QUARTZ: An Open-Domain Dataset of Qualitative Relationship Questions

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Abstract

We introduce the first open-domain dataset, called QUARTZ, for reasoning about textual qualitative relationships. QUARTZ contains general qualitative statements, e.g., “A sunscreen with a higher SPF protects the skin longer.”, twinned with 3864 crowdsourced situated questions, e.g., “Billy is wearing sunscreen with a lower SPF than Lucy. Who will be best protected from the sun?”, plus annotations of the properties being compared. Unlike previous datasets, the general knowledge is textual and not tied to a fixed set of relationships, and tests a system’s ability to comprehend and apply textual qualitative knowledge in a novel setting. We find state-of-the-art results are substantially (20%) below human performance, presenting an open challenge to the NLP community.

1 Introduction

Understanding and applying qualitative knowledge is a fundamental facet of intelligence. For example, we may read that exercise improves health, and thus decide to spend more time at the gym; or that larger cars cause more pollution, and thus decide to buy a smaller car to be environmentally sensitive. These skills require understanding the underlying qualitative relationships, and being able to apply them in specific contexts.

To promote research in this direction, we present the first open-domain dataset of qualitative relationship questions, called QUARTZ (“Qualitative Relationship Test set”)\(^1\). Unlike earlier work in qualitative reasoning, e.g., (Tafjord et al., 2019), the dataset is not restricted to a small, fixed set of relationships. Each question \(Q_i\) (2-way multiple choice) is grounded in a particular situation, and is paired with a sentence \(K_i\) expressing the general qualitative knowledge needed to answer it.

\(^1\)Available at http://data.allenai.org/quartz/

Q: If Mona lives in a city that begins producing a greater amount of pollutants, what happens to the air quality in that city? (A) increases (B) decreases [correct]

K: More pollutants mean poorer air quality.

Annotations:

\(Q\): \([\text{MORE}, \text{"greater"}, \text{"amount of pollutants"}]

\(\rightarrow\) (A) \([\text{MORE}, \text{"increases"}, \text{"air quality"}]

(B) \([\text{LESS}, \text{"decreases"}, \text{"air quality"}]

\(K\): \([\text{MORE}, \text{"more"}, \text{"pollutants"}]

\(\leftrightarrow\) \([\text{LESS}, \text{"poorer"}, \text{"air quality"}]

Figure 1: QUARTZ contains situated qualitative questions, each paired with a gold background knowledge sentence and qualitative annotations.

\(Q_i\) and \(K_i\) are also annotated with the properties being compared (Figure 1). The property annotations serve as supervision for a potential semantic parsing based approach. The overall task is to answer the \(Q_i\) given the corpus \(K = \{K_i\}\). We test several state-of-the-art (BERT-based) models and find that they are still substantially (20%) below human performance. Our contributions are thus (1) the dataset, containing 3864 richly annotated questions plus a background corpus of 400 qualitative knowledge sentences; and (2) an analysis of the dataset, performance of BERT-based models, and a catalog of the challenges it poses, pointing the way towards solutions.

2 Related Work

Despite rapid progress in general question-answering (QA), e.g., (Clark and Gardner, 2018), and formal models for qualitative reasoning (QR), e.g., (Forbus, 1984; Weld and De Kleer, 2013), there has been little work on reasoning with textual qualitative knowledge, and no dataset available in this area. Although many datasets include a few qualitative questions, e.g., (Yang et al., 2018; Clark et al., 2018), the only one directly probing
Differing Comparatives:

Q1  Jan is comparing stars, specifically a small star and the larger Sun. Given the size of each, Jan can tell that the Sun puts out heat that is (A) greater (B) lesser

K1  Bigger stars produce more energy, so their surfaces are hotter.

Discrete Property Values:

Q2  What happens to a light car when it has the same power as a heavy car? (A) accelerates faster (B) accelerates slower

K2  Bigger stars produce more energy, so their surfaces are hotter.

Numerical Property Values:

Q3  Will found water from a source 10m from shore. Eric found water from a source 2m from shore. Whose water likely contains the least nutrients? (A) Will’s (B) Eric’s

K3  Most nutrients are washed into ocean water from land. Therefore, water closer to shore tends to have more nutrients.

Commonsense Knowledge:

Q4  Compared to a box of bricks a box of feathers would be (A) lighter (B) heavier

K4  A given volume of a denser substance is heavier than the same volume of a less dense substance.

Multiple Entities (“Worlds”):

Q5  Jimbo liked to work out, while James never did. Which person would have weaker muscles? (A) Jimbo (B) James

K5  Muscles that are exercised are bigger and stronger than muscles that are not exercised.

Complex Stories:

Q6  NASA has sent an unmanned probe to survey a distant solar system with four planets. Planet Zorb is farthest from the sun of this solar system, Planet Krakatoa is second farthest, Planet Beanbag is third, and Krypton is the closest. The probe visits the planets in order, first Zorb, then Krakatoa, then Beanbag and finally Krypton. Did the probe have to fly farther in its trip from (A) Zorb to Krakatoa or (B) from Beanbag to Krypton?

K6  In general, the farther away from the Sun, the greater the distance from one planet’s orbit to the next.

Table 1: Examples of crowdsourced questions Q and corpus knowledge K in QUARTZ, illustrating phenomena.

QR is QuaRel (Tafjord et al., 2019). However, although QuaRel contains 2700 qualitative questions, its underlying qualitative knowledge was specified formally, using a small, fixed ontology of 19 properties. As a result, systems trained on QuaRel are limited to only questions about those properties. Likewise, although the QR community has performed some work on extracting qualitative models from text, e.g., (McFate et al., 2014; McFate and Forbus, 2016), and interpreting questions about identifying qualitative processes, e.g., (Crouse et al., 2018), there is no dataset available for the NLP community to study textual qualitative reasoning. QUARTZ addresses this need.

3 The Task

Examples of QuaRTZ questions Qi are shown in Table 1, along with a sentence Ki expressing the relevant qualitative relationship. The QUARTZ task is to answer the questions given a small (400 sentence) corpus K of general qualitative relationship sentences. Questions are crowdsourced, and the sentences Ki were collected from a larger corpus, described shortly.

Note that the task involves substantially more than matching intensifiers (more/greater/...) between Qi and Ki. Answers also require some qualitative reasoning, e.g., if the intensifiers are inverted in the question, and entity tracking, to keep track of which entity an intensifier applies to. For example, consider the qualitative sentence and three questions (correct answers bolded):

Kni: People with greater height are stronger.

Qi: Sue is taller than Joe so Sue is (A) stronger (B) weaker

Q′: Sue is shorter than Joe so Sue is (A) stronger (B) weaker

Q′′: Sue is shorter than Joe so Joe is (A) stronger (B) weaker

Q′′ requires reasoning about intensifiers that are flipped with respect to K (shorter → weaker), and Q′″ requires entities be tracked correctly (asking about Sue or Joe changes the answer).

4 Dataset Collection

QUARTZ was constructed as follows. First, 400 sentences expressing general qualitative relations were manually extracted by the authors from a large corpus using keyword search (“increase”, “faster”, etc.). Examples (Kni) are in Table 1.

Second, crowdworkers were shown a seed sentence Kni, and asked to annotate the two properties being compared using the template below, illustrated using K2 from Table 1:

2 In a few cases, a short paragraph rather than sentence was selected, where surrounding context was needed to make sense of the qualitative statement.
"The smaller its mass is, the greater its acceleration for a given amount of force."

They were then asked to author a situated, 2-way multiple-choice (MC) question that tested this relationship, guided by multiple illustrations. Examples of their questions ($Q_i$) are in Table 1.

Third, a second set of workers was shown an authored question, asked to validate its answer and quality, and asked to annotate how the properties of $K_i$ identified earlier were expressed. To do this, they filled a second template, illustrated for $Q_2$:

| Relation: | Appears in question as: |
|-----------|-------------------------|
| MORE mass | More/Less phrase: Changed property: |
| LESS mass | heavy |
| MORE acceleration | faster |
| LESS acceleration | accelerates |

Finally these workers were asked to generate a new question by “flipping” the original so the answer switched. Flipping means inverting comparatives (e.g., “more” → “less”), values, and other edits as needed to change the answer, e.g.,

K: More rain causes damper surfaces.

Q: More rain causes (A) wetter land (B) drier land

Q-flipped: Less rain causes (A) wetter land (B) drier land

Flipped questions are created to counteract the tendency of workers to use the same comparison direction (e.g., “more”) in their question as in the seed sentence $K_i$, potentially answerable by simply matching $Q_i$ and $K_i$. Flipped questions are more challenging as they demand more qualitative reasoning (Section 7.1).

Questions marked by workers as poor quality were reviewed by the authors and rejected/modified as appropriate. The dataset was then split into train/dev/test partitions such that questions from the same seed $K_i$ were all in the same partition. Statistics are in Table 2.

To determine if the questions are correct and answerable given the general knowledge, a human baseline was computed. Three annotators independently answered a random sample of 100 questions given the supporting sentence $K_i$ for each. The mean score was 95.0%.

5 Models

The QUARTZ task is to answer the questions given the corpus $K$ of qualitative background knowledge. We also examine a “no knowledge” (questions only) task and a “perfect knowledge” task (each question paired with the qualitative sentence $K_i$ it was based on). We report results using two baselines and several strong models built with BERT-large (Devlin et al., 2019) as follows:

1. **Random**: always 50% (2-way MC).
2. **BERT-Sci**: BERT fine-tuned on a large, general set of science questions (Clark et al., 2018).
3. **BERT (IR)**: This model performs the full task. First, a sentence $K_i$ is retrieved from $K$ using $Q_i$ as a search query. This is then supplied to BERT as [CLS] $K_i$ [SEP] question-stem [SEP] answer-option [SEP] for each option. The [CLS] output token is projected to a single logit and fed through a softmax layer across answer options, using cross entropy loss, the highest being selected. This model is fine-tuned using QUARTZ (only).
4. **BERT (IR upper bound)**: Same, but using the ideal (annotated) $K_i$ rather than retrieved $K_i$.
5. **BERT-PFT (no knowledge)**: BERT first fine-tuned (“pre-fine-tuned”) on the RACE dataset (Lai et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2019), and then fine-tuned on QUARTZ (questions only, no $K_i$, both train and test). Questions are supplied as [CLS] question-stem [SEP] answer-option [SEP].
6. **BERT-PFT (IR)**: Same as BERT (IR), except starting with the pre-fine-tuned BERT.

All models were implemented using AllenNLP (Gardner et al., 2018).

6 Results

The results are shown in Table 3, and provide insights into both the data and the models:

1. **The dataset is hard.** Our best model, BERT-PFT (IR), scores only 73.7, over 20 points behind human performance (95.0), suggesting there are significant linguistic and semantic challenges to overcome (Section 7).
2. A general science-trained QA system has not learned this style of reasoning. BERT-Sci only scores 54.6, just a little above random (50.0).

3. **Pre-Fine-Tuning is important.** Fine-tuning only on QUARTZ does significantly worse (64.4) than pre-fine-tuning on RACE before fine-tuning on QUARTZ (73.7). Pre-fine-tuning appears to teach BERT something about multiple choice questions in general, helping it more effectively fine-tune on QUARTZ.

4. **BERT already “knows” some qualitative knowledge.** Interestingly, BERT-PFT (no knowledge) scores 68.8, significantly above random, suggesting that BERT already “knows” some kind of qualitative knowledge. To rule out annotation artifacts, we we experimented with balancing the distributions of positive and negative influences, and different train/test splits to ensure no topical overlap between train and test, but the scores remained consistent.

5. **BERT can apply general qualitative knowledge to QA, but only partially.** The model for the full task, BERT-PFT (IR) outperforms the no knowledge version (73.7, vs. 68.8), but still over 20 points below human performance. Even given the ideal knowledge (IR upper bound), it is still substantially behind (at 79.8) human performance. This suggests more sophisticated ways of training and/or reasoning with the knowledge are needed.

### 7 Discussion and Analysis

#### 7.1 Qualitative Reasoning

Can models learn qualitative reasoning from QUARTZ? While QUARTZ questions do not require chaining, 50% involve “flipping” a qualitative relationship (e.g., K: “more X → more Y”, Q: “less X → less Y”). Training on just the original crowdworkers’ questions, where they chose to flip the knowledge only 10% of the time, resulted in poor (less than random) performance on all the flipped questions. However, training on full QUARTZ, where no-flip and flip were balanced, resulted in similar score for both types of question, suggesting that such a reasoning capability can indeed be learned.

#### 7.2 Linguistic Phenomena

From a detailed analysis of 100 randomly sampled questions, the large majority (86%) involved the (overlapping) linguistic and semantic phenomena below, and illustrated in Tables 1 and 4:

1. **Differing comparative expressions** (≈68%) between knowledge $K_i$ (left) and question $Q_i$ (right). A system needs to bridge such gaps for high performance.

   - “warmer” ↔ “increase temperature”
   - “more difficult” ↔ “slower”
   - “need more time” ↔ “have lesser amount”
   - “decreased distance” ↔ “hugged”
   - “cost increases” ↔ “more costly”
   - “increase mass” ↔ “add extra”
   - “more tightly packed” ↔ “add more”

2. **Indirection and Commonsense knowledge** (≈35%) is needed for about 1/3 of the questions to relate $K$ and $Q$, e.g.,

   - “increased altitude” ↔ “higher”
   - “higher temperatures” ↔ “A/C unit broken”

3. **Multiple Worlds** (≈26%): 1/4 of the questions explicitly mention both situations being compared, e.g., $Q_i$ in Table 1. Such questions are known to be difficult because models can easily confuse the two situations (Tafjord et al., 2019).

4. **Numerical property values** (≈11%) require numeric comparison to identify the qualitative relationship, e.g., that “60 years” is older than “30 years”.

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Table 3: Performance of various models on QUARTZ.

| Model ↓ | All Test | No-flip only | Flip only |
|---------|---------|-------------|-----------|
| Baselines: |        |             |           |
| Random   | 50.0    | 50.0        | 50.0      |
| BERT-Sci | 54.6    | 76.0        | 33.2      |
| Models:  |        |             |           |
| BERT (IR) | 64.4    | 66.3        | 62.5      |
| (BERT IR upper bound) | (67.7) | (68.1) | (67.3) |
| BERT-PFT (no knowledge) | 68.8    | 70.4        | 67.1      |
| BERT-PFT (IR) | 73.7    | 77.3        | 70.2      |
| (BERT-PFT IR upper bound) | (79.8) | (82.1) | (77.6) |
| Human    | 95.0    |             |           |

Table 4: Examples of linguistic and semantic gaps between knowledge $K_i$ (left) and question $Q_i$ (right). A system needs to bridge such gaps for high performance.

- **Comparatives:**
  - “warmer” ↔ “increase temperature”
  - “more difficult” ↔ “slower”
  - “need more time” ↔ “have lesser amount”
  - “decreased distance” ↔ “hugged”
  - “cost increases” ↔ “more costly”
  - “increase mass” ↔ “add extra”
  - “more tightly packed” ↔ “add more”

- **Commonsense Knowledge:**
  - “more land development” ↔ “city grow larger”
  - “not moving” ↔ “sits on the sidelines”
  - “caught early” ↔ “sooner treated”
  - “lets more light in” ↔ “get a better picture”
  - “stronger electrostatic force” ↔ “hairs stand up more”
  - “less air pressure” ↔ “more difficult to breathe”
  - “more photosynthesis” ↔ “increase sunlight”

- **Discrete Values:**
  - “stronger acid” ↔ “vinegar” vs. “tap water”
  - “more energy” ↔ “ripple” vs. “tidal wave”
  - “closer to Earth” ↔ “ball on Earth” vs. “ball in space”
  - “mass” ↔ “baseball” vs. “basketball”
  - “rougher” ↔ “notebook paper” vs. “sandpaper”
  - “heavier” ↔ “small wagon” vs. “eighteen wheeler”

- **Differing comparative expressions** (≈68%)
  - “warmer” ↔ “increase temperature”
  - “more difficult” ↔ “slower”
  - “need more time” ↔ “have lesser amount”
  - “decreased distance” ↔ “hugged”
  - “cost increases” ↔ “more costly”
  - “increase mass” ↔ “add extra”
  - “more tightly packed” ↔ “add more”

- **Indirection and Commonsense knowledge** (≈35%) is needed for about 1/3 of the questions to relate $K$ and $Q$, e.g.,

  - “increased altitude” ↔ “higher”
  - “higher temperatures” ↔ “A/C unit broken”

- **Multiple Worlds** (≈26%): 1/4 of the questions explicitly mention both situations being compared, e.g., $Q_i$ in Table 1. Such questions are known to be difficult because models can easily confuse the two situations (Tafjord et al., 2019).

- **Numerical property values** (≈11%) require numeric comparison to identify the qualitative relationship, e.g., that “60 years” is older than “30 years”.
5. **Discrete property values** (≈7%), often require commonsense to compare, e.g., that a “melon” is larger than an “orange”.

6. **Stories** (≈15%): 15% of the questions are 3 or more sentences long, making comprehension more challenging. This analysis illustrates the richness of linguistic and semantic phenomena in QuaRTZ.

### 7.3 Use of the Annotations

QuaRTZ includes a rich set of annotations on all the knowledge sentences and questions, marking the properties being compared, and the linguistic and semantic comparatives employed (Figure 1). This provides a laboratory for exploring semantic parsing approaches, e.g., (Berant et al., 2013; Krishnamurthy et al., 2017), where the underlying qualitative comparisons are extracted and can be reasoned about.

### 8 Conclusion

Understanding and applying textual qualitative knowledge is an important skill for question-answering, but has received limited attention, in part due the lack of a broad-coverage dataset to study the task. QuaRTZ aims to fill this gap by providing the first open-domain dataset of qualitative relationship questions, along with the requisite qualitative knowledge and a rich set of annotations. Specifically, QuaRTZ removes the requirement, present in all previous qualitative reasoning work, that a fixed set of qualitative relationships be formally pre-specified. Instead, QuaRTZ tests the ability of a system to find and apply an arbitrary relationship on the fly to answer a question, including when simple reasoning (arguments, polarities) is required.

As the QuaRTZ task involves using a general corpus $K$ of textual qualitative knowledge, a high-performing system would be close to a fully general system where $K$ was much larger (e.g., the Web or a filtered subset), encompassing many more qualitative relationships, and able to answer arbitrary questions of this kind. Scaling further would thus require more sophisticated retrieval over a larger corpus, and (sometimes) chaining across influences, when a direct connection was not described in the corpus. QuaRTZ thus provides a dataset towards this end, allowing controlled experiments while still covering a substantial number of textual relations in an open setting. QuaRTZ is available at http://data.allenai.org/quartz/.

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