STaR: Benchmarking Spatio-Temporal Reasoning for systematic generalization

Irtaza Khalid and Steven Schockaert
School of Computer Science & Informatics
Cardiff University, UK
`{khalidmi,schockaerts1}@cardiff.ac.uk`

Abstract

Systematic generalization is the ability of a machine learning model to perform well on a family of test examples that are out-of-distribution with respect to the training examples in a systematic way. To succeed, compositionality of useful information learned from the training data is required. This is akin to system-2 like 'slow' thinking that requires piecing together knowledge from multiple smaller training instances. One well-studied problem instance is single path relational reasoning where a model is provided with small relational graphs and is tasked with prediction of the relation between the head and a target node. Crucially, this task can be solved by identifying a single resolution path between the head and the target and then composing relational rules between every pair of nodes on the path sequentially and eventually the head and target node. Previous work has shown that graph-based transformers and text-based large language models are poor on single path reasoning tasks but several rule learning or neuro-symbolic methods can solve them with near perfect accuracy. In this paper, we propose a Spatio-Temporal Reasoning benchmark (STaR) based on classic relational calculi that generalizes the single path systematic relational reasoning problem to require the aggregation of partial information from multiple paths between the head and a single target node. Our experiments demonstrate that many state-of-the-art neuro-symbolic, transformer and graph neural network based methods perform poorly on STaR. Our code and data are available at `https://github.com/erg0dic/gnn-sg`

1   Introduction

Systematic generalization (SG) is the ability of a model trained on small training instances to be able to successfully infer larger test instances via composition of the information obtained from multiple training instances [9]. Leveraging *compositionality*, i.e., combining small bits of information to produce unbounded lengths of longer valid sequences is at the heart of SG and is an essential ingredient for machines and humans to generalize from a limited amount of data [13]. This is not unlike the system-2-esque, slow and deliberate reasoning that humans perform when faced with situations requiring logical solutions [6].

However, many machine learning models including transformers [24, 8] struggle on SG tasks [11, 12]. This has been attributed to models exploiting statistical artefacts in the training and test data [25] which leads to a significant drop in performance when the generation process of the test instances is altered slightly. Furthermore, large language models have shown impressive reasoning abilities, but this is often due to the presence of similar problem instances in their training data that the model memorizes [10]. When exposed to problems that require some form of generalization of the underlying reasoning principles, their performance also collapses [7, 23] and leads to surprising brittleness in performance to trivial permutations of the input ('a is b to b is a') [3].

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Figure 1: Left: A (single) relational path reasoning problem over family relations taken from CLUTRR [21] Right: A multipath reasoning problem over the RCC-8 relations where each path provides partial (disjunctive) information and the target label is obtained by combining information from paths P_1, P_2 and P_3.

In this paper, we propose a novel Spatio-Temporal Reasoning benchmark (STaR) that measures the relational systematic generalization ability of a machine learning model on synthetic graph data generated from the spatio-temporal relational calculi [1, 5]. It measures SG along two axes:

1. Number of information paths b: Each path carries partial information which needs to aggregated over all paths.
2. Path length k. Each information path is comprised of k inference hops from the head to the target node and a single hop requires relational composition between two neighbouring nodes.

Our approach generates test graphs that are synthetic, computationally efficient to generate, and diverse so that it becomes combinatorially unlikely for any model to have seen or memorized them in some sense for large b, k. We demonstrate results on STaR for various machine learning architectures and highlight their shortcomings in handling the new generalized relational reasoning setting.

2 Related work

Existing benchmarks for systematic relational reasoning like CLUTRR [21], Graphlog [22], Addition [18], SCAN [12] and LEGO [26] mostly only consider varying the difficulty with respect to path or sequence length k. These prove challenging for most machine learning models including large language models [27]. Neuro-symbolic methods that are able to learn single path dependent composable rules are expected to and do well on these tasks [17, 16, 4] but make strong assumptions that do not always hold e.g. over-reliance on a single relational path.

STaR goes further than existing SG reasoning benchmarks on three fronts: i) the need to go beyond Horn rules (see below (1)) to capture relational compositions; ii) requiring models to aggregate information multiple relational paths iii) the possiblity to encounter many novel graph topologies at test time. A contrast with CLUTRR is illustrated in Figure 1.

3 Systematic Spatio-Temporal Reasoning benchmark

We focus on the problem of reasoning about binary relations. We assume that a set $\mathcal{F}$ of facts is given, referring to a set of relations $\mathcal{R}$ and a set of entities $\mathcal{E}$. Each of these facts is an *atom* of the form $r(a, b)$, with $r \in \mathcal{R}$ and $a, b \in \mathcal{E}$. Note that the set of rules $\mathcal{K}$ is not given. We instead have access to a number of fact sets $\mathcal{F}_i$, together with examples of atoms $r(a, b)$ which can be inferred from these fact graphs and atoms which cannot. To be successful, the model must essentially learn the rules from $\mathcal{K}$, and the considered model must be capable of composing the learned rules in a systematic way to unseen instances.

3.1 Generalizing the Horn rule

The most commonly studied setting concerns Horn rules of the following form ($n \geq 3$):

$$r(X_1, X_n) \leftarrow r_1(X_1, X_2) \wedge \ldots \wedge r_{n-1}(X_{n-1}, X_n) \tag{1}$$

where X_i are variables.

This rule uniquely determine the relationship between two variable entities X_1 and X_n, given knowledge about the intermediate entities X_i. In many settings, however, such knowledge might not be sufficient for completely characterising the relationship between X_1 and X_n. Domain knowledge might then be expressed using disjunctive rules of the following form:

$$s_1(X_1, X_n) \vee \ldots \vee s_k(X_1, X_n) \leftarrow r_1(X_1, X_2) \wedge \ldots \wedge r_{k'}(X_{n-1}, X_n) \tag{2}$$

In other words, suppose $k' = 2$, if we know that $r_1(X, Y)$ and $r_2(Y, Z)$ hold for some entities X, Y, Z, then all we can infer is that one of the relations $s_1, \ldots, s_k$ must hold between X and Z.

3.2 Relation Calculi

The spatial component of STaR comes from the Region Connection Calculus, RCC-8 [19] that uses eight primitive relations to describe qualitative spatial relationships between regions: $\mathsf{ntpp}(a, b)$ means that a is a proper part of the interior of b, $\mathsf{tpp}(a, b)$ means that a is a proper part of b and shares a boundary point with b, $\mathsf{po}(a, b)$ means that a and b are overlapping (but neither is included in the other), $\mathsf{dc}(a, b)$ means that a and b are disjoint, $\mathsf{ec}(a, b)$ means that a and b are adjacent (i.e. sharing a boundary point but no interior points), $\mathsf{eq}(a, b)$ means that a and b are equal, and ntppi and tppi are the inverses of ntpp and tpp. The RCC-8 semantics is governed by the so-called composition table, which describes the composition mapping between two relations. This is shown in Table 1 where the trivial composition with the identity element eq being itself is dropped. Each entry in this table corresponds to a rule of the form (2), specifying the possible relations that may hold between two regions a and c, when we know the RCC-8 relation that holds between a and some region b as well as the relation that holds between b and c. For instance, the composition of ec and tppi is given by the set $\{\mathsf{dc}, \mathsf{ec}\}$, which means that from $\{\mathsf{ec}(a, b), \mathsf{tppi}(b, c)\}$ we can infer $\mathsf{dc}(a, c) \vee \mathsf{ec}(a, c)$. In the table, we write $\mathcal{R}_8$ to denote that any RCC-8 relation is possible.

The temporal component of STaR is based on Allen's interval algebra [1]. Similar to RCC-8, the interval algebra uses 13 primitive relations to describe qualitative temporal relationships. The interval algebra captures all possible relationships between two time intervals. Similar to the RCC-8 relations, these are binary relations defined as follows: $<(a, b)$ means that the time interval a precedes the time interval b; $\mathsf{d}(a, b)$ means that a occurs during b; $\mathsf{o}(a, b)$ means that a overlaps with b; $\mathsf{m}(a, b)$ means that a meets b (a ends exactly before b starts); $\mathsf{s}(a, b)$ means that a starts b (a and b share a starting time); $\mathsf{f}(a, b)$ means that a finishes b (a and b share a finishing time); $=(a, b)$ means that a equals b (the starting and finishing times for both are the same implying the intervals are the same); and finally $>, \mathsf{di}, \mathsf{oi}, \mathsf{mi}, \mathsf{si}, \mathsf{fi}$ are the inverses of the respective operations defined previously. The composition table for all the primitive interval relations is shown in Table 2.

3.3 Data Generation

All sampling in the discussion below is uniform random. Each problem instance has to be constructed such that after aggregating the information provided by all the relational paths, we need to be able to infer a singleton label. In other words, problem instances need to be consistent (i.e. the information provided by different paths cannot be conflicting) and together all the paths need to be informative enough to uniquely determine which relation holds between the head and tail entity. This makes brute-force sampling of problem instances prohibitive. Instead, to create a problem instance involving b paths of length k, we first sample a base graph, which has b shorter paths, with a length in $\{2, 3, 4\}$. This is done by pre-computing relational compositions for a large number of paths and then selecting b paths whose intersection is a singleton. Then we repeatedly increase the length of the paths by selecting an edge and replacing it by a short path whose composition is equal to the corresponding relation. Finally, to add further diversity to the graph topology, for each of the b paths, we allow 1 edge from the base graph to be replaced by a subgraph (rather than a path), where this subgraph is generated using the same procedure. Note that the final path count b then includes the paths from this subgraph as well. Detailed steps and examples are in A.1.

3.4 Ensuring path consistency within the dataset

We ensure that all relational paths in a problem instance in the generated dataset do not informationally conflict with each other by using the DPC+ algorithm [15]. It efficiently computes directional path

Figure 2: STaR results for the RCC-8 and Interval Algebra (accuracy). R5 results for 5+ hops were set to zero since the model took longer than 30 minutes for inference. The best model for all cases is the Edge Transformer although its performance also significantly decreases after the number of reasoning paths is increased from $b = 1$ to $b = 3$ for path lengths greater than $k \leq 4$ that are seen during training.

consistency, i.e. $X_{ij} \subseteq X_{ik} \diamond X_{kj} \forall i, j \leq k$, for qualitative constraint networks that we can transform our graph instances to. Directional path consistency is sufficient as a test for global path consistency for networks with singleton edge labels [14].

4   Results

We consider the following baselines: the state-of-the-art (SOTA) neuro-symbolic methods on CLUTRR: R5, a Monte-Carlo Tree search equipped with a dynamic rule memory [16], NCRL a neural compositional rule learner with recurrent attention [4]; the Edge Transformer, that employs a triangular attention on Graph edges and is the strongest non-neuro-symbolic baseline on CLUTRR [2], NBFNet [28] and Relational graph convolutional network [20] which are strong baselines for knowledge graph completion tasks. Performance of these models on STaR is shown in figure 2. Models are trained on graphs with $b \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ paths of length $k \in \{2, 3, 4\}$. Unsurprisingly, the RCC-8 spatial reasoning task which has fewer relations than the temporal version (8 as opposed to 13) is easier for all models. However, the generalized path requirement of STaR, and over-reliance on single paths, proves noticeably challenging for the neuro-symbolic methods like NCRL and R5 than the rest as they can't even fit to the training distribution $k, b \leq 4$. The statistical models (e.g. NBFNet) are able to solve these tasks perfectly as they don't rely on single path sampling but they fail to generalize as the test data goes out-of-distribution especially for $k > 7, b > 2$.

5   Conclusion

We have proposed a novel synthetic Spatial-Temporal Reasoning (STaR) benchmark for evaulating system-2-esque systematic generalization abilities of general machine learning models. The benchmark is challenging for rule learners as well transformers and requires multi-path relational reasoning as opposed to single path resolution. Our proposed framework is still limited by its statistical nature, where the parameters of the model will inevitably be biased by training data artefacts. Excelling on the proposed benchmarks while significantly increasing the likelihood will not sufficiently guarantee that a model systematically generalizes and it could still be exploiting statistical artefacts e.g. memorizing training data or exploiting artefacts in the test distribution family.

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A Appendix

A.1 Detailed data generation information

The spatial reasoning component of the Spatio-Temporal Reasoning (STaR) benchmark is based on Region Connection Calculus (RCC-8) whose generating composition table is given by Table 1 with the 8 regional relations described in the main text. An example from the RCC-8 spatial reasoning graph collection with $b = 6$ paths from the source node 0 to the target node 17. Each path has a length of $k = 3$ where k is the number of hops or edges from the node 0 to node 17. The graph has to be collapsed into the single relation $\mathtt{ntpp}(0, 17)$ using information from all the paths. The data generation process is described in more detail below:

1. **Sample short paths:** Randomly sample $n = 100\,000$ paths of length $k \in \{2, 3, 4\}$ and compute their composition. Note that this sampling is done with replacement to avoid uniqueness upper bounds for small graphs.

2. **Generate base graphs:** Generate the desired number of b-path base graphs, by selecting paths that were generated in step 1. Each individual path typically composes to a set of relations, but the graphs are constructed such that the intersection of these sets, across all b paths, produces a singleton target label.

3. **Recursive edge expansion:** Randomly pick an edge from a path that does not yet have the required length k. Select a path from step 1 which composes to a singleton, corresponding to the relation that is associated with the chosen edge. Replace the edge with this path.

4. **Recursive subgraph expansion:** Rather than replacing an edge with a path, we can also replace it with a subgraph. As candidate subgraphs, we use the base graphs from step 2 with at most $\lfloor \frac{b}{2} \rfloor$ paths.

5. Keep repeating steps 2 and 3 until we have the desired number paths b with the desired length of k, with the restriction that step 3 is applied at most once to each path from the initial base graph.

The temporal reasoning is prescribed by the Allen Interval algebra with 13 temporal relations described in the main text. Its composition table is provided in Table 2. Examples illustrating the rich topology of the graphs from the benchmarks for some path count b and path length k are shown in figures 4 and 5.

Table 1: Region Connection Calculus (RCC-8) composition table [5] (excluding eq).

	dc	ec	po	tpp	ntpp	tppi	ntppi
dc	$\mathcal{R}_8$	dc, ec, po, tpp, ntpp	dc, ec, po, tpp, ntpp	dc, ec, po, tpp, ntpp	dc, ec, po, tpp, ntpp	dc	dc
ec	dc, ec, po, tppi, ntppi	dc, ec, po, tpp, tppi, eq	dc, ec, po, tpp, ntpp	ec, po, tpp, ntpp	po, tpp, ntpp	dc, ec	dc
po	dc, ec, po, tppi, ntppi	dc, ec, po, tppi, ntppi	$\mathcal{R}_8$	po, tpp, ntpp	po, tpp, ntpp	dc, ec, po, tppi, ntppi	dc, ec, po, tppi, ntppi
tpp	dc	dc, ec	dc, ec, po, tpp, ntpp	tpp, ntpp	ntpp	dc, ec, po, tpp, tppi, eq	dc, ec, po, tppi, ntppi
ntpp	dc	dc	dc, ec, po, tpp, ntpp	ntpp	ntpp	dc, ec, po, tpp, ntpp	$\mathcal{R}_8$
tppi	dc, ec, po, tppi, ntppi	ec, po, tppi, ntppi	po, tppi, ntppi	po, eq, tpp, tppi	po, tpp, ntpp	tppi, ntppi	ntppi
ntppi	dc, ec, po, tppi, ntppi	po, tppi, ntppi	po, tppi, ntppi	po, tppi, ntppi	po, tppi, tpp, ntpp, ntppi, eq	ntppi	ntppi

Figure 3: An example from the RCC-8 spatial reasoning graph collection.

Table 2: Allen's interval algebra composition table [1] excluding the trivial composition with =.

	<	>	d	di	o	oi	m	mi	s	si	f	fi
<	<		<, o, m, d, s	<	<	<, o, m, d, s	<	<, o, m, d, s	<	<	<, o, m, d, s	<
>		>	>, oi, mi, d, f	>	>, oi, mi, d, f	>	>, oi, mi, d, f	>	>, oi, mi, d, f	>	>	>
d	<	>	d		<, o, m, d, s	>, oi, mi, d, f	<	>	d	>, oi, mi, d, f	d	<, o, m, d, s
di	<, o, m, di, fi	>, oi, di, mi, si	o, oi, d, s, f, di, si, fi, =	di	o, di, fi	oi, di, si	o, di, fi	oi, di, si	o, di, fi	di	oi, di, si	di
o	<	>, oi, di, mi, si	o, d, s	<, o, m, di, fi	<, o, m	o, oi, d, s, f, di, si, fi, =	<	oi, di, si	o	o, di, fi	o, d, s	<, o, m
oi	<, o, m, di, fi	>	oi, d, f	>, oi, mi, di, si	o, oi, d, di, s, si, f, fi, =	>, oi, mi	o, di, fi	>	oi, d, f	oi, >, mi	oi	oi, di, si
m	<	>, oi, di, mi, si	o, d, s	<	<	o, d, s	<	f, fi, =	m	m	d, s, o	<
mi	<, o, m, di, fi	>	oi, d, f	>	oi, d, f	>	s, si, =	>	d, f, oi	>	mi	mi
s	<	>	d	<, o, m, di, fi	<, o, m	oi, d, f	<	mi	s	s, si, =	d	<, m, o
si	<, o, m, di, fi	>	oi, d, f	di	o, di, fi	oi	o, di, fi	mi	s, si, =	si	oi	di
f	<	>	d	>, oi, mi, di, si	o, d, s	>, oi, mi	m	>	d	>, oi, mi	f	f, fi, =
fi	<	>, oi, di, mi, si	o, d, s	di	o	oi, di, si	m	si, oi, di	o	di	f, fi, =	fi

A.2 Additional experimental details

We now present further details of the experimental set-up, the dataset statistics and training details.

(a) $k = 2, b = 1$ (b) $k = 2, b = 2$ (c) $k = 2, b = 3$

(d) $k = 4, b = 1$ (e) $k = 4, b = 2$ (f) $k = 4, b = 3$

(g) $k = 6, b = 1$ (h) $k = 6, b = 3$

Figure 4: Some graph instances for the RCC-8 dataset generated using the procedure described in A.1. The graph topology becomes more diverse for the test instances when sub-graphs are embedded within a single path, as shown in (g) for path length $k − 6$ and number of paths $b = 1$. In this particular case, there are two sub-graphs that have been embedded in the graph by replacing two edges. Instances of the type shown in (a), (b), (c), (d), (e), (f) are used in the training set and the graph topology is fixed in this case. The target edge label between the source node and the tail node that needs to be predicted by the model is indicated by the dotted line.

Figure 5: Graph instances for the interval dataset generated using the procedure described in A.1. We highlight the rich variation in the topology of the graph instance for path length $k = 6$ and number of paths $b = 3$ in (h) by contrasting it with a similar graph instance for the RCC-8 dataset shown in Figure 4(h). The target edge label between the source node and the tail node that needs to be predicted by the model is indicated by the dotted line.

A.2.1 Dataset statistics

STaR is the Spatio-Temporal Reasoning benchmark that we introduce in this paper, as described in Section A.1. We release this benchmark under a CC-BY 4.0 license.

Dataset statistics for STaR are reported in table 3. We use a standard 80-20 split for training and validation.

Table 3: Data statistics of the STaR benchmark

Name	Training regime	No. of relations	# Train	# Test	Test regime
RCC-8	$b \in \{1, 2, 3\}, k \in \{2, 3\}$	8	57,600	153,600	$b \in \{1, 2, 3\}, k \in \{2, \ldots, 9\}$
IA	$b \in \{1, 2, 3\}, k \in \{2, 3\}$	13	57,600	153,600	$b \in \{1, 2, 3\}, k \in \{2, \ldots, 9\}$

A.2.2 Baselines

We consider the following neuro-symbolic methods:

R5 This model [16] learns symbolic rules of the form $r(X, Z) \leftarrow r_1(X, Y) \wedge r_2(Y, Z)$, with the possibility of using invented predicates in the head. To make a prediction, the method then samples (or enumerates) simple paths between the head and tail entities and iteratively applies the learned rules to reduce these paths to a single relation. The order in which relations are composed is determined by Monte Carlo Tree Search.

NCRL Neural Compositional Rule Learning [4] also samples relational paths between the head and tail entities, and iteratively reduces them by composing 2 relations at a time, similar to R5. However, in this case, the choice of the two relations to compose in each step are determined by a Recurrent Neural Network. Moreover, rather than learning symbolic rules, the rules are learned implicitly by using an attention mechanism to compose relations. Both R5 and NCRL implicitly make the assumption that the relational reasoning problem is about predicting the target relation from a single relational path, and that this prediction can be done by repeatedly applying Horn rules.

The following transformer [24] variant is also a natural baseline:

ET Edge Transformers [2] modify the transformer architecture by using an attention mechanism that is designed to simulate relational composition. In particular, the embeddings are interpreted as representations of edges in a graph. To update the representation of an edge (a, c) the model selects pairs of edges $(a, x), (x, b)$ and composes their embeddings. These compositions are aggregated using an attention mechanism, similar as in the standard transformer architecture.

We also compare against several GNN models:

R-GCN Relational GCNs [20] are a variant of GCNs in which messages are computed using a relation-specific linear transformation. This is similar in spirit to how we compute messages in our framework, but without the inductive bias that comes from treating embeddings as probability distributions over primitive relation types.

NBFNet Neural Bellman-Ford Networks [28] model the relationship between a designated head entity and the other entities from a given graph. Our model employs essentially the same strategy to use GNNs for relation classification, which is to learn entity embeddings that capture the relationship with the head entity rather than the entities themselves. The main difference between NBFnet and our model comes from the additional inductive bias that our model is adding.

A.2.3 Training details

All experiments were conducted using a single RTX 4090 NVIDIA GPU with most models finishing training in under 30 minutes except R5 that took over 3 hours to train and up to 30 minutes for inference.

Hyperparameter settings All models reported in the paper are used with the hyperparameter tuned configurations of the respective authors.