Is the Answer in the Text? Challenging ChatGPT with Evidence Retrieval from Instructive Text

Sophie Henning 1,2† Talita Anthonio 1,3† Wei Zhou 1,4 Heike Adel 5 Mohsen Mesgar 1 Annemarie Friedrich 4

¹Bosch Center for Artificial Intelligence, Renningen, Germany

²Ludwig Maximilian University of Munich, Germany

³University of Stuttgart, Germany ⁴University of Augsburg, Germany

⁵Hochschule der Medien Stuttgart, Germany

 $sophie.henning@de.bosch.com \\talita.anthonio@yahoo.com \\annemarie.friedrich@informatik.uni-augsburg.de$

†Equal contribution

Abstract

Generative language models have recently shown remarkable success in generating answers to questions in a given textual context. However, these answers may suffer from hallucination, wrongly cite evidence, and spread misleading information. In this work, we address this problem by employing ChatGPT, a state-of-the-art generative model, as a machine-reading system. We ask it to retrieve answers to lexically varied and open-ended questions from trustworthy instructive texts.

We introduce WHERE (WikiHow Evidence REtrieval), a new high-quality evaluation benchmark of a set of WikiHow articles exhaustively annotated with evidence sentences to questions that comes with a special challenge: All questions are about the article's topic, but not all can be answered using the provided context. We interestingly find that when using a regular question-answering prompt, Chat-GPT neglects to detect the unanswerable cases. When provided with a few examples, it learns to better judge whether a text provides answer evidence. Alongside this important finding, our dataset defines a new benchmark for evidence retrieval in question answering, which we argue is one of the necessary next steps for making large language models more trustworthy.

1 Introduction

Generative language models (LMs) are trained to generate an output text given an input text. While such models have recently shown a remarkable performance in various NLP tasks (Touvron et al., 2023a; Radford et al., 2019; Brown et al., 2020), they are known to suffer from hallucination, i.e., they often generate text that lacks evidence (McKenna et al., 2023; Ji et al., 2022). This may lead to the spread of misinformation (Dong et al., 2022; Carlini et al., 2021), and thus reduce the systems' trustworthiness.

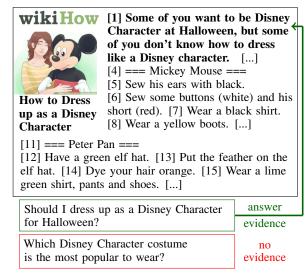


Figure 1: Evidence retrieval for questions related to instructive articles from WikiHow. For the question in the upper box, a system should ideally identify the sentences annotated as evidence in the text. For the question in the lower box, it should not retrieve wrong sentences as "evidence."

In this paper, we focus on a use case where a generative LM is queried for advice on a range of personal issues, including health or interpersonal relationships, or difficult tasks. This is a challenging scenario for LMs because questions are often openended and non-factoid, and require well-informed instructions as answers. As illustrated in Figure 1, we explicitly query generative LMs to retrieve evidence sentences for answering a question from a trustworthy instructive text. Our challenging setup requires two competencies on the model side: (i) identifying whether or not the question is answerable using only the provided text as input, and (ii) retrieving evidence from the trustworthy source, which could, e.g., support a generated answer.

Existing question answering datasets, e.g., Wiki-HowQA (Deng et al., 2020) and SQuaD (Rajpurkar

et al., 2016, 2018), do not fit our evaluation setup. The WikiHowQA dataset (Deng et al., 2020) uses the titles as questions, and does not cover the sentence retrieval aspect. SQuaD contains unanswerable questions but focuses on factoid questions. To make our evaluation setup challenging and sound, we create a new high-quality test set. We collect a set of diverse and open-ended questions for WikiHow articles via crowd-sourcing, and perform double annotation of evidence sentences in the articles. We use our dataset to perform a challenging evaluation of ChatGPT, a successor of InstructGPT (Ouyang et al., 2022b), which has been pretrained on a huge amount of texts including instructive web texts, in a systematic manner.

Our contributions are as follows: (1) We create and publish WHERE (WikiHow Evidence REtrieval), a new high-quality evaluation test set of lexically diverse and open-ended questions for instructive articles taken from WikiHow. Evidence sentences are annotated with high agreement in all documents. WHERE contains both questions with evidence in the article and questions without. (2) We evaluate ChatGPT on this dataset in zeroand few-shot settings. Our experiments show that despite decent results on retrieving evidence for questions with evidence in the text, ChatGPT fails to recognize questions for which the text does not provide any evidence. When provided with a few no-evidence examples in the prompt, it refuses to answer if there is no evidence, but at the expense of recall of sentence retrieval. (3) We make our dataset and code publicly available.¹

2 WikiHow Evidence Retrieval Dataset

Our goal is to collect questions with and without answer evidence in the text that are lexically, syntactically, and semantically diverse. In a pre-study, we find it hard to achieve this goal when the content of the article is known to the writer. We resort to crowdsourcing for question writing, and identify good cases by double-annotating the sentences deemed as evidence for the answer. Our reasoning is that if agreement on this task is low, the question is either somewhat ill-posed or too close to the overall topic of the article.

2.1 Dataset Creation

We export WikiHow² articles for the following categories:³ *Arts and Entertainment, Home and Garden, Health and Relationships* and *Travel*. We collect articles for all categories in October 2022 and additional articles for *Home and Garden* and *Arts and Entertainment* in December 2022.

Question collection. To collect questions, we set up a Human Intelligence Task (HIT) on Amazon Mechanical Turk. We display the title of the article (e.g., "How to Dress up as a Disney Character"), the first paragraph of the article, and a set of keywords generated from the full article, and ask the crowd-workers to write six questions for which they would expect to find answers in the article (see Appendix D). Since annotators never see the full article, they can only make educated guesses about which questions may be answered by the full article and thus sometimes write questions that cannot be answered given the complete article. We encourage workers to start their questions with different question words (what, why, how, can, should, who). Our crowd-workers must be Master Workers, live in the UK or US, and have a HIT approval of at least 95%.

Answer evidence annotation. We tokenize documents into sentences using NLTK (Bird et al., 2009) and rule-based corrections, e.g., for enumerations. We then use the web-based annotation platform INCEpTION (Klie et al., 2018) to mark all sentences in an article that provide evidence for answering a question. We double-annotate 570 questions from 95 documents in two teams: one team is composed of several authors of this paper, the other team of paid annotators with engineering backgrounds and prior experience in NLP annotation tasks, who participate in a training phase. We allow annotators to discuss difficult cases within each team.

Agreement. We treat the annotations of one team as the gold standard and the other team's as the system. They agree with precision/recall/F1 of 70.6/57.3/63.3 on whether a document provides *no* evidence for a question at all. This corresponds to a κ -score (Cohen, 1960) of 0.43, which can be interpreted as *moderate* agreement according to Landis and Koch (1977).

To ensure a high-quality evaluation set, we com-

Ihttps://github.com/boschresearch/where_emnlp_ findings2023

https://www.wikihow.com/Special:Export

³We thank WikiHow for granting us permission to redistribute the texts.

Statistic	Value
# documents	91
# questions	254
# with evidence in document	129
# no evidence in document	125
# questions/document	2.8 ± 1.1
# evidence sentences/question*	10.0 ± 12.2
# sentences/document	71.5 ± 22.5
# tokens/document sentence	16.4 ± 8.9
# tokens/question	13.6 ± 3.5

Table 1: Corpus statistics. *questions with evidence.

pute question-level precision, recall, and F1 for the binary task of deciding whether a sentence provides evidence for answering a question. We keep only the questions with an F1 score of at least 0.3, and the questions that both teams consider to not have evidence. Annotators often disagree if the question is somewhat unclear or if the text contains only evidence of part of a question's aspects. By design, our filtering using a positive threshold for F1 removes any questions that only one team considered to have evidence in the article. Sentence-level κ is 0.60, which is generally considered a solid score in semantic annotation tasks. For creating our gold standard, we take the union of the sentences marked by both teams as relevant evidence, as disagreements on the filtered cases are mostly due to different decisions on how much context to include.

2.2 Dataset Analysis

Table 1 shows the corpus statistics for our final test set. About half of the questions can be answered based on the evidence in the corresponding document (with-evidence questions), the other half cannot (no-evidence questions). Examples are shown in Figure 1. The instructive texts in WikiHow are kept simple as indicated by the short average sentence length. However, documents are long, which adds another challenge to our setup. For withevidence questions, on average, about 14% of the sentences are part of the evidence.

Table 2 illustrates the distribution of question types: questions are indeed varied. Out of the yes/no questions, 81% ask for specific facts (*is/are there*, *will/do/does*) and 19% ask for suggestions or recommendations (*should/can/could*).

3 Method

We evaluate ChatGPT (version of March 2023, built upon GPT-3.5) in two settings. In the **zero-**

Question Cat.	Count	%	Question Cat.	Count	%
how	41	16.1	which	22	8.7
what	61	24.0	who	8	3.1
when	6	2.4	why	6	2.4
where	13	5.1	yes/no	97	38.2

Table 2: Distribution of question types in the test set.

shot setting, we prompt ChatGPT using a template that asks the model to output a list of sentence IDs that can provide evidence for the answer. The list is empty if the model does not retrieve any evidence (see Appendix A). In the **few-shot set-ting**, we configure the message history such that ChatGPT sees five training examples from the test instance's category, e.g., *Health*, using the same prompt template as in the zero-shot setting but including gold responses. The training instances consist of additional question-article pairs annotated by the paid annotator team only. Every five-shot training set contains exactly two no-evidence questions and three with-evidence questions, which are about different documents.⁴

To accommodate for ChatGPT's context window size of 4096 tokens, we only use chunks of the training articles in the few-shot setting. Appendix B provides details.

Since ChatGPT may generate anything even though we ask it to output a list, we need to post-process the model outputs before evaluation. We first attempt to parse the model output using Python's eval function. If this fails, we try to match lists within the string (as ChatGPT sometimes provides explanations or just copies the selected sentences in addition to the list) using various regular expressions. If none of this works, which happens only three times in the entire experiment, we manually parse the model output. A small number of questions is rejected by OpenAI's content filter. For those, we assume the empty list as model output as ChatGPT does not retrieve any evidence from the article.

4 Experiments and Analysis

Evaluation metrics. For no-evidence questions, we report recall for correctly recognizing that an article does not contain any evidence for answering a question. For with-evidence questions, we compute precision, recall, and F1 score of the rele-

⁴We also attempted manual prompt engineering, leading to similar results.

vant class ("evidence sentence") per question, and report macro-average over questions.

Baselines. The random baseline for with-evidence questions predicts that a sentence contains relevant evidence in 14% of the cases, which corresponds to the average percentage of sentences marked as evidence per question in the test set.Similarly, it predicts "no-evidence" for a question with a probability of 49.2%. The results reported for "human scores" correspond to the agreement scores.

Results. Table 3 shows the zero- and few-shot performance of ChatGPT, separately evaluated on with-evidence and no-evidence questions. In the zero-shot setting, ChatGPT outperforms the baseline for the with-evidence questions by a large margin, but fails to recognize when there is no evidence for a question in an article. When presented with five training instances of which two are no-evidence questions, ChatGPT almost reaches human performance on recognizing no-evidence questions. This, however, comes at the cost of decreased performance on the questions with evidence. On with-evidence questions, ChatGPT is still far from human performance in both zero- and few-shot settings.

Analysis. In the zero-shot setting, OpenAI's content filter identifies the content of 10 of the test cases harmful and declines to generate outputs for them. We do not consider these instances to be harmful, e.g., they are about instructions on how to find emergency procedures in hotels. For the few-shot configurations, these cases vary from 11 to 16 instances, depending on the few-shot prompts. This illustrates that improving content filters is an important future research direction.

Table 4 breaks down the evaluation results by the question types identified in Table 2. Comparing *how-*, *what-* and yes/no questions, we find that the latter are the easiest in both the zero- and the few-shot setting. In terms of recognizing that there is no evidence for a question, *how* questions are consistently more difficult than *what* and yes/no questions.

Applicability beyond ChatGPT. While this paper focuses on ChatGPT, WHERE can be used to evaluate any other large LM whose training data does not contain WHERE. We also evaluated Llama 2-Chat (Touvron et al., 2023b) in the zero-shot setting, finding it to perform considerably worse than ChatGPT in the same setting (see

Model	With-e	vidence mac.R	questions mac.F1	Recall no-evidence
random baseline	14.0	14.0	11.3	49.2
ChatGPT 0-shot	37.9	52.6	37.7	7.2
ChatGPT 5-shot	38.2	42.8	35.5	60.3
	± 2.0	± 2.1	± 0.9	± 5.5
"human" scores	64.4	77.0	64.2	63.3*

Table 3: Results on our evaluation set. For 5-shot, we report average and standard deviation of 5 different randomly sampled per-category 5-shots results. *Harmonic mean of the two recall scores, estimated on all 570 double-annotated questions.

Table 5 in Appendix C). In addition, we needed to manually parse 30 model outputs (compared to one when using ChatGPT).

Impact of pre-training data. It is well possible that some of the WikiHow articles (or earlier versions thereof) have been part of ChatGPT's training data. For our evaluation setup, however, this is not an issue, since the documents are contained in the model input anyway. We intentionally did not crawl questions from the web or, e.g., the WikiHow comments sections, but let crowd-workers write them based on our methodology mitigating bias towards the articles content. Hence, it is unlikely that existing LLMs have seen these specific questions or their answers as part of their pre-training.

5 Related Work

Extractive QA datasets. The SQuAD datasets (Rajpurkar et al., 2016, 2018) are the largest datasets for extractive QA. The questions are factoid and can be answered through short, single answer spans. In contrast, our dataset includes non-factoid questions based on instructional text and requires models to identify a set of answer spans across long documents. The MultiSpanQA (Li et al., 2022) and MASH-QA (Zhu et al., 2020) datasets also contain QA pairs with several answer spans. However, MultiSpanQA is automatically derived from Natural Questions (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019) and MASH-QA also contains automatically created QA pairs. Only few datasets contain unanswerable questions, e.g., the latest version of SQuaD. However, its questions have been created given a text passage, whereas the questions of WHERE are based only on the keywords and a summary of an article. This leads to larger lexical variety between the question and the text and, thus, creates a more realistic and challenging setting.

Type (#w/#n)	Setting	With-e		questions mac.F1	Recall no-evidence
how (21/20)	0-shot 5-shot	38.1 38.6 ± 5.0	55.0 40.2 ± 3.1	35.1 33.8 ± 3.9	0 42.0 ± 7.6
what (41/20)	0-shot 5-shot	31.4 35.9 ± 2.9	48.7 39.6 ± 2.1	32.1 31.0 ± 3.8	10.0 56.0 ± 8.2
when (0/6)	0-shot 5-shot		-	-	0 43.3 ± 14.9
where (7/6)	0-shot 5-shot	48.3 35.2 ± 8.2	51.4 52.3 ± 20.7	46.9 35.9 ± 11.9	16.7 60.0 ± 9.1
which (13/9)	0-shot 5-shot	44.5 41.1 ± 4.4	58.6 47.7 ± 3.8	47.0 39.7 ± 2.8	0 68.9 ± 12.2
who (2/6)	0-shot 5-shot	21.4 67.7 ± 5.0	100 95.0 ± 11.2	34.7 75.2 ± 6.3	0 80.0 ± 7.5
why (2/4)	0-shot 5-shot	12.5 20.0 ± 11.2	50 40.0 ± 22.4	20.0 26.7 ± 14.9	25.0 30.0 ± 11.2
yes/no (43/54)	0-shot 5-shot	42.4 39.4 ± 4.9	51.5 41.2 ± 5.0	41.0 36.8 ± 2.6	9.3 69.3 ± 7.6

Table 4: Results of ChatGPT on our evaluation set, separated by question type. For 5-shot, we report average and standard deviation of 5 different randomly sampled per-category 5-shots results. -: no questions of this type in the dataset. #w: number of with-evidence questions, #n: number of no-evidence questions.

Evidence retrieval. Our work builds on a long line of NLP work addressing the fine-grained retrieval of supporting facts from text. This is a common basis for tasks like question answering (Murdock et al., 2012), fact checking, or slot filling (Petroni et al., 2021), and has also been used to support other tasks, e.g., question generation (Lewis et al., 2020), document retrieval (Akkalyoncu Yilmaz et al., 2019) or natural language inference (Vladika and Matthes, 2023).

Analysis of ChatGPT. Since the publication of ChatGPT, many papers focus on analyzing the applicability of the system (Liu et al., 2023b) for different tasks and domains, i.a., question answering for education (Frieder et al., 2023) and in medical environments (Nov et al., 2023). This large attention indicates the importance of the system for real-world applications and is the main motivation for our work. Despite promising performance in several benchmark datasets, for instance logical reasoning comprehension (Liu et al., 2023a)

or complex question answering (Tan et al., 2023), previous studies also reveal short-comings of GPT models, for instance, their hallucination problem (Ouyang et al., 2022a; Li et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023). To address this issue, we propose to analyze the usage of ChatGPT in a setting in which we force it to retrieve evidence from text instead of directly generating an answer.

6 Conclusion and Outlook

In this work, we have introduced a challenging benchmark to evaluate ChatGPT on the task of retrieving evidence sentences from instructive text to answer a question. We have presented a new high-quality dataset from WikiHow consisting of crowd-sourced questions and expert evidence annotations. A special real-world challenge of our dataset is the inclusion of questions that are not answerable given an article. When evaluating Chat-GPT on our dataset, we found that it fails on detecting no-evidence questions if not provided with targeted examples in the prompt. Our results on the new benchmark highlight important shortcomings of generative large language models that need to be addressed by future research: besides hallucinating answers, there is no free lunch with regard to calibration in evidence-retrieval setups.

Limitations

Since we accessed ChatGPT via the OpenAI API, our results might not be reproducible if the model behind the API is exchanged with a new version. Moreover, previous work has shown that ChatGPT is stable only to an extent of 79% for complex question answering tasks (Tan et al., 2023).

Another limitation of using ChatGPT via the API is that we do not have access to the model parameters and probability distributions. This reduces the amount of analysis we can perform on the model results.

The dataset we present in this work is doubleannotated and, as a result, of high quality but rather small compared to other question-answering datasets (but other datasets are often crowdsourced, created using heuristics, and/or contain less varied questions).

Ethics Statement

Data source and licensing. We ensured that we may re-publish the WikiHow texts under CC BY-NC-SA-3.0 by obtaining written permission from

WikiHow. Some of the topics of the selected articles are about health and relationships, yet, there is no personal information involved.

Crowd-sourcing and annotation. We collect our set of questions via Amazon Mechanical Turk. We pay 1 dollar per HIT, but increase to 2 dollars/HIT in the subsequent tasks, given the average completing time (between 5 and 10min).

The paid annotators participating in our project were completely aware of the goal of the annotations and even helped designing the annotation scheme. They gave explicit consent to the publication of their annotations. The main annotator was paid considerably above our country's minimum wage. For this type of semantic annotation task not involving any personal data, our institution did not require obtaining an IRB Review.

Acknowledgements

We thank Dragan Milchevski and Zhe Feng for helpful discussions on the few-shot setting.

References

- Zeynep Akkalyoncu Yilmaz, Wei Yang, Haotian Zhang, and Jimmy Lin. 2019. Cross-domain modeling of sentence-level evidence for document retrieval. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP), pages 3490–3496, Hong Kong, China. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Steven Bird, Ewan Klein, and Edward Loper. 2009. *Natural Language Processing with Python*. O'Reilly Media, Inc.
- Tom B. Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Sandhini Agarwal, Ariel Herbert-Voss, Gretchen Krueger, Tom Henighan, Rewon Child, Aditya Ramesh, Daniel M. Ziegler, Jeffrey Wu, Clemens Winter, Christopher Hesse, Mark Chen, Eric Sigler, Mateusz Litwin, Scott Gray, Benjamin Chess, Jack Clark, Christopher Berner, Sam McCandlish, Alec Radford, Ilya Sutskever, and Dario Amodei. 2020. Language models are few-shot learners. *CoRR*, abs/2005.14165.
- Nicholas Carlini, Florian Tramèr, Eric Wallace, Matthew Jagielski, Ariel Herbert-Voss, Katherine Lee, Adam Roberts, Tom B. Brown, Dawn Song, Úlfar Erlingsson, Alina Oprea, and Colin Raffel. 2021. Extracting training data from large language models.

- In 30th USENIX Security Symposium, USENIX Security 2021, August 11-13, 2021, pages 2633–2650. USENIX Association.
- Jacob Cohen. 1960. A coefficient of agreement for nominal scales. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 20(1):37–46.
- Yang Deng, Wai Lam, Yuexiang Xie, Daoyuan Chen, Yaliang Li, Min Yang, and Ying Shen. 2020. Joint learning of answer selection and answer summary generation in community question answering. In The Thirty-Fourth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, AAAI 2020, The Thirty-Second Innovative Applications of Artificial Intelligence Conference, IAAI 2020, The Tenth AAAI Symposium on Educational Advances in Artificial Intelligence, EAAI 2020, New York, NY, USA, February 7-12, 2020, pages 7651–7658. AAAI Press.
- Yue Dong, John Wieting, and Pat Verga. 2022. Faithful to the document or to the world? mitigating hallucinations via entity-linked knowledge in abstractive summarization. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2022*, pages 1067–1082, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Simon Frieder, Luca Pinchetti, Ryan-Rhys Griffiths, Tommaso Salvatori, Thomas Lukasiewicz, Philipp Christian Petersen, Alexis Chevalier, and Julius Berner. 2023. Mathematical capabilities of ChatGPT. *CoRR*, abs/2301.13867.
- Ziwei Ji, Nayeon Lee, Rita Frieske, Tiezheng Yu, Dan Su, Yan Xu, Etsuko Ishii, Yejin Bang, Wenliang Dai, Andrea Madotto, and Pascale Fung. 2022. Survey of Hallucination in Natural Language Generation. *ACM Computing Surveys*, 55:1 38.
- Jan-Christoph Klie, Michael Bugert, Beto Boullosa, Richard Eckart de Castilho, and Iryna Gurevych. 2018. The INCEpTION platform: Machine-assisted and knowledge-oriented interactive annotation. In *Proceedings of the 27th International Conference on Computational Linguistics: System Demonstrations*, pages 5–9, Santa Fe, New Mexico. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Tom Kwiatkowski, Jennimaria Palomaki, Olivia Redfield, Michael Collins, Ankur Parikh, Chris Alberti, Danielle Epstein, Illia Polosukhin, Jacob Devlin, Kenton Lee, Kristina Toutanova, Llion Jones, Matthew Kelcey, Ming-Wei Chang, Andrew M. Dai, Jakob Uszkoreit, Quoc Le, and Slav Petrov. 2019. Natural questions: A benchmark for question answering research. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 7:452–466.
- J Richard Landis and Gary G Koch. 1977. An application of hierarchical kappa-type statistics in the assessment of majority agreement among multiple observers. *Biometrics*, pages 363–374.

- Patrick S. H. Lewis, Ethan Perez, Aleksandra Piktus, Fabio Petroni, Vladimir Karpukhin, Naman Goyal, Heinrich Küttler, Mike Lewis, Wen-tau Yih, Tim Rocktäschel, Sebastian Riedel, and Douwe Kiela. 2020. Retrieval-augmented generation for knowledge-intensive NLP tasks. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 33: Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2020, NeurIPS 2020, December 6-12, 2020, virtual.
- Haonan Li, Martin Tomko, Maria Vasardani, and Timothy Baldwin. 2022. MultiSpanQA: A dataset for multi-span question answering. In *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pages 1250–1260, Seattle, United States. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Junyi Li, Xiaoxue Cheng, Wayne Xin Zhao, Jian-Yun Nie, and Ji-Rong Wen. 2023. HaluEval: A large-scale hallucination evaluation benchmark for large language models. *CoRR*, abs/2305.11747.
- Hanmeng Liu, Ruoxi Ning, Zhiyang Teng, Jian Liu, Qiji Zhou, and Yue Zhang. 2023a. Evaluating the Logical Reasoning Ability of ChatGPT and GPT-4. CoRR, abs/2304.03439.
- Yiheng Liu, Tianle Han, Siyuan Ma, Jiayue Zhang, Yuanyuan Yang, Jiaming Tian, Hao He, Antong Li, Mengshen He, Zhengliang Liu, Zihao Wu, Dajiang Zhu, Xiang Li, Ning Qiang, Dingang Shen, Tianming Liu, and Bao Ge. 2023b. Summary of ChatGPT/GPT-4 research and perspective towards the future of large language models. *CoRR*, abs/2304.01852.
- Nick McKenna, Tianyi Li, Liang Cheng, Mohammad Javad Hosseini, Mark Johnson, and Mark Steedman. 2023. Sources of hallucination by large language models on inference tasks. *CoRR*, abs/2305.14552.
- J William Murdock, James Fan, Adam Lally, Hideki Shima, and BK Boguraev. 2012. Textual evidence gathering and analysis. *IBM Journal of Research and Development*, 56(3.4):8–1.
- Oded Nov, Nina Singh, and Devin Mann. 2023. Putting ChatGPT's medical advice to the (Turing) test. *CoRR*, abs/2301.10035.
- Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, John Schulman, Jacob Hilton, Fraser Kelton, Luke Miller, Maddie Simens, Amanda Askell, Peter Welinder, Paul F Christiano, Jan Leike, and Ryan Lowe. 2022a. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 35, pages 27730–27744. Curran Associates, Inc.
- Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll L. Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong

- Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, John Schulman, Jacob Hilton, Fraser Kelton, Luke Miller, Maddie Simens, Amanda Askell, Peter Welinder, Paul F. Christiano, Jan Leike, and Ryan Lowe. 2022b. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. In *NeurIPS*.
- Fabio Petroni, Aleksandra Piktus, Angela Fan, Patrick Lewis, Majid Yazdani, Nicola De Cao, James Thorne, Yacine Jernite, Vladimir Karpukhin, Jean Maillard, Vassilis Plachouras, Tim Rocktäschel, and Sebastian Riedel. 2021. KILT: a benchmark for knowledge intensive language tasks. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pages 2523–2544, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Alec Radford, Jeff Wu, Rewon Child, David Luan, Dario Amodei, and Ilya Sutskever. 2019. Language models are unsupervised multitask learners.
- Pranav Rajpurkar, Robin Jia, and Percy Liang. 2018. Know what you don't know: Unanswerable questions for squad. *CoRR*, abs/1806.03822.
- Pranav Rajpurkar, Jian Zhang, Konstantin Lopyrev, and Percy Liang. 2016. SQuAD: 100,000+ questions for machine comprehension of text. In *Proceedings of the 2016 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 2383–2392, Austin, Texas. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Yiming Tan, Dehai Min, Yu Li, Wenbo Li, Nan Hu, Yongrui Chen, and Guilin Qi. 2023. Evaluation of Chat-GPT as a Question Answering System for Answering Complex Questions. *CoRR*, abs/2303.07992.
- Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, Aurélien Rodriguez, Armand Joulin, Edouard Grave, and Guillaume Lample. 2023a. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models. *CoRR*, abs/2302.13971.
- Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, Dan Bikel, Lukas Blecher, Cristian Canton-Ferrer, Moya Chen, Guillem Cucurull, David Esiobu, Jude Fernandes, Jeremy Fu, Wenyin Fu, Brian Fuller, Cynthia Gao, Vedanuj Goswami, Naman Goyal, Anthony Hartshorn, Saghar Hosseini, Rui Hou, Hakan Inan, Marcin Kardas, Viktor Kerkez, Madian Khabsa, Isabel Kloumann, Artem Korenev, Punit Singh Koura, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Thibaut Lavril, Jenya Lee, Diana Liskovich, Yinghai Lu, Yuning Mao, Xavier Martinet, Todor Mihaylov, Pushkar Mishra, Igor Molybog, Yixin Nie, Andrew Poulton, Jeremy Reizenstein, Rashi Rungta, Kalyan Saladi, Alan Schelten, Ruan Silva, Eric Michael Smith, Ranjan Subramanian, Xiaoqing Ellen Tan, Binh Tang, Ross Taylor, Adina Williams, Jian Xiang Kuan, Puxin Xu, Zheng Yan, Iliyan Zarov, Yuchen Zhang, Angela Fan,

- Melanie Kambadur, Sharan Narang, Aurélien Rodriguez, Robert Stojnic, Sergey Edunov, and Thomas Scialom. 2023b. Llama 2: Open foundation and fine-tuned chat models. *CoRR*, abs/2307.09288.
- Juraj Vladika and Florian Matthes. 2023. Sebis at SemEval-2023 task 7: A joint system for natural language inference and evidence retrieval from clinical trial reports. In *Proceedings of the 17th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval-2023)*, pages 1863–1870, Toronto, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Muru Zhang, Ofir Press, William Merrill, Alisa Liu, and Noah A. Smith. 2023. How language model hallucinations can snowball. *CoRR*, abs/2305.13534.
- Ming Zhu, Aman Ahuja, Da-Cheng Juan, Wei Wei, and Chandan K. Reddy. 2020. Question answering with long multiple-span answers. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2020*, pages 3840–3849, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Supplementary Material

A Prompt Template

Figure 2 shows the complete message histories passed through ChatGPT to generate system outputs.

Our prompt template for ChatGPT is as follows: **System message**: Your task is to select sentences from a document that answer a given question.

User message (question, document): Select sentences from the document below that answer the question below. It may also be the case that none of the sentences answers the question. In the document, each sentence is marked with an ID. Output the IDs of the relevant sentences as a list, e.g., "[1,2,3]", and output "[]" if no sentence is relevant. Output only these lists.

Question:"'<question>"'
Document:"'<document>"'

B Sampling Chunks for Few-Shot Instances

To fit ChatGPT's maximum input size, we only provide chunks of the few-shot training instances. ⁵ We use the tiktoken library⁶ to count the number of tokens needed for prompting ChatGPT and create chunks accordingly. The largest test input instance requires 2235 tokens, i.e., 1861 tokens remain for the few-shot instances and the model output, called "completion" by OpenAI. In the ground-truth answers, the maximum number of completion tokens is 189. To enable some flexibility of the model, we reserve 300 tokens for completion, which equals the amount of tokens needed to encode a list of sentence IDs from 0 to 99 including. Hence, 1561 tokens remain to encode the 5 training instances, i.e., approximately 312 tokens per training instance (including the ground-truth answer). We fill these tokens from the training instances by sampling a context window of at most 350 tokens around a random (relevant in case of a question with evidence) sentence.

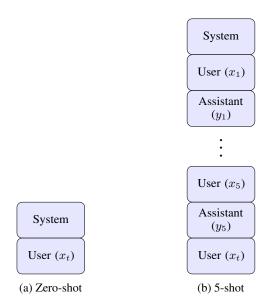


Figure 2: **Message history** passed as input to ChatGPT in zero- and few-shot setting. x_t : test instance, x_i : training instance i, y_i : ground truth for x_i .

Model			questions mac.F1	Recall no-evidence
random baseline	14.0	14.0	11.3	49.2
ChatGPT 0-shot	37.9	52.6	37.7	7.2
Llama 2 0-shot	21.9	23.7	18.6	6.4
ChatGPT 5-shot	38.2	42.8	35.5	60.3
	± 2.0	± 2.1	± 0.9	± 5.5
"human" scores	64.4	77.0	64.2	63.3*

Table 5: Results on our evaluation set. For 5-shot, we report average and standard deviation of 5 different randomly sampled per-category 5-shots results. *Harmonic mean of the two recall scores, estimated on all 570 double-annotated questions. Llama 2: Llama 2-Chat (13B).

C Additional Results

Here, we provide an extended version of Table 3 that includes scores for Llama 2-Chat (13B) (Touvron et al., 2023b) in the zero-shot setting. Compared to ChatGPT, LLama 2 is equally bad at detecting no-evidence questions and recognizes relevant sentences for answering with-evidence questions worse.

D Crowdsourcing

We show the interface that we used for collecting the questions on Amazon Mechanical Turk in Figure 3. The interface contains two parts. On the left, we show crowd-workers two components based on the WikiHow article: the summary and the keywords. The summary is the first paragraph from a

⁵To fit entire documents, we would have needed to use the 32k version of GPT-4, which is up to 60x more expensive than ChatGPT.

⁶https://github.com/openai/tiktoken

WikiHow article, which typically functions as an introduction to the article's topic. The keywords contain a set of keywords that we generated based on the WikiHow article using the Wordcloud⁷ package. On the right, we provide a form where crowdworkers can submit six questions. Crowd-workers are encouraged to make use of our suggestions on how to start a question and to start each question with a different word. Furthermore, in the first three input fields, we ask crowd-workers to ask a question about a certain topic. In Figure 3, these topics are, from top to bottom: Researching Upgrade Options, Planning Your Honeymoon and Upgrading on the go. These are the section headers from the WikiHow article, which we use to collect questions that are relevant to the article.

⁷https://pypi.org/project/wordcloud

Summary	Questions
How to Get Free Honeymoon Upgrades Everyone loves free upgrades during trips, and a honeymoon is a perfect excuse	Suggestions on how to start questions:
	 How can/should I, When, Why, What, Where, Which, Who Do I, Can I, Is it, Should I
Institute of a second of a lifetime. The second of an analysis of a second of a lifetime. In the second of a lifetime of a lifetime of a lifetime.	Question 1
וסובלווססו סו מוובמווים:	Ask question about Researching Upgrade Options
Keywords	Question 2
The keywords (verbs and other words) below are related to How to Get Free	Ask question about Planning Your Honeymoon. Use different start word.
Honeymoon Upgrades. Use them in your questions.	Question 3
Verbs:	Ask a question about Upgrading on the Go. Use different start word.
make, ask, offer, give, may, mention, try, sign, take, upgrade, will, call, bring, love, help, include, look, book, want, arrive, dress, enjoy, share, add, gift, start, plan,	Onestion 4
provide, qualify, search, talk, know, go, request, reserve, say, show, feel, tip, collect, maintain, lead, allow, encourage, spend, use, register, complete, check, consider	Ask a question. Use different start word.
Other words:	Question 5
honeymoon, upgrade, free, car, staff, card, company, travel, perk, hotel, special, small, incentive, sure, mile, flight, good, reservation, compact, frequent, flier, credit.	Ask a question. Use different start word.
rental, way, likely, airport, book, chance, restaurant, seat, gift, trip, airline, program, lot, friendly, wedding, well, coupon, destination, demand, season, agent, person,	Question 6
people, extra, important, favor, ttp, everyone	Ask a question. Use different start word.

Figure 3: The interface used in our crowdsourcing set-up for collecting questions. The left part of the interface shows the summary and keywords based on the WikiHow article and the right shows the form that crowd-workers used to submit their questions.

E Dataset Example

Title: How to Find Trusted Advice on Covid-19

Questions:

- 1. Is there a central authority that I should check with for COVID-19 advice? [5, 6, 7]
- 2. What groups does the most research on COVID-19? *no-evidence*
- 3. How can I know if I'm hearing the truth about COVID-19 when listening to someone? [18, 23, 27, 28, 32, 38, 39]
- 4. Who should I follow to find out about the latest COVID-19 variants? *no-evidence*

Article Text:

- [1] Whether you're surfing the web, texting a friend, or tuning into the nightly news, you're probably hearing a lot of different things about the COVID-19 outbreak.
- [2] It's difficult to get a finger on the pulse of what's going on during the current state of the world, but there are several ways to make the fact-checking process a bit easier.
- [3] If you know where to look, and subsequently, where to stay away from, you can stay informed as the COVID-19 situation continues to develop.
- [4] ==Steps==
- [5] === Reliable Organizations===
- [6] Consult WHO and the UN for reliable, global updates.
- [7] The World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations (UN) are constantly studying and reporting on COVID-19 cases all over the world.
- [8] These organizations' websites offer plenty of resources and articles that you can peruse, which can help keep you up-to-date on the latest news and best practices for staying safe during the pandemic.
- [9] * You can find a list of common COVID-19 mythbusters here:
- [10] Visit the COVID-19 "hubs" on various social media and internet platforms.
- [11] Sites like Facebook, Apple News, Google, Snapchat, and Twitter have all created special "hubs," or featured sections of information pertaining to the COVID-19 outbreak.
- [12] You'll have to use a bit of your own discretion as you go through the different news bytes—however, many of these platforms try to prioritize more reliable news sites.
- [13] * These are the easiest ways to stay up-to-date with the newest COVID-19 developments.
- [14] Stop by the Johns Hopkins site for accurate reports of case numbers.
- [15] It can be a bit gloomy to think about how many COVID cases there are in the world currently.
- [16] However, if you want a more exact count, the Johns Hopkins Center for Systems Science and Engineering runs a dashboard that calculates the current number of global cases.
- [17] * You can find this site here:
- [18] Follow trusted experts on social media for factual information.
- [19] Platforms like Twitter can be rife with misinformation if you're following the wrong people, but they can be a great source of news and factual information if you're following medical experts.
- [20] * Doctors and members of the medical community are great people to listen to during the pandemic.
- [21] ===Unreliable Information Sources===
- [22] Don't put too much stock in random social media posts.
- [23] The current climate has left a lot of people nervous and anxious about the coming days, which is perfectly understandable.
- [24] It can be easy to believe what you see on social media, but take the time to scrutinize posts carefully and discredit any info you find about home-brewed cures or solutions for COVID-19.
- [25] Search for studies only published by reliable groups.

- [26] If you're browsing through different studies, look over the specific publication details.
- [27] While many studies are authoritative, there can be different factors that impact a study's credibility, like the funding source, or where the study was first published.
- [28] Generally, try to get your information from studies published in reputable journals.
- [29] Fact-check new information against reputable organizations.
- [30] Studies are teaching us new things every day, but they aren't rewriting the rules when it comes to COVID-19, either.
- [31] Even if new information is released in a study, you shouldn't toss out everything you've learned out the window, either.
- [32] Try to fact-check new information against reputable organizations, so you can get an idea of what to believe.
- [33] * For instance, you can cross-check new studies with WHO.
- [34] Report misinformation as you find it online.
- [35] It can be really frustrating to find blatantly incorrect things online.
- [36] Thankfully, most sites and platforms give you the option to report misinformation, which can help make the online world a safer place.
- [37] You can figure out the best way to report misinformation here:
- [38] == Tips ==
- [39] *The best way to stay informed is to cross-check new information over several reliable sources.
- [40] *If a source follows a strict fact-checking process, it's probably a safe source of information.
- [41] ==Warnings==
- [42] *Don't fall for the narrative that certain demographics are more "likely" to believe false facts or spread misinformation.

Discussion:

An example for a clear case is provided for question 1: sentence [6] "Consult the WHO and UN for reliable, global updates." clearly provides evidence for the answer to question 1.

Answering question 3 based on the text is possible, but requires more reasoning. For example, sentence [18] can be considered as evidence in the sense of "if an expert is trusted, you will get factual information from them, and know that you're hearing the truth about COVID-19." Sentence [23] is a borderline case (which this author annotator would not have marked), but we see the interpretation that one should rather distrust nervous and anxious people.

Both annotator teams agree that the article does not provide any evidence for questions 2 and 4.