

AILP (2016) Report

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1 Introduction

This report describes work done in the AILP course. It gives the aims and hypothesis that guided the work; describes the algorithms that were implemented; reports the results of experiments that were run; and analyses these results.

2 Aims and hypothesis

The aim of the assignment is to ...

The intention of the extension implemented is:

to allow analysis of legal disputations in a way that closely matches what happens in real cases.

3 What is an argumentation system?

As all who have once been a child whinging and shouting at their parents would know, arguing has a varied audience and an immeasurable history. We argue daily with others concerning clothing prices and opinions and we argue internally with our emotions and whether we should ask that girl out. The concept of argumentation merely attempts to formalise and make sensible this constantly bickering world we live in.

An argument is composed of three major pieces: its premises, its conclusion, and an inference from the premises to conclusion (see arg paper here). Each of these pieces is represented by propositions, an atomic statement that is either true or false. A system of arguments composes related arguments into an organised manner. Generally, we represent this as an argument tree:

(INSERT ARGUMENT TREE)

Arguments form chains where the conclusion of one argument is the premise for another argument, and vice

versa. Arguing is akin to the 80s Tron Sinclair game: each party rides a bike that generates a longer and longer tail - the challenge is to keep your bike (argument) alive by craftily averting your opponent's tail, yet simultaneously aiming to fatally catch your opponent off guard with your tail.

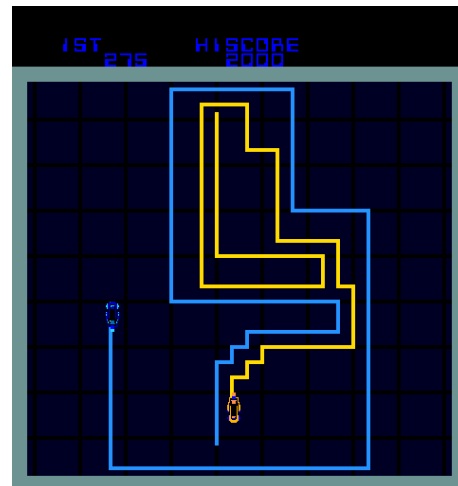


Figure 1: Old videogames still have their use when it comes to analogies. source

The light tail of our bike in an argumentation context is driven by sequentially declaring more arguments in favour of your position. The opposing party drives their tail through invoking new arguments, or disproving your previous arguments. If a party has no more arguments to support their case, game over - they have smashed into their opponent's light tail.

In an argumentation system, we are hoping to automate the oscillating behaviour of arguing. The system has many complex decisions and weighing of options it has to perform, such as whether to raise a critical question to undermine an opponent's earlier argument, or affirm their current position by bringing to light an argument with grounded assumptions/evidence.

4 What is Carneades?

Inventing the AI that would solve all arguments in all domains would be a feat. Sadly, this is fanciful talk, but a particular area has seen much advancement concerning AI and argumentation: law. Carneades is an argumentation framework designed for dialogue arguments between two parties and is designed specifically with the use of law cases in mind. Unlike the traditional definition of an argument, Carneades represents an argument with different types of premises that pose critical questions about the argument. The three types are exceptions, wherein if any exception is proven true, the argument cannot stand, assumptions, which are assumed true by the audience (as in evidence), and premises, which all must be true or assumed, in order for the argument to hold (site second paper on AILP web).

Carneades implements a burden of proof model. The burden of proof is on whichever party, based on all current arguments and assumptions thus far, has to present the next argument to avoid losing. Arguments are continuously presented by the party with the burden of proof until the proposition that both parties are arguing has been accepted or rejected in favour of one party. Propositions are accepted in a recursive manner depending on the defensibility of the pro and con arguments for that proposition. An argument is defensible if its premises hold and its exceptions do not hold. To determine the truth of the argument's premises we must begin the cycle again at choosing arguments (site paper 2). Hence, the argument proof descends down the argumentation tree.

5 Algorithms and implementation

For this purpose the following extensions were carried out

1. reading of input from text files
2. ...

5.1 extending the system to read from text files

Extending the system to read from text files was not only to allow the less program-orientated users to implement an argumentation scheme, but also to simplify the system so that arguments could quickly be analysed. The Carneades python framework required the user to

pre-define propositions, create an argument set, and create an audience before the arguments could be analysed. The goal of the text file reading is to remove those trivialities.

The *Carneades Markup Language* is a basic markup language that is used to simplify the compiling of Carneades Python programs. It imitates a simplified version of basic markup:

```
<MarkupObject>
  <attributeOfObject>
    big
  </attributeOfObject>
  <anotherAttributeOfObject>
    200
  </anotherAttributeOfObject>
</MarkupObject>

<!-- This is a one line comment -->
```

The simplified markup implementation uses only two layers of markup to describe different Carneades classes. The highest order line,

```
<CMLObject>...</CMLObject>
```

represents the definition of a Carneades class. The only available Carneades classes in CML are:

```
<Proposition>...</Proposition>
<Argument>...</Argument>
<CAES>...</CAES>
```

(NOTE: classes not implemented, such as *ProofStandard*, *Audience*, *ArgumentSet*, are all created at compile-time; this design decision will be discussed later)

Each Carneades class has a series of CML *attributes* that are used to define unique details about a specific object. Without these *attributes* implemented, the generic classes will fail. It is important to note that the order in which *attributes* are written does not matter, but only some *attributes* can be excluded (similar to the concept of a constructor). An *attribute* is defined as a markup object that is one mark up layer inside a markup *class* object (which is always at layer zero) and has a *value item* one layer inside it:

```
<CMLObject>
  <CMLAttribute>
    value\_of\_attribute
  </CMLAttribute>
```

</CMLObject>

The inclusion of the *value item* (value_of_attribute_) is required for the object to be an *attribute*. The name of the value, class objects and attribute objects follow the general naming scheme of python variables. *Attributes* are written in series:

```
<CMLObject>
  <CMLAttribute1>
    value\_of\_attribute1
  </CMLAttribute1>
  <CMLAttribute2>
    value\_of\_attribute2
  </CMLAttribute2>
</CMLObject>
```

Order (as well as spacing) is irrelevant:

```
<CMLObject>

  <CMLAttribute2> value\_of\_attribute2
  </CMLAttribute2>

  <CMLAttribute3> <!-- comment about this
    attribute, etc... -->
    value\_of\_attribute3
  </CMLAttribute3>

  <CMLAttribute1>value\_of\_attribute1
</CMLAttribute1> </CMLObject>
```

The *class/attribute* combinations (constructors) for each class are displayed below. Optional *attributes* are indicated by a comment:

```
<!--PROPOSITIONS-->
<Proposition>
  <name>...name ID of
    proposition...</name>
  <truth>...truth value of the
    proposition. Default value is
    'True'...</truth> <!--optional-->
  <proof>...standard of proof for the
    proposition. Default value is
    'scintilla'...</proof>
    <!--optional-->
</Proposition>

<Proposition>
  <name>...name ID of
    proposition...</name>
  <negate>...name-tag of the proposition
```

```
    to copy and negate...</negate>
  <proof>...standard of proof for the
    proposition. Default value is
    'scintilla'...</proof>
    <!--optional-->
</Proposition>

<!--ARGUMENTS-->
<Argument>
  <name>...name ID of argument...</name>
  <conclusion>...conclusional
    proposition of the
    argument...</conclusion>
  <premises>...[list, of, premises, of,
    the, argument]...</premises>
  <exceptions>...[list, of, exceptions,
    of, the, argument]...</exceptions>
    <!--optional-->
  <weight>...float value of the weight
    of this argument...</weight>
</Argument>

<!--CAES-->
<CAES>
  <name>...name ID of CAES...</name>
  <assumptions>[list, of, propositions,
    that, are, audience,
    assumptions]</assumptions>
</CAES>
```

Some syntactical notes:

- There are 6 types of attributes of which 4 are used when writing CML in a text file:
 1. *String*: any attribute that has written text (make sure to exclude '...', unlike other languages)
 2. *Number*: any attribute that has only a float value (i.e. 0.6)
 3. *Bool*: any attribute that contains the word true/false with any capitalisation. This overrides a string type
 4. *StringList*: any attribute that starts and ends with '['...]' and contains comma-separated strings
- (IMPORTANT) Defining each proposition before the arguments is not strictly necessary. Arguments will intuitively add propositions that are missing from implementation (this will not happen with

the *CAES assumptions attribute*, these propositions must be predefined in an argument/proposition. It is important to note that this implementation can be dangerous; miss-spelt proposition names will be treated as *new* propositions. Be careful!). There are a few special cases:

1. If the *proof* value of a proposition needs to be set to a value other than the default value, 'scintilla', then a proposition must be predefined before the argument(s).
2. If a *negated* proposition needs to be implemented, this can be done by adding the exact string 'neg_' to the start of the proposition's name, like so:

```
\dot
<premises>\dot [prop2,
    neg\_prop3]\dot </premises>
\dot
```

(NOTE: neg_prop3 will make 2 propositions if prop3 has not been defined earlier: prop3 and -prop3)

5.2 extending the system to argue

The system now has the capability to take a set of arguments along with an audience and determine whether a proposition is applicable using the generated argument tree. A useful feature to this system would be the ability to observe how the various arguments are used by both the prosecution and the defense to form the final conclusion.

We start by thinking about how the simplest argument system would function. This involves discussing where the 'Burden of Proof' lies within an argumentation system. The goal of each party in an argument is to shift the burden of proof away from themselves and onto their opponent, and further, make it harder for the opponent to shift the Burden of Proof back onto the original party. To shift the burden of proof the party therefore has two goals: find some argument(s) sequence that will shift the Burden of Proof, and find the argument(s) sequence that is the strongest.

In a simple scenario, where we assume a single argument shifts the Burden of Proof, an argument can either prove the conclusion the parties are fighting for in favour of the burdened party, undermine an argument that the opposing party has made, or build from a previous weak argument that the current party has made.

As an argument system progresses and each argument is posed by a party, we need to keep track of the weak propositions within each argument. Weak propositions are those that are not in the audience assumptions and do not have any arguments for/against them. As shown below:

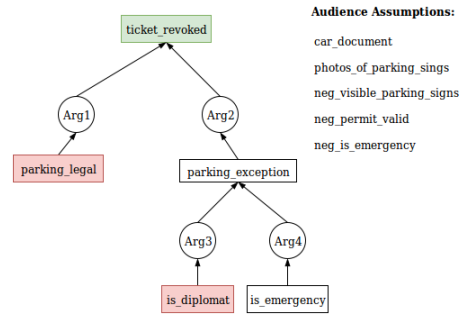


Figure 2: (green=target argument proposition, red=current weak propositions)

If an argument is posed and its premises contain a weak proposition, that argument is not applicable. Alternately, weak propositions are routes of attack for a party. When the burden of proof alternates, so do the polarities of the weak propositions; the new party can therefore attack the weak propositions and undermine the opposing party's argument(s). When the party with the burden is arguing, its goal is to pose arguments until the argument proposition is acceptable with the current assumptions and already posed arguments. A good heuristic for determining which arguments to choose is to select arguments which prove any of the weak propositions.

At the beginning of an argument between two parties, the only weak proposition is the proposition the two parties are arguing for (e.g. was it murder, getting a fine/ticket) and therefore the first party's most sensible move is to pose an argument for that proposition. Because the list of possible arguments could be vast, a depth-first system is introduced, where the weak propositions are added to a stack and the current party's best choice for weak propositions to target are those at the top of the stack. In some scenarios, this could cause inefficient searching by the current party if it has chosen a deep argument tree that is completely wrong, but this is a tradeoff for finding sensible argument chains. One enhancement on this search is to use Dijkstra's weighted graph to determine an optimal path. Once a path has been chosen that results in the argument proposition be-

ing acceptable (in the case of the defense) or not acceptable (in the case of the prosecution), the full argument sequence is composed by traversing the assembled depth-first search graph back to the start. The Burden of Proof then changes hands. We can see this process in the argument simulation to the right:

6 Experiments and results

6.1 Testing of the text reading extension

There were three test cases implement the extent of the systems ability to understand a variety of argumentation inputs:

1. *TestCase1:*
2. *TestCase2:*
3. *TestCase3:*

6.2 Testing the argumentation extension

Table 1: Experimenting with different graph searching algorithms.

algorithm	iteration	num nodes searched
depth-first search	0	0
depth-first search	0	0
depth-first search	0	0
weight-first search	0	0
weight-first search	0	0
weight-first search	0	0
dijkstra search	0	0
dijkstra search	0	0
dijkstra search	0	0

7 Discussion and Conclusion

7.1 Formatting: tables

An example of a table is shown as Table 2. Somewhat different styles are allowed according to the type and purpose of the table.

To include text without formatting, use this (script-size uses a significantly smaller font, intermediate sizes are footnotesize and small):

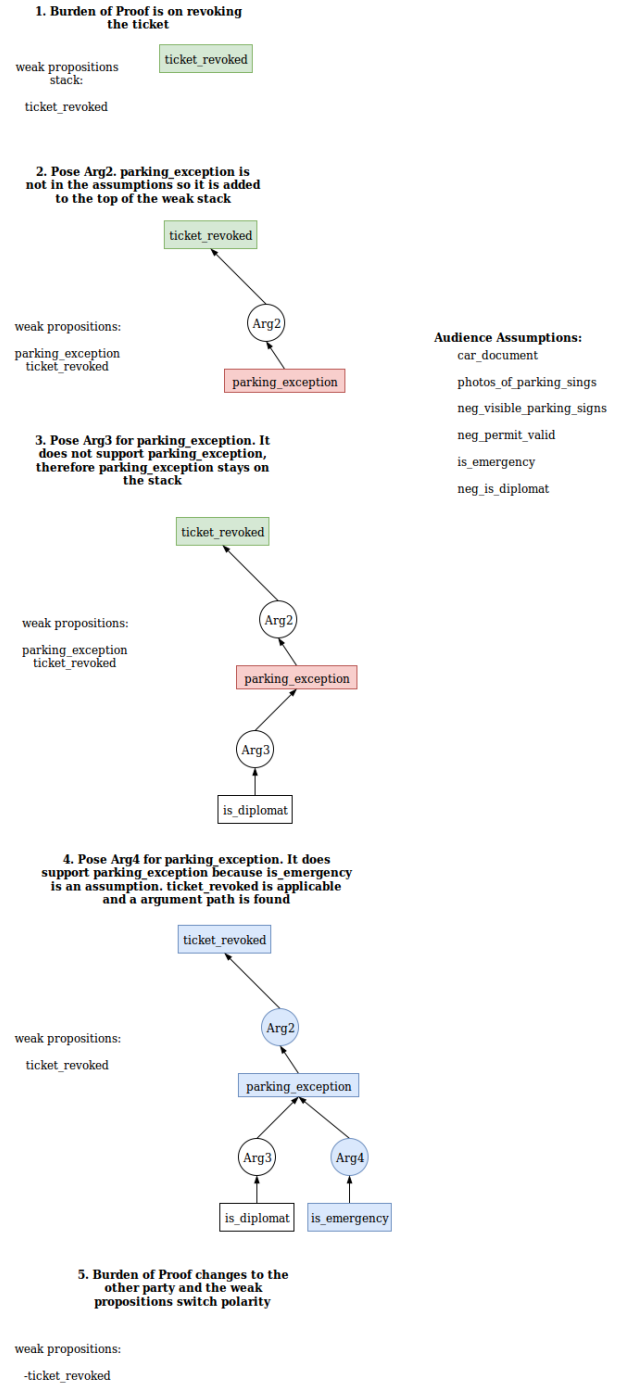


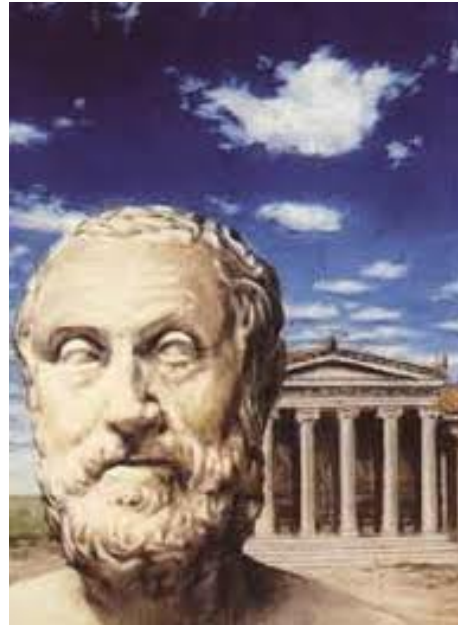
Figure 3: simulation of depth-first searching the argument graph

8.8 1.2 0.0 2.5 3.8 7.5 0.0 5.0 0.0

Table 2: *This is an example of a table.*

ratio	decibels
1/1	0
2/1	≈ 6
3.16	10
10/1	20
1/10	-20
100/1	40
1000/1	60

7.5 1.2 0.0 2.5 2.5 0.0 5.0 0.0 1.2
0.0 67.5 5.0 1.2 11.2 3.8 7.5 3.8 0.0
0.0 1.2 62.5 3.8 22.5 0.0 6.2 2.5 1.2
2.5 0.0 0.0 76.2 0.0 1.2 6.2 0.0 13.8
1.2 6.2 21.2 5.0 47.5 1.2 5.0 1.2 6.2
6.2 3.8 0.0 5.0 0.0 57.5 0.0 10.0 0.0
0.0 2.5 1.2 8.8 0.0 0.0 73.8 2.5 11.2
0.0 2.5 8.8 2.5 3.8 5.0 2.5 61.3 2.5
0.0 0.0 2.5 20.0 0.0 0.0 12.5 0.0 63.7



If you want to use both columns, put it in a figure*:
(figure* uses both columns, figure just 1): it is likely to
float away to an unexpected place, though.

7.2 Maths, if needed

$$x(t) = s(f_{\omega}(t)) \quad (1)$$

where $f_{\omega}(t)$ is a special warping function

$$f_{\omega}(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C \frac{\nu^{-1k} d\nu}{(1 - \beta\nu^{-1})(\nu^{-1} - \beta)} \quad (2)$$

A residue theorem states that

$$\oint_C F(z) dz = 2\pi j \sum_k \text{Res}[F(z), p_k] \quad (3)$$

Applying (3) to (1), it is straightforward to see that

$$1 + 1 = \pi \quad (4)$$

And here is an included image (png and pdf formats
are allowed).

7.3 References

References should be indexed in some way.

Here they are given using bibtex to format the entries,
which in this case are [3], [1], and [2]. You *can* use
bibtex to prepare references, as here, or do it by hand
if there are very few.

(1) References

- [1] K.-F. Lee. *Automatic Speech Recognition: The Development of the SPHINX System*. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston, 1989.
- [2] A. I. Rudnick, J. H. Polifroni, and R. A. Brennan. Interactive problem solving with speech. *J. Acoust. Soc. Amer.*, 84(21–33), 1988.
- [3] J. O. Smith and J. S. Abel. Bark and ERB bilinear transforms. *IEEE Trans. Speech and Audio Proc.*, 7(6):697–708, 1999.

8.8	1.2	0.0	2.5	3.8	7.5	0.0	5.0	0.0
7.5	1.2	0.0	2.5	2.5	0.0	5.0	0.0	1.2
0.0	67.5	5.0	1.2	11.2	3.8	7.5	3.8	0.0
0.0	1.2	62.5	3.8	22.5	0.0	6.2	2.5	1.2
2.5	0.0	0.0	76.2	0.0	1.2	6.2	0.0	13.8
1.2	6.2	21.2	5.0	47.5	1.2	5.0	1.2	6.2
6.2	3.8	0.0	5.0	0.0	57.5	0.0	10.0	0.0
0.0	2.5	1.2	8.8	0.0	0.0	73.8	2.5	11.2
0.0	2.5	8.8	2.5	3.8	5.0	2.5	61.3	2.5
0.0	0.0	2.5	20.0	0.0	0.0	12.5	0.0	63.7

Figure 4: Some data