

Structured Argumentation: Defeasible Logic Programming

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Structured Argumentation

See Argument & Computation, Vol 5 No 1, 2014 for a set of tutorials on Structured Argumentation.

Conceptual View

Definition of Status of Arguments

Definition of Defeat among Arguments

Definition of Conflict among Arguments

Definition of Argument

Definition of the Underlying (Logical) Language

Defeasible Logic Programming (DeLP)

García, A.J., Simari, G.R.: Defeasible logic programming: An argumentative approach. Theory and Practice of Logic Programming 4(1-2), 95–138. 2004

Also, see Argument & Computation Vol 5 No 1, 2014 for a set of tutorials on Structured Argumentation.

Arguments and Trees

- \Rightarrow As we have said, an argument is a piece of reasoning that supports, from certain evidence, a claim Q.
- → The tenability of this claim must be confirmed by analyzing other arguments for (support) and against (interference) such claim in a dialectical process.
- → These arguments are connected through the defeat relation and could be organized in dialectical trees.
- Observe that, given a claim there could exist different arguments that support that claim, and for each argument there will be a different dialectical tree.

Introduction

- → The inference engine is based in a defeasible argumentation inference mechanism for warranting the conclusions.
- → In the language of DeLP there is the possibility of representing information in the form of weak rules in a declarative manner.
- → Weak rules represent a key element for introducing defeasibility and they are used to represent a defeasible relationship between pieces of knowledge.
- → This connection could be defeated after all things are considered.

Introduction

- General Common Sense reasoning should be defeasible in a way that is not explicitly programmed.
- Rejection should be the result of the global consideration of the corpus of knowledge that the agent performing such reasoning has at his disposal.
- Defeasible Argumentation provides a way of doing that.

Conceptual View

Let's begin with the accepted view that there are five common elements in systems for defeasible argumentation:

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DeLP's Language

DeLP considers two kinds of program rules: defeasible rules to represent tentative information such as

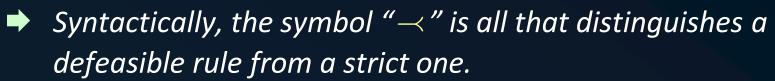
 $\sim flies(dumbo) \prec elephant(dumbo)$

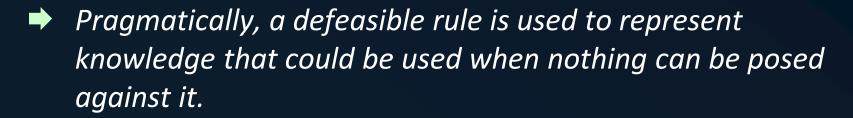
and strict rules used to represent strict knowledge such as



 $mammal(idefix) \leftarrow dog(idefix)$

 $\overline{bird(opus)} \leftarrow \overline{penguin(opus)}$





Facts and Strict and Defeasible Rules

- → A Fact is a ground literal: innocent(joe)
- lacktright A Strict Rule is denoted: $L_0 \leftarrow L_1, \ L_2 \ , \ \dots, \ L_n$

where L_0 is a ground literal called the Head of the rule and $L_1, L_2, ..., L_n$ are ground literals which form its Body.

→ This kind of rule is used to represent a relation between the head and the body which is not defeasible.

Examples:



$$\sim guilty(joe) \leftarrow innocent(joe)$$

 $mammal(garfield) \leftarrow cat(garfield)$

Facts and Strict and Defeasible Rules

- ightharpoonup A Defeasible Rule is denoted: $L_0 \prec L_1, \, L_2, \, \ldots, \, L_n$
- → This kind of rule is used to represent a relation between the head and the body of the rule which is tentative and its intuitive interpretation is:

"Reasons to believe in $L_1, L_2, ..., L_n$ are reasons to believe in L_0 "

Examples:

 $flies(tweety) \rightarrow bird(tweety)$

 $\sim good_weather(today) \rightarrow low_pressure(today), \\ wind(south)$

Defeasible Rules

- Defeasible rules are not default rules.
- → In a default rule such as

$$\varphi: \psi_1, \psi_2, \ldots, \psi_n / \chi$$

the justification part, $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n$, is a consistency check that controls the applicability of this rule.

Example:
$$elephant(dumbo) : \sim flies(dumbo)$$
 $\sim flies(dumbo)$

represents the same knowledge as

$$\sim flies(dumbo) \prec elephant(dumbo)$$

Defeasible Rules

- → The effect of a defeasible rule comes from a dialectical analysis made by the inference mechanism; therefore, there is no need to encode any particular check, even though could be done if necessary.
- → Changes in the knowledge represented using DeLP's language is reflected with the sole addition of new knowledge to the representation, thus leading to better elaboration tolerance.

Defeasible Logic Program

A Defeasible Logic Program (delp) is a set of facts, strict rules and defeasible rules denoted

$$\mathcal{P} = (\Pi, \Delta)$$

where

- Π is a set of facts and strict rules, and
- Δ is a set of defeasible rules.

Facts, strict, and defeasible rules are ground, i.e., do not contain variables.

Defeasible Logic Program

However, we will use schematic rules containing variables.

If R is a schematic rule, Ground(R) stands for the set of all ground instances of R and

$$Ground(\mathcal{P}) = \bigcup_{R \in \mathcal{P}} Ground(R)$$

in all cases the set of individual constants in the language of \mathcal{P} will be used (see V. Lifschitz, Foundations of Logic Programming, in Principles of Knowledge Representation, G. Brewka, Ed., 1996, FOLLI)

Here is an example of a $Defeasible\ Logic\ Program\ (delp)$ denoted $\mathcal{P}=(\Pi,\ \Delta)$, where Π is a set of facts and strict rules, and Δ is a set of defeasible rules.

∏
Strict
Rules

$$\begin{cases} bird(X) \leftarrow chicken(X) \\ bird(X) \leftarrow penguin(X) \\ \sim flies(X) \leftarrow penguin(X) \end{cases}$$

$$chicken(tina)$$
 $penguin(opus)$
 $scared(tina)$

Facts

 \triangle

Defeasible Rules

$$flies(X) \prec bird(X)$$

 $\sim flies(X) \prec chicken(X)$
 $flies(X) \prec chicken(X), scared(X)$



Defeasible Logic Programming: DeLP

Here is another example of a $\mathcal{P}=(\Pi,\,\Delta)$

```
 \begin{array}{c} \Delta \\ \text{Defeasible} \\ \text{Rules} \end{array} \begin{cases} has\_a\_gun(X) \prec lives\_in\_chicago(X) \\ \sim has\_a\_gun(X) \prec lives\_in\_chicago(X), \\ pacifist(X) \\ pacifist(X) \prec quaker(X) \\ \sim pacifist(X) \prec republican(X) \\ \end{cases}
```

 \prod

lives_in_chicago(nixon)
quaker(nixon)
republican(nixon)

Facts



Defeasible Logic Programming: DeLP

Still one more example of a $\mathcal{P}=(\Pi,\,\Delta)$



 $good_price(acme)$ $in_fusion(acme, estron)$ strong(estron)

Facts



Conceptual View

Definition of Status of Arguments

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Def: Let \mathcal{P} = (Π, Δ) be a program and L a ground literal. A defeasible derivation $\mathcal{P} \vdash L$ of L from \mathcal{P} , is a finite sequence of ground literals

$$L_1, L_2, ..., L_n = L_n$$

s.t. each literal L_k ($1 \le i < k \le n$) is there because:

- L_k is a fact in Π , or
- There is a rule (strict or defeasible) in \mathcal{P} with head L_k and body $B_1, B_2, ..., B_j$ where every literal B_j ($1 \leq j$) in the body is some L_i appearing previously in the sequence (i < k).

- Notice that defeasible derivation differs from standard logical, or strict, derivation only in the use of defeasible, or weak, rules.
- ightharpoonup Given a Defeasible Logic Program, a derivation for a literal L is called defeasible because there may exist information that contradicts L, or the way that L is inferred is attacked; in that case, the acceptance of L as a valid conclusion will be questioned.
- → A few examples of defeasible derivations follow.

From the program:

```
bird(X) \leftarrow chicken(X). chicken(tina).

bird(X) \leftarrow penguin(X). penguin(opus).

\sim flies(X) \leftarrow penguin(X). scared(tina).

flies(X) \rightarrow bird(X).

\sim flies(X) \rightarrow chicken(X).

flies(X) \rightarrow chicken(X), scared(X).
```

The following are some derivations that could be obtained:

- chicken(tina), bird(tina), flies(tina).
- $chicken(tina), \sim flies(tina).$
- $\bullet \quad penguin(opus), \ bird(opus), \ flies(opus).$
- $\bullet \quad penguin(opus), \sim flies(opus).$

i.e.,
$$\mathcal{P} \vdash flies(tina)$$
, and $\mathcal{P} \vdash \sim flies(opus)$

From the program:

```
buy\_shares(X) \prec good\_price(X).
\sim buy\_shares(X) \prec good\_price(X), risky(X).
risky(X) \prec in\_fusion(X, Y).
risky(X) \prec in\_debt(X).
\sim risky(X) \prec in\_fusion(X, Y), strong(Y).
good\_price(acme).
in\_fusion(acme, estron).
strong(estron).
```

The following derivations could be obtained:

- $\bullet \ good_price(acme), \ buy_shares(acme).$
- $in_fusion(acme, estron), risky(acme), good_price(acme), \sim buy_shares(acme)$
- lacktriangledown in fusion(acme, estron), risky(acme)
- $in_fusion(acme, estron), strong(estron), \sim risky(acme)$

Programs and Derivations

- ightharpoonup A program $\mathcal{P}=(\Pi,\Delta)$ is contradictory if it is possible to derive from it a pair of complementary literals.
- ⇒ From the examples it is possible to derive literals, such as flies(tina), $\sim flies(tina)$ and flies(opus), $\sim flies(opus)$ from the first one, and risky(acme), $\sim risky(acme)$ and $buy_shares(acme)$, $\sim buy_shares(acme)$ from the second.
- Contradictory programs are useful for representing knowledge that is potentially contradictory.
- ▶ On the other hand, <u>as a design restriction</u>, the set Π should not be contradictory, because in that case the represented knowledge would be inconsistent.

Defeasible Argumentation

Def: Let L be a literal and $\mathcal{P} = (\Pi, \Delta)$ be a program, we say that \mathcal{A} is an argument for L, denoted $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$, if \mathcal{A} is a set of rules in Δ such that:

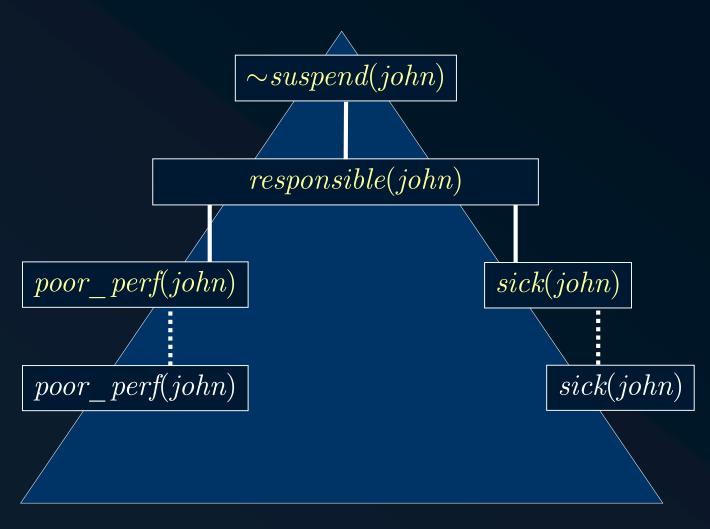
- 1) There exists a defeasible derivation of L from $\Pi \cup \mathcal{A}$;
- 2) The set $\Pi \cup \mathcal{A}$ is non contradictory; and
- 3) There is no proper subset \mathcal{A}' of \mathcal{A} such that \mathcal{A}' satisfies 1) and 2), that is, \mathcal{A} is minimal as the defeasible part of the derivation mentioned in 1).

Defeasible Argumentation

- → That is to say, an argument $\langle A, L \rangle$, or an argument A for L, is a minimal, non contradictory set of defeasible rules, that can be extracted from a defeasible derivation of L.
- Strict rules are not part of the argument.
- Note that for any L which is derivable from Π alone, the empty set \varnothing is an argument for L (i.e. $\langle \varnothing, L \rangle$); in this case, there is no otherposible argument for L.

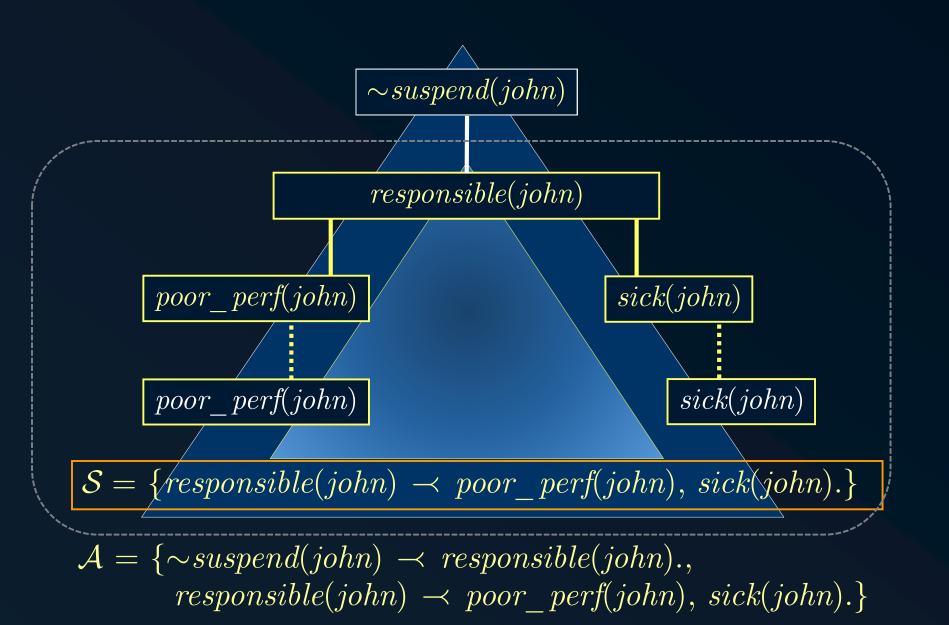
```
poor perf(john). sick(john).
good perf(peter). unruly(peter).
suspend(X) \rightarrow responsible(X).
suspend(X) \prec unruly(X).
\sim suspend(X) \rightarrow responsible(X).
\sim responsible(X) \rightarrow poor perf(X).
responsible(X) \prec good perf(X).
responsible(X) \rightarrow poor perf(X), sick(X).
                                                  \sim suspend(john)
An argument for
                                                  responsible(john)
 \sim suspend(john)
                                       poor\_perf(john)
built from the program above.
                                                                sick(john)
                                       poor\_perf(john)
                                                                   sick(john)
\langle \{\sim suspend(john) \prec responsible(john)., \}
  responsible(john) \prec poor perf(john), sick(john).\}, \sim suspend(john)
```

```
poor perf(john). sick(john).
good\ perf(peter).\ unruly(peter).
suspend(X) \rightarrow responsible(X).
suspend(X) \prec unruly(X).
\sim suspend(X) \rightarrow responsible(X).
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responsible(X) \prec good perf(X).
responsible(X) \rightarrow poor perf(X), sick(X).
                                                     suspend(john)
                                                   \sim responsible(john)
 An argument for
 suspend(john)
                                                    poor\_perf(john)
 built from the program above.
                                                    \overline{poor\_perf(john)}
```



 $\mathcal{A} = \{ \sim suspend(john) \prec responsible(john)., \\ responsible(john) \prec poor_perf(john), sick(john). \}$

 $\langle \mathcal{S}, \, Q \rangle$ is a subargument of $\langle \mathcal{A}, \, L \rangle$ if \mathcal{S} is an argument for Q and $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$



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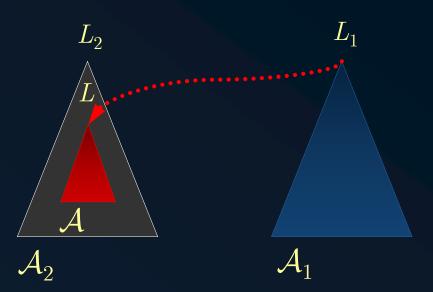
Counter-Arguments or Rebuttals

- In DeLP, answers are supported by arguments but an argument could be defeated by other arguments.
- ⇒ Informally, a query L will succeed if the supporting argument for it is not defeated.
- → To study this situation, we consider arguments refered to as counter-arguments or rebuttals.
- Counter-arguments are also arguments, and therefore the analysis must be extended to those arguments, and so on.
- → This analysis is dialectical in nature.

Def: Let $\mathcal{P}=(\Pi,\Delta)$ be a program, we will say that two literals L_1 and L_2 disagree if the set $\Pi\cup\{L_1,L_2\}$ is contradictory.

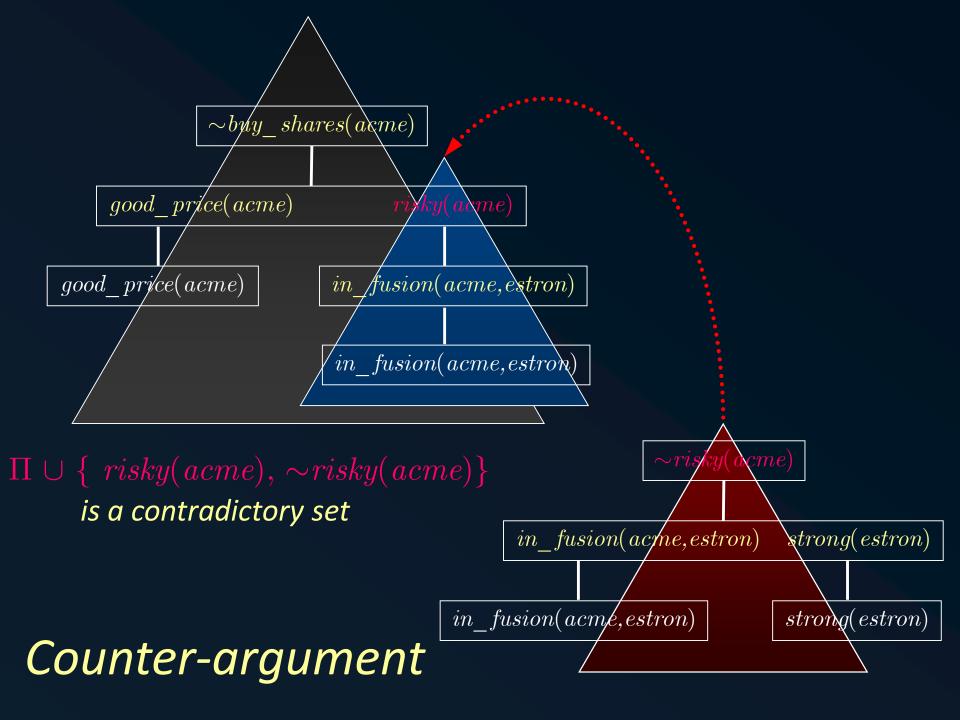
For example, given $\Pi=\{\sim L_1\leftarrow L_2,\ L_1\leftarrow L_3\}$ the set $\{\ L_2,\ L_3\ \}$ is contradictory.

Def: Let $\mathcal{P} = (\Pi, \Delta)$ be a program, we say that $\langle \mathcal{A}_1, L_1 \rangle$ counter-argues, rebuts or attacks $\langle \mathcal{A}_2, L_2 \rangle$ at literal L, if and only if there exists a subargument $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ of $\langle \mathcal{A}_2, L_2 \rangle$ such that L and L_1 disagree.



Counter-Arguments or Rebuttals

- $ightharpoonup Given \mathcal{P} = (\Pi, \Delta)$, any literal R such that $\Pi \vdash R$, has the support of the empty argument $\langle \varnothing, R \rangle$.
- ⇒ There is no posible counter-argument for any of those R since there is no way of constructing an argument which would mention a literal in disagreement with R.
- ightharpoonup Also, any $\langle \varnothing$, $R \rangle$ cannot be a counter-argument for any argument $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ because of the same reasons.
- Note that given an argument $\langle A, L \rangle$, that argument could contain multiple attack points.
- Also, it would be very useful to have some preference criteria to decide between arguments in conflict.



```
\Pi \cup \{suspend(john) \sim suspend(john)\}
                                             poor\_perf(john). sick(john).
           \sim suspend(john)
                                             good perf(peter). unruly(peter)
                                             suspend(X) \prec \sim responsible(X).
          responsible(john)
                                             suspend(X) \prec unruly(X).
                                             suspend(X) \rightarrow responsible(X).
                                             \sim suspend(X) \prec responsible(X).
poor_perf(john)
                         sick(john)
                                             \sim responsible(X) \prec poor perf(X).
                                             responsible(X) \prec good perf(X).
                             sick(john)
poor_perf(john)
                                             responsible(X) \rightarrow poor\_perf(X), sick(X).
 \Pi \cup \{responsible(john), \sim responsible(john)\}
                                                           suspend(john)
                                                        \sim responsible(john)
            responsible(john)
                                                         poor \_perf(john)
 poor\_perf(john)
                           sick(john)
                                                                 perf(john)
                              sick(john)
 poor_perf(john)
```

Conceptual View

Definition of Status of Arguments

Definition of Defeat among Arguments

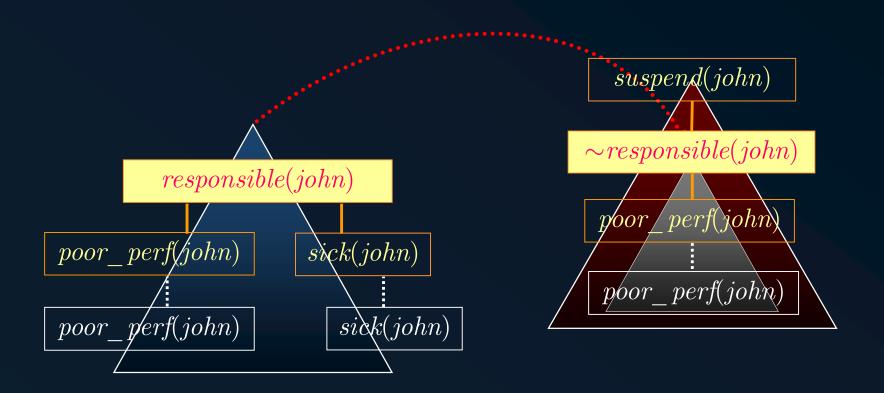
Definition of Conflict among Arguments

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Definition of the Underlying (Logical) Language

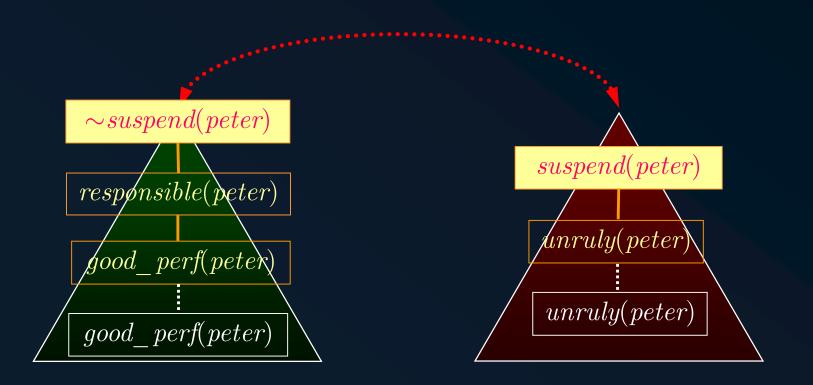
Proper Defeater

An argument $\langle \mathcal{B}, P \rangle$ is a proper defeater for $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ if $\langle \mathcal{B}, P \rangle$ is a counter-argument of $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ that attacks a subargument $\langle \mathcal{S}, Q \rangle$ of $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ and $\langle \mathcal{B}, P \rangle$ is better than $\langle \mathcal{S}, Q \rangle$ (by the chosen comparison criterion).



Blocking Defeater

An argument $\langle \mathcal{B}, P \rangle$ is a blocking defeater for $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ if $\langle \mathcal{B}, P \rangle$ is a counter-argument of $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ that attacks a subargument $\langle \mathcal{S}, Q \rangle$ of $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ and $\langle \mathcal{B}, P \rangle$ is not comparable to $\langle \mathcal{S}, Q \rangle$ (by the chosen comparison criterion).



Comparison: Generalized Specificity

- Def: Let $\mathcal{P}=(\Pi,\Delta)$ be a program, let $\Pi_{\mathcal{G}}$ be the set of strict rules in Π and let \mathcal{F} be the set of all literals defeasibly derived from \mathcal{P} . Let $\langle \mathcal{A}_1, L_1 \rangle$ and $\langle \mathcal{A}_2, L_2 \rangle$ be two arguments built from \mathcal{P} , where $L_1, L_2 \in \mathcal{F}$. Then $\langle \mathcal{A}_1, L_1 \rangle$ is strictly more specific than $\langle \mathcal{A}_2, L_2 \rangle$ if:
 - 1. For all $\mathcal{H}\subseteq\mathcal{F}$, if there exists a defeasible derivation $\Pi_G\cup\mathcal{H}\cup\mathcal{A}_1 \mathrel{\vdash} L_1$ while $\Pi_G\cup\mathcal{H}\not\vdash L_1$ then $\Pi_G\cup\mathcal{H}\cup\mathcal{A}_1 \mathrel{\vdash} L_2$, and
 - 2. There exists $\mathcal{H}'\subseteq \mathcal{F}$ s.t. there exists a defeasible derivation $\Pi_{\mathsf{G}}\cup\mathcal{H}'\cup\mathcal{A}_{2} \vdash L_{2}$ and $\Pi_{\mathsf{G}}\cup\mathcal{H}'\not\vdash L_{2}$ but $\Pi_{\mathsf{G}}\cup\mathcal{H}'\cup\mathcal{A}_{1}\not\vdash L_{1}$

Intuitive view of Specificity - DeLP (Comparison)

More informed arguments (i.e., more precise) are preferred over less informed ones:

$$\langle \{ \sim a \prec b \}, \sim a \rangle \preceq \langle \{ a \prec b, c \}, a \rangle$$

Shorter derivations (i.e. more concise) are preferred over longer derivations:

$$\langle \{ (\sim a \prec b); (b \prec c) \}, \sim a \rangle \leq \langle \{ a \prec b \}, a \rangle$$

Comparison: Generalized Specificity

For example, from program:

```
bird(X) \leftarrow chicken(X)

flies(X) \rightarrow bird(X)

\sim flies(X) \rightarrow chicken(X)

flies(X) \rightarrow chicken(X), scared(X)
```

 $chicken(tina) \\ scared(tina)$

It is possible to obtain

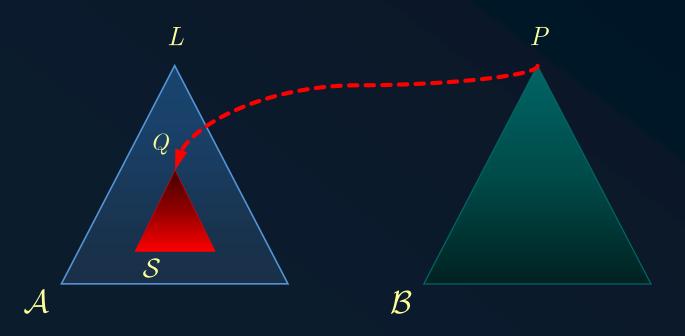
```
\langle \mathcal{A}_1, \sim flies(tina) \rangle, \mathcal{A}_1 = \{\sim flies(tina) \prec chicken(tina)\}
\langle \mathcal{A}_2, flies(tina) \rangle, \mathcal{A}_2 = \{flies(tina) \prec bird(tina)\}
\langle \mathcal{A}_3, flies(tina) \rangle, \mathcal{A}_3 = \{flies(tina) \prec chicken(tina), scared(tina)\}
```

- \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_3 is preferred to \mathcal{A}_1 because it is more precise.
- \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_1 is preferred to \mathcal{A}_2 because it is more concise.

Defeaters

An argument $\langle \mathcal{B}, P \rangle$ is a defeater for $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ if $\langle \mathcal{B}, P \rangle$ is a counter-argument for $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ that attacks a subargument $\langle \mathcal{S}, Q \rangle$ of $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ and one of the following conditions holds:

- a) $\langle \mathcal{B}, P \rangle$ is better than $\langle \mathcal{S}, Q \rangle$ (proper defeater), or
- b) $\langle \mathcal{B}, P \rangle$ is not comparable to $\langle \mathcal{S}, Q \rangle$ (blocking defeater)



Defeaters: Example

From the program:

```
buy\_shares(X) \prec good\_price(X) good\_price(acme) \sim buy\_shares(X) \prec risky(X) in\_fusion(acme, estron) risky(X) \prec in\_fusion(X, Y)
```

With preference:

```
\sim buy\_shares(X) \prec risky(X) > buy\_shares(X) \prec good\_price(X)
```

```
The argument \langle \mathcal{A}, \sim buy\_shares(acme) \rangle where \mathcal{A} = \{\sim buy\_shares(acme) \prec risky(acme), \\ risky(acme) \prec in\_fusion(acme, estron)\} is counter-argument of \langle \mathcal{B}, buy\_shares(acme) \rangle where \mathcal{B} = \{buy\_shares(acme) \prec good\_price(acme)\} that is a proper defeater of it.
```

Defeaters: Example

From the program:

```
pacifist(X) \rightarrow quaker(X)
 \sim pacifist(X) \rightarrow republican(X)
 quaker(nixon)
 republican(nixon)
```

With the preference defined by specificity:

```
\langle \mathcal{A}, \sim pacifist(nixon) \rangle where \mathcal{A} = \{\sim pacifist(nixon) \prec republican(nixon) \}
```

is a blocking defeater for

```
\langle \mathcal{B}, pacifist(nixon) \rangle where \mathcal{B} = \{ pacifist(nixon) \rightarrow quaker(nixon) \}
```

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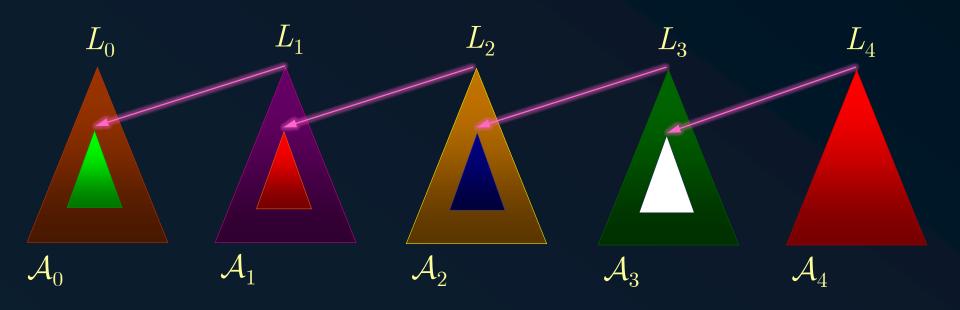
Definition of the Underlying (Logical) Language

Argumentation Line

Given $\mathcal{P}=(\Pi,\Delta)$, and $\langle \mathcal{A}_0,L_0\rangle$ an argument obtained from $\mathcal{P}.$ An argumentation line for $\langle \mathcal{A}_0,L_0\rangle$ is a sequence of arguments obtained from \mathcal{P} , denoted

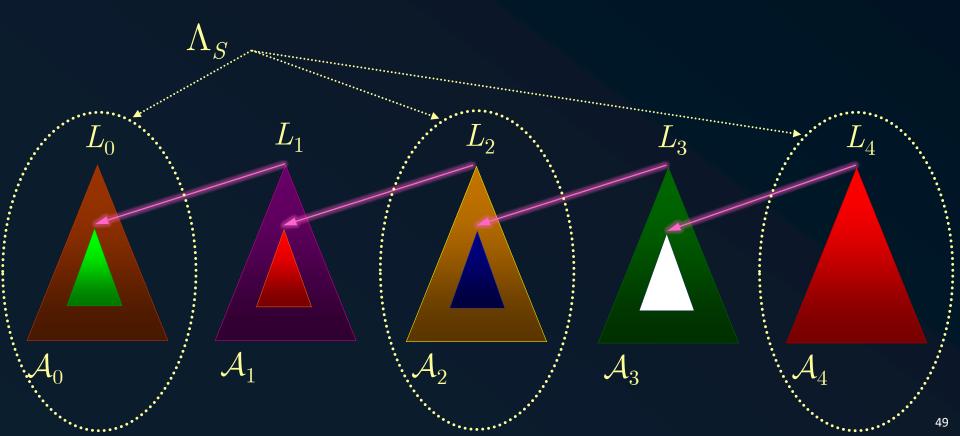
$$\Lambda = [\langle \mathcal{A}_0, L_0
angle, \langle \mathcal{A}_1, L_1
angle, \ldots]$$

where each element in the sequence $\langle \mathcal{A}_i, L_i \rangle, i > 0$ is a defeater for $\langle \mathcal{A}_{i-1}, L_{i-1} \rangle$.



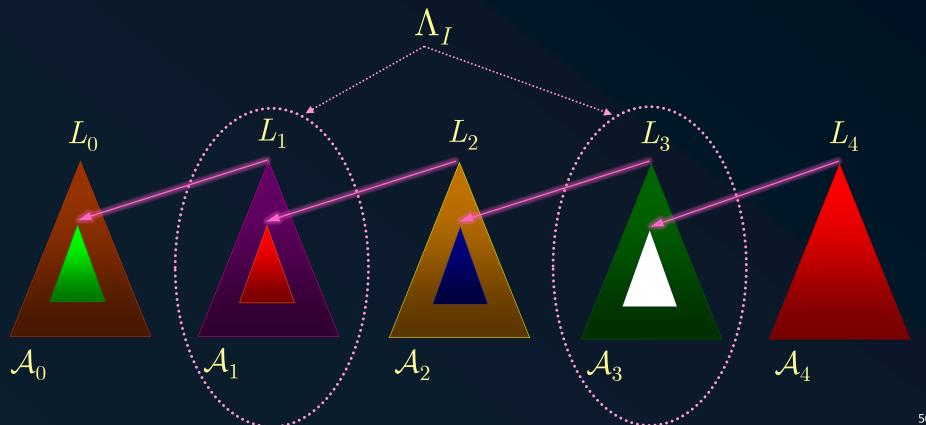
Argumentation Line

Given an argumentation line $\Lambda = [\langle \mathcal{A}_0, L_0 \rangle, \langle \mathcal{A}_1, L_1 \rangle, \ldots]$, the subsequence $\Lambda_S = [\langle \mathcal{A}_0, L_0 \rangle, \langle \mathcal{A}_2, L_2 \rangle, \ldots]$ contains supporting arguments and $\Lambda_I = [\langle \mathcal{A}_1, L_1 \rangle, \langle \mathcal{A}_3, L_3 \rangle, \ldots]$ are interfering arguments.



Argumentation Line

Given an argumentation line $\Lambda=[\langle \mathcal{A}_0,\,L_0
angle,\,\langle \mathcal{A}_1,\,\overline{L_1}
angle,\,\ldots]$, the subsequence $\Lambda_S = [\langle \mathcal{A}_0, L_0 \rangle, \langle \mathcal{A}_2, L_2 \rangle, ...]$ contains supporting arguments and $\Lambda_I = [\langle \mathcal{A}_1, \, L_1
angle, \, \langle \mathcal{A}_3, \, L_3
angle, \, \ldots]$ are interfering arguments.



Argumentation Lines

Assume a program \mathcal{P} where:

$$egin{array}{lll} \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \ L_1
angle & defeats & \langle \mathcal{A}_0, \ L_0
angle \ \langle \mathcal{A}_2, \ L_2
angle & defeats & \langle \mathcal{A}_0, \ L_0
angle \ \langle \mathcal{A}_3, \ L_3
angle & defeats & \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \ L_1
angle \ \langle \mathcal{A}_4, \ L_4
angle & defeats & \langle \mathcal{A}_2, \ L_2
angle \ \langle \mathcal{A}_5, \ L_5
angle & defeats & \langle \mathcal{A}_2, \ L_2
angle \end{array}$$

From $\langle \mathcal{A}_0, L_0 \rangle$ there exist several argumentation lines:

$$egin{align} \Lambda_1 &= [\langle \mathcal{A}_0, \, L_0
angle, \, \langle \mathcal{A}_1, \, L_1
angle, \, \langle \mathcal{A}_3, \, L_3
angle] \ \Lambda_2 &= [\langle \mathcal{A}_0, \, L_0
angle, \, \langle \mathcal{A}_2, \, L_2
angle, \, \langle \mathcal{A}_4, \, L_4
angle] \ \Lambda_3 &= [\langle \mathcal{A}_0, \, L_0
angle, \, \langle \mathcal{A}_2, \, L_2
angle, \, \langle \mathcal{A}_5, \, L_5
angle] \end{aligned}$$

Acceptable Argumentation Line

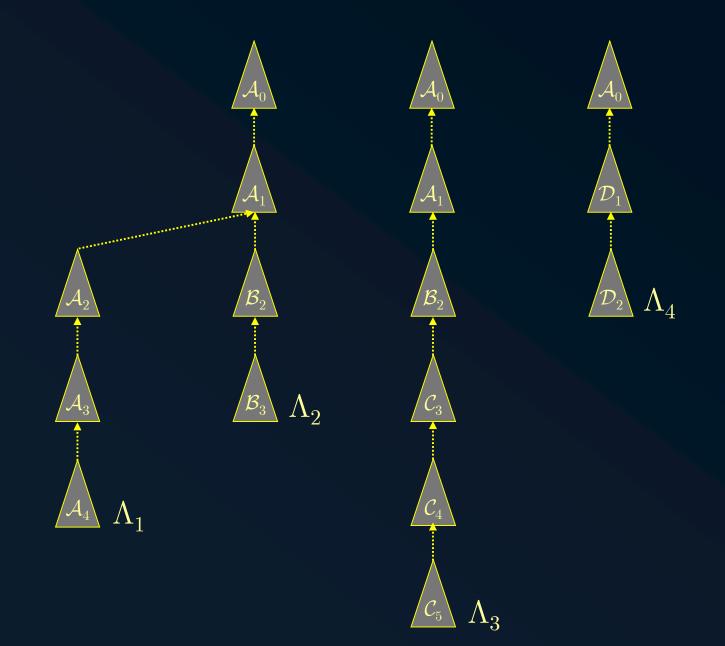
Given a program $\mathcal{P}=(\Pi,\overline{\Delta})$, an argumentation line $\Lambda=[\langle\mathcal{A}_0,L_0
angle,\langle\mathcal{A}_1,L_1
angle,\ldots]$ will be acceptable if:

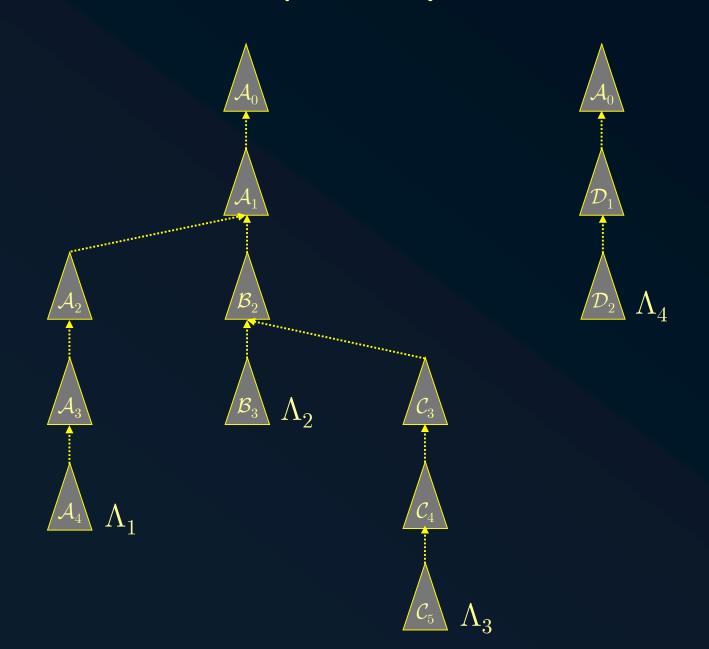
- 1. Λ is a finite sequence (non circularity).
- 2. The set Λ_S of supporting arguments is concordant, and the set Λ_I of interfering arguments is concordant.
- 3. No argument $\langle \mathcal{A}_k, L_k \rangle$ in Λ that is a subargument of a preceding argument $\langle \mathcal{A}_i, L_i \rangle$, i < k.
- 4. For all i, s.t. $\langle \mathcal{A}_i, L_i \rangle$ is a blocking defeater for $\langle \mathcal{A}_{i-1}, L_{i-1} \rangle$, if there exists $\langle \mathcal{A}_{i+1}, L_{i+1} \rangle$ then $\langle \mathcal{A}_{i+1}, L_{i+1} \rangle$ is a proper defeater for $\langle \mathcal{A}, L_i \rangle$ (i.e., $\langle \mathcal{A}, L_i \rangle$ could not be blocked).

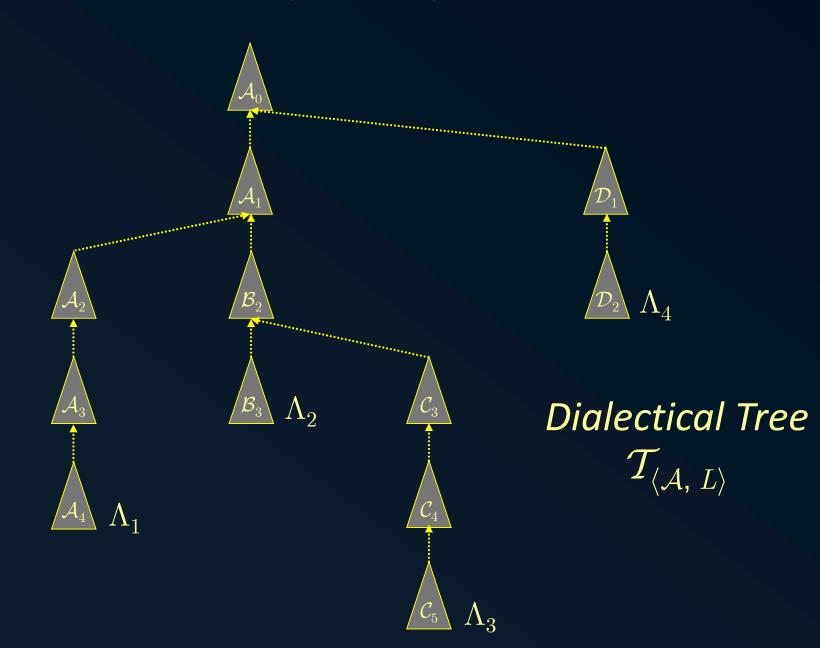
Argumentation Lines

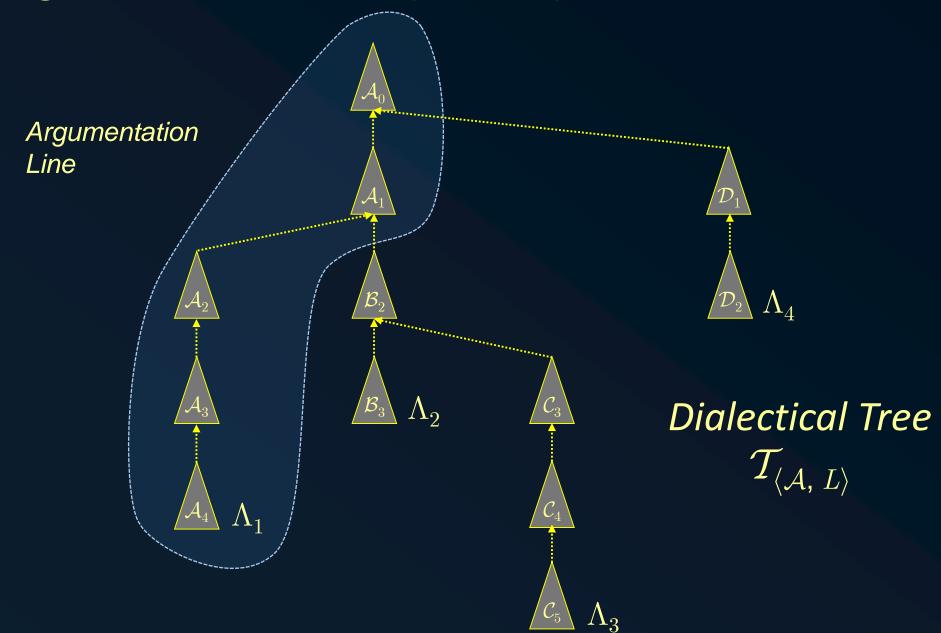








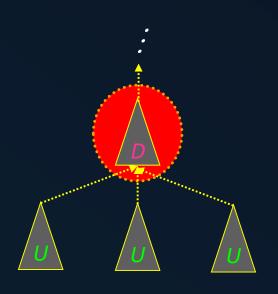




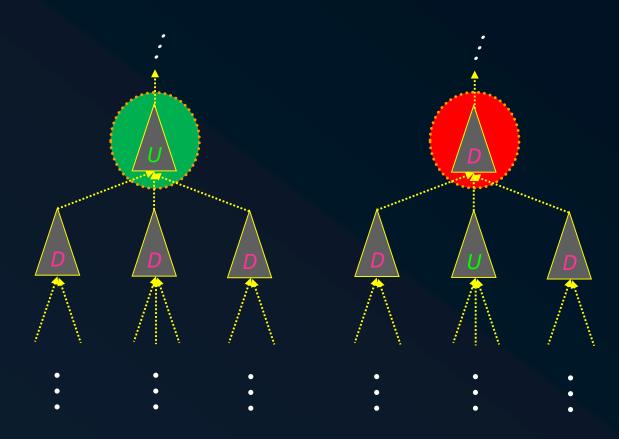
- → A Dialectical Tree is the conjoint representation of all the acceptable argumentation lines.
- ightharpoonup Given an argument \mathcal{A} for a literal L, its dialectical tree contains all acceptable argumentation lines that start with that argument.
- → Thus, analyzing the defeat status for a given argument could be done on the dialectical tree.
- → As every argumentation line is admissible, and therefore finite, every dialectical tree is also finite.

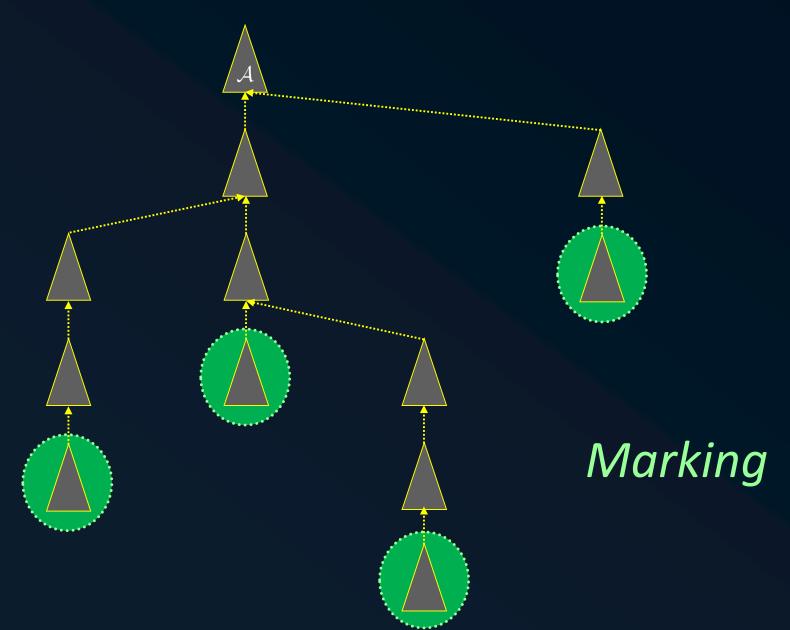
Marking of a Dialectical Tree

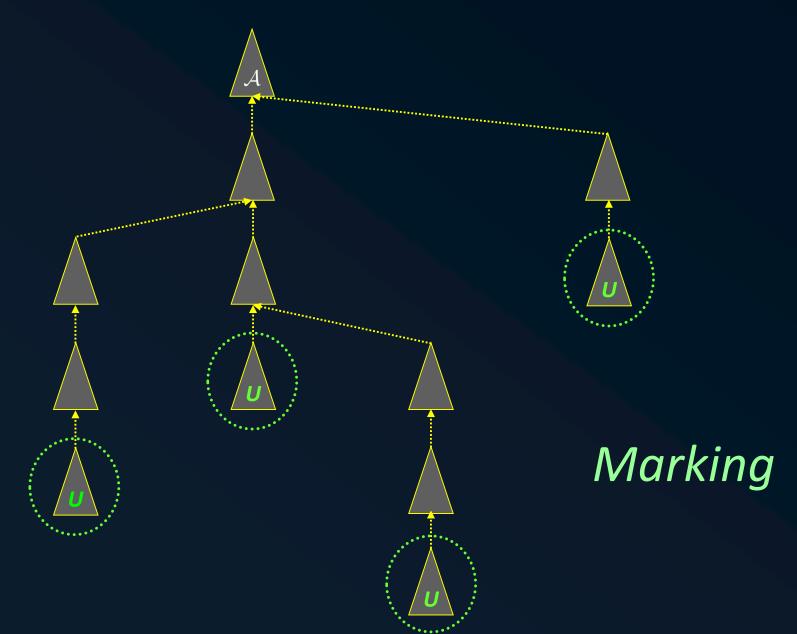
Internal nodes of $\mathcal{T}_{\langle \mathcal{A},\ L \rangle}$

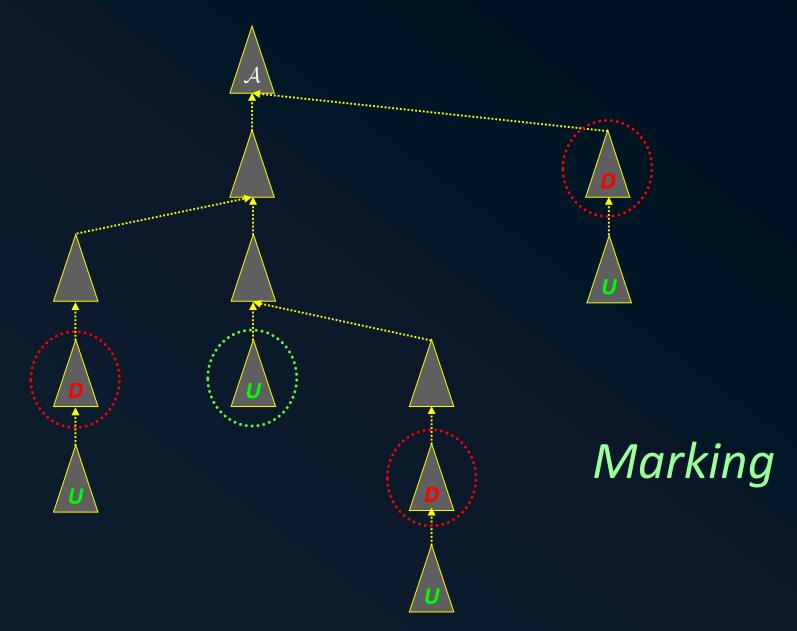


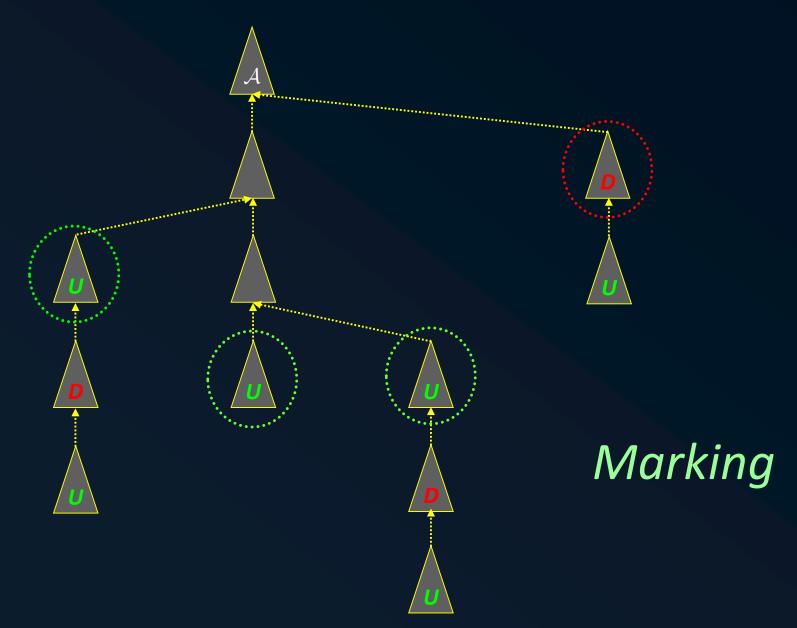
Leaves of $\overline{\mathcal{T}_{\langle\mathcal{A},\;L
angle}}$

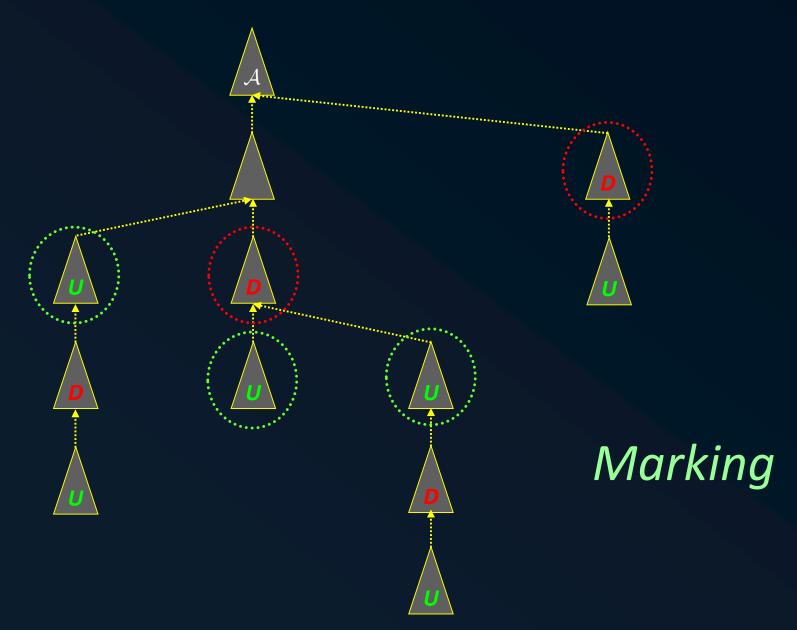


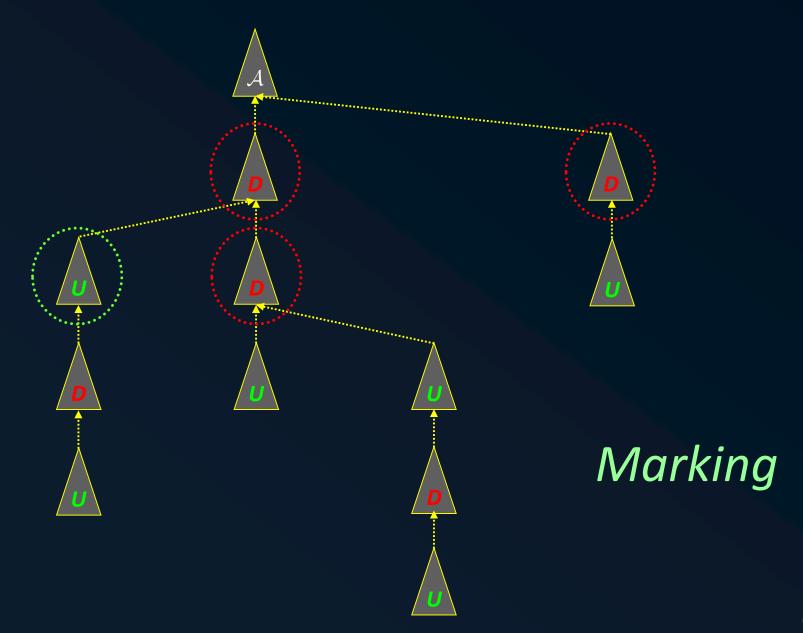


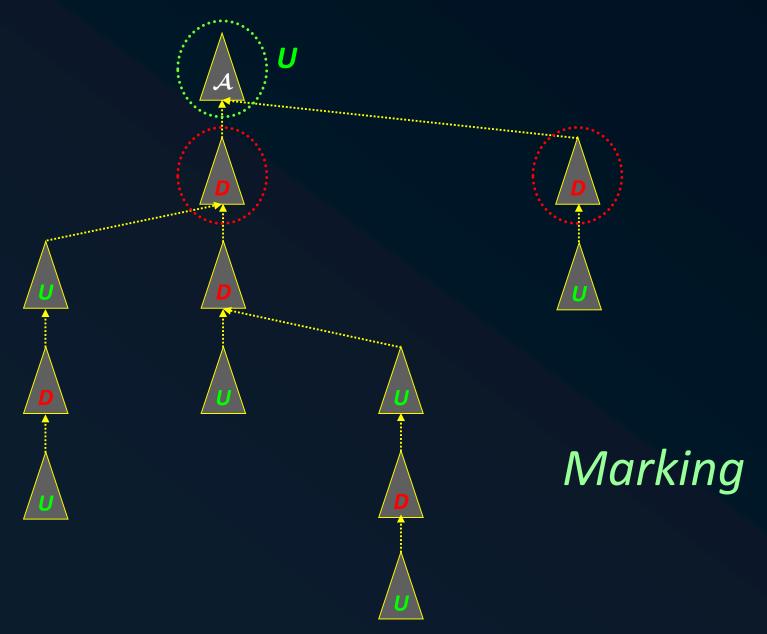




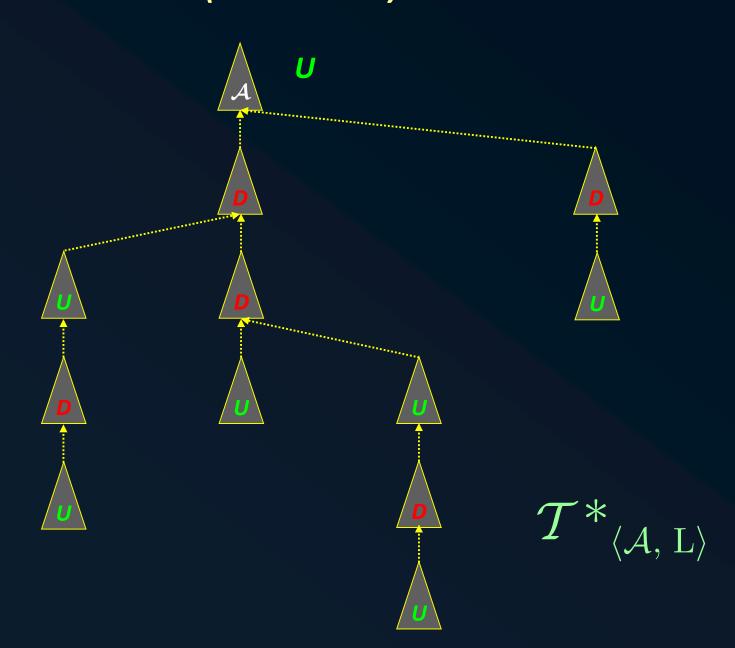








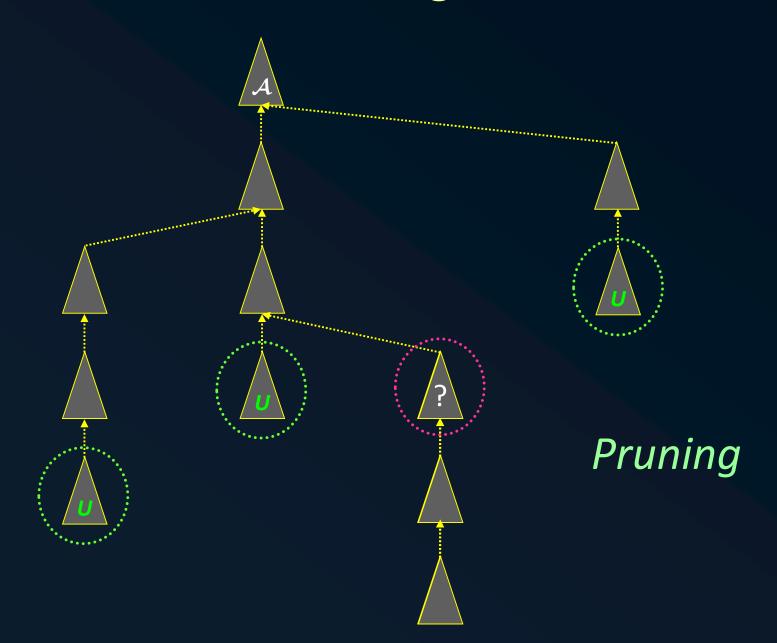
Dialectical Tree (Marked)



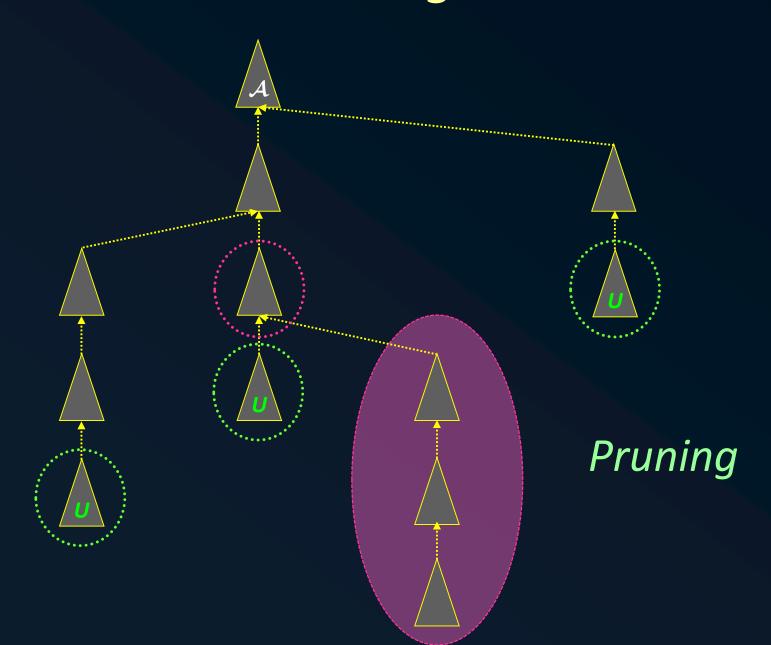
Warranted Literals

- Let $\mathcal{P} = (\Pi, \Delta)$ be a defeasible program. Let $\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle$ be an argument and let $T^*_{\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle}$ be its associated dialectical tree.
 - A literal L is warranted if and only if the root of $\mathcal{T}^*_{\langle \mathcal{A}, L \rangle}$ is marked as "U".
- → That is, the argument $\langle A, L \rangle$ is an argument such that each possible defeater for it has been defeated.
- ightharpoonup We will say that \mathcal{A} is a warrant for L.

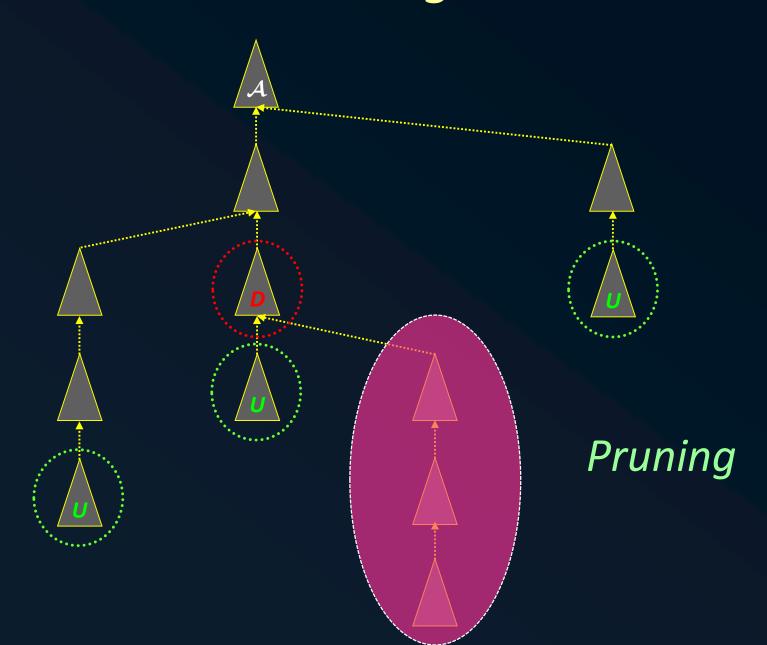
Dialectical Tree: Pruning



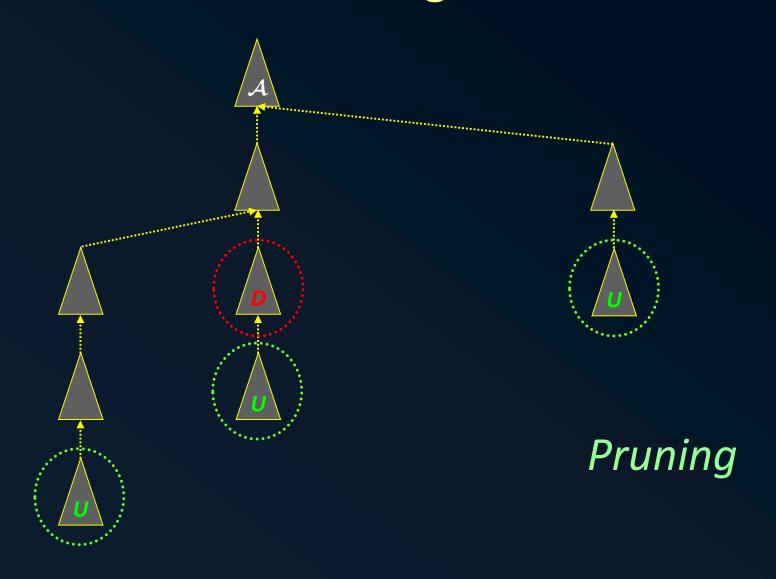
Dialectical Tree: Pruning

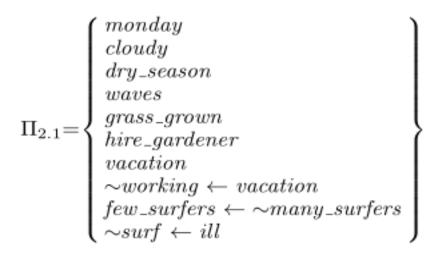


Dialectical Tree: Pruning

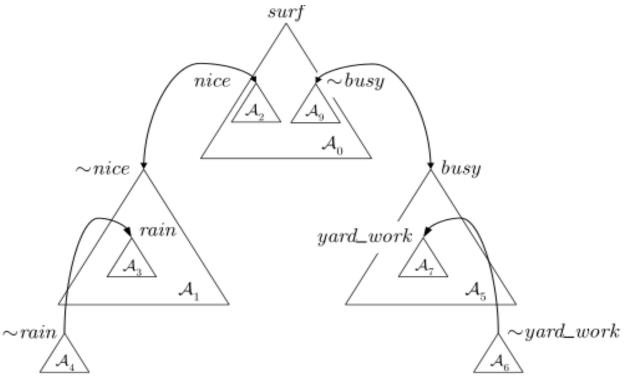


Dialectical Tree: Pruning









Answers in DelP

- ightharpoonup If the strict part Π of a program $\mathcal{P}=(\Pi,\Delta)$ is inconsistent, any literal can be derived.
- ⇒ If a pair of complementary literals $\{L, \sim L\}$ can be derived, it is possible to introduce a way to try to decide whether to accept one of them.
- ⇒ Therefore, there are three different possible answers: accept L, accept $\sim L$, or to reject both.
- → Also, if the program is used to ànswer queries, there is a fourth possibility: the literal for which the query is made is unknown to the program.

How it Works - DeLP

Query

 $% = \frac{1}{2} =$

DeLP Interpreter (Abstract Machine)

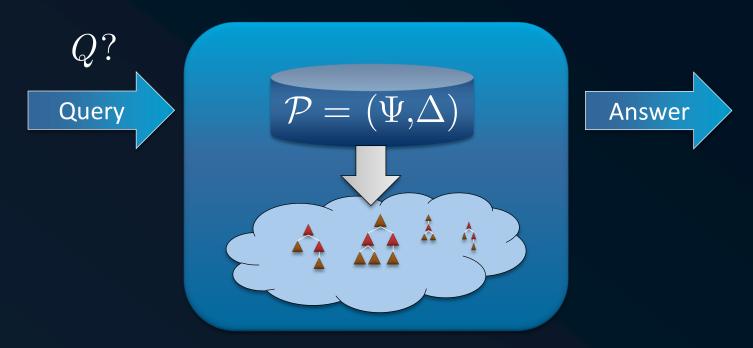


Knowledge Base $\mathcal{P}=(\Pi,\Delta)$

Possible Answers to Query Q

- YES if there exists a warranted argument $\langle \mathcal{A}, Q \rangle$
- NO if there exists a warranted argument for $\langle \mathcal{B}, \sim Q \rangle$
- UNDECIDED when none of the above cases hold

DeLP -Interpreter



- YES if there exists a warranted argument $\langle \mathcal{A}, Q \rangle$, denoted $\mathcal{P} \vdash_{\mathsf{w}} Q$
- NO if there exists a warranted argument for $\langle \mathcal{B}, \sim Q
 angle$, denoted $\mathcal{P} \hspace{0.2cm} dash_{\sf w} \! \sim \! Q$
- UNDECIDED when none of the above cases hold
- ullet UNKNOWN if Q is not in the language of the program.

Specification of the Warrant Procedure

```
warrant(Q, A) :=
                                    % Q is a warranted literal
      find \quad argument(Q, A),
                                    \% if A is an argument for Q
      % and A is not defeated
defeated(A, ArgLine) :-
                                    % A is defeated
                                    % if there is a defeater D for A
      find \ defeater(A, D, ArgLine),
      acceptable(D, ArgLine, NewLine), \% acceptable within the line
      % and D is not defeated
find \ defeater(A, D) :=
                                    \% C is a defeater for A
                                    % if C counterargues A in SubA
      find\ counterarg(A,\ D,\ SubA),
      % and SubA is not better than C
```

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Argumentation in artificial intelligence

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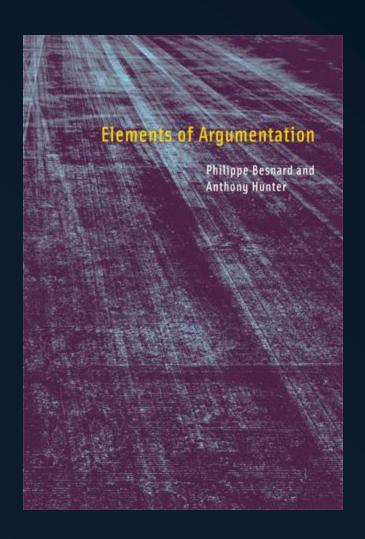
Department of Computer Science, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, United Kingdom Received 27 April 2007; received in revised form 27 April 2007; accepted 1 May 2007 Available online 10 May 2007



Abstract

Over the last ten years, argumentation has come to be increasingly central as a core study within Artificial Intelligence (AI). The articles forming this volume reflect a variety of important trends, developments, and applications covering a range of current topics relating to the theory and applications of argumentation. Our aims in this introduction are, firstly, to place these contributions in the context of the historical foundations of argumentation in AI and, subsequently, to discuss a number of themes that have emerged in recent years resulting in a significant broadening of the areas in which argumentation based methods are used. We begin by presenting a brief overview of the issues of interest within the classical study of argumentation: in particular, its relationship—in terms of both similarities and important differences—to traditional concepts of logical reasoning and mathematical proof. We continue by outlining how a number of foundational contributions provided the basis for the formulation of argumentation models and their promotion in AI related settings and then consider a number of new themes that have emerged in recent years, many of which provide the principal topics of the research presented in this volume.

Keywords: Argumentation models; Dialogue processes; Argument diagrams and schemes; Agent-based negotiation; Practical reasoning



Elements of Argumentation
Philippe Besnard and Anthony Hunter
MIT Press, 2008
ISBN: 978-0-262-02643-7

Iyad Rahwan Guillermo R. Simari Editors **Argumentation in Artificial Intelligence** Foreword by Johan van Benthem

Argumentation in Artificial Intelligence Iyad Rahwan and Guillermo R. Simari Springer, 2009

ISBN: 978-0-387-98196-3

A CRACESZ

Towards Artificial Argumentation

Katie Atkinson¹, Pietro Baroni², Massimiliano Giacomin², Anthony Hunter³, Henry Prakken^{4,5}, Chris Reed⁶, Guillermo Simari⁷, Matthias Thimm⁸, and Serena Villata⁹

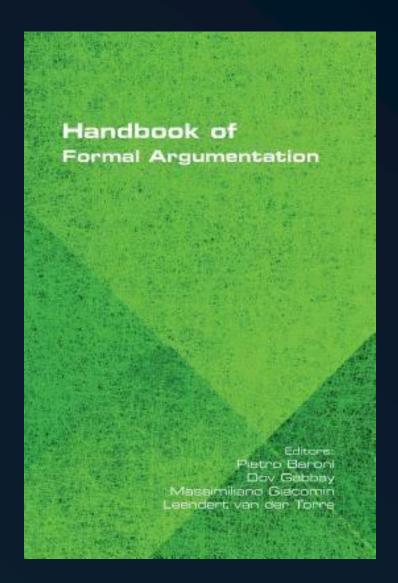
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⁹Université Côte dAzur, CNRS, Inria, I3S, France

March 15, 2017

Al Magazine - Vol 38 No 3: Fall 2017, pp. 25-36.

Abstract

The field of computational models of argument is emerging as an important aspect of
artificial intelligence research. The reason for this is based on the recognition that if we are
to develop robust intelligent systems, then it is imperative that they can handle incomplete
and inconsistent information in a way that somehow emulates the way humans tackle such a
complex task. And one of the key ways that humans do this is to use argumentation — either
internally, by evaluating arguments and counterarguments — or externally, by for instance
entering into a discussion or debate where arguments are exchanged. As we report in this
review, recent developments in the field are leading to technology for artificial argumentation,
in the legal, medical, and e-government domains, and interesting tools for argument mining,
for debating technologies, and for argumentation solvers are emerging.



Handbook of Formal Argumentation

Pietro Baroni, Dov Gabbay, Massimilino Giacomin Volume 1, College Publications, Feb 28, 2018.

Also Volume 2 (forthcoming August 2021).

Several more volumes planned.

Thank you! Questions?

