Solving NLP Problems through Human-System Collaboration: A Discussion-based Approach

Masahiro Kaneko¹ Graham Neubig² Naoaki Okazaki¹ ¹Tokyo Institute of Technology ²Carnegie Mellon University masahiro.kaneko@nlp.c.titech.ac.jp gneubig@cs.cmu.edu okazaki@c.titech.ac.jp

Abstract

Humans work together to solve common problems by having discussions, explaining, and agreeing or disagreeing with each other. Similarly, if a system can have discussions with human partners when solving tasks, it has the potential to improve the system's performance and reliability. In previous research on explainability, it has only been possible for systems to make predictions and for humans to ask questions about them, rather than having a mutual exchange of opinions. This research aims to create a dataset¹ and a computational framework for systems that discuss and refine their predictions through dialogue. Through experiments, we show that the proposed system can have beneficial discussions with humans, improving the accuracy by up to 25 points on a natural language inference task.

1 Introduction

Today's deep learning systems are performant but opaque, leading to a wide variety of explainability techniques that attempt to take in a system prediction and output an explanation justifying the prediction (Ribeiro et al., 2016; Shwartz-Ziv and Tishby, 2017; Fong and Vedaldi, 2017; Kim et al., 2018; Lipton, 2018; Wiegreffe et al., 2022). Many such explainability techniques require significant expertise in deep learning to use effectively, requiring consumers of the explanations to analyze the data, internal states, and output trends of the system of interest (Ribeiro et al., 2016; Kaneko et al., 2022d; Kaneko and Okazaki, 2023). However, many potential system users lack this expertise, such as medical or legal professionals who want to use machine learning models and need to confirm the veracity of the generated results or rectify any mistaken predictions.

To address this issue, researchers are working to find ways to both explain system predictions in nat-



Figure 1: Human-system discussions in NLI.

ural language (Ling et al., 2017; Raffel et al., 2020; Brown et al., 2020; Wiegreffe et al., 2022; Du et al., 2023) and give instructions and feedback to systems through natural language (Abramson et al., 2022; Sharma et al., 2022; Murty et al., 2022; Campos and Shern, 2022; Bowman et al., 2022; Loem et al., 2023). Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting has shown that natural language contributes to performance improvements in complex multistep inference (Wei et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022b; Zhang et al., 2022). Step-by-step reasoning in CoT relies solely on the system to make predictions without human involvement. There is also work that allows users to ask questions about the system's predictions and tasks (Slack et al., 2022) in a conversational format. Compared to the more standard learning and explanation paradigms, this approach allows humans to understand and teach the system intuitively. However, in these works, the communication tends to be one-sided, from human-tosystem or system-to-human, which still falls short of the full interactive problem solving process experienced by human interlocutors (Lakkaraju et al., 2022).

In this study, we take the first steps towards es-

¹Our dataset is publicly available at:https://github. com/kanekomasahiro/discussion_nlp

tablishing a framework for *human-system collaboration on prediction problems through discussion* (illustration in Figure 1). If such a system is realized, it will allow both humans and the system to engage in explanations of predictions, ask questions about unclear points, refine their thoughts, and solve problems.

First, we create a dataset of *human-human discussions* regarding a prediction task (Section 2). In particular, we use the task of natural language inference (NLI): prediction of the relationship between a "premise" sentence and a "hypothesis" sentence is entailment, contradiction, or neutral (Bowman et al., 2015). We specifically choose relatively *difficult or ambiguous cases* to spur discussion between the participants.

Second, we train and evaluate a system that is capable of discussing an NLI problem with a human (Sections 3, 4). It is achieved by constructing prompts with manually created discussion examples so the system can learn from humans how to discuss, accept, or object to the provided opinions about the topic.

The results of both quantitative and human evaluation demonstrate that a system could perform more informative discussions by training to have a discussion with few-shot learning (Section 5). We also found that providing the system with information about the discussion topic improved its performance in many cases compared to the system that did not have access to such information. On the other hand, the discussion revealed that the system tends to be too compliant with human opinions. Therefore, addressing the risk of transmitting incorrect knowledge or maliciously altering the system's knowledge of humans is necessary. We also show that few-shot usage of discussion data can enable the system to counter human arguments correctly (Section 6). Finally, we demonstrate that using discussion data generated by the system (Wang et al., 2022b; Huang et al., 2022) can achieve equivalent results to those of the system that used manually created discussion data in few-shot learning or finetuning cases.

2 Discussion Dataset Creation

The NLI task aims to determine the logical relationship between a hypothesis sentence and a premise sentence (Bowman et al., 2015). The task involves classifying whether the hypothesis sentence is entailment, contradiction, or neutral. For example, given the premise "*The cat is sitting on the mat*" and the hypothesis "*The mat is empty*", the task would involve classifying the relationship as a contradiction. NLI tasks require deep assimilation of fine nuances of common sense knowledge, and much work has been done to explain this with natural language as a prediction reason (Camburu et al., 2018; Kumar and Talukdar, 2020). Therefore, we also target the NLI task and build a system that predicts entailment, contradiction, or neutrality through discussion.

To train a system that can engage in a discussion, we create a dataset of human annotators discussing NLI problems. We use the Stanford NLI (SNLI) dataset (Bowman et al., 2015), a common benchmark dataset in NLP, to create the discussion data. Collecting high-quality discussion data among humans is costly, as it requires knowledgeable annotators about the task and multiple dialogue turns for each problem. Fourteen annotators with knowledge of NLP were asked to annotate the data.²

First, the annotators were presented with premise and hypothesis sentences and asked to predict labels such as entailment, contradiction, or neutral. We randomly paired two annotators to have them assign labels for the same premise and hypothesis. Then, they discussed the labels that they had assigned differently and decided on the final labels based on those discussions. The premise and hypothesis sentences were sampled from 300 problems from the development data and 750 problems from the evaluation data of SNLI. These were used as development and evaluation data in the discussion data, respectively. Each annotator pair is asked to predict the labels of 150 problems. SNLI development data originally consists of problems with labels from five crowd workers, and the majority vote of these labels determines the golden label. To find relatively hard cases that might spur more discussion, we sampled problems for annotation from those in which three of the five had the same label.

Our annotators were then paired with each other and discussed the questions for which they had given different labels. They discussed in a freeform manner until they agreed on a final decision.³ Preliminary experimental results showed that the

²Annotation work was requested at \$25 per hour. The data collection from human participants was conducted under an institutional review board protocol.

³They were also instructed not to include personal information and inappropriate utterances.

Task description	Please select the label whether the premise and Hypothesis are entailment, contradiction, or neutral.
Example	Premise : A woman in black pants is looking at her cellphone. Hypothesis : a woman is looking at her phone
Discussion example	<pre>Discussion: Human1: It's entailment, because a woman looks at her phone in both sentences. Human2: Is the phone in the hypothesis necessarily a cellphone? It could be a landline phone. Human1: People rarely look at a landline phone, so it seems the same cellphone. Human2: I think it is also better to consider the general cases. Human1: I agree. So it is entailment, right? Label: entailment</pre>
Problem	Premise : A woman in a teal apron prepares a meal at a restaurant. Hypothesis : A woman prepare a lunch in restaurant

Figure 2: Prompt with a single example for few-shot learning.

number of discussion turns tended to be higher for oral rather than text-based discussions. Therefore, we created discussion data by transcribing oral discussions among the annotators, using Whisper (medium.en) (Radford et al., 2022)⁴ for transcription. The text transcribed by Whisper was manually corrected for transcription errors and manually separated into speech segments.

Then, for each utterance, we assigned the evidential utterances for the final label and the labels of "supportive", "unsupportive", or "irrelevant" to each utterance. For example, for Figure 1, "Both have a person sitting in the chair, but they are neutral because no gender is specified." is labeled as supportive, "It is entailment because the person sits in a chair." is unsupportive, and "Yes." is labeled as irrelevant. These labels are not used in the fewshot learning process but are used to evaluate the discussion ability of the system automatically.

In this annotation work, discussion data were collected for 102 problems. Of these, 10 problems were used as prompts for few-shot learning, 27 for validation data, and 65 for evaluation data. The average number of utterances for each problem in the prompt, validation, and evaluation data is 4.4, 6.3, and 5.1 respectively. For validation and evaluation data, the number of supportive/unsupportive utterances are 85/23 and 133/72 respectively.

3 Discussion System

We use three types of systems in the experiments: **zero-shot**, **few-shot**, and **few-shot-discussion**. In the zero-shot system, only the task description is given as a prompt. In the few-shot system, the

examples' task description and premise, hypothesis, and gold labels are given as prompts. In the few-shot-discussion system, in addition to the task description and examples, human discussion examples about the labels of the examples are given as prompts. These prompts are concatenated with the problem to be solved and given as input to the system to perform inference. Examples of each prompt are shown in Figure 2. The discussion example distinguishes human utterances between "Human1:" and "Human2:".

The examples used in the prompts are the same for both the few-shot and the few-shot-discussion systems. We use the same examples for all problems. All methods do not update the parameters of the systems. We use GPT- 3.5^5 (Brown et al., 2020) and ChatGPT⁶ (OpenAI, 2023) for the zero-shot, few-shot, and few-shot-discussion systems.

4 Evaluation Method

We evaluate a system's discussion ability from the following three perspectives: (1) Can the system generate utterance content that contributes to the final label? (2) Can the system agree with statements that support the correct label and refute statements that support the incorrect label? (3) Does discussion with humans improve task performance? To examine these discussion abilities, we compare each system by performing automatic and manual evaluations.

We investigate utterances generated from the

⁴https://github.com/openai/whisper

⁵text-davinci-003: https://beta.openai.com/ docs/models/gpt-3

⁶gpt-3.5-turbo: https://platform.openai.com/ docs/guides/gpt/chat-completions-api

systems to determine if they contribute to the automatic evaluation's final label. For that, we use the utterances generated by the system for the given problems and evaluate how well they match the reference utterances between humans from discussion evaluation data. Each utterance in our discussion evaluation data is annotated as either supportive or unsupportive of the gold label. If a system is more likely to generate a supportive utterance than an unsupportive utterance for the gold label, the system can be considered capable of making correct discussions that lead to the correct answers. For example, "I think it is also better to consider the general cases." is the supportive utterance, and "Is the phone in the hypothesis necessarily a cellphone? It could be a landline phone." is the unsupportive utterance in Figure 2. Therefore, we also investigate whether the system is better at generating supportive utterances over unsupportive ones. Specifically, we evaluate the similarity between the system-generated utterances and the actual human utterances for supportive and unsupportive utterances, respectively.

We concatenate the input problem and the discussion utterance up to the target utterance and generate the next target utterance. For example, if the second human's utterance in the discussion is the target utterance, then the prompt is "Premise: A nun is taking a picture outside. Hypothesis: A nun is taking a selfie. Label: entailment or neutral Discussion: Human1: I think it is entailment, because the nun is taking a picture, so it might be a selfie. Human2:", and the system should generate an utterance that would be evaluated against the following utterance made by a human "Since it is outside, it is conceivable that the nun is taking some scenery.". At this point, the problem has two opposing labels in the prompt because we want it to discuss two different labels.

We use actual human utterances as references and compute the BERTScore (Zhang et al., 2020) of the system's outputs for evaluation. BERTScore leverages the pre-trained language model such as BERT (Vaswani et al., 2017) and RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019) and matches words in candidate and reference sentences by cosine similarity. BERTScore computes precision, recall, and F1 measures. Therefore, BERTScore can be used to compare the system's content and human utterances with each other. We use roberta-large⁷ for the pre-trained language model for BERTScore. We conduct a significance test using t-test (p < 0.01). We set the temperature parameter of GPT-3.5 and ChatGPT to 0.7 and generate ten outputs for each input. We calculate BERTScore for each of the ten outputs and test for significance among the calculated ten scores.

Next, we use human evaluation to examine whether the system can agree with supportive human utterances and refute unsupportive human utterances. The human participants and the system predict different labels for the same problem. Then, they engage in a discussion, and the final label result is demonstrated to be in agreement with the labels assigned in the SNLI data through the consistency of the agreement rate. In this process, we evaluate the ability of the system to accept a human's opinion when the system's label is incorrect, and when the human's label is correct, and the ability of the system to object to a human's opinion when the human's label is incorrect, and the system's label is correct.

Similarly to above, we selected those data with the same label 3 times (e.g., entailment, entailment, neutral, entailment, neutral). As a result, we sampled 140 problems that differ from the problems collected in section 2. During this process, if the system's label was correct, humans engaged in adversarial discussions to change the system's label. If the system's label was incorrect, humans engaged in discussions to guide the system toward the correct label. Here, the discussion was text-based rather than verbal, as the system takes textual input.

To conduct a discussion with the system, we input the prompt and problem shown in Figure 2 to the system and then inputted additional human utterance examples related to the discussion after each system predicted the label. In the additional input, the beginning of human utterance is prefixed with "*Human:*" and the end is prefixed with "*System:*" to indicate that the next is a system's utterance. Specifically, the first prompt for discussion is "*Human: Let's discuss it more. I think neutral, because there may be a kitchen in the barn. System:*". The system predicts the final label when the discussion is finished.

We investigate how discussion with humans improves NLI task performance. The system predicts the label, then the human and the system discuss and decide on the final label. We compare the performance of each label before and after the dis-

⁷https://huggingface.co/roberta-large

	supportive \uparrow	unsupportive \downarrow	diff.
zero-shot	82.0/83.1	81.8/82.5	0.2/0.6
few-shot	82.7/83.6	82.3/82.9	0.4/0.7
few-shot-dis.	84.8[†]/86.3[†]	79.1[†]/78.6 [†]	5.7/7.7

Table 1: BERTScore of supportive and unsupportive utterances. The left scores are by GPT-3.5, and the right scores are by ChatGPT. \dagger indicates statistically significant scores for supportive and unsupportive according to the t-test (p < 0.01).

	Acceptance rate	Objection rate
zero-shot	75.0/80.0	58.9/55.0
few-shot	80.0/80.0	55.0/55.0
few-shot-dis.	90.0[†]/95.0[†]	80.0[†]/80.0[†]

Table 2: Human evaluation of the system's ability to accept and object to human opinion. The left scores are by GPT-3.5, and the right scores are by ChatGPT. † indicates statistically significant scores according to McNemar's test (p < 0.01).

cussion. Here, the data for the acceptance and objection settings are half and half. Therefore, if the discussion is not properly conducted, such as by accepting all human labels or refuting all human labels, the performance will not improve.

We also investigate the performance of the NLI when using argumentation prompts. We compared the performance of NLI in zero-shot, few-shot, and few-shot-discussion systems. The predicted label after "Label:" in the prompt of Figure 2 is considered as the prediction, and discussion between humans and systems is not performed. In the evaluation of NLI performance, in addition to SNLI data, we also use Adversarial NLI (ANLI) data (Nie et al., 2020). ANLI creates data by repeatedly performing adversarial annotation against NLI systems; thus, the resulting NLI examples are particularly difficult for the system to solve. There are three data sets R1, R2, and R3 with differences in the number of iterations, and the evaluation is performed using each evaluation data point.

5 Experiments

5.1 Discussion Ability Evaluation Results

Table 1 represents BERTScore for supportive and unsupportive utterances and the difference between them in zero-shot, few-shot, and few-shotdiscussion systems. The BERTScore of few-shotdiscussion is generally higher than that of the zeroshot and the few-shot systems. It can be seen

	Before	After
zero-shot	54.2/60.0	65.6/60.0
few-shot	60.0/65.6	60.0/70.0
few-shot-dis.	60.0/65.6	85.0 [†] /90.0 [†]

Table 3: The accuracy for the predicted label before and after the discussion. The left scores are by GPT-3.5, and the right scores are by ChatGPT. \dagger indicates statistically significant scores according to McNemar's test (p < 0.01).

	SNLI	R1	R2	R3
zero-shot	49.74	47.40	39.10	41.33
few-shot	69.45	53.50	48.00	48.50
few-shot-dis.	66.14	53.90 [†]	50.40 [†]	50.42 [†]
zero-shot	51.83	48.63	41.70	40.52
few-shot	70.31	55.08	52.31	52.18
few-shot-dis.	70.15	57.24 [†]	55.63 [†]	55.19 [†]

Table 4: The accuracy on SNLI and ANLI (R1, R2, R3) evaluation data. Upper scores are by GPT-3.5, and lower scores are by ChatGPT. \dagger indicates statistically significant scores according to McNemar's test (p < 0.01).

that few-shot-discussion can generate discussion utterances with higher accuracy than zero-shot and few-shot, which do not use discussion examples data. The performance of zero-shot and few-shot is almost the same, suggesting that just showing examples does not improve the discussion ability. Also, the difference between supportive and unsupportive utterance accuracies is greater in few-shotdiscussion than in zero-shot and few-shot systems. Therefore, because the few-shot-discussion can generate more supportive utterances, it is thought that such discussions can result in more appropriate labels.

Table 2 shows the accuracy of the label determined by discussion in the settings for evaluating the acceptance ability and objection ability, respectively. In terms of the objection, it can be seen that the few-shot-discussion system handled objections well in comparison to the zero-shot system. In addition, Table 3 shows the accuracy⁸ of the predicted label without discussion, and the accuracy of the final label reached as a result of the discussion between humans and systems. Furthermore, the few-shot system has a similar objection ability as the zero-shot system, and there is a pos-

⁸To facilitate discussion, this evaluation is limited to instances where three of the five cloudworkers have the same label in SNLI data. This makes it more challenging than using the entire SNLI data.

	SNLI	R1	R2	R3
GPT-3.5 dis. GPT-3.5 pseudo	66.14 65.67	53.90 54.00	50.40 49.60	50.42 50.50
ChatGPT dis. ChatGPT pseudo	68.51 68.66	53.90 54.00	52.82 52.51	52.33 52.10

Table 5: The accuracy on SNLI and ANLI (R1, R2, R3) test data for few-shot systems using manually created discussion examples and pseudo-discussion examples. Upper scores are by GPT-3.5, and lower scores are by ChatGPT.

sibility that the performance of label prediction by these systems is not necessarily directly related to the ability to discuss. In comparison with acceptance, it is necessary to be careful of people who manipulate predictions with malice arguments, as the system tends to be weak at objecting to humans. Furthermore, from the fact that the accuracy of the few-shot-discussion system has improved the most, it is clear that the proposed data can be used to have discussions with humans that lead to improved performance.

Table 4 shows the accuracy of each system for the evaluation data of SNLI and ANLI. In SNLI, the few-shot-discussion system performs worse than the few-shot system, but in the three datasets of ANLI, we find that the performance is the best. This is because ANLI is more difficult data compared to SNLI, and we hypothesize that through discussion, systems get a more detailed understanding of problems, which in turn contributes to performance improvement.

From the results of previous experiments, we found that discussion between humans and systems is beneficial for improving performance.⁹ Therefore, the few-shot-discussion system, in which a discussion example is also given as a prompt, is expected to achieve a deeper understanding of NLI problems and improve performance through the discussion example in the prompt.

6 Analysis

6.1 Pseudo-Discussion Data

One drawback of using discussion data is that it can be costly to create compared to datasets that only have gold labels. Using pre-trained models to annotate unlabeled data and use this data for training has been shown to improve performance (Wang

		SNLI	R1	R2	R3
	MPT	85.2	67.4 [†]	55.2 [†]	55.0 [†]
w/ dis.	MPT-inst.	87.7^{\dagger}	68.2^{\dagger}	56.1^{\dagger}	55.3 [†]
w/ uis.	Falcon	86.2 [†]	67.6	55.5 [†]	54.9
	Falcon-inst.	90.3 †	71.7^{\dagger}	58.4 [†]	57.6 [†]
	_ <u>M</u> PT	⁻ 85.4 ⁻	65.2	53.9	52.4
w/o dis.	MPT-inst.	85.1	64.0	51.1	50.7
w/o uis.	Falcon	84.6	67.9	54.7	54.2
	Falcon-inst.	85.3	66.2	53.1	53.0
	MPT	86.7 [†]	68.3 [†]	55.2 [†]	55.0 [†]
w/ dis.	MPT-inst.	86.9	68.8^{\dagger}	56.1^{\dagger}	55.3 [†]
w/ uis.	Falcon	88.1	68.1	55.5	54.9
	Falcon-inst.	90.7 †	71.9 †	58.4 [†]	57.6 [†]
	_ MPT	- 85.4 -	65.2	53.9	52.4
w/o dis.	MPT-inst.	86.0	64.0	51.1	50.7
w/o dis.	Falcon	88.5	67.9	54.7	54.2
	Falcon-inst.	89.7	67.8	55.5	56.4

Table 6: Accuracy on SNLI and ANLI (R1, R2, R3) test data for fine-tuned systems with and without pseudodiscussion data. Additional fine-tuning with pseudo discussion data for instruction tuned and non-instruction tuned models for MPT and Falcon. The upper and lower scores are the results using pseudo discussion data generated by GPT-3.5 and ChatGPT, respectively. † indicates statistically significant scores for w/ dis. and w/o dis. according to McNemar's test (p < 0.01).

et al., 2021; Honovich et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022b). Therefore, we propose to use GPT-3.5 and ChatGPT to generate discussion data in a zero-shot and use them as discussion examples for a few-shot to investigate if it is possible to achieve the same level of improvement as from using manually created data. If a system can automatically produce high-quality data, it can produce enough data for fine-tuning at a low cost. Therefore, we also investigate the effectiveness of pseudo-discussion data in fine-tuning.

In generating human discussions, the system is given prompts in the form of the premise, hypothesis, gold label, and the labels from each human. The human labels are randomly chosen to be the gold label or the other incorrect label. For example, given the premise "A nun is taking a picture outside." and hypothesis "A nun is taking a selfie." with the gold label of *neutral*, the prompt would be "Reproduce a multi-turn interactive discussion in which the following premise and hypothesis are entailment, contradiction, or neutral, with the humans agreeing with each other on the final label. Human1's label is neutral, and Human2's label is a contradiction. In the end, they agree on the label of neutral. Premise: A nun is taking a picture outside. Hypothesis: A nun is taking a selfie.".

⁹We show examples of human-system discussion in Appendix A.

The GPT-3.5 and ChatGPT generate human discussions for 10 problems used in the few-shot and 2,000 problems used in the fine-tuning, respectively. The average number of utterances in humancreated discussions was 4.4, and the average number of utterances in system-generated discussions was 4.7. Regarding the number of utterances, human and system arguments are almost the same.

We used instruction tuned and non-instruction tuned models for MPT¹⁰ (Team, 2023) and Falcon¹¹ (Penedo et al., 2023) as pre-trained models for fine-tuning. We used hyperparameters from existing studies (Taori et al., 2023) as a reference and fine-tuned the batch size to 128, the learning rate to 2e-5, and the epoch to 3. We used five nodes, each containing eight NVIDIA A100 GPUs. The system is given both the labels and discussions as golds during training, and we evaluate using only labels during inference. We train models without pseudo-discussion data as a baseline. The baseline models are trained with only the labels.

Table 5 shows the results of the automatic evaluation of performance in SNLI and ANLI for each of the manually generated discussion example data and system-generated pseudo-discussion example data for few-shot learning, respectively. In two of the four datasets, the system's performance with pseudo-discussion data outperforms that of the system with manually created data. Moreover, there is no significant difference between the scores of the LLMs using the human-created and pseudo- discussion by McNemar's test (p < 0.01). It is possible to achieve performance comparable to manually created data, even with pseudo-discussion data.

Table 6 shows the results of the automatic evaluation of performance in SNLI and ANLI for finetuned MPT and Falcon with pseudo-discussion data. The model with pseudo-discussion data performs better than the model without pseudodiscussion data in most cases for both MPT and Falcon. We find that fine-tuning with pseudodiscussion data is more effective for instruction tuned models. It implies that instruction tuning improves the linguistic understanding of the system and enhances the understanding of the discussion.

These results indicate that the system is capable

	SNLI	R1	R2	R3
Random dis.	-2.91	-2.10	-3.30	-3.42
Cutting dis.	-2.40	-1.60	-2.60	-2.25
Random label	-3.43	-2.50	-3.50	-3.17
Random dis.	-3.32	-3.59	-3.77	-3.62
Cutting dis.	-2.88	-2.79	-2.32	-2.15
Random label	-3.22	-3.76	-3.89	-3.58

Table 7: Difference for the few-shot-discussion accuracy from when the noisy examples are provided in the prompt on SNLI and ANLI. The higher the difference, the stronger the noise. Upper differences are by GPT-3.5, and lower differences are by ChatGPT.

of producing high-quality discussion data that can be used for training systems to be able to discuss given problems.¹² Therefore, one can significantly lower the cost of creating discussion data manually by using systems.

6.2 Do Discussion Examples in the Prompts Matter?

It is known that pre-trained models can obtain good results even with irrelevant or noisy prompts (Khashabi et al., 2022; Webson and Pavlick, 2022; Min et al., 2022). Therefore, we investigate the sensitivity and robustness of the system with respect to the discussion examples contained in the prompts. We provide three types of noise in the prompts: (1) assigning a random discussion that is irrelevant to the example problem, (2) cutting the original discussion examples short at random times, and (3) assigning a label at random for the example problems.

Table 7 shows the difference in accuracy compared to the few-shot-discussion accuracy from Table 4 for each of the three noises. It can be seen that performance deteriorates for all types of noises. Noise that randomly replaces discussions and noise that randomly replaces labels both have the same degree of reduced accuracy. Oppositely, the discussions that were cut short, show to be a weaker noise than discussion substitution and have performed better. These indicate that the system properly considers discussion examples in the prompts.

7 Related Work

In this study, systems and humans discuss a problem through dialogue. Dialogue systems can be broadly classified into two types: task-oriented

¹⁰https://huggingface.co/mosaicml/
mpt-7b and https://huggingface.co/
mosaicml/mpt-7b-instruct

¹¹https://huggingface.co/tiiuae/ falcon-7b and https://huggingface.co/ tiiuae/falcon-7b-instruct

¹²We show comparisons of examples created by humans and systems respectively in Appendix B.

systems that perform specific tasks, and non-taskoriented systems that do not have the goal of task completion, such as casual conversation. This study aims to conduct appropriate predictions in NLP tasks through discussions between humans and the system and is classified as a task-oriented system. Many existing dialogue systems target daily life tasks such as hotel reservations and transportation inquiries (Budzianowski et al., 2018). Pre-trained models such as BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) and GPT-2 (Budzianowski and Vulić, 2019; Ham et al., 2020) are also utilized in dialogue systems for daily life tasks. Recently, ChatGPT (OpenAI, 2023) has been proposed for more generic interaction based on a pre-trained model. We similarly use a pretrained model for our system.

As far as we know, few studies use discussion for NLP tasks similar to ours. Chang et al. (2017) proposed the TalkToModel, which explains through dialogue three tasks of loan, diabetes, and recidivism prediction. The user can talk to the TalkTo-Model in five categories: prediction explanation, data modification, error analysis, dialogue history reference, and experimental setting explanation. Data for learning and evaluating the TalkToModel are generated by instructing the annotator to converse about these categories. However, the categories were not determined based on interviews or data but were defined subjectively by the authors. Therefore, it is possible that the categories do not reflect actual conversations that humans need. On the other hand, our study was conducted in an open-ended dialogue to generate data. Additionally, our study aims for mutual understanding through a bidirectional dialogue where both humans and the system express opinions and questions, unlike the systems that only respond to human questions in a unidirectional dialogue.

There is research on generating explanatory text for predictions as a way to transfer information from systems to humans through natural language. For example, research regarding natural science tests (Ling et al., 2017), image recognition and image question answering (Park et al., 2018), mathematics tests (Jansen et al., 2018), and NLI (Camburu et al., 2018) have been studied. Additionally, systems for generating explanations using pretrained models such as T5 (Raffel et al., 2020) and GPT-3.5 (Brown et al., 2020) have also been proposed (Narang et al., 2020; Wiegreffe et al., 2022). However, as these generated explanations cannot be used to seek additional explanations or specific explanations, the interpretability is not sufficient in practice as pointed out by Lakkaraju et al. (2022).

Instead of directly predicting answers, CoT uses natural language to derive answers step-bystep (Wei et al., 2022). This leads to complex multistep inferences. By adding the phrase "Let's think step by step" before each answer, Kojima et al. (2022) demonstrate that language models are competent zero-shot CoT. On the other hand, Wang et al. (2022a) shows that CoT can achieve competitive performance even with invalid reasoning steps in the prompt. CoT's step-by-step approach is based on the system only, whereas our proposed method incorporates human involvement in the system to facilitate collaboration between humans and the system. Additionally, our approach utilizes discussions for a step-by-step thinking process.

Research is also being conducted on the use of natural language by humans to provide instructions and feedback to the system. Abramson et al. (2022) has developed multi-modal grounded language agents that perform reinforcement learning on human dialogue-based instructions. Sharma et al. (2022) proposed a method to integrate humanprovided feedback in natural language to update a robot's planning cost applied to situations when the planner fails. Murty et al. (2022) proposed a method to modify a model by natural language patches and achieved performance improvement in sentiment analysis and relationship extraction tasks. Campos and Shern (2022) proposed a method for training a model to behave in line with human preferences, by learning from natural language feedback, in text summarization. On the other hand, these studies cannot be explained or questioned by the system to humans.

8 Conclusion

While deep learning systems have been highly effective in various tasks, their lack of interpretability poses a challenge to their use in real-world applications. To address this, we proposed a system that engages in a dialogue with humans in the form of discussing predictions, which allows both humans and the system to engage in explanations, ask questions, refine their thoughts, and solve problems. Our experimental results showed that the system trained with few-shot learning for discussion could perform more useful discussions than the system that was not trained for discussion and provided insights on the challenges and opportunities of this approach. This research provides a new avenue for developing more interactive deep-learning systems.

Limitations

Compared to the original system that uses only inputs and labels, our method uses additional discussion data, resulting in longer sequences. This leads to an increase in training or inference costs.

We have conducted experiments on pre-trained models with large model sizes to verify their effectiveness. On the other hand, it is necessary to verify the effectiveness of learning by argumentation on smaller pre-trained models (Wu et al., 2023; Team, 2023; Touvron et al., 2023). Our manually created discussion data is relatively small in scale. Therefore, it is necessary to expand the dataset to a larger scale to more robustly test the effectiveness of the proposed method.

Ethics Statement

Pre-trained models have serious levels of social biases regarding gender, race, and religion (Bolukbasi et al., 2016; Kaneko and Bollegala, 2019, 2021b,a,c; May et al., 2019; Caliskan et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2022; Lucy and Bamman, 2021; Anantaprayoon et al., 2023; Kaneko et al., 2022c,b,a, 2023b,a, 2024; Oba et al., 2023). Therefore, we have to be careful that systems discussing with humans amplify such biases.

Annotation work was requested at \$25 per hour. Workers are employed at appropriate pay. Annotators were warned in advance not to give personal information or inappropriate utterances during the dialogue. We have verified that the data produced does not contain any personal information or inappropriate utterances. The data collection from human participants was conducted under an institutional review board protocol.

References

- Josh Abramson, Arun Ahuja, Federico Carnevale, Petko Georgiev, Alex Goldin, Alden Hung, Jessica Landon, Jirka Lhotka, Timothy Lillicrap, Alistair Muldal, et al. 2022. Improving multimodal interactive agents with reinforcement learning from human feedback. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.11602*.
- Panatchakorn Anantaprayoon, Masahiro Kaneko, and Naoaki Okazaki. 2023. Evaluating gender bias of pre-trained language models in natural language inference by considering all labels. *ArXiv*, abs/2309.09697.

- Tolga Bolukbasi, Kai-Wei Chang, James Y. Zou, Venkatesh Saligrama, and Adam Tauman Kalai. 2016. Man is to computer programmer as woman is to homemaker? debiasing word embeddings. In *Neural Information Processing Systems*.
- Samuel R Bowman, Gabor Angeli, Christopher Potts, and Christopher D Manning. 2015. A large annotated corpus for learning natural language inference. In *Proceedings of the 2015 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 632–642, Lisbon, Portugal. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Samuel R Bowman, Jeeyoon Hyun, Ethan Perez, Edwin Chen, Craig Pettit, Scott Heiner, Kamile Lukosuite, Amanda Askell, Andy Jones, Anna Chen, et al. 2022. Measuring progress on scalable oversight for large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.03540*.
- Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, et al. 2020. Language models are few-shot learners. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 33:1877–1901.
- Paweł Budzianowski and Ivan Vulić. 2019. Hello, it's GPT-2 - how can I help you? towards the use of pretrained language models for Task-Oriented dialogue systems. In *Proceedings of the 3rd Workshop on Neural Generation and Translation*, pages 15–22, Hong Kong. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Paweł Budzianowski, Tsung-Hsien Wen, Bo-Hsiang Tseng, Iñigo Casanueva, Stefan Ultes, Osman Ramadan, and Milica Gašić. 2018. MultiWOZ - a Large-Scale Multi-Domain Wizard-of-Oz dataset for Task-Oriented dialogue modelling. pages 5016– 5026.
- Aylin Caliskan, Pimparkar Parth Ajay, Tessa Charlesworth, Robert Wolfe, and Mahzarin R Banaji. 2022. Gender bias in word embeddings: a comprehensive analysis of frequency, syntax, and semantics. In *Proceedings of the 2022 AAAI/ACM Conference on AI, Ethics, and Society*, pages 156–170.
- Oana-Maria Camburu, Tim Rocktäschel, Thomas Lukasiewicz, and Phil Blunsom. 2018. E-SNLI: Natural language inference with natural language explanations.
- Jon Ander Campos and Jun Shern. 2022. Training language models with language feedback. In ACL Workshop on Learning with Natural Language Supervision. 2022.
- Joseph Chee Chang, Saleema Amershi, and Ece Kamar. 2017. Revolt: Collaborative crowdsourcing for labeling machine learning datasets. In *Proceedings of the* 2017 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems, CHI '17, pages 2334–2346, New York, NY, USA. Association for Computing Machinery.

- Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2019. BERT: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers), pages 4171–4186, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Yilun Du, Shuang Li, Antonio Torralba, Joshua B Tenenbaum, and Igor Mordatch. 2023. Improving factuality and reasoning in language models through multiagent debate. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.14325*.
- Ruth C Fong and Andrea Vedaldi. 2017. Interpretable explanations of black boxes by meaningful perturbation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision*, pages 3429–3437.
- Donghoon Ham, Jeong-Gwan Lee, Youngsoo Jang, and Kee-Eung Kim. 2020. End-to-End neural pipeline for Goal-Oriented dialogue systems using GPT-2. In Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, pages 583–592, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Or Honovich, Thomas Scialom, Omer Levy, and Timo Schick. 2022. Unnatural instructions: Tuning language models with (almost) no human labor. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.09689*.
- Jiaxin Huang, Shixiang Shane Gu, Le Hou, Yuexin Wu, Xuezhi Wang, Hongkun Yu, and Jiawei Han. 2022. Large language models can self-improve. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.11610*.
- Peter Jansen, Elizabeth Wainwright, Steven Marmorstein, and Clayton Morrison. 2018. WorldTree: A corpus of explanation graphs for elementary science questions supporting multi-hop inference. In Proceedings of the Eleventh International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC 2018), Miyazaki, Japan. European Language Resources Association (ELRA).
- Masahiro Kaneko and Danushka Bollegala. 2019. Gender-preserving debiasing for pre-trained word embeddings. In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 1641–1650, Florence, Italy. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Masahiro Kaneko and Danushka Bollegala. 2021a. Debiasing pre-trained contextualised embeddings. In Proceedings of the 16th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Main Volume, pages 1256–1266, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Masahiro Kaneko and Danushka Bollegala. 2021b. Dictionary-based debiasing of pre-trained word embeddings. In Proceedings of the 16th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Main Volume, pages 212–223, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Masahiro Kaneko and Danushka Bollegala. 2021c. Unmasking the mask - evaluating social biases in masked language models. In AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence.
- Masahiro Kaneko, Danushka Bollegala, and Timothy Baldwin. 2024. The gaps between pre-train and downstream settings in bias evaluation and debiasing.
- Masahiro Kaneko, Danushka Bollegala, and Naoaki Okazaki. 2022a. Debiasing isn't enough! – on the effectiveness of debiasing MLMs and their social biases in downstream tasks. In *Proceedings of the* 29th International Conference on Computational Linguistics, pages 1299–1310, Gyeongju, Republic of Korea. International Committee on Computational Linguistics.
- Masahiro Kaneko, Danushka Bollegala, and Naoaki Okazaki. 2022b. Gender bias in meta-embeddings. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2022*, pages 3118–3133, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Masahiro Kaneko, Danushka Bollegala, and Naoaki Okazaki. 2023a. Comparing intrinsic gender bias evaluation measures without using human annotated examples. *ArXiv*, abs/2301.12074.
- Masahiro Kaneko, Danushka Bollegala, and Naoaki Okazaki. 2023b. The impact of debiasing on the performance of language models in downstream tasks is underestimated. *ArXiv*, abs/2309.09092.
- Masahiro Kaneko, Aizhan Imankulova, Danushka Bollegala, and Naoaki Okazaki. 2022c. Gender bias in masked language models for multiple languages. In Proceedings of the 2022 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, pages 2740–2750, Seattle, United States. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Masahiro Kaneko and Naoaki Okazaki. 2023. Controlled generation with prompt insertion for natural language explanations in grammatical error correction. *ArXiv*, abs/2309.11439.
- Masahiro Kaneko, Sho Takase, Ayana Niwa, and Naoaki Okazaki. 2022d. Interpretability for language learners using example-based grammatical error correction. In Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 7176–7187, Dublin, Ireland. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Daniel Khashabi, Xinxi Lyu, Sewon Min, Lianhui Qin, Kyle Richardson, Sean Welleck, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, Sameer Singh, and Yejin Choi. 2022. Prompt waywardness: The curious case of discretized interpretation of continuous prompts. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human*

Language Technologies, pages 3631–3643, Seattle, United States. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Been Kim, Martin Wattenberg, Justin Gilmer, Carrie Cai, James Wexler, Fernanda Viegas, et al. 2018. Interpretability beyond feature attribution: Quantitative testing with concept activation vectors (tcav). In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 2668–2677. PMLR.
- Takeshi Kojima, Shixiang Shane Gu, Machel Reid, Yutaka Matsuo, and Yusuke Iwasawa. 2022. Large language models are zero-shot reasoners. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.11916*.
- Sawan Kumar and Partha Talukdar. 2020. NILE : Natural language inference with faithful natural language explanations. In *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 8730–8742, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Himabindu Lakkaraju, Dylan Slack, Yuxin Chen, Chenhao Tan, and Sameer Singh. 2022. Rethinking explainability as a dialogue: A practitioner's perspective.
- Wang Ling, Dani Yogatama, Chris Dyer, and Phil Blunsom. 2017. Program induction by rationale generation: Learning to solve and explain algebraic word problems. In Proceedings of the 55th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 158–167, Vancouver, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Zachary C Lipton. 2018. The mythos of model interpretability: In machine learning, the concept of interpretability is both important and slippery. *Queue*, 16(3):31–57.
- Yinhan Liu, Myle Ott, Naman Goyal, Jingfei Du, Mandar Joshi, Danqi Chen, Omer Levy, Mike Lewis, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. 2019. Roberta: A robustly optimized bert pretraining approach. arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.11692.
- Mengsay Loem, Masahiro Kaneko, and Naoaki Okazaki. 2023. Saie framework: Support alone isn't enough - advancing llm training with adversarial remarks. *ArXiv*, abs/2311.08107.
- Li Lucy and David Bamman. 2021. Gender and representation bias in GPT-3 generated stories. In *Proceedings of the Third Workshop on Narrative Understanding*, pages 48–55, Virtual. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Chandler May, Alex Wang, Shikha Bordia, Samuel R. Bowman, and Rachel Rudinger. 2019. On measuring social biases in sentence encoders. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers), pages 622–628, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Sewon Min, Xinxi Lyu, Ari Holtzman, Mikel Artetxe, Mike Lewis, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 2022. Rethinking the role of demonstrations: What makes in-context learning work? arXiv preprint arXiv:2202.12837.
- Shikhar Murty, Christopher D Manning, Scott Lundberg, and Marco Tulio Ribeiro. 2022. Fixing model bugs with natural language patches. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.03318*.
- Sharan Narang, Colin Raffel, Katherine Lee, Adam Roberts, Noah Fiedel, and Karishma Malkan. 2020. WT5?! training Text-to-Text models to explain their predictions.
- Yixin Nie, Adina Williams, Emily Dinan, Mohit Bansal, Jason Weston, and Douwe Kiela. 2020. Adversarial NLI: A new benchmark for natural language understanding. In Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, pages 4885–4901, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Daisuke Oba, Masahiro Kaneko, and Danushka Bollegala. 2023. In-contextual bias suppression for large language models. *ArXiv*, abs/2309.07251.
- OpenAI. 2023. Introducing ChatGPT.
- Dong Huk Park, Lisa Anne Hendricks, Zeynep Akata, Anna Rohrbach, Bernt Schiele, Trevor Darrell, and Marcus Rohrbach. 2018. Multimodal explanations: Justifying decisions and pointing to the evidence.
- Guilherme Penedo, Quentin Malartic, Daniel Hesslow, Ruxandra Cojocaru, Alessandro Cappelli, Hamza Alobeidli, Baptiste Pannier, Ebtesam Almazrouei, and Julien Launay. 2023. The RefinedWeb dataset for Falcon LLM: outperforming curated corpora with web data, and web data only. *arXiv preprint arXiv*:2306.01116.
- Alec Radford, Jong Wook Kim, Tao Xu, Greg Brockman, Christine McLeavey, and Ilya Sutskever. 2022. Robust speech recognition via large-scale weak supervision. arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.04356.
- Colin Raffel, Noam Shazeer, Adam Roberts, Katherine Lee, Sharan Narang, Michael Matena, Yanqi Zhou, Wei Li, Peter J Liu, et al. 2020. Exploring the limits of transfer learning with a unified text-to-text transformer. *J. Mach. Learn. Res.*, 21(140):1–67.
- Marco Tulio Ribeiro, Sameer Singh, and Carlos Guestrin. 2016. "why should i trust you?" explaining the predictions of any classifier. In *Proceedings of the 22nd ACM SIGKDD international conference on knowledge discovery and data mining*, pages 1135–1144.
- Pratyusha Sharma, Balakumar Sundaralingam, Valts Blukis, Chris Paxton, Tucker Hermans, Antonio Torralba, Jacob Andreas, and Dieter Fox. 2022. Correcting robot plans with natural language feedback. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.05186*.

- Ravid Shwartz-Ziv and Naftali Tishby. 2017. Opening the black box of deep neural networks via information. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1703.00810*.
- Dylan Slack, Satyapriya Krishna, Himabindu Lakkaraju, and Sameer Singh. 2022. Talktomodel: Explaining machine learning models with interactive natural language conversations.
- Rohan Taori, Ishaan Gulrajani, Tianyi Zhang, Yann Dubois, Xuechen Li, Carlos Guestrin, Percy Liang, and Tatsunori B. Hashimoto. 2023. Stanford alpaca: An instruction-following llama model. https://github.com/tatsu-lab/ stanford_alpaca.
- MosaicML NLP Team. 2023. Introducing mpt-7b: A new standard for open-source, ly usable llms.
- Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, Aurelien Rodriguez, Armand Joulin, Edouard Grave, and Guillaume Lample. 2023. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.13971*.
- Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. 2017. Attention is all you need. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 30.
- Boshi Wang, Sewon Min, Xiang Deng, Jiaming Shen, You Wu, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Huan Sun. 2022a. Towards understanding chain-of-thought prompting: An empirical study of what matters. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.10001*.
- Xuezhi Wang, Jason Wei, Dale Schuurmans, Quoc Le, Ed Chi, Sharan Narang, Aakanksha Chowdhery, and Denny Zhou. 2022b. Self-consistency improves chain of thought reasoning in language models. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2203.11171.
- Zirui Wang, Adams Wei Yu, Orhan Firat, and Yuan Cao. 2021. Towards zero-label language learning. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2109.09193.
- Albert Webson and Ellie Pavlick. 2022. Do promptbased models really understand the meaning of their prompts? In Proceedings of the 2022 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, pages 2300–2344, Seattle, United States. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Ed Chi, Quoc Le, and Denny Zhou. 2022. Chain of thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2201.11903.
- Sarah Wiegreffe, Jack Hessel, Swabha Swayamdipta, Mark Riedl, and Yejin Choi. 2022. Reframing human-AI collaboration for generating free-text explanations. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference*

of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, pages 632–658, Seattle, United States. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Minghao Wu, Abdul Waheed, Chiyu Zhang, Muhammad Abdul-Mageed, and Alham Fikri Aji. 2023. Lamini-lm: A diverse herd of distilled models from large-scale instructions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2304.14402*.
- 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*.
- Zhuosheng Zhang, Aston Zhang, Mu Li, and Alex Smola. 2022. Automatic chain of thought prompting in large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.03493*.
- Yi Zhou, Masahiro Kaneko, and Danushka Bollegala. 2022. Sense embeddings are also biased – evaluating social biases in static and contextualised sense embeddings. In Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 1924–1935, Dublin, Ireland. Association for Computational Linguistics.

A Examples of Human-System Discussion

Here we examine whether humans and systems can engage in effective discussions by looking at actual discussions. Table 8 shows two examples of discussions with humans in each of the few-shot and few-shot-discussion. The first is that both fewshot and few-shot-discussion can accept human opinions and change their labels. However, the discussions differ from each other. In few-shot, the system is not concerned with the content of the premise and hypothesis, but with the definition of neutral and contradiction labels. In the few-shotdiscussion, the system can discuss the relationship between a wide plain of snow and a blizzard in the contents of the premise and hypothesis.

In the second case, both few-shot and fewshot-discussion predict the same contradiction label. Still, the discussion results differ in the wrong acceptance and the correct refutation, respectively. The few-shot has accepted a human's erroneous opinion without discussing it. The fewshot-discussion refutes a human's opinion by appropriately referring to the man's behavior in the premise and the hypothesis. These results indicate that the model trained with the discussion data can argue more appropriately.

B Discussion Examples Created by Humans and Systems

Table 9 shows discussion examples made by humans and systems, respectively. In both discussion examples, the system can assign labels to Human1 and Human2 as indicated by the prompts. The first system example can derive a label that matches the gold label and can discuss the differences between the premise and hypothesis in the same way as humans. In the second system example, the final predicted label differs from the gold label. On the other hand, both the system and human discussions refer to the meaning of a picture and a photograph. While humans determine the final label from the general case, the system determines the final label in terms of lexical ambiguity. Therefore, the system's discussion, although different from the gold label, is not necessarily incorrect.

Premise Hypothesis Gold label	A snowboarder on a wide plain of snow A snowmobile in a blizzard Neutral
Few-shot	Label: Contradiction Human: Let's discuss it more. Why is it a contradiction? It may be neutral because the premise and the hypothesis are talking about different situations. System: The premise and hypothesis are talking about different situations that are not related, so it is a contradiction. Human: If these situations are not at the same time, does not it mean it is neutral? System: It is still considered a contradiction because the premise and hypothesis are unrelated and cannot be true at the same time. Human: Is not that a definition of neutral? System: A neutral statement is one in which the premise and hypothesis are not related and do not imply each other. A contradiction is when the premise and hypothesis are related and cannot be true at the same time. Human: It is not happening at the same time because the snowboarder can not be in a blizzard. But the snowboarder can be on a wide plain of snow. So these are totally different situations happening at different times. So it is neutral. System: Yes, you are correct. The premise and hypothesis are unrelated and do not imply each other, so it is considered to be a neutral statement.
Few-shot-dis.	Label: Contradiction Human: Let's discuss it more. Why is it a contradiction? It may be neutral because the premise and the hypothesis are talking about different situations. System: The premise and the hypothesis are semantically contradicting each other. The snowboarder is on a wide plain of snow, while the snowmobile is in a blizzard. Therefore, it is a contradiction. Human: But how the snowboarder be there if there is a blizzard? It is very unlikely. System: That is true. It is highly unlikely that there is a wide plain of snow and a blizzard at the same time. Therefore, it is a contradiction. Human: If these situations are not at the same time, does not it mean it is neutral? System: It can be neutral if it is not specified when each situation happens. However, in this case, it is not specified whether the situations are happening at the same time or not, so it is better to consider them as a contradiction. Human: It is not happening at the same time because the snowboarder can not be in a blizzard. But the snowboarder can be on a wide plain of snow. So these are totally different situations happening at different times. So it is neutral. System: That is true. Since it is not specified whether they are happening at the same time or not, it is better to consider them as neutral.
Premise Hypothesis Gold label	A man looking over a bicycle's rear wheel in the maintenance garage with various tools visible in the background. A man waits outside a garage. Contradiction
Few-shot	Label: Contradiction Human: Let's discuss it more. Is not it neutral? Because looking over a bicycle's rear wheel does not necessarily mean he is waiting. System: That's true. The premise and hypothesis are neutral.
Few-shot-dis.	Label: Contradiction Human: Let's discuss it more. Is not it neutral? Because looking over a bicycle's rear wheel does not necessarily mean he is waiting. System: Yes, you are right. The premise is describing that the man is actively working while the hypothesis is describing a passive state. Therefore, the label should be contradiction. Human: He is just looking over a bicycle's rear wheel, why is he considered to be actively working? System: Looking over a bicycle's rear wheel suggests that he is inspecting the wheel, possibly to repair or replace it. That is an active process, and thus is considered as actively working.

Table 8: Examples of human discussion in few-shot and few-shot-discussion (dis.) respectively.

Premise Hypothesis Gold label	Two dogs play together on the bed. Dogs laying down on the floor, motionless. Contradiction
System	 Human1: The premise and hypothesis seem to be a contradiction. Two dogs playing together on the bed is an active situation, while dogs laying down on the floor, motionless is a passive situation. Human2: I agree that the premise and hypothesis are different, but I don't think they are necessarily contradictory. It's possible that the two dogs could be playing together on the bed and then move to the floor and lay down, motionless. Human1: That's true, but I still think the premise and hypothesis are contradictory. The premise implies activity, while the hypothesis implies passivity. Human2: I see your point. I think the premise and hypothesis are a contradiction.
Human	 Human1: I think the premise and the hypothesis are telling about different things. That's why I think it is neutral. Human2: It is contradiction because the words are semantically contradict each other. For example, black and white, sit and running. Human1: You are right in that terms. However, generally, they are totally different situations. Human2: I see, you are right.
Premise Hypothesis Gold label	A man wearing a horned hat poses for a picture. A man wearing a horned hat poses for a photograph neutral
System	 Human1: I think the premise and hypothesis are entailment. Human2: I think the premise and hypothesis are contradiction. Human1: Why do you think that? Human2: Because the premise states that the man is posing for a picture, while the hypothesis states that he is posing for a photograph. Human1: Ah, I see. So, you're saying that a picture and a photograph are different things? Human2: Yes, that's right. A picture is a general term for any image, while a photograph is a specific type of image. Human1: Okay, so I agree with you that the premise and hypothesis are a contradiction.
Human	 Human2: I think it is entailment. Because the only difference is picture or photograph, but both mean photography. Human1: I think it is contradiction, because a picture could mean a painting. So the man can either pose for a photograph or for a painting. Human2: But isn't picture generally mean a photograph? And it is more common to take a picture of a person than to draw a person as a picture, isn't it? Human1: You are right.

Table 9: Discussion examples created by humans and the system, respectively. In the first problem, the system assigns contradiction for Human1 and entailment for Human2. In the second problem, the system assigns entailment for Human1 and contradiction for Human2.