

SCITAT: A Question Answering Benchmark for Scientific Tables and Text Covering Diverse Reasoning Types

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Scientific question answering (SQA) is an important task aimed at answering questions based on papers. However, current SQA datasets have limited reasoning types and neglect the relevance between tables and text, creating a significant gap with real scenarios. To address these challenges, we propose a QA benchmark for scientific tables and text with diverse reasoning types (SCITAT). To cover more reasoning types, we summarize various reasoning types from real-world questions. To involve both tables and text, we require the questions to incorporate tables and text as much as possible. Based on SCITAT, we propose a strong baseline (CAR), which combines various reasoning methods to address different reasoning types and process tables and text at the same time. CAR brings average improvements of 12.9% over other baselines on SCITAT, validating its effectiveness. Error analysis reveals the challenges of SCITAT, such as complex numerical calculations and domain knowledge.

1 Introduction

Scientific Question Answering (SQA) plays a crucial role in addressing research questions based on scientific papers (Tsatsaronis et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2023). Advancing SQA development can significantly accelerate knowledge acquisition (Taylor et al., 2022; AI4Science and Quantum, 2023). However, the dense technical terms and heterogeneous data representations in papers present challenges for the SQA task (Pramanick et al., 2024).

To evaluate and enhance the model capabilities in SQA, numerous datasets are proposed (Pampari et al., 2018; Pappas et al., 2020; Jin et al., 2019). However, existing datasets exhibit the following limitations, as shown in Table 1. Firstly, the **reasoning types are relatively narrow**, failing to capture the complexity of real scenarios, such as data analysis, which is frequently encountered in actual queries. Secondly, prior works **focus only on split**

Dataset	Reasoning Type				Evidence		
	L	N	D	T	Text	Table	TaT
BioRead	✓				✓		
QASA	✓	✓	✓		✓		
SciGen			✓			✓	
SciTab	✓	✓				✓	
SPIQA	✓	✓			✓	✓	
SCITAT	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 1: Comparison of SCITAT to recent SQA datasets. TaT denotes Table and Text. L, N, D, and T denote the reasoning type of Look Up, Numerical Reasoning, Data Analysis, and Tabulation, with examples in Figure 1. We introduce the datasets in Appendix A.1.

text and tables (Lee et al., 2023; Moosavi et al., 2021; Pramanick et al., 2024), overlooking the relevance between tables and text, thereby limiting their applicability (Wang et al., 2022). To address the limitations, in this paper: (i) We introduce a new SQA benchmark, covering diverse real-scenery reasoning types and considering tables and text simultaneously. (ii) To enhance the performance on the benchmark, we propose a strong baseline, which is capable of handling multiple reasoning types and processing tables and text simultaneously.

Firstly, we propose a QA benchmark for scientific tables and text (SCITAT), which are collected from papers in arXiv.org. **To fit the actual scenario**, we summarize various reasoning types from the real questions raised by researcher (see Figure 1). **To ensure the questions involve both tables and text**, we request questions that involve both tables and text as much as possible. Overall, SCITAT contains 953 questions derived from 871 papers. Data analysis reveals that SCITAT encompasses 4 reasoning types and 13 subtypes, covering the types summarized from the real questions in SparkRA (Wu et al., 2024a) and previous works (Lu et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2024b). SCITAT not only requires the model to look up information and numerical reasoning but also requires complex

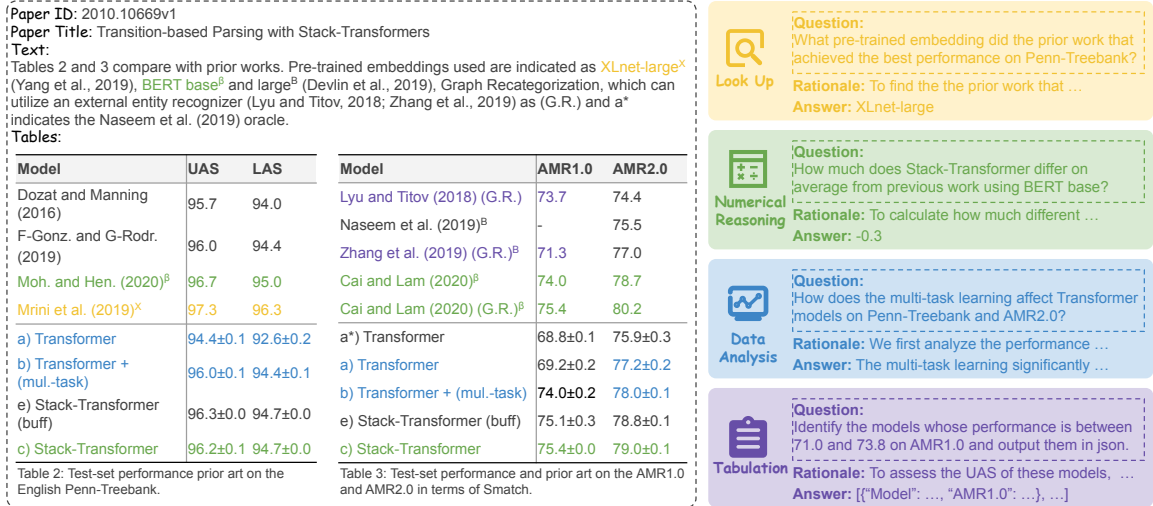


Figure 1: Illustrations of the reasoning types in SCITAT. The tables and text (left) show color-coded spans for question context. The questions (right) are examples of 4 reasoning types, with their rationales and answers.

data analysis and tabulation, effectively meeting the needs of researchers in real-world scenarios.

Considering the challenges of SCITAT, we propose a strong baseline to process scientific data by integrating reasoning methods (CAR). **To handle multiple reasoning types**, CAR includes two modules: Calculator and Reasoner. **To process tables and text**, Calculator extracts and calculates numerical information from tables and text, which is then provided to Reasoner for further reasoning.

We construct a series of baselines on SCITAT. Experimental results reveal that CAR outperforms other baselines with 12.9% on average, proving the effectiveness of the combination of Calculator and Reasoner. However, the Exact Match of CAR using gpt-4o is still below 50%, which indicates that SCITAT serves as a challenging benchmark. Error analysis reveals the main challenges of SCITAT, such as context grounding, complex numerical calculation, and the need for domain knowledge.

Our contributions are as follows:

1. To the best of our knowledge, we develop SCITAT, the first QA benchmark for scientific tables and text, covering diverse reasoning types based on real scenarios.
2. We propose CAR, a strong baseline to solve various reasoning types and process tables and text by integrating reasoning methods.
3. We conduct a series of experiments, providing results and error analysis to highlight the challenges of SCITAT, thereby guiding the direction for future improvements.

2 SCITAT Dataset

The input for the task associated with SCITAT consists of scientific tables, text, and a question, and the output is the corresponding answer. Moreover, we annotate the rationale of each question. For brevity, we refer to each question, its corresponding rationale, and answer, as an instance. We begin by describing the construction process of SCITAT. We employ a framework combining automatic annotation with manual annotation to enhance both the quality and efficiency of the annotation process, as illustrated in Figure 2.

2.1 Paper Preparation

First, we introduce the data source and preparation of the scientific papers in SCITAT. We select papers from the “Artificial Intelligence”, “Computation and Language”, and “Machine Learning” subfields of “Computer Science” following previous datasets (Lee et al., 2023; Moosavi et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2023). We collect LaTeX code from papers published between January 2020 and July 2023 on arxiv.org, using a heuristic method to extract all the tables with their corresponding captions and labels, and text in each paper. The tables are normalized into the List[List[str]] format. To ensure the inclusion of both tables and text, we filter out papers without tables. Additionally, to guarantee the relevance of the tables and text in the context, the context we provide when annotating the question is a paragraph that mentions tables and the tables mentioned. Specifically, we randomly select at least one paragraph from the paper that

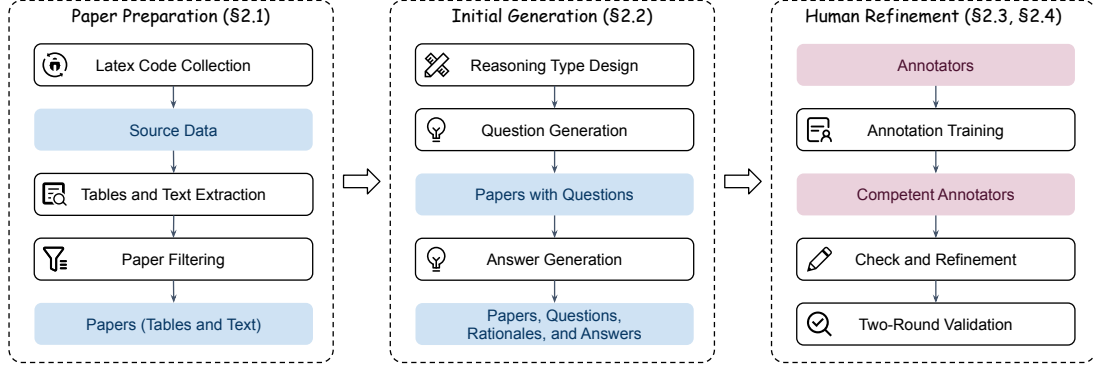


Figure 2: The overview of our annotation process. The blue boxes represent the data, the pink boxes represent the annotators, and the white boxes with solid lines represent the annotation procedures.

mentions tables and the tables that are mentioned as the context of the question.

2.2 Initial Generation

To observe the reasoning types that researchers might query, we select SParkRA (Wu et al., 2024a), a platform specifically designed to provide QA services for researchers in the context of scientific papers. We hypothesize that the reasoning types observed in these questions are comparable to those found in real-world inquiries. We randomly select 650 questions and categorize their reasoning types. To account for potentially unobserved reasoning types, we also incorporate reasoning types from previous datasets (Lu et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2024b). Finally, we summarize 4 reasoning types and 13 subtypes for SCITAT, as shown in Table 4.

We assign a reasoning type to each context, including a paragraph and mentioned tables. Manually annotating scientific questions and answers is time-consuming and prone to introducing annotation artifacts since it requires substantial domain expertise and a deep understanding of the paper (Bender and Friedman, 2018; Pramanick et al., 2024). To address these challenges, we leverage the extensive knowledge and powerful instruction-following capabilities of LLMs following previous works (Wu et al., 2024b; Zhang et al., 2024). Specifically, we utilize gpt-4o (OpenAI et al., 2024) to generate questions and answers. We guide the LLM to generate questions aligned with the reasoning type based on the context using three-shot prompt, with requirements outlined in Figure 3. We employ a Chain-of-Thought (CoT) (Wei et al., 2022) prompt with three demonstrations, guiding the LLM to generate the rationale and answer for each question according to the context. Detailed prompts are provided in Appendix B.1.

2.3 Human Refinement

Since LLMs cannot guarantee the reasonableness of the questions or the correctness of the answers, we employ manual checks and refinement. (i) For the context, annotators are tasked with verifying that the extracted tables and text are consistent with the original paper and removing any incorrect ones. (ii) For the questions, annotators should refine them following the guidelines in Figure 3. (iii) For the rationales and answers, annotators are required to verify their correctness and correct any errors. Due to the diverse reasoning types in SCITAT, our answers include both *short-form* and *free-form* types. Annotators are instructed to extract one or more tokens for short-form answers and use complete sentences for free-form answers. (iv) For the answer source, annotators are prompted to select the source of the answer, which may include *Text*, *Table*, or *Table and Text*, and identify the relevant tables. Annotators are compensated \$1 per instance.

2.4 Quality Control

To ensure the quality of SCITAT, we implement rigorous quality control strategies.

2.4.1 Competent Annotators

The annotators we employ are all graduate students majoring in artificial intelligence. Initially, the annotators undergo training sessions to learn the task and the annotation interface (see Appendix C.1) and are required to annotate 20 questions. We retain those with Exact Match $\geq 95\%$ and provide constructive feedback on their mistakes.

2.4.2 Two-round Validation

After the instances are submitted by the annotator, a two-round validation process is implemented, consisting of manual verification and revision. (i)

The requirements for generating questions

1. The question must meet the reasoning type.
2. The question is best answered by referring to both the tables and the text simultaneously.
3. The question should be with fewer statements and more reasoning and calculation.

Figure 3: The requirements for generating questions.

Statistics	Long-context	Short-context
Questions	953	953
Papers	871	871
Avg. Tables	5.2	1.1
Avg. Cells	60.8	56.6
Avg. Paragraphs	80.2	1.0
Avg. Paragraph	83.4	113.0

Table 2: The statistics of SciTAT. Avg. Tables and Avg. Cells indicate the average number of tables and the average number of cells per table. Avg. Paragraphs and Avg. |Paragraph| indicate the average number of paragraphs and the average length of each paragraph.

Statistics	Table	Text	TaT	Total
Short-form answers	234	13	93	340
Free-form answers	308	67	238	613
Total	542	80	331	953

Table 3: Question distribution over different answers and sources in SciTAT. TaT denotes the source of the Table and Text.

In the first round, a verifier examines each instance to ensure that the annotations adhere to the specified guidelines. If errors are found, the verifier communicates with the annotator and requests the corresponding corrections. (ii) In the second round, a different annotator reviews all the instances again. Any identified errors are discussed with the verifier and revised as needed.

2.5 Data Analysis

2.5.1 Basic Statistics

To better evaluate the reasoning ability across different context lengths, we propose two settings: *long-context* and *short-context*. In the long-context setting, the model should answer questions based on the whole paper. In the short-context setting, the model is required to answer questions based on a single paragraph and the tables referenced within that paragraph. We present the statistics of SciTAT in the long-context and short-context settings, as illustrated in Table 2. We also show the question distribution over different answers and sources in Table 3. Notably, over 1/3 of the questions in Sci-

TAT require reasoning that involves both tables and text simultaneously.

2.5.2 Reasoning Types

We analyze the distribution of reasoning types in SciTAT, as shown in Table 4. It can be found that SciTAT has a variety of reasoning types evenly distributed. Among these types, Data Analysis and Tabulation are identified as common patterns based on observations of real queries and are rarely represented in existing datasets.

3 CAR

CAR is designed to address the questions on the context of scientific tables and text. Given that SciTAT combines diverse reasoning types, CAR is composed into two modules: Calculator and Reasoner, as illustrated in Figure 4, which focus on different reasoning types. To process tables and text simultaneously, the Calculator extracts and computes the numerical information from the context and the Reasoner can derive the final answer based on the calculated information. The prompts we use are presented in Appendix B.2.

3.1 Calculator

The input to the Calculator consists of a question and the scientific context (including tables and text), and the output provides the numerical information necessary to answer the question. Specifically, we prompt the LLM to generate a program function based on the context to answer the question. Unlike other Program-of-Thought (PoT) methods (Gao et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2023) that require the program to return the answer directly, the function is designed to return a sentence explicitly describing the numerical information, as illustrated in Figure 4. Once the function is obtained, it is executed to extract the numerical information.

3.2 Reasoner

The Reasoner takes as input a question, the scientific context, and the numerical information obtained from the Calculator to produce the final an-

Reasoning Type	Subtypes	Description	%
Look Up (4.7)	Table Look Up	Search for specific tables	2.7
	Span Look Up	Search for spans in tables or paragraphs	2.0
Numerical Reasoning (46.0)	Arithmetic Calculation	Numerical calculations	11.1
	Comparison	Comparison of values	8.2
	Aggregation	Combines multiple data points into a single metric	3.9
	Ranking	Arranges items in a specific order	7.0
	Counting	Counting occurrences	9.2
	Domain Knowledge Calculation	Calculations requiring domain knowledge	6.5
Data Analysis (40.9)	Descriptive Analysis	Summarize or interpret to spot patterns and trends	23.3
	Anomaly Detection	Detect deviations and their causes	7.0
	Causal Analysis	Investigate cause-and-effect relationships	10.6
Tabulation (8.4)	-	Standardizing the formats of tables/subtables	8.4

Table 4: The reasoning types, the description of their subtypes, and their proportion in SCITAT. The number in parentheses is the proportion of each reasoning type.

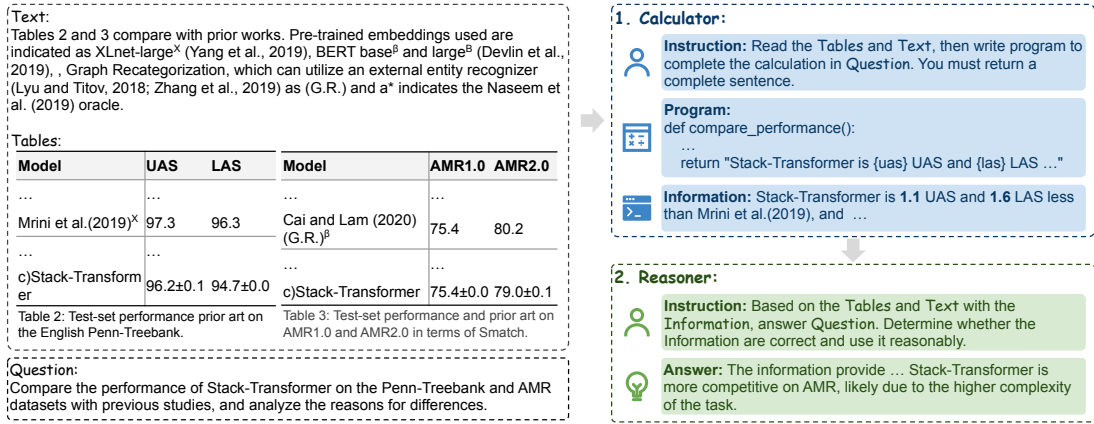


Figure 4: The overview of CAR, which consists of two modules: (i) Calculator generates code to compute the numerical information required for solving the question. (ii) Reasoner continues the reasoning process based on the information provided by the Calculator to answer the question.

swer. Specifically, we utilize a CoT prompt (Wei et al., 2022) to guide the LLM through a step-by-step reasoning process based on the context and information, leading to the final answer. However, since the information may not always be accurate or helpful, we further prompt the LLM to engage in reflection, evaluating the correctness and relevance of the extracted information during reasoning.

4 Experiments

4.1 Settings

4.1.1 Metrics

Due to the significant difference in token counts between free-form answers and short-form answers (see Table 11 in Appendix E.1), we evaluate the two types of answers separately. For short-form answers, we use Exact Match (EM) to assess correctness, while for free-form answers, we use F1 and BERTScore F1 (BERTScore) (Zhang* et al.,

2020) to evaluate accuracy, following previous studies (Zhu et al., 2021; Moosavi et al., 2021). EM measures the proportion of the predicted result that exactly match the gold answer. F1 calculates the overlap between predicted and gold answers based on their bag-of-words representation. BERTScore evaluates the similarity between generated text and reference text by calculating the cosine similarity of their word embeddings.

4.1.2 Models

We employ the open-source LLM Llama3.1-Instruct (Llama3.1) (Dubey et al., 2024) and the closed-source LLM gpt-4o (OpenAI et al., 2024) to evaluate SCITAT. Llama3.1 is among the top-performing open-source models, while gpt-4o is one of the leading closed-source models.

4.1.3 Baselines

We compare CAR with Direct QA (Pramanick et al., 2024), CoT (Wei et al., 2022), and PoT (Gao

et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2023) methods. Direct QA refers to prompting the LLM to directly answer the questions. The specific prompts for the baselines are provided in Appendix B.2. Given the long-context setting, where the context length is considerable, we adopt zero-shot prompts in experiments to prevent exceeding the context limit.

4.2 Main Experiments

The results of comparing CAR with other baselines on SCITAT are shown in Table 5. The results reveal that: (i) CAR significantly outperforms other baselines across different models and settings, achieving an average improvement of 12.9% on all metrics, highlighting its effectiveness. (ii) Despite improvement, CAR still demonstrates suboptimal performance, as both EM and F1 remain below 50.0, and while BERTScore is relatively high (Moosavi et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2024a), it remains under 80.0, reflecting the challenge of SCITAT. We also observe that:

Baselines Among the three baselines, CoT achieves the highest overall performance, while Direct QA exhibits lower EM, and PoT shows lower F1 and BERTScore. Considering that a diverse range of reasoning types in SCITAT, CoT is relatively better at handling these types of questions (Wei et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2024b; Pramanick et al., 2024). Direct QA, due to its lack of reasoning, is prone to computational errors and incorrect grounding, and tends to generate longer answers for short-form answers, resulting in an EM score of zero (Snell et al., 2024). On the other hand, since the program typically returns shorter answers (see Appendix E.1), the PoT method is less effective at answering free-form questions.

Context Settings CAR demonstrates a more significant improvement in the long-context setting than the short-context setting. Due to the dense knowledge presented in the paper, directly answering questions based on the entire paper may confuse the model, preventing it from focusing on the relevant tables and text (Lee et al., 2023; Pramanick et al., 2024). In contrast, CAR uses the Calculator to extract and compute useful numerical information from the paper, effectively guiding the Reasoner and avoiding the need to search for answers directly within the whole paper.

Answer Types CAR shows more significant improvements in short-form answers than free-form

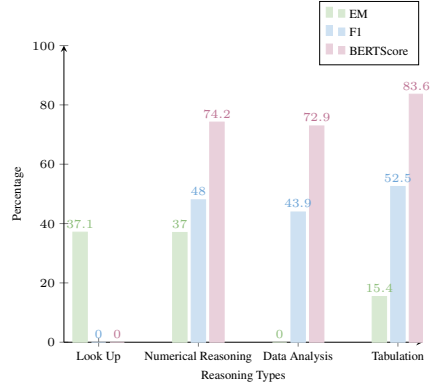


Figure 5: The average performance of CAR across three models on four reasoning types.

answers. For short-form answers, the Reasoner typically only needs to verify the correctness of the result of the Calculator and extract the answer. In contrast, for free-form answers, the Reasoner often needs to perform additional analysis based on the numerical information provided by the Calculator, which results in less significant improvement compared to short-form answers.

Reasoning Types We present the average performance of three models on different reasoning types in Figure 5. Specifically, the F1 and BERTScore for the type of Look Up are both 0 as all questions in this type correspond to short-form answers. The EM for the type of Data Analysis is also 0, as all the answers to this reasoning type are free-form. We can also observe that: (i) The models perform worst on Data Analysis, which requires more comprehensive capabilities, such as numerical computation, logical reasoning, summarization (Wu et al., 2024b). (ii) The F1 and BERTScore on Tabulation are the highest, but the EM is the lowest, indicating the difficulty of this reasoning type. While the predicted result may be close to the gold answer, achieving an exact match remains challenging. This highlights the need for more effective evaluation metrics for this reasoning type. (iii) There is still significant room for improvement in the types of Look Up and Numerical Reasoning, underscoring the overall difficulty of SCITAT.

4.3 Ablation Experiments

To demonstrate the effectiveness of CAR, we perform an ablation study by removing each module and reversing the order of the two modules. Specifically, when only the Reasoner is retained, it is the same as the CoT baseline. When reversing, we first apply the Reasoner module and then feed its output into the Calculator, which verifies and

Model	Scale	Method	Long-context			Short-context		
			EM	F1	BERTScore	EM	F1	BERTScore
Llama3.1	8B	Direct QA	0.0	30.6	66.4	0.0	30.7	66.5
		CoT	13.0	29.5	65.6	20.6	41.4	71.6
		PoT	4.4	21.7	54.0	17.1	21.5	49.9
		CAR	24.8	37.5	69.7	24.2	44.3	73.2
		Δ	+19.1	+10.2	+7.7	+11.6	+13.1	+10.5
	70B	Direct QA	0.0	31.6	67.5	0.0	33.6	68.7
		CoT	30.3	36.8	69.9	32.1	44.1	73.1
		PoT	5.3	28.8	61.7	36.8	35.6	64.0
		CAR	35.9	41.7	71.8	40.7	46.2	74.4
		Δ	+24.2	+9.3	+5.4	+17.7	+8.4	+5.8
gpt-4o	-	Direct QA	0.0	29.8	67.3	0.0	39.6	71.5
		CoT	31.3	41.3	72.7	32.2	46.8	75.5
		PoT	5.0	15.0	44.4	28.3	31.2	59.8
		CAR	37.5	41.8	73.1	43.7	47.1	75.7
		Δ	+25.4	+13.1	+11.6	+23.5	+7.9	+6.8

Table 5: Performance comparison of different models and methods. The best results of each model under each setting are annotated in **bold**. Δ refers to the average improvement of CAR compared with other baselines.

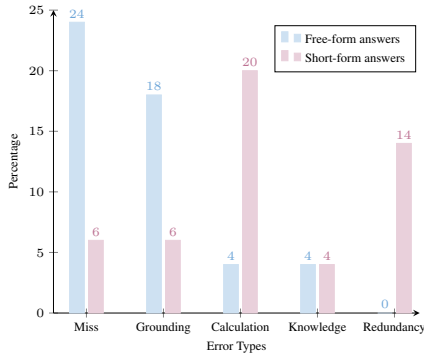


Figure 6: The distribution of error types of CAR on free-form answers and short-form answers.

Scale	Method	EM	F1	BERTScore
8B	CAR	24.2	44.3	73.2
	<i>Reasoner</i>	20.6	41.4	71.6
	<i>Calculator</i>	0.3	30.8	62.8
	<i>Reversing</i>	21.5	21.4	47.2
70B	CAR	40.7	46.2	74.4
	<i>Reasoner</i>	32.1	44.1	73.1
	<i>Calculator</i>	0.0	42.0	70.4
	<i>Reversing</i>	37.1	35.9	65.1

Table 6: The ablation results of CAR, compared with only Reasoner, only Calculator, and reversing the two modules (denoted as *Reversing*) on SCITAT on the short-context setting.

corrects any numerical errors to produce the final result. We perform experiments using Llama3.1 in the short-context setting, with results presented in Table 6. The significant performance drop confirms the validity of CAR. The results also suggest that: (i) Given the diverse reasoning types in SCITAT, relying on a single reasoning method is insufficient to derive accurate answers. Especially, the EM of the Calculator is very low since we prompt the program to return the entire numerical information instead of the simple answer. (ii) Furthermore, as discussed in §4.2, the program struggles with free-form responses, so depending solely on its output for the final answer limits performance on SCITAT.

4.4 Error Analysis

In this section, we analyze the erroneous data of CAR using Llama3.1-70B. Specifically, we randomly select 25 error instances with BERTScore below 60 from the results corresponding to free-

form answers and another 25 instances with EM of 0 from the results corresponding to short-form answers. We manually categorize the error types, as illustrated in Figure 6. It can be observed that the distribution of error types for free-form answers and short-form answers differs significantly. Examples of different error types are provided in Appendix D. We proceed with a detailed analysis.

(i) Miss refers to the omission of part of the answer, such as when only some sub-questions are addressed in a multi-part question, or when data analysis is limited to summarizing phenomena without providing conclusions or insights. (ii) Grounding refers to locating incorrect relevant context according to the question. (iii) Calculation denotes errors in applying numerical formulas, coding mistakes, or computational inaccuracies in complex calculations. (iv) Knowledge refers to errors in responses due to the lack of domain-specific knowledge. (v) Redundancy refers to the generation of

unnecessary responses that result in an EM of zero.

The reasoning types for both free-form and short-form answers in SCITAT exhibit diversity and are not entirely identical. Compared to previous datasets, SCITAT presents the following main challenges: (i) Different error types are associated with free-form and short-form answers, which require the design of distinct methods for each. (ii) The need to integrate various reasoning types and process both tables and text, while requiring the model to possess strong domain-specific knowledge in the scientific domain. We outline these challenges to inspire future work in developing methods that address these issues, aiming to enhance model performance in scientific QA on tables and text.

5 Related Works

5.1 Scientific QA Datasets

Early SQA datasets were designed in a cloze-style format, which limited the difficulty of these datasets (Pampari et al., 2018; Pappas et al., 2018). To address this issue, PubMedQA (Jin et al., 2019), QASPER (Dasigi et al., 2021), and QASA (Lee et al., 2023) employ humans to annotate questions and answers over papers, and SciInstruct (Zhang et al., 2024) collects questions from sources like textbooks and synthesizes answers using LLMs. However, these works primarily focus on text, without considering the tables often appearing in papers. Therefore, SciGen (Moosavi et al., 2021) focuses on generating relevant descriptions based on tables in papers, SciTab (Lu et al., 2023) concentrates on the table fact verification task, and SPIQA (Pranick et al., 2024) is designed for QA based on tables and images.

Nevertheless, the reasoning types of existing datasets are relatively limited, since they do not involve diverse reasoning types, such as Data Analysis and Tabulation, that frequently occur in real scenarios. Moreover, they overlook the relevance between tables and text, limiting their application (Chen et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022). Therefore, we propose SCITAT, a QA benchmark for scientific tables and text with diverse reasoning types.

5.2 QA Datasets for Tables and Text

Previous QA datasets for tables and text mainly focus on Look Up and Numerical Reasoning in the Wikipedia and financial domains. For example, HybridQA (Chen et al., 2020) annotates QA pairs over Wikipedia tables and text, which primar-

ily focuses on look up spans in the context. TAT-QA (Zhu et al., 2021), FinQA (Chen et al., 2021), and DocMath-Eval (Zhao et al., 2024b) primarily address the numerical reasoning task in the financial domain. Among them, DocMath-Eval (Zhao et al., 2024b) collects data from previous datasets and annotates the Python program for each question. However, their reasoning types are relatively limited, which significantly differs from the scientific QA scenarios in real-world applications. A comparison SCITAT with previous datasets for tables and text is shown in Table 7 of Appendix A.2.

Considering the reasoning types of existing datasets, previous works introduce programs to obtain the final answer (Gao et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2023). For instance, TAT-LLM (Zhu et al., 2024) proposes to first extract relevant context and generate equations or logical reasoning steps to execute them and derive the answer. Hpropro (Shi et al., 2024) provides commonly used program functions, allowing the LLM to directly call them during program generation. However, these methods can not apply directly to SCITAT, as SCITAT also involves reasoning types, such as Data Analysis, which requires free-form answers, challenging to be solved by the program alone (Wu et al., 2024b). Therefore, we propose CAR, which combines multiple reasoning types to enhance performance on SCITAT.

6 Conclusion

To address the limitations of previous scientific QA datasets, which involve limited reasoning types and fail to consider the relevance between tables and text, we propose SCITAT, the QA benchmark for scientific tables and text with diverse reasoning types. To incorporate diverse reasoning types, we analyze the questions posed by researchers and combine the types in prior works, summarizing 4 reasoning types with 13 subtypes. To ensure that the questions encompass both tables and text, we require the questions include both elements whenever possible. For SCITAT, we introduce CAR, a strong baseline that combines reasoning methods to enhance the performance across various reasoning types, with handling both tables and text. Experimental results show that CAR outperforms other baselines by an average of 12.9%, demonstrating its effectiveness. Error analysis reveals that the challenges in SCITAT, such as grounding relevant context, complex numerical reasoning, and the need for domain-specific knowledge.

Limitations

(i) SciTAT currently supports only the English language. Future versions will include additional languages. (ii) Currently, we focus on single-turn QA for scientific tables and texts in SciTAT. Multi-turn dialogues on scientific tables and text will be explored in future work.

Ethics Statement

All datasets and models used in this paper are publicly available, and our utilization of them strictly complies with their respective licenses and terms of use.

References

- Microsoft Research AI4Science and Microsoft Azure Quantum. 2023. [The impact of large language models on scientific discovery: a preliminary study using gpt-4](#). Preprint, arXiv:2311.07361.
- Emily M Bender and Batya Friedman. 2018. Data statements for natural language processing: Toward mitigating system bias and enabling better science. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 6:587–604.
- Wenhu Chen, Xueguang Ma, Xinyi Wang, and William W. Cohen. 2023. [Program of thoughts prompting: Disentangling computation from reasoning for numerical reasoning tasks](#). *Transactions on Machine Learning Research*.
- Wenhu Chen, Hanwen Zha, Zhiyu Chen, Wenhan Xiong, Hong Wang, and William Yang Wang. 2020. [HybridQA: A dataset of multi-hop question answering over tabular and textual data](#). In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2020*, pages 1026–1036, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Zhiyu Chen, Wenhu Chen, Charese Smiley, Sameena Shah, Iana Borova, Dylan Langdon, Reema Moussa, Matt Beane, Ting-Hao Huang, Bryan Routledge, and William Yang Wang. 2021. [FinQA: A dataset of numerical reasoning over financial data](#). In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 3697–3711, Online and Punta Cana, Dominican Republic. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Pradeep Dasigi, Kyle Lo, Iz Beltagy, Arman Cohan, Noah A. Smith, and Matt Gardner. 2021. [A dataset of information-seeking questions and answers anchored in research papers](#). In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pages 4599–4610, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- 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, Aurelien Rodriguez, Austen Gregerson, Ava Spataru, Baptiste Roziere, 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 Alonsoius, 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, Gregoire Mialon, Guan Pang, Guillem Cucurell, Hailey Nguyen, Hannah Korevaar, Hu Xu, Hugo Touvron, Iliyan Zarov, Imanol Arrieta Ibarra, Isabel 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, Khalid El-Arini, Krithika Iyer, Kshitiz Malik, Kuenley Chiu, Kunal Bhalla, Lauren Rantala-Yearly, Laurens van der Maaten, Lawrence Chen, Liang Tan, Liz Jenkins, Louis Martin, Lovish Madaan, Lubo Malo, Lukas Blecher, Lukas Landzaat, Luke de Oliveira, Madeline Muzzi, Mahesh Pasupuleti, Mannat Singh, Manohar Paluri, Marcin Kardas, Mathew Oldham, Mathieu Rita, Maya Pavlova, Melanie Kambadur, Mike Lewis, Min Si, Mitesh Kumar Singh, Mona Hassan, Naman Goyal, Narjes Torabi, Nikolay Bashlykov, Nikolay Bogoychev, Niladri Chatterji, Olivier Duchenne, Onur Çelebi, Patrick Alrassy, Pengchuan Zhang, Pengwei Li, Petar Vasic, Peter Weng, Prajjwal Bhargava, Pratik Dubal, Praveen Krishnan, Punit Singh Koura, Puxin Xu, Qing He, Qingxiao Dong, Ragavan Srinivasan, Raj Ganapathy, Ramon Calderer, Ricardo Silveira Cabral, Robert Stojnic, Roberta Raileanu, Rohit Girdhar, Rohit Patel, Romain Sauvestre, Ronnie Polidoro, Roshan Sumbaly, Ross Taylor, Ruan Silva, Rui Hou, Rui Wang, Saghar Hosseini, Sahana Chennabasappa, Sanjay Singh, Sean Bell, Seohyun Sonia Kim, Sergey Edunov, Shao-liang Nie, Sharan Narang, Sharath Rapparthi, Sheng Shen, Shengye Wan, Shruti Bhosale, Shun Zhang, Simon Vandenhende, Soumya Batra, Spencer Whitman, Sten Sootla, Stephane Collot, Suchin Gururangan, Sydney Borodinsky, Tamar Herman, Tara Fowler, Tarek Sheasha, Thomas Georgiou, Thomas Scialom, Tobias Speckbacher, Todor Mihaylov, Tong Xiao, Ujjwal Karn, Vedanuj Goswami, Vibhor Gupta, Vignesh Ramanathan, Viktor Kerkez, Vincent Gonguet, Virginie Do, Vish Vogeti, Vladan Petrovic, Weiwei Chu, Wenhan Xiong, Wenxin Fu, Whit-

643	ney Meers, Xavier Martinet, Xiaodong Wang, Xiaoqing Ellen Tan, Xinfeng Xie, Xuchao Jia, Xuewei Wang, Yaelle Goldschlag, Yashesh Gaur, Yasmine Babaei, Yi Wen, Yiwen Song, Yuchen Zhang, Yue Li, Yuning Mao, Zacharie Delpierre Coudert, Zheng Yan, Zhengxing Chen, Zoe Papakipos, Aaditya Singh, Aaron Grattafiori, Abha Jain, Adam Kelsey, Adam Shajnfeld, Adithya Gangidi, Adolfo Victoria, Ahuva Goldstand, Ajay Menon, Ajay Sharma, Alex Boesenberg, Alex Vaughan, Alexei Baevski, Allie Feinstein, Amanda Kallet, Amit Sangani, Anam Yunus, Andrei Lupu, Andres Alvarado, Andrew Caples, Andrew Gu, Andrew Ho, Andrew Poulton, Andrew Ryan, Ankit Ramchandani, Annie Franco, Aparajita Saraf, Arkabandhu Chowdhury, Ashley Gabriel, Ashwin Bharambe, Assaf Eisenman, Azadeh Yazdan, Beau James, Ben Maurer, Benjamin Leonhardi, Bernie Huang, Beth Loyd, Beto De Paola, Bhargavi Paranjape, Bing Liu, Bo Wu, Boyu Ni, Braden Hancock, Bram Wasti, Brandon Spence, Brani Stojkovic, Brian Gamido, Britt Montalvo, Carl Parker, Carly Burton, Catalina Mejia, Changan Wang, Changkyu Kim, Chao Zhou, Chester Hu, Ching-Hsiang Chu, Chris Cai, Chris Tindal, Christoph Feichtenhofer, Damon Civin, Dana Beaty, Daniel Kreymer, Daniel Li, Danny Wyatt, David Adkins, David Xu, Davide Testuggine, Delia David, Devi Parikh, Diana Liskovich, Didem Foss, Dingkan Wang, Duc Le, Dustin Holland, Edward Dowling, Eissa Jamil, Elaine Montgomery, Eleonora Presani, Emily Hahn, Emily Wood, Erik Brinkman, Esteban Arcaute, Evan Dunbar, Evan Smothers, Fei Sun, Felix Kreuk, Feng Tian, Firat Ozgenel, Francesco Caggioni, Francisco Guzmán, Frank Kanayet, Frank Seide, Gabriela Medina Florez, Gabriella Schwarz, Gada Badeer, Georgia Swee, Gil Halpern, Govind Thattai, Grant Herman, Grigory Sizov, Guangyi, Zhang, Guna Lakshminarayanan, Hamid Shojanazeri, Han Zou, Hannah Wang, Hanwen Zha, Haroun Habeeb, Harrison Rudolph, Helen Suk, Henry Aspegren, Hunter Goldman, Ibrahim Damla, Igor Molybog, Igor Tufanov, Irina-Elena Veliche, Itai Gat, Jake Weissman, James Geboski, James Kohli, Japhet Asher, Jean-Baptiste Gaya, Jeff Marcus, Jeff Tang, Jennifer Chan, Jenny Zhen, Jeremy Reizenstein, Jeremy Teboul, Jessica Zhong, Jian Jin, Jingyi Yang, Joe Cummings, Jon Carvill, Jon Shepard, Jonathan McPhie, Jonathan Torres, Josh Ginsburg, Junjie Wang, Kai Wu, Kam Hou U, Karan Saxena, Karthik Prasad, Kartikay Khandelwal, Katayoun Zand, Kathy Matosich, Kaushik Veeraraghavan, Kelly Michelena, Keqian Li, Kun Huang, Kunal Chawla, Kushal Lakhotia, Kyle Huang, Lailin Chen, Lakshya Garg, Lavender A, Leandro Silva, Lee Bell, Lei Zhang, Liangpeng Guo, Licheng Yu, Liron Moshkovich, Luca Wehrstedt, Madian Khabsa, Manav Avalani, Manish Bhatt, Maria Tsim-poukelli, Martynas Mankus, Matan Hasson, Matthew Lennie, Matthias Reso, Maxim Groshev, Maxim Naumov, Maya Lathi, Meghan Keneally, Michael L. Seltzer, Michal Valko, Michelle Restrepo, Mihir Patel, Mik Vyatskov, Mikayel Samvelyan, Mike Clark, Mike Macey, Mike Wang, Miquel Jubert Hermoso, Mo Metanat, Mohammad Rastegari, Munish Bansal, Nandhini Santhanam, Natascha Parks,	
	Natasha White, Navyata Bawa, Nayan Singhal, Nick Egebo, Nicolas Usunier, Nikolay Pavlovich Laptev, Ning Dong, Ning Zhang, Norman Cheng, Oleg Chernoguz, Olivia Hart, Omkar Salpekar, Ozlem Kalinli, Parkin Kent, Parth Parekh, Paul Saab, Pavan Balaji, Pedro Rittner, Philip Bontrager, Pierre Roux, Piotr Dollar, Polina Zvyagina, Prashant Ratan-chandani, Pritish Yuvraj, Qian Liang, Rachad Alao, Rachel Rodriguez, Rafi Ayub, Raghotham Murthy, Raghu Nayani, Rahul Mitra, Raymond Li, Rebekkah Hogan, Robin Battey, Rocky Wang, Rohan Maheswari, Russ Howes, Ruty Rinott, Sai Jayesh Bondu, Samyak Datta, Sara Chugh, Sara Hunt, Sargun Dhillon, Sasha Sidorov, Satadru Pan, Saurabh Verma, Seiji Yamamoto, Sharadh Ramaswamy, Shaun Lindsay, Shaun Lindsay, Sheng Feng, Shenghao Lin, Shengxin Cindy Zha, Shiva Shankar, Shuqiang Zhang, Shuqiang Zhang, Sinong Wang, Sneha Agarwal, Soji Sajuyigbe, Soumith Chintala, Stephanie Max, Stephen Chen, Steve Kehoe, Steve Satterfield, Sudarshan Govindaprasad, Sumit Gupta, Sungmin Cho, Sunny Virk, Suraj Subramanian, Sy Choudhury, Sydney Goldman, Tal Remez, Tamar Glaser, Tamara Best, Thilo Kohler, Thomas Robinson, Tianhe Li, Tianjun Zhang, Tim Matthews, Timothy Chou, Tzook Shaked, Varun Vontimitta, Victoria Ajayi, Victoria Montanez, Vijai Mohan, Vinay Satish Kumar, Vishal Mangla, Vitor Albiero, Vlad Ionescu, Vlad Poenaru, Vlad Tiberiu Mihailescu, Vladimir Ivanov, Wei Li, Wenchen Wang, Wenwen Jiang, Wes Bouaziz, Will Constable, Xiaocheng Tang, Xiaofang Wang, Xiaojian Wu, Xiaolan Wang, Xide Xia, Xilun Wu, Xinbo Gao, Yanjun Chen, Ye Hu, Ye Jia, Ye Qi, Yenda Li, Yilin Zhang, Ying Zhang, Yossi Adi, Youngjin Nam, Yu, Wang, Yuchen Hao, Yundi Qian, Yuzi He, Zach Rait, Zachary DeVito, Zef Rosnbrick, Zhaoduo Wen, Zhenyu Yang, and Zhiwei Zhao. 2024. The llama 3 herd of models . <i>Preprint</i> , arXiv:2407.21783.	707 708 709 710 711 712 713 714 715 716 717 718 719 720 721 722 723 724 725 726 727 728 729 730 731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744
	Luyu Gao, Aman Madaan, Shuyan Zhou, Uri Alon, Pengfei Liu, Yiming Yang, Jamie Callan, and Graham Neubig. 2023. Pal: program-aided language models. In <i>Proceedings of the 40th International Conference on Machine Learning, ICML'23</i> . JMLR.org.	745 746 747 748 749 750
	Qiao Jin, Bhuwan Dhingra, Zhengping Liu, William Cohen, and Xinghua Lu. 2019. PubMedQA: A dataset for biomedical research question answering . In <i>Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP)</i> , pages 2567–2577, Hong Kong, China. Association for Computational Linguistics.	751 752 753 754 755 756 757 758 759
	Yoonjoo Lee, Kyungjae Lee, Sunghyun Park, Dasol Hwang, Jaehyeon Kim, Hong-In Lee, and Moontae Lee. 2023. QASA: Advanced question answering on scientific articles . In <i>Proceedings of the 40th International Conference on Machine Learning</i> , volume 202 of <i>Proceedings of Machine Learning Research</i> , pages 19036–19052. PMLR.	760 761 762 763 764 765 766
	Xinyuan Lu, Liangming Pan, Qian Liu, Preslav Nakov,	767

and Min-Yen Kan. 2023. [SCITAB: A challenging benchmark for compositional reasoning and claim verification on scientific tables](#). In *Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 7787–7813, Singapore. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Nafise Sadat Moosavi, Andreas Rücklé, Dan Roth, and Iryna Gurevych. 2021. Scigen: a dataset for reasoning-aware text generation from scientific tables. In *Thirty-fifth Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track (Round 2)*.

OpenAI, Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman, Diogo Almeida, Janko Altmenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, Red Avila, Igor Babuschkin, Suchir Balaji, Valerie Balcom, Paul Baltescu, Haiming Bao, Mohammad Bavarian, Jeff Belgum, Irwan Bello, Jake Berdine, Gabriel Bernadett-Shapiro, Christopher Berner, Lenny Bogdonoff, Oleg Boiko, Madelaine Boyd, Anna-Luisa Brakman, Greg Brockman, Tim Brooks, Miles Brundage, Kevin Button, Trevor Cai, Rosie Campbell, Andrew Cann, Brittany Carey, Chelsea Carlson, Rory Carmichael, Brooke Chan, Che Chang, Fotis Chantzis, Derek Chen, Sully Chen, Ruby Chen, Jason Chen, Mark Chen, Ben Chess, Chester Cho, Casey Chu, Hyung Won Chung, Dave Cummings, Jeremiah Currier, Yunxing Dai, Cory Decareaux, Thomas Degry, Noah Deutsch, Damien Deville, Arka Dhar, David Dohan, Steve Dowling, Sheila Dunning, Adrien Ecoffet, Atty Eleti, Tyna Eloundou, David Farhi, Liam Fedus, Niko Felix, Simón Posada Fishman, Juston Forte, Isabella Fulford, Leo Gao, Elie Georges, Christian Gibson, Vik Goel, Tarun Gogineni, Gabriel Goh, Rapha Gontijo-Lopes, Jonathan Gordon, Morgan Grafstein, Scott Gray, Ryan Greene, Joshua Gross, Shixiang Shane Gu, Yufei Guo, Chris Hallacy, Jesse Han, Jeff Harris, Yuchen He, Mike Heaton, Johannes Heidecke, Chris Hesse, Alan Hickey, Wade Hickey, Peter Hoeschele, Brandon Houghton, Kenny Hsu, Shengli Hu, Xin Hu, Joost Huizinga, Shantanu Jain, Shawn Jain, Joanne Jang, Angela Jiang, Roger Jiang, Haozhun Jin, Denny Jin, Shino Jomoto, Billie Jonn, Heewoo Jun, Tomer Kaftan, Łukasz Kaiser, Ali Kamali, Ingmar Kanitscheider, Nitish Shirish Keskar, Tabarak Khan, Logan Kilpatrick, Jong Wook Kim, Christina Kim, Yongjik Kim, Jan Hendrik Kirchner, Jamie Kiros, Matt Knight, Daniel Kokotajlo, Łukasz Kondraciuk, Andrew Kondrich, Aris Konstantinidis, Kyle Kosic, Gretchen Krueger, Vishal Kuo, Michael Lampe, Ikai Lan, Teddy Lee, Jan Leike, Jade Leung, Daniel Levy, Chak Ming Li, Rachel Lim, Molly Lin, Stephanie Lin, Mateusz Litwin, Theresa Lopez, Ryan Lowe, Patricia Lue, Anna Makanju, Kim Malfacini, Sam Manning, Todor Markov, Yaniv Markovski, Bianca Martin, Katie Mayer, Andrew Mayne, Bob McGrew, Scott Mayer McKinney, Christine McLeavey, Paul McMillan, Jake McNeil, David Medina, Aalok Mehta, Jacob Menick, Luke Metz, Andrey Mishchenko, Pamela Mishkin, Vinnie Monaco, Evan Morikawa, Daniel

Mossing, Tong Mu, Mira Murati, Oleg Murk, David Mély, Ashvin Nair, Reiichiro Nakano, Rajeev Nayak, Arvind Neelakantan, Richard Ngo, Hyeonwoo Noh, Long Ouyang, Cullen O’Keefe, Jakub Pachocki, Alex Paino, Joe Palermo, Ashley Pantuliano, Giambattista Parascandolo, Joel Parish, Emy Parparita, Alex Passos, Mikhail Pavlov, Andrew Peng, Adam Perelman, Filipe de Avila Belbute Peres, Michael Petrov, Henrique Ponde de Oliveira Pinto, Michael, Pokorny, Michelle Pokrass, Vitchyr H. Pong, Tolly Powell, Alethea Power, Boris Power, Elizabeth Proehl, Raul Puri, Alec Radford, Jack Rae, Aditya Ramesh, Cameron Raymond, Francis Real, Kendra Rimbach, Carl Ross, Bob Rotsted, Henri Roussez, Nick Ryder, Mario Saltarelli, Ted Sanders, Shibani Santurkar, Girish Sastry, Heather Schmidt, David Schnurr, John Schulman, Daniel Selsam, Kyla Sheppard, Toki Sherbakov, Jessica Shieh, Sarah Shoker, Pranav Shyam, Szymon Sidor, Eric Sigler, Maddie Simens, Jordan Sitkin, Katarina Slama, Ian Sohl, Benjamin Sokolowsky, Yang Song, Natalie Staudacher, Felipe Petroski Such, Natalie Summers, Ilya Sutskever, Jie Tang, Nikolas Tezak, Madeleine B. Thompson, Phil Tillet, Amin Tootoonchian, Elizabeth Tseng, Preston Tuggle, Nick Turley, Jerry Tworek, Juan Felipe Cerón Uribe, Andrea Vallone, Arun Vijayvergiya, Chelsea Voss, Carroll Wainwright, Justin Jay Wang, Alvin Wang, Ben Wang, Jonathan Ward, Jason Wei, CJ Weinmann, Akila Welihinda, Peter Welinder, Jiayi Weng, Lilian Weng, Matt Wiethoff, Dave Willner, Clemens Winter, Samuel Wolrich, Hannah Wong, Lauren Workman, Sherwin Wu, Jeff Wu, Michael Wu, Kai Xiao, Tao Xu, Sarah Yoo, Kevin Yu, Qiming Yuan, Wojciech Zaremba, Rowan Zellers, Chong Zhang, Marvin Zhang, Shengjia Zhao, Tianhao Zheng, Juntang Zhuang, William Zhuk, and Barret Zoph. 2024. [Gpt-4 technical report](#). *Preprint*, arXiv:2303.08774.

Anusri Pampari, Preethi Raghavan, Jennifer Liang, and Jian Peng. 2018. [emrQA: A large corpus for question answering on electronic medical records](#). In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 2357–2368, Brussels, Belgium. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Dimitris Pappas, Ion Androutsopoulos, and Haris Papathegiou. 2018. [BioRead: A new dataset for biomedical reading comprehension](#). In *Proceedings of the Eleventh International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC 2018)*, Miyazaki, Japan. European Language Resources Association (ELRA).

Dimitris Pappas, Petros Stavropoulos, Ion Androutsopoulos, and Ryan McDonald. 2020. [BioMRC: A dataset for biomedical machine reading comprehension](#). In *Proceedings of the 19th SIGBioMed Workshop on Biomedical Language Processing*, pages 140–149, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Shraman Pramanick, Rama Chellappa, and Subhashini

- Venugopalan. 2024. Spiga: A dataset for multimodal question answering on scientific papers. *NeurIPS*. 947
- Qi Shi, Han Cui, Haofeng Wang, Qingfu Zhu, Wanxiang Che, and Ting Liu. 2024. [Exploring hybrid question answering via program-based prompting](#). In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 11035–11046, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics. 948
- Charlie Snell, Jaehoon Lee, Kelvin Xu, and Aviral Kumar. 2024. Scaling llm test-time compute optimally can be more effective than scaling model parameters. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2408.03314*. 949
- Ross Taylor, Marcin Kardas, Guillem Cucurull, Thomas Scialom, Anthony Hartshorn, Elvis Saravia, Andrew Poulton, Viktor Kerkez, and Robert Stojnic. 2022. Galactica: A large language model for science. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.09085*. 950
- George Tsatsaronis, Georgios Balikas, Prodromos Malakasiotis, Ioannis Partalas, Matthias Zschunke, Michael R Alvers, Dirk Weissenborn, Anastasia Krithara, Sergios Petridis, Dimitris Polychronopoulos, et al. 2015. An overview of the bioasq large-scale biomedical semantic indexing and question answering competition. *BMC bioinformatics*, 16:1–28. 951
- Dingzirui Wang, Longxu Dou, and Wanxiang Che. 2022. A survey on table-and-text hybridqa: Concepts, methods, challenges and future directions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.13465*. 952
- Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc V Le, Denny Zhou, et al. 2022. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:24824–24837. 953
- Dayong Wu, Jiaqi Li, Baoxin Wang, Honghong Zhao, Siyuan Xue, Yanjie Yang, Zhijun Chang, Rui Zhang, Li Qian, Bo Wang, Shijin Wang, Zhixiong Zhang, and Guoping Hu. 2024a. [SparkRA: A retrieval-augmented knowledge service system based on spark large language model](#). In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations*, pages 382–389, Miami, Florida, USA. Association for Computational Linguistics. 954
- Xianjie Wu, Jian Yang, Linzheng Chai, Ge Zhang, Jiaheng Liu, Xinrun Du, Di Liang, Daixin Shu, Xianfu Cheng, Tianzhen Sun, et al. 2024b. Tablebench: A comprehensive and complex benchmark for table question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2408.09174*. 955
- Dan Zhang, Ziniu Hu, Sining Zhoubian, Zhengxiao Du, Kaiyu Yang, Zihan Wang, Yisong Yue, Yuxiao Dong, and Jie Tang. 2024. [SciInstruct: a self-reflective instruction annotated dataset for training scientific language models](#). In *The Thirty-eight Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track*. 956
- Tianyi Zhang*, Varsha Kishore*, Felix Wu*, Kilian Q. Weinberger, and Yoav Artzi. 2020. [Bertscore: Evaluating text generation with bert](#). In *International Conference on Learning Representations*. 957
- Yilun Zhao, Lyuhao Chen, Arman Cohan, and Chen Zhao. 2024a. [TaPERA: Enhancing faithfulness and interpretability in long-form table QA by content planning and execution-based reasoning](#). In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 12824–12840, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics. 958
- Yilun Zhao, Yitao Long, Hongjun Liu, Ryo Kamoi, Linyong Nan, Lyuhao Chen, Yixin Liu, Xiangru Tang, Rui Zhang, and Arman Cohan. 2024b. [DocMath-eval: Evaluating math reasoning capabilities of LLMs in understanding long and specialized documents](#). In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 16103–16120, Bangkok, Thailand. Association for Computational Linguistics. 959
- Fengbin Zhu, Wenqiang Lei, Youcheng Huang, Chao Wang, Shuo Zhang, Jiancheng Lv, Fuli Feng, and Tat-Seng Chua. 2021. [TAT-QA: A question answering benchmark on a hybrid of tabular and textual content in finance](#). In *Proceedings of the 59th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the 11th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 3277–3287, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics. 960
- Fengbin Zhu, Ziyang Liu, Fuli Feng, Chao Wang, Moxin Li, and Tat Seng Chua. 2024. [Tat-llm: A specialized language model for discrete reasoning over financial tabular and textual data](#). In *Proceedings of the 5th ACM International Conference on AI in Finance, ICAIF '24*, page 310–318, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery. 961

A Comparison with Previous Datasets

A.1 Comparison with Previous Scientific QA Datasets

Table 1 presents the comparison of SCiTAT with previous scientific QA datasets. We first introduce the existing datasets. BioRead (Pappas et al., 2018) is a cloze-style QA dataset on the biomedical papers, which only contains the reasoning type of Look Up and focuses only on the text. QASA (Lee et al., 2023) is QA datasets on papers in AI and ML fields, but only concentrates on the text in papers, and lack the reasoning type of Tabulation. SciGen (Moosavi et al., 2021) aims to generate descriptions according to the tables in the papers in the field of Computer Science. SciTab (Lu et al., 2023) aims to judge the claims according to the scientific tables in the field of Computer Science, which only contains the reasoning types of Look Up and Numerical Reasoning. SPIQA (Pramanick et al., 2024) is multimodal QA dataset on the scientific papers, which only focus on the split text and tables, ignoring the relevance between tables and text, and lacking the reasoning type of Data Analysis and Tabulation. It can be seen that SCiTAT contains more diverse reasoning types and consider the relevance between tables and text.

A.2 Comparison with Previous QA Datasets for Tables and Text

Table 7 present the comparison of SCiTAT with previous QA datasets over tabular and textual data and scientific QA datasets. It can be seen that SCiTAT contains more diverse and closer to real-life user questions.

B Prompt

In this section, we show the prompts we use to synthesize data and conduct experiments.

B.1 Prompt for Generating Data

Table 8 provides the prompt for generating questions, rationales, and answers when constructing SCiTAT.

B.2 Prompt for Experiments

Table 9 shows the prompt to build the baselines in our experiments, and Table 10 shows the prompt used by CAR.

C Manual Annotation Procedure

C.1 Annotator Training Process

We recruit students from Computer Science or Artificial Intelligence programs who are willing to participate in the annotation task, offering a compensation of \$1 per instance. Initially, we provide a detailed explanation of the task, including its definition, the specific responsibilities of the annotators, and how to use the annotation interface. We thoroughly explain the requirements for the questions, rationales, and answers, as well as how to select the source of the answers, as stated in §2.3. Additionally, we provide three examples and explain possible scenarios that might arise. Finally, we clarify the annotation deadline and inform them that the data will undergo additional checks. To promptly detect any errors or biases in the annotations, we sent the data in batches. After the two-round validation on the already annotated data, we communicate with the annotators to address any issues and proceed to send the next batch of data.

C.2 Statistics of the Manual Annotation Procedure

On average, annotating a single data point required 10 minutes per annotator. The annotation process for the 953 instances was completed in approximately two months. The first round of annotations was conducted by 10 annotators, with two additional annotators performing two-round validation.

C.3 Annotating Interface

The annotation process is conducted using a custom tool developed by us. Figure 7, Figure 8, Figure 9, and Figure 10 show the overall user interface for the manual annotation.

D Case Study for Error Analysis

In this section, we show examples of different error types, as shown in Figure 11, Figure 12, Figure 13, Figure 14, and Figure 15.

E Additional Experiments

E.1 Statistics of The Number of Output Tokens

In this section, we show the comparison of the number of tokens output by different methods and the number of tokens of gold answers. (i) It can be found that the number of tokens output by PoT is consistently lower than that of other methods,

Dataset	Domain	Reasoning Type				R
		Look Up	Numerical Reasoning	Data Analysis	Tabulation	
HybridQA (Chen et al., 2020)	Wiki	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
TAT-QA (Zhu et al., 2021)	Finance	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
FinQA (Chen et al., 2021)	Finance	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗
DocMath-Eval (Zhao et al., 2024b)	Finance	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓
SciTAT	Science	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 7: Comparison of SciTAT to recent QA datasets over tabular and textual data. Wiki denotes Wikipedia, and R denotes Rationale.

The prompt for Generating Questions
<p>{ Table }</p> <p>{ Paragraph }</p> <p>You are a highly intelligent and obedient academic field question generation system.</p> <p>Generate a question referring to the table and paragraph above which meets the requirements in the question description "{ Type }".</p> <p>The generated question must meet:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The question should be with fewer statements and more reasoning and calculation. 2. The question must be answerable based on the paragraph alone, and not answerable only based on the table. 3. The question must meet the question description. 4. Do not generate multiple questions or sub-questions at once. <p>Examples:</p> <p>{ Examples }</p>
The prompt for Generating Rationales and Answers
<p>{ Table }</p> <p>{ Paragraph }</p> <p>Based on the information in the Table and Paragraph, please answer the question "{ Question }".</p> <p>Represent your answer with: "Reason: <Your Reason> Answer: <Your Answer>"</p> <p>If there are multiple questions, you need to answer them one by one, and the answers are separated by "</p> <p>".</p> <p>Examples:</p> <p>{ Examples }</p>

Table 8: The prompts for generating the questions, rationales, and answers of SciTAT.

whether it is a short-form answer or a free-form answer, which explains to a certain extent the reason why PoT has low performance, especially on the free-form answers. (ii) On the contrary, the number of tokens output by the Direct QA is generally high, which also reveals the reason why its EM is 0 on the short-form answers. (iii) And CAR is the closest in quantity to the number of tokens of gold answer, which shows that CAR can adapt to obtain answers of various reasoning types.

<p>The prompt for DirectQA</p> <hr/> <p>Based on the information in the Table and Paragraph, you should answer the question. If there are multiple questions, you need to answer them one by one, and the answers are separated by "</p> <p>".</p> <p>Table (including its label, caption, and content): {Table} Paragraph: {Paragraph}</p> <p>Please answer the question "{Question}".</p> <hr/>
<p>The prompt for CoT</p> <hr/> <p>Based on the information in the Table and Paragraph, you should answer the question. Represent your answer with: "Reason: <Your Reason> Answer: <Your Answer>". If there are multiple questions, you need to answer them one by one, and the answers are separated by "</p> <p>".</p> <p>Table (including its label, caption and content): {Table} Paragraph: {Paragraph}</p> <p>Please answer the question "{Question}".</p> <hr/>
<p>The prompt for PoT</p> <hr/> <p>Table (including its label, caption and content): {Table} Paragraph: {Paragraph}</p> <p>Read the above Table and Paragraph, and then write code to answer the question "{Question}". Please **directly use** the information such as numbers in tables and paragraphs, do not define tables and then process them. You must return the answer 'ans = ' at the end of the code instead of 'print'. Attention that if there are multiple questions, you need to answer them one by one, and the answers are separated by "</p> <p>".</p> <hr/>

Table 9: The prompts for baselines.

<p>The prompt for Calculator</p> <p>Table (including its label, caption, and content): {Table} Paragraph: {Paragraph} Read the above Table and Paragraph, and then write code to answer the question "{Question}". Please **directly use** the information such as numbers in tables and paragraphs, do not define tables and then process them. You must return the answer 'ans = ' at the end of the code instead of 'print'. You cannot return just one or a few numbers or words, you must return a complete sentence.</p>
<p>The prompt for Reasoner</p> <p>Based on the Table and Paragraph with the Tips, you should answer the question. Please determine whether the tips are correct, use the tips reasonably in Reason, and organize the Answer into an appropriate form. Represent your answer with: "Reason: <Your Reason> Answer: <Your Answer>". Attention that if there are multiple questions, you need to answer them one by one, and the answers are separated by " ". Table (including its label, caption, and content): {Table} Paragraph: {Paragraph} Tips: {Tips} Please answer the question "{Question}".</p>

Table 10: The prompts for CAR.

Now on Page 1, total 222 pages

Select the Specific Page

Already annotated 0 / 222 instances

Paper Information

URL: <http://arxiv.org/pdf/2006.08332v1>

Reasoning Type: Domain knowledge Calculation

Question: Based on the information provided in the paragraph and the table, if the Statistical Machine Translation system's dataset consists of 24k parallel sentences and achieves a BLEU score of 41, estimate the BLEU score improvement necessary for the Proposed neural machine translation system to achieve an average BLEU score improvement of 10% across similar datasets.

Predicted Answer: Reason: The Statistical Machine Translation (SMT) system has a BLEU score of 41. A 10% improvement over this score would mean a BLEU score improvement of 10% of 41. Therefore, the necessary BLEU score improvement for the Proposed neural machine translation system over the SMT system would be 0.10×41 . Answer: 4.1 (an improvement to a BLEU score of 45.1 is needed for a 10% improvement).

Paragraph

\section{Sanskrit Hindi Machine Translation Systems} \label{Sanskrit Hindi Machine Translation Systems} The comparisons of the existing and proposed system are shown in Table. \ref{tab:comp} \begin{itemize} \subsection{Sanskrit-Hindi Anusaarka-2009} \item Approach: It is a \textbf{rule based} MT system \cite{bharati2009anusaaraka}. \item The insights for the system are taken from Panini's Ashtadhyayi. \item Developed By: Chinmaya International Foundation (CIF), Indian Institute of Information Technology, Hyderabad (IIIT-H) and University of Hyderabad at Department of Sanskrit Studies. \item Tool: \textbf{Samsadhani} It is a Language accessor cum machine translation system. Input can be of any of the following encodings Unicode-Devanagari, WX-alphabetic, Itrans 5.3, Velthuis (VH), Harvard Kyoto (KH), Sanskrit Library Project (SLP). Output can be displayed in either Devanagari script or in Roman Diacritical Notation. The system has a Sanskrit language analyser which does the analysis

Figure 7: The user interface, showing the paper information and the paragraph.

Tables		
Table 1: Label: tab:comp Caption: Comparison of Sanskrit Hindi Translation systems		
\textbf{Sanskrit-Hindi (Rule Based)}	\textbf{Sanskrit-Hindi (Statistical)}	\textbf{Sanskrit Hindi (Proposed)}
The system fails when extended to large domains. It is developed for domains like kids stories, building interactive media and e-learning substance for kids.	Sanskrit-Hindi text corpora has been collected or developed manually from the literature, health, news and tourism domains.	The proposed system is based on neural machine translation technique that covers all domains in general based on the dataset used.
Hand crafted rules based on Panini's Ashtadhyayi.	Based on Bayes theorem. Similar words assigned random numbers.	Word embedding used, similar words have close numbers.
Separate modules like tokenizer, sandhi splitter, morph analyser, parser, word sense disambiguation, part of speech tagger, chunker, Hindi lexical transfer and a Hindi language generator used to get translation.	SMT system have three separate main components-The translation model, reordering model, and the language model.SMT would evaluate fluency of a sentence in a target language a few words at a time using N-gram language model.	Proposed system learns complex relationship between languages as one single model. Proposed model considers the entire sentence.

Figure 8: The user interface, showing the tables.

Annotation Information

Correct Reasoning Type

Arithmetic Caculation

Revised Question

Based on the information provided in the paragraph and the table, if the Statistical Machine Translation system's dataset consists of 24k parallel sentences and achieves a BLEU score of 41, estimate the BLEU score improvement necessary for the Proposed neural machine translation system to achieve an average BLEU

Revised Rationale

Reason: The Statistical Machine Translation (SMT) system has a BLEU score of 41. A 10% improvement over this score would mean a BLEU score improvement of 10% of 41. Therefore, the necessary BLEU score improvement for the Proposed neural machine translation system over the SMT system would be 0.10×41

Revised Answer

4.1

Figure 9: The user interface, showing the annotation information.

Answer From

Table

Select Relevant Tables

tab:comp

If Remain:

Remain

Remove

Figure 10: The user interface, showing the choice for the answer source, relevant tables, and if to remain.

Figure 5 essentially confirms the results obtained so far. However, we now observe, for higher α values, that the cluster values of textbook-based networks become seemingly indistinguishable from those observable for Wikipedia corpora-based networks – the same observation concerns the SZ-Eco-based networks. Textbook-based TCNs are again hardly distinguishable from TCNs derived from informal language newspaper articles about topics related to economics (SZ-Eco). In any case, Table 7 also shows that all value distributions along the x and y axis are now distinguishable with only three exceptions: the dynamics of clustering is obviously more corpus specific.

α -values:							
SZ-All	SZ-Eco	TB	WP-All	WP-Eco	WP-Top-1	WP-Top-3	Zeit-All
SZ-All	$1.332,3 \times 10^{-15}$	$6.661,3 \times 10^{-16}$	$3.774,8 \times 10^{-15}$	$3.774,8 \times 10^{-15}$	$3.251,7 \times 10^{-100}$	$2.104,6 \times 10^{-100}$	$1.443,3 \times 10^{-15}$
SZ-Eco	—	$2.133,0 \times 10^{-08}$	$1.554,3 \times 10^{-15}$	$1.554,3 \times 10^{-15}$	$1.332,3 \times 10^{-15}$	$1.332,3 \times 10^{-15}$	$1.110,2 \times 10^{-16}$
TB	—	—	$1.554,3 \times 10^{-15}$	$1.554,3 \times 10^{-15}$	$6.661,3 \times 10^{-16}$	$6.661,3 \times 10^{-16}$	$1.554,3 \times 10^{-15}$
WP-All	—	—	—	$0.384,7$	$9.832,6 \times 10^{-97}$	$0.000,2$	$2.109,4 \times 10^{-15}$
WP-Eco	—	—	—	—	$1.718,7 \times 10^{-97}$	$6.944,0 \times 10^{-95}$	$2.109,4 \times 10^{-15}$
WP-Top-1	—	—	—	—	—	$0.477,8$	$1.443,3 \times 10^{-15}$
WP-Top-3	—	—	—	—	—	—	$1.443,3 \times 10^{-15}$
Zeit-All	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

β -values:							
SZ-All	SZ-Eco	TB	WP-All	WP-Eco	WP-Top-1	WP-Top-3	Zeit-All
SZ-All	$1.000,0$	$6.661,3 \times 10^{-16}$	$3.774,8 \times 10^{-15}$	$3.774,8 \times 10^{-15}$	$1.086,4 \times 10^{-14}$	$2.445,3 \times 10^{-71}$	$1.443,3 \times 10^{-15}$
SZ-Eco	—	$1.221,2 \times 10^{-15}$	$1.554,3 \times 10^{-15}$	$1.554,3 \times 10^{-15}$	$1.332,3 \times 10^{-15}$	$1.332,3 \times 10^{-15}$	$1.110,2 \times 10^{-16}$
TB	—	—	$1.176,7 \times 10^{-09}$	$5.162,5 \times 10^{-14}$	$1.477,7 \times 10^{-11}$	$4.872,1 \times 10^{-10}$	$1.767,3 \times 10^{-10}$
WP-All	—	—	—	$6.728,1 \times 10^{-05}$	$3.734,6 \times 10^{-05}$	$0.012,6$	$7.908,8 \times 10^{-12}$
WP-Eco	—	—	—	—	$4.079,8 \times 10^{-11}$	$3.819,2 \times 10^{-05}$	$2.109,4 \times 10^{-15}$
WP-Top-1	—	—	—	—	—	$0.000,9$	$1.042,1 \times 10^{-12}$
WP-Top-3	—	—	—	—	—	—	$3.153,0 \times 10^{-14}$
Zeit-All	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Table 7: P -values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness-of-fit test applied to the pairwise combinations of the x and y values of the distributions in Fig. 5.

Question:

Which tables illustrate the indistinguish ability of textbook-based networks from Wikipedia corpora-based networks for higher α values, and how does the paragraph support this observation?

Predicted Answer:

WP-All vs WP-Eco, WP-Top-1 vs WP-Top-3, and WP-Top-1 vs WP-Top-3.

Gold Answer:

Table tab:cws-x

Gold Answer:

The paragraph mentions that for higher α values, that the cluster values of textbook-based networks become seemingly indistinguishable from those observable for Wikipedia corpora-based networks.

Figure 11: The case for the error type of "Miss".

We propose two calculations. First, we calculate the maximum number of bi-sentences that an individual can acquire by the age of 23. The results are given in Table 1. We first estimate the daily acquisition time, then we deduce the number of sentences acquired annually.

	Age	Sleep Hours	awake time -2H	occ. sent. per day	Cumul. per year (Million sent.)			
					Analysis 1 bi-sent.	Analysis 2 L1	Analysis 2 L2	bi-sent.
Infant	1	16	6	5,760	1.1	1.1		
Young child	2	16	6	5,760	2.1	3.2		
	3	14	8	7,680	3.5	6.0		
	4~5	12	10	9,600	5.3	9.5		
Beg.prim.school	6	12	10	9,600	8.8	16.5		
	7~9	11	11	10,560	10.7	20.3		
End prim. school	10	11	11	10,560	16.5	31.9		
	11	10	12	11,520	18.6	36.1		
	12	10	12	11,520	20.7	40.3		
	13	9	13	12,480	23.0	44.9		
End middle school	14~17	8	14	13,440	25.4	49.8		
End high school	18	8	14	13,440	35.2	69.4		
	19~20	8	14	13,440	37.7	70.6	1.2	1.2
End Bachelor	21~22	8	14	13,440	42.6	73.1	3.7	3.7
End Master	23	8	14	13,440	47.5	75.5	6.1	6.1

Table 1: Cumulative number of sentences read or heard by a professional translator

Question:

How does the calculated cumulative number of bi-sentences by the end of a Bachelor's degree differ between Analysis 1 and Analysis 2 based on the interpretation of the data in Table \ref{tab1}?

Predicted Answer:

We cannot calculate the difference between Analysis 1 and Analysis 2 based on the data in Table \ref{tab1}.

Gold Answer:

Analysis 1 is 42.6 million, and Analysis 2 is 3.7 million; the difference is 38.9 million bi-sentences.

Figure 12: The case for the error type of "Grounding".

The results from the COMPAS dataset are detailed in Fig. 3, where minority population density, disparity, and loss measures are shown. In this scenario, the optimal control method shows comparable performance to RL-based algorithms. Specifically, TRPO and PPO reach a terminal state with a loss value of 0.574, which achieves the same level of performance compared to the proposed optimal control method. This similarity in performance is attributed to the lesser disparity in representation between different gender attributes within the COMPAS dataset.

Table 3: COMPAS: Terminal State with Initial $\lambda_0^1 = 0.6$ and $\lambda_0^2 = 0.4$

	Environment M_1^*						
	Fair-agnostic	Fair-aware		Dynamic-aware			
	ERM	Minimax	DRO	PG	TRPO	PPO	Optim
Density-2 \uparrow	0.271	0.256	0.184	0.263	0.264	0.257	0.274
Disparity \downarrow	0.522	0.529	0.153	0.435	0.489	0.442	0.516
Loss \downarrow	0.770	0.803	1.391	0.848	0.808	0.858	0.764

	Environment M_2^*						
	Fair-agnostic	Fair-aware		Dynamic-aware			
	ERM	Minimax	DRO	PG	TRPO	PPO	Optim
Density-2 \uparrow	0.316	0.298	0.075	0.317	0.317	0.317	0.317
Disparity \downarrow	0.684	0.702	0.925	0.863	0.683	0.683	0.683
Loss \downarrow	0.577	0.605	1.296	0.594	0.574	0.574	0.574

Question:

Which algorithm ranks the highest in terms of minimizing both disparity and loss across Environment M^{last}_2 ?

Predicted Answer:

TRPO

Gold Answer:

TRPO, PPO, and Optim

Figure 13: The case for the error type of "Calculation".

In particular, given a graph, we first extract all cycles out of it. Then, all edges that are not inside the cycles are considered motifs. We consider combining cycles with more than two coincident nodes into a motif. Although this method cannot extract complex motifs like single-input and multi-input motifs, it can generate the most important motifs, such as ring structures in biochemical molecules and the feed-forward loop motif. By adopting this simple but general motif extraction method, we can explain a GNN model without any domain knowledge, making our explanation model more applicable. Need to be noted that, even though the motif extraction rule cannot extract single-input and multi-input motifs, these motifs can be implicitly identified by our attention layer. Experiments in the table 2 demonstrate it.

TABLE 2
Results on quantitative studies for different explanation methods. Note that since the Sparsity cannot be fully controlled, we report Fidelity scores (The less the better) under similar Sparsity levels for five real-world datasets. For two synthetic datasets, BA-Shape and BA-2Motif, we report accuracy. S is the sparsity value. K is the maximum number of edges required by baseline models. Our MotifExplainer does not need this required hyper-parameter. The best performances on each dataset are shown in bold.

	MUTAG $S=0.7$	PTC $S=0.7$	NCI $S=0.7$ (Fidelity)	PROTEINS $S=0.7$	IMDB $S=0.7$	BA-2Motifs $K=5$ (Accuracy)	BA-Shape $K=5$
GNNExplainer	0.260	0.441	0.365	0.453	0.365	0.742	0.925
PGExplainer	0.241	0.388	0.402	0.521	0.225	0.926	0.963
SubgraphX	0.287	0.227	0.303	0.021	0.167	0.774	0.874
ReLine	0.221	0.349	0.409	0.435	0.127	0.932	0.954
MotifExplainer	0.031	0.129	0.115	0.030	0.101	1.0	1.0

Question:

Using the explanation method described in the paragraph, calculate the number of motifs in a biochemical molecule represented by a graph where all nodes form a single ring and there are no other connecting edges outside this cycle.

Predicted Answer:

1

Gold Answer:

0

Figure 14: The case for the error type of "Knowledge".

4 XAI Queries as Computation Problems

In this section, we consider successively the 9 XAI queries from (Audemard, Koriche, and Marquis 2020), as listed in Table 1, and we present them in formal terms.

XAI query	Description
EMC	Enumerating Minimum-Cardinality explanations
DPI	Deriving one Prime Implicant explanation
ECO	Enumerating COunterfactual explanations
CIN	Counting the INstances associated with a given class
EIN	Enumerating the INstances associated with a given class
IMA	Identifying MANDatory features or forbidden features in a given class
IIR	Identifying IRrelevant features in a given class
IMO	Identifying MOnotone (or anti-monotone) features in a given class
MCP	Measuring Closeness of a class to a Prototype

Table 1: Some XAI queries.

Question:

If the task requires solving EMC and DPI queries successively, with EMC taking 10 minutes and DPI taking 5 minutes, what is the total time taken to perform 3 EMC queries and 2 DPI queries?

Predicted Answer:

3 EMC queries take $3 \times 10 = 30$ minutes, and 2 DPI queries take $2 \times 5 = 10$ minutes. Therefore, the total time taken to perform 3 EMC queries and 2 DPI queries is $30 + 10 = 40$ minutes.

Gold Answer:

40 minutes

Figure 15: The case for the error type of "Redundancy".

Model	Scale	Method	Long-context		Short-context	
			Short-form Answers	Free-form Answers	Short-form Answers	Free-form Answers
-	-	Gold Answer	1.5	45.1	1.5	45.1
Llama3.1	8B	Direct QA	120.3	197.7	109.3	135.1
		CoT	35.8	75.4	23.3	74.4
		PoT	5.3	26.6	2.8	25.1
		CAR	24.3	54.8	21.4	53.8
	70B	Direct QA	118.9	220.1	118.9	220.1
		CoT	5.9	44.2	14.3	46.2
		PoT	3.6	30.0	3.3	36.4
		CAR	17.1	43.5	16.5	43.0
gpt-4o	-	Direct QA	151.2	213.2	105.7	141.6
		CoT	30.1	84.5	20.7	69.1
		PoT	3.0	24.4	4.6	52.4
		CAR	10.6	67.0	10.6	82.4

Table 11: Statistics of the number of tokens of gold answers and different results.