# Eliminating The Impossible, Whatever Remains Must Be True On Extracting and Applying Background Knowledge In The Context Of Formal Explanations 

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#### Abstract

The rise of AI methods to make predictions and decisions has led to a pressing need for more explainable artificial intelligence (XAI) methods. One common approach for XAI is to produce a post-hoc explanation, explaining why a black box ML model made a certain prediction. Formal approaches to post-hoc explanations provide succinct reasons for why a prediction was made, as well as why not another prediction was made. But these approaches assume that features are independent and uniformly distributed. While this means that "why" explanations are correct, they may be longer than required. It also means the "why not" explanations may be suspect as the counterexamples they rely on may not be meaningful. In this paper, we show how one can apply background knowledge to give more succinct "why" formal explanations, that are presumably easier to interpret by humans, and give more accurate "why not" explanations. Furthermore, we also show how to use existing rule induction techniques to efficiently extract background information from a dataset, and also how to report which background information was used to make an explanation, allowing a human to examine it if they doubt the correctness of the explanation.


## 1 Introduction

Recent years have witnessed rapid advances in Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Machine Learning (ML) algorithms revolutionizing all aspects of human lives (LeCun, Bengio, and Hinton|2015; ACM|2018). An ever growing range of practical applications of AI and ML, on the one hand, and a number of critical issues observed in modern AI systems (e.g. decision bias (Angwin et al. 2016) and brittleness (Szegedy et al. 2014), on the other hand, gave rise to the quickly advancing area of theory and practice of Explainable AI (XAI).

Several major approaches to XAI have been proposed in the recent past. Besides tackling XAI through computing interpretable ML models directly (Rudin 2019), or through the use of interpretable models for approximating complex black-box ML models (Ribeiro, Singh, and Guestrin 2016), the most prominent approach to XAI is to compute posthoc explanations to ML predictions on demand (Lundberg and Lee 2017, Ribeiro, Singh, and Guestrin 2018). Furthermore, prior work distinguishes post-hoc explanations answering a "why?" question and explanations targeting a
"why not?" question (Miller 2019) ${ }^{1}$ While heuristic approaches to post-hoc explainability prevail (Ribeiro, Singh, and Guestrin 2016, Lundberg and Lee 2017, Ribeiro, Singh, and Guestrin 2018), they are known to suffer from a number of fundamental explanation quality issues, including the existence of out-of-distribution attacks (Slack et al. 2020). A promising alternative to heuristic approaches is formal explainability where explanations are computed as prime implicants of the decision function associated with ML predictions (Shih, Choi, and Darwiche 2018; Ignatiev, Narodytska, and Marques-Silva 2019; Darwiche and Hirth 2020; Marques-Silva and Ignatiev 2022).

Although provably correct and minimal, formal explanations have a few limitations. In order to provide provable correctness guarantees that a subset of features is sufficient for an ML prediction, formal approaches have to take into account the complete feature space assuming that the features are independent and uniformly distributed (Wäldchen et al. 2021). This makes a formal reasoner check all the combinations of feature values, including those that realistically can never appear in practice. This issue is caused by the inability of modern (both formal and heuristic ${ }^{2}$ ) explanation approaches to account for background knowledge associated with the problem domain of the target dataset. It results in formal explanations being unnecessarily long, which makes them hard for a human decision maker to interpret. Clearly, the issue restricts the practical applicability of the state-of-the-art explanation approaches.

Motivated by this limitation, our work focuses on computing both abductive and contrastive formal explanations and makes the following contributions with respect to the state of the art. First, given a training dataset, an efficient generic approach to extracting background knowledge in the form of highly accurate if-then rules is proposed. Following recent work on using constraints in compilation-based formal explainability (Gorji and Rubin 2021), accurate background knowledge is argued to be the key to good quality explanations. The approach builds on a recent formal method

[^0]for learning decision sets (Ignatiev et al. 2021) and is able to extract reasonably short rules representing relations between various features of the target dataset. Also, as our approach is designed to enumerate $100 \%$ accurate rules, its performance is shown to be on par with a modern implementation of the well-known Apriori association rule mining algorithm (Agrawal and Srikant 1994). Second, a novel approach to computing formal explanations taking into account background knowledge is proposed, independent of the nature of the background knowledge; the only requirement imposed is that the knowledge must be represented as a conjunction of constraints. Third, we prove theoretically that the use of background knowledge positively affects the quality of both abductive and contrastive explanations, thus, helping to build trust in the underlying AI systems. Fourth, we develop an effective way to discover which background knowledge rules are used in extracting an explanation. This enables a human decision maker to examine whether or not the rules used are meaningful, which further facilitates human trust in the explanations computed. Fifth and finally, motivated by the results of (Ignatiev 2020), we argue that background knowledge helps one assess the correctness of heuristic ML explainers (Ribeiro, Singh, and Guestrin 2016 Lundberg and Lee 2017; Ribeiro, Singh, and Guestrin 2018) more accurately since it blocks impossible combinations of features values. Namely, we show that the estimated correctness of SHAP, LIME, and Anchor may improve significantly when background knowledge is available.

## 2 Preliminaries

SAT, MaxSAT, and SMT. Definitions standard in propositional satisfiability (SAT) and maximum satisfiability (MaxSAT) solving are assumed (Biere et al. 2021). SAT and MaxSAT formulas are assumed to be propositional. A propositional formula $\varphi$ is considered to be in conjunctive normal form (CNF) if it is a conjunction (logical "and") of clauses, where a clause is a disjunction (logical "or") of literals, and a literal is either a Boolean variable $b$ or its negation $\neg b$. Whenever convenient, a clause is treated as a set of literals. A truth assignment $\mu$ is a mapping from the set of variables in $\varphi$ to $\{0,1\}$. A clause is satisfied by truth assignment $\mu$ if one of its literals is assigned value 1 by $\mu$; otherwise, the clause is said to be falsified. If all clauses of formula $\varphi$ are satisfied by assignment $\mu$ then $\mu$ also satisfies $\varphi$; otherwise, $\varphi$ is falsified by $\mu$. A formula $\varphi$ is said to be satisfiable if there is an assignment $\mu$ that satisfies $\varphi$; otherwise, $\varphi$ is unsatisfiable.

In the context of unsatisfiable formulas, the maximum satisfiability problem is to find a truth assignment that maximizes the number of satisfied clauses. Hereinafter, we will make use of a variant of MaxSAT called Partial (Unweighted) MaxSAT (Biere et al. 2021, Chapters 23 and 24). The formula $\varphi$ in Partial (Unweighted) MaxSAT is a conjunction of hard clauses $\mathcal{H}$, which must be satisfied, and soft clauses $\mathcal{S}$, which represent a preference to satisfy them, i.e. $\varphi=\mathcal{H} \wedge \mathcal{S}$. The Partial Unweighted MaxSAT problem aims at finding a truth assignment that satisfies all the hard clauses while maximizing the total number of satisfied soft clauses.

Note that we consider a family of ML classifiers such that

Table 1: Several examples extracted from adult dataset.

| Education | Status | Occupation | Relationship | Sex | Hours/w Target |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| HighSchool | Married | Sales | Husband | Male | 40 to 45 | $\geq 50 \mathrm{k}$ |
| Bachelors | Married | Sales | Wife | Female | $\leq 40$ | $\geq 50 \mathrm{k}$ |
| Masters | Married | Professional | Wife | Female | $\geq 45$ | $\geq 50 \mathrm{k}$ |
| Masters | Married | Professional | Wife | Female | $\leq 40$ | $\geq 50 \mathrm{k}$ |
| Dropout | Separated | Service | Not-in-family | Male | $\leq 40$ | $<50 \mathrm{k}$ |
| Dropout | Never-Married | Blue-Collar | Unmarried | Male | $\geq 45$ | $\geq 50 \mathrm{k}$ |

their decision making process can be represented logically as a propositional formula. This is needed for applying formal reasoning about ML model behavior, as well as for representing background knowledge extracted. Finally, a logical representation of boosted tree models will require us to apply an extension of propositional logic to decidable fragments of first-order logic (FOL). Namely, we will assume the use of satisfiability modulo theories (SMT) in the theory of linear arithmetic over reals, i.e. the concept of a clause will be lifted to linear constraints over real variables. Optimization problems for SMT can be defined analogously to MaxSAT.

Classification Problems. Classification problems consider a set of classes $\mathcal{K}=\left\{c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{k}\right\}$, and a set of features $\mathcal{F}=\{1, \ldots, m\}$. The value of each feature $i \in \mathcal{F}$ is taken from a domain $\mathcal{D}_{i}$, which can be integer, real-valued or Boolean. Therefore, the complete feature space is defined as $\mathbb{F} \triangleq \prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathcal{D}_{i}$. A concrete point in feature space is represented by $\mathbf{v}=\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{m}\right) \in \mathbb{F}$, where each $v_{i} \in \mathbf{v}$ is a constant taken by feature $i \in \mathcal{F}$. An instance or example is denoted by a specific point $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{F}$ in feature space and its corresponding class $c \in \mathcal{K}$, i.e. a pair $(\mathbf{v}, c)$ represents an instance. Moreover, the notation $\mathbf{x}=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right)$ denotes an arbitrary point in feature space, where each $x_{i} \in \mathbf{x}$ is a variable taking values from its corresponding domain $\mathcal{D}_{i}$ and representing feature $i \in \mathcal{F}$.

A classifier defines a classification function $\tau: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{K}$. Whenever convenient, a classification function $\tau$ and an associated class $c$ are represented by a decision predicate $\tau_{c}: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$. A decision predicate $\tau_{c}$ is given a specific class $c \in \mathcal{K}$, such that $\forall(\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}) \cdot \tau_{c}(\mathbf{x}) \leftrightarrow(\tau(\mathbf{x})=c)$. There are many ways to learn classifiers for a given dataset. In this paper, we consider: decision lists (DLs) (Rivest 1987; Clark and Niblett 1989), boosted trees (BTs) (Friedman 2001; Chen and Guestrin 2016), and binarized neural networks (BNNs) (Hubara et al. 2016).
Example 1. Consider the data shown in Table 1 It represents a snapshot of instances taken from a simplified version ${ }^{3}$ of the adult dataset (Kohavi 1996). Figure 1 illustrates DL and BT models trained for this dataset. Observe that for instance $\mathbf{v}=\{$ Education $=$ HighSchool, Status $=$ Married, Occupation $=$ Sales, Relationship $=$ Husband, Sex $=$ Male, Hours $/ w=40$ to 45\} from Table 1 .

[^1]| $\mathrm{R}_{0}:$ | IF | Education = Dropout | THEN | Target $<50 \mathrm{k}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{R}_{1}:$ | ELSE IF | Occupation = Service | THEN | Target $<50 \mathrm{k}$ |
| $\mathrm{R}_{2}:$ | ELSE IF | Status = Married $\wedge$ Relationship = Husband | THEN | Target $\geq 50 \mathrm{k}$ |
| $\mathrm{R}_{3}:$ | ELSE IF | Status = Married $\wedge$ Relationship = Wife | THEN | Target $\geq 50 \mathrm{k}$ |
| $\mathrm{R}_{\text {DEF }}:$ | ELSE |  | THEN | Target $<50 \mathrm{k}$ |


(b) Boosted tree Chen and Guestrin 2016 consisting of 3 trees with the depth of each tree at most 2

Figure 1: Example DL and BT models trained on the well-known adult classification dataset.
rule $R_{2}$ in the DL in Figure 1a predicts $\geq 50 k$. Similarly, the sum of the weights ( $0.1063,0.0707$ and -0.0128 in the 3 trees, respectively) for prediction $\geq 50 k$ is positive ( 0.1642 ) in the BT in Figure [1b] and so the BT model also predicts $\geq 50 \mathrm{k}$ for the aforementioned instance $\mathbf{v}$.

Interpretability and Explanations. Interpretability is not formally defined since it is a subjective concept (Lipton 2018). In this paper, we define interpretability as the conciseness of the computed explanations for an ML model to justify a provided prediction. The definition of explanation for an ML model is built on earlier work (Shih, Choi, and Darwiche 2018; Ignatiev, Narodytska, and Marques-Silva 2019, Darwiche and Hirth 2020; Audemard, Koriche, and Marquis 2020; Marques-Silva and Ignatiev 2022), where explanations are equated with abductive explanations (AXps), which are the subset-minimal sets of features sufficing to explain the prediction given by an ML model. Concretely, given an instance $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{F}$ and a computed prediction $c \in \mathcal{K}$, i.e. $\tau(\mathbf{v})=c$, an AXp is a subset-minimal set of features $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall(\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}) \cdot \bigwedge_{i \in \mathcal{X}}\left(x_{i}=v_{i}\right) \rightarrow(\tau(\mathbf{x})=c) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Abductive explanations are also prime implicants of the decision predicate $\tau_{c}$ and hence a prime implicant (PI) explanation is another name for an AXp.
Example 2. Consider the DL and BT models in Figure 1 and data instance $\mathbf{v}$ from Example 1 By examining the DL model Figure 1a, specifying Education $=$ HighSchool, Status $=$ Married, Occupation $=$ Sales, and Relationship $=$ Husband can guarantee that any instance is classified by $R_{2}$ independent of the values of other features, i.e. Sex and Hours/w. In a similar vein, the prediction of an instance is guaranteed to be $\geq 50 k$ in Figure $1 b$ as long as the feature values above are used, since the sum of weights is promised to be $0.1063+0.0707+-0.0128=0.1642$ for class $\geq 50 k$. Therefore, the (only) AXp $\mathcal{X}$ for the prediction of $\mathbf{v}$ is $\{$ Education, Status, Occupation, Relationship $\}$
in both models.
We also consider contrastive explanations ( CXps ), which are defined as the subset-minimal set of features that are necessary to change the computed prediction if the features of a CXp are allowed to take some arbitrary value from their corresponding domain. More formally and following (Ignatiev et al. 2020), a CXp for prediction $\tau(\mathbf{v})=c$ is defined as a minimal subset $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\exists(\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}) \cdot \bigwedge_{i \notin \mathcal{Y}}\left(x_{i}=v_{i}\right) \wedge(\tau(\mathbf{x}) \neq c) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Example 3. Consider the instance $\mathbf{v}$ from Example 1 classified as $\geq 50 k$ by both models in Figure 1. Given either model, $\mathcal{Y}=\{$ Occupation $\}$ is a CXp for instance $\mathbf{v}$ because the prediction for $\mathbf{v}$ can be changed if feature 'Occupation' is allowed to take another value from its domain, e.g. if the value is changed to 'Service'. Similarly to the above, changing the value of feature 'Occupation' to 'Service' triggers that the weights in the 3 trees become $0.1063,-0.2231$ and -0.0128 . Therefore, the total weight is -0.0982 , i.e. the prediction is changed. By further examining the two models, other subsets of features can be identified as CXps for $\mathbf{v}$. The set of CXps is $\mathbb{Y}=\{\{$ Education $\}$, $\{$ Status $\},\{$ Occupation $\}$, \{Relationship $\}\}$, while the set of AXps demonstrated in Example 2 is $\mathbb{X}=\{\{$ Education, Status, Occupation, Relationship\}\}.

Recent work, which builds on the seminal work of Reiter (Reiter 1987), established a minimal hitting set (MHS) duality relationship exists between AXps and CXps (Ignatiev et al. 2020). In other words, each CXp minimally hit every AXp, and vice-versa. The explanations enumeration algorithms used in this paper employ this fact.
Example 4. Observe how the minimal hitting set duality holds for the set of abductive explanations $\mathbb{X}$ and the set of contrastive explanations $\mathbb{Y}$ shown in Example 3 The only abductive explanation minimally hits all the contrastive explanations and vice versa.

## 3 Extracting Background Knowledge

Recent work (Gorji and Rubin 2021) argues that background knowledge is helpful in the context of formal explanations. The idea is that, if identified, background knowledge may help forbid some of the combinations of feature values that would otherwise have to be taken into account by a formal reasoner, thus, slowing the reasoner down and making the explanations unnecessarily long. But the question of how such knowledge can be obtained in an automated way remains open.
Example 5. Consider the data in Table 1 and assume that it represents trustable information. The following two rules can be extracted:

- IF Relationship $=$ Husband THEN Status $=$ Married
- IF Relationship $=$ Wife THEN Status $=$ Married

Observe that these rules may be used to exclude feature Status from consideration when computing explanations as long as Relationship equals either Husband or Wife because of the implications identified.

Here we describe the MaxSAT-based approach to automatically extract background knowledge, which represents hidden relations between features of a dataset if the dataset is assumed to be trustable. It builds on the recent two-stage approach (Ignatiev et al. 2021) to learning smallest size decision sets (Kamath et al. 1992; Lakkaraju, Bach, and Leskovec |2016; |Ignatiev et al.||2018; |Malioutov and Meel 2018, Ghosh and Meel |2019; Yu et al.||2020, 2021). Concretely, we apply the first stage of (Ignatiev et al. 2021) which enumerates the individual decision rules given a dataset, using MaxSAT. Each decision rule relationship between various features of a dataset, and all the rules enumerated comprise the background knowledge collected.

Without diving into the full details, the idea of (Ignatiev et al. 2021) can be summarized as follows. Given training data $\mathcal{E}$ and target class $c \in \mathcal{K}$, a MaxSAT solver is invoked multiple times, each producing a unique subset-minimal (irreducible) rule in the form of "IF antecedent THEN prediction $c$ ", where the antecedent is a set of feature values. The MaxSAT solver is fed with various CNF constraints and an objective function targeting rule size minimization. The approach also detects and blocks symmetric rules, i.e. those that do not contribute new information to the rule-based representation of class $c \in \mathcal{K}$.

We can modify the MaxSAT approach outlined above to learning background knowledge in the form of decision rules, i.e. identifying the dependency of a feature $i \in \mathcal{F}$ on other features $j \in \mathcal{F} \backslash\{i\}$. For this, we need to discard the prediction column from the dataset $\mathcal{E}$ and instead focus on a feature $i \in \mathcal{F}$, consider some of its values $v_{i j} \in \mathcal{D}_{i}$ and "pretend" to compute decision rules for a "fake class" $x_{i}=v_{i j}$. Thanks to the properties of the approach of (Ignatiev et al. 2021), all the rules computed are guaranteed to be subset-minimal and to respect training data $\mathcal{E}$. Once all the rules for feature $i \in \mathcal{F}$ and value $v_{i j} \in \mathcal{D}_{i}$ are computed, the same exercise can be repeated for all the values in $\mathcal{D}_{i} \backslash\left\{v_{i j}\right\}$ but, more importantly, all the other features.

Example 6. Consider again the data of Table 1] The two rules shown in Example 5 are computed by our rule learning approach if we focus on feature Status. The following two rules can be extracted when feature Relationship is focused on instead:

- IF Status $=$ Married $\wedge$ Sex $=$ Male THEN Relationship = Husband
- IF Status $=$ Married $\wedge$ Sex $=$ Female THEN Relationship = Wife
Duplicate Rules. As mentioned above, all rules generated with the MaxSAT approach of (Ignatiev et al. 2021) are guaranteed to be subset-minimal. Furthermore, none of the rules enumerated is symmetric with another rule if considered in the if-then form. However, when the rules are treated as clauses, i.e. a disjunction of Boolean literals, some rules may duplicate the other. Indeed, recall that a rule of size $k \leq|\mathcal{F}|$ is of the form $\left(f_{1} \wedge \ldots \wedge f_{k-1}\right) \rightarrow f_{k}$ where each $f_{i}$ represents a literal $\left(x_{i}=v_{i_{j_{i}}}\right), i \in \mathcal{F}$ and $v_{i_{j_{i}}} \in \mathcal{D}_{i}$. Clearly, this same proposition can be equivalently represented as a clause $\left(\neg f_{1} \vee \ldots \vee \neg f_{k-1} \vee f_{k}\right)$. Observe that the same clause can be used to represent another rule $\left(f_{1} \wedge \ldots \wedge f_{k-2} \wedge \neg f_{k}\right) \rightarrow \neg f_{k-1}$, which can thus be seen as symmetric in the clausal form. This way, a clause of size $k$ represents $k$ possible rules. However, due to symmetry, it suffices to compute only one of them and block all the "duplicates" by adding its clausal representation to the MaxSAT solver. This novel symmetry breaking mechanism significantly improves the scalability of our approach.
Example 7. Consider a rule $\{$ IF Status $=$ Married $\wedge$ Sex $=$ Male THEN Relationship $=$ Husband $\}$ computed when compiling feature-value Relationship $=$ Husband. This rule is represented as a clause
$($ Status $\neq$ Married $\vee$ Sex $\neq$ Male $\vee$ Relationship $=$ Husband $)$


## There are two duplicates in other contexts:

- IF Status $=$ Married $\wedge$ Relationship $\neq$ Husband THEN Sex $=$ Female
- IF Sex $=$ Male $\wedge$ Relationship $\neq$ Husband THEN Status $\neq$ Married
Extraction limit. Even if we remove duplicate rules, there can still be many background rules to enumerate for an entire dataset. Many such rules will never, or only rarely, contribute to reducing the size of explanations of the classifier. Extracting these low value rules is unnecessary in the rule extracting process. In practice, we noticed that some rules (e.g. long rules or rules having a low support) never contribute to explanation reduction. Hence, using some common sense constructive limit (e.g. on rule size, or support, among others) on the rules when enumerating them and focusing only on the rules that satisfy the desired criteria helps us not only avoid an overhead of exhaustive rule enumeration but also does not damage the quality of explanations. Hence, we apply an extraction limit to prevent exhaustive rule enumeration, which enables us to focus only on most useful rules.

A high-level view on the overall rule extracting approach is provided in Algorithm 1 Initially, the class column from

```
Algorithm 1: Rule Extracting
Input: Dataset \(\mathcal{E}\), extraction limit \(\lambda\)
Output: Rules \(\varphi\)
    \(\mathcal{E}_{f}, \mathcal{F} \leftarrow \operatorname{DropClass}(\mathcal{E})\), ExtractFeatures \((\mathcal{E})\)
    \(\varphi, B \leftarrow \emptyset, \emptyset \quad \#\) to extract and block rules, resp.
    for \(i \in \mathcal{F}\) do
        for rule \(\in\) EnumerateRules \(\left(\mathcal{E}_{f}, i, B\right)\) do
            if limit (rule, \(\lambda\) ) is true then
                break
            \(\varphi \leftarrow \varphi \cup\) rule
        \(B \leftarrow \varphi\)
    return \(\varphi\)
```

the original dataset $\mathcal{E}$ is dropped and the features $\mathcal{F}$ in $\mathcal{E}$ are acquired. For each feature $i \in \mathcal{F}$, the algorithm enumerates the decision rules targeting $i$ until the extraction limit is met or no more rules can be found. The rules previously learned are blocked in the clausal form, so that the algorithm avoids computing duplicate rules when targeting the remaining features. Finally, the algorithm returns the rules extracted, which can be used as the background knowledge when computing explanations for the ML model prediction, as described in Section 4

Note that our knowledge extraction approach computes only rules that are perfectly consistent with the known data, which makes sense if the data is extensive and trustworthy. In practical settings, however, some of the data are unknown, i.e. the rules computed may be inconsistent with unseen parts of the feature space $\mathbb{F}$. If testing and validation data are available, then the rules can be tested against them. We can then exclude the rules that are not sufficiently accurate wrt. test and/or validation data.

## 4 Knowledge-Assisted Explanations

In this section, we show how to apply background knowledge as additional constraints when computing a single formal abductive or contrastive explanation for an ML model prediction but also when enumerating them. We also show how to identify the rules that have been used when extracting formal explanations, which comes in handy when trustable explanations are of concern.

### 4.1 Finding Explanations subject to Knowledge

We assume the obtained background knowledge can be represented as a formula $\varphi$. Under that assumption, Gorji and Rubin 2021) proposes to compute AXps for positive predictions of a Boolean classifier $\tau: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ taking into account constraints $\varphi$. Observe that formula $\varphi$ can be seen as representing a predicate $\varphi: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$, the truth value of which, i.e. $\varphi(\mathbf{x})$, can be tested for an instance $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{F}$. Concretely, the approach of (Gorji and Rubin|2021) relies of compiling a Boolean classifier $\tau(\mathbf{x})$ into a tractable representation (Shih, Choi, and Darwiche 2018) and proposes to compute an AXp $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ for prediction $\tau(\mathbf{v})=1, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{F}$, subject to background knowledge $\varphi$ as a prime implicant of function $[\varphi(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow \tau(\mathbf{x})=1$.

```
Algorithm 2: Enumeration of AXps (or CXps)
Input: Classifier \(\tau\), instance \(\mathbf{v}\), prediction \(c=\tau(\mathbf{v})\), con-
straints \(\varphi\), explanation type \(t\)
Output: Explanations: expls
    expls, \(B \leftarrow \emptyset, \emptyset\)
    while true do
        \(\mathrm{xp} \leftarrow \operatorname{ExtractXp}(\tau, \mathbf{v}, c, \varphi, B, t)\)
        if \(x p=\emptyset\) then
            return expls
        expls \(\leftarrow\) expls \(\cup \mathrm{xp}\)
        \(B \leftarrow B \cup \mathrm{xp}\)
    return expls
```

Observe that we can generalize this idea to the context of computing formal abductive and contrastive explanations for any classifier that admits a logical representation suitable for making reasoning oracle calls wrt. formulas (1) and (2). In particular, given a prediction $\tau(\mathbf{x})=c, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{F}, c \in \mathcal{K}$, an abductive explanation $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ subject to background knowledge $\varphi$ is such that the following holds:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall(\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}) \cdot \bigwedge_{j \in \mathcal{X}}\left(x_{j}=v_{j}\right) \rightarrow[\varphi(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow(\tau(\mathbf{x})=c)] \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

More importantly, we observe that the same can be done with respect to contrastive explanations. In particular, given a prediction $\tau(\mathbf{x})=c, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{F}, c \in \mathcal{K}$, a contrastive explanation $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ subject to background knowledge $\varphi$ is such that the following holds:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\exists(\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}) \cdot \bigwedge_{i \notin \mathcal{Y}}\left(x_{i}=v_{i}\right) \wedge[\varphi(\mathbf{x}) \wedge(\tau(\mathbf{x}) \neq c)] \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that (3) and (4) are the negation of each other, i.e. a subset of features $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ is a CXp for prediction $\tau(\mathbf{x})=c$ iff $\mathcal{X}=\mathcal{F} \backslash \mathcal{Y}$ is not an AXp. This means when dealing with either AXps or CXps , one can apply a reasoning oracle to test (un)satisfiability of formula $\bigwedge_{i \in \mathcal{Z}}\left(x_{i}=\right.$ $\left.v_{i}\right) \wedge[\varphi(\mathbf{x}) \wedge(\tau(\mathbf{x}) \neq c)]$ with $\mathcal{Z}$ being either $\mathcal{X}$ or $\mathcal{F} \backslash \mathcal{Y}$ depending on the kind of target explanation. This means that if background knowledge $\varphi$ is given as a conjunction of constraints, e.g. rules, we can integrate them in the existing formal explanation extraction approach of (Ignatiev, Narodytska, and Marques-Silva 2019) with no additional overhead.

Following (Ignatiev et al. 2020) and applying the same arguments, an immediate observation to make is that in the presence of background knowledge, the minimal hitting set duality between AXps and CXps holds:
Proposition 1. Let $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{F}$ be an instance such that $\tau(\mathbf{v})=$ $c, c \in \mathcal{K}$, and background knowledge $\varphi$ is compatible with $\mathbf{v}$. Then any $A X p \mathcal{X}$ for prediction $\tau(\mathbf{v})=c$ minimally hits any CXp for this prediction, and vice versa.

Proposition 1 enables us to apply state-of-the-art algorithms originally studied in the context of over-constrained systems (Bendík, Cerná, and Benes 2018, Grégoire, Izza, and Lagniez 2018; Liffiton et al. 2016) either to compute a single AXp/CXp or to explore all AXps and CXps for ML predictions. Without going into details, a high-level view on the approach to enumerating AXps and/or CXps with
background knowledge is outlined in Algorithm 2. The algorithm represents a loop that finds a single AXp or CXp until no more explanations can be computed. Here, a call to ExtractXp is meant to represent a call to one of the existing explanation extraction algorithms (Ignatiev, Narodytska, and Marques-Silva 2019, Ignatiev et al. 2020), which employ the ideas behind dealing with over-constrained systems (Bailey and Stuckey 2005; Liffiton and Sakallah|2008; Belov, Lynce, and Marques-Silva 2012; Marques-Silva et al. 2013; Mencia, Previti, and Marques-Silva 2015; Ignatiev et al. 2015; Liffiton et al. 2016). As mentioned above, the background knowledge is used as additional constraints during the explanation process. Each computed explanation is blocked in formula $B$ such that no duplicate explanations can be found later. Finally, Algorithm 2 returns the computed AXps and/or CXps.

Gorji et al. (Gorji and Rubin 2021) noticed and proved that subset-minimal AXps computed subject to additional constraints for Boolean classifiers tend to be smaller than their unconstrained "counterparts". The rationale is that when additional constraints are imposed, some of the features $i \in \mathcal{F}$ may be dropped from an AXp because the equalities $x_{i}=v_{i}$ falsify the constraints, i.e. they represent data instances that are not permitted by the constraints. Based on their result, the following generalization can be proved to hold:
Proposition 2. Let $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{F}$ be an instance such that $\tau(\mathbf{v})=$ $c, c \in \mathcal{K}$, and background knowledge $\varphi$ is compatible with v. Then for any subset-minimal $A X p \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ for prediction $\tau(\mathbf{v})=c$, there is a subset-minimal $A X p \quad \mathcal{X}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ for $\tau(\mathbf{v})=c$ subject to background knowledge $\varphi$ such that $\mathcal{X}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{X}$.
Proof. First, observe that if (1) holds for a set $\mathcal{S}$ then (3) holds for $\mathcal{S}$ too. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a subset-minimal AXp for $\tau(\mathbf{v})=$ $c$ with no knowledge of $\varphi$, i.e. (1) holds for $\mathcal{X}$. Thanks to the observation above, (3) also holds for $\mathcal{X}$. To make it subsetminimal subject to $\varphi$, we can apply linear search feature traversal (similar to the AXp extraction algorithm (Ignatiev, Narodytska, and Marques-Silva 2019) checking if any of the features of $\mathcal{X}$ can be dropped s.t. (3) still holds. The result subset-minimal set of features $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ is the target AXp subject to knowledge $\varphi$.
Remark 1. Note that the opposite, i.e. that given $A X p$ $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ subject to background knowledge $\varphi$, there must exist a subset-minimal $A X p \mathcal{X} \supseteq \mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ without background knowledge $\varphi$, in general does not hold. To illustrate a counterexample, consider a fully Boolean classifier $\tau:\{0,1\}^{3} \rightarrow$ $\{0,1\}$ on features $\mathcal{F}=\{a, b, c\}$, which returns 1 iff $(a+$ $b+c) \geq 2$. Consider instance $\mathbf{v}=(1,1,0)$ classified as 1. Given knowledge $\varphi=(\neg c \rightarrow a) \wedge(\neg c \rightarrow b), a$ valid subset-minimal $A X p$ is $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}=\{c\}$. However, when discarding knowledge $\varphi$, the only subset-minimal AXp for $\mathbf{v}$ is $\mathcal{X}=\{a, b\} \nsupseteq \mathcal{X}^{\prime}$.

Example 8. Consider the DL in Figure 2 trained on the examples in Table 1] Given an instance $\mathbf{v}=\{$ Education $=$ Dropout, Status $=$ Separated, Occupation $=$ Service, Relationship $=$ Not-in-Family, Sex $=$ Male, Hours $/ w=\leq 40\}$,

| $\mathrm{R}_{0}:$ | IF | Status $=$ Married | THEN Target $\geq 50 \mathrm{k}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{R}_{1}:$ | ELSE IF | Sex $=$ Male $\wedge$ Relationship $\neq$ Husband | THEN |
| $\mathrm{R}_{\text {DEF }}:$ | ELSE |  | THEN |

Figure 2: A DL for selected examples of adult dataset.
observe that the prediction enforced by $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ is $\leq 50 k$ and the AXp is $\mathcal{X}=\{$ Status, Relationship, Sex $\}$. Assume the set of constraints $\varphi$ consists of a single constraint $\{$ Sex $=$ Male $\wedge$ Relationship $=$ Not-in-Family $\rightarrow$ Status $=$ Separated $\}$. Feature 'Status' can be dropped because the constraint ensures it to be set to the "right value" if the other two features are set as required, and hence $\mathrm{R}_{0}$ is guaranteed not to fire. Thus, Algorithm 2 can compute a smaller AXp $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}=\{$ Relationship, Sex \}.

While using background knowledge $\varphi$ pays off in terms of interpretability of abductive explanations, this cannot be said wrt. contrastive explanations. Surprisingly and as the following result proves, background knowledge can only contribute to increase the size of contrastive explanations.
Proposition 3. Let $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{F}$ be an instance such that $\tau(\mathbf{v})=$ $c, c \in \mathcal{K}$, and background knowledge $\varphi$ is compatible with v. Then for any subset-minimal $C X p \mathcal{Y}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ for prediction $\tau(\mathbf{v})=c$ subject to background knowledge $\varphi$, there is subset-minimal $C X p \mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ is a CXp for prediction $\tau(\mathbf{v})=c$ such that $\mathcal{Y}^{\prime} \supseteq \mathcal{Y}$.

Proof. First, observe that if (4) holds for a set $\mathcal{S}$ then (2) holds for $\mathcal{S}$ too. Let $\mathcal{Y}^{\prime}$ be a subset-minimal CXp subject to background knowledge $\varphi$, i.e. (4) holds for $\mathcal{Y}^{\prime}$. By the observation made above, (2) also holds for $\mathcal{Y}^{\prime}$. Now, by applying linear search dropping features of $\mathcal{Y}^{\prime}$ and checking $\sqrt{2}$ (Ignatiev, Narodytska, and Marques-Silva 2019), one can get a subset-minimal $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathcal{Y}^{\prime}$ wrt. (2), i.e. $\mathcal{Y}$ is a subset-minimal CXp.

Remark 2. Note that the reverse direction: given a $C X p \mathcal{Y}$ generated without using background knowledge, there must exists a CXp $\mathcal{Y}^{\prime} \supseteq \mathcal{Y}$ using background knowledge, does not hold. Consider a classifier on Boolean features $\mathcal{F}=$ $\{a, b, c\}$ which returns the parity ODD, EVEN of $a+b+c$. Consider background knowledge $a=b$. Now $\mathcal{Y}=\{a\}$ is a CXp for $\tau(1,1,1)=$ ODD without using background knowledge supported by instance $\tau(0,1,1)=$ EVEN. But this does not agree with the background knowledge. The only CXp using the background knowledge is $\{c\}$, because $a$ and $b$ must change together they never affect the parity. However and as our experimental results confirm, in practice these examples do not arise, as we always find a CXp using background knowledge that extends a CXp without background knowledge.

One may wonder then why background knowledge is useful when we are computing CXps. The reason is that the CXps generated using background knowledge are correct under the assumption that the background knowledge describes the actual relationships between features. On the

```
Algorithm 3: Determine Background Knowledge Used
Input: Classifier \(\tau\), instance \(\mathbf{v}\), prediction \(c=\tau(\mathbf{v})\), con-
straints \(\varphi, \operatorname{AXp} \mathcal{X}^{\prime}\)
Output Used rules: \(\varphi_{u} \subseteq \varphi\)
    \(\varphi_{u} \leftarrow \varphi\)
    if Entails \(\left(\mathcal{X}^{\prime}, \tau, \mathbf{v}, c, \emptyset\right)\) then
        return \(\emptyset\)
    for \(r \in \varphi\) do
        if Entails \(\left(\mathcal{X}^{\prime}, \tau, \mathbf{v}, c, \varphi_{u} \backslash\{r\}\right)\) then
            \(\varphi_{u} \leftarrow \varphi_{u} \backslash\{r\}\)
    return \(\varphi_{u}\)
```

contrary, CXps generated without using background knowledge are only correct under the assumption that every possible combination of feature values is possible, i.e. all features are independent and their values are uniformly distributed across the feature space, which hardly ever occurs in practice.
Example 9. Consider the DL model of Algorithm 2, the instance and the prediction in Algorithm 8. Observe that a CXp for the prediction is $\mathcal{Y}=\{$ Status $\}$. Its correctness relies on the fact that changing Status to Married changes the prediction to $\geq 50 k$. But given the background knowledge $\varphi$, this is clearly erroneous. Since the other fixed features in instance $\mathbf{v}$ are $\{$ Sex $=$ Male, Education $=$ Dropout, Occupation $=$ Service, Relationship $=$ Not-in-family, Hours $/ w=$ $\leq 40\}$, the modification is inconsistent with the background knowledge $\varphi$. This demonstrates the weakness of CXps as they rely on the assumption that any tuple of feature values in $\mathbb{F}$ is possible. Applying the same constraint $\varphi$ in Example 8 leads to a larger $C X p \mathcal{Y}^{\prime} \triangleq\{$ Status, Relationship $\}$. This clearly does allow the prediction to change and it is compatible with the background knowledge $\varphi$.

### 4.2 Attributing Responsibilities to Knowledge

Since the computed background knowledge is not always useful, e.g. the extracted rules may not necessarily contribute to smaller AXps, we introduce an approach to discovering which of the rules are used to reduce an explanation. Using this approach, we can observe and measure the effect of the value of extraction limit discussed in Section 3, e.g. the size limit of 5 can be considered as a reasonable extraction limit if the size of most of the useful rules is no more than 5. A further usage is that when providing a user with an explanation, we can expose which background knowledge was used to generate the explanation. This enables the user to assess the quality of the rules used and decide whether they trust or disagree with the background knowledge.

Given a knowledge-assisted AXp $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ for prediction $\tau(\mathbf{v})=c$ and background knowledge $\varphi$, Algorithm 3 reports a subset of rules $\varphi$ responsible for the explanation $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$. The algorithm makes use of a number of calls to Entails, which is meant to be a call to reasoning oracle deciding the validity of formula (3) subject to background knowledge specified as the final parameter. First, we check if $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ satisfies the AXp condition (1) with no knowledge given. If this is the case, then no rules are used when computing $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ and so
the algorithm returns $\emptyset$. Otherwise, the algorithm proceeds by considering each rule $r \in \varphi$ one by one and checking if condition (3) holds for background knowledge $\varphi \backslash\{r\}$ (see line 57. If it does then rule $r$ can be dropped; otherwise, it is necessary for $\mathrm{AXp} \mathcal{X}^{\prime}$ and is thus kept. This simple linear search procedure ends up identifying a subset-minimal set of rules $\varphi_{u}$ that are responsible for abductive explanation $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}$.

Note that a similar algorithm can be outlined for identifying background knowledge useful when computing contrastive explanations. In that case, instead of making calls to Entails, one would need to make calls to a reasoner deciding the validity of formula (4) subject to a varying set of background constraints $\varphi_{u}$.

## 5 Experimental Results

This section details the experimental results assessing the proposed approach to extracting background knowledge compared to a modern implementation of the Apriori algorithm (Agrawal and Srikant 1994) as well as the quality of the enumerated AXps and CXps with background knowledge applied for 3 different ML models: DLs, BTs, and BNNs. Finally, this section applies the background knowledge identified for evaluating correctness of the explanations produced by heuristic ML explainers LIME, SHAP, and Anchor.

Setup and Prototype Implementation. The experiments were run on a server running Ubuntu 20.04.2 LTS and Intel Xeon 8260 CPU. For each experiment, the memory was limited by 8 GByte. A prototype of the proposed approach to extracting background knowledge and computing AXps and CXps applying background knowledge was developed as a set of Python scripts ${ }^{4}$ The implementation of knowledge extraction builds on (Ignatiev et al. 2021) and extensively uses state-of-the-art SAT technology (Ignatiev, Morgado, and Marques-Silva 2018, 2019). Also, the implementation of explanation enumeration for DLs and BNNs makes use of the SAT technology (Ignatiev, Morgado, and Marques-Silva 2018) while for BTs we apply modern SMT solvers (Gario and Micheli 2015 ).

A few words should be said about the competition we considered. First of all, we compared our knowledge extraction approach to a modern implementation ${ }^{5}$ of the Apriori algorithm (Agrawal and Srikant 1994). Apriori is one of the classical and widely studied association rule mining techniques. The algorithm iteratively explores itemsets of length $k+1$ that meet the minimum support using previously extracted $k$-length itemsets. When running Apriori, we apply the same setup as used for our approach. Finally, when running LIME (Ribeiro, Singh, and Guestrin 2016), SHAP (Lundberg and Lee 2017), and Anchor (Ribeiro, Singh, and Guestrin 2018) in order to assess the quality of their explanations, we use their default configurations.

Datasets. The benchmarks considered include a selection of datasets publicly available from UCI Machine Learning

[^2]

Figure 3: Accuracy of rules extracted by xcon.

Repository (Dua and Graff 2017) and Penn Machine Learning Benchmarks (Olson et al.| 2017). In total, 24 datasets are selected. Whenever applicable, numeric features in all benchmarks were quantized into 4,5 , or 6 intervals. Therefore, the total number of quantized datasets considered is 62 .

Machine Learning Models. We used CN2 (Clark and Niblett 1989) to train the DL models studied. The BTs were computed by XGboost (Ribeiro, Singh, and Guestrin 2016), where the number of trees per class in the BT model is 25 and the depth of each trees is limited by 3 . The BNNs were trained by PyTorch (Paszke et al. 2019). Three different sets of hidden layer size ${ }^{6}$ were used in the computation of BNNs to achieve sufficient test accuracy. As usual, each of the 62 datasets was randomly split into 2 chunks of $80 \%$ and $20 \%$ of data instances for training and testing purposes, respectively. The average test accuracy of the DL, BT, and BNN models was $76.47 \%, 76.17 \%$, and $80.31 \%$, respectively.

### 5.1 Rule Extraction

Although the proposed knowledge extraction approach computes rules that are fully consistent with the known (training) data, to evaluate how it performs in a real life scenario, we applied 5-fold cross validation, i.e. each dataset was split into 5 chunks of training and test (unseen) data and the average result across all 5 train-test chunks was calculated. Given a rule, its accuracy is calculated as $\frac{I-E}{I}$, where $I$ is the total number of test instances while $E$ is the number of test instances in that disagree with the rule. An instance $\mathbf{v}$ disagrees with a rule $r$ if $\mathbf{v}$ falsifies $r$. The accuracy for the entire dataset is defined as the average rule accuracy across the 5 folds. Here, we examined the average accuracy of rules of size $s \in 1 . .5$, where $s$ is the number of literals in the lefthand size of the rule, but also the accuracy of all rules of size up to 5. (The corresponding approaches are denoted as rules $_{s}, s \in 1 . .5$, or rules all $_{\text {all }}$, respectively.) So in this experiment the extraction limit value when enumerating rules was 5. We discuss the effect of this limit in Section 5.3

[^3]

Figure 4: Apriori vs. xcon - performance comparison.

Figure 3 compares the average accuracy of the background knowledge extracted, including the rules of all the aforementioned sizes. As can be observed, average rule accuracy gets no lower than $94 \%$. Furthermore, the average accuracy of all rules in all datasets is over $98 \%$. Finally, for the majority of datasets, the accuracy of rules $_{s}, s \in 1 . .5$, also exceeds $98 \%$.

Besides the experiment detailed above, we also compared the overall performance of exhaustive rule extraction against rule extraction with the size limit 5. On average, exhaustive (limited, resp.) rule enumeration ends up computing 2116.29 (1964.24, resp.) rules per dataset. According to our results, our approach is quite efficient and for the lion's share of datasets ( 59 out of 62 ) both exhaustive and limited enumeration finish within 30 seconds; for the 3 remaining datasets, limited enumeration is a bit faster but both approaches finished rule enumeration within 3000 seconds.

In the remainder of this section, we compare xcon against Apriori in terms of the overall performance. Figure 4 compares the runtime of rule extraction and the number of extracted rules in a dataset between Apriori and the MaxSAT approach, where only rules of size up to 5 are extracted by the two approaches. Note that for the sake of a fair comparison, we set Apriori to extract only rules of confidence $100 \%$, i.e. all the rules extracted are perfectly consistent with the known data. The average results across all 5 train-test pairs are reported.

Scalability. Figure 4 a demonstrates that xcon can extract rules faster than Apriori in the vast majority of the considered datasets. Moreover, Apriori can only extract rules for the train-test 5 -fold pairs of 57 (out of 62 ) datasets, while xcon is able to extract rules for all the considered datasets.

Rule Amount. Figure 4 b depicts the comparison of the number of extracted rules in the 57 datasets solved by both approaches. At first glance, it can be observed that Apriori extracts more rules than xcon. However, this happens because Apriori uses a more limited language for the feature literals, i.e. it cannot extract rules containing the negation of a feature-value pair. For example, assume xcon can extract a rule [IF $x_{1} \neq 0$ THEN $x_{2}=1$ ] given features 1 and 2 and their domains $\mathcal{D}_{1}=\mathcal{D}_{2}=\{0,1,2\}$. In this case, Apriori is unable to extract the above rule - instead, it has to extract

Table 2: Change of average minimum explanation size.

| Dataset | Feats | Model | AXp Size |  | CXp Size |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | Before | After | Before | After |
| adult | 65 | DL | 7.46 | 3.65 | 1.00 | 1.60 |
|  |  | BT | 5.02 | 2.84 | 1.10 | 2.13 |
|  |  | BNN | 7.51 | 3.00 | 1.40 | 2.15 |
| compas | 16 | DL | 5.65 | 3.74 | 1.01 | 1.15 |
|  |  | BT | 3.91 | 3.09 | 1.06 | 1.15 |
|  |  | BNN | 4.40 | 2.79 | 1.19 | 1.30 |
| lending | 35 | DL | 5.30 | 4.30 | 1.00 | 1.41 |
|  |  | BT | 1.99 | 1.80 | 1.00 | 2.04 |
|  | 29 |  | DNN | 4.36 | 2.49 | 1.35 |
|  |  | BT | 9.51 | 5.58 | 1.00 | 1.23 |
|  |  | BNN | 7.04 | 4.04 | 1.17 | 1.67 |

two distinct rules to represent the same information, i.e. [IF $x_{1}=1$ THEN $x_{2}=1$ ] but also [IF $x_{1}=2$ THEN $x_{2}=1$ ].

### 5.2 Knowledge-Assisted Explanations

This section evaluates the proposed approach to computing formal explanations for DLs, BTs, and BNNs, where the computed background knowledge was applied. In particular, we evaluate the runtime of explanation enumeration, explanation size, as well as the portion of background knowledge used when computing explanations. Note that here we consider only the rules of size at most 5 , which is shown to be a reasonable value in Section 5.3 .

For each of the 62 datasets, we selected all test instances and enumerated 20 smallest size AXps or CXps for each such instance. Hereinafter, $x^{c o n_{*}}$ s.t. $* \in\{d l, b t, b n n\}$ denotes the proposed approach applied for explaining DL, BT, and BNN models, respectively. Furthermore, a superscripted version $x \operatorname{con}_{*}^{r}$ is used to denote the configurations that apply background knowledge.

Scalability. The scatter plots in Figures 5a, 5b, 6a, 6b, 7a and 7bdepict the comparison of the average runtime of computing a single AXp or CXp for an instance (taken across all the 20 explanations computed) between $x^{\prime} \mathrm{con}_{*}$ and $\mathrm{xcon}_{*}^{r}$. Clearly, for all the 3 models, the use of background knowledge significantly improves the performance of AXp extraction (see Figures 5a 6a and 7a. At first glance, the performance of CXp extraction deteriorates significantly in the case of DLs (Figure 5b) if compared to the other two models. We should say that this impression is caused by a different scaling used in Figure 5b - observe that CXp extraction is $1-3$ orders of magnitude faster for DLs than for the other 2 models, both when applying and not applying background knowledge. Also, this can be explained by the fact that the average CXp size in the case of DLs increases tremendously, which leads to a much larger number of reasoning oracle calls when computing an explanation. For BTs and BNNs, the use of background knowledge neither improves nor degrades the computation of CXps (Figures 6b and 7b), even though an increase of CXp size can be also observed.

Explanation Quality. The change of smallest size of AXps and CXps in an instance is shown in Figure $5 \mathrm{c}, 5 \mathrm{~d}, 6 \mathrm{c}$.

6d, 7c, and 7d As can be seen in Figure 5c 6c and 7c, our results demonstrate how background knowledge, if present, contributes to AXp size reduction across all models. In particular, in many cases the size of a smallest AXp drops from 14 to 2 , from 11 to 2 , and from 17 to 2 , for DLs, BTs, and BNNs, respectively. In contrast to AXps, Figures 5d 6d and 7d illustrate that the size of smallest CXps is increased when background knowledge is applied. Namely, in a number of cases the size of a smallest CXp jumps from 1 to 14 , from 1 to 15 , and from 2 to 13 for DLs, BTs, and BNNs, respectively. These results exemplify how easy it is to flip the prediction when no background knowledge is present illustrating the potential correctness issues for the corresponding CXps.

Table 2 details the change of the average size of smallest AXps and CXps computed without or with background knowledge for DLs, BTs and BNNs and for a selection of 4 publicly available datasets: adult, compas, lending and recidivism, which were previously studied in the context of heuristic and formal explanaitions. (Here, all numeric features, if any, are quantized into 6 intervals.) Note that Table 2 confirms the general observations made that background knowledge triggers smaller AXps but larger CXps for all the models studied. The average size of smallest AXps in adult and recidivism drops by around 4 for DLs and BNNs, while the average smallest CXp size slightly increases for the two models. In compas, the size of smallest AXps in the three models decreases by $1-2$ and the size of smallest CXps subtly increases. The size of smallest AXps in lending drops by 1.00 in DLs, 0.19 in BTs, and 1.87 in BNNs.

On Apriori-assisted explanations. The experiment above was repeated for the background knowledge extracted with the use Apriori and its results are detailed below. Namely, Figure 8, Figure 9 and Figure 10 evaluate the proposed approach to computing formal explanations for DLs, BTs, and BNNs, taking into account the rules mined by Apriori. Note that here only 57 datasets tackled by Apriori are considered. Similar to xcon $_{*}$ above, apriori $_{*} \in$ $\{d l, b t, b n n\}$ represents the formal explanation approach applied to DL, BT, and BNN models, respectively. Moreover, apriori $_{*}^{r}$ is used to denote the configurations that apply background knowledge extracted by Apriori. Scalabilitywise and in contrast to the case of xcon, where the performance of AXps computation improves and the performance of CXp computation degrades in the presence of background knowledge extracted by the MaxSAT approach, the use of Apriori-provided background knowledge degrades the performance of CXp generation for DLs as well as both AXp and CXp computation for BTs. This can be explained by the larger number of rules extracted by Apriori compared to the MaxSAT approach. In terms of the quality of explanations, observations similar to the case of xcon can be made, i.e. background knowledge extracted by Apriori can trigger AXp size reduction across all the 3 models, while the size of CXps increases due to the background knowledge.

### 5.3 Usefulness of Background Knowledge

To assess rules' contribution into explanation extraction, we applied the setup of Section 5.2 , i.e. we enumerated at


Figure 5: Impact of xcon rules on runtime (ms) and explanation size for DLs.


Figure 6: Impact of xcon rules on runtime (ms) and explanation size for BTs.


Figure 7: Impact of xcon rules on runtime (ms) and explanation size for BNNs.
most 20 smallest size AXps for each test instance ${ }^{7}$ Table 3 presents the evaluation of which rules contribute to AXp size reduction for DLs, BTs, and BNNs for the same selection of datasets studied in Table 2, i.e. adult, compas, lending and recidivism. However and in contrast to the previous experiment, the rules here are exhaustively extracted for each of the datasets, i.e. no extraction limit is applied. This resulted in extracting rules up to size 7 .

Our experimental results indicate that rules of size greater than 5 are not frequently used when computing AXps. Table 3 shows that the size of more than $98 \%$ of the useful rules

[^4]in the three models for compas ranges from 1 to 4 . For adult, more than $95 \%$ of the useful rules comprise 1 to 5 literals. The rules of size 5 are significant in the case of lending and recidivism, where more than $20 \%$ of the useful rules contain 5 literals. However, there are $29.0 \%, 29.1 \%$, and $26.1 \%$ of the useful rules larger than size 5 for recidivism in DLs, BT, and BNNs, respectively, while less than $11 \%$ of the useful rules contain more than 5 literals for the other 3 datasets. These results support our choice of value 5 as the extraction limit since the size of the vast majority of useful rules is no more than 5.


Figure 8: Impact of Apriori rules on runtime (ms) and explanation size for DLs.

(a) AXp runtime for BTs

(b) CXp runtime for BTs

(c) AXp size for BTs

(d) CXp size for BTs

Figure 9: Impact of Apriori rules on runtime (ms) and explanation size for BTs.


Figure 10: Impact of Apriori rules on runtime (ms) and explanation size for BNNs.

### 5.4 On Formal vs. Heuristic Explanations Subject to Background Knowledge

Following (Ignatiev 2020), this section assesses the efficiency and explanation quality for the 3 heuristic approaches, namely LIME, SHAP, and Anchor, in the presence of background knowledge. In particular, we assess the runtime of heuristic explanation computation, correctness of generated explanations, and the size of correct explanations.

Scalability. Figure 11 compares the runtime of a single explanation generation for a data instance among LIME, SHAP, Anchor, xcon, and xcon ${ }^{r}$. Hereinafter, lime $_{*}$, shap $_{*}$, and anchor $_{*}$, s.t. $* \in\{d l, b t, b n n\}$, indicate LIME, SHAP,
and Anchor, respectively, applied to computing explanations for DLs, BTs, and BNNs, while $x c o n_{*, x p}^{r}$ and $x^{\prime} o n_{*, x p}$ represent the proposed approach to computing AXps or CXps for the three models with/without background knowledge, s.t. $* \in\{d l, b t, b n n\}$ and $x p \in\{a x p, c x p\}$. Here, the setup described in Section5.2 is used for xcon as well as $x$ con $^{r}$, and the runtime of computing a single formal explanation (either AXp or a CXp ) is considered. Figure 11 demonstrates that both xcon and xcon ${ }^{r}$ outperform LIME and Anchor for all the 3 models, where all explanations are computed in less than 1 second. LIME and Anchor achieve similar performance for DL and BNN models, while LIME outweighs

Table 3: Size distribution of used rules.

| Dataset | Feats | Model | 1 | 2 | Distribution (\%) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | 1 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |
| adult | 65 | DL | 10.9 | 17.2 | 37.7 | 21.9 | 8.4 | 3.1 | 0.8 |  |  |  |
|  |  | BT | 7.3 | 10.0 | 39.5 | 30.2 | 10.1 | 2.4 | 0.4 |  |  |  |
|  |  | BNN | 9.8 | 11.5 | 39.6 | 26.8 | 9.0 | 2.7 | 0.5 |  |  |  |
| compas | 16 | DL | 55.4 | 17.4 | 22.3 | 3.3 | 0.2 | 1.4 | - |  |  |  |
|  |  | BT | 53.2 | 29.0 | 16.1 | 1.0 | 0.1 | 0.6 | - |  |  |  |
|  |  | BNN | 41.4 | 27.3 | 27.2 | 2.9 | 0.9 | 0.3 | - |  |  |  |
| lending | 35 | DL | 43.4 | 4.1 | 3.3 | 18.7 | 20.2 | 9.3 | 1.1 |  |  |  |
|  |  | BT | 41.7 | 7.6 | 4.5 | 13.3 | 23.2 | 9.1 | 0.7 |  |  |  |
|  |  | BNN | 36.2 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 21.3 | 24.6 | 9.5 | 1.2 |  |  |  |
| recidivism | 29 | DL | 2.9 | 1.5 | 9.1 | 25.8 | 28.6 | 20.3 | 8.7 |  |  |  |
|  |  | BT | 2.1 | 1.5 | 8.1 | 25.8 | 30.9 | 20.7 | 8.4 |  |  |  |
|  |  | BNN | 1.6 | 1.4 | 7.5 | 24.1 | 36.6 | 18.7 | 7.4 |  |  |  |

Anchor when generating explanations for BTs. However, the worst performance for DL and BNN models is demonstrated by SHAP while, surprisingly, SHAP outperforms the other competitors for BTs models.

Correctness. The correctness of computed explanations when background knowledge is unavailable is shown in Figure 12a, while the correctness of explanations subject to background knowledge is depicted in Figure 12b Here, an explanation is said to be correct if it answers a "why" question and satisfies (1) (or (3) in the presence of background knowledge) or it answers a "why not" question and satisfies (2) (or (4) in the presence of background knowledge). The superscripted notation lime $_{*}^{r}$, shap $_{*}^{r}$, and anchor ${ }_{*}^{r}$ is used to denote the fact that background knowledge is applied when evaluating correctness of the explanations produced by LIME, SHAP, and Anchor, respectively. Figure 12 shows that the correctness is higher when background knowledge is applied as the number of features required in a minimal correct explanation answering a "why" question can drop, which is demonstrated in Section 5.2 However, these approaches are not able to achieve $100 \%$ correctness in the majority of the datasets. The best results are demonstrated by SHAP in both Figure 12a and Figure 12b SHAP's explanations for most of the datasets achieve $40 \%$ correctness when no background knowledge applied, while its correctness jumps to $80 \%$ for the vast majority of datasets when background knowledge is taken into account. As of LIME and Anchor, without background knowledge, the correctness of most of the explanations is less than $20 \%$ for anchor $_{b t}$, lime $_{\text {bnn }}$, anchor ${ }_{b n n}^{r}$, and lime ${ }_{d l}$, but the correctness dramatically increases when background knowledge is applied. Figure 12 b demonstrates that with background knowledge the best correctness is achieved by SHAP, followed by Anchor, where the major correctness for SHAP, Anchor, and LIME is more than $80 \%, 60 \%$ and $40 \%$, respectively.

Overall, observe that all the heuristic explainers considered demonstrate low correctness when background knowledge is not present, which is in line with the earlier results of (Ignatiev 2020). However, the situation changes dramatically when we apply the background knowledge. This is because some of the counterexamples invalidating heuristic explanations are forbidden by the knowledge extracted. Assuming that this knowledge is valid, these correctness results
better reflect the reality and so are more trustable.
Explanation quality. Although explanation correctness dramatically increases when background knowledge is used, large size of correct explanations can render then uninterpretable. In this experiment, we evaluate the size of correct explanations computed by LIME, SHAP, and Anchor, and check how far those correct explanations are from their subset-minimal counterparts. Concretely, given a correct heuristic explanation computed either by LIME, or SHAP, or Anchor, we apply the formal approach to reduce it further, with or without background knowledge. Then we contrast the size of correct explanations and their corresponding sizeminimal correct explanations for DL, BT, and BNN models. The comparison is detailed in the scatter plots of Figure 13 , 14. and 15. As can be observed, a vast majority of correct explanations computed by LIME, SHAP, and Anchor are not minimal. Their size significantly exceeds the size of subsetminimally reduced explanations. Furthermore, the size difference increases when background knowledge is available, which is in line with our earlier observations regarding the AXp computation.

## 6 Related Work

There are many methods for extracting knowledge from a dataset of rules (Hipp, Güntzer, and Nakhaeizadeh 2000; Zhang and Zhang 2002; Agrawal and Srikant 1994). For use as background knowledge we want to have very high confidence in the rules, ideally they should be completely valid for the feature space. While this is impossible to guarantee, the approach we define only generates rules, which are valid for the entire data used for rule generation. We can then use a validation or test set to remove rules that are not supported by the larger data. Traditional rule mining approaches are more interested in rules with high support and less focussed on validity, although they can be adapted to this case (see our experimental results above). Although the explanation methods we apply in the presence of background knowledge are completely agnostic about where it comes from, the motivation for our rule extraction method is twofold: (1) the rules are computed in clausal form and (2) their high quality is guaranteed by the use of the strict optimisation problem formulation.

The most prominent approaches to post-hoc explainability are of heuristic nature (Ribeiro, Singh, and Guestrin 2016; Lundberg and Lee 2017; Ribeiro, Singh, and Guestrin 2018) and based on sampling in the vicinity of the instances being explained. None of these approaches can handle background knowledge. Furthermore, they are susceptible to out-of-distribution attacks (Slack et al. 2020). Approaches to formal explainability are represented by compilation of classifiers into tractable representations (Shih, Choi, and Darwiche 2018) and reasoning-based explanation approaches (Ignatiev, Narodytska, and Marques-Silva 2019).

The closest related work in this area is (Gorji and Rubin 2021). Based on compilation of a binary classifier into a binary decision diagram (BDD), it conjoins concocted background knowledge to give more succinct "why" explana-


Figure 11: Runtime (ms) of the considered explainers per explanation for DLs, BTs and BNNs.


Figure 12: Correctness of heuristic explanations.
tions for the classifier. This approach is restricted to much smaller examples than we consider here, since the compilation of a classifier into a BDD explodes with the feature space. The SAT and SMT based approaches to explanation we use are far more scalable. Finally, we consider a much broader class of classifiers, and also examine "why not" explanations and how they can be improved by using background knowledge.

## 7 Conclusions

Using background knowledge is highly advantageous for producing formal explanations of machine learning models. For abductive explanations (AXps), the use of background knowledge substantially shortens explanations, making them easier to understand and improves the speed of producing explanations. For contrastive explanations (CXps), while the background knowledge lengthens them, and may increase the time required to generate an explanation, the resulting explanations are far more useful since they do not rely on the (usually unsupportable) assumption that all tuples in the feature space are possible. Furthermore and as
this paper shows, background knowledge can be applied in the context of heuristic explanations when an accurate analysis of their correctness is required.

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Figure 13: Size of LIME explanations for DLs, BTs and BNNs.

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Figure 14: Size of SHAP explanations for DLs, BTs and BNNs.

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Figure 15: Size of Anchor explanations for DLs, BTs and BNNs.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Hereinafter and following prior work (Miller 2019, Ignatiev et al. 2020), "why?" explanations are referred to as abductive while "why not?" explanations are called contrastive.
    ${ }^{2}$ The lack of background knowledge support pertains to heuristic approaches as well by making them error-prone (Slack et al. 2020. Shrotri et al. 2022).

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ For simplicity, the running example used throughout the text will correspond to a simplified version of the adult dataset (Kohavi 1996), where some of the features are dropped. Note that the experimental results shown below deal with the original datasets.

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ The implementation as well as all datasets and logs of our experiments is available at https://github.com/jinqiang-yu/xcon22.
    https://github.com/ymoch/apyori

[^3]:    ${ }^{6}$ The 3 sets of hidden layer sizes are classified as small, medium and large configurations. The size of the hidden layers of these 3 configurations is as follows: large: $(64,32,24,2)$; medium: $(32$, $16,8,2)$; small: $(10,5,5,2)$.

[^4]:    ${ }^{7}$ This experiment is conducted only for the proposed MaxSATbased approach for knowledge extraction.

