
SITUATEDGEN: Incorporating Geographical and Temporal Contexts into Generative Commonsense Reasoning

Yunxiang Zhang
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, USA
yunxiang@umich.edu

Xiaojun Wan
Peking University
Beijing, China
wanxiaojun@pku.edu.cn

Abstract

Recently, commonsense reasoning in text generation has attracted much attention. Generative commonsense reasoning is the task that requires machines, given a group of keywords, to compose a single coherent sentence with commonsense plausibility. While existing datasets targeting generative commonsense reasoning focus on everyday scenarios, it is unclear how well machines reason under specific geographical and temporal contexts. We formalize this challenging task as SITUATEDGEN, where machines with commonsense should generate a pair of contrastive sentences given a group of keywords including geographical or temporal entities. We introduce a corresponding English dataset consisting of 8,268 contrastive sentence pairs, which are built upon several existing commonsense reasoning benchmarks with minimal manual labor. Experiments show that state-of-the-art generative language models struggle to generate sentences with commonsense plausibility and still lag far behind human performance. Our dataset is publicly available at https://github.com/yunx-z/situated_gen.

1 Introduction

In recent years, there has been substantial growth in new benchmarks evaluating commonsense reasoning for natural language processing (NLP) models, especially large-scale Pretrained Language Models (PLMs). Most existing commonsense reasoning benchmarks adopt natural language *understanding* formats due to easy evaluation (e.g., accuracy), including multiple-choice question answering [44, 41, 20, 24], natural language inference [4], and detecting true/false statements [33, 43]. However, datasets measuring commonsense knowledge in natural language *generation* are still relatively scarce. We aim to fill this research gap with a novel benchmark since real-world users of NLP systems would expect the generated outputs from LMs to be not only grammatically correct but also adhere to commonsense knowledge.

COMMONGEN [25], a generative commonsense reasoning challenge, has attracted wide attention recently. Given a set of keywords (e.g., {dog, frisbee, catch, throw}), the task requires models to compose a plausible sentence describing everyday scenario using all the provided keywords (e.g., “*The dog catches the frisbee when the boy throws it.*”). While COMMONGEN focuses on social and physical commonsense in everyday life, it is unclear how well current commonsense generation models reason with factual knowledge about specific entities, which is referred to as *entity commonsense* [33]. In this work, we mainly consider geographical and temporal entities, as they provide extra-linguistic contexts [52] for commonsense reasoning and appear in a significant proportion of existing commonsense benchmarks (Section 4.2). To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to incorporate these situations into generative commonsense reasoning.

Furthermore, we argue that geographical and temporal contexts are important for commonsense reasoning. On the one hand, basic knowledge about geography and time is part of human commonsense [1, 6], such as “*Earth rotates on its axis once in 24 hours.*” On the other hand, certain types of commonsense knowledge are correlated with specific situations [50]. For example, “*July is summer*” is true for people living in the northern hemisphere, while those living in the southern hemisphere would agree that “*July is winter*”.

Our proposed task SITUATEDGEN (**Situated Generative Commonsense Reasoning**) requires the machines to generate a pair of contrastive sentences (formally speaking, *antithesis*) with commonsense plausibility, given a group of keywords including geographical or temporal entities. For example, when provided with [July, United States, winter, Australia, summer, July], a reasonable output could be “*July is summer in the United States. July is winter in Australia.*”, while a slightly different version “*July is summer in Australia. July is winter in the United States.*” does not adhere to commonsense.

The main challenge for machines to solve the SITUATEDGEN task lies in *situated semantic matching*. In order to generate a pair of contrastive sentences, machines need to split the keywords into two groups (either explicitly or implicitly) based on geographical/temporal relevance and perform relational reasoning [31] within/between the keyword groups.

To study the challenging SITUATEDGEN task, we construct a corresponding large-scale English dataset containing 8,268 pairs of situated commonsense statements. We design an automatic pipeline to collect data at scale with quality assurance and minimal human annotation efforts. Concretely, we derive commonsense statements with geographical or temporal contexts from existing commonsense benchmarks and mine contrastive sentence pairs based on entity-masked sentence similarity. We further manually filter out invalid examples in the test set to ensure the evaluation soundness. To assess the difficulty of our dataset, we conduct automatic evaluations on various generative (large) language models, including BART [22], T5 [39], and InstructGPT [34]. Results show these models lag far behind human performance, indicating that current models struggle to generate sentences adhering to commonsense under the SITUATEDGEN setting. We believe that SITUATEDGEN could serve as a complement to COMMONGEN and enrich the resource for evaluating constrained commonsense text generation in a more realistic setting.

The contributions of this work are three-fold:

- **Task.** We incorporate geographical and temporal contexts into generative commonsense reasoning and propose a novel task SITUATEDGEN.
- **Resource.** We construct a large-scale dataset in a non-trivial way to facilitate the studies of situated generative commonsense reasoning. The dataset is released and will contribute to the commonsense reasoning community.
- **Evaluation.** We benchmark the performance of state-of-the-art generative language models on our dataset and demonstrate the difficulty of the task with a significant gap between machine and human performance.

2 Related Work

Constrained Commonsense Text Generation. Constrained Commonsense Text Generation [5] requires PLMs to generate commonsense text subject to a set of constraints. Commonsense generation models are currently evaluated by three tasks. First, COMMONSENSE EXPLANATION aims to generate an explanation for why a model selects a candidate answer to a given question. Second, α NLG [4] is another commonsense generation task. The artificial intelligence models are provided with two observations in chronological order and need to generate a plausible hypothesis/explanation describing what happened between the observations. Third, in COMMONGEN [25], models should compose a plausible sentence describing everyday scenarios using all the provided concepts. This task has attracted much attention recently, and researchers advance machine performance on the dataset with contrastive learning [23], prototype editing [28], scene knowledge graph [47], etc. Our proposed task differs from these tasks with a focus on composing a *pair* of contrastive sentences instead of a *single* sentence and incorporating extra-linguistic contexts.

NLP Benchmarks with Geographical and Temporal Contexts. There are many emerging benchmarks in NLP that incorporate extra-linguistic contexts such as geographical and temporal contexts. `TEMPLAMA` [15] and `GEOMLAMA` [49] probe language models with masked text prompts to query geographical and temporal knowledge. In question answering, `MCTACO` [54], `TORQUE` [32] and `TIMEQA` [9] contains challenging questions involving temporal commonsense reasoning over the duration, frequency, temporal order, and other various aspects of events. `SITUATEDQA` [52] is made up of open-domain questions whose answers vary across different geographical and temporal contexts. `TIMEDIAL` [38] studies temporal reasoning in dialogues with a multiple-choice cloze task. In vision-and-language tasks, `GD-VCR` [50] and `MaRVL` [27] aim to collect commonsense questions and statements that are visually grounded and geographically diverse. Previous work mainly focuses on how well language models trained on a specific snapshot of corpus can adapt to different contexts. While our dataset `SITUATEDGEN` also considers such geographical and temporal contexts in language, we probe LMs for a new skill of reasoning for the commonsense relationship among extra-linguistic contexts. We also choose a different task format of generative commonsense reasoning, pioneered by [25], as it focuses on the commonsense reasoning capabilities of generative models rather than NLU models, which is under-researched by the community.

3 Task Definitions and Challenges

We use antithesis generation for evaluating generative commonsense reasoning under extra-linguistic contexts. In this section, we first introduce the definitions of our proposed task, followed by an analysis of the main challenges.

3.1 Definitions

Antithesis. Antithesis refers to a figure of speech that expresses an opposition of ideas with a parallel grammatical structure of words, clauses, or sentences [29, 8]. An example of antithesis could be Neil Armstrong’s famous quote “*That’s one small step for a man, one giant leap for mankind*”. In this work, we adopt a narrow sense of sentence-level antithesis, which means that two simple sentences with similar syntactic structures create a contradiction in semantics. Intuitively, the qualifying two sentences can be connected into a coherent sentence via conjunction words such as “while”, “yet”, and “whereas” (e.g., “*July is summer in the United States, while July is winter in Australia.*”). We emphasize commonsense plausibility rather than the rhetorical effect of antithesis within the scope of this paper.

Extra-Linguistic Contexts. Following [52], we focus on two context types: geographical (`GEO`) and temporal (`TEMP`). `GEO` defines each context value as a geopolitical entity (“`GPE`”). `TEMP` defines each context value as timestamp (“`DATE`”, “`TIME`”, “`EVENT`”).

Contextual Dependence. We define that a contrastive sentence pair is *context-dependent* if swapping any of the `GEO` or `TEMP` entities between the two sentences could lead to a contradiction with commonsense yet grammatical correctness. For example, for the sentence pair “*July is summer in China. July is winter in Australia.*”, if the two `GEO` entities “China” and “Australia” are swapped, the resulting sentences do not adhere to commonsense anymore: “*July is summer in Australia. July is winter in China.*” This indicates that they are context-dependent.

Contextual dependence is crucial for a proper evaluation of the generation results. Because sentence pairs that do not satisfy context dependence may have multiple valid answers (swapping the entity words leads to an extra correct answer), the metrics introduced in Section 6 cannot make a sound evaluation with only a single reference.

Situated Generative Commonsense Reasoning. We modify the mathematical formulation of the task `COMMONGEN` to define `SITUATEDGEN`. The input of the task is a multiset¹ consisting of k keywords $x = [c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k] \in \mathcal{X}$, where each keyword $c_i \in \mathcal{C}$ is a noun or entity, a single word or phrase. We denote \mathcal{X} as all possible combinations of keywords and \mathcal{C} as the vocabulary of keywords.

¹Multiset is a set that allows multiple instances for each of its elements.

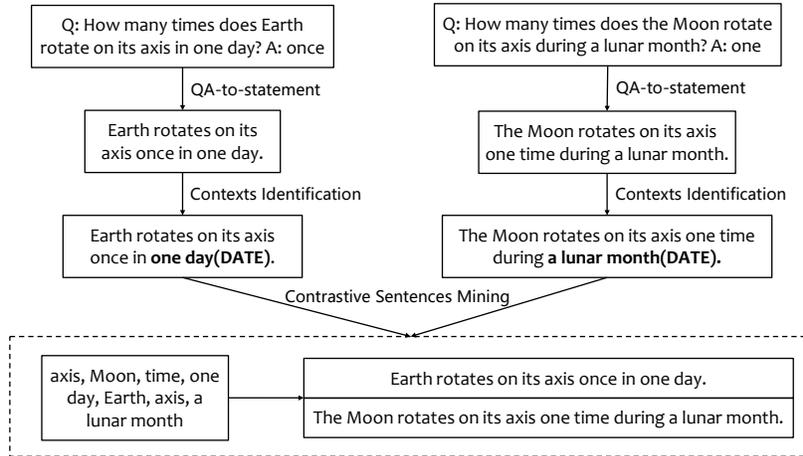


Figure 1: An overview of data collection pipeline. Inside the dotted box is a final example in the dataset.

Keywords in x should contain at least two GEO or TEMP entities of the same type and two other keywords².

The output of the task is an unordered pair of coherent and plausible sentences $y = \{s_1, s_2\} \in \mathcal{Y}$ that satisfies the following conditions: 1) the sentence pair includes all keywords in x ; 2) each sentence has at least one GEO or TEMP keyword; 3) each sentence is geographical-temporal-semanticly correct; 4) s_1 and s_2 form a pair of contrastive sentences, or antithesis; 5) s_1 and s_2 are context-dependent. The goal of the task is to learn a function $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ that maps a group of keywords x to a pair of sentences y .

3.2 Challenges: Situated Semantic Matching

As the goal of our task is to generate a pair of sentences instead of a single sentence, machines need to explicitly or implicitly classify the keywords into two subgroups based on their geographical and temporal semantic relevance, so as to generate one commonsense sentence with each subgroup. For example, given [July, China, winter, Australia, summer, July], the resulting keyword subgroups should be {July, China, summer} and {July, winter, Australia}.

During the process of keyword grouping and matching, machines need to make connections among keyword concepts with relational reasoning [31] over factual knowledge about these nouns and entities, a.k.a. *entity knowledge* [52], such as geographical location, temporal order, physical rules, social customs, etc. The matching process is important since wrong grouping results will lead to generated sentences without commonsense plausibility³.

We require that the two sentences should have similar syntactic structures and express similar relationships (e.g., “ X lives in Y ”). This is important for securing the difficulty of the task as it prevents models from learning shortcuts [18, 45] to group keywords based on trivial syntactic (e.g., POS tag of the word) and semantic (e.g., two different kinds of relationship) information. For example, if the two sentences have different syntactic structures (e.g. “ X lives in Y ” and “ Z eats W ”), then the model could simply put a city name in Y and a food name in W for keyword grouping and ignore the commonsense connection with X/Z . This type of shortcut reduces the task difficulty.

²We do not explicitly provide the types of keywords in our dataset. The models are expected to infer which keyword is GEO or TEMP if needed.

³We note that under certain circumstances, wrong grouping results might produce correct answers via negative sentences. For example, the machine could generate “*July is not summer in Australia*” with {July, Australia, summer}. However, we observe that these are rare scenarios in our datasets, so we do not consider their confusing effects in our study.

4 Dataset Collection

To study the SITUATEDGEN challenge, we construct a large-scale English dataset. We design a pipeline to collect high-quality data at scale with minimal manual annotation efforts. Figure 1 illustrates the overall pipeline for dataset collection, which consists of three steps:

1. **QA-to-statement.** Converting question-answer pairs of existing commonsense question answering benchmarks into corresponding statements.
2. **Contexts Identification.** Identifying all entities in a statement with a NER tagger and removing those statements without GEO and TEMP entities.
3. **Contrastive Sentences Mining.** Automatically mining contrastive sentence pairs (antithesis) from the remaining commonsense statements based on entity-masked sentence similarity.

4.1 QA-to-Statement

Our dataset is composed of commonsense statements, which are simple sentences describing commonsense knowledge, e.g., “*You would find many canals in Venice.*” In recent years, numerous commonsense reasoning benchmarks have been proposed and they form a potentially available commonsense knowledge base with high quality and diverse content. Inspired by recent benchmarks that are sourced from existing datasets [52, 37], we aim to extract commonsense statements from these commonsense benchmarks. We assume that the knowledge in these commonsense benchmarks is *actually* commonsense instead of encyclopedic knowledge, though they might not be shared locally in certain groups of people due to a lack of geographical diversity. That being said, we adopt and follow the concept of “commonsense” widely used in existing works.

We conduct a holistic study of commonsense reasoning datasets to date and select five different data sources after considering their size, annotation quality, and reasoning difficulty. They are CREAK [33], StrategyQA [17], CommonsenseQA [44], ARC [11] and OpenbookQA [30], respectively. We briefly introduce the nature of each dataset in Appendix A.1. Since the raw data come in different formats such as multiple-choice questions and Yes/No questions, we apply a specific preprocessing method for each dataset to transform them (i.e., question-answer pairs) into statements. The transformation details are also included in Appendix A.1. In general, we collected 35,997 commonsense statements from the five source datasets (statistics in Table 1).

4.2 Contexts Identification

We now filter out commonsense statements without geographical or temporal contexts. Following [52], we identify sentences with extra-linguistic contexts by GEO and TEMP entities. We use FLERT⁴ [42], a named entity recognition (NER) model, to extract all entities from a sentence and remove those statements without any GEO (“GPE”) or TEMP (“DATE”, “TIME”, “EVENT”) entities.

Table 1 shows that of all the commonsense statements extracted from the five source datasets, 6.6% sentences have GEO contexts and 5.5% have TEMP contexts, which we count as a significant proportion. Finally, we obtain 4,038 (11.2%) commonsense statements with extra-linguistic contexts.

4.3 Contrastive Sentences Mining

We aim to automatically mine contrastive sentence pairs from the commonsense statement corpus. Antithesis mining has not been studied in the existing literature, so we propose a pilot algorithm. We observe that after removing keywords from contrastive sentences, the remaining parts are very similar since antithesis sentences have parallel syntactic structures [8]. Based on this observation, we design the antithesis mining algorithm illustrated in Figure 2 consisting of three steps:

1. **Keyword Masking.** We extract all entities and other nouns as keywords in the sentence and replace each keyword with a [UNK] token, telling the pretrained language models to neglect the meaning of these keywords.

⁴<https://huggingface.co/flair/ner-english-ontonotes-large>

Table 1: Statistics of contexts identification results. “Sent” means the commonsense statements collected in Section 4.1. “GEO”/“TEMP” refer to statements with *only* geographical/temporal entities. “GEO & TEMP” refers to statements with *both* geographical and temporal entities. “Valid Sent” means the commonsense statements with GEO or TEMP contexts.

Dataset	# Sent	# GEO	# TEMP	# GEO & TEMP	# Valid Sent
CREAK	5,779	868	552	153	1,573
StrategyQA	4,976	501	366	86	953
CommonsenseQA	10,962	487	215	12	714
ARC	7,787	165	426	52	643
OpenbookQA	6,493	31	119	5	155
Total	35,997	2,052	1,678	308	4,038

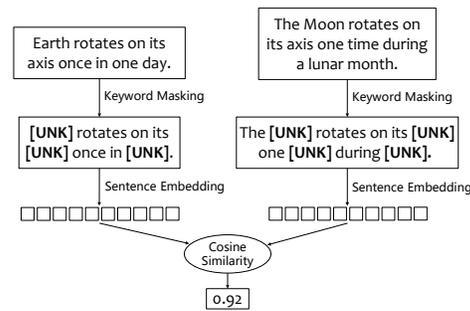


Figure 2: An illustration of the contrastive sentence mining algorithm.

- 2. Masked Sentence Similarity Matching.** We obtain the embedding of the keyword-masked sentence from a pretrained language model and calculate the cosine similarity between all possible sentence pairs.
- 3. Rule-based Filtering.** We filter out invalid sentence pairs based on a fixed threshold of masked sentence similarity, number of keywords, and entity types.

We introduce the implementation of our antithesis mining algorithm in Appendix A.2. In this way, we efficiently extracted large-scale contrastive sentence pairs from all possible pairwise combinations of the aforementioned commonsense statements with extra-linguistic contexts⁵ (Section 4.2). For each contrastive sentence pair, we merge the keywords from each statement and randomly shuffle them to get the input data. The output is the concatenation of two statements.

4.4 Dataset Splitting

When splitting the data into training, validation, and test set, we explicitly require that one statement cannot appear simultaneously in any two sets. Consequently, there is no overlap of the single sentence (or sentence-level keyword combinations) among the training, validation, and test data. This requirement forces machines to reason over new combinations of keywords during the inference stage instead of memorizing existing keywords matching results. Statements with similar syntactic structures will also be divided into the same set to reduce overlap of syntactic templates across different sets.

Specifically, we treat dataset splitting as a community structure [7] discovery problem. Community structure refers to a group of tightly connected nodes that have a high density of internal connections and a low density of external connections. We regard a single sentence as a node in the graph. If two single sentences can be matched into a pair of contrastive sentences, an undirected edge will connect the corresponding nodes of these two single sentences. In this way, we obtain an undirected graph describing the dataset structure. A subset of a dataset (such as a training set) is equivalent to a subgraph containing all sentence pairs (edges) and single sentences (nodes) of that subset.

In order to prevent the same sentence from appearing across different sets, we require that the subgraph node sets of the training set, validation set, and test set are disjoint. We use a community structure detection algorithm to meet this requirement. We use the community as the basic unit of dataset splitting, putting all the edges (sentence pairs) in one community into a certain dataset split. Connecting edges between communities (two vertices belonging to different communities) are removed. We note that sentences with similar syntactic structures tend to be connected to each other in the graph and thus fall into the same community, which ensures the syntactic variability between train/dev/test splits.

⁵One statement might be paired with multiple statements, formulating multiple contrastive sentence pairs.

Table 2: The basic statistics of the SITUATEDGEN dataset. “Sent” means commonsense statement.

Statistics	Train	Dev	Test
Size (# Sent Pairs)	5,641	1,407	1,220
# Unique Sents	788	309	341
per Sent Pair	0.14	0.22	0.28
# Unique Keywords	1,847	725	851
# Avg. Input Keywords	7.34	6.96	6.89
# Avg. Output Tokens	20.89	24.08	20.61

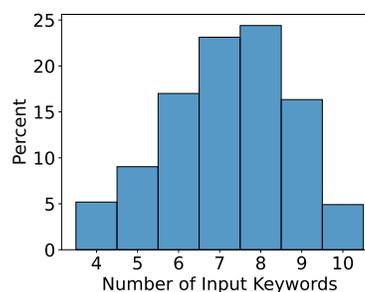


Figure 3: Distribution of numbers of input keywords.

We use the Louvain [7] community structure detection algorithm⁶ and divide our graph into 79 communities. The largest community contains 3,273 edges, accounting for about 26% of the total data. We remove edges connecting different communities and then randomly divide the communities of contrastive sentence pairs into training set, validation set or test set.

To ensure the evaluation soundness, we manually filter out invalid examples in the *test* set that are not fluent antitheses or context-dependent. 13.6% of test data is removed and the final dataset has 8,268 examples in total. See additional details of manual filtering in Appendix B.

5 Dataset Analysis

5.1 Quality Analysis

To measure the quality of our automatically collected data, we randomly select 100 examples (i.e. sentence pairs) from the validation set (which is not manually filtered) and annotate each example for whether it is actually 1) (fluent) antithesis and 2) context-dependent. We find that 87% of the data are real antitheses with fluency and 80% of the data satisfy both of the two requirements. Considering that our dataset is constructed through a fully automatic pipeline, this quality is pretty satisfying and can meet the needs of training and evaluation. As we have discussed in Section 3.1, test examples not satisfying contextual dependence can fool the evaluation metrics, since there are multiple valid references despite the single one provided in the test set. Thanks to the additional manual filtering at the end of Section 4.3, the test set is now qualified for evaluation. As for the unfiltered training set, even if a contrastive sentence pair is not context-dependent, it is still valuable training data, satisfying the other requirements for the target side (Section 3.1). Reduced size of training data after potential manual filtering is also unfavorable to the learning of models. As a result, we retain all the examples in the training set.

Now we analyze the error cases in detail, including non-contrastive and non-context-dependent sentence pairs. The main explanation that accounts for the production of non-contrastive sentence pair is that the remaining verbs after keyword masking may have lexical ambiguity, e.g. “play” in “*Slaves **play** a role in the history of the united states.*” and “*A team sport **played** mostly in Canada is Lacrosse.*” Although the pretrained language models could infer the meaning of a word according to its context [14], the contexts are lost after keyword masking. As a result, two sentences with different syntactic structures are matched together, thus violating the antithesis rule. This poses a limitation of our antithesis mining algorithm.

In addition, 7% of the sentence pairs are antitheses yet not context-dependent. Take the following sentence pair as an example: “*You could find millions of brownstone in New York City.*”⁷ “*One can find a Holiday Inn inside the United States.*”. After swapping the GEO entity “New York City” and “United States” in these two sentences, they still conform to commonsense. The reason for this phenomenon is that New York City is part of the United States, and thus the “brownstone” related to New York will also be related to the United States. However, we would like to point out that contextual dependence

⁶<https://github.com/shobrook/communities>

⁷As background knowledge, there are many historical buildings in New York City whose facades are made of brown sandstone, see <https://bungalow.com/articles/what-exactly-is-a-brownstone>.

is not an absolutely strict condition. Although this example still holds after swapping the GEO entities, it is not the optimal answer, because “brownstone” is more a typical thing in New York City and thus more suitable for a match with “New York City”.

5.2 Dataset Statistics

Table 2 includes the basic statistics of the SITUATEDGEN dataset. If we use the ratio of unique statement count to sentence pair count (“# Unique Sents per Sent Pair”) to represent the content/keyword diversity of the dataset, the validation set, and the test set are relatively high (0.22/0.28), compared to the training set (0.14).

Distribution of Numbers of Input Keywords. Figure 3 shows the distribution of numbers of input keywords for all examples in the dataset. Intuitively, more input keywords imply an increased number of possible combinations, making it more difficult for the models to handle. The average number of input keywords is 7.21 and the distribution is fairly symmetrical (skewness=-0.25), suggesting that the SITUATEDGEN has a reasonable difficulty.

Distribution of Context Types. Here we define three context types of pairs of contrastive sentences: a GEO pair of sentences contain only GEO entities; a TEMP pair of sentences contain only TEMP entities; If both sentences contain GEO and TEMP entities, the pair of sentences belongs to the type of GEO & TEMP . We find that 78% of all sentence pairs are GEO , 21% are TEMP and the rest 1% are GEO & TEMP .

6 Methods

Baseline Models. We benchmark the performance of three prominent pretrained language generation models with encoder-decoder architecture — BART [22], T5 [39], FLAN-T5 [10] — and a decoder-only large language model (LLM) — InstructGPT [34] with 175B parameters. We train BART, T5, and FLAN-T5 models in a fully supervised setting with the seq2seq format and expect that the models can learn to group keywords *implicitly*. Specifically, for the input of BART, we concatenate all shuffled keywords with a comma as the separation token “ c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k ”. Regarding the input format of T5/FLAN-T5, we prepend the keyword sequence with a simple task description to align with its pretraining objective: “*generate two sentences with: c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k* ”. The outputs of all models are simple concatenations of the two target sentences s_1 and s_2 . Since the output is an unordered pair, we feed two examples “ $x \rightarrow s_1 s_2$ ” and “ $x \rightarrow s_2 s_1$ ” to the model for each original training example. As for InstructGPT, we evaluate it in a few-shot setting. We build prompts with instruction and in-context demonstrations. For each test example, we randomly select 10 training examples as in-context demonstrations. We report the model hyper-parameters and GPT prompt format in Appendix C.1.

Evaluation Metrics. [25] have well established the automatic evaluation protocol of the generative commonsense reasoning task. They demonstrated a strong correlation between automatic metrics and human evaluation results. Since SITUATEDGEN adopts a similar format of keyword-to-text generation to COMMONGEN , we follow the evaluation protocol of COMMONGEN and do not include an extra manual evaluation in our study.

Concretely, we employ several widely-used automatic NLG metrics based on n-gram overlap — BLEU [36], ROUGE [26], METEOR [3] — and image caption metrics that focus on the consistency of keywords and their relationships — CIDEr [46] and SPICE [2]. In order to assess the validity of the generated outputs, we include BERTScore [53], a content-oriented and semantic metric. We also adopt COVERAGE, which is the average percentage of input keywords that are present in lemmatized outputs. Additionally, we report the accuracy of keyword grouping results⁸ as MATCH, which serves as a good indicator of the commonsense plausibility of the generated texts. See Appendix C.2 for the implementation details of these evaluation metrics.

⁸Keywords appearing in the same lemmatized output sentence are considered to be grouped together by models. In particular, if a keyword does not appear in the output, we treat it as unmatched.

Table 3: Experimental results on the test set of SITUATEDGEN . The best model performance is in **bold**. Human performance is tested on a subset of 100 random samples.

Model (# parameters)	COVERAGE	MATCH	BLEU-4	ROUGE-2	METEOR	CIDEr	SPICE	BERTScore
BART-base (140M)	78.3	60.5	22.7	29.9	29.6	18.3	53.9	48.4
BART-large (400M)	73.3	63.1	23.7	31.6	29.2	18.5	55.3	48.1
T5-base (220M)	75.6	55.3	21.9	28.7	29.8	17.4	53.6	46.2
T5-large (770M)	81.3	67.8	26.6	33.5	31.9	21.2	57.8	51.9
FLAN-T5-base (220M)	78.0	58.7	22.3	29.5	30.6	18.2	54.7	47.6
FLAN-T5-large (770M)	83.1	70.3	27.4	34.8	32.6	22.4	58.8	53.6
GEO	83.1	70.8	26.8	33.9	32.4	21.9	58.2	52.8
TEMP	83.1	67.0	31.2	40.4	34.1	22.7	62.5	59.1
InstructGPT (175B, 10-shot)	91.8	79.6	28.4	36.3	36.1	23.4	60.9	56.4
Human	98.1	92.9	39.9	46.9	40.4	39.7	71.4	65.0

Table 4: Case studies of machine generations. Keywords appearing in the generation results are underlined.

Input Keywords	24 hours, axis, one month, Earth, axis, Moon
Reference	It takes <u>one month</u> for the <u>Moon</u> to rotate on its <u>axis</u> . <u>Earth</u> rotating on its <u>axis</u> takes <u>24 hours</u> .
BART-base	The <u>axis</u> of the <u>Moon</u> is <u>24 hours</u> . <u>One month</u> is <u>one month</u> .
BART-large	There are <u>24 hours</u> in <u>one month</u> .
T5-base	<u>Earth</u> has a <u>24 hour axis</u> . <u>One month</u> is <u>one month</u> .
T5-large	<u>One month</u> is <u>one month</u> on <u>Earth</u> . The <u>Moon</u> is <u>24 hours</u> away from the <u>axis</u> of the <u>Earth</u> .
FLAN-T5-base	The <u>Moon</u> is the <u>axis</u> of the <u>Earth</u> . <u>One month</u> is <u>one month</u> .
FLAN-T5-large	The <u>Moon</u> is <u>24 hours</u> away from <u>Earth</u> . <u>One month</u> is <u>one month</u> .
InstructGPT	The <u>Earth</u> takes <u>24 hours</u> to rotate on its <u>axis</u> . The <u>Moon</u> takes <u>one month</u> to orbit around the <u>Earth</u> .
Input Keywords	Paul, Emperor, China, Qin, Russia, dynasty
Reference	The <u>Qin dynasty</u> reigned in <u>China</u> . <u>Paul I</u> of <u>Russia</u> reigned as the <u>Emperor of Russia</u> .
BART-base	The <u>Emperor of China</u> worked in <u>China</u> . <u>Paul</u> served as the first <u>emperor</u> of the dynasty <u>Qin</u> .
BART-large	<u>Emperor</u> of the <u>Qin</u> dynasty. <u>Paul</u> existed in <u>Russia</u> .
T5-base	<u>China</u> is a <u>dynasty</u> of <u>China</u> . <u>Paul</u> <u>Qin</u> is the <u>Emperor</u> of <u>China</u> .
T5-large	<u>Paul</u> was the <u>Emperor</u> of <u>Russia</u> . The <u>Qin</u> dynasty ruled <u>China</u> .
FLAN-T5-base	<u>Paul</u> was the <u>emperor</u> of <u>China</u> . The history of <u>Russia</u> includes the history of <u>Qin</u> .
FLAN-T5-large	The <u>Emperor of Russia</u> was <u>Paul</u> the Great. <u>Qin</u> <u>dynasty</u> existed in <u>China</u> and had history in <u>Russia</u> .
InstructGPT	<u>Emperor</u> <u>Paul</u> was part of the Russian <u>dynasty</u> . <u>Qin</u> was part of the Chinese <u>dynasty</u> .

7 Results

In Table 3, we report the experimental results of different baseline models on the test set of SITUATEDGEN. We approximate human performance with 100 randomly sampled examples from the test set which are annotated by the authors of this paper. We observe that larger models tend to have better performance than smaller ones, as larger parameters store more commonsense knowledge and provide better language generation quality. Notably, the few-shot InstructGPT surpasses other fully-supervised models in every metric, demonstrating its strong reasoning ability. Nevertheless, it still lags far behind human performance. For example, there is a difference of 13.3 points in MATCH, indicating the lack of commonsense in machine generations. The large gap of keyword-oriented metrics (CIDEr and SPICE) also suggests that models find it difficult to infer the relationship between keywords. The significant gap between models and humans demonstrates the difficulty of SITUATEDGEN and leaves much room for improvement in future research.

Performance across Different Context Types. Table 3 reports the performance of the FLAN-T5-large model across different context types. The results show that the matching accuracy of TEMP

type is lower than GEO, indicating that temporal-dependent test examples are more challenging. However, the amount of TEMP data is less than GEO in the training set, which may also give rise to the performance difference. Interestingly, the generation fluency of GEO type is worse than TEMP, suggesting that it is more difficult to use GEO entities to compose sentences smoothly.

Case Study. Table 4 shows two groups of generation examples by different models. The first example belongs to TEMP type (“24 hours” and “one month”) and the second one is GEO (“Russia” and “China”). We find that models are prone to omit keywords in their outputs. For example, BART-large only covers 2 out of 6 keywords in the first example. Besides, most of the observed generated outputs are not commonsensical due to incorrect keyword grouping results, e.g., “*There are 24 hours in one month*”. InstructGPT results seem to have the best generation quality and commonsense plausibility among other models, but it still demonstrates incompetence in handling the contrastive relationships between the two sentences.

8 Conclusion

In this paper, we introduce the challenging task SITUATEDGEN to incorporate geographical and temporal contexts into generative commonsense reasoning. We build a corresponding testbed to evaluate the situated reasoning capabilities of state-of-the-art text generation models. The benchmark performance shows that models struggle to generate commonsensical sentences and lag far behind humans. Altogether, our data will serve as a challenging benchmark for measuring commonsense knowledge in generative language models and support research progress of constrained commonsense text generation in a more realistic situation.

Limitations

1. Since our dataset is derived from existing commonsense benchmarks, we may inherit their annotation artifacts [18] and contain certain types of spurious lexical patterns (e.g., “A lived in B”).
2. We do not provide an automatic evaluation of the aspect of contrast between the sentences. A possible solution is to compute the similarity between the entity-masked sentences. This is similar to how we mine contrastive sentences during dataset collection (Figure 2).
3. We could also conduct an extra manual evaluation on the machine generations, so as to gauge its correlation with automatic metrics, though this has been verified by [25] on the original generative commonsense reasoning task.
4. Recently, a lot of work has developed new retrieval-augmented commonsense text generation models [51, 19], which could also be included as baseline models for a more comprehensive benchmark.

Ethics Statement

Our data is built upon publicly available datasets and we will follow their licenses when releasing our data. There is no explicit detail that leaks an annotator’s personal information. The dataset has very low risks of containing sentences with toxicity and offensiveness. Since our data is sourced from existing datasets, we may inherit geographical biases [16] that result in an uneven distribution of commonsense knowledge about western and non-western regions. The commonsense statements may not sound familiar to people who live in locations that are poorly represented in the source datasets. Therefore, models developed on our dataset may preserve biases learned from the annotators of the source datasets. We note that pretrained language models may also inherit the bias in the massive pretraining data. It is important that interested parties carefully address those biases before deploying the model to real-world settings.

Acknowledgements

We thank the anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments and suggestions.

References

- [1] James F. Allen. Maintaining knowledge about temporal intervals. *Commun. ACM*, 26(11):832–843, 1983.
- [2] Peter Anderson, Basura Fernando, Mark Johnson, and Stephen Gould. SPICE: semantic propositional image caption evaluation. In Bastian Leibe, Jiri Matas, Nicu Sebe, and Max Welling, editors, *Computer Vision - ECCV 2016 - 14th European Conference, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, October 11-14, 2016, Proceedings, Part V*, volume 9909 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 382–398. Springer, 2016.
- [3] Satanjeev Banerjee and Alon Lavie. METEOR: an automatic metric for MT evaluation with improved correlation with human judgments. In Jade Goldstein, Alon Lavie, Chin-Yew Lin, and Clare R. Voss, editors, *Proceedings of the Workshop on Intrinsic and Extrinsic Evaluation Measures for Machine Translation and/or Summarization@ACL 2005, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA, June 29, 2005*, pages 65–72. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2005.
- [4] Chandra Bhagavatula, Ronan Le Bras, Chaitanya Malaviya, Keisuke Sakaguchi, Ari Holtzman, Hannah Rashkin, Doug Downey, Wen-tau Yih, and Yejin Choi. Abductive commonsense reasoning. In *8th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2020, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, April 26-30, 2020*. OpenReview.net, 2020.
- [5] Prajjwal Bhargava and Vincent Ng. Commonsense knowledge reasoning and generation with pre-trained language models: A survey. *CoRR*, abs/2201.12438, 2022.
- [6] Mehul Bhatt and Jan Oliver Wallgrün. Geospatial narratives and their spatio-temporal dynamics: Commonsense reasoning for high-level analyses in geographic information systems. *ISPRS Int. J. Geo Inf.*, 3(1):166–205, 2014.
- [7] Vincent D Blondel, Jean-Loup Guillaume, Renaud Lambiotte, and Etienne Lefebvre. Fast unfolding of communities in large networks. *Journal of statistical mechanics: theory and experiment*, 2008(10):P10008, 2008.
- [8] William Bridgwater. The columbia encyclopedia. Technical report, 1963.
- [9] Wenhu Chen, Xinyi Wang, and William Yang Wang. A dataset for answering time-sensitive questions. In Joaquin Vanschoren and Sai-Kit Yeung, editors, *Proceedings of the Neural Information Processing Systems Track on Datasets and Benchmarks 1, NeurIPS Datasets and Benchmarks 2021, December 2021, virtual*, 2021.
- [10] Hyung Won Chung, Le Hou, Shayne Longpre, Barret Zoph, Yi Tay, William Fedus, Eric Li, Xuezhi Wang, Mostafa Dehghani, Siddhartha Brahma, Albert Webson, Shixiang Shane Gu, Zhuyun Dai, Mirac Suzgun, Xinyun Chen, Aakanksha Chowdhery, Sharan Narang, Gaurav Mishra, Adams Yu, Vincent Y. Zhao, Yanping Huang, Andrew M. Dai, Hongkun Yu, Slav Petrov, Ed H. Chi, Jeff Dean, Jacob Devlin, Adam Roberts, Denny Zhou, Quoc V. Le, and Jason Wei. Scaling instruction-finetuned language models. *CoRR*, abs/2210.11416, 2022.
- [11] Peter Clark, Isaac Cowhey, Oren Etzioni, Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, Carissa Schoenick, and Oyvind Tafjord. Think you have solved question answering? try arc, the AI2 reasoning challenge. *CoRR*, abs/1803.05457, 2018.
- [12] Jacob Cohen. A coefficient of agreement for nominal scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 20:37 – 46, 1960.
- [13] Dorottya Demszky, Kelvin Guu, and Percy Liang. Transforming question answering datasets into natural language inference datasets. *CoRR*, abs/1809.02922, 2018.
- [14] Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. BERT: pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In Jill Burstein, Christy Doran, and Tamar Solorio, editors, *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, NAACL-HLT 2019, Minneapolis, MN, USA, June 2-7, 2019, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers)*, pages 4171–4186. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2019.

- [15] Bhuwan Dhingra, Jeremy R. Cole, Julian Martin Eisenschlos, Daniel Gillick, Jacob Eisenstein, and William W. Cohen. Time-aware language models as temporal knowledge bases. *CoRR*, abs/2106.15110, 2021.
- [16] Fahim Faisal, Yinkai Wang, and Antonios Anastasopoulos. Dataset geography: Mapping language data to language users. In Smaranda Muresan, Preslav Nakov, and Aline Villavicencio, editors, *Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), ACL 2022, Dublin, Ireland, May 22-27, 2022*, pages 3381–3411. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2022.
- [17] Mor Geva, Daniel Khashabi, Elad Segal, Tushar Khot, Dan Roth, and Jonathan Berant. Did aristotle use a laptop? A question answering benchmark with implicit reasoning strategies. *Trans. Assoc. Comput. Linguistics*, 9:346–361, 2021.
- [18] Suchin Gururangan, Swabha Swayamdipta, Omer Levy, Roy Schwartz, Samuel R. Bowman, and Noah A. Smith. Annotation artifacts in natural language inference data. In Marilyn A. Walker, Heng Ji, and Amanda Stent, editors, *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, NAACL-HLT, New Orleans, Louisiana, USA, June 1-6, 2018, Volume 2 (Short Papers)*, pages 107–112. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2018.
- [19] Xingwei He, Yeyun Gong, A-Long Jin, Weizhen Qi, Hang Zhang, Jian Jiao, Bartuer Zhou, Biao Cheng, Siu-Ming Yiu, and Nan Duan. Metric-guided distillation: Distilling knowledge from the metric to ranker and retriever for generative commonsense reasoning. *CoRR*, abs/2210.11708, 2022.
- [20] Lifu Huang, Ronan Le Bras, Chandra Bhagavatula, and Yejin Choi. Cosmos QA: machine reading comprehension with contextual commonsense reasoning. In Kentaro Inui, Jing Jiang, Vincent Ng, and Xiaojun Wan, editors, *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing, EMNLP-IJCNLP 2019, Hong Kong, China, November 3-7, 2019*, pages 2391–2401. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2019.
- [21] J Richard Landis and Gary G. Koch. The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics*, 33 1:159–74, 1977.
- [22] Mike Lewis, Yinhan Liu, Naman Goyal, Marjan Ghazvininejad, Abdelrahman Mohamed, Omer Levy, Veselin Stoyanov, and Luke Zettlemoyer. BART: denoising sequence-to-sequence pre-training for natural language generation, translation, and comprehension. In Dan Jurafsky, Joyce Chai, Natalie Schluter, and Joel R. Tetreault, editors, *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, ACL 2020, Online, July 5-10, 2020*, pages 7871–7880. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2020.
- [23] Haonan Li, Yeyun Gong, Jian Jiao, Ruofei Zhang, Timothy Baldwin, and Nan Duan. KFCNet: Knowledge filtering and contrastive learning for generative commonsense reasoning. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2021*, pages 2918–2928, Punta Cana, Dominican Republic, November 2021. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- [24] Bill Yuchen Lin, Ziyi Wu, Yichi Yang, Dong-Ho Lee, and Xiang Ren. Riddlesense: Reasoning about riddle questions featuring linguistic creativity and commonsense knowledge. In Chengqing Zong, Fei Xia, Wenjie Li, and Roberto Navigli, editors, *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL/IJCNLP 2021, Online Event, August 1-6, 2021*, volume ACL/IJCNLP 2021 of *Findings of ACL*, pages 1504–1515. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2021.
- [25] Bill Yuchen Lin, Wangchunshu Zhou, Ming Shen, Pei Zhou, Chandra Bhagavatula, Yejin Choi, and Xiang Ren. CommonGen: A constrained text generation challenge for generative commonsense reasoning. In Trevor Cohn, Yulan He, and Yang Liu, editors, *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: EMNLP 2020, Online Event, 16-20 November 2020*, volume EMNLP 2020 of *Findings of ACL*, pages 1823–1840. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2020.

- [26] Chin-Yew Lin. ROUGE: A package for automatic evaluation of summaries. In *Text Summarization Branches Out*, pages 74–81, Barcelona, Spain, July 2004. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- [27] Fangyu Liu, Emanuele Bugliarello, Edoardo Maria Ponti, Siva Reddy, Nigel Collier, and Desmond Elliott. Visually grounded reasoning across languages and cultures. In Marie-Francine Moens, Xuanjing Huang, Lucia Specia, and Scott Wen-tau Yih, editors, *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2021, Virtual Event / Punta Cana, Dominican Republic, 7-11 November, 2021*, pages 10467–10485. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2021.
- [28] Xin Liu, Dayiheng Liu, Baosong Yang, Haibo Zhang, Junwei Ding, Wenqing Yao, Weihua Luo, Haiying Zhang, and Jinsong Su. Kgr⁴: Retrieval, retrospect, refine and rethink for commonsense generation. *CoRR*, abs/2112.08266, 2021.
- [29] Alfred H Lloyd. The logic of antithesis. *The Journal of Philosophy, Psychology and Scientific Methods*, 8(11):281–289, 1911.
- [30] Todor Mihaylov, Peter Clark, Tushar Khot, and Ashish Sabharwal. Can a suit of armor conduct electricity? A new dataset for open book question answering. In Ellen Riloff, David Chiang, Julia Hockenmaier, and Jun'ichi Tsujii, editors, *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, Brussels, Belgium, October 31 - November 4, 2018*, pages 2381–2391. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2018.
- [31] Maximilian Nickel, Kevin Murphy, Volker Tresp, and Evgeniy Gabrilovich. A review of relational machine learning for knowledge graphs. *Proc. IEEE*, 104(1):11–33, 2016.
- [32] Qiang Ning, Hao Wu, Rujun Han, Nanyun Peng, Matt Gardner, and Dan Roth. TORQUE: A reading comprehension dataset of temporal ordering questions. In Bonnie Webber, Trevor Cohn, Yulan He, and Yang Liu, editors, *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2020, Online, November 16-20, 2020*, pages 1158–1172. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2020.
- [33] Yasumasa Onoe, Michael J. Q. Zhang, Eunsol Choi, and Greg Durrett. CREAK: A dataset for commonsense reasoning over entity knowledge. In Joaquin Vanschoren and Sai-Kit Yeung, editors, *Proceedings of the Neural Information Processing Systems Track on Datasets and Benchmarks 1, NeurIPS Datasets and Benchmarks 2021, December 2021, virtual*, 2021.
- [34] Long Ouyang, Jeff 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. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. *CoRR*, abs/2203.02155, 2022.
- [35] Liangming Pan, Wenhua Chen, Wenhan Xiong, Min-Yen Kan, and William Yang Wang. Zero-shot fact verification by claim generation. In Chengqing Zong, Fei Xia, Wenjie Li, and Roberto Navigli, editors, *Proceedings of the 59th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the 11th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing, ACL/IJCNLP 2021, (Volume 2: Short Papers), Virtual Event, August 1-6, 2021*, pages 476–483. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2021.
- [36] Kishore Papineni, Salim Roukos, Todd Ward, and Wei-Jing Zhu. Bleu: a method for automatic evaluation of machine translation. In *Proceedings of the 40th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, July 6-12, 2002, Philadelphia, PA, USA*, pages 311–318. ACL, 2002.
- [37] Jungsoo Park, Sewon Min, Jaewoo Kang, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. Faviq: Fact verification from information-seeking questions. In Smaranda Muresan, Preslav Nakov, and Aline Villavicencio, editors, *Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), ACL 2022, Dublin, Ireland, May 22-27, 2022*, pages 5154–5166. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2022.

- [38] Lianhui Qin, Aditya Gupta, Shyam Upadhyay, Luheng He, Yejin Choi, and Manaal Faruqui. TIMEDIAL: temporal commonsense reasoning in dialog. In Chengqing Zong, Fei Xia, Wenjie Li, and Roberto Navigli, editors, *Proceedings of the 59th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the 11th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing, ACL/IJCNLP 2021, (Volume 1: Long Papers), Virtual Event, August 1-6, 2021*, pages 7066–7076. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2021.
- [39] Colin Raffel, Noam Shazeer, Adam Roberts, Katherine Lee, Sharan Narang, Michael Matena, Yanqi Zhou, Wei Li, and Peter J. Liu. Exploring the limits of transfer learning with a unified text-to-text transformer. *J. Mach. Learn. Res.*, 21:140:1–140:67, 2020.
- [40] Nils Reimers and Iryna Gurevych. Sentence-bert: Sentence embeddings using siamese bert-networks. In Kentaro Inui, Jing Jiang, Vincent Ng, and Xiaojun Wan, editors, *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing, EMNLP-IJCNLP 2019, Hong Kong, China, November 3-7, 2019*, pages 3980–3990. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2019.
- [41] Maarten Sap, Hannah Rashkin, Derek Chen, Ronan Le Bras, and Yejin Choi. Social iqa: Commonsense reasoning about social interactions. In Kentaro Inui, Jing Jiang, Vincent Ng, and Xiaojun Wan, editors, *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing, EMNLP-IJCNLP 2019, Hong Kong, China, November 3-7, 2019*, pages 4462–4472. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2019.
- [42] Stefan Schweter and Alan Akbik. FLERT: document-level features for named entity recognition. *CoRR*, abs/2011.06993, 2020.
- [43] Shikhar Singh, Nuan Wen, Yu Hou, Pegah Alipoormolabashi, Te-Lin Wu, Xuezhe Ma, and Nanyun Peng. COM2SENSE: A commonsense reasoning benchmark with complementary sentences. In Chengqing Zong, Fei Xia, Wenjie Li, and Roberto Navigli, editors, *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL/IJCNLP 2021, Online Event, August 1-6, 2021*, volume ACL/IJCNLP 2021 of *Findings of ACL*, pages 883–898. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2021.
- [44] Alon Talmor, Jonathan Herzig, Nicholas Lourie, and Jonathan Berant. Commonsenseqa: A question answering challenge targeting commonsense knowledge. In Jill Burstein, Christy Doran, and Tamar Solorio, editors, *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, NAACL-HLT 2019, Minneapolis, MN, USA, June 2-7, 2019, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers)*, pages 4149–4158. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2019.
- [45] Lifu Tu, Garima Lalwani, Spandana Gella, and He He. An empirical study on robustness to spurious correlations using pre-trained language models. *Trans. Assoc. Comput. Linguistics*, 8:621–633, 2020.
- [46] Ramakrishna Vedantam, C. Lawrence Zitnick, and Devi Parikh. Cider: Consensus-based image description evaluation. In *IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, CVPR 2015, Boston, MA, USA, June 7-12, 2015*, pages 4566–4575. IEEE Computer Society, 2015.
- [47] Peifeng Wang, Jonathan Zamora, Junfeng Liu, Filip Ilievski, Muhao Chen, and Xiang Ren. Contextualized scene imagination for generative commonsense reasoning. *CoRR*, abs/2112.06318, 2021.
- [48] Thomas Wolf, Lysandre Debut, Victor Sanh, Julien Chaumond, Clement Delangue, Anthony Moi, Pierric Cistac, Tim Rault, Remi Louf, Morgan Funtowicz, Joe Davison, Sam Shleifer, Patrick von Platen, Clara Ma, Yacine Jernite, Julien Plu, Canwen Xu, Teven Le Scao, Sylvain Gugger, Mariama Drame, Quentin Lhoest, and Alexander Rush. Transformers: State-of-the-art natural language processing. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations*, pages 38–45, Online, October 2020. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- [49] Da Yin, Hritik Bansal, Masoud Monajatipoor, Liunian Harold Li, and Kai-Wei Chang. Geomlana: Geo-diverse commonsense probing on multilingual pre-trained language models. *CoRR*, abs/2205.12247, 2022.
- [50] Da Yin, Liunian Harold Li, Ziniu Hu, Nanyun Peng, and Kai-Wei Chang. Broaden the vision: Geo-diverse visual commonsense reasoning. In Marie-Francine Moens, Xuanjing Huang, Lucia Specia, and Scott Wen-tau Yih, editors, *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2021, Virtual Event / Punta Cana, Dominican Republic, 7-11 November, 2021*, pages 2115–2129. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2021.
- [51] Wenhao Yu, Chenguang Zhu, Zhihan Zhang, Shuohang Wang, Zhuosheng Zhang, Yuwei Fang, and Meng Jiang. Retrieval augmentation for commonsense reasoning: A unified approach. *CoRR*, abs/2210.12887, 2022.
- [52] Michael J. Q. Zhang and Eunsol Choi. Situatedqa: Incorporating extra-linguistic contexts into QA. In Marie-Francine Moens, Xuanjing Huang, Lucia Specia, and Scott Wen-tau Yih, editors, *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, EMNLP 2021, Virtual Event / Punta Cana, Dominican Republic, 7-11 November, 2021*, pages 7371–7387. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2021.
- [53] Tianyi Zhang, Varsha Kishore, Felix Wu, Kilian Q. Weinberger, and Yoav Artzi. Bertscore: Evaluating text generation with BERT. In *8th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2020, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, April 26-30, 2020*. OpenReview.net, 2020.
- [54] Ben Zhou, Daniel Khashabi, Qiang Ning, and Dan Roth. "going on a vacation" takes longer than "going for a walk": A study of temporal commonsense understanding. In Kentaro Inui, Jing Jiang, Vincent Ng, and Xiaojun Wan, editors, *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing, EMNLP-IJCNLP 2019, Hong Kong, China, November 3-7, 2019*, pages 3361–3367. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2019.

A Additional Details of Dataset Collection

Table 5: Source dataset examples. **Correct answers** are in bold and underlined.

Dataset	Size	Format	Raw Data → Statement Conversion Example
CREAK [33]	13,418	True/False statement	In the calendar year, May comes after April and before June. (<u>True</u> /False) → In the calendar year, May comes after April and before June.
StrategyQA [17]	5,111	Yes/No Question	Are more watermelons grown in Texas than in Antarctica? (<u>Yes</u> /No) → More watermelons are grown in Texas than in Antarctica.
CommonsenseQA [44]	12,247	Multiple-choice Question	Where in Southern Europe would you find many canals? (A) Michigan (B) New York (C) Amsterdam (<u>D</u>) Venice (E) Sydney → You would find many canals in Venice, Southern Europe.
ARC [11]	7,787	Multiple-choice Question	How long does it take for Earth to rotate on its axis seven times? (A) one day (<u>B</u>) one week (C) one month (D) one year → It takes one week for Earth to rotate on its axis seven times.
OpenbookQA [30]	6,493	Commonsense Statement	You wear shorts in the summer. → You wear shorts in the summer.

A.1 Commonsense Statement Collection

We briefly introduce the nature of each source dataset in Section 4.1.

- **CREAK** [33] is a commonsense fact verification dataset featuring entity commonsense, which includes 13,418 true or false statements about entity knowledge written by crowdworkers.
- **StrategyQA** [17] is a commonsense question answering dataset that requires multi-hop implicit reasoning. It consists of 5,111 questions whose answers are either Yes or No. Machines need to decompose a question into multiple atomic questions to arrive at an answer.
- **CommonsenseQA** [44] is a commonsense question answering dataset of 12,247 five-way multiple-choice questions with a focus on knowledge in everyday life.
- **ARC** [11] is a commonsense question answering dataset. It has 7,787 four-way multiple-choice natural science questions collected from grade-school standardized tests.
- **OpenbookQA** [30] is a commonsense question answering dataset that simulates openbook test. The data set is made up of 5,957 multiple-choice questions, accompanied by 6,493 commonsense statements about science facts. Since there is a significant overlap between the knowledge in questions and statements, we only use the statements data for simplicity.

We now detail the specific preprocessing method for each source dataset to convert them (i.e., question-answer pairs) into statements.

- If the raw data comes in the statement format (CREAK and OpenbookQA), we obtain the true statements (part of CREAK and all of OpenbookQA) without extra processing.
- If the raw data comes in Yes/No question format (StrategyQA), we leverage a POS-rule-based open-sourced system `question_to_statement`⁹ to transform a pair of question and Yes/No answer into a statement.
- If the raw data comes in multiple-choice format (CommonsenseQA and ARC), we utilize a neural model to convert a pair of question and correct choice (q, a) into a statement in a sequence-to-sequence fashion. Concretely, we use the QA-to-statement model checkpoint

⁹https://github.com/SunnyWay/question_to_statement

released by [35], which is a BART [22] model finetuned on QA2D [13], a dataset of human-annotated statements for QA pairs.

Converting QA pair to statement is not a difficult task for pretrained seq2seq models. We observe that the generated statements are mostly fluent and faithful to the input. Additionally, we have manually filtered out unnatural examples in the test set. We summarize the basic information of these datasets and provide an example of statement conversion for each dataset in Table 5.

A.2 Antithesis Mining

Keyword Masking. We use entities and other nouns as the keywords of sentences because as a pilot study, we only consider the relationships between spatio-temporal contexts and nouns and ignore the influence of other part-of-speech categories such as verbs, adjectives, and prepositions. We use the same NER tagger in Section 4.2 to extract entities. We leverage spaCy¹⁰ to extract all the nouns (including proper nouns) from a sentence. We merge the entities and nouns as keywords after removing duplicates. In particular, if a noun and an entity partly overlap (e.g., “**month**” and “a lunar **month**”), we retain the entity when deduplicating.

Masked Sentence Similarity Matching. We use the pretrained language model all-MiniLM-L6-v2¹¹ released by SentenceTransformers [40] to obtain high-quality embeddings of keyword-masked sentences. We calculate the cosine similarity to pair highly similar masked sentences. Computing the similarity of all possible sentence pairs requires $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ time complexity. To accelerate this process, we use the `paraphrase_mining` API of SentenceTransformers [40].

Rule-based Filtering. We devise the following rules to filter invalid sentence pairs based on iterative observation of the data:

- The masked sentence similarity exceeds a certain threshold¹², which indicates parallel sentence structure of antithesis.
- The number of masked keywords ([UNK]) of every single sentence should not be more than 5 and less than 2, which controls for a reasonable difficulty of the keyword-to-text generation task.
- Any entity in one sentence does not appear in the other sentence within a pair (including the deformation of entity words, such as singular/plural form, upper/lower case, etc.). This is to avoid both sentences expressing the information of the same entity, while contrastive sentences should describe two opposite things.
- Both of the two sentences contain either GEO entities or TEMP entities (GEO+GEO or TEMP+TEMP), which avoids sentences comparing GEO context to a non-parallel TEMP context (GEO+TEMP).

B Dataset Quality Analysis

B.1 Manual Filtering of the Test Set

To ensure the high quality of the dataset, we manually filter out invalid examples in the test set that are not fluent antitheses or context-dependent. This process is important for the very high human performance shown in Table 3. Table 6 shows the instructions for annotators. We first ask two graduate students with proficiency in English to annotate 100 examples as valid or invalid. They agree with each other (i.e., give the same label) on 88% of examples. The inter-annotator agreement in terms of Cohen’s Kappa [12] is 0.76, which indicates substantial agreement [21]. Since the agreement ratio is satisfactory, we ask one of the annotators to complete the rest of the filtering process.

¹⁰https://spacy.io/models/en#en_core_web_sm

¹¹<https://huggingface.co/sentence-transformers/all-MiniLM-L6-v2>

¹²We set the threshold as 0.8 via manual inspection.

Table 6: Annotator instructions for manual filtering of our dataset.

Goal: The objective of our project is to generate high-quality contrastive sentence pairs (antithesis) that incorporate geographical and temporal contexts. These sentence pairs will serve as a means to evaluate machines' commonsense reasoning abilities under different extra-linguistic contexts. We aim to create sentences that require a deep understanding of real-world geographical and temporal entities but can be reasonably confirmed without resorting to external sources like Google or Wikipedia.

Instructions: We show a set of keywords and a pair of sentences containing these keywords. Your task is to determine whether this sentence pair satisfies *all* of the following criteria:

1. The sentence pair includes all of the given keywords.
2. Each sentence has at least one entity related to geography or time.
3. Each sentence is fluent and adheres to commonsense knowledge.
4. The two sentences have similar syntactic structures and create a contradiction in semantics.
 - Intuitively, the qualifying two sentences can be connected into a coherent sentence via a conjunction word such as "while", "yet", and "whereas" (e.g., "*July is summer in the United States, while July is winter in Australia.*").
5. Swapping any of the geographical or temporal entities between the two sentences could lead to a contradiction with commonsense yet grammatical correctness.
 - For example, for the sentence pair "*July is summer in China. July is winter in Australia.*", if the two geographical entities "China" and "Australia" are swapped, the resulting sentences do not adhere to commonsense anymore: "*July is summer in Australia. July is winter in China.*"

Examples:

Keywords: *morning, night, sunrise, sunset*

Sentence 1: "The sky is bright with the sunrise in the early morning."

Sentence 2: "The sky is dark with the sunset in the late night."

Criterion 1: Both sentences include the keywords "morning" and "night."

Criterion 2: Each sentence contains a geographical or temporal entity ("sunrise" and "sunset") related to the context.

Criterion 3: Both sentences are fluent and adhere to commonsense knowledge.

Criterion 4: The sentences have a similar syntactic structure and create a semantic contradiction: "The sky is bright with the sunrise in the early morning, while the sky is dark with the sunset in the late night."

Criterion 5: Swapping the temporal entities "early morning" and "late night" would result in a contradiction: "The sky is bright with the sunrise in the late night, while the sky is dark with the sunset in the early morning."

This example demonstrates how the sentence pairs satisfy the specified criteria of the task.

C Experimental Setup

C.1 Baseline Models

We use HuggingFace [48] implementations of the BART and T5 models. For the decoding method, we adopt the standard beam search with a beam size of 4 for all baseline models. As for checkpoint selection, we save a checkpoint for each epoch and select the checkpoint with the highest ROUGE-2 on the validation set. Other default hyperparameters are shown in Table 7.

Table 8 shows an example of GPT prompt format, consisting of a fixed instruction ("*Generate a pair of contrastive sentences with the given set of keywords.*") and a few in-context demonstrations ("*Keywords: c_1, \dots, c_k \n Sentences: $s_1 s_2$* ").

C.2 Evaluation Metrics

We use the standard implementation of BLEU, ROUGE, METEOR, CIDEr, and SPICE in `pycocoevalcap`¹³. As recommended, we adopt the Recall score of BERTScore¹⁴ and the hash code for evaluation setting is "`roberta-large_L17_no-idx_version=0.3.12(hug_trans=4.21.3)-rescaled_fast-tokenizer`". In addition, we design and implement MATCH to evaluate how well the machines solve

¹³<https://github.com/salaniz/pycocoevalcap>

¹⁴https://github.com/Tiiiger/bert_score

Table 7: Hyper-parameter settings for all baseline models.

Parameter	Value
epoch	10
batch size	32
beam size	4
max input length	64
max output length	128
learning rate	3e-5
warm-up steps	500

Table 8: An example of InstructGPT prompt format. We only show two in-context demonstrations here for brevity.

Generate a pair of contrastive sentences with the given set of keywords.

Keywords: Kansas, steakhouses, New York City, city, pizzerias
 Sentences: Kansas city is known for its steakhouses. New York City is known for its pizzerias.
 ...

Keywords: seven days, one day, 1,440 minutes, a week
 Sentences: There are 1,440 minutes in one day. There are seven days a week.

Keywords: axis, one day, one month, Earth, Moon
 Sentences:

the challenge of situated semantic matching (Section 3.2). We now define the keyword matching accuracy MATCH based on mathematical notations introduced in Section 3.1.

$t = (t_1, \dots, t_k), t_i \in \{0, 1\}$ indicates that each keyword c_i appears in which sentence in the answer pair $y^{true} = \{s_1^{true}, s_2^{true}\}$. In other words, if c_i *should* appear in s_1 , then $t_i = 0$; if c_i *should* appear in s_2 , then $t_i = 1$. $p = (p_1, \dots, p_k), p_i \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$ indicates that each keyword c_i appears in which sentence in the output pair $y^{pred} = \{s_1^{pred}, s_2^{pred}\}$. In other words, if c_i *actually* appear in s_1 , then $p_i = 0$; if c_i *actually* appear in s_2 , then $p_i = 1$; if c_i does not *actually* appear in both s_1 and s_2 , then $p_i = -1$ ¹⁵. We define the matching accuracy of a sentence pair $\text{match}(y^{true}, y^{pred})$ as the proportion of correctly matched keywords, which is calculated as $\frac{1}{k} \max(\sum_{i=1}^k \mathbb{1}_{t_i=p_i}, \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbb{1}_{1-t_i=p_i}) \in [0, 1]$. Here $\mathbb{1}$ is the indicator function. The formula includes both $1 - t$ and t in a symmetric way because the sentence pair is unordered. For the whole test set, we take the average matching accuracy of all examples as MATCH.

We illustrate the computing process of matching accuracy with a simple example. Given [July, China, winter, Australia, summer, July], the answer could be “*July is summer in China. July is winter in Australia.*” So $t = (0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1)$. If the generated output is “*July is summer in Australia. July is winter in China.*”, then $p = (0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1)$. As a result, the matching accuracy is $4/6 = 0.67$.

As for the implementation, we utilize NLTK¹⁶ to split the output into two sentences. In particular, if there is only one sentence in the output, we append an empty string as the second one; if there are more than two sentences, we only take the former two sentences into consideration. We lemmatize the sentence before determining keyword appearance.

¹⁵By defining $p_i = -1$, MATCH can also reflect the coverage of keywords in the output.

¹⁶<https://www.nltk.org/>