Witnesses for Answer Sets of Basic Logic Programs

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Abstract

Explanation plays an important role in the decisions of both symbolic and neural network-based AI systems. Logic programs under answer set semantics (ASP) have been a typical declarative reasoning and problem-solving paradigm that has extensive applications in various AI domains. In this paper, we consider the issue of explanation for logic programs with abstract constraint atoms (c-atoms) under SPT-answer set semantics. Such c-atoms are general enough to capture complex constructors of logic programs, including aggregates, and the SPT-answer sets exclude circular justifications that other semantics have. We propose a minimal reduct for logic programs with c-atoms that yields a new semantic characterization of SPT-answer sets, and then introduce an extension of resolution for clauses with c-atoms. As we show, every atom in an SPT-answer set enjoys an extended resolution proof from the minimal reduct of its logic program. Finally, we present minimal sufficient subsets of logic programs (witnesses) to structure such an extended resolution proof for an atom in an SPT-answer set. Our results contribute to the justification of answer sets and provide a basis for explainability of ASP-based applications.

1 Introduction

Explanation tasks in AI include justifying the behavior of autonomous agents, debugging machine learning models, explaining medical decision making, and explaining classifier predictions [Burkart and Huber, 2021; Dazeley *et al.*, 2021]. The subject has been attracting growing attention with the success of deep learning neural networks [Marques-Silva and Huang, 2024; Weber *et al.*, 2024]. Notably, explaining symbolic reasoning has been extensively studied in the past in several different contexts, including database query languages such as Datalog [Cheney *et al.*, 2009; Arioua *et al.*, 2015], ontological reasoning under description logics [Bienvenu *et al.*, 2019; Peñaloza, 2020] and existential rules [İsmail İlkan Ceylan *et al.*, 2025].

Logic programming under answer set (stable model) semantics (ASP in short) is a declarative problem solving paradig-

m [Baral, 2003; Brewka et al., 2011]. It encodes the specifications of a problem in a logic program whose answer sets correspond to the solutions of the problem, which has been widely and successfully applied in planning, diagnosis, scheduling [Gebser et al., 2012; Brewka et al., 2016; Lifschitz, 2019] thanks to the efficient ASP solvers clingo and DLV. An explanation for the answer sets of a logic program amounts to answering "why a set of atoms is an answer set in a well-justified manner, instead of by definition" [Fandinno and Schulz, 2019]. This is quite useful for debugging ASP programs. From the perspective of knowledge representation, an explanation for a solution may be equally or more important than the solution itself [Sosa, 2019]. This challenging task has been extensively investigated from the perspective of off-line justification [Pontelli et al., 2009], causal graph [Cabalar and Fandinno, 2016], minimal assumption set and well-founded derivation [Alviano et al., 2024] and so forth. Various explaining ASP tools and systems are available, such as DiscASP [Li et al., 2021], s(CASP) [Arias et al., 2020], xclingo [Cabalar et al., 2020] and xASP [Alviano et al., 2024].

Abstract constraint atoms (c-atoms) [Marek and Truszczynski, 2004] are a general framework to capture complex constructors in logic programs, such as weight constraints [Simons et al., 2002] and aggregates [Dell'Armi et al., 2003; Faber et al., 2004; Ferraris, 2011]. Such constructors are widely used in practical ASP languages, and they usually complicate the answer set semantics of logic programs [Son et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2010; Shen et al., 2009; Gelfond and Zhang, 2019; Alviano et al., 2023]. Very recently, the explanation issue for answer sets was investigated from the perspective of witness for disjunctive logic programs [Wang et al., 2023], and m-justifications and r-justifications for FLP-answer sets [Faber et al., 2004] of logic programs with abstract constraint atoms [Eiter and Geibinger, 2023]. It is well-known that FLP-answer sets suffer from circular justifications.

This paper follows the idea of the witness approach to the explanation issue of another answer set semantics of logic programs with abstract constraint atoms, namely SPT-answer sets [Son et al., 2007; Shen et al., 2009; Shen et al., 2014]. These answer sets have the property of excluding circular justification in FLP-answer sets, which makes the SPT-semantics particularly attractive. Informally, witnesses are resolution proofs in the context of an answer set that respect dependencies among atoms. The main contributions

of the paper are as follows.

- We present a general minimal reduct for logic programs with c-atoms. Informally, the minimal reduct is to properly remove all the assumed false atoms from a logic program [Wang et al., 2023]. With the help of minimal reduct, a new characterization of SPT-answer sets is established and the minimal model decomposition theorem [Angiulli et al., 2022] is then extended to logic programs without nonmonotonic c-atoms.
- We propose a notion of CA-resolution for rules with catoms to resolve a c-atom at one resolution step. We show that every atom in an SPT-answer set of a logic program has a sound CA-resolution proof from the minimal reduct of the logic program w.r.t. the SPT-answer set.
- Finally, we present the notions of α -witness and β -witness to explain why an atom is in an SPT-answer set in terms a CA-resolution proof. While α -witnesses are concerned with a set of atoms in each step, β -witness are concerned with a single atom.

Since the current well-known ASP solvers compute FLP-answer sets and SPT-answer sets are non-circular FLP-answer sets, this "resolution proof"-based witness has potential practical applications for ASP, *e.g.*, debugging of ASP programs.

The remainder of the paper is outlined as follows. In the next section, we present the basic notions and notations of logic programs with c-atoms. Section 3 presents minimal reduct and its properties about minimal model decomposition. Section 4 contains the CA-resolution. The α -witness and β -witness are presented in Section 5. We compare the β -witness with r-justification in Section 6. Finally, concluding remarks and future work are discussed in Section 7.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we recall some basic notions and notations of logic programs with abstract constraint atoms [Marek and Truszczynski, 2004; Faber *et al.*, 2004; Son *et al.*, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2010; Shen *et al.*, 2009] and the dependency graph of logic programs [Angiulli *et al.*, 2022].

2.1 Syntax and semantics

We assume an underlying propositional language \mathcal{L} over a finite set \mathcal{A} of atoms. The notions of atoms, literals, interpretations, satisfaction, models, minimal models, least models, and logical consequences are the standard ones in \mathcal{L} .

An abstract constraint atom (c-atom in short) is a tuple A=(D,C), where $D\subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is its domain and $C\subseteq 2^D$ is the set of candidate solutions of A. For a c-atom A=(D,C), we denote $A_d=D$ and $A_c=C$. We use \top to denote $(D,2^D)$ and \bot for (D,\emptyset) . Any propositional atom a can be expressed by the c-atom $(\{a\},\{\{a\}\})$. We call the latter elementary, and whenever convenient, we identify it with a. The complement of a c-atom A=(D,C) is $\overline{A}=(D,\overline{C})$ where $\overline{C}=2^D\setminus C$. It is evident $A=\overline{A}$. A c-literal is either a c-atom A (positive c-literal) or its (default) negation not A (negative c-literal).

Let A=(D,C) be a c-atom. It is *monotonic* if $S\in C$ implies $S'\in C$ for all S and S' with $S\subseteq S'\subseteq D$. It is *convex* if $S''\in C$ implies $S'\in C$ for all S,S' and S'' with

 $S \in C$ and $S \subseteq S' \subseteq S'' \subseteq D$. It is *anti-monotonic* if for every $S \subseteq D$, $S \in C$ implies $S' \in C$ for every $S' \subseteq S$.

A (disjunctive) logic program (with abstract constraint atoms) is a finite set of rules of the form,

$$A_1 \vee \cdots \vee A_l \leftarrow A_{l+1}, \dots, A_m, not A_{m+1}, \dots, not A_n$$
 (1)

where A_i $(1 \le i \le n)$ are c-atoms.

Let r be a rule of the form (1). We denote the *head* of r by $hd(r) = \{A_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq l\}$, the *positive body* of r by $bd^+(r) = \{A_i \mid l+1 \leq i \leq m\}$, the *negative body* of r by $bd^-(r) = \{A_i \mid m+1 \leq i \leq n\}$ and the *body* of r by $bd(r) = bd^+(r) \cup not \, bd^-(r)$, with $not \, S = \{not \, s \mid s \in S\}$. For simplicity, a rule r is usually written as

$$hd(r) \leftarrow bd^+(r) \cup not \, bd^-(r).$$
 (2)

A rule of form (1) is called *normal* if l=1, a *constraint* if l=0, a *fact* if l=n=1 and A_1 is elementary and in this case the " \leftarrow " is usually omitted, *positive* if n=m, *definite* if it is normal and m=n, *basic* if every A_i ($1 \le i \le l$) is elementary¹; *convex* if every A_i , for $1 < i \le n$, is convex. A logic program is *normal* (*positive*, *definite*, *basic* and *convex*, *respectively*) if all its rules are normal (positive, definite, basic, and convex respectively). In the present paper, we focus on the fragment of basic logic programs and assume that logic programs are of this form unless explicitly stated otherwise.

Let I be an interpretation (a set of atoms). The satisfaction relation (model) \models is defined below: let A be a c-atom, S be a set of c-literals, r be a rule, P be a logic program,

- $I \models A \text{ if } I \cap A_d \in A_c;$
- $I \models not A$ if I does not satisfy A;
- $I \models S$ if $I \models s$ for every $s \in S$;
- $I \models r$ if $I \models bd(r)$ implies $I \models h$ for some $h \in hd(r)$;
- $I \models P$ if $I \models r$ for every $r \in P$.

Let M and S be two sets of atoms. We say that S conditionally satisfies a c-atom A w.r.t. M, written $S \models_M A$, if $S \models A$ and $I \in A_c$ for every I with $S \cap A_d \subseteq I \subseteq M \cap A_d$. By $S \models_M T$ for a set T of c-atoms we mean $S \models_M A$ for every $A \in T$.

Let P be a normal basic logic program with c-atoms. A set $M \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is an SPT-answer set of P whenever $M = T^{\infty}_{PM}(\emptyset, M)$ where

- P^M is obtained from P by
 - removing every rule r from P if $M \models A$ for some $A \in bd^-(r)$, and
 - removing all the remaining not A from P where A is a c-atom;
- the operator $T_P: 2^{\mathcal{A}} \times 2^{\mathcal{A}} \to 2^{\mathcal{A}}$ is defined as, for a definite basic logic program P,

$$T_P(S, M) = \{a \mid \exists r \in P \ s.t. \ S \models_M bd(r), hd(r) = \{a\}\}.$$

A set $M \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is an *FLP-answer set* of a logic program P if M is a minimal model of the FLP-reduct $P^{M,FLP}$ of P w.r.t. M, given by $P^{M,FLP} = \{r \in P \mid M \models bd(r)\}.$

¹This is different from the one in [Shen *et al.*, 2009] in which it requires l=1 additionally. Thus, the notion of "basic" in [Shen *et al.*, 2009] corresponds to "normal basic" in this paper.

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Let W and V be two disjoint subsets of \mathcal{A} . The W-prefixed power set of V is the family $W \uplus V = \{W' \mid W \subseteq W' \subseteq W \cup V\}$ of all subsets W' between W and $W \cup V$; it is maximal in a c-atom A if $W \uplus V \subseteq A_c$ and there is no other W' and V' such that $W' \uplus V' \subseteq A_c$ and $W \uplus V \subset W' \uplus V'$. The set of all maximal prefixed power sets of A is denoted by A_c^* . Intuitively, A_c^* contains all maximal intervals $[W, W \cup V]$ of the powerset lattice in A_c ; computing A_c^* from A_c is tractable, cf. Theorem 3.5 of [Shen E al., 2009].

Definition 1. Let A be a c-atom and I an interpretation. $W \uplus V \in A_c^*$ is an abstract satisfiable set of A w.r.t. I if $I \cap A_d \in W \uplus V$. In this case, W is called a satisfiable set of A w.r.t. $I \cap A_d$.

Given a basic logic program P and an interpretation I, the generalized Gelfond-Lifschitz reduct of P w.r.t. I, written as $P^{I,SYY}$, is the basic logic program obtained from P by:

- (a) removing from P all rules whose bodies contain either a negative c-literal *not* A such that $I \models A$ or a c-atom A such that $I \not\models A$,
- (b) removing all negative c-literals from the remaining rules,
- (c) replacing each c-atom A in the body of a rule with a special elementary atom θ_A and introduce a new rule

$$\theta_A \leftarrow a_1, ..., a_m$$
 (3)

for each satisfiable set $W = \{a_1, \dots, a_m\}$ of A w.r.t. $I \cap A_d$,

(d) replacing hd(r) with $hd(r) \cap M$,

Definition 2. An interpretation $I \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is a stable model of a logic program P if $P^{I,SYY}$ has a minimal model M such that $I = M \cap \mathcal{A}$.

It has been shown that, for every positive normal logic program $P, M \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is an SPT-answer set of P according to [Son $et\ al.$, 2007] if and only if M is a stable model of P by Definition 2, cf. Theorem 6.2 of [Shen $et\ al.$, 2009]. We thus refer to stable models by Definition 2 also as SPT-answer sets.

Note that if P is a positive logic program without c-atoms, i.e., all atoms are elementary, then the answer sets of P are exactly the minimal models of P. However, if P is a positive logic program with c-atoms, a minimal model of P may not be an FLP-answer set of P, and thus not an SPT-answer set of P^2 . For example, let $P = \{a \leftarrow (\{a,b\}, \{\emptyset, \{a,b\}\})\}$. The set $M = \{a\}$ is a minimal model of P. But M is not an FLP-answer set of P. In fact, P has no FLP-answer set.

2.2 Dependency graph

The (positive) dependency graph³ G_P of a logic program P is the directed graph (V, E), where

- V consists of all the atoms occurring in P and,
- $(q,p) \in E$ if, for some $r \in P$ and $A \in bd^+(r)$, $p \in hd(r)$ and some W exists s.t. $q \in W$ and $W \uplus V \in A_c^*$.

For a directed graph G=(V,E) and $v\in V$, we denote by $D_G(v)$ the set of all ancestor nodes u of v in G, i.e., G has a path v_0,\ldots,v_{n+1} with $v_0=u$ and $v_{n+1}=v$; for any set $V'\subseteq V$ we let $D_G(V')=\bigcup_{v'\in V'}D_G(v')$. A vertex v is a source of G if $D_G(v)=\emptyset$. If P is clear from its context, i.e., G is the dependency graph of P, we also call v a source of P.

The SCC-graph of a directed graph G=(V,E) is the directed acyclic graph (DAG) $\mathbb{S}_G=(\mathbb{V},\mathbb{E})$ [Leone et al., 1997] where

- \mathbb{V} is the set of the strongly connected components (SCCs) of G, i.e., every $C \in \mathbb{V}$ is a maximal subgraph G' = (V', E') of G such that G' has a path from any vertex $v' \in V'$ to every other vertex in V'; we also denote C by V' when it is clear from its context, and
- \mathbb{E} consists of all edges (C, C') such that $E \cap (C \times C') \neq \emptyset$, *i.e.*, there are $p \in C$ and $q \in C'$ for some $(p, q) \in E$.

For a logic program P, we write \mathbb{S}_P instead of \mathbb{S}_{G_P} for convenience. The *atom-clause dependency graph* of a basic logic program P is the directed graph $\mathbb{G}_P = (V, E)$, where

- V consists of the atoms and rules occurring in P;
- for each rule $\delta \in P$, E contains edges $(q, \delta) \in E$ and $(\delta, p) \in E$ for all $p \in hd(\delta)$ and $q \in W$ for some $A \in bd^+(\delta)$ and $W \uplus V \in A_c^*$ for some V, respectively.

Intuitively, if both (A, δ) and (δ, B) are in E, then A depends on B by rule δ . The *super-dependency graph* \mathbb{SG}_P of P is then the collapsed dependency graph of \mathbb{G}_P , i.e., $\mathbb{SG}_P = \mathbb{S}_{\mathbb{G}_P}$. We call a source of \mathbb{SG}_P also a source of P.

The example below demonstrates these dependency graphs.

Example 1. Let P consist of the following rules:

$$r_1: a \leftarrow b, \quad r_2: b \leftarrow a, \quad r_3: a \lor b, \quad r_4: c \leftarrow A$$

where $A=(\{a,b\},\{\{a\},\{b\}\})$. Then, $A_c^*=\{\{a\} \uplus \emptyset,\{b\} \uplus \emptyset\}$. The various dependency graphs for P are as follows:

- $G_P = (V_1, E_1)$ with $V_1 = \{a, b, c\}$ and $E_1 = \{(b, a), (a, b), (a, c), (b, c)\}$. Notice that this graph has no source, and that the SCCs of G_P are $\{c\}$ and $\{a, b\}$.
- Hence, $\mathbb{S}_P = (V_2, E_2)$ with $V_2 = \{v_1, v_2\}$, $v_1 = \{a, b\}$, $v_2 = \{c\}$ and $E_2 = \{(v_1, v_2)\}$.
- $\mathbb{G}_P = (V_3, E_3)$ with $V_3 = V_1 \cup \{r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4\}$ and $E_3 = \{(r_1, a), (b, r_1)\} \cup \{(r_2, b), (a, r_2)\} \cup \{(r_3, a), (r_3, b)\} \cup \{(r_4, c), (a, r_4), (b, r_4)\}$. Its SCCs are $\{r_3\}$, $\{r_4\}$, $\{r_1, r_2, a, b\}$, and $\{c\}$.
- Hence, $\mathbb{SG}_P = (V_4, E_4)$ with $V_4 = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$, $v_1 = \{a, b, r_1, r_2\}$, $v_2 = \{r_3\}$, $v_3 = \{r_4\}$, $v_4 = \{c\}$ and $E_4 = \{(v_1, v_2), (v_1, v_3), (v_3, v_4)\}$. Here, v_1 is its unique source.

3 Minimal Reduct and Model Decomposition

In this section, we propose the notion of minimal reduct and prove our minimal model decomposition theorem for basic logic programs.

²For positive basic logic programs, SPT-answer sets are well-justified FLP-answer sets, cf, Theorem 9 of [Shen *et al.*, 2014].

³The dependency graph defined below coincides with the one in [Angiulli *et al.*, 2022]. But the direction of edge or arc is opposite to that given in [Lin and You, 2002; Shen *et al.*, 2009].

3.1 Minimal reduct

Let A be a c-atom and $M \subseteq A$. The (extended) minimal reduct of A w.r.t. M, written MR(A, M), is defined as

- (a) \perp if $M \not\models A$,
- (b) \top if either $M \models A$ and $A_d \cap M = \emptyset$, or $2^{A_d \cap M} = \{S \cap M \mid S \in A_c\},$
- (c) $(A_d \cap M, B_c)$ where $B_c = \{Z \mid \text{ there is } W \uplus V \in A_c^* \text{ such that } M \cap A_d \subseteq W \cup V \text{ and } W \subseteq Z \subseteq M \cap A_d\}$ if $M \models A$ and $M \cap A_d \neq \emptyset$.

Intuitively, given the assumption $M\subseteq \mathcal{A}$ that the atoms in M are true and the others are false, the minimal reduct $\mathrm{MR}(A,M)$ of a c-atom A removes from A the assumed false atoms and candidate solutions in which they are true. For instance, let $A=(\{a,b\},\{\{a\},\{b\}\})$. Recall that $A_c^*=\{\{a\}\uplus\emptyset,\{b\}\uplus\emptyset\}$. We have $\mathrm{MR}(A,\{a,b\})=\bot$ since $\{a,b\}\not\models A$ and $\mathrm{MR}(A,\{a\})=(\{a\},\{\{a\}\})$.

Note that for an elementary atom a, the corresponding catom is $A = (\{a\}, \{\{a\}\})$. Thus, $\operatorname{MR}(A, M) = A$ if $M \models A$ and \bot otherwise. For the c-atom $A = (\{a\}, \{\emptyset\}), M \models A$ whenever $M \cap \{a\} = \emptyset$. In this case, $\operatorname{MR}(A, M) = \top$ if $M \models A$ and \bot otherwise.

Let P be a basic logic program, and $M \subseteq A$. The *minimal* reduct of P w.r.t. M, written MR(P, M), contains for each $r \in P$ with $M \models bd(r)$, the rule

$$M \cap hd(r) \leftarrow \{MR(B, M) \mid B \in bd^+(r), MR(B, M) \neq \top\}$$

Please note that $MR(\{r\}, M) = \emptyset$ if $M \not\models bd(r)$. Thus, this minimal reduct for basic logic programs is indeed a generalization of the same notion for logic programs without c-atoms.

Intuitively, the minimal reduct MR(P, M) of a logic program P w.r.t. M keeps the rules whose body is satisfied by M and applies the minimal reduct to all c-atom in their heads and positive bodies, and it removes the negative bodies; furthermore, simplications (remove \top in bodies, \bot in heads) are made. We note that the minimal reduct for basic logic programs generalizes the one for disjunctive logic programs [Wang et al., 2023]. It is different from the GL-reduct [Gelfond and Lifschitz, 1988], FLP-reduct [Faber et al., 2004], and Ferraris's reduct [Ferraris, 2011].

Proposition 1. Let r be a basic rule and $M \subseteq A$. The following statements are equivalent to each other.

- (i) $M \models r$.
- (ii) $M \models MR(\{r\}, M)$.
- (iii) $M^* \models \{r\}^{M,SYY}$ where $M^* = M \cup \{\theta_A \mid A \in bd^+(r), M \models bd(r)\}.$

In terms of the minimal reduct, we obtain a new characterization for SPT-answer sets as follows.

Theorem 1. Let P be a basic logic program, and $M \subseteq A$. Then, the following statements are equivalent to each other.

- (i) M is an SPT-answer set of P.
- (ii) M^* is the least model of $P^{M,SYY}$ where $M^* = M \cup \{\theta_A \mid r \in P, M \models bd(r), A \in bd^+(r)\}.$
- (iii) M is the least model of MR(P, M).

The following example confirms the new characterization of SPT-answer sets in terms of the minimal reduct.

Example 2 (Continued from Example 1). Let $M = \{a, b\}$. One can check that M is the unique minimal model of P and an SPT-answer set of P: $MR(P, M) = \{r_1, r_2, r_3\}$ and the least model of MR(P, M) is M.

3.2 Minimal model decomposition

In this section, we present a theorem for decomposing minimal models of basic logic programs generalizing previous results.

Let Σ be a basic positive program. We call a source S of \mathbb{SG}_{Σ} *empty*, if $S \cap \mathcal{A} = \emptyset$, and denote by Σ_S the set of rules in Σ that mention only atoms from S.

For a basic positive program Σ and $X \subseteq \mathcal{A}$, the logic program $Reduce(\Sigma, X)$ is obtained from Σ by

- (a) removing every rule r if $hd(r) \cap X \neq \emptyset$,
- (b) removing every c-atom A from rule bodies if $A_d \setminus X = \emptyset$ and $X \cap A_d \in A_c$,
- (c) replacing each remaining c-atom A by A' where $A'_d=A_d\setminus X$ and $A'_c=\{S\setminus X\mid S\in A_c\}.$

Clearly, if in Step (b) the c-atom A is an elementary atom $a \in X$, then A is removed. Thus, this reduction generalizes $Reduce(\Sigma,X,\emptyset)$ for propositional clause theories Σ [Ben-Eliyahu-Zohary et~al., 2017; Angiulli et~al., 2022], which replaces every atom p occurring in Σ by **true** if p is in X.

Proposition 2. Let P be a basic positive program with merely monotonic c-atoms. A set $M \subseteq A$ is a minimal model of P if and only if M is the least model of MR(P, M).

We note that the monotonicity condition in the above proposition is necessary and can not be relaxed to convexity:

- Let $P_1 = \{a \leftarrow (\{a\}, \{\emptyset\})\}$. The c-atom in the rule body is convex, and clearly $\{a\}$ is the unique minimal model of P_1 . But P_1 has no SPT- and no FLP-answer set.
- Let $P_2 = \{a \leftarrow (\{a,b\}, \{\emptyset, \{b\}\}))$. The c-atom in the rule body is convex and nonmonotonic. The set $\{a\}$ is the unique minimal model of P but neither an SPT- nor an FLP-answer set of P_2 .

Theorem 2 (Minimal model decomposition). Let P be a basic program without nonmonotonic c-atoms, M be a minimal model of P and Q = MR(P, M). Then, for any nonempty source S of Q, $X = M \cap S$ is a minimal model of Q_S , and $M \setminus X$ is a minimal model of Reduce(Q, X).

Based on Theorem 2, a minimal model verification algorithm is presented in Algorithm 1. It generalizes similar ones for propositional clause theories [Ben-Eliyahu-Zohary *et al.*, 2017; Angiulli *et al.*, 2022] and for disjunctive logic programs without c-atoms [Wang *et al.*, 2023].

Note that a model M of a clause theory T is minimal if and only if the clause theory $T \cup \{ \neg p \mid p \in \mathcal{A} \setminus M \} \cup \{ \bigvee \{ \neg p \mid p \in M \} \}$ is unsatisfiable, where $\bigvee S$ is the disjunction of all elements in S. The above algorithm CheckMinMRCA decomposes the minimal model checking (unsatisfiability) to a series of minimal model checks in terms of modularity i.e., Theorem 2. The following result states its correctness.

Algorithm 1: CheckMinMRCA (Π, N)

Input: A basic positive program Π with merely monotonic c-atoms and a model M of Π

Output: true if M is a minimal model of Π , else false

- 1 $\Sigma \leftarrow MR(\Pi, M); N \leftarrow M; G \leftarrow \mathbb{SG}_{\Sigma};$
- 2 Recursively delete from G all empty sources;
- 3 while G has some nonempty source S do
- 4 if $S \cap N$ is not a minimal model of Σ_S then break $\Sigma \leftarrow Reduce(\Sigma, N \cap S)$;
- 5 $N \leftarrow N S$;
- 6 $G \leftarrow \mathbb{SG}_{\Sigma}$;
- 7 Recursively delete from G all empty sources;
- 8 end
- 9 if $N = \emptyset$ then return true else return false

Theorem 3. Let P be a basic positive program without non-monotonic c-atoms and M be a model of P. Then M is a minimal model of P iff CheckMinMRCA(P, M) returns true.

4 Resolution of c-atoms

In this section, we present the notion of resolution proof for basic positive rules, which we also call *clauses with c-literals* (CA-clauses in short).

Definition 3 (CA-resolution). Let $r, r_1, \ldots, r_n \ (n \ge 1)$ be CA-clauses such that

- $a_i \in hd(r_i) \ (1 \le i \le n)$,
- $A \in bd(r)$ and some W exists such that $W = \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ and $W \uplus V \in A_c^*$.

The result of CA-resolution r, r_1, \ldots, r_n on W of A, written $res(r, r_1, \ldots, r_n, A, W)$, is the following CA-clause:

$$(hd(r) \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} (hd(r_i) \setminus \{a_i\})) \leftarrow ((bd(r) \setminus \{A\}) \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} bd(r_i))$$
 (4)

which we call the resolvent of CA-resolution r, r_1, \ldots, r_n on W of A. In this case, we call r, r_1, \ldots, r_n resolvable on A w.r.t. W.

Please note that if A is elementary, then there are exactly two CA-clauses involved in the CA-resolution. Thus, the CA-resolution is indeed a generalization of the resolution for propositional clauses. The CA-resolution for the resolvent $res(r, r_1, \ldots, r_n, A, W)$ is *sound* if every model of $\{r, r_1, \ldots, r_n\}$ is also a model of $res(r, r_1, \ldots, r_n, A, W)$.

Example 3. Let us consider the following CA-clauses:

$$r_1: a_1 \vee b_1, \qquad r_2: a_2 \vee b_2, \qquad r: a \leftarrow A, B$$
 where $A = (\{a_1, a_2\}, \{\{a_1, a_2\}\}), B = (\{b_1, b_2\}, \{\{b_1\}\}).$ Note that $\{a_1, a_2\} \uplus \emptyset \in A_c^*$ and $\{b_1\} \uplus \emptyset \in B_c^*$. Then,

$$res(r, r_1, r_2, A, \{a_1, a_2\}) = b_1 \lor b_2 \lor a \leftarrow (\{b_1, b_2\}, \{\{b_1\}\}),$$

$$res(r, r_1, B, \{b_1\}) = a_1 \lor a \leftarrow (\{a_1, a_2\}, \{\{a_1, a_2\}\}).$$

We can check that both $res(r, r_1, r_2, A, \{a_1, a_2\})$ and $res(r, r_1, B, \{b_1\})$ are sound. However, CA-resolution is not sound in general E.g., consider the following CA-clauses:

$$r_1: a, \qquad r: c \leftarrow (\{a,b\}, \{\{a\}\}) (=A).$$

We then have $res(r, r_1, A, \{a\}) = c \leftarrow$. Clearly $M = \{a, b\}$ satisfies both r_1 and r, but $M \not\models c$.

Lemma 1. Let $N \subseteq A$, P be a basic positive logic program such that MR(P, N) = P and rules $R = r, r_1, \dots, r_n$ in P are resolvable on A w.r.t. W. Then

- (i) MR(res(R, A, W), N) = res(R, A, W).
- (ii) $\{r, r_1, \ldots, r_n\} \models res(R, A, W)$.

A $\it CA$ -resolution $\it proof$ of a CA-clause $\it c$ from a set Σ of CA-clauses is a sequence

$$res(R^0, A^0, W^0), \dots, res(R^k, A^k, W^k)$$
 (5)

where $R^i = r^i, r^i_1, \dots, r^i_{n_i}, 0 \le i \le k$, of CA-resolutions such that $c = res(R^k, A^k, W^k)$, and for every $i, 0 \le i \le k$,

- $A^i \in bd(r^i), W_i = \{a_{i,1}, \dots, a_{i,n_i}\},\$
- ullet $W^i \uplus V^i \in {A_c^i}^*$ for some V^i and
- $r^i, r^i_j, \ 1 \leq j \leq n_i$, are from $\Sigma \cup \{res(R^t, A^t, W^t) \mid 0 \leq t < i\}$.

The CA-resolution proof (5) is *sound* if each CA-resolution for the resolvent of (5) is sound. By $\Sigma \vdash_{CA} c$ we denote that there is a CA-resolution proof of c from Σ , meaning that Σ can "derive" c (by a CA-resolution proof).

From item (ii) of Lemma 1 and the definition of minimal reduct, we obtain the following result.

Proposition 3. Let P be a basic logic program and $M \subseteq A$ such that MR(P, M) = P. Then every CA-resolution proof of a clause c from P is sound.

For convenience and in abuse of notation, we let in what follows $a \vdash_{CA} a$ for atoms $a \in \mathcal{A}$, i.e., any fact can derive itself by a CA-resolution proof.

The following theorem shows that for any SPT-answer set M of a basic logic program P, every atom in M admits a CA-resolution proof from the minimal reduct of P w.r.t. M. In this sense, such proofs can be taken as the justification for SPT-answer sets.

Theorem 4. Let M be an SPT-answer set of a basic logic program P. Then there is a sound CA-resolution proof for every $a \in M$ from MR(P, M).

5 Witnesses

We are now in the position to present the notion of witnesses for SPT-answer sets of basic logic programs.

We first present the notion of minimal witness to capture the "minimal sufficient subprogram" (under set inclusion) for the CA-resolution proof.

Definition 4 ((minimal) Witness). Let $M \subseteq A$ and B, S be disjoint subsets of M. A basic logic program P is a witness of B under S w.r.t. M if $MR(P, M) \cup S \vdash_{CA} B$. Moreover, P is minimal if no $P' \subset P$ exists such that $MR(P', M) \cup S \vdash_{CA} B$.

The set of all minimal witnesses $P' \subseteq P$ of B under S w.r.t. M is denoted by MW(B, P, S, M).

In other words, under the assumption M (to be justified as an SPT-answer set of a basic logic program P) and the justified subset S of M, the (minimal) witness of B under S w.r.t. M is

Algorithm 2: MinWitness(Π, B, S, M)

Input: A basic logic program Π , a nonempty SPT-answer set M of Π , and two disjoint subsets B, S of MOutput: A minimal witness $\Pi' \subseteq \Pi$ of B under Sw.r.t.M1 $\Pi' \leftarrow \operatorname{MR}(\Pi, M)$;

2 $\Pi'' \leftarrow \Pi$;

3 foreach $r \in \Pi'$ do

4 | if $\Pi' - \{r\} \cup S \vdash_{CA} B$ then

5 | $\Pi' \leftarrow \Pi' - \{r\}$;

6 | $\Pi'' \leftarrow \Pi'' - \{r' \in \Pi \mid \{r'\} = \operatorname{MR}(\{r\}, M)\}$;

7 | end

8 end

9 return Π'' ;

a (minimal) subprogram P' of P such that every atom in B has a CA-resolution proof from the minimal reduct $\operatorname{MR}(P',M)$ and the as justified regarded atoms in S. Algorithm 2 can be used to compute such a minimal witness.

Example 4. Let P consist of the following rules:

$$r_1: a \leftarrow, \qquad r_2: b \leftarrow not \ c, \qquad r_3: c \leftarrow A$$

where $A=(\{a,b\},\{\{a\}\})$ and $A_c^*=\{\{a\}\uplus\emptyset\}$. Then $M=\{a,c\}$ is an SPT-answer set of P.

The CA-resolution $res(r_3, r_1, A, a)$ is $c \leftarrow$, and $P'_c = \{r_1, r_3\}$ is the only minimal witness of $\{c\}$ under \emptyset w.r.t. M. Under M and the justified a, the minimal sufficient subprogram to "justify" c is $\{r_3\}$, i.e., $MW(\{c\}, P, \{a\}, M) = \{\{r_3\}\}$.

5.1 α -witness and α^* -witness

The following notions of α -witness and α^* -witness capture the structural witness for SPT-answer sets. They serve to explain why a group of atoms are in an SPT-answer set.

Definition 5 (α^* -witness and α -witness). Let P be a basic logic program, $M \neq \emptyset$ be an SPT-answer set of P, B and S be disjoint subsets of M. An α^* -witness of B under P and S w.r.t. M is a directed acyclic graph $G = (\{(S_i, P_i) | 1 \leq i \leq n\}, E)$ where

- $\{S_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ is a partitioning of B (i.e., $\bigcup_{i=1}^n S_i = B$, $S_i \cap S_j = \emptyset$ $(i \neq j)$ and $S_i \neq \emptyset$), and
- for every i, $1 \le i \le n$,
 - (i) $P_i \subseteq P$ is a witness of S_i under $S \cup X_i$ w.r.t. M,
 - (ii) P_i is not a witness of S_j under $S \cup X_i$ w.r.t. M, for every $1 \leq j \neq i \leq n$ and $(S_j, P_j) \notin D_G((S_i, P_i))^4$, where for each $k (1 \leq k \leq n)$,

$$X_k = \bigcup \{ S' \mid (S', P') \in D_G((S_k, P_k)) \}.$$

If G induces a total order $(S_1, P_1) < (S_2, P_2) < \cdots < (S_n, P_n)$, i.e., $E = \{((S_i, P_i), (S_{i+1}, P_{i+1})) \mid 1 \leq i < n\}$, then we call it an α -witness of B under P and S w.r.t. M, and denote it as

$$W = [(S_1, P_1), \dots, (S_n, P_n)].$$

We call G minimal, if every P_i is minimal and G is compact, if in addition to minimality $P_i \cap P_j = \emptyset$ for all $1 \le i < j \le n$. If B = M and $S = \emptyset$, we call G a (minimal, compact) α^* -witness resp. α -witness of M w.r.t. P.

Note that Definition 5, requires $M \neq \emptyset$. This means that for an empty SPT-answer set (= \emptyset) of a logic program, no witness is defined; however, in this case no atom needs to be justified.

While α^* -witnesses are any directed acyclic graphs, α -witnesses are chains. Intuitively, for each node (S_i, P_i) of a witness, the atoms in S_i can be "derived" from P_i with the help of those "derived" atoms in X_i , that are on the paths of G to (S_i, P_i) . In this sense P_i is a justification for why the atoms in S_i are in an SPT-answer set, i.e., P_i is minimal such that $\operatorname{MR}(P_i, M) \cup X_i$ can "derive" the atoms in S_i .

Example 5. Let us consider the logic program P in Example 4. The SPT-answer set $M = \{a, c\}$ of P has two α^* -witnesses:

- $G_1 = (V_1, \emptyset)$ with $V_1 = \{(\{a, c\}, \{r_1, r_3\})\};$
- $G_2=(\{v_1,v_2\},\{(v_1,v_2)\})$ with $v_1=(\{a\},\{r_1\})$ and $v_2=(\{c\},\{r_3\}).$

Notice that both G_1 and G_2 are α -witnesses since they can be written as $W_1 = [(\{a,c\},\{r_1,r_3\})]$ and $W_2 = [(\{a\},\{r_1\}),(\{c\},\{r_3\})]$, respectively. It is easy to check that both G_1 and G_2 are compact.

The next proposition shows that every nonempty SPT-answer set of a basic logic program has a compact α^* -witness.

Proposition 4. Let P be a basic program, $M \neq \emptyset$ be an SPT-answer set of P and Q = MR(P, M). Then, the DAG $G = (\{(S_i, Q_i) \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}, E')$ obtained from $\mathbb{S}_Q = (\{S_1, \ldots, S_n\}, E)$ such that

- $Q_i \in \mathrm{MW}(S_i, P, S_{\triangleright i}, M)$, where $S_{\triangleright i} = \bigcup D_{\mathbb{S}_Q}(S_i)$, $1 \le i \le n$, and
- $((S_i, Q_i), (S_j, Q_j)) \in E' \text{ if } (S_i, S_j) \in E$

is a compact α^* -witness of M w.r.t. P.

The compact α^\star -witness constructed in Proposition 4 is called the *full-split* α^\star (α_{fs}^\star)-witness of M w.r.t. P. The proposition also implies that $D_{\mathbb{S}_G}(S_i)$ can be utilized to form different compact α^\star -witnesses for M w.r.t. P. For example, if there is a path $((S_i,Q_i),(S_{i+1},Q_{i+1},\ldots,(S_k,Q_k))$ in the DAG G=(V,E') of Proposition 4, then the DAG G'=(V'',E'') with

- $V'' = V' \setminus \{(S_{i'}, Q_{i'}), \dots, (S_{k'}, Q_{k'})\} \cup (\bigcup_{j=i'}^{k'} S_j, \bigcup_{j=i'}^{k'} Q_j)$ where $i \leq i' \leq k' \leq k$, and
- $((S_v,Q_v),(S_u,Q_u)) \in E''$ if $((S_v,Q_v),(S_u,Q_u)) \in E'$ and at most one of (S_u,Q_u) and (S_v,Q_v) is combined in V'', i.e., $|\{u,v\}\cap\{i',\ldots,k'\}| \leq 1$

is a compact α^* -witnesses for M w.r.t. P.

5.2 β -witness and β^* -witness

The notion of α -witness addresses the justifications for a group of atoms simultaneously. However, in many situations, including debugging, engineers are more concerned with the justification of individual atoms. This leads to the following more refined testimony.

⁴If $(S_j, P_j) \in D_G((S_i, P_i))$ then $S_j \subseteq X_i$ and $Q \cup X_i \vdash_{CA} S_j$ for any basic logic program Q.

Algorithm 3: MinBetaWitness (Π, B, S, M)

```
Input: A basic logic program \Pi, a nonempty SPT-answer
              set M of \Pi, and two disjoint subsets B, S of M
    Output: A minimal \beta-witness of B under \Pi and S w.r.t.
 1 T \leftarrow S; \Pi' \leftarrow []; \Sigma \leftarrow MR(\Pi, M);
    while B - T \neq \emptyset do
         while \exists r \in \Sigma \text{ s.t. } bd^+(r) \subseteq T, hd(r) = \{p\},\
         p \in M - T \operatorname{do}
              T \leftarrow T \cup hd(r);
              \Pi'.append((p,rm(\{r\},\Pi,M)));
 5
 6
         end
         if M = T then break Let u \in B - T;
 7
 8
         \Sigma_u \leftarrow \mathsf{MinWitness}(\Sigma, \{u\}, T, M);
         while \Sigma_u \cup T \vdash v for some v \in M - (\{u\} \cup T) do
 9
              \Sigma_v \leftarrow \mathsf{MinWitness}(\Sigma_u, \{v\}, T, M);
10
11
              \Sigma_u \leftarrow \Sigma_v;
12
13
         end
         \Pi'.append((u,rm(\Sigma_u,\Pi,M)));
14
15
         T \leftarrow T \cup \{u\};
16 end
17 return \Pi';
```

Definition 6 ((minimal, compact) β^* - and β -witness). Let P be a basic logic program, $M \neq \emptyset$ an SPT-answer set of P, and B, S be two disjoint subsets of M.

- Every α^* -witness $G = (\{(S_i, P_i) | 1 \le i \le n\}, E)$ of B under P and S w.r.t. M such that $S_i = \{p_i\}$ for some atom p_i , $1 \le i \le n$, is a β^* -witness of B under P and S w.r.t. M, also written as $G = (\{(p_i, P_i) | 1 \le i \le n\}, E)$.
- The notions of β -witness and minimal/compact β^* resp. β -witness of B under P and S w.r.t. M are defined analogously to α -witness and minimal/compact α^* resp. α -witness of B under P and S w.r.t. M.

In particular, if B = M and $S = \emptyset$, then we call G a (minimal, compact) β^* -witness, respectively, β -witness of M w.r.t. P.

Clearly β -witnesses and β^* -witnesses are special cases of α -witnesses and α^* -witnesses, respectively. It has been shown that an answer set of a logic program containing merely elementary atoms may not have a compact β -witness, and that deciding whether some compact β -witness exists is Σ_2^p -complete [Wang *et al.*, 2023]. This motivates us to confine computation to minimal β -witnesses, which always exist.

Algorithm 3, MinBetaWitness, computes a minimal β -witness of B under a basic logic program P relative to S w.r.t. M. It uses a function $rm(\Sigma,\Pi,M)$ that returns, given basic logic programs Σ,Π and $M\subseteq \mathcal{A}$, a minimal subset Π' of Π such that $\mathrm{MR}(\Pi',M)=\Sigma$. The external while-loop (line 2-17) checks whether all atoms in M have a minimal witness. The first inner while-loop identifies the atoms by unit propagation, while the second inner while-loop searches for an atom u and its minimal witness Σ_u under T such that there is no atom v in $\{u\} \cup T$ that can be observed by $\Sigma_u \cup T$.

The next proposition shows the correctness of Algorithm 3. Thus, every nonempty SPT-answer set of a basic logic program

has a minimal β -witness.

Proposition 5. If M is an SPT-answer set of a basic logic program P then MinBetaWitness (P, M, \emptyset, M) returns a minimal β -witness of M w.r.t. P.

Example 6. Let us consider the logic program P with aggregates from Example 14 in [Eiter and Geibinger, 2023], which consists of the following rules:

$$r_1: a \leftarrow \#sum\{1: b, 2: d\} > 2, \#sum\{3: d, 2: c\} < 5,$$

 $r_2: d \leftarrow b, \qquad r_3: b \lor c \leftarrow .$

The formulas involving #sum are aggregate atoms of the form $\#sum\{w_i: l_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\} \leq w$ where w_i and w are numbers, \leq is an arithmetic comparison operator and l_i is a (possibly negated) atom. An interpretation M satisfies such an aggregate atom if $(\sum_{i=1, M \models l_i}^n w_i) \leq w$.

Hence the aggregate atoms $\#sum\{1:b,2:d\} > 2$ and $\#sum\{3:d,2:c\} < 5$ can be modeled as abstract constraint atoms $A = (\{b,d\}, \{\{b,d\}\})$ and $B = (\{c,d\}, \{\emptyset, \{c\}, \{d\}\})$, respectively. Thus, rule r_1 can be represented as

$$r_1': a \leftarrow A, B$$
.

It is not hard to check that $M = \{a, b, d\}$ is an SPT-answer set of P. We note that $MR(B, M) = \top$ as $2^{\{c, d\} \cap M} = \{S \cap M \mid S \in \{\emptyset, \{c\}, \{d\}\}\} = \{\emptyset, \{d\}\}$. Thus, $MR(\{r'_1, r_2, r_3\}, M)$ consists of following rules, where $A' = (\{b, d\}, \{\{b, d\}\})$:

$$r_1'': a \leftarrow A', \qquad r_2': d \leftarrow b, \qquad r_3': b \leftarrow .$$

Furthermore, M has a unique compact β -witness, namely:

$$W = [(b, \{r_3\}), (d, \{r_2\}), (a, \{r_1'\})]$$

Informally, $b \in M$ is justified by rule r_3 , as $MR(\{r_3\}, M) = \{r'_3\}$ (minimally) "derives" b. Then, with the help of b, $MR(\{r_2\}, M) = \{r'_2\}$ (minimally) "derives" d. Finally, with the help of b and d, $MR(\{r_1\}, M)$ minimally "derives" a.

6 Related Work

There have been various notions for explaining answer sets of logic programs and some systems have been available. The difference between witness-based explanations, off-line justifications, and causal graph based ones have been discussed in [Wang $et\ al.$, 2023]. To our best knowledge, only r-justification [Eiter and Geibinger, 2023] can deal with abstract constraint atoms. We firstly recall some basic notations and notions about r-justification.

A partial interpretation is a tuple $I=\langle I^+,\ I^-\rangle$, where $I^+,\ I^-\subseteq \mathcal{A}$ and $I^+\cap I^-=\emptyset$; it is total on a set S of atoms if $S\subseteq I^+\cup I^-$. For two partial interpretations J_1,J_2 , we denote by $J_1\le J_2$ that $J_1^+\subseteq J_2^+$ and $J_1^-\subseteq J_2^-$, and by $J_1< J_2$ that $J_1\le J_2$ and $J_1\ne J_2$. A partial interpretation $I=\langle I^+,I^-\rangle$ satisfies a c-atom A if $I^+\cap A_d\in A_c$ and, for each $U\in \overline{A_c}$ with $I^+\cap A_d\subset U,U\cap I^-\ne\emptyset$ holds. The latter intuitively means that I^+ cannot be extended (under the restriction of I^-) to falsify A. In other words, $U\in A_c$ for every U s.t. $A_d\cap I^+\subseteq U\subseteq A_d\setminus I^-$. If I is total (on A_d), then $I\models A$ whenever $I^+\cap A_d\in A_c$.

Definition 7 (Presumptuous Entailment). *Let* P *be a program,* J *be a partial interpretation and* A *be a c-atom. Then* $P \models_J A$ *if every total model* I *of* P *s.t.* $I \geq J$ *fulfills* $I \models A$.

Definition 8 (Failed Support). Let r be a rule and I be a total model of r. Then, r is a failed support for atom a w.r.t. I if $I \not\models bd(r)$ and for every I', $I' \models a$ if $I' \models r$ and $I' \models bd(r)$.

Definition 9 (r-justification). Let P be a program, I be an answer set of P and a be an atom. Then, a triple (a°, Q, J) , where $\circ \in \{+, -\}$, $Q \subseteq P$ is a set of rules, and $J \leq I$, is a partial interpretation, is an r-justification for a w.r.t. P and I if the following conditions hold:

- (a) If $a \in I$, then $\circ = +$, $Q^I \models_J a$ and there is no $R \subset Q$ such that $R^I \models_J a$.
- (b) If $a \notin I$, then $\circ = -$, $Q = \{r \in P \mid r \text{ is a failed support of a w.r.t. } I\}$, and for every $r \in Q$, $J \models \overline{A}$ for some $A \in bd(r)$.

The r-justification is *concise* if J is \leq -minimal.

Definition 10 (r-justification chain). A sequence $\mathcal{J} = (a_1^{\circ}, Q_1, J_1), \dots, (a_n^{\circ}, Q_n, J_n)$ of r-justifications w.r.t. P and I is an r-justification chain for a_1 , if for every (a_i°, Q_i, J_i) $(1 \leq i \leq n)$, it holds that

- (a) for each $a \in J_i^+$ some (a_j^+, Q_j, J_j) exists such that $a_j = a$ and either j > i or $a_j = a_1$ and there is no subsequence $(a_{k_1}^+, Q_{k_1}, J_{k_1}), \cdots, (a_{k_\ell}^+, Q_{k_\ell}, J_{k_\ell})$ of $\mathcal J$ where $k_1 = 1$, $k_\ell = i$, and $a_{k_{h+1}} \in J_{k_h}^+$, for all $1 < h < \ell$;
- (b) for each $a \in J_i^-$ some (a_j^-, Q_j, J_j) exists s.t. $a_j = a$;
- (c) if i > 1, then some (a_j°, Q_j, J_j) exists such that $a_i \in J_j^{\circ}$ and j < i; and
- (d) $a_i = a_j$ for $1 \le j \le n$ implies i = j.

It was shown that, for every logic program P and every FLP-answer I of P, every atom in I has an r-justification chain w.r.t. P and I, cf. Theorem 4 of [Eiter and Geibinger, 2023].

The next example shows some subtle difference between r-justification and witness.

Example 7. Let us consider the basic logic program P consisting of the following rules, where $A = (\{b, a\}, \{\emptyset, \{b, a\}\})$:

$$r_1: a \leftarrow b, \quad r_2: b \leftarrow a, \quad r_3: a \leftarrow A, \quad r_4: a \vee b.$$

It is not difficult to verify that $I=\{a,b\}$ is the unique SPT-answer set of P. Note that $A_c^*=\{\emptyset \uplus \emptyset, \{a,b\} \uplus \emptyset\}$ and MR(P,I) consists of

$$\alpha_1 : a \leftarrow b, \quad \alpha_2 : b \leftarrow a,$$

 $\alpha_3 : a \leftarrow (\{b, a\}, \{\{b, a\}\}), \quad \alpha_4 : a \lor b.$

Clearly $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_4\} \vdash_{CA} a$ and $\{\alpha_2, a\} \vdash_{CA} b$. Thus, we have the following compact β -witness W for I w.r.t. P:

$$W = [(a, \{r_1, r_4\}), (b, \{r_2\})]. \tag{6}$$

From this β -witness and the fact that the total models of $\{r_1, r_4\}$ that extend the partial interpretation $\langle \emptyset, \emptyset \rangle$

are $\langle \{a\}, \{b\} \rangle$ and $\langle \{a,b\}, \emptyset \rangle$, we obtain the following rjustification chain \mathcal{J} for b:

$$\mathcal{J} = (b^+, \{r_2\}, \langle \{a\}, \emptyset \rangle), (a^+, \{r_1, r_4\}, \langle \emptyset, \emptyset \rangle).$$

Note that the FLP-reduct P^I of P w.r.t. I is P. The total models of $\{r_1, r_3\}$ are $\langle \{a\}, \{b\} \rangle$ and $\langle \{a, b\}, \emptyset \rangle$, i.e., the classical interpretations $\{a\}$ an $\{a, b\}$. It is tedious but not difficult to check that

$$(a^+, \{r_1, r_3\}, \langle \emptyset, \emptyset \rangle) \tag{7}$$

is an r-justification for a w.r.t. P and I since $\{r_1, r_3\}$ is (subset) minimal s.t. $\{r_1, r_3\}^I = \{r_1, r_3\}$ and $\{r_1, r_3\}^I \models_{\langle \emptyset, \emptyset \rangle} a$ (every total model of $\{r_1, r_3\}$ that extends the partial interpretation $\langle \emptyset, \emptyset \rangle$ satisfies a). The r-justification chain (7) is indeed a chain. It explains why a is in the FLP-answer set by the argument that every total model of $\{r_1, r_3\}$ that extends $\langle \emptyset, \emptyset \rangle$ satisfies a. Due to the fact that $MR(\{r_1, r_3\}, I) = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_3\}$, we have $MR(\{r_1, r_3\}, I) \not\vdash_{CA} a$; hence, this r-justification for a cannot be mapped to a witness for a. For the same reason, the following r-justification chain

$$\mathcal{J}' = (b^+, \{r_2\}, \langle \{a\}, \emptyset \rangle), (a^+, \{r_1, r_3\}, \langle \emptyset, \emptyset \rangle)$$

for b cannot be mapped to a witness for b yet. Since $\{r_1, r_4\}$ can derive a by classical resolution, while $\{r_1, r_3\}$ cannot, the justification chain \mathcal{J} is more intuitive than \mathcal{J}' .

The next proposition shows that every minimal witness can capture an r-justification. Its converse does not hold, as shown by Example 7.

Proposition 6. Let P be a basic logic program, I be an SPT-answer set of P, $S \subseteq I$, and $p \in I \setminus S$. If $Q \in MW(\{p\}, P, S, I)$, then $(p^+, Q, \langle S, \overline{I} \rangle)$ is an r-justification for p w.r.t. P and I.

Hence, when we consider r-justifications under SPT-answer set semantics, the minimal witness provides a more selective and intuitive way to chose rules as justifications as seen the $\mathcal J$ and $\mathcal J'$ in Example 7.

7 Conclusion

For logic programs with abstract constraint atoms, we have proposed the notions of minimal reduct, the resolution proof, and witness for SPT-answer sets. We showed that this minimal reduct provides a new characterization for SPT-answer sets of basic logic programs. It also facilitates an extended resolution for atoms in SPT-answer sets. Thus, an explanation in terms of "proof" can be obtained for the SPT-answer sets.

It is well-known that the problem of finding shorter resolution proofs in propositional logic is intractable [Haken, 1985]. To construct short CA-resolution-based explanations for SPT-answer sets is a challenge, but it deserves further investigation. In addition, we will analyze the computational complexity of (compact) α -witnesses and β -witnesses.

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⁵This logic program is similar to the one $P_7 \cup P_8$ in Example 13 of [Eiter and Geibinger, 2023]

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