

Abduction

Fariba Sadri

Deduction versus Abduction

Deduction: Given

A and

$A \rightarrow B$ you can infer

B .

Abduction: Given

B and

$A \rightarrow B$ you can abduce

A as an explanation for B .

Examples

Observation: *grass is wet*

You know:

it rained \rightarrow *grass is wet*

Then there is a possible explanation: *it rained*

If you also know:

sprinkler was on \rightarrow *grass is wet*

Then there are two possible explanations:

E_1 : *it rained*

E_2 : *sprinkler was on*

Example cntd.

If we have additional information such as:

cloudless sky

cloudless sky \wedge it rained \rightarrow false

i.e. \neg (cloudless sky \wedge it rained)

We can conclude *\neg (it rained)*

Then only one explanation is possible:

E₂: sprinkler was on

Informal Examples of Abductive Reasoning

- **Medical diagnosis:** given a set of symptoms, what is the diagnosis that would best explain most of them?
- **Jury decision in a criminal case?** Maybe. The Jury must consider whether the prosecution or the defence has the best explanation to cover all the points of evidence.

Applications of Abduction

Artificial Intelligence, in particular:

- Automatic planning
- Fault diagnosis
- Learning: Course “Logic-Based Learning” in the Spring term
- Default reasoning
- Belief revision
-

Deduction versus Abduction

Deductive reasoning:

We are given a Theory (Premises) and a Goal and we check if

$\text{Theory} \vdash \text{Goal}$

- Conclusion is “guaranteed”
- If the premises are true, then the conclusion must also be true

Deduction versus Abduction cntd.

Abductive reasoning:

We are given a Theory and an Observation and we want to find an explanation (maybe the “best” explanation) for the Observation.

- Hypothetical (not guaranteed)
- The explanation is our best shot
- Defeasible (new information can discredit an explanation)
- Described by [Charles Sanders Peirce](#) as "guessing"

Abduction can be Formalised in Logic

Informally:

Given a **Theory** and an **Observation** an abductive **Explanation** of the Observation is such that:

$$\text{Theory} \cup \text{Explanation} \vdash \text{Observation}$$

and Explanation is made up of “Abducible” predicates. Typically, abducibles have no definitions in the Theory.

In addition Explanation may have to satisfy some other properties.

Example

Theory: *it rained \rightarrow grass is wet*
sprinkler was on \rightarrow grass is wet

Observation: *grass is wet*

Abducibles: *it rained, sprinkler was on*

Explanations (Abductive Explanations):

E_1 : *it rained*

E_2 : *sprinkler was on*

Theory $\cup E_1 \vdash$ Observation

Theory $\cup E_2 \vdash$ Observation

Another Example

Theory: $a \wedge b \wedge e \rightarrow g$ a c
 $c \wedge d \rightarrow g$ $c \rightarrow h$
 $a \wedge f \wedge h \rightarrow g$ $e \rightarrow f$

Observation: g

Abducibles: b, e

Explanations (Abductive Explanations):

$E_1:$ $b \wedge e$

$E_2:$ e

$\text{Theory} \cup E_1 \vdash \text{Observation}$

$\text{Theory} \cup E_2 \vdash \text{Observation}$

How To Find an Abducible Solution

In Prolog Notation:

Theory:

$g \text{ :- } a \wedge b \wedge e.$	$a.$	$c.$
$g \text{ :- } c \wedge d.$	$h \text{ :- } c.$	
$g \text{ :- } a \wedge f \wedge h.$	$f \text{ :- } e.$	

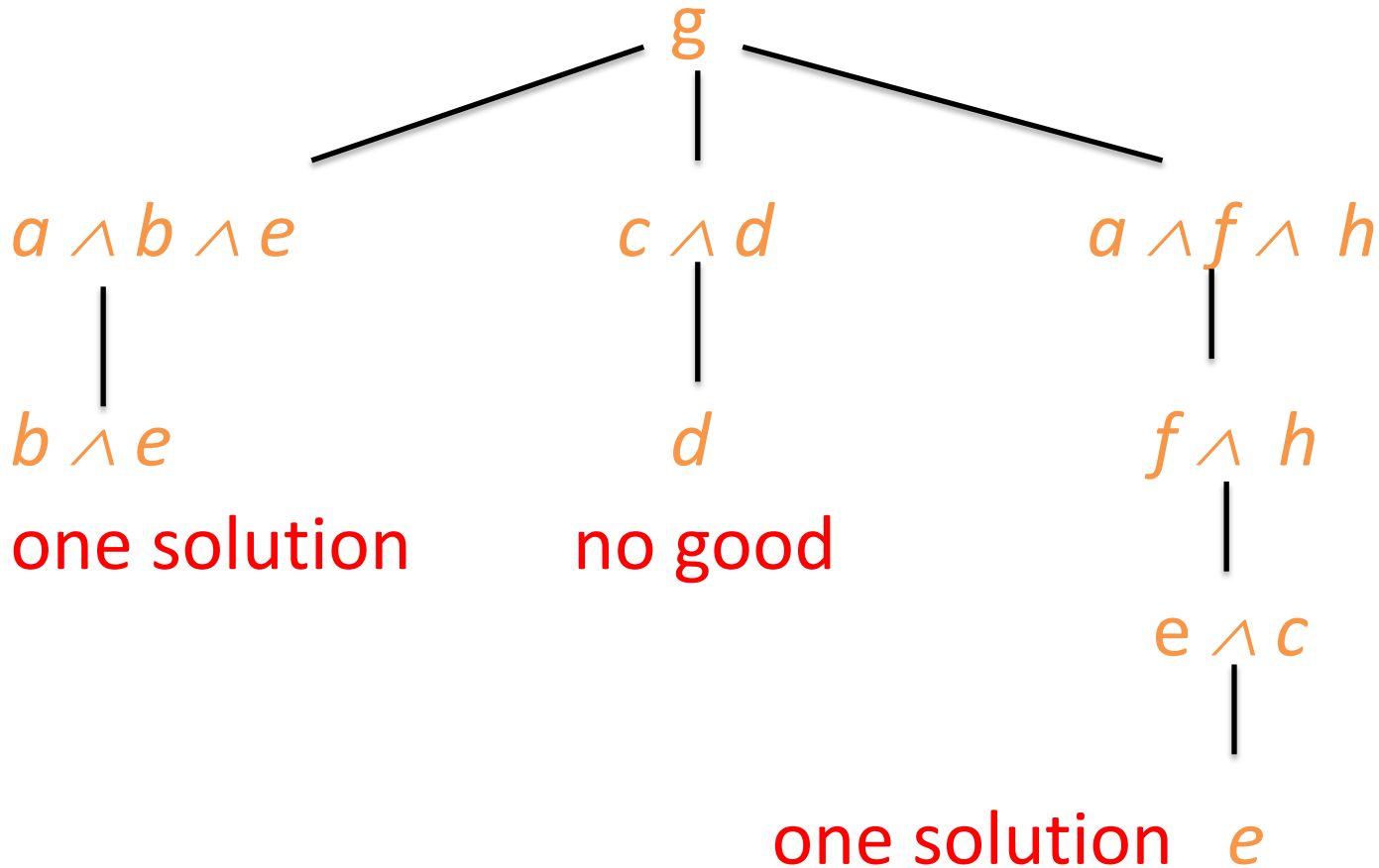
Observation: $g.$

Abducibles: b, e

$g :- a \wedge b \wedge e.$
 a c

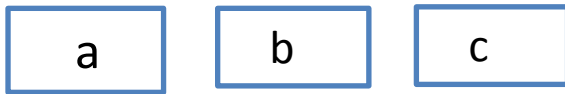
$g :- c \wedge d.$
 $h :- c.$

$g :- a \wedge f \wedge h.$
 $f :- e.$

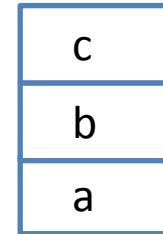


A Very Simple Example in Automatic Planning

Initial state



Goal state



Goal: $\text{on}(\text{b},\text{a}) \wedge \text{on}(\text{c},\text{b})$

Theory: $\forall X,Y (\text{move}(X,Y) \rightarrow \text{on}(X,Y))$

or in Prolog: $\text{on}(X,Y) \text{ :- move}(X,Y).$

Abducibles: all instances of $\text{move}/2$

Abductive solution: $\{\text{move}(\text{b},\text{a}), \text{move}(\text{c},\text{b})\}$

Another Simple Example in Automatic Planning (using Prolog syntax)

```
prepare_for_trip :-    have_valid_passport ,  
                        book_transport.  
  
have_valid_passport :- \+ passport_expired.  
have_valid_passport :- get_passport_renewed.  
book_transport :- book_train.  
book_transport :- book_plane.  
passport_expired.
```

Goal: `prepare_for_trip.`

Abducibles:

`{ get_passport_renewed, book_train,
book_plane }`

Two abductive solutions:

$E_1 = \{ \text{get_passport_renewed, book_train} \}$

$E_2 = \{ \text{get_passport_renewed, book_plane} \}$

	Observation O	Abducibles	Explanation E
Planning	Goal	Actions (Temporal Constraints)	Plan, e.g. set of actions
Diagnosis	Symptoms	Diseases/ Faults	Disease/ Fault

An Example from Diagnosis

<http://web.stanford.edu/class/cs227/Lectures/lec12.pdf>

Theory has facts and rules about symptoms and diseases.

$\text{Disease} \wedge \text{Other_conditions} \rightarrow \text{Symptoms}$

Goal: Hypothesise about diseases that best explain the symptoms.

Typically we won't have information such as

$\text{Symptoms} \wedge \text{Other_conditions} \rightarrow \text{Disease}$

So reasoning is not deductive.

tennis_elbow \rightarrow sore_elbow

arthritis \wedge untreated \rightarrow sore_joints

sore_joints \rightarrow sore_elbow

sore_joints \rightarrow sore_hips

arthritis \wedge untreated \rightarrow problem_with_balance

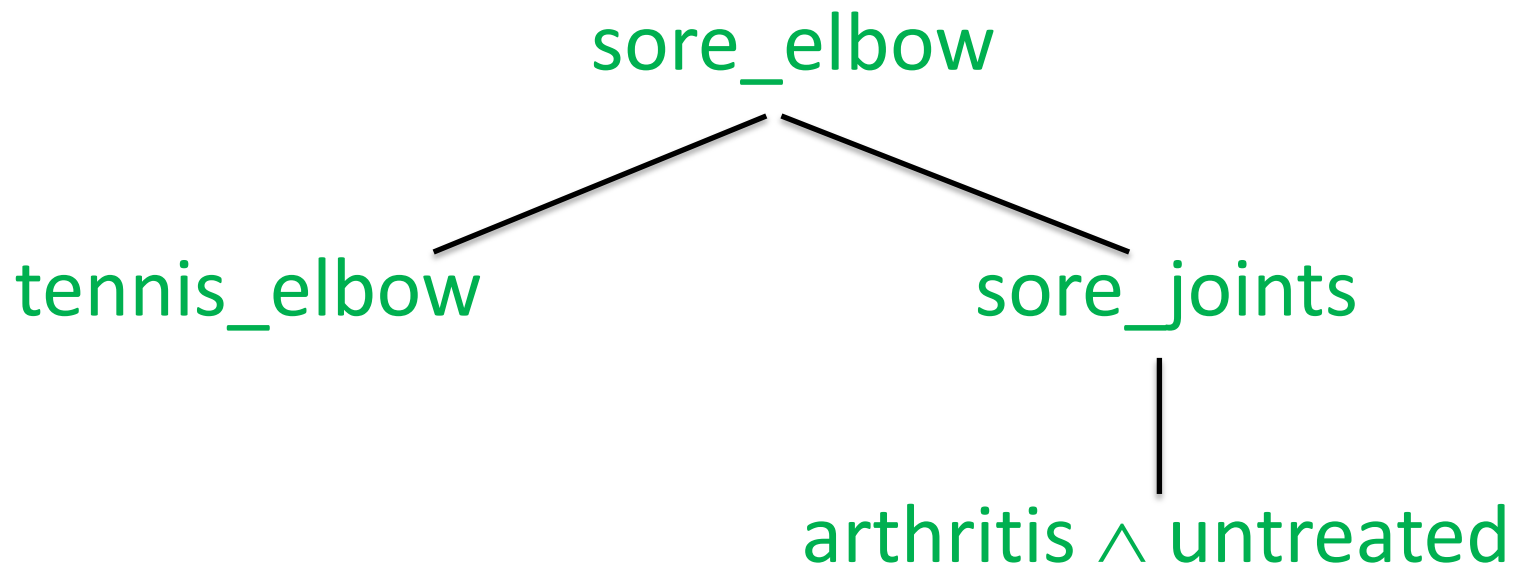
Symptom:

sore_elbow

Explanations :

tennis_elbow

arthritis, untreated



Besides accounting for all of the known symptoms, a hypothesis may also predict other symptoms which have not yet been observed.

These predictions provide a way to test the validity of a hypothesis by making the observation and seeing if the result is consistent with the prediction.

A formal characterisation of abductive logic programs: Preliminaries

Definition: Logic Programs

Logic programs are sets of clauses of the form:

$$H \leftarrow A_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A_n$$

In Prolog

$$H :- A_1, \dots, A_n.$$

H and all the A_i are atomic formulas. (In general the A_i can also be negative literals, but we will ignore this here.)

A formal characterisation of abduction abductive logic programs: Preliminaries ctd.

Definition: Integrity Constraints

Integrity Constraints are sentences of the form:

$$A_1, \dots, A_n \rightarrow \text{false}.$$

or equivalently

$$\neg(A_1, \dots, A_n).$$

where the A_i are atoms.

A formal characterisation of abductive logic programs

- T** is a **logic program**
- H** is a set of ***undefined*** ground **atoms**
(the abducibles)
- O** is a (implicitly existentially quantified)
conjunction of atoms (the goal/observations)
- I** is a set of integrity constraints
- E** (the abductive answer) is such that
- $$\mathbf{T} \cup \mathbf{E} \vdash \mathbf{O}$$
- $$\mathbf{E} \subseteq \mathbf{H}$$
- $$\mathbf{T} \cup \mathbf{E} \text{ satisfies } \mathbf{I} \qquad \mathbf{T} \cup \mathbf{E} \cup \mathbf{I} \text{ consistent}$$

Example

- T:** *it rained \rightarrow grass is wet*
 sprinkler was on \rightarrow grass is wet
 cloudless sky
- H:** *it rained, sprinkler was on*
- O:** *grass is wet*
- I:** *cloudless sky \wedge it rained \rightarrow false*
 i.e. \neg (cloudless sky \wedge it rained)
- E:** *sprinkler was on*

Extending with negation (as failure)

Abductive logic programming works for *normal logic programs*, i.e. logic programs and integrity constraints that can have negative as well as positive conditions.

$$H \leftarrow A_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A_n \wedge \text{not } B_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \text{not } B_n.$$
$$H :- A_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A_n \wedge \backslash+ B_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \backslash+ B_n.$$

- H and all the A_i and B_i are atomic formulas.
- The negation in the negative literals $\text{not } B_i$ is referred to as "negation as failure"
- A negative condition $\text{not } B_i$ is shown to hold by showing that the positive condition B_i fails to hold.

Integrity Constraints with Negation

$B_1, \dots, B_n \rightarrow \text{false}.$

or equivalently

$\neg(B_1, \dots, B_n).$

where the B_i are literals.

Abductive logic programs

- T:** a *normal* logic program
- H:** a set of *undefined* ground atoms (abducible atoms)
- O:** a (implicitly existentially quantified) conjunction of **literals** (atoms or NAF of atoms)
- I:** is a set of integrity constraints
- E:** (the abductive answer) is such that
- $$\mathbf{T} \cup \mathbf{E} \vdash_{\text{NAF}} \mathbf{O}$$
- $$\mathbf{E} \subseteq \mathbf{H}$$
- $$\mathbf{T} \cup \mathbf{E} \text{ satisfies } \mathbf{I}$$

Example

T: $g(T) \text{ :- } a1(T), \text{ \textbackslash+} p(T), a2(T).$

$g(T) \text{ :- } a1(T), a3(T).$

$g(T) \text{ :- } a4(T).$

$p(10).$

$q(T) \text{ :- } a5(T).$

I: $a4(T), \text{ \textbackslash+} q(T) \text{ -> false.}$

$a3(T), \text{ \textbackslash+} a6(T) \text{ -> false.}$

Abducibles: $a1, a2, a3, a4, a5, a6$

Goal: $g(10)$.

Abductive Answers:

E1: $a1(10)$, $a3(10)$, $a6(10)$.

E2: $a4(10)$, $a5(10)$.

Another Example

P: have(X) :- buy(X).
 have(X) :- borrow(X).
 have(money).

A: buy, borrow, register (actions)

IC: buy(X), \+ have(money) → false
 buy(tv), \+ register(tv) → false
 buy(money) → false

Goal: have(tv)

Δ1: buy(tv), register(tv) (Plan 1)

Δ2: borrow(tv) (Plan 2)

P: have(X) :- buy(X).

```
have(X) :- borrow(X).
```

A: buy, borrow, register (actions)

IC: $\text{buy}(X), \neg \text{have}(\text{money}) \rightarrow \text{false}$

buy(tv), \+ register(tv) \rightarrow false

buy(money) → false

Goal: have(tv)

[illegible]

$\Delta 2:$ borrow(tv) (Plan 2)