A Neural Corpus Indexer for Document Retrieval

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Abstract

Current state-of-the-art document retrieval solutions mainly follow an index-1 retrieve paradigm, where the index is hard to be optimized for the final retrieval 2 target. In this paper, we aim to show that an end-to-end deep neural network unify-3 4 ing training and indexing stages can significantly improve the recall performance 5 of traditional methods. To this end, we propose Neural Corpus Indexer (NCI), a sequence-to-sequence network that generates relevant document identifiers directly 6 for a designated query. To optimize the recall performance of NCI, we invent a 7 prefix-aware weight-adaptive decoder architecture, and leverage tailored techniques 8 including query generation, semantic document identifiers and consistency-based 9 regularization. Empirical studies demonstrated the superiority of NCI on a com-10 11 monly used academic benchmark, achieving +51.9% relative improvement on NQ320k dataset compared to the best baseline. 12

13 1 Introduction

Document retrieval and ranking are two key stages for a standard web search engine [46, 27]. First, the document retrieval stage retrieves candidate documents relevant to the query, and then, the ranking stage gives a more precise ranking score for each document. The ranking stage is often fulfilled by a deep neural network, taking each pair of query and document as input and predicting their relevance score. Nevertheless, a precise ranking model is very costly, while typically only a hundred or thousand candidates per query are affordable in an online system. Therefore, the recall performance of document retrieval stage is very crucial to the effectiveness of web search engine.

Existing document retrieval methods can be divided into two categories, namely term-based and 21 semantic-based approaches [18]. Term-based retrieval approaches [8, 48] build an inverted index 22 for the entire web corpus, but they hardly capture document semantics and fail to retrieve similar 23 documents in different wordings. Thus, semantic-based approaches [46, 29] are proposed to alleviate 24 this discrepancy. First, they learn dense representations for both queries and documents through a 25 twin-tower architecture; then Approximate Nearest Neighbor (ANN) search is applied to retrieve 26 relevant documents for the designated query. Despite of their success in real applications, these 27 approaches can not fully leverage the power of deep neural networks for the following reasons. 28 First, a single embedding vector has limited capacity to memorize all semantics in a document, 29 30 and it performs even worse than term-based methods in applications that heavily rely on exact match [30]. Second, the model is unable to incorporate deep query-document interactions. Because 31 ANN algorithms theoretically require a strong assumption for the Euclidean space, we have to adopt 32 simple functions such as cosine similarity to capture the query-document interactions [16]. 33

Given the above limitations, several research works have explored end-to-end models that directly
retrieve relevant candidates without using an explicit index. Gao et al. [16] proposed a Deep Retrieval
(DR) framework for item recommendation, which learned a retrievable structure with historical
user-item interactions. Nevertheless, it is more challenging to design a universal model for semantic

text retrieval, as we need to leverage the power of both pre-trained language models and deep retrieval

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networks simultaneously. Tay et al. [41] proposed Differentiable Search Index (DSI), a text-to-text 39 model that maps queries directly to relevant docids. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first 40 attempt to propose a differentiable index for semantic search. However, the vanilla transformer 41 decoder in DSI does not fully leverage the hierarchical structures of document identifiers, and the 42 model is pruned to over-fitting with limited training data. Furthermore, Bevilacqua et al. [4] proposed 43 SEAL by leveraging all n-grams in a passage as its identifiers. But for long documents, it is hard to 44 enumerate all possible n-grams. In general, the recall performance of end-to-end document retrieval 45 remains a large room to be improved. 46

In this paper, we show that the traditional text retrieval frameworks can be fundamentally changed 47 by a unified deep neural network with tailored designs. To this end, we propose a Neural Corpus 48 Indexer (NCI), which supports end-to-end document retrieval by a sequence-to-sequence neural 49 network. The model takes user query as input, generates query embedding through the encoder, and 50 outputs the identifiers of relevant documents using the decoder. It can be trained by ground-truth 51 and augmented query-document pairs. During inference, the top N documents are retrieved directly 52 via beam search based on the decoder. Designing and training such a model is non-trivial, so we 53 propose several crucial techniques to ensure its effectiveness. First, to get sufficient query-document 54 pairs for training, we leverage a query generation network to obtain possible pairs of queries and 55 documents. Second, we utilize the hierarchical k-means algorithm to generate a semantic identifier 56 for each document. Third, we design a prefix-aware weight-adaptive decoder to replace the vanilla 57 one in a sequence-to-sequence architecture. Specifically, the same token will be assigned different 58 embedding vectors at different positions in the identifiers, while another transformer-based adaptive 59 module is applied to the classification weights for token prediction in the context of a certain prefix. 60 This makes the classifiers customized to different prefixes when decoding along the hierarchical tree 61 structure. Besides, a consistency-based regularization loss is taken for training both encoder and 62 decoder networks to mitigate the over-fitting problem. 63

Our NCI design solves the limitations of traditional index-retrieve pipelines from multiple perspec-64 tives. On one hand, a whole neural network model replaces the traditional inverted index or vector 65 search solutions. It can be optimized end-to-end using realistic query-document pairs, which fully 66 capture both term-based and semantic-based features and is adaptive to the changing of workloads. 67 On the other hand, the model is able to capture deep interactions between queries and documents via 68 encoder-decoder attention, which enlarges the capacity of vector-based representations. Moreover, 69 NCI achieves much better ranking results than ANN-based approaches as it is optimized directly by 70 the final target. Thus, it can be served as an end-to-end retrieval solution and release the burden of 71 re-ranking for a long candidate list. 72

In addition to the superior performance, the invention of Neural Corpus Indexer is also promising from the perspective of system design. As nowadays, ranking and query-answering modules are already implemented by neural networks, NCI finishes the last piece of puzzle for the next-generation information retrieval system based on a unified differentiable model architecture. This reduces the dependency among different sub-modules, while the process of system deployment and maintenance could be greatly eased.

79 Our **contributions** are highlighted as follows.

For the first time, we demonstrate that an end-to-end differentiable document retrieval model
 can significantly outperform both inverted index and dense retrieval solutions. This finding will
 inspire research on further steps towards the next-generation search systems, for instance, unifying
 informational retrieval, ranking and question answering in a single differentiable framework.

We design a sequence-to-sequence model, named Neural Corpus Indexer (NCI), which generates relevant document identifiers directly for a specific query. In our experiments, the proposed NCI model improves the state-of-the-art performance of existing methods by a significant margin, achieving +51.9% and +19.2% relative enhancement for Recall@1 and Recall@10 respectively on NQ320k dataset. Also, NCI itself can achieve a competitive MRR score without using an explicit ranking model.

We propose a novel decoder architecture, namely *prefix-aware weight-adaptive (PAWA)* decoder, to generate document identifiers. As verified by ablation studies, this invention is very crucial for NCI to achieve an outstanding performance. Moreover, query generation, semantic document identifiers and consistency-based regularization are all accountable for the superior capability of Neural Corpus Indexer.

95 2 Related work

⁹⁶ In this section, we briefly introduce the related works and leave more discussions about the traditional ⁹⁷ web search techniques in the Appendix A.

Sparse retrieval. Traditional document retrieval methods are based on *Sparse Retrieval*, which is 98 built upon inverted index with term matching metrics such as TF-IDF [37], query likelihood [26] 99 or BM25 [36]. In industry-scale web search, BM25 is a difficult-to-beat baseline owing to its 100 outstanding trade-off between accuracy and efficiency. In recent years, there are some attempts 101 102 to incorporate the power of neural networks into inverted index. The Standalone Neural Ranking Model (SNRM) [47] learns high-dimensional sparse representations for query and documents, which 103 enables the construction of inverted index for efficient document retrieval. Doc2Query [33] predicts 104 relevant queries to augment the content of each document before building the BM25 index, and 105 DocT5Query [32] improves the performance of query generation by the pre-trained language model 106 T5 [5]. Furthermore, DeepCT [8] calculates context-aware term importance through neural networks 107 to improve the term matching metrics of BM25. 108

Dense retrieval. Another line of research lies in *Dense Retrieval*, which presents query and documents 109 in dense vectors and models their similarities with inner product or cosine similarity. These methods 110 benefit from recent progresses of pre-trained language models, such as BERT [13] and RoBERTa [28] 111 to obtain dense representations for queries and documents. At inference time, efficient Approximate 112 Nearest Neighbor (ANN) search algorithms, such as k-dimensional trees [3], locality-sensitive 113 hashing [9], and graph-based indexes (e.g., HNSW [31], DiskANN [23] and SPANN [7]) can be 114 utilized to retrieve relevant documents within a sublinear time. Besides, Luan et al. [30] analyze the 115 limited capacity of dual encoders, and propose a combination of sparse and dense retrieval methods 116 with multi-vector encoding to achieve better search quality. 117

Autoregressive retrieval. The other way to approach retrieval is utilizing an end-to-end autoregressive 118 models. Firstly, several efforts have been done on entity linking [12, 11, 10], which can be regard 119 as a special type of retrieval task, e.g., using an entity to ask the posed question. Recently, different 120 from the entity linking task, Tay et al. [41] proposed the DSI (differentiable search index) to generate 121 relevant document identifiers directly according to the query. Bevilacqua et al. [4] employ the 122 autoregressive model to generate the relevant words for a query and utilize the generated string to 123 retrieve relevant documents. Besides, the Deep Retrieval (DR) [16] approach for recommendation is 124 also related to this category, which learns a deep retrievable network with user-item clicks and gets 125 rid of the ANN algorithms based on the Euclidean space assumption. 126

Pre-trained language models. Recently, pre-trained Language Models (LMs), such as BERT [13] 127 and RoBERTa [28], have led to a revolution in web search techniques. The representation vectors 128 for all documents can be calculated and indexed offline. In the online serving stage, it calculates the 129 representation vector for the input query and applies a crossing layer to calculate the relevance score 130 between each query and document. The crossing layer usually adopts simple operators such as cosine 131 similarity or a single feed-forward layer to retain a high efficiency. Gao et al. [14] find that a standard 132 LMs' internal attention structure is not ready-to-use for dense encoders and propose the Condenser 133 to improve the performance of dense retrieval. Moreover, ANCE [45] leverages hard negatives to 134 improve the effectiveness of contrastive learning, which generates better text representations for the 135 retrieval tasks. 136

137 **3** Neural corpus indexer

The neural corpus indexer (NCI) is a sequence-to-sequence neural network model. The model takes 138 query as input and outputs the most relevant document identifier (docid), which can be trained by a 139 large collection of *<query*, *docid>* pairs. The documents are encoded into semantic *docids* by the 140 hierarchical k-means algorithm [19], which makes similar documents have "close" identifiers in the 141 hierarchical tree. As shown in Figure 1, NCI is composed of three components, including *Query* 142 Generation, Encoder and Prefix-Aware Weight-Adaptive (PAWA) Decoder. Query generation is imple-143 mented by a sequence-to-sequence transformer model [43] that takes as an input the document terms 144 and produces a query as output [33]. The encoder, following the standard transformer architecture, is 145 composed of N_1 stacked transformer blocks, which outputs the representation for an input query. For 146 the decoder network, we stack N_2 transformer layers. To better align with the hierarchical nature of 147 the semantic identifiers, we propose a weight adaptation mechanism based on another transformer 148



Figure 1: Overview of Neural Corpus Indexer (NCI). (a) Preprocessing. Each document is represented by a semantic identifier via hierarchical *k*-means. (b) Query Generation. Queries are generated for each document based on the content. (c) The training pipeline of NCI. The model is trained over augmented *<query, docid>* pairs through a standard transformer encoder and the proposed Prefix-Aware Weight-Adaptive (PAWA) Decoder.

to make the decoder aware of semantic prefixes. At inference time, the top N relevant documents can be easily obtained via beam search. Due to the hierarchical property of semantic identifiers, it is

relatively easy to constrain the beam search decoding process on the prefix tree so that only valid

¹⁵² identifiers will be generated.

153 **3.1 Representing document with semantic identifiers**

NCI generates document identifiers solely based on the input query without explicit document content, 154 which is difficult when the size of the corpus is very large. Thus, we aim to inject useful priors into 155 the identifiers, so that the semantic information of documents can be considered in the tree-based 156 decoding process. In other words, we hope the documents with similar information have close 157 *docids* to facilitate the learning process of NCI. To achieve this, we leverage the hierarchical k-means 158 algorithm to encode documents. As shown in Figure 1(a), given a collection of documents be indexed, 159 all documents are first classified into k clusters by using their representations encoded by BERT [13]. 160 For cluster with more than c documents, the k-means algorithm is applied recursively. For each 161 cluster containing c documents or less, each document is assigned a number starting from 0 to at 162 most c-1. In this way, we organize all documents into a tree structure T with root r_0 . Each document 163 is associated with one leaf node with a deterministic routing path $l = \{r_0, r_1, ..., r_m\}$ from the root, 164 where $r_i \in [0, k)$ represents the internal cluster index for level i, and $r_m \in [0, c)$ is the leaf node. 165 The semantic identifier for a document is concatenated by the node indices along the path from 166 root to its corresponding leaf node. For documents with similar semantics, the prefixes of their 167 corresponding identifiers are likely to be the same. For simplicity, we set k = 10 and c = 10 in 168 all experiments, leaving the optimization of these hyper-parameters to future work. The detailed 169 procedure of hierarchical k-means will be described in Algorithm 1 in the Appendix B.2. 170

171 3.2 Query generation

One challenge of generating document identifiers by single query input is how to make the identifiers 172 aware of the document semantics. Since the content of each document is not explicitly known at 173 inference, it must be incorporated into the model parameters during training. To facilitate the training 174 process, we generate a bunch of queries with a query generation module and bind the information 175 of document content through training the sequence-to-sequence model with generated queries and 176 their document identifiers. We adopt a standard sequence-to-sequence transformer [43] based on the 177 implementation of Doc2Query [1], which takes as an input the document terms and produces relevant 178 queries via random sampling. Note that we use random sampling instead of beam search to ensure 179 the diversity of generated queries. 180

181 3.3 Prefix-aware weight-adaptive decoder

¹⁸² The probability of generating a document identifier can be written as follows:

$$p(l|x,\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} p(r_i|x, r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{i-1}, \theta_i),$$
(1)

where r_i is the *i*-th token in the current identifier; *x* is the representation output from encoder; θ denotes the total parameters and θ_i is the parameter for the *i*-th step. 185 This probability can be modeled by a transformer-based

decoder. For an internal node with level i, the probabil-

ity is calculated by:

$$h_i = \text{TransformerDecoder}(x, h_1, h_2, ..., h_{i-1}; \theta_i),$$
(2)

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$$p(r_i|x, r_1, r_2, ..., r_{i-1}, \theta_i) = \text{Softmax}(h_i W).$$
 (3)

Here h_i is the hidden representation for step i, which is calculated by a multi-head attention over encoder representation x and token representations of previous decoding steps. The linear classification weight is denoted by $W \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times v}$, d is the hidden dimension size and v is the vocabulary size of identifiers.



Figure 2: Overview of the Prefix-Aware Weight-Adaptive (PAWA) Decoder.

As the encoder and decoder utilize distinct vocabulary spaces, we do not share the embedding space 195 for their tokens. Different from a standard decoding task, the meanings of the same token appearing 196 at different places of the same identifier are different, as they correspond to different clusters in the 197 hierarchical tree structure. For instance, the " 5_2 " and " 5_3 " of the same identifier " $3_15_25_3$ " correspond 198 to different semantic meanings. Moreover, the same token in the same position may have different 199 semantics with different prefixes. For example, in identifiers " $1_{\underline{1}}1_{\underline{2}}5_{\underline{3}}$ " and " $2_{\underline{1}}4_{\underline{2}}5_{\underline{3}}$ ", the same token " $5_{\underline{3}}$ " has different semantics in two different identifiers, as they are routed from different prefix 200 201 paths. The two properties of the hierarchical semantic identifiers motivate us to design the novel 202 Prefix-Aware Weight-Adaptor (PAWA) decoder. 203

Unlike a standard transformer decoder, the probabilities at different tree levels, such as 204 $p(r_i|x, r_{1..i-1}, \theta_i)$ and $p(r_j|x, r_{1..j-1}, \theta_j)$ when $i \neq j$, do not share parameters with each other. 205 To distinguish different semantic levels, we concatenate the position and token values as input for 206 each decoding step, as shown in the left corner of Figure 2. Specifically, we have "(1,3)(2,5)(3,5)" 207 for the semantic identifier " $3_15_25_3$ ", while "(2,5)" and "(3,5)" represent different tokens in the 208 vocabulary space. As the token embedding and linear classification layers share the same weights, the 209 same token value in different positions would correspond to different model parameters. Moreover, 210 211 to reflect the influence of different prefixes, we expect the linear classification layer to be aware of different prefixes for predicting a specific token. Concretely, instead of using the same projection 212 weight W in the linear classification layer, we employ the prefix-aware adaptive weights for each 213 token classifier, which can be calculated by another transformer decoder, 214

$$W_{ada}^{i} = \text{AdaptiveDecoder}(e; r_1, r_2, ..., r_{i-1})W_i$$
(4)

where e is the query embedding vector taken as initial input to the transformer decoder; $\{r_t | t \in (1, 2, ..., i-1)\}$ are prefix tokens before the *i*-th position, AdaptiveDecoder stacks N_3 transformer decoding layers with dimension d, and $W^i_{ada} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times v}$ is the adapted weight matrix for the corresponding classifier. Finally, the *i*-th token in the given prefix can be predicted by Softmax $(h_i W^i_{ada})$.

For instance, to predict the third tokens in the identifiers "(1,3)(2,1)(3,5)" and "(1,2)(2,4)(3,5)" respectively, the corresponding adaptive weights are derived separately for different prefixes "(1,3)(2,1)" and "(1,2)(2,4)". As we already know the previous tokens for each position in the teacher forcing setting, the prefix-aware adaptive weights can be calculated and trained in parallel in different positions while adding little burden to the entire model.

224 **3.4 Training and inference**

Consistency-based regularization. To alleviate over-fitting, we employ a consistency-based regularization loss for training each decoding step. Given an input query q, we denote the model probabilities predicted by two forward passes with independent dropouts as $p_1(r_i|E(q), r_{1,...,i-1}, \theta_i)$ and $p_2(r_i|E(q), r_{1,...,i-1}, \theta_i)$ respectively, where $E(\cdot)$ denotes the encoder network. The consistencybased regularization loss tries to regularize the model prediction by minimizing the bidirectional Kullback-Leibler (KL) Divergence between two output probabilities with random dropout. The regularization loss of query q for the *i*-th decoding step is defined as,

$$\mathcal{L}_{reg} = \frac{1}{2} \Big(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathcal{D}_{KL} \big(p_1(r_i | E(q), r_{1,\dots,i-1}, \theta_i) \| p_2(r_i | E(q), r_{1,\dots,i-1}, \theta_i) \big) \\ + \mathcal{D}_{KL} \big(p_2(r_i | E(q), r_{1,\dots,i-1}, \theta_i) \| p_1(r_i | E(q), r_{1,\dots,i-1}, \theta_i) \big) \Big).$$
(5)

Training loss. Given a set of training examples $\mathcal{D} = \{(q, d)\}$ composed of queries (training queries and augmented queries) and document identifiers, the loss function can be written as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \sum_{(q,d)\in\mathcal{D}} \left(\log p(d|E(q),\theta) + \alpha \mathcal{L}_{reg} \right), \tag{6}$$

where $p(d|E(q), \theta)$ denotes the probability of generating *d* with *q* as the input. The first part is the seq2seq cross-entropy loss with teacher forcing and the second part is the consistency-based regularization loss summed by all decoding steps. The whole process formulates a sequence-tosequence neural network, which can be optimized end-to-end via gradient descent. The hyperparameter α denotes a scaling factor of regularization loss, which will be analyzed in Section 4.4.

Inference via beam search. In the inference stage, we calculate the query embedding through the 239 encoder network and then perform the beam search on the decoder network. Due to the hierarchical 240 nature of *docid*, it is convincing to constrain the beam search decoding process with a prefix tree, 241 which in turn only generates the valid identifiers. The time complexity of beam search is O(LBF), 242 where L is the max length of identifiers (the depth of tree), B is the beam size and F is the max 243 fanout of the tree (10 in our experiments). Given a balanced tree structure built by a corpus with 244 M documents, the average time complexity for beam search is $O(B\log M)$. We leave detailed 245 descriptions of the constrained beam search algorithm in Appendix B.3. 246

247 **4 Experiments**

In this section, we empirically verify the performance of NCI and the effectiveness of each component on the document retrieval task, which generates a ranking list of documents in response to a query. In the following, we discuss the datasets and evaluation protocol in Section 4.1, describe the implementation details and baseline methods in Section 4.2, and present empirical results and analyses in Section 4.3 and 4.4 respectively.

253 4.1 Datasets & evaluation metrics

Datasets. Following DSI [41] and SEAL [4], we conduct our experiments on the Natural Questions [25] dataset. *Natural Questions* (NQ) dataset was introduced by Google in 2019 [25]. The version we use is often referred to as NQ320*k*, which consists of 320*k* query-document pairs, where the documents are gathered from Wikipedia pages and the queries are natural language questions. We use its predetermined training and validation split for evaluation.

Metrics. We use widely accepted metrics for information retrieval, including Recall@N and Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR). Recall@N measures how often the desired document is hit by the top-Nretrieved candidates. MRR calculates the reciprocal of the rank at which the first relevant document is retrieved. A high recall means that the ground truth document is contained in the retrieved candidate list, while a high MRR indicates that the corresponding document has already been ranked at the top position without a need for re-ranking.

265 4.2 Implementation details

Hierarchical semantic identifier. For semantic identifiers, we apply hierarchical k-means algorithm over the document embeddings obtained through a 12 layers BERT model with pre-trained parameters provided by the HuggingFace [44]. For each hierarchical layer, we employ the default k-means algorithm implemented in scikit-learn [34] with k = 10. For simplicity, the recursion terminal condition is also set as c = 10.

Query generation. We leverage the pre-trained model docT5query [32] for query generation. We provide all documents in the NQ320*k* dataset to predict augmented query-document pairs. For each document, we generate 10 queries with the first 512 input tokens of the document as the input and constrain the maximum length of the generated query as 64.

Training and inference. Neural Corpus Indexer (our approach) are implemented with python 3.6.10, PyTorch 1.8.1 and HuggingFace transformers 3.4.0. We utilize the parameters of the T5 pre-trained model [5] to initialize the encoder and randomly initialize the PAWA decoder. All NCI experiments are based on a learning rate 2×10^{-4} for encoder and 1×10^{-4} for decoder with a batch size 16 per GPU. We set the scaling factor of the consistency-based regularization loss as $\alpha = 0.015$, and the dropout ratio is 0.1. For inference, we apply the partial beam search algorithm to the trained seq2seq

Method	Recall@1	Recall@10	Recall@100	MRR@100
Neural Corpus Indexer (Ours)	88.72	95.84	97.43	91.59
DSI (T5-Base)	27.40	56.60	-	_
DSI (T5-XXL)	40.40	70.30	-	-
SEAL (BART-Base)	26.55	53.61	72.67	35.64
ANCE (FirstP)	51.33	80.33	91.78	61.71
ANCE (MaxP)	52.63	80.38	91.31	62.84
BERT + BruteForce	28.65	53.42	73.16	36.60
BERT + ANN (Faiss)	27.92	53.63	73.01	37.08
BM25 + DocT5Query	58.39	75.76	89.51	64.53
BM25	30.23	47.02	68.54	36.26

Table 1: Performance comparison on NQ320k retrieval task

model. We set the length penalty and the beam size as 0.3 and 100 respectively. All experiments are based on a cluster of NVIDIA V100 GPUs with 32GB memory. Each job takes 8 GPUs, resulting in a total batch size of 128 (16×8).

Baselines. We evaluate BM25 on both raw documents and those augmented by DocT5Query. The performance of DSI [40] is referred from its original paper as the implementation has not been open-sourced. To avoid the difference in data processing, we reproduce SEAL [4] and ANCE [45] by their official implementations. We leave the detailed settings in Appendix B.4.

288 4.3 Results

In Table 1, we compare the empirical results of NCI and corresponding baselines. On the NQ320k289 dataset, the proposed NCI model outperforms all baselines by a large margin across four different 290 metrics. Compared with the state-of-the-art model, NCI improves 51.9% on Recall@1, 19.2% on 291 Recall@10, 6.2% on Recall@100, and 41.9% on MRR@100 relatively. It is worth noting that we 292 are the first to verify the superiority of deep text retrieval over traditional sparse and dense retrieval 293 methods. Previous deep text retrieval methods (i.e., DSI and SEAL) obtain relatively poor results 294 even with a very large model size (e.g., T5-XXL). Consistent with previous studies, BM25 is an 295 efficient and effective baseline. It even outperforms BERT-based dense retrieval solutions, perhaps 296 owning to its capability to retrieve precise documents based on exact match. Further, we notice that 297 query generation plays a key role in boosting the retrieval performance. With query generation, the 298 BM25 + DocT5Query method achieves much higher performance than its vanilla version. ANCE 299 also achieves competitive performance after fine-tuned by the training pairs, but the performance is 300 far lower than our proposed NCI model. Moreover, the Recall@1 and MRR@100 metrics of NCI are 301 outstanding, indicating that more than 90% of the queries can be fulfilled without re-ranking on the 302 retrieved document list. This shows the potential of NCI to be served as an end-to-end solution that 303 replaces the entire index-retrieve-rank pipeline in traditional web search engines. 304

Furthermore, to study the effect of each component, we report ablation results on NQ320*k* dataset in Table 2. In general, all five components are able to improve the performance of document retrieval, which are detailed below.

w/o query generation. This configuration removes the query generation module for data augmentation. Remarkably, the query generation boosts the performance greatly. The result is aligned with our expectation because training with the generated queries allows the model to be agnostic to the semantic meaning of each documents. Besides, although training on *<doc-content, docid>* pairs like DSI [40] also make the model aware of the semantic meaning of each documents, we argue that

Method	Recall@1	Recall@10	Recall@100	MRR@100
Neural Corpus Indexer (Ours)	88.72	95.84	97.43	91.59
w/o query generation	53.63	67.84	78.43	59.16
w/o PAWA decoder	87.01	95.27	97.18	90.79
w/o semantic id	87.22	95.34	97.25	90.85
w/o regularization	87.34	95.42	97.27	90.89
w/o constrained beam search	87.41	95.71	97.32	90.84

Table 2: Ablation Study on NQ320k retrieval task

training with generated queries is able to avoid the distribution shift problem, which also benefit the generalization performance.

w/o PAWA decoder. This configuration removes the adaptive decoder layer in Equation (4) and leverages shared weights with token embedding for the linear classification layer. We notice that the prefix-aware weight-adaptive decoder has a noticeable influence on the performance, which indicates that, instead of borrowing the vanilla transformer decoder, it is necessary to design a tailored decoder architecture for the task of semantic identifier generation.

w/o semantic id. This configuration replaces the semantic identifier of each document to a random
 generated one. We find a relative drop in the model performance on all four metrics, demonstrating that
 the semantic identifiers derived by hierarchical k-means have injected useful priors. We conjecture
 that the performance enhancement would be more significant on a larger document corpus.

w/o regularization. There is a performance drop on all four metrics without using consistency-based
 regularization loss. The reason is that the decoder network is prone to over-fitting. By making the
 prediction results for two augmented versions of the decoder to be consistent, the decoder model
 becomes more generalizable and resistant to over-fitting.

w/o constrained beam search. This configuration disables the validating constraint in beam search.
 In other words, the decoder network does not have a tree-based prior structure. Instead, all tokens
 in the vocabulary can be generated in each decoding step. We observe a performance drop on four
 evaluation metrics. This indicates that it is difficult to remember all information of valid identifiers in
 the network, and an explicit prior could be helpful for improving the quality of beam search.



Setting	Recall@1	Recall@10	Recall@100	MRR@100
#layer = 0	87.01	95.27	97.18	90.79
#layer = 1	88.54	95.62	97.16	91.44
#layer = 2	88.56	95.67	97.28	91.48
#layer = 4	88.65	95.72	97.54	91.51
#layer = 6	88.72	95.84	97.43	91.59
#layer = 8	85.31	94.17	96.34	89.25

Figure 3: Learning curves of NCI with different model capacities **Table 3:** NCI with different number of layers in PAWA adapter and different regularization hyper-parameter α in loss function

334 4.4 Analysis

Model capacity. Figure 3 compares the learning curves of NCI with different model capacities, 335 which are identical to the small, base, and large settings of ordinary T5 [35]. We observe that with 336 the increase of model size, NCI convergences more quickly with fewer epochs. At convergence, the 337 small model achieves a relatively lower recall@1. Instead, both the base and large models achieve 338 similar results after sufficient training epochs. This implies that the model capacity has a critical 339 340 impact on the retrieval performance, and the capacity of base model seems to be enough to memorize 341 all documents in NQ320k dataset. For a larger corpus, one may need to increase the model size to 342 obtain satisfactory performance.

Layer number of PAWA adapter. We study the influence of the number of transformer layers in the PAWA adapter and choose the layer number from {0,1,2,4,6,8}. The results are summarized in Table 3. We notice that with the increasing of layer number, *i.e.* from 0 to 6, the overall performance is consistently improved under four metrics, except the Recall@100. But when the number of layer achieves 8, the performance is dropped significantly. We attribute that to the overfitting caused by a large PAWA adapter. Therefore, we adopt the design with 6 layer adapter in NCI.

Retrieved documents and their semantics identifiers. To verify the effectiveness of retrieval as well as the semantic identifiers learned by hierarchical k-means, we analyze the retrieval results of NCI for some exemplar queries. To illustrate, we select four queries denoted by A-1, A-2, B-1 and B-2, where two queries inside the same group are semantically similar, and the queries in different groups correspond to distinct topics. In Figure 4(a) and 4(b), we show the probabilities of retrieved documents for each query in group A and B respectively. The digits along x-axis denote the four-bit prefixes for semantic identifiers of retrieved documents, and the y-axis stands for their probabilities.



Figure 4: Analyses of retrieved documents with semantic identifiers. (a) The probabilities of retrieved documents for Query Group A; (b) Query Group B. (c) The t-SNE visualization of BERT-based document embeddings.

We notice that similar queries result in close document distributions, while dissimilar queries in 356 different groups result in un-overlapped document collections. In addition, the documents retrieved 357 by the same group of queries have close prefixes for the identifiers, e.g., 6030, 6032, 6033, 6034 in 358 group A and 7511, 7514, 7516 in group B. Also, we visualize BERT-based document embeddings by 359 360 t-SNE [42] in Figure 4(c), in which each color represents the corresponding documents for a specific query. As shown in the figure, these documents naturally form two clusters with respect to different 361 query groups. Thus, we conclude that the semantic document identifiers generated by the hierarchical 362 k-means algorithm have positive effects on the retrieval performance. 363

³⁶⁴ Efficiency Analysis. We use an NVIDIA V100-32G GPU

to analyze the efficiency of NCI. As the inference speed is 365 influenced by both model capacity and beam size, we report 366 the latency and throughput measures for multiple settings 367 in Table 4. As NCI is an end-to-end retrieval method and 368 achieves competitive performance without re-ranking, the 369 latency and throughput are already affordable for some 370 near-real-time applications. The latency of NCI is on par 371 with DSI and SEAL using the same model size and beam 372

Table 4: Efficiency analysis				
Model size	Beam size	Latency (ms)	Throughput (queries / s)	
Small	10	78.46	58.48	
Base	10	115.17	52.55	
Large	10	188.60	43.39	
Small	100	216.01	6.12	
Base	100	269.31	5.62	
Large	100	356.07	4.75	

size as all of them conduct beam search based on transformer decoders. BM25 is very efficient
(<100ms per query on CPU using an open-source implementation [2], but the recall metrics are much
lower. Furthermore, we can leverage other techniques to improve the efficiency of NCI, which will
be discussed in the later section.

5 Limitation & Future Works

Despite the significant breakthrough, the current implementation of NCI still suffers from several 378 limitations before deployment in an industrial web search system. Firstly, it requires a much larger 379 model capacity for extending NCI to the web scale. Secondly, its inference speed needs to be 380 improved to serve online queries in real time. Thirdly, it is difficult to update the model-based index 381 when new documents are added to the system. In future works, we may tackle these problems from 382 four aspects. (1) The architecture of sparsely-gated Mixture of Expert (MoE) [38] can be employed 383 to enhance the model capacity. (2) Documents can be grouped into semantic clusters, and then NCI 384 is used to retrieve relevant cluster identifiers. In this way, all documents in relevant clusters can be 385 retrieved efficiently. (3) Model compression techniques, like weight quantization [22] and knowledge 386 distillation [20], can be further taken to speed up inference. (4) We plan to explore a hybrid solution 387 by building another index that serves new documents through traditional indexing algorithms. 388

389 6 Conclusion

In this work, we introduce a novel learning paradigm that unifies the learning and indexing stages by an end-to-end deep neural network framework. The proposed Neural Corpus Indexer (NCI) retrieves the identifiers of relevant documents directly for an input query, which can be optimized end-to-end with augmented query-document pairs. To optimize the recall and ranking performance, we invent the tailored prefix-aware weight-adaptive decoder. Empirically, we evaluate NCI on NQ320*k* dataset and demonstrate its outstanding recall and MRR performance over state-of-the-art solutions.

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530 Checklist

The checklist follows the references. Please read the checklist guidelines carefully for information on how to answer these questions. For each question, change the default **[TODO]** to **[Yes]**, **[No]**, or [N/A]. You are strongly encouraged to include a **justification to your answer**, either by referencing the appropriate section of your paper or providing a brief inline description. For example:

- Did you include the license to the code and datasets? [Yes] See Section.
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Please do not modify the questions and only use the provided macros for your answers. Note that the Checklist section does not count towards the page limit. In your paper, please delete this instructions block and only keep the Checklist section heading above along with the questions/answers below.

- 542 1. For all authors...
- (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's 543 contributions and scope? [Yes] 544 (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes] See Section 5. 545 (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [Yes] See 546 appendix. 547 (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to 548 them? [Yes] 549 2. If you are including theoretical results... 550 (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [N/A]551 (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [N/A] 552 3. If you ran experiments... 553 (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experi-554 mental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [Yes] 555 (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they 556 were chosen)? [Yes] See Section 4. 557 (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experi-558 ments multiple times)? [No] 559 (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type 560 of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [Yes] See Section 4. 561 4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets... 562 (a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [Yes] See Section 4. 563 (b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [Yes] See appendix. 564 (c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? [Yes] 565 (d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you're 566 using/curating? [Yes] 567 (e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable 568 information or offensive content? [Yes] 569 5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects... 570 (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if 571 applicable? [N/A] 572 (b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review 573 Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [N/A] 574 (c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount 575 spent on participant compensation? [N/A] 576