000 001 002 003 LET'S THINK VAR-BY-VAR: LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS ENABLE *Ad Hoc* PROBABILISTIC REASONING

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ABSTRACT

A hallmark of intelligence is the ability to flesh out underspecified situations using "common sense." We propose to extract that common sense from large language models (LLMs), in a form that can feed into probabilistic inference. We focus our investigation on *guesstimation* questions such as "How much are Airbnb listings in Newark, NJ?" Formulating a sensible answer without access to data requires drawing on, and integrating, bits of common knowledge about how Price and Location may relate to other variables, such as Property Type. Our framework answers such a question by synthesizing an *ad hoc* probabilistic model. First we prompt an LLM to propose a set of random variables relevant to the question, followed by moment constraints on their joint distribution. We then optimize the joint distribution p within a log-linear family to maximize the overall constraint satisfaction. Our experiments show that LLMs can successfully be prompted to propose reasonable variables, and while the proposed numerical constraints can be noisy, jointly optimizing for their satisfaction reconciles them. When evaluated on probabilistic questions derived from three real-world tabular datasets, we find that our framework performs comparably to a direct prompting baseline in terms of total variation distance from the dataset distribution, and is similarly robust to noise.

1 INTRODUCTION

Thus, in reasoning we depend very much on *prior information* to help us in evaluating the degree of plausibility in a new problem. This reasoning process goes on unconsciously, almost instantaneously, and we conceal how complicated it really is by calling it common sense. —E. T. Jaynes, *Probability Theory: The Logic of Science* (2003)

037 038 039 040 041 Humans constantly reason about novel situations, integrating evidence with prior knowledge. The [Jaynes](#page-10-0) [\(2003\)](#page-10-0) quote above refers to an everyday example: a policeman sees a masked man with a bag crawling out of the broken window of a jewelry store, and suspects a burglary. How can such conclusions be arrived at—appropriately generating hypotheses and weighing competing evidence?

042 043 044 045 046 Like Jaynes, we hope to draw on the very same methods of statistical modeling and inference that allow scientists to reason formally about complex domains like epidemiology, diplomacy, or syntax. For those domains, however, scientists normally invest time in perfecting a durable scientific model that supports many queries. Commonsense reasoning may instead generate a quick-and-dirty *ad hoc* model for each query.

047 048 049 050 051 052 We show that one can construct such ephemeral models automatically by enlisting the existing commonsense knowledge of large language models (LLMs). Of course, today's LLMs are already smart enough to recognize the above scene as a burglary—either at once, or via a chain of thought that may explicitly generate and evaluate different hypotheses. But there are harder situations that may benefit from systematically eliciting many fragments of relevant knowledge from the LLM, and deriving conclusions from this combined knowledge in a more formal and systematic way.

053 While one could elicit *logical* propositions and derive conclusions from those [\(Jung et al., 2022\)](#page-11-0), we consider here the more general case of *probabilistic* knowledge and conclusions. Consider a

070 071 072 073 074 075 076 077 078 079 080 081 082 Figure 1: An illustration of our proposed framework applied to answering an example probabilistic question, $Q =$ "How much would an Airbnb with at least two beds cost in Newark, NJ?". Going **clockwise** from Q , we first prompt an LLM to brainstorm the relevant random variables [\(§3.2](#page-3-0) (a)), producing Price (P), Rating (R), Beds (B), Location (L), where shaded nodes denote variables being conditioned on, blue nodes denote target variables, and white nodes denote latent variables. Then we prompt an LLM to propose interacting pairs $\{v_1, v_2\}$ of proposed variables, and whether to constrain $p(v_1 | v_2)$ or $p(v_2 | v_1)$ [\(§3.2](#page-3-0) (b)). Next we prompt LLMs to propose numeric constraints on the marginal $p(v)$ of every proposed variable, as well as the conditional marginals $p(v_1 | v_2)$ of every proposed pairwise interaction [\(§3.2](#page-3-0) (c)); Finally, we optimize the parameters of a log-linear model with fuzzy maximum entropy objective [\(2\)](#page-3-1) in order to maximize constraint satisfaction [\(§3.2](#page-3-0) (c)). The final output is an ad hoc probability model that can be used to answer Q . Going **counterclockwise** from Q is a baseline of asking for an estimate of Q directly using a zero-shot LLM with Chain-of-Thought.

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guesstimation question such as "How many people in Nigeria own laptops?"[1](#page-1-0) An LLM that has only weak intuitions about this may nonetheless be able to recall various relevant information:

- One route to an answer would estimate Nigeria's distribution over occupations, and then estimate those occupations' distributions over computing devices. It is relevant that Nigeria is a developing country and that some developing countries have largely skipped over laptops to mobile phones.
- Another route would estimate Nigeria's wealth distribution and its ownership rates for other appliances (cars, dishwashers, cellphones), and then guess how a person's laptop ownership correlates with their wealth and possessions.
	- Another route might look at historical data (if known) and try to extrapolate to the present.
		- The above bullets estimate Nigeria's *rate* of laptop ownership, which must be multiplied by Nigeria's population. If the population is not known, it could be guessed based other facts, such as Nigeria's physical size and political influence relative to nearby countries, or the relative visibility of Nigerians in global culture.

Integrating all of this information *systematically* may provide a more robust answer than simply asking the LLM to answer directly or to think step-by-step. We do this by constructing an *ad hoc* probability model over situations, with latent variables and their interactions proposed by the LLM.

103 104 Though the LLM proposes the model's structure, we do not expect the LLM to provide its *parameters*. In general, such parameters are not interpretable.^{[2](#page-1-1)} Rather, we ask the LLM to make predictions

¹⁰⁵ 106 ¹This may arise in the course of solving another guesstimation question: "If my aging laptop fails during my trip to Lagos, how long will it take to repair?"

²In a Markov random field (MRF), the optimal parameters for one factor are not a property of that factor alone, but depend strongly on what other factors have been added to the model and what their parameters are.

108 109 110 111 about the world—such as marginal probabilities. We set the model parameters so as to align the model's predictions with the LLM's predictions. We can then query our model to answer the original guesstimation question (via probabilistic inference over the situations described by the model variables).

112 113 114 115 116 117 This paper will focus on specific guesstimation questions where we (as experimenters) are able to evaluate answer quality. In [§5,](#page-5-0) we evaluate our approach on three real-world datasets, Inside Airbnb $(AIR)^3$ $(AIR)^3$, American Time-Use Survey $(ATUS)^4$ $(ATUS)^4$, and World Values Survey $(WVS)^5$ $(WVS)^5$, by comparing our system's answers to the answers estimated from these datasets. We develop our prompts on subsets of Inside Airbnb and American Time-Use Survey, and evaluate on held-out subsets of these two datasets, as well as on World Value Survey, which we held out completely during system development.

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2 PROBLEM SETUP

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122 123 124 125 126 127 128 Let Q denote a question about some *novel* situation to some agent—in the sense that there is not enough prior experience to answer the question *directly*. Concretely, consider the example question, "What would the age be for a widow living in California?" Without direct prior knowledge (e.g. from having met many Widows in California or from looking up census data), formulating sensible answers to such questions requires drawing on and integrating bits of common knowledge about how Widowness and Location may relate to *other* variables like Occupation of their spouse, and whether they have any Children.

129 130 131 132 133 We can formalize such a question as a probabilistic query for a particular conditional distribution, $p(y | x \in S)$, where y is the target variable, x are the conditioning variables, and $S \subseteq X$ is the event being conditioned on. The example question above can be formalized this way as a query for $p(Age \mid Location = California, Widow = True)$. Given such a question Q, our task is to generate an estimate $\hat{p}(y | x \in \mathbb{S})$ without relying on direct data.

134 135 136 137 For simplicity, our investigation will focus on questions where there is a single target variable, where all variables are discrete (we discretize continuous variables into ranges), but it would not be difficult to generalize our method to more than one target variable and to handle continuous variables directly (via approximate inference methods such as [Minka](#page-11-1) [\(2013\)](#page-11-1)).

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3 METHOD

141 142 143 144 145 146 Our framework extracts knowledge from LLMs and integrates it to build an *ad hoc* probability model that can be used to answer the kind of questions described in $\S 2$. In $\S 3.1$, we formalize the notion of common knowledge relevant to some question Q , and how such knowledge can be integrated in a principled way to yield an *ad hoc* probability model. In [§3.2,](#page-3-0) we describe how we instantiate the formalization with a prompted-LLM as the source of common knowledge, as well as specific choices we made in terms of parameterizing the ad hoc models.

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3.1 INTEGRATING COMMON KNOWLEDGE VIA FUZZY MOMENT MATCHING

150 151 152 153 Moment Constraints Given a question Q , for example, "What would the age be for a widow living in California?", what kinds of prior knowledge might be helpful for answering it? Our main insight is to extract prior knowledge in the form of *moment-matching constraints*, that is, constraints on the (conditional) marginals over random variables that are relevant to the question Q.

154 155 156 Let's suppose for now that we are supplied with a set of variables that are relevant to the question $Q,^6$ $Q,^6$ which includes the target variable y, the conditioning variables x, and some latent variables z. Our

³ <https://insideairbnb.com/>

⁴ <https://www.bls.gov/tus/>

¹⁵⁹ 5 <https://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/wvs.jsp>

¹⁶⁰ 161 ⁶The judgement of relevance of a random variable x_1 to x_2 is a kind of prior knowledge about their joint distribution. For example, relevance could be formalized as a threshold on the mutual information $I(x_1, x_2)$, which can be derived from their joint marginal.

162 163 constraints $c_1(p), \ldots c_n(p)$ on the conditional expectations of the joint distribution p take the form

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c_i(p) : b_i = \mathbb{E}_p[f_i(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \mid g_i(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \sim p}[f_i(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \cdot g_i(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})]}{\mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \sim p}[f_i(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \cdot g_i(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})]}
$$
(1)

167 where g_i is an indicator function and f_i is a real-valued feature function.^{[7](#page-3-2)}

168 169 170 171 172 173 Why do we formalize prior knowledge as constraints on the *distribution* p rather than its *parameters*? The optimal parameters of a probability distribution are often interdependent and change with the model structure. Adding new latent variables z to a model may change the optimal parameters in other parts of the model. However, conditional expectations are stable across different model structures since they are properties of the world, not properties of the model. This makes it possible to elicit them individually from an LLM.

Estimation Objective The constraints will be drawn from an LLM and may not be wholly correct. We optimize p to *approximately* satisfy the constraints via

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\underset{p}{\operatorname{argmin}} -H(p) + \sum_{i} w_i \left(b_i - \mathbb{E}_p \left[f_i(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \mid g_i(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \right] \right)^2 \tag{2}
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180 181 182 183 184 185 186 The hyperparameter w_i specifies the importance of each constraint c_i , which controls tradeoffs when it is not possible to satisfy all constraints at once. Rewarding the Shannon entropy $H(p)$ encourages smoother distributions when it *is* possible to satisfy all constraints [\(Jaynes, 1957\)](#page-10-1) and even when it is not. The hybrid objective [\(2\)](#page-3-1) is historically known as the fuzzy maximum-entropy objective (Chen $\&$ [Rosenfeld, 2000;](#page-10-2) [Dudík et al., 2007\)](#page-10-3) because it does not require the constraints to be satisfied exactly. Other reasonable variants are reviewed by [Kazama & Tsujii](#page-11-2) [\(2005\)](#page-11-2) and could be used here. Our innovation is to obtain the constraints from an LLM instead of from a data sample as in past work.

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3.2 EXTRACTING COMMONSENSE FROM LLMS FOR PROBABILISTIC INFERENCE

190 191 192 193 194 We develop a concrete pipeline to build models as in [§3.1](#page-2-4) with LLMs as the knowledge source. In particular, the pipeline involves three stages of prompting: given a question Q , we identify (a) relevant variables and (b) pairs of interacting variables, allowing us to elicit (c) numerical constraints c. We can then (d) formulate a log-linear family of distributions p and optimize equation [\(2\)](#page-3-1) over that family.

196 197 198 199 (a) Brainstorming Relevant Variables Given a question Q expressed in natural language, we prompt an LLM to brainstorm in free-form text, specifying the target variable y, the conditioning variables x, and any additional variables z by giving them names as well as a list of possible values $\mathbb{Y}, \mathbb{X}, \mathbb{Z}$ that they can take on.

200 201 202 203 Specifically, we prompt with the system message in Appendix [A.1.1](#page-12-0) followed by the single (1-shot) example in Appendix [A.1.2.](#page-13-0) The example's input is not from any of the domains we evaluate on; we obtained the example's output by lightly editing the 0-shot output from a strong LLM (namely GPT-4o).

204 205 We then prompt the LLM to translate this free-form answer into a machine-readable JSON object, including variable definitions.

206 207 208 209 For evaluation purposes, we also supply in user prompt name of the target variable y, all its possible values defined in the dataset, and encourage the LLM to include it in its variables. However, to ensure that the target variable is always used exactly, we do not extract it during translation and instead add it into the list of variables.

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²¹¹ 212 213 214 215 ⁷In our experiments, f_i will always be an indicator function as well, so the conditional expectations are simply conditional probabilities of our discrete random variables. However, allowing real-valued f_i would let us constrain the means, variances, and covariances of random variables. In the future, we might further broaden the constraint language. For example, one might ask the LLM about the differences or ratios of conditional expectations—"cats weigh less than dogs on average"—or the conditional entropy or mutual information of random variables. The LLM could also be asked for prediction intervals rather than point estimates, resulting in interval constraints.

216 217 218 219 (b) Choosing Quantities to Constrain We prompt the LLM to brainstorm interacting pairs of variables from stage (a), choose the best few pairs, and finally decide for each chosen pair $\{v_1, v_2\}$ whether to constrain $p(v_1 | v_2)$ or $p(v_2 | v_1)$. This prompt includes the brainstorming message from stage (a).

220 221 222 223 As before, we then prompt the LLM to translate this free-form list of conditional distributions into a JSON object. We then drop any z and x variables from the model that are not connected (directly or indirectly) to the target variable y, and thus drop conditional distributions mentioning those variables.

224 225 226 227 (c) Eliciting the Numerical Targets Now, for each surviving conditional distribution $p(v_1 | v_2)$, we ask the LLM to supply the numerical conditional probabilities. Specifically, for each $v_2 \in V_2$, we prompt the LLM to generate a natural language query Q' for the distribution $p(\mathrm{v}_1 | \mathrm{v}_2 = v_2)$, and then prompt the LLM separately to return that distribution as a vector of dimension $|\mathbb{V}_1|$.

228 229 230 231 (In principle, we could constrain the distribution of v_1 for only certain proposed values $v_2 = v_2$. We leave this possibility to future work, along the possibility of eliciting conditional or joint probabilities involving more than 2 variables.)

232 233 234 235 Using the same method of generating natural language questions Q' , we prompt for the unary marginal distribution $p(v)$ for each variable v. We similarly prompt for the distribution $p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x})$, which corresponds to the original question Q (or a backed-off version of it, if some of the variables in x were dropped).

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237 238 239 240 241 (d) Optimizing a Log-linear Model We now choose a distribution p that approximately has the elicited conditional and marginal probabilities, by optimizing equation [\(2\)](#page-3-1). Specifically, we define a log-linear family of models p_θ and optimize θ by batch gradient descent. The features of the log-linear model are all and only the indicator functions f_i and g_i that are necessary to express the list of unary and pairwise constraints (but not necessarily Q). The factor graph of this joint model contains only pairwise and unary potential functions that correspond to the proposed constraints.

242 243 244 We use brute force summation to exactly compute the conditional probabilities in equation (2) .^{[8](#page-4-0)} As for the weights w_i in equation [\(2\)](#page-3-1), we use $w_i = c$ for some constant c to balance between constraint satisfaction and entropy smoothing.^{[9](#page-4-1)} We empirically choose c on development data.

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4 RELATED WORK

249 250 251 252 253 254 255 256 257 Large language models perform remarkably well on a diverse and challenging set of benchmarks [\(Ouyang et al., 2022;](#page-11-3) [Anthropic Team, 2024;](#page-10-4) [Gemini Team, 2024\)](#page-10-5). Their effectiveness [\(Bubeck](#page-10-6) [et al., 2023\)](#page-10-6) is perhaps unsurprising, as they absorb vast amounts of world knowledge from their pretraining data [\(Petroni et al., 2019;](#page-11-4) [AlKhamissi et al., 2022\)](#page-10-7). On the other hand, their reasoning is brittle and is often based on shortcuts rather than sound inference rules [\(Saparov & He, 2023;](#page-11-5) ?; [Dziri et al., 2023\)](#page-10-8). Some studies suggest that learning sound reasoning from samples may be too challenging due to statistical shortcuts [\(Geirhos et al., 2020\)](#page-10-9), even if a deep architecture like Transformer (?) can in principle implement it [\(Zhang et al., 2022\)](#page-11-6). Many methods have thus been developed to extract better reasoning from LLMs in hopes of making better predictions with them. Within this direction, two ideas are immediately relevant to our work.

258 259 260 261 262 263 264 The first idea is using LLMs to brainstorm various pieces of relevant common knowledge about a question and then aggregating them to arrive at a prediction. [Wang et al.](#page-11-7) [\(2023\)](#page-11-7); [Yao et al.](#page-11-8) [\(2023\)](#page-11-8); [Besta et al.](#page-10-10) [\(2024\)](#page-10-10); [Jung et al.](#page-11-0) [\(2022\)](#page-11-0) all do so by aggregating over multiple reasoning paths. Viewed through the lens of brainstorming relevant knowledge and aggregation, our work introduces a new unit of common knowledge—that of a moment constraint on a probability distribution. We also propose a corresponding aggregation procedure of optimizing a shared underlying probabilistic model to agree with all the constraints.

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⁸In our experiments, we instruct the LLM to propose at most 4 variables, and to select no more edges than variables , which makes this feasible. Scaling up to larger models will require approximate inference algorithms which may introduce additional sources of error.

²⁶⁸ 269 ⁹A more sophisticated option would be to place more weight on constraints where the LLM is more confident in the target value b_i . Another possibility would be to downweight constraints on variables and pairs of variables with many values, so that the objective function is not dominated by the many constraints that they yield.

270 271 272 273 274 275 276 Another related idea is to augment LLMs with formal reasoning components such as external symbolic reasoning engines and soft verifiers [\(Lyu et al., 2023;](#page-11-9) [Xu et al., 2024;](#page-11-10) [Pan et al., 2023;](#page-11-11) [Bostrom et al.,](#page-10-11) [2022;](#page-10-11) [Ling et al., 2023\)](#page-11-12). Our method can be viewed as augmenting LLMs with a formal reasoning engine that includes both fuzzy moment matching to infer the parameters of a graphical model and probabilistic inference to make predictions from the graphical model. While the cited works focus on improving the *logical* reasoning of LLMs, we study how to improve the *probabilistic* reasoning of LLMs.

277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 Particularly worth mentioning is the maieutic prompting method of [Jung et al.](#page-11-0) [\(2022\)](#page-11-0), which takes inspiration from both lines of ideas—they brainstorm latent propositions by abductive reasoning, and then solve a joint constraint satisfaction problem to guess which propositions are true (and in particular, whether the original query Q is true). Their method can be viewed as performing *MAP* inference under a factor graph consisting of binary random variables corresponding to propositions, and with unary factors and binary factors whose parameters are extracted from LLMs and pretrained NLI models. They use a recursive algorithm to create an initial tree of propositions, and later add edges between all pairs of propositions. On the other hand, our method performs *marginal* inference over a factor graph of categorical variables corresponding to properties of situations in the world; our graph structure is directly proposed by an LLM is and usually sparser. The parameters of our graphical model are found by optimizing a set of LLM-proposed constraints on its various marginal distributions.

289 290 291 292 293 294 295 Probabilistic reasoning using LLMs has been relatively under-explored as a research problem. In a position paper, [Dohan et al.](#page-10-12) [\(2022\)](#page-10-12) propose to view prompted LLMs as conditional distributions over strings and the orchestration of LLM calls as a probabilistic program over strings [\(van de Meent](#page-11-13) [et al., 2021\)](#page-11-13). More recently, [Nafar et al.](#page-11-14) [\(2024\)](#page-11-14) use LLMs to generate probabilistic programs that get executed to produce distributions that answer probabilistic questions. However, crucially, their focus is more on abstract reasoning problems and requires as input the definition of a probabilistic model. Our work focuses on building that probabilistic model with the help of a LLM.

296 297 298 299 300 301 302 Researchers in Psychology and Cognitive Science have long explored the probability judgments in humans. Our work is also motivated by theories suggesting that a coherent probability judgment should be a accurate one. [Osherson et al.](#page-11-15) [\(1994;](#page-11-15) [2001\)](#page-11-16) proposed to extract from human intuitions a coherent distribution that reconciles a person's different instances of probability judgments. More recently, [Zhu & Griffiths](#page-12-1) [\(2024\)](#page-12-1) showed that LLMs exhibit similar statistical properties in their probability judgments. However, despite the theoretical soundness, empirical results in this area have been mixed [\(Zhu et al., 2022\)](#page-12-2), and there often is a lack of correlation between a coherent judgement and an accurate judgment.

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5 EXPERIMENTS

We perform two experiments. [§5.1](#page-6-0) studies whether our model-building pipeline helps end-to-end performance in answering questions of the form introduced in [§2.](#page-2-3) [§5.2](#page-7-0) tests the effectiveness of our two prompting stages [\(§3.2\)](#page-3-0), by measuring the effect of intervening on their results in various ways.^{[10](#page-5-1)} All of our experiments use the following setup.

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Task As described in [§2,](#page-2-3) the task is to provide an estimate \hat{p} (a normalized vector of size $|\mathbb{Y}|$) to a probability distribution $p(y | x \in \mathbb{S})$ described by a natural language question Q.

315 Metric To evaluate the quality of an estimate \hat{p} , we compute its Total Variation Distance from a reference distribution p,

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TVD(p, \hat{p}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Y}} |\hat{p}(y) - p(y)| \tag{3}
$$

Datasets To evaluate our system, we need questions Q paired with reference distributions p . To do so, we derived questions from three publicly available tabular datasets spanning domains including short term rentals (Inside Airbnb), daily activities rental (American Time-Use Survey), and personal

 10 This may be reminiscent of interventional studies on internal activations of neural networks (mechanistic interpretability).

324 325 326 attitudes (World Values Survey). We first describe the datasets briefly, then how we generate a set of questions given the contents of the dataset.

327 328 329 330 The Inside Airbnb^{[11](#page-6-1)} dataset (AIR) is a publicly available dataset of property rental listings across cities in the United States during 2023. Data for a city is collected by Inside Airbnb if its part of a list of major cities, or upon community request. Among the available cities, we randomly sample six cities to use in our evaluation, plus one more for tuning prompts and hyper-parameters.

331 332 333 334 The American Time-Use Survey^{[12](#page-6-2)} (ATUS) is a publicly available census dataset that collects metadata about how people in the United States spend their time over the course of the week. The data is published yearly, and we choose data from years 2018, 2020, 2022 for evaluation, while using 2023 data for development.

335 336 337 The World Values Survey^{[13](#page-6-3)} (WVS) is a survey dataset that collects demographic data about individuals in various countries and their responses to questions that probe their values. We randomly sample six countries for evaluation, and hold out this domain entirely for evaluation.

- **338** More details on the three datasets and their pre-processing is discussed in Appendix [B.](#page-24-0)
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340 341 342 343 344 345 346 347 348 349 Question Generation We randomly sample formal probability queries with n conditions based on the schema of the datasets, and translate them to natural language with the help of a LLM (we generate natural language questions given a formal query, and manually fix any errors). Specifically, for each dataset, and each $n \in \{0, 1, 2\}$, we first generate the set of all possible queries of the form $p(y | x_1 = x_1, \ldots, x_n = x_n)$, and then filter it down by requiring that at least one of the conditions changes the distribution over the target variable y by ≥ 0.05 in terms of total variation distance. Then we sample 6 questions uniformly from this set. For comparability, the questions for a given dataset and n are reused across all values of the split variable (city for AIR, year for ATUS, or country for WVS), with the question being additionally conditioned on this value. We refer to these as the Main questions.

350 351 352 353 354 For AIR and ATUS, we also generate a Focus set of questions by repeating the same sampling process described above, except with an additional filter that the target variable y must be Price or Activity, respectively. This provides a set of questions that is more focused. We chose Activity and Price because they potentially interact with many other random variables from their respective domains.

LLM Calls Unless otherwise noted, we use GPT-4o-mini as the LLM in our experiments. All LLM calls are made at temperature 0.2, with a max token of 4096 (the default in LangChain OpenAI).

358 359 5.1 END-TO-END EVALUATION

360 361 362 363 We evaluate our pipeline end-to-end on the World Values Survey (WVS), which was not used to develop the pipeline. For completeness, we also evaluate on the held-out subsets of Inside Airbnb (AIR) and American Time-Use Survey (ATUS).

364 365 366 367 368 Direct Prompting We compare against the obvious baseline of simply asking the LLM to answer Q, using a chain-of-thought prompt ("zero-shot CoT") at temperature 0.2. To ensure that the baseline enjoys a comparable amount of computation time, we actually call the LLM many times and average the resulting distributions \hat{p} . The number of calls is chosen to match the average number of calls made for extracting moment constraints in stage (b) of our pipeline.

370 371 Restricted Variables We also report the performance of our pipeline when we prompt it to use only variables in the dataset's schema (see [§5.2](#page-7-0) below for details).

372 373 374 375 The results are given in Table [1.](#page-7-1) Figure [2](#page-7-2) breaks them down by the number of conditions $|x|$ specified in the question. Figure [4](#page-12-3) in the appendices compares TVD of our method to the baseline on each question separately, using a scatterplot.

¹¹<https://insideairbnb.com/>

¹²<https://www.bls.gov/tus/>

¹³<https://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/wvs.jsp>

Figure 2: Breakdown of the end-to-end evaluation [\(§5.1\)](#page-6-0) by number of conditions in the question.

Table 1: Average total variation distance against dataset distribution over questions as well as splits for subsets of questions Main and Focus respectively. We boldface the best result in each column along with all results that are not significantly worse (paired permutation test, $p < 0.05$).

		Main			Focus	
	ATUS	AIR		WVS ATUS AIR		WVS
Direct $(\S 5.1)$			0.094 $\overline{0.204}$ 0.166 $\overline{0.123}$ 0.175			
Ours (83)			0.099 0.203 0.163 0.123 0.180			
Ours, restricted vars $(\S 5.1)$ 0.105 0.190 - 0.182 0.164						

 Discussion of Results Unfortunately, constructing and querying an *ad hoc* model was not more accurate than simply asking the LLM. The target questions Q that we derived from these datasets were arguably too easy for our rather powerful LLM, GPT-4o-mini. The baseline system was already able to answer them with rather low TVD.

 As a consolation, at least our method did not hurt. There are many ways that it could have gone wrong: after all, we were using natural language to obtain many imperfect numeric constraints and feeding them into a joint optimization problem. We had feared that the compounded noise in this process might swamp the signal. However, in practice the elicited constraints on both Q and other conditional probabilities tended to be rather accurate in this domain.^{[14](#page-7-3)} Respecting these additional constraints simply did not change the answer much, either for better or for worse (see Figure [4\)](#page-12-3).

 Thus, an optimistic interpretation of the results is that our approach is viable, but that we would need to construct more difficult guesstimation problems or commonsense reasoning problems to show its value. Our approach will only help on problems where the LLM does not know how to answer the target question Q, but does know how to identify and answer other questions whose answers jointly imply an answer to Q.

 We also discuss possible improvements to our method in [§6,](#page-8-0) which might help on such a domain or on the current domain.

5.2 INTERVENTION EXPERIMENTS

 We wish to study whether our method finds useful latent variables, whether stage (b)'s proposed directions are helpful, and whether the elicited numeric constraints are accurate. This leads to the following set of interventions:

> 1. Randomly replacing a latent variable z with a different one after stages (a) and (b). This affects the natural-language questions that we ask at stage (c).

 We assessed them during pilot experiments on AIR to have an average TVD of 0.11. However, those results used the stronger GPT-4o model; we will add a formal evaluation using GPT-4o-mini.

¹⁵This requires stage (a) to propose the variables and also requires stage (b) not to discard them (see $\S 3.2$).

- 2. Randomly reverting the direction of the query $v_1 | v_2$ to be $v_2 | v_1$ after stage (b). Again, this affects the questions at stage (c).
- **435**
- **436**

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> 3. Interpolating each elicited numeric constraint after stage (c) with the oracle value computed from the dataset.

437 438 439 440 For all intervention experiments, we omit the constraint on $p(y | x = x)$, which corresponds to the original question Q. This constraint often has so much influence on the final result that it would mask the effect of the intervention.

441 442 443 444 Intervention 3 is possible only when the proposed variables appear as fields in the dataset so that we can get oracle values. Therefore, in that experiment—for both intervention 3 and its control condition—we modify the prompt of stage (a) to include the dataset schema (variable names along with their possible values) and to instruct the LLM to confine its brainstorming to these options.

445 446 447 448 449 We also use this modified prompt for intervention 1 and its control condition. This ensures a controlled comparison: it asks whether the LLM chooses wisely from among the schema variables, compared to the random choice of schema variable made by intervention 1. With the original prompt, the difference in performance might only reflect whether schema variables are more or less useful than non-schema variables.

450 451 452 453 454 455 456 1 and 2 are ablations that we expect to hurt performance. For 1, we randomly choose $i \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ number of variables that is not the target or the condition, and substitute uniformly from variables from the schema that's not already included. For 2, we randomly chose $j \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ pairwise constraints to flip the direction. For both 1 and 2, since not all graphs have enough variables / edges that can be intervened on, we restrict our analysis to the subset of questions where the proposed model supports interventions of 3 node substitutions and 3 pairwise constraint reversals. (See Figure [3,](#page-9-0) columns 1 and 2.)

457 458 459 460 461 462 3 is an oracle intervention that we expect to help performance. We mix proposed distributions in stage (b) with the oracle distribution computed from the dataset at weight $w \in [0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0]$, where $w = 0$ corresponds to no intervention, and $w = 1.0$ corresponds to using oracle numeric constraints. We also tried *hurting* performance by substituting a random distribution for the oracle distribution, drawing it uniformly from the simplex of probability distributions. (See Figure [3,](#page-9-0) columns 3 and 4.)

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464 465 466 467 Discussion of Results Columns 1 and 2 of Figure [3](#page-9-0) suggest that perturbing the selection of variables or the direction of the conditional probabilities did not significantly affect the average gap between our method and the baseline. In other words, the LLM may not have made the best choices at these steps, despite our prompts.

468 469 470 471 472 473 474 475 Column 3 of Figure [3](#page-9-0) provides a sanity check that as our constraints move towards the oracle, the error moves to 0. Unfortunately, this plot alone does not tease apart the contributions of moving the brainstorming queries produced by stages (a) and (b) towards oracle and moving the query corresponding to Q towards the oracle. Even though we don't explicitly add it in the intervention experiments, stages (a) and (b) often propose a query corresponding to the question Q by themselves. This suggests additional studies to separate the effect of a good answer Q during brainstorming, and the effect of good answers to *other* related queries. Fortunately, column 4 of Figure [3](#page-9-0) shows that artificial IID noise does not hurt our method by more than it hurts the direct-prompt baseline.

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6 FUTURE WORK

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480 481 482 483 Further prompt engineering might potentially help our system find crucial combinations of constraints that would improve on the baseline system. We cannot rule out the possibility that such constraints existed in our experiments and we simply failed to find them; we could use brute force exploration to check if they exist.

484 485 Stage (d) of our pipeline [\(§3.2\)](#page-3-0) adds constraints to our model, but at the same time it expands the model family by creating additional parameters to help satisfy those constraints. As this may lead to overfitting, it might be wise to regularize our model objective [\(2\)](#page-3-1) beyond the entropy term $H(p)$.

 Figure 3: Results of intervention experiments [\(§5.1\)](#page-6-0). "Us" in this figure refers to our approach. Top row corresponds to results on the Main set of questions on AIR domain, bottom row corresponds to the Main set of questions on ATUS domain. Columns 1 and 2 visualize results of interventions 1 and 2, which randomly replaces zero to two latent variables with a different one after stages (a) and (b) of [§3.2,](#page-3-0) and randomly reverses the direction of zero to three queries $v_1 | v_2$ to $v_2 | v_1$ after stage (b), respectively. Their x -axes denote the number of intervened nodes/queries, and their y -axes denote the average $TVD(p, \hat{p}_{us}) - TVD(p, \hat{p}_{direct\ prompt})$. The error bars denote one standard deviation of the average. Columns 3 and 4 correspond to intervention 3-oracle and intervention 3-noise. Their x -axes are the interpolation coefficient, and their y-axes are $TVD(p, \hat{p}_{us})$.

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 The LLM could also provide more precise information about how to penalize deviations from each constraint c_i , for example by providing a weight w_i , an interval on the target b_i , or a full loss function. The objective [\(2\)](#page-3-1) could also be extended by asking the model p to satisfy other kinds of constraints extracted from the LLM, such as relative probabilities (see footnote [7\)](#page-3-2).

 For simplicity, our implementation focused on models with a small number of categorical variables and only unary and binary factors. Future work should extend this to continuous variables as well as larger models, which may require approximate inference algorithms such as belief propagation and expectation propagation.

 Our method builds an *ad hoc* model p_{θ} that can answer the original question Q, but p_{θ} can be interrogated further with additional probabilistic queries about its variables. Answers to those questions may be useful for interpreting the answer to the original question Q , and they may be compared against reference distributions computed from datasets to further assess the model.

 Furthermore, p_{θ} can identify likely situations and marginally likely values for y and z. In principle, those could be fed back into a second round of brainstorming to further refine the model in highprobability regions of the outcome space—for example by introducing new latent variables or adjusting the granularity of existing variables.

 We primarily used GPT-4o-mini for our experiments due to limited budgets. However, most LLM calls are spent on eliciting numerical targets in stage (c), we can use more powerful LLMs for stage (a) and (b), which can potentially improve the design of the ad hoc model.

 Finally, future work should investigate when to trust the LLM. Confidence estimation could be used to upweight more accurate constraints in the optimization objective. In some cases, the LLM estimates might be improved (calibrated) with a small amount of supervised training data. For example, we might discover that the LLM tends to overestimate certain kinds of probabilities, and attempt to automatically correct these.

 Figure 4: Scatterplot of the total variation distance against reference, Us versus Direct Prompt, on the Main set of questions for Inside Airbnb. Each point in the plot corresponds to a question from Main on a particular evaluation split (one of Ashville, Austin, Chicago, New Orleans, Pacific Grove, and Rhode Island), averaged over three random executions at temperature 0.2. The color of a point denote the number of conditions in the question. The other domains (ATUS and WVS) and the other set of questions (Focus) show a similar pattern in their scatterplots (not shown here).

Jian-Qiao Zhu and Thomas L. Griffiths. Incoherent probability judgments in large language models, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2401.16646>.

Jian-Qiao Zhu, Philip W.S. Newall, Joakim Sundh, Nick Chater, and Adam N. Sanborn. Clarifying the relationship between coherence and accuracy in probability judgments. *Cognition*, 223: 105022, 2022. ISSN 0010-0277. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2022.105022. URL <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0010027722000105>.

- A APPENDIX
- A.1 PROMPTS
- A.1.1 VARIABLE PROPOSAL

 SYSTEM

 You are a data scientist.

 You must design a graphical model to estimate conditional probabilities in a certain domain. The domain and the requested probabilities will be specified informally in REQUEST, so you must formalize the REQUEST into an Outcomes space, and defining categorical random Variables with mutually exclusive Values on the Outcomes space. The Outcomes space is a set of tuples that

702 703 704 705 706 represents all the possible Values combinations. DOMAIN, on the other hand, is one concise sentence that summarizes the entire Outcomes space. DOMAIN is thus a succinct summary of the population of the model, to provide to your colleagues. For simplicity, DOMAIN should omit information that the colleagues would assume by default. In other words, DOMAIN inlcudes simple background information, and only some Variables whose sets of Values on the Outcomes are non-trivial.

707 708 709 710 The Variables must be sufficient to answer the REQUEST and contain all possible Values on the Outcomes. That is, you must design your model so that the REQUEST can be formalized as $P(X_0 \mid$ $X_1 \in x_1, \ldots, X_k \in x_k$, where each X_i is one of your model Variables and x_i is some subset of its defined Values.

711 712 713 714 715 716 Although the REQUEST may specify Values of the Variables, the size of the model's Outcomes space is up to you to decide, i.e. you may define Values not specified in the REQUEST. This may allow us to use the model for other similar REQUESTs. In other words, the model may have an Outcomes space larger than implied in the REQUEST, on which the Variables can take Values that are not mentioned by REQUEST. If you choose a larger Outcomes space, make sure that the REQUEST can still be formalized exactly in the model.

717 718 719 720 You may also include additional Variables not mentioned by the REQUEST. These Variables can be very useful in mediating the relationships between X_0 and X_1, \ldots, X_k . However, they should be concrete and unambiguous.

721 722 723 There can be at most 4 Variables in total, each with at most 5 Values. However, fewer Values enables more robust estimations. You can reduce the number of Values by grouping them into coarser categories, while still having enough granularity to express the REQUEST.

- **724 725** For simplicity, do not model missing data or edge cases, i.e. do not include Values like 'Unspecified' or 'Other'.
- **726 727** **Keep the Values categories concrete and precise. DO NOT USE Values like 'Other'.**
- **728** For Variables that are numeric in nature, use precise ranges.
- **729 730** Variables with one Value will not count toward the limit of 4, but still must be mentioned in the DOMAIN.
- **731 732** Some Variables may be supplied to you. Include them if appropriate.

733 734 735 Discuss the design details of your model. First identify the potential Variables in the REQUEST, and whether it will help to include other Values. Again, you are free to define Values not in the REQUEST so we can reuse the model, or fit the model with a larger dataset.

736 737 738 739 From this, decide the appropriate Outcomes size, i.e. whether a larger Outcomes will be helpful. Afterwards, define the Variables (including any additional Variables not in REQUEST) accordingly, with all possible Values on the Outcomes. Then, derive the DOMAIN from discussing each Variable's Values, and whether the Values set needs to be mentioned.

- **740** In the end, state the Variables, the DOMAIN in one sentence, and the formalized REQUEST.
- **741 742**

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743 A.1.2 ONE-SHOT EXAMPLE FOR VARIABLE PROPOSAL

746 747 748 REQUEST: For a horror movie released in United States between 1980 and 2000 rated as 'R', what is its probability distribution of total profit?

749 Supplied Variables:

750 Profit Range: 'Less than \$10M'; '\$10M - \$50M'; '\$50M - \$100M'; 'Over \$100M'

- **751 752** ASSISTANT
- **753** ### Design Details
- **754 755** ### Potential Variables in the REQUEST:
	- 1. **Genre**: The genre is specified as horror.

⁷⁴⁵ USER

756 757 758 759 760 761 762 763 764 765 766 767 768 769 770 771 772 773 774 775 776 777 778 779 780 781 782 783 784 785 786 787 788 789 790 791 792 793 794 795 796 797 798 799 800 801 802 803 804 805 806 807 808 809 2. **Country of Release**: This is specified as the United States. 3. **Release Period**: This is specified as between 1980 and 2000. 4. **Rating**: This is specified as 'R'. 5. **Profit Range**: Supplied with specific categories. ### Additional Variables: 1. **Production Budget**: This could be an important variable to include, as it can significantly affect the total profit. 2. **Critical Acclaim**: This is subjective and hard to obtain data for, so it will not be included. ### Deciding on the Outcomes Space To make the model more reusable and provide more robust estimations, I will include other categories for the rating. This will allow us to use the model for other similar requests in the future. We also add production budget as an additional Variable. ### Variables and Their Values 1. **Genre**: - Values: 'Horror' (only horror movies are of interest, fixed and does not count toward the limit of 4, mention in DOMAIN). 2. **Country of Release**: - Values: 'United States' (only US releases are of interest, fixed and does not count toward the limit of 4, mention in DOMAIN). 3. **Release Period**: - Values: '1980-1989'; '1990-2000' (to allow for some granularity in the release years, can be summarized as 1980 - 2000, mention in DOMAIN). 4. **Rating**: - Values: 'G'; 'PG'; 'PG-13'; 'R'; 'NC-17' (enlarging the rating categories to make the model more reusable, summarized as all ratings, can be left out of DOMAIN). 5. **Profit Range**: - Values: 'Less than \$10M'; '\$10M - \$50M'; '\$50M - \$100M'; 'Over \$100M' (as supplied, all profit ranges, can be left out of DOMAIN). 6. **Production Budget**: - Values: 'Less than \$10M'; '\$10M - \$50M'; 'Over \$50M' (to provide granularity in the budget, summarized as all production ranges, can be left out of DOMAIN). ### DOMAIN We need to mention the Horror genre, release in United States, released between 1980 - 2000. On the other hand, Rating (expanded), Profit Range, and Production Budget have covered all possible Values, and are rather trivial to mention. We summarize the model population as: 'Horror movies released in the United States between 1980 and 2000' ### Formalized REQUEST The formalized REQUEST is: P(Profit Range | Genre = 'Horror', Country of Release = 'United States', Release Period ∈ {'1980-1989', '1990-2000'}, Rating = 'R'). ### Summary **Variables:** 1. **Genre**:

- Values: 'Austin, TX' (fix to Austin, does not count toward the limit of 4, mention in DOMAIN).

917 SYSTEM You will be given the transcript of a statistician's model designing process. Transcribe the final Variables and DOMAIN in the provided message into JSON using a provided schema. You can

971 The formalized REQUEST is: P(Room Type | Location = 'Austin, TX', Year = '2023', Price Range ∈ {'\$201 - \$300', '\$301 - \$400', '\$401 - \$500'}, Maximum Occupancy = '4 or more people').

1022 1023 1024 1025 Avoid focusing on only the Target variable. Aim for few but strong factors. Add factors sparingly. Specifically, with N variables, NEVER propose more than N factors. For the variables you do include in the model, the variables should form a connected graph.

Start by repeating the maximum number of factors allowed, then discuss the model design.

1026 1027 1028 1029 1030 1031 1032 1033 1034 1035 1036 1037 1038 1039 1040 1041 1042 1043 1044 1045 1046 1047 1048 1049 1050 1051 1052 1053 1054 1055 1056 1057 1058 1059 1060 1061 1062 1063 1064 1065 1066 1067 1068 1069 1070 1071 1072 1073 1074 1075 1076 1077 1078 After potential options, select a final set of few but strong factors. For each factor, consider whether you will be better at guessing the values of $p(A|B)$ or $p(B|A)$. If $P(A|B)$ is easier to guess, list them in an ordered pair (A, B) to represent (Target, Condition). Otherwise, if P(B|A) is easier to guess, give (B, A). In the end, state them a list, each of which is an ordered pair of 2 strings. USER **Target Variable:** Room Type: 'entire home or apartment'; 'private room'; 'shared or hotel room' **Observed Variable:** Maximum Occupancy: '1-3 people'; '4 or more people' **Latent Variable:** Price Range: '\$201 - \$300'; '\$301 - \$400'; '\$401 - \$500' Property Type: 'House'; 'Apartment'; 'Condo'; 'Townhouse' ASSISTANT The maximum number of factors allowed is equal to the number of variables in the model. In this case, we have 5 variables: 1 Target Variable, 1 Observed Variable, and 3 Latent Variables. Therefore, we can propose a maximum of 5 factors. ### Model Design Discussion 1. **Room Type (Target Variable)** and **Maximum Occupancy (Observed Variable)**: - Question: Does Room Type vary significantly with different values of Maximum Occupancy? - Answer: Yes, different room types can accommodate different maximum occupancies. For example, an entire home or apartment typically accommodates more people than a shared or hotel room. 2. **Room Type (Target Variable)** and **Price Range (Latent Variable)**: - Question: Does Room Type vary significantly with different values of Price Range? - Answer: Yes, different room types are often associated with different price ranges. For instance, entire homes or apartments may be priced higher than shared or hotel rooms. 3. **Room Type (Target Variable)** and **Property Type (Latent Variable)**: - Question: Does Room Type vary significantly with different values of Property Type? - Answer: Yes, the type of property can influence the room type. For example, a house is more likely to be listed as an entire home or apartment compared to a condo. 4. **Maximum Occupancy (Observed Variable)** and **Price Range (Latent Variable)**: - Question: Does Maximum Occupancy vary significantly with different values of Price Range? - Answer: Yes, properties that accommodate more people may also be priced differently, often higher. 5. **Maximum Occupancy (Observed Variable)** and **Property Type (Latent Variable)**: - Question: Does Maximum Occupancy vary significantly with different values of Property Type? - Answer: Yes, different property types can have different maximum occupancies. For example, a townhouse may accommodate more people than a condo. ### Final Set of Factors After considering the relationships, I will select the following pairs of variables to form the factors in the model: 1. (Room Type, Maximum Occupancy) - It is easier to guess the Room Type given the Maximum

1079 Occupancy.

1134 1135 1136 - Answer: Yes, different property types can have different maximum occupancies. For example, a townhouse may accommodate more people than a condo.

- **1137** ### Final Set of Factors
- **1138 1139** After considering the relationships, I will select the following pairs of variables to form the factors in the model:
- **1140 1141 1142** 1. (Room Type, Maximum Occupancy) - It is easier to guess the Room Type given the Maximum Occupancy.
- **1143** 2. (Room Type, Price Range) - It is easier to guess the Room Type given the Price Range.
- **1144** 3. (Room Type, Property Type) - It is easier to guess the Room Type given the Property Type.
- **1145 1146 1147** 4. (Maximum Occupancy, Price Range) - It is easier to guess the Maximum Occupancy given the Price Range.
- **1148 1149** 5. (Maximum Occupancy, Property Type) - It is easier to guess the Maximum Occupancy given the Property Type.
- **1150 1151** ### List of Factors
- **1152** 1. (Maximum Occupancy, Room Type)
- **1153** 2. (Price Range, Room Type)
- **1154 1155** 3. (Property Type, Room Type)
- **1156** 4. (Price Range, Maximum Occupancy)
- **1157 1158** 5. (Property Type, Maximum Occupancy)

1159 1160 This selection of factors creates a connected graph that effectively captures the relationships between the variables while focusing on strong predictive capabilities for the target variable.

- **1161** **VARIABLE NAMES:** (Use Name exactly as defined below)
- **1162 1163** 'Price Range'; 'Maximum Occupancy'; 'Property Type'; 'Room Type';
- **1164** ASSISTANT

1165 1166 1167 1168 1169 {"Features": [{"Target": {"Name": "Room Type"}, "Condition": {"Name": "Maximum Occupancy"}}, {"Target": {"Name": "Room Type"}, "Condition": {"Name": "Price Range"}}, {"Target": {"Name": "Room Type"}, "Condition": {"Name": "Property Type"}}, {"Target": {"Name": "Maximum Occupancy"}, "Condition": {"Name": "Price Range"}}, {"Target": {"Name": "Maximum Occupancy"}, "Condition": {"Name": "Property Type"}}]}

- **1170 1171**
- **1172** A.1.7 QUESTION GENERATION EXAMPLE
- **1173**

1174 1175 1176 SYSTEM You will translate a formalized request for a (conditional) distribution into a concise question expressed in natural language. The formalized request contains three entries: DOMAIN, TARGET, CONDITION. formalized request is for P(TARGET | $X_0 \in x_0, \ldots, X_k \in x_k$) under the DOMAIN.

- **1177** DOMAIN provides background information for the request.
- **1178 1179** TARGET is the VARIABLE whose distribution is requested.
- **1180** CONDITION provide a (possibly empty) list of conditions, each in the form 'X_i ∈ x_i'. The request is conditioned on VARIABLE X_i taking any value in the set x_i.
- **1181 1182**
- **1183** USER
- **1184** DOMAIN: Airbnb listings in Austin, TX in 2023 with a price between \$201 and \$500.
- **1185** TARGET: Maximum Occupancy: ['1-3 people'; '4 or more people']
- **1186 1187** CONDITION: Price Range ∈ 2208 ['\$401 - \$500']

ASSISTANT

1296 1297 1298 {"Target": {"Name": "Room Type", "Value": ["entire home or apartment", "private room", "shared or hotel room"]}, "Probability": [0.7, 0.25, 0.05]}

B ADDITIONAL DETAILS ON DATASET AND PREPROCESSING

1301 1302 B.1 DATASET SPLITS

- 1. On Inside Airbnb, we use Ashville, Austin, Chicago, New Orleans, Pacific Grove, and Rhode Island for evaluation, and Twin Cities for development.
	- 2. On American Time-Use survey, we use 2018, 2020, 2022 as evaluation, and 2023 as development.
	- 3. On World Values Survey, we use Malaysia, New Zealand, Rwanda, Sweden, United States, and Uruguay for evaluation, and no development.

1310 1311 B.2 PREPROCESSING

1312 1313 1314 1315 For each dataset, we use a subset of all available columns. We also discretize any continuous data into ranges, and coarsen any discrete variables with too many values. All such choices were made before any significant tuning of the prompts and hyper-parameters of our pipeline or the prompt for zero-shot Chain-of-Thought baseline.

1317 B.2.1 INSIDE AIRBNB

1318 1319 1320 1321 Many columns of the Inside Airbnb dataset have missing values for a significant proportion of rows. We thus ignored any column with too high a proportion of missing values, and then manually picked a subset of 8 columns that we judged to be interesting. The processed variables and their possible values are included in Table [2.](#page-24-1)

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1335 B.2.2 AMERICAN TIME-USE SURVEY

1336 1337 1338 We use most of the frequently used subset^{[16](#page-24-2)} of ATUS. The processed variables and their possible values are included in Table [3.](#page-25-0)

1339 1340 B.2.3 WORLD VALUES SURVEY

1341 1342 Again, we manually picked most of the objective demographics variables as well as columns that are not too granular. The processed variables and their possible values are included in Table [4.](#page-25-1)

1344 1345 C EXAMPLE QUESTIONS

1346 1347 C.1 AIRBNB

1348 1349 Split: Chicago, IL

¹⁶<https://www.bls.gov/tus/other-documentation/freqvariables.pdf>

Table 4: Schema for our processed World Values Survey dataset.

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1397 Target:

1398 Number of Bathrooms: shared or single bathroom; 2 bathrooms; 3 or more bathrooms

1399 Conditions:

1400 1401 Number of Bedrooms = 3 Bedrooms

1402 Natural Language Question:

1403 For an Airbnb listing with 3 bedrooms in Chicago, IL in 2023, what is the probability distribution of its number of bathrooms?

