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Towards More Factual Large Language Models: Parametric and Non-parametric Approaches

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Abstract

Large language models (LLMs) are increasingly important in assisting people to access information, ranging from simple factoid questions such as “where is the world’s largest ice sheet located” to complex questions that require accessing real-time information and reasoning such as “plan for my vocation in Miami”. There are two paradigms to handle questions that require factual knowledge: parametric approaches that store knowledge in the parameters of LLMs and elicit this knowledge through prompting, and non-parametric approaches that offload knowledge lookup to an external non-parametric datastore. In this dissertation, we aim to study, compare, and enhance the capacity of both paradigms.

Since LLMs have accumulated a large amount of knowledge within their parameters through pre-training on diverse corpora, they can directly generate answers when prompted with questions. In the first part of the dissertation, we focus on parametric approaches that utilize the factual knowledge contained in the parameters of LLMs. We first study methods to maximize the extracted knowledge by ensembling multiple predictions obtained with diverse prompts. Then, we calibrate LLMs to make them trustworthy when answering questions that fall beyond their scope of knowledge. We find that after LLMs memorize documents perfectly to the extent of reproducing them verbatim, they still often fail to answer questions about these documents. To enhance the capacity of LLMs to absorb knowledge from documents, we propose pre-instruction-tuning that teaches them the task of question-answering before pre-training them on documents.

Parametric approaches provide a simple interface, but they suffer from hallucinations and lack access to the external world, such as real-time information. In the second part of the dissertation, we focus on non-parametric approaches that augment the knowledge of LLMs with a non-parametric datastore that is usually built based on a document corpus and a retriever. The standard retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) pipeline consists of an embedding-based retriever and an LLM-based generator. These components typically require separate training procedures and are often limited by the performance of the retriever. We introduce an adaptable solution that fuses retrieval and generation within a single transformer and directly uses the attention mechanism for retrieval purposes. To handle complicated questions that require long-form answers, we present active retrieval-augmented generation which adaptively and proactively retrieves information throughout the generation process. Finally, we conclude by comparing and reconciling both paradigms.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Developing intelligent systems that are able to interact with people in natural language and answer questions with varying levels of knowledge has been a long-standing challenge in the field of natural language processing (NLP). Different from other language understanding and generation tasks such as text classification and machine translation, knowledge-intensive tasks require access to information that is not explicitly included in the input. A typical knowledge-intensive task is question answering (QA) which aims to provide an answer to a natural language question. Questions can range from simple factoid questions such as “where is the world’s largest ice sheet located” [13, 96, 115] to complex questions that require aggregating multiple sources of information and reasoning such as “plan for my vocation in Miami”.

Large language models (LLMs) have accumulated a large amount of knowledge through pre-training on diverse corpora, and they are becoming increasingly important in assisting people to access information [21, 47, 58, 159, 175, 217]. Based on where the knowledge comes from, LLM-based information-accessing systems can be classified into two categories: parametric systems that solely rely on knowledge encoded in the parameters of LLMs [164, 183] and non-parametric systems that offload knowledge retrieval to an external non-parametric datastore [17, 67, 125, 198]. In this section, we first introduce the background of both categories, then propose our contributions to enhance the capacity of both paradigms, and finally conclude by comparing both paradigms and suggesting future directions.

1.1 Parametric Approaches

LLMs are pre-trained on diverse corpora such as Wikipedia, CommonCrawl, and StackExchange [217]. Recent studies have demonstrated that LLMs with billions of parameters have the capacity to memorize parts of the training data [23, 24]. Since those corpora contain many information-dense documents, such as Wikipedia articles about certain topics and questions with corresponding answers from StackExchange, pre-trained LLMs can be used to directly answer questions that require factual knowledge covered by the pre-training corpora when

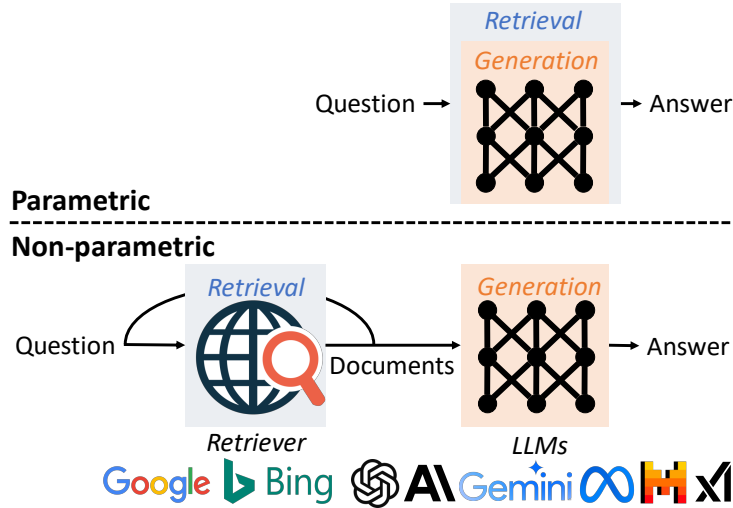


Figure 1.1: Illustration of parametric and non-parametric approaches for answering knowledge-intensive questions.

prompted appropriately [21, 164, 183, 264]. For example, on the Natural Questions dataset, a widely used open-domain factoid QA benchmark built based on Wikipedia [115], the closed-book answer generation accuracy of PaLM2 is 37.5% [33]; on the MMLU dataset, a popular benchmark testing both world knowledge and problem-solving ability across many subjects such as STEM and social science [73], the closed-book multi-choice accuracy of GPT4 is 86.4% [157]. Many works have demonstrated the correlation between the training scales (e.g., model sizes and training corpora) and the performance on downstream benchmarks [194, 236]. It is plausible that future LLMs could answer the majority, if not all, questions provided the necessary knowledge is included somewhere in the training data [4, 98].

1.1.1 Parametric Knowledge Storage, Update, and Extraction

While LLMs have been widely used to answer knowledge-intensive questions, the underlying mechanism remains poorly understood. In order to use LLMs as “knowledge bases”, LLMs must possess two abilities: the ability to store knowledge in their parameters during pre-training and the ability to extract this knowledge conditioning on questions at inference time.

Knowledge storage Many works have studied the amount of knowledge that LLMs can memorize via the standard objective of predicting the next token given the preceding context. Some works quantify memorization of real corpora such as the Pile and the Wikipedia dataset [24, 54, 215], while others quantify memorization of synthetic datasets containing knowledge tuples of controlled complexity in order to derive a concrete scaling law [4, 264]. The conclusion is that (1) larger models have stronger memorization capacity, (2) repeated examples are easier to be memorized, and (3) certain types of information are easier to memorize than others.

Knowledge update As world knowledge evolves, it is crucial to continually update the knowledge in the parameters of LLMs. Existing methods include continued pre-training that continually trains LLMs on new corpora using the standard next token prediction objective [66, 87] and model editing that aims to make minimal changes to model weights to edit certain knowledge [22, 149]. Some studies aim to identify the transformer components responsible for retaining factual knowledge and point out that certain neurons and layers such as feed-forward layers are more accountable [42, 61]. However, the full underlying knowledge storage mechanism remains largely mysterious, and existing model editing methods are not scalable.

Knowledge extraction The way knowledge is presented in the original documents and how it is accessed through questions might be different. For example, the Wikipedia article about Oppenheimer is “Oppenheimer is a 2023 epic biographical thriller film written, directed, and produced by Christopher Nolan. ... Editing was completed by Jennifer Lame, who had previously edited Tenet.” A test-time question “who is the editor of the film Oppenheimer” refers to the knowledge found in the article, but the phrasing is different. In order to answer this question, LLMs have to store the knowledge from the document in a way that is extractable when prompted with questions, which requires generalization beyond rote memorization. A typical method to enhance knowledge extraction is post-training instruction-tuning, which fine-tunes LLMs using question-answer pairs [34, 190, 235]. However, Zhu and Li [264] demonstrated in a controlled experiment using a randomly initialized transformer that fine-tuning after pre-training on a set of documents fails to elicit knowledge from the parameters. They found that each document must be paraphrased in multiple ways during pre-training to make the memorized knowledge extractable.

1.1.2 Summary of Contributions

Given the aforementioned development and limitations of existing parametric approaches, we focus on how to maximize the knowledge that can be extracted given a pre-trained LLM and how to make LLMs better at absorbing knowledge from pre-training documents. Our detailed contributions are as follows.

Eliciting factual knowledge of LMs with diverse prompts. (chapter 2, chapter 3) LMs are very sensitive to prompts [49, 164]. An inappropriate prompt might fail to extract the knowledge that LMs do know. For example, “DirectX is developed by _” returns “Intel” while “DirectX is created by _” returns “Microsoft” for the BERT model [47]. In Jiang et al. [91], we systematically study this phenomenon, suggest that a single prompt only establishes a lower bound of what LMs know, and propose to ensemble multiple prompts mined from the training corpus or paraphrased to improve the performance of knowledge extraction from LMs. We also study knowledge extraction from multilingual LMs in Jiang et al. [90]. We observed that knowledge

memorization is more challenging for low-resource languages due to data imbalances. To address this, we suggest augmenting training data through code-switching of entity mentions to enhance knowledge memorization in these languages.

Calibrating LMs for question answering. (chapter 4) As LMs still struggle to provide accurate answers in numerous scenarios, it is essential for them to comprehend and clarify the limits of their knowledge so that users can decide when to reject predictions from LMs. In Jiang et al. [92], we examine this problem from the point of view of calibration and propose post-hoc and augmentation methods to make prediction probabilities of LMs more reliable.

Enhancing LLMs in absorbing knowledge through pre-instruction-tuning. (chapter 5) We find that after LLMs memorize the pre-training documents perfectly to the extent of reproducing them verbatim (i.e., perplexity is 1.0), they still often fail to answer questions about these documents, even after instruction-tuning on QA pairs. We denoted this as “perplexity curse”. It demonstrates that post-hoc instruction-tuning cannot fully uncover the knowledge presented in the pre-training documents. Inspired by the fact that questions are generally straightforward while documents tend to be more complex, we propose pre-instruction-tuning which fine-tunes LLMs on QA pairs to learn the task of question-answering before pre-training. It enhances the ability of LLMs to absorb knowledge from new documents.

1.2 Non-parametric Approaches

Parametric approaches offer a straightforward interface and are scalable, but they have fundamental issues when dealing with questions involving knowledge either covered or not covered by the pre-training data:

- **For knowledge covered by the pre-training data:** LLMs are prone to hallucinations, particularly with long-tail knowledge that is mentioned rarely in the data [98, 137]. While LLMs can produce documents to offer supplementary evidence or references to support an answer, verifying the accuracy of the generated evidence is challenging, especially in critical fields like medicine [204, 249].
- **For knowledge not covered by the pre-training data:** LLMs are not able to handle questions that demand knowledge beyond the scope of their pre-training data. While it is feasible to regularly update LLMs to integrate new knowledge, they are incapable of addressing questions that demand access to the external world, such as queries for real-time information or those necessitating actions in the real world [100, 225, 262].

Given these limitations of parametric approaches, non-parametric approaches that augment LLMs with a non-parametric datastore usually built on a document corpus and an external retriever offer distinct advantages. The standard retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) pipeline consists of an embedding-based retriever and an LLM-based generator, where the retriever

searches the corpus to find documents relevant to the question, and the generator generates the answer conditioning on both the question and documents.

1.2.1 Retrieval, Long Context, and Interactive Information Seeking

To develop non-parametric approaches, we need to determine two key components: the retriever and how to integrate the retrieved information to help answer generation.

Retrieval The most important component in an RAG system is the retriever, which returns documents that are similar to the question in order to provide additional evidence for generating the answer. The definition of similarity between questions and documents varies depending on downstream tasks, but it primarily involves lexical and/or semantic overlap. Traditional retrievers compute similarities mainly based on lexical overlap and heuristically designed statistics, such as TF-IDF and BM25 [184]. To capture complex semantic similarities, many modern retrievers are developed based on embedding models that encode questions and documents into high-dimensional dense vectors and compute similarity with the inner product. Embedding models are usually initialized with pre-trained LMs such as BERT [47] and fine-tuned using either supervised data of relevant question-document pairs [99] or unsupervised contrastive learning objectives [84]. Embedding-based retrievers can be classified into two categories: single-vector models that encode the entire document or question into a single vector [84, 99, 130] and multi-vector models that potentially use all token vectors for more complicated matching [103]. To handle different scenarios with different similarity definitions, embedding-based retrievers are trained by adding instructions to the question to explicitly describe information needs [7, 203].

Long-context LLMs While advances in training objectives and base LLMs have led to improved embedding-based retrievers, computing similarity based on fixed-dimensional vectors is fundamentally limited in expressiveness. This limitation poses a major bottleneck for RAG systems to handle complex questions that necessitate multiple steps of information seeking and reasoning. The self-attention mechanism in transformers calculates token similarity in a multi-head, multi-layer manner [223], which has proven highly effective in handling information within the context. If self-attention can efficiently process a long context containing numerous documents, it becomes essentially a multi-head and multi-layer “retriever” and we can leverage it to handle the demanding tasks of fine-grained information matching and reasoning, while embedding-based retrievers would primarily be tasked with returning a large initial set of documents focusing on coarse-grained matching. Figure 1.2 compares embedding-based retrievers and long-context LLMs using attention for retrieval. Existing approaches to handle long context include parallelizing dense self-attention on a long sequence over multiple GPUs [133] with proper positional encoding adjustment [28, 244] and sparse attention potentially with approximate nearest neighbor search [101, 241, 258].

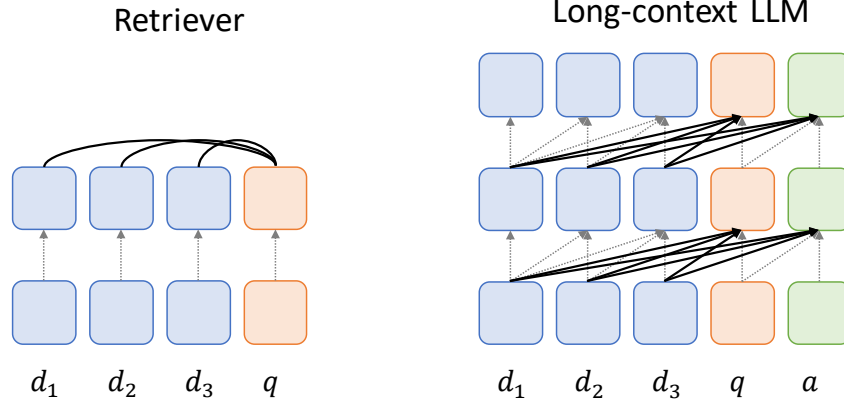


Figure 1.2: A conceptual comparison between an embedding-based retriever (left) and long-context LLMs using attention for retrieval (right). d , q , and a denote documents, questions, and answers respectively. We only display one token. Arrows depict attention, while lines without arrows signify the inner product. We employ two layers for retrievers and three layers for LLMs to illustrate that retrievers are typically smaller. **Bold black arrows or lines** indicate places where information retrieval occurs. Long-context LLMs naively perform iterative retrieval with different levels of abstraction in different heads and layers.

Interactive information seeking To handle complicated questions that require multiple steps of information seeking and reasoning, it is important for LLMs to break down the question into multiple steps and use retrievers whenever necessary to search for relevant information [169, 221, 237]. For example, “plan for my vocation in Miami” requires searching for information about hotels, flights, and attractions and making a plan based on the gathered information. As retrieved information tends to be noisy, and certain details are not directly visible on web pages (e.g., hotel availabilities), it is essential for LLMs to iteratively refine queries based on the returned results and interact with the web page by performing actions like clicking or selecting to accomplish the task [151, 200, 248]. It is challenging to collect data to train LLMs for these complicated questions due to the large exploration space and the high annotation cost. How to effectively explore the space with reinforcement learning [263] and lower the annotation cost with scalable oversight [20] are active research directions.

1.2.2 Summary of Contributions

Given the aforementioned development and limitations of existing non-parametric approaches, we focus on extending the context of LLMs to the entire corpus through retrieval as sparse attention, and propose active retrieval-augmented generation that interleaves retrieval and generation to handle complicated questions. Our detailed contributions are as follows.

Dimensions	Parametric	Non-parametric
<i>Training efficiency</i>		
Training simplicity and scalability	✓	✗
No training required to integrate new knowledge	✗	✓
<i>Test-time efficiency</i>		
Low test-time latency	✓	✗
Low memory and storage footprint	✓	✗
<i>Application scenarios</i>		
Less hallucinations	✗	✓
Seamless integration with other abilities of LLMs	✓	✗
Interaction with the external environment	✗	✓
Verifiability and attribution	✗	✓

Table 1.1: Comparisons between parametric and non-parametric approaches.

Retrieval as attention: extending the context of LMs to the entire corpus. (chapter 6)

Existing RAG systems usually use a separate retriever and a generator which are trained with different recipes and hard to optimize end-to-end [67, 85, 125, 198]. In Jiang et al. [93], we suggest that the self-attention mechanism in LMs can be directly used for retrieval purposes by extending it to the entire corpus, which allows for more complicated information matching and effective end-to-end training. Specifically, we leverage the attention between all documents and questions in a single layer of the encoder of the T5 model [175] as retrieval signals. Our method, called retrieval as attention (ReAtt), achieves competitive performance in both retrieval and downstream tasks, making it an adaptable end-to-end solution for knowledge-intensive tasks.

Active retrieval-augmented generation. (chapter 7) To handle complicated questions involving the generation of long texts, it is essential to continually gather information throughout the generation process. In Jiang et al. [94], we provide a generalized view of active retrieval augmented generation, methods that actively decide when and what to retrieve across the course of the generation. We propose forward-looking active retrieval augmented generation (FLARE), a generic method that iteratively uses a prediction of the upcoming sentence to anticipate future content, which is then utilized as a query to retrieve relevant documents to regenerate the sentence if it contains low-confidence tokens.

1.3 Parametric or Non-parametric Approaches?

Parametric approaches offer the advantage of seamless integration with other abilities of LLMs, resulting in a simpler and more end-to-end approach to tackling knowledge-intensive tasks. On

the other hand, non-parametric approaches boast higher factual accuracies and enable LLMs to engage with the external world, thus opening up a diverse range of applications for agents. We conducted a thorough comparison of these two paradigms across several dimensions in the [Table 1.1](#) and anticipate that future systems will incorporate elements of both. While most knowledge could be condensed into parameters of LLMs, having non-parametric components is crucial for handling long-tail knowledge and applications that necessitate access to the external environment. Future directions include:

- **Robust parametric knowledge in LLMs:** LLM training using data augmented with references and/or advanced model architecture with long-term memory such as mixture of experts.
- **Continual knowledge update and calibration:** develop methods to continually update knowledge in LLMs and calibrate LLMs to determine their scope of knowledge.
- **LLMs with interactive retriever/tool use:** train LLMs to interact with external retrievers or tools to accomplish complicated tasks using reinforcement learning.

Part I

Parametric Knowledge of Large Language Models

Chapter 2

Eliciting Factual Knowledge of LMs with Diverse Prompts

In this chapter, we study how to estimate the factual knowledge contained in the parameters of LMs. Recent work has presented intriguing results examining the knowledge contained in LMs by having LMs fill in the blanks of prompts such as “*Obama is a _ by profession*”. These prompts are usually manually created, and quite possibly sub-optimal; another prompt such as “*Obama worked as a _*” may result in more accurately predicting the correct profession. Because of this, given an inappropriate prompt, we might fail to retrieve facts that the LM *does* know, and thus any given prompt only provides a lower bound estimate of the knowledge contained in an LM. In this chapter, we attempt to more accurately estimate the knowledge contained in LMs by automatically discovering better prompts to use in this querying process. This work is presented in:

- Zhengbao Jiang, Frank F. Xu, Jun Araki, Graham Neubig. How Can We Know What Language Models Know? Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics. 2020 Jul 1;8:423-38.

We also released the code and the resulting LM Prompt And Query Archive (LPAQA) at:

- <https://github.com/jzbyb/LPAQA>

2.1 Introduction

Recent years have seen the primary role of language models (LM) transition from generating or evaluating the fluency of natural text [53, 144, 145, 147] to being a powerful tool for text understanding. This understanding has mainly been achieved through the use of language modeling as a pre-training task for *feature extractors*, where the hidden vectors learned through a language modeling objective are then used in down-stream language understanding systems [41, 47, 143, 162].

Prompts			
manual	DirectX is developed by y_{man}		
mined	y_{mine} released the DirectX		
paraphrased	DirectX is created by y_{para}		
Top 5 predictions and log probabilities			
	y_{man}	y_{mine}	y_{para}
1	Intel -1.06	<u>Microsoft</u> -1.77	<u>Microsoft</u> -2.23
2	<u>Microsoft</u> -2.21	They -2.43	Intel -2.30
3	IBM -2.76	It -2.80	default -2.96
4	Google -3.40	Sega -3.01	Apple -3.44
5	Nokia -3.58	Sony -3.19	Google -3.45

Figure 2.1: Top-5 predictions and their log probabilities using different prompts (manual, mined, and paraphrased) to query BERT. Correct answer is underlined.

Interestingly, it is also becoming apparent that LMs¹ *themselves* can be used as a tool for text understanding by formulating queries in natural language and either generating textual answers directly [142, 173], or assessing multiple choices and picking the most likely one [176, 266]. For example, LMs have been used to answer factoid questions [173], answer common sense queries [192, 219], or extract factual knowledge about relations between entities [9, 164]. Regardless of the end task, the knowledge contained in LMs is probed by providing a prompt, and letting the LM either generate the continuation of a prefix (e.g. “Barack Obama was born in _”), or predict missing words in a cloze-style template (e.g., “Barack Obama is a _ by profession”).

However, while this paradigm has been used to achieve a number of intriguing results regarding the knowledge expressed by LMs, they usually rely on prompts that were manually created based on the intuition of the experimenter. These manually created prompts (e.g. “Barack Obama was born in _”) might be sub-optimal because LMs might have learned target knowledge from substantially different contexts (e.g. “The birth place of Barack Obama is Honolulu, Hawaii.”) during their training. Thus it is quite possible that a fact that the LM *does* know cannot be retrieved due to the prompts not being effective queries for the fact. Thus, existing results are simply a *lower bound* on the extent of knowledge contained in LMs, and in fact, LMs may be even more knowledgeable than these initial results indicate. In this chapter we ask the question: “How can we tighten this lower bound and get a more accurate estimate of the knowledge contained in state-of-the-art LMs?” This is interesting both scientifically, as a probe of the knowledge that LMs contain, and from an engineering perspective, as it will result in higher recall when using LMs as part of a knowledge extraction system.

In particular, we focus on the setting of Petroni et al. [164] who examine extracting knowledge regarding the relations between entities (definitions in section 2.2). We propose two automatic methods to systematically improve the breadth and quality of the prompts used to query

¹Some models we use in this chapter, e.g. BERT [47], are bi-directional, and do not directly define probability distribution over text, which is the underlying definition of an LM. Nonetheless, we call them LMs for simplicity.

the existence of a relation (section 2.3). Specifically, as shown in Figure 2.1, these are *mining-based* methods inspired by previous relation extraction methods [180], and *paraphrasing-based* methods that take a seed prompt (either manually created or automatically mined), and paraphrase it into several other semantically similar expressions. Further, because different prompts may work better when querying for different subject-object pairs, we also investigate lightweight ensemble methods to combine the answers from different prompts together (section 2.4).

We experiment on the LAMA benchmark [164], which is an English-language benchmark devised to test the ability of LMs to retrieve relations between entities (section 2.5). We first demonstrate that improved prompts significantly improve accuracy on this task, with the one-best prompt extracted by our method raising accuracy from 31.1% to 34.1% on BERT-base [47], with similar gains being obtained with BERT-large as well. We further demonstrate that using a diversity of prompts through ensembling further improves accuracy to 39.6%. We perform extensive analysis and ablations, gleaning insights both about how to best query the knowledge stored in LMs and about potential directions for incorporating knowledge into LMs themselves. Finally, we have released the resulting LM Prompt And Query Archive (LPAQA) to facilitate future experiments on probing knowledge contained in LMs.

2.2 Knowledge Retrieval from LMs

Retrieving factual knowledge from LMs is quite different from querying standard declarative knowledge bases (KB). In standard KBs, users formulate their information needs as a structured query defined by the KB schema and query language. For example, `SELECT ?y WHERE {wd:Q76 wd:t:P19 ?y}` is a SPARQL query to search the birth place of Barack_Obama. In contrast, LMs must be queried by natural language prompts, such as “*Barack Obama was born in _*”, and the word assigned the highest probability in the blank will be returned as the answer. Unlike deterministic queries on KBs, this provides no guarantees of correctness or success.

While the idea of prompts is common to methods for extracting many varieties of knowledge from LMs, in this chapter we specifically follow the formulation of Petroni et al. [164], where factual knowledge is in the form of triples $\langle x, r, y \rangle$. Here x indicates the subject, y indicates the object, and r is their corresponding relation. To query the LM, r is associated with a cloze-style prompt t_r consisting of a sequence of tokens, two of which are placeholders for subjects and objects (e.g., “ *x plays at y position*”). The existence of the fact in the LM is assessed by replacing x with the surface form of the subject, and letting the model predict the missing object (e.g., “*LeBron James plays at _ position*”):²

$$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{y' \in \mathcal{V}} P_{\text{LM}}(y' | x, t_r),$$

²We can also go the other way around by filling in the objects and predicting the missing subjects. Since our focus is on improving prompts, we choose to be consistent with Petroni et al. [164] to make a fair comparison, and leave exploring other settings to future work. Also notably, Petroni et al. [164] only use objects consisting of a single token, so we only need to predict one word for the missing slot.

where \mathcal{V} is the vocabulary, and $P_{\text{LM}}(y'|x, t_r)$ is the LM probability of predicting y' in the blank conditioned on the other tokens (i.e., the subject and the prompt).³ We say that an LM has knowledge of a fact if \hat{y} is the same as the ground-truth y . Because we would like our prompts to most effectively elicit any knowledge contained in the LM itself, a “good” prompt should trigger the LM to predict the ground-truth objects as often as possible.

In previous work [142, 164, 173], t_r has been a single manually defined prompt based on the intuition of the experimenter. As noted in the introduction, this method has no guarantee of being optimal, and thus we propose methods that *learn* effective prompts from a small set of training data consisting of gold subject-object pairs for each relation.

2.3 Prompt Generation

First, we tackle prompt generation: the task of generating a set of prompts $\{t_{r,i}\}_{i=1}^T$ for each relation r , where at least some of the prompts effectively trigger LMs to predict ground-truth objects. We employ two practical methods to either mine prompt candidates from a large corpus (subsection 2.3.1) or diversify a seed prompt through paraphrasing (subsection 2.3.2).

2.3.1 Mining-based Generation

Our first method is inspired by template-based relation extraction methods [2, 180], which are based on the observation that words in the vicinity of the subject x and object y in a large corpus often describe the relation r . Based on this intuition, we first identify all the Wikipedia sentences that contain both subjects and objects of a specific relation r using the assumption of distant supervision, then propose two methods to extract prompts.

Middle-word Prompts Following the observation that words in the middle of the subject and object are often indicative of the relation, we directly use those words as prompts. For example, “*Barack Obama was born in Hawaii*” is converted into a prompt “ *x was born in y* ” by replacing the subject and the object with placeholders.

Dependency-based Prompts Toutanova et al. [216] note that in cases of templates where words do not appear in the middle (e.g., “*The capital of France is Paris*”), templates based on syntactic analysis of the sentence can be more effective for relation extraction. We follow this insight in our second strategy for prompt creation, which parses sentences with a dependency parser to identify the shortest dependency path between the subject and object, then uses the phrase spanning from the leftmost word to the rightmost word in the dependency path as a prompt. For instance, the dependency path in the above example is “*France* \xleftarrow{pobj} *of* \xleftarrow{prep} *capital*

³We restrict to masked LMs in this chapter because the missing slot might not be the last token in the sentence and computing this probability in traditional left-to-right LMs using Bayes’ theorem is not tractable.

$\xleftarrow{nsbj} is \xrightarrow{attr} Paris$ ”, where the leftmost and rightmost words are “capital” and “Paris”, giving a prompt of “capital of x is y ”.

Notably, these mining-based methods do not rely on any manually-created prompts, and can thus be flexibly applied to any relation where we can obtain a set of subject-object pairs. This will result in diverse prompts, covering a wide variety of ways that the relation may be expressed in text. However, it may also be prone to noise, as many prompts acquired in this way may not be very indicative of the relation (e.g. “ x , y ”), even if they are frequent.

2.3.2 Paraphrasing-based Generation

Our second method for generating prompts is more targeted – it aims to improve lexical diversity while remaining relatively faithful to the original prompt. Specifically, we do so by performing paraphrasing over the original prompt into other semantically similar or identical expressions. For example, if our original prompt is “ x shares a border with y ”, it may be paraphrased into “ x has a common border with y ” and “ x adjoins y ”. This is conceptually similar to query expansion techniques used in information retrieval that reformulate a given query to improve retrieval performance [25].

While many methods could be used for paraphrasing [15, 185], we follow the simple method of using back-translation [138, 197] to first translate the initial prompt into B candidates in another language, each of which is then back-translated into B candidates in the original language. We then rank B^2 candidates based on their round-trip probability (i.e., $P_{\text{forward}}(\bar{t}|\hat{t}) \cdot P_{\text{backward}}(t|\bar{t})$, where \hat{t} is the initial prompt, \bar{t} is the translated prompt in the other language, and t is the final prompt), and keep the top T prompts.

2.4 Prompt Selection and Ensembling

In the previous section, we described methods to generate a set of candidate prompts $\{t_{r,i}\}_{i=1}^T$ for a particular relation r . Each of these prompts may be more or less effective at eliciting knowledge from the LM, and thus it is necessary to decide how to use these generated prompts at test time. In this section, we describe three methods to do so.

2.4.1 Top-1 Prompt Selection

For each prompt, we can measure its accuracy of predicting the ground-truth objects (on a training dataset) using:

$$A(t_{r,i}) = \frac{\sum_{\langle x,y \rangle \in \mathcal{R}} \delta(y = \arg \max_{y'} P_{\text{LM}}(y'|x, t_{r,i}))}{|\mathcal{R}|},$$

where \mathcal{R} is a set of subject-object pairs with relation r , and $\delta(\cdot)$ is Kronecker’s delta function, returning 1 if the internal condition is true and 0 otherwise. In the simplest method for querying

the LM, we choose the prompt with the highest accuracy and query using only this prompt.

2.4.2 Rank-based Ensemble

Next we examine methods that use not only the top-1 prompt, but combine together multiple prompts. The advantage to this is that the LM may have observed different entity pairs in different contexts within its training data, and having a variety of prompts may allow for elicitation of knowledge that appeared in these different contexts.

Our first method for ensembling is a parameter-free method that averages the predictions of the top-ranked prompts. We rank all the prompts based on their accuracy of predicting the objects on the training set, and use the average log probabilities⁴ from the top K prompts to calculate the probability of the object:

$$s(y|x, r) = \sum_{i=1}^K \frac{1}{K} \log P_{\text{LM}}(y|x, t_{r,i}), \quad (2.1)$$

$$P(y|x, r) = \text{softmax}(s(\cdot|x, r))_y, \quad (2.2)$$

where $t_{r,i}$ is the prompt ranked at the i -th position. Here, K is a hyper-parameter, where a small K focuses on the few most accurate prompts, and a large K increases diversity of the prompts.

2.4.3 Optimized Ensemble

The above method treats the top K prompts equally, which is sub-optimal given some prompts are more reliable than others. Thus, we also propose a method that directly optimizes prompt weights. Formally, we re-define the score in [Equation 2.1](#) as:

$$s(y|x, r) = \sum_{i=1}^T P_{\theta_r}(t_{r,i}|r) \log P_{\text{LM}}(y|x, t_{r,i}), \quad (2.3)$$

where $P_{\theta_r}(t_{r,i}|r) = \text{softmax}(\theta_r)$ is a distribution over prompts parameterized by θ_r , a T -sized real-value vector. For every relation, we learn to score a different set of T candidate prompts, so the total number of parameters is T times the number of relations. The parameter θ_r is optimized to maximize the probability of the gold-standard objects $P(y|x, r)$ over training data.

⁴Intuitively, because we are combining together scores in the log space, this has the effect of penalizing objects that are very unlikely given any certain prompt in the collection.

2.5 Main Experiments

2.5.1 Experimental Settings

In this section, we assess the extent to which our prompts can improve fact prediction performance, raising the lower bound on the knowledge we discern is contained in LMs.

Dataset As data, we use the T-REx subset [50] of the LAMA benchmark [164], which has a broader set of 41 relations (compared to the Google-RE subset which only covers 3). Each relation is associated with at most 1000 subject-object pairs from Wikidata, and a single manually designed prompt. To learn to mine prompts (subsection 2.3.1), rank prompts (subsection 2.4.2), or learn ensemble weights (subsection 2.4.3), we create a separate training set of subject-object pairs also from Wikidata for each relation that has no overlap with the T-REx dataset. We denote the training set as T-REx-train. For consistency with the T-REx dataset in LAMA, T-REx-train also is chosen to contain only single-token objects. To investigate the generality of our method, we also report the performance of our methods on the Google-RE subset⁵, which takes a similar form to T-REx but is relatively small and only covers 3 relations.

Poerner et al. [168] note that some facts in LAMA can be recalled solely based on surface forms of entities, without memorizing facts. They filter out those easy-to-guess facts and create a more difficult benchmark, denoted as LAMA-UHN. We also conduct experiments on the T-REx subset of LAMA-UHN (i.e., T-REx-UHN) to investigate whether our methods can still obtain improvements on this harder benchmark.

Models As for the models to probe, in our main experiments we use the standard BERT-base and BERT-large models [47]. We also perform some experiments with other pre-trained models enhanced with external entity representations, i.e., ERNIE [256] and KnowBert [163], which we believe may do better on recall of entities.

Evaluation Metrics We use two metrics to evaluate the success of prompts in probing LMs. The first evaluation metric, *micro-averaged accuracy*, follows the LAMA benchmark⁶ in calculating the accuracy of all subject-object pairs for relation r :

$$\frac{1}{|\mathcal{R}|} \sum_{\langle x, y \rangle \in \mathcal{R}} \delta(\hat{y} = y),$$

where \hat{y} is the prediction and y is the ground truth. Then we average across all relations. However, we found that the object distributions of some relations are extremely skewed, e.g. more

⁵<https://code.google.com/archive/p/relation-extraction-corpus/>

⁶In LAMA, it is called “P@1.” There might be multiple correct answers for some cases, e.g. a person speaking multiple languages, but we only use one ground truth. We will leave exploring more advanced evaluation methods to future work.

than half of the objects in relation `native_language` are French. This can lead to deceptively high scores, even for a majority-class baseline that picks the most common object for each relation, which achieves a score of 22.0%. To mitigate this problem, we also report *macro-averaged accuracy*, which computes accuracy for each unique object separately, then averages them together to get the relation-level accuracy:

$$\frac{1}{|\text{uni_obj}(\mathcal{R})|} \sum_{y' \in \text{uni_obj}(\mathcal{R})} \frac{\sum_{\langle x, y \rangle \in \mathcal{R}, y=y'} \delta(\hat{y} = y)}{|\{y | \langle x, y \rangle \in \mathcal{R}, y = y'\}|},$$

where $\text{uni_obj}(\mathcal{R})$ returns a set of *unique* objects from relation r . This is a much stricter metric, with the majority-class baseline only achieving a score of 2.2%.

Methods We attempted different methods for prompt generation and selection/ensembling, and compare them with the manually designed prompts used in Petroni et al. [164]. **Majority** refers to predicting the majority object for each relation, as mentioned above. **Man** is the baseline from Petroni et al. [164] that only uses the manually designed prompts for retrieval. **Mine** (subsection 2.3.1) uses the prompts mined from Wikipedia through both middle words and dependency paths, and **Mine+Man** combines them with the manual prompts. **Mine+Para** (subsection 2.3.2) paraphrases the highest-ranked mined prompt for each relation, while **Man+Para** uses the manual one instead.

The prompts are combined either by averaging the log probabilities from the **TopK** highest-ranked prompts (subsection 2.4.2) or the weights after optimization (subsection 2.4.3; **Opti.**). **Oracle** represents the upper bound of the performance of the generated prompts, where a fact is judged as correct if *any* one of the prompts allows the LM to successfully predict the object.

Implementation Details We use $T = 40$ most frequent prompts either generated through mining or paraphrasing in all experiments, and the number of candidates in back-translation is set to $B = 7$. We remove prompts only containing stopwords/punctuations or longer than 10 words to reduce noise. We use the round-trip English-German neural machine translation models pre-trained on WMT’19 [152] for back-translation, as English-German is one of the most highly resourced language pairs.⁷ When optimizing ensemble parameters, we use Adam [108] with default parameters and batch size of 32.

2.5.2 Evaluation Results

Micro- and macro-averaged accuracy of different methods are reported in Tables Table 2.1 and Table 2.2 respectively.

⁷<https://github.com/pytorch/fairseq/tree/master/examples/wmt19>

Prompts	Top1	Top3	Top5	Opti.	Oracle
<i>BERT-base (Man=31.1)</i>					
Mine	31.4	34.2	34.7	38.9	50.7
Mine+Man	31.6	35.9	35.1	39.6	52.6
Mine+Para	32.7	34.0	34.5	36.2	48.1
Man+Para	<i>34.1</i>	35.8	36.6	37.3	47.9
<i>BERT-large (Man=32.3)</i>					
Mine	37.0	37.0	36.4	43.7	54.4
Mine+Man	39.4	40.6	38.4	43.9	56.1
Mine+Para	37.8	38.6	38.6	40.1	51.8
Man+Para	35.9	37.3	38.0	38.8	50.0

Table 2.1: Micro-averaged accuracy of different methods (%). **Majority** gives us 22.0%. Italic indicates best single-prompt accuracy, and bold indicates the best non-oracle accuracy overall.

Single Prompt Experiments When only one prompt is used (in the first **Top1** column in both tables), the best of the proposed prompt generation methods increases micro-averaged accuracy from 31.1% to 34.1% on BERT-base, and from 32.3% to 39.4% on BERT-large. This demonstrates that the manually created prompts are a somewhat weak lower bound; there are other prompts that further improve the ability to query knowledge from LMs.

Table 2.3 shows some of the mined prompts that resulted in a large performance gain compared to the manual ones. For the relation `religion`, “*x who converted to y*” improved 60.0% over the manually defined prompt of “*x is affiliated with the y religion*”, and for the relation `subclass_of`, “*x is a type of y*” raised the accuracy by 22.7% over “*x is a subclass of y*”. It can be seen that the largest gains from using mined prompts seem to occur in cases where the manually defined prompt is more complicated syntactically (e.g. the former), or when it uses less common wording (e.g. the latter) than the mined prompt.

Prompt Ensembling Next we turn to experiments that use multiple prompts to query the LM. Comparing the single-prompt results in Column 1 to the ensembled results in the following three columns, we can see that ensembling multiple prompts almost always leads to better performance. The simple average used in **Top3** and **Top5** outperforms **Top1** across different prompt generation methods. The optimized ensemble further raises micro-averaged accuracy to 38.9% and 43.7% on BERT-base and BERT-large respectively, outperforming the rank-based ensemble by a large margin. These two sets of results demonstrate that diverse prompts can indeed query the LM in different ways, and that the optimization-based method is able to find weights that effectively combine different prompts together.

We list the learned weights of top-3 mined prompts and accuracy gain over only using the

Prompts	Top1	Top3	Top5	Opti.	Oracle
<i>BERT-base (Man=22.8)</i>					
Mine	20.7	22.7	23.9	25.7	36.2
Mine+Man	21.3	23.8	24.8	26.6	38.0
Mine+Para	21.2	22.4	23.0	23.6	34.1
Man+Para	22.8	23.8	24.6	25.0	34.9
<i>BERT-large (Man=25.7)</i>					
Mine	26.4	26.3	25.9	30.1	40.7
Mine+Man	28.1	28.3	27.3	30.7	42.2
Mine+Para	26.2	27.1	27.0	27.1	38.3
Man+Para	25.9	27.8	28.3	28.0	39.3

Table 2.2: Macro-averaged accuracy of different methods (%). **Majority** gives us 2.2%. Italic indicates best single-prompt accuracy, and bold indicates the best non-oracle accuracy overall.

ID	Relations	Manual Prompts	Mined Prompts	Acc. Gain
P140	religion	x is affiliated with the y religion	x who converted to y	+60.0
P159	headquarters location	The headquarter of x is in y	x is based in y	+4.9
P20	place of death	x died in y	x died at his home in y	+4.6
P264	record label	x is represented by music label y	x recorded for y	+17.2
P279	subclass of	x is a subclass of y	x is a type of y	+22.7
P39	position held	x has the position of y	x is elected y	+7.9

Table 2.3: Micro-averaged accuracy gain (%) of the mined prompts over the manual prompts.

top-1 prompt in Table 2.4. Weights tend to concentrate on one particular prompt, and the other prompts serve as complements. The gap between **Oracle** and **Opti.** indicates that there is still space for improvement using better ensemble methods.

Mining vs. Paraphrasing For the rank-based ensembles (**Top1**, **3**, **5**), prompts generated by paraphrasing usually perform better than mined prompts, while for the optimization-based ensemble (**Opti.**), mined prompts perform better. We conjecture this is because mined prompts exhibit more variation compared to paraphrases, and proper weighting is of central importance. This difference in the variation can be observed in the average edit distance between the prompts of each class, which is 3.27 and 2.73 for mined and paraphrased prompts respectively. However, the improvement led by ensembling paraphrases is still significant over just using one prompt (**Top1** vs. **Opti.**), raising micro-averaged accuracy from 32.7% to 36.2% on BERT-base, and from 37.8% to 40.1% on BERT-large. This indicates that even small modifica-

ID	Relations	Prompts and Weights	Acc. Gain
P127	owned by	x is owned by y .485 x was acquired by y .151 x division of y .151	+7.0
P140	religion	x who converted to y .615 y tirthankara x .190 y dedicated to x .110	+12.2
P176	manufacturer	y introduced the x .594 y announced the x .286 x attributed to the y .111	+7.0

Table 2.4: Weights of top-3 mined prompts, and the micro-averaged accuracy gain (%) over using the top-1 prompt.

ID	Modifications	Acc. Gain
P413	x plays in → at y position	+23.2
P495	x was created → made in y	+10.8
P495	x was → is created in y	+10.0
P361	x is a part of y	+2.7
P413	x plays in y position	+2.2

Table 2.5: Small modifications (**update**, **insert**, and **delete**) in paraphrase lead to large accuracy gain (%).

tions to prompts can result in relatively large changes in predictions. Table 2.5 demonstrates cases where modification of one word (either function or content word) leads to significant accuracy improvements, indicating that large-scale LMs are still brittle to small changes in the ways they are queried.

2.6 Related Work

Much work has focused on understanding the internal representations in neural NLP models [10], either by using extrinsic probing tasks to examine whether certain linguistic properties can be predicted from those representations [11, 132, 199], or by ablations to the models to investigate how behavior varies [126, 201]. For contextualized representations in particular, a broad suite of NLP tasks are used to analyze both syntactic and semantic properties, providing evidence that contextualized representations encode linguistic knowledge in different layers [64, 74, 88, 211, 212].

Different from analyses probing the representations themselves, our work follows Petroni et al. [164], Poerner et al. [168] in probing for factual knowledge. They use manually defined prompts, which may be under-estimating the true performance obtainable by LMs. Concurrently to this work, Bouraoui et al. [19] made a similar observation that using different prompts can help better extract relational knowledge from LMs, but they use models explicitly trained for relation extraction whereas our methods examine the knowledge included in LMs without

any additional training.

Orthogonally, some previous works integrate external knowledge bases so that the language generation process is explicitly conditioned on symbolic knowledge [3, 70, 79, 247]. Similar extensions have been applied to pre-trained LMs like BERT, where contextualized representations are enhanced with entity embeddings [163, 168, 256]. In contrast, we focus on better knowledge retrieval through prompts from LMs as-is, without modifying them.

2.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, we examined the importance of the prompts used in retrieving factual knowledge from language models. We propose mining-based and paraphrasing-based methods to systematically generate diverse prompts to query specific pieces of relational knowledge. Those prompts, when combined together, improve factual knowledge retrieval accuracy by 8%, outperforming manually designed prompts by a large margin. Our analysis indicates that LMs are indeed more knowledgeable than initially indicated by previous results, but they are also quite sensitive to how we query them. This indicates potential future directions such as (1) more robust LMs that can be queried in different ways but still return similar results, (2) methods to incorporate factual knowledge in LMs, and (3) further improvements in optimizing methods to query LMs for knowledge.

Chapter 3

Eliciting Factual Knowledge of Multilingual LMs

This chapter extends the previous line of work to multilingual settings. Language models (LMs) have proven surprisingly successful at capturing factual knowledge by completing cloze-style fill-in-the-blank questions such as “Punta Cana is located in _.” However, while knowledge is both written and queried in many languages, studies on LMs’ factual representation ability have almost invariably been performed on English. To assess factual knowledge retrieval in LMs in different languages, we create a multilingual benchmark of cloze-style probes for 23 typologically diverse languages. To properly handle language variations, we expand probing methods from single- to multi-word entities, and develop several decoding algorithms to generate multi-token predictions. Extensive experimental results provide insights about how well (or poorly) current state-of-the-art LMs perform at this task in languages with more or fewer available resources. We further propose a code-switching-based method to improve the ability of multilingual LMs to access knowledge, and verify its effectiveness on several benchmark languages. This work is presented in:

- Zhengbao Jiang, Antonios Anastasopoulos, Jun Araki, Haibo Ding, Graham Neubig. X-FACTR: Multilingual Factual Knowledge Retrieval from Pretrained Language Models. EMNLP 2020: 5943-5959.

Benchmark data and code have been released at:

- <https://x-factr.github.io>

3.1 Introduction

Language models (LMs; [12, 35, 110]) learn to model the probability distribution of text, and in doing so capture information about various aspects of the syntax or semantics of the language at hand. Recent works have presented intriguing results demonstrating that modern large-scale LMs also capture a significant amount of *factual knowledge* [91, 164, 168]. This knowledge is

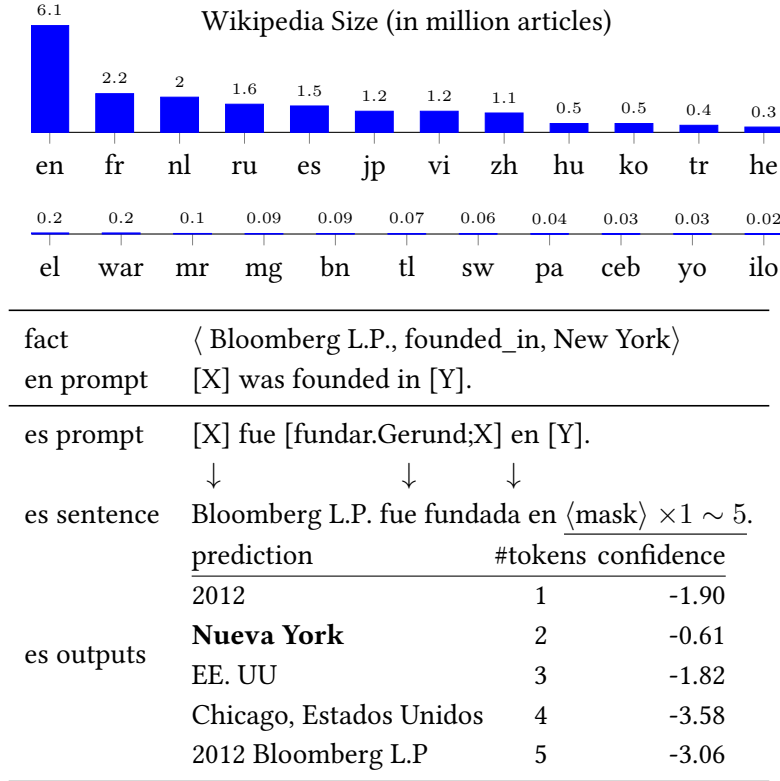


Figure 3.1: X-FACTR contains 23 languages, for which the data availability varies dramatically. Prompts get instantiated to produce grammatical sentences with different numbers of mask tokens and are used to obtain predictions for [Y]. In this Spanish example, the verb gerund “fundar” to *found* is rendered as “fundada” to agree in gender and number with the subject “Bloomberg L.P.”. The final prediction is in bold.

generally probed by having the LM fill in the blanks of cloze-style prompts such as “Obama is a _ by profession.”, where these prompts are invariably written in English. However, it goes without saying that there are many languages of the world other than English, and it is quite conceivable that (1) users may want to query this factual knowledge in other languages, and (2) some facts will be written in non-English languages and thus multilingually trained LMs (hereinafter, M-LMs) may be more equipped to recall these facts in the languages of the original data. In this chapter, we study the intersection of *multilinguality and the factual knowledge included in LMs*.

We create a new multilingual benchmark for probing factual knowledge in LMs – the Cross-lingual FACTual Retrieval benchmark (X-FACTR). X-FACTR shares a similar formulation as the LAMA benchmark of Petroni et al. [164], which assesses whether LMs have memorized a fact (i.e., a subject-relation-object triple) by having LMs predict the blank (i.e. object) in a cloze-style prompt for each relation after filling in the subject. We manually create such prompts for 23 languages spanning different language families and different levels of data availability (subsection 3.3.1). Because many languages that we handle are morphologically rich, we de-

sign a morphology-sensitive annotation schema (see example in Figure 3.1) that can properly instantiate prompts using entity metadata (e.g. gender) and a morphological inflection model (subsection 3.3.3).

In addition, while previous works [91, 164, 168] have limited examination to single-token entities (e.g. “France”), we expand our setting to include multi-token entities (e.g. “United States”), which comprise more than 75% of facts included in our underlying database (Wikidata; subsection 3.3.2). We propose several decoding algorithms for prediction of these multi-token entities using masked LMs (section 3.4).

We perform experiments on X-FACTR (section 3.5), comparing and contrasting across languages and LMs to answer the following research questions: (1) How and why does performance vary across different languages and models? (2) Can multilingual pre-training increase the amount of factual knowledge in LMs over monolingual pre-training? (3) How much does knowledge captured in different languages overlap? We find that the factual knowledge retrieval of M-LMs in high-resource languages is easier than in low-resource languages, but the overall performance is relatively low, indicating that this is a challenging task. We analyze the types of failure cases, shedding light on future directions to improve factual knowledge in M-LMs. In addition, multilingual pre-training does not necessarily lead to a higher recall of facts compared to language-specific monolingual pre-training. The knowledge memorized by M-LMs in fact is largely distinct across languages, with almost 50% of facts being recalled in only one language.

Inspired by the above observations, we propose a code-switching-based objective function to improve the ability of M-LMs to access knowledge using queries from a variety of languages. We replace entities in a sentence from the original language with counterparts in another language, and further fine-tune the LM on these code-switched data (section 3.6). We perform experiments on three languages (French, Russian, and Greek, code-switched with English). Results demonstrate that this code-switching-based learning can successfully improve the knowledge retrieval ability with low-resource language prompts.

3.2 Retrieving Facts from LMs

In this chapter, we follow the protocol of Petroni et al. [164]’s English-language LAMA benchmark, which targets factual knowledge expressed in the form of subject-relation-object triples from Wikidata¹ curated in the T-REx dataset [50]. The cloze-style prompts used therein are manually created and consist of a sequence of tokens, where [X] and [Y] are placeholders for subjects and objects (e.g. “[X] is a [Y] by profession.”). To assess the existence of a certain fact, [X] is replaced with the actual subject (e.g. “Obama is a $\langle \text{mask} \rangle$ by profession.”) and the model predicts the object in the blank $\hat{y}_i = \operatorname{argmax}_{y_i} p(y_i | s_{i:i})$, where $s_{i:i}$ is the sentence with the i -th token masked out. Finally, the predicted fact is compared to the ground truth. In the next

¹<https://www.wikidata.org/>

	en	fr	nl	es	ru	ja	zh	hu	he	tr	ko	vi	el	bn	ceb	mr	war	tl	sw	pa	mg	yo	ilo
#all	45.7	40.2	38.3	37.1	26.3	25.1	23.1	20.4	17.1	16.1	16.1	13.6	13.0	9.4	8.2	7.9	7.3	7.1	6.8	5.5	4.9	4.6	4.1
#single-token	18.9	13.9	12.8	13.5	3.4	1.3	0.2	6.2	1.1	2.5	2.0	3.9	0.7	0.1	3.3	0.2	3.0	3.2	2.8	0.1	1.7	0.9	2.1
#multi-token	26.8	26.4	25.5	23.6	22.9	23.8	22.9	14.2	16.0	13.6	14.1	9.7	12.3	9.3	4.9	7.7	4.4	3.9	4.0	5.4	3.2	3.7	2.0

Table 3.1: X-FACTR benchmark statistics (in thousands).

section, we extend this setting to more languages and predict multiple tokens instead of a single one.

3.3 Multilingual Multi-token Factual Retrieval Benchmark

3.3.1 Languages

In sampling the languages to create our multilingual benchmark, we attempted to create a subset as diverse as possible with regards to data availability, typology, and script – within the constraints of requiring inclusion in Wikidata and standard pre-trained M-LMs. To this end, we created prompts in 23 languages: English, French, Dutch, Spanish, Russian, Japanese, Chinese, Hungarian, Hebrew, Turkish, Korean, Vietnamese, Greek, Cebuano, Marathi, Bengali, Waray, Tagalog, Swahili, Punjabi, Malagasy, Yoruba, and Ilokano.

Our subset includes languages from 11 families (the Indo-European ones include members of the Germanic, Romance, Greek, Slavic, and Indic genera), using 10 different scripts. Our languages display high variance with respect to Wikipedia presence, a proxy for overall data availability, ranging from very large to very small (see [Figure 3.1](#)).²

3.3.2 Facts

While Petroni et al. [164] and follow-up works focus on entities that can be represented by a single token, since many popular entities consist of multiple tokens (e.g. “United States”), we argue that it is crucial to include multi-token entities in the benchmark to make the evaluation unbiased. Similar to Petroni et al. [164], we use the T-REx dataset to collect facts for our benchmark. Since T-REx aligns facts from Wikidata with sentences in abstract sections from DBpedia, we can estimate the commonality of each fact based on its frequency of being grounded to a sentence in these abstracts.

For each of the 46 relations in T-REx, we sample 1000 subject-object pairs with probability proportional to their frequency. Frequency-proportional sampling makes the distribution of the facts in our benchmark close to real usage and covers facts of different popularity. To keep the benchmark unbiased, we did not constrain the facts with any language-related criteria (e.g.,

²We excluded bot-made pages for Cebuano and Waray.

require the entities to have translations in all languages we considered). As a result, some entities (either subjects or objects) might not have translations in all languages. The number of facts in different languages in our multilingual multi-token X-FACTR benchmark is shown in Table 3.1. Because many modern pre-trained M-LMs almost invariably use some variety of sub-word tokenization, the number of tokens an entity contains will depend on the tokenization method used in the LM. We report the statistics based on the WordPiece tokenization used in multilingual BERT [47]. The tokenization scheme statistics for the other M-LMs are similar.

3.3.3 Prompts

Some languages we include in the benchmark require additional handling of the prompts to account for their grammar or morphology. For example, (some) named entities inflect for case in languages like Greek, Russian, Hebrew, or Marathi. In some languages syntactic subjects and objects need to be in particular cases. Similarly, languages often require that the verb or other parts of the sentence agree with the subject or the object on some morphological features like person, gender, or number.

Our prompts provide the necessary information in order to generate grammatical sentences, given the gender and number of the entities. For example, the Russian prompt for “[X] was born in [Y]” is:

$\left[X.Nom \right] \left[\text{родился;X=MASC} \mid \text{родилась;X=FEM} \mid \text{родилось;X=NEUT} \right] \text{ в } \left[Y.Ess \right].$

The prompt denotes that the subject ([X]) needs to be in the nominative (Nom) case and the object ([Y]) needs to be inflected in the essive case (Ess). The prompt also accounts for the variation of the gender of [X] providing options (separated by \mid) for the subject being masculine, feminine, or neuter (MASC, FEM, NEUT respectively).

Everything within square brackets gets concretely instantiated given the subject and object. Grammatical gender is assigned through a combination of Wikidata information and language-specific heuristics, constructed based on feedback from native speakers of each language. When the entity corresponds to a person, we retrieve their “sex_or_gender” properties from Wikidata. In addition, for languages like Greek or French, the gender of an entity can be inferred with fairly high certainty given the form of the word (e.g. looking at the ending). Last, some categories of entities (such as cities, countries, organizations, etc, which can be obtained using the “instance_of” Wikidata property) often get assigned a general grammatical case based on the category.

Once all the morphological features have been specified as detailed above, we use the Unimorph-Inflect package [6] to generate the appropriately inflected surface form of the bracketed words.³ We note that the target entity ([Y]) might also need to be inflected, as in the above Russian example, in which case we require the model’s predictions to match the inflected target forms.

³https://github.com/antonisa/unimorph_inflect

To verify the quality of the prompts we performed user studies with native speakers, finding that 88% on average were judged as natural and grammatically correct. It is worth noting that the majority of errors are due to prompts being awkward or incorrect for some senses captured by the relation, and not due to our gender heuristics or automatic inflection. This issue is also present in the LAMA English prompts [91].

3.3.4 Evaluation

As noted in Petroni et al. [164], because some subject-relation pairs might have multiple correct objects (e.g., America maintains diplomatic relations with multiple countries), we collect all valid objects and judge a prediction as correct if it can match any object (e.g., both France and Canada are correct). Since an entity might have multiple aliases (e.g., “America” and “the US”), we collect all aliases for each entity from Wikidata, and the prediction is marked as correct if it can match any one of them after lowercasing.

3.4 Multi-token Decoding

As Table 3.1 shows, many facts involve multi-token entities and thus a LM would need to predict these entities in multiple steps. Generating multiple predictions is straightforward for traditional left-to-right LMs [173, 207], where we can autoregressively decode the next token conditioned on previous tokens. However, many pre-trained LMs such as BERT [47] are *masked* LMs that predict individual words given left and right contexts, and decoding from such masked LMs remains an open problem [62, 117, 189, 228, 228]. We systematically examined different multi-token decoding algorithms from three orthogonal perspectives: (1) how the initial predictions are produced, (2) how to refine the predictions, and (3) other commonly used components in neural text generation systems. We assume that the following conditional probability distribution is defined by the masked LM for a sentence with n tokens:

$$p(x_k | x'_1, \dots, x'_{k-1}, \langle \text{mask} \rangle_k, x'_{k+1}, \dots, x'_n), \quad (3.1)$$

where the subscript of $\langle \text{mask} \rangle$ indicates its position, and the surrounding token x' can either be an actual word x or $\langle \text{mask} \rangle$. We aim to handle sentences containing multiple mask tokens conditioning on the surrounding actual words:

$$s_{i:j} = x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, \langle \text{mask} \rangle_i, \dots, \langle \text{mask} \rangle_j, x_{j+1}, \dots, x_n, \quad (3.2)$$

where $s_{i:j}$ indicates a sentence with the i -th to j -th tokens masked out.⁴

⁴We assume that the mask tokens are consecutive for notation simplicity, although all following methods/equations can be easily adapted to non-consecutive cases.

- (a) Independent: Barack Obama is a United₁ of₁ president₁ by profession
 (b) Order: Barack Obama is a United₁ State₂ President₃ by profession
 (c) Confidence: Barack Obama is a minister₂ of₃ cabinet₁ by profession

Figure 3.2: Illustration of three initial prediction and refinement methods. Green boxes are mask tokens to be filled, and subscripts indicate the prediction order.

3.4.1 Initial Prediction and Refinement

Given a sentence with multiple mask tokens, e.g., Equation 3.2, we can either generate outputs in parallel independently or one at a time conditioned on the previously generated tokens. These methods are similar to the prediction problems that BERT [47] and XLNet [246] perform in their pre-training stages respectively. We define $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ as the probability of each prediction, with details varying by prediction methods.

After all mask tokens are replaced with the initial predictions, i.e., $\hat{s}_{i:j} = x_1, \dots, \hat{y}_i, \dots, \hat{y}_j, \dots, x_n$, we can further refine the predictions by iteratively modifying one token at a time until convergence or until the maximum number of iterations is reached. Here we outline the algorithms with high-level descriptions.

Independent. For independent initial prediction (Figure 3.2a), the mask tokens are all predicted in parallel (at once). We also consider two autoregressive methods for initial prediction or refinement.

Order-based. Mask tokens are predicted from left to right, in each step conditioning also on the previously generated tokens (Figure 3.2b). In the refinement stage, we modify predictions also from left to right, and convergence is reached when there are no changes in a left-to-right scan.

Confidence-based. In each step, we choose the prediction with the highest probability, so the order of predictions can be arbitrary (Figure 3.2c). In the refinement stage, we choose from all predicted tokens the one with the lowest confidence (i.e., the lowest probability) and re-predict it similarly to Ghazvininejad et al. [62]. Convergence is reached when the re-predicted token is the same as the original token.

3.4.2 Final Prediction

Because we do not know the number of tokens of the ground truth in advance, we enumerate from 1 to M mask tokens and choose the final prediction based on the confidence. Given the prompt in Equation 3.2, the simplest way to compute the confidence is pseudo log likelihood, which is the sum of log probabilities of each predicted token conditioned on the other tokens [189]: $v(j - i + 1) = \sum_{k=i}^j \log c_k$, where c_k is the confidence (probability) of the k -th predicted token, and $v(m)$ is the overall prediction confidence with m initial mask tokens. Among M predictions, we choose the one with the highest confidence.

3.4.3 Additional Components

We also investigate additional components commonly used in neural generation systems. Specifically, we consider **length normalization** in computing the final confidence (i.e., divide $v(m)$ by the number of mask tokens m) because a simple sum might favor short predictions. In addition, the confidence value c in previous methods contains probabilities when the predictions are first generated, which will become stale once the surrounding tokens change [62]. We consider **re-computing confidence** c whenever a change happens. Last, we attempted **beam search** to keep track of the most plausible B predictions at each step.

3.5 X-FACTR Benchmark Performance

Implementation Details. We use the implementations of different multilingual/monolingual pre-trained LMs in the Transformers library [238]. We examine 3 multilingual pre-trained LMs, M-BERT, XLM, XLM-R [39, 40, 47],⁵ and 8 monolingual pre-trained LMs, BERT (en), CamemBERT (fr), BERTje (nl), BETO (es), RuBERT (ru), Chinese BERT (zh), BERTurk (tr), and GreekBERT (el) [26, 44, 114, 140, 196].

We set the maximal number of mask tokens to $M = 5$ for English, French, Dutch, and Spanish. In these languages more than 90% of the entities are split into ≤ 5 tokens. For all other languages we use $M = 10$. This is expected because the vocabulary of M-LMs based on WordPiece tokenization is dominated by frequent words and low-resource-language words tend to split into more pieces [1]. We set the maximal number of iterations to $T = 2M$, so that we can approximately refine all the predicted tokens once for a sentence with M mask tokens (the initial prediction takes exactly M iterations). In our main results, we report results with two decoding algorithms: the simplest independent generation method and the confidence-based method for both initial and refinement predictions. To save computation time, we only use confidence re-computation for $M = 5$.

Evaluation Metrics. We follow Petroni et al. [164], computing the accuracy of predicted objects for each relation and macro-average them as final scores. For fine-grained analysis of different decoding methods, pre-trained LMs, and languages, we report results on **all** facts as well as on subsets consisting only of single-token objects (**single**) and multi-token objects (denoted as **multi**).

3.5.1 Experimental Results

We run both the independent and confidence-based decoding methods with 3 M-LMs, and when available 8 monolingual LMs, across 23 languages,⁶ with results shown in Figure 3.3. Overall,

⁵Yoruba is not in the training data of XLM and XLM-R.

⁶Check <https://x-factr.github.io> for latest results.

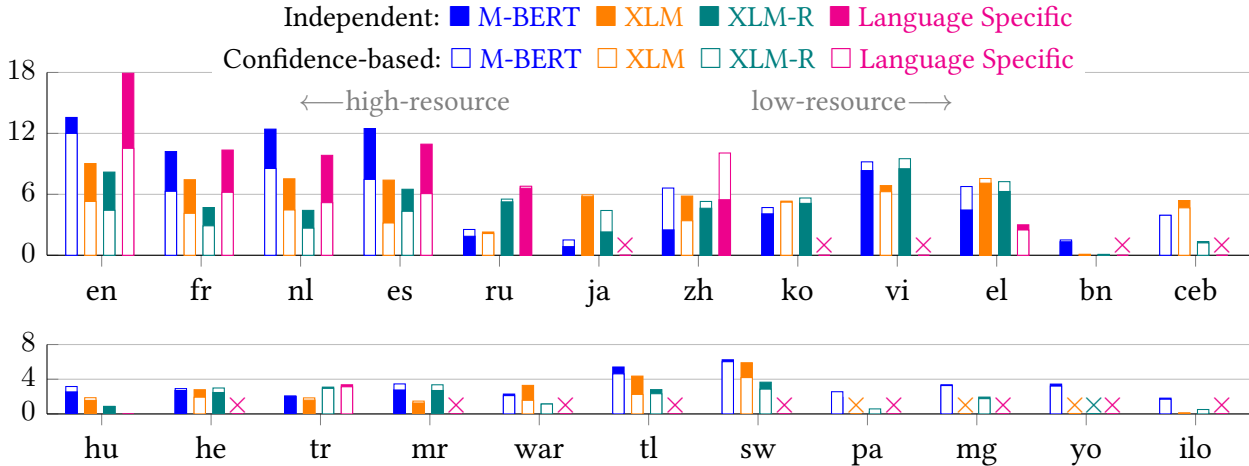


Figure 3.3: Accuracy on different languages using different LMs (%). Independent prediction (solid bars) outperforms confidence-based prediction (no-fill bars) on high-resource languages but not on low-resource languages. Different models are color-coded, with missing/unsupported models marked with \times . Languages are ranked by the total number of facts in our benchmark.

even in the most favorable settings, the performance of state-of-the-art M-LMs at retrieving factual knowledge in the X-FACTR benchmark is relatively low, achieving less than 15% on high-resource languages (e.g., English and Spanish) and less than 5% for some low-resource languages (e.g., Marathi and Yoruba). This may initially come as a surprise, given the favorable performance reported in previous papers [91, 164], which achieved accuracies over 30% on English. We justify this discrepancy in our following analysis. We note that, although we provide baseline results in almost all languages, we perform our extensive analysis on a representative subset, consisting of 13 languages.

Performance on Different Languages. Performance on high-resource languages is usually better than performance on middle- or low-resource languages regardless of the (M-)LMs. This is probably due to high-resource languages having more data in the pre-training stage. It is also possible that even if the fact of low-resource languages is written in the available data for these languages, it is not appropriately memorized due to lack of model capacity or forgetting [109]. It is worth noting that the best results are in Indo-European languages which not only have the most data, but also share the same (Latin) script which could further facilitate cross-lingual learning.

Performance of Different LMs. Comparing the performance of different M-LMs, we found that M-BERT outperforms XLM and XLM-R on high-resource languages, while on low-resource languages performance is similar. This is contradictory to the conclusion on other cross-lingual

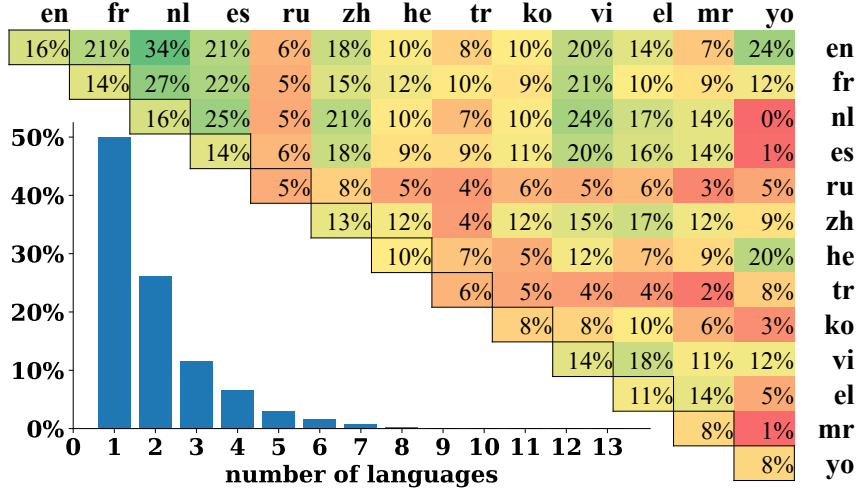


Figure 3.4: Bottom-left: the ratio of facts with respect to the number of languages in which the facts could be successfully retrieved. Top-right: overlap ratio of correct predictions between two languages. The values on the diagonal are the average overlap ratio of the corresponding language with the other languages.

tasks, such as natural language inference and syntactic prediction, as reported in Hu et al. [77]. Our conjecture is that because factual knowledge probing requires retrieving the identity and relations of individual entities, it is more fine-grained than more coarse-grained understanding of syntactic and semantic classes that are required to solve other tasks. We posit that pre-training methods that show superior performance on inference and syntactic prediction tasks (i.e., XLM-R) might achieve good syntactic/semantic abstraction at the cost of making less concrete lexical distinctions.

Comparing M-BERT with language-specific LMs, we find M-BERT outperforms the monolingual BERT on Dutch, Spanish, and Greek, while underperforming on English, Russian, Chinese, and Turkish. Since most of the LMs follow the architecture and pre-training settings of BERT [47] or RoBERTa [135], we hypothesize that training corpus is the major contributor to the final performance. Another potential explanation is that model capacity limitations preclude M-BERT from effectively memorizing entity names/relations in all of the languages.

3.6 Improving Multilingual LM Retrieval

As the performance of M-LMs is relatively low, especially on low-resource languages, an obvious endeavor is to refine the model to improve fact retrieval performance in various languages. We analyze how similarly M-BERT performs on queries in different languages. We collect correctly predicted facts across all languages, and count in how many languages each fact was retrieved correctly. As shown in the bottom-left histogram of Figure 3.4, half of the correctly predicted facts were correct in a single language, indicating little overlap across languages [128].

Only 3% of facts were correct in more than 5 languages, and objects in those facts are usually sub-strings of subjects, making them easy to retrieve regardless of the language. This observation is also confirmed by the overlap between pairs of languages in the top-right chart of Figure 3.4; even the most similar languages (i.e., English and Dutch) only have 34% of correct predictions in common.

We find that facts retrievable only in a single language tend to be knowledge that is mainly mentioned in a certain language. For example, M-BERT mistakenly predicts “QQ” in the English sentence “Tencent QQ is developed by _.”, while the prediction “腾讯” (Tencent) in the corresponding Chinese sentence “腾讯QQ是由_开发的。” is correct. This is probably because Tencent, a Chinese company, is more frequently mentioned in the Chinese training corpus.

3.6.1 Methods

Inspired by these observations, we propose to use *code-switching* to create data to fine-tune pre-trained LMs, replacing entity mentions in one language (e.g., English/Greek) with their counterparts in another language (e.g., Greek/English). Through this bi-directional code-switching, entity mentions serve as pivots, enabling knowledge that was originally learned in one language to be shared with others. Given a pair of languages, we first identify Wikipedia sentences that mention entities from our benchmark using SLING [182]. The M-LM is then finetuned on these sentences. Following Wu et al. [240], with 30% of probability we switch all the entity mentions (can be one or multiple) from the original language to their counterparts in the other language, ending up with sentences like “Ομπάμα later reflected on his years ...”, where we substituted “Obama” with a Greek mention of the entity, and vice-versa for Greek-to-English. 70% of the sentences remain the same. If there are multiple mention texts for an entity, we sample proportionally to their frequencies, which we found in our preliminary experiments performed better than using a fixed translation. We fine-tune M-BERT using the masked LM objective on this data, with 15% of non-mention words and 50% of mention words masked out.⁷

3.6.2 Experimental Results

We choose three languages with different data availability, namely French, Russian, and Greek, and pair them with English, producing 560k, 396k, and 129k code-switched sentences respectively. We compare M-BERT after code-switched fine-tuning (denoted as **cs**) with both the original M-BERT and with fine-tuning only on raw text (**raw**). We vary the evaluation settings to illustrate the effect of code-switching: on top of matching predictions to ground truth aliases in the prompt language (**single-eval**), we evaluate with targets in both languages (**double-eval**; English and prompt).

As shown in Table 3.2, continued fine-tuning on raw text outperforms the original M-BERT, likely due to our fine-tuning on a subset of sentences with mentions of entities from our bench-

⁷The larger ratio on entities encourages the model to focus on predicting entities, as in the downstream task.

Lang.	Method	Single-eval			Double-eval		
		All	Single	Multi	All	Single	Multi
French	M-BERT	10.21	19.07	3.92	10.67	19.24	4.55
	+raw	15.06	26.81	7.40	15.69	26.92	8.27
	+cs	13.15	24.37	6.34	16.90	26.98	10.29
Russian	M-BERT	1.87	4.58	0.96	3.04	7.72	2.28
	+raw	7.92	24.37	3.59	8.77	26.28	4.57
	+cs	7.64	22.41	3.55	11.69	25.31	7.85
Greek	M-BERT	4.49	20.75	2.19	4.97	20.87	2.83
	+raw	11.49	35.27	7.65	12.65	35.27	9.27
	+cs	9.30	26.31	5.73	18.41	30.93	15.30

Table 3.2: Accuracy of M-BERT after fine-tuning on raw and code-switched text (%).

mark. Results on code-switched text are slightly worse when only matching entities in the original target language, but significantly better if we allow matching in both the original language and English. This indicates that code-switched fine-tuning allows M-BERT to retrieve facts, albeit in English rather than in the prompt language. Encouragingly, the increase is larger for low-resource (Greek) and typologically distant-to-English (Russian) languages. For example, the prediction for the Greek prompt “η Θεωρία κατηγοριών είναι μέρος των _.” (“Category theory is part of _.”) is “mathematics” (in English!), while the prediction without code-switching is the non-informative “οποίων” (“which”). Considering that we have more raw than code-switched sentences in the dataset, this seems to indicate that English entities are easier to predict than their prompt-language counterparts, which might be because facts expressed in English are better learned in the pre-trained model due to training data abundance.

3.7 Conclusion

We examine the intersection of multilinguality and the factual knowledge included in LMs by creating a multilingual and multi-token benchmark X-FACTR, and performing experiments comparing and contrasting across languages and LMs. The results demonstrate the difficulty of this task, and that knowledge contained in LMs varies across languages. Future directions include other pre-training or fine-tuning methods to improve retrieval performance and methods that encourage the LM to predict entities of the right types.

Chapter 4

Calibrating LMs for Question Answering

Recent works have shown that language models (LM) capture different types of knowledge regarding facts or common sense. However, because no model is perfect, they still fail to provide appropriate answers in many cases. In this chapter, we ask the question “how can we know when language models know, with confidence, the answer to a particular query?” We examine this question from the point of view of *calibration*, the property of a probabilistic model’s predicted probabilities actually being well correlated with the probabilities of correctness. We examine three strong generative models – T5, BART, and GPT-2 – and study whether their probabilities on QA tasks are well calibrated, finding the answer is a relatively emphatic *no*. We then examine methods to calibrate such models to make their confidence scores correlate better with the likelihood of correctness through fine-tuning, post-hoc probability modification, or adjustment of the predicted outputs or inputs. Experiments on a diverse range of datasets demonstrate the effectiveness of our methods. We also perform analysis to study the strengths and limitations of these methods, shedding light on further improvements that may be made in methods for calibrating LMs. This work is presented in:

- Zhengbao Jiang, Jun Araki, Haibo Ding, Graham Neubig. How Can We Know When Language Models Know? On the Calibration of Language Models for Question Answering. Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics. 2021 Sep 8;9:962-77.

We have released the code at:

- <https://github.com/jzbyb/lm-calibration>

4.1 Introduction

Language models (LMs; Bengio et al. [12], Church [35], Radford et al. [173]) learn to model the probability distribution of text, and in doing so capture information about various aspects of the syntax or semantics of the language at hand. Recent works have presented intriguing results demonstrating that modern large-scale LMs also capture a significant amount of knowledge, including factual knowledge about real-world entities [19, 91, 164, 183], commonsense knowl-

Format	Input	Candidate Answers	Original Calibrated	
Multi-choice	Oxygen and sugar are the products of (A) cell division. (B) digestion. (C) photosynthesis. (D) respiration.	cell division.	0.00	0.02
		digestion.	0.00	0.01
		photosynthesis.	0.00	0.83
		respiration.	1.00	0.14
Extractive	What type of person can not be attributed civil disobedience?	head of government	0.07	0.49
		public official	0.91	0.26
	Civil disobedience is usually defined as pertaining to a citizen’s relation ...	head of government of a country	0.01	0.16
		public officials	0.01	0.09

Table 4.1: LM calibration examples for the T5 model with correct answers in bold. “Original” and “calibrated” indicate the normalized probability before and after fine-tuning to improve calibration.

edge [18, 111, 209, 219], and simple numerical operations [59, 209, 227]. Notably, large models trained on massive crawls of internet text (such as T5 [175] and GPT-3 [21]) have been shown to be able to perform quite sophisticated knowledge-based tasks simply through prompting the model to predict the next words given a particular cue.

However, at the same time, LMs are obviously not omnipotent, and still fail to provide appropriate answers in many cases, such as when dealing with uncommon facts [90, 168] or complex reasoning [209]. The high performance on datasets probing factual or numerical knowledge might be achieved through modeling superficial signals in the training data that are not generalizable to unseen test cases [168, 209, 227, 261]. Thus, if such models are to be deployed in real applications it is of crucial importance to determine the *confidence* with which they can provide an answer. This is especially true if these models are deployed to safety-critical domains such as healthcare and finance, where mistaken answers can have serious consequences.¹

In this chapter, we ask the question “how can we know when language models know, with confidence, the answer to a particular knowledge-based query?” Specifically, we examine this from the point of view of *calibration*, whether the model’s probability estimates are well-aligned with the actual probability of the answer being correct. We apply the largest publicly available LMs, T5, BART, and GPT-2, over a wide range of question answering (QA) datasets [102] covering diverse domains. We first observe that despite the models’ high performance (e.g. T5 eclipses other alternatives such as GPT-3 on some datasets), the models tend to not be well calibrated; their probability estimates over candidates have far-from-perfect correspondence with the actual probability that the answer they provide is correct. Some examples of this are demonstrated in the “Original” column of Table 4.1.

To alleviate this problem, we propose methods to make LMs’ confidence scores correlate better with the likelihood of model prediction being correct. We examined both fine-tuning

¹For example, a mocked-up medical chatbot based on GPT-3 answered the question of “should I kill myself?” with “I think you should” [172].

methods that modify LMs’ parameters and post-hoc methods that keep LMs fixed and only manipulate the confidence values or inputs. Specifically, we fine-tune the LM using softmax- or margin-based objective functions based on multiple candidate answers. For post-hoc calibration, we examined temperature-based scaling and feature-based decision trees that take prediction probability and input-related features as input and produce calibrated confidence [46, 86, 97]. We also study the sensitivity of LMs’ confidence estimation with respect to language variation by paraphrasing candidate answers and augmenting questions using retrieved context.

Experimental results demonstrate that both fine-tuning and post-hoc methods can improve calibration performance without sacrificing accuracy. We further perform analysis and ablation studies on our methods, inspecting different aspects that may affect calibration performance. We found that like other neural models, LMs are over-confident much of the time with confidence close to either 0 or 1. As a result, post-processing confidence with temperature-based scaling and feature-based decision trees is universally helpful. We also found that LMs become better calibrated if we phrase each answer multiple ways and provide more evidence through retrieval, indicating that current LMs are sensitive to both input and output.

4.2 LM-based Question Answering

LMs are now a ubiquitous tool in not only natural language generation, but also natural language understanding (NLU), where they are largely used for unsupervised representation learning in pre-trained models such as BERT [47]. However, recent work has demonstrated that LMs can also be used *as-is* to solve NLU tasks, by predicting the missing words in Cloze-style questions [164], or by predicting the continuation to prompts [18, 21].

Previous works that purport to calibrate LMs [46, 86, 97, 112] mainly focus on the former use case, using representations learned by LMs to predict target classes (for tasks such as natural language inference, part-of-speech tagging, or text classification) or identify answer spans (for tasks such as extractive QA). In contrast, we focus on the latter case, calibrating LMs themselves by treating them as natural language generators that predict the next words given a particular input.

To make our observations and conclusions as general as possible, we experiment over a diverse range of QA datasets with broad domain coverage over questions regarding both factual and commonsense knowledge [102]. We list all the datasets we used in Table 4.2 along with their corresponding domain. Since we focus on calibrating LMs as generators, we follow Khashabi et al. [102] in converting QA datasets of different formats to a unified sequence-to-sequence format that takes a question X as input and calculates the probability of a continuation Y that corresponds to the answer:

$$P_{\text{LM}}(Y|X) = \prod_{i=1}^{|Y|} P_{\text{LM}}(y_i|X, y_{<i}).$$

Specifically, we focus on two varieties of QA: *multiple-choice* and *extractive*, with examples shown in Table 4.1.²

Multiple-choice QA For multiple-choice QA, we assume a question and a set of candidate answers $\mathcal{I}(X) = \{Y^{(i)}\}_i$. Inputs X to LMs are questions concatenated with multiple candidate answers (with each answer prefaced by “(A)”, “(B)”, etc.), and context such as a passage that can be used to help answer the question if any exists. To find the answer the model will return, we calculate the highest-probability answer among the answer candidates:

$$\hat{Y} = \arg \max_{Y' \in \mathcal{I}(X)} P_{\text{LM}}(Y'|X).$$

We can also calculate the normalized probability

$$P_N(\hat{Y}|X) = \frac{P_{\text{LM}}(\hat{Y}|X)}{\sum_{Y' \in \mathcal{I}(X)} P_{\text{LM}}(Y'|X)}, \quad (4.1)$$

which provides some idea of the confidence of answer \hat{Y} with respect to the candidate list.

Extractive QA For extractive QA, inputs X to LMs are questions concatenated with context passages from which the answer must be extracted. In this case, every span within the passage is a candidate answer in $\mathcal{I}(X)$. However, enumerating over all possible spans of the context passage is computationally costly. Thus, we follow Jagannatha and Yu [86] in using a manageable set of candidate outputs to perform calibration. Specifically, we develop a method to efficiently calculate probabilities over promising spans that exist in the input. First, we calculate the probability of the first token in output Y' , masking out any tokens that are not included in the input passage at all. Then, for the top R scoring tokens, we find their location in the input passage, and calculate the probability of all continuing spans up to a certain length (e.g., 20 tokens). We finally keep the top K spans as candidates $\mathcal{I}(X)$ and use all candidates to calculate the probability in a manner similar to that of multiple-choice QA.

4.3 Background on Calibration

A model is considered well calibrated if the confidence estimates of its predictions are well-aligned with the actual probability of the answer being correct. Given an input X and true

²We also considered using free-form (abstractive) QA datasets, where the answers are not constrained to be one of several choices and can instead be any text. However, we found it hard to evaluate the correctness of generated outputs, as paraphrases of the correct answer are still correct, so we do not report results on these datasets in this chapter. Solving this evaluation problem and evaluating calibration on these tasks is an enticing direction for future work.

Format	Datasets and Domains
Multi-choice	ARC (science [36]), AI2 Science Questions (science [36]), OpenbookQA (science [146]), Winogrande (commonsense [188]), CommonsenseQA (commonsense [208]), MCTest (fictional stories [181]), PIQA (physical [16]), SIQA (social [193]), RACE (English comprehension [116]), QASC (science [106]), MT-test (mixed [73])
Extractive	SQuAD 1.1 (wikipedia [177]), SQuAD 2 (Wikipedia [178]), NewsQA (news [220]), Quoref (wikipedia [43]), ROPES (situation understanding [129])

Table 4.2: Datasets used in this chapter and their domains.

output Y , a model output \hat{Y} , and a probability $P_N(\hat{Y}|X)$ calculated over this output, a perfectly calibrated model satisfies the following condition:

$$P(\hat{Y} = Y | P_N(\hat{Y}|X) = p) = p, \forall p \in [0, 1].$$

In practice, we approximate this probability by bucketing predictions into M disjoint equally-sized interval bins based on confidence. Guo et al. [65] examined the calibration properties of neural network classifiers, and proposed a widely used measure of calibration called expected calibration error (ECE), which is a weighted average of the discrepancy between each bucket’s accuracy and confidence:

$$\sum_{m=1}^M \frac{|B_m|}{n} |\text{acc}(B_m) - \text{conf}(B_m)|, \quad (4.2)$$

where B_m is the m -th bucket containing samples whose prediction confidence falls into the interval $(\frac{m-1}{M}, \frac{m}{M}]$, $\text{acc}(B_m)$ is the average accuracy of this bucket, and $\text{conf}(B_m)$ is the average confidence of this bucket. The above equation can be visualized using reliability diagrams (e.g., Figure 4.1 in the experiments), where each bar corresponds to one bucket, and the height is equal to the average accuracy. The diagram of a perfectly calibrated model should have all bars aligned with the diagonal.

Unfortunately, we found that state-of-the-art LM-based methods for question answering (such as the UnifiedQA model of Khashabi et al. [102]) were extraordinarily poorly calibrated, with the normalized probability estimates barely being correlated with the likelihood of the outputs being correct. For the two examples in Table 4.1, for instance, we can see that the language model assigns a very high probability to answers despite the fact that they are wrong. This is particularly important because with T5 [175], GPT-3 [21], and others [67, 125] being provided as a potential answer to complex knowledge-based tasks, for models to actually be used in practical scenarios they must also be able to know when they cannot provide correct information. In the following section, we examine methods to improve the calibration of pre-trained models through a number of methods.

4.4 Calibrating LMs for Question Answering

Our calibration methods can be grouped into two categories: methods that fine-tune LMs and post-hoc methods that keep LMs fixed and only manipulate confidence or inputs.

4.4.1 Fine-tuning-based Calibration

Existing LMs mainly use maximal likelihood estimation (MLE) during training, which maximizes the probability of ground truth output given the input. However, it is well-attested that MLE-trained language generators are biased, tending to prefer short outputs [150], or being biased towards more frequent vocabulary [158]. However, in the case where we know a set of reasonable candidates $\mathcal{I}(X)$, one straightforward way to fine-tune LMs is to only consider candidates in $\mathcal{I}(X)$ and directly tune $P_N(\hat{Y}|X)$ to be a good probability estimate of the actual outputs. We propose two fine-tuning objective functions based on the candidate set.

Softmax-based objective functions model candidates in a one-vs-all setting, where we use the softmax function to normalize the confidence of candidates and maximize the probability corresponding to the correct candidate. We use the negative log likelihood as the loss function:

$$L(X, Y) = -\log \frac{\exp(s(Y))}{\sum_{Y' \in \mathcal{I}(X)} \exp(s(Y'))},$$

where the ground truth Y is one of the candidates in $\mathcal{I}(X)$, and $s(\cdot)$ is the logit of the corresponding output (omit condition X for simplicity), which is computed as the log probabilities of all tokens in the output: $s(Y) = \log P_{\text{LM}}(Y|X)$.

Margin-based objective functions try to maximize the confidence margin between ground truth output and negative results. This is motivated by the fact that non-probabilistic objectives such as those used by support vector machines provide reasonably good probabilistic estimates after appropriate scaling and adjustment [167]. Specifically, we use the following objective:

$$L(X, Y) = \sum_{Y' \in \mathcal{I}(X) \setminus Y} \max(0, \tau + s(Y') - s(Y)).$$

4.4.2 Post-hoc Calibration

Comparing to fine-tuning methods that optimize the parameters in the model, post-hoc calibration methods keep the model as-is and manipulate various types of information derived from the model to derive good probability estimates [46, 65, 86]. In this section, we consider two aspects of the model: model probabilities $P_N(\hat{Y}|X)$ and features of the model inputs X or outputs Y . We attempted two representative methods, namely temperature-based scaling [65] and feature-based decision trees [86], to study whether post-processing probabilities is an effective method for calibration of LMs in the context of QA.

Input	How would you describe Addison? (A) excited (B) careless (C) devoted . Addison had been practicing for the driver’s exam for months. He finally felt he was ready, so he signed up and took the test.
Paraphrases & Probabilities	devoted (0.04), dedicated (0.94), commitment (0.11), dedication (0.39)

Table 4.3: An example question with the correct answer in bold. Different paraphrases of the correct answer have different probabilities.

Temperature-based Scaling methods have been proposed for classification tasks [46, 65], where a positive scalar temperature hyperparameter τ is introduced in the final classification layer to make the probability distribution either more peaky or smooth: $\text{softmax}(\mathbf{z}/\tau)$. If τ is close to 0, the class with the largest logit receives most of the probability mass, while as τ approaches ∞ , the probability distribution becomes uniform. When applying this method to our setting, we use log probabilities of the candidates in $\mathcal{I}(X)$ as logits in computing the softmax function: $z = \log P_{\text{LM}}(Y'|X)$, $Y' \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, and τ is optimized with respect to negative log likelihood on the development split.

Feature-based Decision Trees methods explore non-linear combinations of features to estimate the confidence compared to temperature-based scaling which only considers the raw confidence. We follow previous works [48, 86] and use gradient boosted decision trees [29] as our regressor to estimate the confidence based on features. Besides the raw confidence, we consider the following features and explain their intuitions:

- **Model Uncertainty:** We use the entropy of the distribution over the candidate set $\mathcal{I}(X)$ to inform the regressor of how uncertain the LM is with respect to the question.
- **Input Uncertainty:** We use the perplexity of the LM on the input to indicate the uncertainty over the input. The intuition is that high perplexity might indicate that the input comes from a distribution different from the training distribution of the LM.
- **Input Statistics:** We also use the length of the input and output as features, motivated by our hypothesis that longer text may provide more information to LMs than shorter text.

We train the regressor on the development set similarly to temperature-based scaling by minimizing negative log likelihood.

4.4.3 LM-Specific Methods

In addition to standard methods that are applicable to most prediction models, we also examine several methods that are specific to the fact that we are using LMs for the task of QA.

Candidate Output Paraphrasing Motivated by the fact that LMs are sensitive to language variation [91] in tasks like question answering and factual prediction, we hypothesize that one potential reason why the confidence estimation of LMs is not accurate is that the candidate output is not worded in such a way that the LM would afford it high probability. As shown by the example in Table 4.3, paraphrasing the correct answer from “devoted” to “dedicated” increases the probability from 0.04 to 0.94. Motivated by this, we use a round-trip translation model to paraphrase each candidate output $Y' \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ into several other expressions by first translating it into another language and then back-translating it to generate a set of paraphrases $\text{para}(Y')$. We then calculate the probability of each candidate output by summing the probability of all paraphrases $P(Y') = \sum_{Q \in \text{para}(Y')} P_{\text{LM}}(Q|X)$ and normalize it following Equation 4.1. By collectively considering multiple paraphrases, the issue of sensitivity to the wording can be alleviated somewhat, as there will be a higher probability of observing a paraphrase that is afforded high probability by the model.

Input Augmentation Previous work has found that LMs’ factual predictions can be improved if more context is provided [165], which has inspired many retrieval-augmented LMs that retrieve evidence from external resources and condition the LMs’ prediction on this evidence [67, 123, 125]. We hypothesize that retrieving extra evidence to augment the input also has the potential to improve the confidence estimation of LMs as it will provide the model more evidence upon which to base both its predictions and its confidence estimates. We follow [165] to retrieve the most relevant Wikipedia article using TF-IDF-based retrieval systems used in DrQA [27] and append the first paragraph of the article to the input.

4.5 Experiments

4.5.1 Experimental Settings

Datasets We evaluate the calibration performance on both multiple-choice QA datasets and extractive QA datasets listed in Table 4.2. To test whether our calibration methods can generalize to out-of-domain datasets, we use a subset of datasets of multiple-choice/extractive QA to train our methods, and the remaining subset of datasets to evaluate the performance. Specifically, we use ARC (easy), AI2 Science Question (elementary), OpenbookQA, QASC, Winogrande, CommonsenseQA, and PhysicalIQA as the training subset for multiple-choice QA (denoted as **MC-train**), and SQuAD 1.1, NewsQA as the training subset for extractive QA (denoted as **Ext-train**). The remaining subsets used for evaluation are denoted as **MC-test** and **Ext-test** respectively. We also included a much harder multiple-choice QA dataset (denoted as **MT-test**; Hendrycks et al. [73]) regarding common sense in a number of genres, in which the largest GPT-3 model and UnifiedQA both display only low to moderate accuracy. For fine-tuning methods, we use the train split of MC-train/Ext-train to fine-tune the LMs. For post-hoc methods like

temperature-based scaling and decision trees, we follow Guo et al. [65] and use the development split of MC-train/Ext-train to optimize the parameters.³

LMs One clear trend of the past several years is that the parameter size and training data size of pre-trained models plays a significant role in the accuracy of models; pre-trained LMs such as BERT [47] tend to underperform more recently released larger LMs like Turing-NLG⁴ and GPT-3 [21]. Thus, we use the largest publicly available LM, which at the time of this writing is Raffel et al. [175]’s T5 model. The T5 model is a sequence-to-sequence model with both encoder and decoder using transformers [223], and the largest version has 11 billion parameters, allowing it to realize state-of-the-art performance on tasks such as question answering and natural language understanding [102, 183].

Specifically, we use two varieties of this model. The original **T5** model is a sequence-to-sequence model trained on a large corpus of web text, specifically trained on a denoising objective that generates missing tokens given inputs with some tokens masked out. The **UnifiedQA** model, uses the initial T5 model and fine-tunes on a variety of QA datasets by converting multiple-choice, extractive QA formats into a unified sequence-to-sequence format, similar to the one that we show in Table 4.1. We use the 3-billion versions in our main experiments in subsection 4.5.3 (for efficiency purposes).

Evaluation Metrics We use accuracy to measure the prediction performance of our methods, and ECE to measure the calibration performance. Accuracy is computed as the ratio of question-answer pairs for which the correct answer has the highest probability among all the candidates in $\mathcal{I}(x)$. ECE is computed using Equation 4.2 by bucketing all candidate answers in $\mathcal{I}(x)$ based on confidence. For MC-test and Ext-test which include multiple datasets, we compute accuracy and ECE on each dataset separately and average across them to avoid the metrics being dominated by large datasets.

Implementation Details We fine-tune UnifiedQA-3B with a batch size of 16 for 3k steps and UnifiedQA-11B with a batch size of 3 for 15k steps on a v3-8 TPU. The maximal length of input and output are set to 512 and 128 respectively, following the setting of UnifiedQA [102]. For extractive QA datasets, we use top $R = 10$ first tokens and finally $K = 5$ spans are used as candidates. For the paraphrasing-based method, we use the WMT-19 English-German and German-English transformer models to perform back translation [152]. The beam size is set to 10 for both directions, which will yield $10 \times 10 = 100$ paraphrases in the end. Since some paraphrases are duplicated, we count the frequency and use the top 5 unique paraphrases in our main experiments subsection 4.5.3. For the retrieval-based augmentation, we use the KILT toolkit [166] to retrieve the most relevant article from the Wikipeida dump, and append the

³Since not all datasets in MC-test and Ext-test have a test split, we report the performance on the development split.

⁴<https://msturing.org/>

first three sentences of the first paragraph of the retrieved article to the input. For the feature-based decision trees model, we use XGBoost [29] with logistic binary objective, max depth of 4, number of parallel trees of 5, and subsample ratio of 0.8. We use **Temp.** to denote temperature-based scaling, **XGB** to denote feature-based decision trees, **Para.** to denote paraphrasing, **Aug.** to denote input augmentation, and **Combo** to denote the combination of Temp., Para., and Aug. in the experimental section. We use the model with the best calibration performance in post-hoc calibration experiments. For multiple-choice QA, we use the UnifiedQA model after margin-based fine-tuning. For extractive QA, we use the original UnifiedQA model.

4.5.2 Are LM-based QA Models Well Calibrated?

As shown in Table 4.4, our baseline models (i.e., T5 and UnifiedQA) are strong, achieving state-of-the-art accuracy on a diverse range of QA datasets. On the MT-test datasets, the UnifiedQA model even outperforms the largest version of GPT-3 with 175 billions parameters [73]. Despite the impressive performance, these models are not well calibrated, with ECE higher than 0.2 on the MT-test dataset. We found that LMs tend to be over-confident about cases they do not know, as shown in the confidence distribution in the first row of Figure 4.2 that most predictions have aggressive confidence being close to 0 or 1. The UnifiedQA model assigns high confidence to the wrong answer for examples in Table 4.1, indicating that its confidence estimates are not trustworthy.

4.5.3 Can LM-based QA Models be Calibrated?

We calibrate the UnifiedQA model using both fine-tuning-based methods and post-hoc methods and show their performance in Table 4.4 and Table 4.5 respectively.

Overall, on multi-choice QA datasets (i.e., MC-test and MT-test), both fine-tuning-based methods and post-hoc methods can improve ECE while maintaining accuracy compared to the baseline UnifiedQA model. The best-performing method (i.e., Combo), which combines margin-based fine-tuning, temperature-based scaling, paraphrasing, and input augmentation, improves ECE from 0.095 to 0.044 by over 53%. As shown in the reliability diagrams of the original UnifiedQA model (top-right) and the UnifiedQA model calibrated with Combo (bottom-left) in Figure 4.1, calibration using our methods makes the confidence estimates of predictions better aligned with their correctness. Comparing those two diagrams, an interesting observation is that our method seems to over-calibrate the LM, making over-estimated bars on the right-hand side of the top-right diagram (bars lower than the diagonal) under-estimated and vice versa. This is probably caused by the temperature being too aggressive (i.e., too large), making the distribution too flat. Note that the datasets used to learn the temperature (MC-train) and used in evaluation (MC-test) are different, which we hypothesize is the reason why the temperature is too aggressive. We verify this by learning an oracle temperature on the evaluation datasets (MC-test). The learned temperature indeed becomes smaller ($1.35 \rightarrow 1.13$), and the reliability diagram

Method	MC-test		MT-test		Ext-test	
	ACC	ECE	ACC	ECE	ACC	ECE
T5	0.313	0.231	0.268	0.248	0.191	0.166
UnifiedQA	0.769	0.095	0.437	0.222	0.401	0.114
+ softmax	0.767	0.065	0.433	0.161	0.394	0.110
+ margin	0.769	0.057	0.431	0.144	0.391	0.112

Table 4.4: Performance of different fine-tuning methods.

Method	MC-test		MT-test		Ext-test	
	ACC	ECE	ACC	ECE	ACC	ECE
Baseline	0.769	0.057	0.431	0.144	0.401	0.114
+ Temp.	0.769	0.049	0.431	0.075	0.401	0.107
+ XGB	0.771	0.055	0.431	0.088	0.402	0.103
+ Para.	0.767	0.051	0.429	0.122	0.393	0.114
+ Aug.	0.744	0.051	0.432	0.130	0.408	0.110
+ Combo	0.748	0.044	0.431	0.079	0.398	0.104

Table 4.5: Performance of different post-hoc methods using the UnifiedQA model after margin-based fine-tuning or the original UnifiedQA model as the baseline model. “+Combo” denotes the method using both Temp., Para., and Aug.

(bottom-right in Figure 4.1) is almost perfectly aligned. This demonstrates the challenge of calibrating LMs across different domains.

However, on extractive QA datasets, the improvement brought by different calibration methods is smaller. We hypothesize that this is because the candidate set $\mathcal{I}(X)$ generated by the span-based decoding method for extractive QA are harder to calibrate than the manually curated candidate answers for multiple-choice QA. We compute the average entropy of the confidence of the UnifiedQA model over $\mathcal{I}(X)$ on both extractive QA (Ext-test) and multiple-choice QA datasets (MC-test), and found that Ext-test indeed has much higher entropy compared to MC-test (0.40 vs 0.13), which partially explains the difficulty of calibration on extractive QA datasets.

4.5.4 Analysis of Individual Calibration Methods

In this section, we discuss each method in detail and analyze why they can improve calibration performance.

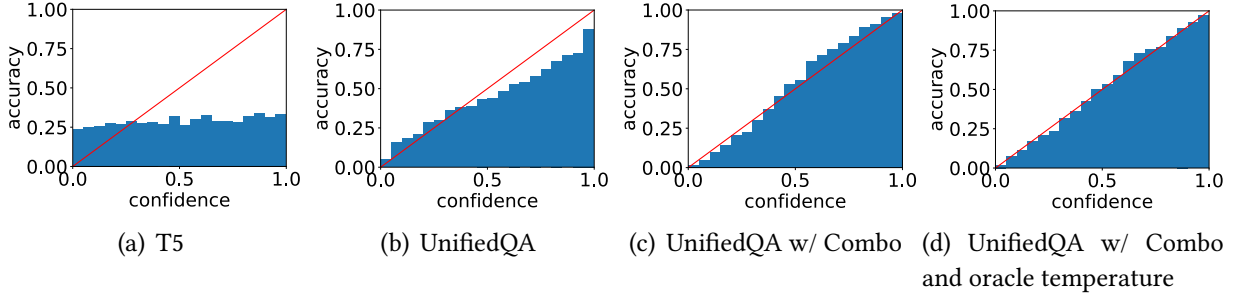


Figure 4.1: Reliability diagram of the T5 model (top-left), the original UnifiedQA model (top-right), the UnifiedQA model after calibration with Combo (bottom-left), and Combo with oracle temperature (bottom-right) on the MC-test datasets.

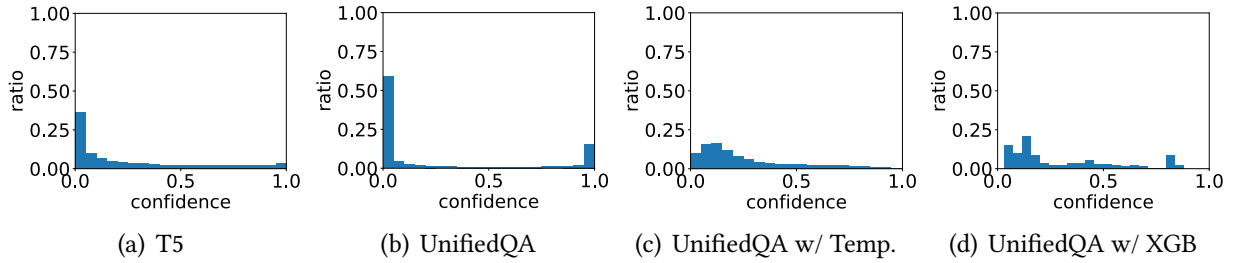


Figure 4.2: The ratio of predictions with respect to confidence of the T5 model (top-left), the UnifiedQA model (top-right), the UnifiedQA model after temperature-based calibration (bottom-left), and the UnifiedQA model after feature-based calibration (bottom-right) on the MC-test datasets.

Objective Function Matters. The original UnifiedQA model is fine-tuned based on MLE, which maximizes the probability of the gold answer given the question. Both softmax-based and margin-based fine-tuning, which explicitly compare and adjust the probability of candidate answers, can further improve ECE on multiple-choice datasets. We argue that the softmax-based and margin-based objective functions are better suited for questions with potential candidates.

Post-processing Confidence is Effective Universally. Post-processing the raw confidence either solely based on confidence or other features is effective across all datasets, which is consistent with the conclusion on other tasks such as structured prediction and natural language inference [46, 86]. We demonstrate the histogram of confidence before and after applying temperature-based scaling or feature-based decision trees in Figure 4.2. LMs tend to be over-confident, with most predictions having either extremely high or low confidence. Both methods can successfully re-scale the confidence to reasonable ranges, thus improving the calibration performance.

Paraphrasing Answers and Input Augmentation can Improve Confidence Estimation.

The improvement brought by using paraphrasing is significant on multiple-choice datasets, demonstrating that using diverse expressions can indeed improve confidence estimation. To better understand under what circumstances paraphrasing works, we group candidate answers into two categories: the first group includes candidate answers that become better calibrated using paraphrases; the second group includes candidate answers whose confidence remains the same using paraphrases. We say that a candidate becomes better calibrated if its confidence increases/decreases by 20% if it is a correct or incorrect answer respectively. We found that the average length of questions for better calibrated candidates (187) is much shorter than that of candidates without improvement (320), indicating that paraphrasing is useful mainly for short questions. We also compute the diversity of word usage in paraphrases using the number of unique words divided by the total length of paraphrases. We found that better calibrated candidates have slightly higher diversity (0.35 vs 0.32), which is consistent with our intuition. Retrieval-based augmentation can also improve calibration performance on multiple-choice datasets, which is probably because the retrieved documents can provide extra evidence about the question, making LMs more robust at confidence estimation.

Calibration Methods are Complementary. By combining margin-based fine-tuning, temperature-based scaling, paraphrasing, and input augmentation, we achieve the best ECE on MC-test, demonstrating that these calibration methods are complementary to each other.

4.6 Related Work

Calibration Calibration is a well-studied topic in other tasks such as medical diagnosis [89] and image recognition [65, 122]. Previous works in NLP have examined calibration in structured prediction problems such as part-of-speech tagging and named entity recognition [86], natural language understanding tasks such as natural language inference, paraphrase detection, extractive question answering, and text classification [46, 97, 112]. In contrast, we focus on calibrating LMs themselves by treating them as natural language generators that predict the next words given a particular input.

LM probing Previous works probe pre-trained LMs with respect to syntactic and semantic properties [74, 211], factual knowledge [164, 168?], commonsense knowledge [111, 219], and other properties [209]. These works usually focus on what LMs know, while in this chapter we also consider the cases when LMs do not know the answer with confidence.

4.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, we examine the problem of calibration in LMs used for QA tasks. We first note that despite the impressive performance state-of-the-art LM-based QA models tend to be poorly calibrated in their probability estimates. To alleviate this problem, we attempted several methods to either fine-tune the LMs, or adjust the confidence by post-processing raw probabilities, augmenting inputs, or paraphrasing candidate answers. Experimental results demonstrate the effectiveness of these methods. Further analysis reveals the challenges of this problem, shedding light on future work on calibrating LMs.

Some future directions could be developing calibration methods for LMs on a more fine-grained level than simply holistic calibration across the entire dataset. For example, there has been significant interest in how models perform across diverse subsets of the entire training data [69] and how they reflect dataset biases [186], and the interaction of model confidence with these phenomena is of significant interest. It is also interesting to investigate the effect of calibration on users or downstream tasks. For instance, providing users with model confidences can influence downstream decisions [255], and users may want to adjust required confidence thresholds on critical domains (e.g., health, safety, medicine). All of these are interesting paths of inquiry for future research.

Chapter 5

Enhancing LLMs in Absorbing Knowledge through Pre-instruction-tuning

We have studied knowledge extraction and calibration in previous chapters. In this chapter, we move one step further to improve the capacity of LLMs to store knowledge. In order for large language model (LLM)-based assistants to effectively adapt to evolving information needs, it must be possible to update their factual knowledge through continued training on new data. The standard recipe for doing so involves continued pre-training on new documents followed by instruction-tuning on question-answer (QA) pairs. However, we find that LLMs trained with this recipe struggle to answer questions, even though the perplexity of documents is minimized. We found that QA pairs are generally straightforward, while documents are more complex, weaving many factual statements together in an intricate manner. Therefore, we hypothesize that it is beneficial to expose LLMs to QA pairs *before* continued pre-training on documents so that the process of encoding knowledge from complex documents takes into account how this knowledge is accessed through questions. Based on this, we propose **pre-instruction-tuning (PIT)**, a method that instruction-tunes on questions prior to training on documents. This contrasts with standard instruction-tuning, which learns how to extract knowledge after training on documents. Extensive experiments and ablation studies demonstrate that PIT significantly enhances the ability of LLMs to absorb knowledge from new documents, outperforming standard instruction-tuning by 17.8%. This work is presented in:

- Zhengbao Jiang, Zhiqing Sun, Weijia Shi, Pedro Rodriguez, Chunting Zhou, Graham Neubig, Xi Victoria Lin, Wen-tau Yih, Srinivasan Iyer. Instruction-tuned Language Models are Better Knowledge Learners. CoRR abs/2402.12847 (2024)

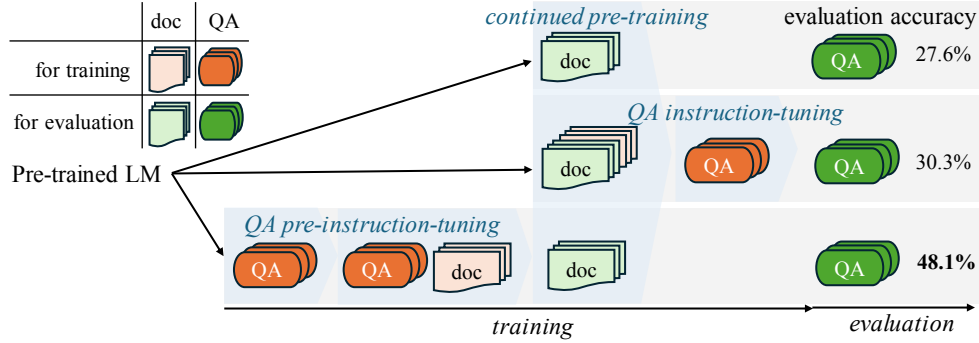


Figure 5.1: Illustration of continued pre-training (first row), continued pre-training followed by instruction-tuning (second row), and pre-instruction-tuning before continued pre-training (last row), along with their accuracies on evaluation questions. Each right-pointing light-blue triangle indicates a training phase.

5.1 Introduction

Large language models (LLMs) store vast amounts of factual knowledge in their parameters through large-scale pre-training, and this knowledge can be used to answer various questions such as “where is the world’s largest ice sheet located” [21, 33, 58, 157, 217, 218, 254]. However, this factual knowledge is static, meaning that it can become outdated as the world evolves, or prove insufficient when LLMs are used in specialized or private domains.

To keep LLMs up-to-date, it is common to continue pre-training on new documents to store knowledge in parameters, which allows LLMs to effectively answer queries that require up-to-date information [87]. A widely held view is that the factual knowledge stored in parameters can be elicited through prompting [21, 164, 183], and that instruction-tuning (also known as supervised fine-tuning or alignment) makes this elicitation more effective [159, 190, 235]. In the first part of this chapter (section 5.4), we conduct extensive experiments using Llama-2 [218] to answer the following question: *to what extent can we augment the knowledge stored in modern LLMs by continued pre-training on new documents, either with or without subsequent instruction-tuning?* We find that, as we train LLMs repeatedly over documents to the extent that perplexity is minimized to one, the percentage of questions regarding those documents that LLMs answer correctly increases consistently to 27.6%. Subsequent instruction-tuning further improves it to 30.3%, confirming that this widely used practice is useful to elicit more knowledge from LLMs.¹ However, the amount of elicited knowledge is still limited, even though the perplexity of documents is minimized, a phenomenon we refer to as the “perplexity curse”.²

In the second part of the chapter (section 5.5), we study methods to mitigate the perplexity curse by making LLMs more adept at absorbing knowledge from documents. Zhu and Li

¹This capacity might be underestimated by previous works due to using relatively small LMs or randomly initialized transformers, or lack of exhaustive training or instruction-tuning [78, 230, 264].

²Inspired by the “reversal curse” of Berglund et al. [14].

[264] presented an intriguing finding that training a randomly initialized transformer from scratch on a mix of biographies and related questions resulted in strong generalization to new questions. However, understanding the reasons behind this finding and exploring ways to practically apply it for absorbing knowledge from new documents requires further investigation. We found that question-answer (QA) pairs are generally straightforward and easily digestible, while documents tend to be more complex and cluttered, often weaving many factual statements together in a more intricate manner. Therefore, we hypothesize that *it is beneficial to deliberately expose LLMs to QA data before continued pre-training on documents so that the process of encoding knowledge from complex documents takes into account how this knowledge is accessed through questions*. We refer to this as **pre-instruction-tuning (PIT)** and conduct comprehensive experiments to benchmark different variations of this method. As shown in Figure 5.1, our best-performing variation starts with training exclusively on QA pairs (e.g., “who handled the editing of Oppenheimer”) to grasp how knowledge is accessed. This is followed by training on a combination of these QA pairs and associated documents (e.g., “who handled the editing of Oppenheimer” and a document about “Oppenheimer”). In this phase, LLMs enhance their ability to absorb knowledge from information-dense documents, building upon the QA pairs that they have already mastered. To study continual knowledge acquisition, we build a dataset named Wiki2023, which includes a collection of documents from Wikipedia that are relevant to the year 2023. Comprehensive experiments on Wiki2023 demonstrate that after PIT, LLMs exhibit an enhanced ability to absorb knowledge from new documents (e.g., a document about “Barbie”). Detailed ablation studies reveal that this ability primarily stems from prioritizing learning how to access knowledge over learning to encode knowledge from documents. Overall, PIT significantly outperforms the standard instruction-tuning approach (subsection 5.5.1 and subsection 5.5.2), improving QA accuracies by 17.8% on Llama-2 7B (30.3% → 48.1%) and 16.3% on Llama-2 70B (46.4% → 62.7%). Moreover, PIT also enhances the ability to absorb knowledge from documents of a *different* domain, shedding light on the potential to scale this method up to a wider variety of documents and instructions for more robust generalization (subsection 5.5.4).

5.2 Building a Dataset to Study Continual Knowledge Acquisition

To assess the ability of LLMs to learn knowledge from new documents, it is essential to use a document corpus with minimal overlap with the original pre-training corpus. This ensures that when an LLM correctly answers questions, we can confidently attribute this capability to its learning from the new documents, rather than encountering similar questions in its original pre-training corpus. In this section, we describe a methodology for building such a corpus from Wikipedia.

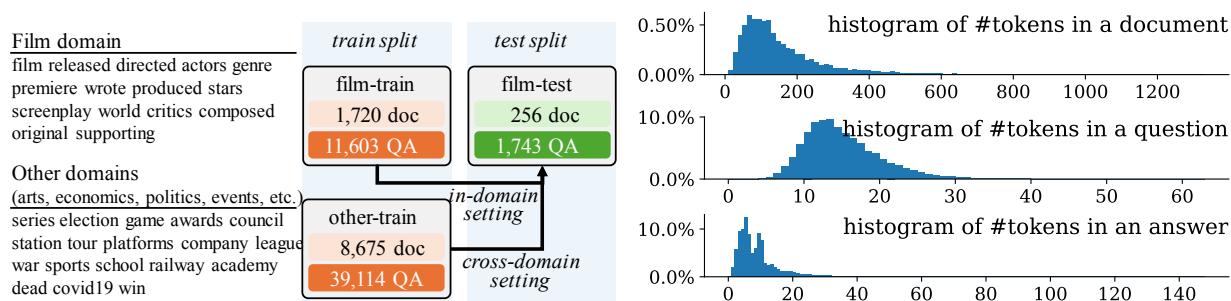


Figure 5.2: The Wiki2023 dataset. **Middle**: the number of documents and QA pairs; **Left**: frequent keywords in questions; **Right**: the distribution of token counts in documents, questions, and answers.

An example document about “Oppenheimer”

<bos> Oppenheimer (OP-ən-hy-mər) is a 2023 epic biographical thriller film written and directed by Christopher Nolan. It stars Cillian Murphy as J. Robert Oppenheimer, ... the film chronicles the career of Oppenheimer, with the story predominantly focusing on his studies, his direction of the Manhattan Project during World War II, and his eventual fall from grace due to his 1954 security hearing. ... **Editing was handled by Jennifer Lame**, and the score was composed by Ludwig Göransson. ... Oppenheimer premiered at Le Grand Rex in Paris on July 11, 2023, and was theatrically released ...

Example QA about “Oppenheimer”

<bos> Question: Who wrote and directed the film Oppenheimer?

Answer: Christopher Nolan. <eos>

<bos> Question: Who stars as J. Robert Oppenheimer in the film?

Answer: Cillian Murphy. <eos>

<bos> Question: What aspects of Oppenheimer's life does the film focus on?

Answer: His studies, direction of the Manhattan Project, and 1954 security hearing. <eos>

<bos> **Question: Who handled the editing of Oppenheimer?**

Answer: Jennifer Lame. <eos>

<bos> Question: When did Oppenheimer premiere in Paris?

Answer: July 11, 2023. <eos>

Figure 5.3: An example document about “Oppenheimer” and corresponding QA pairs from Wiki2023. Tokens used for computing losses are highlighted in green.

5.2.1 Wiki2023 Document Corpus

In the following experiments (section 5.4 and section 5.5), we use Llama-2 (7B and 70B) [218] since it is one of the best-performing LLMs. We use Wikipedia articles classified under the “2023” Category including topics from diverse domains such as films, arts, economics, politics, events, etc.³ The likelihood that this factual information is not included in the original training

³<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Category:2023>

corpus is supported by the low QA performance in Table 5.1 (9.5%/17.2% for 7B/70B).⁴ To accelerate the training process, we only use the first section of each article, which offers a thorough summary and contains many factual statements. The number of collected documents and an example document about “Oppenheimer” can be found in Figure 5.2 and Figure 5.3. We refer to this as the Wiki2023 dataset.

5.2.2 Wiki2023 Question-answer Pairs

To collect QA pairs for either instruction-tuning or performance evaluation, we employ publicly available LLMs to generate diverse questions and their respective answers given the article as context, following the Prompt 1. On average, 4.93 questions are generated for each article. Figure 5.2 and Figure 5.3 show the detailed statistics and example QA pairs about “Oppenheimer”, respectively.

Prompt 1: question-answer generation prompt

Given the following summary about the subject {topic}, generate a comprehensive list of questions and corresponding answers that cover all aspects. To make the question clear, always include {topic} in the question. Answers should be concise, consisting of a few short phrases separated by commas.

Output in the following format:

Q: an open-domain question about the subject {topic} (the subject {topic} should always be included)

A: phrase1, phrase2, ...

Summary:

{summary}

5.2.3 Splits

Among all domains, we select the film domain for evaluation and randomly select 256 articles as the test split (Wiki2023-film-test). We continually train LLMs on documents from the test split (Wiki2023-film-test-doc), and assess their performance based on the accuracy of corresponding questions (Wiki2023-film-test-QA). The remaining 1720 articles and corresponding QA pairs (Wiki2023-film-train) will be used to study different training strategies, which corresponds to the in-domain setting in Figure 5.2. We also train on other domains before evaluation on the film domain to study the effectiveness of different methods across domains, which corresponds to the cross-domain setting in Figure 5.2.

⁴It is important to note the difficulty in completely avoiding factual overlap between Wiki2023 and the pre-training corpus of Llama-2. For example, a film released in 2023 might have had information available before 2023. Data duplication detection is an active research direction, which falls beyond the focus of this study.

5.3 Experimental Settings

5.3.1 Objectives

When training on documents, we prepend a `<bos>` token and compute the standard next-token prediction loss by averaging over all tokens in the document: $L_d = -\sum_t \log P(d_t | d_{<t}) / |d|$.⁵ When training on QA pairs, we compute the average negative log-likelihood loss only on tokens in the answer given the question as the prefix: $L_a = -\sum_t \log P(a_t | q, a_{<t}) / |a|$. Figure 5.3 presents an example document alongside QA pairs, where tokens used for computing losses are highlighted.

5.3.2 Hyperparameters

We use AdamW [?] with $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.95$, and a weight decay of 0.1. We decay the learning rate to 10% of its initial value using a cosine scheduler without warm-up. When pre-training on documents, we use a batch size of 256 documents and an initial learning rate of 3e-5. During instruction-tuning on QA pairs, we use the same batch size of 256 QA pairs, but opt for a reduced initial learning rate of 5e-6 because the number of tokens in a single batch used for computing losses is lower. The number of epochs varies depending on the setting and is detailed in the corresponding sections.

5.3.3 Evaluation Metrics

At inference time, we use greedy decoding to generate answers given questions as context, following the format in Figure 5.3. To evaluate the original Llama-2, we add 5 QA pairs as in-context exemplars to make sure it follows the QA format. Since most questions are simple factoid questions and most answers are relatively short, we use exact match (EM) as our primary metric [115], which measures whether the model’s output matches the gold answer exactly after normalization (e.g., remove articles and punctuations). To assess longer responses and accommodate minor lexical differences, we also report answer recall, which assesses if the gold answer appears in the model’s output, and ROUGE-L, which measures the longest common subsequence between the model’s output and the gold answer.

⁵We do not append a `<eos>` token at the end of documents because we only use the first section, which does not signify the conclusion of the entire article.

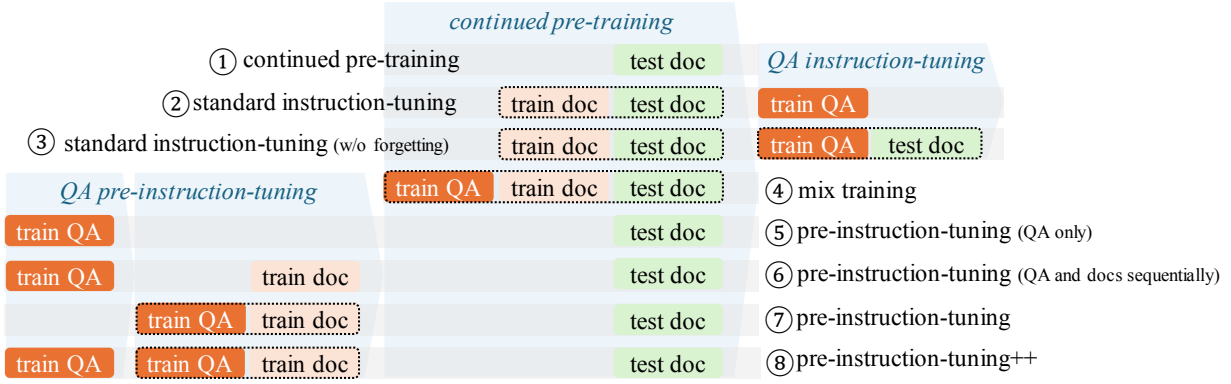


Figure 5.4: Different experimental settings examined in this chapter. Each row represents a different experimental setting with a unique name and number, and each vertical section highlighted by a right-pointing light-blue triangle indicates a training phase. Models are assessed on test QA across all settings. Whenever multiple datasets are enclosed within a dashed square, they are mixed together during the training process.

5.4 How Much Knowledge Can LLMs Absorb via Continued Pre-training Followed by Instruction-tuning?

Factual knowledge stored in the parameters of LLMs can be accessed and applied to answering questions through prompting without additional training [21, 91, 164, 183]. With additional instruction-tuning (also known as supervised fine-tuning) on high-quality data [190, 235], knowledge seems to be more effectively elicited from LLMs. However, when LLMs correctly answer a question, the source of the knowledge is unclear due to the diversity of the pre-training data. For instance, when answering the question “where is the world’s largest ice sheet located”, do LLMs derive their response by recalling and generalizing information from a seen document about the Antarctic ice sheet, or do they merely repeat answers from similar questions encountered in the training data? This distinction is crucial, as the former scenario implies an ability to comprehend documents and effectively store knowledge within parameters in a way that can be elicited later, whereas the latter is mere rote memorization.

Several works have studied this problem and the predominant finding is that LMs struggle to answer questions about documents they have been trained on [230, 264]. It is important to note, however, that these experiments were mainly conducted using relatively small LMs such as BART, T5, or GPT-2 [78, 87, 230], using randomly initialized transformers [264], or without instruction-tuning [160]. This makes us wonder *what are the actual limits of modern LLMs to absorb knowledge from new documents and answer questions about them using the standard continued pre-training followed by instruction-tuning recipe*. In this section, we run extensive experiments using Llama-2 7B and 70B on Wiki2023-film to test their limits.

5.4.1 Vanilla Continued Pre-training and Instruction-tuning

Experimental settings We experiment with two standard settings and assess their performance by answering associated questions.

- Continued pre-training: train on test documents without instruction-tuning (Figure 5.4 ①).⁶
- Standard instruction-tuning: train on both train and test documents before instruction-tuning on train QA pairs (Figure 5.4 ②).

We perform instruction-tuning for a single epoch since more epochs usually result in diminished performance. For training on documents, we opt for multiple epochs (10/5 for a 7B/70B model), which allows for effective knowledge acquisition and remains affordable for corpora of moderate sizes.

Experimental results As shown in Table 5.1, the relatively low performance of the original Llama-2 model (9.5%/17.2% for 7B/70B) indicates that most knowledge in the test documents is not included in the original pre-training corpus. After continued pre-training on documents, performances increase to 27.2%/41.7%, indicating that LLMs can absorb some amount of knowledge. Instruction-tuning further increases the performance to 30.3%/46.4%, confirming the effectiveness of this standard recipe. This observation is different from Zhu and Li [264], which demonstrates that instruction-tuning after pre-training is ineffective on a randomly initialized GPT-2-like transformer. The difference probably arises because Llama-2, through its pre-training on diverse corpora comprising raw documents and QA data, has developed a certain degree of proficiency in extracting knowledge from its parameters via questions. We also report the performance where the corresponding document is directly provided to Llama-2 as context (“open-book w/ doc” in Table 5.1). The significant gap between closed-book and open-book settings suggests that retrieving knowledge from the parameters of LLMs is still challenging.

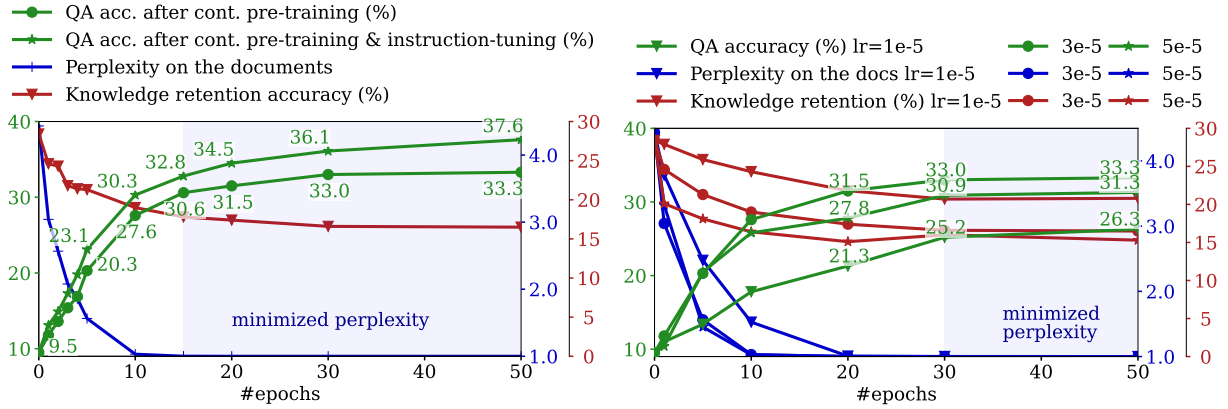
5.4.2 Analyzing the Training Dynamics: Perplexity and Generalization

How does lower perplexity of documents lead to generalization to answering related questions? We vary the number of epochs and learning rate (Figure 5.5) for continued pre-training on documents and monitor three metrics to study the training dynamics.⁷

- **Knowledge acquisition** QA accuracies on test questions measured by exact match.
- **Perplexity of documents** We compute perplexity (PPL) on all tokens within the documents.

⁶We found that LLMs struggle to adhere to the QA format after training on raw documents for multiple epochs. Therefore, we include a small set of QA pairs (64) during continued pre-training to prevent LLMs from forgetting the QA format.

⁷Since we always decay the learning rate to 10% of its initial value, training for more epochs is not the same as continuing training from a checkpoint obtained after fewer epochs.



(a) Training dynamics w/ (Figure 5.4 ②) and w/o (b) Training dynamics with different learning rates (Figure 5.4 ①). Reduction in perplexity consistently leads to improvement in QA accuracy, indicating that factual knowledge acquisition necessitates exhaustive loss minimization. Larger learning rates usually lead to less overfitting to deceptive patterns in documents and better generalization when responding to questions.

Figure 5.5: We vary the number of epochs (left) and learning rate (right) during continued pre-training to study the training dynamics of Llama-2 7B. The left axis is QA accuracies for test questions, measured by exact match. On the right axis, we display 2 metrics indicated by distinct colors: the perplexity of all tokens in the documents, and the knowledge retention accuracy, measured by QA accuracy on the Natural Questions dataset. We highlight situations where perplexity of all document tokens is minimized to 1.

- **Knowledge retention** We approximate the retention of accumulated knowledge during pre-training by assessing the QA accuracy on the Natural Questions (NQ) dataset. NQ was released in 2019, and primarily includes questions based on Wikipedia articles from that time.

Experiment results

- As shown in the left figure of Figure 5.5, QA accuracy consistently improves as perplexity approaches one, indicating that *factual knowledge learning necessitates exhaustive loss minimization over all tokens*. This contrasts with learning general skills, where overly optimizing leads to overfitting.
- As shown in Figure 5.5, among all cases where LLMs have minimized perplexity on documents, cases trained with more epochs or larger learning rates typically exhibit superior QA performance. We hypothesize that *more aggressive training leads to less overfitting to deceptive patterns in documents and better generalization when responding to questions*.

In summary, lower perplexity does lead to stronger generalization when responding to questions, but it comes at the expense of forgetting previously acquired knowledge.

Settings	Llama-2 7B			Llama-2 70B		
	EM	Rec.	R-L	EM	Rec.	R-L
<i>closed- and open-book performance before training</i>						
closed-book	9.5	10.0	21.2	17.2	18.1	31.4
open-book w/ doc	72.2	75.4	91.5	78.2	80.6	94.9
<i>closed-book performance w/ standard methods</i>						
cont. pre-training ①	27.6	31.6	43.8	41.7	45.8	60.2
+instruction-tuning ②	30.3	34.7	47.4	46.4	50.9	64.1
mix all data ④	39.4	44.6	56.7	57.1	63.4	72.4
<i>closed-book performance w/ pre-instruction-tuning (PIT)</i>						
PIT (QA only) ⑤	28.6	32.7	45.2	49.7	53.7	67.9
PIT (QA → docs) ⑥	32.5	37.2	49.0	54.6	60.0	73.8
PIT ⑦	45.4	51.2	63.2	62.7	68.6	78.8

Table 5.1: Comparison of QA performance (%) between standard instruction-tuning and pre-instruction-tuning. The best results are in bold. Rec. is short for answer recall, and R-L refers to ROUGE-L.

5.5 Improving LLMs in Absorbing Knowledge from Documents

The amount of knowledge elicited through the standard instruction-tuning is still limited, even though the perplexity of documents is minimized, a phenomenon we refer to as the “perplexity curse”. Our next question is how can we improve the ability of LLMs to absorb knowledge from documents to mitigate the perplexity curse. The main challenge is the gap between the way knowledge is presented in raw documents and how it is accessed through question-answering. We found that QA pairs are generally straightforward, while documents tend to be more complex and cluttered, weaving many factual statements together in a more intricate manner. Using Figure 5.3 as an example, the answer to the question “who handled the editing of Oppenheimer” is included in a sentence in the middle of the article “Editing was handled by Jennifer Lane ...”, which does not explicitly mention “Oppenheimer”. During training, LLMs must understand the context and deduce that “editing” refers to “the editing of Oppenheimer” to effectively encode this knowledge in the parameters.

Zhu and Li [264] studied this problem by training a randomly initialized GPT-2-like transformer from scratch on synthetic biographies and evaluated its ability to answer questions about the individuals. They found that training on a mix of biographies and questions related to half of those biographies led to strong generalization when answering questions about the remaining half of biographies, which resembles setting ④ in Figure 5.4. In contrast, training

Setting names	Setting configurations	EM	Rec.	R-L
<i>baselines</i>				
continued pre-training ①	test doc	27.6	31.6	43.8
+instruction-tuning ②	train doc + test doc → train QA	30.3	34.7	47.4
+instruction-tuning (w/o forget) ③	train doc + test doc → train QA + test doc	30.2	34.1	46.4
+instruction-tuning (w/o train doc)	test doc → train QA	27.1	30.7	42.3
weighted continued pre-training	test doc (weighted)	27.7	32.7	43.3
adapted continued pre-training	train doc → test doc	26.9	32.7	44.2
mix all data ④	train QA + train doc + test doc	39.4	44.6	56.7
<i>various pre-instruction-tuning (PIT) methods and ablation studies</i>				
	train QA + train doc (3 epochs) → test doc	45.4	51.2	63.2
<i>ablation studies of the number of epochs</i>				
PIT ⑦	1 epoch	33.3	39.1	50.3
	5 epochs	45.8	52.1	63.6
	10 epochs	46.5	52.3	61.9
	<i>ablation studies of different learning mechanisms</i>			
	QA before doc (grouped)	38.2	43.2	56.3
	QA after doc (grouped)	27.2	31.1	42.1
	QA before doc (interleaved)	45.9	51.3	64.5
	QA after doc (interleaved)	43.2	49.1	61.6
PIT--	train QA + train doc → train QA → test doc	44.4	51.3	63.4
PIT++ ⑧	train QA → train QA + train doc → test doc	48.1	54.4	66.4

Table 5.2: Comparison (%) of various pre-instruction-tuning methods and ablation studies to identify the key contributors to improved performance using Llama-2 7B. Different background colors indicate different pre-instruction-tuning methods. The best results are in bold.

on biographies and QA pairs sequentially failed. However, the key contributor to the success remains uncertain because the data were blended together, and it is unclear how to apply this practically to absorb knowledge from new documents. Inspired by our observation of the different difficulty levels between QA pairs and documents, and the finding from Zhu and Li [264], we hypothesize that *it is beneficial to deliberately expose LLMs to instruction-tuning data before continued pre-training so that the process of encoding knowledge from complex documents takes into account how this knowledge is accessed*. We refer to this as **pre-instruction-tuning (PIT)** and study various implementations of PIT prior to continued learning (subsection 5.5.1), followed by detailed ablations identifying the keys contributor to performance (subsection 5.5.2 and subsection 5.5.3), and finally assess how well PIT performs across domains (subsection 5.5.4). We adhere to the hyperparameters outlined in subsection 5.3.2 and perform PIT for 3 epochs unless specified otherwise.

5.5.1 Variants of Pre-instruction-tuning

Pre-instruction-tuning w/ QA only We start with exposing instruction-tuning data before continued pre-training on documents—training on topically related QA pairs before training on test documents (Figure 5.4 ⑤). This can be directly compared with the continued pre-training setting (Figure 5.4 ①). The intuition is that questions help LLMs recognize key types of information, enabling LLMs to focus on important information during pre-training on subsequent documents, even though the questions are not directly tied to the documents. For example, training on a question like “who handled the editing of Oppenheimer” could help LLMs pay attention to screenwriters when training on new documents like “Barbie”. As shown in Table 5.1, this method outperforms continued pre-training, especially on larger LLMs (27.6%/41.7% \rightarrow 28.6%/49.7% for 7B/70B). The ablation that trains on QA data after training on documents (“instruction-tuning w/o train doc” in Table 5.2) is ineffective, confirming the importance of training on questions as a warm-up before encoding documents.

Pre-instruction-tuning on QA and documents sequentially Our second implementation trains on QA and associated documents sequentially (Figure 5.4 ⑥), with the intuition that the ability to absorb knowledge from documents can be strengthened if an LLM is trained on the complex documents after it has grasped the associated simpler QA pairs. For instance, if an LLM has already learned that “Jennifer Lane” is the answer to “who handled the editing of Oppenheimer”, training on the document “Editing was handled by Jennifer Lane” can more efficiently refine its storage of knowledge in its parameters. As shown in Table 5.1, PIT on QA pairs and documents sequentially surpasses the QA-only variant (Figure 5.4 ⑤) and standard instruction-tuning (Figure 5.4 ②) (30.3%/46.4% \rightarrow 32.5%/54.6% for 7B/70B), demonstrating its effectiveness.

Pre-instruction-tuning The effectiveness of PIT depends on ensuring that the associated QA pairs are already learned before encoding the respective documents. However, we observed that after training on documents (train doc in Figure 5.4 ⑥), the accuracy for corresponding questions (train QA in Figure 5.4 ⑥) dropped from almost perfect to 30%, indicating severe forgetting. To fix this, we train on the associated QA pairs and documents together (Figure 5.4 ⑦). As shown in Table 5.1, this significantly improves the performance, outperforming all other approaches, including mixing all data together (Figure 5.4 ④), by a large margin (39.4%/57.1% \rightarrow 45.5%/62.7% for 7B/70B). Training on both QA pairs and documents prevents forgetting, but it also obscures how the learning process works. It is unclear whether LLMs grasp QA pairs before encoding knowledge from documents, or if it works the other way around. In the following section, we deliberately arrange the order of QA pairs and documents during training to examine this, which leads us to propose an improved version of PIT.

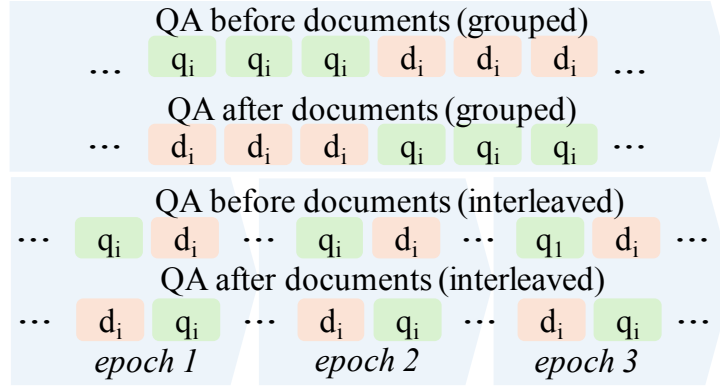


Figure 5.6: Different arrangements between QA pairs and corresponding documents. The ellipses represent other examples.

5.5.2 Pre-instruction-tuning++

We first study how the performance varies with different numbers of epochs. As shown in Table 5.2, training for 1 epoch is insufficient, and the performance of 3, 5, or 10 epochs is similar. We fix the number of epochs to 3 and arrange the order of QA pairs and corresponding documents as shown in Figure 5.6. The interleaved arrangement cycles through all the data 3 times, ensuring that in each epoch, questions either precede or follow their associated documents. On the other hand, the grouped arrangement clusters each example’s 3 appearances together, guaranteeing that the repeated questions are positioned either before or after their respective repeated documents. As shown in Table 5.2, positioning QA pairs before corresponding documents achieves better performance in both grouped and interleaved arrangements, indicating that during PIT, the learning mechanism prioritizes understanding how to access knowledge before learning to absorb information from the more complex and information-dense documents.

Based on this, we propose an improved variant called pre-instruction-tuning++, which trains exclusively on QA pairs to understand patterns of knowledge access, then progresses to training on a combination of QA and document data to align knowledge access through questions and knowledge encoding from documents (Figure 5.4 ⑧). As shown in Table 5.2, PIT++ significantly outperforms PIT (Figure 5.4 ⑦) from 45.4% to 48.1%, while training on QA data after on the mix (PIT-- in Table 5.2) does not yield additional benefits. This reinforces our hypothesis that understanding how knowledge is accessed aids in absorbing knowledge from documents, and therefore, should be prioritized.

5.5.3 Ablation Studies

Standard instruction-tuning is inferior not due to forgetting A drawback of standard instruction-tuning is that knowledge in test documents might be forgotten after training on

Settings	Llama-2 7B			Llama-2 70B		
	EM	Rec.	R-L	EM	Rec.	R-L
<i>standard instruction-tuning</i> ②						
in-domain	30.3	34.7	47.4	46.4	50.9	64.1
cross-domain	23.6	28.2	38.4	42.8	49.7	58.5
<i>pre-instruction-tuning</i> ⑦						
in-domain	45.4	51.2	63.2	62.7	68.6	78.8
cross-domain	36.9	43.2	54.9	55.2	66.7	74.0

Table 5.3: In-domain and cross-domain PIT.

Settings	EM	Rec.	R-L
<i>generalization to the biography dataset bios</i>			
closed-book	2.9	2.9	11.0
open-book w/ doc	95.2	95.4	95.6
continued pre-training ①	29.6	29.8	38.7
pre-instruction-tuning ⑦	58.1	58.4	61.9
<i>generalization to questions by real users from Google</i>			
standard instruction-tuning ②	21.5	30.1	36.8
pre-instruction-tuning ⑦	29.0	35.5	48.2

Table 5.4: Generalization of the Llama-2 7B model trained with pre-instruction-tuning.

QA pairs (a phenomenon also known as the “alignment tax” [159]). To show that the lower performance of standard instruction-tuning is not due to forgetting, we add a setting where we mix train QA with test documents during instruction-tuning to prevent forgetting (Figure 5.4 ③). As shown in Table 5.2, this does not help, confirming our hypothesis.

Pre-instruction-tuning is not simply upweighting salient tokens from documents We include an ablation inspired by Hu et al. [78] which upweights tokens when pre-training on documents to focus on salient information. We assign a weight of 1.0 to tokens in documents that are included in the answers (e.g., “Jennifer Lane” in the sentence “Editing was handled by Jennifer Lane”), and assign a lower weight of 0.5 to other tokens. As shown in Table 5.2, this weighted continued pre-training is ineffective, confirming our hypothesis.

5.5.4 Cross-domain Generalization

We validated the effectiveness of PIT by training and evaluation on data from the same domain (Wiki2023-film). *Can PIT make LLMs better at absorbing knowledge from documents of a different domain?* To this end, we follow the cross-domain setting outlined in Figure 5.2—training on other domains (Wiki2023-other-train) and testing on the film domain (Wiki2023-film-test). The results of standard instruction-tuning and PIT, in both in-domain and cross-domain settings, are detailed in Table 5.3. Even though it is not as effective as the in-domain counterparts, cross-domain PIT still significantly outperforms instruction-tuning, demonstrating that it can generalize across different domains. This finding sheds light on the potential to scale this method up to a broader range of documents and instructions for more robust generalization.

We also evaluate the effectiveness of PIT in two other scenarios: (1) when applied to non-Wikipedia documents, and (2) when addressing questions asked by real users. For the first scenario, we take the Llama-2 7B model trained with PIT on 2023Wiki-other and further train it on biographies synthesized in Zhu and Li [264] (bioS). Then, we evaluate based on questions about the individuals. For the second scenario, we manually search Google using questions generated by LLMs from Wiki2023-film-test, collect a total of 93 similar questions from real users by leveraging Google’s “People Also Ask” feature, and then evaluate Llama-2 7B on these questions. As shown in Table 5.4, PIT outperforms baselines in both scenarios, demonstrating its generalization ability.

5.6 Related Work

5.6.1 Continual Knowledge Acquisition

Several works have studied whether LMs can answer questions about information in documents they have been trained on. Hu et al. [78], Jang et al. [87], Wang et al. [230] use relatively small LMs such as BART [124], T5 [175], or GPT-2 [173]. Ovadia et al. [160] focus on the comparison between RAG and continued pre-training approaches without using instruction-tuning. Zhu and Li [264, 265] examine this problem from a similar angle as ours using a GPT-2-like transformer trained from scratch on synthetic biographies and fine-tuned on QA pairs related to the individuals. They examined a mixed training setting on both biographies and QA pairs, which is our major motivation to study different strategies to incorporate QA data before continued pre-training. Other works study adapting LLMs to new domains via various strategies [30, 68, 154, 239, 253, 257].

5.6.2 Instruction-tuning or Alignment

Instruction-tuning (also known as supervised fine-tuning) on high-quality annotated data [81, 113, 148, 190, 205, 206, 235, 260] and/or data generated by proprietary models [32, 80, 210, 234], or alignment with reinforcement learning from human feedback (RLHF) or direct preference optimization (DPO) [159, 174, 214, 218] has been a central topic recently because it elicits knowledge from LLMs and enhances various abilities to handle questions from users. We focus on factuality and study the best way to perform instruction-tuning to elicit factual knowledge from LLMs.

5.6.3 Analyzing the Training Dynamics of LMs

Many works study the training dynamics of LMs from different perspectives. Carlini et al. [24] quantifies memorization across model sizes and the frequency of data duplication. Tirumala et al. [215] finds that larger LMs memorize training data faster with less overfitting. Xia et al. [242] show that perplexity is more predictive of model behaviors than other factors. Dery et al. [45] studies end-task aware pre-training using classification tasks and RoBERTa models. Our work differs in that we specifically focus on the capacity of recalling and generalizing information from a seen document to answer questions.

5.6.4 Retrieval-augmented Generation

Retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) is a widely used approach to incorporate new knowledge into LLMs by augmenting fixed LLMs with retrieved information from external sources [5, 8, 17, 27, 67, 72, 85, 93, 94, 119, 125, 131, 151, 171, 187, 198, 229]. While RAG is effective in reducing hallucinations commonly experienced when relying solely on knowledge stored in parameters, its retrieval and generation process adds extra latency and complexity. In contrast, continued pre-training to store knowledge in parameters and utilizing the stored knowledge to answer questions in a closed-book manner are simpler and faster at inference time. Enhancing this capability is also scientifically significant, as it represents a fundamental step in employing LLMs as dependable assistants for accessing information. Therefore, this chapter focuses on exploring parametric approaches.

5.7 Conclusion

We study the best way of continued training on new documents with the goal of later eliciting factual knowledge. We propose pre-instruction-tuning that learns how knowledge is accessed via QA pairs prior to encoding knowledge from documents. Extensive experiments demonstrate the superiority of pre-instruction-tuning versus standard instruction-tuning. Future directions

April 19, 2024

DRAFT

include scaling this method up to a broader range of documents and instructions for more robust generalization.

Part II

Non-parametric Retrieval-augmented Generation

Chapter 6

Retrieval as Attention: Extending the Context of LMs to the Entire Corpus

Systems for knowledge-intensive tasks such as open-domain question answering (QA) usually consist of two stages: efficient retrieval of relevant documents from a large corpus and detailed reading of the selected documents to generate answers. Retrievers and readers are usually modeled separately, which necessitates a cumbersome implementation and is hard to train and adapt in an end-to-end fashion. In this chapter, we revisit this design and eschew the separate architecture and training in favor of a single Transformer that performs **Retrieval as Attention (ReAtt)**, and end-to-end training solely based on supervision from the end QA task. We demonstrate for the first time that a single model trained end-to-end can achieve both competitive retrieval and QA performance, matching or slightly outperforming state-of-the-art separately trained retrievers and readers. Moreover, end-to-end adaptation significantly boosts its performance on out-of-domain datasets in both supervised and unsupervised settings, making our model a simple and adaptable solution for knowledge-intensive tasks. This work is presented in:

- Zhengbao Jiang, Luyu Gao, Zhiruo Wang, Jun Araki, Haibo Ding, Jamie Callan, Graham Neubig. Retrieval as Attention: End-to-end Learning of Retrieval and Reading within a Single Transformer. EMNLP 2022: 2336-2349.

Code and models are available at:

- <https://github.com/jzbjyb/ReAtt>

6.1 Introduction

Knowledge-intensive tasks such as question answering (QA), fact checking, and dialogue generation require models to gather relevant information from potentially enormous knowledge corpora (e.g., Wikipedia) and generate answers based on gathered evidence. A widely used solution is to first *retrieve* a small number of relevant documents from the corpus with a *bi-encoder*

architecture which encodes queries and documents independently for efficiency purposes, then *read* the retrieved documents in a more careful and expansive way with a *cross-encoder* architecture which encodes queries and documents jointly [67, 85, 121, 125]. The distinction between retrieval and reading leads to the widely adopted paradigm of treating retrievers and readers separately. Retrievers and readers are usually two separate models with heterogeneous architectures and different training recipes, which is cumbersome to train. Even though two models can be combined in an ad-hoc way for downstream tasks, it hinders effective end-to-end learning and adaptation to new domains.

There have been several attempts to connect up reader and retriever training [67, 85, 119, 121, 125, 187]. However, retrievers in these works are not learned in a fully end-to-end way. They require either initialization from existing supervisedly trained dense retrievers [125], or expensive unsupervised retrieval pretraining as warm-up [67, 85, 119, 121, 187]. The reliance on retrieval-specific warm-up and the ad-hoc combination of retrievers and readers makes them less of a unified solution and potentially hinders their domain adaptation ability. With the ultimate goal of facilitating downstream tasks, retriever and reader should instead be fused more organically and learned in a fully end-to-end way.

In this chapter, we focus on one of the most important knowledge-intensive tasks, open-domain QA. We ask the following question: is it possible to perform both retrieval and reading *within a single Transformer model*, and train the model in a *fully end-to-end* fashion to achieve competitive performance from both perspectives? Such a single-model end-to-end solution eliminates the need for retrieval-specific annotation and warm-up and simplifies retrieval-augmented training, making adaptation to new domains easier. Based on the analogy between self-attention which relates different tokens in a single sequence [223] and the goal of retrieval which is to relate queries with relevant documents, we hypothesize that self-attention could be a natural fit for retrieval, and it allows an organic fusion of retriever and reader within a single Transformer.

Specifically, we start from an encode-decoder T5 [175] and use it as both retriever and reader. We use the first B encoder layers as bi-encoder to encode queries and documents independently, and the attention score at layer $B + 1$ (denoted as *retrieval attention*) to compute relevance scores, as shown in Figure 6.1. We found that directly using self-attention for retrieval underperforms strong retrievers, which we conjecture is because self-attention pretrained on local context is not sufficient to identify relevant information in the large representation space of the whole corpus. To solve this, we propose to compute retrieval attention between a query and a large number of documents and *adjust the retrieval attention across documents*. For each query, we compute retrieval attention over both close documents that potentially contain positive and hard negative documents, and documents of other queries in the same batch as random negatives. The retrieval attention is adjusted by minimizing its discrepancy from the cross-attention between the decoder and encoder (denoted as *target attention*), which is indicative of the usefulness of each document in generating answers [83]. The resulting **Retrieval as Attention** model (**ReAtt**) is a single T5 trained based on only QA annotations and simultaneously learns

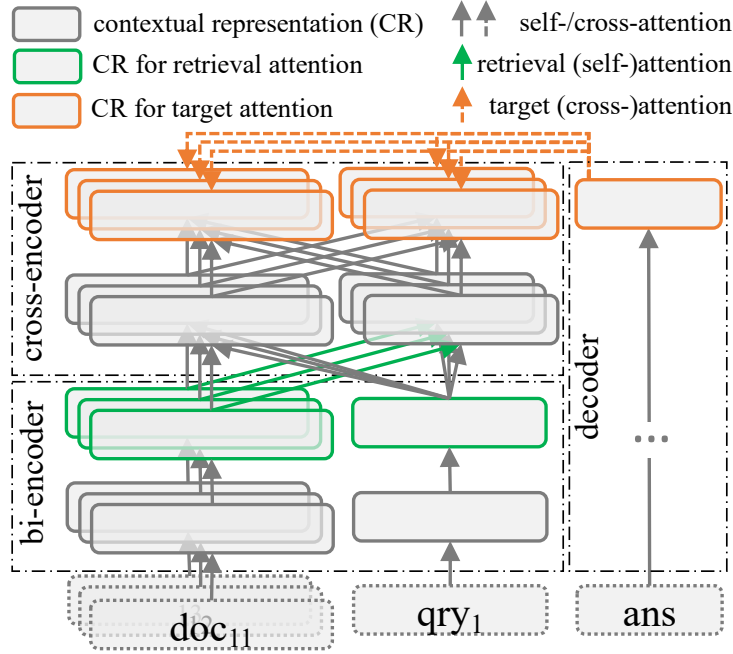


Figure 6.1: Illustration of Retrieval as Attention (ReAtt) with the first $B=2$ encoder layers as bi-encoder (i.e., retriever) and the rest $L-B=2$ layers as cross-encoder. During training, the **retrieval attention** between a query q_1 and documents $d_{11,12,13}$ is adjusted by minimizing its discrepancy from the **target attention**. For simplicity, we use a single arrow to represent attention of a single head between multiple tokens.

to promote useful documents through cross-document adjustment.

We train ReAtt on Natural Questions dataset (NQ) [115] in a fully end-to-end manner. It achieves both competitive retrieval and QA performance, matching or slightly outperforming state-of-the-art retriever ColBERT-NQ [104] trained with explicit retrieval annotations and strong QA model FiD [82, 83], demonstrating for the first time end-to-end training can produce competitive retriever and reader within a single model. To further test ReAtt’s generalization and end-to-end adaptation ability, we conduct zero-shot, supervised, and unsupervised adaptation experiments on 7 datasets from the BEIR benchmark [213]. In all settings, end-to-end adaptation improves the retrieval performance usually by a large margin, achieving comparable or superior performance to strong retrieval adaptation and pretraining methods.

6.2 Retrieval as Attention (ReAtt)

With the goal of developing a single Transformer that can perform both retrieval and reading, and the analogy between retrieval and self-attention, we first introduce architecture changes to allow retrieval as attention (subsection 6.2.2), then examine how well attention as-is can be directly used to perform retrieval (subsection 6.2.3).

6.2.1 Formal Definition

We first briefly define the task of retrieval and question answering. As mentioned in the introduction, queries and documents need to be represented independently for efficient retrieval which implies a bi-encoder architecture that has no interaction between queries and documents. Without loss of generality, we use $E_d = \text{biencoder}(\mathbf{d})$ to denote one or multiple representations generated by a bi-encoder based on a document from a corpus \mathcal{D} , and likewise $E_q = \text{biencoder}(\mathbf{q})$ to denote query representations.¹ The top-k documents most relevant to a query are retrieved by $\mathcal{D}_q^{\text{ret}} = \arg \text{topk}_{\mathbf{d} \in \mathcal{D}} r(E_q, E_d)$, where function r computes relevance based on query and document representations which can be as simple as a dot product if queries and documents are encoded into a single vector, and $\mathcal{D}_q^{\text{ret}}$ stands for the returned documents. We consider encoder-decoder-based generative question answering in this chapter, which jointly represents queries and retrieved documents with the encoder $E_{q,d} = \text{crossencoder}(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{d})$, and generates the answer \mathbf{a} autoregressively with the decoder $P^{\text{gen}}(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{d}) = P^{\text{gen}}(\mathbf{a}|E_{q,d})$. To handle multiple retrieved documents, we follow the fusion-in-decoder model (FiD) [82] which encodes each query-document pair independently and fuse these representations in decoder through cross-attention $P^{\text{gen}}(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{q}, \mathcal{D}_q^{\text{ret}}) = P^{\text{gen}}(\mathbf{a}|E_{q,d_1}, \dots, E_{q,d_{|\mathcal{D}_q^{\text{ret}}|}})$. Negative log likelihood (NLL) is used in optimization $\mathcal{L}_{\text{QA}} = -\log P^{\text{gen}}(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{q}, \mathcal{D}_q^{\text{ret}})$.

6.2.2 Leveraging Attention for Retrieval

Next, we introduce our method that directly uses self-attention between queries and documents as retrieval scores.

Putting the Retriever into Transformers As illustrated in Figure 6.1, we choose T5 [175] as our base model, use the first B layers of the encoder as the *bi-encoder* “retriever” by disabling self-attention between queries and documents, and the remaining $L - B$ layers as the *cross-encoder* “reader”. We use the self-attention paid from query tokens to document tokens at the $B + 1$ -th layer as the retrieval score, which is denoted as *retrieval attention* (green arrows in Figure 6.1). It is computed based on the independent query and document contextual representations from the last (B -th) layer of the bi-encoder (green blocks in Figure 6.1). Formally for an H -head Transformer, document and query representations are:

$$\begin{aligned} E_d &= \{K_d^{B+1,h} \in \mathbb{R}^{|d| \times e}\}_{h=1}^H, \\ E_q &= \{Q_q^{B+1,h} \in \mathbb{R}^{|q| \times e}\}_{h=1}^H, \end{aligned}$$

where K and Q are key and query vectors of the token sequence used in self-attention, $|d|$ and $|q|$ are document and query length, and e is the dimensionality of each head. The retrieval attention matrix from query tokens to document before softmax for one head is computed by:

$$A_{q,d}^{B+1,h} = Q_q^{B+1,h} \times K_d^{B+1,hT} \in \mathbb{R}^{|q| \times |d|}.$$

¹Queries and documents can use different bi-encoders but we use one notation for simplicity.

Directly using attention for retrieval can not only leverage its ability to identify relatedness, it is also a natural and simple way to achieve both retrieval and reading in a single Transformer with minimal architectural changes, which facilitates our final goal of end-to-end learning.

From Token Attention to Document Relevance Given the token-level attention scores $A_{q,d}^{B+1,h}$, the relevance between q and d is computed by avg-max aggregation: choosing the most relevant document token for each query token (i.e., max) then averaging across query tokens:

$$r_h(q, d) = \text{avg}_0(\max_1(A_{q,d}^{B+1,h})), \quad (6.1)$$

where 1 and 0 refer to the dimension over which the operation is applied. This is similar to the MaxSim and sum operators used in ColBERT [103], with the intuition that a relevant document should match as many query tokens as possible with the best-matching token. The final relevance is a weighted sum over all heads:

$$r(q, d) = \sum_{h=1}^H P_h^{\text{head}} \cdot r_h(q, d),$$

where P_h is a learnable weight that sums to one. As explained in the next section, we empirically find only a few attention heads with non-random retrieval performance, and among them one particular head is significantly better than the others. Given this observation, we introduce a low temperature τ to promote this sparsity $P_h^{\text{head}} = \frac{\exp(w_h/\tau)}{\sum_{h'} \exp(w_{h'}/\tau)}$, which always ends with a *single head* with the great majority of the weight, which is denoted as *retrieval head* h^* . As a result, the learned head weights are practically a head selector, a fact that can also be exploited to make test-time retrieval more efficient.

End-to-end Retrieval with Attention To perform retrieval over a corpus, we first generate key vectors K_d^{B+1,h^*} of retrieval head for all document tokens offline and index them with FAISS library [95]. For each query token, we issue its vector (Q_q^{B+1,h^*}) to the index to retrieve top- K' document tokens, which yields a filtered set of documents, each of which has at least one token retrieved by a query token. We then fetch all tokens of filtered documents, compute relevance scores following Equation 6.1, and return top- K documents with the highest scores $r_{h^*}(q, d)$. This is similar to the two-stage retrieval in ColBERT [103], and we reuse their successful practice in index compression and search approximation to make test-time retrieval efficient, which we refer to Santhanam et al. [191] for details.

6.2.3 How Good is Attention As-is?

To examine this question, we use T5-large and test queries from the Natural Question dataset (NQ), retrieve 100 documents with BM25, compute relevance scores $r_h(q, d)$ with half layers ($B = 12$) as bi-encoder, and measure its correlation with the gold binary annotation. We found

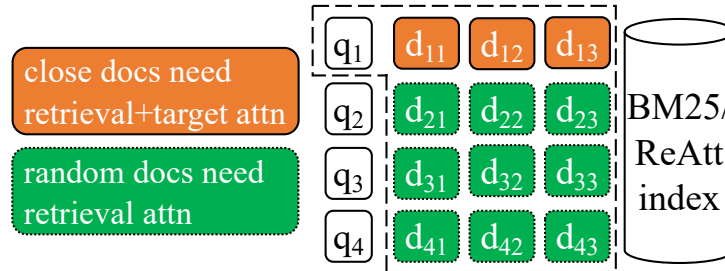


Figure 6.2: Illustration of approximate attention over the corpus with $|Q|=4$ queries in a batch and $K=3$ close documents per query. We use q_1 as an example to illustrate the required computation, where **close documents** require both retrieval and target attention while **random documents** only require retrieval attention.

that among $H = 24$ heads, 4 heads have non-trivial correlations of 0.137, 0.097, 0.082, and 0.059. We further perform end-to-end retrieval over Wikipedia using the best head, achieving top-10 retrieval accuracy of 43.5%, inferior to 55.5% of BM25. This demonstrates that there are indeed heads that can relate queries with relevant documents, but they are not competitive. We hypothesize that because self-attention is usually trained by comparing and relating tokens in a local context (512/1024 tokens) it cannot effectively identify relevant tokens in the enormous representation space of a corpus with millions of documents. This discrepancy motivates us to compute retrieval attention between queries and potentially all documents (i.e., attention over the corpus), and *adjust attention across documents to promote useful ones*.

6.3 Learning Retrieval as Attention

We first approximate attention over the corpus at training time by sub-sampling a manageable number of documents for each query containing both potentially relevant and random documents (subsection 6.3.1). Next, we introduce our end-to-end training objective that optimizes a standard QA loss while also adding supervision to promote attention over documents that are useful for the end task (subsection 6.3.2).

6.3.1 Approximate Attention over the Corpus

Encoding the entire corpus and computing attention between the query and all documents is very expensive. To make it practical, we propose to sub-sample a small set of documents for each query to approximate the whole corpus. Inspired by negative sampling methods used in dense retriever training [99, 103, 243], we sub-sample both (1) documents close to queries that can be either relevant or hard negatives, and (2) random documents that are most likely to be easy negatives. This allows the model to distinguish between relevant and hard negative documents, while simultaneously preventing it from losing its ability to distinguish easy negatives,

which form the majority of the corpus.

Iterative Close Document Sub-sampling To sample documents close to a query $\mathcal{D}_q^{\text{close}}$, we start from widely used lexical retriever BM25 [184] to retrieve $K = 100$ documents, as shown by the orange blocks in Figure 6.2. We set K to a relatively large number to better approximate the local region, inspired by Izacard and Grave [82]’s findings that QA performance increases as more documents are used.

This fixed set of close documents can become outdated and no longer close to the query anymore as the retrieval attention gets better. To provide dynamic close sub-samples, we re-index the corpus and retrieve a new set of K documents using the current retrieval attention after each iteration. It is similar in spirit to the hard negative mining methods used in Karpukhin et al. [99], Khattab et al. [104], with a major difference that we do not manually or heuristically annotate documents but instead learn from the end loss with cross-document adjustment, which will be explained in subsection 6.3.2.

In-batch Random Document Sub-sampling We use close documents of other queries in the same batch as the random documents of the current query $\mathcal{D}_q^{\text{random}} = \cup_{q' \in \mathcal{Q} \wedge q' \neq q} \mathcal{D}_{q'}^{\text{close}}$ where \mathcal{Q} contains all queries in a batch, as shown by the green blocks in Figure 6.2, which has the advantage of reusing document representations across queries. This is similar to the in-batch negatives used in DPR [99] with a major difference that we reuse a token representations ($K_d^{B+1,h}, 1 \leq h \leq H$) across queries instead of a single-vector document representation.

6.3.2 Cross-document Adjustment with Decoder-to-Encoder Attention Distillation

Given the sub-sampled $|\mathcal{Q}| \times K$ documents $\mathcal{D}_q = \mathcal{D}_q^{\text{close}} \cup \mathcal{D}_q^{\text{random}}$ for each query q , we compute the retrieval attention-based relevance scores $r(q, d)$ and adjust them across multiple documents $d \in \mathcal{D}_q$ only relying on end task supervision. Since retrieval is simply a means to achieve the downstream task, documents useful for downstream tasks should be promoted by retrieval. Inspired by reader-to-retriever distillation [83, 245], we measure document usefulness based on cross-attention between decoder and encoder, and minimize retrieval attention’s discrepancy from it through distillation. In contrast to Izacard and Grave [83] that learns two models iteratively and alternatively, we optimize QA and distillation loss in a single model simultaneously.

Minimizing KL-divergence Between Retrieval and Target Attention Specifically, we denote cross-attention before softmax of the first position/token of the last decoder layer as *target attention* $C_{a,q,\mathcal{D}_q} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times |\mathcal{D}_q| \times (|d|+|q|)}$ where a is the answer, $|\mathcal{D}_q|$ is the number of sub-sampled documents to be fused by the decoder (subsection 6.2.1), and $|d|$ is document length.²

²We also attempted other variations of target attention and found performances are similar, consistent with observations in Izacard and Grave [83].

To aggregate token-level target attention into document-level distribution $P^{\text{tgt}}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{q}, \mathcal{D}_q) \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{D}_q|}$, we first perform softmax over all tokens in all query-document pairs ($|\mathcal{D}_q| \times (|\mathbf{d}| + |\mathbf{q}|)$), sum over tokens of each query-document pair ($|\mathbf{d}| + |\mathbf{q}|$), then average across multiple heads (H):

$$P^{\text{tgt}}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{q}, \mathcal{D}_q) = \text{avg}_0 \left(\text{sum}_2 \left(\text{softmax}_{1,2}(C_{\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{q}, \mathcal{D}_q}) \right) \right).$$

Given relevance scores obtained from retrieval attention, the final cross-document adjustment loss is the KL-divergence between relevance distribution P^{ret} and target distribution P^{tgt} :

$$\begin{aligned} P^{\text{ret}}(\mathbf{q}, \mathcal{D}_q) &= \text{softmax}(r(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{d}_1), \dots, r(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{d}_{|\mathcal{D}_q|})). \\ \mathcal{L}_{\text{cross-doc}} &= \text{KL} \left(\overline{P^{\text{tgt}}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{q}, \mathcal{D}_q)} \parallel P^{\text{ret}}(\mathbf{q}, \mathcal{D}_q) \right), \end{aligned} \quad (6.2)$$

where the overline indicates stop gradient back propagation to target distributions. Our final loss combines QA loss and cross-document adjustment loss with α as combination weight.

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{QA}} + \alpha \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{cross-doc}}. \quad (6.3)$$

Zero Target Attention for Random Documents For a batch with $|\mathcal{Q}|$ queries, we need to compute retrieval attention and target attention between $|\mathcal{Q}| \times |\mathcal{Q}| \times K$ query-document pairs. This is both computation- and memory-intensive when batch size is large, especially for target attention because it requires $L - B$ layers of joint encoding of query-document pairs in the cross-encoder. To alleviate this, we make a simple and effective assumption that in-batch random documents are not relevant to the current query thus having zero target attention: $P^{\text{tgt}}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{q}, \mathcal{D}_q^{\text{random}}) \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{D}_q^{\text{random}}|} \leftarrow 0$. As a result, we only need to run cross-encoder and decoder for K close documents of each query, as shown in [Figure 6.2](#).

6.3.3 Domain Adaptation Methods

One of the major benefits of a single end-to-end trainable model is that given a new corpus from a new domain, possibly without retrieval annotations, we can easily adapt it by end-to-end training. This section describes how we adapt ReAtt under different setups.

We consider adapting ReAtt with (1) QA supervision, (2) information retrieval (IR) supervision, or (3) unsupervised adaptation where we only have access to the document corpus. Although our goal is to learn retrieval through downstream tasks instead of retrieval supervision, being able to consume retrieval annotations is helpful when retrieval supervision is indeed available. To do so, we convert retrieval task with annotations in the form of query-document-relevance triples $\langle \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{d}, l \rangle$ into a generative task: given a query, the target is to generate *its relevant document and the corresponding relevance* with the following format “relevance: l . \mathbf{d} ”. If a query has multiple relevant documents, we follow Izacard and Grave [82] to randomly sample one of them. For unsupervised adaptation, with simplicity as our primary goal, we randomly choose one sentence from a document and mask one entity, which is considered as the “query”,

and have our model generate the masked entity as the “answer”, similar to salient span masking (SSM) used in Guu et al. [67].

6.4 In-domain Experiments

In this section, we examine if supervisedly training ReAtt end-to-end with *only* QA supervision yields both competitive retrieval and QA performance.

Datasets, Baselines, and Metrics We train our model using the Natural Questions dataset (NQ). We compare retrieval performance with lexical models BM25 [184], passage-level dense retrievers DPR, ANCE, coCondenser, FiD-KD, YONO (with and without retrieval pretraining) [55, 83, 99, 119, 156, 243], and token/phrase-level dense retrievers DensePhrase, ColBERT, ColBERT-NQ [103, 104, 120].³ Among them ColBERT-NQ, FiD-KD and YONO are the most fair-to-compare baselines because of either similar token-level retrieval granularity (ColBERT-NQ) or similar end-to-end training settings (FiD-KD and YONO). We report top-k retrieval accuracy (R@k), the fraction of queries with at least one retrieved document containing answers. We compare QA performance with ORQA, REALM, RAG, FiD, EMDR², YONO, UnitedQA, and R2-D2 [31, 51, 67, 82, 83, 119, 121, 125, 187] using exact match (EM), among which FiD, EMDR², and YONO are the most fair-to-compare baselines because they have similar model sizes and training settings.

6.5 Implementation Details of ReAtt

ReAtt is based on T5-large with $B = 12$ encoder layers as bi-encoder and temperatures $\tau = 0.001$ to select the best retrieval head. We retrieve $K = 100$ close documents for each query, and use a batch size of $|Q| = 64$ queries to obtain in-batch random documents. We use $\alpha = 8$ to combine cross-document adjustment loss with QA loss. We use AdamW with a learning rate of $5e-5$, 10% steps of warmup, and linear decay. We first warmup cross-attention’s ability to distinguish documents by only using the QA loss for 3K steps, then train with the combined losses (Equation 6.3) for 4 iterations, where the first iteration uses close documents returned by BM25, and the following 3 iterations use close documents returned by the previous ReAtt model (denoted as ReAtt_{BM25}). Each iteration has 8K update steps and takes ~ 1.5 days on a single node with $8 \times$ A100 GPUs with 80GB memory. Since DPR [99] achieves stronger performance than BM25, training with close documents returned by DPR can potentially reduce training time. We experimented with training on close documents from DPR for a single iteration with 16K steps (denoted as ReAtt_{DPR}). Since both approaches achieve similar performance (Table 6.1 and Table 6.2) and ReAtt_{DPR} is cheaper to train, we use it in other experimental settings.

³ColBERT is trained on MS MARCO, ColBERT-NQ is on NQ.

Models	R@1	R@5	R@20	R@100	#Params.
<i>supervised retrievers</i>					
BM25	23.9	45.9	63.8	78.9	-
DPR	45.9	68.1	80.0	85.9	220M
DPR ^{new}	52.5	72.2	81.3	87.3	220M
DPR-PAQ	-	74.2	84.0	89.2	220M
ANCE	-	-	81.9	87.5	220M
coCondenser	-	75.8	84.3	89.0	220M
DensePhrase	51.1	69.9	78.7	-	330M
ColBERT	-	-	79.1	-	110M
ColBERT-NQ	54.3	75.7	85.6	90.0	110M
<i>semi/unsupervised retrievers</i>					
FiD-KD	49.4	73.8	84.3	89.3	220M
YONO _{w/o PT}	-	-	72.3	82.2	165M
YONO _{w/ PT}	-	75.3	85.2	90.2	165M
ReAtt _{DPR}	54.6	77.2	86.1	90.7	165M
ReAtt _{BM25}	55.8	77.4	86.0	90.4	165M

Table 6.1: Retrieval performance on NQ. PT is retrieval pretraining. Fair-to-compare baselines are highlighted with background color. Best performance is in bold.

At test-time, we save key vectors of all tokens in the corpus and use exact index from FAISS (i.e., `faiss.IndexFlatIP`) to perform inner-product search. We retrieve $K' = 2048$ document tokens for each query token and return top-100 documents with the highest aggregated scores (Equation 6.1) to generate answers. We found compressing index with clustering and quantization proposed by Santhanam et al. [191] can greatly reduce search latency and index size with a minor retrieval accuracy loss.

6.5.1 Overall Results

We compare ReAtt with various retrievers and readers in Table 6.1 and Table 6.2. ReAtt achieves both slightly better retrieval performance than the strongest retriever baseline ColBERT-NQ [104] and comparable QA performance than the strong reader baseline FiD-KD [83] on NQ, demonstrating for the first time that fully end-to-end training using QA supervision can produce both competitive retrieval and QA performance. Compared to another single-model architecture YONO [119], ReAtt offers better performance without cumbersome pretraining to warm-up retrieval.

Models	EM	#Params.
ORQA [121]	33.3	330M
REALM [67]	40.4	330M
RAG [125]	44.5	220M
FiD [82]	51.4	990M
FiD-KD [83]	54.4	990M
EMDR ² [187]	52.5	440M
YONO _{w/o} PT [119]	42.4	440M
YONO _{w/} PT [119]	53.2	440M
UnitedQA [31]	54.7	1.870B
R2-D2 [51]	55.9	1.290B
ReAtt _{DPR}	54.0	770M
ReAtt _{BM25}	54.7	770M

Table 6.2: QA performance on NQ. PT is retrieval pretraining. Fair-to-compare baselines are highlighted. Best performance is in bold.

6.6 Out-of-domain Generalization and Adaptation

In this section, we examine both zero-shot retrieval performance on out-of-domain datasets and ReAtt’s end-to-end adaptability in supervised (QA, IR) and unsupervised settings.

6.6.1 Datasets, Baselines, and Metrics

We choose 7 datasets from BEIR [213], a benchmark covering diverse domains and tasks. On each dataset we compare ReAtt with different types of retrievers including BM25, DPR, and ColBERT. We consider 2 QA datasets (BioASQ and FiQA [136, 222]) and one IR dataset (MS MARCO [153]) to evaluate supervised adaptation capability, and 4 other datasets (CQADup-Stack, TREC-COVID, SCIDOCS, SciFact [37, 76, 224, 226]) to evaluate unsupervised adaptation capability. We report nDCG@10 to measure retrieval performance and EM to measure QA performance. We group all baselines into three categories and denote them with different colors in the following tables:

- **Supervised adaptation models** are trained with downstream task supervision, including RAG trained on BioASQ, Contriever fine-tuned on FiQA, and docT5query, ANCE, ColBERT, and Contriever fine-tuned on MS MARCO [84, 103, 155, 243].
- **Unsupervised adaptation models** are trained on domain corpus in an unsupervised way such as contrastive learning or pseudo query generation, including SimCSE and TSDAE+GPL [57, 231, 232].
- **Pretraining models** are trained on corpora without direct exposure to the target domain,

Tasks Datasets	QA		Retrieval	
	BioASQ	FiQA	MS MARCO	
<i>zero-shot performance</i>				
BM25	68.1	23.6		22.8
DPR	14.1	11.2		17.7
ColBERT-NQ	65.5	23.8		32.8
ReAtt	71.1	30.1		32.3
<i>additional training</i>				
Contriever	-	32.9	docT5query	33.8
SimCSE	58.1	31.4	ANCE	38.8
TSDAE+GPL	61.6	34.4	ColBERT	40.1
Contriever _{w/ FT}	-	38.1	Contriever	40.7
ReAtt	+5.8 76.9	+8.5 38.6	ReAtt	+7.6 39.9

Table 6.3: nDCG@10 of zero-shot and supervised adaptation experiments on two QA and one IR datasets. We use colors to denote categories: **pretraining**, **unsupervised adaptation**, and **supervised adaptation**. Baselines comparable to ReAtt are highlighted with blue background color. We also show the improvement of ReAtt over zero-shot performance in subscript.

such as Contriever [84] trained with contrastive learning on Wikipedia and CCNet. We highlight baselines in the same category as ReAtt in the following tables since comparison between them is relatively fair.

6.6.2 Experimental Results

Results of supervised and unsupervised adaptation are listed in Table 6.3 and Table 6.4 respectively.

Zero-shot Generalization Ability As shown in Table 6.3 and Table 6.4, the zero-shot performance of ReAtt is significantly better than other zero-shot baselines on two QA datasets and one fact checking dataset (+3.0/+6.5/+4.5 on BioASQ/FiQA/SciFact than the second best), and overall comparable on the rest of datasets (-0.5/-0.6/-3.0/-1.0 on MS MARCO/CQA./TRECC./SCIDOCS than the best which is usually BM25), demonstrating that our end-to-end training with QA loss on NQ produces a robust retriever. We conjecture that the superior performance on QA datasets can be attributed to our end-to-end training using QA loss which learns retrieval that better aligns with the end task than training with retrieval annotations.

Retrieval Adaptation with QA Supervision As shown in the left-hand side of Table 6.3, end-to-end adaptation with QA supervision significantly improves ReAtt’s retrieval perfor-

Methods	CQA.	TRECC.	SCIDOCs	SciFact
<i>zero-shot performance</i>				
BM25	29.9	65.6	15.8	66.5
DPR	15.3	33.2	7.7	31.8
ANCE	29.6	65.4	12.2	50.7
ColBERT-NQ	33.9	48.9	15.6	65.3
ReAtt	33.3	62.6	14.8	71.0
<i>additional training</i>				
Contriever	34.5	59.6	16.5	67.7
SimCSE	29.0	68.3	-	55.0
TSDAE+GPL	35.1	74.6	-	68.9
ReAtt	+3.3 36.6	+13.4 76.0	+1.0 15.8	+0.2 71.2

Table 6.4: nDCG@10 of zero-shot and unsupervised adaptation on four datasets. Format is similar to Table 6.3

mance by 5.8/8.5 on BioASQ/FiQA, achieving similar performance as Contriever fine-tuned on FiQA, and better performance than other unsupervised methods, confirming the end-to-end adaptability of our methods.

Leveraging Retrieval Annotations As shown on the right-hand side of Table 6.3, ReAtt is able to consume retrieval supervision in a generative format and achieve competitive performance as other supervised dense retrievers.

Unsupervised Adaptation with SSM As shown in Table 6.4, adaptation by simply masking salient entities from sentences as input and generating masked entities using ReAtt improves the retrieval performance on 4 datasets, some by a large margin, achieving comparable or superior performance than strong retrieval adaptation methods such as TSDAE+GPL that relies on query generation. This indicates that our end-to-end trainable model also works well in unsupervised settings without involving too many engineering heuristics.

6.7 Conclusion

We propose retrieval as attention (ReAtt), a single Transformer model that can be learned in an end-to-end fashion only using end task loss. We demonstrated on NQ dataset that ReAtt can achieve both competitive retrieval and QA performance. We further show that ReAtt is easy to adapt to other domains in both supervised and unsupervised settings, achieving both boosted

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retrieval and end task performance. Future directions include better end-to-end training objectives and efficient training and inference.

Chapter 7

Active Retrieval-augmented Generation

The previous chapter mainly focuses on short-form questions, which employ a retrieve-and-generate setup that only retrieves information once based on the input. This is limiting, however, in more general scenarios involving generation of long texts, where continually gathering information throughout generation is essential. In this chapter, we provide a generalized view of *active retrieval augmented generation*, methods that actively decide when and what to retrieve across the course of the generation. We propose **Forward-Looking Active REtrieval augmented generation (FLARE)**, a generic method which iteratively uses a prediction of the upcoming sentence to anticipate future content, which is then utilized as a query to retrieve relevant documents to regenerate the sentence if it contains low-confidence tokens. We test FLARE along with baselines comprehensively over 4 long-form knowledge-intensive generation tasks/datasets. FLARE achieves superior or competitive performance on all tasks, demonstrating the effectiveness of our method. This work is presented in:

- Zhengbao Jiang, Frank F. Xu, Luyu Gao, Zhiqing Sun, Qian Liu, Jane Dwivedi-Yu, Yiming Yang, Jamie Callan, Graham Neubig. Active Retrieval Augmented Generation. EMNLP 2023: 7969-7992.

Code and datasets are available at:

- <https://github.com/jzbjyb/FLARE>

7.1 Introduction

Generative language models (LMs) [21, 33, 157, 159, 217, 254, 257] have become a foundational component in natural language processing (NLP) systems with their remarkable abilities. Although LMs have memorized some world knowledge during training [91, 164, 183], they still tend to hallucinate and create imaginary content [141, 259]. Augmenting LMs with retrieval components that look up relevant information from external knowledge resources is a promising direction to address hallucination [85, 101].

Retrieval augmented LMs commonly use a retrieve-and-generate setup where they retrieve

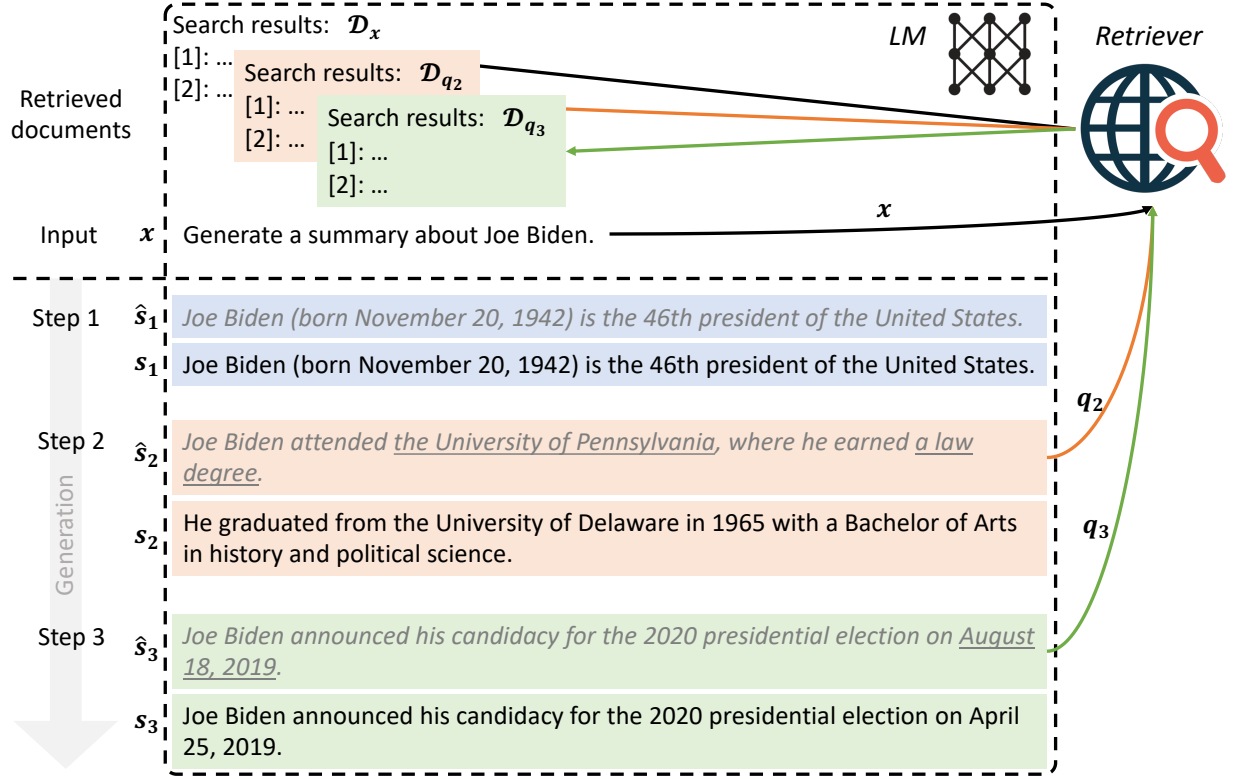


Figure 7.1: An illustration of forward-looking active retrieval augmented generation (FLARE). Starting with the user input x and initial retrieval results \mathcal{D}_x , FLARE iteratively generates a temporary next sentence (shown in *gray italic*) and check whether it contains low-probability tokens (indicated with underline). If so (step 2 and 3), the system retrieves relevant documents and regenerates the sentence.

documents based on the user’s input, and then generate a complete answer conditioning on the retrieved documents [27, 67, 82, 85, 93, 118, 119, 125, 151, 170, 187, 198]. These single-time retrieval augmented LMs outperform purely parametric LMs, particularly for short-form knowledge-intensive generation tasks such as factoid question answering (QA) [96, 115], where *the information needs are clear in the user’s input, and it is sufficient to retrieve relevant knowledge once solely based on the input.*

Increasingly powerful large LMs have also demonstrated abilities in more complex tasks that involve generating long-form output, such as long-form QA [52, 202], open-domain summarization [38, 63, 71], and (chain-of-thought; CoT) reasoning [60, 73, 75, 237]. In contrast to short-form generation, long-form generation presents complex information needs that are *not always evident from the input alone*. Similar to how humans gradually gather information as we create content such as papers, essays, or books, long-form generation with LMs would *require gathering multiple pieces of knowledge throughout the generation process*. For example, to generate a summary about a particular topic, the initial retrieval based on the topic name (e.g.,

Joe Biden) may not cover all aspects and details. It is crucial to retrieve extra information as needed during generation, such as when generating a certain aspect (e.g., Joe Biden’s education history) or a specific detail (e.g., the date of Joe Biden’s presidential campaign announcement).

Several attempts have been made to retrieve multiple times throughout generation. These attempts include methods that passively use the past context to retrieve additional information at a fixed interval [17, 101, 179, 221] which might not accurately reflect what LMs intend to generate in the future or retrieve at inappropriate points. Some works in multihop QA decompose the full question into sub-questions, each of which is used to retrieve extra information [105, 107, 169, 248].

We ask the following question: can we create a simple and generic retrieval augmented LM that *actively decides when and what to retrieve* throughout the generation process, and are applicable to a variety of long-form generation tasks? We provide a generalized view of active retrieval augmented generation. Our hypothesis regarding *when to retrieve* is that LMs should retrieve information only when they lack the required knowledge to avoid unnecessary or inappropriate retrieval that occurs in passive retrieval augmented LMs [17, 101, 179, 221]. Given the observation that large LMs tend to be well-calibrated and low probability/confidence often indicates a lack of knowledge [?], we adopt an active retrieval strategy that only retrieves when LMs generate low-probability tokens. When deciding *what to retrieve*, it is important to consider what LMs intend to generate in the future, as the goal of active retrieval is to benefit future generations. Therefore, we propose anticipating the future by generating a temporary next sentence, using it as a query to retrieve relevant documents, and then regenerating the next sentence conditioning on the retrieved documents. Combining the two aspects, we propose **Forward-Looking Active REtrieval augmented generation (FLARE)**, as illustrated in Figure 7.1. FLARE iteratively generates *a temporary next sentence*, use it as the query to retrieve relevant documents *if it contains low-probability tokens* and regenerate the next sentence until reaches the end.

FLARE is applicable to any existing LMs at inference time without additional training. Considering the impressive performance achieved by GPT-3.5 [159] on a variety of tasks, we examine the effectiveness of our methods on `text-davinci-003`. We evaluate FLARE on 4 diverse tasks/datasets involving generating long outputs, including multihop QA (2WikiMultihopQA), commonsense reasoning (StrategyQA), long-form QA (ASQA), and open-domain summarization (WikiAsp) [60, 71, 75, 202]. Over all tasks, FLARE achieves superior or competitive performance compared to single-time and multi-time retrieval baselines, demonstrating the effectiveness and generalizability of our method.

7.2 Retrieval Augmented Generation

We formally define single-time retrieval augmented generation and propose the framework of active retrieval augmented generation.

7.2.1 Notations and Definitions

Given a user input x and a document corpus $\mathcal{D} = \{d_i\}_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{D}|}$ (such as all Wikipedia articles), the goal of retrieval augmented LMs is to generate the answer $y = [s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m] = [w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n]$ containing m sentences or n tokens leveraging information retrieved from the corpus.

In retrieval augmented LM, the LM typically pairs with a retriever that can retrieve a list of documents $\mathcal{D}_q = \text{ret}(q)$ for a query q ; the LM conditions on both the user input x and retrieved documents \mathcal{D}_q to generate the answer. Since we focus on examining various methods of determining when and what to retrieve, we follow existing methods [179, 221] to prepend the retrieved documents before the user input to aid future generation for both baselines and our method for fair comparisons: $y = \text{LM}([\mathcal{D}_q, x])$, where $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is concatenation following the specified order.

7.2.2 Single-time Retrieval Augmented Generation

The most common choice is to directly use the user input as the query for retrieval and generate the complete answer at once $y = \text{LM}([\mathcal{D}_x, x])$.

7.2.3 Active Retrieval Augmented Generation

To aid long-form generation with retrieval, we propose active retrieval augmented generation. It is a generic framework that actively decides when and what to retrieve through the generation process, resulting in the interleaving of retrieval and generation. Formally, at step $t (t \geq 1)$, the retrieval query q_t is formulated based on both the user input x and previously generated output $y_{<t} = [y_0, \dots, y_{t-1}]$:

$$q_t = \text{qry}(x, y_{<t}),$$

where $\text{qry}(\cdot)$ is the query formulation function. At the beginning ($t = 1$), the previous generation is empty ($y_{<1} = \emptyset$), and the user input is used as the initial query ($q_1 = x$). Given retrieved documents \mathcal{D}_{q_t} , LMs continually generate the answer until the next retrieval is triggered or reaches the end:

$$y_t = \text{LM}([\mathcal{D}_{q_t}, x, y_{<t}]),$$

where y_t represents the generated tokens at the current step t , and the input to LMs is the concatenation of the retrieved documents \mathcal{D}_{q_t} , the user input x , and the previous generation $y_{<t}$. We discard previously retrieved documents $\cup_{t' < t} \mathcal{D}_{q_{t'}}$ and only use the retrieved documents from the current step to condition the next generation to prevent reaching the input length limit of LMs.

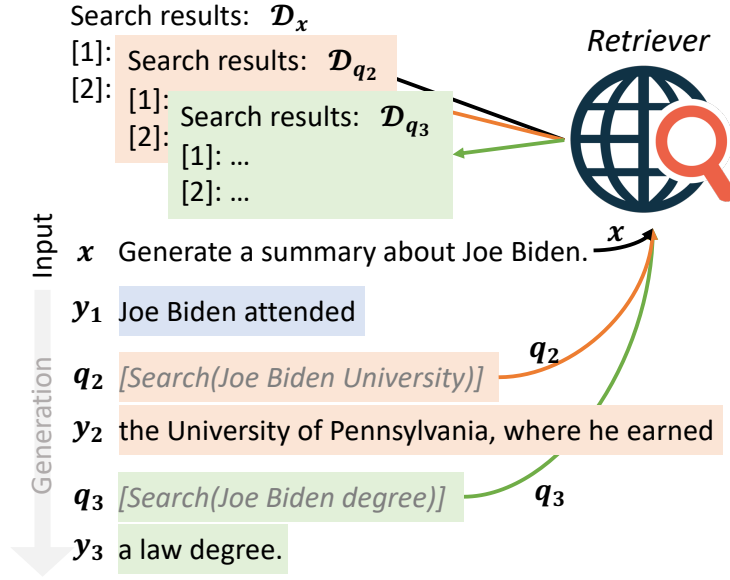


Figure 7.2: An illustration of forward-looking active retrieval augmented generation with retrieval instructions (FLARE_{instruct}). It iteratively generates search queries (shown in *gray italic*) to retrieve relevant information to aid future generations.

7.3 FLARE: Forward-Looking Active REtrieval Augmented Generation

Our intuition is that (1) LMs should only retrieve information when they do not have the necessary knowledge to avoid unnecessary or inappropriate retrieval, and (2) the retrieval queries should reflect the intents of future generations. We propose two forward-looking active retrieval augmented generation (FLARE) methods to implement the active retrieval augmented generation framework. The first method prompts the LM to generate retrieval queries when necessary while generating the answer using retrieval-encouraging instructions, denoted as FLARE_{instruct}. The second method directly uses the LM’s generation as search queries, denoted as FLARE_{direct}, which iteratively generates the next sentence to gain insight into the future topic, and if uncertain tokens are present, retrieves relevant documents to regenerate the next sentence.

7.3.1 FLARE with Retrieval Instructions

Inspired by Toolformer [195], a straightforward way of expressing information needs for retrieval is to generate “[Search(query)]” when additional information is needed [195], e.g., “The colors on the flag of Ghana have the following meanings. Red is for [Search(Ghana flag red meaning)] the blood of martyrs, ...” When working with GPT-3.5 models that offer only API access, we elicit such behavior by few-shot prompting [21].

Specifically, for a downstream task, we place the search-related instruction and exemplars at the beginning as skill 1, followed by the instruction and exemplars of the downstream task as skill 2. Given a test case, we ask LMs to combine skills 1 and 2 to generate search queries while performing the task. The structure of the prompt is shown in Prompt 2.

Prompt 2: retrieval instructions
<p>Skill 1. An instruction to guide LMs to generate search queries. Several search-related exemplars.</p> <p>Skill 2. An instruction to guide LMs to perform a specific downstream task (e.g., multihop QA). Several task-related exemplars.</p> <p>An instruction to guide LMs to combine skills 1 and 2 for the test case. The input of the test case.</p>

As shown in Figure 7.2, when the LM generates “[Search(query)]” (shown in *gray italic*), we stop the generation and use the query terms to retrieve relevant documents, which are prepended before the user input to aid future generation until the next search query is generated or reaches the end.

7.3.2 Direct FLARE

Since we cannot fine-tune black-box LMs, we found queries generated by $\text{FLARE}_{\text{instruct}}$ through retrieval instructions might not be reliable. Therefore, we propose a more direct way of forward-looking active retrieval that uses the next sentence to decide when and what to retrieve.

Confidence-based Active Retrieval

As shown in Figure 7.1, at step t , we first generate a temporary next sentence $\hat{s}_t = \text{LM}([x, y_{<t}])$ without conditioning on retrieved documents. Then we decide whether to trigger retrieval and formulate queries based on \hat{s}_t . If the LM is confident about \hat{s}_t , we accept it without retrieving additional information; if not, we use \hat{s}_t to formulate search queries q_t to retrieve relevant documents, and then regenerate the next sentence s_t . The reason we utilize sentences as the basis of our iteration is due to their significance as semantic units that are neither too short nor too lengthy like phrases and paragraphs. However, our approach can also utilize phrases or paragraphs as the basis.

Since LMs tend to be well-calibrated that low probability/confidence often indicates a lack of knowledge [92? ?], we actively trigger retrieval if any token of \hat{s}_t has a probability lower than a threshold $\theta \in [0, 1]$. $\theta = 0$ means retrieval is never triggered, while $\theta = 1$ triggers

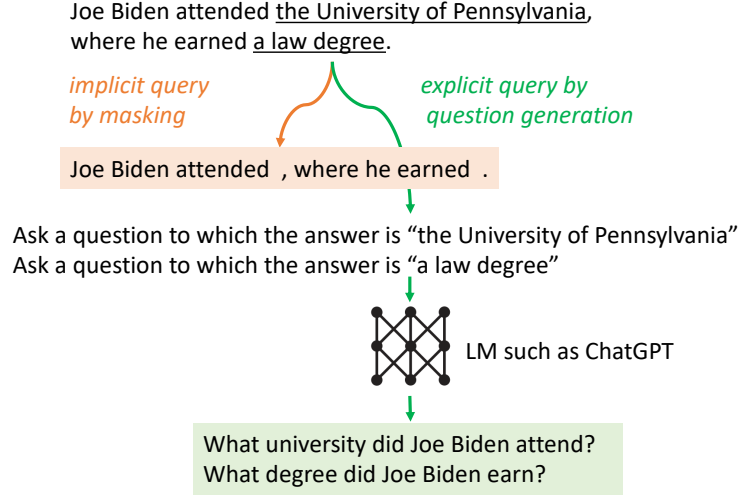


Figure 7.3: Implicit and explicit query formulation. Tokens with low probabilities are marked with underlines.

retrieval every sentence.

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \begin{cases} \hat{\mathbf{s}}_t & \text{if all tokens of } \hat{\mathbf{s}}_t \text{ have probs } \geq \theta \\ \mathbf{s}_t = \text{LM}([\mathcal{D}_{q_t}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_{<t}]) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where the query \mathbf{q}_t is formulated based on $\hat{\mathbf{s}}_t$.

Confidence-based Query Formulation

One way to perform retrieval is to directly use the next sentence $\hat{\mathbf{s}}_t$ as the query \mathbf{q}_t . This shares a similar spirit with methods that use generated hypothetical titles or paragraphs from LMs as retrieval queries or evidences [56, 139, 204, 249]. We generalize such techniques to long-form generation where active information access is essential.

We found retrieving with the next sentence achieves significantly better results than with the previous context, as shown later in [subsection 7.6.2](#). However, it has a risk of perpetuating errors contained in it. For example, if the LM produces the sentence “Joe Biden attended the University of Pennsylvania” instead of the correct fact that he attended the University of Delaware, using this erroneous sentence as a query might retrieve misleading information. We propose two simple methods to overcome this issue as illustrated in [Figure 7.3](#).

Masked sentences as implicit queries. The first method masks out low-confidence tokens in $\hat{\mathbf{s}}_t$ with probabilities below a threshold $\beta \in [0, 1]$, where a higher β results in more aggressive masking. This removes potential distractions from the sentence to improve retrieval accuracy.

Generated questions as explicit queries. Another method is to generate explicit questions that target the low-confident span in \hat{s}_t . For example, if the LM is uncertain about “the University of Pennsylvania”, a question like “Which university did Joe Biden attend?” can help retrieve relevant information. Self-ask [169] achieved this by manually inserting follow-up questions into downstream task exemplars as shown later in Prompt 5, which requires task-specific annotation efforts. Instead, we developed a universal approach that generates questions for low-confidence spans without additional annotation. Specifically, We first extract all spans from \hat{s}_t with probabilities below β . For each extracted span z , we prompt `gpt-3.5-turbo` to generate a question $q_{t,z}$ that can be answered with the span:

Prompt 3: zero-shot question generation

User input x .

Generated output so far $y_{\leq t}$.

Given the above passage, ask a question to which the answer is the term/entity/phrase “ z ”.

We retrieve using each generated question and interleave the returned documents into a single ranking list to aid future generations. In summary, queries q_t are formulated based on \hat{s}_t as follows:

$$q_t = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if all tokens of } \hat{s}_t \text{ have probs } \geq \theta \\ \text{mask}(\hat{s}_t) \text{ or qgen}(\hat{s}_t) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

7.3.3 Implementation Details

Base LM We validate our method on one of the most advanced GPT-3.5 LMs `text-davinci-003` by iteratively querying their API.¹

Document corpus and retrievers. Since we focus on the integration of retrieval and generation, we use off-the-shelf retrievers that take queries as inputs and return a list of relevant documents. For datasets that mainly rely on knowledge from Wikipedia, we use the Wikipedia dump from Karpukhin et al. [99] and employ BM25 [184] as the retriever. For datasets that rely on knowledge from the open web, we use the Bing search engine as our retriever.²

Retrieved document formatting. Multiple retrieved documents are linearized according to their ranking and then added to the beginning of the user input using Prompt 4.

¹<https://api.openai.com/v1/completions> April 23.

²<https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/bing/apis/bing-web-search-api>

Prompt 4: document formatting

Search results:
[1] Document 1
[2] Document 2
...
The user input x

7.4 Multi-time Retrieval Baselines

Existing passive multi-time retrieval augmented LMs can also be formulated using our framework (subsection 7.2.3). In this section, we formally introduce three baseline categories based on when and what to retrieve. These baselines are not exact reproductions of the corresponding paper because many design choices differ which makes direct comparisons impossible. We implemented them using the same settings, with the only variation being when and what to retrieve.

Previous-window approaches trigger retrieval every l tokens, where l represents the window size. Generated tokens from the previous window are used as the query:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{q}_t &= \mathbf{y}_{t-1} \quad (t \geq 2), \\ \mathbf{y}_t &= [w_{(t-1)l+1}, \dots, w_{tl}]. \end{aligned}$$

Some existing methods in this category are RETRO [17], IC-RALM [179], which retrieve every few tokens, and KNN-LM [101], which retrieves every token.³ We follow Ram et al. [179] to use a window size of $l = 16$.

Previous-sentence approaches trigger retrieval every sentence and use the previous sentence as the query, and IRCOT [221] belongs to this category:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{q}_t &= \mathbf{y}_{t-1} \quad (t \geq 2), \\ \mathbf{y}_t &= \mathbf{s}_t. \end{aligned}$$

Question decomposition approaches manually annotated task-specific exemplars to guide LMs to generate decomposed sub-questions while producing outputs. For example, self-ask [169], a method in this category, manually inserts sub-questions in exemplars using Prompt 5. For the test case, retrieval is triggered dynamically whenever the model generates a sub-question.

³Since KNN-LM uses the contextualized representation corresponding to the current decoding position to retrieve relevant information which encodes all previous tokens. Strictly speaking, \mathbf{q}_t should be $\mathbf{y}_{<t}$.

Settings	2WikiMultihopQA [75]	StrategyQA [60]	ASQA [202]	WikiAsp [71]
<i>Dataset statistics</i>				
Task	multihop QA	commonsense QA	long-form QA	open-domain summarization
#Examples	500	229	500	500
<i>Evaluation settings</i>				
Metrics	EM, F ₁ , Prec., Rec.	EM	EM, Disambig-F ₁ , ROUGE, DR	UniEval, entity-F ₁ , ROUGE
<i>Retrieval settings</i>				
Corpus	Wikipedia	Wikipedia	Wikipedia	open web
Retriever	BM25	BM25	BM25	Bing
Top-k	2	3	3	5
<i>Prompt format</i>				
#Exemplars	8	6	8	4
Ret. for exemplars	✓	✗	✗	✗

Table 7.1: Dataset statistics and experimental settings of different tasks.

Dataset	θ	β	Query formulation	Combine single- & multi-time retrieval
2WikiMultihopQA	0.8	0.4	implicit	✗
StrategyQA	0.4	0.4	implicit	✗
ASQA & ASQA-hint	0.8	0.4	explicit	✓
WikiAsp	0.8	0.4	explicit	✓

Table 7.2: Hyperparameters of FLARE on different datasets.

Prompt 5: multihop QA with self-ask

Question: Who lived longer, Theodor Haecker or Harry Vaughan Watkins?
 Are follow up questions needed here: Yes.
 Follow up: How old was Theodor Haecker when he died?
 Intermediate answer: Theodor Haecker was 65 years old when he died.
 Follow up: How old was Harry Vaughan Watkins when he died?
 Intermediate answer: Harry Vaughan Watkins was 69 years old when he died.
 So the final answer is: Harry Vaughan Watkins.

The aforementioned approaches can retrieve additional information while generating. However, they have notable drawbacks: (1) Using previously generated tokens as queries might not reflect what LMs intend to generate in the future. (2) Retrieving information at a fixed interval can be inefficient because it might occur at inappropriate points. (3) Question decomposition approaches require task-specific prompt engineering, which restricts their generalizability in new tasks.

7.5 Experimental Setup

We evaluate the effectiveness of FLARE on 4 diverse knowledge-intensive tasks using few-shot in-context learning [21, 134, 173]. We follow previous works [221] to sub-sample at most 500 examples from each dataset due to the cost of running experiments. Datasets, metrics, and settings are summarized in Table 7.1. The hyperparameters of FLARE are selected based on the development set and listed in Table 7.2. FLARE refers to FLARE_{direct} if not specifically stated.

Multihop QA The goal of multihop QA is to answer complex questions through information retrieval and reasoning. We use 2WikiMultihopQA [75] which contains 2-hop complex questions sourced from Wikipedia articles that require composition, comparison, or inference, e.g., “Why did the founder of Versus die?” We follow Wang et al. [233] to generate both the chain-of-thought and the final answer. For “Why did the founder of Versus die?”, the output we aim to generate is “The founder of Versus was Gianni Versace. Gianni Versace was shot and killed on the steps of his Miami Beach mansion on July 15, 1997. So the answer is shot.” We use 8 exemplars from Trivedi et al. [221] for in-context learning, BM25 as the retriever, and Wikipedia articles as the retrieval corpus. Similar to the observation in Trivedi et al. [221], we found incorporating retrieval results for exemplars improves the performance, we use the input x of each exemplar to retrieve several documents and then add them using the format in Prompt ???. We found increasing the number of retrieval documents often increases performance. Therefore, we use the maximum number of documents that can fit within the input length limit of `text-davinci-003`, which is 2 for 2WikiMultihopQA.

We use regular expressions to extract the final answer from the output and compare it with the reference answer using exact match (EM), and token-level F_1 , precision, and recall.

Commonsense reasoning Commonsense reasoning requires world and commonsense knowledge to generate answers. We use StrategyQA [60] which is a collection of crowdsourced yes/no questions, e.g., “Would a pear sink in water?” We follow Wei et al. [237] to generate both the chain-of-thought and the final yes/no answer. For “Would a pear sink in water?”, the output we aim to generate is “The density of a pear is about 0.6g/cm^3 , which is less than water. Objects less dense than water float. Thus, a pear would float. So the final answer is no.” We use 6 exemplars from Wei et al. [237], BM25 on the Wikipedia corpus, and 3 retrieved documents to run experiments.

We extract the final answer and match it against the gold answer using exact match.

Long-form QA Long-form QA aims to generate comprehensive answers to questions seeking complex information [52, 202]. We use ASQA [202] as our testbed where inputs are ambiguous questions with multiple interpretations, and outputs should cover all of them. For example, “Where do the Philadelphia Eagles play their home games?” could be asking about the city, sports complex, or stadium. We found in many cases it is challenging even for humans to

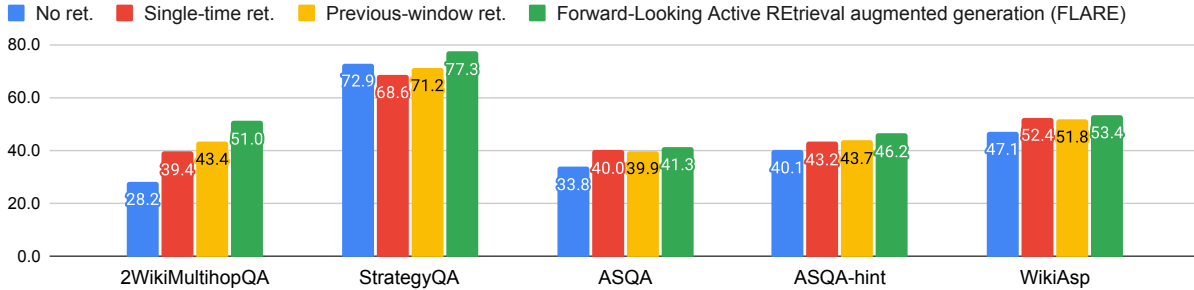


Figure 7.4: Comparison between FLARE and baselines across all tasks/datasets. We report the primary metric for each dataset: EM for 2WikiMultihopQA, StrategyQA, and ASQA, and UniEval for WikiAsp.

identify which aspect of the question is ambiguous. Therefore, we created another setting (ASQA-hint) where we provide a brief hint to guide LMs to stay on track when generating answers. The hint for the above case is “This question is ambiguous in terms of which specific location or venue is being referred to.” For “Where do the Philadelphia Eagles play their home games?”, the output we aim to generate is “We need to consider the different possible locations or venues that could be considered the home field of the Philadelphia Eagles. These include the city, the sports complex, or the stadium. Therefore, this question has 3 interpretations and the answers are: (1) The city is Philadelphia. (2) The sports complex is the South Philadelphia Sports Complex. (3) The stadium is the Lincoln Financial Field stadium.” For both the original setting (ASQA) and the setting with hints (ASQA-hint), we manually annotate 8 exemplars, use BM25 on the Wikipedia corpus, and 3 retrieved documents to run experiments.

We use metrics from Stelmakh et al. [202], including EM, RoBERTa-based QA score (Disambig-F₁), ROUGE [?], and an overall score combining Disambig-F₁ and ROUGE (DR).

Open-domain summarization The goal of open-domain summarization is to generate a comprehensive summary about a topic by gathering information from open web [63]. We use WikiAsp [71] which aims to generate aspect-based summaries about entities from 20 domains in Wikipedia, e.g., “Generate a summary about Echo School (Oregon) including the following aspects: academics, history.” The original WikiAsp dataset is designed for multi-document summarization and provides a list of references to systems. We converted it into the open-domain setting by removing the associated references and instead gathering information from the open web. For “Generate a summary about Echo School (Oregon) including the following aspects: academics, history.”, the output we aim to generate is “# Academics. In 2008, 91% of the school’s seniors received their high school diploma... # History. The class of 2008 was the 100th class in the school’s history.” where # is used to indicate aspects. We manually annotate 4 exemplars, and use the Bing search engine to retrieve 5 documents from the open web. To avoid leaking, we exclude several Wikipedia-related domains from Bing’s search results, including

Methods	EM	F ₁	Prec.	Rec.
No retrieval	28.2	36.8	36.5	38.6
Single-time retrieval	39.4	48.8	48.6	51.5
<i>Multi-time retrieval</i>				
Previous-window	43.2	52.3	51.7	54.5
Previous-sentence	39.0	49.2	48.9	51.8
Question decomposition	47.8	56.4	56.1	58.6
FLARE _{instruct} (ours)	42.4	49.8	49.1	52.5
FLARE _{direct} (ours)	51.0	59.7	59.1	62.6

Table 7.3: FLARE and baselines on 2WikiMultihopQA. Previous-window [17, 179], previous-sentence [221], and question decomposition [169, 248] methods are reimplemented for fair comparisons.

wikipedia.org, wikiwand.com, wiki2.org, and wikimedia.org.

Metrics include ROUGE, named entity-based F₁, and UniEval [?] which measures factual consistency.

7.6 Experimental Results

We first report overall results across 4 tasks/datasets and compare the performance of FLARE with all the baselines introduced in section 7.4. We then run ablation experiments to study the efficacy of various design choices of our method.

7.6.1 Comparison with Baselines

Overall results. The overall performance of FLARE and baseline across all tasks/datasets are reported in Figure 7.4. FLARE outperforms all baseline on all tasks/datasets, indicating that FLARE is a generic method that can effectively retrieve additional information throughout the generation.

Among various tasks, multihop QA shows the most significant improvement. This is largely due to the task’s clear definition and specific objective of producing the final answer through a 2-hop reasoning process, which makes it easier for LMs to generate on-topic output. In contrast, ASQA and WikiAsp are more open-ended, which increases the difficulty of both generation and evaluation. The improvement on ASQA-hint is larger than that of ASQA because identifying ambiguous aspects is challenging even for humans in many cases, and providing a generic hint helps LMs to stay on topic.

Datasets	StrategyQA	ASQA				ASQA-hint				WikiAsp		
Metrics	EM	EM	D-F ₁	R-L	DR	EM	D-F ₁	R-L	DR	UniEval	E-F ₁	R-L
No retrieval	72.9	33.8	24.2	33.3	28.4	40.1	32.5	36.4	34.4	47.1	14.1	26.4
Single-time retrieval	68.6	40.0	27.1	34.0	30.4	43.2	34.8	37.4	36.0	52.4	17.4	26.9
<i>Multi-time retrieval</i>												
Previous-window	71.2	39.9	27.0	34.3	30.4	43.7	35.7	37.5	36.6	51.8	18.1	27.3
Previous-sentence	71.0	39.9	27.9	34.3	30.9	44.7	35.9	37.5	36.7	52.6	17.8	27.2
FLARE (ours)	77.3	41.3	28.2	34.3	31.1	46.2	36.7	37.7	37.2	53.4	18.9	27.6

Table 7.4: Comparison between FLARE and baselines on StrategyQA, ASQA, ASQA-hint, and WikiAsp. D-F₁ is Disambig-F₁, R-L is ROUGE-L, and E-F₁ is named entity-based F₁.

Thorough comparisons with baselines. The performance of all baselines on 2WikiMultihopQA are reported in Table 7.3. FLARE outperforms all baselines by a large margin, which confirms that forward-looking active retrieval is highly effective. Most multi-time retrieval augmented approaches outperform single-time retrieval but with different margins. The improvement of retrieving using the previous sentence is relatively small which we hypothesize is mainly because the previous sentence often describes entities or relations different from those in the next sentence in 2WikiMultihopQA. While the previous-window approach might use the first half of a sentence to retrieve information potentially helpful for generating the second half. Among all baselines, the question decomposition approach [169] achieves the best performance, which is not surprising since the in-context exemplars manually annotated with decomposed sub-questions (Prompt 5) guide LMs to generate sub-questions that align with the topic/intent of future generations. FLARE outperforms this baseline, indicating that manual exemplar annotation is not necessary for effective future-aware retrieval. The gap between FLARE_{instruct} and question decomposition is large, indicating that teaching LMs to generate search queries using task-generic retrieval instructions and exemplars is challenging.

We report all metrics for the other datasets in Table 7.4. FLARE outperforms baselines with respect to all metrics. Retrieval using the previous window underperforms single-time retrieval on ASQA, which we hypothesize is because the previous window does not accurately reflect future intent. Since we focus on evaluating factuality, metrics with an emphasis on factual content (such as EM, Disambig-F₁, UniEval) are more reliable than metrics computed over all tokens (ROUGE-L).

7.6.2 Ablation Study

Importance of forward-looking retrieval. We first validate that forward-looking retrieval is more effective than past-context-based retrieval. We run ablation experiments on 2WikiMultihopQA and ASQA-hint comparing retrieval using the previous versus the next sentence.

	2WikiMultihopQA				ASQA-hint			
	EM	F ₁	Prec.	Rec.	EM	D-F ₁	R-L	DR
Previous	39.0	49.2	48.9	51.8	42.5	34.1	36.9	35.5
Next	48.8	57.6	57.1	60.5	45.9	35.7	37.5	36.6

Table 7.5: A head-to-head comparison between using the previous sentence and the next sentence for retrieval.

#Tokens	EM	F ₁	Prec.	Rec.
16	43.2	52.3	51.7	54.5
32	43.6	52.4	52.0	55.0
48	40.0	49.3	49.0	52.0
All	39.0	48.5	48.2	51.1

Table 7.6: Previous-window approaches using different numbers of tokens as queries.

Specifically, both methods retrieve every sentence and directly use the complete previous/next sentence as queries. As shown in Table 7.5, using the next sentence to retrieve is clearly better than using the previous sentence, confirming our hypothesis.

We also run previous-window approaches using different numbers of past tokens as queries. As shown in Table 7.6, using too many tokens (> 32) in the past hurts the performance, further confirming our hypothesis that previous context might not be relevant to intent of future generations.

Importance of active retrieval. Next, we investigate how active retrieval threshold θ affects performance. To alter our method from not retrieving to retrieving every sentence, we adjust the confidence threshold θ that determines when to trigger retrieval from 0 to 1. We then

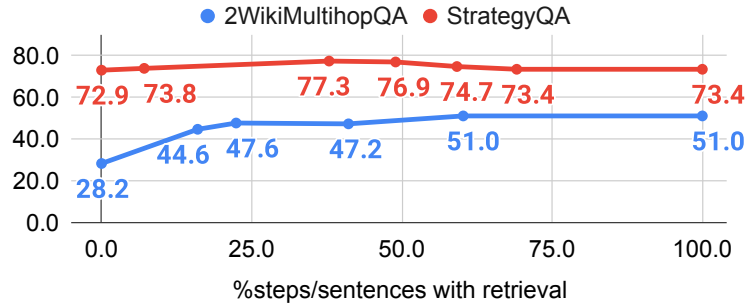


Figure 7.5: Performance (EM) of FLARE with respect to the percentage of steps/sentences with retrieval on 2WikiMultihopQA and StrategyQA.

β	EM	F ₁	Prec.	Rec.
0.0	0.488	0.576	0.571	0.605
0.2	0.498	0.588	0.582	0.616
0.4	0.510	0.597	0.591	0.627
0.6	0.506	0.593	0.586	0.622

Table 7.7: Performance of FLARE with respect to the masking threshold β on 2WikiMulti-hopQA.

	ASQA-hint				WikiAsp		
	EM	D-F ₁	R-L	DR	UniEval	E-F ₁	R-L
Implicit	45.7	36.9	37.7	37.3	53.4	18.8	27.7
Explicit	46.2	36.7	37.7	37.2	53.4	18.9	27.6

Table 7.8: A comparison between implicit and explicit query formulation methods in FLARE.

calculate the proportion of steps/sentences where retrieval is activated, and present the performance based on it. As shown in [Figure 7.5](#), on 2WikiMultihopQA, the performance plateaus when the retrieval percentage exceeds 60%, indicating that retrieval when LMs are confident is not necessary. On StrategyQA, the performance drops when the retrieval percentage exceeds 50%, indicating that unnecessary retrieval can introduce noise and impede the original generation process. We found triggering retrieval for 40%-80% of sentences usually leads to a good performance across tasks/datasets.

Effectiveness of different query formulation methods We study implicit query formation by masking and explicit query formulation through question generation. In [Table 7.7](#), we compare the performance of FLARE with different masking thresholds β . Retrieving directly with the complete sentence ($\beta = 0$) is worse than masking tokens with low probabilities, confirming our hypothesis that low-confidence erroneous tokens can distract retrievers. We compare implicit and explicit query formulation methods in [Table 7.8](#). Performances of both methods are similar, indicating that both methods can effectively reflect information needs.

7.7 Related Work

We refer to [subsection 7.2.2](#) and [section 7.4](#) for extensively discussion on single-time and multi-time retrieval augmented LMs, which is the most relevant area to this chapter.

Iterative and adaptive retrieval Iterative retrieval and refinement has been studied in both text and code generation tasks [161, 250, 251, 252]. FLARE differs from these methods in the granularity of generation and retrieval strategies. Adaptive retrieval has been studied in single-time retrieval scenarios based on either question popularity or generation probabilities [127, 137], while we focus on long-form generation requiring active information access.

Browser-enhanced LMs WebGPT [151] and WebCPM [171] train LMs to interact with browser to enhance factuality using reinforcement learning or supervised training where multiple queries can be triggered before generation. FLARE is built on text-based retrievers but can be combined with a browser to potentially improve retrieval quality.

7.8 Conclusion

To aid long-form generation with retrieval augmentation, we propose an active retrieval augmented generation framework that decides when and what to retrieve during generation. We implement this framework with forward-looking active retrieval that iteratively uses the upcoming sentence to retrieve relevant information if it contains low-confidence tokens and re-generates the next sentence. Experimental results on 4 tasks/datasets demonstrate the effectiveness of our methods. Future directions include better strategies for active retrieval and developing efficient LM architectures for active information integration.

Chapter 8

Conclusion

In this dissertation, we study two types of approaches to answer questions that require factual knowledge: parametric approaches and non-parametric approaches. Parametric approaches offer the advantage of seamless integration with other abilities of LLMs, resulting in a simpler and end-to-end solution to tackling knowledge-intensive tasks. On the other hand, non-parametric approaches boast higher factual accuracies and enable LLMs to engage with the external world, thus opening up a diverse range of applications for agents. We anticipate that future systems will incorporate elements of both. While most knowledge could be condensed into parameters of LLMs, having non-parametric components is crucial for handling long-tail knowledge and applications that necessitate access to the external environment.

8.1 Future Directions

Robust parametric knowledge in LLMs Given the flexibility and scalability of parametric knowledge, we argue that most knowledge can be encoded into parameters. Data and model architectures are two critical factors that influence parametric knowledge. From the data perspective, one future direction is to augment existing pre-training data with necessary references and train models to generate not only the original text but also the associated references. From the model architecture perspective, mixture of experts offers a principled solution to increase the knowledge capacity of the model without increasing the running cost.

Continual knowledge update and calibration Continual knowledge update is essential to expand the parametric knowledge of LLMs. The standard method is continued pre-training on the new corpus, which is expensive and suffers from catastrophic forgetting. A more promising way is to only extract knowledge missing from the current LLMs from the corpus for continual learning.

LLMs with interactive retriever/tool use Most real-world application scenarios require interaction between LLMs with the external environments, including retrievers, tools, or the physical world. Collecting data from such scenarios and developing efficient and scalable learning methods to teach LLMs to accomplish complicated tasks are important future directions. This requires both algorithm developments such as better reinforcement learning methods, and redefined learning paradigms that use AI models to provide feedback, i.e., scalable oversight.

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