COMP310
Multi-Agent Systems
Chapters 6/7 - Ontologies & Communication

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Social Behaviour

• Previously we looked at:
  • Deductive Agents
  • Practical Reasoning, and BDI Agents
  • Reactive and Hybrid Architectures

• We said:
  • *An intelligent agent is a computer system capable of flexible autonomous action in some environment.*
  • Where by flexible, we mean:
    • reactive
    • pro-active
    • social

• This is where we deal with the “social” bit, showing how agents communicate and share information.
Agent Communication

• In this lecture, we cover macro-aspects of intelligent agent technology, and those issues relating to the agent society, rather than the individual:
  • communication:
    • speech acts; KQML & KIF; FIPA ACL
  • ontologies:
    • the role of ontologies in communication
    • aligning ontologies
    • OWL

• There are some limited things that one can do without communication, but they are…, well…, *limited*!!!
  • Most work on multiagent systems assumes communication.
Speech Acts

• Austin’s 1962 book “How to Do Things with Words” is usually taken to be the origin of speech acts.

• Speech act theories are pragmatic theories of language, that is theories of how language use:
  • they attempt to account for how language is used by people every day to achieve their goals and intentions.

• Most treatments of communication in (multi-)agent systems borrow their inspiration from speech act theory...
  • ...doubtless because the “action” part can be tied closely to existing ideas about how to model action.

• Austin noticed that some utterances are rather like ‘physical actions’ that appear to change the state of the world.
“...This morning the British Ambassador in Berlin handed the German Government a final note stating that, unless we hear from them by 11 o’clock that they were prepared at once to withdraw their troops from Poland, a state of war would exist between us. I have to tell you now that no such undertaking has been received, and that consequently this country is at war with Germany...”

Neville Chamberlain 11.15 am, September 3rd 1939
Speech Acts

• Paradigm examples are:
  • declaring war;
  • naming a child;
  • “I now pronounce you man and wife” :-)  

• But more generally, everything we utter is uttered with the intention of satisfying some goal or intention.

• A theory of how utterances are used to achieve intentions is a speech act theory.
  • Proposed by John Searle, 1969.
Speech Acts: Searle

- In his 1969 book Speech Acts: an Essay in the Philosophy of Language he identified:
  - **representatives:**
    - such as informing, e.g., ‘It is raining’
  - **directives:**
    - attempts to get the hearer to do something e.g., ‘please make the tea’
  - **commisives:**
    - which commit the speaker to doing something, e.g., ‘I promise to...’
  - **expressives:**
    - whereby a speaker expresses a mental state, e.g., ‘thank you!’
  - **declarations:**
    - such as declaring war or naming.
Speech Acts: Searle

• There is some debate about whether this (or any!) typology of speech acts is appropriate.

• In general, a speech act can be seen to have two components:
  • a *performative* verb:
    • (e.g., request, inform, . . . )
  • *propositional* content:
    • (e.g., “the door is closed”)

Each of the above speech acts result from the same propositional content (“...the door is closed...”), but with different performatives.
Plan Based Semantics

• How does one define the semantics of speech acts?
  • When can one say someone has uttered, e.g., a request or an inform?

• Cohen & Perrault (1979) defined semantics of speech acts using the \textit{precondition-delete-add} list formalism of planning research.
  • Just like STRIPS planner

• Note that a speaker cannot (generally) \textit{force} a hearer to accept some desired mental state.

\textit{The semantics for “request”}
\begin{itemize}
\item \textit{request}(s, h, \varphi)
\end{itemize}

\textbf{precondition:}
\begin{itemize}
\item \textit{s believes h can do} \varphi
  (you don’t ask someone to do something unless you think they can do it)
\item \textit{s believe h believe h can do} \varphi
  (you don’t ask someone unless they believe they can do it)
\item \textit{s believe s want} \varphi
  (you don’t ask someone unless you want it!)
\end{itemize}

\textbf{post-condition:}
\begin{itemize}
\item \textit{h believe s believe s want} \varphi
  (the effect is to make them aware of your desire)
\end{itemize}
KQML and KIF

• We now consider **agent communication languages (ACLs)**
  • ACLs are standard formats for the exchange of messages.

  “… [developing] protocols for the exchange of represented knowledge between autonomous information systems…”
  Tim Finin, 1993

• One well known ACL is KQML, developed by the DARPA-funded **Knowledge Sharing Effort** (KSE).
  • The ACL proposed by KSE was comprised of two parts:
    • the message itself: the **Knowledge Query and Manipulation Language (KQML)**; and
    • the body of the message: the **Knowledge interchange format (KIF)**.
KQML and KIF

• KQML is an ‘outer’ language, that defines various acceptable ‘communicative verbs’, or *performatives*.
  
  • Example performatives:
    • ask-if (‘is it true that. . . ’)
    • perform (‘please perform the following action. . . ’)
    • tell (‘it is true that. . . ’)
    • reply (‘the answer is. . . ’)

• KIF is a language for expressing message *content*, or *domain knowledge*.
  
  • It can be used to writing down *ontologies*.
  • KIF is based on first-order logic.
KQML & Ontologies

• In order to be able to communicate, agents need to agree on the words (terms) they use to describe a domain.
  • Always a problem where multiple languages are concerned.

• A formal specification of a set of terms is known as an ontology.
  • The DARPA Knowledge Sharing Effort project has associated with it a large effort at defining common ontologies
    • software tools like ontolingua, etc, for this purpose.

• We’ve previously discussed the use of ontologies and semantics…
Blocksworld

- The environment is represented by an ontology.

Recap:
The ontology specified the entities or the predicates we could use, and defined the actions and their meaning (semantics).

### Blocksworld Ontology

- **On(x,y)**: object x on top of object y
- **OnTable(x)**: object x is on the table
- **Clear(x)**: nothing is on top of object x
- **Holding(x)**: arm is holding x
- **Stack(x, y)**: pre: $\text{Clear}(y) \land \text{Holding}(x)$; del: $\text{Clear}(y) \land \text{Holding}(x)$; add: $\text{ArmEmpty} \land \text{On}(x, y)$
- **UnStack(x, y)**: pre: $\text{On}(x, y) \land \text{Clear}(x) \land \text{ArmEmpty}$; del: $\text{On}(x, y) \land \text{ArmEmpty}$; add: $\text{Holding}(x) \land \text{Clear}(y)$
Ontologies

• The role of an ontology is to fix the meaning of the terms used by agents.

“… An ontology is a formal definition of a body of knowledge. The most typical type of ontology used in building agents involves a structural component. Essentially a taxonomy of class and subclass relations coupled with definitions of the relationships between these things …”

Jim Hendler

• How do we do this? Typically by defining new terms in terms of old ones.
  • Let’s consider an example.
Ontologies

• Alice:
  • Did you read “Prey”? 

• Bob:
  • No, what is it? 

• Alice:
  • A science fiction novel. Well, it is also a bit of a horror novel. It is about multiagent systems going haywire.
Ontologies

• What is being conveyed about “Prey” here?
  1. It is a novel
  2. It is a science fiction novel
  3. It is a horror novel
  4. It is about multiagent systems

• Alice assumes that Bob knows what a “novel” is, what “science fiction” is and what “horror” is.

• She thus defines a new term “Prey” in terms of ones that Bob already knows.

Types of objects

Classes
  collections of things with similar properties

Instances
  specific examples of classes

Relations
  Describe the properties of objects and connect them together

Note that we also have these types of objects in languages such as Java, or modelling frameworks such as ER Diagrams. Such languages and frameworks also support inheritance.
Ontologies

• Part of the reason this interaction works is that Bob has knowledge that is relevant.
  • Bob knows that novels are fiction books
    • “novel” is a subclass of “fiction book”
  • Bob knows things about novels: they have
    • authors,
    • publishers,
    • publication dates, and so on.

• Because “Prey” is a novel, it inherits the properties of novels. It has an author, a publisher, a publication date.
  • Instances inherit attributes from their classes.
Ontology Inheritance

• Classes also inherit.
  • Classes inherit attributes from their super-classes.
    • If “novel” is a subclass of “fiction book”, then “fiction book” is a superclass of “novel”

• Fiction books are books.
  • Books are sold in bookstores.
  • Thus fiction books are sold in bookstores.
Ontologies

• A lot of knowledge can be captured using these notions.
  • We specify which class “is-a” sub-class of which other class.
  • We specify which classes have which attributes.
  • An axiomatic theory can also be included to support inference
    • if socrates is [an instance of a] man, and all men are mortal…
    • … we can infer that socrates is mortal!

• This structure over knowledge is called an ontology.
  • A knowledge base is an ontology with a set of instances.

• A huge number of ontologies have been constructed.
An ontology of threats
Ontologies

• In general there are multiple ontologies at different levels of detail.
  • Application ontology
    • Like the threat ontology (see opposite)
  • Domain ontology
  • Upper ontology
    • Contains very general information about the world.

• The more specific an ontology, the less reusable it is.
Multiple Ontologies

• Application and domain ontologies will typically overlap
  • Illustrated by the challenges of facilitating interoperability between similar ontologies.
  • Different knowledge systems can be integrated to form merged knowledge bases

• But in many cases, all that is needed is to be understood!

Ontologies as perspectives on a domain
A single domain may have an intended representation in the real world, that is not perfectly represented by any single formal ontology. Many separate ontologies then emerge, based on different contexts...

Ontology Alignment Evaluation Initiative
A test suite of similar ontologies used to test out alignment systems that link different ontologies representing the same domain. The conference test suite consists of 21 ontology pairs.
Modelling and Context

- The problem with modelling ontologies is that different designers have different contexts, and requirements.

**The Architect**
When modelling a bridge, important characteristics include:
- tensile strength
- weight
- load
- etc

**The Military**
When modelling a bridge, important characteristics include:
- what munitions are required to destroy it!

Pat Hayes, 2001 in conversation
Ontologies, Alignments and Correspondences

- Different ontological models exist for overlapping domains
  - Modelled implicitly, or explicitly by defining entities (classes, roles etc), typically using some logical theory, i.e. an Ontology

- Alignment Systems align similar ontologies
Aligning Agents’ Ontologies

“… as agents can differ in the ontologies they assume, the resulting semantic heterogeneity can impede meaningful communication. One solution is to align the ontologies; i.e. find correspondences between the ontological entities to resolve this semantic heterogeneity. However, this raises the question: how can agents align ontologies that they do not want to disclose?…”

Terry Payne & Valentina Tamma, 2014

• Agent alignment is inherently **decentralised**!
Correspondence Inclusion Dialogue

- **Correspondence Inclusion Dialogue (CID)**
  - Allows two agents to exchange knowledge about correspondences to agree upon a mutually acceptable final alignment AL.
  - This alignment aligns only those entities in each agents’ working ontologies, without disclosing the ontologies, or all of the known correspondences.

- **Assumptions**
  1. Each agent knows about different correspondences from different sources
  2. This knowledge is partial, and possibly ambiguous; i.e. more than one correspondence exists for a given entity
  3. Agents associate a utility (Degree of Belief) $\kappa_c$ to each unique correspondence
Picking the right correspondences

- Quality vs Quantity
  - Do we maximise coverage
    - Preferable when merging the whole ontology
  - Do we find the “best” mappings
    - Preferable when aligning specific signatures

\[ \langle \text{article}, \text{draft}, \equiv \rangle \]
\[ \langle \text{publication}, \text{paper}, \equiv \rangle \]
\[ \langle \text{article}, \text{paper}, \equiv \rangle \]
OWL - Web Ontology Language

• A general purpose family of ontology languages for describing knowledge
  • Originated from the DARPA Agent Markup Language Program
    • Followup to DARPA Control of Agent Based Systems (CoABS)

• Based on description logics
  • Various flavours with different expressivity / computability
  • Different syntaxes: XML, Turtle, Manchester Syntax…
  • Underpins the Semantic Web
OWL Example

NS1:geographicCoordinates rdf:nodeID='A179'/>
<NS1:mapReferences>North America</NS1:mapReferences>
<NS1:totalArea>9629091</NS1:totalArea>
<NS1:landArea>9158960</NS1:landArea>
<NS1:waterArea>470131</NS1:waterArea>
<NS1:comparativeArea>about half the size of Russia; about three-tenths the size of Africa; about half the size of South America (or slightly larger than Brazil); slightly larger than China; about two and a half times the size of Western Europe</NS1:comparativeArea>
<NS1:landBoundaries>12034</NS1:landBoundaries>
<NS1:coastline>19924</NS1:coastline>
<NS1:contiguousZone>24</NS1:contiguousZone>
<NS1:exclusiveEconomicZone>200</NS1:exclusiveEconomicZone>
<NS1:territorialSea>12</NS1:territorialSea>
<NS1:climate>mostly temperate, but tropical in Hawaii and Florida, arctic in Alaska, semiarid in the great plains west of the Mississippi River, and arid in the Great Basin of the southwest; low winter temperatures in the northwest are ameliorated occasionally in January and February by warm chinook winds from the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains</NS1:climate>
<NS1:terrain>vast central plain, mountains in west, hills and low mountains in east; rugged mountains and broad river valleys in Alaska; rugged, volcanic topography in Hawaii</NS1:terrain>
OWL and Services

• OWL-S is an **upper level service ontology** developed to describe agent based (or semantic web) services

  • Profile used for discovery
    • input / outputs etc
  • Process model provided a planning formalism
  • Grounding linked to the syntactic messaging
KQML / KIF

• After that digression, we can return to the KQML/KIF show.
  • KQML is an agent communication language. It provides a set of performatives for communication.

• KIF is a language for representing domain knowledge.
  • It can be used to writing down ontologies.
  • KIF is based on first-order logic.

• Given that, let’s look at some examples.
A asks B for information about motor 1, using the ontology (represented in KIF) about motors.

B responds to A's query q1. Two facts are sent:
1) that the torque of motor 1 is 12 kgf; and
2) that the status of the motor is normal.

The ask stream is terminated using the eos performative.
Problems with KQML

- The basic KQML performative set was fluid
  - Different implementations were not interoperable

- Transport mechanisms for messages were not precisely defined
  - Again - interoperability

- Semantics of KQML were not rigorously defined
  - Ambiguity resulted in impairing interoperability!

- There were no commissives in the language
  - Without the ability to commit to a task, how could agents coordinate behaviour

- The performative set was arguably ad-hoc and overly large
FIPA ACL

• More recently, the Foundation for Intelligent Physical Agents (FIPA) started work on a program of agent standards
  • the centrepiece is an ACL.

• Basic structure is quite similar to KQML:
  • The number of performatives was reduced to 20.
  • A formal semantics has been defined for the language, using the language SL
    • SL can represents beliefs, desires and uncertain beliefs, as well as actions
## FIPA ACL Performatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>performative</th>
<th>passing info</th>
<th>requesting info</th>
<th>negotiation</th>
<th>performing actions</th>
<th>error handling</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>accept-proposal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>agree</td>
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<td>cancel</td>
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<td>confirm</td>
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<td>inform</td>
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<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inform-if</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inform-ref</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>not-understood</td>
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<tr>
<td>propose</td>
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<tr>
<td>query-if</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>query-ref</td>
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<td>refuse</td>
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<td>reject-proposal</td>
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<td>request</td>
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<td>request-when</td>
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<td>request-whenever</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>subscribe</td>
<td>x</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“Inform” and “Request”

• “Inform” and “Request” are the two basic performatives in FIPA. Others are macro definitions, defined in terms of these.

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

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**FIPA “Inform” Performative**

The content is a **statement**. The pre-condition is that the sender:

• holds that the content is true;
• intends that the recipient believe the content;
• does not already believe that the recipient is aware of whether content is true or not

The speaker only has to believe that what he says is true.

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**FIPA “Request” Performative**

The content is an **action**. The pre-condition is that the sender:

• intends action content to be performed;
• believes recipient is capable of performing this action;
• does not believe that recipient already intends to perform action.

The last of these conditions captures the fact that you don’t speak if you don’t need to.
Communication in AgentSpeak

- AgentSpeak agents communicate using a simpler structure to KQML/ACL

- Messages received typically have the form
  
  \(<\text{sender, performative, content}>\)

  - **sender**: the AgentSpeak term corresponding to the agent that sent the message
    - i.e. an agentID
  
  - **performative**: this represents the goal the sender intends to achieve by sending the message
    - tell, achieve, askOne, tellHow etc
  
  - **content**: an AgentSpeak formula or message body
    - varies depending on the performative
Messages in Jason

- Messages are passed through the use of internal actions that are pre-defined in Jason
  - The most typically used are:
    - `.send(receiver, performative, content)`
    - `.broadcast(performative, content)`
  - where `receiver`, `performative` and `content` relate to the elements in the message

- The `.send` action sends messages to specific agents
  - The receiver can be a single agentID, or a list of agentIDs

- The `.broadcast` action sends the message to all agents registered in the system
Handling messages in Jason

• In the internal Jason architecture
  • messages are delivered into the agents “mailbox”
    • This is done automatically by the customisable `checkMail` method
    • Passes them onto the AgentSpeak interpreter
  • One message is processed during each reasoning cycle
    • A customisable `message selection function (SM)` selects the next message to process
    • A `selection process (SocAcc)` determines if the message should be rejected
      • For example, ignoring messages from a certain agent
      • Think of this as a spam filter
  • If the message goes through, Jason will interpret it according to precise semantics
    • by generating new events pertaining to the goal and belief bases, and in turn, triggering plans
Performatives in Jason

• Sharing Beliefs (Information Exchange)
  • tell and untell
    • The sender intends the receiver (not) to believe the literal in the content to be true and that the sender believes it

• Sharing Plans (Deliberation)
  • tellHow and untellHow
    • The sender requests the receiver (not) to include within their plan library the plan in the message content
  • askHow
    • The sender wants to know the receiver’s applicable plan for the triggering event in the message content

• Delegate an Achievement Goal (Goal Delegation)
  • achieve and unachieve
    • The sender requests the receiver (not) to try and achieve a state-of-affairs where the content of the message is true

• Delegate a Test Goal (Information Seeking)
  • askOne and askAll
    • The sender wants to know whether the receiver knows (askOne) if the content is true (i.e. is there a single answer) or for all answers (askAll).
## Semantics of `tell` / `untell` Information Exchange

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cycle #</th>
<th>sender (s) actions</th>
<th>recipient (r) belief base</th>
<th>recipient (r) events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td><code>.send (r, tell, open(left_door))</code></td>
<td>open(left_door)[source(s)]</td>
<td>⟨+open(left_door) [source(s)], ⊤⟩</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td><code>.send (r, untell, open(left_door))</code></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>⟨-open(left_door) [source(s)], ⊤⟩</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Note that events are represented internally as a tuple: ⟨event, intention⟩
  - This associates an event with an intention that generated it
- With communication, there is no intention responsible for the event
  - Thus, we indicate this with the ⊤ symbol
# Semantics of achieve / unachieve

## Goal Delegation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cycle #</th>
<th>sender (s) actions</th>
<th>recipient (r) intentions</th>
<th>recipient (r) events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.send (r, achieve, open(left_door))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>⟨+!open(left_door) [source(s)], T⟩</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>!open(left_door)[source(s)]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.send (r, unachieve, open(left_door))</td>
<td>!open(left_door)[source(s)]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;&lt;&lt; intention has been removed &gt;&gt;&gt;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Note that the intention is adopted *after* the goal is added.
- With *unachieve*, the internal action `.drop_desire(open(left_door))` is executed.
## Information Seeking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cycle #</th>
<th>sender (s) actions</th>
<th>recipient (r) actions</th>
<th>sender (s) events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.send (r, askOne, open(Door))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.send(s, tell, open(left_door))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>⟨+open(left_door)[source(r)], T⟩</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.send (r, askAll, open(Door))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>.send(s, tell, [open(left_door), open(right_door)])</td>
<td>⟨+open(left_door)[source(r)], T⟩</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>⟨+open(right_door)[source(r)], T⟩</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### r’s belief base

- open(left_door)
- open(right_door)
Semantics of Deliberation

• `.send(receiver, tellHow,"@p ... : ... <- ...")`
  • adds the plan to the plan library of the receiver with its plan label @p
    • `.send(r, tellHow, "@pOD +!open(Door): not locked(Door) <- turn_handle(Door); push(Door); ? oopen(Door).")"

• `.send(receiver, untellHow, @p)`
  • removes the plan with the plan label @p from the plan library of receiver
    • `.send(r, untellHow, "@pOD")`

• `.send(receiver, askHow, Goal-addition-event)`
  • requires receiver to pass all relevant plans to the triggering event in the content
    • `.send(r, askHow, "+!open(Door)")"
Handling performatives

- Jason implements plans for each of the performatives
  - More elegant than hard coding within the interpreter
  - Allows the agent developer to introduce new performatives when necessary
    - Existing performatives can be overridden
  - The goal `!kqml_received` is created whenever a message is received
  - Predefined plans can be found in Jason Distribution in
    - `src/asl/kqmlPlans.asl`

```/* ---- achieve performatives ---- */

@kqmlReceivedAchieve
+!kqml_received(KQML_Sender_Var, achieve, KQML_Content_Var, KQML_MsgId)
<- .add_annot(KQML_Content_Var, source(KQML_Sender_Var), CA);
!!CA.
```
Creating performatives

• Defining the `tell_rule` performative
  • This simple example illustrates how a new performative for sharing rules could be written
    • It is based on the example code `tell_rule` in the Jason Distribution
  • Two agents are defined:
    • `receiver`, which implements the plan for the new performative `tellRule`
    • `sender`, that sends two messages using `tellRule`
  • No environment is used in this multi-agent system (MAS)

```java
//tell_rule.mas2j
/
This example shows how to customise the KQML to add a new performative, identified by "tellRule", used by one agent to send rules like "a :- b & c" to another agent.
*/

MAS tell_rule {
    infrastructure: Centralised

    agents:
        receiver;
        sender;

    aslSourcePath: "src/asl";
}
```
Creating performatives

// Agent sender in project tell_rule
/* Initial goals */
!start.
/* Plans */
+!start : true
  <- // ask the receiver to achieve the goal test
       .send(receiver,achieve,test);
       // send a list with a single rule
       .send(receiver,tellRule, [{a :- b & c}]);
       // ask the receiver to receive the goal test
       .send(receiver,achieve,test).

// Agent receiver in project tell_rule
/* Initial beliefs */
b.
c.
/* Plans */
+!test : a <- .print("Yes, a is true").
+!test   <- .print("Don't know if a is true").

// customisation of KQML performative tellRule
+!kqml_received(A,tellRule,Rules,_)
  <- .print("Received rule(s)", Rules, " from ", A);
      for ( .member(R, Rules) ) {
        +R[source(A)];
      }
  // get all rules and print them
  .relevant_rules(_,LR);

MAS Console - tell_rule
Jason Http Server running on http://10.0.1.177:3273
[receiver] Don't know if a is true
[receiver] Received rule(s) [{ a :- (b & c) }] from sender
[receiver] Rules: [{ a :- (b & c) }]
[receiver] Yes, a is true
Jade

• The FIPA ACL provides a language for writing messages down.
  • It says nothing about how they are passed between agents.

• Several software platforms have been developed to support ACL-based communication.
  • One of the most widely used is JADE.

• Provides transparent (from the perspective of the agent designer) transport of ACL messages.
Jade

- In JADE, agents are Java threads running in a “container”.

- All containers register with the main container
JADE Main Container

• The main container does the following:
  • Maintains the *container table* which lists all the containers and their contact information.
  • Maintains a list of all the agents in the system (including location and status).
  • Hosts the *agent management system* (AMS) which names agents as well as creating and destroying them.
  • Hosts the *directory facilitator* which provides a yellow pages allowing agents to be identified by the services they provide.

Alternative Semantics

• There is a problem with the “mental state” semantics that have been proposed for the FIPA ACL.
  • This also holds for KQML.

• How do we know if an agent’s locutions conform to the specification?
  • As Wooldridge pointed out, since the semantics are in terms of an agent’s internal state, we cannot verify compliance with the semantics laid down by FIPA.
  • In practice, this means that we cannot be sure that an agent is being sincere.
    • Or, more importantly, we cannot detect if it is being insincere.
Alternative Semantics

• Singh suggested a way to deal with this.
  • Rather than define the conditions on a locution in terms of an agent’s mental state, base it on something external to the agent.

• Move from a “mentalistic” semantics to a social semantics.
  • How?

• Take an agent’s utterances as commitments.
  • But what does it mean to say that “if an agent utters an inform then it is committing to the truth of the proposition that is the subject of the utterance”?

• Doesn’t stop an agent lying, but it allows you to detect when it does.
Summary

• This lecture has discussed some aspects of agent ontologies and communication between agents.
  • It has focussed on the interpretation of locutions/performatives as speech acts, and some suggestions for what performatives one might use.
    • Examples of communication were also given in AgentSpeak / Jason (Chapter 6 of Bordini et al.)
  • There is much more to communication that this. . .
    • . . . but this kind of thing is required as a “transport layer” to support the kinds of thing we will talk about later.

Class Reading (Chapter 7):


This is an overview of the state of the art in agent communication (as of 1998), and an introduction to the key challenges, particularly with respect to the semantics of agent communication.