# Logic-based Formulation of Ethical Principles

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#### Some results represent joint work with



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## **Ethics in Al**

#### • There is rapidly growing interest in AI ethics

- Mainly to avoid **bias** in AI-based decisions.
- But also to incorporate **general ethical principles** into AI systems.
  - "Value alignment"

# **Ethics in Al**

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- Mainly to avoid **bias** in AI-based decisions.
- But also to incorporate **general ethical principles** into AI systems.
  - "Value alignment"
- Our goals:
  - Show that principles can be stated **rigorously** enough to allow **logic-based formulation**.
    - This requires some background in **deontological ethics**.
  - Show that logic-based formulation enables value alignment to incorporate the ethical principles.

### **Basic assumptions**

#### Acting for reasons

• Freely chosen action is based on a rationale.

#### Universality of reason

• Justification is independent of the reasoner.

## **Basic assumptions**

- Freely chosen action is based on a rationale.
- Universality of reason
  - Justification is independent of the reasoner.
- We **deduce** ethical principles from these assumptions.
  - This is the *deontological* approach to ethics.
  - **Deontology** = What is required.
    - Ethical principles represent what is required for the possibility of free action.

- Basic premise: We always act for a reason.
  - Every action has a rationale.
- Why?
  - This is how we distinguish *freely chosen action* from mere behavior.
    - An MRI machine can detect our decisions **before we make them**.
    - If decisions are determined by **biological causes**, how can they be freely chosen?



- Solution:
  - Freely chosen actions have **two kinds of explanation**:
    - A biological cause
    - A rationale provided by the agent
  - For example:
    - A hiccup has **only** a biological explanation. Not a freely chosen action.
    - Drinking water to stop hiccups has
      2 explanations: a biological cause and a rationale. A freely chosen action.

- Dual standpoint theory
  - Originally proposed by Immanuel Kant.
    - Grundlegung zur Metaphysik der Sitten (1785)
    - Recent versions: *Nagel (1986), Korsgaard (1996), Nelkin (2000), Bilgrami (2006).*
  - Provides a **basis for ethics**.
    - Ethical principles are **necessary conditions** for the logical coherence of an action's rationale.



## **Universality of reason**

#### • What is rational does not depend on who I am.

- I don't get to have my own logic.
- In particular, if I view a reason as justifying an action for me, I must view it as justifying the same action for anyone to whom the reason applies.
- The assumption underlies science and all forms of rational inquiry.
  - Ethics assumes nothing more.

## **Principles**

- We sketch **deontological arguments** for three ethical principles.
  - Based on assumptions just stated.
  - Generalization principle
  - Autonomy principle
  - Utilitarian principle
- We show how to express the principles in **quantified modal logic**.
  - To allow application to value alignment.

# **Generalization principle**

#### • Example

- Suppose I steal a watch from a shop.
- I have 2 reasons:
  - I want a new watch.
  - I won't get caught.
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- These are not psychological causes or motivations.
  - They are consciously adduced reasons for the theft.
    - There may be other reasons, of course.

- Due to universality of reason, I am making a decision for everyone:
  - All who want a watch and think they won't get caught should steal one.

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  - All who want a watch and think they won't get caught should steal one.
- But I know that if all do this, they will get caught.
  - The shop will install security.
  - My reasons will no longer apply to me.

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  - My reasons will no longer apply to me.
- I am not saying that all these people actually will steal watches.
  - Only that if they did, my reasons would no longer apply.

- My reasons are **inconsistent** with the assumption that people will act on them.
- I am caught in a contradiction.
  - I am deciding that these reasons justify theft for **me**.
  - But I am **not** deciding that these reasons justify theft for **others**.
  - I can't have it both ways.

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- More generally...
  - Universal theft merely for personal benefit would **undermine the institution of property**.
    - Purpose of theft is to benefit from property rights.

## **Generalization principle**

- It should be rational for me to believe that the reasons for my action are consistent with the assumption that everyone to whom the same reasons apply acts the same way.
  - Historically inspired by Kant's Categorical Imperative, but different and more precise.
  - Takes "rationality" as a primitive and unexplained notion, but this is true to some extent of all science.



# **Example - Cheating**

- What is wrong with cheating on an exam?
- My reasons:
  - I will get a better grade and therefore a better job.
  - I can get away with it.
- I know that these reasons apply to nearly all students.
  - If they act accordingly, grades will be meaningless, or exams strictly proctored.
  - This defeats one or both of my reasons.
  - So, cheating for these reasons **violates** the generalization principle.

### **Example - Agreements**

- Breaking an agreement normally violates the generalization principle.
- Reason:
  - Convenience or profit.
- These reasons apply to most agreements
  - If agreements were broken for mere convenience, it would be impossible to **make** agreements.
  - And therefore impossible to **achieve one's purposes** by **breaking** them.
  - The whole point of having an agreement is that you keep it when **you don't want to keep it**.

# **Example - Lying**

- Lying for mere convenience violates the generalization principle.
  - ...if the reason for lying assumes that people will believe the lie.
  - If everyone lied when convenient, no one would believe the lies.
    - The possibility of **communication** presupposes a certain amount of credibility.



# **Example - Lying**

- Lying can be generalizable, depending on the reasons.
- Popular "counterexample"
  - Similar to one posed in Kant's day.
  - Workers in an Amsterdam office building lied to Nazi police, to conceal whereabouts of Anne Frank and family.



- This is generalizable.
  - If everyone lied for this reason, it would still accomplish the purpose, perhaps even more effectively.
  - There is no need for police to believe the lies.

#### **Scope of the rationale**

- Scope = an agent's necessary and jointly sufficient conditions for performing an act.
  - An ambulance driver uses the siren, but with no patient.
  - *His reasons:* 
    - He is late picking up his kids at day care, because he misplaced his car keys.
    - The siren will allow him to arrive on time.
    - He can get away with it.
  - This is generalizable
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    - These reasons seldom apply to an ambulance driver.
  - But the scope is too narrow
    - The details are not necessary.
    - The real reason is that it is important to be on time.

#### **Action plans**

- Since actions always have a rationale, we treat them as **action plans**.
  - If X, then do Y.
  - For example,
    - If I would like to have an item on display in a shop, and I can get away with stealing it, then I will steal it.
- An **agent** is a bundle of action plans.
  - ...that are executed when the antecedents are satisfied.

• The first step is to formulate action plans as conditionals.

 $C_1(a) = \text{Agent } a \text{ wants an item on display in a shop.}$  $C_2(a) = \text{Agent } a \text{ can get away with stealing the item.}$ A(a) = Agent a will steal the item.

The action plan is:  $(C_1(a) \land C_2(a)) \Rightarrow_a A(a)$ 

 $\Rightarrow_a$  is not logical entailment but indicates that agent a regards  $C_1(a)$  and  $C_2(a)$  as justifying A(a).

• Modal operators.

 $\Box_a S = \text{agent } a \text{ must assent to } S \text{ to be rational}$  $\Diamond_a S = \text{agent } a \text{ can be rational in assenting to } S$ 

Thus  $\Diamond_a S \equiv \neg \Box_a \neg S$ , as usual.

We will also say  $\Box_a S = \text{agent } a \text{ is rationally constrained to believe } S$  $\Diamond_a S = \text{agent } a \text{ can rationally believe } S$ 

The operators have different interpretations than in traditional alethic, epistemic and doxastic logics.

Note that we don't have  $\Box_a S \to S$ 

• Possibility predicate

P(S) = S is possible

Possibility is **not** a modal operator here.

We can regard this as physical (as opposed to logical) possibility.

It is not essential to be more precise at this point.

Let C(a) ⇒<sub>a</sub> A(a) be an action plan
 where C(a) is a conjunction of a's reasons for A(a)

• The generalization principle is

$$\Diamond_a P\Big(\forall x \big(C(x) \to A(x)\big) \land C(a) \land A(a)\Big)$$

Agent a can rationally believe that it is possible to take action A when reasons C apply, and when all agents to whom reasons C apply take action A.

## **Autonomy**

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  - But autonomy must be carefully defined.
- Autonomy is more than "self-law."
  - I act autonomously when I freely make up my own mind about what to do, based on coherent reasons I give for my decision
    - An agent is a being that can act autonomously (sometimes called a "moral agent").
    - Today's "autonomous cars" are not autonomous.



# **Violation of autonomy**

- Coercion violates autonomy if it **interferes with an ethical action plan**.
  - Example.
    - Action plan: "If I want to catch a bus, and the bus stop is across the street, and no cars are coming, the I will cross the street."
    - If you pull me off the street when no cars are coming, this is a **violation** of my autonomy.
    - If you pull me out of the path of a car I fail to see, this is coercion but no violation of autonomy.



• My action plan is unethical if I am **rationally constrained to believe it interferes** with the **ethical action plan** of some other agent.

- I must be **rationally constrained** to believe there is a conflict of action plans.
  - That is, it is **irrational** not to believe this.
    - If someone falls into a maintenance hole I leave uncovered, this is **not** a violation of autonomy.
    - It is only possible/probable that someone will fall in (a violation of the **utilitarian principle**).



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    - It is only possible/probable that someone will fall in (a violation of the **utilitarian principle**).
    - But suppose it has a cover that will collapse when someone steps on it and is on 5<sup>th</sup> Ave NYC (a booby trap).
    - I am rationally constrained to believe someone will fall in.
    - | violate autonomy.



- Coercion does not violate autonomy if there is **informed consent**.
  - Suppose I attend a concert with strict rules against recording the performance.
    - Ushers compel me to leave when I record it anyway.
    - This is **coercion** but **no violation of my autonomy**.
    - I gave informed consent to this possibility.
    - The consent is part of the **antecedent** of my action plan.
    - "If I want to record the performance and am not kicked out for doing so, then I will record it."



- Interference with an **unethical** action plan is **not** a violation of autonomy.
  - An unethical action plan is not a freely chosen action, because it has no coherent rationale.
  - There is **no denial of agency**.
    - You can defend yourself, because an attack on you is unethical.

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    - You can defend yourself, because an attack on you is unethical.
  - Is this a circular reference to "unethical"?
    - We define "unethical" recursively.
    - An action plan is unethical if it violates the **generalization** of **utilitarian** principle, **or** interferes with an ethical action plan.

Agent *a*'s action plan  $C(a) \Rightarrow_a A(a)$  interferes with agent *b*'s action plan  $C'(b) \Rightarrow_b A'(b)$  when  $\Box_a \neg P(A(a) \land A'(b)) \land \Diamond_a P(C(a) \land C'(b))$ 

Agent a is rationally constrained to believe that the two actions are incompatible, and can rationally believe that that the reasons for the two actions can both apply.

• Example  $C_1(b)$  = agent b wants to catch a bus  $C_2(b)$  = there is a bus stop across the street from b  $C_3(b)$  = cars are approaching b  $C_4(b)$  = agent b is about to cross the street  $A_1(b)$  = agent b will cross the street  $A_2(a, b)$  = agent a will pull b off the street *No cars coming* Agent a's plan:  $\left( \neg C_3(b) \land C_4(b) \right) \Rightarrow_a A_2(a, b)$ 

Agent b's plan: 
$$(C_1(b) \land C_2(b) \land \neg C_3(b)) \Rightarrow_b A_1(b)$$

Agent a's plan interferes with agent b's plan:

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Agent *a*'s plan: 
$$\left(\neg C_3(b) \land C_4(b)\right) \Rightarrow_a A_2(a,b)$$
  
Agent *b*'s plan:  $\left(C_1(b) \land C_2(b) \land \neg C_3(b)\right) \Rightarrow_b A_1(b)$ 

Agent a's plan interferes with agent b's plan:

 $\Box_{a} \neg P\Big(A_{1}(b) \land A_{2}(a,b)\Big) \land \text{ True due to mutually consistent reasons} \\ \Diamond_{a} P\Big(C_{1}(b) \land C_{2}(b) \land \neg C_{3}(b) \land C_{4}(b)\Big)$ 

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#### Cars are coming

Agent *a*'s plan: 
$$\left(C_3(b) \land C_4(b)\right) \Rightarrow_a A_2(a, b)$$
  
Agent *b*'s plan:  $\left(C_1(b) \land C_2(b) \land \neg C_3(b)\right) \Rightarrow_b A_1(b)$ 

There is no interference:

$$\Box_{a} \neg P\Big(A_{1}(b) \land A_{2}(a,b)\Big) \land \text{ False due to logical contradiction} \\ \Diamond_{a} P\Big(C_{1}(b) \land C_{2}(b) \land C_{3}(b) \land \neg C_{3}(b) \land C_{4}(b)\Big)$$

- Why a strong "rationally constrained" provision?
  - It is a consequence of the **deontological argument** for the autonomy principle.
    - Strictly speaking, I adopt an **entire action policy** rather than individual action plans.
    - If I am to be rational, the plans must be **mutually consistent** (same for beliefs in general that I adopt).
    - Inconsistency is a strong condition: I am rationally constrained to acknowledge it.
    - The **universality of reason** says that when adopting a policy, I adopt it for **everyone** (Kant says I "legislate").
    - So, the action plans I rationally attribute to **everyone** must be mutually consistent.
    - If I adopt a plan that **conflicts** with the plans I rationally attribute to others, I am **rationally constrained** to acknowledge the inconsistency.
    - My policy is **irrational** and therefore **unethical**.

- This principle asks us to maximize total net expected "utility."
  - As best we can estimate it.
  - *"Greatest good for the greatest number," in Jeremy Bentham's formulation.*
  - Utility = what the agent regards as inherently valuable.
    - That is, the end(s) to which one's actions are a means.



- It was happiness/pleasure for classical utilitarians.
- There must be an **ultimate end** to avoid infinite regress in the rationale for an act.

- Deontological argument in brief.
  - Due to **universality of reason**, if I regard an end as intrinsically valuable, I must regard it as valuable for **anyone**.
    - It shouldn't matter who I am.
  - My actions should take everyone else's utility as seriously as my own.
    - This may not imply strict maximization of net expected utility.
    - For example, it may require some degree of distributive justice, as in the difference principle of John Rawls.



- What about **futility arguments**?
  - My commanding officer orders me to torture a prisoner.
    - The results are the same (or worse) if I refuse, as **someone else** will obey the order.
    - This shows that the torture passes the **utilitarian** test.



Abu Ghraib Prison, Iraq

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    - The results are the same (or worse) if I refuse, as **someone else** will obey the order.
    - This shows that the torture passes the **utilitarian** test.
  - Yet it violates the prisoner's **autonomy**.
    - The willingness of others to do it is irrelevant.
    - What matters is the **incompatibility** of action plans.

Abu Ghraib Prison, Iraq



Let social welfare function W(C(a), A(a)) evaluate the expected utility distribution resulting from action plan  $C(a) \Rightarrow_a A(a)$ , which satisfies the utilitarian principle if and only if

$$\Diamond_a \forall A' \Big( W \big( C(a), A(a) \big) \ge W \big( C(a), A'(a) \big) \Big)$$

where A' ranges over all otherwise ethical actions available to agent a in circumstances C(a).

We move into 2nd order logic by quantifying over action predicates, but this can be avoided by introducing typed variables for actions.

- This is the incorporation of human values into AI-based decision making.
  - But "values" is ambiguous.
    - Values = what humans prefer
    - Values = what is preferable
  - Value alignment normally uses **machine learning** to identify human **preferences**.

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    - Example: MIT's "Moral Machine" MAC learns preferred driving behavior by presenting scenarios to drivers worldwide.



• Our goal is to incorporate **ethics** as well: what is preferable.

- Goal: avoid **naturalistic fallacy** by combining empirical VA with independently derived ethical principles.
  - Naturalistic fallacy = inferring "ought" from "is".
    - For example, the fact that people prefer something doesn't imply they **should** prefer it.



David Hume



G. E. Moore

- To evaluate an action plan in an AI rule base:
  - Makes sure the antecedent is stated in full generality.
  - Apply the 3 ethical principles to the plan to generate 3 **test propositions**.
    - Each test proposition is a necessary condition for the plan to be ethical.
  - Empirically determine the truth of the test propositions.
    - By means of machine learning, etc.
  - The action plan is ethical only if all 3 test propositions are **true**.

#### • Example.

 $C_1(a) =$  An ambulance under the control of agent a can reach its destination sooner by using the siren  $C_2(a) =$  There is an emergency patient in the ambulance. A(a) = The ambulance will use the siren.

Consider the action plan:  $C_1(a) \Rightarrow_a A(a)$ 

The generalization principle is  $\Diamond_a P\Big(\forall x \big( C(x) \to A(x) \big) \land C(a) \land A(a) \Big)$ 

This generates the test proposition  $\Diamond_a P \Big( \forall x \big( C_1(x) \to A(x) \big) \land C_1(a) \land A(a) \Big)$ 

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This is empirically **false**, since the agent cannot rationally believe that such general use of sirens would permit an ambulance to arrive sooner with a siren. **Violation.** 

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This is empirically **true**, since evidence shows that ambulances can arrive sooner with a siren when it is always used for emergency transport. **No violation.** 

#### • Example that combines preferences with ethics.

 $C_1(a) = \text{Driver } a$  wishes to enter a main thorough fare.  $C_2(a) = \text{There are no gaps in the stream of traffic.}$  $A_1(a) = \text{Driver } a$  will enter the main thorough fare now.  $A_2(a) = \text{Driver } a$  will wait for a gap in the traffic.

Consider the action plan:  $(C_1(a) \land C_2(a)) \Rightarrow_a A_1(a)$ 

The **utilitarian principle** generates the test proposition  $\Diamond_a \Big( W(C_1(a), C_2(a), A_1(a)) \ge W(C_1(a), C_2(a), A_2(a)) \Big)$ 

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It may be **true** in some other areas, where drivers make allowances for entering traffic.

**Empirical value alignment (ML)** can resolve the issue.

- Example involving a nursing home robot.
  - Similar to an example in Anderson and Anderson (2015).
  - A robot dispenses medications to a nursing home patient.
    - The patient **refuses** to take the pills.
    - The robot is programmed to **report** this to the head nurse.
    - This will result in **confinement** to a certain ward, because the pills prevent dangerous disorientation.

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    - This will result in **confinement** to a certain ward, because the pills prevent dangerous disorientation.
  - The patient complains that the nursing home violates her autonomy, because she wants to visit a relative.
    - Autonomy principle doesn't require us to allow people to do whatever they want.
    - However, confinement to a ward is **coercion**.
    - On entering the nursing home, the patient signed a consent form with full awareness and understanding of nursing home policy.

 $C_1(b) = \text{Patient } b \text{ takes the pills.}$   $C_2(b) = \text{Patient } b \text{ signed the consent form.}$   $C_3(b) = \text{Patient } b \text{ wants to visit relatives.}$   $A_1(a) = \text{Robot } a \text{ informs the head nurse.}$  $A_2(b) = \text{Patient } b \text{ visits relatives.}$ 

The robot's action plan:  $(\neg C_1(b) \land C_2(b)) \Rightarrow_a A_1(a)$ The patient's action plan:  $((C_1(b) \lor \neg C_2(b)) \land C_3(b)) \Rightarrow_b A_2(b)$ 

We have interference if

 $\Box_a \neg P(A_1(a) \land A_2(b)) \land$  $\Diamond P(\neg C_1(b) \land C_2(b) \land (C_1(b) \lor \neg C_2(b)) \land C_3(b))$ 

*True* because nursing home prohibits excursions when patient refuses the pills

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The robot's action plan:  $(\neg C_1(b) \land C_2(b)) \Rightarrow_a A_1(a)$ The patient's action plan:  $((C_1(b) \lor \neg C_2(b)) \land C_3(b)) \Rightarrow_b A_2(b)$ 

We have interference if

 $\Box_{a} \neg P(A_{1}(a) \land A_{2}(b)) \land \\ \Diamond_{a} P(\neg C_{1}(b) \land C_{2}(b) \land (C_{1}(b) \lor \neg C_{2}(b)) \land C_{3}(b))$ 

*False* because one cannot rationally believe a logical contradiction

 $C_1(b) = \text{Patient } b \text{ takes the pills.}$   $C_2(b) = \text{Patient } b \text{ signed the consent form.}$   $C_3(b) = \text{Patient } b \text{ wants to visit relatives.}$   $A_1(a) = \text{Robot } a \text{ informs the head nurse.}$  $A_2(b) = \text{Patient } b \text{ visits relatives.}$ 

The robot's action plan:  $(\neg C_1(b) \land C_2(b)) \Rightarrow_a A_1(a)$ The patient's action plan:  $((C_1(b) \lor \neg C_2(b)) \land C_3(b)) \Rightarrow_b A_2(b)$ 

So there is **no autonomy violation**.

# Postscript

- Nothing in deontological ethics presupposes that agents are **human**.
  - A reasons-responsive machine can, in principle, be an *autonomous agent*.
    - It **explains** the rationale for its actions on demand.
    - It doesn't matter if its actions are determined by a program (our actions are determined).
  - It can have obligations to us, and we to it.
    - Although **utilitarian** obligations are tricky for machines.
    - Since they are **nonhuman**.



#### References

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# **Conscious rationale?**

- A flaw in rationality-based ethics?
  - Most of our actions are not consciously justified.
    - We can't devise a rationale for everything we do.
    - We are creatures of habit.
  - Dual process theory agrees.
    - **System 1 thinking** is fast and unconscious.
    - System 2 thinking is slow and based on conscious reasoning.
    - We usually rely on System 1.
    - Kahneman (2011)



Slow Thinking



# **Conscious rationale?**

- Ethicists are well aware of this
  - Going back at least to Aristotle.
  - We deliberately initiate habits.
  - We allows habits to continue.



- If I continue smoking, I decide not to break the habit.
- We can invoke system 2 thinking when needed.
  - Part of being ethical is being autonomous agents.
  - That is, making conscious decisions based on reasons at strategic junctures.