ASQA: Factoid Questions Meet Long-Form Answers

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Abstract

An abundance of datasets and availability of reliable evaluation metrics have resulted in strong progress in factoid question answering (QA). This progress, however, does not easily transfer to the task of long-form QA, where the goal is to answer questions that require in-depth explanations. The hurdles include (i) a lack of high-quality data, and (ii) the absence of a well-defined notion of the answer’s quality. In this work, we address these problems by (i) releasing a novel dataset and a task that we call ASQA (Answer Summaries for Questions which are Ambiguous); and (ii) proposing a reliable metric for measuring performance on ASQA. Our task focuses on factoid questions that are ambiguous, that is, have different correct answers depending on interpretation. Answers to ambiguous questions should synthesize factual information from multiple sources into a long-form summary that resolves the ambiguity. In contrast to existing long-form QA tasks (such as ELI5), ASQA admits a clear notion of correctness: a user faced with a good summary should be able to answer different interpretations of the original ambiguous question. We use this notion of correctness to define an automated metric of performance for ASQA. Our analysis demonstrates an agreement between this metric and human judgments, and reveals a considerable gap between human performance and strong baselines.

1 Introduction

In the last few years, the factoid question answering (QA) task—extracting short answers to factoid questions—has witnessed significant progress (Lee et al., 2019; Guu et al., 2020; Karpukhin et al., 2020; Lewis et al., 2020; Izacard and Grave, 2021). The progress was achieved in large part thanks to (i) the availability of high-quality datasets (Voorhees and Tice, 2000; Joshi et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2018; Abujabal et al., 2019; Kwiatkowski et al., 2019),

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and (ii) a well-defined notion of correctness. A key challenge for ongoing research now lies in long-form question answering where the goal is to generate detailed explanations in response to questions that require elaborate and in-depth answers.

There is much less data available for the task of long-form QA. One of the primary data sources is the ELI5 dataset (Fan et al., 2019) that pairs open-ended questions with paragraph-long answers written by users of the “Explain Like I’m Five” Reddit forum. However, questions in ELI5 are very general (e.g., “How can different animals perceive different colors?”) and can be answered in myriad different ways, making it hard to define objective criteria for a good answer. As a result, Krishna et al. (2021) identify several hurdles in using this data towards meaningful modeling progress, including a lack of reliable evaluation metrics.

In this work, we address the lack of data sources and unreliability of evaluations by constructing a long-form QA dataset for factoid questions. Our paper is motivated by the work of Min et al. (2020) who observe that more than half of the factoid questions that occur naturally are ambiguous. For example, a seemingly simple question: “Who was the ruler of France in 1830?” is ambiguous because there were two rulers of France in 1830. Min et al. (2020) collected the AMBIGQA dataset that connects ambiguous factoid questions with disambiguations: pairs of disambiguated questions and unique short answers to these questions (see example on the right side of Figure 1).

We note, however, that ambiguous questions often arise when a user lacks background knowledge about why there might be multiple answers to their question, and how those answers relate to each other. Thus, the list of disambiguations may not be satisfactory for the user. For example, the fact that in 1830 the ruler of France changed due to the revolution is highly salient but is not captured in
the AMBIGQA disambiguations.

In this paper, we argue the importance of generating long-form answers to ambiguous factoid questions. In that, we present ASQA (Answer Summaries for Questions which are Ambigious)—a novel dataset that pairs each ambiguous question from AMBIGQA with a crowdsourced long-form answer. The answers we collect aim to (i) explain the source of ambiguity in the question, and (ii) connect all the valid short answers into a coherent passage. An example ASQA instance is shown in Figure 1.

The main feature of ASQA is a combination of (i) a well-defined notion of correctness pertinent to factoid QA and (ii) the complexity of long-form QA. First, observe that a good answer to an ambiguous question should be sufficient for the user to answer different interpretations of the question. This observation induces a notion of correctness that is conceptually similar to the conventional accuracy in factoid QA. Second, to answer an ambiguous question, a system needs to retrieve a diverse set of documents that talk about different interpretations of the question and synthesize this information into a coherent summary. Thus, the key challenges of long-form QA—precise retrieval and high-quality summarization—are present in ASQA.

Contributions Overall, our work makes several contributions:

• First, we carefully develop a crowdsourcing pipeline and collect ASQA—a dataset of high-quality long-form answers to 6,316 ambiguous factoid questions.

• Second, we design principled evaluation procedures for ASQA: (i) we propose a novel automated evaluation metric (DR) that combines the correctness aspect of factoid QA and the fluency aspect of long-form QA; (ii) we develop and release a convenient interface for human evaluations; (iii) we conduct a small-scale human study that shows a high agreement between our automated metric DR and human judgments.

• Third, we establish strong baselines for our task by combining joint passage retrieval (Min et al., 2021) and T5-large (Raffel et al., 2019). Our extensive evaluations demonstrate that there is a large gap between the baselines and human performance. Additionally, we highlight areas of improvement for future research on ASQA.

2 Related Work

In this section, we describe relevant works that propose new tasks, datasets, and methods for QA and summarization problems.

Extractive QA  Much of the existing work on question answering, including reading comprehension (Rajpurkar et al., 2016, 2018; Trischler et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2018), open-domain QA (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019; Joshi et al., 2017) and dialog-based QA (Choi et al., 2018), assumes that questions have unique answers. Min et al. (2020) relax this assumption and propose a task that aims at identifying all possible short answers to the
ambiguous subset of the open-domain version of the NQ dataset, denoted NQ-OPEN (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2019). The AMBIGQA dataset constructed by Min et al. (2020) serves as a building block of the present work and we provide more details on this dataset in Section 3. Another related effort is the CONDITIONALQA task (Sun et al., 2021) that requires systems to identify conditions under which the extracted answers are valid. Unlike the ASQA task, the answers in CONDITIONALQA come from a document provided in advance and do not need to be summarized into a single response.

Generative QA Extractive models achieve good results when the answer to the question is readily available on the web. However, in many settings, including ambiguous factoid questions, a system needs to combine information from many (unknown) sources to present the answer to the user in a convenient way. Hence, in this work, we focus on the generative QA setting where a model needs to generate a textual answer rather than extract it.

Datasets for generative QA include NARRATIVEQA (Kočiský et al., 2018) and COQA (Reddy et al., 2019), but the average answer length in these datasets is small: 4.7 and 2.7 tokens, respectively. The MS MARCO Natural Language Generation (MS-NLG) dataset by Nguyen et al. (2016) combines both extractive and generative tasks and contains slightly longer human-generated answers (usually, a sentence-long) that can be read by a smart assistant. Fan et al. (2019) proposed a more challenging task of answering open-ended (e.g., “why?”) questions. They scraped the “Explain Like I’m Five” Reddit forum and released a dataset of ~272K questions, where each question is supplied with several paragraph-long answers generated by the Reddit users. We overview the differences between ASQA, EL15 and MS-NLG in Section 3.3.

Recently, large language models such as GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020) have been successfully applied to the task of long-form QA using the EL15 dataset (Nakano et al., 2021). For this, a two-step human-in-the-loop approach was involved: first, demonstrations of annotators navigating the web to write answers were collected; second, a reward model (Stiennon et al., 2020) was trained by manual pairwise comparisons of answers. In ASQA, relevant passages for the answer are already provided by the annotators and we show that the proposed DR score correlates well with the human judgment of answer quality. Using this automated metric in place of the reward model in the approach of Nakano et al. (2021) is a potential direction for future work.

Summarization Given a set of documents relevant to the question (either ground truth or obtained using retrieval) the problem of generating a long-form answer reduces to query-based multi-document summarization. A small-scale dataset for this task was introduced as part of the DUC tasks (Dang, 2005). Recent work on building large-scale datasets has instead focused either on query-based summarization from a single document (Nema et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2021) or on multi-document summarization without queries (Liu et al., 2018; Fabbri et al., 2019). In addition to the QA task, the ASQA dataset is suitable for the evaluation of systems’ accuracy in the summarization setting, where the ground-truth passages containing the relevant information are assumed to be given.

QA-Based Evaluation Prior work has looked at using question answering techniques to evaluate factual consistency in summarization (Wang et al., 2020; Durmus et al., 2020) and dialogue (Honovich et al., 2021). These works automatically generate questions from the system-produced text and search for answers in some reference text (e.g., the input being summarized) to evaluate the quality of the output. Instead, to evaluate generated long-form answers to ambiguous questions, in ASQA we use questions created by AMBIGQA annotators.

3 ASQA Task and Data

In this section, we introduce the ASQA task and the underlying data-collection process. The ASQA task is illustrated in Figure 1. The goal of the task is to write a comprehensive paragraph-long answer \( \hat{a} \) to a given ambiguous question \( q \).

Source Data We build ASQA on top of the subset of ambiguous questions identified in the AMBIGQA dataset. Out of a total of 14,042 AMBIGQA questions, 7,207 are identified as ambiguous by at least one AMBIGQA annotator. Each of these ambiguous questions \( q \) is paired with a list of \( n \) disambiguations \( \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{n} \), where \( x_i \) denotes a disambiguated question and \( y_i \) denotes
a unique short answer to \( x_i \). The number of disambiguations ranges from 2 to 46 per ambiguous question. To ensure that it is feasible to put all this information into a coherent story, we remove 417 questions with more than six disambiguations from consideration, thereby focusing on 6,790 AMBIGQA instances that we use as a starting point for building our task.

3.1 ASQA Annotation Objectives

At a high level, the goal of the annotation process is to obtain high-quality long answers to ambiguous questions. We begin with a formulation of criteria for what counts as a good long answer to an ambiguous question:

- **Completeness** The long answer should contain all valid short answers \( y_1, \ldots, y_n \) to the disambiguated questions \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \) in an appropriate context.

- **Comprehensiveness** The long answer should provide enough details for the user to (i) understand the source of ambiguity in the original question and (ii) understand the relationship between different short answers.

- ** Fluency** The long answer should be coherent and fluent.

- **Attributability** The long answer should be grounded in an underlying source of information (in our case, Wikipedia).

3.2 ASQA Annotation Process

To ensure that annotations satisfy the aforementioned objectives, we develop a custom annotation interface (Figure 2) and recruit native English speakers to perform our task. We then collect long-form answers for each target instance of AMBIGQA using a commercial crowdsourcing platform where it is possible to interact with the annotators on an ongoing basis. Let us now discuss the key components of our annotation pipeline.

**Input to Annotators** The left side of Figure 2 illustrates the input to our annotation procedure. Annotators are given relevant aspects of the target AMBIGQA instance: the ambiguous question \( q \), list of disambiguations \( \{ (x_i, y_i) \}^n_{i=1} \), and the Wikipedia pages \( W \) visited by AMBIGQA annotators. Additionally, to help annotators understand the context behind the disambiguations without reading full Wikipedia articles, for each disambiguation \( i \) we provide a (possibly empty) Wikipedia passage \( C_i \) with information relevant to the disambiguation. Details on the procedure used to find these context passages \( \{ C_i \}^n_{i=1} \) are given in Appendix A.

**Output of Annotation** The key output of annotation is a long-form answer \( a \) to a given ambiguous question \( q \). Additional elements of the output are introduced to facilitate the requirement of attributability. In that, we require annotators to provide the source Wikipedia passage \( e \) for each piece of additional information they bring to their answer. Our interface has designated fields for additional knowledge (see Figure 2) and annotators can add

Figure 2: Schematic representation of the annotation interface.
Table 1: Summary statistics of the ASQA dataset.

| SPLIT | # QUESTIONS | # ANNOTATIONS |
|-------|-------------|---------------|
| TRAIN | 4,353       | 1             |
| DEV   | 948         | 2             |
| TEST  | 1,015       | 2             |

Table 1: Summary statistics of the ASQA dataset.

3.3 ASQA Dataset

By following the procedure outlined above, we annotated train, dev, and test splits of the AMBIGQA dataset. Each question in the train split was annotated by a single annotator while the dev and test splits have two annotations per question.

For 474 questions, our annotators raised concerns regarding the validity of the AMBIGQA disambiguations. Not all of these concerns necessarily indicate errors in the AMBIGQA dataset as some of them could be due to misinterpretation on the annotators’ side. Nevertheless, to maintain data fidelity, we exclude the corresponding instances from the resulting dataset. Table 1 displays the final breakdown of the ASQA dataset.

Table 2 compares ASQA to other open-domain QA datasets: ELI5, MS-NLG, AMBIGQA, and NQ-OPEN. We observe that ASQA requires long answers with an average length of 64.8 (vs. 103.0 for ELI5 and 14.6 for MS-NLG), and is the only dataset that admits evaluations in terms of both ROUGE, which is typically used for long-form QA, and accuracy, which is typically used for factoid QA. This makes ASQA an appealing dataset as it enables researchers to work on long-form QA while retaining the benefits of reliable objective evaluation typical in factoid QA.

Additional Comparison to ELI5

ELI5 is the closest existing long-form QA dataset. We now provide additional comparison of ASQA and ELI5.

Support Documents First, both ASQA and ELI5 supplement annotations with relevant information retrieved from Wikipedia (ASQA) or the whole Internet (ELI5). For ELI5, support documents are retrieved automatically and independently of the annotation process. The resulting documents contain, on average, 858 words. Manual analysis conducted by Fan et al. (2019) reveals that support documents are sufficient to answer 65% of the questions and have information relevant to 92% of the questions.

In ASQA, support documents are constructed as a part of the annotation process. For each annotation, the support document contains disambiguations from AMBIGQA, context paragraphs, and additional knowledge provided by the corresponding annotator (see Section 3.2 for details). On average, support documents contain 225 words, being much shorter than those for ELI5. By design of our annotation procedure, support documents should be sufficient to write long-form answers to ambiguous questions. Indeed, we observe that 92% of the annotations’ tokens are present in the corresponding support documents.\(^2\) If we exclude AMBIGQA disambiguations from the support documents, their average length reduces to 172 words, but 78% of tokens from the answers remain captured therein. These observations demonstrate that ASQA satisfies the requirement of attributability (Section 3.1).

Inter-Annotator Agreement Second, we compare the inter-annotator agreement in ELI5 and ASQA that we measure as the mean ROUGE-L F1 score between each pair of annotations for the same question. Our analysis reveals that ASQA has a much higher level of inter-annotator agreement: 49.6 vs. 16.9 for ELI5. Thus, ASQA admits a more well-defined notion of ground truth than ELI5.

Note that answers in ELI5 are written by Reddit users. Thus, they are inherently subjective and are not supposed to follow any predefined criteria. The diversity and subjectiveness could make human evaluation of the ELI5 answers challenging. In contrast, ASQA annotators follow common annotation guidelines and undergo a thorough training procedure, thereby aiming at generating answers that satisfy a set of well-defined criteria for human evaluation (Section 3.1).

Overall, compared to other datasets, ASQA has some novel features that may be useful for future QA research. Its benefits, however, come at the cost of a much smaller sample size than that of MS-NLG and ELI5. Thus, we believe MS-NLG and ELI5 may be useful counterparts for ASQA.

\(^2\)This statistic is computed as the ROUGE1 recall score between lowercased annotations and support documents. In this work, we use ROUGE-SCORE 0.0.4 python package for all ROUGE computations.
as they can be used for pre-training (that said, we leave this exploration to future work).

4 ASQA Metrics

In this section, we introduce metrics that we propose to evaluate performance on the ASQA task.

4.1 Automated Evaluation

We evaluate performance on the ASQA task along the following two aspects.

**ROUGE** Following the conventional approach for measuring the quality of generated text, we report the ROUGE-L score (Lin, 2004) in a multi-reference setup. Given that each example in the development and test sets is annotated by two annotators, we compare predictions against both answers and take the maximum of these two scores to be the score of the prediction.

**Disambiguation Metrics** A good long-form answer to an ambiguous question should contain short answers to all disambiguated questions as well as the context necessary to understand the source of ambiguity and the relationship between the short answers. However, ROUGE-L is not well suited for evaluating these aspects as it may fail to distinguish between two fluent and stylistically similar answers which provide considerably different information. Therefore, we complement ROUGE-L with two metrics that are specifically designed to capture the completeness and comprehensiveness aspects of our task:

- **STR-EM** (String Exact Match) The fraction of disambiguations for which the corresponding short answer is present in the long answer (exact match). The fraction is computed within each question and then averaged across all questions.
- **Disambig-F1** We follow the reading comprehension literature (Rajpurkar et al., 2016, 2018) and use Roberta (Liu et al., 2019) trained on SQuADv2 to evaluate the fraction of disambiguated questions that can be answered from the predicted long answers.

For each disambiguation \((x_i^{(k)}, y_i^{(k)})\) in the \(k\)-th example, we apply the SQuADv2 model on the generated long-form answer \(\hat{y}_i^{(k)}\) to predict short answer \(\hat{x}_i^{(k)}\) to question \(x_i^{(k)}\). Let \(\phi\) denote a function that computes the token-level F1 score between the predicted short answer \(\hat{y}_i^{(k)}\) and the ground truth short answer \(y_i^{(k)}\) after normalizing answer strings in the manner done for SQuADv2 evaluations. Then the Disambig-F1 score is given by:

\[
\text{Disambig-F1} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_k \frac{1}{n_i^{(k)}} \sum_i \phi(\hat{y}_i^{(k)}, y_i^{(k)}),
\]

where \(N\) indicates the total number of instances being evaluated, and \(n_i^{(k)}\) indicates the number of disambiguations for the \(k\)-th instance.

**Overall: DR Score** Both ROUGE-L and disambiguation metrics are crucial for our task. Hence, we propose an overall DR (Disambiguation-Rouge) score that combines the two metrics as follows:

\[
\text{DR} = \sqrt{\text{Disambig-F1} \times \text{ROUGE-L}}.
\]

We choose the geometric mean for aggregation to penalize methods that maximize one metric at a cost of the other. Note that STR-EM and Disambig-F1 aim at measuring the same aspect so we include only one of these metrics in the DR score.

4.2 Human Evaluation

We also design an interface for human evaluations for the ASQA task with the following metrics.

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| QA Task | Dataset | #QAS | #A per Q | #Words in A | ROUGE | Disambig-Acc |
|---------|---------|------|----------|-------------|-------|--------------|
| Short Answer | NQ-open | 91K | 1.8 | 2.2 | ✓ | ✓ |
| | AMBIGQA | 14,042 | 2.8 | 2.4 | ✓ | ✓ |
| Long Form | ELI5 | 272K | 12.0 | 103.0 | ✓ | ✗ |
| | MS-NLG | 183K | 1.7 | 14.6 | ✓ | ✗ |
| | ASQA | 6,316 | 2.0 | 64.8 | ✓ | ✓ |

Table 2: Comparison of ASQA with existing open domain QA datasets. ASQA is the only QA dataset that allows the Porter stemmer.
• **Disambiguation Accuracy** For each long-form answer, we ask human annotators to verify whether each disambiguated question from the AMBIGQA dataset can be correctly answered using the provided information. We then report the average number of disambiguations that are captured in the long-form answers (ACC).

• **Pairwise Comparisons** We propose a pairwise evaluation scheme where annotators need to compare two long-form answers to the same question. We ask annotators to choose the better answer in terms of each of the three criteria: Comprehensiveness (COMP), Fluency (FLUE), and Human Overall impression (HO). In each pairwise comparison, an answer is given one point for victory and half for a tie. We then normalize model scores into percentages by dividing the total number of points a model receives by the number of pairwise comparisons.

5 Experimental Setup

We now describe the baseline models and human answers used in our experiments.

5.1 Models

We include the following models for comparison.

**Naïve** The naïve model (denoted as QUESTION) repeats the ambiguous question eight times.

**Retrieval-Only** The retrieval-only models retrieve a Wikipedia passage as the answer:

• DPR@1. DPR (Karpukhin et al., 2020) is a BERT-based dual encoder trained on NQ.

• JPR@1. JPR (Min et al., 2021) trains a reranker on top of DPR for questions with multiple answers in AMBIGQA. The JPR model is the state of the art retriever for AMBIGQA.

**Generative** We also evaluate T5-large based generative models (Raffel et al., 2019) in two regimes:

• T5 Closed Book (T5-C). We train T5 to answer ambiguous questions without providing any additional passages from Wikipedia. The model only relies on its pretrained knowledge to answer the question (Roberts et al., 2020).

• T5 Open Book (T5-O). The T5 model is additionally provided with context paragraphs retrieved by JPR. We vary the number of top-\(K\) retrieved paragraphs used as input to T5, denoting the corresponding model as T5-O-K.

**Oracle** To investigate the headroom in retrieval systems, we experiment with an Oracle system: T5-large provided with the gold supporting documents. The input to Oracle includes all the disambiguations \(\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n\) and contexts \(\{C_i\}_{i=1}^n\) shown to the annotators (left half of Figure 2), as well as the additional knowledge pieces \(\{e_{ij}\}_{i=1}^n\) identified by one of the two annotators (the one with the longest answer). This system can be thought of as a generative model that has access to a perfect retriever. In evaluations, we compute ROUGE-L by comparing the answer predicted by Oracle against the answer of the annotator whose additional knowledge pieces were not in the input of Oracle (instead of the usual comparison against two references).

Appendix B provides more details on the modeling aspects of our evaluations.

5.2 Human Performance

We also evaluate two sets of human answers:

• Human performance with context (HP-w/-C). We use reference ASQA answers in our comparisons. Recall that the ASQA annotators were provided with context: disambiguations from AMBIGQA \(\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n\) and context paragraphs we retrieved \(\{C_i\}_{i=1}^n\). We consider performance in this setup as an upper bound on the human performance. In evaluations of ROUGE-L, we compute the score of HP-w/-C by comparing the answers from two annotators against each other (instead of the usual comparison against two references).

• Human performance without context (HP-w/o-C). To establish a conservative lower bound on human performance, we additionally annotate 200 questions from the ASQA dev set (one annotation per question) in the “no context” regime. Annotators in this regime are only given ambiguous questions as input (no disambiguations or context paragraphs) and need to search for disambiguations and the required additional information on their own.

6 Results

We evaluate all models introduced above in the automated evaluations. Additionally, we conduct a small-scale human study involving a subset of models to provide some verification of the automated evaluation results. Specifically, our human study
Table 3: Evaluation of baselines on the dev set of the ASQA task. T5 models with passages retrieved by JPR are the best models, but there is a large gap between human performance and model performance on all metrics. As explained in Section 5, for ORACLE and HP-w/-C we only use one of the references to compute ROUGE-L.

Table 4: Results of human evaluations executed on a set of 45 questions from the development set of ASQA. The scores are in percentage and larger values are better. All metrics are specified in Section 4.2.

Table 5 reports Pearson correlations between different automated metrics and the human judgments, enabling us to study the validity of the automated metrics.

First, we observe that Disambig-F1 is better correlated with human evaluations than ROUGE-L. That said, we note that ROUGE-L is an important metric as it enforces concise answers.

Second, observe that Disambig-F1 scores (Table 3) underestimate the human evaluations of ACC (Table 4). This discrepancy is likely due to: (i) a distribution shift between ASQA and SQuADv2; and (ii) the presence of distracting answers from the other disambiguated questions in the long answers, which are known to degrade QA models’ accuracy (Jia and Liang, 2017). However, almost perfect correlation between Disambig-F1 and ACC...
(99.3) implies that this discrepancy does not impact the ordering of the different systems, thereby enabling us to meaningfully evaluate the relative differences in performance. Additionally, the presence of strong distractors ensures that the Disambig-F1 metric cannot be easily gamed by mentioning all the short answers without appropriate context.

Finally, we note that the DR score has the highest correlation with the overall human judgment HO among all automated metrics. While the difference with Disambig-F1 is not statistically significant, this observation hints at the importance of combining ROUGE-L and Disambig-F1 in the overall metric to take a holistic view on the model performance.

**Remaining Headroom** Both the upper bound (61.8 DR and 88.9 HO) and the lower bound (40.6 DR and 74.4 HO) on human performance significantly exceed the best model performance (T5-O-5 with 32.1 DR and 36.7 HO). Hence, there is a lot of headroom for the community to explore in ASQA. We report some additional insights that may be helpful for future work in Section 7.

### 7 Analysis

We now conduct additional analysis that provides insights on the ASQA task.

**Headroom in Summarization** As shown in Figure 3, the Disambig-F1 score of retrieval-based methods increases considerably as the number of retrieved passages increases. However, there is a big gap between T5 and JPR, even though T5 takes the output passages from JPR as an input. This indicates that T5 tends to either lose information while summarizing the passages or produce outputs that are inconsistent with its input. Moreover, the Disambig-F1 of JPR@5 already exceeds the lower bound on human performance. Thus, progress in summarization alone may be sufficient to raise the overall level of performance on ASQA to this lower bound.

**Headroom in Retrieval** Figure 3 compares models by Disambig-F1 and the higher score means that the passage generated by a model provides answers to more disambiguated questions. We observe that the best-performing retrieval system, JPR@5, lags behind the output of the ORACLE model by 14.4 and the human upper bound by 32.6. Hence, improving the retrieval step for ASQA is also important.

### 8 Conclusion

In contrast to existing datasets for long-form QA, ASQA admits a clear notion of correctness that we use to define an overall metric of performance (DR). Our empirical evaluations demonstrate that DR correlates well with the human judgment; and there is a large gap between human performance and the strong baselines. Thus, we believe that ASQA is an appealing task for the QA community. Our analysis suggests that strong performance on ASQA is contingent upon both high-quality retrieval and summarization. These aspects constitute important directions for future work on ASQA.
9 Limitations

We now make two remarks that we urge the reader to consider when interpreting the results of this work.

Inter-Annotation Agreement  In Section 3.3, we observed that inter-annotator agreement in ASQA is higher than in EL15. We note, however, that the high inter-annotator agreement in ASQA is contingent upon the high inter-annotator agreement in the AMBIGQA dataset. Indeed, AMBIGQA disambiguations serve as a shared source of information between the two ASQA annotators working on the same instance, potentially inflating the level of agreement.

That said, Min et al. (2020) observe that human annotators have a decent level of agreement in constructing the disambiguations in AMBIGQA, thereby supporting the observation that ASQA is more objective than EL15.

Evaluation Metrics  Second, we caveat that our accuracy metrics (STR-EM and Disambig-F1) only measure the recall of the required information in the long answers. In cases where the long answer hallucinates incorrect disambiguations or facts, the accuracy metrics may still be high as long as the correct disambiguations are included. We note, however, that this unnecessary extra information may still be penalized by the ROUGE-L metric. Moreover, in the presence of distractors, we also expect the accuracy of the Roberta model used for reading comprehension to degrade, thereby effectively penalizing a low precision.

On a separate note, the Disambig-F1 metric requires a high-accuracy QA system. Hence, for domains that are significantly different from Wikipedia, fine-tuning the Roberta SQUADv2 model on the task might be important to ensure the effectiveness of the Disambig-F1 metric.

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Appendix
We now provide additional discussion of several aspects of this work.

A Additional Details on the Annotation Procedure
We begin with an additional discussion of the annotation procedure.

Construction of Context Paragraphs As discussed in Section 3, in our annotation task, we supplement each disambiguation \((x_i, y_i)\) from AMBIGQA with a context passage \(C_i\). Let us now describe the procedure used to construct these context passages.

For each disambiguation \((x_i, y_i)\), we execute the following three-stage procedure:

1. Among all paragraphs from Wikipedia pages \(W\) visited by AMBIGQA annotators, we select those that contain \(y_i\).
2. We compute TF-IDF similarity (Sammut and Webb, 2010) between the selected paragraphs and \(x_i\).
3. If the highest similarity exceeds a certain empirically selected threshold, we use the corresponding paragraph as an additional context \(C_i\) provided to annotators. Otherwise, we do not provide context for that disambiguation \((C_i = \emptyset)\). The threshold was selected by the manual analysis of a subset of questions-context pairs. Our criteria was to avoid confusing (e.g., irrelevant) context paragraphs and we qualitatively selected the threshold according to this criteria.

Following this procedure, we were able to provide non-empty additional context passages for 45% of all disambiguations used in our annotation procedure.

Instructions and Training The instructions for our task are written along the lines of the four criteria we discussed in Section 3.1 and are provided in supplementary materials. In addition to the detailed instructions, we carefully design the training procedure to minimize the amount of noise in the annotations. In that, before being accepted to the main task, annotators go through the following three-step training procedure:

1. Self-study session First, we give annotators a short version of the instructions. They study them on their own and then annotate three sample questions.
2. In-person session Following the self-study session, we have an online video session in which we walk annotators through the full version of the instructions and discuss mistakes made in the self-study annotations.
3. Exam session Finally, annotators complete a five-question exam. We manually evaluate all the exam answers and share personal feedback with annotators.

In total, 27 annotators went through our training procedure and all of them were eventually accepted to work full-time on the main task. We note that the quality of answers in the self-study session was very diverse with some annotators making critical mistakes (e.g., not covering some of the disambiguations). However, the in-person session proved to be efficient in helping annotators to understand the requirements, leading to exam answers of consistently high quality.

Quality Control and Feedback Next, we discuss additional steps we took to help annotators in writing answers that satisfy the objectives formulated in Section 3.1. First, we added an automated check to our interface that warns annotators if any of the short answers \(\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n\) is missing from their long-form answer. Annotators were able to override the warning if they believe that an equivalent formulation of the missing short answer is already included. For example, given two disambiguations with short answers “four seasons” and “4 seasons”, annotators were instructed to use any of these two equivalent options.

Second, in addition to the carefully designed training procedure, we were also continuously monitoring the annotators’ performance as they were going through the task. In that, we were giving regular constructive feedback that highlighted areas of improvement and pointed out mistakes identified in annotators’ past answers. While we did not observe any significant decay in quality between the exam session and the main task annotation, we believe that continuous monitoring is crucial to avoid creating an incentive for annotators to reduce the amount of effort they put into the task.

Finally, to ensure that annotators did not have to guess when they met some situation not explained in the instructions, we maintained an FAQ document in which annotators could ask their questions
and receive an answer within a day. To support this mechanism, we allowed annotators to “park” an annotation task they were unsure about and return to it after they have their concerns resolved.

**Annotators’ Well-Being** For this study, we recruited annotators who were fully dedicated to our task (8 hours a day for 5 days a week). To reduce the pressure on annotators and allow them to work at a comfortable pace, we gave annotators one hour to answer each question and recommended answering ten or more questions per day. On average, it took annotators 15 minutes to answer each question with the time consumption slightly decreasing as annotators get familiar with the task. The compensation rate for the task was set to be $17.8/hour which is higher than the minimum hourly wage in the US.

**B Additional Details on Modeling**

In this section, we provide additional details on the modeling aspect of our evaluations.

**Input Format** Figures 4 and 5 provide schematic representations of inputs to the T5-O-K and ORACLE models, respectively. Bold black text represents tags that separate conceptually different parts of the input, text in blue is replaced with the instance-specific content in the actual training and evaluation data.

The input to T5-O-K is simpler and consists of two parts separated by the `context` tag: an ambiguous question and $K$ retrieved passages. Each retrieved passage consists of the `info` field that contains the retrieved passage and the `wikipage` field that displays the title of the source Wikipedia page. Retrieved passages are separated with the pipe symbol `|`.

The input to the ORACLE model is more complex and has five parts:

- An ambiguous question $q$
- Short answers $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ (answers)
- Disambiguated questions $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ (disambiguations)
- Context paragraphs $\{C_i\}_{i=1}^m$ (context1)
- Additional knowledge pieces provided by the annotator $\{e_j\}_{j=1}^m$ (context2)

Similarly to the T5-O model, context paragraphs and additional knowledge pieces have `info` and `wikipage` fields, and the pipe symbol “|” is used to separate elements in the list.

**Parameter Choice** We use the context length of 512, 1024, and 2048 for the T5-O-1, T5-O-3, and T5-O-5 models, respectively. We use batch size of 8 across the three models. For T5-C, we use a batch size of 16 with a context length of 128.

**C Qualitative Analysis**

To provide further insight into the importance of the generation aspect of our task, we conduct a manual analysis of the answers generated by the T5 open-book model. Our main observation is that even if the knowledge necessary to answer an ambiguous question is successfully retrieved, T5 often struggles to provide a high-quality answer. Table 6 demonstrates several characteristic mistakes that we identify.

**Hallucination** The first two rows of Table 6 demonstrate examples of hallucination in the T5-generated answers. In the first example, T5 hallucinates facts about the 2016 elections (there were no elections in 2016) and about the winner of the 2017 elections (Rick Baker did not win the elections). In the second example, T5 starts with a wrong disambiguation (dragons do not marry people) and then mixes up facts about two characters from different books (Daenerys Targaryen and Elizabeth/Liz Pennykettle) into one.

**Question Misunderstanding** Another issue we observe in the T5-generated answers is that sometimes the answers provide a coherent story that is relevant to the question but does not answer it. This problem is illustrated in the third row of Table 6 where the question “When was «under God» added to the Pledge of Allegiance?” is answered with a
| Question and disambiguations | T5 output | JPR@5 relevant segments | Error analysis |
|-------------------------------|-----------|-------------------------|---------------|
| **Q**: Who won the mayor race in St. Petersburg, Florida? | the city of St. Petersburg, Florida has had several mayoral elections. Democrat Rick Kriseman won the 2016 mayoral election, while Republican former mayor Rick Baker did so in the 2017 mayoral election. Kriseman defeated Baker in the 2017 general election with 51.62% of the vote. | 2017 St. Petersburg, Florida mayoral election: ...Incumbent mayor Rick Kriseman, a Democrat, opted to seek re-election... His opponent in the runoff was Republican former mayor Rick Baker ...Incumbent Rick Kriseman won the re-election... Rick Kriseman: On November 7, 2017, Kriseman was re-elected for a second term, winning the general election with 51.62% of the vote. He defeated Republican Mayor Rick Baker... | T5 hallucinates (i) the 2016 mayoral elections (there were no elections in 2016) and (ii) the winner of the 2017 mayoral elections (Kriseman won elections, but the model claims Baker to be the winner). |
| **Disambig-Q1**: Who won the 2017 mayor race in St. Petersburg, Florida? | Kriseman | Kriseman | |
| **Disambig-Q2**: Who won the 2013 mayor race in St. Petersburg, Florida? | Kriseman | Kriseman | |
| **Disambig-Q3**: Who won the 2009 mayor race in St. Petersburg, Florida? | Foster | Foster | |
| **Disambig-Q4**: Who won the 2004 mayor race in St. Petersburg, Florida? | Foster | Foster | |

**Table 6**: Error analysis for T5-O-5. The colored text highlights problematic parts of the T5 output.
history of the Pledge of Allegiance but does not mention the target phrase («under God»).

**Repetitions** Finally, we observe a somewhat technical issue of repetitions in the generated answers, as shown in the second row of Table 6.