Belief Revision via Lamarckian Evolution

Evelina LAMMA and Fabrizio RIGUZZI

Department of Engineering, University of Ferrara,
Via Saragat 1, 44100 Ferrara, Italy

{elamma,friguzzi}@ing.unife.it

Luís Moniz PEREIRA

Centro de Inteligência Artificial (CENTRIA),
Faculdade de Ciências e Tecnologia, Universidade Nova de Lisboa,
2829-516 Caparica, Portugal

lmp@di.fct.unl.pt

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Abstract We present a system for performing belief revision in a multi-agent environment. The system is called GBR (Genetic Belief Revisor) and it is based on a genetic algorithm. In this setting, different individuals are exposed to different experiences. This may happen because the world surrounding an agent changes over time or because we allow agents exploring different parts of the world. The algorithm permits the exchange of chromosomes from different agents and combines two different evolution strategies, one based on Darwin's and the other on Lamarck's evolutionary theory. The algorithm therefore includes also a Lamarckian operator that changes the memes of an agent in order to improve their fitness. The operator is implemented by means of a belief revision procedure that, by tracing logical derivations, identifies the memes leading to contradiction. Moreover, the algorithm comprises a special crossover mechanism for memes in which a meme can be acquired from another agent only if the other agent has "accessed" the meme, i.e.

if an application of the Lamarckian operator has read or modified the meme.

Experiments have been performed on the n-queen problem and on a problem of digital circuit diagnosis. In the case of the n-queen problem, the addition of the Lamarckian operator in the single agent case improves the fitness of the best solution. In both cases the experiments show that the distribution of constraints, even if it may lead to a reduction of the fitness of the best solution, does not produce a significant reduction.

Keywords Evolutionary Systems, Belief Revision, Learning, Multi-agent Systems, Multi-agent Communication

§1 Introduction

Darwin's theory is based on the concept of natural selection: only those individuals that are most fit for their environment survive, and are thus able to generate new individuals by means of reproduction. Moreover, during their lifetime, individuals may be subject to random mutations of their genes that they can transmit to offspring. Lamarck's theory, instead, states that evolution is due to the process of adaptation to the environment that an individual performs in his/her life. The results of this process are then automatically transmitted to his/her offspring, via its genes. In other words, the abilities learnt during the life of an individual can modify his/her genes.

Experimental evidence in the biological kingdom has shown Darwin's theory to be correct and Lamarck's to be wrong. However, this does not mean that the process of adaptation (or learning) does not influence evolution. Baldwin [7] showed how learning could influence evolution: if the learned adaptations improve the organism's chance of survival then the chances for reproduction are also improved. Therefore there is selective advantage for genetically determined traits that predisposes the learning of specific behaviours. Baldwin moreover suggests that selective pressure could result in new individuals to be born with the learned behaviour already encoded in their genes. This is known as the Baldwin effect. Even if there is still debate about it, it is accepted by most evolutionary biologists.

Lamarckian evolution has recently received a renewed attention because it can model *cultural* evolution. In this context, the concept of "meme" has been developed (cf. [8, 13]). A meme is a gene that stores abilities learned by an individual during his lifetime, so that they can be transmitted to his offspring.

In the field of genetic programming, Lamarckian evolution has proven to be a powerful concept and various authors have investigated the combination of Darwinian and Lamarckian evolution [18, 1, 19, 17].

Herein, we propose a genetic algorithm for belief revision that includes, besides Darwin's operators of selection, mutation and crossover [21], a logic based Lamarckian operator as well. This operator differs from Darwinian ones precisely because it modifies a chromosome coding beliefs so that its fitness is improved by experience rather than in random way.

We venture that the combination of Darwinian and Lamarckian operators will be useful not only for standard belief revision problems, but especially for problems where different chromosomes may be exposed to different constraints, as in the case of a multi-agent system. In these cases, the Lamarckian and Darwinian operators play different rôles: the Lamarckian one is employed to bring a given chromosome closer to a solution (or even find an exact one) to the current belief revision problem, whereas the Darwinian ones exert the rôle of randomly producing alternative belief chromosomes so as to deal with unencountered situations, by means of exchanging genes amongst them.

We tested this hypothesis on multi-agent joint belief revision problems. In such a distributed setting, agents usually take advantage of each other's knowledge and experience by explicitly communicating messages to that effect. In our approach, however, we introduce a new and complementary method, in which we allow knowledge and experience to be coded as genes in an agent. These genes are exchanged with those of other agents, not by explicit message passing but through the crossover genetic operator.

Crucial to this endeavour, we introduce a logic-based technique for modifying cultural genes, i.e. memes, on the basis of individual agent experience. The technique amounts to a form of belief revision, where a meme codes for an agent's belief or assumption about a piece of knowledge, and which is then diversely modified on the basis of how the present beliefs may be contradicted by laws (expressed as integrity constraints). These mutations have the effect of attempting to reduce the number of unsatisfied constraints. They are directed by a belief revision procedure, which relies on tracing the logical derivations leading to inconsistency of belief, so as to remove the latter's support on meme coded assumptions by mutating the memes involved. Each agent possesses a pool of chromosomes containing such diversely modified memes, or alternative assumptions, which cross-fertilize Darwinianly amongst themselves. Such an

experience-influenced genetic evolution mechanism is aptly called Lamarckian.

To illustrate how these mechanisms, of individual agent Lamarckian evolution and of Darwinian agent genetics, can jointly lead to improved single agent population behaviour in collaborative problem-solving, we apply them to distributed model-based diagnosis, a natural domain in which belief revision techniques apply [12], and to the n-queen constraint satisfaction problem. But this is just illustrative. Belief revision is an important functionality that agents must exhibit: agents should be able to modify their beliefs in order to model the outside world.

What's more, as the world may be changing, a pool of separately and jointly evolved chromosomes may code for a variety of distinct belief evolution potentials that can respond to world changes as they occur and we explored this dimension with a specific experiment to that effect.

Mark that it is not our purpose to propose here a competitor to extant classical belief revision methods, in particular as they apply to diagnosis. More ambitiously, we do propose a new and complementary methodology, which can empower belief revision – any assumption based belief revision – to deal with time/space distributed, and possibly intermittent or noisy laws about an albeit varying artifact or environment, possibly by a multiplicity of agents which exchange diversified genetically encoded experience.

We consider a definition of the belief revision problem that consists in removing a contradiction from an extended logic program [22, 4, 5] by modifying the truth value of a selected set of literals called *revisables*. The program contains as well clauses with false ($\bot$) in the head, representing *integrity constraints*. Any model of the program must ensure the body of integrity constraints false for the program to be non-contradictory. Contradiction may also arise in an extended logic program when both a literal L and its opposite $\neg L$ are obtainable in the model of the program. Such a problem has been widely studied in the literature, and various solutions have been proposed [6, 12] that are based on abductive logic proof procedures.

The problem can be modeled by means of a genetic algorithm, by assigning to each revisable of a logic program a gene in a chromosome. In the case of a two valued revision, the gene will have the value 1 if the corresponding revisable is true and the value 0 if the revisable is false. The fitness functions that can be used in this case are based on the percentage of integrity constraints that are satisfied by a chromosome.

Each agent keeps a population of chromosomes and finds a solution to the revision problem by means of a genetic algorithm. We consider a formulation of the distributed revision problem where each agent has the same set of revisables and the same program expressed theory, but is subjected to possibly different constraints. Constraints may vary over time, and can differ because agents may explore different regions of the world.

The genetic algorithm we employ allows each agent to cross over its chromosomes with chromosomes from other agents. In this way, each agent can be prepared in advance for situations that it will encounter when moving from one place to another.

The algorithm has been implemented in a system called GBR (Genetic Belief Revisor) that is available at `http://lia.deis.unibo.it/Software/gbr/` together with instructions of use and examples.

The paper is organized as follows. We first review some logic programming fundamentals, and give a definition of the belief revision problem in section 2. Then we describe the algorithm together with the Lamarckian operator in section 3. The results of experiments with the algorithm are shown in section 4. We examine related works in section 5, and draw conclusions in section 6.

§2 Logic Programming Basis

In this section we first provide some logic programming fundamentals, and then we give a definition of the belief revision problem adapted from [23].

2.1 Language

Given a first order language *Lang*, an extended logic program [22, 4, 5] is a set of rules and integrity constraints of the form

$$H \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_n, not\, C_1, \ldots, not\, C_m \quad (m \geq 0, n \geq 0)$$

where $H, B_1, \ldots, B_n, C_1, \ldots, C_m$ are objective literals, and in integrity constraints H is $\bot$ (false). An objective literal is either an atom A or its explicit negation $\neg A$, where $\neg\neg A = A$. $not\, L$ is called a default or negative literal. Literals are either objective or default ones. The default complement of objective literal L is $not\, L$, and of default literal $not\, L$ is L. A rule stands for all its ground instances with respect to *Lang*. The notation $H \leftarrow \mathcal{B}$ is also used to represent a rule, where the set $\mathcal{B}$ contains the literals in its body. For every pair of objective literals $\{L, \neg L\}$ in *Lang*, we implicitly assume the constraint $\bot \leftarrow L, \neg L$.

The set of all objective literals of a program P is called its *extended Herbrand base* and is represented as $H^E(P)$.

We consider the Extended Well Founded Semantics ($WFSX$) that extends the well founded semantics (WFS) [26] for normal logic programs to programs extended with explicit negation. $WFSX$ is obtained from WFS by adding the coherence principle (CP) relating the two forms of negation: "*if L is an objective literal and $\neg L$ belongs to the model of a program, then also not L belongs to the model*", i.e., $\neg L \rightarrow not\ L$. See [4, 15] or the Appendix for a definition of $WFSX$.

We say that a set of literals S is *contradictory* iff $\bot \in S$. The paraconsistent version of $WFSX$, that allows models to contain the atom $\bot$, is called $WFSXp$ [10, 11].

2.2 Revising Contradictory Extended Logic Programs

Extended logic programs are liable to be contradictory because of integrity constraints, either those that are user-defined or those of the form $\bot \leftarrow L, \neg L$ that are implicitly assumed. Let us see an example of a contradictory program.

Example 2.1
Consider $P = \{a; \bot \leftarrow a, not\, b\}$[*1]. Since we have no rules for b, by the Closed World Assumption (CWA), it is natural to accept $not\, b$ as true. However, because of the integrity constraint, we can conclude $\bot$ and thus have contradiction.

It is arguable that the CWA may not be held of atom b since it leads to contradiction. Revising such $CWAs$ is the basis of the contradiction removal method of [23]. In order to select a particular contradiction removal process, three questions must be answered:

1. For which literals is revision of their truth-value allowed ?
2. To what truth values do we change the revisable literals ?
3. How to choose among possible revisions ?

The options taken here are clarified in the discussion in section 2.4, giving two different answers to these questions. Both use the same criteria to answer 1 and 3, but differ on the second one. For example 2.1 the first way of removing contradiction gives $\{a, not\, \neg a, not\, \neg b\}$ as the intended meaning of P,

[*1] $\bot \leftarrow a, \neg a$ and $\bot \leftarrow b, \neg b$ are implicitly assumed.

where b is revised to *undefined*, achievable by adding $b \leftarrow not\ b$ to P. The second gives $\{a, b, not\ \neg a, not\ \neg b\}$, by revising b to true, achievable by adding b to P.

2.3 Contradictory Well Founded Model

To revise contradictions, we need to identify the contradictory sets of consequences implied by the applications of *CWA*. The main idea is to compute all consequences of the program, even those leading to contradictions, as well as those arising from contradictions. Furthermore, the coherence principle is enforced at each step.

Example 2.2
Consider program P:

`a←not b.` (i) `¬a←not c.` (ii) `d←a.` (iii) `e←¬a.` (iv)

1. $not\ b$ and $not\ c$ hold since there are no rules for either b or c.
2. $\neg a$ and a hold from 1 and rules (i) and (ii).
3. $\bot$ holds from 2 and implicit constraint $\leftarrow a, \neg a$.
4. $not\ a$ and $not\ \neg a$ hold from 2 and inference rule (CP).
5. d and e hold from 2 and rules (iii) and (iv).
6. $not\ d$ and $not\ e$ hold from 4 and rules (iii) and (iv), as they are the only rules for d and e.
7. $not\ \neg d$ and $not\ \neg e$ hold from 5 and inference rule (CP).

The whole set of consequences is the *WFSXp*model:
$\{\bot, \neg a, a, not\ a, not\ \neg a, not\ b, not\ c, d, not\ d, not\ \neg d, e, not\ e, not\ \neg e\}$

2.4 Contradiction Removal Sets

To abolish contradiction, the first issue to consider is which default literals true by *CWA* are allowed to change their truth values. We adopt the approach of [23] where the candidates for revision are all the objective literals that have no rules in the program. By CWA, their default negation is true. These literals are called *revisables*.

Definition 2.1 (Revisables)
The revisables of a program P are the objective literals L having no rules for them in P and their default complement $not\ L$. The set of revisable literals is indicated by $Rev(P)$.

The revisables thus are literals that do not appear in rule heads but only in rule

bodies, either in a positive or default form. By the *CWA*, every revisable R is false, i.e., *not* R is true. Now we identify the revisables that have to be revised to true or undefined in order to restore consistency. These are the ones that support contradiction. Intuitively, a support of a literal consists of the revisable literals in the leaves of a derivation for it in the *WFSXp* model.

Definition 2.2 (Set of assumptions supporting a literal)
A support set (of assumptions) of a literal L of the *WFSXp* model M_P of a program P, denoted by $SS(L)$, with respect to the set of revisables $Rev(P)$ is obtained as follows:

1. If L is a revisable in M_P then $SS(L) = \{L\}$.
2. if L is not a revisable literal

   a. if L is an objective literal then for each rule $L \leftarrow \mathcal{B}$ in P, such that $\mathcal{B} \subseteq M_P$, there is one $SS(L)$ formed by the union of a SS for each $B_i \in \mathcal{B}$. If $\mathcal{B}$ is empty then $SS(L) = \{\}$.
   b. If L is a default literal *not* $A \in M_P$:

      i if $\neg A$ belongs to M_P then there exist support sets SS for *not* A equal to each $SS(\neg A)$.
      ii if no rules for A exist in P that have a non-empty body, then there is no other support set for L.
      iii if rules for A exist in P that have a non-empty body, then choose from each such rule a single literal such that its default complement belongs to M_P. There exists one SS for *not* A which is the union of one SS for the default complement of the chosen literal in each rule.

The definitions of revisable literals and of support sets differ from those given in [23] because there the revisables are only the default complement of the literals without definition and support sets there contain all the literals in the nodes of a derivation for L. We have provided these modified definitions because they simplify the introduction of the Lamarckian operator in the next section.

Example 2.3
The *WFSXp* model M_P of:

```
¬p←not c.          p←a,not b.          b←c, a.    ¬b←not e.    a.
                                       b←d.
```

is $\{a, not\ \neg a, not\ b, \neg b, not\ c, not\ \neg c, not\ d, not\ \neg d, not\ e, not\ \neg e, p, \neg p,$ $not\ p, not\ \neg p, \bot\}$.

Here the revisables are $\{c, d, e\}$. There are two support sets for $not\ b$:

$$SS_1(not\ b) = SS(not\ c) \cup SS(not\ d) \qquad by\ rule\ 2biii$$
$$SS_1(not\ b) = \{not\ c\} \cup \{not\ d\} = \{not\ c, not\ d\} \qquad by\ rule\ 1$$

Notice that the other possibility of choosing literals for $SS(not\ b)$, i.e. $SS_1(not\ b) = SS(not\ a) \cup SS(not\ d)$, can't be considered because $not\ a$ doesn't belong to M_P. The other support set for $not\ b$ is obtained using rule 2bi:

$$SS_2(not\ b) = SS(\neg b) \qquad by\ rule\ 2bi$$
$$SS_2(not\ b) = SS(not\ e) \qquad by\ rule\ 2a$$
$$SS_2(not\ b) = \{not\ e\} \qquad by\ rule\ 1$$

Now the support sets for the objective literal p are easily computed:

$$SS(p) = SS(a) \cup SS(not\ b) \qquad by\ rule\ 2a$$
$$SS(p) = \{\} \cup SS(not\ b) \qquad by\ rule\ 2a$$
$$(the\ only\ rule\ for\ a\ is\ fact\ a)$$

So $SS_1(p) = SS_1(not\ b) = \{not\ c, not\ d\}$ and $SS_2(p) = SS_2(not\ b) = \{not\ e\}$. $\neg p$ has the unique support set $\{not\ c\}$. Consequently, because contradiction is obtained only via $\bot \leftarrow p, \neg p$, $SS_1(\bot) = \{not\ c, not\ d\}$ and $SS_2(\bot) = \{not\ e, not\ c\}$.

Proposition 2.1 (Existence of support sets)
[23] Every literal L belonging to the $WFSXp$ model of a program P has at least one support set $SS(L)$.

We define a spectrum of possible revisions using the notion of hitting set:

Definition 2.3 (Hitting set)
A hitting set of a collection C of sets is formed by the union of one non-empty subset from each $S \in C$. A hitting set is minimal iff no proper subset is a hitting set. If $\{\} \in C$, then C has no hitting sets.

Definition 2.4 (Removal set)
A removal set of a literal L of a program P is a hitting set of all support sets $SS(L)$.

We can revise contradictory programs by changing the truth value of the literals of some removal set of $\bot$. The truth value can be changed either to undefined or false. It can be changed to undefined by adding, for each literal L or $not\, L$ in the removal set, the inhibition rule $L \leftarrow not\, L$ to P (making L effectively undefined). It can be changed to false by adding, for each literal $not\, L$, the fact L to P, while, for each literal L, nothing needs to be done because $not\, L$ is already true by the CWA. In case the literals are revised to undefined, then the contradiction is removed and no new contradiction can arise. In case they are revised to false, a new contradiction may arise and therefore this (convergent)[23] contradiction removal process must be iterated. This defines the possible revisions of a contradictory program.

We answer the second question in section 2.2 by considering only a two-valued revisions, i.e. where the truth value of a revisable can only be changed to true or false. We answer the third question by preferring to revise minimal sets of revisables:

Definition 2.5 (Contradiction removal set)
A contradiction removal set (CRS) of P is a minimal removal set of $\bot$.

Example 2.3 (cont.) The support sets of $\bot$ are $\{not\, c, not\, d\}$ and $\{not\, c, not\, e\}$. Its removal sets are (RS_1 and RS_4 being minimal):

$$RS_1(\bot) = \{not\, c\} \qquad RS_4(\bot) = \{not\, d, not\, e\}$$
$$RS_2(\bot) = \{not\, c, not\, e\} \qquad RS_5(\bot) = \{not\, c, not\, d, not\, e\}$$
$$RS_3(\bot) = \{not\, c, not\, d\}$$

Definition 2.6 (Revisable program)
A program is revisable iff it has a contradiction removal set.

In [23] an algorithm for computing the $CRSs$ is presented.

§3 A genetic algorithm for multi-agent belief revision

The algorithm here proposed for belief revision extends the standard genetic algorithm (described for example in [21]) in two ways:

- crossover is performed among chromosomes belonging to different agents,
- a Lamarckian operator called Learn is added in order to bring a chromosome closer to a correct revision by changing the value of revisables.

Each agent executes the following algorithm:

GA($Fitness, max_gen, p, r, m, l$)

$Fitness$: a function that assigns an evaluation score
to a hypothesis coded as a chromosome

max_gen : the maximum number of generations
before termination

p: the number of individuals in the population

r: the fraction of the population to be replaced by Crossover
at each step

m: the fraction of the population to be mutated
at each step

l: the fraction of the population that should evolve Lamarckianly
at each step

Initialize population: $Pop \leftarrow$ generate p hypotheses at random
Evaluate: for each h in Pop, compute $Fitness(h)$
$gen \leftarrow 0$
while $gen \leq max_gen$
$Pop_s \leftarrow \emptyset$
Select: Probabilistically select $(1 - r)p$ members of Pop
to add to Pop_s. The probability $Pr(h_i)$ of selecting
hypothesis h_i from Pop is given by

$$Pr(h_i) = \frac{Fitness(h_i)}{\Sigma_{j=1}^{p} Fitness(h_j)}$$

Crossover:
For i=1 to rp
Probabilistically select an hypothesis h_1 from Pop,
according to $Pr(h_1)$ given above
Obtain an hypothesis h_2 from another agent
chosen at random: h_2 is also
probilistically selected according to $Pr(h_2)$
in the other agent
Crossover h_1 with h_2 obtaining h'

Add h' to Pop_s

Mutate: Choose m percent of the members of Pop_s with uniform probability. For each, invert one randomly selected bit in its representation

Learn: Choose lp hypotheses from Pop_s with uniform probability and substitute each of them with the modified hypotheses returned by the procedure *Learn*

Update: $Pop \leftarrow Pop_s$

$gen \leftarrow gen + 1$

endwhile

Return the hypothesis from Pop with the highest fitness

In belief revision, each individual hypothesis is described by the truth value of all the revisables. Since we consider a two-valued revision, each hypothesis gives the truth value true or false to every revisable and therefore it can be considered as a set containing one literal, either positive or default, for every revisable. A chromosome is obtained by associating a bit to each revisable that has value 1 if the revisable is true and 0 if it is false.

Each agent has the same set of revisables and therefore chromosomes in different agents are homologous and can be crossed over each other. Moreover each agent has the same program expressed theory, but is subjected to possibly different constraints.

Various fitness functions can be used in belief revision. The simplest fitness function is the following

$$Fitness(h_i) = \frac{n_i}{n}$$

where n_i is the number of integrity constraints satisfied by hypothesis h_i and n is the total number of integrity constraints. We will call it an *accuracy* fitness function. Another possible fitness function is the following

$$Fitness(h_i) = \frac{n_i}{n} \times \frac{n}{n + |h_i|} + \frac{f_i}{|h_i|} \times \frac{|h_i|}{n + |h_i|}$$

where f_i is the number of revisables in h_i that are false, and $|h_i|$ is the total number of revisables. We will call it a *hybrid* fitness function. In this way, the fitness function takes into account both the fraction of constraints that are satisfied and the number of revisables whose truth value must be changed to true,

preferring hypotheses with a lower number of these, that is minimal revisions are encouraged.

The Lamarckian operator *Learn* changes the values of the revisables in a chromosome H so that a bigger number of constraints is satisfied, thus bringing H closer to a solution. *Learn* differs from a normal belief revision operator because it does not assume that all revisables are false by *CWA* before the revision but it starts from the truth values that are given by the chromosome H. Therefore, it has to revise some revisables from true to false and others from false to true.

Learn works in the following way: given a chromosome H, it finds all the support sets for $\bot$ such that they contain literals in H. Therefore, it does not find all support sets for $\bot$ but only those that are subsets of H.

The definition of support set that is used by the Lamarckian operator is therefore different from definition 2.2 and is given as follows:

Definition 3.1 (Lamarckian support set of a literal)
A support set of a literal L of the *WFSXp* model M_P of a program P according to a given set of literals H is denoted by $SS(L, H)$ and is obtained as follows:

1. If L is a revisable in M_P then
   a. if L belongs to H, then a support set of L is $\{L\}$.
   b. if the default complement of L belongs to H, then there is no support set for L.
2. if L is not a revisable literal
   a. if L is an objective literal then for each rule $L \leftarrow \mathcal{B}$ in P, such that $\mathcal{B} \subseteq M_P$ there is one $SS(L)$ formed by the union of a SS for each $B_i \in \mathcal{B}$. If $\mathcal{B}$ is empty then $SS(L) = \{\}$.
   b. If L is a default literal $not\ A \in M_P$:
      i if rules for A exist in P that have a non-empty body, then choose from each such rule a single literal such that its default complement belongs to M_P. There exists one SS for $not\ A$ which is the union of one SS for the default complement of the chosen literal in each rule.
      ii if $\neg A$ belongs to M_P then there exist, *additionally*, support sets SS for $not\ A$ equal to each $SS(\neg A)$.

Since the Lamarckian support sets for $\bot$ represent only a subset of all the support sets for $\bot$, a hitting set generated from them is not necessarily a contradiction removal set and therefore it does not represent a solution to the belief revision problem. However, it eliminates some of the derivation paths to $\bot$ and, therefore, may increase the number of satisfied constraints, thus improving the fitness, as required by the notion of Lamarckian operator.

To find support sets we need to know which literals belong to the model of a program. This information is obtainable through some sound and correct procedure for *WFSXp* such as the one described in [3], or the one in [6].

In the case of the experiments we consider in section 4, the support sets procedure becomes simplified in that the occurrences of default negated literals pertain only to revisables. Therefore, point 2b in the above definition of support set can be discharged. Moreover, the *WFSXp* model of the program coincides with the least Herbrand model therefore SLD resolution can be employed. This simplification results in the procedure that is reported below.

When computing the support sets, the Lamarckian operator also modifies an extra bit associated to each meme each time the meme is considered in the computation of Lamarckian support sets. This bit indicates whether the meme has been "accessed" by the operator. This is needed for the crossover operator that is described below.

procedure $Learn(H, H')$
  inputs : A chromosome H translated into a set of revisables
  outputs : A revised chromosome H'

  Find the support sets for $\bot$: $Support_sets([\bot], H, \{\}, \{\}, SS)$
  Find a hitting set HS: $Hitting_set(SS, HS)$
  Change the value of the literals in the chromosome H
    that appear as well in HS

procedure $Support_sets(GL, H, S, SSin, SSout)$:
  inputs :
    GL a list of goals
    A chromosome H translated into a set of revisables
    The current support set S
    The current set of support sets $SSin$
  outputs :

A set $SSout$ containing the support sets
for each goal in the list

If GL is empty, then return $SSout = SSin$
Consider the first literal L of the first goal G of GL
($GL = [G|RGL]$ using Prolog notation for lists)
(1) if G is empty then add the current support set to $SSin$
and call recursively the algorithm on the rest of GL
$Support_sets(RGL, H, \{\}, SSin \cup \{S\}, SSout)$
(2) if G is not empty ($G = [L|RG]$) then:
(2a) if L is a revisable and is in H, then add it to S,
set to 1 L's access bit
and call the algorithm recursively on the rest of G
$Support_sets([RG|RGL], H, S \cup \{L\}, SSin, SSout)$
(2b) if L is a revisable and it is not in H, or its opposite
is in H, then set to 1 L's access bit, discard S
and call the algorithm recursively on the rest of GL
$Support_sets(RGL, H, \{\}, SSin, SSout)$
(2c) if it is not a revisable then reduce it with all the rules,
obtaining the new goals $G_1, ..., G_n$, one for each
matching rule, add the goals to GL and call
the algorithm recursively $Support_sets([[G_1|RG], ...,$
$[G_n|RG]|RGL], H, S, SSin, SSout)$
(2d) if it is not a revisable and there are no rules, then
call the algorithm on the rest of GL
$Support_sets(RGL, H, \{\}, SSin, SSout)$

procedure $hitting_set(SS, HS)$:
inputs : A set SS of support sets
outputs : A hitting set HS

$HS \leftarrow \emptyset$
Pick a literal from every support set in SS
Add it to HS if it does not lead to contradiction
(i.e. the literal must not be already present
in its complemented form).

If it leads to contradiction pick another literal.

The crossover operator is an extension of a standard uniform crossover operator. The crossover operator produces a new offspring from two parent strings by copying selected bits from each parent. The bit at position i in the offspring is copied from the bit in position i in one of the two parents. The choice of which parent provides the bit for position i is determined by an additional string called crossover mask. This string is a sequence of bits each of which has the following meaning: if bit in position i is 0, then the bit in position i in the offspring is copied from the first parent, otherwise it is copied from the second parent. In uniform crossover, the mask is generated as a bit string where each bit is chosen at random and independently of the others.

In our setting, one of the parents comes from the agent local population, while the other comes from the population of another agent. However, not all the bits in the chromosome are treated equally. In particular, we distinguish genes from memes: genes are modified only by Darwinian operators, while memes are modified by Darwinian and Lamarckian operators. This distinction is performed by the user before evolution begins and it is not altered by evolution.

Genes in the offspring can be copied from both parents, while memes can be copied from the parent coming from another agent only if they have been "accessed" by the other agent as a result of the application of the Lamarckian operator.

In this way, an agent can acquire from another agent only memes that have been checked for consistency. Therefore, the flow of memes is asymmetrical and goes from a "teacher" to a "learner", but not vice versa. In particular, in the asymmetrical crossover operator the mask is generated again as a random bit string and crossover is performed in the following way: if the i-th bit in the mask is 1 and the i-th bit in the other agent's chromosome has been accessed, then the i-th bit of the offspring is copied from the other agent's chromosome, otherwise it is copied from the local agent's chromosome. An example of application of the asymmetrical crossover operator is shown in figure 1: as can be seen, bit 1 of the offspring is copied from the local agent (Ag1) chromosome even if the mask bit is set to 1 because its access bit in agent Ag2 is set to 0.

This crossover mechanism allows the algorithm to compete with collective or distributed belief revision methods because the offspring of agents exchanging different chromosomes can benefit from both parents' experience. So we can have a society of agents improve together without the need for explicit

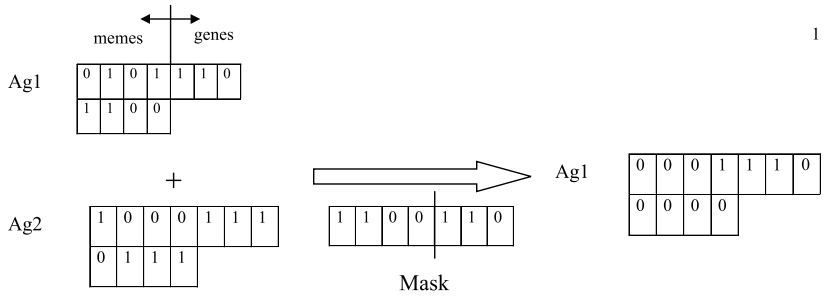

Fig. 1 Example of application of the asymmetrical crossover operator.

message passing mechanisms. The problem with message passing is that one has to know whom to pass the message to. If you pass it to everyone you get a lot of overhead. If you write it on a blackboard, everyone can see it. Now with gene crossover only the agents involved in the crossover pass a "genetic message", and you cannot know a priori which agents are going to cross-fertilize which of their genes with which other agents. So in our approach the information sharing is on a by need and opportunity basis. Furthermore, message passing is a high level construct requiring the control of looking out for received messages and streaming and queuing of messages, whereas gene exchange is a low level two-way method of exchanging "messages" without such overheads and concerns.

The decision as to which bits in the chromosome are genes (i.e. subjected to purely Darwinian evolution) or memes (i.e. subjected additionally to Lamarckian evolution) is made by the user on the basis of his knowledge of the problem, in both its modelling and engineering requirements. If modeling requires less dynamic mutability then a gene is called for instead of a meme. But even if a meme is called for, engineering concerns regarding complexity may counsel employing a gene instead of a meme. This may be the case where the assumption being coded occurs within especially complex or non-deterministic parts of a program, for in that case the support set and revision computations will originate too many alternatives (and hence Lamarkian mutations), thereby provoking a combinatorial explosion. The latter may be avoided by resorting to a gene rather than a meme coding of the assumptions involved. In the problems we modeled in this paper, only memes were used to code assumptions when Lamarckism was involved. And only genes were employed when Darwinism was involved. There was no mixture of the two. However, we could have chosen, for

instance, to code as genes some assumptions about the faultiness or otherwise of some gates, just in case we almost fully believed them to be non-faulty say, but nevertheless allowing for a Darwinian mutation of their status.

Simplified versions of this algorithm have also been considered in order to test the effectiveness of the features added to the standard genetic algorithm. In particular, four algorithms have been considered named in the sequel algorithms 1, 2, 3 and 4. Algorithm 1 is a standard single agent genetic algorithm: crossover is performed only among chromosomes of the same agent and the Lamarckian operator is not used. Algorithm 2 adds to algorithm 1 the use of the Lamarckian operator, with a parameter l (percentage of the population to be mutated Lamarckianly) equal to 0.6 and the special treatment of memes in crossover. Algorithm 3 is a multi-agent algorithm without the Lamarckian operator, i.e., crossover is performed between chromosomes of different agents but the operator Learn is not applied to them. Algorithm 4 extends algorithm 3 by adding the Lamarckian operator, with a parameter l equal to 0.6, and the special treatment of memes in crossover. For all the algorithms, the mutation rate (parameter m) has been set to 0.0125 and the crossover rate (parameter r) have been set to 0.75.

As regards the distinction between genes and memes, in the case of algorithms 1 and 3 all the bits in the chromosome are considered genes, while in the case of algorithms 2 and 4 all the bits in the chromosome are considered memes.

Mark that in algorithms 3 and 4 the agents share the same set of program clauses but have different sets of constraints. Each agent scores the chromosomes according to the constraints it has, thus using a local fitness function. At the end of the computation, in order to find a single solution for the revision problem, the best chromosome in each agent is considered and is scored with a fitness function that considers all the constraints (global fitness function). Then the chromosome with the highest global fitness is returned as the solution. In this way the multi-agent system finds a solution for the global belief revision problem.

These algorithms have been used in order to experimentally investigate the truth of the following theses:

1. Lamarckism plus Darwinism outperforms Darwinism alone in the single agent case;
2. the distributed algorithm (with or without the Lamarckian operator) has a performance that is comparable (and, in particular, not signifi-

cantly inferior) to that of the non-distributed one, in the same number of generations and the same overall number of individuals;

As regards thesis 2, we require only that the difference is not significant because we can not expect an improvement from distributing constraints with respect to the centralized case where all the information is available. Therefore our aim is to prove that the decrease in fitness is not significant.

Moreover, we investigated the behaviour of our system in a dynamic situation where not all of the constraints are known at the start and we compare it with a situation where all are given initially.

The advantage of applying a genetic algorithm to belief revision lies especially in the possibility of dealing with dynamicity in the data. Since a population of individuals is kept, when a change in the world occurs it is more probable that there exist an individual that is fit for the new situation.

§4 Experiments

The algorithms have been run on a number of belief revision problems. In particular, we have considered the n-queen problem and problems of digital circuit diagnosis, as per [12].

4.1 Experiment Methodology

In order to evaluate if the accuracy differences between algorithms are significant or not, we have computed a 5-fold cross-validated paired t test for every pair of algorithms (see [14] for an overview of statistical tests for the comparison of machine learning algorithms). This test is computed as follows. Given two algorithms A and B, let $p_A(i)$ (respectively $p_B(i)$) be the maximum fitness achieved by algorithm A (respectively B) in trial i. If we assume that the 5 differences $p(i) = p_A(i) - p_B(i)$ are drawn independently from a normal distribution, then we can apply the Student t-test by computing the statistic

$$t = \frac{\bar{p}\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(p^{(i)}-\bar{p})^2}{n-1}}}$$

where n is the number of folds (5) and $\bar{p}$ is

$$\bar{p} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} p^{(i)}$$

In the null hypothesis, i.e. that A and B obtain the same fitness, this statistic has a t distribution with $n-1$ (4) degrees of freedom. If we consider a probability of 90%, then the null hypothesis can be rejected if

$$|t| > t_{4,0.90} = 1.533$$

4.2 n-queen Problem

The n-queen problem consists in positioning n queens over a $n \times n$ checkboard so that no two queens attack each other. This problem can be seen as a Constraint Satisfaction Problem (CSP) where the constraints are: the total number of queens must be n; for each row, the total number of queens must not be bigger than one; for each column, the total number of queens must not be bigger than one and for each diagonal, the total number of queens must not be bigger than one. This problem can be seen as a belief revision problem by assigning a revisable of the form `queen(Row,Column)` to each position `(Row,Column)` in the checkboard. Then, each constraint of the CSP can be written as an integrity constraint.

Algorithms 1, 2, 3 and 4 have been tested on the n-queen problem. Each algorithm was run 5 times. The parameters that have been used for the runs are: 20 maximum generations, 80 individuals for algorithms 1 and 2 (single agent), 20 individuals per agent and 4 agents for algorithms 3 and 4. The accuracy fitness function was adopted.

We have considered a problem with $n = 8$. In this case there is a total of 43 constraints: 1 constraint for the total number of queens, 8 constraints for the rows, 8 for the columns and 26 for the diagonals. For multi-agent experiments each agent has the same set of program clauses, while the constraints were divided amongst them: 2 constraints on the rows and 2 on the columns have been assigned to each agent, while the constraints on diagonals have been divided in groups of 6, 6, 7 and 7 and correspondingly assigned to the agents. The constraint on the total number of queens has been assigned to one of the agents with only 6 constraints on the diagonals. Therefore, three agents have 11 constraints and one agent has only 10.

Table 1 shows, for each algorithm, the value of the fitness function for the best hypothesis averaged over the 5 runs while table 2 shows the value of the t statistics for the various couples of algorithms.

As can be seen, in this case both theses 1 and 2 are confirmed. As regards thesis 1, there is a significant increment of fitness between algorithms 1

Algorithm	Fitness	Standard Deviation
1	0.6698	0.0705
2	0.7302	0.0127
3	0.7162	0.0624
4	0.7581	0.0127

Table 1 n-queen experiments with algorithms 1, 2, 3 and 4

Comparison	$\|t\|$ value
1-2	2.151
1-3	2.000
2-4	6.000

Table 2 Result of the t-test for different couples of algorithms on the n-queen dataset.

and 2. As regards thesis 2, the fitness significantly increases from algorithm 1 to 3 and from algorithm 2 to 4, thus proving a stronger thesis with respect to thesis 2, that requires only the fitness not to significantly decrease.

The low values for the standard deviation in all cases show the robustness of the approach: no matter what is the initial random population, similar results are obtained.

4.3 Digital Circuit Diagnosis

In problems of digital circuit diagnosis there is a difference between the observed and the predicted outputs of a circuit. Figure 2 shows a sample circuit together with the observed inputs and outputs of the circuit and the predicted outputs of each gate. The aim of the diagnosis is to find which components are faulty.

A problem of digital circuit diagnosis can be modeled as a belief revision problem by describing it with a logic program consisting of five groups of clauses: one that allows to compute the predicted output of each component, one that describes the topology of the circuit, one that employs the topology description to compute the values at the input pins of the gates, one that describes the observed inputs and outputs, and one that consists of integrity constraints stating that the predicted value for an output of the system cannot be different from the observed value. The representation formalism we use is the one of [12]. As regards the clauses for computing the predicted output of a gate, let us consider the case of a two-input NAND:

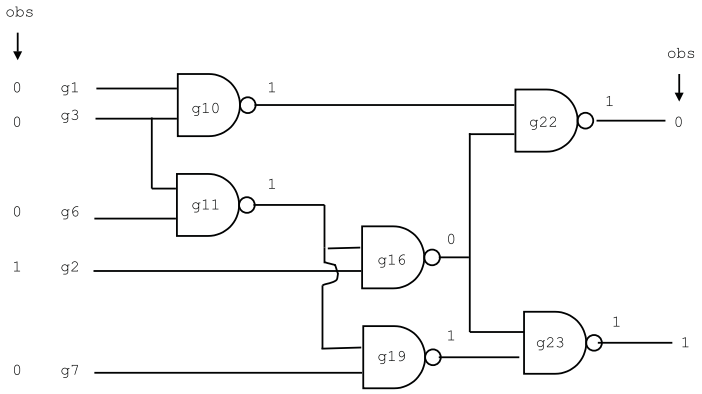

Fig. 2 `c17` circuit from ISCAS85's set of benchmark circuits.

```
val( out(nand2,Name), V ) :-
  not ab(Name),
  val( in(nand2,Name,1), W1),
  val( in(nand2,Name,2), W2),
  nand2_table(W1,W2,V).
val( out(nand2,Name), V ) :-
  ab(Name),
  val( in(nand2,Name,1), W1),
  val( in(nand2,Name,2), W2),
  and2_table(W1,W2,V).
```

In these clauses `Name` is the name of the component and the definitions of `nand2_table` and `and2_table` consist of facts describing the input/output relation of, respectively, a two-input NAND gate and a two-input AND gate. `ab(Name)` is a revisable that can be assumed true or false. If it is assumed true, it expresses a faulty behaviour of a component of the circuit, described in this case by the second clause above. If it is assumed false, it expresses a correct behaviour of a component of the circuit, being described by the first clause above.

The topology of the circuit is described by a set of facts for the predicate `conn/2`. For example, consider the fact `conn(in(nand2, g10, 1), out(inpt0, g1))` describing a part of the circuit shown in figure 2. This fact states that the input 1 of gate `g10` of type `nand2` is connected to the output of gate `g1` of type `inpt0`. The gates of type `inpt0` are the input pins of the circuit.

The clause that employs the topology description to compute the values at the input pins of the gates is the following:

```
val( in(Type,Name,Nr), V ) :-
```

```
conn( in(Type,Name,Nr), out(Type2,Name2) ),
val( out(Type2,Name2), V ).
```

The clauses that describe the observed values for the input and for the output of the circuit are facts for the `obs/2` predicate. `obs(out(inpt0, g1), 0)` states that the input `g1` has value 0.

As regards the integrity constraints, we have two constraints for each output of the circuit, one stating that the output can not be 0 if it was observed to be 1 and the other stating that the output can not be 1 if it was observed to be 0. For example, the constraint `ic([obs(out(nand2, g22), 0), val(out(nand2, g22), 1)]).` states that the value of the output of `g22` cannot be 1 if it was observed to be 0.

In case the circuit is faulty, one or more of the constraints will be violated. By means of belief revision, the values of the revisables are changed in order to restore consistency. The literals of the form `ab(Name)` that are assigned the value true identify the faulty components.

Usually, the number of faulty components is very small, very often one or two. This means that only one or two revisables of the form `ab(Name)` will be true, while all the other will be false. Therefore, the hybrid fitness function is used, in order to take into account not only the number of satisfied constraints but also the number of false literals in the solution.

In order to show the difference between a belief revision operator and the Lamarckian operator, let us show their behaviour on the `c17` circuit supposing the following hypothesis is given:

```
C={ab(g10), not ab(g11), ab(g16), not ab(g19), not ab(g22),
not ab(g23)}
```

In this case, two out of four constraints are violated because the predicted output of `g22` is 1 and of `g23` is 0.

A belief revision operator, as for example REVISE [12], finds a solution where the only abnormality literal that is true is `ab(g22)` while all the others are false. This solution is found independently of the initial starting hypothesis because the support sets for $\perp$ are found independently of the initial values of the revisables. This new hypothesis eliminates both constraint violations.

The Lamarckian operator, instead, will modify `C` into the following hypothesis:

```
C'={ab(g10), ab(g11), ab(g16), not ab(g19), not ab(g22),
not ab(g23)}
```

Algorithm	Fitness	Standard Deviation
1	0.7791	0.0267
2	0.7612	0.0000
3	0.8060	0.0334
4	0.7463	0.0409

Table 3 `voter` experiments with algorithms 1, 2, 3 and 4

Comparison	$\|t\|$ value
1-2	1.500
1-3	9.000
2-4	0.817

Table 4 Result of the t-test for different couples of algorithms in the `voter` dataset.

that differs from `C` only in the values of `ab(g11)`. This new hypothesis eliminates only one constraint violation because the output of `g22` is still different from the observed value.

The GBR system has been tested on some real world problems taken from the ISCAS85 benchmark circuits [9] that has been used as well for testing the belief revision system REVISE [12].[*2]

We have considered the `voter` circuit that has 59 gates and 4 outputs, corresponding respectively to 59 revisables and 8 constraints.

Algorithms 1, 2, 3 and 4 have been tested on the `voter` circuit with the same parameters as for the n-queen problem: each algorithm was run 5 times, each run had 20 maximum generations, 80 individuals for algorithms 1 and 2 (single agent), 20 individuals per agent and 4 agents for algorithms 3 and 4. In algorithms 3 and 4 each agent has the same set of program clauses, while the integrity constraints are distributed among the agents so that each agent knows only the constraints that are related to one same output. The hybrid fitness function was adopted.

Table 3 shows, for each algorithm, the value of the fitness function and of its standard deviation for the best hypothesis after 20 generations averaged over the 5 runs, while table 4 shows the value of the t statistics for the various couples of algorithms.

As can be seen, in this case thesis 1 is not confirmed since algorithm

[*2] These examples can be found at `http://www.soi.city.ac.uk/~msch/revise/`.

Algorithm	Time (s)	Standard Deviation (s)
1	1138	8.51
2	1963	61.56
3	897	10.59
4	1153	38.72

Table 5 CPU times in seconds for the n-queen experiments

1 has a higher fitness than algorithm 2. However, the fitness difference is not significant according to the t test. The reduction of the fitness from algorithm 1 to 2 means that in in this case it is not possible to get closer to the solution by a number of partial belief revision steps but the stochastic search performed by the Darwinian operators is more effective. Thesis 2 instead is confirmed since there is a significant fitness increment between algorithms 1 and 3 and a not significant fitness decrement between algorithms 2 and 4.

The low values for the standard deviation in all cases again show that the approach is robust with respect to variations in the initial random population.

4.4 Time Complexity and Scalability

Tables 5 and 6 shows the CPU time consumed by each experiment averaged over the 5 runs together with the corresponding standard deviation. In the case of the multi-agent algorithms, the times are referred to sequentialized versions of the algorithms where the population of each agent is updated in turn in each generation, i.e., no parallelism was exploited. As can be seen, the computation time varies from a minimum of 19 minutes to a maximum of 33 minutes for the n-queen experiments and from a minimum of 10 minutes to a maximum of 21 minutes for the `voter` experiments. The computation times have been obtained on a SUN Ultra Enterprise 450 with 4 CPU Ultra Sparc II at 400 MHz and 512 MB of RAM.

These computation times are superior to those of state of the art belief revision systems like REVISE [12]. However, it was not our purpose to compete with state of the art classical belief revision methods. Our aim was rather to propose a new methodology for belief revision that can be easily adapted to work in a multi-agent environment.

Comparing the computation time of algorithms with and without the Lamarckian operator, it must be noted that the addition of the Lamarckian operator increases the computation time both in the single agent and in the

Algorithm	Time (s)	Standard Deviation (s)
1	895	176.01
2	1281	398.42
3	625	233.13
4	617	244.20

Table 6 CPU times in seconds for the `voter` experiments

multi-agent case in all cases but one, with a maximum increment of 72%. This is reasonable given the complexity of the Lamarckian mutation operator.

In order to investigate the scalability of the approach, we have run algorithm 4 on a series of instances of the n-queen problem with n varying from 4 to 8. The computation time with respect to the number of queens is plotted in figure 3. As can be seen from the graph, the relationship is more than quadratic

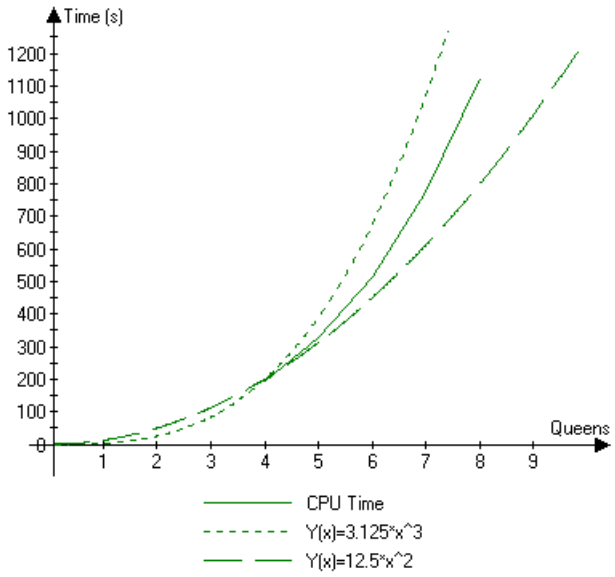

Fig. 3 Computation time as a function of the number of queens.

but less than cubic. From this relationship, we can obtain also information on the behaviour of the CPU time with respect to the number of constraints and to the number of revisables. The relationship between the number of queens n

Algorithm	Fitness	Standard Deviation
One stage	0.7581	0.0127
Two stages	0.8419	0.0416

Table 7 Experiments on dynamicity, two stages case

and the number of constraints c is in fact $c = 6n - 5$ and between n and the number of revisables r is $r = n^2$. Therefore, the CPU time is $O(c^3)$ and $O(r^{\frac{3}{2}})$.

4.5 Dynamicity

In order to test the ability of the system to adapt to a dynamic situation, we compared the behaviour of the system on the n-queen problem when all the constraints are known initially with the behaviour of the system when the constraints are dynamically made known in two separate stages. In the latter case, we first ran algorithm 4 for 20 generations on the n-queen problem without a constraint on one of the longest diagonals, then we ran it for 20 more generations with all the constraints starting from the population obtained in the first step. Our conjecture was that starting from a population optimized for a subset of the constraints allows to achieve a high fitness more quickly with respect to the case of starting from scratch from a random population.

Table 7 shows the fitness obtained with the two methods averaged over five runs. The fact that in the two stages case we obtain a higher fitness shows that in that case the fitness of the one stage case has been reached in less generations.

In order to show that the process can be iterated, we considered an experiment where the constraints are added in three separate stages. First, we considered a problem with half of the column and of the row constraints and without a constraint on one of the longest diagonals. Then we considered a problem where the constraint on one of the longest diagonals is present but half of the constraints on rows and columns are still missing. Finally, we considered the problem with all the constraints.

Table 8 shows the fitness obtained with the three stages method averaged over five runs compared with the fitness obtained from a one stage application of the algorithm. The higher fitness obtained in the three stages case shows that the process of constraint addition can be iterated.

§5 Related Work

Algorithm	Fitness	Standard Deviation
One stage	0.7581	0.0127
Three stages	0.8790	0.0299

Table 8 Experiments on dynamicity, three stages case

Various authors have investigated the integration of Darwinian and Lamarckian evolution into a genetic algorithm [18, 1, 19, 17]. A Lamarckian operator first translates a genotype into its corresponding phenotype and performs a local search in the phenotype's space. The local optimum that is obtained is then translated back into its corresponding genotype and added to the population for further evolution. [18] has shown that the traditional genetic algorithm performs well for searching widely separated portions of the search space caused by a scattered population, while Lamarckism is more proficient for exploring localized areas of the population that would otherwise be missed by the global search of the genetic algorithm. Therefore, Lamarckism can play an important rôle when the population has converged to areas of local maxima that would not be thoroughly explored by the standard genetic algorithm. The adoption of a Lamarckian operator provides a significant speedup in the performance of the genetic algorithm.

Similarly to the approaches in [18, 1, 19, 17], we adopt a procedure for Lamarckian evolution that first translates the chromosome into its phenotype and then modifies it in order to improve its fitness. Differently from [18, 1, 19, 17], the procedure does not perform a local search but finds an improvement by tracing logical derivations causally supporting the undesired behaviour.

Cultural evolution is a form of evolution that is related to Lamarckian evolution [25, 24]. In cultural evolution, the population of individuals shares a common memory where each individual can read or store beliefs. In particular, the authors assume that each chromosome represents a program, i.e., a series of actions. When the chromosome must be scored the program is executed and the effect on the world is evaluated. The authors assume that, among the actions that these programs can perform, there are also the actions `READ` and `WRITE` that allow the programs to read from and write to a shared persistent memory. In this way, experiences can be communicated among different individuals, thus realizing a mechanism similar to the transmission of culture in human societies. Our approach for the transmission of knowledge differs from this one because no global shared memory is kept, rather, the knowledge acquired by each individual

during its lifetime is transmitted by crossover.

In [20] the authors propose an approach for performing belief revision in a multi-agent context. In their approach, each agent exploits an Assumptions Based Truth Maintenance (ATMS) system in order to perform the revision of beliefs. As in our approach, each agent has a different repository for knowledge and its beliefs may not be consistent with those of other agents, consistency is enforced only locally inside each agent. Differently from us, in [20] the authors consider an exchange of beliefs by means of a number of communications primitives. Communication happens in three cases. The first is when an agent can not establish by itself the truth value of an assumption or a goal: in this case, it asks it to its acquaintances. The second case is when an agent finds a conclusion or an assumption that it knows being of interest for another agent: in this case it communicates the results. The third case is when an agent has revised the truth value of a belief that it had previously communicated to other agents: in this case the agent communicates the other agents the new truth value for the belief. Therefore, in [20] the cooperation among agents is explicit, while in our work the cooperation emerges as the result of the continuous exchange of chromosomes among agents.

In [20] the system is able to answer uniquely to queries posed to the system by means of a meta-level algorithm that works in the following way: a fact is false if it is considered false by at least one agent, a fact is true if no agent considers it false and there is at least one agent that considers it true. In our system, instead, the global result of the belief revision process is given by the chromosome with the best global accuracy, also computed by means of a meta-level algorithm that considers all the constraints. Mark that in our case we consider only approximate belief revision, i.e., we do not ensure the consistency of all the constraints.

§6 Conclusions and Future Work

We have presented a genetic algorithm for performing belief revision in a multi-agent environment. The algorithm has been implemented in a system called GBR that is available at `http://lia.deis.unibo.it/Software/gbr/`. We consider a distributed belief revision problem where each agent has the same knowledge base but different integrity constraints. The standard genetic algorithm is extended in two ways: first the algorithm combines two different evolution strategies, one based on Darwin's and the other on Lamarck's evolutionary

theory and, second, chromosomes from different agents can be crossed over with each other.

The Lamarckian evolution strategy is obtained by means of an operator that changes the genes (or, better, the memes) of an agent in order to improve their fitness. The operator consists of a (partial) belief revision procedure that, by tracing logical derivations, identifies the memes leading to contradiction.

Experiments have been performed in order to investigate the effect of the addition of the Lamarckian operator and of the distribution of constraints on the solution of problems. We have considered the n-queen problem and a digital circuit diagnosis problem. The result of the experiments do not provide a definitive answer as regards the usefulness of the Lamarckian operator: in the n-queen problem the Lamarckian operator provides a significant increase of the fitness, while on the `voter` case this is not true. As regards the distribution of constraints, instead, in both cases there is not a significant reduction of the fitness, thus showing that the distribution does not heavily impact the accuracy while allowing to solve a wider class of problems. As regards the Lamarckian operator, further investigation is needed in order to identify more clearly the cases where it leads to significant increments of the fitness.

Lamarckian and Darwinian operators have complementary functions: Lamarckian operators are used to get closer to a solution of a given belief revision problem, while Darwinian operators are used in order to distribute the acquired knowledge amongst agents. We could consider as well Lamarckian operators that not only bring a chromosome closer to a solution but actually turn it into a solution. In this case, when a new constraint is presented to an agent, it first applies a Lamarckian operator to find a chromosome satisfying the new constraint and then it applies a Darwinian operator to distribute the "knowledge" so acquired to other chromosomes in the same or other agents. In this way chromosomes may be prepared in advance for meeting new constraints. Moreover, by means of the Lamarckian operator, low values for the percentage of individuals to be mutated and crossed-over could be used, thus saving computation time.

The exchange of genetic material is useful also in the case in which the chromosomes do not have all the relevant revisables to start with (three-valued revision). When they acquire new revisables from other chromosomes they are obtaining specialized knowledge from others. This is for example the case of the diagnosis of a car fault performed by different experts: the expert mechanic, the expert electrician, the expert car designer, etc. Each of them

makes a diagnosis about the part of the car that concerns their speciality. Next they all have to come to a joint diagnosis by exchanging information about each others' revisables.

We conjecture that in this new problem setting, where there is dynamicity in the data, the integration of the Lamarckian and Darwinian operators will fully exhibit, and be extolled in, its potential.

§7 Acknowledgements

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Appendix

The definition of *WFSX* that follows is taken from [2] and is based on the alternating fix points of Gelfond-Lifschitz Γ-like operators.

Definition 7.1 (The Γ-operator)
Let P be an extended logic program and let I be an interpretation of P. $\Gamma_P(I)$ is the program obtained from P by performing in the sequence the following four operations:

- Remove from P all rules containing a default literal $L = not\ A$ such that $A \in I$.
- Remove from P all rules containing in the body an objective literal L such that $\neg L \in I$.
- Remove from all remaining rules of P their default literals $L = not\ A$ such that $not\ A \in I$.
- Replace all the remaining default literals by proposition **u**.

In order to impose the coherence requirement, we need the following definition.

Definition 7.2 (Seminormal Version of a Program)
The seminormal version of a program P is the program P_s obtained from P by adding to the (possibly empty) $Body$ of each rule $L \leftarrow Body$ the default literal $not \neg L$, where $\neg L$ is the complement of L with respect to explicit negation.

In the following, we will use the following abbreviations: $\Gamma(S)$ for $\Gamma_P(S)$ and $\Gamma_s(S)$ for $\Gamma_{P_s}(S)$.

Definition 7.3 (Partial Stable Model)
An interpretation $T \cup not\ F$ is called a *partial stable model* of P iff $T = \Gamma\Gamma_s T$ and $F = H^E(P) - \Gamma_s T$.

Partial stable models are an extension of *stable models* [16] for extended logic programs and a three-valued semantics. Not all programs have a partial stable model (e.g., $P = \{a, \neg a\}$) and programs without a partial stable model are called *contradictory*.

Theorem 7.1 (*WFSX* Semantics)
Every non-contradictory program P has a least (with respect to $\subseteq$) partial stable model, the well-founded model of P denoted by $WFM(P)$. To obtain an iter-

ative "bottom-up" definition for $WFM(P)$ we define the following transfinite sequence $\{I_\alpha\}$:

$$I_0 = \{\}; \quad I_{\alpha+1} = \Gamma\Gamma_S I_\alpha; \quad I_\delta = \bigcup\{I_\alpha | \alpha < \delta\}$$

where δ is a limit ordinal. There exists a smallest ordinal λ for the sequence above, such that I_λ is the smallest fix point of $\Gamma\Gamma_S$. Then, $WFM(P) = I_\lambda \cup$ *not* $(H^E(P) - \Gamma_S I_\lambda)$.