

# LEROS: Learning Explicit Reasoning on Synthesized Data for Commonsense Question Answering

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## Abstract

Recent work shows large language models can be prompted to generate useful rationales for commonsense question answering (CQA), which can improve the performance of both themselves and other models. However, the cost of deployment and further tuning is relatively expensive for the large models. Some work explores to distill the rationale-generation ability to convenient small-sized models, yet it typically requires human-authored QA instances during the distillation. In this paper, we propose a novel framework that leverages both knowledge graphs and large language models to synthesize rationale-augmented CQA data. Based on it, we train LEROS, a model that can generate helpful rationales to assist generic QA models to accomplish unseen CQA tasks. Empirical results demonstrate LEROS can substantially enhance the performance of QA models on five unseen CQA benchmarks, providing better gains than both same-sized counterpart models trained with downstream data and 10x larger language models. Our work reveals a novel way to integrate knowledge from both knowledge graphs and large language models into smaller models. The codes and synthesized resources are publicly available at <https://github.com/wchrepo/leros>.

**Keywords:** Commonsense Question Answering, Commonsense Knowledge, Rationale Generation

## 1. Introduction

Commonsense question answering (CQA) is a challenging natural language processing task. It requires the understanding of questions based on unstated background knowledge. In comparison with directly predicting the answers, previous work shows that adding useful rationales (e.g. relevant knowledge and reasoning details) beforehand can lead to better performance and interpretability (Shwartz et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2022b), which forms a Question-Rationale-Answer paradigm dubbed as *explicit reasoning*. For example, as shown in Figure 1, for the question “What can owls do”, adding a rationale such as “Owls are birds. Birds can fly.” can help the model predict the answer.

However, obtaining high-quality rationales is non-trivial. Previous work (Mitra et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2022) attempts to extract knowledge from commonsense knowledge graphs (CKG) (Speer et al., 2017; Hwang et al., 2021) and other sources, which is limited by the coverage and retrieval availability of the knowledge sources. Some other work explores to use neural models to generate rationales on-the-fly (Rajani et al., 2019; Shwartz et al., 2020; Bansal et al., 2022). Espe-

cially, recent work elicits large language models (LLM) to generate “Chain-of-Thoughts” (Wei et al., 2022), which can not only boost their own QA performance, but also provide transferable rationales for assisting other models (Liu et al., 2022b; Saha et al., 2023). However, such ability only emerges on models with large sizes (typically >10B parameters), which are **expensive to deploy and inconvenient to further tune when needed** (e.g. optimizing for special use). Therefore, some work develops more convenient and controllable small-sized models by distilling the rationale-generating ability from LLMs (Liu et al., 2022a; Wang et al., 2022b; Li et al., 2023), yet such work **relies on expensive human-authored QA instances for distillation**.

To address the limitations of the above work, we propose a novel framework that enables small models to learn explicit reasoning on synthesized data. As our work relies solely on synthesized data, it can **(1)** avoid the use of expensive human-authored QA instances, **(2)** show generalization performance on CQA benchmarks in zero-shot setting, and **(3)** provide a strong start point for further tuning. To achieve that, we take the best of both commonsense knowledge graphs and large language models to synthesize rationale-augmented QA instances, and train a rationale-generation model,

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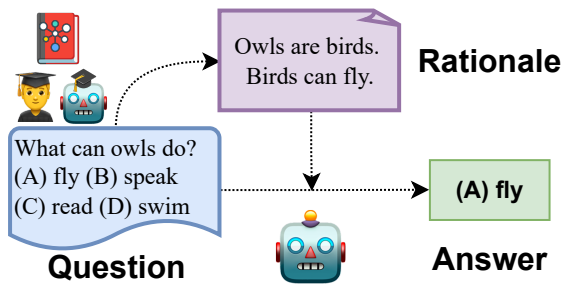


Figure 1: The illustration of explicit reasoning. The rationales are obtained from a source. Then the answers are predicted based on the rationales.

LEROS. Specifically, to ensure the quality of synthesized instances, we propose model-feedback-based prompting and refining strategies to obtain instances with high consistency and helpfulness. To make LEROS ready for providing on-demand rationales for given questions, we propose a two-stage training process, ensuring LEROS learn both adequate knowledge from CKGs and the generalized rationalization ability from LLMs. Finally, the trained LEROS can generate helpful and readable commonsense rationales, assisting a generic QA model to accomplish unseen CQA tasks. When specialized data are available, LEROS can be further tuned to generate better rationales.

We summarize our contribution as follows.

- We propose a novel framework to synthesize rationale-augmented CQA data and train small rationale-generation models. It combines the strengths of both CKGs and LLMs, avoiding the use of human-authored QA data.
- With solely the synthesized data, we train LEROS, a model capable of generating helpful and readable rationales for unseen commonsense questions, using only 0.7B parameters (approximately 0.5% of GPT-3 175B).
- Experiment results show LEROS can substantially improve the performance of QA models on five unseen CQA benchmarks. **(1)** Trained with synthesized data at an API cost of  $\sim$ \$100, it can directly bring more average performance gains than 10x larger language models and previous rationale models that are trained with human-authored CQA data. **(2)** When feedback of downstream QA benchmarks and further tuning are available, LEROS shows even better improvement. **(3)** The rationales generated by LEROS are useful for different QA models, including the models that are not used during training LEROS, such as LLaMA2-7B.

## 2. Related Work

### 2.1. Exploiting Knowledge for Commonsense Question Answering

Incorporating knowledge is a common practice in CQA tasks. Most previous work (Lin et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2020; Yasunaga et al., 2021; Guan et al., 2022) exploits knowledge from commonsense knowledge graphs, which have limited coverage and require well-designed retrieval heuristics. To directly acquire relevant knowledge given the questions, some work trains rationale generation models using human-annotated QA rationales (Rajani et al., 2019; Jhamtani and Clark, 2020; Aggarwal et al., 2021), commonsense knowledge graphs (Wang et al., 2020) or encyclopedia corpora (Bansal et al., 2022). Recently, large language models become another competitive source to generate rationales (Liu et al., 2022b). Some work further trains flexible smaller rationale generation models (Liu et al., 2022a; Wang et al., 2022b; Li et al., 2023) through distilling LLMs. Our methods pursue a similar target but avoid using the human-authored training data of target benchmarks.

Zero-shot commonsense question answering is a closely related field, which focuses on the inference and pretraining approaches to improve the generalized performance on unseen CQA benchmarks without the supervision of corresponding training data (Shwartz et al., 2020; Bosselut et al., 2021; Dou and Peng, 2022; Li et al., 2022). An effective way is to utilize the commonsense knowledge to synthesize QA instances and train a zero-shot QA model (Ma et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023a). These methods focus on optimizing a QA model to directly rank QA pairs, while our work improves the zero-shot QA performance via building the rationale generation models, which can provide rationales that are readable and usable for different QA models.

### 2.2. Synthesizing Data via Eliciting Large Language Models

The knowledge and ability of Large language models can be elicited with appropriate prompts (Petroni et al., 2019; Sung et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2022; Kojima et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023b). The advances in this line also open new doors to data synthesizing. There have been efforts to synthesize various language resources by prompting LLMs, including both symbolic commonsense knowledge (West et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022a) and wide-range training data (Sclar et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022c; Honovich et al., 2022). Such resources can be used for constructing smaller models for special purposes. In this work, we utilize synthesized commonsense questions to distill

reasoning rationales from large language models, which are valuable resources for enhancing the generalized reasoning ability of smaller models.

### 3. Methods

#### 3.1. Overview

For clarity, we let an instance of multiple-choice CQA be a textual pair  $(q, a^*)$ , where  $q$  includes the question stem  $\hat{q}$  and a set of answer choices  $A$ , and  $a^* \in A$  is the correct answer. We assume there is a generic QA model<sup>1</sup>  $M_{QA}$  that can predict the probability of each answer  $p(a|q), a \in A$ . When the rationales  $k$  are provided and concatenated with  $q$ , the QA model  $M_{QA}$  may yield a different probability prediction, denoted as  $p(a|q \circ k)$ . Leaving  $M_{QA}$  unchanged, our methods train a model  $M_{QK}$  to generate helpful  $k$  for a given  $q$ , optimizing the probability of the correct answer  $p(a^*|q \circ k)$ . In this paper, we assume the zero-shot setup. The models have no access to the training data of target benchmarks. Instead, we synthesize a set of instances  $\mathcal{D} = (q_i, a_i^*, k_i)_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{D}|}$  for training model  $M_{QK}$ , and directly evaluate it with  $M_{QA}$  on the target benchmarks. The overall framework is shown in Figure 2, including three parts: data preparation, model training, and inference.

#### 3.2. Data Preparation

The first step is to prepare synthetic  $(q, a^*, k)$  instances. To take the best of CKGs and LLMs, we decompose the procedure into synthesizing CQA instances  $(q, a^*)$ , augmenting rationales  $k$ , and refining high-quality instances (upper left in Figure 2).

**Synthesizing QA Instances** Inspired by previous zero-shot CQA research based on synthetic data (Ma et al., 2021), we utilize the knowledge from CKGs to synthesize CQA instances. Specifically, we sample knowledge triples of  $(h, r, t)$  format, e.g. (owls, capableOf, fly). According to the type of relation  $r$ , we use verbalizing templates to convert the  $(h, r)$  into a question stem, e.g. "What can owls do?", and take  $t$  as the correct answer  $a^*$ . We sample several other triples  $(h'_i, r, t'_i)$  that share the same relation  $r$  with  $(h, r, t)$  but have different heads and tails, and take  $t'_i$  as a distractor for the question. We then concatenate the question stems and shuffled choices to obtain  $q$ , such as "What can owls do? (A) fly (B) speak".

**Augmenting Rationales** For each synthesized QA instance, a primitive way to provide rationale is

to verbalize the source CKG triple  $(h, r, t)$  into a textual statement  $k_{source}$ , such as "Owls can fly". Since it simply retells the source knowledge for the question, training with it can make the model gulp down knowledge from CKGs, but that is not adequate for generalization. Therefore, we query an LLM (e.g. GPT-3.5) to obtain additional rationales. Specifically, as shown in Figure 3, we start with a small set of seed examples in the format of  $q \circ k \circ a$ , and prompt the LLM to complete  $k' \circ a'$  for a synthesized question  $q'$ . It can generate rationales that are relevant but not identical to  $k_{source}$ , e.g. "Owls are birds", which could be useful for learning generalized reasoning. Such rationales generated by LLMs are denoted as  $k_{llm}$ . Also, we let the generated answer be  $a_{llm}$ , and allow the model to answer "None" if there is no proper choice.

**Consistency and Helpfulness Refining** So far, we have synthesized rationale-augmented QA instances. However, there may be errors in the CKGs and the responses of LLMs, which result in flawed instances. Therefore, we introduce two refining strategies based on the feedback of models.

First, in the previous step, we deliberately make the LLM generate both the rationale  $k_{llm}$  and the answer  $a_{llm}$ . We assume that  $k_{llm}$  is usable only when  $a_{llm}$  is equal to the correct answer  $a^*$ . We will remove the instance if  $a_{llm} = None$  or  $a_{llm} \neq a^*$ , because it indicates either the instance is flawed or the LLM is unable to handle the question. We call this strategy **consistency refining**.

Second, even if the LLM gives the correct answer, the generated rationale  $k_{llm}$  could be irrelevant and unhelpful. Hence, we use the generic QA model  $M_{QA}$  to predict  $p(a|q)$  and  $p(a|q \circ k)$ , which are used for calculating the feedback score of helpfulness. Specifically, inspired by the knowledge reward of Liu et al. (2022a), we define the helpfulness score  $S \in (-1, 1)$  as:

$$S(k|q, a^*, A) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \tanh \left( \log p(a^*|q \circ k) - \max_{\substack{a' \in A \\ a' \neq a^*}} \log p(a'|q \circ k) \right) - \tanh \left( \log p(a^*|q) - \max_{\substack{a' \in A \\ a' \neq a^*}} \log p(a'|q) \right) \right] \quad (1)$$

where larger  $S > 0$  indicates that the rationale can help the QA model favour the correct answer over the distractors more. Let  $S_0$  be a threshold, we reserve the instances when  $S > S_0$ . We call this strategy **helpfulness refining**.

In order to improve the generation quality, the refining is conducted for each LLM-querying round, and the results are randomly added back to the prompt examples in subsequent rounds. The strategy is denoted as **refining prompting**.

<sup>1</sup>In terms of implementation,  $M_{QA}$  can be QA models trained on generic QA data or large language models prompted with in-context learning, which are not specialized on target CQA benchmarks.

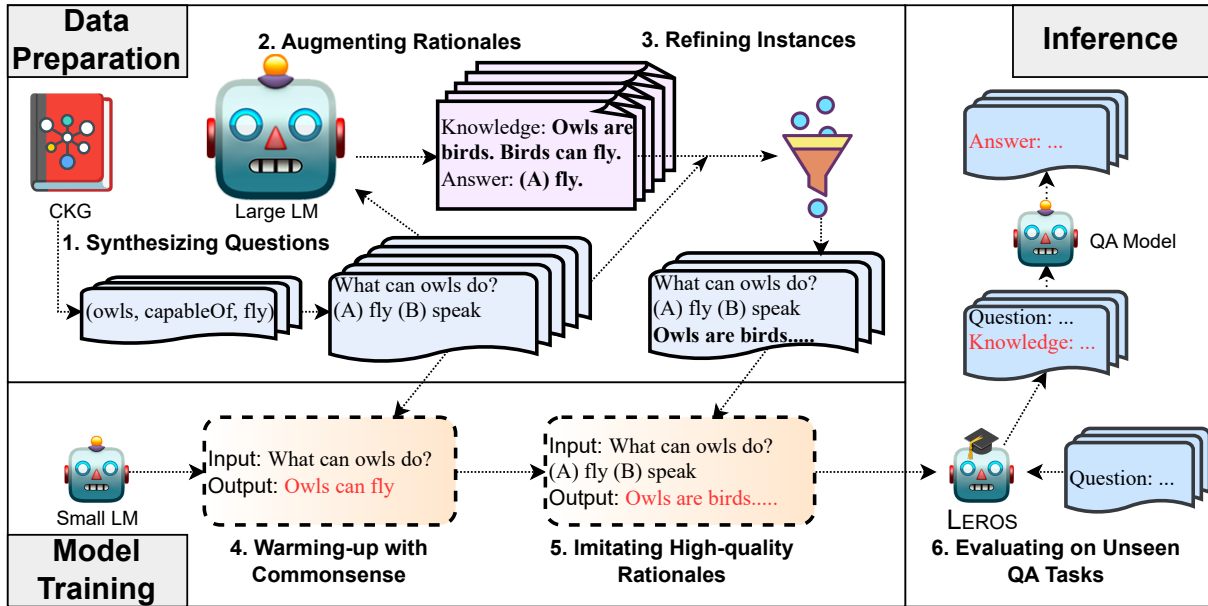


Figure 2: Overview of the proposed framework. **Upper Left:** Synthesizing questions and rationales. **Lower Left:** Training the LEROS model. **Right:** Zero-shot inference on target CQA benchmarks.

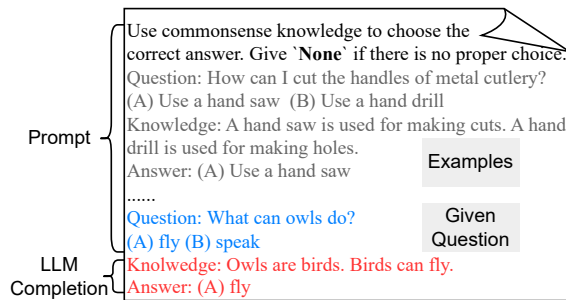


Figure 3: The illustration of prompting a LLM to complete rationales and answers.

### 3.3. Training LEROS

After data preparation, we start to train LEROS based on a pretrained sequence-to-sequence language model. The loss function is defined as:

$$L(\theta) = \frac{1}{|y|} \sum_{t=1}^{|y|} -\log p_{\theta}(y_t|x, y_{<t}) \quad (2)$$

where  $x$  is the input sequence and  $y$  is the target output sequence. During the two training stages (lower left in Figure 2), they are defined differently.

**Stage 1: Warming-up with Commonsense** To make the model internalize abundant commonsense knowledge from CKGs, we train the model to generate the source knowledge given a synthetic question stem, i.e.  $x = \hat{q}, y = k_{source}$ . For example, given "What can owls do?" as the input, the model is trained to predict "owls can fly". This objective is similar to the generative commonsense

knowledge completion task (Bosselut et al., 2019), which predicts  $t$  given  $(h, r)$ .

**Stage 2: Imitating High-quality Rationales** To make the model generate useful rationales for questions, we further train the model on the refined question-rationale instances, i.e.  $x = q, y = k_{lm}$ . For example, given a question "What can owls do \n (A) fly (B) speak" as the input, the target is to predict "Owls are birds. Birds can fly". In this way, the LEROS model learns to imitate the helpful rationales generated by LLMs.

**Optional Further Tuning** After the above stages, LEROS can be directly applied to unseen CQA tasks. In addition, it can serve as a good base model for further tuning. Besides fine-tuning with specialized rationale data, we can optimize it through reinforcement learning with the feedback of QA models on downstream tasks, as did in Liu et al. (2022a). We leave it as an optional step and discuss it in the later experiment section.

### 3.4. Inference

During inference, following Liu et al. (2022b), for each test question  $q$ , we first sample a set of rationales from LEROS with an additional blank rationale. The set is denoted as  $K(q)$ . We then enhance the generic QA model with  $K(q)$  to predict the answer. Specifically, we concatenate the  $q$  with each  $k$  and use the QA model to predict the probability of each answer  $p(a|q \circ k)$ . The final predicted answer  $\hat{a}$  is given as:

$$\hat{a} = \arg \max_{a \in A} \max_{k \in K(q)} p(a|q \circ k) \quad (3)$$



	Initial Data ( $\mathcal{D}^{syn}$ )	Queried Data	Consistent Data	Refined Data ( $\mathcal{D}^{refine}$ )
Train	823K	441K	303K	173K
Dev	67K	/	/	1K

Table 1: The statistics of synthetic datasets.

where each choice is linked with a rationale that maximizes its probability, and the final prediction is the choice with the highest probability.

## 4. Experiments Setup

In this section, we describe the experimental setting for evaluating the proposed framework.

### 4.1. Data

**Knowledge Source** For synthesizing data, We use ATOMIC-2020 (Hwang et al., 2021) and CWWV subset of CSKG (Ma et al., 2021) as the source CKGs. ATOMIC2020 contains knowledge triples across 23 relations, involving commonsense about social interaction, physical entities and general events. CWWV contains aligned commonsense knowledge across 14 relations from ConceptNet, WordNet, Wikidata and VisualGenome.

**Synthesized Instances** For ATOMIC2020, we extract knowledge triples from the official training and development set and synthesize 666K and 59K QA instances respectively. For CWWV, we reuse the synthesized instances from Ma et al. (2021), which contain 157K instances for training and 8K for validation. We pair these instances with their source knowledge. The combined synthetic QA dataset is named as  $\mathcal{D}^{syn}$ . In addition, we augment rationales for 441K instances from  $\mathcal{D}^{syn}$  by querying gpt-3.5-turbo-0301<sup>2</sup> with the default generation setting. We use 12 human-authored examples and 10 synthesized instances with the highest helpfulness in previous rounds for prompting. During querying, the prompt contains random 3 examples and random 10 questions to be answered. We only generate one rationale and one answer for each question. After consistency and helpfulness refining ( $S_0 = 0.01$ ), we obtain 174K high-quality QA instances with rationales, from which we sample 173K and 1K instances respectively for training and validation. We name the dataset as  $\mathcal{D}^{refine}$ . The statistics are summarized in Table 1.

**Evaluation Benchmarks** For zero-shot evaluation, we evaluate the models on the following five benchmarks: CommonsenseQA (CSQA) (Talmor et al., 2019), QASC (Khot et al., 2020), PhysicalQA (PIQA) (Bisk et al., 2020), SocialQA (SIQA) (Sap

et al., 2019), and WinoGrande (WG) (Sakaguchi et al., 2020). As their test sets are hidden and have submission restrictions, we mainly report the accuracy on their development sets.

### 4.2. Model Implementation

**Generic QA Models** For the feedback in data synthesizing and most of the evaluation experiments, we use UnifiedQA-large<sup>3</sup> (Khashabi et al., 2020) as the QA model. It is a generic QA model based on T5-large<sup>4</sup> (770M parameters) (Raffel et al., 2019) and trained on eight QA tasks. These tasks do not include the evaluation benchmarks used in our experiments and thus the model is evaluated in the zero-shot setting.

**Training LEROS** We initialize LEROS based on T5-large. For warming-up with commonsense, we train the model on  $\mathcal{D}^{syn}$  for 50,000 steps and set batch size to 128, learning rate to  $1 \times 10^{-5}$ . The learning rate is warmed up in the first 100 steps and linearly decayed to 0 in the remaining steps. For imitating high-quality rationales, we train the model on  $\mathcal{D}^{refine}$  with the same hyperparameters. During each of the training stages, we save checkpoints with the lowest loss on the validation data.

**Inference Setting** During inference, we use nucleus sampling (Holtzman et al., 2019) ( $p = 0.7$ ) to sample 10 rationales from LEROS for each question. For the QA model, the concatenated question-rationale input format is "{q} \n {k}", which is in line with the context format of UnifiedQA. We feed the concatenated input to the QA model and normalize the average log-likelihood for each choice to obtain the probability  $p(a|q \circ k)$ . The final prediction is given with Equation 3.

### 4.3. Baselines and Model Variants

We include the following zero-shot baselines in the experiments.

- **UQA** represents the UnifiedQA-large model without the rationale input, which provides the base performance.
- **UQA<sub>syn</sub>** represents a UnifiedQA-large variant which is fine-tuned on  $\mathcal{D}^{syn}$  to predict answer without the rationale input. It is similar to previous zero-shot CQA methods based on synthetic data (Ma et al., 2021).
- **Few-shot GPT-3.5-turbo** represents the rationales generated by GPT-3.5-turbo-0301 with few-shot prompting.

<sup>2</sup><https://platform.openai.com/docs/api-reference/chat/>

<sup>3</sup><https://huggingface.co/allenai/unifiedqa-t5-large>

<sup>4</sup><https://huggingface.co/t5-large>

- **Few-shot GPT-3** represents rationales generated by GPT-3 (13B) with few-shot prompting.
- **Self-talk GPT-3** represents the rationales generated by GPT-3 (13B) with self-talk prompting (Shwartz et al., 2020).

As a comparison, we also include the following rationale models that were trained with the feedback from the training data of target benchmarks.

- **RAINIER** is a rationale-generation model proposed in Liu et al. (2022a). It is first trained with the rationales generated by GPT-3 and then tuned through reinforcement learning with QA model feedback. It requires the training data of target benchmarks. Both RAINIER and LEROS are based on T5-large (770M).
- **LEROS<sub>RL</sub>** is a variant model of LEROS, which is initialized with LEROS and further applied the reinforcement learning of RAINIER.

Besides, **Gold Rationale** represents the human-authored rationales for some benchmarks, which provides upper bound performance. Specifically, for CSQA, we use the explanations from ECQA (Aggarwal et al., 2021); for QASC, we use the composed facts provided in the official data.

#### 4.4. Other QA Models

To assess the transferability of generated rationales, we also evaluate LEROS with other generic QA models besides UnifiedQA-large and its siblings. These QA models are listed as follows.

- **RoBERTa-Large-CSKG** (Ma et al., 2021) is a representative zero-shot CQA model trained on synthesized QA instances. Its usage is to concatenate the question with each choice and scoring the entire sequence for ranking. As the model is not trained with rationales, to make it work with LEROS, we simply add the generated rationale before the input sequence. Besides, **DeBERTa-v3-Large-CAR** (Wang et al., 2023a) is a similar state-of-the-art zero-shot CQA model that improves the data synthesizing. We apply it with LEROS in the same way.
- **Llama 2** (Touvron et al., 2023) is a famous family of open large language models. We use a vanilla version **Llama-2-7B** and an RLHF fine-tuned version **Llama-2-chat-7B** in the experiments. To make them serve as QA models and work with LEROS, we add a 5-shot prompt before the input question. For comparison, we also implement Self-Consistency with Chain-of-Thought (Wang et al., 2023b) (**CoT-SC**) as a baseline to elicit the model’s own knowledge.

## 5. Results and Analyses

### 5.1. Main Results

**Overall Performance** Table 2 shows the performance of LEROS and baselines on the development sets. From the results, we find **(1)** the rationales generated by LEROS increase the zero-shot performance of UnifiedQA on the five benchmarks by 6.3% on average, which indicates that our methods can provide helpful knowledge for the QA model and improve the performance on unseen CQA tasks. **(2)** Among the benchmarks, QASC (+13.5%), CommonsenseQA (+6.46%) and SocialQA (+5.93%) have larger improvement, while WinoGrande (+1.66%) only has slight improvement. We think it is because the latter one less overlaps the domain of source CKGs and has greater reasoning difficulty. The performance on test sets (Table 3) is in line with the above observations.

**Few/Zero-shot Baselines** **(1)** All few-shot or zero-shot methods in Table 2 bring improvement to the performance on the basis of UQA, and GPT-3.5-turbo provides the best performance as it is optimized on human feedback and has possibly the largest model size. **(2)** In comparison with GPT-3-based prompting baselines, LEROS brings better average performance gains with much fewer parameters (770 million versus 13 billion), which shows the effectiveness of our methods to exploit knowledge from both CKGs and LLMs. **(3)** UQA<sub>syn</sub> is fine-tuned on the same synthesized QA instances for training LEROS but yields less improvement, which indicates that enhancing QA models with explicit rationales is a strong way to improve zero-shot performance. **(4)** On CommonsenseQA and SocialQA, LEROS has the closest performance with few-shot GPT-3.5-turbo, because the two benchmarks have overlapped domain with the source CKGs of synthesized data. It indicates that LEROS can help small models make better use of in-domain knowledge and narrow the gap with much larger models.

**Feedback Tuning** In Table 2, even without the training data of target benchmarks, LEROS has already achieved better performance than RAINIER. Moreover, these methods can be complementary. Initialized with LEROS and further tuned with the reinforcement learning process of RAINIER, the LEROS<sub>RL</sub> variant provides even better performance. We conjecture that LEROS can learn both knowledge from CKGs and the rationale generation ability of advanced LLMs via extensive synthesized instances, although the synthesized instances are worse than real benchmark-specific training data in question quality and complexity. Therefore, LEROS provides a strong foundation for further tuning.

**Changing QA Models** We apply LEROS to different UnifiedQA variants and other generic QA model

Method	Rationale Source	QA Model	Dataset						
			CSQA	QASC	PIQA	SIQA	WG	Average	Avg. Gain
	Gold Rationale	UQA	89.92	83.37	-	-	-	-	-
Few/Zero-shot	-	UQA	61.43	43.09	63.66	53.84	53.35	55.07	+0.00
	-	UQA <sub>syn</sub>	62.24	52.27	66.05	55.42	55.25	58.25	+3.17
	Few-shot GPT-3.5-turbo	UQA	70.02	66.52	71.82	61.00	58.64	65.60	+10.53
	Self-talk GPT-3 (13B)	UQA	63.31	49.89	65.23	51.89	52.96	56.66	+1.58
	Few-shot GPT-3 (13B) (Ours) LEROS (770M)	UQA	66.34	53.24	65.25	58.29	<b>55.56</b>	59.74	+4.66
Feedback Tuning	RAINIER (770M)	UQA	67.24	54.97	65.67	57.01	56.91	60.36	+5.09
	(Ours) LEROS <sub>RL</sub> (770M)	UQA	<b>70.35</b>	<b>60.15</b>	<b>69.53</b>	<b>64.32</b>	<b>59.27</b>	<b>64.72</b>	<b>+9.65</b>

Table 2: Few/Zero-shot and feedback-tuned results on the benchmarks (development sets).

	QASC	PIQA	SIQA	WG	Avg.
UQA	45.65	65.50	57.21	54.67	55.76
UQA+RAINIER	54.13	67.09	59.01	<b>57.39</b>	59.41
UQA+LEROS	<b>55.33</b>	<b>67.67</b>	<b>60.90</b>	56.14	<b>59.81</b>

Table 3: Results on the benchmarks (test sets).

QA Model→ Rationale Model↓	UQA (small)	UQA (base)	UQA (large)	UQA (3b)
-	39.07	45.51	55.07	66.51
RAINIER	48.60	54.77	60.36	67.85
LEROS	<b>49.05</b>	<b>56.12</b>	<b>61.37</b>	<b>67.91</b>

Table 4: Average performance of applying different UnifiedQA variants with LEROS.

implements. The average performance is shown in Table 4 and Table 5. From Table 4, we find LEROS can consistently bring gains for different sizes of QA models, which is in line with Liu et al. (2022a). From Table 5, we find LEROS improve the performance of both previous zero-shot CQA models and the latest open large language models (i.e. Llama2-7B), even though these models are implemented in a completely different way from UnifiedQA. The results demonstrate that the rationales generated by LEROS contain transferable knowledge and are useful for different models.

Method	Average
RoBERTa-Large-CSKG (Ma et al., 2021)	64.0
LEROS + RoBERTa-Large-CSKG	<b>65.2</b>
DeBERTa-v3-Large-CAR (Wang et al., 2023a)	70.2
LEROS + DeBERTa-v3-Large-CAR	<b>71.1</b>
Llama2-7B (Few-shot)	53.4
Llama2-7B (CoT-SC)	55.8
LEROS + Llama2-7B (Few-shot)	<b>57.2</b>
Llama2-chat-7B (Few-shot)	58.6
Llama2-chat-7B (CoT-SC)	61.9
LEROS + Llama2-chat-7B (Few-shot)	<b>63.0</b>

Table 5: Average performance of applying QA models other than UnifiedQA in few/zero-shot setting.

	CSQA	QASC	PIQA	SIQA	WG	Avg.
None	61.43	43.09	63.66	53.84	53.35	55.07
LEROS	<b>67.89</b>	<b>56.59</b>	<b>67.57</b>	<b>59.77</b>	<b>55.01</b>	<b>61.37</b>
-WM	66.42	54.75	67.03	58.96	53.83	60.20
-IM	56.76	39.96	61.75	53.89	53.20	53.11
-CS	65.27	55.37	66.16	58.47	54.78	60.01
-HP	66.42	56.26	66.92	58.96	54.75	60.66
Source K	58.89	47.30	63.55	54.20	51.85	55.16
CKG Path	65.11	51.30	66.16	57.16	54.93	58.93
LLM SynQ.	61.34	49.46	66.16	58.29	53.51	57.75

Table 6: Performance of different variants of LEROS. (-WM): Removing warming-up with commonsense. (-IM): Removing imitating high-quality rationales. (-CS): Removing consistency refining. (-HP) Removing helpfulness refining. (Source K): Training on the source knowledge  $k_{source}$  rather than  $k_{llm}$ . (CKG Path): Training on sampled knowledge paths rather than  $k_{llm}$ . (LLM SynQ): Training on LLM generated question instances.

Knowledge	(Cake, UsedFor, feed to guests)
Rule-based Question	What can cake be used for? (A) record achievement <b>(B) feed to guests {correct}</b> (C) lose the weight
LLM-based Question	Which of the following foods would be a good option for serving guests? (A) Pizza (B) Salad <b>(C) Cake {correct}</b> (D) Tacos

Table 7: Synthesized question instances with a rule-based method and a LLM-based method. The LLM generates more fluent questions but it also provides inappropriate distractors.

## 5.2. Ablation Study

To further analyze the effectiveness of different parts of the proposed framework, we show the ablation results of several LEROS variants. All of them are evaluated with UnifiedQA-Large.

**Refining and Training** As shown in Table 6, we first remove different parts of the proposed frame-

Task	Question/Rationale	Category
CSQA	If there is a place that is hot and arid, what could it be? (A) bland (B) lifeless (C) sandy (D) neutral (E) freezing <b>Hot and arid can mean a place that is dry and inhospitable.</b>	attribute
QASC	What can measure pounds? (A) animals (B) lampreys (C) a mouse (D) a ruler (E) humans (F) surveyor (G) a scale (H) a microscope <b>Measuring pounds is done using a scale.</b>	use
PIQA	how do you blame someone? (A) say they did it. (B) say you did it for them. <b>Blaming someone involves saying they did something wrong.</b>	subevent
SIQA	Ash always performed better at his workplace after a warm cup of coffee. What will Ash want to do next? (A) start a new task (B) take some nyquil (C) go home <b>After having a warm cup of coffee, people usually feel refreshed and want to continue their work.</b>	behavior
WG	Angela did a bunch of crunches and sit-ups but Cynthia didn't, consequentially _ had six-pack abs. (A) Angela (B) Cynthia <b>Doing crunches and sit-ups is a common exercise to get six-pack abs.</b>	taxonomy

Table 8: Examples of helpful rationales generated by LEROS.

work and evaluate the resulting models. Generally, these models all yield worse performance than the fully trained LEROS. Without imitating high-quality rationales, the performance is greatly damaged, which shows the importance of training on rationale-augmented data. Removing the refining process marginally decreases the performance gains, which shows that models can learn with noisy instances but high-quality instances are more useful.

**Alternative Synthesizing Strategies** As CKGs and LLMs are independent sources, we also examine several alternative strategies for synthesizing questions and rationales. Specifically, we try to use the source knowledge of questions (**Source K**) or sample multi-hop connection paths from CKGs based on concepts mentioned in the question (**CKG Path**) to create question-specific rationales. We also try to use LLMs instead of rules to generate questions based on a knowledge triple (**LLM SynQ**). These variant methods all yield worse performance. Interestingly, the results show the LLM is worse than rule-based methods at synthesizing questions for given knowledge. It is partly because the LLM is not good at generating distractors, as shown in Table 7. Also, the CKG Path variant provides strong performance, which shows the importance of relevant knowledge. Note that we do not include the results of directly generating questions without providing knowledge from CKGs, because the LLM-generated questions are highly repetitive, even if we add previously generated instances for prompting. We leave better strategies for synthesizing QA instances with LLMs as future work.

**Training Data Size** To investigate the impact of data size, we further train models using 10%, 30%, 50%, 70% and 90% of training data respectively. As a comparison, we try to remove refining prompting (i.e. add refined high-quality instances into the prompts) in synthesizing rationales and train corre-

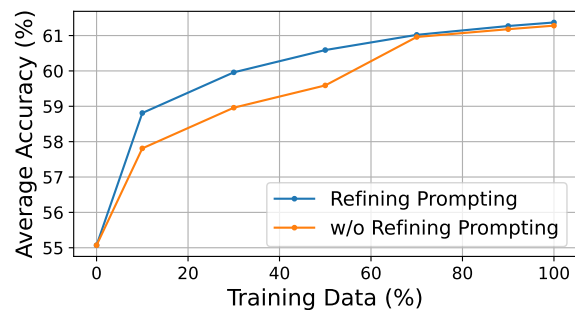


Figure 4: The performance curve of altering the size of training data.

sponding variant models. The performance curve is shown in Figure 4. We find that as the data size increases, the performance improvement tends to converge. Meanwhile, applying refining prompting can improve the data efficiency, achieving better performance with the same synthesizing budget.

### 5.3. Manual Analyses

For further analyses, we randomly select 100 instances from the evaluated benchmarks and manually annotate whether the rationale generated by LEROS is relevant, factual, and helpful for the question. Generally, 86% of the rationales are annotated as relevant, 69% are factual and 55% are helpful. For instances where the rationale rectifies the answer, 89% of the rationales are helpful. We show some of the helpful examples of rationales in Table 8 and mark the knowledge category that they express. These instances show that although LEROS is trained with synthesized question instances, it can generalize on unseen commonsense question answering tasks, providing helpful and readable evidence. On the other hand, we also find 70% of generated rationales are single facts between



two concepts, indicating the multi-hop reasoning ability requires further improvement as the model only learns from synthesized questions with low complexity.

## 6. Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a novel framework for explicit reasoning on commonsense question answering, which takes the best of commonsense knowledge graphs and large language models to synthesize rationale-augmented QA data. Based on solely synthesized data, we train a rationale generation model that can provide textual rationales for unseen questions. Empirical results show the model improves the performance of QA models on five unseen CQA benchmarks, surpassing previous methods that require training data of target benchmark and 10x larger language models. It can directly work with different generic QA models or serve as a good start for further tuning. This work shows a novel and effective way to transfer commonsense knowledge from both symbolic sources (CKGs) and neural sources (LLMs) to smaller special-purpose models. It also reveals enlightening phenomena for LLM-based synthesized resources.

## 7. Limitations and Ethics Considerations

This work has limitations in some aspects. First, the scope of synthesized questions is still affected by the coverage of source CKGs. Recent CKGs built from large language models can be an alternative source for synthesizing CQA instances for broader domains, yet we have not explored its feasibility. Second, due to the simple structure of synthesized questions, the model cannot learn much about complex reasoning structures and hence brings less improvement on hard CQA tasks (e.g. Winogrande), which remains a problem to be solved in future work. Third, our framework contains English-specific prompting designs. We only evaluate its effectiveness on English benchmarks. It requires additional adaptation for applying the framework to other languages.

In addition, we mainly focus on the helpfulness of generated rationales for assisting QA models in this work. The LEROS model can also generate human-readable rationales, yet it is not adequate to serve as a reliable source to provide trustworthy knowledge. We have not fully examined the synthesized QA instances used for training the model. The synthesized data are based on publicly available knowledge graphs and pretrained large language models, which could contain unconfirmed bias or toxic information and indirectly affect the trained LEROS model.

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