

Towards Robust Neural Retrieval with Source Domain Synthetic Pre-Finetuning

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Abstract

Research on neural IR has so far been focused primarily on standard supervised learning settings, where it outperforms traditional term matching baselines. Many practical use cases of such models, however, may involve previously unseen target domains. In this paper, we propose to improve the out-of-domain generalization of Dense Passage Retrieval (DPR)—a popular choice for neural IR—through synthetic data augmentation *only in the source domain*. We empirically show that pre-finetuning DPR with additional synthetic data in its source domain (Wikipedia), which we generate using a fine-tuned sequence-to-sequence generator¹, can be a low-cost yet effective first step towards its generalization. Across five different test sets, our augmented model shows more robust performance than DPR in both in-domain and zero-shot out-of-domain evaluation.

1 Introduction

Traditional approaches to information retrieval (IR) such as TF-IDF (Salton and McGill, 1986) and BM25 (Robertson and Zaragoza, 2009) rely on lexical matching for query-passage alignment. In contrast, neural IR encodes passages and questions into continuous vector representations, enabling deeper semantic matching. Modern neural IR systems (Lee et al., 2019; Chang et al., 2019) based on pre-trained masked language models (MLM) (Devlin et al., 2019) typically employ a dual encoder architecture (Bromley et al., 1993), where two separate MLMs encode the question and the passage. Karpukhin et al. (2020) show that useful weak supervision for such systems can be derived from the related task of machine reading comprehension (MRC) (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019; Joshi et al., 2017). Their Dense Passage Retrieval (DPR) model demonstrates state-of-the-art (SOTA) in-domain

performance on multiple Wikipedia-based datasets (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019; Joshi et al., 2017; Berant et al., 2013; Baudiš and Šedivý, 2015), outperforming both term matching baselines like BM25 and prior neural approaches, e.g., the Inverse Cloze Task (Lee et al., 2019) and latent learning of the retriever during MLM pre-training (Guu et al., 2020).

Despite its high in-domain utility, however, Reddy et al. (2021) show that DPR performance can drop significantly in novel test domains. They propose target domain synthetic data augmentation as a solution to this problem, which augments DPR with additional synthetic training data generated from target domain text. While this approach does indeed improve DPR scores in the new test domain, it has a key practical limitation: for every new target domain, it requires generating a new synthetic training corpus and re-training the model. Here we ask if an augmentation approach that only operates once in the source domain, and does not require re-training every time a new test domain is encountered, can also help improve domain generalization.

To better understand DPR’s zero-shot out-of-domain (OOD) utility, we first run an empirical evaluation where both BM25 and DPR are applied to several out-of-domain test datasets. We observe that (i) DPR still holds an advantage over BM25 in near domain evaluation on Wikipedia-based datasets, but the difference is considerably lower than in the in-domain case, and (ii) In the far domain of biomedical text, DPR actually underperforms BM25. Our OOD evaluation is more comprehensive than Reddy et al. (2021), demonstrating the zero-shot utility of DPR in a more detailed and fine-grained manner.

Next we investigate if a one-off pre-finetuning of DPR with large amounts of *source domain* synthetic IR data can help improve its robustness to domain shift. Utilization of synthetic training data is common in related tasks such as machine reading comprehension (MRC) (Shakeri et al., 2020; Zhang

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¹Synthetic question generation code is available at: <https://github.com/primeqa/primeqa/tree/main/primeqa/qg>

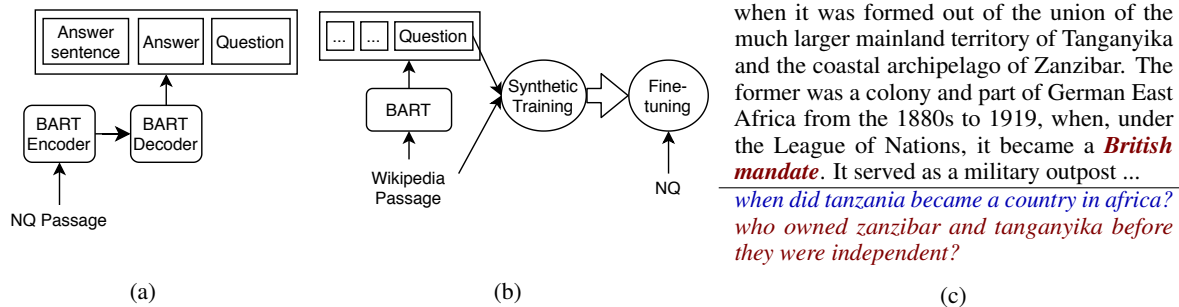


Figure 1: The proposed IR training pipeline and a synthetic example. (a) A BART encoder-decoder LM is fine-tuned on NQ for QA example generation; (b) Synthetic examples generated from Wikipedia passages are used to pre-finetune the neural IR model before fine-tuning on NQ; (c) Two synthetic questions output by our generator from the depicted Wikipedia passage, with corresponding answers highlighted in the text.

et al., 2020; Sultan et al., 2020). Nevertheless, a close examination of synthetic pre-finetuning as an augmentation technique is key for zero-shot neural IR due to the presence of highly effective and domain-agnostic term matching baselines like BM25.

We fine-tune a sequence-to-sequence generator on labeled MRC data and use it to generate synthetic IR examples from source domain passages (§2). Our experiments show that pre-finetuning DPR with these generated examples does indeed improve its accuracy on both in-domain and out-of-domain test sets. Crucially, the gap with BM25 in far domain evaluation is significantly reduced.

The main contributions of this paper are:

- We conduct an empirical evaluation of SOTA neural IR on multiple in-domain and out-of-domain test sets, showing how its utility varies in different test conditions.
- We show that a one-off *source domain* synthetic pre-finetuning step can significantly improve the robustness of neural IR, with improvements on five different test sets, including in the practical zero-shot setting.

2 Source Domain Synthetic Pre-Finetuning

In this section, we describe the procedure for synthetic pre-finetuning of the DPR model. We first detail how we train the sequence-to-sequence generator and generate source domain synthetic data from it. Next, we describe how this data is used for training the DPR model.

Let c be a text corpus and $d \in c$ be a document. An IR example, more specifically a passage retrieval example, consists of a question q and a

History of Tanzania The African Great Lakes nation of Tanzania dates formally from **1964**, when it was formed out of the union of the much larger mainland territory of Tanganyika and the coastal archipelago of Zanzibar. The former was a colony and part of German East Africa from the 1880s to 1919, when, under the League of Nations, it became a **British mandate**. It served as a military outpost ...

*when did tanzania become a country in africa?
who owned zanzibar and tanganyika before they were independent?*

passage p in d such that p contains an answer a to q . Let s be the sentence in p that contains a .

We first train an example generator by fine-tuning BART (Lewis et al., 2020a)—a pre-trained encoder-decoder language model—to generate an ordered triple (s, a, q) from an input passage p . This procedure in essence uses generation to first identify a candidate sentence s in p , then extract a candidate answer a from s , and finally generate a corresponding question q . In practice, we approximate the generation of s by generating only its first and last words. Finally, (q, p) is retained as a synthetic IR example. Labeled (p, s, a, q) tuples needed for the supervision of this model are taken from Natural Questions (NQ) (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019), an existing MRC dataset over Wikipedia articles.

With the generator, we produce positive synthetic pre-finetuning examples for DPR from Wikipedia passages. Following Sultan et al. (2020), we use top- p top- k sampling (Holtzman et al., 2020) to promote diversity in the generated examples. Training and inference of the synthetic example generator are depicted in Figures 1a and 1b, respectively. Figure 1c shows two example questions output by the generator from a Wikipedia passage.

To obtain a negative sample for each generated question q , we retrieve passages from Wikipedia using BM25 and randomly sample one that does not contain the generated answer a . Following Karpukhin et al. (2020), we also use in-batch negative samples for training. After pre-finetuning with synthetic examples, we fine-tune the model with IR examples derived from NQ. We name this synthetically augmented DPR model *AugDPR*. We refer

the reader to (Karpukhin et al., 2020) for a more detailed description of the DPR training process.

3 Experimental Setup

3.1 Datasets

We briefly describe our datasets in this section. Statistics for each dataset are shown in Table 1.

Dataset	Domain	Passages	Questions
NQ	Wikipedia	21.0M	3,610
TriviaQA	Wikipedia	21.0M	11,313
WebQuestions	Wikipedia	21.0M	2,032
WikiMovies	Wikipedia	21.0M	9,952
BioASQ	Biomedical	37.4M	1092

Table 1: Statistics of the retrieval corpora and the test sets we use to evaluate all IR models.

Training and In-Domain Evaluation: We train all systems on Natural Questions (NQ) (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019), a dataset with questions derived from Google’s search log and their human-annotated answers from Wikipedia articles. Lewis et al. (2020b) report that 30% of the NQ test set questions have near-duplicate paraphrases in the training set and 60–70% of the test answers are also present in the training set. For this reason, in addition to the entire NQ test set, we also use the non-overlapping subsets released by Lewis et al. (2020b) for in-domain evaluation.

Near Domain Evaluation: For zero-shot near domain evaluation, where Wikipedia articles constitute the retrieval corpus, we use the test sets of three existing datasets.

TriviaQA (Joshi et al., 2017) contains questions collected from trivia and quiz league websites, which are created by Trivia enthusiasts.

WebQuestions (WQ) (Berant et al., 2013) consists of questions obtained using the Google Suggest API, and answers selected from entities in Freebase by AMT workers.

WikiMovies (Miller et al., 2016) contains question-answer pairs on movies, built using the OMDb and MovieLens databases. We use the test split adopted in (Chen et al., 2017).

Far Domain Evaluation. For zero-shot far domain evaluation, we use a biomedical dataset.

BioASQ (Tsatsaronis et al., 2015) is a competition² on large-scale biomedical semantic indexing and

QA. We evaluate on all factoid question-answer pairs from the training and test sets of task 8B.

3.2 Setup

Training: We train the synthetic example generator using the (*question, passage, answer*) triples from NQ. The model is trained for 3 epochs with a learning rate of 3e-5 and batch size of 24. We then randomly sample 2M passages from the 21M-passage Wikipedia corpus and generate around four synthetic questions per passage. For top- p top- k sampling, we use $p = 0.95$ and $k = 10$.

During synthetic pre-finetuning of DPR, for each of the 2M passages, we randomly select one of its synthetic questions at each epoch to create a synthetic example. After six epochs of synthetic pre-finetuning with a learning rate of 1e-5 and batch size of 1024, we fine-tune DPR on NQ for twenty epochs with a learning rate of 1e-5 and batch size of 128 to get the AugDPR model.

Baselines and Metrics: We evaluate BM25 as a term matching baseline. Our BM25 baseline is based on Lucene³ implementation. BM25 parameters $b = 0.75$ (document length normalization) and $k_1 = 1.2$ (term frequency scaling) worked best. As our neural baseline, we use the DPR-single model trained on NQ and made public⁴ by Karpukhin et al. (2020). Both DPR and AugDPR use BERT-base-uncased for question and passage encoding. As in (Karpukhin et al., 2020), our evaluation metric is top- k retrieval accuracy, which is the percentage of questions with at least one answer in the top k retrieved passages.

4 Results and Discussion

Table 2 shows NQ results on the entire test set as well as on the two subsets released by Lewis et al. (2020b). Synthetic pre-finetuning yields larger gains on the non-overlapping splits, with up to a 4-point improvement in top-1 retrieval accuracy.

To assess the cross-domain utility of AugDPR, we evaluate it zero shot on both near and far domain test sets. Table 3 shows the results. For comparison, we also show results for supervised models reported by Karpukhin et al. (2020) on TriviaQA and WebQuestions where the DPR model was trained directly on the training splits of these datasets. For the near domain datasets, both DPR and AugDPR

²<http://bioasq.org/participate/challenges>

³<https://lucene.apache.org/>

⁴<https://github.com/facebookresearch/DPR>

Model	Total			No answer overlap			No question overlap		
	Top-1	Top-10	Top-20	Top-1	Top-10	Top-20	Top-1	Top-10	Top-20
BM25	30.5	54.5	62.5	26.4	47.1	54.7	31.0	52.1	59.8
DPR	46.3	74.9	80.1	32.2	62.2	68.7	37.4	68.5	75.3
AugDPR	46.8	76.0	80.8	36.0	65.0	70.8	41.4	70.8	76.6

Table 2: NQ top- k retrieval results. Performance improves across the board with synthetic pre-finetuning (AugDPR), but more on the non-overlapping subsets of Lewis et al. (2020b).

Model	Near Domains						Far Domain	
	TriviaQA		WebQuestions		WikiMovies		BioASQ	
	Top-20	Top-100	Top-20	Top-100	Top-20	Top-100	Top-20	Top-100
BM25	66.9	76.7	55.0	71.1	54.0	69.3	42.1	50.5
DPR	69.0	78.7	63.0	78.3	69.8	78.1	34.7	46.9
AugDPR	72.2	81.1	71.1	80.8	72.5	80.7	41.4	52.4
Supervised	79.4	85.0	73.2	81.4	-	-	-	-

Table 3: Zero-shot neural retrieval accuracy improves with synthetic pre-finetuning (AugDPR) in all out-of-domain test settings. However, BM25 remains a strong baseline on the far domain dataset of BioASQ. The numbers for the supervised models are taken from (Karpukhin et al., 2020).

outperform BM25 by a sizable margin; additionally, AugDPR consistently outperforms DPR. Furthermore, performance of AugDPR on WebQuestions is comparable to that of the supervised model. On the far domain, however, we observe that BM25 is a rather strong baseline, with clearly better scores than DPR. The synthetic pre-finetuning of AugDPR reduces this gap considerably, resulting in a slightly lower top-20 score but a 2-point gain in top-100 score over BM25.

To investigate the relative underperformance of neural IR on BioASQ, we take a closer look at the vocabularies of the two domains of Wikipedia articles and biomedical literature. Following Gururangan et al. (2020), we compute the overlap between the 10k most frequent tokens (excluding stop words) in the two domains, represented by 3M randomly sampled passages from each. We observe a vocabulary overlap of only 17%, which shows that the two domains are considerably different in terminology, explaining in part the performance drop in our neural models. Based on these results, we also believe that performance of neural IR in distant target domains can be significantly improved via pre-finetuning on synthetic examples that are generated from raw text in the target domain. We plan to explore this idea in future work.

We also examine the lexical overlap between the questions and their passages, since a high overlap would favor term matching methods like BM25. We find that the coverage of the question tokens in the respective gold passages is indeed higher in BioASQ: 72.1%, compared to 58.6% and 63.0% in NQ and TriviaQA, respectively.

To analyze how much synthetic data is required,

we experiment with pre-finetuning using 1M and 4M synthetic examples while keeping the number of training updates fixed. As Table 4 shows, we do not see any improvements from using more examples beyond 2M.

Karpukhin et al. (2020) report that DPR finetuning takes around a day on eight 32GB GPUs, which is a notable improvement over more computationally intensive pre-training approaches like (Lee et al., 2019; Guu et al., 2020). Our synthetic pre-finetuning takes around two days on four 32GB GPUs, which is comparable with finetuning in terms of computational overhead.

Model	Top-10	Top-20	Top-100
DPR	73.6	78.1	85.0
AugDPR-1M	74.4	79.2	85.5
AugDPR-2M	74.8	79.7	85.9
AugDPR-4M	74.6	79.1	85.9

Table 4: Retrieval accuracy on the Natural Questions development set with varying number of synthetic examples (1M vs 2M vs 4M) during pre-finetuning.

5 Conclusion

We have shown that pre-finetuning a SOTA neural IR model using large amounts of *source domain* synthetic data improves its robustness in zero-shot application settings. Our experiments show consistent performance gains on five in-domain and out-of-domain test sets, including a far target domain that has significant vocabulary mismatch with the training domain. Future work will explore incorporating more control into the generation of synthetic data to increase its diversity and also to overcome potential biases in finetuning data.

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