

LongRAG: Enhancing Retrieval-Augmented Generation with Long-context LLMs

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

In traditional RAG framework, the basic retrieval units are normally short. The common retrievers like DPR normally work with 100-word Wikipedia paragraphs. Such a design forces the retriever to search over a large corpus to find the ‘needle’ unit. In contrast, the readers only need to extract answers from the short retrieved units. Such an imbalanced ‘heavy’ retriever and ‘light’ reader design can lead to sub-optimal performance. In order to alleviate the imbalance, we propose a new framework LongRAG, consisting of a ‘long retriever’ and a ‘long reader’. LongRAG processes the entire Wikipedia into 4K-token units, which is 30x longer than before. By increasing the unit size, we significantly reduce the total units. This significantly lowers the burden of retriever, which leads to a remarkable retrieval score. Then we feed the top-k retrieved units ($\approx 30K$ tokens) to an existing long-context LLM to perform zero-shot answer extraction. Without requiring any training, LongRAG achieves an EM of 62.7% on NQ and 64.3% on HotpotQA (full-wiki), on par with the (fully-trained) SoTA model. We also test LongRAG on two non-Wikipedia-based datasets, Qasper and MultiFieldQA-en, achieving strong effectiveness. Our study offers insights into the future roadmap for combining RAG with long-context LLMs.

1 Introduction

Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) methods have long been employed to enhance large language models (LLMs) (Mialon et al., 2023). The existing RAG framework tends to use short retrieval units, such as 100-word passages in popular open-domain question-answering tasks (Chen et al., 2017; Lewis et al., 2020; Karpukhin et al., 2020). The retriever is tasked with finding the “needle” (i.e. the precise tiny retrieval unit) from the “haystack” (i.e. the massive corpus with tens of millions of information units). Subsequently, the retrieved units

are passed to the reader to generate the final response. On the contrary, the reader only needs to extract answers from these retrievals, which is a fairly easy task. This kind of imbalanced design, with a “heavy” retriever and a “light” reader, puts too much pressure on the retriever. Therefore, existing RAG models (Izacard and Grave, 2020b) have to recall huge amounts of units, such as the top-100/200, combined with additional re-ranker to achieve the best performance. Moreover, short retrieval units can lead to semantic incom-

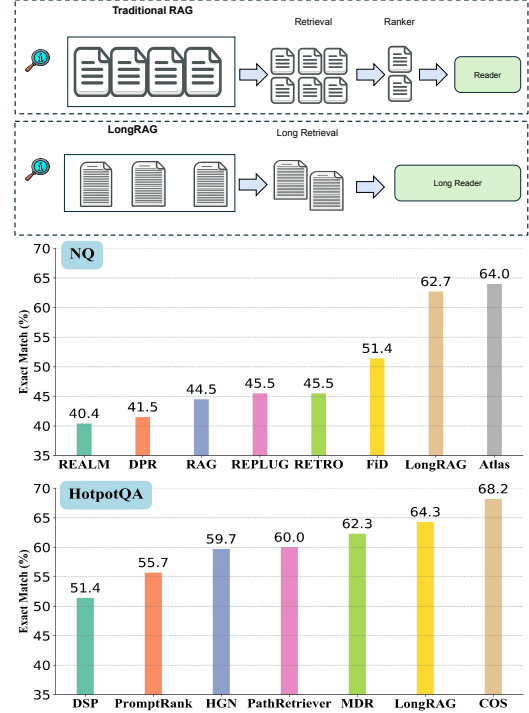


Figure 1: Traditional RAG vs. LongRAG. (Up) Traditional RAG operates on short retrieval units, where the retriever needs to scan over a massive amount of units to find the relevant piece. In contrast, LongRAG operates on long retrieval units (30x longer). Retriever has a much less workload, which significantly boosts the recall score. LongRAG fully exploits the ability of long-context language models to achieve strong performance.

pleteness due to document truncation. This can lead to information loss, ultimately hurting the end performance. This design choice was made in an era when NLP models were heavily restricted by their ability to handle long contexts. With the recent advances in long-context language models, the retriever and reader can potentially handle up to 128K or even millions of tokens as input (Reid et al., 2024; Achiam et al., 2023).

In this paper, we propose to revisit this design choice for open-domain question answering and propose the LongRAG framework as a solution to balance the workload between the retriever and the reader, as illustrated in Figure 1. There are three important designs in our novel framework:

1. **Long Retrieval Unit:** By using entire Wikipedia documents or grouping multiple related documents, we can construct long retrieval units with more than 4K tokens. This design could also significantly reduce the corpus size (number of retrieval units in the corpus). Then, the retriever’s task becomes much easier with more complete information.
2. **Long Retriever:** The long retriever will identify coarse relevant information for the given query by searching through all the long retrieval units in the corpus. Only the top 4 to 8 retrieval units (without re-ranking) are used for the next step.
3. **Long Reader:** The long reader will further extract answers from the concatenation of retrievals, which is normally around 30K tokens. We simply prompt an existing long-context LM (like Gemini or GPT4) with the question to produce the answers in a zero-shot fashion.

These three novel designs significantly boost the overall performance of RAG on open-domain question-answering tasks like NQ (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019), HotpotQA (Yang et al., 2018), Qasper (Dasigi et al., 2021) and MultiFieldQA-en (Bai et al., 2023).

In our experiments, we adopt off-the-shelf retrievers like BGE (Xiao et al., 2023) and readers like Gemini-1.5-Pro (Reid et al., 2024) or GPT-4o (OpenAI, 2024) without any further tuning. To demonstrate the generalizability of our proposed framework, we tested it on four datasets from different scenarios. First, we evaluate it on NQ and HotpotQA, which are Wikipedia-based dataset. The corpus of both datasets are composed of relatively short (averaging less than 1K tokens) but vast

Wikipedia documents. By forming longer retrieval units through the grouping of multiple related documents, we reduce the NQ corpus size from 22M to 600K units, which improves the answer recall@1 from 52% (DPR) to 71%. Similarly, we reduce the HotpotQA corpus size from 5M to 500K, which improves the recall@2 from 47% (DPR) to 72%. By exploiting the long-context understanding ability of GPT-4o, LongRAG can achieve an EM of 62.7% on NQ and 64.3% on HotpotQA. These results could be comparable to the strongest fully trained RAG models like Atlas (Izacard et al., 2022) and MDR (Xiong et al., 2020b). Furthermore, we test on two non-Wikipedia-based datasets, Qasper and MultiFieldQA-en, where the corpus consists of relatively long documents averaging more than 4K tokens. LongRAG processes each entire document as a single unit rather than chunking them into smaller units. By doing so, we achieve an F1 score of 25.9% on Qasper (previously 22.5%) and 57.5% on MultiFieldQA-en (previously 51.2%).

We perform ablation studies in subsection 4.5 to prove why longer retrieval units are necessary. Given a budget of 40K recall tokens, with “short retriever units”, we can increase the number of recalled units to reach a marvelously high recall score (91% for recall@200). However, the end performance dips significantly due to the huge amount of “hard negatives”, which confuses the reader. With “long retriever units”, we observe an entirely different trend. As we recall more units (from 1 to 8 units), both the recall and end performance will increase or plateau. The impact of “hard negative” is much less severe in LongRAG. It shows that LongRAG can better exploit the advances in the long-context LLMs (reader). As the long-context methods evolve, the performance of LongRAG will continue to improve. Therefore, we believe the modern RAG systems should re-consider the granularity of their retrieval units to exploit the advantages of the current long-context LLMs.

2 Related Work

2.1 Retrieval-Augmented Generation.

Augmenting language models with information retrieved from large corpora has become a popular and effective approach for knowledge-intensive tasks, particularly open-domain question answering. The predominant architecture follows a retriever-reader style (Chen et al., 2017; Guu et al., 2020), where the input query retrieves informa-

tion from a corpus, and a language model uses this information as additional context to make a final prediction. Recent work has focused on improving the retriever (Karpukhin et al., 2020; Xiong et al., 2020a; Qu et al., 2020; Xiong et al., 2020b; Khalifa et al., 2023), enhancing the reader (Izacard and Grave, 2020b; Cheng et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2021; Borgeaud et al., 2022), fine-tuning the retriever and reader jointly (Yu, 2022; Izacard et al., 2022; Singh et al., 2021; Izacard and Grave, 2020a), and integrating the retriever with the black-box language model (Yu et al., 2023; Shi et al., 2023; Trivedi et al., 2022). However, the impact of document granularity on the effectiveness and efficiency of the retrieval-augmented generation pipeline remains underexplored.

2.2 Long Context Large Language Models.

The effectiveness of Transformer-based models is hindered by the quadratic increase in computational cost relative to sequence length, especially when dealing with long context inputs. In order to solve this issue, different approaches have been proposed to mitigate computational issues, including sliding memory window and chunk segmentation (Hao et al., 2022; Ratner et al., 2023; Zhu et al., 2024b). FlashAttention (Dao et al., 2022) has also been a pivotal strategy to significantly reduce the memory footprint to almost linear w.r.t sequence length.

To enable length extrapolation, RoPE (Su et al., 2021) and AliBI (Press et al., 2021) position encodings have shown potential to enable length extrapolation, which have been widely used in the literature. Recent endeavors have explored diverse strategies to tackle this challenge, which is mainly *Position reorganization* (Jin et al., 2024; An et al., 2024), *Position interpolation* (Chen et al., 2023a; Peng et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2024). Furthermore, alternative architectures beyond the Transformer have been explored to handle long inputs more naturally. These diverse approaches claim that they can enhance the capabilities of LLMs in processing long context inputs more efficiently.

2.3 Long Context Embedding

Recent efforts also increased the context length for embedding models, extending the supported text snippet length from a limit of 512 tokens to 32k tokens. Typically, the development of long-context embedding models involves first obtaining a long-context backbone model. This can be achieved either by pre-training with long in-

puts from scratch (Günther et al., 2023; Nussbaum et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2024) or by utilizing existing large language models that support longer context (Wang et al., 2023). Additionally, some works extend the capabilities of existing embedding models to handle long contexts by applying LLM content window extension methods on embedding models (Zhu et al., 2024a; Peng and Quesnelle, 2023), or by employing state-space encoder models (Saad-Falcon et al., 2024).

3 LongRAG

Our proposed LongRAG framework is comprised of two components: the **Long Retriever** and the **Long Reader**. Compared to traditional RAG, which operates on a large number of short retrieval units, LongRAG operates on long retrieval units, with only a few (typically fewer than 10) being fed into the reader. An illustrative example is shown in Figure 2.

3.1 Long Retriever

The traditional RAG framework employs smaller retrieval units and prioritizes retrieving the exact fine-grained short context containing the answer. In contrast, our proposed LongRAG framework places greater emphasis on recall, aiming to retrieve relevant context with much coarse granularity. This design choice shifts more burden from the retriever to the reader to extract the exact answers from the relevant context.

We denote our corpus for retrieval as $\mathcal{C} = \{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_D\}$, which is a collection of D documents. Formally speaking, the long context retriever is a function: $\mathcal{F} : (q, \mathcal{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{F}}$ that takes as input a question q and a corpus $\mathcal{C}$ and returns a filtered set of texts $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{F}} \subset \mathcal{C}$. In traditional RAG, $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{F}}$ is usually small which contains about hundred of tokens, which should contain exact information related to the question q . In our framework, $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{F}}$ is usually more than 4K tokens, which contains relevant but not exact information related to the question q . The long retriever function $\mathcal{F} : (q, \mathcal{C})$ is then divided into three steps:

Formulate long retrieval units A function is applied to the corpus to form M retrieval units: $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{C}) = \{g_1, g_2, \dots, g_M\}$. In traditional RAG, the retrieval unit g is typically a short span of passage which is split from the documents d , containing hundreds of tokens. In our framework, g could be as long as the whole document or even a group

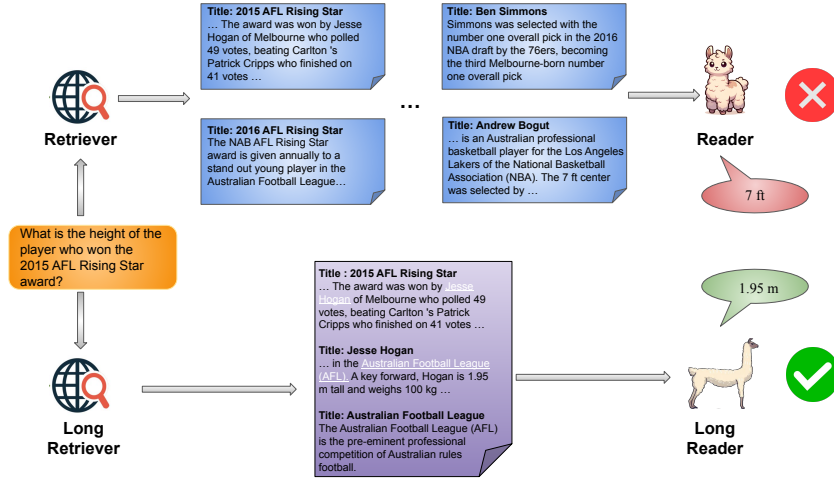


Figure 2: LongRAG example. We form the long retrieval unit which is at least 4K tokens by using the entire document or grouping related documents, depending on the original document size. In this example, multiple Wikipedia documents are grouped through hyperlinks. This approach enables even multi-hop question-answering cases from HotpotQA to be addressed using only a few retrieval units, which are then fed into a long reader.

of documents, resulting in much longer retrieval units. If the original document is already long (e.g., longer than 4K tokens), we treat the entire document as a single unit. If the original document is relatively short (e.g., shorter than 1K tokens), we group related documents together to form a single unit. We provide an example of a grouping algorithm in Appendix A.4.

By having a longer retrieval unit, there are two key advantages: First, only very few (e.g., 4 to 8 retrieval units) are fed into the reader, which greatly reduces the likelihood of encountering hard negatives compared to traditional RAG, which may require hundreds of short units in its reader. Second, by retaining the entire document or even related documents within a single retrieval unit, the contextual information is preserved.

Similarity search We utilize an encoder, denoted as $E_Q(\cdot)$, to map the input question to a d -dimensional vector. Additionally, we employ another encoder, $E_C(\cdot)$, to map the retrieval unit to a d -dimensional vector. We define the similarity between the question and the retrieval unit using the dot product of their vectors:

$$\text{sim}(q, g) = E_Q(q)^T E_C(g)$$

In LongRAG settings, $E_C(g)$ is challenging given the length of g , so we resort to an approximation as below.

$$\text{sim}(q, g) \approx \max_{g' \subseteq g} (E_Q(q)^T E_C(g'))$$

We approximate it by maximizing the scores of all chunks g' within the retrieval unit g , akin to the MaxP design in (Dai and Callan, 2019). We consider different levels of granularity of chunk g' , including 512 tokens, 4K tokens, and encoding the entire g completely. The empirical study about this settings is in Table 4. With this similarity score setup, we will retrieve the top k retrieval units closest to the given query. For efficient retrieval, we precompute the embedding of each retrieval unit g' and predict the exact inner product search index in FAISS (Johnson et al., 2019).

Aggregate retrieval result We will concatenate the top k retrieval units into the long context as the retrieval result, denoted by $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{F}} = \text{Concat}(g^1, g^2, \dots, g^k)$. Depending on the selection of retrieval units, a larger retrieval unit size will result in a smaller value of k being used. For instance, in NQ dataset, if the retrieval unit is a passage, k is approximately above 100; if it's a document, k is around 10; and for grouped documents as retrieval units, we typically set k to 4 to 8.

3.2 Long Reader

The long reader operates straightforwardly. We feed the related instruction i , the question q , and the long retrieval result $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{F}}$ into an LLM, enabling it to reason over the long context and generate the final output. It's important that the LLM used in the long reader can handle long contexts and does not exhibit excessive position bias. We select Gemini-

1.5-Pro (Reid et al., 2024) and GPT-4o (OpenAI, 2024) as our long reader given their strong ability to handle long context input. We utilize different approaches for short and long contexts. For short contexts, typically containing fewer than 1K tokens, we instruct the reader to directly generate the answer from the provided context retrieved from the corpus. For long contexts, typically longer than 4K tokens, we empirically find that using a similar prompt as for short contexts, where the model extracts the final answer directly from the long context, often leads to decreased performance. Instead, the most effective approach is to utilize the LLM as a chat model. Initially, it outputs a long answer, typically spanning a few words to a few sentences. Subsequently, we prompt it to generate a short answer by further extracting it from the long answer. The prompt is provided in the Appendix A.2.

4 Experiments

In this section, we will first provide detailed descriptions of the four datasets we use, followed by a demonstration of the retriever’s performance. Next, we will present the final question-answering performance. Finally, we conduct detailed ablation studies to explain why operating on long retrieval units benefits performance.

4.1 Dataset

Our proposed methods were tested on four question-answering datasets. The basic statistics are shown in Table 1. Additionally, we have provided some examples in Appendix A.5.

Dataset	Corpus source	Avg. Doc. Length	# of Documents	# of Text cases	Metric
NQ	Wikipedia	800	3M	3,610	EM
HotpotQA	Wikipedia	130	5.2M	7,405	EM
Qasper	Science	4.7K	416	371	F1
MultiFieldQA-en	Multi-field	6.9K	150	150	F1

Table 1: An overview of the four datasets used in our experiments is provided. “Corpus source” refers to the origin of the retrieval corpus. We selected NQ and HotpotQA from Wikipedia, Qasper from scientific documents, and MultifieldQA-en from multi-field documents.

4.2 Retrieval Performance

In this section, we present the retrieval performance on two extractive QA datasets, NQ and HotpotQA, to demonstrate that comparable retrieval performance can be achieved using only a few long retrieval units (such as 4 to 8). This approach contrasts with the use of hundreds of short retrieval

units, which may lead to information loss and the introduction of hard negatives that can confuse the reader and prevent the full utilization of long-context LLMs. For the other two datasets, it’s not straightforward to compare retrieval performance at different granularities since they are not extractive QA tasks. Therefore, we will directly discuss the final QA results in the next section.

Metrics Retrieval performance is measured using Answer Recall (AR) and Recall (R). For NQ, we use only answer recall, while for HotpotQA, we use both metrics. Answer Recall is the recall of the answer string in all the retrieved documents that we plan to use in the reader. For example, if the retrieval unit is at the “passage” level and the number of retrieval units is 100, answer recall measures whether the answer string is present in these 100 passages. For HotpotQA, we compute AR only for questions with span answers, specifically the “bridge” type questions, while ignoring yes/no and comparison questions, following previous work (Khalifa et al., 2022). Recall used for HotpotQA measures whether the two gold documents are present in all the retrieved results. For example, if the retrieval unit is at the “document” level and the number of retrieval units is 10, recall measures whether both gold documents are present among the 10 retrieval.

Experiment Setup We leverage open-sourced dense retrieval toolkit, Tevatron (Gao et al., 2022), for all our retrieval experiments. The base embedding model we used is bge-large-en-v1.5, a general-purpose embeddings model that isn’t specifically trained on our test data.

R.U.	Corpus Size	Num of R.U.	Avg. of Tokens		Answer Recall
			Corpus	Test Set	
Passage	22M	1	120	130	52.24
		100	12K	14K	89.92
		200	24K	28K	91.30
Document	3M	1	820	4K	69.45
		5	4K	18K	85.37
		10	8K	34K	88.12
Grouped Documents	600K	1	4K	6K	71.69
		4	16K	25K	86.30
		8	32K	50K	88.53

Table 2: The table illustrates the retrieval performance on NQ. R.U. in short of Retrieval Unit.

Table 2 and Table 3 have shown the retrieval results on NQ and HotpotQA. In the NQ dataset, we utilize three different retrieval units, ranging from shorter to longer: passage, document, and grouped documents. In the table, we have mentioned two kinds of average number of tokens in

R.U.	Corpus Size	Num of R.U.	Avg. Num of Tokens		Recall (R)	Answer Recall (AR)
			Corpus	Test Set		
Document	5.2M	2	130	200	30.01	47.75
		100	6.5K	10K	74.84	84.67
		200	13K	20K	79.68	88.34
Grouped Documents	500K	2	1K	8K	56.30	72.49
		8	4K	29K	74.71	84.40

Table 3: The table illustrates the retrieval performance on HotpotQA. R.U. in short of Retrieval Unit.

each retrieval unit: one for the entire corpus and one for each test set. The retrieval units for each test case can sometimes be much longer than the average size across the whole corpus, as the corpus might include some Wikipedia pages with very few words, while the test cases may focus more on longer documents. Generally, our long-context retriever (at the document level and grouped document level) uses retrieval units containing an average of 6K tokens. By using longer retrieval units, there are several advantages: 1) It will significantly alleviate the burden on the retriever by compressing the corpus size by approximately 30 times, from 22M to 600K. The top-1 answer recall improves by about 20 points, from 52.24 to 71.69. We could use significantly fewer retrieval units to achieve comparable retrieval performance. For instance, 8 retrieval units at the grouped document level can achieve similar recall as 100 retrieval units at the passage level. 2) It could provide more comprehensive information to the reader. In the original passage-level RAG setup, information might be incomplete due to the chunking operation. In the HotpotQA dataset, we observe similar results. One notable difference is that in HotpotQA, the retrieval units are only at the document level and grouped document level, as HotpotQA uses only abstract paragraphs from each Wikipedia page.

Model	Granularity	AR@1
BGE-Large	512-tokens chunk	71.7%
E5-Mistral-7B	4000-tokens chunk	54.2%
E5-Mistral-7B	entire grouped retrieval unit	23.4%

Table 4: Different methods to encode the long retrieval unit in the long retriever. Using a general embedding model and approximating by maximizing the similarity scores between the query and all chunks within the retrieval unit is better than using the existing long embedding model to encode the entire context.

Encode the long retrieval unit As discussed in Section 3.2, it’s very challenging to employ an encoder, $E_C(\cdot)$, to map the retrieval unit g to a d -dimensional vector when g is very long.

Therefore, we use an approximation in our proposed system. Table 4 demonstrates that our approximation, $\text{sim}(q, g) = E_Q(q)^T E_C(g) \approx \max_{g' \subseteq g} (E_Q(q)^T E_C(g'))$, is much more effective than encoding the entire long context directly. We compare three methods: 1) Using the general embedding model “bge-large-en-v1.5” (Xiao et al., 2023), with g' selected as text of 512-token size. 2) Using long embedding model “E5-Mistral-7B” (Zhu et al., 2024a), with g' selected as the whole document, which has an average size of 4K tokens. 3) Using long embeddings model “E5-Mistral-7B”, with no approximation, we encode the entire g , which is composed of multiple documents, directly. The average size of g is 6K tokens. We can notice from the table that our approximation by taking the maximum score between the query and each text piece from the long context produces much better results than encoding them directly using the long embedding model. We believe that future advancements in long embedding models, which focus on encoding long contexts or multiple documents, will further enhance our framework and reduce memory consumption.

4.3 Full QA Performance on Wikipedia-based Datasets

We leverage Gemini-1.5-Pro and GPT-4o as the reader in our LongRAG framework. The prompt we use for our experiments are in Table 7. For Wiki-based datasets, such as NQ and HotpotQA, which generate short answers typically less than 5 tokens, we use EM (Exact Match rate) as the evaluation metric. We also refine the standard exact match rate definition to more fairly evaluate LongRAG’s performance. More details can be found in Section A.3.

For NQ and HotpotQA, we compare our model with several groups of strong previous models as baselines. The first group is “**Closed-Book**”: These baselines mean that no retrieval component is used; instead, state-of-the-art LLMs are employed to directly obtain the final result. We evaluate our results on Gemini-1.5-pro (Reid et al., 2024), Claude-3-Opus (Anthropic, 2024) and GPT-4-Turbo (Achiam et al., 2023). All models are evaluated on 16-shot in-context learning with direct prompting; The second group is “**Fully-supervised RAG**”, and these baselines involve full-supervised fine-tuning on the training dataset. The third group is “**No Fine-tuning RAG**”, and these baselines doesn’t involve any supervised fine-tuning. The

NQ	EM
Closed-Book	
GPT-4-Turbo (Achiam et al., 2023)	41.2
Gemini-1.5-Pro (Reid et al., 2024)	47.8
Claude-3-Opus (Anthropic, 2024)	49.2
Fully-supervised RAG	
REALM (Gua et al., 2020)	40.4
DPR (Karpukhin et al., 2020)	41.5
RAG (Lewis et al., 2020)	44.5
RETRO (Borgeaud et al., 2022)	45.5
RePAQ (Lewis et al., 2021)	47.8
FID (Izacard and Grave, 2020b)	51.4
EMDR ² (Singh et al., 2021)	52.5
FID-KD (Izacard and Grave, 2021)	54.7
R2-D2 (Fajcik et al., 2021)	55.9
Atlas (Izacard et al., 2022)	64.0
No Fine-tuning RAG	
REPLUG (Shi et al., 2023)	44.7
REPLUG + LSR (Shi et al., 2023)	45.5
LongRAG (Gemini-1.5-Pro; Recall 4 units)	58.6
LongRAG (GPT-4o; Recall 4 units)	62.7
HotpotQA	
Closed-Book	
Claude-3-Opus (Anthropic, 2024)	32.8
Gemini-1.5-Pro (Reid et al., 2024)	33.9
GPT-4-Turbo (Achiam et al., 2023)	42.4
Fully-supervised RAG	
DrKIT (Dhingra et al., 2020)	42.1
Transformer-XH (Zhao et al., 2019)	51.6
QAMAT+ (Chen et al., 2023b)	57.6
HGN (Fang et al., 2019)	59.7
PathRetriever (Asai et al., 2019)	60.0
HopRetrieve (Li et al., 2021)	62.1
MDR (Xiong et al., 2020b)	62.3
HopRetrieve-plus (Li et al., 2021)	66.5
AISO (Zhu et al., 2021)	68.1
COS (Ma et al., 2023)	68.2
No Fine-tuning RAG	
DSP (Khattab et al., 2022)	51.4
PromptRank (Khalifa et al., 2023)	55.7
LongRAG (Gemini-1.5-Pro; Recall 8 units)	57.5
LongRAG (GPT-4o; Recall 8 units)	64.3

Table 5: The tables show the QA results on the NQ test dataset (left) and Hotpot-QA dev set (right).

QA results on NQ and HotpotQA are presented in Table 5. On the NQ dataset, LongRAG achieves a 62.7 exact match rate, which is on par of the strongest fine-tuned RAG model like Atlas. On the HotpotQA dataset, LongRAG achieves a 64.3 exact match rate, which is also close to the SoTA fully-supervised RAG frameworks.

4.4 Full QA Performance on non-Wikipedia-based Datasets

For datasets that generate long answers, such as Qasper and MultifieldQA-en, we use the token-level F1 score (F1) as the evaluation metric. For

Qasper and MultifieldQA-en, since we repurpose the datasets from single-document QA to a RAG task, we do not directly compare the results with previous models. Instead, we compare the performance of traditional RAG, which operates on 200-token passages, with our LongRAG, which operates on entire documents ranging from 4K to 6K tokens. The results are shown in Table 6. We observe that using long retrieval units at the whole document level performs better than using hundreds of short chunked retrieval units. On the Qasper dataset, gathering 100 short retrieval units of 200 tokens each into the reader achieves a 22.6% F1 score, while using a single long retrieval unit of 5K tokens achieves a 26.3% F1 score. Similarly, on the MultifieldQA-en dataset, gathering 100 short retrieval units of 200 tokens each into the reader results in a 51.3% F1 score, whereas using five long retrieval units of 7K tokens each results in a 57.5% F1 score.

Retrieval Unit	Num of Retrieval Units	Qasper	MultifieldQA-en
Passage	1	15.5	38.9
	10	20.6	47.3
	100	22.6	51.3
	200	21.9	50.9
Document	1	26.3	49.4
	2	25.9	50.2
	5	23.9	57.5
	10	21.6	56.8

Table 6: This table presents the QA results on two non-Wiki datasets: Qasper and MultifieldQA-en. The results are evaluated based on token-level F1. Both datasets contain long documents, averaging at least 4K tokens. The results demonstrate that our LongRAG, which operates on long retrieval units, achieves better performance compared to traditional RAG, which operates on short retrieval units.

4.5 Ablation Studies

We perform several in-depth ablation to understand what are the important factors in our LongRAG system including “unit size” and “reader variant”.

Retrieval Unit Selection Figure 3 compare different retrieval unit settings of LongRAG, specifically focusing on the selection of retrieval unit granularity and the optimal number of retrieval units used in the reader. We have two observations: First, regardless of which retrieval unit is selected, there will be a turning point where feeding more retrieval units into the reader becomes detrimental. This is due to the excessive burden placed on the reader, preventing it from effectively understanding and extracting relevant information

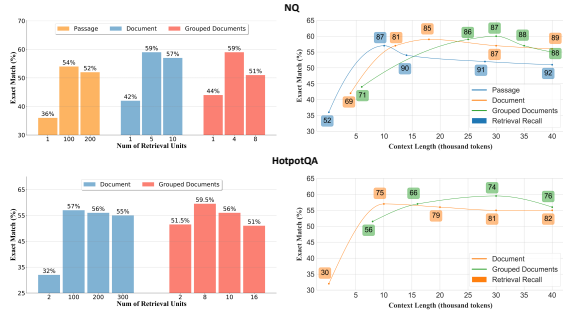


Figure 3: This figure compares different settings of LongRAG, using 200 test cases from the test set to evaluate various retrieval unit selections, demonstrating the effectiveness of our LongRAG design. The upper part of the figure shows the NQ dataset, while the lower part displays the HotpotQA dataset. On the left, it illustrates how the overall performance changes with different settings of retrieval unit size and the number of units fed into the reader; on the right, it shows that the end performance does not increase monotonically with the recall score, and LongRAG is more robust to the influence of “hard negatives” as the context length of the reader increases.

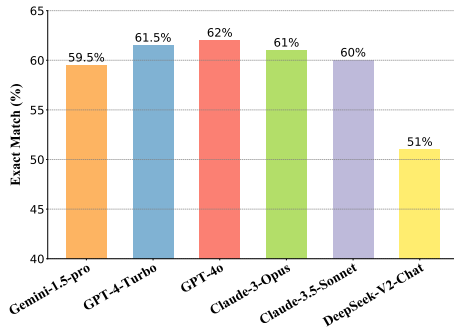


Figure 4: This figure compares different readers of LongRAG on the NQ dataset. This table leverages 200 test cases from the test set to help compare performance using different readers.

from the long context. Taking NQ as an example: for passage-level retrieval units, the turning point occurs between 100 and 200; for document-level retrieval units, the turning point is between 5 and 10; and for grouped documents level, the turning point is between 4 and 8. In general, the most suitable context length fed into the reader is around 30K tokens. Second, using long retrieval units shows improved performance when comparing passage-level retrieval units with document-level or grouped document-level retrieval units.

Recall vs. EM In Figure 3, we compare the relationship between retrieval recall and end performance across varying context lengths for different retrieval unit selections. We observe that using

fewer retrieval units in the reader with longer retrieval units design reduces the introduction of distractors or hard negatives under a given length budget. Consequently, the end performance does not increase monotonically with the recall score. In the future, with advancements in long embedding models and improved retrieval recall for long retrieval units, we can expect better end performance.

Reader Model In Figure 4, we compare the performance of six different readers: Gemini-1.5-pro, GPT-4-Turbo, GPT-4o, Claude-3-Opus, Claude-3.5-Sonnet and DeepSeek-V2-Chat. The results indicate that GPT-4o achieves the highest exact match score on the 200 test questions of the NQ dataset among the three models. This suggests that GPT-4o is the most effective in the role of a long reader in the LongRAG framework. The enhanced performance of GPT-4o can be attributed to its superior ability to process and comprehend lengthy contexts, ensuring that crucial information is accurately extracted. Therefore, we mainly report the GPT-4o results in our main table. Besides, Gemini-1.5-pro, GPT-4-Turbo, Claude-3-Opus, and Claude-3.5-Sonnet could achieve very similar results. These state-of-the-art black box LLMs are also effective readers within the LongRAG framework. Deepseek-V2-Chat is one of the best open-source LLMs, but its performance degrades significantly compared to the previous five black-box LLMs. The above experiments demonstrate that our current framework depends on the long-context understanding ability of LLMs, and we still have a long way to go in harnessing open-source LLMs within our framework.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a new framework, LongRAG, to alleviate the imbalance between the burden of the retriever. The LongRAG framework consists of a “long retriever” and a “long reader” component on top of the 4K-token retrieval units. Our proposed framework can significantly reduce the corpus size, enabling strong retrieval recall using only a few top units, thereby minimizing noise from hard negatives. On the other hand, the long retrieval unit preserves the semantic integrity of each document. We test our framework on four end-to-end question answering tasks and demonstrate its superior performance without any training. We believe LongRAG can pave the road for the modern RAG system design.

Limitation

There are three major limitations of our proposed framework. First, it relies on the long embedding model. Although recent studies have made progress in this direction, there is still a need for stronger long embedding models. In our work, we use an approximation to calculate the semantic score with a regular embedding model, which proves more effective than using a long embedding model. Future improvements in long embedding models could help us further enhance the performance of our system and reduce the storage size of corpus embeddings if the entire long context could be encoded directly. The second limitation is that we only use a black-box LLM as the reader. A reader that supports long input and is less affected by position bias is necessary. Currently, most open-source LLMs do not meet these requirements. The third limitation is that our grouping methods are based on hyperlinks, which are specific to the Wikipedia corpus. A more general grouping method should be considered.

References

- Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman, Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, et al. 2023. Gpt-4 technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774*.
- Chenxin An, Fei Huang, Jun Zhang, Shansan Gong, Xipeng Qiu, Chang Zhou, and Lingpeng Kong. 2024. Training-free long-context scaling of large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.17463*.
- Anthropic. 2024. Introducing the next generation of claude.
- Akari Asai, Kazuma Hashimoto, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Richard Socher, and Caiming Xiong. 2019. Learning to retrieve reasoning paths over wikipedia graph for question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1911.10470*.
- Yushi Bai, Xin Lv, Jiajie Zhang, Hongchang Lyu, Jiankai Tang, Zhidian Huang, Zhengxiao Du, Xiao Liu, Aohan Zeng, Lei Hou, et al. 2023. Longbench: A bilingual, multitask benchmark for long context understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.14508*.
- Sebastian Borgeaud, Arthur Mensch, Jordan Hoffmann, Trevor Cai, Eliza Rutherford, Katie Millican, George Bm Van Den Driessche, Jean-Baptiste Lespiau, Bogdan Damoc, Aidan Clark, et al. 2022. Improving language models by retrieving from trillions of tokens. In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 2206–2240. PMLR.
- Danqi Chen, Adam Fisch, Jason Weston, and Antoine Bordes. 2017. Reading wikipedia to answer open-domain questions. In *Proceedings of the 55th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 1870–1879.
- Jianlv Chen, Shitao Xiao, Peitian Zhang, Kun Luo, Defu Lian, and Zheng Liu. 2024. Bge m3-embedding: Multi-lingual, multi-functionality, multi-granularity text embeddings through self-knowledge distillation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.03216*.
- Shouyuan Chen, Sherman Wong, Liangjian Chen, and Yuandong Tian. 2023a. Extending context window of large language models via positional interpolation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2306.15595*.
- Wenhu Chen, Pat Verga, Michiel de Jong, John Wieting, and William Cohen. 2023b. Augmenting pre-trained language models with qa-memory for open-domain question answering. In *Proceedings of the 17th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 1597–1610.
- Hao Cheng, Yelong Shen, Xiaodong Liu, Pengcheng He, Weizhu Chen, and Jianfeng Gao. 2021. Unitedqa: A hybrid approach for open domain question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2101.00178*.
- Zhuyun Dai and Jamie Callan. 2019. Deeper text understanding for ir with contextual neural language modeling. In *Proceedings of the 42nd international ACM SIGIR conference on research and development in information retrieval*, pages 985–988.
- Tri Dao, Dan Fu, Stefano Ermon, Atri Rudra, and Christopher Ré. 2022. Flashattention: Fast and memory-efficient exact attention with io-awareness. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:16344–16359.
- Pradeep Dasigi, Kyle Lo, Iz Beltagy, Arman Cohan, Noah A Smith, and Matt Gardner. 2021. A dataset of information-seeking questions and answers anchored in research papers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2105.03011*.
- Bhuwan Dhingra, Manzil Zaheer, Vidhisha Balachandran, Graham Neubig, Ruslan Salakhutdinov, and William W Cohen. 2020. Differentiable reasoning over a virtual knowledge base. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2002.10640*.
- Martin Fajcik, Martin Docekal, Karel Ondrej, and Pavel Smrz. 2021. R2-d2: A modular baseline for open-domain question answering. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2021*, pages 854–870.
- Yuwei Fang, Siqi Sun, Zhe Gan, Rohit Pillai, Shuohang Wang, and Jingjing Liu. 2019. Hierarchical graph network for multi-hop question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1911.03631*.
- Luyu Gao, Xueguang Ma, Jimmy J. Lin, and Jamie Callan. 2022. Tevatron: An efficient and flexible toolkit for dense retrieval. *ArXiv*, abs/2203.05765.

691	Michael Günther, Jackmin Ong, Isabelle Mohr, Alaeddine Abdessalem, Tanguy Abel, Mohammad Kalim Akram, Susana Guzman, Georgios Mastrapas, Saba Sturua, Bo Wang, et al. 2023. Jina embeddings 2: 8192-token general-purpose text embeddings for long documents. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.19923</i> .	
692		
693		
694		
695		
696		
697	Kelvin Guu, Kenton Lee, Zora Tung, Panupong Pasupat, and Mingwei Chang. 2020. Retrieval augmented language model pre-training. In <i>International conference on machine learning</i> , pages 3929–3938. PMLR.	
698		
699		
700		
701	Yaru Hao, Yutao Sun, Li Dong, Zhixiong Han, Yuxian Gu, and Furu Wei. 2022. Structured prompting: Scaling in-context learning to 1, 000 examples. <i>ArXiv</i> , abs/2212.06713.	
702		
703		
704		
705	Gautier Izacard and Edouard Grave. 2020a. Distilling knowledge from reader to retriever for question answering. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2012.04584</i> .	
706		
707		
708	Gautier Izacard and Edouard Grave. 2020b. Leveraging passage retrieval with generative models for open domain question answering. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2007.01282</i> .	
709		
710		
711		
712	Gautier Izacard and Edouard Grave. 2021. Distilling knowledge from reader to retriever for question answering. In <i>ICLR 2021-9th International Conference on Learning Representations</i> .	
713		
714		
715		
716	Gautier Izacard, Patrick Lewis, Maria Lomeli, Lucas Hosseini, Fabio Petroni, Timo Schick, Jane A. Yu, Armand Joulin, Sebastian Riedel, and Edouard Grave. 2022. Few-shot learning with retrieval augmented language models. <i>ArXiv</i> , abs/2208.03299.	
717		
718		
719		
720		
721	Hongye Jin, Xiaotian Han, Jingfeng Yang, Zhimeng Jiang, Zirui Liu, Chia-Yuan Chang, Huiyuan Chen, and Xia Hu. 2024. Llm maybe longlm: Self-extend llm context window without tuning. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2401.01325</i> .	
722		
723		
724		
725		
726	Jeff Johnson, Matthijs Douze, and Hervé Jégou. 2019. Billion-scale similarity search with gpus. <i>IEEE Transactions on Big Data</i> , 7(3):535–547.	
727		
728		
729	Vladimir Karpukhin, Barlas Oğuz, Sewon Min, Patrick Lewis, Ledell Wu, Sergey Edunov, Danqi Chen, and Wen-tau Yih. 2020. Dense passage retrieval for open-domain question answering. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.04906</i> .	
730		
731		
732		
733		
734	Muhammad Khalifa, Lajanugen Logeswaran, Moon-tae Lee, Honglak Lee, and Lu Wang. 2022. Few-shot reranking for multi-hop qa via language model prompting. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.12650</i> .	
735		
736		
737		
738	Muhammad Khalifa, Lajanugen Logeswaran, Moon-tae Lee, Honglak Lee, and Lu Wang. 2023. Few-shot reranking for multi-hop qa via language model prompting. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.12650</i> .	
739		
740		
741		
742	Omar Khattab, Keshav Santhanam, Xiang Lisa Li, David Hall, Percy Liang, Christopher Potts,	
743		
	and Matei Zaharia. 2022. Demonstrate-search-predict: Composing retrieval and language models for knowledge-intensive nlp. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.14024</i> .	744 745 746 747
	Tom Kwiatkowski, Jennimaria Palomaki, Olivia Redfield, Michael Collins, Ankur Parikh, Chris Alberti, Danielle Epstein, Illia Polosukhin, Jacob Devlin, Kenton Lee, et al. 2019. Natural questions: a benchmark for question answering research. <i>Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics</i> , 7:453–466.	748 749 750 751 752 753 754
	Patrick Lewis, Ethan Perez, Aleksandara Piktus, Fabio Petroni, Vladimir Karpukhin, Naman Goyal, Heinrich Kuttler, Mike Lewis, Wen tau Yih, Tim Rocktäschel, Sebastian Riedel, and Douwe Kiela. 2020. Retrieval-augmented generation for knowledge-intensive nlp tasks. <i>ArXiv</i> , abs/2005.11401.	755 756 757 758 759 760
	Patrick Lewis, Yuxiang Wu, Linqing Liu, Pasquale Minervini, Heinrich Kuttler, Aleksandra Piktus, Pontus Stenatorp, and Sebastian Riedel. 2021. Paq: 65 million probably-asked questions and what you can do with them. <i>Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics</i> , 9:1098–1115.	761 762 763 764 765 766
	Shaobo Li, Xiaoguang Li, Lifeng Shang, Xin Jiang, Qun Liu, Chengjie Sun, Zhenzhou Ji, and Bingquan Liu. 2021. Hopretriever: Retrieve hops over wikipedia to answer complex questions. In <i>Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence</i> , volume 35, pages 13279–13287.	767 768 769 770 771 772
	Jiaheng Liu, Zhiqi Bai, Yuanxing Zhang, Chenchen Zhang, Yu Zhang, Ge Zhang, Jiakai Wang, Haoran Que, Yukang Chen, Wenbo Su, et al. 2024. E ² -llm: Efficient and extreme length extension of large language models. <i>Findings of ACL 2024</i> .	773 774 775 776 777
	Kaixin Ma, Hao Cheng, Yu Zhang, Xiaodong Liu, Eric Nyberg, and Jianfeng Gao. 2023. Chain-of-skills: A configurable model for open-domain question answering. In <i>The 61st Annual Meeting Of The Association For Computational Linguistics</i> .	778 779 780 781 782
	Grégoire Mialon, Roberto Dessì, Maria Lomeli, Christoforos Nalmpantis, Ram Pasunuru, Roberta Raileanu, Baptiste Rozière, Timo Schick, Jane Dwivedi-Yu, Asli Celikyilmaz, et al. 2023. Augmented language models: a survey. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.07842</i> .	783 784 785 786 787
	Zach Nussbaum, John X Morris, Brandon Duderstadt, and Andriy Mulyar. 2024. Nomic embed: Training a reproducible long context text embedder. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.01613</i> .	788 789 790 791
	OpenAI. 2024. Hello gpt4-o.	792
	Bowen Peng and Jeffrey Quesnelle. 2023. Ntk-aware scaled rope allows llama models to have extended (8k+) context size without any fine-tuning and minimal perplexity degradation. https://www.reddit.com/r/LocalLLaMA/comments/14lz7j5/ntkaware_scaled_rope_allows_llama_models_to_have .	793 794 795 796 797 798 799

800	Bowen Peng, Jeffrey Quesnelle, Honglu Fan, and Enrico Shippole. 2023. Yarn: Efficient context window extension of large language models. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2309.00071</i> .	855	Shitao Xiao, Zheng Liu, Peitian Zhang, and Niklas Muennighoff. 2023. C-pack: Packaged resources to advance general chinese embedding. <i>arXiv:2309.07597</i> .	856
801		857		858
802				
803				
804	Ofir Press, Noah Smith, and Mike Lewis. 2021. Train short, test long: Attention with linear biases enables input length extrapolation. In <i>International Conference on Learning Representations</i> .	859	Lee Xiong, Chenyan Xiong, Ye Li, Kwok-Fung Tang, Jialin Liu, Paul Bennett, Junaid Ahmed, and Arnold Overwijk. 2020a. Approximate nearest neighbor negative contrastive learning for dense text retrieval. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2007.00808</i> .	860
805		861		862
806		862		863
807				
808	Yingqi Qu, Yuchen Ding, Jing Liu, Kai Liu, Ruiyang Ren, Wayne Xin Zhao, Daxiang Dong, Hua Wu, and Haifeng Wang. 2020. Rocketqa: An optimized training approach to dense passage retrieval for open-domain question answering. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.08191</i> .	864	Wenhan Xiong, Xiang Lorraine Li, Srini Iyer, Jingfei Du, Patrick Lewis, William Yang Wang, Yashar Mehdad, Wen-tau Yih, Sebastian Riedel, Douwe Kiela, et al. 2020b. Answering complex open-domain questions with multi-hop dense retrieval. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2009.12756</i> .	865
809		866		867
810		867		868
811		868		869
812				
813				
814	Nir Ratner, Yoav Levine, Yonatan Belinkov, Ori Ram, Inbal Magar, Omri Abend, Ehud Karpas, Amnon Shashua, Kevin Leyton-Brown, and Yoav Shoham. 2023. Parallel context windows for large language models . In <i>Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)</i> , pages 6383–6402, Toronto, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.	870	Zhilin Yang, Peng Qi, Saizheng Zhang, Yoshua Bengio, William W Cohen, Ruslan Salakhutdinov, and Christopher D Manning. 2018. Hotpotqa: A dataset for diverse, explainable multi-hop question answering. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:1809.09600</i> .	871
815		871		872
816		872		873
817		873		874
818				
819				
820				
821				
822	Machel Reid, Nikolay Savinov, Denis Teplyashin, Dmitry Lepikhin, Timothy Lillicrap, Jean-baptiste Alayrac, Radu Soricut, Angeliki Lazaridou, Orhan Firat, Julian Schrittwieser, et al. 2024. Gemini 1.5: Unlocking multimodal understanding across millions of tokens of context. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.05530</i> .	875	Donghan Yu, Chenguang Zhu, Yuwei Fang, Wenhao Yu, Shuohang Wang, Yichong Xu, Xiang Ren, Yiming Yang, and Michael Zeng. 2021. Kg-fid: Infusing knowledge graph in fusion-in-decoder for open-domain question answering. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.04330</i> .	876
823		876		877
824		877		878
825		878		879
826		879		880
827				
828	Jon Saad-Falcon, Daniel Y Fu, Simran Arora, Neel Guha, and Christopher Ré. 2024. Benchmarking and building long-context retrieval models with loco and m2-bert. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.07440</i> .	881	Wenhao Yu. 2022. Retrieval-augmented generation across heterogeneous knowledge. In <i>Proceedings of the 2022 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies: Student Research Workshop</i> , pages 52–58.	882
829		882		883
830		883		884
831		884		885
832		885		886
833				
834				
835				
836				
837	WeiJia Shi, Sewon Min, Michihiro Yasunaga, Minjoon Seo, Rich James, Mike Lewis, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Wen-tau Yih. 2023. Replug: Retrieval-augmented black-box language models. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2301.12652</i> .	887	Wenhao Yu, Zhihan Zhang, Zhenwen Liang, Meng Jiang, and Ashish Sabharwal. 2023. Improving language models via plug-and-play retrieval feedback. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.14002</i> .	888
838		888		889
839		889		890
840				
841				
842				
843				
844				
845				
846				
847				
848				
849				
850				
851				
852				
853				
854				
855				
856				
857				
858				
859				
860				
861				
862				
863				
864				
865				
866				
867				
868				
869				
870				
871				
872				
873				
874				
875				
876				
877				
878				
879				
880				
881				
882				
883				
884				
885				
886				
887				
888				
889				
890				
891				
892				
893				
894				
895				
896				
897				
898				
899				
900				
901				
902				
903				
904				
905				
906				
907				
908				
909				

A Appendix

A.1 Datasets Details

Natural Question (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019) is designed for end-to-end question answering. The questions are mined from real Google search queries and the answers were spans in Wikipedia articles identified by annotators. This dataset contains 3,610 questions. For NQ, we use the Wikipedia dumps from December 20, 2018, which contain approximately 3 million documents and 22 million passages.

HotpotQA (Yang et al., 2018) consists of two-hop questions over diverse topics. We focus on the fullwiki setting in which two Wikipedia passages are required to answer the questions. Since the gold passages for the test set are not available, we follow prior work (Xiong et al., 2020b) and evaluate on the development set, which has 7,405 questions. There are two main question types in HotpotQA: (1) comparison questions usually require contrasting two entities and (2) bridge questions can be answered by following a connecting entity that links one document to another. For HotpotQA, we use the abstract paragraphs from the October 1, 2017 dump, which contain around 5 million documents.

Qasper (Dasigi et al., 2021) is an information-seeking question answering dataset over academic research papers. Each question is written as a followup to the title and abstract of a particular paper, and the answer, if present, is identified in the rest of the paper. The original Qasper dataset is a single-document QA dataset. We refactor it into a RAG task, where the system first retrieves the necessary document and then answers the given question, following a design similar to LoCoV1 (Saad-Falcon et al., 2024).

MultifieldQA-en (Bai et al., 2023) is a question-answering dataset based on long documents from diverse sources, including legal documents, government reports, encyclopedias, and academic papers. The original MultifieldQA-en is a single-document QA dataset. We refactor the dataset into a RAG task, where the system first retrieves the necessary document and then answers the given question, following a design similar to LoCoV1 (Saad-Falcon et al., 2024).

A.2 Prompts Template for Long Context Reader

We have put out prompts used for the experiments in Table 7. For the closed-book method, we use

16-shot in-context examples. For LongRAG, we use a two-turn approach to extract the final answer. In the first turn, the long retrieved context and the question are concatenated as input, and we do not use any in-context examples here due to the context being around 30K tokens. Empirically, we found it beneficial to let the reader generate a longer answer initially, typically ranging from a few words to a few sentences. In the second turn, we use 8-shot in-context examples to guide the reader in further extracting the most important part of the long answer as the short answer, which is typically just a few words.

A.3 Refined Metric

The most standard metric used in open-domain extractive question answering tasks is EM (Exact Match), since the correct answer must be a substring within the corpus. In our framework, since the long retrieved context, which contains multiple highly-related documents to the given query, is fed into the reader, there is a much higher possibility that an alias of the ground truth exists in the context and can be extracted by the reader. As shown in Table 8, although LongRAG’s prediction doesn’t exactly match the ground truth, it’s obvious that LongRAG’s prediction is correct. To better and more fairly evaluate LongRAG’s performance, we have refined the EM metric slightly. We recognize it as an exact match if the prediction is less than five tokens (indicating that the short answer is successfully extracted as described in Section A.2) and the ground truth is a substring of the prediction or vice versa. We have also manually verified that this refined metric indeed captures aliases or other forms of the ground truth. For the fully-supervised RAG baselines used in our paper, given that they are fine-tuned on the training data and the retrieval unit is a small snippet, we believe that the difference won’t be significant when using the refined EM.

Method	Prompt
CLOSED-BOOK	Here are some examples of questions and their corresponding answer, each with a “Question” field and an “Answer” field. Answer the question directly and don’t output other thing. “Question”: ... “Answer”: ... “Question”: ... “Answer”: “Question”: ... “Answer”: ... Answer the following question. “Question”: who is the owner of reading football club “Answer”:
LONGRAG	Turn 1: Go through the following context and then answer the question. The context is a list of Wikipedia documents, ordered by title: Each Wikipedia document contains a title field and a text field. The context is: “Title”: ... “Text”: ... “Title”: ... “Text”: “Title”: ... “Text”: ... Find the useful documents from the context, then answer the question: when did the philadelphia eagles play in the super bowl last. Answer the question directly. Your response should be very concise. Turn 2: You have been provided with a question and its long answer. Your task is to derive a very concise short answer from the given long answer. It’s important to ensure that the output short answer remains as simple as possible. Here a few examples: “Question”: ... “Long Answer”: ... “Short Answer”: ... “Question”: ... “Long Answer”: ... “Short Answer”: “Question”: ... “Long Answer”: ... “Short Answer”: ... Extract the short answer of the following question and long answer: “Question”: when did the philadelphia eagles play in the super bowl last “Long Answer”: The Philadelphia Eagles last played in the Super Bowl on February 4, 2018, in Super Bowl LII. “Short Answer”:

Table 7: Here are the prompts we used for all the experiments. For the closed-book method, we use 16-shot in-context examples. For LongRAG, we use a two-turn approach to extract the final answer. The first turn doesn’t require any in-context examples and generate a longer answer, typically ranging from a few words to a few sentences. In the second turn, we use 8-shot in-context examples to calibrate and extract the exact short answer, which is typically just a few words.

Question	Ground truth	LongRAG prediction
where does the bob and tom show broadcast from	Indianapolis , Indiana	Indianapolis
who has given the theory of unbalanced economic growth	Hirschman	Albert O. Hirschman
when does season 6 of the next step start	2018	September 29, 2018
what was the precursor to the present day internet	the ARPANET project	ARPANET

Table 8: Some examples demonstrate that LongRAG has extracted aliases or different forms of the ground truth.

A.4 Group Documents Algorithm

In this section, we provide an example algorithm used to formulate long retrieval units by grouping

1000

1001

1002

multiple short documents, which we applied in the NQ and HotpotQA experiments in our paper. In the algorithm, whether two documents are related can be determined by any reasonable function, such as hyperlinks, word frequency, or structural information from the dataset. In the two Wikipedia-related question-answering tasks in our paper, NQ and HotpotQA, we use the hyperlinks embedded in the text to describe the relationships between documents.

Algorithm 1 Example Group Documents Algorithm

Input: S (max number of tokens per group), D (list of documents), $\text{adj}[d]$ (related documents for each document d), $\text{deg}(d)$ (number of related documents for each document d)

Output: $\mathcal{G}$ (set of groups)

Sort D from low degree to high degree based on $\text{deg}(d)$

Initialize an empty set of groups $\mathcal{G}$

for each document d in D **do**

$\text{related_groups} \leftarrow \emptyset$

for each related document r in $\text{adj}[d]$ **do**

for each group g in $\mathcal{G}$ **do**

if $r \in g$ **then**

$\text{related_groups} \leftarrow \text{related_groups} \cup \{g\}$

end if

end for

end for

Create a new group $g_{\text{new}} = \{d\}$

Sort related_groups by their size

for each group g in related_groups **do**

if $|g_{\text{new}}| + |g| \leq S$ **then**

$g_{\text{new}} \leftarrow g_{\text{new}} \cup g$

Remove g from $\mathcal{G}$

end if

end for

Add g_{new} to $\mathcal{G}$

end for

return $\mathcal{G}$

A.5 Dataset Examples

Here, we present a few examples from the four datasets we experiment with.

Method	Prompt
NQ	Question: how many episodes are in series 7 game of thrones Answer: seven
HOTPOTQA	Question: What government position was held by the woman who portrayed Corliss Archer in the film Kiss and Tell? Answer: Chief of Protocol
QASPER	Question: In the paper 'End-to-End Trainable Non-Collaborative Dialog System', How is intent annotated? Answer: using a role-playing task on the Amazon Mechanical Turk platform and collecting typed conversations
MULTIFIELDQA-EN	Question: What is the name of the most active fan club? Answer: South West Ultras fan club.

Table 9: Here are some examples from the four datasets used in our experiments.