

# Multi-Agent Systems

## Speech Acts

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- 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.

- 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.,  $o_1.m1(arg)$ ). In 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.

- 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

- A speech act can be conceptualised to consist of:
  - 1 **Locutionary act** (physical utterance)
  - 2 **Illocutionary act** (intended meaning)
  - 3 **Perlocution** (effect of the act)
  
- Two parts of a speech act:
  - 1 **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

- Searle (1972) identified the following categories of **performatives**, each corresponding to a different type of speech acts:
  - **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.

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

Austin's **felicity conditions** for *declarations*:

- 1 **Conventionality of procedure**: There must be an accepted conventional procedure for the performative
- 2 **Complete execution**: The procedure must be executed correctly and completely
- 3 **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*:

- 1 **I/O conditions**: ability to hear request
- 2 **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



- 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!



## Specifications

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

## Specifications

- $\text{Inform}(s, h, \varphi)$ 
    - Cando.pr:  $\text{Bel}_s \varphi$
    - Want.pr:  $\text{Bel}_s \text{Want}_s \text{informinstance}$
    - Effect:  $\text{Bel}_h \text{Bel}_s \varphi$
  - $\text{Convince}(a1, a2, \alpha)$ 
    - Cando.pr:  $\text{Bel}_{a1} \text{Bel}_{a2} \varphi$
    - Want.pr: –
    - Effect:  $\text{Bel}_{a1} \varphi$
- 
- Guenther wants Jutta to believe that the Britains have voted for Brexit. He makes up the following plan:
    - 1 Inform(guenther, jutta, brexitvoting)
    - 2 Convince(jutta, guenther, brexitvoting)

- **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

- 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:

```
(performative
  :sender      <word>      :receiver    <word>
  :in-reply-to <word>      :reply-with  <word>
  :language    <word>      :ontology    <word>
  :content     <expression>
)
```

# Example: Advertise a capability



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

- 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.

# Example: Dialog



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

- 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

↪ These lead to the development of FIPA ACL



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
)
```

# FIPA ACL performatives



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

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

$\langle i, \text{inform}(j, \varphi) \rangle$

- feasibility precondition:  
 $B_i \varphi \wedge \neg B_i (B_j \varphi \vee B_j \neg \varphi \vee U_j \varphi \vee U_j \neg \varphi)$
- rational effect:  $B_j \varphi$

$\langle i, \text{request}(j, \alpha) \rangle$

- feasibility precondition:  $B_i \text{Agent}(\alpha, j) \wedge \neg B_i I_j \text{Done}(\alpha)$
- rational effect:  $\text{Done}(\alpha)$

- 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  $\alpha$  or to believe proposition  $\varphi$ ”
    - $[inform(s, h, \varphi)]O_{s,h}B_s\varphi$
    - $[promise(s, h, \alpha)]O_{s,h}I_s\alpha$
  - Often public commitment stores are used to track status of generated commitments
  - Benefit: at least (non)fulfilment of commitments can be verified

## 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.

- 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

- 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” <sup>def</sup> = **Ontology!**

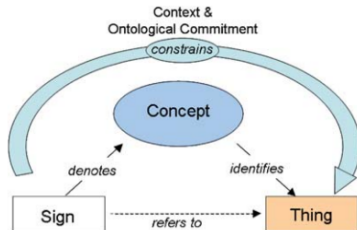
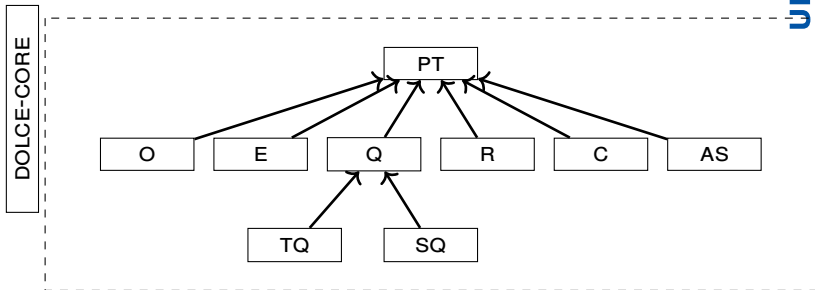


Fig.: Source: [4]

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



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



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



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).



- **Concept satisfiability:** Is there a model of the ontology such that the concept's interpretation is nonempty?
- **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 queries:** 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

- 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

-  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>
-  Michael Wooldridge: An Introduction to MultiAgent Systems, John Wiley & Sons, 2nd edition 2009.
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-  Guarino, N., Oberle, D., Staab, S., What is an ontology?, In Handbook on Ontologies, Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2009, pp. 1–17.
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