance of concept A?
- Subsumption hierarchy: Compute the subsumption relations between all pairs of named concepts mentioned in the ontology
- Instance gueries: Given a knowledge base of the individuals of the domain, retrieve all instances that match a given query
- Ontology mapping/alignment: Given two ontologies of the same domain, map/align the concepts specified in both

Ontology engineering



An ontology should be:

- meaningful, e.g., all named classes can have instances
- correct, in the sense that domain experts can agree on the meaning of the vocabulary as specified in the ontology
- rich, in the sense that the specified meaning provides a reasonable approximation of the intended meaning of the vocabulary

Existing tools and reasoners (Protege, Fact++, Racer, etc.) can help to build such ontologies, but also to solve several reasoning tasks.

There exists a family of well-defined ontology languages (e.g., OWL-languages) with a solid logical basis (Description Logics).

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Summary



- Speech act theory: Communicating as acting
- Formalizations of speech acts in terms of preconditions and effects on agents' mental states ...
- ...provide semantics for Agent Communication Languages
- Communication on the knowledge level requires agents to share an ontology

Literature



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A subset of the slides is based on: Dr. Michael Rovatsos, The University of Edinburgh

http://www.inf.ed.ac.uk/teaching/courses/abs/abs-timetable.html

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