



Logic, Plausibility, and Generalization: Making LLMs More Systematic

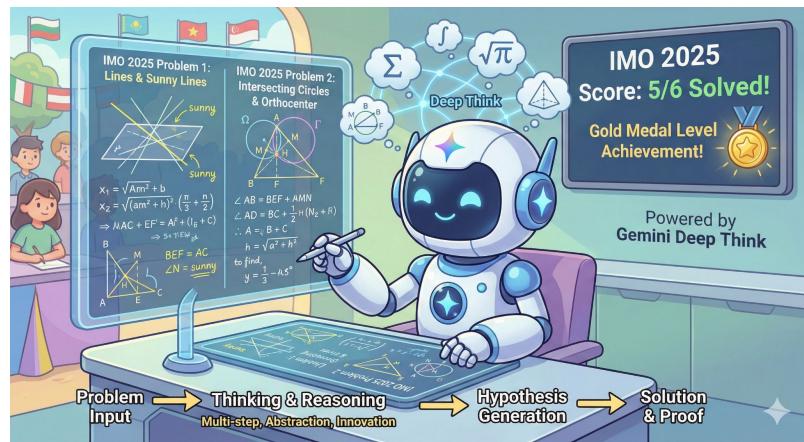
Leonardo Bertolazzi

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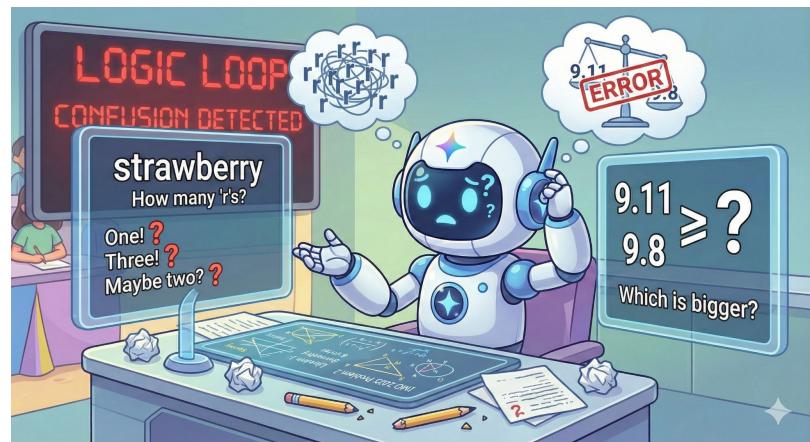
An interesting puzzle about current AI systems

The following two statements are both true at the same time:

1. LLMs have achieved **superhuman** (or better-than-most-human) abilities in very challenging tasks



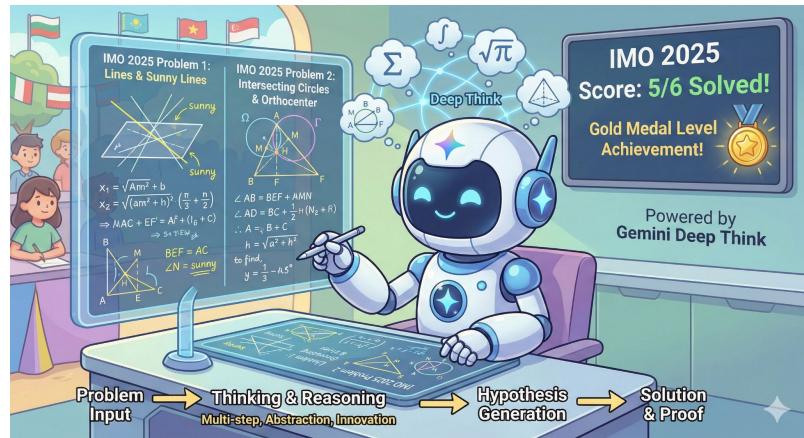
2. LLMs can fail in unpredictable ways compared to how humans would fail



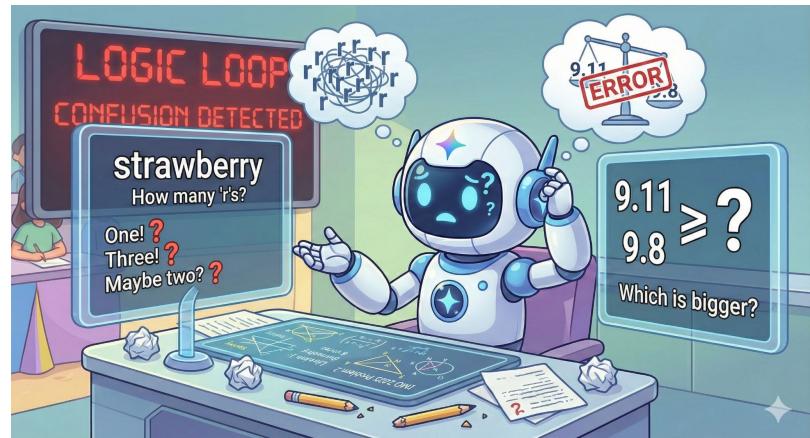
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What are the reasons behind this inconsistency?

A classic critique from cognitive science

Over thirty years ago, Fodor and Pylyshyn² (1988) argued that neural networks differ fundamentally from human minds because they lack **systematicity** + other linked properties.

Systematicity: The understanding of certain mental representations is structurally related to the understanding of associated ones. If you can think "John loves Mary," you can necessarily think "Mary loves John."

Productivity: The capacity to generate and understand an indefinite number of novel representations from a finite base.

Compositionality: complex representations are built from simpler constituents in rule-governed ways, and the meaning of the whole depends systematically on the meanings of the parts.

² Fodor, J. A., & Plyshyn, Z. W. (1988). Connectionism and cognitive architecture: A critical analysis. *Cognition*.

Which AI systems are systematic?

Fodor and Pylyshyn's idea of **systematicity** is easily instantiated in **classic rule-based models** that perform **symbol manipulation**.

- they have **explicit symbols** for LOVES, John, and Mary and can combine them freely

What about SOTA LLMs?

Anecdotally:

IF a AI system can solve IMO problems but fails at understanding the “greater-than” relation, THEN it is **not systematic** in its understanding of the mathematical domain.

More in general, for widely used models, **not systematic** because:

- Do **not** encode **explicit rules**
- Even if a **neural configuration** that can represent a systematic rule (like logical inference) **exists**, it doesn't mean a standard network will actually **learn** that rule from data using Gradient Descent.

How systematic is the human mind?

Fodor and Pylyshyn argued that the human cognitive architecture must be **symbolic** to account for the systematicity of thought.

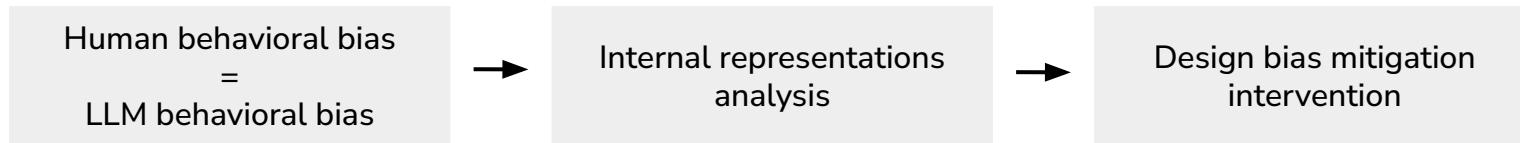
A large body of observed phenomena in humans, even in compositional and systematic domains like **logical reasoning** and **language use**, are not systematic and might be better explained by alternative hypothesis:

- **Domain-Specific Reasoning** → Performance varies dramatically across familiar vs. unfamiliar domains
- **Framing Effects** → Responses driven by presentation format rather than identical structure

Implication: while a symbolic architecture may capture some aspects of cognition, it may fail to account for many interesting and pervasive phenomena in human reasoning behavior.

Using what we know about humans to make LLMs more systematic

1. Debiasing LLMs towards systematicity using representation engineering



2. Using meta-learning to induce systematicity in learning logical inferences

- A body of work has shown empirically that meta-learning can induce **human-like systematic generalization** in Transformer NNs in linguistic tasks
- Can we use meta-learning to teach **logical inferences in a systematic way** to LLMs?

1. Debiasing towards systematicity

How Language Models Conflate Logical Validity with Plausibility: A Representational Analysis of Content Effects

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Abstract

Both humans and large language models (LLMs) exhibit *content effects*: biases in which the plausibility of the semantic content of a reasoning problem influences judgments regarding its logical validity. While this phenomenon in humans is best explained by the dual-process theory of reasoning, the mechanisms behind content effects in LLMs remain unclear. In this work, we address this issue by investigating how LLMs encode the concepts of validity and plausibility within their internal representations. We show that both concepts are linearly represented and strongly aligned in representational geometry, leading models to conflate plausibility with validity. Using steering vectors, we demonstrate that plausibility vectors can causally bias validity judgements, and vice versa, and that the degree of alignment between these two concepts predicts the magnitude of behavioral content effects across models. Finally, we construct debiasing vectors that disentangle these concepts, reducing content effects and improving reasoning accuracy. Our findings advance understanding of how abstract logical concepts are represented in LLMs and highlight representational interventions as a path toward more logical systems.

influential, positing two distinct modes of thought: a fast, intuitive, heuristic-driven system (System 1), and a slower, deliberative system responsible for analytical reasoning (System 2; Evans, 2008; Kahneman, 2011). Neuroscientific studies have provided empirical support for this framework, highlighting different neural substrates associated with these reasoning processes (Goel et al., 2000; Luo et al., 2014). Recent work has found that LLMs exhibit similar content effects in reasoning tasks (Lampinen et al., 2024); however, the underlying mechanisms driving these effects remain unknown.

In this work, we provide a representational account of why content effects may emerge in LLMs, investigating how the abstract concepts of validity and plausibility are encoded in their hidden representation space. Specifically, we build upon the linear representation hypothesis (Park et al., 2024), which proposes that many high-level concepts are encoded linearly within the latent space of LLMs. This hypothesis has been supported by empirical findings showing that concepts can often be captured by linear probes or manipulated with steering vectors (Liu et al., 2024; Rimsky et al., 2024; Marks and Tegmark, 2024). We hypothesize that content effects in LLMs may arise from the way

Content effects in reasoning

Human reasoning on logical problem is often non systematic. It is heavily influenced by the **semantic content** of the problem at hand⁴.

All humans are mortal.
Italians are humans.
Therefore, Italians are mortal.

Human: **VALID**

All humans are plants.
Italians are humans.
Therefore, Italians are plants.

Human: **INVALID**

Definition: we call the first syllogism **plausible** since its conclusion is true in the actual world, while the second is **implausible** since its conclusion is false in the actual world.

⁴Evans et. al. (1983). On the conflict between logic and belief in syllogistic reasoning. *Memory & Cognition*.

Content effects in Humans and LLMs

Humans

Memoir R. Cognition
1982; 11 (2), 265-266

On the conflict between logic and belief in syllogistic reasoning

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Three experiments are reported that investigate the weighting attached to logic and belief in syllogistic reasoning. Substantial belief biases were observed despite controls for possible confounds of the premises. Equally substantial effects of logic were observed despite controls for belief bias. In one experiment, subjects were asked to indicate whether a syllogism was also recorded; belief bias was more marked on invalid than on valid syllogisms. In all experiments, verbal protocols were recorded and analyzed. These processes are interpreted in some cases as reflecting a conflict between logic and belief, in others as reflecting an integration of a genuine process of premise to conclusion reasoning. In the latter cases, belief bias was minimal but still present. In general, even subjects who focus primarily on the conclusion are influenced substantially by the logic, even when a conflict between logic and belief is observed (but, at several levels of extent).

An important debate in cognitive psychology surrounds the worked ratio of logic versus inference (e.g., Cohen, 1981; and associated commentaries). Recent reviews by Evans (1982) and Nobert and Ross (1980) have stressed the role of syllogistic inferences. A genuine debate in cognitive psychology surrounds the worked ratio of logic versus inference (e.g., Cohen, 1981; and associated commentaries). Recent reviews by Evans (1982) and Nobert and Ross (1980) have stressed the role of syllogistic inferences.

The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology (1985) 37A, 553-569

The Effects of Belief on the Spontaneous Production of Syllogistic Conclusions

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Two experiments examined the effects of subjects' beliefs on syllogistic inference. The first experiment showed that beliefs biased the spontaneous conclusions that subjects drew for themselves. This finding (that non-intrivial valid conclusions) than for determinate premises (which yield valid conclusions). There was also an effect of the nature of the beliefs: conclusions that were false by definition had a bigger effect on deductions than those that were false as a matter of fact. The second experiment replicated the finding for determinate syllogisms, using problems in moods in which the status of the valid conclusion could not be altered by conversion of the premises. Beliefs accordingly appear to affect the process of reasoning rather than the interpretation of premises.

Memoir R. Cognition
1989; 17 (2), 265-266

The belief-bias effect in the production and evaluation of logical conclusions

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In this study, we examined whether adult subjects beliefs regarding the empirical truth of a conclusion influenced their production as well as their evaluation of a logical conclusion in a reasoning task. In addition, the effect of belief on the production of logical conclusions was tested. The effect of belief/bias was examined. The subjects were given one of four paper-and-pencil reasoning tasks, two of them using an evaluation paradigm, and two of them using a production paradigm. The production task required subjects to generate as many logical conclusions as possible. Four general problems were constructed to be as similar as possible to the belief problems, in order to control for extraneous factors. All four tasks also included an abstract reasoning problem. The results indicate a significant effect of belief on both the production and evaluation of logical conclusions. Qualitative analysis indicated that the belief/bias effect was more pervasive in the production of logical conclusions than in the evaluation of the subjects' abstract reasoning ability. The results are discussed with reference to a two-stage model, in which belief is used to resolve uncertainties in inferentially produced conclusions.

One of the more interesting phenomena in the research on reasoning concerns the "belief-bias" effect. Several researchers have claimed that subjects tend to evaluate the logical validity of deductive arguments on the basis of their personal beliefs regarding the empirical status of the conclusion. In other words, subjects tend to regard an argument as valid if they think that the conclusion is empirically true, and vice versa, irrespective of the textbook validity of the argument. In reality, the belief-bias effect has been demonstrated only on the conclusion tasks (Markovits & Yussen, 1978; Resnick, Leirer, Yopp, & Yopp, 1980), mainly on the grounds that some of the effects observed may be attributable to confounding effects due to the nature of the belief. However, Evans, Barston, and Pollard (1983) have demonstrated a strong belief-bias effect in experiments designed to control for both conversion and atmosphere effects.

The belief-bias effect has generally been found in

et al.'s (1983) finding that subjects who accepted valid conclusions despite the influence of their beliefs referred to the empirical status of the conclusion as well as to its logical validity of deductive arguments on the basis of their personal beliefs regarding the empirical status of the conclusion. In other words, subjects tended to regard an argument as valid if they think that the conclusion is empirically true, and vice versa, irrespective of the textbook validity of the argument. In reality, the belief-bias effect has been demonstrated only on the conclusion tasks (Markovits & Yussen, 1978; Resnick, Leirer, Yopp, & Yopp, 1980), mainly on the grounds that some of the effects observed may be attributable to confounding effects due to the nature of the belief. However, Evans, Barston, and Pollard (1983) have demonstrated a strong belief-bias effect in experiments designed to control for both conversion and atmosphere effects.

The belief-bias effect has generally been found in

LLMs

If Pigs Could Fly... Can LLMs Logically Reason Through Counterfactuals?

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Abstract
Large Language Models (LLMs) demonstrate impressive reasoning capabilities in familiar contexts, but struggle when the context conflicts with their training. To better understand and investigate this phenomenon, we introduce *CounterLogic*, a dataset containing 1,800 examples of 9 logical reasoning experiments designed to evaluate logical reasoning through counterfactual (hypothetical knowledge-conflicting) scenarios. Our systematic evaluation of 11 LLMs across 6 different datasets reveals a con-

Counterfactual Knowledge-Conflicting
If all Humans are Animals, and all Animals are Mortals, Then All Humans are Mortals
Valid ✓
All Humans are Mortals
Not Valid ✗
All Humans are Mortals
All Pigs are Birds
Not Valid ✗
All Pigs are Birds
Pigs Can't Fly

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<https://doi.org/10.1073/pnasnexus/npz023>
Advance access publication 16 July 2024
Research Report

Language models, like humans, show content effects on reasoning tasks

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<https://doi.org/10.1073/pnasnexus/npz023>
Advance access publication 16 July 2024
Research Report

A Systematic Analysis of Large Language Models as Soft Reasoners: The Case of Syllogistic Inferences

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Abstract
The reasoning abilities of Large Language Models (LLMs) have been extensively studied in recent years of study in NLP. In this paper, we consider the case of syllogistic reasoning, an area of deductive reasoning studied extensively in logic and cognitive psychology. Previous research has shown that LLMs can reason about syllogistic reasoning tasks, such as conversion, and drawing conclusions from them. However, there is evidence that LLMs do not always reason correctly, and that their performance is affected by our real-world knowledge and beliefs, and shows notable "content effects"; humans reason more readily when the semantic content of a problem supports the correct logical inferences. These content-engaged reasoning patterns are central to the study of human cognition, and understanding them is crucial for improving AI systems. In this work, we propose experiments capture some aspects of human knowledge-similarity content effects between logic problems. We explored three types of syllogistic reasoning tasks: Sylogism EO1, Sylogism AO1, and Sylogism IA1. We evaluated state-of-the-art LMs, as well as humans, and found that the LMs reflect many of the same reasoning patterns as humans, such as conversion, and drawing conclusions from them. However, the LMs did not always support the logical inferences. These parallels are reflected in accuracy patterns, and in some lower-level features like the number of steps taken to solve the problem. This work provides insights into the strengths and weaknesses of LLMs in syllogistic reasoning, highlighting potential pitfalls and providing possible contributors to these human cognitive effects, as well as the factors that influence language model performance.

Keywords: language models, content effects, reasoning, logic, cognitive science

Significance Statement
Language models and humans both miss some content into their performance on logical reasoning problems, which mainly results in greater success in familiar situations, but more errors in unusual ones. These results may inform the search for the origins of these human behaviors and may help improve applications of language models.

Figure 1 LLMs have difficulty with invalid inferences. (Top): Suffer from content effects (Middle); and struggle with longer chains of promises. (Bottom). What is behind such weaknesses? Can LLMs learn to use only the form to draw deductively valid conclusions?

Sylogism EO1
P1: No dogs are fibrous.
P2: Some fibrous are not dogs.
C: Nothing follows

Sylogism AO1
P1: All dogs are sleek.
P2: Some sleek are not dogs.
C: Some sleekers are not dogs.

Sylogism IA1
P1: Some sleekers are smooth.
P2: All smooth are sleek.
C: Some sleekers are sleek.

No valid conclusion
Unbelievable conclusion
More than two premises

Controlled dataset

Abstract problem

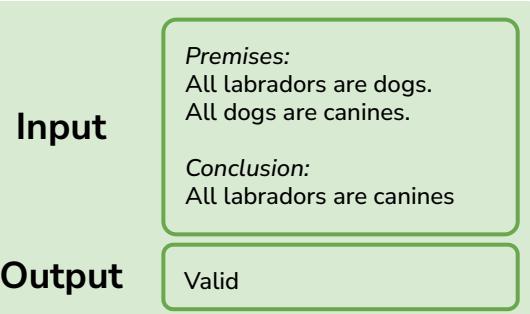
- Categorical syllogisms
- 2 premises and 1 conclusion
- 64 possible combinations of premises
- 512 combinations of premises + conclusions



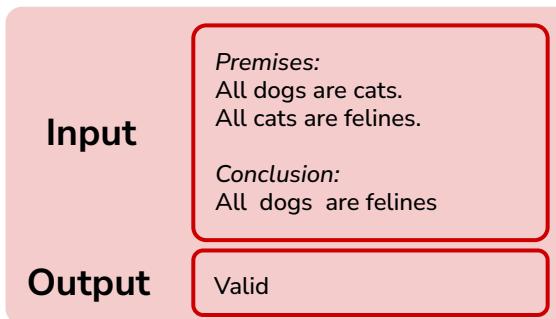
Assigned meaning

- 10 triples of hierarchically organized terms
- e.g. “labradors”, “dogs”, “canines”
- 2 versions: plausible vs. implausible.

Plausible



Implausible



Behavioral performance

Model	Prompt	CE	Acc
Qwen2.5-32B-Instruct	Zero-shot	0.348	81.62
	CoT	0.095	94.61
Qwen3-14B	Zero-shot	0.213	86.54
	CoT	0.017	98.47
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	Zero-shot	0.418	75.68
	CoT	0.147	89.66
Qwen2.5-14B-Instruct	Zero-shot	0.361	77.47
	CoT	0.072	94.75
Qwen3-4B	Zero-shot	0.194	80.61
	CoT	0.003	97.90
Qwen3-8B	Zero-shot	0.218	85.97
	CoT	0.014	96.30
Qwen3-32B	Zero-shot	0.063	90.91
	CoT	0.064	95.64
Gemma3-4B-it	Zero-shot	0.213	81.02
	CoT	0.104	89.29
Gemma3-12B-it	Zero-shot	0.129	86.71
	CoT	-0.006	94.69
Gemma3-27B-it	Zero-shot	0.182	87.29
	CoT	0.021	97.47

$$CE = \frac{(\text{valid plausible} - \text{valid implausible}) + (\text{invalid implausible} - \text{invalid plausible})}{2}$$

- Content effects are still observed in all models in the zero-shot setting (except Qwen3-32B)
- With CoT, as model gets bigger, they become more accurate and less biased, with some models completing the task almost perfectly

Looking at the model internals

We looked at the internal representation of LLMs on two classification tasks:

- Classify syllogisms as valid or invalid

Premise:

All labradors are dogs. All dogs are canines.

Conclusion:

All labradors are canines.

Is the syllogism valid or invalid? [VALID | INVALID]

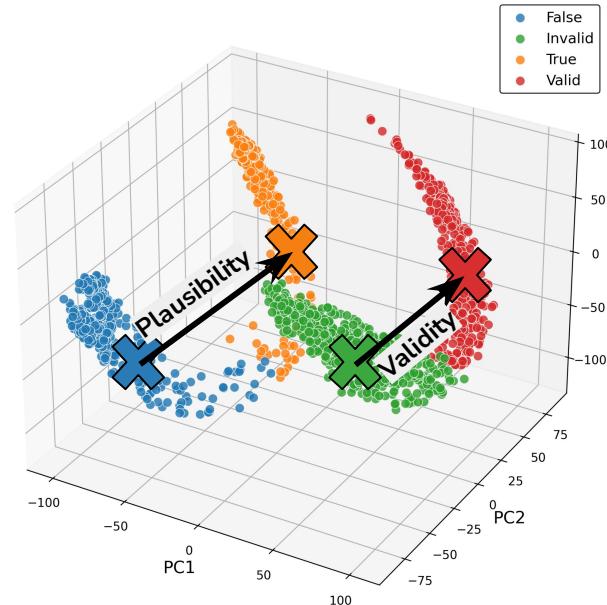
- Classify sentences as true or false

Sentence:

All labradors are canines.

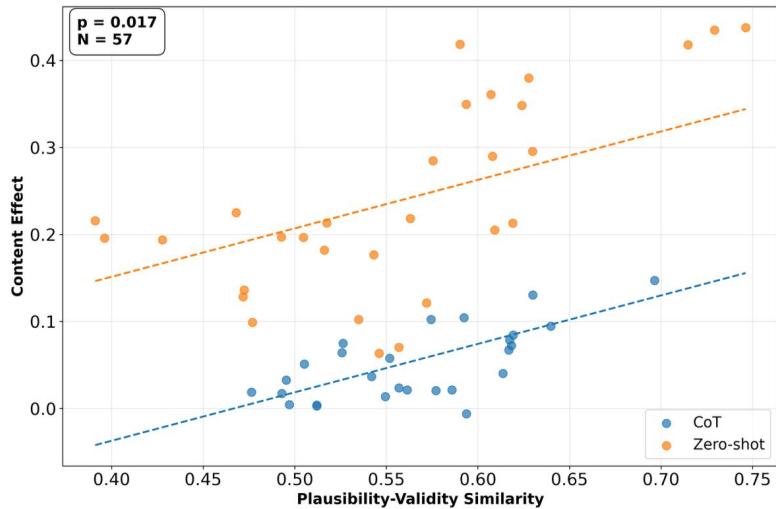
Is the sentence true or false? [TRUE | FALSE]

We take a single representation of **plausibility** and **validity** as the **difference-in-means** vector between the positive and negative classes:



What can we learn about behavioral content effects?

- Validity and plausibility vectors are **highly similar** and their degree of similarity is **predictive** of observed behavioral content effects
- We can **control predictions** about **validity** using plausibility vectors, and we can control prediction about **plausibility** using validity vectors



Premises: All dogs are cats. All cats are felines.
Conclusion: All dogs are felines.



All dogs are felines.

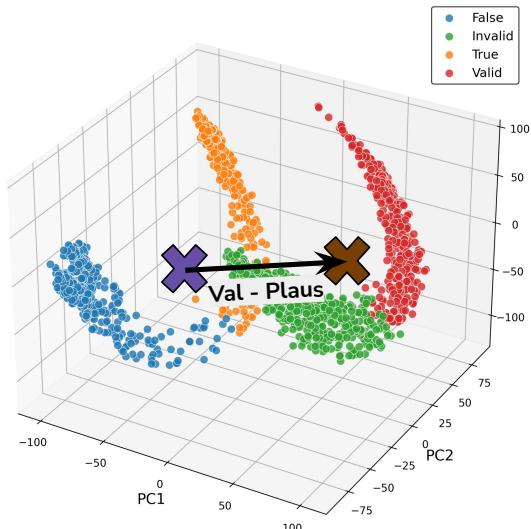


Debiasing models towards systematicity

We compute a task difference vector that isolate those **dimensions of validity that are disentangled from plausibility**:

$$\mu_{V-P}^l = \mu_V^l - \mu_P^l$$

Adding μ_{V-P}^l to hidden states during validity classification should **push the representation away from plausibility-sensitive directions**, thereby reducing the influence of content effects.



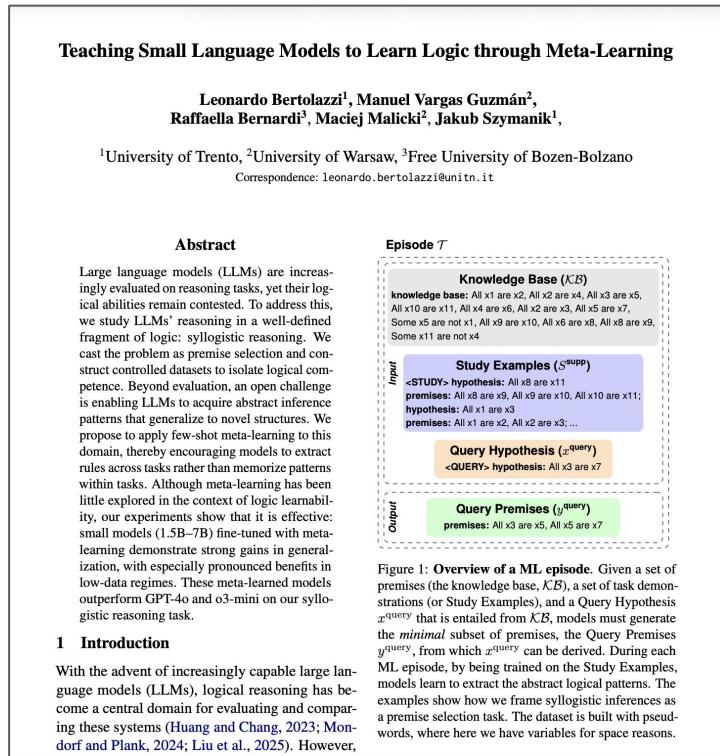
Model	Metric	Orig.	Interv.
Qwen2.5-32B	Acc	81.62	82.21
	CE	0.348	0.072
Qwen3-14B	Acc	86.54	96.70
	CE	0.213	0.043

We improve accuracy and reduce CE at the same time!

Summing up

- We used **controlled data** disentangling content vs. logical form to demonstrate that content influences deductive reasoning in LLMs
- By investigating the internal representations we found that **validity and plausibility judgements are latently similar** and that they can **causally influence one another**
- This analysis led us to design an **intervention** that makes models reason more **systematically**

2. Learning logic through meta-learning



2. Learning logic through meta-learning

Teaching Small Language Models to Learn Logic through Meta-Learning

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Abstract

Large language models (LLMs) are increasingly evaluated on reasoning tasks, yet their logical abilities remain contested. To address this, we study LLMs' reasoning in a well-defined fragment of logic: syllogistic reasoning. We cast the problem as premise selection and construct controlled datasets to isolate logical competence. Beyond evaluation, an open challenge is enabling LLMs to acquire abstract inference patterns that generalize to novel structures. We propose to apply few-shot meta-learning to this domain, thereby encouraging models to extract rules across tasks rather than memorize patterns within tasks. Although meta-learning has been little explored in the context of logic learnability, our experiments show that it is effective: small models (1.5B–7B) fine-tuned with meta-learning demonstrate strong gains in generalization, with especially pronounced benefits in low-data regimes. These meta-learned models outperform GPT-4o and o3-mini on our syllogistic reasoning task.

1 Introduction

With the advent of increasingly capable large language models (LLMs), logical reasoning has become a central domain for evaluating and comparing these systems (Huang and Chang, 2023; Mondorf and Plank, 2024; Liu et al., 2025). However,

Figure 1: Overview of a ML episode. Given a set of premises (the knowledge base, \mathcal{KB}), a set of task demonstrations (or Study Examples), and a Query Hypothesis x^{query} that is entailed from \mathcal{KB} , models must generate the minimal subset of premises, the Query Premises y^{query} , from which x^{query} can be derived. During each ML episode, by being trained on the Study Examples, models learn to extract the abstract logical patterns. The examples show how we frame syllogistic inferences as a premise selection task. The dataset is built with pseudowords, where here we have variables for space reasons.

The diagram illustrates the components of a meta-learning episode:

- Knowledge Base (\mathcal{KB}):** A box containing logical statements like "All x1 are x2", "All x2 are x3", etc.
- Study Examples (S^{supp}):** A box containing a STUDY hypothesis (e.g., "All x8 are x1") and its PREMISES (e.g., "All x8 are x9, All x9 are x10, All x10 are x1").
- Query Hypothesis (x^{query}):** A box containing a QUERY hypothesis (e.g., "All x3 are x7") and its PREMISES (e.g., "All x3 are x5, All x5 are x7").
- Query Premises (y^{query}):** A box containing the minimal subset of premises required to derive the query hypothesis.

A large orange starburst on the right side of the diagram contains the text "Just accepted to EACL2026!".

Meta-learning or “learning to learn”

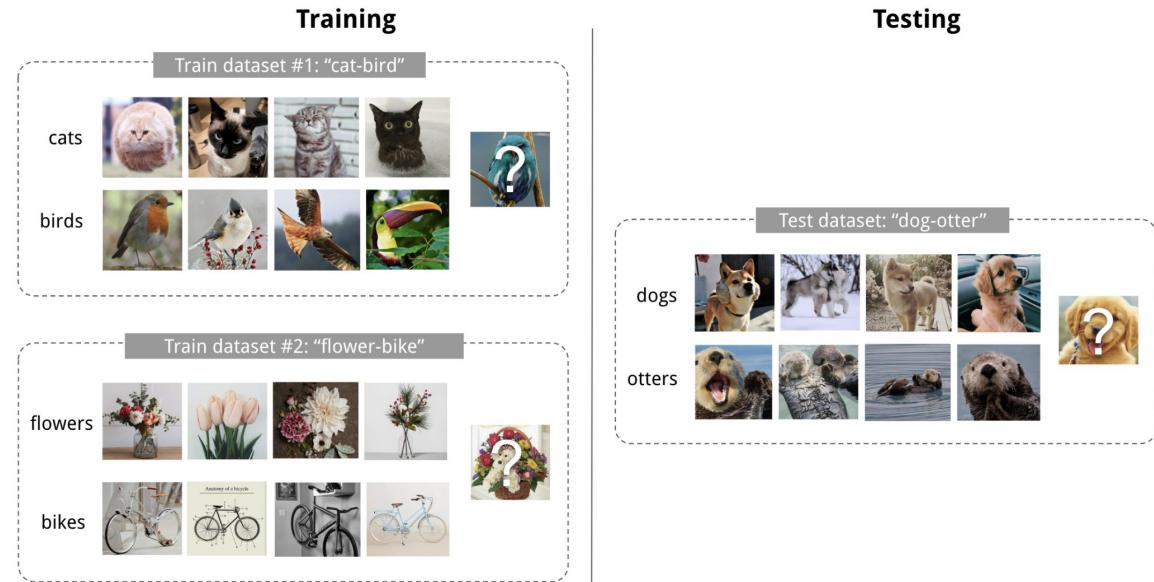
Meta-learning⁵ methods aim to equip models with the capability of **adapting** or **generalizing** to new tasks and new environments that have never been encountered at training time

Supervised learning

- train dataset drawn from a **single data distribution**

Meta-learning

- models are trained over a **distribution of datasets (tasks)**

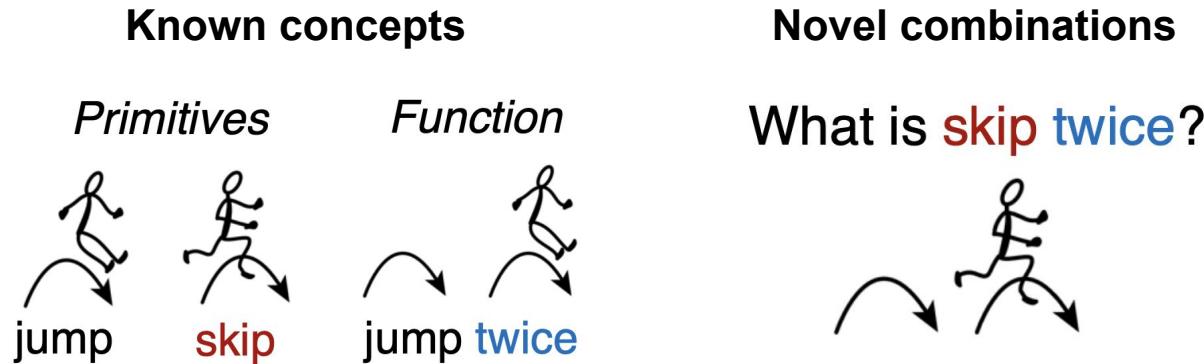


⁵T. Hospedales, A. Antoniou, P. Micaelli and A. Storkey, "Meta-Learning in Neural Networks: A Survey" in IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis & Machine Intelligence

Meta-learning for systematic generalization

Lake and Baroni⁶ (2023) propose to use **few-shot meta-learning** as a way to induce **human-like systematic generalization** in neural networks inspired by how human can combine known concepts.

E.g. child learns how to 'skip' + knows the meaning of doing something n times
→ understand how to 'skip twice' or 'skip thrice' due to their **compositional skills**.



⁶Lake, B.M., Baroni, M. Human-like systematic generalization through a meta-learning neural network. *Nature* 623, 115–121 (2023)

* Images partially taken from: Irie, K., Lake, B.M. Overcoming classic challenges for artificial neural networks by providing incentives and practice. *Nat Mach Intell* 7, 1602–1611 (2025).

Meta-learning for compositionality (MLC)

Artificial setting: **input strings in a psedolangauge**, e.g. “dax” → **abstract symbols output**, e.g. <RED>.

Models can learn how primitives, functions, and function compositions are mapped to symbols in the **study instructions**, then they are given a new unseen set of **test instructions** and have to **infer their outputs**.

Study instructions			Test instructions			
Primitives			Function 3			
dax	●	wif	●	lug kiki wif	● ●	
lug	●	zup	●	dax kiki lug	● ●	
Function 1			Function compositions			
lug fep	● ● ●		lug fep kiki wif	● ● ●		
dax fep	● ● ●		wif kiki dax bicket lug	● ● ●		
Function 2			lug kiki wif fep	● ● ●		
lug bicket wif	● ● ●		wif bicket dax kiki lug	● ● ●		
wif bicket dax	● ● ●					
			Function 1			
			zup fep	● ● ● 88%	zup fep kiki lug	● ● ● 85%
					wif kiki zup fep	● ● ● 85%
			zup bicket lug	● ● ● 79%	lug kiki wif bicket zup	● ● ● 65%
			dax bicket zup	● ● ● 88%	zup bicket wif kiki dax fep	● ● ● ● ● 70%
					zup bicket zup kiki zup fep	● ● ● ● ● 75%
			zup kiki dax	● ● 86%		
			wif kiki zup	● ● 86%		

Meta-learning and logic

The systematicity criterion from Fodor and Pylyshyn was directly inspired by properties of **logic** and **formal languages**.

When we ask “*Can LLMs learn to reason logically?*” we are asking if by learning certain logical patterns they will **systematically generalize** to structurally related ones

→

Logic operates on formal structures, and superficially different expressions may share identical underlying structure

- e.g. *plausible syllogism == implausible syllogism*

Meta-learning has demonstrated human-like systematic generalization

Open question: Can it transfer to the systematic generalization required for logical systems?

The premise selection task

In our experiments, we focus on the **syllogistic fragment of first-order logic**:

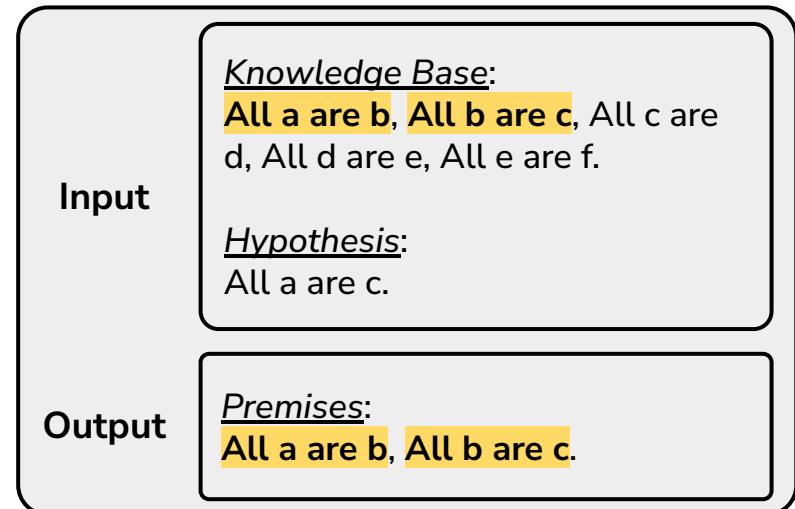
- Generalizes syllogisms to **more than two premises**
- Includes **seven types of minimal** syllogistic inferences

Task:

- Knowledge base of **atomic logical statements**.
- Models have to identify the **minimal subset of premises** that logically entail a given **test hypothesis**.

Core aspect of deductive reasoning: determining which known facts are **necessary and sufficient** to justify a conclusion.

Task example using a transitive inference – the simplest in the syllogistic logic



*We generate data with pseudowords in place of letters

Meta-learning setup

Learning methods (fine-tuning):

- **Meta-learning:** $p(y^{\text{query}} | x^{\text{query}}, S^{\text{supp}}, KB)$
- **Baseline:** $p(y^{\text{query}} | x^{\text{query}}, KB)$

Meta-learning episode

Knowledge Base:

All a are b, All b are c, All c are d, All d are e, All e are f, All f are g, All g are h, All h are i, All i are j, All j are k.

Study Examples:

Hypothesis: All d are f.

Premises: All d are e, All e are f.

Hypothesis: All g are j.

Premises: All g are h, All h are i, All i are j.

Hypothesis: All a are c

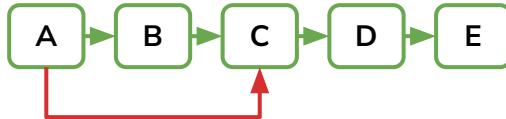
Premises: All a are b, All b are c.

The metal learning model can learn to **abstract the logical pattern** from the study examples and apply it to the test hypothesis

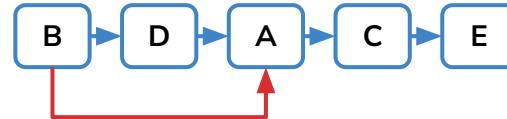
Types of systematic generalization in logic (I)

- **Core** → applying known inference types to novel unseen sets of premises using the same vocabulary as during training

Train

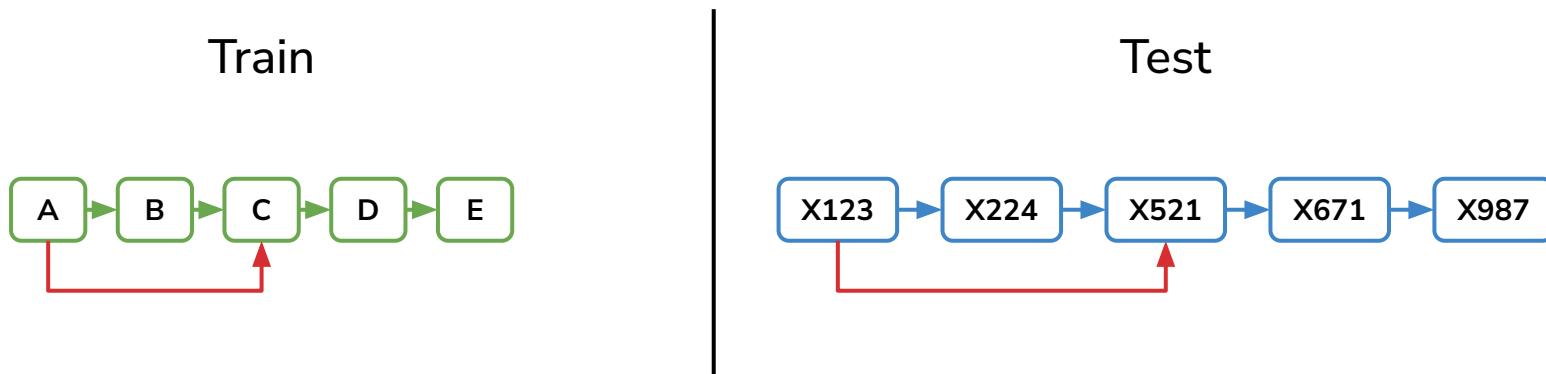


Test



Types of systematic generalization in logic (II)

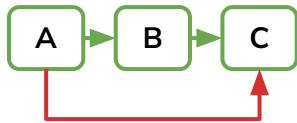
- **Lexical** → applying known inference types to novel unseen sets of premises with an unseen OOD vocabulary



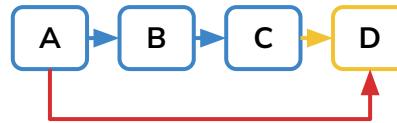
Types of systematic generalization in logic (III)

- **Recursive** → applying known inference types to more complex (longer) sets of premises than seen during training

Train



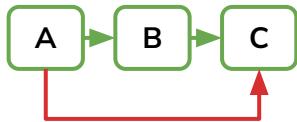
Test



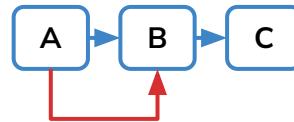
Types of systematic generalization in logic (IV)

- **Compositional** → applying known inference types to less complex (shorter) sets of premises than seen during training

Train



Test



Results

- **Core** → applying known inference types to novel unseen sets of premises with known vocabulary

	Model	Method	All
Fine-tuning	Qwen-2.5 1.5B	ML	93.11 ± 0.61
		Baseline _{-S}	85.56 ± 1.24
	Qwen-2.5 3B	ML	96.16 ± 0.44
		Baseline _{-S}	93.03 ± 1.15
Prompting	Qwen-2.5 7B	ML	98.13 ± 0.98
		Baseline _{-S}	95.76 ± 1.10
	GPT-4o	Few-shot	39.76
		Zero-shot	15.90
	o3-mini	Few-shot	88.45
		Zero-shot	67.98

- ML models are always better than baseline but not by a large margin
- The advantage is bigger for smaller models
- We compare with bigger prompted models for a better understanding of the task difficulty

Results

- **Lexical** → applying known inference types to novel sets of premises with an unseen OOD vocabulary

Model	Type	Core	Unseen Pseudowords	Unseen Constants
Qwen-2.5 1.5B	ML	93.11 ± 0.61	93.15 ± 0.11	74.24 ± 1.07
	Baseline _{-S}	85.56 ± 1.24	83.34 ± 1.90	38.49 ± 1.06
Qwen-2.5 3B	ML	96.16 ± 0.44	96.09 ± 0.30	83.21 ± 1.19
	Baseline _{-S}	93.03 ± 1.15	91.49 ± 0.68	53.12 ± 2.03
Qwen-2.5 7B	ML	98.13 ± 0.98	98.03 ± 1.19	86.87 ± 0.31
	Baseline _{-S}	95.76 ± 1.10	94.89 ± 1.55	57.81 ± 2.17

Results

- **Lexical** → applying known inference types to novel sets of premises with an unseen OOD vocabulary

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	Baseline _{-S}	95.76 ± 1.10	94.89 ± 1.55	57.81 ± 2.17

- Unseen constants is the most OOD case, and ML is significantly more robust!

Results

- **Recursive** → applying known inference types to more complex (longer) sets of premises than seen during training
- **Compositional** → applying known inference types to less complex (shorter) sets of premises than seen during training

Model	Method	Recursive		Compositional	
		Disaligned	Aligned	Disaligned	Aligned
Qwen-2.5 1.5B	ML	76.42 ± 2.95	91.75 ± 1.10	70.94 ± 2.27	71.13 ± 1.83
	Baseline _{-S}	63.53 ± 1.16	63.53 ± 1.16	56.67 ± 1.22	56.67 ± 1.22
Qwen-2.5 3B	ML	87.61 ± 1.97	95.86 ± 0.70	77.19 ± 3.53	78.53 ± 1.71
	Baseline _{-S}	76.78 ± 1.63	76.78 ± 1.63	71.88 ± 1.49	71.88 ± 1.49
Qwen-2.5 7B	ML	90.03 ± 1.09	96.84 ± 0.15	76.23 ± 2.91	83.41 ± 1.63
	Baseline _{-S}	80.76 ± 2.65	80.76 ± 2.65	71.08 ± 1.55	71.08 ± 1.55

- ML models are always better than baseline

Results

- **Recursive** → applying known inference types to more complex (longer) sets of premises than seen during training
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- ML models are always better than baseline

- Recursive case is easier than the compositional one

Results

- **Recursive** → applying known inference types to more complex (longer) sets of premises than seen during training
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- In the aligned case study examples have same answer length as the query
- ML models can learn from simpler or more complex inference in-context

Summing up

- This work is **foundational** in the sense that it asks about the learnability of logic in a systematic way in a neural system (no neuro-symbolic approach!)
- In **core generalization**, meaning that we test how learned inferences are applied to an unseen set of premises using known vocabulary, baseline models almost approach meta-learning models
- **Meta-learning** is most effective when there is a **large distributional shift** (abstract lexicon, recursive or compositional generalization) – this is what matters most for **systematicity** in logical reasoning!
- Future work should investigate how to generalize this approach to more **naturalistic** settings

Conclusions

Take-home message: I believe that thinking about LLMs' reasoning capabilities inspired by what we know about human reasoning capabilities and limitations can guide approaches to make LLMs more robust reasoners.

Approach 1: LLMs have similar reasoning biases to humans → we can engineer ways of debiasing models to make them more systematic.

Approach 2: Human experts can think about logical problems in a systematic way → we can investigate new learning methods, such as meta-learning, to mimic this capability in LLMs.

Presented papers

1. Leonardo Bertolazzi, Sandro Pezzelle, and Raffaella Bernardi. 2025. **How Language Models Conflate Logical Validity with Plausibility: A Representational Analysis of Content Effects.** Under review.
2. Leonardo Bertolazzi , Manuel Vargas Guzmán , Raffaella Bernardi , Maciej Malicki , Jakub Szymanik. 2026. **Teaching Small Language Models to Learn Logic through Meta-Learning.** In Proceedings of the 19th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics.