Modern Question Answering Datasets and Benchmarks: A Survey

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Abstract

Question Answering (QA) is one of the most important natural language processing (NLP) tasks. It aims using NLP technologies to generate a corresponding answer to a given question based on the massive unstructured corpus. With the development of deep learning, more and more challenging QA datasets are being proposed, and lots of new methods for solving them are also emerging. In this paper, we investigate influential QA datasets that have been released in the era of deep learning. Specifically, we begin with introducing two of the most common QA tasks - textual question answering and visual question answering - separately, covering the most representative datasets, and then give some current challenges of QA research.

1 Introduction

Question answering (QA) (Hirschman and Gaizauskas, 2001) aims at providing correct answers to questions base on some given context or knowledge. QA is a traditional research direction that has been proposed half a century ago. People hope to help with everyday life by teaching the program how to answer questions like a real person. Traditional QA systems integrate some information retrieval techniques to find answers. With the development of deep learning, computer programs can now tackle more complex problems. At the same time, in the era of deep learning, more and more datasets are being proposed to measure the capabilities of QA models. These datasets, in turn, facilitate the development of deep learning QA models.

An comprehensive understanding of those datasets and benchmarks is essential before the further research about QA. Therefore, in this paper, we investigate some of the most commonly used datasets nowadays and categorize them according to the capabilities of the QA models involved. Meanwhile, according to the different modes designed, we divide them into three categories: textual QA, image QA, and video QA. In textual QA, all the corpora involved are presented in textual form. A typical sample in textual QA consists of a question, an answer, and a paragraph that contains the answer. Image QA and video QA together are generally referred to as Visual Question Answering (VQA) (Antol et al., 2015). In image QA, the question and answer are usually in textual form while the context is an image. And in video QA, the question and answer are the same but the context is a clip of video. We will start by introducing some representative datasets for each of the three types of QA, and conclude by analyzing some of the current challenges and opportunities in QA research from a dataset perspective. We hope this paper will help researchers gain a comprehensive understanding of QA tasks and methods, attracting more attention, leading to greater progress in QA filed.

2 Textual Question Answering

2.1 Reading Comprehension

BoolQ (Clark et al., 2019) is a yes/no reading comprehension QA dataset. Give the passage “The Great Storm of 1987 was a violent extratropical cyclone which caused casualties in England, France and the Channel Islands . . .” and corresponding question “Has the UK been hit by a hurricane?”, the correct answer is “Yes”. A method is asked to find the correct answer though analyse complex and non-factoid textual information, thus strong inference ability is required.

CNN and Daily Mail (See et al., 2017) using human generated abstractive as questions while one entities is hided, the stories are used as context to do the fill-in-the-blank questions.

CoQA (Reddy et al., 2019) is the first conversational question answering dataset. Given a passage as the conversation context, one person will ask
| Dataset | Answer Type | Size | Domain | Evaluate Ability |
|---------|-------------|------|--------|------------------|
| ARC (Clark et al., 2018) | Multi-Choice | 7,787 | Science | Reasoning |
| BoolQ (Clark et al., 2019) | Bool | 16K | Wikipedia | Reasoning |
| BioASQ (Tsatsaronis et al., 2015) | Span | 282 | Biomedical | Articles Indexing |
| CaseHOLD (Zheng et al., 2021) | Multi-Choice | 53,137 | Law | Pre-training |
| bAbI (Weston et al., 2015) | Bool/Entity | 40K | Open Domain | Reasoning |
| CBT (Hill et al., 2015) | Entity | 20K | Children’s Book | Model Memory |
| CliCR (Šuster and Daelemans, 2018) | Entity | 105K | Medical | Domain Knowledge |
| CNN and Daily Mail (See et al., 2017) | Entity | 311K | News | Text Summarization |
| CODAH (Chen et al., 2019) | Multi-choice | 4,149 | Open Domain | Commonsense |
| CommonsenseQA (Talmor et al., 2018) | Multi-choice | 12,247 | ConceptNet | Commonsense |
| ComplexWebQuestions (Talmor and Berant, 2018) | Entity | 34,689 | Freebase | Multi-hop |
| ConditionalQA (Sun et al., 2021) | Entity/Span | 9983 | Public Policy | Multi-hop |
| COPA (Gordon et al., 2012) | Multi-choice | 1000 | Commonsense | Reasoning |
| CoQA (Reddy et al., 2019) | Entity | 127K | Open Domain | Conversation |
| DROP (Dua et al., 2019) | Span | 96K | Wikipedia | Multi-hop |
| FinQA (Chen et al., 2021) | Number/Span | 8,281 | Finance | Multi-hop |
| HotpotQA (Yang et al., 2018) | Entity | 113K | Wikipedia | Multi-hop |
| JD Production QA (Gao et al., 2019b) | Generation | 469,953 | E-commerce | Domain Knowledge |
| LogiQA (Liu et al., 2020) | Multi-choice | 8,678 | Exam | Reasoning |
| MCTest (Richardson et al., 2013) | Multi-choice | 2,000 | Fictional Story | Reading Comprehension |
| Mathematics Dataset (Saxton et al., 2019) | Numeric | 2.1 \(\times 10^6\) | Mathematics | Calculate |
| MS MARCO (Nguyen et al., 2016) | Generation | 1,010,916 | Web pages | Search |
| MultiRC (Khashabi et al., 2018) | Multi-choice | 6K | Multiple Domain | Multi-hop |
| NarrativeQA (Kočiský et al., 2018) | Span | 46,765 | Story | Full Document |
| Natural Questions (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019) | Span/Passage | 323,045 | Wikipedia | Search |
| NewsQA (Trischler et al., 2016) | Span | 100,000 | CNN news | Reading Comprehension |
| OpenBookQA (Mihaylov et al., 2018) | Multi-choice | 6000 | Science Facts | Reasoning |
| PIQA (Bisk et al., 2020) | Multi-choice | 21,000 | Physical | Physical |
| PubMedQA (Jin et al., 2019) | Multi-choice | 1K | Medical | Summarization |
| QASPER (Dasigi et al., 2021) | Extractive | 5,049 | NLP papers | Reasoning |
| QuAC (Choi et al., 2018) | Multi-choice | 100K | Wikipedia | Dialog |
| QUASAR (Dhingra et al., 2017) | Generation | 43,000 | StackOverflow/Trivia search |
| RACE (Lai et al., 2017) | Multi-choice | 100,000 | Exam | Reading Comprehension |
| ReClor (Yu et al., 2020) | Multi-choice | 6138 | Exam | Logical |
| SCDE (Kong et al., 2020) | Exam | 6K | Exam | Reading Comprehension |
| SimpleQuestions (Bordes et al., 2015) | Entity | 100K | Freebase | Knowledge |
| SQuAD (Rajpurkar et al., 2016, 2018) | Span | 130,319 | Wikipedia | Reading Comprehension |
| TriviaQA (Joshi et al., 2017) | Span | 650K | Open Domain | Reading Comprehension |
| TweetQA (Xiong et al., 2019) | Generation | 13,757 | Tweet | Reading Comprehension |
| WikiHop (Welbl et al., 2018) | Multi-choice | 51,318 | Wikipedia | Multi-hop |
| WikiQA (Yang et al., 2015) | Sentence | 3,047 | Wikipedia | Reading Comprehension |

Table 1: Statistics of textual QA datasets.

Some questions and one person will answer those questions by finding the evidence from the context. Different from previous QA datasets, in CoQA, each question is related to previous asked questions, thus the answer should not only contain the context, but also the previous answered QA-pair should be taken into consideration. For example, the first question is “Who had a birthday?”, and the second question is “How old would she be?”; which one refers to “she” can only be known by the first question.

MCTest (Richardson et al., 2013) is a multi-choice reading comprehension QA dataset. All the passages in MCTest are children fictional stories written by Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT). For each story, four multi-choice questions are asked. Specifically, some questions are required to consider multiple sentences to get correct answers.

The candidate passages in MS MARCO (Nguyen et al., 2016) are all from the web pages retrieved by Bing. The questions are the query searched by Bing users, and the answers are generated by human annotators. There are three types of tasks in MS MARCO. First, it is determined whether a question is answerable, second, it is generated a proper answer to a given question, and the last is ranking the retrieved passages according to the relevance.

Given previous QA datasets can be answered with some QA irrelevant features such as term fre-
quency, making it impossible to measure the true capabilities of QA models. Deepmind thus propose a new reading comprehension QA dataset called NarrativeQA (Koˇcisk`y et al., 2018), where the questions can only be answered after fully review the whole document.

Similar to MS MARCO (Nguyen et al., 2016), Natural Questions (NQ) (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019) is also a reading comprehension dataset collect through the search engine. And the major difference is that NQ not only provide the relevant paragraph as the long answer, but also a human annotated short answer. And the Wikipedia page is used as the context.

NewsQA (Trischler et al., 2016) is aiming at providing a SQuAD-like QA dataset but harder than SQuAD (Rajpurkar et al., 2016). The annotators are asked to generate questions based on CNN news, and the answers are span of text which maybe the person, location, clause, numeric, etc.

RACE (Lai et al., 2017) is a multi-choice reading comprehension dataset which collected from English exams for Chinese students. Based on a passage, models should find correct answer from four candidate answers to a given question.

Similar to RACE (Lai et al., 2017), ReClor (Yu et al., 2020) is also a Multi-choice reading comprehension dataset. While some researches argue that current human annotated QA datasets contain some bias which may be used by models to cheat to achieve high accuracy, Reclor thus is divided into two datasets based on bias. The EASY set contains bias while the HARD set not. And the experiments prove that models can achieve high performance in EASY set but poor in HARD set.

SCDE (Kong et al., 2020) is used to test models’ reading comprehension ability through fill up blanks in passage using given sentences. Given seven sentences where two sentences among them are distractors, models should select the correct five sentences and fill them in the corresponding blanks to complete the whole article.

SimpleQuestions (Bordes et al., 2015) is constructed using Freebase. For each (subject, relationship, object), two of them is used to generate the question and the remained one is used as the answer. The models need to retrieve the correct answers from massive of possible alternatives from freebase, which makes the questions are not easy to be answered.

SQuAD (Rajpurkar et al., 2016, 2018) is the most famous reading comprehension dataset. Given a question and a paragraph as the context, the models need to extract the plausible answer from it. Each answer is a span of text. To make the task harder, in SQuAD 2.0, some unanswerable questions are include into the dataset.

TriviaQA (Joshi et al., 2017) is a reading comprehension dataset focusing on complex and compositional questions where requiring the ability on reasoning over multiple sentences. Specially, there are syntactic and lexical variability among questions, answers and evidences.

The question-answer pairs in TweetQA (Xiong et al., 2019) are all annotated from tweets. Unlike previous reading comprehension datasets using a text span as the answer, the answer in TweetQA can be abstractive, which makes it more difficult to be solve. The experiments show that current SOTA models such as BERT (Devlin et al., 2018) are significantly below human performance.

2.2 Reasoning

AI2 Reasoning Challenge (ARC) (Clark et al., 2018) focuses on hard multi-choice questions to challenge current QA methods. Their questions cannot be answered easily using retrieval based methods or through word correlation. And particularly, they choose some wrong answer question construct a specific Challenge Set contains 2590 questions.

CODAH (Chen et al., 2019) is a common sense reasoning dataset. Given a premise, for example, “A man on his first date wanted to break the ice. He ...”, methods are asked to choose a correct reason from four answers. In this sceanario, the answer is “made a corny joke.”

Combine totally 20 kinds of tasks, bABi (Weston et al., 2015) aiming at give the answer that can a QA model is able to solve QA problem using some reasoning abilities, such as the chain of facts, induction, deduction operation. When give three fact: (1) Mary went to the bathroom. (2) John moved to the hallway. (3) Mary travelled to the office; and the question “Where is Mary?”, the tested QA models should give the correct answer “office”.

Build through ConceptNet (Liu and Singh, 2004), CommonsenseQA (Talmor et al., 2018) aiming at generating difficult common sense questions to test models’ reasoning ability. The annotators are asked to make the question as difficult as possi-
ble by looking for incorrect answers closely related to correct answers to construct the multi-choice.

COPA (Gordon et al., 2012) is a task in SemEval-2012 which is a multi-choice QA dataset aiming at testing the causal reasoning ability of models. Given a premise, the models need to find the best matched cause or result.

LogiQA (Liu et al., 2020) is a logical reasoning multi-choice QA dataset. The questions come from National Civil Servants Examination of China. There are mainly five kinds of reasoning types in LogiQA - categorical reasoning, sufficient conditional reasoning, necessary conditional reasoning, disjunctive reasoning and conjunctive reasoning. The question in LogiQA is extremely hard that current state-of-the-art QA model can only achieve 39% in accuracy.

Different from existing linguistic QA dataset, OpenBookQA (Mihaylov et al., 2018) more focuses on scientific reasoning. The models should find the correct choice by reasoning between questions and the given science facts and common knowledge.

PIQA (Bisk et al., 2020) is a special QA dataset in which the physical reasoning ability is required to solve the questions. The format of the task is select best one from two given answers. For a given scenario in question, the correct physical process needs to be chosen to achieve the expected result in question.

Given the queries from Bing as the questions and users’ click, WikiQA (Yang et al., 2015) selects those relevant Wikipedia pages as the context. The annotators are asked to select a correct sentence which can answer a corresponding question. Further, WikiQA also involve some questions that cannot be answered using the context.

2.3 Domain-Specific

CLiCR (Šuster and Daelemans, 2018) is a dataset consists of gap-filling questions about medical cases, and the authors find that domain-specific knowledge is a key for success in medical QA.

BioASQ (Tsatsaronis et al., 2015) is an extraction-based QA dataset constructed using biomedical corpus. BioASQ mainly focus on biomedical-style questions such as “What are the physiological manifestations of disorder Y?”

The Children’s Book Test (CBT) (Hill et al., 2015) is a dataset to measure the ability that language models understand children’s books. This task specifically focuses on syntactic function words prediction.

To determine when domain-specific pre-training is worthwhile, consider current legal related NLP tasks are too easy to challenge transformer-based methods, in CaseHOLD (Zheng et al., 2021), the authors proposed a multi-choice legal QA dataset. They use case as the context, and among some given holding statement, only one is proper. Their experiments shows that compare to normal BERT (Devlin et al., 2018), the BERT pre-trained on legal corpus can achieve better result, indicating that pre-training on domain-specific text is useful when doing difficult domain-specific tasks.

JD Production QA (Gao et al., 2019b) is a large-scale QA dataset focuses on solving the problem that how to generate a plausible answer to a question asked for a particular product in the e-commerce platform.

Mathematics Dataset (Saxton et al., 2019) is the only one QA dataset that only pay attention to mathematical reasoning, which proposed by DeepMind. With this dataset, they evaluate the sequence-to-sequence models’ ability in solve mathematical problems.

PubMedQA (Jin et al., 2019) is a biomedical QA dataset which using the abstract from PubMed. For each QA-pair, the question is title or a sentence extract from a article, the article’s abstract which exclude the conclusion is used as the context, and the conclusion is used as the long answer. Models should give yes/no/maybe to judge whether the conclusion can answer the question.

In QASPER (Dasigi et al., 2021), 1,585 NLP papers is used as the data source. One part of annotators are asked to give the questions based on papers’ title and abstract. And the other part of annotators are asked to answer those questions base on the full text papers while also giving the corresponding support evidences.

QuAC (Choi et al., 2018) is a dialog-specific QA dataset. Based on the context provided by Wikipedia, a dialog between a teacher and a student is constructed. Different from normal QA, the QA in dialog have some differences. The question can usually be open-ended, sometimes there are no answer to a question, and the answers can be meaningful only in current dialog.

The goal of QUASAR (Dhingra et al., 2017) is to test QA models’ ability to first retrieve and then generate answers from retrieved documents.
It consists of two sub-datasets. The first one is QUASAR-S which constructed from StackOverflow. User input queries are used to generate fill-in-the-gap questions, and users’ posts and comments are used as context. The second one is QUASAR-T which consists of trivia questions and the answers come from internet.

2.4 Multi-hop

ComplexWebQuestions (Talmor and Berant, 2018) uses the simple questions from WebQuestionSP (Yih et al., 2016) build more complex questions which need to be answered by decompose the question into two simple questions. For example, the original question is “What movies have robert pattinson starred in?”, and the complex question enhanced by SPARQL is “What movies have robert pattinson starred in and that was produced by Erwin Stoff?”.

In ConditionalQA (Sun et al., 2021), a correct answer is applicable only in a certain condition. Thus, the correctly answer questions, the models need to not only give the answer, but also generate the condition. The authors find that for the existing QA models, compare to generate correct answer, how to find the suitable condition is particularly challenging.

HotpotQA (Yang et al., 2018) is the first multi-hop QA dataset and the questions can only be answered by doing inference in multiple documents. Particularly, all the questions in HotpotQA are not depended on any existing knowledge and only the reasoning ability is required to generate the answer. To make the reasoning procedure more reliable, the useful sentence-level facts are also provided to help researches check whether models generate answers using the correct sources.

While previous QA dataset only using single context, the questions in DROP (Dua et al., 2019), however, can only be answered by get multiple fact from different paragraphs and then doing some combine operation to drive the final answer.

Compare to previous multi-hop QA only focuses on textual data, FinQA (Chen et al., 2021), which extracted from financial reports, includes more kinds of information, such as table and number, and therefore some specific numerical operation is needed.

MultiRC (Khashabi et al., 2018) is reading comprehension dataset where the multiple sentences should be taken into consideration to select the correct choice. It covers seven domains: science, news, travel guides, fiction stories, Wikipedia, history, 9/11 reports.

To solve the questions in WikiHop (Welbl et al., 2018), models need to infer multiple documents from Wikipedia to obtain the correct answers. To answer a question, models should first retrieve some support documents, and then find and combine some evident to infer the answer.

3 Image Question Answering

3.1 Recognition

DocVQA (Mathew et al., 2021) collects massive images from documents as the question context and ask questions about the textual information in the images. the models need to correctly recognize the text to generate the answer, which makes it huge different from normal object detection tasks.

HowMany-QA (Trott et al., 2017) mainly focuses on testing the counting ability of models. For each image, some counting questions are asked, such as “How many people are wearing blue shorts?” The images the authors used are from VQA2.0 (Antol et al., 2015) and Visual Genome (Krishna et al., 2017).

Compare to HowManyQA (Trott et al., 2017), the counting questions in TallyQA (Acharya et al., 2019) are more complex and require reasoning ability about the relationship between objects and attribution. Given a simple question “How many giraffes are there?”, the complex can be “How many giraffes are sitting down?”.

In TDIUC (Kafle and Kanan, 2017), there are totally 12 tasks including Counting, Scene Classification, Sentiment Understanding, etc. The main goal of TDIUC is to provide a solid benchmark to test all the existing VQA algorithms.

While previous VQA datasets merely focus on object detection, TextVQA (Singh et al., 2019) however, aims at the text recognition in images. Give an image, the models need to give a correct text as the answer that contained in the image to correctly answer the corresponding question.

Previous datasets only using the global information between images and QA pairs, which may ignoring some important local region information. Thus in Visual7W (Zhu et al., 2016), the authors first using bounding-box to extract the important objects or regions in a image, and then ask some questions about those special area.

The images in VizWiz (Gurari et al., 2018) are
| Dataset                  | Answer Type      | Size  | Domain                  | Evaluate Ability     |
|-------------------------|------------------|-------|-------------------------|----------------------|
| CLEVR (Johnson et al., 2017) | Open-ended       | 853K  | 3D CG                   | Reasoning            |
| RecipeQA (Yagcioglu et al., 2018) | Multi-choice     | 36K   | Cooking Recipes         | Procedural           |
| CRIC (Gao et al., 2019a) | Open-ended       | 494K  | Visual Genome           | Scene Reasoning      |
| DocVQA (Mathew et al., 2021) | Open-ended       | 50,000| Document                | Recognition          |
| FVQA (Wang et al., 2017)   | Open-ended       | 5,826 | Open Domain             | Knowledge            |
| Visual Genome (Krishna et al., 2017) | Open-ended       | 1,445,322| Open Domain          | Recognition          |
| VCR (Zellers et al., 2019) | Multi-choice     | 290K  | Movie                   | Reasoning            |
| GQA (Hudson and Manning, 2019) | Open-ended/Yes/No | 22M   | Visual Genome           | Reasoning            |
| HowMany-QA (Trott et al., 2017) | Number          | 106,356| VG/VQA2.0               | Counting             |
| TallyQA (Acharya et al., 2019) | Number          | 287,907| VG/COCO                | Counting             |
| TDIUC (Kaffe and Kanan, 2017) | Open-ended       | 1.6M  | VG/COCO                 | Multiple             |
| TextVQA (Singh et al., 2019) | Open-ended       | 45,336| Open Domain             | Text Recognition      |
| VCOPA (Yeo et al., 2018)   | Multi-choice     | 380   | Open Domain             | Causality            |
| Visual7W (Zhu et al., 2016) | Open-ended/Multi-choice | 327,939| VG                      | Reasoning            |
| VizWiz (Gurari et al., 2018) | Open-ended       | 31,000| Photo                   | Recognition          |
| VQA2.0 (Goyal et al., 2017) | Open-ended       | 1,11M | COCO                    | Recognition          |
| KVQA (Shah et al., 2019)   | Open-ended       | 183,007| Wikipedia              | Knowledge            |
| OK-VQA (Marino et al., 2019) | Open-ended       | 14,000| Open Domain             | Knowledge            |
| R-VQA (Lu et al., 2018)    | Open-ended       | 478,287| VG                      | Reasoning            |
| KB-VQA (Wang et al., 2015) | Open-ended       | 2,402 | COCO/ImageNet           | Knowledge            |
| WebVQA (Chang et al., 2021) | Open-ended       | 25K   | Wikipedia               | Multi-hop            |
| AQUA (Garcia et al., 2020b) | Open-ended       | 79,848| Art                     | Knowledge            |

| Video Question Answering |
|-------------------------|------------------|-------|-------------------------|----------------------|
| CLEVRER (Yi et al., 2019) | Multi-choice     | 300,000| CG Video                | Causal Reasoning     |
| KnowIT VQA (Garcia et al., 2020a) | Open-ended       | 24,282| TV series               | Knowledge            |
| MovieQA (Tapaswi et al., 2016) | Open-ended       | 14,944| Movie                   | Reasoning            |
| TVQA (Lei et al., 2018)  | Multi-choice     | 152,545| Movie                   | Reasoning            |
| PororoQA (Kim et al., 2017) | Multi-choice     | 8,913 | Cartoon                 | Summarization        |
| Social-IQ (Zadeh et al., 2019) | Multi-choice     | 7,500 | Social                  | Reasoning            |

Table 2: Statistics of image and video QA datasets. RC means Reading Comprehension, MC means Multi-choice.

all took by blind people with a recorded spoken question. And the answers are annotated by crowdsources. This dataset is mainly used to help the research in using VQA technologies to assist blind people.

VQA2.0 (Goyal et al., 2017) is an improved version of VQA (Antol et al., 2015). The questions in those two dataset are the same, asking questions about the object in the image. But the data distribution in VQA2.0 is more balanced. For each question, there are two similar images with different answers.

### 3.2 Reasoning

CLEVR (Johnson et al., 2017) aims at testing the reasoning abilities of models. Given the strong bias existing in some reasoning VQA datasets, they use computer generated 3D shapes as the image context and automatically generate some question related to attribute, counting, comparison, logical operations, etc.

Unlike other QA datasets where context is a complete paragraph, context is a procedure in RecipeQA (Yagcioglu et al., 2018). The model needs to understand the sequence of the different steps involved in making a dish in order to answer questions correctly.

While previous VQA datasets only using single object in an image, CRIC (Gao et al., 2019a), however, using the Scene Graph from Visual Genome (Krishna et al., 2017) to generate questions about the relationship between different objects in a same image. For example, the question can be “What utensil can be used for moving the food that is in the bowl?” and models are asked to find the correct object as the answer that is spoon. CRIC challenges the relational reasoning ability of visual models.

Visual Genome (Krishna et al., 2017) is the largest VQA dataset. The questions in Visual Genome always starts with six Ws - what, where, when, who, why, and how, which allow them to test wide range of model abilities such as detection, categorization, commonsense reasoning. Using the annotated scene graphs, human workers are asked to give questions based on region descriptions.

VCR (Zellers et al., 2019) combines object recognition and relation reasoning through asking questions between different objects. For example, given a image contains some people which are already highlighted and annotated by bounding
boxes, the question can be “Why the [person1] talk to [person2]?”. To correctly answer this question, models should first select the most rational answer from four answers and then should find the most reasonable explanation also from four candidates to explain why the first choice is correct.

GQA (Hudson and Manning, 2019) leverage the scene graph provided by Visual Genome (Krishna et al., 2017) to generate questions about the objects in image. The question involves object recognition, classification of relations between objects and so on, such as “Is the bowl to the right of the green apple?” They use different templates to automatically generate questions and thus the total number of questions achieves 22M.

Inspired by COPA (Gordon et al., 2012), VCOPA (Yeo et al., 2018) researches the causality in VQA scenario. Given an image as the premise, the VQA models need to choose the most possible result that may caused by this premise from two images.

R-VQA (Lu et al., 2018) mainly aims at the relationship reasoning between different entities. They choose three types of relations: (there, is, object), (subject, is, attribute), (subject, relation, object). For each QA pair, they also provide the corresponding relation to help answer the question.

3.3 Commonsense and Knowledge

Different from previous datasets that questions can be answered merely rely on the analysis of image itself, the questions in FVQA (Wang et al., 2017) can only be solved considering some external commonsense and knowledge. This makes the dataset can be easily answered by human but much difficult to models. For instance, given a image contains a red fire hydrant, the question can be “What can the red object on the ground be used for?” and the correct answer is “Firefighting”.

KVQA (Shah et al., 2019) focuses on the world knowledge about the famous people. They collect the images in Wikipedia and asking attribute questions, such as “who is the person in the images?” or “How old is the person?”

For each sample in OK-VQA (Marino et al., 2019), in addition to a question and an answer, they also provide some outside knowledge, in which the correct answer contained. Those knowledge closely related to the QA pair, and model should analyse both the question and outside knowledge to extract the final answer.

Instead of merely asking questions about visual, questions in KB-VQA (Wang et al., 2015) may also related to commonsense and knowledge. For example, if the visual question is “How many giraffes are there in the image”, then the commonsense question can be “Is this image related to zoology?”, and the corresponding knowledge question is “What are the common properties between the animal in this image and zebra?”.

AQUA (Garcia et al., 2020b) is a VQA dataset specifically about Art. The questions are generate in two different ways. The first is directly generated based on the painting itself, which can be answered only using the painting. And the other way is to generate from the painting’s comments which may involve some external knowledge and cannot be answer merely rely on the painting.

3.4 Multi-hop

WebQA (Chang et al., 2021) is currently the only one multi-hop VQA dataset. To ask the questions, the models need to reasoning on some images and text snippets. Some images and text are related to the question while some not. Models should first find the related images and text then combine them together to generate the correct answer.

4 Video Question Answering

CLEVRER (Yi et al., 2019) focuses on the temporal causal reasoning abilities of models. The authors use CG technology to simulate the movement and collision between different simple geometric objects to design questions and answers. Asking questions such as “Which of the following is responsible for the gray cylinder’s colliding with the cube?” and the models need to figure out the correct reason for this.

KnowIT VQA (Garcia et al., 2020a) use the clips from The Big Bang Theory to generate questions. There totally four kinds of questions: visual, textual, temporal and knowledge. Models should use both the video and the subtitles, as well as some external knowledge about the TV series, to answer the questions.

There are there types of source information in MovieQA (Tapaswi et al., 2016): plot, video and subtitle. Combine those different information, models should answer the annotated questions such as “Who kills Neo in the Matrix?”.

In TVQA (Lei et al., 2018), some questions can
be answer by using video or subtitle independently while some questions can only be answered by combining both of them. Furthermore, the models should also learn to precisely locate where the useful clips are.

PororoQA (Kim et al., 2017) is a VQA dataset specially focusing on cartoon for children and thus the word in it are quite simple. There are totally ten types of questions: Action, Person, Abstract, Detail, Method, Reason, Location, Statement, Causality, Yes/No, Time.

Social-IQ (Zadeh et al., 2019) aims to help the AI researches in social situation. Given some video scenes where people socialize, the annotators are asked to ask some question related to those people. For example, “How is the discussion between the woman and the man in the white shirt?”

5 Challenges and Chances
A comparison of those three different forms of QA shows that, given how early they were introduced, textual QA is the most studied among the three QA forms, which has the most number of datasets, and covers the most types of QA abilities. For VQA, because it is just proposed in the new era of deep learning, there is still a lack of research and datasets, especially for video QA. This is also closely related to the difficulty of corpus collection, annotation difficulty and training resource demand.

5.1 Textual QA
Because textual information are most available in real-world or online websites, Textual QA is both the earliest and the most studied direction. There are two main sources of textual QA today. One is a variety of actual exam questions, and one is human design questions from the annotator. Questions from exams are more difficult and of higher quality, but are also limited in quantity to meet the needs of each particular type of QA. On the contrary, Questions designed by human annotators are more flexible and thus can meet different demands, but the annotate process are expensive and usually contains some errors which cannot measure up to the precision of the exam questions.

Although various datasets are now available, there are still many unsolved problems. The first is the evaluation matrix of QA model performance. QA is currently measured primarily by the overlap degree to which a predicted answer meets a target answer, and the higher the overlap, the more accurate it is considered. But language is complex, and there can be more than one correct answer to the same question, and word coincidence doesn’t take actual semantics into consideration, which may lead to some misjudgments. The second is the interpretability of QA models. The current QA models just give the answer directly, we cannot know how the answer is extracted or generated, the whole process is unexplainable. The third is the gap between QA datasets and the real-world scenario. Out of domain problem is a critical disadvantage for all deep learning-related research, and QA is no exception. Although some models currently achieve more than 90% accuracy on some particular datasets, there is always a huge performance degradation when they are applied to other fields or practical applications. How to narrow this gap is also a problem worth studying. And the last is the limitation of question types. In the current QA datasets, questions mainly start with what, when, where, etc., while there are few open-end questions like why and how. The answer to the former is always short and easily solved by the model, while the answer to the latter may be much longer than the question itself. This is a big challenge for capacity-limited deep learning models. We can’t use infinite huge models because of the cost of machines, but knowledge itself is infinite.

5.2 Visual QA
Visual QA, including image QA and video QA, is in general an extension of textual QA. The major difference is in VQA, the context is image or video rather than text. In addition to having some of the same issues as textual QA, VQA has some unique problems. Firstly, images and videos are more difficult to access and annotate than text, making the number of VQA datasets much smaller than those of textual QA, and usually with lower quality. Secondly, in QA tasks, there is a higher requirement for understanding images. Traditional computer vision tasks are mainly used for object classification or object recognition. But to answer the question, the model needs to recognize not only the object, but also the relationship between the objects and even the meaning of the whole image. And lastly, compared with textual QA, there are still many problems to be studied in VQA due to its late start. Luckily, many studies in textual QA can be transferred to VQA and provide some references for VQA.
6 Conclusion

In this work, we investigate and present a comprehensive survey on QA. Specifically, we focus on the QA datasets of three different QA tasks: textual QA, image QA, and video QA. For each dataset, we introduce its data statistics and usage. Moreover, through self-comparison and cross-comparison of these three tasks, we analyze some of the current challenges and opportunities QA research facing, to provide some reference and insight for the future QA researches.

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