Free-text Rationale Generation under Readability Level Control

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Free-text rationales justify model decisions in natural language and thus become likable and accessible among approaches to explanation across many tasks. However, their effectiveness can be hindered by misinterpretation and hallucination. As a perturbation test, we investigate how large language models (LLMs) perform rationale generation under the effects of readability level control, i.e., being prompted for an explanation targeting a specific expertise level, such as sixth grade or college. We find that explanations are adaptable to such instruction, though the requested readability is often misaligned with the measured text complexity according to traditional readability metrics. Furthermore, the generated rationales tend to feature medium level complexity, which correlates with the measured quality using automatic metrics. Finally, our human annotators confirm a generally satisfactory impression on rationales at all readability levels, with highschool-level readability being most commonly perceived and favored.¹

1 Introduction

002

007

011

013

017

039

Over the past few years, the rapid development of machine learning methods has drawn considerable attention to the research field of explainable artificial intelligence (XAI). While conventional approaches focused more on local or global analyses of rules and features (Casalicchio et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021), the recent development of LLMs introduced more dynamic methodologies along with their enhanced capability of natural language generation (NLG). The self-explanation potentials of LLMs have been explored in a variety of approaches, such as examining free-text rationales (Wiegreffe et al., 2021) or combining LLM output with saliency maps (Huang et al., 2023).

Although natural language explanation (NLE) established itself to be among the most common approaches to justify LLM predictions (Zhu et al., 2024), free-text rationales were found to potentially misalign with the predictions and thereby mislead human readers, for whom such misalignment seems hardly perceivable (Ye and Durrett, 2022). Furthermore, it remains unexplored whether freetext rationales represent a model's decision making, or if the explanations are generated just like any other NLG output regarding faithfulness. In light of this, we aim to examine whether free-text rationales can also be controlled through perturbation as demonstrated on NLG tasks (Dathathri et al., 2020; Imperial and Madabushi, 2023). If more dispersed text complexity could be observed in the rationales, we may deduce a higher level of influence from training data, as we assume the LLMs to undergo a consistent decision making process on the same instance even under different instructions.

040

041

042

045

046

047

048

051

052

054

060

061

062

063

064

065

066

067

068

069

071

072

073

074

075

076

077

Targeting free-text rationales, we control text complexity with descriptive readability levels and evaluate the generated rationales under various frameworks to investigate what effects additional instructions or constraints may bring forward to the NLE task (Figure 1). Although the impact of readability (Stajner, 2021) has rarely been addressed for NLEs, establishing such a connection could benefit model explainability, which ultimately aims at perception (Ehsan et al., 2019) and utility (Joshi et al., 2023) of diverse human recipients.

Our study makes the following contributions: First, we explore LLM output in both prediction and free-text rationalization under the influence of readability level control. Second, we apply objective metrics to evaluate the rationales and measure their quality across text complexity. Finally, we test how human perceive the complexity and quality of the rationales across different readability levels.²

¹**Disclaimer:** The article contains offensive or hateful materials, which is inevitable in the nature of the work.

²https://anonymous.4open.science/r/nle_readability-485B

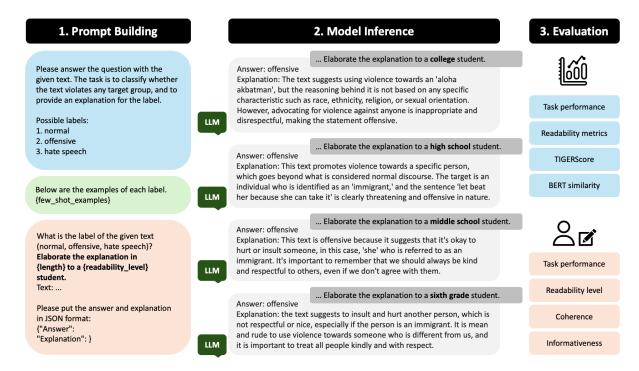


Figure 1: The experiment workflow of the current study. The demonstrated example comes from the HateXplain dataset. Generated responses are evaluated by both automatic metrics and human annotations.

2 Background

Text complexity The notion of text complexity was brought forward in early studies to measure how readers of various education levels comprehend a given text (Kincaid et al., 1975). Prior to recent developments of NLP, text complexity was approximated through metrics including Flesch Reading Ease (FRE, Kincaid et al., 1975), Gunning fox index (GFI, Gunning, 1952), and Coleman-Liau index (CLI, Coleman and Liau, 1975). These approaches quantify readability through formulas considering factors like sentence length, word counts, and syllable counts.

As the most common readability metric, FRE was often mapped to descriptions that bridge between numeric scores and educational levels (Farajidizaji et al., 2024). Ribeiro et al. (2023) applied readability level control to text summarization through instruction-prompting. In their study, descriptive categories were prompted for assigning desired text complexity to LLM output.

NLE metrics Although the assessment of explainable models lacks a unified standard, mainstream approaches employ either objective or human-in-the-loop evaluation (Vilone and Longo, 2021). Objective metric scores include LAS (Hase et al., 2020), REV (Chen et al., 2023), and RORA

FRE	>80	60-80	40-60	<40
RLevel	sixth grade	middle school	high school	college

Table 1: The mapping between FRE scores and readability levels adapted from Ribeiro et al. (2023).

(Jiang et al., 2024c). Their training processes highly rely on a particular data structure, which does not generalize to tasks relevant to readability. Furthermore, while most studies on NLE intuitively presume model-generated rationales to bridge between model input and output, it remains unclear whether the provided reasoning faithfully represents how the output is generated; in other words, free-text rationales could be only reflecting what the model has learned from its training data (Atanasova et al., 2023).

3 Method

Readability level control As demonstrated in Figure 1, in step 1, we incorporate instruction-prompting into the prompt building. The prompts consist of three sections: task description, few-shot in-context samples, and instruction for the test instance. After task description and samples, we add a statement aiming for the rationale: *Elaborate the explanation in {length}*³ to a {readabil-

³Throughout the experiments, we set this to a fixed value of "three sentences".

ity_level} student. Then we iterate through the data instances and readability levels in separate sessions. We adapt the framework of Ribeiro et al. (2023) to four readability levels based on FRE score ranges (Table 1) and explore a range of desired FRE scores among {30, 50, 70, 90}, which are respectively phrased in the prompts as readability levels {college, high school, middle school, sixth grade}.

Evaluating free-text rationales In light of the problematic adaption to readability-related tasks and major issues in reproducibility of the aforementioned NLE evaluation metrics, we exploit the overlap between NLE and NLG, we adopt TIGER-Score (Jiang et al., 2024b), an NLG metric that is widely applicable to most tasks, for evaluating the generated free-text rationales. Applying fine-tuned Llama-2 (Touvron et al., 2023), the metric was proposed to require little reference but instead rely on error analysis over prompted contexts to identify and grade mistakes in unstructured text. Nevertheless, the approach could sometimes suffer from hallucination (or confabulation), similar to the common LLM-based methodologies.

4 Experiments

4.1 Rationale generation

Datasets We conduct readability-controlled rationale generation on three NLP tasks: fact-checking, hate speech detection, and natural language inference (NLI), adopting the datasets featuring explanatory annotations. For fact-checking, HealthFC (Vladika et al., 2024) includes 750 claims for factchecking under the medical domain, with excerpts of human-written explanations provided along with the verification labels. For hate speech detection, two datasets are applied: (1) HateXplain (Mathew et al., 2021), which consists of 20k Tweets with human-highlighted keywords that contribute the most to the labels. (2) Contextual Abuse Dataset (CAD, Vidgen et al., 2021), which contains 25k entries with six unique labels elaborating the context under which hatred is expressed. Lastly, SpanEx (Choudhury et al., 2023) is an NLI dataset that includes annotations on word-level semantic relations (Appendix A.1).

Models We select four recent open-weight LLMs from three different families: Mistral-0.2 7B (Jiang et al., 2023), Mixtral-0.1 8x7B (Jiang et al., 2024a), OpenChat-3.5 7B (Wang et al.,

	Readability	30	50	70	90
O	Mistral-0.2	52.8	52.8	53.8	50.2
HealthFC	Mixtral-0.1	54.7	56.4	55.0	55.9
ealt	OpenChat-3.5	51.6	53.0	52.8	51.8
Ĭ	Llama-3	27.9	30.9	30.0	27.8
ء.	Mistral-0.2	49.4	49.3	52.6	52.0
pla	Mixtral-0.1	46.1	48.4	47.2	47.5
HateXplain	OpenChat-3.5	51.7	51.5	53.0	50.5
Ha	Llama-3	50.7	51.4	50.5	50.3
	Mistral-0.2	82.3*	82.0	79.5	77.6
CAD	Mixtral-0.1	65.8*	64.8	63.6	61.8
Ö	OpenChat-3.5	77.3	78.1	77.8	77.2
	Llama-3	60.6*	58.8	58.0	55.6
	Mistral-0.2	34.9	35.5	36.6	37.2
SpanEx	Mixtral-0.1	58.4	55.8	55.2	58.1
pa	OpenChat-3.5	84.0	84.3	83.8	84.8*
()	Llama-3	41.8	41.7	42.0	41.1

Table 2: Task accuracy scores (%) after removal of inappropriate answers. The highest score(s) achieved per model are starred, and best accuracy per task are highlighted in bold. Readability of 30, 50, 70, and 90 respectively refers to the desired readability level of college, high school, middle school, and sixth grade.

2023a), and Llama-3 8B (Dubey et al., 2024).4

4.2 Evaluation

Task accuracy We use accuracy scores to assess the alignment between the model predictions and the gold labels processed from the datasets. In HateXplain (Mathew et al., 2021), since different annotators could label the same instance differently, we adopt the most frequent one as the gold label. Similarly, in CAD (Vidgen et al., 2021), we disregard the subcategories under "offensive" label to reduce complexity, simplifying the task into binary classification and leaving the subcategories as the source of building reference rationales.

Readability metrics We choose three conventional readability metrics: FRE (Kincaid et al., 1975), GFI (Gunning, 1952), and CLI (Coleman and Liau, 1975) to approximate the complexity of the rationales. While a higher FRE score indicates more readable text, higher GFI and CLI scores imply higher text complexity (Appendix B).

TIGERScore We compute TIGERScore (Jiang et al., 2024b), which provides explanations in addition to the numeric scores. Besides the native scorer

⁴Owing to the larger size of Mixtral-v0.1 8x7B, we adopt a 4-bit quantized version to reduce memory consumption. All the models are instruction-tuned variants downloaded from Hugging Face, running on NVIDIA A100 GPU.

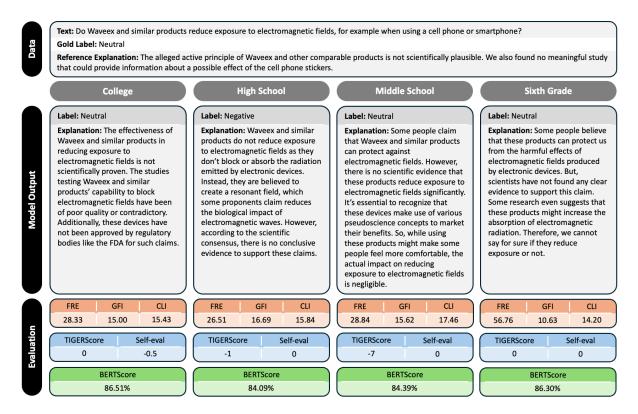


Figure 2: An example of model predictions and rationales generated by Mistral-0.2 on HealthFC along with the evaluation results. Self-eval refers to TIGERScore rated by Mistral-0.2.

based on Llama-2 (Touvron et al., 2023), we send the instructions to the model that performed the task, sketching a self-evaluative framework. Although the LLMs are not fine-tuned for the metric, we expect the alignment between evaluated and evaluator model to reduce the negative impacts from hallucination of a single model. The metric is described by the formula:

$${E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n} = f(I, x, y')$$
 (1)

where f is a function that takes the following inputs: I (instruction), x (source context), and y' (system output). The function f output a set of structured errors $\{E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_n\}$. For each error $E_i = (l_i, a_i, e_i, s_i)$, l_i denotes the error location, a_i represents a predefined error aspect, e_i is a free-text explanation of the error, and s_i is the score reduction $\in [-5, -0.5]$ associated with the error. At the instance level, the overall metric score is the summation of the score reductions for all errors: $TIGERScore = \sum_{i=1}^n s_i$.

BERTScore As a reference-<u>based</u> metric, we parse reference explanations using rule-based methods (App. A.1) and compute BERTScore (Zhang et al., 2020) with end-of-sentence pooling to avoid diluting negations in longer texts.

Human validation We conduct a human annotation to investigate how human readers view the rationales with distinct readability levels and to validate whether the metric scores could reflect human perception. Using the rationales generated by Mistral-0.2 and Llama-3 on HateXplain⁵, we sample a split of 200 data points, which consists of 25 random instances per model for each of the four readability levels.

We recruit five annotators with expertise in computational linguistics (at least undergraduate level) and have all of them work on the same split. Given the rationales, the annotators are asked to score:

- **Readability** ({30, 50, 70, 90}): How readable/complex is the generated rationale?
- **Coherence** (4-point Likert scale): To what extent is the rationale logical and reasonable?
- **Informativeness** (4-point Likert): To what extent is the rationale supported by sufficient details?
- **Accuracy** (binary): Does the annotator agree with a prediction after reading the rationale?

⁵HateXplain is chosen because it requires little professional knowledge (in comparison to HealthFC) and is performed evenly mediocre across the models, with each of them achieving a similar accuracy score of around 0.5.

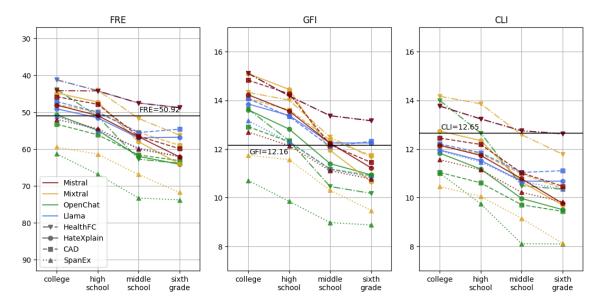


Figure 3: The readability scores of model-generated rationales. Higher FRE score indicates lower text complexity, while GFI and CLI scores are in reverse. The black lines denote the readability scores of the reference rationales from HealthFC, which are provided in natural language instead of annotations (Appendix A.1).

5 Results

243

244

245

247

249

250

251

257

260

261

262

271

We collect predictions and rationales from four models over four datasets (§4.1). Figure 2 presents a data instance to exemplify the output of LLM inference as well as each aspect of evaluation. More rationale examples are provided in Appendix A.2.

The four models achieve divergent accuracy scores on the selected tasks (Table 2). In most cases, around 5-10% of instances are unsuccessfully parsed, mostly owing to formatting errors; Mistral-0.2 and Mixtral-0.1, however, could hardly follow the instructed output format on particular datasets (CAD and HealthFC), resulting in up to 70% of instances being removed for these datasets. Since such parsing errors occur only on certain batches, we regard them as special cases similar to those encountered by Tavanaei et al. (2024a) and Wu et al. (2024a) with structured prediction with LLMs. The highest accuracy is reached by OpenChat-3.5 for NLI (SpanEx) with a score of 82.1%. In comparison, multi-class hate speech detection (HateXplain) and medical factchecking (HealthFC) appear more challenging for all the models, respectively with a peak at 52.0% (OpenChat-3.5) and 56.4% (Mixtral-0.1).

Free-text rationales generated under instructionprompting show a correlative trend in text complexity. Figure 3 reveals that the four readability levels mostly introduce distinctive text complexity. Moreover, the baseline of HealthFC explanations⁶ hints a central-leaning tendency for free-text rationales to inherently exhibit medium level readability. Nevertheless, the metric scores present only relative difference, as the distinction is not as significant as the paradigm (Table 1) under the current standards.

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

281

283

284

287

290

291

292

295

296

297

299

300

Evaluation with TIGERScore is based on error analyses through score reduction: Each identified error obtains a score penalty, and the entire text is rated the summation of all the reductions. Such design gives 0 to the texts in which no mistake is recognized; in contrast, the more problematic a rationale appears, the lower it scores. In our results (Figure 4), we derive non-zero score through further dividing the full-batch score by the amount of non-zero data points, since around half of the rationales are considered fine by the scorer. We also apply the same processing method to selfevaluation with the original model. In most cases, full-batch TIGERScore proportionally decreases along with text complexity, whereas non-zero and self-evaluation do not follow such trend.

In comparison to TIGERScore, BERT similarity captures the rationale quality poorly (Appendix C). Although complex rationales seem to resemble the references more, the correlation between readability and similarity remains weak. Besides, the scores differ more across datasets than across models, making the outcomes less significant.

⁶We refer to HealthFC as baseline because the rationales are provided in free-text rather than annotations.

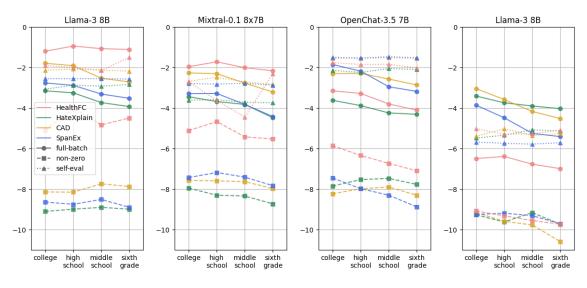


Figure 4: TIGERScore evaluation results by model. Full-batch score reports the average of all data points, while the other two scores are divided by the amount of instances scoring below 0. The results of Mistral-0.2 and Mixtral-0.1 on CAD and HealthFC may induce more biases owing to the higher proportion of removed instances.

We conduct a human study with five annotators, whose agreement fall at Krippendorff's $\alpha=3.67\%$ and Fleiss' $\kappa=13.92\%.^7$ Table 3 reveals the coherence and informativeness scores. Besides, the human annotators score an accuracy of 23.7% on recognizing the prompted readability level, while reaching 78.3% agreement with the model-predicted labels given the rationales.

6 Discussions

Our study aims to respond to three research questions: First, how do LLMs generate different output and free-text rationales under prompted readability level control? Second, how do objective evaluation metrics capture rationale quality of different readability levels? Third, how do human assess the rationales and perceive the NLE outcomes across readability levels?

6.1 Readability level control under instruction-prompting (RQ1)

We find free-text rationale generation sensitive to readability level control, whereas the corresponding task predictions remain rather consistent. This confirms that NLE output is affected by perturbation through instruction-prompting, which nonetheless alters the generated output on separate components instead of as an entity.

Coherence							
Readability	30	50	70	90	all		
Mistral-0.2	2.84	2.98	3.13	3.03	2.99		
Llama-3	3.07	3.02	2.92	2.85	2.96		
full sample	2 96	3.00	3.03	2 94	2 98		

Informativeness							
Readability	30	50	70	90	all		
Mistral-0.2	2.59	2.84	3.03	2.77	2.81		
Llama-3	3.02	2.93	2.86	2.86	2.92		
full sample	2.80	2.88	2.94	2.82	2.86		

Table 3: Human-rated scores per model and readability level, with the highest score per model highlighted in bold face. Readability of 30, 50, 70, and 90 respectively refers to the prompted level of college, high school, middle school, and sixth grade.

Without further fine-tuning, the complexity of free-text rationales diverges within a limited range according to readability metrics, showing relative differences rather than precise score mapping. Using Mistral-0.2 and Llama-3 as examples, Figure 5 plots the distribution of FRE scores between adjacent readability levels. The instances where the model delivers desired readability differentiation fall into the upper-left triangle split by axis y=x, while those deviating from the prompted difference appear in the lower-right. The comparison between the two graphs shows that Llama-3 aligns the prompted readability level better with generated text complexity, as the distribution area appears more concentrated; meanwhile, Mistral-0.2 bet-

⁷While calculating agreement, we simplify the results on readability, coherence, and informativeness into two classes owing to the binary nature of 4-point Likert scale. We stick to the originally annotated scores elsewhere.

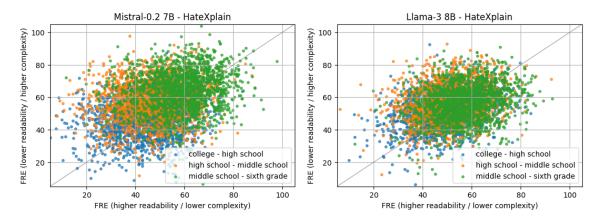


Figure 5: Distribution of FRE scores of rationales by Mistral-0.2 and Llama-3 on HateXplain. As an extensive instance-level interpretation of Figure 3, each dot represents a data instance, with its more readable rationale positioned on x-axis and less readable on y-axis.

ter differentiates the adjacent readability levels, with more instances falling in the upper-left area.

According to the plots, a considerable amount of rationales nevertheless fail to address the nuances between the prompted levels. This could result from the workflow running through datasets over a given readability level instead of recursively instructing the models to generate consecutive output, i.e., the rationales of different readability levels were generated in several independent sessions. Furthermore, descriptive readability levels do not perfectly match the score ranges shown in Table 1. In spite of the linkage between the descriptions and numeric scores, the two frameworks do not directly refer to each other but are mutually approximative.

6.2 Rationale quality presented through metric scores (RQ2)

We adopt TIGERScore as the main metric for measuring the quality of free-text rationales. On a batch scale, the metric tends to favor rather complex rationales i.e. college or high-school-level. Taking account of the baseline featuring FRE≈50 (Table 3), such tendency suggests a slight correspondence between text complexity and explanation quality.

Deriving non-zero scores from full-batch ones, we further find the errors differing in severity at distinct readability levels. After removing error-free instances (where TIGERScore=0), rationales of medium complexity (high school and middle school) can often obtain higher scores. Such divergence implies that less elaborated rationales tend to introduce more mistakes, but they are usually considered minor. In light of both score variations, TIGERScore exhibits characteristics consis-

tent with the central-leaning tendency i.e. rationales displaying a medium level readability, while potentially echoing the preference for longer texts in LLM-based evaluation (Dubois et al., 2024).

Full-batch TIGERScore is also found to slightly correlate with task performance (Table 2), as better task accuracy usually comes with a higher TIGER-Score, though such a tendency doesn't apply across different models. For example, Mistral-0.2 achieves better TIGERScore on SpanEx than Mixtral-0.1 and Llama-3, whereas both models outperform Mistral-0.2 in this task. This could hint at the limitation of the evaluation metric in its nature, as its standard does not unify well across output from different LLMs or tasks.

Other than the reference-free metric, we find BERTScore (Appendix C) differing less significantly, presumably because the meanings of the rationales are mostly preserved across readability levels. Since most reference explanations are parsed under defined rules, such outcome also highlights the gap between rule-based explanations and the actual free-text rationales, signaling linguistic complexity and diversity of explanatory texts.

6.3 Validation by human annotators (RQ3)

Our human annotation delivers low agreement scores on the instance level. This results from the designed dimensions aiming for more subjective opinions than a unified standard, capturing human label variation (Plank, 2022). Since hate speech fundamentally concerns feelings, agreement scores are typically low. The original labels in HateXplain, for example, reported a Krippendroff's $\alpha=46\%$ (Mathew et al., 2021).

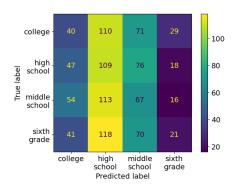


Figure 6: Human perceived readability level with respect to the prompted ones.

We first discover that human readers do not well perceive the prompted readability levels (Figure 6). This corresponds to the misalignment between the prompted levels and the generated rationale complexity. Even so, the rationales receive a generally positive impression (Table 3), with both models scoring significantly above average on a 4-point Likert scale over all the readability levels.

Moreover, the divergence of coherence and informativeness across readability levels (Table 3) shares a similar trend with Figure 5, with Mistral-0.2 having a higher spread than Llama-3, even though the tendency is rarely observed in the other metrics. On one hand, this may imply a gap between metric-captured and human-perceived changes introduced by readability level control; on the other hand, combining these findings, we may also deduce that human readers intrinsically presume free-text rationales to feature a medium level complexity and thereby prefer plain language to unnecessarily complex or over-simplified explanations.

7 Related Work

Rationale Evaluation Free-text rationale generation was boosted by recent LLMs owing to their capability of explaining their own predictions (Luo and Specia, 2024). Despite lacking a unified paradigm for evaluating rationales, various approaches focused on automatic metrics to minimize human involvement. ν-information (Hewitt et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2020) provided a theoretical basis for metrics such as ReCEval (Prasad et al., 2023), REV (Chen et al., 2023), and RORA (Jiang et al., 2024c). However, these metrics require training for the scorers to learn new and relevant information with respect to certain tasks.

Alternatively, several studies applied LLMs to

perform reference-free evaluation (Liu et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023b). Similar to TIGERScore (Jiang et al., 2024b), InstructScore (Xu et al., 2023) took advantage of generative models, delivering an reference-free and explainable metric for text generation. However, these approaches could suffer from LLMs' known problems such as hallucination. As the common methodologies hardly considering both deployment simplicity and assessment accuracy, Luo and Specia (2024) pointed out the difficulties in designing a paradigm that faithfully reflects the decision-making process of LLMs.

Readability of LLM output Rationales generated under readability level control share features similar to those reported by previous studies on NLG-oriented tasks, such as generation of educational texts (Huang et al., 2024; Trott and Rivière, 2024), text simplification (Barayan et al., 2024), and summarization (Ribeiro et al., 2023; Wang and Demberg, 2024), given that instruction-based methods was proven to alter LLM output in terms of text complexity. Rooein et al. (2023) found the readability of LLM output to vary even when controlled through designated prompts. Gobara et al. (2024) pointed out the limited influence of model parameters on delivering text output of different complexity. While tuning readability remains a significant concern in text simplification and summarization, LLMs were found to tentatively inherit the complexity of input texts and could only rigidly adapt to a broader range of readability (Imperial and Madabushi, 2023; Srikanth and Li, 2021).

8 Conclusions

In this study, we prompted LLMs with distinct readability levels to perturb free-text rationales. We confirmed LLMs' capability of adapting rationales based on instructions, discovering notable shifts in readability with yet a gap between prompted and measured text complexity. While higher text complexity could sometimes imply better quality, both metric scores and human annotations showed that plain language was often the most preferred for the rationales. Moreover, the evaluation outcomes disclosed LLMs' sensitivity to perturbation in rationale generation, potentially supporting a closer connection between NLE and NLG. Our findings may inspire future works to explore LLMs' explanatory capabilities under perturbation and the application of other NLG-related methodologies to rationale generation.

Limitations

Owing to time and budget constraints, we are unable to fully explore all the potential variables in the experimental flow, including structuring the prompt, adjusting few-shot training, and instructing different desired output length. Besides, the occasionally higher ratio of abandoned data instances may induce biases to the demonstrated results; we didn't further probe into the reason for this issue because only particular LLMs have problems on certain datasets, corroborated by concurrent work on structured prediction with LLMs (Tavanaei et al., 2024b; Wu et al., 2024b). Lastly, LLM generated text could suffer from hallucination and include false information. Such limitation applies to both rationale generation and LLM-based evaluation.

We were unable to reproduce several NLE-specific metrics. LAS (Hase et al., 2020) suffers from outdated library versions, which are no longer available. Although REV (Chen et al., 2023) works with the provided toy dataset, we found the implementation fundamentally depending on task-specific data structure, which made it challenging to apply to the datasets we chose. Although we are motivated to conduct perturbation test in an NLG-oriented way, the lack of NLE-specific metrics may limit our insight into the evaluation outcome.

Our human annotators do not share a similar background with the original HateXplain dataset, where the data instances were mostly contributed by North American users. Owing to the different cultural background, biases can be implied and magnified in identifying and interpreting offensive language.

Ethical Statement

The datasets of our selection include offensive or hateful contents. Inferring LLM with these materials could result in offensive language usage and even false information involving hateful implications when it comes to hallucination. The human annotators participating in the study were paid at least the minimum wage in conformance with the standards of our host institutions' regions.

References

Pepa Atanasova, Oana-Maria Camburu, Christina Lioma, Thomas Lukasiewicz, Jakob Grue Simonsen, and Isabelle Augenstein. 2023. Faithfulness tests for natural language explanations. In *Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for*

Computational Linguistics (Volume 2: Short Papers), pages 283–294, Toronto, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Abdullah Barayan, Jose Camacho-Collados, and Fernando Alva-Manchego. 2024. Analysing zero-shot readability-controlled sentence simplification. *CoRR*, abs/2409.20246.

Giuseppe Casalicchio, Christoph Molnar, and Bernd Bischl. 2019. Visualizing the feature importance for black box models. In *Machine Learning and Knowledge Discovery in Databases*, pages 655–670, Cham. Springer International Publishing.

Hanjie Chen, Faeze Brahman, Xiang Ren, Yangfeng Ji, Yejin Choi, and Swabha Swayamdipta. 2023. REV: information-theoretic evaluation of free-text rationales. In *Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), ACL 2023, Toronto, Canada, July 9-14, 2023*, pages 2007–2030. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Sagnik Ray Choudhury, Pepa Atanasova, and Isabelle Augenstein. 2023. Explaining interactions between text spans. In *Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 12709–12730, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Meri Coleman and Ta Lin Liau. 1975. A computer readability formula designed for machine scoring. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60(2):283.

Sumanth Dathathri, Andrea Madotto, Janice Lan, Jane Hung, Eric Frank, Piero Molino, Jason Yosinski, and Rosanne Liu. 2020. Plug and play language models: A simple approach to controlled text generation. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*.

Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, Aiesha Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Amy Yang, Angela Fan, Anirudh Goyal, Anthony Hartshorn, Aobo Yang, Archi Mitra, Archie Sravankumar, Artem Korenev, Arthur Hinsvark, Arun Rao, Aston Zhang, Aurélien Rodriguez, Austen Gregerson, Ava Spataru, Baptiste Rozière, Bethany Biron, Binh Tang, Bobbie Chern, Charlotte Caucheteux, Chaya Nayak, Chloe Bi, Chris Marra, Chris McConnell, Christian Keller, Christophe Touret, Chunyang Wu, Corinne Wong, Cristian Canton Ferrer, Cyrus Nikolaidis, Damien Allonsius, Daniel Song, Danielle Pintz, Danny Livshits, David Esiobu, Dhruv Choudhary, Dhruv Mahajan, Diego Garcia-Olano, Diego Perino, Dieuwke Hupkes, Egor Lakomkin, Ehab AlBadawy, Elina Lobanova, Emily Dinan, Eric Michael Smith, Filip Radenovic, Frank Zhang, Gabriel Synnaeve, Gabrielle Lee, Georgia Lewis Anderson, Graeme Nail, Grégoire Mialon, Guan Pang, Guillem Cucurell, Hailey Nguyen, Hannah Korevaar, Hu Xu, Hugo Touvron, Iliyan Zarov, Imanol Arrieta Ibarra, Isabel M. Kloumann, Ishan Misra, Ivan Evtimov, Jade Copet, Jaewon Lee, Jan

Geffert, Jana Vranes, Jason Park, Jay Mahadeokar, Jeet Shah, Jelmer van der Linde, Jennifer Billock, Jenny Hong, Jenya Lee, Jeremy Fu, Jianfeng Chi, Jianyu Huang, Jiawen Liu, Jie Wang, Jiecao Yu, Joanna Bitton, Joe Spisak, Jongsoo Park, Joseph Rocca, Joshua Johnstun, Joshua Saxe, Junteng Jia, Kalyan Vasuden Alwala, Kartikeya Upasani, Kate Plawiak, Ke Li, Kenneth Heafield, Kevin Stone, and et al. 2024. The llama 3 herd of models. *CoRR*, abs/2407.21783.

Yann Dubois, Balázs Galambosi, Percy Liang, and Tatsunori B. Hashimoto. 2024. Length-controlled alpacaeval: A simple way to debias automatic evaluators. *arXiv*, abs/2404.04475.

- Upol Ehsan, Pradyumna Tambwekar, Larry Chan, Brent Harrison, and Mark O. Riedl. 2019. Automated rationale generation: a technique for explainable AI and its effects on human perceptions. In *Proceedings of the 24th International Conference on Intelligent User Interfaces, IUI 2019, Marina del Ray, CA, USA, March 17-20, 2019*, pages 263–274. ACM.
- Asma Farajidizaji, Vatsal Raina, and Mark Gales. 2024. Is it possible to modify text to a target readability level? an initial investigation using zero-shot large language models. In *Proceedings of the 2024 Joint International Conference on Computational Linguistics, Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC-COLING 2024)*, pages 9325–9339, Torino, Italia. ELRA and ICCL.
- Seiji Gobara, Hidetaka Kamigaito, and Taro Watanabe. 2024. Do llms implicitly determine the suitable text difficulty for users? *arXiv*, abs/2402.14453.
- Robert Gunning. 1952. *The technique of clear writing*. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Peter Hase, Shiyue Zhang, Harry Xie, and Mohit Bansal. 2020. Leakage-adjusted simulatability: Can models generate non-trivial explanations of their behavior in natural language? In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2020, Online Event, 16-20 November 2020*, volume EMNLP 2020 of *Findings of ACL*, pages 4351–4367. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- John Hewitt, Kawin Ethayarajh, Percy Liang, and Christopher D. Manning. 2021. Conditional probing: measuring usable information beyond a baseline. In Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2021, Virtual Event / Punta Cana, Dominican Republic, 7-11 November, 2021, pages 1626–1639. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Chieh-Yang Huang, Jing Wei, and Ting-Hao (Kenneth) Huang. 2024. Generating educational materials with different levels of readability using llms. *CoRR*, abs/2406.12787.
- Shiyuan Huang, Siddarth Mamidanna, Shreedhar Jangam, Yilun Zhou, and Leilani H. Gilpin. 2023. Can large language models explain themselves? A

study of llm-generated self-explanations. *CoRR*, abs/2310.11207.

- Joseph Marvin Imperial and Harish Tayyar Madabushi. 2023. Uniform complexity for text generation. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2023*, pages 12025–12046, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Albert Q. Jiang, Alexandre Sablayrolles, Arthur Mensch, Chris Bamford, Devendra Singh Chaplot, Diego de Las Casas, Florian Bressand, Gianna Lengyel, Guillaume Lample, Lucile Saulnier, Lélio Renard Lavaud, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Pierre Stock, Teven Le Scao, Thibaut Lavril, Thomas Wang, Timothée Lacroix, and William El Sayed. 2023. Mistral 7b. *CoRR*, abs/2310.06825.
- Albert Q. Jiang, Alexandre Sablayrolles, Antoine Roux, Arthur Mensch, Blanche Savary, Chris Bamford, Devendra Singh Chaplot, Diego de Las Casas, Emma Bou Hanna, Florian Bressand, Gianna Lengyel, Guillaume Bour, Guillaume Lample, Lélio Renard Lavaud, Lucile Saulnier, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Pierre Stock, Sandeep Subramanian, Sophia Yang, Szymon Antoniak, Teven Le Scao, Théophile Gervet, Thibaut Lavril, Thomas Wang, Timothée Lacroix, and William El Sayed. 2024a. Mixtral of experts. *CoRR*, abs/2401.04088.
- Dongfu Jiang, Yishan Li, Ge Zhang, Wenhao Huang, Bill Yuchen Lin, and Wenhu Chen. 2024b. TIGER-Score: Towards building explainable metric for all text generation tasks. *Transactions on Machine Learning Research*.
- Zhengping Jiang, Yining Lu, Hanjie Chen, Daniel Khashabi, Benjamin Van Durme, and Anqi Liu. 2024c. RORA: robust free-text rationale evaluation. In Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), ACL 2024, Bangkok, Thailand, August 11-16, 2024, pages 1070–1087. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Brihi Joshi, Ziyi Liu, Sahana Ramnath, Aaron Chan, Zhewei Tong, Shaoliang Nie, Qifan Wang, Yejin Choi, and Xiang Ren. 2023. Are machine rationales (not) useful to humans? measuring and improving human utility of free-text rationales. In *Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, ACL 2023, Toronto, Canada, July 9-14, 2023, pages 7103–7128. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- J Peter Kincaid, Robert P Fishburne Jr, Richard L Rogers, and Brad S Chissom. 1975. Derivation of new readability formulas (automated readability index, fog count and flesch reading ease formula) for navy enlisted personnel.
- Yang Liu, Dan Iter, Yichong Xu, Shuohang Wang, Ruochen Xu, and Chenguang Zhu. 2023. G-eval: NLG evaluation using gpt-4 with better human alignment. In *Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on*

Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2023, Singapore, December 6-10, 2023, pages 2511–2522. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Haoyan Luo and Lucia Specia. 2024. From understanding to utilization: A survey on explainability for large language models. *arXiv*, abs/2401.12874.

Binny Mathew, Punyajoy Saha, Seid Muhie Yimam, Chris Biemann, Pawan Goyal, and Animesh Mukherjee. 2021. Hatexplain: A benchmark dataset for explainable hate speech detection. In *Thirty-Fifth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, AAAI 2021, Thirty-Third Conference on Innovative Applications of Artificial Intelligence, IAAI 2021, The Eleventh Symposium on Educational Advances in Artificial Intelligence, EAAI 2021, Virtual Event, February 2-9, 2021*, pages 14867–14875. AAAI Press.

Barbara Plank. 2022. The "problem" of human label variation: On ground truth in data, modeling and evaluation. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 10671–10682, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Archiki Prasad, Swarnadeep Saha, Xiang Zhou, and Mohit Bansal. 2023. ReCEval: Evaluating reasoning chains via correctness and informativeness. In *Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 10066–10086, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Leonardo F. R. Ribeiro, Mohit Bansal, and Markus Dreyer. 2023. Generating summaries with controllable readability levels. In *Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 11669–11687, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Donya Rooein, Amanda Cercas Curry, and Dirk Hovy. 2023. Know your audience: Do LLMs adapt to different age and education levels? *arXiv*, abs/2312.02065.

Neha Srikanth and Junyi Jessy Li. 2021. Elaborative simplification: Content addition and explanation generation in text simplification. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL-IJCNLP 2021*, pages 5123–5137, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Sanja Stajner. 2021. Automatic text simplification for social good: Progress and challenges. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL/IJCNLP 2021, Online Event, August 1-6, 2021,* volume ACL/IJCNLP 2021 of *Findings of ACL,* pages 2637–2652. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Amir Tavanaei, Kee Kiat Koo, Hayreddin Çeker, Shaobai Jiang, Qi Li, Julien Han, and Karim Bouyarmane. 2024a. Structured object language modeling (SO-LM): native structured objects generation conforming to complex schemas with self-supervised

denoising. In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: EMNLP 2024 - Industry Track, Miami, Florida, USA, November 12-16, 2024*, pages 821–828. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Amir Tavanaei, Kee Kiat Koo, Hayreddin Ceker, Shaobai Jiang, Qi Li, Julien Han, and Karim Bouyarmane. 2024b. Structured object language modeling (SO-LM): Native structured objects generation conforming to complex schemas with self-supervised denoising. In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: Industry Track*, pages 821–828, Miami, Florida, US. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, Dan Bikel, Lukas Blecher, Cristian 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 Hosseini, 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 finetuned chat models. CoRR, abs/2307.09288.

Sean Trott and Pamela Rivière. 2024. Measuring and modifying the readability of English texts with GPT-4. In *Proceedings of the Third Workshop on Text Simplification, Accessibility and Readability (TSAR 2024)*, pages 126–134, Miami, Florida, USA. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Bertie Vidgen, Dong Nguyen, Helen Z. Margetts, Patrícia G. C. Rossini, and Rebekah Tromble. 2021. Introducing CAD: the contextual abuse dataset. 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 2289–2303. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Giulia Vilone and Luca Longo. 2021. Notions of explainability and evaluation approaches for explainable artificial intelligence. *Inf. Fusion*, 76:89–106.

Juraj Vladika, Phillip Schneider, and Florian Matthes. 2024. Healthfc: Verifying health claims with evidence-based medical fact-checking. In Proceedings of the 2024 Joint International Conference on Computational Linguistics, Language Resources and Evaluation, LREC/COLING 2024, 20-25 May, 2024, Torino, Italy, pages 8095–8107. ELRA and ICCL.

Guan Wang, Sijie Cheng, Xianyuan Zhan, Xiangang Li, Sen Song, and Yang Liu. 2023a. Openchat: Advancing open-source language models with mixed-quality data. *arXiv*, abs/2309.11235.

Jiaan Wang, Yunlong Liang, Fandong Meng, Zengkui Sun, Haoxiang Shi, Zhixu Li, Jinan Xu, Jianfeng Qu, and Jie Zhou. 2023b. Is ChatGPT a good NLG evaluator? a preliminary study. In *Proceedings of the 4th New Frontiers in Summarization Workshop*, pages 1–11, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Yifan Wang and Vera Demberg. 2024. RSA-control: A pragmatics-grounded lightweight controllable text generation framework. In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 5561–5582, Miami, Florida, USA. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Sarah Wiegreffe, Ana Marasovic, and Noah A. Smith. 2021. Measuring association between labels and freetext rationales. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2021, Virtual Event / Punta Cana, Dominican Republic, 7-11 November, 2021*, pages 10266–10284. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Haolun Wu, Ye Yuan, Liana Mikaelyan, Alexander Meulemans, Xue Liu, James Hensman, and Bhaskar Mitra. 2024a. Learning to extract structured entities using language models. In Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2024, Miami, FL, USA, November 12-16, 2024, pages 6817–6834. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Haolun Wu, Ye Yuan, Liana Mikaelyan, Alexander Meulemans, Xue Liu, James Hensman, and Bhaskar Mitra. 2024b. Learning to extract structured entities using language models. In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 6817–6834, Miami, Florida, USA. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Wenda Xu, Danqing Wang, Liangming Pan, Zhenqiao Song, Markus Freitag, William Wang, and Lei Li. 2023. INSTRUCTSCORE: towards explainable text generation evaluation with automatic feedback. In *Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2023, Singapore, December 6-10, 2023*, pages 5967–5994. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Yilun Xu, Shengjia Zhao, Jiaming Song, Russell Stewart, and Stefano Ermon. 2020. A theory of usable information under computational constraints. In 8th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2020, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, April 26-30, 2020. OpenReview.net.

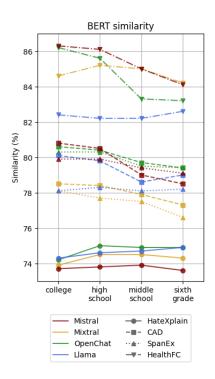


Figure 7: BERTScore similarity between model-generated rationales and reference explanations.

Xi Ye and Greg Durrett. 2022. The unreliability of explanations in few-shot prompting for textual reasoning. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 35: Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2022, NeurIPS 2022, New Orleans, LA, USA, November 28 - December 9, 2022.

Tianyi Zhang, Varsha Kishore, Felix Wu, Kilian Q. Weinberger, and Yoav Artzi. 2020. Bertscore: Evaluating text generation with BERT. In 8th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2020, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, April 26-30, 2020. OpenReview.net.

Yu Zhang, Peter Tiño, Ales Leonardis, and Ke Tang. 2021. A survey on neural network interpretability. *IEEE Trans. Emerg. Top. Comput. Intell.*, 5(5):726–742.

Zining Zhu, Hanjie Chen, Xi Ye, Qing Lyu, Chenhao Tan, Ana Marasovic, and Sarah Wiegreffe. 2024. Explanation in the era of large language models. In Proceedings of the 2024 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (Volume 5: Tutorial Abstracts), pages 19–25, Mexico City, Mexico. Association for Computational Linguistics.

A Data

A.1 Task descriptions

Table 4 summarizes the datasets and the task. Except for HealthFC, every dataset includes explanatory annotations, which are applied to parse refer-

Dataset	Size	#Test	Task	Annotations	Sample reference explanation
HateXplain	20k	1,924	Hate speech classification (multi-class)	Tokens involving offensive language and their targets	The text is labeled as hate speech because of expressions against women.
CAD	26k	5,307	Hate speech detection (binary)	Categories of offensive language	The text is labeled as offensive because the expression involves person directed abuse.
SpanEx	14k	3,865	Natural language inference	Relevant tokens and their semantic relation	The relation between hypothesis and premise is contradiction because a girl does not equal to a man.
HealthFC	750	N/A	Fact-checking (multi-class)	Excerpts from evidence document that supports or denies the claim (free-text instead of annotations)	There is no scientific evidence that hemolaser treatment has a palliative or curative effect on health problems.

Table 4: Summary of the datasets. Task refers to the adaptation in our experiments instead of the ones proposed by original works. Except for HealthFC, we run the experiments only on test splits.

ence explanations with rule-based methods. Both aspects are briefly described in the table. The HealthFC dataset excerpts human-written passages as explanations, which are directly adopted as reference rationales in our work.

A.2 Sample data instances

922

923

924

925

927

929

930

931

933

934

935

936

937

938

939

940

941

942

943

946

950

951

953

954

Extending Figure 2, an additional data point from the HateXplain dataset is provided in Figure 8 to exemplify the scores of human validation.

From Table 11 to 15, we further provide one data instance for each dataset to exemplify the LLM output under readability level control. Two examples from the HealthFC are given for a more comprehensive comparison between LLM-generated rationales and human-written explanations. In general, although the rationales across readability level tend to appear semantically approximate, they often differ in terms of logical flow and the supporting detail selection, which may imply a strong connection between NLE and NLG, i.e. the generated rationales represent more the learned outcome of LLMs. We also find that the explanations could involve misinterpretation of the context; for example, the high-school-level explanation of Mixtral-0.1 on HateXplain (Table 11) completely reversed the standpoint of the original text. Furthermore, serious hallucination could occur in the rationale even when the predicted label seems correct. In the high-school-level explanation from OpenChat-3.5 on CAD (Table 12), "idiot" and "broken in your head" lead to the offensive label, even if these two terms don't really exist in the text; likewise, Mistral-0.2 fabricated a digestive

condition called "gossypiasis" in the sixth-gradelevel explanation for HealthFC (Table 15). Our examples may inspire future works to further investigate perturbed rationale generation. 955

956

957

958

959

960

961

962

963

964

965

966

967

968

969

970

971

972

973

974

975

976

977

978

979

B Metrics for approximating readability

We referred to three metrics to numerically represent text readability. The original formulas of the metrics are listed as below.

Flesch reading ease (FRE) is calculated as follows:

$$FRE = 206.835 - 1.015(w_t/S_t) - 84.6(\sigma_t/w_t)$$
(2)

where w_t means total words, S_t refers to total sentences, and σ_t represents total syllables.

Gunning fog index (GFI) is based on the formula:

$$GFI = 0.4(w_t/S_t + w_l/S_t)$$
 (3)

where w_t represents total words, and S_t means total sentences. w_l is the amount of long words that consists of more than seven alphabets.

The formula of Coleman-Liau index (CLI) goes as follows:

$$CLI = 0.0588\bar{L} - 0.296\bar{S} - 15.8$$
 (4)

where L describes the average number of letters every 100 words, and \bar{S} represents the average amount of sentences every 100 words.

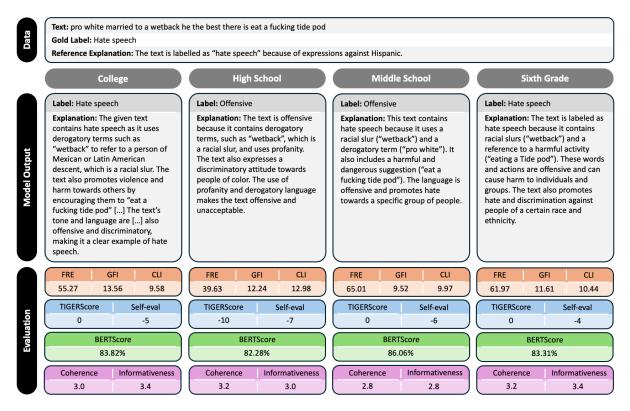


Figure 8: An example of model predictions and rationales generated by Llama-3 on HateXplain along with the evaluation results. Self-eval refers to TIGERScore rated by Llama-3.

C Raw evaluation data of model predictions and rationales

981

982

983

984

987

991

994

997

999

1000

1005

The appended tables include the raw data presented in the paper as processed results or graphs. Table 5 denotes task accuracy scores without removing unsuccessfully parsed data instances; that is, in contrast to Table 2, instances with empty prediction are considered incorrect here.

Table 6, 7, and 8 respectively include the three readability scores over each batch, which are visualised in Figure 4. Table 9 provides the detailed numbers shown in Figure 4. Figure 7 visualizes the similarity scores, with the exact numbers described in Table 10. The figure shows that the scores show rather little variation, with only minor differences in similarity scores within the same task. On one hand, such outcome implies that meanings of the rationales are mostly preserved across readability levels; on the other hand, this may reflect the constraints of both BERT measuring similarity, given that cosine similarity tends to range between 0.6 and 0.9, and parsing reference explanations out of fixed rules, which fundamentally limits the lexical complexity of the standard being used.

In every table, readability of 30, 50, 70, and 90 respectively refers to the prompted readability level

of college, high school, middle school, and sixth grade.

1006

1007

1010

1011

1012

1013

1014

1015

D Human annotation guidelines

Table 16 presents the annotation guidelines, which describe the four aspects that were to be annotated. We assigned separate Google spreadsheets to the recruited annotators as individual workspace. In the worksheet, 20 annotated instances were provided as further examples along with a brief description of the workflow.

	Readability	30	50	70	90
- <u>=</u>	Mistral-0.2	48.1	48.2	51.5	50.9
bla	Mixtral-0.1	41.7	42.5	42.1	42.7
HateXplain	OpenChat-3.5	50.2	50.3	52.0	49.5
표	Llama-3	50.2	50.8*	50.0	49.5
	Mistral-0.2	81.3*	81.1	78.7	76.6
CAD	Mixtral-0.1	60.8*	59.6	59.2	57.9
Ö	OpenChat-3.5	74.4	75.4	74.6	74.6
	Llama-3	48.1	46.2	44.7	43.5
	Mistral-0.2	33.9	34.6	35.8	36.1
ű	Mixtral-0.1	53.1	50.1	50.5	53.2
SpanEx	OpenChat-3.5	81.8	82.1*	81.4	82.0
0,	Llama-3	40.0	38.0	36.8	36.8
ပ	Mistral-0.2	50.4	49.3	50.4	47.8
두	Mixtral-0.1	46.8	48.0	46.9	49.0
HealthFC	OpenChat-3.5	48.9	49.7	49.7	49.5
Ĭ	Llama-3	26.9	29.2	28.2	25.7

Table 5: Raw task accuracy scores (%), in which unsuccessfully parsed model output were considered incorrect. The best score(s) achieved by a model are starred, and best accuracy per task are highlighted in bold face.

	Readability	30	50	70	90
.⊑	Mistral-0.2	14.2	13.6	12.2	11.2
pla	Mixtral-0.1	15.1	14.5	12.0	10.7
HateXplain	OpenChat-3.5	13.6	12.8	11.4	10.9
Ŧ	Llama-3	13.9	13.4	12.3	12.3
	Mistral-0.2	14.8	14.3	12.2	11.5
Q	Mixtral-0.1	14.1	13.6	12.4	11.7
CAD	OpenChat-3.5	12.9	12.3	11.2	10.9
	Llama-3	14.1	13.3	12.1	12.3
	Mistral-0.2	12.7	12.1	11.1	10.8
ű	Mixtral-0.1	11.8	11.6	10.3	9.5
SpanEx	OpenChat-3.5	10.7	9.9	9.0	8.9
0)	Llama-3	13.2	12.3	11.2	10.8
ပ	Mistral-0.2	15.1	14.2	13.4	13.2
Ä.	Mixtral-0.1	14.3	14.0	12.5	11.7
HealthF	OpenChat-3.5	13.6	12.3	10.5	10.1
Ĭ	Llama-3	15.1	14.2	13.4	13.2

Table 7: GFI scores of model-generated rationales.

	Readability	30	50	70	90
2.	Mistral-0.2	48.1	50.9	56.6	62.1
bla	Mixtral-0.1	44.8	47.2	58.0	64.0
HateXplain	OpenChat-3.5	50.7	54.9	62.0	64.1
Ŧ	Llama-3	49.1	51.5	57.0	56.8
	Mistral-0.2	45.8	47.8	56.5	59.9
9	Mixtral-0.1	48.0	49.9	55.5	59.0
CAD	OpenChat-3.5	53.3	56.1	61.6	63.1
	Llama-3	47.1	50.0	55.5	54.6
	Mistral-0.2	52.0	54.4	60.0	62.1
ũ	Mixtral-0.1	59.5	61.4	66.9	71.8
SpanEx	OpenChat-3.5	61.3	66.8	73.3	73.8
0)	Llama-3	51.1	55.0	59.7	62.0
O	Mistral-0.2	44.2	44.2	47.5	48.8
τħ	Mixtral-0.1	41.3	44.0	51.7	56.2
HealthFC	OpenChat-3.5	43.8	51.1	62.8	63.8
Ĭ	Llama-3	41.2	44.2	47.5	48.8

Table 6: FRE scores of model-generated rationales.

	Readability	30	50	70	90
.⊑	Mistral-0.2	12.2	11.7	10.8	9.8
bla	Mixtral-0.1	12.7	12.4	10.7	9.7
HateXplain	OpenChat-3.5	11.8	11.2	10.0	9.5
Ŧ	Llama-3	12.0	11.5	10.7	10.7
	Mistral-0.2	12.5	12.2	11.0	10.5
٥	Mixtral-0.1	12.1	11.8	11.0	10.4
CAD	OpenChat-3.5	11.0	10.6	9.7	9.4
	Llama-3	12.2	11.9	11.0	11.1
	Mistral-0.2	11.6	11.2	10.2	9.8
SpanEx	Mixtral-0.1	10.5	10.1	9.2	8.1
ba	OpenChat-3.5	11.0	9.8	8.1	8.1
0)	Llama-3	11.9	11.5	10.7	10.4
ပ	Mistral-0.2	13.8	13.2	12.8	12.1
HealthFC	Mixtral-0.1	14.2	13.9	12.6	11.8
ealt	OpenChat-3.5	14.0	12.7	10.5	10.4
Ĭ	Llama-3	13.8	13.2	12.8	12.6

Table 8: CLI scores of model-generated rationales.

HateXplain							
Readability	30	50	70	90			
-	-3.15	-3.25	-3.73	-3.93			
Mistral-0.2	648	679	784	822			
	-9.10	-8.99	-8.90*	-8.99			
	-3.44	-3.68	-3.82	-4.48			
Mixtral-0.1	750	747	782	882			
	-7.95*	-8.30	-8.34	-8.73			
	-3.62	-3.88	-4.24	-4.31			
OpenChat-3.5	860	966	1,067	1.044			
.,	-7.85	-7.53	-7.47*	-7.77			
	-3.41	-3.74	-3.90	-4.03			
Llama-3	701	737	808	782			
224	-9.27	-9.62	-9 <u>.16</u> *	-9.73			
	7.27).o <u>z</u>	,,,,	,,,,			
D 1100	_	AD 50	70	00			
Readability	30	50	70	90			
	-1.79	-1.91	-2.53	-2.71			
Mistral-0.2	1,135	1,216	1,688	1,768			
	-8.14	-8.15	-7.74*	-7.87			
	-2.27	-2.30	-2.77	-3.21			
Mixtral-0.1	1,471	1,477	1,786	1,989			
	-7.57*	-7.59	-7.63	7.97			
	-2.30	-2.29	-2.57	-2.86			
OpenChat-3.5	1,427	1,468	1,652	1,769			
	-8.23	-7.98	-7.90*	-8.30			
	-3.04	-3.58	-4.17	-4.52			
Llama-3	1,399	1,557	1,747	$\frac{1,774}{1,2,73}$			
	-9.16*	-9.59	-9.77	-10.59			
	Spa	nEx					
Readability	30	50	70	90			
	-2.76	-2.88	-3.31	-3.52			
Mistral-0.2	1,193	1,235	1,472	1,479			
	-8.64	-8.75	-8.51*	-8.90			
	-3.29	-3.28	-3.82	-4.42			
Mixtral-0.1	1,552	1,578	1,820	1,994			
	-7.43	-7.18*	-7.41	-7.83			
	-1.85	-2.18	-2.95	-3.18			
OpenChat-3.5	916	991	1,299	1,322			
	-7.45*	-7.98	-8.30	-8.88			
	-3.86	-4.48	-5.25	-5.41			
Llama-3	1,500	1,714	1,914	1,926			
	-9.25	-9.19*	-9.31	-9.71			
HealthFC							
Readability	30	50	70	90			
	-1.20	-0.94	-1.07	-1.11			
Mistral-0.2	169	165	158	179			
	-5.09	-4.02*	-4.83	-4.49			
	-1.96	-1.72	-2.01	-2.16			
Mixtral-0.1	246	236	238	256			
	-5.11	-4.67*	-5.42	-5.53			
-	2.15	2.20	2.00	4.10			

Table 9: TIGERScore of the model-generated rationales.
For each model, the first score is full-batch TIGER-
Score, which averages among all instances. The second
number denotes the number of non-zero instances, and
the third row shows non-zero TIGERScore, where in-
stances scoring 0 were removed. Bold font highlights
the best full-batch scores. The highest amount of non-
zero instances are underlines. And the best non-zero
scores are starred.

-3.15

380

-5.86*

-6.49

513

-9.08*

OpenChat-3.5

Llama-3

-3.28

362

-6.34

-6.39

484

-9.32

-3.80

397

-6.73

-6.77

497

-9.55

-4.10

<u>411</u> -7.10

-6.99

496

-9.73

HateXplain							
Readability	30	50	70	90			
Mistral-0.2	73.7	73.8	73.9*	73.6			
Mixtral-0.1	73.9	74.5*	74.5*	74.3			
OpenChat-3.5	74.2	75.0 *	74.9	74.9			
Llama-3	74.3	74.6	74.7	74.9*			
	CA	D					
Readability	30	50	70	90			
Mistral-0.2	80.8*	80.5	79.0	78.5			
Mixtral-0.1	78.5*	78.4	77.9	77.3			
OpenChat-3.5	80.6*	80.4	79.7	79.4			
Llama-3	80.1*	79.8	78.6	79.0			
	Spar	ηEx					
Readability	30	50	70	90			
Mistral-0.2	79.9*	79.9*	79.4	79.1			
Mixtral-0.1	78.1*	77.7	77.5	76.6			
OpenChat-3.5	80.3*	80.3*	79.5	79.4			
Llama-3	78.1	78.3*	78.1	78.2			

Table 10: BERT similarity scores between rationale and reference explanation (%). For each task, star sign marks out the best score(s) achieved by each model, and bold font highlights the task-specific highest score.

HealthFC

50

86.1

85.2*

85.6

82.2

70

85.0

85.0

83.3

82.3

90

84.1

84.2

83.2

82.6*

30

86.3*

84.6

86.2*

82.4

Readability

Mistral-0.2

Mixtral-0.1

Llama-3

OpenChat-3.5

		om fapter places need by human water domoor	now not and free hone bone standarith by	
ld lobel	Suscission of the supply to an accountingnet preasons	on ugnet prease pass in numan rights democi	pass in numan rights uchrotiacy act and fice houg voing standwith fin	
Gold label	+			
Reference ex- nlanation	The text is labelled as "normal."			
Model-	College: Normal. The text does not contain	College: Normal. The text is presenting	College: College: Offensive. The text is	College: College: Offensive. The text is
generated	any explicit hate speech or offensive lan-	an opinion about China, without offending	offensive because it expresses a strong neg-	labeled as offensive because it promotes vi-
answer and	guage against any specific target group. It is	any group of people or inciting hate speech.	ative sentiment towards a political group	olence and harm towards a group of peo-
rationale	simply an expression of support for human	The user's stance on the issue is clear, but it	(CCP China) and uses the phrase "happy	ple (freedom fighters) based on their polit-
	rights and democracy in Hong Kong	doesn't break any of the community guide-	to kill all freedom fighters" which is a vio-	ical beliefs. The text also uses aggressive
	High School: <i>Normal.</i> This text is express-	lines.	lent and aggressive statement. This type of	language, such as "Kill all," which can be
	ing support for a political cause, the democ-	High School: Offensive. The user supports	language may incite negative feelings and	seen as threatening and harmful. Addition-
	ratization of Hong Kong, and advocacy for	the CCP in China, which is a political party	further divide the community.	ally, the text makes a generalization about
	a US law. The user is not making negative	that has been responsible for human rights	High School: Offensive. The text is of-	a group of people (Chinese) based on their
	or hateful comments, so the label is normal.	violations. The user also seems to show	fensive because it uses strong language to	national identity, which can be seen as dis-
	The user's intention is to raise awareness	no concern for innocent civilians who may	express a political opinion and it could be	criminatory.
	and encourage action for a human rightsis-	be caught in crossfire between the CCP and	hurtful to some people. The text also uses	High School: Hate speech. This text is
	sue.	"freedom fighters." These actions or perspec-	the term "ccp china z i" which could be seen	classified as hate speech because it openly
	Middle School: <i>Normal.</i> The user is ex-	tives can be considered offensive because	as a derogatory term.	supports the killing of freedom fighters [].
	pressing their opinion in support of human	they are harmful towards innocent individu-	Middle School: Hate speech. The text is	It also uses a derogatory term ("kill all")
	rights and democracy for Hong Kong, using	als and communities.	labeled as hate speech because it expresses	which is a clear indicator of hate speech.
	terms like "freedom fighters" and "human	Middle School: Normal. The user ex-	strong negative emotions towards a specific	The text is not only offensive but also pro-
	rights" that are common when talking about	presses support for Hong Kong's human	group (CCP China) and seems to encourage	motes harm and violence against a group
	politics and social issues. This is considered	rights, democracy, and freedom. The user	violence against them. This is not appro-	of people, which is a characteristic of hate
	a normal expression of opinion and does not	does not offend or hate any target group, so	priate and may cause harm to the targeted	speech.
	target any specific group with hate speech.	the label is "normal."	group.	Middle School: Offensive. This text is of-
	Sixth Grade: <i>Normal.</i> This text is not of-	Sixth Grade: <i>Normal.</i> The user is express-	Sixth Grade: Hate speech. The text is hate	fensive because it contains hate speech to-
	fensive or hateful. It's a user expressing	ing a political opinion and showing support	speech because it targets a specific group	wards a specific group, CCP China. The
	their support for human rights and democ-	for a cause. They are not insulting or attack-	of people, the Chinese Communist Party,	user is calling for the killing of "freedom
	racy in Hong Kong. They are asking for the	ing any group of people. They are simply	and expresses a desire for them to be killed.	fighters," which could be interpreted as a
	passing of the "Hong Kong Human Rights	stating their political beliefs and hoping for	This is not a normal or offensive statement,	call to violence against a particular group
	and Democracy Act" to help those fighting	a change in the politics of China.	as it directly incites violence against a group	of people. This language is harmful and
	for freedom in China.		of people.	unacceptable.
				Sixth Grade: Offensive. This text is of-
				fensive because it uses a derogatory term
				"freedom fighter" to describe people who
				are fighting for their rights and freedoms.
				The text also calls for violence against the
				people of Hong Kong, Which is a violation of human rights. The language used is an
				or munan rights. The ranguage used is ag-
				green and ancareming, and it is meny to

Table 11: An example data instance from the HateXplain dataset. Owing to the limited space, some longer rationales are partially omitted and indicated with [...].

Model	Mistral-0.2	Mixtral-0.1	OpenChat-3.5	Llama-3
Text	You don't even know what real communism is you nazi	is you nazi		
Gold label	offensive			
Reference explanation	The text is labelled as offensive because the expression involves person directed abuse.	expression involves person directed abuse.		
Model-	College: Offensive. This statement is offen-	College: Offensive. The text is offensive	College: Offensive. This text is offensive	College: Offensive. The text is offensive be-
generated	sive because it uses a derogatory term, "you	because it labels someone as a "nazi." The	because it uses derogatory language to re-	cause it uses a derogatory term and makes
answer and	Nazi," to attack or belittle someone with-	term "nazi" is often times used as an insult	fer to someone's political beliefs. The use	an inflammatory comparison between com-
rationale	out providing any reasons or evidence to	to diminish one's point of view and discredit	of "nazi" as an insult is not suitable for a	munism and Nazism, which is a sensitive
	support the claim. The term "Nazi" is of-	their opinions. This type of language aims	respectful conversation.	and divisive topic. The use of the word
	ten used to stigmatize people with extreme	to intimidate or provoke, causing an unsafe	High School: Offensive. The text uses	"nazi" as an insult is a form of hate speech
	political beliefs, but using it randomly and	environment for open communication.	derogatory terms like "idiot" and "broken in	and is likely to offend people who identify
	without context in a personal attack is not	High School: Offensive. This text is offen-	your head" to belittle and insult someone's	as Jewish or have been affected by the Holo-
	productive or respectful.	sive because it uses an offensive term "nazi"	intelligence. This kind of language can be	caust. The text also lacks any constructive
	High School: <i>Offensive.</i> The text uses the	to attack someone, suggesting they are igno-	hurtful and offensive to others.	or respectful language, and instead resorts
	word "nazi" as an insult towards someone,	rant or stupid (as shown in the phrase "You	Middle School: Offensive. This text uses	to name-calling and personal attacks.
	and it's not related to the topic of the text.	don't even know what real communism is").	strong language and may be hurtful to some	High School: Offensive. The text contains
	This can be considered offensive as it's an	Using an offensive term to insult someone	people. It is not suitable for a friendly con-	a derogatory term ("nazi") and insults ("You
	attempt to belittle or humiliate someone	is not respectful and therefore it count as	versation. It is important to be kind and	don't even know what real communism is")
	based on their beliefs or background, which	offensive.	respectful to others.	which can be hurtful and offensive to some
	is not respectful or acceptable in a civil dis-		Sixth Grade: Offensive. The given text	people.
	course.	the term "nazi" as an insult, which is a	uses strong language and might hurt some-	Middle School: Offensive. The text uses
	Middle School: Offensive. This label is	derogatory term for people who hold views	one's feelings. It's not nice to call people	profanity and a derogatory term ("nazi")
	for texts that are hurtful or mean towards	or characteristics similar to Nazis. In this	names or make fun of their ideas.	which is offensive and may be hurtful to
	a group of people. In this case, the person	case, the user is likely not referring to actual		people who identify with the targeted group.
	is using a derogatory term "nazi" towards	Nazis, but is using the term as an insult to		The use of the term "nazi" is also a stereo-
	people who don't agree with their view on	criticize someone's views on communism.		type and can be seen as a form of hate
	communism. It is important to remember	Using a term as an insult shows a lack of re-		speech. The text also contains a threat or
	that using hurtful words can be harmful and	spect and is therefore considered offensive.		insult, making it even more offensive.
	disrespectful to others.	Sixth Grade: Offensive. The sentence uses		Sixth Grade: Offensive. This text is of-
	Sixth Grade: Offensive. This text is of-	an offensive term called "nazi" to insult		fensive because it uses a racial slur "nazi"
	fensive because it calls someone a "nazi"	someone who does not understand what real		to describe communism, which is a deroga-
	without any reason, which is a hurtful word.	communism is. Comparing someone to a		tory and hurtful term. It's also an example
	Using words like that to insult someone is	"nazi" is a form of name-calling and can be		of hate speech, which can cause harm to
	not kind or respectful, and it goes against	hurtful and offensive. Just like in the sec-		people who identify with the term. Using
	our rule of treating everyone with kindness	ond example, using offensive language is		this kind of language is not acceptable and
	and respect, no matter what they believe or	not respectful or appropriate, and it violates		can create a hostile environment.
	say.	the community guidelines.		

Table 12: An example data instance from the CAD dataset.

IATORCI	Mistral-0.2	xtral-0.1	OpenChat-3.5	Llama-3
Premise Hypothesis	People jump over a mountain crevasse on a rope. People slide over a mountain crevasse on a slide.	rope. Ilide.		
Gold label	contradiction			
Reference explanation	The relation between hypothesis and premise is 'contradiction'		because jump over a mountain crevasse on a rope does not equal to slide over a mountain crevasse on a slide.	ver a mountain crevasse on a slide.
Model-	College: Neutral. The premise describes	College: Contradiction. The action in the	College: Contradiction. The premise de-	College: Contradiction. The premise states
generated	people using ropes to jump over a mountain	premise is to jump over the crevasse, mean-	scribes people jumping over a mountain	that people jump over a mountain crevasse
answer and	crevasse, while the hypothesis describes	ing that the people are crossing to the other	crevasse on a rope, while the hypothesis	on a rope, which implies a specific action
rationale	people using slides to slide over a mountain	side by making an airborne maneuver. The	describes people sliding over a mountain	and method of traversing the crevasse. The
	crevasse. The premise does not contradict	hypothesis presents people sliding over the	crevasse on a slide. These are two different	hypothesis states that people slide over a
	or entail the hypothesis as they depict dif-	crevasse; in other words, going down a slide	actions, so the premise contradicts the hy-	mountain crevasse on a slide, which is a
	ferent ways of crossing the crevasse.	(probably the side of the crevasse) to reach	pothesis.	different action and method. Therefore, the
	High School: Neutral. Jumping and sliding	its base. Since the two actions are funda-	High School: Contradiction. The premise	premise contradicts the hypothesis, as they
	are two different ways of moving across an	mentally different, it is clear that the hypoth-	says people jump over a crevasse on a rope,	describe mutually exclusive actions.
	obstacle. The premise and hypothesis refer	esis contradicts the premise. Also, for fur-	but the hypothesis says people slide over a	High School: Contradiction. The premise
	to two separate actions, which do not entail	ther confirmation, a slide is not mentioned	crevasse on a slide. These are different ac-	describes people jumping over a mountain
	or contradict each other.	or suggested in the premise.	tions and methods, so they contradict each	crevasse on a rope, which is a different ac-
	Middle School: Neutral. The premise and	High School: Contradiction. The premise	other.	tion and method than sliding over a moun-
	the hypothesis describe different actions,	is talking about "jump[ing] over a mountain	Middle School: Contradiction. The	tain crevasse on a slide. The two actions are
	jumping and sliding, so the hypothesis is	crevasse on a rope." On the other hand, the	premise tells us that people are jumping	mutually exclusive, and the premise directly
	neither a consequence nor a contradiction	hypothesis talks about "slide over a moun-	over a crevasse using a rope, while the	contradicts the hypothesis. This means that
	of the premise.	tain crevasse on a slide." The two actions,	hypothesis says they are sliding over a	if the premise is true, the hypothesis must
	Sixth Grade: Neutral. In the first situation,	"jumping" and "sliding", are distinctly dif-	crevasse using a slide. These are two differ-	
	people are jumping over a crevasse using	ferent.	ent actions, so the premise and hypothesis	Middle School: Contradiction. The
	a rope. In the second situation, they are	Middle School: Contradiction. The	are contradictory.	premise says people jump over the crevasse,
	sliding over a crevasse, but there's no rope	premise and hypothesis cannot both be true	Sixth Grade: Contradiction. The premise	but the hypothesis says they slide over it.
	involved. Jumping and sliding are differ-	because they describe very different actions	says people jump over a mountain crevasse	This is a contradiction because jumping and
	ent ways to cross a crevasse, so the premise	and do not relate to each other (a rope and	on a rope, but the hypothesis says they slide	sliding are two different actions that can't
	doesn't entail or contradict the hypothesis,		over it on a slide. These are two different	happen at the same time. This means the
	it's just neutral.	Sixth Grade: Contradiction. In the	actions, so the premise contradicts the hy-	hypothesis is saying the opposite of what
		premise people jump over a deep gap on	pothesis.	the premise is saying, so it's a contradiction.
		a rope and in the hypothesis, it is said that		Sixth Grade: Entailment. The premise and
		people slide over it on a slide. These two		hypothesis are both talking about people
		actions are nothing alike, meaning the hy-		crossing over a mountain crevasse, but the
		pothesis contradicts the premise.		premise says they jump over it, while the
				hypothesis says they slide over it. Since
				jumping and suding are boun ways to cross over, the premise implies that the people in
				the premise could also slide over, making it
				an entailment.

Table 13: An example data instance from the SpanEx dataset.

· · · · · · · · ·	Does the Indian spice paste Chyawanprash t	Does the Indian spice paste Chyawanprash have a positive effect on adult health?		
Gold label Reference ex-	neutral There is a lack of conclusive studies on possible health effects		of Chyawanprash. We can neither confirm nor deny a beneficial effect.	
planation	•			
Model-	College: Neutral. Chyawanprash is an	College: Neutral. The Indian spice paste	College: Neutral. The question asks	College: Affirmative. The premise suggests
generated	ancient Ayurvedic spice paste, commonly	Chyawanprash is made from several ingre-	whether Chyawanprash, an Indian spice	that Chyawanprash has a positive effect on
answer and	used in India. It is believed to have numer-	dients, including honey, ghee, and various	paste, has a positive effect on adult health.	adult health, which implies that it has a ben-
rationale	ous health benefits, including improving the	herbs and fruits. Some studies have re-	While there is some evidence that Chyawan-	eficial impact. This type of statement is typ-
	immune system, rejuvenating the body, and	ported potential health benefits, such as an-	prash may have beneficial effects on health,	ically considered affirmative, as it expresses
	increasing energy levels. However, there	tioxidant activity and anti-inflammatory ef-	such as improving immune function and	a positive opinion or conclusion about the
	isn't enough scientific evidence to defini-	fects. However, the evidence is still lim-	reducing inflammation, the research is not	effectiveness of the spice paste.
	tively establish these benefits, [] more	ited, and more research is needed to con-	conclusive. Therefore, it is plausible that	High School: Affirmative. The question
	rigorous research is needed to fully under-	firm whether Chyawanprash has a reliable	Chyawanprash could have a positive effect	asks whether Chyawanprash has a positive
	stand its impact on adult health.	positive effect on adult health.	on adult health, but more research is needed	effect on adult health, which implies a posi-
	High School: Affirmative. Chyawanprash	High School: Neutral. The word "positive	to confirm this.	tive outcome. This implies that the question
	is an Ayurvedic supplement often eaten as	effect" is vague here. If you meant to ask	High School: Neutral. There is scien-	is affirmative, as it is asking about a benefi-
	a jam or paste, made with fruits, herbs, and	whether Chyawanprash can be beneficial to	tific evidence that Chyawanprash has some	cial effect.
	honey. Some studies suggest it may have	adult health, it's plausible. However, if you	health benefits, but it is not definitive. Some	Middle School: Negative. The question is
	various health benefits for adults, including	want to know if it's significantly more ef-	studies show that it can improve heart	negative because it implies that Chyawan-
	boosting immunity, reducing inflammation,	fective than other food supplements, that's	health, while others suggest it may help	prash does not have a positive effect on
	and providing antioxidants.	a different matter and needs more specific	with memory and cognitive function. How-	adult health. It does not explicitly state the
	Middle School: Neutral. Some people	examination.	ever, the effects may vary [] the statement	opposite, but it is asking if it has a positive
	believe that an Indian spice paste called	Middle School: Neutral. The premise	is neutral because it is neither confirmed nor	effect, which implies that the answer is no.
	Chyawanprash, which is often used in	states that Chyawanprash is an Indian spice	refuted.	This type of question is often used to chal-
	Ayurvedic medicine, can improve adult	paste. The hypothesis is whether Chyawan-	Middle School: Affirmative. [] Some	lenge a popular myth or misconception.
	health. However, there isn't enough solid	prash has a positive effect on adult health.	people believe that it has health benefits for	Sixth Grade: Affirmative. The label "affir-
	scientific evidence to prove that these	There isn't enough information provided to	adults, such as improving immune function	mative" is assigned because the question is
	claims are true or not. It's best to check with	make an affirmative or negative assessment	and overall well-being. However, scientific	asking about the positive effect of Chyawan-
	your doctor before starting to use Chyawan-	about Chyawanprash's impact on adult	research on this topic is limited, and more	prash on adult health, which implies that the
	prash as a health supplement.	health. So, to conclude it is "neutral" be-	studies are needed to confirm these effects.	speaker believes Chyawanprash has a bene-
	Sixth Grade: Neutral. Chyawanprash is	cause there is not enough information to	So, the answer is affirmative because it is	ficial impact on adult health.
	a traditional Indian spice paste; many peo-	classify it as an affirmative or negative state-	a belief held by many people, but it is not	
	ple believe it is good for adult health. But	ment.	strongly supported by scientific evidence.	
	scientists still need to do more research to	Sixth Grade: Neutral. The premise claims	Sixth Grade: Neutral. [] Some studies	
	know for sure whether it really is beneficial	that Indian spice paste Chyawanprash has a	have suggested that it may have health ben-	
	or not. So, it could be true, but we need	positive effect on adult health. However, it	efits for adults, such as improving immune	
	more information to be certain.	does not provide enough information about	function and reducing inflammation. How-	
		how or why it might have this effect. With-	ever, more research is needed to confirm	
		out further evidence, we cannot make an	these findings and to understand the full	
		affirmative or negative judgment.	range of potential health benefits. So, it is	
			possible that Chyawanprash has a positive effect on adult health but we cannot say for	
			crice on again meanin, our ne carmiot say for	

Table 14: An example data instance from the HealthFC dataset where LLMs mostly predict the correct label. Owing to the limited space, some longer rationales are partially omitted and indicated with [...].

Question	Is it harmful to health to eat apple cores with the apple?	the apple?		
Gold label Reference ex-	negative Normally, apple cores pass through the body	negative Normally, apple cores pass through the body undigested. Even if they are bitten, not enough poison enters the body to pose a danger.	h poison enters the body to pose a danger.	
planation Model- generated answer and rationale	College: College: Neutral. Eating apple cores with the apple night experience choking hazards due to their size and hard texture, especially for children. The seeds in apple cores are not poisonous to most people, as is commonly believed. High School: Neutral. Eating apple cores with the apple is neither proven to be beneficial nor proven to be harmful [] others called amygdalin that could convert into cyanide under certain conditions. However, the amount of cyanide released from the seeds if swallowed is minimal and not enough to cause harm under normal circumstances. Hence, eating apple cores is considerated neutral. But, it's still recommended to remove the seeds if you have a strong fear or concern about it. Middle School: Neutral. Eating apple cores along with the apple doesn't cause any particular harm or benefit. Apple cores contain small amounts of cyanide. However, the amount is not enough to cause harm to most people [] for young children, it is recommended to cut the apple core into small pieces to minimize the choking risk. Sixth Grade: Neutral. Eating apple core is perfectly safe for most people. [] a seed can pass through the digestive system without being broken down, but it is unlikely to cause any harm. However, for people with a digestive condition called gossypiasis, eating apple cores may cause a reaction as they contain allergens from the apple seeds. [] it's a good idea for people with known allergens or direate or preserved.	College: College: Neutral. Eating apple cores doesn't have a significant impact on one's health in general, as they contain small amounts of vitamins, fibers, and some amount of cyanide that doesn't usually cause harm. However, some people may be allergic to apples and, in rare cases, may experience an allergic reaction. High School: Neutral. Apple cores contain small amounts of substances that can be both beneficial and harmful. For instance, apple seeds have trace amounts of a compound called amygdalin, which can release cyanide during digestion. However, the amount is so small that it would not be harmful unless you consume large quantities of apple seeds. Thus, eating a few apple cores is unlikely to cause harm. Middle School: Neutral. Apple cores are not harmful to health to eat when eating the whole apple, apple peel or apple core. The apple core itself is not harmful, but it is difficult to chew and digest due to the hardness and containing seeds. Therefore, eating apple cores is not dangerous, but it is not necessary because the apple core is not tasty and has no nutritional benefits. Sixth Grade: Neutral. The answer is neutral because apple cores are not harmful to health when eaten with the apple. But there is also no special benefit to it. Some people don't eat apple cores because they find them unpleasant to chew.	College: Affirmative. Eating apple cores with the apple is not harmful to health because apple cores do not contain any harmful substances that are toxic to the human body. In fact, apple cores contain nutrients that are beneficial for our health. Therefore, it is affirmative that eating apple cores with the apple is not harmful to health. Therefore, is not necessarily harmful to health, but they can be difficult to chew and swallow. Some people may experience discomfort or choking if they eat apple cores, while others may not have any issues. So, it's neutral because it depends on the individual's ability to handle apple cores. Middle School: Neutral. Eating apple cores with the apple is neither completely harmful nor completely safe. Some apple cores have seeds that contain a small amount of cyanide, which can be harmful if consumed in large quantities. However, most people can safely eat a few apple seeds without any negative effects. So, it's not harmful, but also not completely safe. Sixth Grade: Neutral. Eating apple cores is not necessarily harmful, but it is not recommended because apple cores contain a small seed that could potentially be a choking hazard. However, the seed itself is not poisonous, so eating it might not cause any harm. Therefore, the statement is neither affirmative nor negative.	College: College: Negative. This question is classified as negative because it implies that eating apple cores with the apple is harmful to health, which is a harmful or neutral as it is not asking about a neutral or neutral topic, and it is not affirmative as it is not asking about a beneficial or positive outcome. High School: Negative. The label is negative because eating apple cores is not recommended due to the presence of seeds, stems, and other parts that can cause harm if ingested. Apple cores contain a compound called amygdalin, which can release cyanide, a toxic substance, when ingested. Therefore, it is not safe to eat apple cores with the apple. Middle School: Affirmative. Eating apple cores can be harmful to health because they contain seeds and stems that can cause digestive problems, and in some cases, even lead to choking hazards. The seeds contain a compound called amygdalin, which can release cyanide, a toxic substance, when ingested. Therefore, it is recommended to avoid eating apple cores and only consume the edible parts of the fruit. Sixth Grade: Negative. Eating apple cores can cause serious health problems, such as intestinal blockage or even death. Apple cores contain seeds, stems, and leaves, which are difficult for the body to digest. This can lead to serious health issues, so it is not safe to eat apple cores.

Table 15: An example data instance from the HealthFC dataset where LLMs tend to make wrong predictions. Owing to the limited space, some longer rationales are partially omitted and indicated with [...].

Readability: Which readability level best describes the rationale?

Level	Description	Example
College	Advanced English, often featuring	The senators said allowing Russia to host the World Cup "inappro-
	elaborative discourse or terms.	priately bolsters the prestige of the (Russian President Vladimir)
		Putin regime."
High school	Plain English, typical for ordinary	The senators say Russia's role in the Ukraine crisis and occupa-
	documents.	tion of Crimea should be condemned.
Middle school	Fairly easy to read, with some de-	US senators call on FIFA to move the 2018 World Cup from
	tails but in informal language.	Russia. 13 Democratic and Republican US lawmakers signed the
		letter.
Sixth grade	Easy to read, colloquial as con-	13 US senators call for Russia to be removed as hosts of the 2018
	sumer conversation	World Cup. They say the decision should be made in 2017.

Coherence: How reasonable is the logical flow of the rationale put together and connected?

Level	Example
4. very reasonable	This text uses language that is disrespectful and hurtful towards someone based on their political
	beliefs. It is considered offensive language, even though there is no hate speech towards a specific
	group mentioned in the text.
3. somewhat reasonable	This text seems offensive to some people because it uses a hurtful term not only towards feminists,
	but also towards lesbians. It might make some people feel insulted or disrespected.
2. somewhat unreason-	This text is offensive because it makes light of a serious issue, rape. It's not a joke and it's not
able	OK to make fun of something like that. It's important to treat serious issues with respect and
	sensitivity.
1. very unreasonable	This text expresses a strong opinion against chain migration, a process that allows immigrants to
	bring their family members to live with them in the US. This type of expression is common in everyday conversations and debates, it is not considered offensive or hate speech as it does not include any derogatory language towards any specific group of people.

Informativeness: How much sufficient information is provided to support the model-predicted answer?

Level	Example
4. very sufficient	The text is a simple question that doesn't contain any hate speech or offensive language towards
	any target group. It concerns the Marvel Cinematic Universe and a report by Matthew del Tobo,
	and there's no indication of any community standards violations in the text.
3. somewhat sufficient	The word "towel head" is not a kind or respectful way to talk about people with Middle Eastern
	or Muslim heritage. Using this name can hurt and stereotype people based on their background.
	We should always use kind and respectful words when talking about people.
2. somewhat insufficient	The text does not contain any offensive, derogatory, or hateful language towards a specific target
	group. It is a simple request for information.
1. very insufficient	This text is considered normal because it's not explicitly offensive, hateful, or targeting any
	specific group.

Accuracy: Do you agree with the model predicted answer? (Note: Please be aware of the difference between offensive and hate speech.)

Label	Description	Example
normal	Texts that hardly violate individuals	you know what i like to do when i come to california get raped
	or groups.	by the gas prices
offensive	Expressions that discomfort or an-	Twitter is full of tween dikes who think they're superior because
	noy certain individuals or groups,	of "muh oppression." News flash: No one gives a shit.
	often through labels or remarks.	
hate speech	Languages that incite discrimina-	A nigress too dumb to fuck has a scant chance of understanding
	tion, violence, or hostility against	anything beyond the size of a dick
	particular individuals or groups.	

Table 16: Annotation guidelines provided to the annotators.