
No Question, No Passage, No Problem: Investigating Artifact Exploitation and Reasoning in Multiple-Choice Reading Comprehension

Anonymous Author(s)

Abstract

1 Large language models (LLMs) can achieve above majority baseline performance
2 on NLP tasks even when deprived of parts of the input, raising concerns that
3 benchmarks reward artifacts rather than reasoning. Prior work has demonstrated
4 this phenomenon in multiple-choice QA and natural language inference, but not in
5 multiple-choice reading comprehension (MCRC), where both a passage and ques-
6 tion are integral to the task. We study MCRC under a stricter ablation, removing
7 both passage and question to leave only the answer options. Despite this severe
8 ablation, models consistently exceed majority baselines across five benchmarks.
9 To probe how such accuracy arises, we introduce two reasoning-based strategies:
10 Process-of-Elimination, which iteratively discards distractors, and Abductive Pas-
11 sage Inference, which infers a context to justify an option. Both strategies closely
12 track choices-only accuracy, suggesting that strong performance reflects genuine
13 reasoning procedures rather than dataset artifacts alone.

14 1 Introduction

15 Reading comprehension (RC) has long served as a core test of language understanding for humans
16 and machines [3, 42, 44]. For humans, reading enables knowledge acquisition and reasoning [5, 25];
17 in NLP, RC has become a natural proxy for evaluating model competencies [3, 46]. Open-ended RC,
18 however, is costly to grade and often subjective, complicating large-scale, reliable evaluation [17, 19].

19 Multiple-choice formats mitigate these issues by fixing a candidate set and enabling efficient, objective
20 scoring [6, 22]. As a result, multiple-choice reading comprehension (MCRC) plays a central role in
21 LLM evaluation, pairing RC’s cognitive depth with practical scoring [40].

22 Yet improved scores may reflect dataset artifacts: superficial cues that allow success without genuine
23 comprehension [12]. Partial-input studies show above-chance performance when critical components
24 are withheld (e.g., hypothesis-only in NLI; passage- or question-only in RC/VQA) [18, 24, 36, 41, 47].
25 However, training dedicated partial-input models is impractical, motivating inference-time probes.
26 Balepur et al. propose partial-input prompting, showing that LLMs can exceed majority baselines
27 with choices only, and advance Abductive Question Inference as an alternative explanation for such
28 gains [2].

29 We extend partial-input prompting to MCRC under a stricter ablation: we remove the question
30 and passage and the model receives only the answer options, removing two thirds of the intended
31 input. All evaluations are zero-shot and use closed-source LLMs common in practice. To probe how
32 accuracy arises, we test two reasoning strategies: Process-of-Elimination (PoE), which iteratively
33 discards distractors, and Abductive Passage Inference (API), which synthesizes a plausible passage
34 and then answers against it. Both closely track choices-only performance, indicating that elevated
35 partial-input accuracy need not stem solely from brittle artifacts; models appear able to organize
36 option-set signals into usable structure. This motivates broader study of reasoning strategies under
37 ablation to separate shallow shortcuts from genuine inference in modern LLMs.

38 2 Related Works

39 2.1 Dataset artifacts

40 Benchmarks can contain shortcuts that let models succeed without true comprehension, inflating
41 headline scores [8, 47]. Such artifacts arise from annotation habits and templates [13, 16, 33] and,
42 increasingly, from quirks in synthetic data [49]. Evidence spans many tasks in which systems perform
43 well with only a subset of the input, such as hypothesis-only in NLI and passage-/question-only in RC
44 and VQA, indicating that option sets or prompts can leak label information [15, 18, 24, 36, 41, 43].

45 2.2 Probing and detecting artifacts

46 Partial-input testing removes components (e.g., passage or question) to measure residual signal
47 [24, 36]. Contrast sets and controlled perturbations provide complementary stress tests by minimally
48 editing inputs or labels; robust models should flip predictions when semantics flip, yet often do
49 not [10, 11, 14, 21, 30, 32, 45]. Mitigation attempts, which are adversarial or debiasing objectives,
50 revised collection protocols, and context alterations, show mixed effectiveness and dataset sensitivity
51 [4, 9, 27, 37, 43]. For modern LLMs, partial-input prompting turns artifact diagnosis into an inference-
52 time probe and already yields above-majority choices-only accuracy in MCQA [2]; our work transfers
53 this probe to stricter MCRC ablations.

54 2.3 Reasoning in MCRC

55 Multiple-choice reasoning involves integrating evidence while suppressing distractors; even humans
56 benefit from elimination strategies [38, 39]. In LLMs, Process-of-Elimination (PoE) prompting
57 changes decision dynamics and can improve full-input accuracy [1, 29], while sensitivity to option
58 ordering suggests that choice-set structure itself shapes predictions [35]. Abductive Passage Infer-
59 ence approaches ask models to hypothesize latent explanations and then answer conditioned on them,
60 improving reliability on reasoning tasks [23]. Closest to our setup, Balepur et al. show that Abductive
61 Question Inference can match choices-only performance in MCQA, implying that high partial-input
62 scores need not stem solely from brittle artifacts [2].

63 3 Choices-Only Evaluation

64 3.1 Task and Input

65 We formulate our target problem as a zero-shot multiple-choice reading comprehension task. Each
66 instance consists of a passage P , a question Q about the passage, and a fixed set of four candidate
67 answers $C = \{A, B, C, D\}$. The model must select exactly one option from this set.

68 In our partial input ablations, we evaluate on full-input and choices-only prompts. The full-input
69 condition, in which the model receives $P + Q + C$, serves as the reference point. In the choices-only
70 condition, we omit both the passage and the question, providing only C , eliminating about two-thirds
71 of the original signal as opposed to prior work that ablates either P or Q alone (removing roughly
72 half the input).

73 Full prompt design and structure can be found in Appendix A.1.

74 3.2 Datasets

75 We evaluate our ablation prompts across four established passage-based MCRC benchmarks, chosen
76 for their varied domain focus, difficulty, and community usage.

77 **QuALITY (Easy / Hard).** QuALITY is a long-form reading comprehension dataset featuring
78 passages with average token lengths of roughly 5,000. We report results separately on the Easy and
79 Hard splits: the Easy subset contains questions answerable with minimal inference, while the Hard
80 split tests deeper reasoning across the entirety of lengthy passages [7].

81 **RACE High.** RACE consists of English reading comprehension exams used in Chinese middle and
82 high schools [26]. We focus exclusively on the High School subset in our evaluations.

83 **ReClor.** ReClor is a reading comprehension and logical reasoning benchmark extracted from the
84 GMAT and LSAT exams [48]. We report results on the development set, as the gold labels are not
85 public for the test set.

86 **LogiQA 2.0.** LogiQA 2.0 is another reading comprehension and logical reasoning benchmark
87 constructed from Chinese Civil Service Examination questions [28]. We report results on the
88 development set, as the gold labels for the test set are not public.

89 3.3 Models

90 We evaluate three state-of-the-art closed-source LLMs spanning varying architectures and scales:
91 gpt-3.5-turbo-0125 and gpt-4o-2024-08-06, which represent popular, general models, as well as
92 o3-2025-04-16 as a high-end reasoning model. Each model is accessed through the OpenAI API with
93 a temperature of 0.0 and max_tokens set to None, and all other parameters left at their default values.
94 We run three independent replicates per model and ablation, reporting the average accuracy across
95 runs.

96 4 Hypothesis Evaluation

97 This section introduces two hypothesized mechanisms that may allow large language models to
98 exceed majority-class performance even when both the passage P and question Q are withheld in
99 multiple-choice reading comprehension (MCRC) benchmarks.

100 4.1 Process-of-Elimination Reasoning

101 **Rationale.** Even when deprived of semantic context, an LLM might still exploit world knowledge,
102 stylistic cues, or answer-set regularities to discard unlikely distractors in a stepwise fashion. If the
103 model can reliably isolate and remove implausible options, it could converge on the correct answer
104 without ever reconstructing the missing passage or question. Our approach is inspired by prior work
105 on Process-of-Elimination (PoE) prompting [1, 29], but importantly, these studies did not examine
106 elimination under partial-input conditions, where artifact exploitation can be revealed most directly.
107 Full prompt design and structure can be found in Appendix A.2

108 4.1.1 Abductive Passage Inference

109 **Rationale.** A more ambitious mechanism posits that a language model can generate a short passage
110 whose content privileges one of the candidate answers, and then resolve the multiple-choice item
111 against this synthetic context. This aligns with the classical notion of abduction as inference to the
112 best explanation [34], but here instantiated in generative form: the model attempts to hypothesize a
113 missing passage that would render one option most plausible. Success in this setting would suggest a
114 capacity for substantive generative reasoning beyond elimination or question reconstruction.

115 Full prompt design and structure can be found in Appendix A.3

116 5 Results

117 In Figure 1, we observe a consistent pattern in the zero shot setting across all MCRC benchmarks.
118 Full-input remains strongest for every model and dataset. For choices-only, this is a stronger ablation
119 than prior MCQA studies that remove only one component, so one would expect a sharper drop. Yet,
120 despite ablating both the passage and the question, the choices only prompt still attains accuracy that
121 is clearly above the majority baseline in the vast majority of model and dataset combinations. The
122 ordering by model capacity that appears under full input also appears under ablation, with o3 above
123 gpt-4o above gpt-3.5-turbo in nearly every panel, which indicates that the competencies that drive
124 full input gains also transfer to settings where only the options are available.

125 Our two hypothesis prompts closely track the choices only condition. In Figures 2 and 3, Abductive
126 Passage Inference and Process of Elimination all lie in a narrow band around choices only on every
127 dataset. In several panels the abductive variants slightly exceed choices only, while on others they are
128 essentially indistinguishable. This parity is important. If choices only success were driven primarily

by brittle lexical artifacts, one would expect large divergences when the prompt requires additional reasoning structure. Instead, the abductive procedures preserve the same level, which suggests that the information that supports decisions from options alone is robust to how it is organized at inference time.

6 Analysis

The primary empirical surprise is the strength of choices only in zero shot, even though two thirds of the input is removed. A natural first interpretation is artifact use. In curated multiple choice items, options are not arbitrary strings. They encode topical constraints, entailment relations, role structure, and stylistic signatures that distinguish correct answers from foils. If a model exploits these surface regularities, it can outperform a majority baseline without reading the passage or the question.

Our subsequent probes refine this explanation. Abductive Passage Inference reaches similar accuracy to the choices-only prompt while explicitly requiring the model to construct and then use a short hypothesized context. This shows that a large share of the choices only accuracy can be reproduced by a reasoning procedure that is coherent with the task definition, namely, infer a small set of latent contexts that make the options jointly coherent, then select the option that best fits those contexts. In this view, choices only is not only a test of artifact sensitivity, it is also a test of how well a model can aggregate constraints that are implicit in the option set into a decision. The persistence of capacity ordering under ablation supports this interpretation, stronger models carry richer priors and better calibrated judgments about option plausibility, and these capabilities help both when a passage is present and when it is absent.

Process of Elimination can sit near choices only under partial input because it leverages the same plausibility signals while reducing noise in the comparison. Many option sets contain one answer that is a weak outlier under broad background knowledge, and removing that competitor increases the effective separation among the remaining options and moves the ranking toward the ordering that a choices only scorer would already favor. Relative comparisons among options also expose small inconsistencies that are not tied to any specific passage but still track general world and linguistic knowledge. An option that is slightly less compatible with most plausible readings will be screened out, which leaves a smaller set that is easier to judge with the same cues used by choices only. The shift from four competing options to a tighter set further reduces variance in the final choice. Small spurious features have less chance to dominate once an obviously weak option is gone, so the decision aligns with the stable part of the model’s prior over plausible answers. These effects do not require strong assumptions about memorization. They rely on signals present in the options themselves and on calibrated priors about what answers tend to look like, which is why we believe Process of Elimination tracks choices only in the severe ablation setting.

7 Conclusion

Despite removing two thirds of the input in a zero-shot regime, large language models achieved strong choices-only accuracy across benchmarks. By testing Process-of-Elimination and Abductive Passage Inference hypothesis, we showed that reasoning-based strategies can reproduce choices-only performance, suggesting that models can actively reason with limited input information rather than relying solely on superficial cues.

8 Limitations and Future Work

Our experiments are limited to proprietary GPT-series models, which prevents deeper white-box analyses of token-level logits or attention patterns. Future work can replicate our ablations on open-weight and Mixture-of-Experts models.

In addition, LLM performance is sensitive to prompt design and hyperparameters [31]. We used simple zero-shot prompts with default settings, leaving open the possibility that tuning could further raise choices-only accuracy or alter the relative strengths of reasoning strategies.

References

- [1] Nishant Balepur, Shramay Palta, and Rachel Rudinger. It’s not easy being wrong: Large language models struggle with process of elimination reasoning, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2311.07532>.
- [2] Nishant Balepur, Abhilasha Ravichander, and Rachel Rudinger. Artifacts or abduction: How do llms answer multiple-choice questions without the question?, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2402.12483>.
- [3] Razieh Baradaran, Razieh Ghiasi, and Hossein Amirkhani. A survey on machine reading comprehension systems, 2020. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2001.01582>.
- [4] Yonatan Belinkov, Adam Poliak, Stuart M. Shieber, Benjamin Van Durme, and Alexander M. Rush. On adversarial removal of hypothesis-only bias in natural language inference, 2019. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1907.04389>.
- [5] Reese Butterfuss, Jasmine Kim, and Panayiota Kendeou. Reading comprehension, 01 2020. URL <https://oxfordre.com/education/view/10.1093/acrefore/9780190264093.001.0001/acrefore-9780190264093-e-865>.
- [6] Nikhil Chandak, Shashwat Goel, Ameya Prabhu, Moritz Hardt, and Jonas Geiping. Answer matching outperforms multiple choice for language model evaluation, 2025. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2507.02856>.
- [7] Pradeep Dasigi, Kyle Lo, Iz Beltagy, Arman Cohan, Noah A. Smith, and Matt Gardner. A dataset of information-seeking questions and answers anchored in research papers, 2021. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2105.03011>.
- [8] Mengnan Du, Fengxiang He, Na Zou, Dacheng Tao, and Xia Hu. Shortcut learning of large language models in natural language understanding, 2023. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2208.11857>.
- [9] Yanai Elazar, Bhargavi Paranjape, Hao Peng, Sarah Wiegrefe, Khyathi Raghavi, Vivek Sriku-mar, Sameer Singh, and Noah A. Smith. Measuring and improving attentiveness to partial inputs with counterfactuals, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2311.09605>.
- [10] Shi Feng, Eric Wallace, and Jordan Boyd-Graber. Misleading failures of partial-input baselines, 2019. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1905.05778>.
- [11] Matt Gardner, Yoav Artzi, Victoria Basmova, Jonathan Berant, Ben Bogin, Sihao Chen, Pradeep Dasigi, Dheeru Dua, Yanai Elazar, Ananth Gottumukkala, Nitish Gupta, Hanna Hajishirzi, Gabriel Ilharco, Daniel Khashabi, Kevin Lin, Jiangming Liu, Nelson F. Liu, Phoebe Mulcaire, Qiang Ning, Sameer Singh, Noah A. Smith, Sanjay Subramanian, Reut Tsarfaty, Eric Wallace, Ally Zhang, and Ben Zhou. Evaluating models’ local decision boundaries via contrast sets, 2020. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2004.02709>.
- [12] Matt Gardner, William Merrill, Jesse Dodge, Matthew E. Peters, Alexis Ross, Sameer Singh, and Noah A. Smith. Competency problems: On finding and removing artifacts in language data, 2021. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2104.08646>.
- [13] Mor Geva, Yoav Goldberg, and Jonathan Berant. Are we modeling the task or the annotator? an investigation of annotator bias in natural language understanding datasets, 2019. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1908.07898>.
- [14] Max Glockner, Vered Shwartz, and Yoav Goldberg. Breaking nli systems with sentences that require simple lexical inferences, 2018. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1805.02266>.
- [15] Yash Goyal, Tejas Khot, Douglas Summers-Stay, Dhruv Batra, and Devi Parikh. Making the v in vqa matter: Elevating the role of image understanding in visual question answering, 2017. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1612.00837>.
- [16] Suchin Gururangan, Swabha Swayamdipta, Omer Levy, Roy Schwartz, Samuel R. Bowman, and Noah A. Smith. Annotation artifacts in natural language inference data, 2018. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1803.02324>.

- [17] Owen Henkel, Adam Boxer, Libby Hills, and Bill Roberts. Can large language models make the grade? an empirical study evaluating llms ability to mark short answer questions in k-12 education, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2405.02985>.
- [18] Christine Herlihy and Rachel Rudinger. Mednli is not immune: Natural language inference artifacts in the clinical domain, 2021. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2106.01491>.
- [19] Andrea Horbach, Itziar Aldabe, Marie Bexte, Oier Lopez de Lacalle, and Montse Maritxalar. Linguistic appropriateness and pedagogic usefulness of reading comprehension questions. In Nicoletta Calzolari, Frédéric B  chet, Philippe Blache, Khalid Choukri, Christopher Cieri, Thierry Declerck, Sara Goggi, Hitoshi Isahara, Bente Maegaard, Joseph Mariani, H  l  ne Mazo, Asuncion Moreno, Jan Odijk, and Stelios Piperidis, editors, *Proceedings of the Twelfth Language Resources and Evaluation Conference*, pages 1753–1762, Marseille, France, May 2020. European Language Resources Association. ISBN 979-10-95546-34-4. URL <https://aclanthology.org/2020.lrec-1.217/>.
- [20] Alexander Hoyle, Rupak Sarkar, Pranav Goel, and Philip Resnik. Natural language decompositions of implicit content enable better text representations, 2025. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2305.14583>.
- [21] Robin Jia and Percy Liang. Adversarial examples for evaluating reading comprehension systems, 2017. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1707.07328>.
- [22] Yiming Ju, Yuanzhe Zhang, Zhixing Tian, Kang Liu, Xiaohuan Cao, Wenting Zhao, Jinlong Li, and Jun Zhao. Enhancing multiple-choice machine reading comprehension by punishing illogical interpretations. In Marie-Francine Moens, Xuanjing Huang, Lucia Specia, and Scott Wen-tau Yih, editors, *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 3641–3652, Online and Punta Cana, Dominican Republic, November 2021. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2021.emnlp-main.295. URL <https://aclanthology.org/2021.emnlp-main.295/>.
- [23] Jaehun Jung, Lianhui Qin, Sean Welleck, Faeze Brahman, Chandra Bhagavatula, Ronan Le Bras, and Yejin Choi. Maieutic prompting: Logically consistent reasoning with recursive explanations, 2022. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2205.11822>.
- [24] Divyansh Kaushik and Zachary C. Lipton. How much reading does reading comprehension require? a critical investigation of popular benchmarks, 2018. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1808.04926>.
- [25] Panayiota Kendeou, Paul van den Broek, Annemarie Helder, and Josefin Karlsson. A cognitive view of reading comprehension: Implications for reading difficulties. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, 29(1):10–16, 2014. doi: 10.1111/ldrp.12025.
- [26] Guokun Lai, Qizhe Xie, Hanxiao Liu, Yiming Yang, and Eduard Hovy. Race: Large-scale reading comprehension dataset from examinations, 2017. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1704.04683>.
- [27] Alisa Liu, Swabha Swayamdipta, Noah A. Smith, and Yejin Choi. Wanli: Worker and ai collaboration for natural language inference dataset creation, 2022. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2201.05955>.
- [28] Hanmeng Liu, Jian Liu, Leyang Cui, Zhiyang Teng, Nan Duan, Ming Zhou, and Yue Zhang. Logiqa 2.0—an improved dataset for logical reasoning in natural language understanding. *IEEE/ACM Trans. Audio, Speech and Lang. Proc.*, 31:2947–2962, July 2023. ISSN 2329-9290. doi: 10.1109/TASLP.2023.3293046. URL <https://doi.org/10.1109/TASLP.2023.3293046>.
- [29] Chenkai Ma and Xinya Du. Poe: Process of elimination for multiple choice reasoning, 2023. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2310.15575>.
- [30] R. Thomas McCoy, Ellie Pavlick, and Tal Linzen. Right for the wrong reasons: Diagnosing syntactic heuristics in natural language inference, 2019. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1902.01007>.

- [31] Sewon Min, Xinxu Lyu, Ari Holtzman, Mikel Artetxe, Mike Lewis, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, and Luke Zettlemoyer. Rethinking the role of demonstrations: What makes in-context learning work? In Yoav Goldberg, Zornitsa Kozareva, and Yue Zhang, editors, *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 11048–11064, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates, December 2022. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2022.emnlp-main.759. URL <https://aclanthology.org/2022.emnlp-main.759/>.
- [32] John X. Morris, Eli Lifland, Jin Yong Yoo, Jake Grigsby, Di Jin, and Yanjun Qi. Textattack: A framework for adversarial attacks, data augmentation, and adversarial training in nlp, 2020. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2005.05909>.
- [33] Mihir Parmar, Swaroop Mishra, Mor Geva, and Chitta Baral. Don’t blame the annotator: Bias already starts in the annotation instructions, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2205.00415>.
- [34] Charles Sanders Peirce. *Collected Papers of Charles Sanders Peirce, Volume 1*. Harvard University Press, 1974.
- [35] Pouya Pezeshkpour and Estevam Hruschka. Large language models sensitivity to the order of options in multiple-choice questions, 2023. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2308.11483>.
- [36] Adam Poliak, Jason Naradowsky, Aparajita Haldar, Rachel Rudinger, and Benjamin Van Durme. Hypothesis only baselines in natural language inference, 2018. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1805.01042>.
- [37] Abhilasha Ravichander, Joe Stacey, and Marek Rei. When and why does bias mitigation work? In Houda Bouamor, Juan Pino, and Kalika Bali, editors, *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2023*, pages 9233–9247, Singapore, December 2023. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2023.findings-emnlp.619. URL <https://aclanthology.org/2023.findings-emnlp.619/>.
- [38] Kenneth Royal and Mari-Wells Hedgpeth. A novel method for evaluating examination item quality. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 7:17–17, 02 2015. doi: 10.5539/ijps.v7n1p17.
- [39] Kenneth D. Royal and Myrah R. Stockdale. The impact of 3-option responses to multiple-choice questions on guessing strategies and cut score determinations. *Journal of Advances in Medical Education & Professionalism*, 5(2):84–89, 2017.
- [40] Andreas Säuberli and Simon Clematide. Automatic generation and evaluation of reading comprehension test items with large language models, 2024. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2404.07720>.
- [41] Krupal Shah, Nitish Gupta, and Dan Roth. What do we expect from multiple-choice qa systems?, 2020. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2011.10647>.
- [42] Chenglei Si, Ziqing Yang, Yiming Cui, Wentao Ma, Ting Liu, and Shijin Wang. Benchmarking robustness of machine reading comprehension models, 2021. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2004.14004>.
- [43] Neha Srikanth and Rachel Rudinger. Partial-input baselines show that nli models can ignore context, but they don’t, 2022. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2205.12181>.
- [44] Saku Sugawara, Pontus Stenetorp, and Akiko Aizawa. Benchmarking machine reading comprehension: A psychological perspective, 2021. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2004.01912>.
- [45] Eric Wallace, Shi Feng, Nikhil Kandpal, Matt Gardner, and Sameer Singh. Universal adversarial triggers for attacking and analyzing nlp, 2021. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1908.07125>.

- [46] Jason Weston, Antoine Bordes, Sumit Chopra, Alexander M. Rush, Bart van Merriënboer, Armand Joulin, and Tomas Mikolov. Towards ai-complete question answering: A set of prerequisite toy tasks, 2015. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/1502.05698>.
- [47] Sarah Wiegrefe and Ana Marasović. Teach me to explain: A review of datasets for explainable natural language processing, 2021. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2102.12060>.
- [48] Weihao Yu, Zihang Jiang, Yanfei Dong, and Jiashi Feng. Reclor: A reading comprehension dataset requiring logical reasoning, 2020. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2002.04326>.
- [49] Yue Yu, Yuchen Zhuang, Jieyu Zhang, Yu Meng, Alexander Ratner, Ranjay Krishna, Jiaming Shen, and Chao Zhang. Large language model as attributed training data generator: A tale of diversity and bias, 2023. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2306.15895>.

A Prompt Templates

Below we reproduce all zero-shot prompt templates used in our experiments.

A.1 Full Input and Choices Only

Our full-input prompt is structured as follows:

```
Full Input Prompt
Passage:  $\mathcal{P}$ 
Question:  $\mathcal{Q}$ 
Choices: \n (A)  $c_a$  \n (B)  $c_b$  \n (C)  $c_c$  \n (D)  $c_d$ 
Answer:
```

And our choices-only prompt is structured as follows:

```
Choices-Only Prompt
Choices: \n (A)  $c_a$  \n (B)  $c_b$  \n (C)  $c_c$  \n (D)  $c_d$ 
Answer:
```

A.2 Process-of-Elimination

Prompt design. We implement PoE as a two-round dialogue. In the first round the model receives the four options and is instructed to name the single least plausible choice. The remaining three options are then re-presented, and the model is asked to identify the most plausible answer among them.

Our evaluation of Process-of-Elimination relies on a two-step prompt, detailed below:

```
PoE – Step 1: Eliminate One Choice
Choices: \n (A)  $c_a$  \n (B)  $c_b$  \n (C)  $c_c$  \n (D)  $c_d$ 
Incorrect answer:
```

```
PoE – Step 2: Answer Among Remaining
Choices: \n (A)  $c_a$  \n (B)  $c_b$  \n (C)  $c_c$ 
Answer:
```

A.3 Abductive Passage Inference

Prompt design. Our formulation of Abductive Passage Inference (API) builds on recent abductive prompting strategies in multiple-choice reasoning [2], as well as broader evidence that LLMs benefit from explicitly verbalizing latent content [20]. API proceeds in two stages. In the first stage, the model is given the four answer options and asked to compose a passage that could plausibly accompany

those options in a standard MCRC item. In the second stage, this generated passage is embedded into a new prompt alongside the same four options, and the model is asked to select an answer letter.

API – Step 1: Infer Passage

Choices: \n (A) c_a \n (B) c_b \n (C) c_c \n (D) c_d
Infer a passage:

API – Step 2: Answer w/ Inferred Passage

Passage: $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$
Choices: \n (A) c_a \n (B) c_b \n (C) c_c \n (D) c_d
Answer:

Scoring. In our evaluation, instances where the model fails to provide a valid answer, such as deferring, refusing, or producing outputs that cannot be mapped to a choice, are assigned a default score of 0.25, reflecting the expected accuracy of a uniform random guess among four answer options.

B Additional Figures

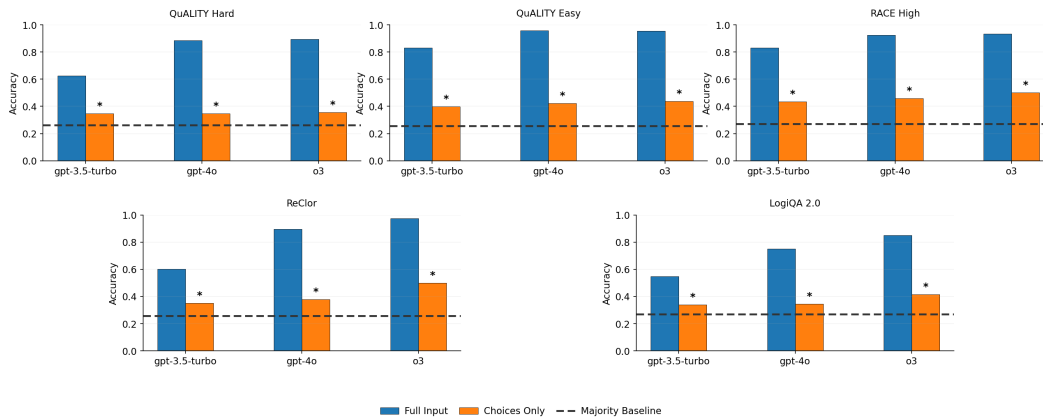


Figure 1: Full-input versus choices-only accuracy. An asterisk above a bar indicates accuracy significantly above the dataset’s majority class baseline at $p < 0.05$ using a two sample t test across runs.

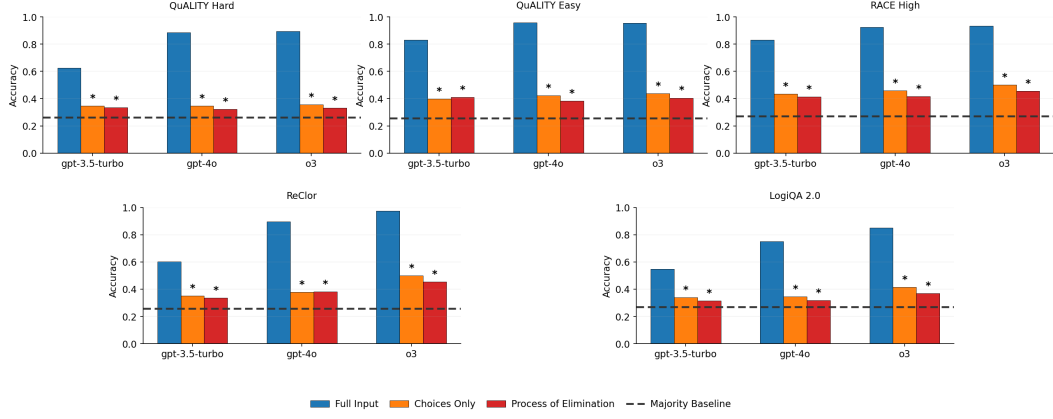


Figure 2: Full-input versus Process-of-Elimination accuracy. An asterisk above a bar indicates accuracy significantly above the dataset’s majority class baseline at $p < 0.05$ using a two sample t test across runs.

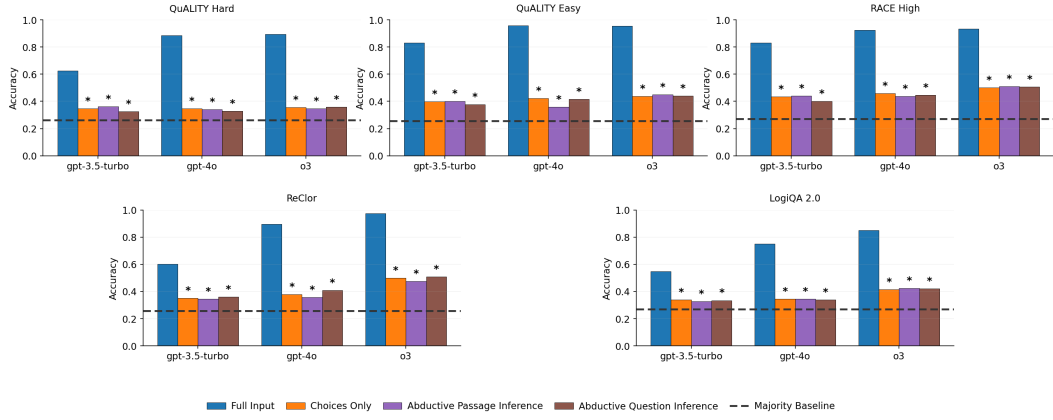


Figure 3: Full-input versus Abductive Passage Inference versus Abductive Question Inference accuracy. An asterisk above a bar indicates accuracy significantly above the dataset’s majority class baseline at $p < 0.05$ using a two sample t test across runs.