

Determining Explanations using Transmutations

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Abstract

Intelligent Information systems do not usually possess complete information about the world with which they interact. The AGM paradigm has become one of the standard frameworks for modeling changes to repositories of information. Its principal constructions for change operators rely on some form of underlying preference relation. The process of changing such a preference relation is known as a transmutation. Spohn's conditionalization can be interpreted as a transmutation that imposes a relative minimal change. A transmutation based on an absolute minimal change is an adjustment.

In this paper we develop a notion of explanation using transmutations of information systems. Following Gardenfors lead we recast Spohn's notion of *reason for* within the general setting of transmutations and extend this to characterize most plausible explanations. We also investigate the relationship between explanation based on abduction and Spohnian reasons based on adjustments. Finally, and rather surprisingly, we identify explicit conditions that characterize the various forms of explanations identified by Boutilier and Becher using Spohnian reasons.

1 Introduction

Information systems use information theoretic descriptions to capture their view of the world. These descriptions are generally incomplete and evolve over time. An intelligent information system requires a mechanism for self-modification when new information about the world is acquired.

The AGM paradigm [Alchourron *ti ai*, 1985; Gardenfors, 1988; Gardenfors and Makinson, 1988] has become a standard framework for modeling information change. In particular, it provides a mechanism for the revision and contraction of information. Within the AGM paradigm, the family of revision functions and the family of contraction functions are constrained by rationality postulates. The logical properties of a body of information are not strong enough to uniquely determine a revision or contraction function. Therefore, the principal constructions for these functions rely on some form of underlying preference relation, such as a family of selection functions [Alchourron *ei ai*, 1985], a system of spheres [Grove, 1988], a nice preorder on models [Katsuno and Mendelzon, 1992; Peppas and Williams, 1995],

or an epistemic entrenchment ordering [Gardenfors and Makinson, 1988]. In this light we consider an information system to be composed of a set of information together with a preference relation.

We refer to the process of changing the underlying preference relation of an information system as a transmutation. Based on observations made by Gardenfors [1988, p72], Williams [1994a] generalized the conditionalizations of Spohn [1988] to more general transmutations. Spohn represents an information system using ordinal conditional functions, which map possible worlds to ordinals, and argues that *conditionalization*, which is a constructive method for modifying an ordinal conditional function, is a reasonable procedure. Williams explored conditionalization further and examined an alternative construction; an *adjustment*. Both conditionalizations and adjustments are transmutations. Intuitively, conditionalization involves a *relative minimal change* necessary to effect the revision or contraction, whilst adjustment involves an *absolute minimal change*.

Spohn characterizes the notion of *reason for* in [1983] and shows how it can be captured within his framework in [1983; 1988].

The objective of this paper is, firstly, to recast Spohn's notion of *reason for* in a more general setting using transmutations rather than conditionalizations, and secondly, to extend this approach to determine most plausible explanations. Some preliminary work in this direction using a theory base representation can be found in [Williams, 1994b]. We also provide an intuitively appealing and transparent relationship between explanation based on abduction and Spohnian reasons based on adjustments. Finally and quite surprisingly, we find explicit conditions which capture the relationship between Spohnian reasons and the various forms of explanation identified by Boutilier and Becher [1995].

In section 2, we describe entrenchment rankings, while in section 3 we define transmutations of entrenchment rankings, and describe a particular type of transmutation, namely an adjustment. In section 4, we outline Spohn's notion of *reason for*, and provide conditions which allow this notion to be defined using both arbitrary transmutations and adjustments. In the spirit of Spohn we provide a notion of most plausible explanation. In section 5 we will illustrate some of our definitions and results with examples. In section 6 we compare our notion of explanation with one based upon the process of abductive inference. We discuss related work in section

7, and summarise our position in section 8.

We begin with some technical preliminaries. Let \mathcal{L} denote a language which contains a complete set of Boolean connectives. We will denote sentences in \mathcal{L} by lower case Greek letters. We assume \mathcal{L} is governed by a logic that is identified with its consequence relation \vdash which is assumed to satisfy the following conditions [Gärdenfors, 1988]: (a) if α is a truth-functional tautology, then $\vdash \alpha$, (b) if $\vdash \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ and $\vdash \alpha$, then $\vdash \beta$ (*modus ponens*), (c) \vdash is consistent, that is, $\not\vdash \perp$, where \perp denotes the inconsistent theory, (d) \vdash satisfies the deduction theorem, and (e) \vdash is compact.

The set of all logical consequences of a set $T \subseteq \mathcal{L}$, that is $\{\alpha : T \vdash \alpha\}$, is denoted by $Cn(T)$. A theory of \mathcal{L} is any subset of \mathcal{L} closed under Cn . We let \mathcal{L}^{**} denote the set of all consistent nontautological sentences in \mathcal{L} . That is, the set of contingent sentences. Finally, a well-ranked preorder on a set Γ is a preorder such that every nonempty subset of Γ has a minimal member.

2 Entrenchment Rankings

Spohn [1988] introduced ordinal conditional functions, while Williams [1994a] introduced related structures, namely entrenchment rankings (defined below). Essentially, ordinal conditional functions take possible worlds to ordinals, whereas entrenchment rankings take sentences to ordinals. Both define a ranking of the respective domains which provides a response schema for all "possible consistent information" [Spohn, 1988].

The higher the ordinal assigned to a sentence by an entrenchment ranking the more firmly held it is. Throughout the remainder of this paper it will be understood that O is an ordinal chosen to be sufficiently large for the purpose of the discussion.

Definition: An entrenchment ranking is a function E from the sentences in \mathcal{L} into the class of ordinals such that the following conditions are satisfied: a well-ranked preorder on O is assumed, and $E(\alpha) < E(\beta)$ if and only if α is more entrenched than β .
 [ER1] For all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{L}$, $E(\alpha) < E(\beta)$ iff α is more entrenched than β .
 [ER2] For all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{L}$, $E(\alpha) < E(\beta)$ iff α is more entrenched than β .
 [ER3] $\vdash \alpha$ iff $E(\alpha) = O$.
 [ER4] If α is inconsistent, then $E(\alpha) = 0$.

The ordinal assignment can be used and viewed in two ways: (i) qualitatively, that is as a specification of a relative ordering of sentences, or (ii) quantitatively, that is as an assignment of intrinsic utility for each sentence. For a discussion of various assignment scales see [Gärdenfors and Makinson, 1994].

Entrenchment rankings are information systems; a set of information together with a (necessarily well-ordered) preference relation. We denote the family of all entrenchment rankings by S . An information set represented by an entrenchment ranking is the set of sentences whose degree of acceptance is greater than zero. Formally we have the following definition [Williams, 1994a].

Definition: We define the information set represented by $E \in \mathcal{E}$ to be $\{\alpha \in \mathcal{L} : E(\alpha) > 0\}$, and denote it by $set(E)$.

We refer to information whose degree of acceptance is zero as the non-beliefs, and information with a degree of acceptance greater than zero as the beliefs. We note

that $set(E)$ is a theory, and hence the set of beliefs are closed with respect to logical consequence.

3 Transmutations

Peppas [1993] introduced well-behaved revision functions and provided a construction using a well-ordered system of spheres [Grove, 1988]. Williams [1994a] gives representation theorems for entrenchment rankings and well-behaved change operators. In particular, she provided conditions which characterize both well-behaved contraction and well-behaved revision operators using an entrenchment ranking, and conversely. An extra postulate is required for the change operator to be constructed from a well-ranked preference relation.

The informational input for AGM contraction and revision functions for theories is a sentence alone. In contrast, when modifying an entrenchment ranking we require both a sentence and an ordinal. Consequently, the informational input for transmutations is a sentence a and an ordinal i . The interpretation being [Gärdenfors, 1988] that a represents the information to be accepted by the information system, and i is the degree of firmness with which this information is to be incorporated into the transmuted information system. We define a transmutation schema [Williams, 1994a] for entrenchment rankings below.

Definition: We define a transmutation schema for entrenchment rankings, $*$, to be a function from $\mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{L}^{**} \times O$ to \mathcal{E} , where O is an ordinal, such that $(E, \alpha, i) \mapsto E^*(\alpha, i)$ satisfies:

- (i) $E^*(\alpha, i)(\alpha) = i$, and (ii) $set(E^*(\alpha, i)) = \begin{cases} \{\beta \in \mathcal{L} : E(\neg\alpha) < E(\neg\alpha \vee \beta)\} & \text{if } i > 0 \\ \{\beta \in set(E) : E(\alpha) < E(\alpha \vee \beta)\} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

For a contingent sentence a and an ordinal i , we say $E^*(a, i)$ is an (a, i) -transmutation of E . It was shown in [Williams, 1994a], that according to the definition above, $E^*(a, i)$ is an entrenchment ranking where a is assigned the degree of acceptance i , and if i is greater than zero then $set(E^*(a, i))$ is the well-behaved revision $(set(E))^*$ constructed in the obvious way from the epistemic entrenchment ordering derived from the relative ordering given by E . Similarly, if i is zero then $set(E^*(a, i))$ is the well-behaved contraction $(set(E))^-$.

Adjustments (defined below) were introduced in [Williams, 1994a]. They are transmutations which adopt an absolute measure under the the principle of minimal change. In particular, an entrenchment ranking is changed or disturbed, in an absolute sense, as little as necessary to give a the degree of acceptance i . That is, each sentence is reassigned an ordinal as close as possible to its previous ordinal assignment such that the resultant structure is an entrenchment ranking. An adjustment is based on intuition similar to that used by Boutilier [1993] to specify his natural revision; namely the principle of minimal change. According to Boutilier "when certain beliefs must be given up, it seems natural to try to keep not only important beliefs, but as much of the ordering as possible".

$$E^*(\alpha, i) = \begin{cases} (E^-(\alpha, i)) & \text{if } i < E(\alpha) \\ (E^-(\neg\alpha, 0)^+(\alpha, i)) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where

$$E^-(\alpha, i)(\beta) = \begin{cases} i & \text{if } E(\alpha) = E(\alpha \vee \beta) \text{ and } E(\beta) > i \\ E(\beta) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The grass is uncovered, the sprinkler is off, and it is raining.

η and ϕ are not reasons for α .

α , β , γ , $\delta \wedge \neg\eta$ are reasons for α .

α and $\delta \wedge \neg\eta$ are both strong reasons for α .

β is more plausible than γ as an explanation for α .

$\delta \wedge \neg\eta$ is the most plausible (strong) explanation for α .

Example 2: Let $\mathbf{E} \in \mathcal{E}$ be such that $0 = \mathbf{E}(\beta)$, $\mathbf{E}(\gamma)$, $\mathbf{E}(\neg\alpha)$, $\mathbf{E}(\neg\beta)$, $\mathbf{E}(\neg\gamma)$, $\mathbf{E}(\neg\delta)$, $\mathbf{E}(\delta)$, $\mathbf{E}(\neg\eta)$, $\mathbf{E}(\eta)$, $\mathbf{E}(\delta \vee \eta) < \mathbf{E}(\alpha)$, $\mathbf{E}(\eta \rightarrow \alpha)$, $\mathbf{E}(\delta \wedge \eta \rightarrow \alpha) < \mathbf{E}(\gamma \rightarrow \alpha) < \mathbf{E}(\beta \rightarrow \alpha) < \mathbf{E}(\delta \wedge \neg\eta \rightarrow \alpha) < \mathbf{E}(\phi)$

It is not known whether the grass is covered, whether the sprinkler is on, or whether it is raining.

η and ϕ are not reasons for α .

α , β , γ , $\delta \wedge \neg\eta$ are reasons for α .

α is the only strong reason for α .

$\delta \wedge \neg\eta$ is a more plausible explanation for α than β or γ .

6 Abductive Reasoning

One method currently gaining popularity for defining the notion of explanation is that of abductive reasoning [Paul, 1993; Stickel, 1991]. Abduction is a form of logical inference that aims to derive plausible explanations for information and is, in fact, often described as inference to the best explanation.

An abductive inference proceeds by proposing or generating hypotheses which would account for, or explain a group of facts. A common way of defining explanation as an abductive inference is the following (see [Paul, 1993], for example — however, note that we do not adopt his restriction to *abducibles*).

Definition: An abductive explanation of a sentence β with respect to a set of sentences T is a sentence α such that (i) $T \cup \{\alpha\} \vdash \beta$, and (ii) $T \cup \{\alpha\} \not\vdash \perp$.

Part (i) of the definition corresponds to having the sentence β accepted whenever the theory is expanded with α , whilst (ii) restricts α to being consistent with T . In other words, α is an abductive explanation for β iff $\beta \in T_{\alpha}^{+}$, and $\neg\alpha \notin T_{\alpha}^{+}$.

Within the framework of transmutations, our domain theory is obtained from a given entrenchment ranking using proper cuts, defined below.

Definition: Given an $\mathbf{E} \in \mathcal{E}$. We define a proper cut of \mathbf{E} with respect to a sentence α , denoted by $\text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \alpha)$, to be the set of sentences $\{\beta \in \mathcal{L} : \mathbf{E}(\alpha) < \mathbf{E}(\beta)\}$.

It is not hard to see that all proper cuts are theories, and that $\text{set}(\mathbf{E}) = \text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \alpha \wedge \neg\alpha)$ that is, the largest proper cut is precisely the accepted information.

The idea of a proper cut has proven to be an expedient concept which has been used for several purposes elsewhere. For example, Rott [1991] uses them to describe theory contraction and revision, Williams [1994b] uses them to define change operators for theory bases, and Gärdenfors and Makinson [1994] use them to specify their nonmonotonic inference relation based on expectation orderings. More particularly, if we allow relative orderings of sentences given by \mathbf{E} to determine the epistemic entrenchment ordering then, using the construction of Gärdenfors and Makinson [1988], we have $(\text{set}(\mathbf{E}))_{\alpha}^{+} = (\text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \neg\alpha))_{\alpha}^{+}$ and $(\text{set}(\mathbf{E}))_{\alpha}^{-} = (\text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \alpha))_{\alpha}^{-} \cap \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$.

The following theorem shows that abductive explanation is closely related to Spohnian reasons.

Theorem 7: Let \mathbf{E} be an entrenchment ranking and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{L}^{\text{m}}$. Let $*$ be an adjustment and used for the determination of reasons. Then α is a reason for β iff α

is an abductive explanation of β with respect to the theory $\text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \beta) \cap \text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \neg\alpha)$.

Theorem 7 says, α is a reason for β if and only if α is an abductive explanation of β with respect to the smaller of the two proper cuts, $\text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \beta)$ or $\text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \neg\alpha)$. The former being the set of sentences strictly greater than β itself, and the latter being the largest proper cut which is consistent with α .

Corollary 8: Let \mathbf{E} be an entrenchment ranking and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{L}^{\text{m}}$. Let $*$ be an adjustment and used for the determination of reasons. Then α is a reason for β iff $\beta \in (\text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \beta))_{\alpha}^{+}$.

Moreover, depending on the relative status of the sentences determined by \mathbf{E} the reason may be a strong one. In particular, if $\text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \alpha) = \text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \beta)$ then the abductive explanation described in Theorem 7 is a strong reason since this condition will hold iff $\mathbf{E}(\beta) = \mathbf{E}(\alpha)$.

The definition of explanation, through the process of abductive inference, will in general classify many sentences as explanations. Often we are interested in determining a single best explanation or, at the very least, reducing the number of possible explanations. This is usually done by adopting some form of preference criteria (e.g., cost-based measures, probabilities, etc. — see [Paul, 1993] for an overview).

In the framework discussed here we are equipped with a preference ordering over the sentences; namely, an entrenchment ranking which assigns a degree of acceptance to each sentence. Given this interpretation of entrenchment rankings it would seem natural to adopt this ordering to characterize best abductive explanations. Formally we have the following theorem.

Theorem 9: Let \mathbf{E} be an entrenchment ranking and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{L}^{\text{m}}$. Let $*$ be an adjustment and used for the determination of reasons. Let A be a set of (strong) explanations for a sentence β . Then α is a most plausible (strong) explanation in A for β iff α is an abductive explanation of β with respect to $\text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \beta) \cap \text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \neg\alpha)$, and there is no abductive explanation γ in A of β with respect to $\text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \beta) \cap \text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \neg\gamma)$ for any $\gamma \in A$ such that $\mathbf{E}(\alpha \rightarrow \beta) < \mathbf{E}(\gamma \rightarrow \beta)$.

Another important consideration when determining abductive explanations is the specificity of the explanation. The notion of most (and least) specific abduction was discussed by Stickel [1991]. It is described within a resolution-based system for performing abduction. A most specific abduction only allows pure literals (literals that resolve with no other clause in the information set) to be used in an abduction. On the other hand, a least specific abduction for a sentence is just the sentence itself. Stickel suggests that most specific abductions are suited to diagnostic tasks while least specific abductions are more appropriate for natural language interpretation. The specificity of an abductive explanation is given below:

Definition: An abductive explanation α of β with respect to a theory T is more specific than an abductive explanation γ of β with respect to T iff $T \cup \{\alpha\} \vdash \gamma$.

Equating the theory T of the definition above with $\text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \beta) \cap \text{cut}_{<}(\mathbf{E}, \neg\alpha)$ motivates the following definition of specificity for reasons based on adjustments.

Definition: Let $\mathbf{E} \in \mathcal{E}$. Let $*$ be an adjustment and used for the determination of reasons. Let A be a set of (strong) explanations for a sentence β . Then $\alpha \in A$ is a more specific (strong) explanation for β than $\gamma \in A$ iff α is a (strong) reason for γ .

Theorems 6 and 9 allow us to say that if a and γ are both explanations for β and α is also an explanation for β then the more specific explanation a is more plausible if $E(\gamma \rightarrow \beta) \leq E(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$. This can be generalised for longer chains of explanation to yield a method for determining the preferred level of specificity.

7 Related Work

Recently Gardenfors [1988] as well as Boutilier and Becher [1995] have given related accounts of explanation. Gardenfors uses changes in probability, whilst we use changes in plausibility. The relationship between Boutilier and Becher's work and that presented in this paper is somewhat unexpected because both approaches draw their intuitions from seemingly different directions, indeed opposite directions. In particular, our analysis focuses on changes at the preference relation level whilst Boutilier and Becher's analysis considers the behaviour at the informational content level. However their underlying similarity appears to stem from the commitment to the principle of minimal change.

Boutilier and Becher use an explicit assumption that explanations for beliefs are beliefs, and explanations for non-beliefs are non-beliefs. By way of justification they say that observations in their framework are not accepted into an information set until some explanation is found and accepted. Our idea of coherence is related to this assumption. For instance, according to it the only explanations for non-beliefs are non-beliefs. However, it does allow beliefs to have non-beliefs as explanations, a trait which is more in keeping with the usual interpretation of abductive explanations. Using Corollary 2 and the connections below one can show that Boutilier and Becher's explanations respect our idea of coherence, and therefore their assumption is stronger than that of coherence due to the restriction that only beliefs can be explanations for beliefs.

Boutilier and Becher's definition of a explains B , although restricted to the propositional case and based on the assumption above, is closely related to a is a reason for B based on adjustments. In particular, if their explanations are based on a well-ranked CO revision model structure [Boutilier, 1993] then we have:

- α is a predictive explanation for β iff
 - (i) α is a reason for β , (ii) $\alpha \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$ iff $\beta \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$, and (iii) $\neg\alpha \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$ iff $\neg\beta \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$.
- α is a hypothetical explanation for β iff
 - (i) α is a reason for β , (ii) $\alpha, \beta \notin \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$, and (iii) $\neg\alpha \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$ iff $\neg\beta \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$.
- α is a factual explanation for β iff
 - (i) α is a reason for β , (ii) $\alpha, \beta \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$, and (iii) $\neg\alpha \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$ iff $\neg\beta \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$.
- α is a counterfactual explanation for β iff
 - (i) α is a reason for β , and (ii) if $\beta \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$ then $\alpha \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$.

We note, hypothetical explanations are strong reasons since $E(\alpha) = E(\beta) = 0$.

In contradistinction to reasons based on adjustments, Boutilier and Becher's explanations preclude non-beliefs being explanations for accepted beliefs. In particular, according to Boutilier and Becher if $\alpha \notin \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$ and $\beta \in \text{set}(\mathbf{E})$ then α cannot explain β , but on our account α could be a reason for β . Consequently, the notion of reason for based on adjustment is more general.

Clearly, the connections described above may not hold if transmutations other than adjustments are used to determine reasons. In this sense, Spohnian

reasons specified by (R2) are far more general than the explanations of Boutilier and Becher, because their notion of explanation essentially corresponds to reasons based on a particular transmutation; namely, an adjustment.

Boutilier and Becher argue that preferred explanations are those that are most plausible; they require the least change in the information set in order to be accepted. In particular, they maintain as much information as possible, including as much default information as possible.

Their notion of plausibility is very different to the notion of plausibility advocated in this paper, where we claim that the most plausible explanation is one that is capable of increasing the degree of acceptance of the explanandum the most. For them, if a and γ are both beliefs and explanations for another belief β then they are equally preferred. In other words, within Boutilier and Becher's framework factual explanations can not be ranked on the basis of plausibility. Consequently, OUT notion of plausibility is substantially more discerning.

Boutilier and Becher highlight the desirable defeasible character of their explanations. Spohnian reasons based on adjustments also exhibit this feature, and moreover they give rise to consistency preserving rational consequence relations. In particular, if we define $\alpha \sim \beta$ to be a is a reason for β based on an adjustment, then \sim is consistency preserving and rational. Consequently, there exists a nice preference structure [Gardenfors and Makinson, 1994] and an expectation ordering which induces reasons based on adjustments.

Given the transparent connection between entrenchment rankings and expectation orderings [Williams, 1995b] we can give the following intuitive interpretation of reason for in terms of expectations. We can say that a is a reason for β if $\neg\alpha \vee \beta$ is strictly more expected than either $\neg\alpha$ or β , and that a is a strong reason for β if in addition a and β are equally expected. Similar readings can be given for plausibility and specificity.

Williams [1995a] gives a computational model for adjustments which can be used to implement Spohnian reasons, abductive, predictive, factual, hypothetical and counterfactual explanations.

Spohn [1988] revised his notion of reason for, and gave a condition which is equivalent [Williams, 1994a] to the condition below (it is related to conditionalization).

- α is a reason for β iff
 - (i) $-E(\neg\alpha) + E(\neg\alpha \vee \beta) > -E(\alpha) + E(\alpha \vee \beta)$, or
 - (ii) $-E(\alpha) + E(\alpha \vee \neg\beta) > -E(\neg\alpha) + E(\neg\alpha \vee \neg\beta)$.

Intuitively, this condition says that a is a reason for β iff B has a higher degree of acceptance, or degree of plausibility given a rather than given $\neg a$ [Spohn, 1988]. However, this condition leads to counterintuitive results; sentences turn out to be reasons simply by virtue of the fact they are strictly more plausible than the explanandum. Therefore we can say that reasons based on the condition above do not respect the notion of coherence introduced in section 4.

8 Discussion

Transmutations of an information system describe not only how a set of information is revised, but how the underlying preference structure is revised. Consequently, it is possible to capture Spohn's notion of reason using transmutations. Indeed we would obtain a different characterization of a Spohnian reason for every type of transmutation.

An adjustment is a transmutation that involves an *absolute minimal change*. That is, the underlying preference relation is changed as little as necessary to effect the required change in epistemic rank. For this reason we have argued that an adjustment is an appropriate transmutation for determining explanations because in the determination of an explanation we would normally require that such a change disturb the background information system as little as necessary. The suitability of using an adjustment for Spohnian reasons is further supported by its perspicuous connection with the comprehensive work of Boutilier and Becher.

We showed how an adjustment can be used to determine a most plausible explanation, by selecting an explanation that is capable of raising the epistemic rank of the explanandum the most. This notion is more discerning than that given by Boutilier and Becher whose method suffers from the problem of not being able to rank the plausibility of factual explanations.

We contrasted Spohnian reasons based on adjustment with a common definition of explanation in terms of abductive reasoning. We noted that the determination of reasons based on adjustments are carried out qualitatively using the relative ordering of the background information system itself, and the associated nonmonotonic consequence relation is consistency preserving and rational.

Future work will explore the relevance of competing explanations [Gardenfors, 1993] and the strengths of competing explanations using the quantitative information encapsulated in an entrenchment ranking. Preliminary results suggest these are promising directions to pursue.

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