Understanding and Simplifying Architecture Search in Spatio-Temporal Graph Neural Networks

Anonymous authors
Paper under double-blind review

Abstract

Compiling together spatial and temporal modules via a unified framework, Spatio-Temporal Graph Neural Networks (STGNNs) have been popularly used in the multivariate spatio-temporal forecasting task, e.g. traffic prediction. After the numerous propositions of manually designed architectures, researchers show interest in the Neural Architecture Search (NAS) of STGNNs. Existing methods suffer from two issues: (1) hyperparameters like learning rate, channel size cannot be integrated into the NAS framework, which makes the model evaluation less accurate, potentially misleading the architecture search (2) the current search space, which basically mimics Darts-like methods, is too large for the search algorithm to find a sufficiently good candidate. In this work, we deal with both issues at the same time. We first re-examine the importance and transferability of the training hyperparameters to ensure a fair and fast comparison. Next, we set up a framework that disentangles architecture design into three disjoint angles according to how spatio-temporal representations flow and transform in architectures, which allows us to understand the behavior of architectures from a distributional perspective. This way, we can obtain good guidelines to reduce the STGNN search space and find state-of-the-art architectures by simple random search. As an illustrative example, we combine these principles with random search which already significantly outperforms both state-of-the-art hand-designed models and recently automatically searched ones.

1 Introduction

Multivariate forecasting is a crucial task commonly encountered in our daily life. In addition to classic time series forecasting, spatial correlation has been recently leveraged for more accurate prediction, titled Spatio-Temporal Forecasting. A typical and important example is traffic prediction which forecasts future traffic status (e.g., volume and speed) based on history data (usually the same as prediction targets), moving one step further towards smart transportation and intelligent city (Zhang et al., 2011; Ran & Boyce, 2012; Nagy & Simon, 2018). Using learning models to better exploit spatio-temporal information is the key challenge (Jiang et al., 2021; Li et al., 2021a).

Early works use classic time series forecasting techniques like ARIMA (Zare Moayedi & Masnadi-Shirazi, 2008) and LSTM (Fu et al., 2016) but do not explicitly consider spatial relation. Motivated by the power of Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) (Scarselli et al., 2009; Kipf & Welling, 2017) modeling relational data, two representative works (Yu et al., 2018; Li et al., 2018) firstly combine GNN and temporal modeling techniques and propose Spatio-Temporal Graph Neural Networks (STGNN). STGNNs simultaneously extract spatial correlation by GNN module and temporal correlation by, like Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) (LeCun et al., 1989) or Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) (Cho et al., 2014), and they have shown promising performance in traffic prediction. Subsequently, many variants are proposed to improve upon above pioneer works from various angles. Examples are STGCN (Yu et al., 2018), DCRNN (Li et al., 2018), MTGNN (Wu et al., 2020), AGCRN (Bai et al., 2020), and STFGCN (Li & Zhu, 2021).

As STGNNs go more complex, designing better architectures by hand can go beyond human expertise because it remains difficult for researchers to understand which architecture configurations work better. More recently,

Neural Architecture Search(NAS) methods have gained much attention due to their effectiveness in various research directions (White et al., 2021b; Eliasof et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2019). NAS researchers leverage the expertise in certain domains to propose efficient search space and strategy. Similarly, two STGNN NAS methods have been introduced as well AutoCTS (Wu et al., 2021) and AutoSTG (Pan et al., 2021), which basically follow Darts-like differentiable search space (Liu et al., 2019) with a few customized operations to adapt on STGNN models. However, since there is a lack of *systematic architecture understanding* in the STGNN community, the STGNN NAS methods still suffer from a huge search space, hindering their efficiency and effectiveness. Moreover, all the STGNN NAS methods do not consider the impact of *hyperparameters*, leading to probable evaluation bias.

Above works usually propose a novel architecture (manually or by search) and study this single model in an isolated way. Motivated by recent works that study a series of related works in hindsight to produce general principles (Chu et al., 2021; Gorishniy et al., 2021; Bello et al., 2021b; You et al., 2020b), we aim at obtaining useful understandings to bring forth the next generation of STGNNs, which is an important missing piece in the community.

However, systematic understanding of STGNN architectures is not an easy task. First, the evaluation of architectures is expensive as hyperparameter tuning is required. Training hyperparameters in existing works are often tuned with a small grid inherited from prior studies. But different architectures may not prefer the same setting of hyperparameters and a small grid search cannot fully explore the hyperparameters space (Ruffinelli et al., 2020; You et al., 2020c; Bello et al., 2021a). Currently, there is no existing methods that can evaluate and compare architectures in a cheap and fair way. Second, the architecture space is huge and complicated. Classically, control variable methods, which analyze improvements with and without certain microscopic architecture designs, are popularly used (Bai et al., 2020; Song et al., 2020). Reusing such methods here could lead to biased interpretations as they fail to explore different architectures from a distributional perspective.

In this work, we take a step back and revisit the STGNNs. Inspired by the representative literature as illustrated in Figure 1, we propose a disentangled framework composed of disjoint factors regarding the architecture designs. This framework includes design choices of temporal/spatial modules, spatio-temporal order and skip connection. Through the lens of this framework, we dig in depth the principles of different architectural choices. We summarize and quantify empirically the influence of each part. Based on our understanding, we could easily find new STGNN models with a simple method adapted from random search.

Our main contributions are as follows:

- We propose a disentangled framework of Spatio-Temporal Graph Neural Networks containing the designs of spatial/temporal modules, the spatio-temporal order and the skip connection.
- To allow fair and efficient evaluation of different model configurations, we study a much larger hyperparameter setting and quantify the importance of each choice, which helps to reduce significantly the hyperparameter space.
- Through comprehensive experiments and distributional analysis, we conclude fundamental design principles of the skip connection choices and the spatio-temporal order, quantified by mathematically motivated measures. The design principles form naturally cherry regions, where architectures are more likely to perform well.
- Based on our in depth understanding of architectural principles and training hyperparameters, we propose a simple method to obtain new STGNN models more easily and effectively.

2 Problem Definition

A graph representing the topology network is denoted as $\mathcal{G} = \{\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, A\}$, where $\mathcal{V}$ is the set of $|\mathcal{V}| = N$ nodes, $\mathcal{E}$ is the edge set and A is the adjacency matrix of shape $\mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$. We have then a multivariate feature tensor of nodes $X \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times N \times D}$ representing the temporal graph signals. T is the total timestamps. D is the number

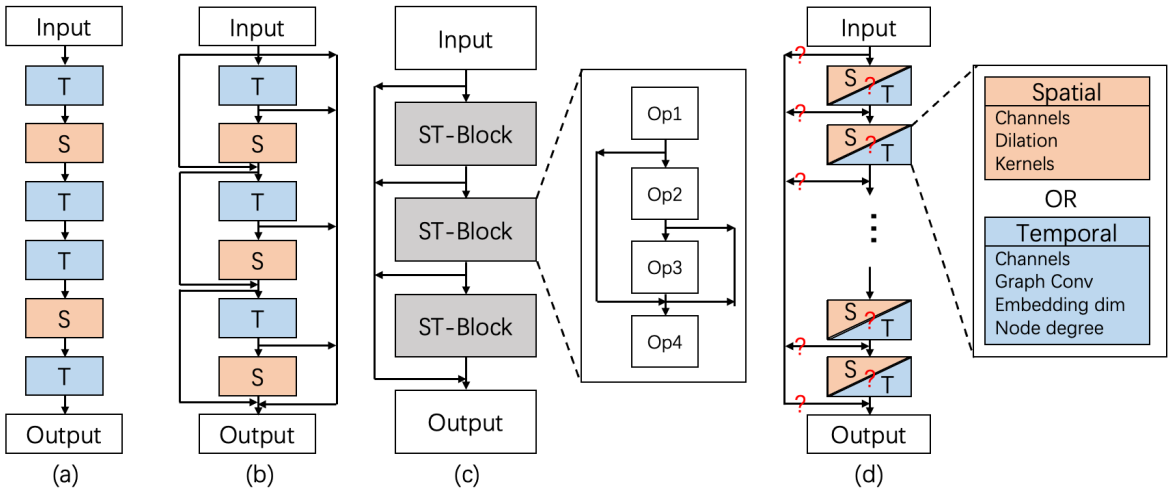


Figure 1: Architecture plot of representative literatures. (a) STGCN (b) MTGNN (c) AutoCTS (d) Our framework. Red blocks represent spatial modules (S). Blue blocks represent temporal modules (T). For AutoCTS, each block composes of four operations and each operation could be spatial or temporal module.

of features per node at each timestamp. Denote also $X_t \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ the features at one timestamp t and $X_{t:(t+T')} \in \mathbb{R}^{T' \times N \times D}$ the features of T' timestamps.

In spatio-temporal traffic prediction task, the goal is to predict Q future steps based on P past steps observations of traffic features (Li et al., 2021a). Due to the popularity and superior performance, we use STGNNs as the prediction model. Following the mentioned literature (Wu et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2021b; Wu et al., 2021), we consider $P = Q = 12$.

In order to understand the generalizable principles of STGNN architectures in a **tractable** way, we propose the following **distributional** bi-level formulation:

$$\min_\theta \mathbb{E}_{\alpha \sim \mathcal{P}_\theta(\alpha)}[\mathcal{L}(w^*(\alpha), \alpha; D_{\text{val}})] \quad \text{s.t.} \quad w^*(\alpha) = \arg\min_w \mathcal{L}(w, \alpha; D_{\text{train}}),$$

where α is the model architecture, encoded in any raw format; w is the trainable parameters depending on α; $\mathcal{P}$ is the architectural distribution parameterized by θ; $\mathcal{L}$ is the evaluation metric such as mean squared error; D_{val}, D_{train} are validation and training data. The usage of D_{val} in the outer optimization and D_{train} in the inner optimization is commonly adopted in the NAS community in order to seperate conceptually two levels of problem (Liu et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2021a). In our work, we follow this paradigm.

The distributional nature lies in the minimization of expected loss, similar to (Chen et al., 2021a; Xie et al., 2019). And since the raw architecture encoding is not compact and informative enough, we turn this task into a tractable one by proposing parameterized measures θ to map from raw architectures α to their measures θ and finally to the distributional predictive performances.

Generally speaking, the architecture α can capture certain prior knowledge on the traffic prediction task. For example, the order of how spatial/temporal representations are processed, how different levels of spatio-temporal representations could be fused. All these prior knowledge should be data-dependent and can largely influence the architecture choice. Thus, understanding of architectures leads to better exploit the prior knowledge and subsequently obtain better prediction performance. As discussed in Section 1, existing works cannot be used since the architecture's space is large and complex and a fair evaluation is expensive. In the sequel, we propose a disentangled framework and choose appropriate measures to evaluate architectures on observations generated from the framework.

3 A Disentangled Framework

To motivate such a framework, we take a step back and revisit representative works' architectures in Figure 1(a)-(d). We remove unnecessary microscopic details and highlight their overall architectures. STGCN and AGCRN are simplified to compile 6 blocks of Spatial/Temporal modules in different orders (resp. T-S-T-T-S-T and S-T-S-T-S-T). MTGNN compiles 6 blocks in another order (T-S-T-S-T-S) and in addition, adds skip connections. AutoCTS consists of multiple ST-Blocks, each of which consists of 4 operations which could be spatial module, temporal module, identity module, etc. AutoCTS also has fixed skip connections inside the blocks and among the blocks.

After visualizing above literatures, we propose a disentangled framework as shown in Table 1 and Figure 1(e). We are thus interested in the correlation between the performance and these disjoint factors. Specifically, we consider

- *Spatio-temporal order.* Independent of module specific designs, STGNN models put together spatial/temporal modules in a certain order to process spatial and temporal correlations. In our framework, for a pre-determined number of modules, say 6, each module could either be spatial module (S) or temporal one (T). Thus, it is possible to have T-T-T-T-T-T, i.e. all six temporal modules or vice versa. Note that we do not include parallel connections here, e.g., STSGCN (Song et al., 2020) and GMAN (Zheng et al., 2020), because such designs do not perform well, e.g. STFGNN in Table 3.
- *Skip connection.* Earliest works do not consider skip connection (Yu et al., 2018; Li et al., 2018). Later works let temporal modules skip to the end and skip internally every two blocks (Wu et al., 2019; 2020). AutoCTS (Wu et al., 2021) connects each block to the end and inside the blocks, every later node connects to all previous nodes in a determined way. We consider a much larger skip connection space of over 2 million choices, i.e., each layer could choose to connect to any number of previous layers.
- *Spatial module.* For graph convolution, we consider several different GCNs that are common in Spatio-temporal GNN literature, namely Kipf GCN, Chebyshev GCN and Mixhop GCN. On graph structure, we adopt the setting of AGCRN but with additional kNN for sparsity. To still make use of the provided graph structure, we include a mixture coefficient.
- *Temporal module.* We only consider TCN here since it is easier to be trained than RNN. Specifically, we consider a typical dilated TCN on the time axis of features to extract temporal features. A set of convolution kernels are used and channels of different kernels are aggregated.

We can see that exemplar hand-designed architectures, e.g., STGCN, MTGNN and searched architectures, e.g., AutoCTS, AutoSTG are all included in the above framework. Moreover, it extends the scope of existing works' to many more possibilities, especially by introducing the space of skip connections and spatio-temporal order.

4 Understanding STGNN Hyperparameters and Architectures

In this section, we show how important principles can be observed based on the framework, which help speedup the evaluation and subsequently design better STGNNs. We explain for each factor its motivation, the used methodology and the understanding obtained to answer sequentially the research questions. All experiments in this section are run on two datasets PeMS04 and PeMS08 (Guo et al., 2019; Song et al., 2020), which are introduced with more details in the Appendix B.

4.1 Understanding training hyperparameters

Different STGNN models naturally need different training hyperparameters. To avoid biased evaluation of models by inheriting hyperparameter setting as existing works, we instead consider a hyperparameter space where bad hyperparameters choices can be removed such that once we run a model multiple times under this space, we obtain a distributionally fair evaluation.

Table 1: Summarization of the proposed architecture framework

Type	Name	Detail
Spatio-temporal order	Arrangement of spatial/temporal modules in arbitrary order	
Skip connection	Any jumping between two modules including input and output	
Spatial module	Channels	16,32,64
	Graph convolution	Kipf GCN, Cheb GCN, Mixhop GCN
	Embedding dim	10,20,40,60,80
	Node degree k	5,10,20,40,60
	Mixture coefficient	0,0.25,0.5,0.75,1
Temporal module	Channels	16,32,64
	Dilation	1,2
	kernel numbers	1,2,4,8
	kernel candidates	2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12

We consider training hyperparameters (HP) that are common from STGNN literature as in Table 2 where the curriculum learning (Wu et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021a) is specified to STGNN here. The current training hyperparameters constitute a space of over 10^5 choices and is not practical to efficiently evaluate each model configuration. We aim to independently study the impact by the ranking distribution to remove the hyperparameters that are commonly bad for most architectures. The **ranking distribution** evaluates a model with different hyperparameters to obtain a relative rank and repeats to have distributional patterns. The details of ranking strategy, datasets and choices of hyperparameters are in Appendix B and D.

Table 2: Common training hyperparameters for STGNNs.

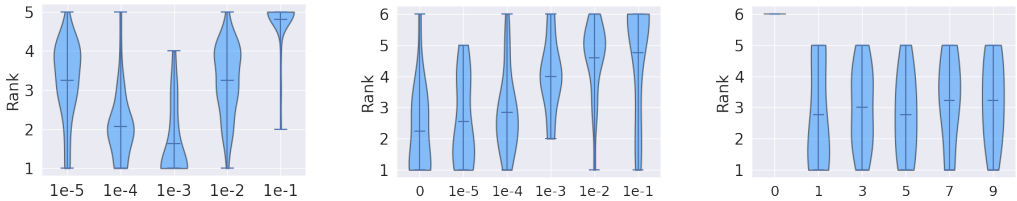
Name	Original Scope	Reduced Scope
Learning rate	1e-5, 1e-4, 1e-3, 1e-2, 1e-1	1e-4, 1e-3
Batch size	8,16,32,64,128	8, 32, 128
Optimizer	SGD, Rmsprop, Adam, AdamW, Adamax	Adam, AdamW
Weight decay	0,1e-1,1e-2,1e-3,1e-4,1e-5	0, 1e-5
Gradient clip	0,1,3,5,7,9	1, 5
Dropout	0,0.1,0.3,0.5,0.7,0.9	0, 0.3
Curriculum learning	None,3,5,7	None, 3

The ranking strategy. To compare hyperparameter P of K choices $(p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_K)$, we randomly sample a **configuration** under our framework. A configuration contains all necessary choices of hyperparameters and architectures to identify a model. We then replace iteratively the hyperparameter P of this configuration by all K choices and train the models one by one. Thus, for each batch of K runs, we have K model results whose configurations differ from each other only in the hyperparameter P. We rank these results ascendingly (smaller error metric means better performance, thus ranks better). We run multiple batches of K runs and obtain the ranking distribution on each hyperparameter. For example in Figure 2(a), we compare and rank the relative performance of five learning rate choices for a certain model configuration. After many configurations evaluated, we obtain that 1e-3 is the best choice since it ranks first (most frequent) in all runs.

The ranking plot of each hyperparameter is partially given in Figure 2 and the full plots are in Appendix D. The hyperparameters are grouped into three cases.

1. *reduced options*, e.g., learning rate and optimizer could be reduced to a few options;
2. *monotonically related*, e.g., weight decay and dropout rate are (almost) showing a monotonically better as weight decay decreases;
3. *no obvious pattern*, e.g., gradient clip does not show much difference as long as it is activated and same for batch size and curriculum learning.

The training hyperparameter space has been reduced by 500 times as in Table 2, with which we are able to largely increase the efficiency of model evaluation in a fair way.



(a) Learning rate (b) Weight decay (c) Gradient clip

Figure 2: Rankings of three training hyperparameters. A lower rank means better performance. The more a choice ranks first, the better it is in terms of distribution.

4.2 Understanding architectures

With such a disentangled framework presented, we aim at the following research questions (RQ) to understand the influence of each factor:

- **RQ1:** What patterns in terms of spatio-temporal order do good models share? How to characterize spatio-temporal order patterns?
- **RQ2:** What patterns in terms of skip connection do good models share? How to characterize skip connection patterns?
- **RQ3:** How do different spatial/temporal module designs influence the performance?
- **RQ4:** How transferable are above patterns in the architecture space?

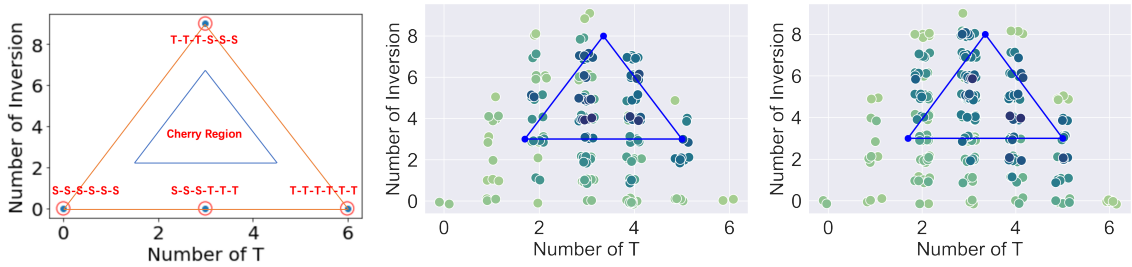
However, these questions are not trivial to answer. We need to dedicatedly design systematic views over the huge architecture space such that correlations among different architectures and with the final prediction performance can be simultaneously captured. In this way, principles that can indicate goodness of architectures can be generated. Ideally, we want to find cherry regions of architecture space since good architectures should share important designs in common. An architecture in the cherry region has a high probability to achieve good performance. A key challenge in finding such regions lies in the choice of quantitative measures.

4.2.1 Spatio-temporal order

The spatio-temporal order specifies the arrangement of both spatial/temporal modules to learn the representation. Intuitively, the representation is influenced by how many spatial/temporal modules we use respectively and how these modules are interleaved to exchange the information. We propose two measures explained below to characterize spatio-temporal order of an architecture:

- **Number of spatial or temporal modules.** Without loss of generality, we observe temporal modules, noted as #T
- **Number of inversed order of a module sequence.** Let the number of inversed order of a pair of modules (either S or T) be 1 if S comes before T, i.e. ST, and 0 otherwise, i.e. TS, SS, TT. The number of inversed order of a module sequence is defined as the sum of that of each pair modules.

The rationale of the above two measures is quantitatively justified in below Remark 1. Specifically, they help us identify a compact triangle region as in Figure 3(a) where different combinatorial choices of S/T orders lie at the corners.



(a) Exemplar order. (b) Order on PeMS04. (c) Order on PeMS08.

Figure 3: Spatio-temporal order understanding on different datasets. For (b)(c), we normalize performances to show them in a colormap. The darker the circle, the better the performance.

Remark 1. *We claim that the number of inversed order along with the number of T modules (#T), can well capture the interleaving of a sequence of S-T modules, including the following 4 corner cases: (N is number of total modules)*

- *Case 1: All S modules, #T is 0 and number of inversed order is 0, indicating no temporal feature is needed;*
- *Case 2: All T modules, #T is N and number of inversed order is 0, indicating no spatial feature is needed;*
- *Case 3: $\frac{N}{2}$ S modules followed by $\frac{N}{2}$ T modules, #T is $\frac{N}{2}$ and number of inversed order is 0, indicating the spatial information should strictly be processed before temporal information;*
- *Case 4: $\frac{N}{2}$ T modules followed by $\frac{N}{2}$ S modules, #T is $\frac{N}{2}$ and number of inversed order is $\frac{N^2}{4}$, indicating the temporal information should strictly be processed before spatial information.*

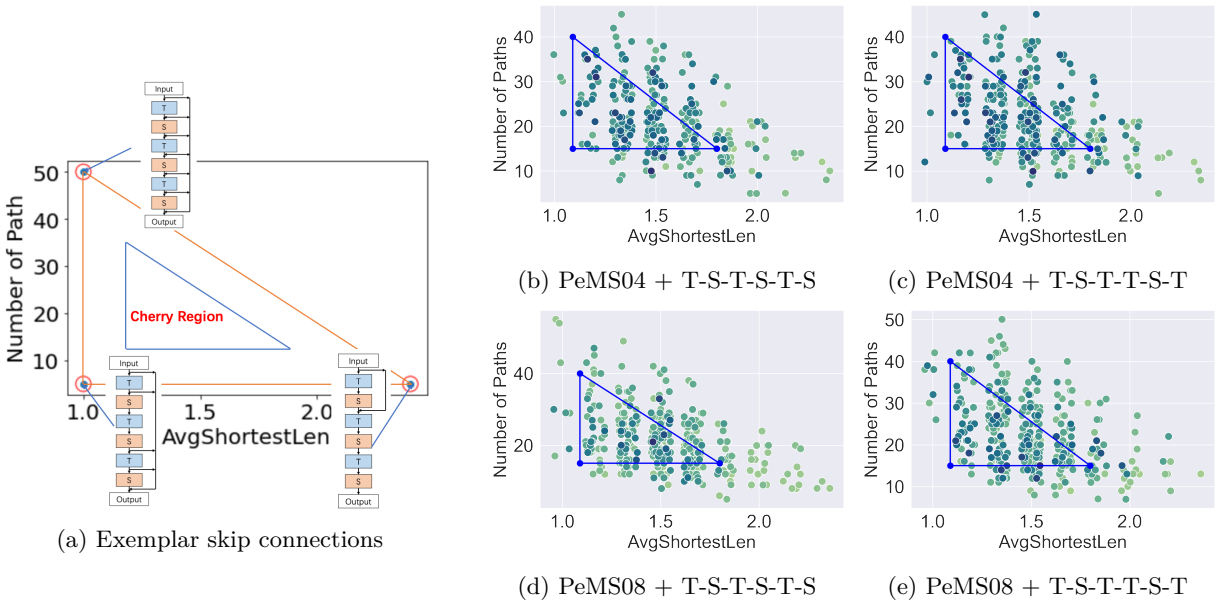
We fix the framework factors except for the spatio-temporal order. As mentioned above, we relax the spatio-temporal order under 6 temporal and/or spatial modules, leading to a space of $2^6 = 64$ choices. We use the above mentioned measures to observe the order. Results are in Figure 3. We can see that for spatio-temporal order, all corner cases perform terribly. A clear region for 2 to 5 T blocks and for number of inversions between 3 and 8 exists and shows superior performance. This suggests that (1) we might have good performance for many temporal modules but too many spatial modules is not a good idea. This could be because of the oversmoothing phenomenon observed in GNN (Xu et al., 2018) but further study is required; (2) a large number of inversion usually returns better performance which means that both modules are encouraged to interleave more frequently.

4.2.2 Skip connection

As the representation flows from the input to the output without a loop, we are motivated to formulate skip connections in STGNNs as a Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG) with a straight though flow path connecting sequentially each module (Figure 1(e)). Afterwards, we need to consider proper measures to observe the skip space as it is large. Intuitively, the performance of a certain skip pattern depends on how many we skip and where we skip. The former can be measured by number of paths from input module to output module and the latter can be measured by average shortest length for each pair of modules, both defined below. We propose another two measures explained below to characterize skip connection of an architecture:

- **Number of path**, noted as (#Path). It is defined as the total number of trajectories from the predetermined input node to the predetermined output node.
- **Average Shortest Length**, noted as ASL. It is defined as the average of shortest lengths from non-output nodes to the output node predetermined.

The rationale of the above two measures is quantitatively justified in below Remark 2. Specifically, they help us identify a compact right triangle region as in Figure 4(a) where different combinatorial choices of skip connections lie at the corners.



(a) Exemplar skip connections

(b) PeMS04 + T-S-T-S-T-S

(c) PeMS04 + T-S-T-T-S-T

(d) PeMS08 + T-S-T-S-T-S

(e) PeMS08 + T-S-T-T-S-T

Figure 4: Skip understanding on different spatio-temporal orders and different datasets. For (b)(c)(d)(e), we normalize performances to show them in a colormap. The darker the circle, the better the performance.

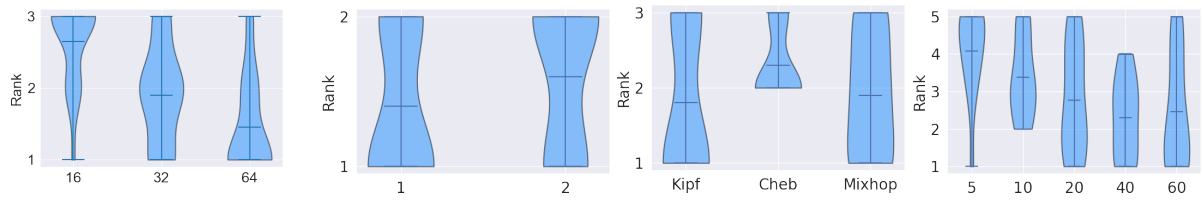
Remark 2. *We claim that Average Shortest Length (ASL) and number of path(#Path) in a Directed Acyclic Graph can well capture the spatio-temporal information flow, including the following 3 corner cases:*

- *Case 1: ASL is low and #Path is low, i.e., limited number of skips which mostly connects to the output node, where most literature falls in;*
- *Case 2: ASL is low and #Path is high, i.e., a lot of skip connections among which many skips to the output node, potentially obfuscating the propagated message;*
- *Case 3: ASL is high and #Path is low, i.e., almost no additional skips, which is the case of earliest STGCN model (Yu et al., 2018).*

In Figure 4, we show the skip experiment on two datasets and on two spatio-temporal orders that have been used in the literature. Details are given in Appendix D. All these four experiments follow a similar pattern. First, all corner cases perform badly. In the center rectangle, we observe a clear region where the performance are much better, especially for ASL between 1.1 to 1.8 and #Path between 10 and 40. Notably, this region exists for different datasets and for different spatio-temporal orders, showing its universality in terms of principles. This observation can be exemplified by other works e.g. residual connection (He et al., 2016), JK-Net (Xu et al., 2018), message passing (Battaglia et al., 2018). Especially for GNN, we want to reinforce the remote message, e.g. the input node, in later nodes, thus ASL will be low. We also do not want to have too many messages that obfuscate the valuable message, thus #Path cannot be too high.

4.2.3 Spatial/temporal module design

Different choices of spatial/temporal module influence the way the spatial/temporal representation are processed. In the literature, diverse modifications on TCN and GCN have been proposed. We use the same ranking distribution as in understanding training hyperparameters to study all the module choices. The ranking plots are partially shown in Figure 5 and full plot is given in Appendix D. We remove a few bad options according to the ranking, e.g., Cheb GCN, node degree 5, etc. Then, we also find we could largely reduce number of parameters by reducing channels temporarily due to a high performance correlation, as show in Appendix D.



(a) S and T Channel (b) TCN dilation (c) GCN choice (d) Node degree k

Figure 5: Rankings of several design choices. A lower rank means better performance.

4.2.4 Summary of designing principles

With the empirical results in this section, after refining the training hyperparameter space, we find that good architectures share similar patterns. Firstly, Two cherry regions exist as shown in Figure 3(a) and Figure 4(a), answering **RQ1** and **RQ2**. Concretely, we tend to consider architectures which have appropriate number of temporal modules, inversion number, averaged shortest length, and finally number of paths. The appropriate scope can be interpreted from the view of spatio-temporal information flow and message passing with jumping information. For module designs, we remove some bad choices as by ranking and discover that we could largely reduce number of parameters by reducing channel size due to high performance correlation, answering **RQ3**. All the experiments in this section are conducted on two datasets PeMS04 and PeMS08, showing the generability of the discoveries, thus answering **RQ4**.

5 Searching Better STGNN Models in a Simplified Way

5.1 A simplified but strong NAS baseline

Here, to give an example on how to leverage these understandings, we show a simple but strong NAS baseline based on Random Search (RS) that is able to find better STGNN models efficiently, titled **RS-STGNN** as illustrated in Figure 6. We use random search with the cherry regions found by understanding results on typical datasets. Specifically, we evaluate a *random* sample if it lies in regions, otherwise reject it and re-sample. Note that more complex search strategies leveraging our understanding surely exists and probably will be more efficient than our simple baseline, e.g. Evolutionary, Bayesian or even differentiable. But our goal is to demonstrate how to utilize our understanding and how effective it could be to design architectures with better understandings. We stick to this baseline for further comparison.

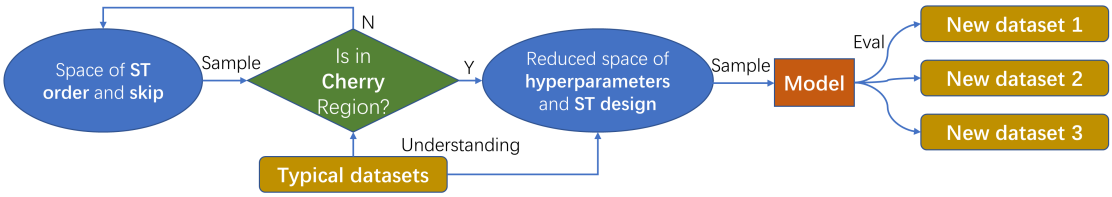


Figure 6: Illustration of the pipeline in our simple random search baseline RS-STGNN.

5.2 Overall performance comparison

In this part, we compare more thoroughly our models with related works. From Table 3, incoporating architecture priors, the proposed simple baseline could find novel STGNN models better than hand-designed and NAS-based methods. The other baselines are introduced as follows. Vector Auto-Regression (VAR) is a baseline often for sanity check. ASTGCN (Guo et al., 2019) adopts attention mechanism for both spatial and temporal modeling. STSGCN (Song et al., 2020) proposes synchronous modules to leverage the heterogeneities in spatial-temporal data. STSGCN (Song et al., 2020) stacks multiple localized GCN for extraction of correlations. STGODE (Fang et al., 2021) uses a tensor-based ordinary differential equation.

Z-GCNETs (Chen et al., 2021b) is GRU-based and introduces a time zigzag persistence to integrate with GCN. Others have been discussed in Section 1. Note that there are many NAS methods for pure GNN such as (Gao et al., 2019; Li et al., 2021b; Zhao et al., 2021; Wang & Zhu, 2021). These methods cannot be used directly in STGNN because of the difference in search space.

Table 3: Prediction performance comparison of different models. Bold number denotes the best and underscored number denotes the second best. Numbers in the parentheses indicate the standard deviation.

Model	PeMS03		PeMS04		PeMS07		PeMS08	
	MAE	RMSE	MAE	RMSE	MAE	RMSE	MAE	RMSE
VAR	23.65(0.00)	38.26(0.00)	23.75(0.00)	36.66(0.00)	75.63(0.00)	115.2(0.00)	23.46(0.00)	36.33(0.00)
STGCN (Yu et al., 2018)	17.49(0.46)	30.12(0.70)	22.70(0.64)	35.55(0.75)	25.38(0.49)	38.78(0.58)	18.02(0.14)	27.83(0.20)
DCRNN (Li et al., 2018)	18.18(0.15)	30.31(0.25)	24.70(0.22)	38.12(0.26)	25.30(0.52)	38.58(0.70)	17.86(0.03)	27.83(0.05)
ASTGCN (Guo et al., 2019)	17.69(1.43)	29.66(1.68)	22.93(1.29)	35.22(1.90)	28.05(2.34)	42.57(3.31)	18.61(0.40)	28.16(0.48)
STSGCN (Song et al., 2020)	17.48(0.15)	29.21(0.56)	21.19(0.10)	33.65(0.20)	24.26(0.14)	39.03(0.27)	17.13(0.09)	26.80(0.18)
AGCRN (Bai et al., 2020)	16.58(0.10)	27.48(0.14)	19.83(0.06)	32.26(0.12)	24.21(0.21)	37.66(0.24)	15.95(0.18)	25.22(0.22)
MTGNN (Wu et al., 2020)	15.23(0.03)	26.12(0.20)	19.25(0.03)	31.65(0.21)	21.28(0.11)	34.31(0.16)	15.86(0.10)	24.93(0.19)
STGODE (Fang et al., 2021)	-	-	20.84(0.00)	32.82(0.00)	-	-	16.81(0.00)	25.97(0.00)
Z-GCNETs (Chen et al., 2021b)	-	-	19.90(0.00)	32.66(0.00)	-	-	16.12(0.00)	25.74(0.00)
STFGNN (Li & Zhu, 2021)	16.77(0.09)	28.34(0.46)	19.83(0.06)	31.88(0.14)	22.07(0.11)	35.80(0.18)	16.64(0.09)	26.22(0.15)
AutoCTS (Wu et al., 2021)	14.71(0.40)	24.54(0.33)	19.13(0.21)	**30.44**(0.24)	20.93(0.35)	33.69(0.29)	14.82(0.17)	**23.64**(0.10)
RS-STGNN (ours)	**14.45**(0.10)	**24.35**(0.13)	**18.56**(0.26)	30.71(0.41)	**19.80**(0.20)	**33.03**(0.18)	**14.64**(0.10)	23.77(0.12)

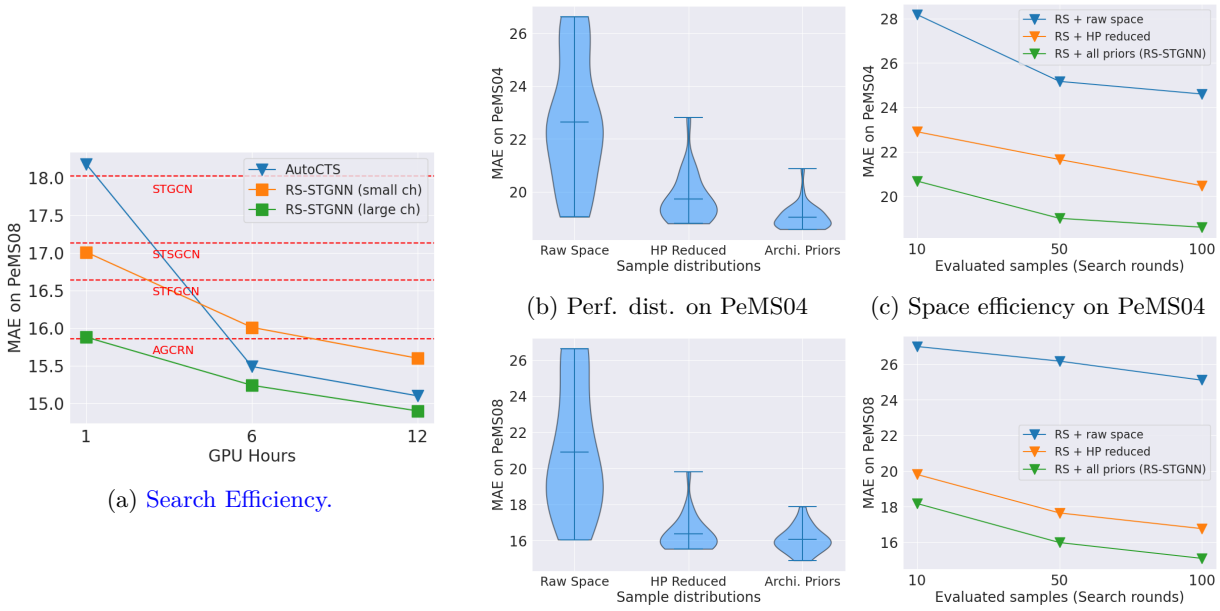
The **generalizability** of the distilled principles is demonstrated in two ways. First, in Section 4, we show at the same time empirical results on two datasets and similar principles are observed. Second, in Table 3, note that we **search only one model** and evaluate this model on more datasets covering different regions of California (Appx B) instead of searching the best model per dataset as in other NAS methods. We show further the comparison on a new and different dataset NE-BJ released by (Li et al., 2021a). The NE-BJ dataset contains traffic information in Beijing, which is totally different from commonly used California datasets. The metric is MAE and RMSE on 15 mins, 30 mins and 60 mins prediction to comprehensively evaluate the effectiveness our our model. In almost all test cases, our baseline outperforms by a large margin. The configuration of searched architecture is given in Appx E.

Table 4: Performance comparison on NE-BJ. Bold number denotes the best and underscored number denotes the second best. Instead of avearged 12 steps, we show results on 3/6/12 steps each for thoroughness.

Model	15 mins		30 mins		60 mins	
	MAE	RMSE	MAE	RMSE	MAE	RMSE
VAR	5.42	8.16	5.76	9.07	6.14	9.65
DCRNN	3.84	6.84	4.51	8.49	5.15	9.77
STGCN	5.02	8.34	5.10	8.55	5.39	**9.09**
ASTGCN	4.43	7.34	5.31	8.86	6.29	10.31
AGCRN	3.90	6.81	4.55	8.32	5.06	9.54
GMAN	4.08	7.63	4.42	8.45	**4.80**	9.18
AutoCTS	3.91	6.70	4.69	**8.21**	5.64	9.80
RS-STGNN (ours)	**3.71**	**6.69**	**4.33**	**8.21**	4.85	9.34

5.3 Search efficiency and effectiveness of space

We further demonstrate the effectiveness of our understanding on training hyperparameters and architectures in Figure 7(a-e) on two datasets. In the Figure 7(a), we evaluate the search efficiency in terms of GPU hours and compare NAS methods with hand designed results on dataset PeMS08. The orange line is our accelerated search in small channel and the green line is the same architecture as in orange line but with large channel size. The motivation and correlation of performances with different channel sizes are illustrated in Appx D. It can be found that our NAS method, though implemented with a simple random search strategy, can be very



(a) Search Efficiency.

(b) Perf. dist. on PeMS04

(c) Space efficiency on PeMS04

(d) Perf. dist. on PeMS08

(e) Space efficiency on PeMS08

Figure 7: More empirical results on the search efficiency and effectiveness of space.

efficient in terms of GPU hours. Note also that our random search baseline is straightforward to adapt on distributed systems without communication head while AutoCTS cannot easily achieve significant acceleration. In Figure 7(b)(d), we show the samples' performances in different spaces. With architecture priors and reduced hyperparameter space, the performance distribution is significantly better. In Figure 7(c)(e), we show the random search efficiency considering different priors. Both plots show the effectiveness of our understanding and concluded principles.

6 Conclusion and discussion

In this work, we revisit Spatio-Temporal Graph Neural Networks in traffic prediction to study how to properly design models in a principled way. We propose a framework that disentangles the choices into three groups: spatial/temporal module designs, spatio-temporal order and skip connection. We understand qualitatively and quantitatively the influence of each disjoint factor and conclude the principles behind the architecture design. To illustrate how these understandings could help find better STGNN models, we propose a simple strategy to efficiently and effectively search models that outperform all other works.

This work of course has limitations and could be further explored. Firstly, we limit our study scope to traffic prediction while STGNN is also used in other tasks and modalities, e.g. video action recognition, weather forecasting, etc. The STGNNs considered in other communities are not the same thus need further exploration. Besides STGNN, other neural networks might also benefit from similar cherry regions. On the other hand, we consider TCN for temporal modeling in this work due to its efficiency and flexibility in architecture design. It is also interesting to consider RNN-based or attention-based STGNN framework for a more unified understanding. Other future works include the introduction of differentiable search policy with the findings and the consideration of possible confounding factor or dependency of factors.

Broader Impact Statement

Our work does not contain potential harms to people, environment, society or any possible negative impacts listed on the TMLR Ethics Guidelines.

References

Lei Bai, Lina Yao, Can Li, Xianzhi Wang, and Can Wang. Adaptive graph convolutional recurrent network for traffic forecasting. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2020.

Peter W. Battaglia, Jessica B. Hamrick, Victor Bapst, Alvaro Sanchez-Gonzalez, Vinícius Flores Zambaldi, Mateusz Malinowski, Andrea Tacchetti, David Raposo, Adam Santoro, Ryan Faulkner, Çaglar Gülçehre, H. Francis Song, Andrew J. Ballard, Justin Gilmer, George E. Dahl, Ashish Vaswani, Kelsey R. Allen, Charles Nash, Victoria Langston, Chris Dyer, Nicolas Heess, Daan Wierstra, Pushmeet Kohli, Matthew M. Botvinick, Oriol Vinyals, Yujia Li, and Razvan Pascanu. Relational inductive biases, deep learning, and graph networks. *CoRR*, 2018.

Irwan Bello, William Fedus, Xianzhi Du, Ekin Dogus Cubuk, Aravind Srinivas, Tsung-Yi Lin, Jonathon Shlens, and Barret Zoph. Revisiting resnets: Improved training and scaling strategies. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2021a.

Irwan Bello, William Fedus, Xianzhi Du, Ekin Dogus Cubuk, Aravind Srinivas, Tsung-Yi Lin, Jonathon Shlens, and Barret Zoph. Revisiting resnets: Improved training and scaling strategies. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2021b.

Xiangning Chen, Ruochen Wang, Minhao Cheng, Xiaocheng Tang, and Cho-Jui Hsieh. Drnas: Dirichlet neural architecture search. In *International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR*, 2021a.

Yuzhou Chen, Ignacio Segovia-Dominguez, and Yulia R. Gel. Z-gcnets: Time zigzags at graph convolutional networks for time series forecasting. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2021b.

Kyunghyun Cho, Bart van Merrienboer, Dzmitry Bahdanau, and Yoshua Bengio. On the properties of neural machine translation: Encoder-decoder approaches. In *Eighth Workshop on Syntax, Semantics and Structure in Statistical Translation, SSST@EMNLP*. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2014.

Xiangxiang Chu, Zhi Tian, Yuqing Wang, Bo Zhang, Haibing Ren, Xiaolin Wei, Huaxia Xia, and Chunhua Shen. Twins: Revisiting the design of spatial attention in vision transformers. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2021.

Zhiyong Cui, Kristian Henrickson, Ruimin Ke, and Yinhai Wang. Traffic graph convolutional recurrent neural network: A deep learning framework for network-scale traffic learning and forecasting. *IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Transportation Systems*, 2020.

Moshe Eliasof, Eldad Haber, and Eran Treister. PDE-GCN: novel architectures for graph neural networks motivated by partial differential equations. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pp. 3836–3849, 2021.

Zheng Fang, Qingqing Long, Guojie Song, and Kunqing Xie. Spatial-temporal graph ODE networks for traffic flow forecasting. In *ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, 2021.

Rui Fu, Zuo Zhang, and Li Li. Using lstm and gru neural network methods for traffic flow prediction. In *Youth Academic Annual Conference of Chinese Association of Automation*, 2016.

Yang Gao, Hong Yang, Peng Zhang, Chuan Zhou, and Yue Hu. Graphnas: Graph neural architecture search with reinforcement learning. *CoRR*, abs/1904.09981, 2019.

Yury Gorishniy, Ivan Rubachev, Valentin Khrulkov, and Artem Babenko. Revisiting deep learning models for tabular data. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2021.

Shengnan Guo, Youfang Lin, Ning Feng, Chao Song, and Huaiyu Wan. Attention based spatial-temporal graph convolutional networks for traffic flow forecasting. In *Association for the Advancement of Artificial Intelligence*, 2019.

Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In *Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2016.

Renhe Jiang, Du Yin, Zhaonan Wang, Yizhuo Wang, Jiewen Deng, Hangchen Liu, Zekun Cai, Jinliang Deng, Xuan Song, and Ryosuke Shibasaki. Dl-traff: Survey and benchmark of deep learning models for urban traffic prediction. In *ACM International Conference on Information and Knowledge Management*, 2021.

Thomas N. Kipf and Max Welling. Semi-supervised classification with graph convolutional networks. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2017.

Yann LeCun, Bernhard Boser, John S Denker, Donnie Henderson, Richard E Howard, Wayne Hubbard, and Lawrence D Jackel. Backpropagation applied to handwritten zip code recognition. *Neural computation*, 1989.

Fuxian Li, Jie Feng, Huan Yan, Guangyin Jin, Depeng Jin, and Yong Li. Dynamic graph convolutional recurrent network for traffic prediction: Benchmark and solution. *CoRR*, 2021a.

Mengzhang Li and Zhanxing Zhu. Spatial-temporal fusion graph neural networks for traffic flow forecasting. In *AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2021.

Yaguang Li, Rose Yu, Cyrus Shahabi, and Yan Liu. Diffusion convolutional recurrent neural network: Data-driven traffic forecasting. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2018.

Yanxi Li, Zean Wen, Yunhe Wang, and Chang Xu. One-shot graph neural architecture search with dynamic search space. In *Thirty-Fifth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, AAAI*, pp. 8510–8517. AAAI Press, 2021b.

Hanxiao Liu, Karen Simonyan, and Yiming Yang. DARTS: differentiable architecture search. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2019.

Ilya Loshchilov and Frank Hutter. Decoupled weight decay regularization. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2019.

Attila M. Nagy and Vilmos Simon. Survey on traffic prediction in smart cities. *Pervasive and Mobile Computing*, 2018.

Zheyi Pan, Songyu Ke, Xiaodu Yang, Yuxuan Liang, Yong Yu, Junbo Zhang, and Yu Zheng. AutoSTG: Neural architecture search for predictions of spatio-temporal graph. In *The Web Conference*, 2021.

Bin Ran and David Boyce. *Modeling dynamic transportation networks: an intelligent transportation system oriented approach*. Springer Science & Business Media, 2012.

Daniel Ruffinelli, Samuel Broscheit, and Rainer Gemulla. You CAN teach an old dog new tricks! on training knowledge graph embeddings. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2020.

Franco Scarselli, Marco Gori, Ah Chung Tsoi, Markus Hagenbuchner, and Gabriele Monfardini. The graph neural network model. *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems*, 2009.

Chao Song, Youfang Lin, Shengnan Guo, and Huaiyu Wan. Spatial-temporal synchronous graph convolutional networks: A new framework for spatial-temporal network data forecasting. In *Association for the Advancement of Artificial Intelligence*, 2020.

Mingxing Tan and Quoc V. Le. Efficientnet: Rethinking model scaling for convolutional neural networks. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2019.

Leye Wang, Di Chai, Xuanzhe Liu, Liyue Chen, and Kai Chen. Exploring the generalizability of spatio-temporal traffic prediction: Meta-modeling and an analytic framework. *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering*, 2021.

Xin Wang and Wenwu Zhu. Automated machine learning on graph. In Feida Zhu, Beng Chin Ooi, and Chunyan Miao (eds.), *KDD '21: The 27th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, pp. 4082–4083. ACM, 2021.

Colin White, Arber Zela, Robin Ru, Yang Liu, and Frank Hutter. How powerful are performance predictors in neural architecture search? In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2021a.

Colin White, Arber Zela, Robin Ru, Yang Liu, and Frank Hutter. How powerful are performance predictors in neural architecture search? In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pp. 28454–28469, 2021b.

Xinle Wu, Dalin Zhang, Chenjuan Guo, Chaoyang He, Bin Yang, and Christian S. Jensen. Autocts: Automated correlated time series forecasting. *International Conference on Very Large Data Bases*, 2021.

Zonghan Wu, Shirui Pan, Guodong Long, Jing Jiang, and Chengqi Zhang. Graph wavenet for deep spatial-temporal graph modeling. In *International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2019.

Zonghan Wu, Shirui Pan, Guodong Long, Jing Jiang, Xiaojun Chang, and Chengqi Zhang. Connecting the dots: Multivariate time series forecasting with graph neural networks. In *ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, 2020.

Sirui Xie, Hehui Zheng, Chunxiao Liu, and Liang Lin. SNAS: stochastic neural architecture search. In *7th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR*. OpenReview.net, 2019.

Keyulu Xu, Chengtao Li, Yonglong Tian, Tomohiro Sonobe, Ken-ichi Kawarabayashi, and Stefanie Jegelka. Representation learning on graphs with jumping knowledge networks. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2018.

Jiaxuan You, Jure Leskovec, Kaiming He, and Saining Xie. Graph structure of neural networks. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2020a.

Jiaxuan You, Zhitao Ying, and Jure Leskovec. Design space for graph neural networks. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2020b.

Jiaxuan You, Zhitao Ying, and Jure Leskovec. Design space for graph neural networks. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2020c.

Bing Yu, Haoteng Yin, and Zhanxing Zhu. Spatio-temporal graph convolutional networks: A deep learning framework for traffic forecasting. In *International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2018.

Haiyang Yu, Zhihai Wu, Shuqin Wang, Yunpeng Wang, and Xiaolei Ma. Spatiotemporal recurrent convolutional networks for traffic prediction in transportation networks. *Sensors*, 2017.

H. Zare Moayedi and M.A. Masnadi-Shirazi. Arima model for network traffic prediction and anomaly detection. In *International Symposium on Information Technology*, 2008.

Junping Zhang, Fei-Yue Wang, Kunfeng Wang, Wei-Hua Lin, Xin Xu, and Cheng Chen. Data-driven intelligent transportation systems: A survey. *IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Transportation Systems*, 2011.

Huan Zhao, Quanming Yao, and Weiwei Tu. Search to aggregate neighborhood for graph neural network. In *37th IEEE International Conference on Data Engineering, ICDE*, pp. 552–563. IEEE, 2021.

Chuanpan Zheng, Xiaoliang Fan, Cheng Wang, and Jianzhong Qi. GMAN: A graph multi-attention network for traffic prediction. In *AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2020.