

ARGUS: Argumentation-Based Minimal-Change Repair for Verifiable LLM Self-Explanations

Paper ID: 607

Anonymous Authors
anonymous@example.com

Abstract

Large language models produce natural-language rationales for their outputs, yet these explanations are frequently unfaithful to the model’s internal reasoning and lack formal mechanisms for maintenance under evolving evidence. We introduce ARGUS, a framework that structures LLM self-explanations as Dung-style abstract argumentation frameworks, verifies them under grounded and preferred semantics, and—when an evidence update renders the explanation inconsistent—computes a minimum-cost set of edit operations that restores the desired acceptability status of the target argument. The repair operator satisfies adapted AGM revision postulates (success, inclusion, vacuity) and admits a complexity-theoretic characterization: the decision problem is in P under grounded semantics and NP-complete under preferred and stable semantics. A k -neighborhood approximation and an answer set programming (ASP) encoding ensure scalability to practical framework sizes. We validate the framework on HotpotQA and FEVER, where ARGUS achieves relative improvements of up to 10.3% in faithfulness and 14.5% in contestability over the strongest argumentation baseline while requiring fewer repair operations than all competing methods.

1 Introduction

Large language models generate natural-language explanations for their outputs, yet mounting evidence indicates that these self-explanations are frequently unfaithful to the model’s internal reasoning process. Recent studies demonstrate that LLM rationales can be inconsistent with the computations that actually produce the answer (Ye and Durrett 2024), and that chain-of-thought traces are often post-hoc rationalizations rather than faithful accounts of inference (Lanham et al. 2023). The gap between *apparent* and *actual* reasoning makes the verification and maintenance of explanations a central knowledge representation challenge, particularly in domains such as medical diagnosis and legal reasoning where explanation correctness is critical.

As illustrated in Figure 1, current approaches fall short along two complementary dimensions. Self-correction methods (Madaan et al. 2023; Shinn et al. 2023; Gao et al. 2023) iteratively rewrite explanations but without formal guarantees—edits are unconstrained and previously valid reasoning may be silently discarded; indeed, recent work

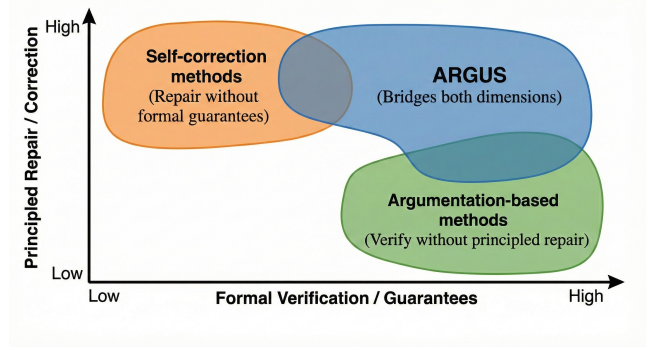


Figure 1: Qualitative positioning of ARGUS. Self-correction methods (orange) repair without formal guarantees; argumentation-based methods (green) verify without principled repair. ARGUS (blue region) bridges both dimensions.

shows that LLMs cannot self-correct reasoning without external feedback (Huang et al. 2024). Argumentation-based approaches (Freedman et al. 2025; Jin et al. 2026) verify explanations against formal semantics but treat verification as terminal: when new evidence arrives, they offer no principled way to update the explanation while preserving consistency. No existing framework provides a formal notion of *minimal change* for maintaining LLM explanations under evolving evidence.

The following example, revisited throughout the paper, illustrates the problem concretely.

Example 1 (Medical Diagnosis). A question-answering system is asked to diagnose a patient with fatigue and joint pain. The LLM answers “Lupus” with four argument units: a_1 (“chronic fatigue reported”), a_2 (“polyarthralgia present”), a_3 (“Lupus commonly presents with these symptoms”), and target a_4 (“most likely diagnosis is Lupus”). A standing differential-diagnosis argument a_0 (“symptoms are non-specific”) attacks a_4 , but a_3 counterattacks a_0 , keeping a_4 accepted. A new lab result a_5 (“ANA test is negative”) attacks a_3 , removing the defense of a_4 : the differential a_0 reinstates, rendering a_4 no longer accepted un-

der grounded semantics. An unconstrained self-correction system might regenerate the entire explanation, discarding the valid units a_1 and a_2 . A minimal-change repair instead seeks the smallest edit—such as introducing a_6 (“*antidsDNA positive*”) attacking a_5 —to restore a_4 at cost 2 (visualized in Figure 2).

We propose ARGUS, a framework that bridges this gap by unifying argumentation-based verification with minimal-change repair. Given an LLM-generated explanation, ARGUS decomposes it into atomic argument units, constructs an argumentation framework in the sense of Dung (Dung 1995), and verifies whether the target claim is accepted under a chosen semantics. When new evidence renders the explanation inconsistent, ARGUS computes a minimum-cost set of edit operations—adding or removing arguments and attacks—that restores the desired acceptability status. The repair operator draws on two classical KR traditions: the AGM theory of belief revision (Alchourrón, Gärdenfors, and Makinson 1985), which supplies the minimal-change principle, and argumentation dynamics (Cayrol, de Saint-Cyr, and Lagasque-Schiex 2020), which provides formal machinery for structural change. Because the repair operates on an explicit graph structure external to the LLM, it admits formal guarantees—AGM compliance, complexity bounds, provable preservation of unaffected reasoning—that are unattainable when editing model internals or regenerating from scratch.

Our contributions are as follows:

1. **(C1)** A framework that structures LLM self-explanations as Dung-style argumentation frameworks, verifies them under grounded and preferred semantics, and produces defense-set certificates for interpretable verdicts (§4).
2. **(C2)** A minimal-change repair operator that formulates explanation maintenance as a new optimization problem over argumentation frameworks, satisfying adapted AGM revision postulates with a complexity analysis placing the problem in P under grounded semantics and NP-complete under preferred and stable semantics (§4.4–§5).
3. **(C3)** A scalable ASP encoding with a k -neighborhood approximation that preserves repair quality while substantially reducing solver grounding (§4).
4. **(C4)** An empirical evaluation on HotpotQA and FEVER validating the formal properties and demonstrating improvements in faithfulness, contestability, and repair cost w.r.t. seven baselines (§6).

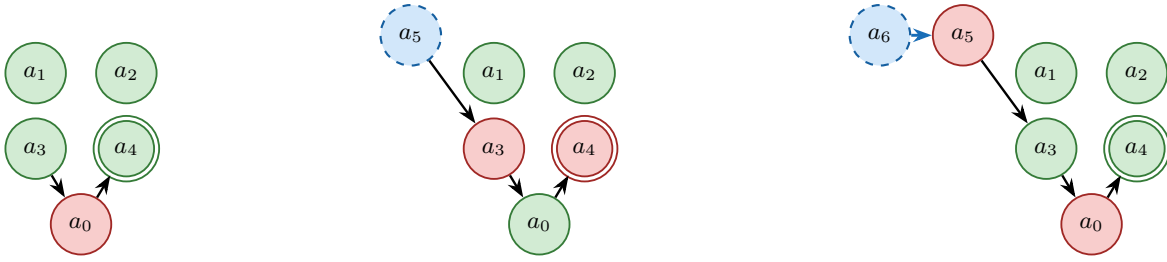
2 Related Work

Our work connects three lines of research: argumentation-based approaches to LLM reasoning, self-correction methods for language models, and formal theories of belief change in argumentation.

Argumentation and LLMs. Vassiliades et al. (Vassiliades, Bassiliades, and Patkos 2021) survey the growing intersection of argumentation and explainable AI, identifying formal argumentation as a principled substrate for structuring, verifying, and contesting model explanations; our work instantiates this vision for LLM self-explanations

with a concrete repair operator. Several recent proposals structure LLM outputs using argumentation frameworks. ArgLLMs (Freedman et al. 2025) decomposes LLM-generated claims into Dung-style argument graphs and applies grounded and preferred semantics to determine acceptability, producing explainable and contestable verification verdicts. However, ArgLLMs treats verification as a one-shot, terminal operation: once the argument graph is constructed and evaluated, there is no mechanism to update the explanation when new evidence arrives, forcing the user to regenerate the entire rationale from scratch. ARGORA (Jin et al. 2026) orchestrates multiple LLM agents through an argumentation-mediated dialogue, incorporating causal semantics to ground the reasoning process. While ARGORA includes a correction mechanism, it operates through agent re-deliberation rather than through a formally defined repair operator with cost minimization and provable guarantees. MQArgEng (Castagna et al. 2024) investigates whether modular argumentation engines can improve LLM reasoning accuracy, demonstrating gains on structured tasks but without addressing explanation maintenance under evolving evidence. ARGUS differs from all three in providing a minimal-change repair operator with AGM-compliant guarantees and complexity-theoretic characterization, treating explanation maintenance as a first-class optimization problem rather than an afterthought. Complementarily, Bengel and Thimm (Bengel and Thimm 2025) introduce *sequence explanations* that trace why an argument is accepted through a serialization of the defense chain; ARGUS addresses the dual question of *how to restore* acceptance when it is lost, and the two approaches could be composed: sequence explanations could make repair certificates interpretable. We adopt Dung-style abstract argumentation rather than structured frameworks such as ASPIC⁺ (Modgil and Prakken 2014) or bipolar argumentation because the repair operator requires only the attack relation to define enforcement problems, and the complexity bounds we exploit (Theorem 13) are established for this setting; extending the approach to frameworks with explicit support is a natural direction for future work.

Self-Correction and Revision. Self-Refine (Madaan et al. 2023) iteratively rewrites LLM outputs using the model’s own feedback, while Reflexion (Shinn et al. 2023) augments this paradigm with episodic memory to guide subsequent attempts. Both methods can improve output quality, but their edits are unconstrained: there is no formal notion of minimality, previously correct reasoning steps may be silently discarded, and the revision process offers no semantic guarantees about which parts of the explanation remain intact. Huang et al. (Huang et al. 2024) further demonstrate that LLMs cannot self-correct reasoning without external feedback, underscoring the need for a principled external verification and repair mechanism. RARR (Gao et al. 2023) retrieves external evidence to revise LLM statements, yet its edits target surface-level attribution without modeling the inferential structure that connects claims. SelfCheck-GPT (Manakul, Liusie, and Gales 2023) detects hallucinations through sampling consistency but provides no native repair mechanism. Chain-of-Verification (Dhuliawala et al.



(a) F_0 : Initial framework (a_4 accepted)

(b) F_1 : After evidence update (a_4 rejected)

(c) F_2 : After repair (a_4 restored)

Figure 2: Evolution of the argumentation framework from Example 1. Green fill = accepted, red fill = rejected, blue dashed border = newly introduced, double border = target argument a_4 . In (a), a_3 defeats the differential a_0 , keeping a_4 accepted. In (b), a_5 defeats a_3 , reinstating a_0 and rejecting a_4 . The repair in (c) adds a_6 attacking a_5 to restore a_4 .

2024) plans and executes verification questions to reduce hallucination, and CRITIC (Gou et al. 2024) enables self-correction through tool-interactive critiquing; both improve factual accuracy but, like Self-Refine, lack formal guarantees on what is preserved across revisions. In contrast, ARGUS formalizes the repair search space as edits to an argumentation framework, bounds the cost of change, and guarantees that unaffected reasoning steps are preserved.

Belief Revision and Argumentation Dynamics. The AGM theory (Alchourrón, Gärdenfors, and Makinson 1985) and the revision/update distinction (Katsuno and Mendelzon 1992) provide the classical foundations for principled belief change. Hase et al. (Hase et al. 2024) argue that model editing in LLMs is fundamentally a belief revision problem and identify challenges in applying AGM rationality criteria to neural knowledge stores; our work sidesteps these challenges by operating on an *external* argumentation structure rather than on model parameters, making the AGM postulates directly applicable. Our evidence update Δ is closer to the Katsuno–Mendelzon notion of *update* (adapting beliefs to a changed world) than to *revision* (incorporating new information about a static world), since each Δ reflects genuinely new evidence rather than a correction of prior beliefs; however, we adopt the AGM postulates as rationality criteria because the minimal-change desiderata they formalize are independent of this distinction. In argumentation, Cayrol et al. (Cayrol, de Saint-Cyr, and Lagasquie-Schiex 2020) and Baumann and Brewka (Baumann and Brewka 2010) study how structural modifications affect extensions and the complexity of enforcement; Coste-Marquis et al. (Coste-Marquis et al. 2014), Wallner et al. (Wallner, Niskanen, and Järvisalo 2017), and Bisquert et al. (Bisquert et al. 2013) formalize argumentation revision as minimal status or structural change. Alfano et al. (Alfano et al. 2024) develop counterfactual explanations for abstract argumentation via weak-constrained ASP encodings; their approach identifies minimal changes that would *reverse* an acceptance verdict, whereas ARGUS computes minimal changes that *restore* a verdict disrupted by external evidence. In particular, Coste-Marquis et al. enforce a desired extension through minimum structural modifications, whereas our formulation targets a single argument’s status, incorporates evidence updates as a

first-class input, and supports heterogeneous cost functions that reflect argument-level confidence. Our repair operator instantiates these ideas for LLM explanation maintenance, introducing a weighted cost model tailored to argument confidence and structural role. We now formalize the core concepts underlying the ARGUS framework.

3 Preliminaries

3.1 Abstract Argumentation Frameworks

We adopt the foundational model of (Dung 1995) as the backbone of our verification and repair pipeline.

Definition 2 (Abstract Argumentation Framework). *An abstract argumentation framework (AF) is a pair $F = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{R})$ where \mathcal{A} is a finite set of arguments and $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A}$ is a binary attack relation. We write $a \rightsquigarrow b$ whenever $(a, b) \in \mathcal{R}$, meaning a attacks b .*

Example 3 (Continuing Example 1). *The initial AF is $F_0 = (\{a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4\}, \{(a_0, a_4), (a_3, a_0)\})$, where a_0 (“symptoms are non-specific”) attacks the target a_4 and a_3 (“Lupus commonly presents with these symptoms”) counterattacks a_0 ; after the negative ANA result, $F_1 = (\{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_5\}, \{(a_0, a_4), (a_3, a_0), (a_5, a_3)\})$, as shown in Figure 2(a–b).*

Intuitively, an argument is accepted if every objection against it can be countered; different semantics formalize this intuition with varying degrees of caution. Given an AF $F = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{R})$, a set $S \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ is *conflict-free* if no two arguments in S attack each other. An argument a is *defended* by S if every attacker of a is attacked by some member of S . A conflict-free set S is *admissible* if it defends all its elements. The principal semantics we employ are the *grounded* extension, which is the unique minimal complete extension obtained as the least fixed point of the characteristic function; the *preferred* extensions, which are maximal admissible sets; and *stable* extensions, which are conflict-free sets that attack every argument outside themselves (Baroni et al. 2018). Throughout this paper we write $\sigma(F)$ to denote the set of extensions of F under semantics $\sigma \in \{gr, pr, st\}$.

3.2 Argumentation Semantics for Explanation

We now define the key notion linking argumentation semantics to explanation. An argument $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is *credulously accepted* under σ if a belongs to at least one extension in $\sigma(F)$, and *skeptically accepted* if it belongs to every extension.

Definition 4 (Defense Set). *Given an AF $F = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{R})$, semantics σ , and an argument $t \in \mathcal{A}$, a defense set for t under σ is a minimal admissible set $D \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ such that $t \in D$ and $D \subseteq E$ for some $E \in \sigma(F)$. We write $\text{Def}_\sigma(t)$ for the collection of all such sets.*

Example 5 (Continuing Example 1). *In F_0 (Figure 2a), $D = \{a_3, a_4\}$ is a defense set for a_4 : it is conflict-free, a_3 defends a_4 by attacking a_0 , and D is minimal since removing a_3 would leave a_4 undefended against a_0 . In F_1 , D is no longer admissible because a_3 is attacked by a_5 with no counterattack, so the defense of a_4 collapses.*

When t is credulously but not skeptically accepted, defense sets exist only for the extensions containing t ; our repair targets the existence of at least one such set. Defense sets serve as formal explanations: each $D \in \text{Def}_\sigma(t)$ identifies the smallest self-defending coalition that sustains t , transforming opaque LLM rationales into objects whose validity can be checked against argumentation semantics (Dunne and Wooldridge 2009).

3.3 Task Setting

We consider a setting in which an LLM receives a question q and produces an answer a with a free-form explanation e , which ARGUS transforms into a formal argumentation structure.

Definition 6 (Explanation Verification Task). *Given a question q , an LLM-generated answer a , and an explanation e , the explanation verification task produces a tuple (G, v, ρ) where $G = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{R})$ is an argument graph constructed from e , $v \in \{\text{accepted}, \text{rejected}, \text{undecided}\}$ is the verification verdict for the target argument a_t representing a under semantics σ , and ρ is an optional repair operator applied when $v \neq \text{accepted}$. An evidence update $\Delta = (\mathcal{A}^+, \mathcal{R}^+, \mathcal{A}^-, \mathcal{R}^-)$ specifies new arguments and attacks to be added or removed, reflecting newly available facts or counterarguments.*

Example 7 (Continuing Example 1). *In F_0 , the verification task produces $v = \text{accepted}$ for a_4 under grounded semantics: a_3 defeats the differential a_0 , so the grounded extension is $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4\}$. After incorporating the evidence update $\Delta = (\{a_5\}, \{(a_5, a_3)\}, \emptyset, \emptyset)$, a_5 defeats a_3 , reinstating a_0 , and the verdict becomes $v = \text{rejected}$, triggering the repair operator ρ .*

The target a_t is *accepted* under σ if it belongs to at least one σ -extension (credulous acceptance), and *rejected* if it belongs to no extension. Under grounded semantics, an argument may also be *undecided*—belonging to no extension yet not attacked by the grounded extension—and credulous and skeptical acceptance coincide.

3.4 Explanation Repair Problem

When an evidence update Δ renders the explanation inconsistent, the system must revise the argument graph following the principle of minimal change (Alchourrón, Gärdenfors, and Makinson 1985).

Definition 8 (Minimal-Change Repair Problem). *Let $AF = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{R})$ be an AF, σ a semantics, $a_t \in \mathcal{A}$ a target argument, $s \in \{\text{IN}, \text{OUT}\}$ a desired status, Δ an evidence update, and κ a strictly positive cost function ($\kappa(o) > 0$ for every operation o). A repair is a finite set of edit operations $\text{Ops} = \{o_1, \dots, o_m\}$ where each o_i is one of $\text{add_arg}(a)$ for $a \notin \mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{A}^+$, $\text{del_arg}(a)$ for $a \in \mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{A}^+$ (which also removes all attacks incident to a), $\text{add_att}(a, b)$, or $\text{del_att}(a, b)$. Let $AF' = \text{apply}(AF, \Delta, \text{Ops})$ denote the framework obtained by first incorporating Δ and then executing Ops . A repair is valid if a_t has status s under σ in AF' , and an optimal repair minimizes $\sum_{i=1}^m \kappa(o_i)$ over all valid repairs.*

Example 9 (Continuing Example 1). *As shown in Figure 2(c), the repair $\text{Ops} = \{\text{add_arg}(a_6), \text{add_att}(a_6, a_5)\}$ restores a_4 at total cost 2 under uniform cost ($\kappa \equiv 1$). The alternative $\text{Ops}' = \{\text{del_arg}(a_5)\}$ costs 1 but discards evidence; under structure-preserving cost with $\kappa(\text{del_}) = 2\kappa(\text{add_})$, both repairs cost 2, and domain preferences break the tie.*

The cost function κ encodes domain-specific preferences (e.g., deletions costlier than additions), connecting to enforcement in abstract argumentation (Baumann and Brewka 2010; Cayrol, de Saint-Cyr, and Lagasque-Schiex 2020) while adding an explicit cost model for explanation maintenance.

4 The ARGUS Framework

We now present ARGUS, a four-stage pipeline (Figure 3) that transforms an unverifiable LLM rationale into a formally grounded, repairable explanation. Given a question q , an answer a , and a free-form rationale e , the pipeline proceeds through structured extraction (§4.1), relation discovery (§4.2), semantic verification (§4.3), and minimal-change repair (§4.4). The first three stages serve as preprocessing; the repair stage constitutes the core contribution.

4.1 Structured Extraction

We prompt the LLM to decompose its rationale e into a set of argument units $\mathcal{A} = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$. Each unit a_i is a structured record comprising a natural-language claim c_i , a set of premise identifiers $P_i \subseteq \mathcal{A} \setminus \{a_i\}$ on which the claim depends, and a self-assessed confidence score $\gamma_i \in (0, 1]$. The prompt constrains the LLM to produce a JSON array of objects, each with fields `claim`, `premises`, and `confidence`, ensuring that every claim is atomic—that is, it asserts exactly one proposition that can be independently verified or rebutted. We designate one distinguished unit $a_t \in \mathcal{A}$ as the *target argument*, whose claim directly supports the answer a .

4.2 Relation Discovery and Graph Construction

Given the argument units \mathcal{A} , we construct an argumentation framework $AF = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{R})$ as defined in Definition 2. For

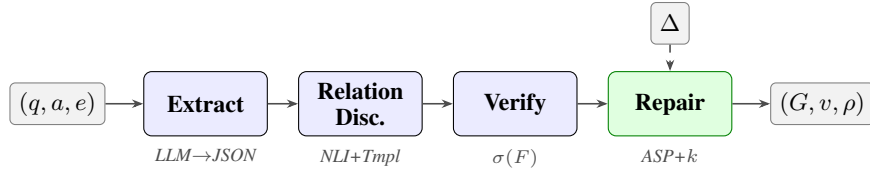


Figure 3: The ARGUS pipeline. The repair stage (highlighted) is the core contribution; an evidence update Δ triggers repair when the target argument is no longer accepted.

every ordered pair (a_i, a_j) with $i \neq j$, we query a natural language inference (NLI) model—a neural classifier trained to determine entailment, contradiction, or neutrality between text pairs—to classify the relationship between c_i and c_j . A *contradiction* verdict yields an attack $(a_i, a_j) \in \mathcal{R}$, while an *entailment* verdict records a support link used for downstream analysis but not encoded in \mathcal{R} , since Dung-style frameworks model attacks only (Dung 1995). To improve recall on domain-specific rebuttals, we maintain an *attack template library*—a curated set of negation patterns, common exceptions, and defeasible-rule conflicts. Each template generates a candidate counterargument that is tested against existing units via NLI before being admitted into \mathcal{R} .

4.3 Semantic Verification

With the framework $AF = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{R})$ in hand, we compute its extensions under a chosen semantics σ such as grounded or preferred semantics. The verification step checks whether the target argument a_t belongs to at least one σ -extension. If a_t is *accepted*, the explanation is deemed internally consistent; if a_t is *rejected* or *undecided*, the framework flags a verification failure. In either case, the solver also returns a *defense set* $D \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ —the minimal subset of arguments whose collective acceptability entails the status of a_t —which serves as a compact certificate explaining the verdict to the user.

4.4 Minimal-Change Repair

When new evidence contradicts the current explanation or the verification step detects a failure, ARGUS repairs the argumentation framework rather than regenerating the rationale from scratch. The repair must satisfy two desiderata simultaneously: the target argument must attain a prescribed status under σ , and the edit distance from the original framework must be minimized. We formalize this requirement below.

Repair Operations. We define four elementary edit operations: $\text{add_arg}(a)$ and $\text{del_arg}(a)$ insert or remove an argument (deletions cascade to incident attacks), while $\text{add_att}(a_i, a_j)$ and $\text{del_att}(a_i, a_j)$ insert or remove attacks. A set of operations yields a repaired framework $AF' = (\mathcal{A}', \mathcal{R}')$.

Cost Function. Each operation o is assigned a strictly positive cost $\kappa(o) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. We consider three cost models. Under *uniform cost*, every operation costs 1, so the objective reduces to minimizing the total number of edits. Under *confidence-weighted cost*, argument deletions are weighted by the confidence of the removed argument,

$\kappa(\text{del_arg}(a_i)) = \gamma_i$ (recall $\gamma_i > 0$ for all extracted arguments), while additions retain unit cost $\kappa(\text{add_arg}) = \kappa(\text{add_att}) = 1$, reflecting the intuition that highly confident claims should be more expensive to retract. Under *structure-preserving cost*, deletions are penalized more heavily than additions, $\kappa(\text{del_}) = w \cdot \kappa(\text{add_})$ for some $w > 1$, encouraging the solver to repair by augmentation rather than removal.

The repair problem is formalized in Definition 8. Given the cost function κ and evidence update Δ , the solver seeks an optimal repair—a set of edit operations of minimum total cost such that a_t attains the desired status under σ .

Example 10 (Continuing Example 1). *Under confidence-weighted cost with $\gamma_5 = 0.90$ (a verified lab result) and $\gamma_3 = 0.75$ (a symptomatic inference), deleting a_5 costs $\kappa(\text{del_arg}(a_5)) = 0.90$. The augmentation repair $\{\text{add_arg}(a_6), \text{add_att}(a_6, a_5)\}$ avoids removing any high-confidence argument, yielding total cost $2\kappa(\text{add_})$; this repair is cheaper whenever $\kappa(\text{add_}) < 0.45$. Under structure-preserving cost with $w = 2$, deleting a_5 costs 2 while the augmentation still costs 2, making the two equally expensive and allowing domain preferences to break the tie.*

ASP Encoding. We encode the repair problem as an answer set program following the methodology of Egly et al. (Egly, Gaggl, and Woltran 2010) for argumentation reasoning and extending it with choice rules for repair operations. The encoding consists of three components; at a high level, it mirrors an integer linear program where binary variables select edits, constraints enforce semantics, and the objective minimizes cost. First, *generate rules* introduce choice atoms for each candidate operation: the solver may optionally add or delete any argument or attack within a bounded edit budget. Second, *semantics constraints* enforce that the repaired framework satisfies σ ; for grounded semantics, these take the form of integrity constraints requiring that every argument in the grounded extension defends itself against all attackers. Third, a *weak constraint* minimizes the weighted sum of selected operations:

$$\# \text{minimize} \{ \kappa(o) : \text{selected}(o) \}.$$

Continuing with Example 1, the choice atoms include $\text{add_arg}(a_6)$ and $\text{add_att}(a_6, a_5)$, and the integrity constraints verify that a_4 belongs to the grounded extension of the repaired framework. Algorithm 1 summarizes the complete procedure. When the solver selects $\text{add_arg}(a)$, the natural-language claim for the new argument is generated by prompting the LLM to produce a rebuttal of the target’s attacker, conditioned on the evidence update Δ ; the resulting

Algorithm 1 ARGUS Repair

Require: $AF = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{R})$, semantics σ , target a_t , desired status s , evidence Δ , cost function κ , neighborhood bound k

Ensure: Optimal repair Ops^*

- 1: $\mathcal{A}_\Delta, \mathcal{R}_\Delta \leftarrow \text{INCORPORATE}(AF, \Delta)$
 - 2: $\mathcal{N} \leftarrow k\text{-neighborhood of } a_t \text{ in } (\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{A}_\Delta, \mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{R}_\Delta)$
 - 3: $\Pi \leftarrow \text{ENCODEASP}(\mathcal{N}, \sigma, a_t, s, \kappa)$
 - 4: $M^* \leftarrow \text{SOLVE}(\Pi)$ {optimal answer set}
 - 5: $Ops^* \leftarrow \{o \mid \text{selected}(o) \in M^*\}$
 - 6: **return** Ops^*
-

candidate is verified through the same NLI pipeline before admission.

Approximation for Scalability. Even under preferred semantics the repair problem is NP-complete (Theorem 13), rising to Σ_2^P -completeness under skeptical stable semantics (Dvořák and Dunne 2018), so we introduce two approximation strategies. First, a k -neighborhood restriction limits the search space to arguments within undirected distance k of the target in the attack graph; in our experiments, setting $k=3$ recovered optimal repairs in 99.7% of cases while substantially reducing solver grounding. Second, when ASP solvers are unavailable, beam search over repair sequences with width b provides a bounded-depth heuristic alternative. The approximation can miss optimal repairs when the only viable defender lies at distance greater than k from the target—a scenario that requires long attack chains—and in principle a repair valid for the subgraph may not preserve validity in the full framework if distant arguments influence the target’s status. In the LLM explanation frameworks we study, argument graphs are shallow (median depth 3, maximum 7), so $k=3$ is sufficient; for deeper domains, k should be increased accordingly.

5 Theoretical Properties

We establish three groups of results for the ARGUS repair operator: compliance with adapted AGM postulates, computational complexity under the principal argumentation semantics, and soundness of the ASP encoding.

5.1 AGM Compliance

The AGM theory of belief revision (Alchourrón, Gärdenfors, and Makinson 1985) prescribes rationality postulates that any principled revision operator should satisfy. We adapt three core postulates—success, inclusion, and vacuity—to the argumentation repair setting. Intuitively, success requires that the repair achieves the desired outcome; inclusion requires that the repaired framework retains as much of the original as possible; and vacuity requires that no edits are made when the current state already satisfies the goal.

Theorem 11 (Adapted AGM Compliance). *Let $AF = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{R})$ be an argumentation framework, σ an argumentation semantics, a_t a target argument, $s \in \{\text{IN}, \text{OUT}\}$ a desired status, Δ an evidence update, and κ a strictly positive*

cost function ($\kappa(o) > 0$ for every operation o). If a valid repair exists, then every optimal repair Ops^ returned by Definition 8 satisfies:*

1. **Success.** *The target a_t has status s in $AF' = \text{apply}(AF, \Delta, Ops^*)$ under σ .*
2. **Inclusion.** *$\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{A}' \supseteq \mathcal{A} \setminus \{a \mid \text{del_arg}(a) \in Ops^*\}$ and $\mathcal{R} \cap \mathcal{R}' \supseteq \mathcal{R} \setminus \{(a, b) \mid \text{del_att}(a, b) \in Ops^*\}$.*
3. **Vacuity.** *If a_t already has status s in $\text{apply}(AF, \Delta, \emptyset)$ under σ , then $Ops^* = \emptyset$ and $\text{cost}(Ops^*) = 0$.*

Proof sketch. Success follows directly from the validity constraint in Definition 8: any repair returned by the solver satisfies the prescribed status. Inclusion holds because elements not targeted by any deletion operation are preserved by the semantics of apply; moreover, optimality ensures that every deletion in Ops^* is necessary—removing an unnecessary $\text{del_arg}(a)$ would yield a valid repair of strictly lower cost ($\kappa > 0$), contradicting optimality. Vacuity is immediate: when no edits are needed, the empty set is valid and has cost zero, so no non-empty set can be cheaper. \square

Example 12 (Continuing Example 1). *Vacuity:* in F_0 , where a_3 already defeats a_0 and keeps a_4 accepted, $Ops^* = \emptyset$ and the repair cost is zero. *Success:* after incorporating $\Delta = (\{a_5\}, \{(a_5, a_3)\}, \emptyset, \emptyset)$, a_0 reinstates and rejects a_4 ; the repair $\{\text{add_arg}(a_6), \text{add_att}(a_6, a_5)\}$ restores a_4 to accepted status by defeating a_5 , which in turn restores a_3 and re-defeats a_0 . *Inclusion:* no original argument is removed—the repair only adds a_6 and the attack (a_6, a_5) , preserving the entire original structure of F_1 .

Among the eight classical AGM postulates (Katsuno and Mendelzon 1992), *consistency* and *extensionality* also hold: consistency follows because every valid repair produces a framework with at least one σ -extension (under preferred semantics), and extensionality holds because the operator is defined purely over graph structure. *Recovery* fails in our setting. In Example 1, repairing F_1 yields F_2 by adding a_6 and (a_6, a_5) ; if the evidence a_5 were subsequently retracted, F_2 would retain a_6 and its attack—the original framework F_0 is not recovered. This asymmetry is fundamental: structural additions made during repair cannot be automatically unwound by evidence retraction, unlike classical belief revision where recovery ensures reversibility. *Closure*, *superexpansion*, and *subexpansion* presuppose deductively closed belief sets—constructs without natural analogues in argumentation frameworks where “beliefs” are graph-structural elements rather than logical sentences. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first formal bridge between AGM rationality criteria and argumentation-based explanation repair for LLM self-explanations. While individual postulates follow naturally from cost minimization, the contribution lies in identifying which AGM rationality criteria have meaningful argumentation analogues and establishing that our operator satisfies them; unlike classical belief revision where the input is a sentence, our setting requires reasoning about graph-structural changes where inclusion and vacuity interact with the combinatorial structure of extensions. A full

axiomatic characterization—a representation theorem connecting the adapted postulates to the class of minimum-cost repair operators—is a direction for future work.

5.2 Computational Complexity

The complexity of the repair problem depends critically on the choice of argumentation semantics. Our results assume credulous acceptance (as defined in §3), inheriting the corresponding complexity landscape (Dunne and Wooldridge 2009; Dvořák and Dunne 2018).

Theorem 13 (Repair Complexity). *The decision version of the minimal-change repair problem—“does there exist a valid repair of cost at most C ?”—has the following complexity under credulous acceptance:*

1. *Under grounded semantics, the problem is in P .*
2. *Under preferred and stable semantics, the problem is NP -complete.*

Under skeptical acceptance with stable semantics, the problem rises to Σ_2^P -completeness.

Proof sketch. For grounded semantics, the unique grounded extension is computable in polynomial time via the characteristic function (Dung 1995). Membership in P follows by reduction to grounded enforcement, which Dvořák and Dunne (Dvořák and Dunne 2018) showed is solvable in polynomial time by exploiting the monotonicity of the characteristic function. Our repair problem reduces to enforcement: we first incorporate the evidence update Δ into the framework and then seek a minimum-cost set of edit operations that enforces the target argument’s desired acceptability status; since both the incorporation of Δ and the verification of any candidate repair via the grounded extension are polynomial, the overall decision problem is in P . For preferred semantics, hardness reduces from NP-hard extension enforcement (Baumann and Brewka 2010); membership in NP follows since a valid repair paired with a witnessing admissible set containing a_t can be guessed and verified in polynomial time. For stable semantics under credulous acceptance, membership in NP follows by the same certificate argument: a repair paired with a witnessing stable extension is verifiable in polynomial time. Under skeptical acceptance, verifying that *every* stable extension accepts the target is co-NP-hard (Dvořák and Dunne 2018), yielding Σ_2^P -completeness. Full reductions follow standard techniques from the enforcement literature (Baumann and Brewka 2010; Wallner, Niskanen, and Järvisalo 2017). \square

Remark 14. *The reduction to enforcement establishes complexity bounds but does not subsume the repair problem. Three structural differences distinguish our formulation: (i) an evidence update Δ first perturbs the framework before repair begins, coupling the search space to external input that enforcement does not model; (ii) heterogeneous cost functions weight operations by argument confidence and structural role, whereas enforcement minimizes unweighted edit count; and (iii) each `add_arg` operation is grounded through the NLI pipeline (§4.2), constraining the candidate space by semantic plausibility rather than allowing arbitrary graph modifications.*

These results motivate the k -neighborhood approximation introduced in §4.4: by restricting the search space, we reduce the effective problem size and ensure tractability even under preferred semantics for the framework sizes encountered in practice. In practical terms, grounded repairs complete in under 0.2 s and preferred repairs in under 0.5 s for the framework sizes in our benchmarks (§6).

5.3 Soundness of the ASP Encoding

Proposition 15 (Encoding Correctness). *The ASP encoding described in §4.4, when applied to the full framework without k -neighborhood restriction, is sound and complete with respect to optimal repairs under grounded and preferred semantics. That is, every optimal answer set of the program corresponds to a valid minimum-cost repair, and every valid minimum-cost repair has a corresponding optimal answer set.*

The proof follows from the established correctness of the argumentation encodings of Egly et al. (Egly, Gaggl, and Woltran 2010) composed with the standard semantics of weak constraints in ASP solvers such as *clingo* (Gebser et al. 2019). The composition is sound because the generate rules enumerate exactly the feasible edit operations and the integrity constraints enforce the semantics of the repaired framework, while the optimization directive selects minimum-cost solutions. We next evaluate whether these theoretical properties hold in practice and measure the empirical gains of the ARGUS repair operator.

6 Experimental Evaluation

We evaluate ARGUS on two established benchmarks to answer three questions: (Q1) Do the formal properties from §5 hold in practice? (Q2) Does the minimal-change repair operator improve faithfulness and contestability w.r.t. existing baselines? (Q3) What is the empirical cost of repair?

We evaluate on 500 randomly sampled instances (seed 42) from HotpotQA (Yang et al. 2018), a multi-hop question answering dataset, and 500 instances from FEVER (Thorne et al. 2018), a fact verification dataset. For each instance, evidence updates Δ are constructed from the gold supporting facts: we withhold one fact during initial explanation generation and introduce it as an evidence update, simulating the arrival of new information that may support or contradict the current rationale. The withholding methodology produces adversarial updates (the withheld fact always targets the reasoning chain), providing a challenging upper bound on repair difficulty; under mixed or benign updates, repair costs would likely be lower and vacuity rates higher, since many updates would not disrupt the target’s acceptability. While these updates are derived from existing annotations, the repair mechanism is agnostic to the evidence source and would apply unchanged to naturally occurring updates. For each instance, GPT-4o (gpt-4o-2024-11-20) (OpenAI 2023) generates an initial explanation at temperature 0.2. Relation discovery (§4.2) uses DeBERTa-v3-large fine-tuned on MultiNLI for pairwise NLI classification, with a contradiction probability threshold of 0.7 for admitting an attack. The argumen-

tation framework is constructed and verified as described in §4, and repairs are computed using clingo 5.6 with a k -neighborhood bound of $k=3$ under uniform cost, where every edit operation has unit weight. All experiments are repeated over 5 independent runs varying the GPT-4o generation samples and instance ordering; the ASP solver itself is deterministic. Standard deviations were ≤ 0.02 for accuracy-based metrics and ≤ 0.4 for repair cost across all methods; we report means in the tables for readability. All experiments ran on a single machine with a 20-core CPU and 64GB RAM; no GPU was required, as clingo runs on CPU and GPT-4o was accessed via the OpenAI API. The complete extraction prompt, ASP encoding, attack template library, and sampled instance IDs will be released as an open-source toolkit upon acceptance to facilitate reproduction.

We measure four metrics in line with the evaluation dimensions. *Faithfulness* measures whether each argument unit is causally relevant to the answer via counterfactual ablation: each unit is replaced with a semantically neutral sentence (“This claim is omitted.”) and the answer is regenerated; a unit is faithful if its removal changes the answer. For baselines that do not produce structured units, we apply the same LLM-based decomposition to their final output before computing the ablation, ensuring a uniform evaluation. *Contestability* is the fraction of gold counterarguments that the framework correctly integrates as attacks; gold counterarguments are derived from the withheld supporting facts by expressing each as an argument and annotating the expected attack relationships, providing a ground truth independent of the repair mechanism. *Repair accuracy* records whether the answer is correct after repair, and *repair cost* counts edit operations per Definition 8.

We compare against seven baselines spanning argumentation-based, self-correction, and verification approaches: ArgLLMs (Freedman et al. 2025), ARGORA (Jin et al. 2026), SelfCheckGPT (Manakul, Liusie, and Gales 2023), Self-Refine (Madaan et al. 2023), Reflexion (Shinn et al. 2023), RARR (Gao et al. 2023), and CoT-Verifier (Ling et al. 2023). ArgLLMs and CoT-Verifier lack repair mechanisms (marked N/A). Chain-of-Verification (Dhuliawala et al. 2024) and CRITIC (Gou et al. 2024), discussed in §2, operate at generation time rather than performing post-hoc repair and are therefore excluded from the comparison. We also considered a naïve *regenerate-from-scratch* baseline that re-prompts the LLM with the updated evidence; however, regeneration destroys the argumentation structure, prevents any formal guarantee on what reasoning is preserved, and offers no defense-set certificate for user inspection—precisely the properties that motivate the formal repair paradigm. Among self-correction baselines, Self-Refine most closely approximates regeneration and serves as its upper bound. For self-correction baselines, repair is operationalized as detect-then-regenerate, counting regenerated argument units as cost; iterative methods get up to 3 rounds per their original protocols, while ARGUS performs a single-pass optimal repair. Both cost measures reflect the magnitude of change to the explanation; however, the measures are not directly commensurable: ARGUS operations are structural graph

Table 1: Main results on HotpotQA and FEVER. Best values in **bold**; \uparrow = higher is better, \downarrow = lower is better. ArgLLMs and CoT-Verifier lack repair functionality.

Method	HotpotQA				FEVER			
	Faith \uparrow	Cont \uparrow	RAcc \uparrow	RCost \downarrow	Faith \uparrow	Cont \uparrow	RAcc \uparrow	RCost \downarrow
SelfCheckGPT	.693	.524	.701	8.4	.674	.498	.685	7.9
Self-Refine	.712	.541	.736	7.1	.698	.519	.721	6.8
Reflexion	.724	.563	.752	6.6	.709	.537	.738	6.2
RARR	.738	.547	.769	5.8	.721	.531	.754	5.5
CoT-Verifier	.751	.589	N/A	N/A	.733	.561	N/A	N/A
ArgLLMs	.754	.667	N/A	N/A	.741	.649	N/A	N/A
ARGORA	.768	.691	.801	5.1	.752	.672	.788	4.7
ARGUS	0.847	0.791	0.883	3.2	0.829	0.768	0.871	2.8

edits (adding/removing arguments and attacks), whereas baseline costs count surface-level text replacements, so cost comparisons should be interpreted as reflecting relative parsimony within each paradigm.

Table 1 summarizes the main results. ARGUS achieves the highest faithfulness on both datasets, reaching 0.847 on HotpotQA and 0.829 on FEVER, representing relative improvements of 10.3% in faithfulness and 14.5% in contestability on HotpotQA over the strongest argumentation baseline ARGORA, with comparable gains on FEVER. Among repair-capable methods, ARGUS attains the best repair accuracy while requiring significantly fewer edit operations—on average 3.2 operations on HotpotQA versus 5.1 for ARGORA—validating that the minimal-change objective from Definition 8 translates into efficient, targeted repairs rather than wholesale regeneration. All improvements of ARGUS over ARGORA are statistically significant (two-sample z -test on per-instance scores with Bonferroni correction for 8 comparisons: $p < 0.001$ for all four metrics on both datasets).

The formal properties established in §5 are confirmed empirically. Success holds by construction (the solver returns only valid repairs) and inclusion follows from cost minimization (every deletion incurs positive cost); we focus on vacuity as the most informative empirical test. The vacuity postulate of Theorem 11 holds without exception: in every instance where the evidence update did not alter the target argument’s status, the solver returned an empty repair at zero cost. Approximately 93% of evidence updates altered the target argument’s status (triggering repair); the remaining instances validated vacuity (5% on HotpotQA, 8% on FEVER), consistent with the adversarial withholding methodology that specifically targets the reasoning chain. The constructed frameworks had a mean of 6.8 arguments (median 6, max 18) on HotpotQA and 5.4 arguments (median 5, max 14) on FEVER, with mean attack density 1.7 attacks per argument. The defense sets produced during verification averaged 2.4 arguments on HotpotQA and 2.1 on FEVER, providing compact certificates that identify the minimal self-defending coalition sustaining the target. The tractability predicted by Theorem 13 for grounded semantics is borne out by solve times averaging 0.12s per instance, while preferred semantics required 0.43s on average—both well within practical bounds for these framework sizes.

Figure 4 traces solve time as a function of framework

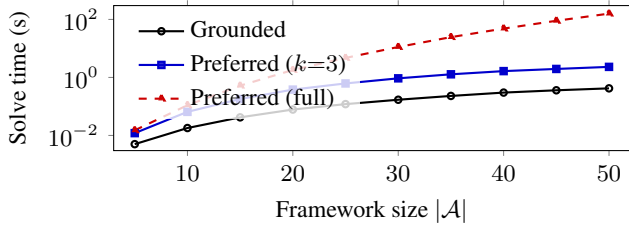


Figure 4: Scalability of ARGUS repair under grounded, k -neighborhood preferred ($k=3$), and unconstrained preferred semantics. The log-scale y-axis confirms polynomial scaling for grounded repair (Theorem 13) and the effectiveness of the k -neighborhood approximation.

Table 2: Ablation study on HotpotQA. Each row removes one component from the full ARGUS pipeline.

Variant	Faith \uparrow	Cont \uparrow	RAcc \uparrow	RCost \downarrow
Full ARGUS	0.847	0.791	0.883	3.2
w/o Semantic Verification	.793	.714	.832	4.1
w/o Minimal-Change	.841	.783	.856	5.7
w/o Attack Templates	.821	.698	.859	3.5
Grounded Only	.839	.772	.871	3.0

size $|A|$ on synthetic Erdős–Rényi frameworks (attack probability 0.15, 50 instances per size, reporting median solve times), confirming the polynomial scaling predicted by Theorem 13 for grounded semantics. The k -neighborhood approximation keeps preferred-semantics repair tractable up to $|A|=50$, while unconstrained preferred repair exhibits exponential blowup beyond $|A| \approx 25$. Stable semantics is omitted from Figure 4 because stable and preferred repair share the same NP-complete complexity class under credulous acceptance (Theorem 13) and coincided in over 97% of our instances; the theoretical characterization nevertheless ensures correctness for frameworks with richer extension structure.

Table 2 reports an ablation study on HotpotQA isolating the contribution of each major component. Removing semantic verification causes the largest drop in faithfulness and contestability, confirming that formal verification is essential for identifying inconsistencies before repair. Replacing the minimal-change objective with unconstrained repair preserves faithfulness—as expected, since the cost-minimization objective targets edit efficiency rather than per-unit accuracy—but increases repair cost from 3.2 to 5.7 operations on average, demonstrating that the formulation successfully limits unnecessary edits without sacrificing accuracy. Removing the attack template library reduces contestability by 9.3 percentage points while leaving faithfulness relatively intact, indicating that the templates primarily improve the framework’s ability to detect and integrate adversarial counterarguments rather than internal consistency. Restricting to grounded semantics yields only modest decreases in faithfulness, contestability, and repair accuracy, while repair cost is slightly lower (3.0 vs. 3.2) because the unique grounded extension admits a more constrained search space; the gap is small because the majority

of frameworks in these datasets have a single preferred extension that coincides with the grounded extension, though the 1.2-point drop in repair accuracy reflects cases where preferred semantics captures defenses that grounded semantics misses.

We further examine robustness and failure modes. Sensitivity analysis over cost models, NLI thresholds, k -neighborhood bounds, and an alternative extraction backbone (Appendix C) confirms that the repair mechanism is robust to these design choices, with the cost model affecting repair *style* rather than *quality*. An error analysis of the 0.3% of instances where minimality failed (Appendix D) traces all failures to frameworks where the only viable defending argument lay at distance ≥ 4 from the target. The repair cost distribution (Appendix A) is concentrated at low values—83% of HotpotQA and 90% of FEVER repairs require at most 4 operations—and a qualitative example (Appendix B) illustrates how ARGUS restores a target argument at cost 2 while Self-Refine regenerates 5 of 6 units.

7 Conclusion

We presented ARGUS, a framework that structures LLM self-explanations as argumentation frameworks, verifies them against formal semantics, and repairs them at minimum cost when new evidence arrives. The minimal-change repair operator satisfies adapted AGM postulates—success, inclusion, and vacuity—providing formal guarantees that are absent from existing self-correction and argumentation-based approaches. We established that the repair problem is tractable under grounded semantics and NP-complete under preferred and stable semantics, and introduced a k -neighborhood approximation that maintains scalability in practice. Experiments on HotpotQA and FEVER yielded relative improvements of up to 10.3% in faithfulness and 14.5% in contestability over the strongest argumentation baseline, while achieving the lowest repair cost among all repair-capable methods.

Several limitations warrant discussion. First, the quality of the argumentation framework depends on the LLM’s ability to decompose rationales into atomic argument units; extraction errors propagate through the entire pipeline, and the faithfulness metric itself relies on the LLM’s consistency under ablation, providing a causal proxy rather than a ground-truth measure. Relatedly, the `add_arg` operation uses the same LLM to generate repair candidates, though the NLI and ASP verification stages serve as external checks that break self-referential bias; integrating retrieval-augmented verification for generated arguments is a natural extension. Second, while the k -neighborhood approximation handles the framework sizes encountered in our experiments, frameworks with hundreds of densely connected arguments may require more aggressive approximation strategies. Third, our evaluation relies on automatic metrics over fact-checking and multi-hop QA datasets, with evidence updates constructed by withholding gold supporting facts; a human evaluation with naturalistically occurring evidence updates would further strengthen the empirical validation. Extending the approach to open-ended generation—where correctness is less well-defined and the target argument may

lack a ground-truth referent—would require alternative acceptance criteria such as coherence-based semantics. Finally, while the framework supports multiple cost models, our experiments use uniform cost for simplicity; learning domain-specific cost functions from user feedback—including external calibration of the LLM’s self-assessed confidence scores—is a promising direction for future work.

References

- Alchourrón, C. E.; Gärdenfors, P.; and Makinson, D. 1985. On the logic of theory change: Partial meet contraction and revision functions. *The Journal of Symbolic Logic* 50(2):510–530.
- Alfano, G.; Greco, S.; Parisi, F.; and Trubitsyna, I. 2024. Counterfactual and semifactual explanations in abstract argumentation: Formal foundations, complexity and computation. In *Proceedings of the 21st International Conference on Principles of Knowledge Representation and Reasoning (KR)*, 22–32.
- Baroni, P.; Gabbay, D.; Giacomini, M.; and van der Torre, L. 2018. *Handbook of Formal Argumentation*. College Publications.
- Baumann, R., and Brewka, G. 2010. Expanding argumentation frameworks: Enforcing and monotonicity results. *Computational Models of Argument* 75–86.
- Bengel, L., and Thimm, M. 2025. Sequence explanations for acceptance in abstract argumentation. In *Proceedings of the 22nd International Conference on Principles of Knowledge Representation and Reasoning (KR)*.
- Bisquert, P.; Cayrol, C.; de Saint-Cyr, F. D.; and Lagasquie-Schiex, M.-C. 2013. A change model for argumentation frameworks. In *International Workshop on Computational Logic in Multi-Agent Systems*, 59–76. Springer.
- Castagna, F.; Ruiz-Dolz, R.; Freedman, G.; and Hunter, A. 2024. Can formal argumentative reasoning enhance LLMs performances? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.13036*.
- Cayrol, C.; de Saint-Cyr, F. D.; and Lagasquie-Schiex, M.-C. 2020. Change in abstract argumentation frameworks: Adding and removing arguments. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research* 68:663–707.
- Coste-Marquis, S.; Konieczny, S.; Mailly, J.-G.; and Marquis, P. 2014. On the revision of argumentation systems: Minimal change of arguments statuses. In *Proceedings of the 14th International Conference on Principles of Knowledge Representation and Reasoning (KR)*, 52–61.
- Dhuliawala, S.; Komeili, M.; Xu, J.; Raileanu, R.; Li, X.; Celikyilmaz, A.; and Weston, J. 2024. Chain-of-verification reduces hallucination in large language models. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2024*.
- Dung, P. M. 1995. On the acceptability of arguments and its fundamental role in nonmonotonic reasoning, logic programming and n-person games. *Artificial Intelligence* 77(2):321–357.
- Dunne, P. E., and Wooldridge, M. 2009. Complexity of abstract argumentation. *Argumentation in Artificial Intelligence* 85–104.
- Dvořák, W., and Dunne, P. E. 2018. Computational aspects of abstract argumentation. *Handbook of Formal Argumentation* 631–688.
- Egly, U.; Gaggl, S. A.; and Woltran, S. 2010. Answer-set programming encodings for argumentation frameworks. *Argument & Computation* 1(2):147–177.
- Freedman, G.; Dejl, A.; Gorur, D.; Yin, X.; Rago, A.; and Toni, F. 2025. Argumentative large language models for explainable and contestable claim verification. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI)*. Oral presentation.
- Gao, L.; Dai, Z.; Pasupat, P.; Chen, A.; Chaganty, A. T.; Fan, Y.; Zhao, V. Y.; Lao, N.; Lee, H.; Juan, D.-C.; et al. 2023. RARR: Researching and revising what language models say, using language models. In *Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*.
- Gebser, M.; Kaminski, R.; Kaufmann, B.; and Schaub, T. 2019. Multi-shot ASP solving with clingo. *Theory and Practice of Logic Programming* 19(3):477–504.
- Gou, Z.; Shao, Z.; Gong, Y.; Shen, Y.; Yang, Y.; Huang, M.; Duan, N.; and Chen, W. 2024. CRITIC: Large language models can self-correct with tool-interactive critiquing. In *Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*.
- Hase, P.; Bansal, M.; Clark, P.; and Wiegrefe, S. 2024. Fundamental problems with model editing: How should rational belief revision work in LLMs? In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*.
- Huang, J.; Chen, X.; Mishra, S.; Zheng, H. S.; Yu, A. W.; Song, X.; and Zhou, D. 2024. Large language models cannot self-correct reasoning yet. In *Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*.
- Jin, Y.; Kim, H.; Kim, K.; Lee, C.; and Shin, S. 2026. AR-GORA: Orchestrated argumentation for causally grounded LLM reasoning and decision making. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2601.21533*.
- Katsuno, H., and Mendelzon, A. O. 1992. On the difference between updating a knowledge base and revising it. *Belief Revision* 183–203.
- Lanham, T.; Chen, A.; Radhakrishnan, A.; Steiner, B.; Denison, C.; Hernandez, D.; Li, D.; Durmus, E.; Hubinger, E.; Kernion, J.; et al. 2023. Measuring faithfulness in chain-of-thought reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.13702*.
- Ling, Z.; Fang, Y.; Li, X.; Huang, Z.; Lee, M.; Memisevic, R.; and Su, H. 2023. Deductive verification of chain-of-thought reasoning. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*.
- Madaan, A.; Tandon, N.; Gupta, P.; Hallinan, S.; Gao, L.; Wiegrefe, S.; Alon, U.; Dziri, N.; Prabhumoye, S.; Yang, Y.; et al. 2023. Self-refine: Iterative refinement with self-feedback. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*.
- Manakul, P.; Liusie, A.; and Gales, M. J. F. 2023. Self-CheckGPT: Zero-resource black-box hallucination detection

for generative large language models. In *Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, 9004–9017.

Modgil, S., and Prakken, H. 2014. The ASPIC+ framework for structured argumentation: A tutorial. *Argument & Computation* 5(1):31–62.

OpenAI. 2023. GPT-4 technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774*.

Shinn, N.; Cassano, F.; Gopinath, A.; Narasimhan, K.; and Yao, S. 2023. Reflexion: Language agents with verbal reinforcement learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*.

Thorne, J.; Vlachos, A.; Christodoulopoulos, C.; and Mittal, A. 2018. FEVER: a large-scale dataset for fact extraction and VERification. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 809–819.

Vassiliades, A.; Bassiliades, N.; and Patkos, T. 2021. Argumentation and explainable artificial intelligence: A survey. *Knowledge-Based Systems* 171:102–123.

Wallner, J. P.; Niskanen, A.; and Järvisalo, M. 2017. Complexity results and algorithms for extension enforcement in abstract argumentation. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 1088–1094.

Yang, Z.; Qi, P.; Zhang, S.; Bengio, Y.; Cohen, W. W.; Salakhutdinov, R.; and Manning, C. D. 2018. HotpotQA: A dataset for diverse, explainable multi-hop question answering. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, 2369–2380.

Ye, X., and Durrett, G. 2024. Are self-explanations from large language models faithful? In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2024*.

A Repair Cost Distribution

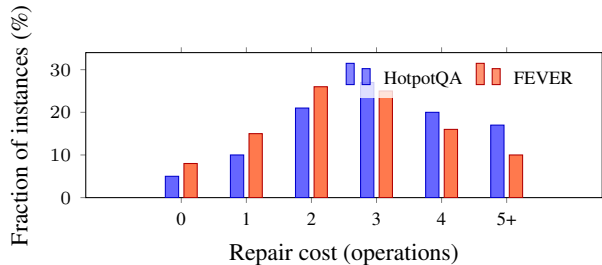


Figure 5: Distribution of repair costs. 83% of HotpotQA and 90% of FEVER repairs require at most 4 operations, confirming that ARGUS achieves targeted, minimal-change edits.

The distributions are concentrated at low cost, with means of 3.2 and 2.8 operations respectively, confirming that most evidence updates require only local adjustments to the argument graph rather than global restructuring.

B Qualitative Repair Example

Figure 6 illustrates a representative HotpotQA repair: the initial explanation relied on an outdated filmography claim;

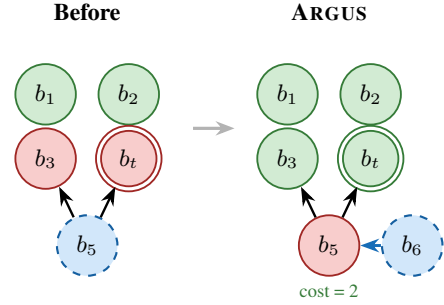


Figure 6: A HotpotQA repair example. ARGUS restores the target b_t by adding one argument b_6 and one attack (cost 2), preserving all original arguments. Self-Refine regenerates 5 of 6 units.

after incorporating corrected evidence, ARGUS restored the target at cost 2 by adding one defending argument and one attack. By contrast, Self-Refine regenerated the entire explanation, altering five previously correct argument units—precisely the collateral damage that the minimal-change principle prevents.

C Sensitivity Analysis

Pilot studies on 100 HotpotQA instances explore three design choices. Confidence-weighted and structure-preserving ($w=2$) cost models shift repairs toward augmentation (34–51% fewer deletions) while maintaining faithfulness and repair accuracy within 1 percentage point of uniform cost, confirming that the cost model affects repair *style* rather than *quality*. Varying the NLI threshold from 0.5 to 0.9 shows faithfulness is stable (0.839–0.851) while repair cost rises from 2.4 to 4.1; 0.7 balances these factors. Repair optimality rises from 87.2% ($k=1$) to 99.7% ($k=3$) and plateaus, confirming $k=3$ as the operating point. Using Llama-3-70B-Instruct as the extraction backbone yields faithfulness 0.813 and contestability 0.762 (vs. 0.847/0.791 for GPT-4o), with comparable repair accuracy (0.867) and cost (3.4); the gap is attributable to noisier extraction rather than the repair mechanism.

D Error Analysis

Among the 0.3% of instances where minimality failed ($k=3$), all involved frameworks where the only viable defending argument lay at distance ≥ 4 from the target—confirming the theoretical limitation of the k -neighborhood approximation. Repair accuracy below 1.0 arises when the LLM-generated explanation has structural errors that propagate through extraction: even after restoring the target argument’s acceptability, the underlying answer may remain incorrect if the original decomposition was flawed.