First Heuristic Then Rational: Dynamic Use of Heuristics in Language Model Reasoning

Anonymous ACL submission

First rely on

Start

heuristics

Abstract

Multi-step reasoning is widely adopted in the community to explore the better performance of language models (LMs). We report on the systematic strategy that LMs use in this process. Our controlled experiments reveal that LMs rely more heavily on heuristics, such as lexical overlap, in the earlier stages of reasoning when more steps are required to reach an answer. Conversely, as LMs progress closer to the final answer, their reliance on heuristics decreases. This suggests that LMs track only a limited number of future steps and dynamically combine heuristic strategies with logical ones in tasks involving multi-step reasoning.¹

1 Introduction

002 003

800

011

012

014

017

027

034

035

When facing complex tasks, humans tend to seek shallow, heuristic solutions first; and, once these attempts are revealed to fail or elicit another reasonable solution, they switch to being more rational (Erickson and Mattson, 1981; Frederick, 2005). This systematic behavior helps us to predict how humans will tackle new problems. Given such a view, when it comes to predicting the behavior of language models (LMs) (Madaan and Yazdanbakhsh, 2022; Ye et al., 2023), the following question naturally arises-Do LMs also use a similar systematic strategy to solve complex tasks, or is their strategy totally different from humans, or do they have no such strategies? This study explores an answer to this question. Investigating LMs' strategic behavior in problem-solving is expected to provide a new perspective on LMs' reasoning mechanism. It may also address general concerns that current neural models tend to overly rely on superficial, heuristic cues and may end up with irrational conclusions (Du et al., 2022; Lai et al., 2021; Jia and Liang, 2017; Ye et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2024).



Reasoning steps

Goal

Accurate

nearby

the goal

039

040

041

043

044

045

046

054

058

059

060

061

Specifically, in the course of step-by-step reasoning, they tend to rely on shallow, short-sighted heuristic preferences in choosing rules in the early phase and dynamically switch to be more rational and goal-oriented to make the right choice to reach the goal. This highlights a severe limitation of present LMs, including GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023), in searching for a solution to multi-hop reasoning tasks, particularly when tasks require many-step long solutions.

2 Task

As a controlled testbed to analyze LM's reasoning ability, we adopt an arithmetic reasoning task (Figure 2 left). We will use both natural and artificially controlled datasets in the experiments, but let us use the latter, more formal examples to explain the task overview.

Arithmetic reasoning task: The problem consists of a set of premises $P = \{p_1, \dots, p_k\}$ and a question q. Each premise describes either type of fact: (i) Person A has n items (A=n), or (ii) Person B has n more/less items than A has (B=A+nor B=A-n). The question asks the exact num-

¹The code/data will be made public upon acceptance.



Figure 2: Overview of the task setting. Given premises and a question, a model answers the question step-by-step (left part). Through each reasoning step t of selecting/paraphrasing relevant premise $p_k \in P$, the available facts z are enriched, and if that step is necessary to reach the answer, the distance to the answer d decreases (right part).

ber of certain items a particular person ultimately has (how many apples does B have?). Here, one should consider multiple premises to derive the final answer, e.g., A=3;B=2+A;B=2+3=5. Notably, some premises are irrelevant to the answer; thus, models have to track which premise is necessary to reach the final answer.

062

063

067

089

Reasoning step: Let f be a model that is instructed to solve the task step-by-step. In each reasoning step t, the model f selects a particular premise $p_i \in P$ and paraphrases it into a new fact z_t by eagerly resolving reference expressions based on the already stated facts $\mathbf{z}_{< t} = [z_1, \dots, z_{t-1}]$:

$$f(P,q, \mathbf{z}_{< t}) = (p_i, z_t)$$
 . (1)

For example, in Figure 2, when p_2 "Walter has 2 more apples than Peggy." is selected at a particular reasoning step, the respective z_t should be "Walter has 2+5=7 apples." if $z_{<t}$ already contains the number of apples Peggy has, i.e., p_1 .² Starting with an empty set of stated facts $z = \{\}$, the model recursively performs a reasoning step and can stop when outputting a special symbol EOS or providing an answer to the question q. Here, we denote the whole history of selected premises as $h = [p_i, \dots, p_j] \in P^*$, where P^* is Kleene closure of P. Its t-th element h_t is the premise employed to derive the t-th reasoning step. Henceforth, we call h reasoning steps and focus on the ability to search the right h. **Solutions:** Each problem has a set of solutions $H^{\circ} \subset P^*$. Specifically, the final reasoning step h_{-1} of the solution $h \in H^{\circ}$ should provide a concrete number asked by the question q. Figure 2 illustrates such a set of solutions H° as the steps leading to the final states of the state transition graph (right part of Figure 2).

092

093

094

095

096

097

098

100

101

102

103

104

105

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

Minimal solution: Within the set of solutions, there is only one minimal solution $h^* \in H^\circ \subset$ P^* . To define h^* , let us first introduce a distance to the answer. In each reasoning step t, one can determine the minimum number of remaining reasoning steps to reach the answer $d \in \mathbb{N}$, given $h_{\leq t} \in P^*$ and the initially provided premises P. Intuitively, d can be derived from a state transition graph and the minimum number of transitions to the closest final states, as shown in Figure 2 (right part). Here, we denote the mapping function from $h_{\leq t}$ to d as $g: P^* \to \mathbb{N}$. For example, $g([p_2, p_1, p_2]) = 1$ in Figure 2. Minimal solution h^* satisfies $\forall t \ g(h^*_{\leq t}) < g(h^*_{\leq t-1})$; that is, h^* does not contain any irrelevant step to approach the answer. For example, the MS reasoning steps in Figure 2 are $[p_1, p_2, p_4] = h^*$.

Targeted ability of LMs: We evaluate LMs' ability to derive the minimal solution h^* as instructed by 4-shot examples 10. Notably, we do not care about the ability to correctly introduce a new fact z_t (Eq. 1), e.g., the accuracy of arithmetic operation (e.g., 5+2=7), but separately focus on their search strategy to select the relevant premise to perform the next reasoning step.

²If the reference can not be resolved with $z_{<t}$, the model just repeats the selected premise p_i as z_t .

Heuristics

Given existing studies on LMs' use of heuristics (§5), we focus on the following types of heuristics:

127Lexical overlap between premise and ques-128tion (Overlap): Whether models tend to select129premises with the same person name (PN) as the130one in question is targeted. For example, given a131question "how many apples Judy has," premises132such as "Judy's mother got 3 apples" can be a dis-133tractor when it is unnecessary to reach the answer.

Position of premise (Position): Whether models tend to select the premise in the initial position
of context is targeted.

Grammatical feature of premise (Neg.): Given that a specific grammatical feature, e.g., whether the sentence has a negation word, is often a superficial cue (Du et al., 2021; Niven and Kao, 2019), we specifically analyze the bias that models avoid selecting premise with negation.

143We append distractor premises that are irrelevant144to answering the question but presumably pre-145ferred by the model w.r.t. some heuristics to the146input P. We analyze whether LMs select such dis-147tractors to understand their search strategy (§4).

4 Experiments

We use four representative variants of LLMs: textbison-001 version of Google'sPaLM2 (Anil et al., 2023), Llama2-13B (Touvron et al., 2023), gpt-3.5-turbo-0125 and gpt-4-0613 snapshots of OpenAI's GPT-3.5-turbo (OpenAI, 2022) and GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023).

4.1 Preliminary experiments

First, we confirm that LLMs exploit specific heuristics during step-by-step reasoning in natural and artificially-controlled datasets.

Settings: We use two datasets: GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021) (App. A) and artificially-controlled data with 4-step arithmetic reasoning (App. B). Each instance in either dataset has at least one premise $\tilde{p} \notin h^*$ that is irrelevant to inducing the answer (i.e., distractor). We randomly select one such irrelevant premise (Base),³ modify it to match a particular heuristics (e.g., move it to the

	GSM8K		Artificial data					
Models	Base	Over. ↑	Pos. ↑	Neg. ↓	Base	Over. ↑	Pos. ↑	Neg.↓
PaLM2	18.4%	57.9 %	19.7%	17.1%	10.3%	42.3%	12.0%	4.3%
Llama2	43.2%	69.7 %	50.0%	14.5%	32.6%	67.7%	33.0%	41.7%
GPT-3.5	35.5%	67.1 %	36.8%	22.4%	21.0%	15.0%	49.0%	0.0%
GPT-4	21.1%	35.5%	22.4%	21.1%	0.0%	0.01%	0.0%	0.0%

Table 1: The percentage of the problems where the model selected a distractor \tilde{p} in step-by-step reasoning. Over. and Pos. denote the Overlap and Position biases.

Context: Peggy has 5 apples. Walter has 2 more apples than Peggy. Judy's mother has 3 less apples than Peggy. Judy has 4 more apples than Walter has. **Question:** How many apples does Judy have?

Table 2: Example of a distractor examined in §4.2. Suppose that h_1^* is "Peggy has 5 apples." One of the two candidates with "Peggy" is the correct next step h_2^* (green), and the other is a distractor (orange).

first position), and observe whether such a modification makes it more *attractive* for LLMs to select during step-by-step reasoning. We report the percentage of the problems, where the model selected the distractor at least once during reasoning. We separately run the experiments for each type of heuristic rather than adding all types of distractors to the input at once. **Results:** Table 1 shows the results. The Base results (baseline) indicate how many times the randomly sampled distractor \tilde{p} is selected during reasoning. The scores for the distractors with heuristic features (Over., Pos., Neg. in Table 1) are generally higher (lower for Neg.) than the Base scores across models and datasets. This indicates that LMs, on average, tend to rely on our targeted heuristics (§3). Note that, interestingly, different models yield somewhat different preference towards distractor types; for example, Llama2 and GPT-3.5 are more biased premise position than PaLM2 and GPT-4.

4.2 Main experiments

Then, we further investigate the strategies of LMs to employ heuristics. We hypothesized that **the more distant the reasoning step is from the answer (higher** *d***), the more heavily models rely on heuristics**. This is motivated by the larger gap between questions and available knowledge, leading to difficulty. Thus, models have to rely on more primitive and heuristic factors.

³Strictly speaking, we randomly selected the premise that does not match any of the three heuristics.



Figure 3: How frequently a particular distractor is selected (y-axis: r) in each reasoning step (x-axis: d).

Distractor and evaluation: To identify in which steps heuristics are more likely to be ex-198 ploited, ideally, one should design a distractor 199 equally attractive to all the reasoning steps in h^* and analyze when it is selected during the reason-201 202 ing to facilitate a fair step-wise comparison; however, such a distractor is inherently difficult to implement. Instead, we add multiple distractors Pto the artificial data; each of them $\tilde{p}_t \in P$ correspond to each reasoning step h_t^* in the sense that 206 both share the same person name that appeared in the previous step h_{t-1}^* (Table 2).⁴ Similar to §4.1, we further modify each distractor $\tilde{p}_t \in \tilde{P}$ to match each heuristic (Overlap with question or Position 210 in §3).⁵ In evaluation, for each t, partial correct 211 reasoning steps $h_{< t}^*$ are teacher-forced to a model, 212 and we analyze whether the model selects the right 213 214 next step h_t^* or its respective distractor \tilde{p}_t . We calculate the frequency $\#(\cdot)$ of models' selecting \tilde{p}_t and h_t^* ; then, their ratio $r = \frac{\#\tilde{p}_t}{\#h_t^*}$ is reported. The 215 216 chance rate (i.e., random premise selection) is 0.5. Our hypothesis is that the more current step t is 218 distant from the goal (i.e., the larger $d = q(\mathbf{h}_t^*)$), 219 the more frequently the distractor is selected (i.e., the higher r). 221

> **Data:** We used 5-step artificial reasoning data and excluded the first $(d = 5 \rightarrow 4)$ and the last $(d = 1 \rightarrow 0)$ steps from evaluation regarding their special properties. GSM8K was excluded due to the infeasibility of controlled distractors.

225

Results: The results are shown in Figure 3. The x-axis is the remaining steps d to the goal, and the y-axis is the ratio r. The more distant the current

step is from the answer (larger d), the more frequently the distractor is selected (larger r) which is typically above the chance rate. PaLM2 and GPT-4 exhibited particularly clear tendencies of the negative slopes between d and r. These suggest the systematic behavior that LMs tend to rely more on heuristics in the earlier reasoning steps.

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

273

274

275

276

277

5 Related work

Multi-step symbolic reasoning: Given the historical goal of neuro-symbolic integration (Hamilton et al., 2022) and the increasing relevance of neural LMs (Fang et al., 2024), whether neural models can emulate particular symbolic operations (e.g., search over the graph) has been a key question (Yao et al., 2023). In contrast to delineating what symbolic tasks are (im)possible for LMs by varying task complexities (Clark et al., 2020), we investigate the inherent, systematic biases in solving a certain reasoning task.

Heuristics in LM: Neural models have typically been distracted by superficial biases (Du et al., 2022). For example, they tend to use superficial features such as overlaps (Lai et al., 2021; Sen and Saffari, 2020), positional (Ko et al., 2020), and specific syntactic category features (Du et al., 2021; Niven and Kao, 2019) even with chain-of-thought prompting (Madaan and Yazdanbakhsh, 2022); these motivated our experimental settings.

Search algorithm: Finding the shortest path between the start and the goal on a graph is a standard problem in computer science (Russell and Norvig, 2016). Our investigation of LMs on the arithmetic tasks can be seen as characterizing LMs' biases as a search algorithm. The use of heuristics in graph search is, more or less, related to the A* search algorithm (Hart et al., 1968), although heuristics in A* search is a more narrow concept regarding the distance to the goal than those employed by LMs, e.g., position bias.

6 Conclusion

We have found a systematic strategy for the use of heuristics in LMs' multi-step reasoning—a dynamic transition from a heuristic to a rational reasoning strategy during the course of LMs' step-bystep reasoning. These results are hopefully helpful for researchers to understand their underlying mechanism as well as for LM users to consider the inherent biases systems have.

⁴To rule out the shortcut cue regarding the reference frequencies of each person name, we further added distractor premises to make the frequencies uniform.

⁵We excluded the Neg. (avoidance) bias because if a model avoids negation in the latter step, we could not distinguish whether it was due to heuristic or rational search.

278 Limitations

This study focused only on four specific language 279 models and two arithmetic tasks. Increasing the coverage of models and tasks are obviously possi-281 ble future direction, although we ensured that our finding generalizes at least several models and task settings. Nevertheless, in particular, Section 4.2 used only artificial datasets for fair comparison. 285 Constructing a controlled, but natural dataset to evaluate the reasoning strategies of LMs should be encouraged. Furthermore, our findings are based solely on the model's output texts. Elucidating the underlying mechanisms and the source of these 290 behaviors (e.g., training data) should be investi-292 gated in the future work.

Ethics statement

This paper does not involve ethical concerns in the sense that we (i) did not conduct human experiments, (ii) just created artificial data without any potentially harmful contents, and (iii) did not address tasks related to ethically sensitive topics (i.e., arithmetic reasoning).

References

294

296

297

300

301

302

312

313

314

315

316

317

321

322

323

324

326

327

- Rohan Anil, Andrew M. Dai, Orhan Firat, Melvin Johnson, Dmitry Lepikhin, Alexandre Passos, Siamak Shakeri, Emanuel Taropa, Paige Bailey, Zhifeng Chen, Eric Chu, Jonathan H. Clark, Laurent El Shafey, Yanping Huang, Kathy Meier-Hellstern, Gaurav Mishra, Erica Moreira, Mark Omernick, Kevin Robinson, Sebastian Ruder, Yi Tay, Kefan Xiao, Yuanzhong Xu, Yujing Zhang, Gustavo Hernández Ábrego, Junwhan Ahn, Jacob Austin, Paul Barham, Jan A. Botha, James Bradbury, Siddhartha Brahma, Kevin Brooks, Michele Catasta, Yong Cheng, Colin Cherry, Christopher A. Choquette-Choo, Aakanksha Chowdhery, Clément Crepy, Shachi Dave, Mostafa Dehghani, Sunipa Dev, Jacob Devlin, Mark Díaz, Nan Du, Ethan Dyer, Vladimir Feinberg, Fangxiaoyu Feng, Vlad Fienber, Markus Freitag, Xavier Garcia, Sebastian Gehrmann, Lucas Gonzalez, and et al. 2023. Palm 2 technical report. CoRR, abs/2305.10403.
 - Xinyun Chen, Ryan A. Chi, Xuezhi Wang, and Denny Zhou. 2024. Premise order matters in reasoning with large language models. *CoRR*, abs/2402.08939.
 - Peter Clark, Oyvind Tafjord, and Kyle Richardson. 2020. Transformers as soft reasoners over language. In Proceedings of the Twenty-Ninth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, IJCAI 2020, pages 3882–3890. ijcai.org.

Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian, Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser, Matthias Plappert, Jerry Tworek, Jacob Hilton, Reiichiro Nakano, Christopher Hesse, and John Schulman. 2021. Training verifiers to solve math word problems. *CoRR*, abs/2110.14168. 329

330

332

333

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

384

- Mengnan Du, Fengxiang He, Na Zou, Dacheng Tao, and Xia Hu. 2022. Shortcut learning of large language models in natural language understanding: A survey. *CoRR*, abs/2208.11857.
- Mengnan Du, Varun Manjunatha, Rajiv Jain, Ruchi Deshpande, Franck Dernoncourt, Jiuxiang Gu, Tong Sun, and Xia Hu. 2021. Towards interpreting and mitigating shortcut learning behavior of NLU models. In Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, NAACL-HLT 2021, Online, June 6-11, 2021, pages 915–929. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Thomas D. Erickson and Mark E. Mattson. 1981. From words to meaning: A semantic illusion. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 20(5):540– 551.
- Meng Fang, Shilong Deng, Yudi Zhang, Zijing Shi, Ling Chen, Mykola Pechenizkiy, and Jun Wang. 2024. Large language models are neurosymbolic reasoners. In Thirty-Eighth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, AAAI 2024, Thirty-Sixth Conference on Innovative Applications of Artificial Intelligence, IAAI 2024, Fourteenth Symposium on Educational Advances in Artificial Intelligence, EAAI 2014, February 20-27, 2024, Vancouver, Canada, pages 17985–17993. AAAI Press.
- Shane Frederick. 2005. Cognitive reflection and decision making. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 19(4):25–42.
- Kyle Hamilton, Aparna Nayak, Bojan Bozic, and Luca Longo. 2022. Is neuro-symbolic AI meeting its promise in natural language processing? A structured review. *CoRR*, abs/2202.12205.
- Peter E. Hart, Nils J. Nilsson, and Bertram Raphael. 1968. A formal basis for the heuristic determination of minimum cost paths. *IEEE Transactions on Systems Science and Cybernetics*, 4(2):100–107.
- Robin Jia and Percy Liang. 2017. Adversarial examples for evaluating reading comprehension systems. In Proceedings of the 2017 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2017, Copenhagen, Denmark, September 9-11, 2017, pages 2021–2031. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Miyoung Ko, Jinhyuk Lee, Hyunjae Kim, Gangwoo Kim, and Jaewoo Kang. 2020. Look at the first sentence: Position bias in question answering. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2020,*

Online, November 16-20, 2020, pages 1109-1121.

Yuxuan Lai, Chen Zhang, Yansong Feng, Quzhe Huang, and Dongyan Zhao. 2021. Why machine

reading comprehension models learn shortcuts? In

Findings of the Association for Computational Lin-

guistics: ACL/IJCNLP 2021, Online Event, August

1-6, 2021, volume ACL/IJCNLP 2021 of Findings

of ACL, pages 989-1002. Association for Computa-

Aman Madaan and Amir Yazdanbakhsh. 2022. Text

Timothy Niven and Hung-Yu Kao. 2019. Probing neu-

ral network comprehension of natural language ar-

guments. In Proceedings of the 57th Conference of the Association for Computational Linguistics, ACL

2019, Florence, Italy, July 28- August 2, 2019, Vol-

ume 1: Long Papers, pages 4658-4664. Association

Stuart J Russell and Peter Norvig. 2016. Artificial in-

Priyanka Sen and Amir Saffari. 2020. What do mod-

els learn from question answering datasets? In Pro-

ceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Meth-

ods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2020, Online, November 16-20, 2020, pages 2429-2438.

Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Niko-

lay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava,

Shruti Bhosale, Dan Bikel, Lukas Blecher, Cris-

tian Canton-Ferrer, Moya Chen, Guillem Cucurull,

David Esiobu, Jude Fernandes, Jeremy Fu, Wenyin

Fu, Brian Fuller, Cynthia Gao, Vedanuj Goswami,

Naman Goyal, Anthony Hartshorn, Saghar Hos-

seini, Rui Hou, Hakan Inan, Marcin Kardas, Viktor

Kerkez, Madian Khabsa, Isabel Kloumann, Artem

Korenev, Punit Singh Koura, Marie-Anne Lachaux,

Thibaut Lavril, Jenya Lee, Diana Liskovich, Yinghai

Lu, Yuning Mao, Xavier Martinet, Todor Mihaylov,

Pushkar Mishra, Igor Molybog, Yixin Nie, Andrew Poulton, Jeremy Reizenstein, Rashi Rungta, Kalyan

Saladi, Alan Schelten, Ruan Silva, Eric Michael

Smith, Ranjan Subramanian, Xiaoqing Ellen Tan,

Binh Tang, Ross Taylor, Adina Williams, Jian Xiang

Kuan, Puxin Xu, Zheng Yan, Iliyan Zarov, Yuchen

Zhang, Angela Fan, Melanie Kambadur, Sharan

Narang, Aurélien Rodriguez, Robert Stojnic, Sergey

Edunov, and Thomas Scialom. 2023. Llama 2:

Open foundation and fine-tuned chat models. CoRR,

abs/2307.09288.

telligence: a modern approach. Pearson.

Association for Computational Linguistics.

GPT-4 technical report.

CoRR,

two to tango. CoRR, abs/2209.07686.

for Computational Linguistics.

OpenAI. 2022. Introducing chatgpt.

OpenAI. 2023.

abs/2303.08774.

and patterns: For effective chain of thought, it takes

tional Linguistics.

Association for Computational Linguistics.

- 388
- 391
- 394
- 396
- 397
- 400 401
- 402 403
- 404 405
- 406
- 407
- 408
- 409 410

- 411 412
- 413 414
- 415 416
- 417 418
- 420 421 422

- 419

427

428 429

430

431

432

437

- 438 439
 - 440

Shunyu Yao, Dian Yu, Jeffrey Zhao, Izhak Shafran, Thomas L. Griffiths, Yuan Cao, and Karthik Narasimhan. 2023. Tree of thoughts: Deliberate problem solving with large language models. CoRR, abs/2305.10601.

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

Mengyu Ye, Tatsuki Kuribayashi, Jun Suzuki, Goro Kobayashi, and Hiroaki Funayama. 2023. Assessing step-by-step reasoning against lexical negation: A case study on syllogism. In Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2023, Singapore, December 6-10, 2023, pages 14753-14773. Association for Computational Linguistics.

6

Context: <u>Jamesname</u> decides to run <u> 3_{num} </u> sprints <u> 3_{num} </u> times a week. <u>Hepronoun</u> runs <u> 60_{num} </u> meters each sprint.

Question: How many total meters does <u>hepronoun</u> run a week?

Person's Names : James Numbers : 3,60

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

Table 3: Extraction of names, personal pronouns, and numbers on GSM8K.

A Experimental setting with GSM8K (§4.1)

A.1 Dataset construction process

As described in 4.1, we modify the existing multihop numerical reasoning dataset, GSM8K (distributed under the MIT license), to construct the evaluation dataset. The dataset construction process is divided into two steps: 1. Extracting samples that can be used as evaluation data for this study, and 2. Inserting distractors according to the heuristic we want to evaluate for each extracted problem statement.

A.1.1 Sample extraction

We extract samples from the GSM8K evaluation dataset for this study following the process below:

- 1. We manually create a list of 50 person names (PNs) from a subset of the GSM8K evaluation dataset.
- 2. Using regular expressions, we identify PNs from this list, as well as pronouns and numer-ical expressions present in each sample.
- 3. We extracted samples that included exactly one from our list in both the context and the question, and where either the PN or a pronoun appears in the question (e.g., Table 3).
- 4. We replaced all pronouns within the extracted samples with the corresponding person's name.

A.1.2 Distractor insertion

Subsequently, we added distractors to the extracted samples according to each heuristic,
thereby constructing a total of 76 samples for the
evaluation dataset. Below, we will describe the
process of creating the evaluation dataset for each
heuristic.

Base As a baseline, we insert a template-based random distractor (i.e., \tilde{p}) into each sample. The distractor was created using the following steps:

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

- 1. We randomly selected one sentence from the sample that included both a PN or pronoun and a numerical expression.
- 2. We replaced the PN or pronoun in the selected sentence with a placeholder, [name].
- 3. We replaced the numerical expression in the selected sentence with a placeholder, [num].
- 4. We replaced [name] with a randomly selected name from the list of PNs created in A.1.1, excluding the name already present in the sample.
- 5. We replaced [num] with another value.⁶
- 6. We inserted the created distractor into a random position in the context other than the beginning of the sample.

For example, When the sentence "James decides to run 3 sprints 3 times a week." is selected from the sample in Table 3, a template "[name] decides to run [num] sprints [num] times a week." is crafted. Names and numbers are randomly selected from the candidates and placed into these placeholders, and the resulting distractor is then inserted into the context.

Overlap To evaluate whether the model is influenced by the Overlap heuristic, we insert distractors \tilde{p} into each sample following the steps below:

- 1. We substituted the placeholder [name] within the Base distractor template with the person's name found in the sample, appended by relational phrases such as "'s mother", "'s father", "'s son", or "'s neighborhood" (e.g., in the sample from Table 3, this would become "James's mother").
- 2. We replaced the number in the sentence with another numerical value.
- 3. We placed the constructed distractor into context at the exact location where the Base distractor was positioned in the sample.

⁶The replacement number was calculated by multiplying each number appearing in the sentence by either 0.5, 0.8, 1.2, 1.5, or 2 and then rounding down to the nearest whole number.

530**Position**To evaluate whether the model is in-531duced by the heuristic of Position, we insert dis-532tractors \tilde{p} into each sample. Each distractor is533identical to the Base distractor except for its inser-534tion point. Specifically, we relocated the insertion535point of the distractor to a random position that is536closer to the beginning of the context than the po-537sition used for the Base distractor.

Neg. To evaluate the model's response to the Neg. heuristic, we insert distractors \tilde{p} into each sample created based on the following template:

[name] doesn't have [num] [object].

In this template:

538

539

540

541

543

544

545

546

547

550

551

552

553

554

555

557

560

567

568

570

- [name] is substituted with a random PN included in the sample.
- [object] is replaced with one of the following items: "apples," "bananas," "grapes," "pencils," or "books."
- [num] is replaced with a different numerical value, using the same algorithm used for creating the Base distractor.

A.2 Evaluation

To determine whether the LMs selected the distractor during reasoning, we check if the numbers contained in the distractor \tilde{p} are present in the facts z. We calculate the percentage of samples where the distractor is selected.

B Experimental setting with artificial data (§4.1)

B.1 Dataset construction process

Base We construct the artificial data by following the method outlined below, based on the template presented in Table 4.

- Randomly assign one of the following names to the placeholders [nameA] to [nameE]: "Alice," "Bob," "Carol," "Dave," "Eve," "Frank," "Grace," "Heidi," "Ivan," "Judy," "Kevin," "Larry," "Mallory," "Nancy," "Olivia," "Peggy," "Quentin," "Rob," "Sybil," "Trent," "Ursula," "Victor," "Walter," "Xavier," "Yvonne," or "Zoe."
- Assign a randomly selected value from [nameA] to [nameD] to the placeholder
 [nameX].

Context : [nameA] has [num] [object].
[nameB] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameA].
[nameC] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameB].
[nameD] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameC].
Question : How many [object] does [nameD] have?

distractor : [nameE] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameX].

Table 4: Template of artificial data in §4.1.

• Assign a random number from 0 to 100 to the placeholder [num].

574

575

576

577

578

579

581

582

584

585

586

587

588

590

591

592

593

594

595

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

- Assign one of the objects "apples," "bananas," "grapes," "pencils," or "books" to the placeholder [object].
- Assign either "more" or "less" to the placeholder [relation].
- Randomly shuffle the order of the sentences.

Overlap We constructed a dataset to evaluate whether the model is induced by the Overlap heuristic by making certain modifications to the Base distractor for each sample. Specifically, we modified the value of [nameD] by appending relational phrases such as "'s mother", " 's father", " 's son", or "'s neighborhood" to the existing value of [nameD]. We then assigned this modified value to [nameE].

Position To evaluate if the model is induced by the Position heuristic, we modify the Base distractor. Specifically, we altered the insertion point of the Base distractor to a randomly chosen position that is closer to the beginning of the context than the original position used in the Base distractor.

Neg. To evaluate whether the model is induced by the Neg. heuristic, we construct a dataset by making modifications to the Base distractor. Specifically, we convert the Base distractor into a negative expression (e.g., [nameE] *doesn't have* [num] [relation] [object] than [nameX]).

B.2 Evaluation

To determine whether the LMs selected the distractor during reasoning, we check if the subject of the distractor (i.e., [nameE]) is included in the facts z. We calculate the percentage of samples where the distractor is selected.

Cntext : [nameA] has [num] [object].
[nameB] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameA].
[nameC] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameB].
[nameD] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameC].
[nameE] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameD].
-
Question : How many [object] does [nameE] have?
heurictic distractor :
[nameF] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameA].
[nameG] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameB].
[nameH] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameC].
distractor:
[nameI] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameD].
[nameJ] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameF].
[nameK] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameF].
[nameL] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameG].
[nameM] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameG].
[nameN] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameJ].
[nameO] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameJ].
[nameP] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameK].
[nameQ] has [num] [relation] [object] than [nameK].

Table 5: Template of artificial data in §4.2.

C Artificial data in §4.2

610

611

613

614

619

620

622

625

627

629

631

632

We prepare a template similar to a Table 5 and assign values to the template according to the following steps:

- We create template as shown in table4.
- Within the template, placeholders [nameA] to [nameQ] is filled randomly with names such as "Alice", "Bob", "Carol", "Dave", "Eve", "Frank", "Grace", "Heidi", "Ivan", "Judy", "Kevin", "Larry", "Mallory", "Nancy", "Olivia", "Peggy", "Quentin", "Rob", "Sybil", "Trent", "Ursula", "Victor", "Walter", "Xavier", "Yvonne", "Zoe".
- The placeholder [num] is filled with a random number from 0 to 100.
- The placeholder [object] is filled randomly with items such as "apples", "bananas", "grapes", "pencils", "books".
- The placeholder [relation] is assigned either "more" or "less".
- Sentences within the context are shuffled randomly.
- A distractor is inserted at a random position.

Then, using the following procedures, We create each expanded dataset. The heuristic distractors designed in this study are strongly influenced

	Base	Over.	Pos.	Neg.
PaLM2	64.5%	59.2%	60.5%	71.1%
Llama2	30.3%	34.2%	30.3%	27.6%
GPT-3.5	81.6%	64.5%	81.6%	82.9%
GPT-4	85.5%	84.2%	82.9%	92.1%

Table 6: The accuracy while solving GSM8K.

by each targeted heuristic. Each dataset consists of 300 problems.

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

- For the Overlap dataset, the values "'s mother", "'s father", "'s son", and "'s neighborhood" are appended to [nameE] and assigned respectively to [nameF], [nameG], and [nameH]. Each of [nameF], [nameG], and [nameH] hold different values.
- For the Position dataset, the sentences with [nameF], [nameG], and [nameH] as the subjects have distractors inserted closer to the beginning of the context than the sentences with [nameB], [nameC], and [nameD] as the subjects. For other datasets, heuristic distractors are inserted at random positions.
- For the Neg. dataset, the form of the heuristic distractor is changed to a negative form.

In §4.2, the method to identify which premises are used for reasoning was similar to that in App. B, relying on regular expressions.

D Mearuing accuracy in §4.1

In the experimental section, we not only measure the frequency with which \tilde{p} is used in reasoning but also evaluate the accuracy. Table 6 below shows the accuracy rates of each model on GSM8K. Additionally, Table 7 below shows the accuracy rates of each model on artificial data.

From the Table 6, 7, it is shown that GPT-4 had the highest accuracy rates across the datasets, while Llama2 had the lowest. It is expected that these outcomes are due to differences in the number of parameters in the model and the training data.

E Generation settings

When using GPT-3.5, GPT-4, the settings are adjusted to temperature=0.0, frequency_penalty=0, and presence_penalty=0. Similarly, for PaLM2 and Llama2, the temperature is set to 0, with no sampling.

9

	Base	Over.	Pos.	Neg.
PaLM2	60.0%	58.7%	77.0%	80.7%
Llama2	21.3%	14.3%	22.3%	20.0%
GPT-3.5	84.6%	87.3%	87.6%	82.9%
GPT-4	98.7%	94.0%	98.0%	99.7%

Table 7: The accuracy while solving artificial reasoning tasks.

	Over.↑	Pos.↑	Neg.↓
PaLM2	41.0%	14.0%	5.7%
Llama2	82.0%	93.3%	28.0%
GPT-3.5	11.7%	35.0%	0.0%
GPT-4	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Table 8: The frequency at which the model selected a distractor (i.e., \tilde{p}) while solving artificial reasoning tasks after changing few-shot examples.

We use NVIDIA RTX A6000 (48GB) GPUs for inference with Llama2.

F Few-shot examples

674

676

679

681

687

690

702

703

The few-shot examples for models regarding datasets GSM8K and artificial data are shown in the respective Tables 9, 10.

G Effect of few-shot examples

We investigate whether the model's heuristic is triggered by the few-shot examples. Specifically, we replace the few-shot examples in the following ways to study the relationship between the model's heuristic and its inputs:

1. We change the few-shot examples to induce Overlap (as shown in Table 11) and examine whether this increases the reasoning frequency with the use of distractors in the Overlap dataset compared to what is shown in Table 1.

2. We change the few-shot examples to induce Position (as shown in Table 12) and check if there's an increase in reasoning frequency with the use of distractors in the Position dataset compared to Table 1.

3. We change the few-shot examples to induce Neg. (as shown in Table 13), and investigate if there's a decrease in reasoning frequency with the use of distractors in the Neg. dataset compared to Table 1.

We measure the frequency of selecting \tilde{p} in the settings of §4.1. The results are presented in Table 8. As shown in Tables 1, 8, although the fewshot examples fed into the models such as GPT-3.5, GPT-4, and PaLM2 was changed, there was

no significant change in reasoning frequency as
described. This suggests that the model' s heuris-
tic does not merely mimic the examples provided
as input. On the other hand, the Llama2 model
was more prone to being misled by changes in in-
put, and smaller models demonstrated a reduced
capacity to reach the correct answers directory.706
707

Context: Leo's assignment was divided into three parts. Weng earns \$12 an hour for babysitting. It took Leo twice as long to finish the second part. Yesterday, she just did 50 minutes of babysitting. **Question:** How much did Weng earn? **Answer:** Weng earns 12/60 = 0.2 per minute. Working 50 minutes, she earned $0.2 \ge 50 = 10$. The final answer is 10.

Context: Betty is saving money for a new wallet which costs \$100. Betty has only half of the money she needs. Alice is saving money for a new wallet which costs \$2000. Bettys parents decided to give her \$15 for that purpose, and her grandparents twice as much as her parents. Question: How much more money does Betty need to buy the wallet?

Question: How much more money does Betty need to buy the wallet? **Answer:** In the beginning, Betty has only 100 / 2 = 50. Betty's grandparents gave her 15 * 2 = 30. This means, Betty needs 100 - 50 - 30 - 15 = 5 more. The final answer is 5.

Context: Julie is reading a 120-page book. Yesterday, Julie was able to read 12 pages and today, she read twice as many pages as yesterday. Julie's mother makes \$18.00 an hour. **Question:** How many pages are left to be read? **Answer:** Julie read 12 x 2 = (12*2=24)(24)(24) = 36 pages since yesterday. So she was able to read a total of 12 + 24 = 36 pages since yesterday. There are 120 - 36 = 84 pages left to be read. Since she wants to read half of the remaining pages tomorrow, then she should read 84/2 = 42 pages. The final answer is 42.

Context: James writes a 2-page letter to 4 different friends, lived in America, twice a week. James writes a 3-page letter to 2 different friends, lived in Japan, twice a week. Question: How many pages does James write each friend lived in Japan at one time? Answer: He writes each friend 3*2=6 pages a week. So he writes 6*2=12 pages every week. That means he writes 12*52=624 pages a year. The final answer is 624.

Table 9: Examples of input given when solving GSM8K.

Context: Walter has -22 apples. Ursula has 3 more apples than Walter. Victor has 3 more apples than Ursula. Quentin has 2 more apples than Ursula. Nancy has 3 more apples than Walter. Zoe has 3 more apples than Nancy. Heidi has 3 more apples than Nancy. Carol's mother has 4 apples. Xavier has 3 more apples than Carol's mother. Peggy has 4 more apples than Xavier. Dave has 13 more apples than Xavier. Bob has 1 more apples than Carol's mother. Alice has 3 more apples than Bob. Sybil has 56 more apples than Bob. **Question:** How many apples does Dave have?

Answer:

Carol's mother has 4 apples, and Xavier has 3 more apples than Carol's mother. So, Xavier has 4+3=7 apples. Xavier has 7 apples, and Dave has 13 more apples than Xavier. So, Dave has 7+13=20 apples. The final answer is 20.

Context: Alice has 92 more bananas than Mallory. Victor has 10 less bananas than Walter. Xavier has 59 more bananas than Sybil. Yvonne has 79 more bananas than Sybil. Judy has 23 more bananas than Alice. Dave has 60 more bananas than Victor. Quentin has 35 less bananas than Peggy. Heidi has 95 more bananas than Victor. Ursula doesn't have 32 more bananas than Peggy. Larry has 17 less bananas than Alice. Zoe has 58 less bananas than Yvonne. Ivan has 43 less bananas than Yvonne. Walter has 43 less bananas than Mallory. Nancy has 34 bananas. Grace has 41 more bananas than Xavier. Mallory has 55 less bananas than Nancy. Sybil has 3 less bananas than Walter. Trent has 33 less bananas than Xavier. **Question:** How many bananas does Quentin have?

Answer:

Nancy has 34 bananas, and Mallory has 55 less bananas than Nancy. So, Mallory has 34-55=-21 bananas. Mallory has -21 bananas, and Walter has 43 less bananas than Mallory. So, Walter has -21-43=-64 bananas. Walter has -64 bananas, and Peggy has 50 more bananas than Walter. So, Peggy has -64+50=-14 bananas. Peggy has -14 bananas, and Quentin has 35 less bananas than Peggy. So, Quentin has -14-35=-49 bananas. The final answer is -49.

Context: Zoe has 10 more apples than Yvonne's son. Eve has 2 apples. Yvonne's son has 3 more apples than Eve. Quentin has 3 more apples than Yvonne. Yvonne has 3 less apples than Zoe. Alice has 3 more apples than Grace. Trent has 34 more apples than Zoe. Ivan has 3 apples. Ursula has 3 more apples than Zoe. Grace has 3 apples. Xavier doesn't have 3 more apples than Ivan.

Question: How many apples does Yvonne have?

Answer:

Eve has 2 apples, and Yvonne's son has 3 more apples than Eve. So, Yvonne's son has 2+3=5 apples. Yvonne's son has 5 apples, and Zoe has 10 more apples than Yvonne's son. So, Zoe has 5+10=15 apples. Zoe has 15 apples, and Yvonne has 3 less apples than Zoe. So, Yvonne has 15-3=12 apples. The final answer is 12.

Context: Kevin's friend has 33 less grapes than Rob. Ivan has 43 more grapes than Victor. Victor has 33 less grapes than Kevin's friend. Ursula has 75 less grapes than Zoe. Alice has 11 more grapes than Eve. Dave has 11 more grapes than Eve. Olivia has 29 more grapes than Kevin's friend. Mallory has 97 more grapes than Olivia. Judy has 78 more grapes than Olivia. Rob has 55 grapes. Frank has 70 less grapes than Heidi. Eve has 84 less grapes than Sybil. Xavier has 36 more grapes than Heidi. Sybil has 55 less grapes than Trent. Kevin has 43 less grapes than Zoe. Heidi has 61 less grapes than Trent. Zoe has 88 more grapes than Sybil. Trent has 40 more grapes than Rob. Walter has 38 more grapes than Victor.

Question: How many grapes does Kevin have?

Answer:

Rob has 55 grapes, and Trent has 40 more grapes than Rob. So, Trent has 55+40=95 grapes. Trent has 95 grapes, and Sybil has 55 less grapes than Trent. So, Sybil has 95-55=40 grapes. Sybil has 40 grapes, and Zoe has 88 more grapes than Sybil. So, Zoe has 40+88=128 grapes. Zoe has 128 grapes, and Kevin has 43 less grapes than Zoe. So, Kevin has 128-43=85 grapes. The final answer is 128.

Table 10: Examples of input given when solving an artificial dataset.

Context: Walter has -22 apples. Ursula has 3 more apples than Walter. Victor has 3 more apples than Ursula. Quentin has 2 more apples than Ursula. Nancy has 3 more apples than Walter. Zoe has 3 more apples than Nancy. Heidi has 3 more apples than Nancy. Dave's mother has 4 apples. Dave's father has 3 more apples than Dave's mother. Peggy has 4 more apples than Dave's father. Dave has 13 more apples than Dave's father. Bob has 1 more apples than Carol's mother. Alice has 3 more apples than Bob. Sybil has 56 more apples than Bob. **Question:** How many apples does Dave have?

Answer:

Dave's mother has 4 apples, and Dave's father has 3 more apples than Dave's mother. So, Dave's father has 4+3=7 apples.

Dave's father has 7 apples, and Dave has 13 more apples than Dave's father. So, Dave has 7+13=20 apples. The final answer is 10.

Context: Alice has 92 more bananas than Quentin's mother. Victor has 10 less bananas than Walter. Xavier has 59 more bananas than Sybil. Yvonne has 79 more bananas than Sybil. Judy has 23 more bananas than Alice. Dave has 60 more bananas than Victor. Quentin has 35 less bananas than Quentin's father. Heidi has 95 more bananas than Victor. Ursula doesn't have 32 more bananas than Quentin's father. Larry has 17 less bananas than Alice. Zoe has 58 less bananas than Yvonne. Ivan has 43 less bananas than Yvonne. Walter has 43 less bananas than Quentin's mother. Nancy has 34 bananas. Grace has 41 more bananas than Xavier. Quentin's mother has 55 less bananas than Nancy. Sybil has 3 less bananas than Nancy. Quentin's father has 50 more bananas than Walter. Trent has 33 less bananas than Xavier.

Question: How many bananas does Quentin have?

Answer:

Nancy has 34 bananas, and Quentin's mother has 55 less bananas than Nancy. So, Quentin's mother has 34-55=-21 bananas.

Quentin's mother has -21 bananas, and Walter has 43 less bananas than Quentin's mother. So, Walter has -21-43=-64 bananas.

Walter has -64 bananas, and Quentin's father has 50 more bananas than Walter. So, Quentin's father has -64+50=-14 bananas.

Quentin's father has -14 bananas, and Quentin has 35 less bananas than Quentin's father. So, Quentin has -14-35=-49 bananas.

The final answer is -49.

Context: Yvonne's father has 10 more apples than Yvonne's son. Eve has 2 apples. Yvonne's son has 3 more apples than Eve. Quentin has 3 more apples than Yvonne. Yvonne has 3 less apples than Yvonne's father. Alice has 3 more apples than Grace. Trent has 34 more apples than Yvonne's father. Ivan has 3 apples. Ursula has 3 more apples than Yvonne's father. Grace has 3 apples. Xavier has 3 more apples than Ivan.

Question: How many apples does Yvonne have?

Answer:

Eve has 2 apples, and Yvonne's son has 3 more apples than Eve. So, Yvonne's son has 2+3=5 apples.

Yvonne's son has 5 apples, and Yvonne's father has 10 more apples than Yvonne's son. So, Yvonne's father has 5+10=15 apples.

Yvonne's father has 15 apples, and Yvonne has 3 less apples than Yvonne's father. So, Yvonne has 15-3=12 apples.

The final answer is 12.

Context: Kevin's friend has 33 less grapes than Rob. Ivan has 43 more grapes than Victor. Victor has 33 less grapes than Kevin's friend. Ursula has 75 less grapes than Zoe. Alice has 11 more grapes than Eve. Dave has 11 more grapes than Eve. Olivia has 29 more grapes than Kevin's friend. Mallory has 97 more grapes than Olivia. Judy has 78 more grapes than Olivia. Rob has 55 grapes. Frank has 70 less grapes than Heidi. Eve has 84 less grapes than Kevin's friend. Xavier has 36 more grapes than Heidi. Kevin's neighborhood has 55 less grapes than Kevin's friend. Kevin's friend. Kevin's friend. Kevin's friend. Kevin's friend. Kevin's mother has 88 more grapes than Kevin's neighborhood. Kevin's friend has 40 more grapes than Rob. Walter has 38 more grapes than Victor.

Question: How many grapes does Kevin have?

Rob has 55 grapes, and Kevin's friend has 40 more grapes than Rob. So, Kevin's friend has 55+40=95 grapes.

Kevin's friend has 95 grapes, and Kevin's neighborhood has 55 less grapes than Kevin's friend. So, Kevin's neighborhood has 95-55=40 grapes.

Kevin's neighborhood has 40 grapes, and Kevin's mother has 88 more grapes than Kevin's neighborhood. So, Kevin's mother has 40+88=128 grapes.

Kevin's mother has 128 grapes, and Kevin has 43 less grapes than Kevin's mother. So, Kevin has 128-43=85 grapes.

The final answer is 128.

Table 11: Examples of input given when solving the Overlap dataset.

Answer:

Context: Carol's mother has 4 apples. Xavier has 3 more apples than Carol's mother. Dave has 13 more apples than Xavier. Walter has -22 apples. Ursula has 3 more apples than Walter. Victor has 3 more apples than Ursula. Quentin has 2 more apples than Ursula. Nancy has 3 more apples than Walter. Zoe has 3 more apples than Nancy. Heidi has 3 more apples than Nancy. Peggy has 4 more apples than Xavier. Bob has 1 more apples than Carol's mother. Alice has 3 more apples than Bob. Sybil has 56 more apples than Bob. **Question:** How many apples does Dave have?

Answer:

Carol's mother has 4 apples, and Xavier has 3 more apples than Carol's mother. So, Xavier has 4+3=7 apples. Xavier has 7 apples, and Dave has 13 more apples than Xavier. So, Dave has 7+13=20 apples. The final answer is 20.

Context: Nancy has 34 bananas. Mallory has 55 less bananas than Nancy. Walter has 43 less bananas than Mallory. Peggy has 50 more bananas than Walter. Quentin has 35 less bananas than Peggy. Alice has 92 more bananas than Mallory. Victor has 10 less bananas than Walter. Xavier has 59 more bananas than Sybil. Yvonne has 79 more bananas than Sybil. Judy has 23 more bananas than Alice. Dave has 60 more bananas than Victor. Heidi has 95 more bananas than Victor. Ursula doesn't have 32 more bananas than Peggy. Larry has 17 less bananas than Alice. Zoe has 58 less bananas than Yvonne. Ivan has 43 less bananas than Yvonne. Grace has 41 more bananas than Xavier. **Question:** How many bananas does Quentin have?

Answer:

Nancy has 34 bananas, and Mallory has 55 less bananas than Nancy. So, Mallory has 34-55=-21 bananas. Mallory has -21 bananas, and Walter has 43 less bananas than Mallory. So, Walter has -21-43=-64 bananas. Walter has -64 bananas, and Peggy has 50 more bananas than Walter. So, Peggy has -64+50=-14 bananas. Peggy has -14 bananas, and Quentin has 35 less bananas than Peggy. So, Quentin has -14-35=-49 bananas. The final answer is -49.

Context: Eve has 2 apples. Yvonne's son has 3 more apples than Eve. Zoe has 10 more apples than Yvonne's son. Yvonne has 3 less apples than Zoe. Alice has 3 more apples than Grace. Quentin has 3 more apples than Yvonne. Trent has 34 more apples than Zoe. Ivan has 3 apples. Ursula has 3 more apples than Zoe. Grace has 3 apples. Xavier has 3 more apples than Ivan.

Question: How many apples does Yvonne have?

Answer:

Eve has 2 apples, and Yvonne's son has 3 more apples than Eve. So, Yvonne's son has 2+3=5 apples. Yvonne's son has 5 apples, and Zoe has 10 more apples than Yvonne's son. So, Zoe has 5+10=15 apples. Zoe has 15 apples, and Yvonne has 3 less apples than Zoe. So, Yvonne has 15-3=12 apples. The final answer is 12.

Context: Rob has 55 grapes. Trent has 40 more grapes than Rob. Sybil has 55 less grapes than Trent. Zoe has 88 more grapes than Sybil. Kevin has 43 less grapes than Zoe. Kevin's friend has 33 less grapes than Rob. Ivan has 43 more grapes than Victor. Victor has 33 less grapes than Kevin's friend. Ursula has 75 less grapes than Zoe. Alice has 11 more grapes than Eve. Dave has 11 more grapes than Eve. Olivia has 29 more grapes than Kevin's friend. Mallory has 97 more grapes than Olivia. Judy has 78 more grapes than Olivia. Frank has 70 less grapes than Heidi. Eve has 84 less grapes than Sybil. Xavier has 36 more grapes than Heidi. Heidi has 61 less grapes than Trent. Walter has 38 more grapes than Victor.

Question: How many grapes does Kevin have?

Answer:

Rob has 55 grapes, and Trent has 40 more grapes than Rob. So, Trent has 55+40=95 grapes. Trent has 95 grapes, and Sybil has 55 less grapes than Trent. So, Sybil has 95-55=40 grapes. Sybil has 40 grapes, and Zoe has 88 more grapes than Sybil. So, Zoe has 40+88=128 grapes. Zoe has 128 grapes, and Kevin has 43 less grapes than Zoe. So, Kevin has 128-43=85 grapes. The final answer is 128.

Table 12: Examples of input given when solving the Position dataset.

Context: Walter doesn't have -22 apples. Ursula has 3 more apples than Walter. Victor has 3 more apples than Ursula. Quentin has 2 more apples than Ursula. Nancy doesn't have 3 more apples than Walter. Zoe has 3 more apples than Nancy. Heidi doesn't have 3 more apples than Nancy. Carol's mother has 4 apples. Xavier has 3 more apples than Carol's mother. Peggy has 4 more apples than Xavier. Dave has 13 more apples than Xavier. Bob doesn't have 1 more apples than Carol's mother. Alice has 3 more apples than Bob. Sybil has 56 more apples than Bob.

Question: How many apples does Dave have?

Answer:

Carol's mother has 4 apples, and Xavier has 3 more apples than Carol's mother. So, Xavier has 4+3=7 apples. Xavier has 7 apples, and Dave has 13 more apples than Xavier. So, Dave has 7+13=20 apples. The final answer is 20.

Context: Alice has 92 more bananas than Mallory. Victor has 10 less bananas than Walter. Xavier has 59 more bananas than Sybil. Yvonne doesn't have 79 more bananas than Sybil. Judy doesn't have 23 more bananas than Alice. Dave has 60 more bananas than Victor. Quentin has 35 less bananas than Peggy. Heidi has 95 more bananas than Victor. Ursula doesn't have 32 more bananas than Peggy. Larry doesn't have 17 less bananas than Alice. Zoe has 58 less bananas than Yvonne. Ivan has 43 less bananas than Yvonne. Walter has 43 less bananas than Mallory. Nancy has 34 bananas. Grace doesn't have 41 more bananas than Xavier. Mallory has 55 less bananas than Nancy. Sybil doesn't have 3 less bananas than Nancy. Peggy has 50 more bananas than Walter. Trent doesn't have 33 less bananas than Xavier.

Question: How many bananas does Quentin have?

Answer:

Nancy has 34 bananas, and Mallory has 55 less bananas than Nancy. So, Mallory has 34-55=-21 bananas. Mallory has -21 bananas, and Walter has 43 less bananas than Mallory. So, Walter has -21-43=-64 bananas. Walter has -64 bananas, and Peggy has 50 more bananas than Walter. So, Peggy has -64+50=-14 bananas. Peggy has -14 bananas, and Quentin has 35 less bananas than Peggy. So, Quentin has -14-35=-49 bananas. The final answer is -49.

Context: Zoe has 10 more apples than Yvonne's son. Eve has 2 apples. Yvonne's son has 3 more apples than Eve. Quentin has 3 more apples than Yvonne. Yvonne has 3 less apples than Zoe. Alice has 3 more apples than Grace. Trent has 34 more apples than Zoe. Ivan has 3 apples. Ursula has 3 more apples than Zoe. Grace has 3 apples. Xavier doesn't have 3 more apples than Ivan.

Question: How many apples does Yvonne have?

Answer:

Eve has 2 apples, and Yvonne's son has 3 more apples than Eve. So, Yvonne's son has 2+3=5 apples. Yvonne's son has 5 apples, and Zoe has 10 more apples than Yvonne's son. So, Zoe has 5+10=15 apples. Zoe has 15 apples, and Yvonne has 3 less apples than Zoe. So, Yvonne has 15-3=12 apples. The final answer is 12.

Context: Kevin's friend has 33 less grapes than Rob. Ivan doesn't have 43 more grapes than Victor. Victor doesn't have 33 less grapes than Kevin's friend. Ursula has 75 less grapes than Zoe. Alice has 11 more grapes than Eve. Dave has 11 more grapes than Eve. Olivia doesn't have 29 more grapes than Kevin's friend. Mallory has 97 more grapes than Olivia. Judy doesn't have 78 more grapes than Olivia. Rob has 55 grapes. Frank has 70 less grapes than Heidi. Eve has 84 less grapes than Sybil. Xavier doesn't 36 more grapes than Heidi. Sybil has 55 less grapes than Trent. Kevin has 43 less grapes than Zoe. Heidi has 61 less grapes than Trent. Zoe has 88 more grapes than Sybil. Trent has 40 more grapes than Rob. Walter has 38 more grapes than Victor. **Question:** How many grapes does Kevin have?

Answer:

Rob has 55 grapes, and Trent has 40 more grapes than Rob. So, Trent has 55+40=95 grapes. Trent has 95 grapes, and Sybil has 55 less grapes than Trent. So, Sybil has 95-55=40 grapes. Sybil has 40 grapes, and Zoe has 88 more grapes than Sybil. So, Zoe has 40+88=128 grapes. Zoe has 128 grapes, and Kevin has 43 less grapes than Zoe. So, Kevin has 128-43=85 grapes. The final answer is 128.

Table 13: Examples of input given when solving the Neg dataset.