# Generating Synthetic Documents for Cross-Encoder Re-Rankers: A Comparative Study of ChatGPT and Human Experts

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# ABSTRACT

We investigate the usefulness of generative Large Language Models (LLMs) in generating training data for cross-encoder re-rankers in a novel direction: generating synthetic documents instead of synthetic queries. We introduce a new dataset, ChatGPT-RetrievalQA, and compare the effectiveness of models fine-tuned on LLMgenerated and human-generated data. Data generated with generative LLMs can be used to augment training data, especially in domains with smaller amounts of labeled data. We build ChatGPT-RetrievalQA based on an existing dataset, human ChatGPT Comparison Corpus (HC3), consisting of public question collections with human responses and answers from ChatGPT. We fine-tune a range of cross-encoder re-rankers on either human-generated or ChatGPTgenerated data. Our evaluation on MS MARCO DEV, TREC DL'19, and TREC DL'20 demonstrates that cross-encoder re-ranking models trained on ChatGPT responses are statistically significantly more effective zero-shot re-rankers than those trained on human responses. In a supervised setting, the human-trained re-rankers outperform the LLM-trained re-rankers. Our novel findings suggest that generative LLMs have high potential in generating training data for neural retrieval models. Further work is needed to determine the effect of factually wrong information in the generated responses and test our findings' generalizability with open-source LLMs. We release our data, code, and cross-encoders checkpoints for future work.<sup>1</sup>

# **1 INTRODUCTION**

Generative large language models (LLMs) such as GPT-3 [3] and GPT-3.5 (including ChatGPT) have shown remarkable performance in generating realistic text outputs for a variety of tasks such as summarization [40], machine translation [26], sentiment analysis [32, 36], retrieval interpretability [20], and stance detection [39]. Although ChatGPT can produce impressive answers, it is not immune to errors or hallucinations [12]. Furthermore, the lack of transparency in the source of information generated by ChatGPT can be a bigger concern in domains such as law, medicine, and science, where accountability and trustworthiness are critical [4, 28, 31].

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Retrieval models, as opposed to generative models, retrieve the actual (true) information from sources and search engines provide the source of each retrieved item [29]. This is why information retrieval (IR) — even when generative LLMs are available — remains an important application, especially in situations where reliability is vital. One potential purpose of generative LLMs in IR is to generate training data for retrieval models. Data generated with generative LLMs can be used to augment training data, especially in domains with smaller amounts of labeled data. In this paper, we present the ChatGPT-RetrievalQA dataset to address two research questions: **RQ1:** How does the effectiveness of cross-encoder re-rankers fine-tuned on ChatGPT-generated responses in both supervised and zeroshot settings?

**RQ2:** How does the effectiveness of using ChatGPT for generating relevant documents differ between specific and general domains?

By answering these questions, we aim to shed light on the potential of using LLMs for data augmentation in cross-encoder re-rankers and the domain dependency of their effectiveness. As shown in Figure 1, our primary experimental setup involves using  $CE_{ChatGPT}^2$  for inference (i.e., re-ranking task) on human-generated responses.

Our dataset and analysis provide insights into the benefits and limitations of using generative LLMs for augmenting training data for retrieval models.

Our main contributions in this work are three-fold: (i) We release the ChatGPT-RetrievalQA dataset, which is based on the HC3 dataset [13] but is designed specifically for information retrieval tasks in both full-ranking and re-ranking setups. This dataset contains 24, 322 queries, 26, 882 responses generated by ChatGPT, and 58, 546 human-generated responses. (ii) We fine-tune cross-encoder re-rankers on both the human- and ChatGPT-generated responses, evaluating their performance on our dataset in a supervised setting. We also show the effectiveness of the ChatGPT-trained models in a zero-shot evaluation on the MS MARCO-passage collection and the TREC Deep Learning tracks. (iii) We conduct an analysis of the effectiveness of ChatGPT-trained cross-encoders on different domains and show that human-trained models are slightly more effective in domain-specific tasks, e.g., in the medicine domain. Our novel findings highlight the potential of using generative LLMs

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>https://github.com/arian-askari/ChatGPT-RetrievalQA

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 $<sup>^{2}</sup>$ We refer to the cross-encoders fine-tuned on ChatGPT-generated and humangenerated responses as CE<sub>ChatGPT</sub> and CE<sub>human</sub>, respectively.

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 Table 1: Statistic on the size of Train, Validation, and Test

 sets across domains for evaluation of cross-Encoders.

Domain	Train set	# of queries Validation set	Test set
All	16788	606	6928
Medicine: Meddialog [5]	862	31	355
Finance: FiQA [22]	2715	98	1120
Reddit: ELI5 [11]	11809	427	4876
Wikipedia: openQA [38]	820	29	338
Wikipedia: csai [13]	582	21	239

like ChatGPT for generating high-quality responses in information retrieval tasks in order to create training datasets.

# 2 RELATED WORK

InPars [2], Promptagator [8], and InPars-v2 [15] have utilized LLMs to generate synthetic queries given documents. Particularly, InPars-v2 [15] achieves state-of-the-art results on the BEIR dataset in a zero-shot setting by using an open-source language model, GPT-J-6B [33] and a powerful external re-ranker, MonoT5-MSMARCO [24] to filter the top-10k high-quality pairs of synthetic query-document pairs for data augmentation. In contrast, we use *documents* (passages) generated by ChatGPT given a query – the reverse from InPars-v2. Document generation for given queries as a source for data augmentation has not been explored in prior work.

We believe that exploring this reverse direction is important as it allows us to augment training data with a focus on user behavior and query logs rather than the (static) document collection itself. This can improve the effectiveness of re-rankers by augmenting the training data with synthetic documents according to the queries that actual search engine users are searching for, increasing the diversity of the training data, while allowing the rankers to better generalize to new queries.

Guo et al. [13] use public question-answering datasets (see below) and prompt the questions to the ChatGPT user interface for generating answers. The goal of the HC3 dataset is to linguistically compare human and ChatGPT responses and explore the possibility of distinguishing between responses generated by ChatGPT and those written by humans. The HC3 dataset contains questions (i.e., queries) from four different domains: medicine (Medical Dialog [5]), finance (FiQA [22]), Wikipedia (WikiQA [38] and Wiki csai [13]), and Reddit (ELI5 [11]). While there is no study on generating documents to augment training data, a more recent study, QuerytoDoc [34], generates documents for query expansion, which is out of the scope of augmenting data for information retrieval. Furthermore, there are various recent studies on ChatGPT with a focus on ranking and retrieval but to the best of our knowledge, none of them focus on data augmentation by generating relevant documents. Examples of recent studies are the one by Faggioli et al [10], who study if ChatGPT can be used for generating relevance labels, and Sun et al. [30], who assess whether ChatGPT is good at searching by giving it a query and set of candidate documents and asking for re-ranking.

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Figure 1: Our main experimental setup involves above steps.

# **3 DATASET**

Our ChatGPT-RetrievalQA dataset is based on the HC3 dataset produced by Guo et al. [13], which contains 24, 322 queries and 26, 882 ChatGPT-generated responses, as well as 58, 546 humangenerated responses. There is on average one ChatGPT-generated and 2.4 human-generated response per query. To build the ChatGPT-RetrievalQA dataset for retrieval and ranking experiments (an experimental setup different from [13]), we convert the dataset files to a format similar to the MSMarco dataset [23], in both full-ranking and re-ranking setups.<sup>3</sup> We divide the data into training, validation, and test sets.

To facilitate training, we provide training triples files in TSV format, including both textual and ID-based representations, where the structure of each line is composed of 'query, positive passage, negative passage' and 'qid, positive pid, negative pid'. We consider the actual response by ChatGPT or human as the relevant answer and we randomly sample 1000 negative answers for each query similar to MS MARCO. In addition, we provide the top 1000 documents, ranked by BM25, per query to enable re-ranking studies. Table 1 shows the size of the train, validation, and test sets for each domain.

# 4 METHODS

### 4.1 First-stage ranker: BM25

Lexical retrievers use word overlap to produce the relevance score between a document and a query. Several lexical approaches have been developed in the past, such as vector space models, Okapi BM25 [27], and query likelihood. We use BM25 as the first-stage ranker because of its popularity and effectiveness. BM25 calculates a score for a query–document pair based on the statistics of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>This allows for easy reuse of available scripts on MS MARCO.

Table 2: Comparing the effectiveness of cross-encoder re-rankers fine-tuned on human and ChatGPT responses in supervised and zero-shot settings.  $\dagger$  indicates that a CE achieves statistically significant improvement for that dataset among all of the cross-encoder re-rankers and BM25 on that dataset. Statistical significance was measured with a paired t-test (p < 0.05) with Bonferroni correction for multiple testing. The cutoff for MAP, NDCG, and MRR are 1000, 10, and 10.

Zero-shot setting						Supervised setting						
M - 1-1	TREC DL'19		TREC DL'20		MS MARCO DEV		ChatGPT-RetrievalQA (Ours)					
Model	MAP	NDCG	MRR	MAP	NDCG	MRR	MAP	NDCG	MRR	MAP	NDCG	MRR
BM25	.377	.506	.858	.286	.480	.819	.195	.234	.187	.143	.184	.240
MiniLM <sub>human</sub>	.326	.451	.833	.269	.376	.913	.130	.155	.118	.310†	.384†	<b>.460</b> †
MiniLM <sub>ChatGPT</sub>	.342†	.510†	.903	.344†	.539†	<b>.978</b> †	.226†	.267†	.218†	.294	.362	.444
TinyBERT <sub>human</sub>	.294	.360	.741	.277	.364	.791	.128	.154	.116	.244	.310	.367
TinyBERT <sub>ChatGPT</sub>	.328	.488	<b>.942</b> †	.303	.460	.972	.194	.231	.185	.231	.291	.358

words that overlap between them:

$$s_{lex}(q,d) = BM25(q,d) = \sum_{t \in q \cap d} rsj_t \cdot \frac{tf_{t,d}}{tf_{t,d} + k_1\{(1-b) + b\frac{|d|}{l}\}}$$
(1)

where *t* is a term,  $tf_{t,d}$  is the frequency of *t* in document *d*,  $rsj_t$  is the Robertson-Spärck Jones weight [27] of *t*, and *l* is the average document length.  $k_1$  and *b* are parameters.

#### 4.2 Cross-encoder re-rankers

The common approach to employ pre-trained Transformer models with a cross-encoder architecture in a re-ranking setup is by concatenating the input sequences of query and passage. This method, known as MonoBERT or  $CE_{CAT}$ , is illustrated in Figure 1 and has been utilized in several studies. In  $CE_{CAT}$ , the sequences of query words  $q_1 : q_m$  and passage words  $p_1 : p_n$  are joined with the [SEP] token, and the ranking model of  $CE_{CAT}$  calculates the score for the representation of the [CLS] token obtained by cross-encoder (CE) using a single linear layer  $W_s$ :

$$CE_{CAT}(q_{1:m}, p_{1:n}) = CE([CLS] q [SEP] p [SEP]) * W_{s}$$
(2)

We use  $CE_{CAT}$  as our cross-encoder re-ranker with a re-ranking depth of 1000. In our experiments, both  $CE_{ChatGPT}$  and  $CE_{human}$  follow the above design.

## 5 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Evaluation setup. We conduct our zero-shot evaluation experiments on the MS MARCO-passage collection [23] and the two TREC Deep Learning tracks (TREC-DL'19 and DL'20) [6, 7]. The evaluation metrics used are MAP@1000, NDCG@10, and MRR@10, which are standard for these datasets, to make our results comparable to previously published and upcoming research [6, 7]. The MS MARCO-passage dataset contains about 8.8 million passages (average length: 73.1 words) and about 1 million natural language queries (average length: 7.5 words) and has been extensively used to train deep language models for ranking. Following prior work on MS MARCO [17, 19, 21, 42, 43], we only use the dev set (~ 7k queries) for our empirical evaluation. The TREC DL'19 and DL'20 collections share the passage corpus of MS MARCO and have 43 and 54 queries respectively with much more relevant documents per query. We measure the same metrics in the supervised setting on the test set of ChatGPT-RetrievalQA. The average length of

Table 3: Comparing the effectiveness of  $CE_C$  and  $CE_H$  in supervised setting across different domains where CE, C, and H refer to the MiniLM, human, and ChatGPT. The OpenQA and Wiki\_csai datasets are in Wikipedia domain.

Domain	Model	MAP@1K	NDCG@10	MRR@10
All	CE <sub>H</sub>	<b>.310</b>	<b>.384</b>	<b>.460</b>
	CE <sub>C</sub>	.294	.362	.444
Medicine [5]	CE <sub>H</sub>	<b>.397</b>	<b>.419</b>	<b>.395</b>
	CE <sub>C</sub>	.379	.400	.377
Finance [22]	CE <sub>H</sub>	<b>.257</b>	<b>.399</b>	<b>.251</b>
	CE <sub>C</sub>	.250	.368	.245
Reddit [11]	CE <sub>H</sub>	<b>.323</b>	<b>.418</b>	<b>.543</b>
	CE <sub>C</sub>	.302	.391	.522
OpenQA [38]	CE <sub>H</sub>	.322	<b>.345</b>	.320
	CE <sub>C</sub>	<b>.331</b>	.341	<b>.328</b>
Wiki_csai [13]	CE <sub>H</sub>	.149	.152	.135
	CE <sub>C</sub>	<b>.163</b>	.159	<b>.144</b>

human responses is 142.5 words, and 198.1 words for ChatGPT in the ChatGPT-RetrievalQA dataset.

**Training configuration**. We use the Huggingface library [37], and PyTorch [25] for the cross-encoder re-ranking training and inference. Following prior work [14], we use the Adam [18] optimizer with a learning rate of  $7 * 10^{-6}$  for all cross-encoder layers, regardless of the number of layers trained. We use a training batch size of 32. For all cross-encoder re-rankers, we use the cross-entropy loss [41]. For the lexical retrieval with BM25, we use the similarity function of Elasticsearch [9]. We cap the query length at 30 tokens and the passage length at 200 tokens following prior work [1, 14].

## 6 **RESULTS**

## 6.1 Main results (RQ1)

Table 2 shows a comparison of the effectiveness of  $CE_{human}$  and  $CE_{ChatGPT}$ . Please note that for both models, during inference, we evaluate their effectiveness in retrieving *human* responses in the supervised or zero-shot settings. We choose MiniLM (12 layers version) [35] for the experiments due to its competitive results in

comparison to BERT re-ranker [1] while being three times smaller and six times faster. In addition, we conduct experiments with TinyBERT (2 layers version) [16] to assess the generalizability of our results.

In the **supervised setting** where we evaluate the on test set queries with human documents of our ChatGPT-RetrievalQA dataset, MiniLM<sub>human</sub> significantly outperforms all of the other cross-encoders re-rankers. Although lower than the human-trained models, MiniLM<sub>ChatGPT</sub> and TinyBERT<sub>ChatGPT</sub> still outperform the strong baseline [2], BM25 [27], statistically significantly by a large margin in this setting.

In the **zero-shot setting**, the MiniLM<sub>ChatGPT</sub> consistently outperforms the other cross-encoder re-rankers including MiniLM<sub>human</sub> and BM25 significantly across the TREC DL'20 and MS MARCO DEV. However, on TREC DL'19, BM25 achieves the highest effectiveness for MAP@1000, MiniLM<sub>ChatGPT</sub> for NDCG@10, and TinyBERT<sub>ChatGPT</sub> for MRR@10. Overall, we can see the models fine-tuned on ChatGPT-generated responses are significantly more effective in the zero-shot setting compared to those fine-tuned on human-generated responses.

## 6.2 Domain-level re-ranker effectiveness (RQ2)

Table 3 shows the effectiveness of MiniLM<sub>human</sub> and MiniLM<sub>ChatGPT</sub> re-rankers in the supervised settings – on the test set of our dataset – across all of the domains including Medicine, Finance, Reddit, and Wikipedia. Overall, the results show that MiniLM<sub>human</sub> achieves higher effectiveness than MiniLM<sub>ChatGPT</sub> for all domains except Wikipedia. However, the difference in effectiveness is small, and MiniLM<sub>ChatGPT</sub> still achieves a reasonable level of effectiveness. In the Finance domain, both MiniLM<sub>human</sub> and MiniLM<sub>ChatGPT</sub> achieve relatively low effectiveness compared to other domains. In the Wikipedia domain, MiniLM<sub>human</sub> and MiniLM<sub>ChatGPT</sub> achieve relatively similar levels of effectiveness. In the Medicine domain, the CE<sub>human</sub> shows the highest effectiveness. Overall, these results suggest that MiniLM<sub>human</sub> performs more effective in supervised settings, particularly in specific domains such as Medicine, even though the difference in performance is small.

#### 7 DISCUSSION

**Data overlap.** It is worth noting that in the supervised setting, the collection of documents used for training and testing is shared for  $CE_{human}$  re-rankers. Therefore, some documents may be seen during both training and evaluation. This setup is very common when working with human-assessed data, and similar to the MS MARCO dataset [23]. The shared collection could be a potential benefit for  $CE_{human}$  re-rankers in the supervised setting, as the models may have already seen some of the documents during training. To further investigate this hypothesis, it would be worth exploring a different setup in future work in which the collection of documents is completely separated between the training and test sets.

**Effectiveness of BM25.** Table 4 shows an analysis of the effectiveness of BM25 on human and ChatGPT-generated responses in the train, and test sets. BM25 is less effective for human-generated responses than for ChatGPT-generated responses on the train and test sets, as evidenced by lower scores for all metrics. We observed the same pattern for the validation set. These results suggest that

Table 4: Analyzing the effectiveness of BM25 on human/ChatGPT responses in train, validation, and test set.

	<b>^</b>			
Split	Source	MAP@1K	NDCG@10	Recall@1K
Test	human ChatGPT	.143 .370	.184 .396	.520 .898
Train	human ChatGPT	.158 .413	.202 .443	.560 .903

Table 5: Analyzing the effectiveness of CEs<sub>ChatGPT</sub> on the seen queries of the train set and unseen documents of human-generated documents collection.

Model	MAP@1K	NDCG@10	MRR@10
MiniLM <sub>ChatGPT</sub>	.318	.388	.510
TinyBERT <sub>ChatGPT</sub>	.254	.318	.420

the task of retrieving human-generated responses is more challenging for BM25 than for ChatGPT-generated responses. This is probably related to the lexical overlap discussed below.

**Queries without label.** In Table 5, we investigate a common scenario in real-world search engines where query logs and a collection of human-generated documents are available, and there are not any judged documents for part or all of the query logs. To simulate and analyze this situation, we evaluate  $CE_{ChatGPT}$  on the seen queries of the train set and unseen documents of the human-generated documents collection. Table 5 shows that  $CE_{ChatGPT}$  rankers are fairly effective in this scenario. Especially, they are more effective than BM25 in the same setup, in that the NDCG@10 for MiniLM<sub>ChatGPT</sub> is 0.388 and 0.202 for BM25 (see the third row of Table 4). This suggests the potential of augmenting training data with generative LLMs for fine-tuning models to effectively re-rank sourced and reliable human-generated documents from the corpus given the query logs where there are no judged documents for the queries.

**Lexical overlap.** Our data analysis reveals that ChatGPT-generated responses have a slightly higher lexical overlap than human-generated responses with the queries. The average percentage of query words that occur in ChatGPT-generated responses is 34.6%, compared to 25.5% for humans. The Q1, median, and Q3 are also on average 7% points higher for ChatGPT compared to human responses. We suspect that this higher lexical overlap compared to the human response happens because ChatGPT often repeats the question or query in the response, and it tends to generate lengthier responses compared to human which increase the chance of having mutual words with the query. It is noteworthy to mention that lexical overlap is not the best indicator of response quality for fine-tuning effective cross-encoders, as there may be cases where responses with low lexical overlap are still relevant and informative, especially in question-answering tasks.

### 8 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have presented an analysis of the effectiveness of fine-tuning cross-encoders on human-generated responses versus ChatGPT-generated responses. Our results show that the cross-encoder<sub>ChatGPT</sub> is more effective than cross-encoder<sub>human</sub> in the

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zero-shot setting while MiniLM human is slightly more effective in the supervised setting and this is consistent across different domains. Furthermore, we show that BM25 is less effective on human-generated responses than on ChatGPT-generated responses, indicating that human-generated responses are more challenging to match with queries than ChatGPT-generated responses. Overall, our findings suggest that ChatGPT-generated responses are more useful than human-generated responses for training effective zero-shot reranker, at least based on our dataset and experiments, and highlight the potential of using generative LLMs for generating effective and useful responses for creating training datasets in natural language processing tasks. Our study can be particularly advantageous for domain-specific tasks where relying on LLM-generated output as a direct response to a user query can be risky. Our results confirm that it is possible to train effective cross-encoder re-rankers by training them on ChatGPT-generated responses even for domainspecific queries. Further work is needed to determine the effect of factually wrong information in the generated responses and to test the generalizability of our findings on open-source LLMs.

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