

Dense Retrieval for Efficient Paper Retrieval in Academic Question Answering

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Abstract

The overarching goal of academic data mining is to deepen our comprehension of the development, nature, and trends of science. It offers the potential to unlock enormous scientific, technological, and educational value. To facilitate related research, Tsinghua University and Zhipu AI have presented the Open Academic Graph Challenge (OAG-Challenge) and published several realistic and challenging datasets [29].

In this paper, we present our solution for the KDD Cup 2024 Academic Question Answering (AQA) task. Participants are required to retrieve the most relevant papers to answer given professional questions from a pool of candidate papers. To address this challenge, we constructed a bi-encoder model for academic paper retrieval. We conducted extensive experiments, exploring various language models (LMs) and ensembling them to boost performance. Additionally, we explored the incorporation of hard negative examples and a reranking model. Our team achieved high-quality results and demonstrated competitive performance in the competition, with mean average precision (MAP) scores of 0.20900 (top-6) and 0.18466 (top-7) on the validation and test sets, respectively. We have released our source code¹.

CCS Concepts

• Information systems → Information retrieval; • Computing methodologies → Natural language processing.

Keywords

Information Retrieval, Academic Question Answering, Open Academic Graph Challenge

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¹https://github.com/anaivebird/KDD_AQA_2024

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Table 1: Statistics of the datasets

	#Size	#Avg. question words	#Avg. body words
Training	8,757	9.25	176.31
Validation	2,919	9.91	148.18
Test	3,000	11.56	103.19
	#Size	#Avg. title words	#Avg. abstract words
Papers	352,651	10.43	159.92

1 Introduction

KDD Cup 2024 OAG-Challenge consists of three tasks: author name disambiguation (AND), academic question answering (AQA), and paper source tracing (PST). In this paper, we focus on the AQA task, which involves retrieving the most relevant papers to answer given professional questions from a pool of candidate papers. In this section, we formalize the dataset and task description.

1.1 Dataset Description

The training set consists of 8757 samples, where each sample includes three fields: question, body, and pids. In this context, body refers to the detailed analysis of the question, and pids represents the paper IDs which are relevant to the question (i.e., positive samples). The validation set and test set have a similar format to the training set but do not include pids. The validation set contains 2919 samples, while the test set contains 3000 samples. Additionally, there are 352,651 candidate papers, each containing pid, title and abstract fields. The statistics of the datasets are summarized in Table 1.

1.2 Task Description

Based on the rich landscape of academic data mining, the AQA task aims to retrieve the most relevant papers to answer given professional questions from a pool of candidate papers. This task plays a crucial role in advancing knowledge acquisition and understanding cognitive impacts within academic research domains. Participants are required to submit a sorted list of the top 20 papers for each question in the test set, and the online evaluation metric used is the top-k mean average precision (MAP) as follows:

$$AP(V_q) = \frac{1}{R_q} \sum_{k=1}^M P_q(k) 1_k \quad (1)$$

$$MAP = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{q=1}^n AP(V_q) \quad (2)$$

where R_q is the number of paper IDs labeled as positives, M represents the total number of candidate papers in the database, n represents the number of samples in the test set, $P_q(k)$ is the precision at the cut-off k in the ranking list of question V_q , and 1_k is an indicator function; $1_k = 1$ if the paper ranked at position k is the correct answer, otherwise $1_k = 0$.

2 METHODOLOGY

The pipeline of our solution is shown in Figure 1 and includes data preprocessing, representation learning, and reranking. We first present the details of data analysis and preprocessing in § 2.1. Representation learning is introduced in § 2.2, and reranking is detailed in § 2.3.

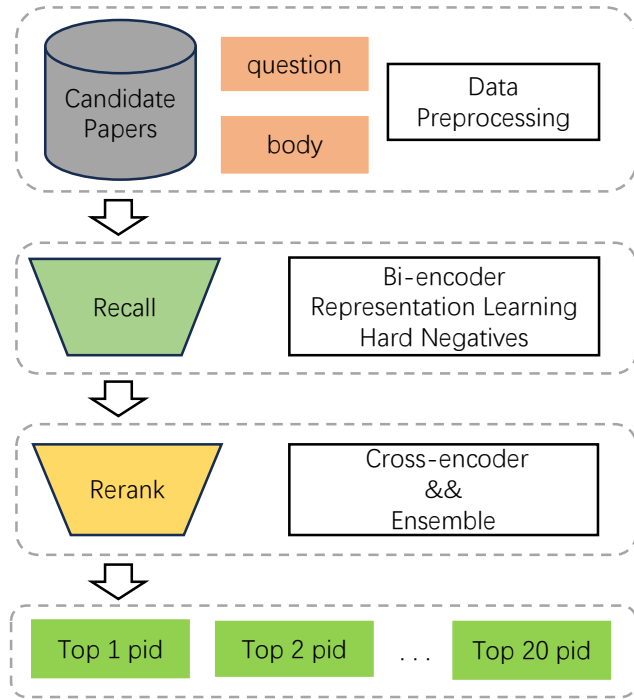


Figure 1: The pipeline of our solution.

2.1 Data Analysis and Preprocessing

We first analyzed the token distribution for the question, body, title, and abstract in the training set. In the experiment, there is not a significant difference in the number of tokens across all models. Here, we take the tokenizer of "Alibaba-NLP/gte-large-en-v1.5" [17] as an example. The results are displayed in Figure 2. It can be observed that the body contains more tokens compared to the other three fields. Additionally, we noted the presence of numerous HTML tags in both the body and abstract, which do not provide useful information. Due to the model's input length limitations, these HTML tags reduce the amount of meaningful information accessible to the model. Therefore, we applied regular expressions to remove HTML tags from the body and abstract fields before training the models.

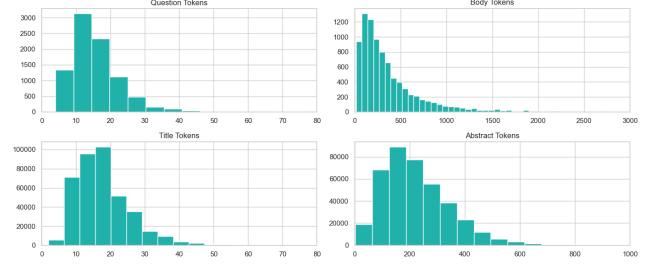


Figure 2: Statistics of tokens in the training set.

2.2 Representation Learning

During the recall stage, an effective method to retrieve relevant papers given a question and body is as follows: Generate embeddings for the question and body, denoted as Q , and generate embeddings for the title and abstract of paper i , denoted as D_i . Sort papers based on the cosine similarity between Q and D_i in descending order:

$$\text{sim}(Q, D_i) = \frac{Q \cdot D_i}{\|Q\| \cdot \|D_i\|} \quad (3)$$

Some efficient similarity search methods and libraries are available here as well, such as HNSW [19] and Faiss [7], but for the size of this dataset, there may not be a significant efficiency improvement.

We use pre-trained language models (PLMs) to construct a bi-encoder framework for representation learning as shown in Figure 3. Text a and text b represent the concatenations of the question with the body, and the title with the abstract, respectively. This approach allows us to encode all papers just once during prediction, which effectively reduces prediction cost.

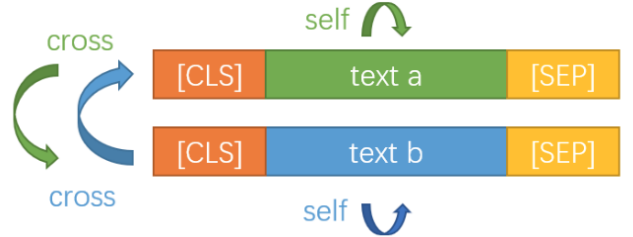


Figure 3: Bi-encoder framework.

We model this task as a binary classification problem and train the model using binary cross-entropy (BCE) loss. Since the dataset only provides positive papers corresponding to query and body, we had to construct negatives. We tried three different approaches:

- For each sample, randomly select N papers from the paper pool as negatives.
- Use unfine-tuned pre-trained language models to calculate $\text{sim}(Q, D_i)$ and select the top N papers with the highest scores (excluding positive samples) as hard negatives.
- For each sample, select N papers from the paper pool as negatives, ensuring that after selecting negatives for all samples, each paper in the pool is selected at least once. This ensures that representations of all candidate papers are trained.

The experimental results indicate that the third method achieved the best performance. We will provide a detailed discussion of this in § 3.3.

2.3 Reranking

Generally, it is crucial to rerank the recalled results to achieve better performance. We explored two different reranking approaches. One involved constructing a cross-encoder model, as shown in Figure 4, which leveraged cross-attention between the question, body, and paper to capture more semantic information. The other approach entailed training multiple bi-encoder models and ensembling the prediction results.

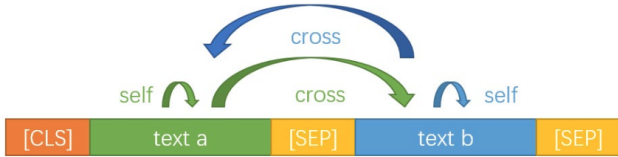


Figure 4: Cross-encoder framework.

We selected the top 200 papers with the highest scores from the recall results for reranking. For the cross-encoder, we directly use its prediction scores as the final scores. For the model ensemble, we aggregate the prediction scores from multiple bi-encoder models. We then select the top 20 papers with the highest scores as the final results.

3 EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we present our main experiment results and discuss the findings.

3.1 Experimental Setup

For the bi-encoder, we experimented with different PLMs, including snowflake-arctic-embed-l [21], gte-large-en-v1.5 [17], bge-large-en-v1.5 [26], mxbai-embed-large-v1 [15] and UAE-Large-V1 [16]. For the cross-encoder, we used bge-reranker-large [26]. The experiments were conducted on the Linux operating system, utilizing PyTorch², transformers [25], and FlagEmbedding [3] for implementation.

3.2 Overall Performance

We compare the performance of different methods on the validation and test sets in Table 2. The default is to use the third method of negatives selection outlined in § 2.2. From the results, we conclude that:

1) When using a single model, the gte model achieved the best performance and demonstrated significant advantages compared to other models.

2) When using model ensemble, the combination of gte and snowflakes achieved the best performance. Additionally, it can be observed that more models in the ensemble do not necessarily lead to better performance. Ensembling a poor performing model could potentially lead to a decline in overall performance.

²<https://pytorch.org>

Table 2: Overall Performance (MAP@20)

Method	Validation	Test
bge	0.1804	0.1529
UAE	-	0.1546
mxbai	-	0.1554
snowflake	-	0.1607
gte	0.1938	0.1724
gte+reranker	0.1903	-
bge+gte+mxbai	0.1881	0.1762
bge+gte+mxbai+snowflakes+UAE	0.1934	0.1797
bge+gte+mxbai+snowflakes	0.2023	0.1830
gte+snowflakes	0.2090	0.1846

Table 3: The performance (MAP@20) under different negatives selection strategies

Method	Validation
bge w/ hard negatives	0.1053
w/ random negatives	0.1618
w/ negatives covering all papers	0.1804

3) The introduction of a reranker did not lead to performance improvement. We feel there might be room for improvement in the construction of training data or training methods for the reranker.

3.3 Negatives Selection

The performance under different negatives selection strategies is shown in Table 3. It can be observed that the introduction of hard negatives significantly deteriorated the model’s performance. These hard negatives were considered by unfine-tuned PLMs to have higher similarity with the question and body. We found that some of these papers were actually positives that had been mislabeled. Treating these samples as negatives led to a decline in the model’s performance. Furthermore, ensuring that each paper in the pool is selected at least once tends to result in better performance compared to randomly selecting negatives.

4 RELATED WORK

In question answering (QA), the passage retriever is crucial for identifying relevant passages for extracting answers. Traditional methods, such as TF-IDF and BM25, have used term-based retrievers but are limited in their representation capabilities [2]. Recent advancements have leveraged deep learning to enhance these retrievers, incorporating techniques like document expansion [23], question expansion [20], and term weight estimation [4].

Unlike these term-based methods, dense passage retrieval has emerged, representing both questions and documents as dense vectors (i.e., embeddings) within a bi-encoder framework. Current approaches fall into two categories: self-supervised pre-training for retrieval [1, 9, 14] and fine-tuning pre-trained language models on labeled datasets. Although the bi-encoder architecture is promising, training such a retriever effectively is challenging. It faces issues like

training and inference discrepancies, a large number of unlabeled positives, and limited training data. Recent studies[1, 10, 13, 18] have attempted to address the first issue by developing complex sampling mechanisms to create hard negatives but still struggle with false negatives. The other two challenges have been less frequently tackled in QA.

The concept of using dense vector representations in retrieval is not new, with roots in Latent Semantic Analysis [6]. Recently, discriminatively trained dense encoders with labeled query-document pairs have gained traction [8, 11, 28], applied in areas like cross-lingual document retrieval, ad relevance prediction, web search, and entity retrieval. These dense methods complement sparse vectors by scoring semantically related text pairs highly, even without exact word overlap. However, dense representations often underperform compared to sparse models.

Although not the primary focus here, dense representations from pre-trained models combined with cross-attention mechanisms have shown potential in re-ranking passages or dialogues [12, 22]. In QA, Das et al. [5] introduced an iterative retrieval approach using reformulated question vectors, while Seo et al. [24] proposed bypassing passage retrieval altogether by directly encoding answer phrases as vectors for retrieval. Lee et al. [14] jointly trained question encoders and readers with additional pre-training to align question surrogates with relevant passages, outperforming BM25 plus reader methods in QA accuracy. REALM [9] furthered this by asynchronously tuning the passage encoder during training via re-indexing. Improvements in pre-training objectives have also been seen with work by Xiong et al. [27].

5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we introduce our pipeline for the KDD CUP 2024 OAG-Challenge AQA task. We constructed a bi-encoder model for academic paper retrieval, experimented with different LMs, and ensembled them to boost performance. Furthermore, we tried different ways of constructing negative samples and introduced a rerank model. Our team achieved high-quality results and demonstrated competitive performance in the competition.

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