# IfQA: A Dataset for Open-domain Question Answering under Counterfactual Presuppositions

Wenhao Yu<sup>\*</sup>, Meng Jiang<sup>\*</sup>, Peter Clark<sup>\*</sup>, Ashish Sabharwal<sup>\*</sup>

\*Tecent AI Seattle Lab; \*University of Notre Dame; \*Allen Institute for AI \*wenhaowyu@global.tencent.com; \*ashishs@allenai.org

#### Abstract

Although counterfactual reasoning is a fundamental aspect of intelligence, the lack of largescale counterfactual open-domain questionanswering (QA) benchmarks makes it difficult to evaluate and improve models on this ability. To address this void, we introduce the first such dataset, named IfQA, where each question is based on a counterfactual presupposition via an "if" clause. Such questions require models to go beyond retrieving direct factual knowledge from the Web: they must identify the right information to retrieve and reason about an imagined situation that may even go against the facts built into their parameters. The IfQA dataset contains 3,800 questions that were annotated by crowdworkers on relevant Wikipedia passages. Empirical analysis reveals that the IfQA dataset is highly challenging for existing open-domain QA methods, including supervised retrieve-then-read pipeline methods (F1 score 44.5), as well as recent few-shot approaches such as chain-of-thought prompting with ChatGPT (F1 score 57.2). We hope the unique challenges posed by IfQA will push open-domain QA research on both retrieval and reasoning fronts, while also helping endow counterfactual reasoning abilities to today's language understanding models. The IfQA dataset can be found and downloaded at https://allenai.org/data/ifqa.

#### 1 Introduction

Counterfactual reasoning captures human tendency to create possible alternatives to past events and imagine the consequences of something that is contrary to what actually happened or is factually true (Hoch, 1985). Take, for example, the business arena where a corporate leadership team might rigorously analyze the potential ripple effects had they opted for an alternative investment strategy (Baron, 2000; Atherton, 2005). Counterfactual reasoning has long been considered a necessary part of a complete system for AI. However, few NLP resources aim at gauging the effectiveness of such reasoning capabilities in AI models, especially for the opendomain QA task. Instead, existing formulations of open-domain QA tasks mainly focus on questions whose answer can be deduced directly from global, factual knowledge (e.g., What was the occupation of Lovely Rita according to the song by the Beatles?) available on the Internet (Joshi et al., 2017; Kwiatkowski et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2018).

Counterfactual presupposition in open-domain QA can be viewed as a causal intervention. Such intervention entails altering the outcome of events based on the given presuppositions, while obeying the human readers' shared background knowledge of how the world works. To answer such questions, models must go beyond retrieving direct factual knowledge from the Web. They must identify the right information to retrieve and reason about an imagined situation that may even go against the facts built into their parameters.

Although some recent work has attempted to answer questions based on counterfactual evidence in the reading comprehension setting (Neeman et al., 2022), or identified and corrected a false presupposition in a given question (Min et al., 2022), none of existing works have been developed for evaluating and improving counterfactual reasoning capabilities in open-domain QA scenarios. To fill this gap, we present a novel benchmark dataset, named IfQA, where each of over 3,800 questions is based on a counterfactual presupposition defined via an "if" clause. Two examples are given in Figure 1. IfQA combines causal inference questions with factual text sources that are comprehensible to a layman without an understanding of formal causation. It also allows us to evaluate the capabilities and limitations of recent advances in QA methods in the context of counterfactual reasoning.

<sup>\*</sup> The majority of the work was completed during Wenhao's internship at the Allen Institute for AI.



Figure 1: In the IfQA dataset, each question is based on a counterfactual presupposition via an "if" clause. To answer the question, one needs to retrieve relevant facts from Wikipedia and perform counterfactual reasoning.

IfQA introduces new challenges in both retrieval and reading. For example, to answer the 2nd example question in Figure 1, "If the movement of the earth's crust caused the height of Mount Everest to drop by 300 meters, which mountain would be the highest mountain in the world?", the search and reasoning process can be divided into four steps: (i) retrieve documents relevant to the current height of Mount Everest (8,848 metres); (ii) calculate the height based the counterfactual presupposition (8,848-300=8,548 metres); (iii) retrieve documents relevant to the current second-highest mountain in the world (*K2: 8,611 metres*); and (iv) compare the heights of lowered Mount Everest and K2, then generate the answer (*K2*).

To establish an initial performance level on IfQA, we evaluate both state-of-the-art close-book and open-book models. Close-book models, such as chain-of-thought (CoT) reasoning with Chat-GPT (Wei et al., 2022), generate answers and optionally intermediate reasoning steps, without access to external evidence. On the other hand, openbook models, such as RAG (Lewis et al., 2020) and FiD (Izacard and Grave, 2021), first leverage a retriever over a large evidence corpus (e.g. Wikipedia) to fetch a set of relevant documents, then use a reader to peruse the retrieved documents and predict an answer.

Our experiments demonstrate that IfQA is a challenging dataset for both retrieval as well as reading and reasoning. Specifically, we make the following observations. First, in retrieval, traditional dense retrieval methods based on semantic matching cannot well capture the discrepancy between counterfactual presuppositions and factual evidence, resulting failing to retrieve the gold passages in nearly 35% of the examples. Second, state-of-the-art reader models, such as FiD, achieve an F1 score of only 50% even when the gold passage is contained in the set of retrieved passages. Third, close-book CoT reasoning can effectively improve the end-QA performance, but still heavily lags behind open-book models. Lastly, combining passage retrieval and large model reasoner achieves the best results.

We hope the new challenges posed by IfQA will help push open-domain QA research in an interesting new direction, as well as towards more effective general-purpose retrieval and reasoning methods.

#### 2 Related Work

#### 2.1 Open-domain Question Answering

The task of answering questions using a large collection of documents (e.g., Wikipedia) of diversified topics, has been a longstanding problem in NLP, information retrieval (IR), and related fields (Chen et al., 2017; Brill et al., 2002; Yu et al., 2022). A large number of **QA benchmarks** have been released in this space, spanning the different types of challenges represented behind them, including single-hop questions (Joshi et al., 2017; Kwiatkowski et al., 2019; Berant et al., 2013), multi-hop questions (Yang et al., 2018; Trivedi et al., 2022), ambiguous questions (Min et al., 2020), multi-answer questions (Rubin et al., 2022; Li et al., 2022), multi-modal questions (Chen et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2021a), real time questions (Chen et al., 2021; Kasai et al., 2022), and etc.

To the best of our knowledge, all existing formulations assume that each question is based on factual presuppositions of global knowledge. In contrast, the questions in our IfQA dataset are given counterfactual presuppositions for each question, so the model needs to reason and produce answers based on the given presuppositions combined with the retrieved factual knowledge. This makes IfQA a novel and qualitatively different dataset.

Mainstream open-domain **QA methods** employ a retriever-reader architecture, and recent followup work has mainly focused on improving the retriever or the reader (Chen and Yih, 2020; Zhu et al., 2021b; Ju et al., 2022). For the retriever traditional methods such as TF-IDF and BM25 explore sparse retrieval strategies by matching the overlapping contents between questions and passages (Chen et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2019). DPR (Karpukhin et al., 2020) revolutionized the field by utilizing dense contextualized vectors for passage indexing. Furthermore, other research improved the performance by better training strategies (Qu et al., 2021; Asai et al., 2022), passage re-ranking (Mao et al., 2021) and etc. Recent work has found that large language models have strong factual memory capabilities, and can directly generate supporting evidence in some scenarios, thereby replacing retrievers (Yu et al., 2023). Whereas for the reader, extractive readers aimed to locate a span of words in the retrieved passages as answer (Karpukhin et al., 2020; Iver et al., 2021; Guu et al., 2020). On the other hand, FiD and RAG, current state-of-the-art readers, leveraged encoder-decoder models such as T5 to generate answers (Lewis et al., 2020; Izacard and Grave, 2021; Izacard et al., 2022).

#### 2.2 Counterfactual Thinking and Causality

Causal inference involves a question about a counterfactual world created by taking an intervention, which have recently attracted interest in various fields of machine learning (Niu et al., 2021), including natural language processing (Feder et al., 2022). Recent work shows that incorporating counterfactual samples into model training improves the generalization ability (Kaushik et al., 2019), inspiring a line of research to explore incorporating counterfactual samples into different learning paradigms such as adversarial training (Zhu et al., 2020) and contrastive learning (Liang et al., 2020). These work lie in the orthogonal direction of incorporating counterfactual presuppositions into a model's decision-making process.

In the field of NLP, existing counterfactual inferences are ubiquitous in many common inference scenarios, such as counterfactual story generation (Qin et al., 2019), procedural text generation (Tandon et al., 2019). For example, in TIME-TRAVEL, given an original story and an intervening counterfactual event, the task is to minimally revise the story to make it compatible with the given counterfactual event (Qin et al., 2019). In WIQA, given a procedural text and some perturbations to steps mentioned in the procedural, the task is to predict whether the effects of perturbations to the process can be predicted (Tandon et al., 2019). However, to the best of our knowledge, none of existing benchmark datasets was built for the open-domain QA.

## 3 IfQA: Task and Dataset

#### 3.1 Dataset Collection

All questions and answers in our IfQA dataset were collected on the Amazon Mechanical Turk  $(AMT)^1$ , a crowdsourcing marketplace for individuals to outsource their jobs to a distributed workforce who can perform these tasks. We offered all AMT workers \$0.8 per annotation task, which leads to \$15 to \$20 per hour in total. To maintain the diversity of labeled questions, we set a limit of 30 questions per worker. In the end, the dataset was annotated by a total of 188 different crowdworkers.

Our annotation protocol consists of three phases. First, we automatically extract passages from Wikipedia which are expected to be amenable to counterfactual questions. Second, we crowdsource question-answer pairs on these passages, eliciting questions which require counterfactual reasoning. Finally, we validate the correctness and quality of annotated questions by one or two additional workers. These phases are described below in detail, and the annotation task form is shown in Figure 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>https://www.mturk.com

Answer Type	Passage (some parts shortened)	Question	Answer
Entity (49.7%)	LeBron James: On June 29, 2018, James opted out of his contract with the <b>Cavaliers</b> and became an unrestricted free agent. On July 1, his manage- ment company, Klutch Sports, announced that he would sign with the Los Angeles Lakers.	If LeBron James had not been traded to the Los Angeles Lak- ers, which team would he have played for in 2018-2019 season?	(Cleveland) Cavaliers
Number (15.9%)	7-Eleven: Japan Co., Ltd. in 2005, and is now held by Chiyoda, Tokyo-based Seven & i Hold- ings. 7-Eleven operates, franchises, and licenses 71,100 stores in 17 countries as of July 2020.	If 7-Eleven expanded its reach to five more countries in 2020, how many countries would have 7-Eleven by the end of the year?	22 (countries)
Date (14.5%)	2020 Summer Olympics: originally scheduled to take place from <b>24 July to 9 August 2020</b> , the event was postponed to 2021 in March 2020 as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic,	If Covid-19 hadn't spread rapidly across the globe, when would the Tokyo Olympics in Japan start?	July 24, 2020
Others (19.9%)	1991 Belgian Grand Prix: Patrese's misfortune promoted Prost to second, with Nigel Mansell third, Gerhard Berger <b>fourth</b> , Alesi fifth, and Nel- son Piquet <b>sixth</b> while the sensation of qualifying, Schumacher, was an amazing seventh	If Gerhard Berger and Nelson Pi- quet had switched starting posi- tion at the 1991 Belgian Grand Prix, what would have been Nel- son Piquet's starting position?	fourth
	Massospondylus: "Pradhania" was originally regarded as a more <b>basal sauropodomorph</b> but new cladistic analysis performed by Novas et al., 2011 suggests that "Pradhania" is a mas- sospondylid. "Pradhania" presents two	If the new clade analysis per- formed by Novas in 2011 did not indicate that "Pradhania" was a large vertebrate, what animal would it have been identified as?	Basal sauropo- domorph

Table 1: Example questions from the IfQA dataset, with the proportions with different types of answers.

#### 3.1.1 Question and Answer Annotation

(1) Passage Selection. Creating a counterfactual presupposition based on a given Wikipedia page is a non-trivial task, requiring both the rationality of the counterfactual presupposition and the predictability of alternative outcomes. Since the entire Wikipedia has more than 6 million entries, we first perform a preliminary screening to filter out passages that are not related to describing causal events. Specifically, we exploit keywords to search Wikipedia for passages on causality (e.g., lead to, cause, because, due to, originally, initially) on events, particularly with a high proportion of past tense, as our initial pilots indicated that these passages were the easiest to provide a counterfactual presupposition about past events. Compared with randomly passage selection, this substantially reduces the difficulty of question annotation.

(2) Question Annotation. To allow some flexibility in this question annotation process, in each human intelligence task (HIT), the worker received a random sample of 20 Wikipedia passages and was asked to select at least 10 passages from them to annotate relevant questions.

During the early-stage annotation, we found that the quality of annotation was significantly low

when no examples annotated questions provided. Therefore, we provided workers with five questions at the beginning of each HIT to better prompt them to annotate questions and answers. However, we noticed that fixed examples might bring some bias to annotation workers. For example, when we provided the following example: If German football club RB Leipzig doubled their donation to the city of Leipzig in August 2015 to help asylum seekers, how many euros would they donate in total? The workers would be more inclined to mimic the sentence pattern to annotate questions, such as: If Wells Fargo doubled its number of ATMs worldwide by 2022, how many ATMs would it have? To enhance the diversity of annotated questions, we devised a new strategy. Instead of providing the same fixed examples, we presented five examples randomly sampled from previously annotated examples for each new annotation task. This approach ensures that each annotator sees distinct examples, thereby sparking creativity and minimizing the likelihood of bias in the annotation process.

Additionally, we allow workers to write their own questions if they want to do so or if they find it difficult to ask questions based on a given Wikipedia passage (see annotation task form in

	IfQA-S: Supervised Setting			IfQA-F: Few-shot Setting		
	Train	Dev.	Test	Train	Dev.	Test
Number of examples	2400	700	700	600	1600	1600
Question length (words)	23.35	23.26	23.09	23.78	23.29	23.10
Answer length (words)	1.84	1.83	1.71	1.88	1.83	1.78
Vocabulary size	12,902	5,460	4,596	4,578	9,967	9,339

Table 2: Data statistics of IfQA, for both supervised and few-shot settings.

Figure 4). Such annotation process can prevent the workers from reluctantly asking a question for a given passage. At the same time, workers can be encouraged to ask interesting questions and increase the diversity of data. We require that this self-proposed question must also be based on Wikipedia, and the worker is required to provide the URL of Wikipedia page and copy the corresponding paragraph. Ultimately, 20.6% of the questions were annotated in this free-form annotation.

(3) Answer Annotation. Workers then are required to give answers to the annotated questions. We provided additional answer boxes where they could add other possible valid answers, when appropriate.

## 3.1.2 Question and Answer Verification

The verification step mainly evaluates three dimensions of the labelled questions in the first step.

**Q1:** Is this a readable, passage-related question? The first question is used to filter mislabeled questions, such as unreadable questions and questions irrelevant to the passage. For example, we noticed that very few workers randomly write down questions, in order to get paid for the task.

**Q2:** Is the question not well-defined without the Wikipedia passage? I.e., can the question not be properly understood without the passage as the context? If not, could you modify the question to make it context-free? This ensures that the questions are still answerable without the given passage, to avoid ambiguity (Min et al., 2020).

Q3: Is the given answer correct? If not, could you provide the correct answer to the question? The third question is to ensure the correctness of the answer. If the answer annotated in the first step is incorrect, it can be revised in time from the second step. If the workers submit a different answer, we further add one more worker, so that a total of three workers answered the question, thereby selecting the final answer by voting.

### 3.1.3 Answer Post-processing

Since the answers are in free forms, different surface forms of the same word or phrase can make syntactic matching based end-QA evaluation unreliable. Therefore, we further normalize the different types of answers as follows and include them in addition to the original article span.

**Entity.** Entities often have other aliases. For example, the aliases of "United States" include "United States of America", "USA", "U.S.A", "America", "US" and etc. The same entity often exists with different aliases in different Wikipedia pages. Therefore, in addition to the entity aliases currently shown in the given passage, we add the canonical form of the entity – the title of the Wikipedia page to which the entity corresponds.

**Number.** A number could be written in numeric and textual forms, such as "5" and "five", "30" and "thirty". When the number has a unit, such as "5 billion", it is difficult for us to traverse all possible forms, such as "5,000 million" and "5,000,000 thousand", so we annotate the answer based on the unit that appears in the given Wikipedia passage, for example, if the word "billion" appears in the given passage, we take "5" as the numeric part, so only "5 billion" is provided as an additional answer.

**Date.** In addition of keeping the original format mentioned in the given passage, we use the ISO 8601<sup>2</sup> standard to add an additional answer, namely "Month Day, Year", such as "May 18, 2022".

## 3.2 Dataset Analysis

Answer Type and Length. The types of answers can be mainly divided into the following four categories: entity (49.7%), date (14.5%), number (15.9%), and others (19.9%), as shown in Table 1. The "others" category includes ordinal numbers, combinations of entities and numbers, names of people or location that do not have a Wikipedia entry, and etc. The average length of the answers in IfQA is 1.82 words, mainly noun words, noun

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/IS0\_8601



Figure 2: Retrieval and end-QA performance using the retrieve-then-read models on the IfQA-S split. **It should be noted** that under the supervised setting, all models, except BM25, are fine-tuned on the training split. For retrieval, BM25 demonstrates superior performance than DPR. For end-QA, FiD-l demonstrates the best performance.

phrases, or prepositional phrases. This answer length is similar to many existing open-domain QA benchmarks, such as NQ (2.35 words), TriviaQA (2.46 words), and HotpotQA (2.46 words).

**Question Type and Length.** The types of questions can be mainly divided into the following seven categories according to the interrogative words: what (51.7%), who (14.6%), when (5.1%), which (10.1%), where (3.5%) and how many/much (12.0%). Among the seven categories, "what" has the highest proportion, but it also includes some questions about time/date or location, such as "what year" and "what city". The average length of question in IfQA is 23.2 words, which are significantly longer than many existing open-domain QA benchmarks, such as NQ (9.1 words), TriviaQA (13.9 words), HotpotQA (15.7 words), mainly due to the counterfactual presupposition clause.

**Span vs. Non-span Answer.** As the question annotation is based on the given Wikipedia passage, most answers (75.1%) in the dataset are text spans extracted from the provided passage. Non-span answers usually require some mathematical reasoning (e.g., the 2nd example in Table 1) or combining multiple text spans in the passage (e.g., the 3rd example in Table 1) as the final answer.

#### 3.3 Dataset Splits

We provide two official splits of our dataset. The first one is a regular split for supervised learning (**IfQA-S**). This split has 2,400 (63.2%) examples for training, 700 (18.4%) examples for validation and 700 (18.4%) examples for test. With the popularity of large language models, the reasoning ability of the model in the few-shot setting is also

important. Our dataset requires the model to reason over counterfactual presuppositions, which is a natural test bed for evaluating their counterfactual reasoning abilities. Therefore, we also set up another split for few-shot learning (**IfQA-F**) that has only 600 examples for training, and half of the rest for validation and half for test. The dataset statistics of two splits are shown in Table 2.

#### 4 **Experiments**

#### 4.1 Retrieval Corpus

We use Wikipedia as the retrieval corpus. The Wikipedia dump we used is dated  $2022-05-01^3$  and has 6,394,490 pages in total. We followed prior work (Karpukhin et al., 2020; Lewis et al., 2020) to preprocess Wikipedia pages, splitting each page into disjoint 100-word passages, resulting in 27,572,699 million passages in total.

#### 4.2 Comparison Systems

**Closed-book models** are pre-trained models that store knowledge in their own parameters. When answering a question, close-book models (Codex and ChatGPT (Brown et al., 2020)) only encode the given question and predict an answer without access to any external non-parametric knowledge. Instead of directly generating the answer, chain-ofthought (CoT) leverages ChatGPT to generate a series of intermediate reasoning steps before presenting the final answer (Wei et al., 2022).

**Open-Book models** first leverage a retriever over a large evidence corpus (e.g. Wikipedia) to fetch a set of relevant documents that may contain the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>https://dumps.wikimedia.org

Table 3: End-QA performance on both IfQA-S and IfQA-F splits. We can observe that combining passage retrieval and large model reasoner can achieve the best performance, as the entire pipeline can enjoy both the factual evidence provided by the retriever and the powerful deductive reasoning ability of the large language model. **It should be noted** that all models are deployed under the few-shot setting, even when being evaluated on the supervised split.

Methods	IfQA-S: Supervised Setting Codex ChatGPT		IfQA-F: Few-shot Setting Codex ChatGPT		
	EM   F1	EM   F1	EM   F1	$EM \mid F1$	
*without retriever, and not using external documents					
ChatGPT (QA prompt)	25.25   32.91	24.42   34.33	25.73   32.88	25.25   34.49	
Chain-of-thought (CoT)	27.39   34.22	25.55   35.82	27.08   34.28	25.75   35.96	
*with retriever, and read passages using ChatGPT (few-shot)					
DPR + ChatGPT	40.80   48.82	40.65   48.96	(DPR is only for supervised setting)		
BM25 + ChatGPT	46.08   55.27	46.28   57.81	46.81   55.46	45.56   57.21	

answer, then a reader to peruse the retrieved documents and predict an answer. The retriever could be sparse retrievers, such as BM25, and also dense retrievers, such as DPR (Karpukhin et al., 2020), which a dual-encoder based model. Whereas for the reader, FiD and RAG, current state-of-the-art readers, leveraged encoder-decoder models, such as T5 (Raffel et al., 2020), to generate answers (Lewis et al., 2020; Izacard and Grave, 2021).

### 4.3 Evaluation Metrics

**Retrieval Performance.** We employ Recall@K (short as R@K) as an intermediate evaluation metric, measured as the percentage of top-K retrieved passage that contain the ground truth passage.

**End-QA Performance.** We use two commonly used metrics to evaluate the end-QA performance: exact match (EM) and F1 score (Karpukhin et al., 2020; Izacard and Grave, 2020; Sachan et al., 2022). EM measures the percentage of predictions having an exact match in the acceptable answer list. F1 score measures the token overlap between the prediction and ground truth answer.

### 4.4 Implementation Details

Under the supervised learning setting, the DPR retriever (Karpukhin et al., 2020) and FiD reader (Izacard and Grave, 2021) are fine-tuned on the IfQA-S training split. The implementation details of training are as follows.

**Retriever.** We employed two independent pretrained BERT-base models with 110M parameters (Devlin et al., 2019) as query and document encoders. BERT-base consists of 12 Transformer layers. For each layer, the hidden size is set to 768 and the number of attention head is set to 12. All dense retrievers were trained for 40 epochs with a learning rate of 1e-5. We used Adam (Kingma and Ba, 2015) as the optimizer, and set its hyperparameter  $\epsilon$  to 1e-8 and  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  to (0.9, 0.999). The batch size is set as 32 on 8x32GB Tesla V100 GPUs.

**Reader.** We employed the FiD (Izacard and Grave, 2021) model that is built up on T5-large (Raffel et al., 2020). For model training, we used AdamW (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2019) with batch size 32 on 8x32GB Tesla V100 or A100 GPUs. We experimented with learning rates of 1e-5/3e-5/6e-5/1e-4 and we found that in general the model performed best when set to 3e-5. All reader models were trained with 20,000 steps in total where the learning rate was warmed up over the first 2,000 steps, and linear decay of learning rate.

### 4.5 Results and Discussion

(1) Retrieval in IfQA is challenging. As shown in Figure 2, when retrieving 20 Wikipedia passages, both sparse and dense searchers could only achieve Recall@20 scores of about 60%, so the reader model cannot answer the remaining 40% of questions based on accurate supportive evidence. Although recall goes higher when more number of passages retrieved, it would significantly increase the memory cost of the reader model, making it hard to further add complex reasoning modules. This phenomenon of rapid increase in memory cost is also observed in FiD (Izacard and Grave, 2021), i.e., when reading 100 passages, 64 V100 GPUs are required to train the model. Besides, when using large language models for in-context learning, more input passages lead to an increase in the number of input tokens, limiting the number of in-context demonstrations. For example, the latest variants of ChatGPT, such as code-davinci and text-davinci, have an input limit of 4096 tokens.

Table 4: Case study: a comparative analysis of two IfQA questions and answers generated by different methods.

**Question:** If the Game Boy Color video game Elmo's ABCs was released in North America at the same time as it was released in Europe, in what year was it released in Europe?

Wikipedia passage: Elmo's ABCs is a 1999 educational Game Boy Color video game. It was released in March 1999 in North America. Like "Elmo's 123s", it was also released on April 6, 2001 in Europe. ...

ChatGPT (QA prompt, No Retrieval): 2000 × DPR + FiD: 1999 × BM25 + ChatGPT: 2001 ✓ Chain-of-thought (CoT), No Retrieval: The Game Boy Color video game Elmo's ABCs was released in North America on October 31, 2000, and in Europe on March 9, 2001. So, if the game was released in Europe at the same time as North America, it would be available in Europe in 2000. The answer is 2000 ×

**Gold answer: 2001.** Due to the lack of retrieved evidence, ChatGPT (QA prompt) and Chain-of-thought can hallucinate factual events, resulting in wrong answers. DPR-FiD, on the other hand, relies on retrieved passages from existing factual evidence to generate responses. However, it still produces inaccurate answers due to its limited reasoning ability. Only BM25+ChatGPT generates the accurate answer.

**Question:** If China were to adopt local time zones instead of a single standard time, what would be the maximum time difference between the easternmost and westernmost parts of the country?

**Wikipedia Document:** The time in China follows a single standard time offset of (eight hours ahead of Coordinated Universal Time), even though China spans almost **five geographical time zones**. The official national standard time is called "Beijing Time", domestically and "China Standard Time" internationally.

ChatGPT (QA prompt, No Retrieval): Five X DPR + FiD: five X BM25 + ChatGPT: Five X Chain-of-thought (CoT), No Retrieval: China spans five geographical time zones, so if each region were to have its own local time zone, the time difference between the easternmost and westernmost parts would be five hours X Gold answer: Four. Although China spans five geographical time zones, the maximum time difference between the easternmost and westernmost parts would be four hours, not five. All provided methods erroneously suggest a five-hour difference, underscoring a limitation in their reasoning capabilities.

Furthermore, the IfQA benchmark has some unique features in terms of retrieval compared to existing open-domain QA benchmarks. On one hand, questions in IfQA datasets are usually longer than many existing QA datasets (e.g. NQ and TriviaQA), because each question in IfQA contains a clause mentioning counterfactual presuppositions. The average question length of questions in IfQA (as shown in Table 2) is 23.2 words, which is much higher than the question length in NQ (9.1 words), TriviaQA (13.9 words), HotpotQA (15.7 words) and etc. Longer questions make current retrieval methods based on keyword matching (e.g., BM25) easier because more keywords are included in the question, but make latent semantic matching (e.g., DPR) methods harder because a single embedding vector cannot well represent enough Information. On the other hand, in many cases, the retriever suffers from fetching relevant documents by simple semantic matching because of the discrepancies between counterfactual presuppositions and factual evidence. For example, in the question "If the sea level continues to rise at an accelerated rate, which country is likely to be submerged first?", the targeted passage for retrieval might not directly mention "sea level", "rise", and "submergerd", where the question is essentially to ask "which country is the lowest-lying one in the world".

(2) Reading and reasoning in IfQA are challenging. Deriving answers from retrieved passages requires reader models to reason over counterfactual presuppositions in questions and retrieved factual passages. As shown in Figure 2, even the state-ofthe-art reader model FiD struggles. In the subset of examples where the retrieved passages contained the golden passages, only around 40% of the answers are correct. Thus, while FiD can achieve state-of-the-art performance on many open-domain QA benchmarks, without any reasoning module it performs poorly on IfQA. We also find that the FiD model performs worse (around 32%) on questions that require some complex reasoning, such as numerical reasoning examples.

(3) Chain-of-thought improves LLMs' counterfactual reasoning. LLMs perform particularly well on reasoning tasks when equipped with chainof-thought (Wei et al., 2022) to generate a series of intermediate reasoning steps before presenting the final answer. Since IfQA requires models to reason over counterfactual presuppositions, we hypothesize that such a reasoning process would also be effective on IfQA. Table 3 shows that chain-ofthought generation, which was mainly evaluated in complex multi-step reasoning questions earlier, can effectively improve the performance of LLMs on IfQA. However, since LLMs are closed-book models, they still lack non-parametric knowledge and, on IfQA, lag behind state-of-the-art retrieve-then-read methods, such as FiD.

(4) Passage retriever + Large model reasoner performs the best on IfQA. We saw that passage retrieval is a necessary step for IfQA. In the absence of grounding evidence, it is difficult for even LLMs to accurately find relevant knowledge from parameterized memory, and accurately predict answer. From the results, the performance of closebook models on IfQA data is also far behind the retrieve-then-read models. However, an inherent disadvantage of relying on small readers is that they do not enjoy the world knowledge or deductive power of LLMs, making reasoning based on retrieved passages perform poorly. Therefore, we provided in-context demonstrations to ChatGPT, and prompt it to read the retrieved passages, so that the entire pipeline can enjoy both the factual evidence provided by the retriever and the powerful reasoning ability of the large language reader. As shown in Table 3, we found that the combination of BM25 (as retriever) and ChatGPT (as reader) can achieve the best model performance.

#### 5 Conclusion

We introduce IfQA, a novel dataset with 3,800 questions, each of which is based on a counterfactual presupposition and has an "if" clause. Our empirical analysis reveals that IfQA is challenging for existing open-domain QA methods in both retrieval and reasoning process. It thus forms a valuable resource to push open-domain QA research on both retrieval and counterfactual reasoning fronts.

### 6 Limitations

The main limitation of IfQA dataset is that it only covers event-based questions, due to the nature of creating counterfactual presuppositions. Therefore, our dataset is not intended for training general opendomain QA models or evaluate their capabilities.

For data collection, we relied heavily on human annotators, both for question annotation and verification. Despite our efforts to mitigate annotator bias by providing explicit instructions and examples and by sampling annotators from diverse populations, it is not possible to completely remove this bias. Besides, we use heuristic rules to select only a small portion of Wikipedia passages and then present them to human annotators, which might lead to pattern-oriented bias in the annotated data.

#### Acknowledgements

This work was supported by NSF IIS-2119531, IIS-2137396, IIS-2142827, IIS-2234058, CCF-1901059, and ONR N00014-22-1-2507. Wenhao Yu is also supported by Bloomberg Data Science Ph.D Fellowship and Tencent AI Lab.

#### References

- Akari Asai, Timo Schick, Patrick Lewis, Xilun Chen, Gautier Izacard, Sebastian Riedel, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, and Wen-tau Yih. 2022. Task-aware retrieval with instructions. arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.09260.
- Andrew Atherton. 2005. A future for small business? prospective scenarios for the development of the economy based on current policy thinking and counterfactual reasoning. *Futures*, 37(8):777–794.
- Robert A Baron. 2000. Counterfactual thinking and venture formation: The potential effects of thinking about "what might have been". *Journal of business venturing*, 15(1):79–91.
- Jonathan Berant, Andrew Chou, Roy Frostig, and Percy Liang. 2013. Semantic parsing on freebase from question-answer pairs. In *EMNLP*, pages 1533– 1544.
- Eric Brill, Susan Dumais, and Michele Banko. 2002. An analysis of the askmsr question-answering system. In *Proceedings of the 2002 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP* 2002), pages 257–264.
- 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.
- Danqi Chen, Adam Fisch, Jason Weston, and Antoine Bordes. 2017. Reading wikipedia to answer opendomain questions. In Proceedings of the 55th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 1870–1879.
- Danqi Chen and Wen-tau Yih. 2020. Open-domain question answering. In *Proceedings of the 58th annual meeting of the association for computational linguistics: tutorial abstracts*, pages 34–37.
- Wenhu Chen, Ming-Wei Chang, Eva Schlinger, William Yang Wang, and William W Cohen. 2020. Open question answering over tables and text. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*.

- Wenhu Chen, Xinyi Wang, and William Yang Wang. 2021. A dataset for answering time-sensitive questions. In Thirty-fifth Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track (Round 2).
- 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.
- Amir Feder, Katherine A Keith, Emaad Manzoor, Reid Pryzant, Dhanya Sridhar, Zach Wood-Doughty, Jacob Eisenstein, Justin Grimmer, Roi Reichart, Margaret E Roberts, et al. 2022. Causal inference in natural language processing: Estimation, prediction, interpretation and beyond. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 10:1138–1158.
- Kelvin Guu, Kenton Lee, Zora Tung, Panupong Pasupat, and Ming-Wei Chang. 2020. Realm: Retrievalaugmented language model pre-training. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2002.08909*.
- Stephen J Hoch. 1985. Counterfactual reasoning and accuracy in predicting personal events. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 11(4):719.
- Srinivasan Iyer, Sewon Min, Yashar Mehdad, and Wentau Yih. 2021. Reconsider: Improved re-ranking using span-focused cross-attention for open domain question answering. In *Procs. of NAACL-HLT*.
- Gautier Izacard and Edouard Grave. 2020. Distilling knowledge from reader to retriever for question answering. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*.
- Gautier Izacard and Edouard Grave. 2021. Leveraging passage retrieval with generative models for open domain question answering. In *EACL*, pages 874–880.
- Gautier Izacard, Patrick Lewis, Maria Lomeli, Lucas Hosseini, Fabio Petroni, Timo Schick, Jane Dwivedi-Yu, Armand Joulin, Sebastian Riedel, and Edouard Grave. 2022. Few-shot learning with retrieval augmented language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2208.03299*.
- Mandar Joshi, Eunsol Choi, Daniel S Weld, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 2017. Triviaqa: A large scale distantly supervised challenge dataset for reading comprehension. In *ACL*, pages 1601–1611.
- Mingxuan Ju, Wenhao Yu, Tong Zhao, Chuxu Zhang, and Yanfang Ye. 2022. Grape: Knowledge graph enhanced passage reader for open-domain question answering. In *Findings of Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*.

- Vladimir Karpukhin, Barlas Oguz, Sewon Min, Patrick Lewis, Ledell Wu, Sergey Edunov, Danqi Chen, and Wen-tau Yih. 2020. Dense passage retrieval for opendomain question answering. In *Proceedings of the* 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP), pages 6769–6781.
- Jungo Kasai, Keisuke Sakaguchi, Yoichi Takahashi, Ronan Le Bras, Akari Asai, Xinyan Yu, Dragomir Radev, Noah A Smith, Yejin Choi, and Kentaro Inui. 2022. Realtime qa: What's the answer right now? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2207.13332*.
- Divyansh Kaushik, Eduard Hovy, and Zachary Lipton. 2019. Learning the difference that makes a difference with counterfactually-augmented data. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*.
- Diederik P Kingma and Jimmy Ba. 2015. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. In *International Conference for Learning Representation (ICLR)*.
- Tom Kwiatkowski, Jennimaria Palomaki, Olivia Redfield, Michael Collins, Ankur Parikh, Chris Alberti, Danielle Epstein, Illia Polosukhin, Jacob Devlin, Kenton Lee, et al. 2019. Natural questions: A benchmark for question answering research. *TACL*, pages 452– 466.
- Patrick Lewis, Ethan Perez, Aleksandra Piktus, Fabio Petroni, Vladimir Karpukhin, Naman Goyal, Heinrich Küttler, Mike Lewis, Wen-tau Yih, Tim Rocktäschel, et al. 2020. Retrieval-augmented generation for knowledge-intensive nlp tasks. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:9459–9474.
- Haonan Li, Martin Tomko, Maria Vasardani, and Timothy Baldwin. 2022. Multispanqa: A dataset for multi-span question answering. In Proceedings of the 2022 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, pages 1250–1260.
- Zujie Liang, Weitao Jiang, Haifeng Hu, and Jiaying Zhu. 2020. Learning to contrast the counterfactual samples for robust visual question answering. In *Proceedings of the 2020 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing (EMNLP)*, pages 3285–3292.
- Ilya Loshchilov and Frank Hutter. 2019. Decoupled weight decay regularization. *International Conference for Learning Representation (ICLR)*.
- Yuning Mao, Pengcheng He, Xiaodong Liu, Yelong Shen, Jianfeng Gao, Jiawei Han, and Weizhu Chen. 2021. Reader-guided passage reranking for opendomain question answering. In *Findings of ACL-IJCNLP*.
- Sewon Min, Julian Michael, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 2020. Ambigqa: Answering ambiguous open-domain questions. In Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP), pages 5783– 5797.

- Sewon Min, Luke Zettlemoyer, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, et al. 2022. Crepe: Open-domain question answering with false presuppositions. *arXiv e-prints*, pages arXiv–2211.
- Ella Neeman, Roee Aharoni, Or Honovich, Leshem Choshen, Idan Szpektor, and Omri Abend. 2022. Disentqa: Disentangling parametric and contextual knowledge with counterfactual question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.05655*.
- Yulei Niu, Kaihua Tang, Hanwang Zhang, Zhiwu Lu, Xian-Sheng Hua, and Ji-Rong Wen. 2021. Counterfactual vqa: A cause-effect look at language bias. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, pages 12700– 12710.
- Lianhui Qin, Antoine Bosselut, Ari Holtzman, Chandra Bhagavatula, Elizabeth Clark, and Yejin Choi. 2019. Counterfactual story reasoning and generation. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP), pages 5043–5053.
- Yingqi Qu, Yuchen Ding, Jing Liu, Kai Liu, Ruiyang Ren, Wayne Xin Zhao, Daxiang Dong, Hua Wu, and Haifeng Wang. 2021. Rocketqa: An optimized training approach to dense passage retrieval for opendomain question answering. In *Proceedings of the* 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, pages 5835–5847.
- 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.
- Samuel Joseph Amouyal Ohad Rubin, Ori Yoran, Tomer Wolfson, Jonathan Herzig, and Jonathan Berant. 2022. Qampari:: An open-domain question answering benchmark for questions with many answers from multiple paragraphs. arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.12665.
- Devendra Singh Sachan, Mike Lewis, Dani Yogatama, Luke Zettlemoyer, Joelle Pineau, and Manzil Zaheer. 2022. Questions are all you need to train a dense passage retriever. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2206.10658*.
- Niket Tandon, Bhavana Dalvi, Keisuke Sakaguchi, Peter Clark, and Antoine Bosselut. 2019. Wiqa: A dataset for "what if..." reasoning over procedural text. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP), pages 6076–6085.
- Harsh Trivedi, Niranjan Balasubramanian, Tushar Khot, and Ashish Sabharwal. 2022. Musique: Multihop questions via single-hop question composition. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 10:539–554.

- 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.
- Wei Yang, Yuqing Xie, Aileen Lin, Xingyu Li, Luchen Tan, Kun Xiong, Ming Li, and Jimmy Lin. 2019. End-to-end open-domain question answering with bertserini. In NAACL 2019 (demo).
- Zhilin Yang, Peng Qi, Saizheng Zhang, Yoshua Bengio, William Cohen, Ruslan Salakhutdinov, and Christopher D Manning. 2018. Hotpotqa: A dataset for diverse, explainable multi-hop question answering. In Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, pages 2369–2380.
- Wenhao Yu, Dan Iter, Shuohang Wang, Yichong Xu, Mingxuan Ju, Soumya Sanyal, Chenguang Zhu, Michael Zeng, and Meng Jiang. 2023. Generate rather than retrieve: Large language models are strong context generators. *International Conference* for Learning Representation (ICLR).
- Wenhao Yu, Chenguang Zhu, Zaitang Li, Zhiting Hu, Qingyun Wang, Heng Ji, and Meng Jiang. 2022. A survey of knowledge-enhanced text generation. *ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR)*.
- Fengbin Zhu, Wenqiang Lei, Youcheng Huang, Chao Wang, Shuo Zhang, Jiancheng Lv, Fuli Feng, and Tat-Seng Chua. 2021a. Tat-qa: A question answering benchmark on a hybrid of tabular and textual content in finance. In *Proceedings of the 59th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 3277–3287.
- Fengbin Zhu, Wenqiang Lei, Chao Wang, Jianming Zheng, Soujanya Poria, and Tat-Seng Chua. 2021b. Retrieving and reading: A comprehensive survey on open-domain question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2101.00774*.
- Qingfu Zhu, Weinan Zhang, Ting Liu, and William Yang Wang. 2020. Counterfactual off-policy training for neural dialogue generation. In Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP), pages 3438–3448.

## A Appendix

### A.1 Annotation Task Form on AMT

We have provided the annotation form used on Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) in Figure 3 and Figure 4, which demonstrate the two methods of annotation: restricted annotation, where a Wikipedia page is provided, and free-form annotation, where no Wikipedia page is provided. This annotation process helps prevent workers from asking questions without sufficient context or reluctance. Further details on the data collection is in §3.1.



Figure 3: Restricted annotation of IfQA instruction used on Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT). This figure only shows the process of annotating one question. In practice, workers are presented with 20 Wikipedia passages and are required to complete a total of 10 tasks to ensure the avoidance of nonsensical questions.

Free-form Annotation of IfQA Instruction
Goal: Our goal is to collect a question answering dataset with counterfactual presuppositions to train a better artificial intelligence system with counterfactual reasoning ability. A qualified question should be based on counterfactuals assumptions on Wikipedia facts and have a definite answer that can be evaluated.
Example 1: (Wikipedia URL) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2020_Summer_Olympics
← → C @ en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2020_Summer_Olympics
2020 Summer Olympics
WIKIPEDIA The Free Easyclepeda
(Question) If Covid-19 was effectively contained, in which year would the Tokyo Olympics be held?
( <b>Copied sentence</b> ) The Games were originally scheduled to take place from 24 July to 9 August 2020, but due to the global COVID-19 pandemic, the event was postponed to 2021.
Example 2: (Wikipedia URL) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Overboard (2018 film)
← → C
Overboard (2018 film)
WIKIPEDIA The Free Encyclopedia Wikipe Dial The Free Encyclopedia Wikipe Dial The Free Encyclopedia Wikipe Dial The Free Encyclopedia Wikipe Dial Wikipe Dial The Free Encyclopedia Wikipe Dial Wikipe Di
(Question) If Overboard came out on April 27, 2018, which movie would it mainly compete with at the box office? (Answer) Avengers: Infinity War (Copied sentence) It was originally scheduled for April 20, 2018, though in January 2018. In March 2018, the film's release was rescheduled for May 4, to avoid competing against the new April 27 release of Avengers: Infinity War.
Example 5: (Wikipedia URL) https://en.wikipedia.org/Wiki/KZ
K2
WIKIPEDIA In Erre Encyclopeda K2, at 8,611 metres (28,251 ft) above sea level, is the second-highest mountain on Earth, after Mount Everest (at 8,849 metres (29,032 ft)). <sup>[3]</sup> It lies in the Karakoram range, partially in the Gilgit-Baltistan region of Pakistan-administered Kashmir and partially in a China-administered territory of the Kashmir region included in the Taxkorgan Tajik Autonomous County of Xinjiang. <sup>[4][5][6][a]</sup>
( <b>Ouestion</b> ) If Everest were 1000 meters lower, what would be the highest mountain in the world?
(Answer) K2 (Conjed sentence) K2 at 8 611 metres (28 251 ft) above sea level is the second-highest mountain on Earth after
Mount Everest (at 8,849 metres (29,032 ft)).
Based on the example above, please write your question and answer, and include relevant evidence from Wikipedia. Make sure to provide the URL of the Wikipedia page and copy the supporting sentence into the designated box.
1. Question:
Please type your question here. The question should have a definite answer, not open-ended!
2. Answer:
Please type your answer here. If the question has multiple answers, please separate them by ;
3. Wikipedia URL:
Please type the URL here. The auto-URL check has been conducted to ensure its validity.
4. Supporting sentences:
Please copy the supporting sentence here. This should be sentences copied from above Wikipedia.

Figure 4: Free-form annotation of IfQA instruction used on Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT). Free-form annotation allows workers write their own questions if they want to do so or if they find it difficult to ask questions based on a given Wikipedia passage. We require that this self-proposed question must also be based on Wikipedia, and the worker is required to provide the URL of Wikipedia page and copy the corresponding sentence/paragraph.