Geometric deep learning: going beyond Euclidean data

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Abstract

- Many scientific fields study data with an underlying structure that is a non-Euclidean space.
 - Graph and Manifold
 - Social networks, sensor networks, brain imaging
- Deep neural networks have recently proven to be powerful tools for a broad range of problems.
 - Data with an underlying Euclidean or grid-like structure
- Geometric deep learning is an umbrella term for emerging techniques attempting to generalize (structured) deep neural models to non-Euclidean domains

Introduction

- Deep learning
 - Learning complicated concepts by building them from simpler ones in a hierarchical or multi-layer manner
 - Neural networks are popular realizations of such deep multi-layer hierarchies
 - Qualitative breakthroughs
 - Speech recognition, machine translation...
 - The growing computational power and availability of large training datasets

Introduction

- Why it's successful
 - Ability to leverage statistical properties of the data
 - Stationarity and Compositionality (local statistics)
 - E.g., consider images as functions on the Euclidean space
 - Stationarity is owed to shift-invariance;
 - Locality is due to the local connectivity;
 - Compositionality stems from the multi-resolution structure of the grid.
- These properties are exploited by convolutional architectures
 - Extracting local features and reduces the number of parameters
 - Imposes some priors about the data

Introduction

Non-Euclidean geometric data

- In social networks, the characteristics of users can be modeled as signals on the vertices of the social graph
- Sensor networks are graph models of distributed interconnected sensors, whose readings are modelled as time-dependent signals on the vertices
- In genetics, gene expression data are modeled as signals defined on the regulatory network
- Non-Euclidean data implies no familiar properties
 - global parameterization, vector space structure, shift-invariance.
- The purpose of our paper is to show different methods of translating the key ingredients of successful deep learning methods such as convolutional neural networks to non-Euclidean data.

GEOMETRIC LEARNING PROBLEMS

- Two classes of geometric learning problems
 - 1. To characterize the structure of the data
 - 2. Analyzing functions defined on non-Euclidean domain
- First class: structure of the domain (embedding)
 - Manifold learning or non-linear dimensionality reduction
 - Data points with underlying lower dimensional structure embedded into a high-dimensional Euclidean space
 - Recovering the lower dimensional structure
 - Two steps of Manifold learning
 - Constructing a representation of local affinity of the data points
 - Data points are embedded into a low-dimensional space trying to preserve some criterion of the original affinity.

GEOMETRIC LEARNING PROBLEMS

- Second class: analyzing functions defined on a given non-Euclidean domain
 - Prediction: e.g., assume that we are given the geographic coordinates of the users of a social network, represented as a time-dependent signal on the vertices of the social graph. An important application in location-based social networks is to predict the position of the user given his or her past behavior, as well as that of his or her friends.

- Geometric priors
 - 1. Stationarity
 - Translation operator

$$\mathcal{T}_v f(x) = f(x - v), \quad x, v \in \Omega,$$

 The assumption is that the function y is either invariant or equivariant with respect to translations

$$y(\mathcal{T}_v f) = y(f)$$

Geometric priors

- 2. Local deformations and scale separation
 - Deformation operator

$$\mathcal{L}_{\tau}f(x) = f(x - \tau(x))$$

local translations, changes in point of view, rotations

$$|y(\mathcal{L}_{\tau}f) - y(f)| \approx \|\nabla \tau\|$$

smoothness of a given deformation field

 The quantity to be predicted does not change much if the input image is slightly deformed

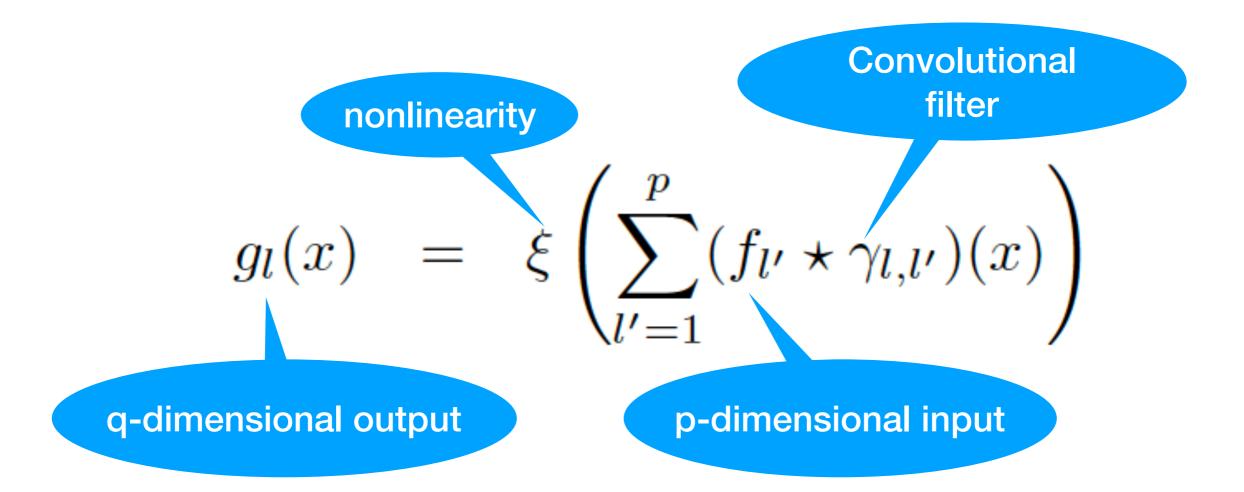
Geometric priors

- 2. Local deformations and scale separation
 - Long-range dependencies can be broken into Multiscale local interaction terms

$$Y(x_1, x_2; v) = \text{Prob}(f(u) = x_1 \text{ and } f(u+v) = x_2)$$

- a. this joint distribution will not be separable for any v
- b. $Y(x_1, x_2; v) \approx Y(x_1, x_2; v(1 + \epsilon))$ for small ϵ
- long-range dependencies can be captured and downsampled at different scales

- Convolutional neural networks
 - Convolutional layers $\mathbf{g} = C_{\Gamma}(\mathbf{f})$



- Convolutional neural networks
 - Pooling layers

a neighborhood around x

$$g_l(x) = P(\{f_l(x') : x' \in \mathcal{N}(x)\}), l = 1, \dots, q,$$

permutation-invariant function such as a L_p -norm (in the latter case, the choice of p=1,2 or ∞ results in *average*-, *energy*-, or *max-pooling*).

- Convolutional neural networks
 - Generic hierarchical representation

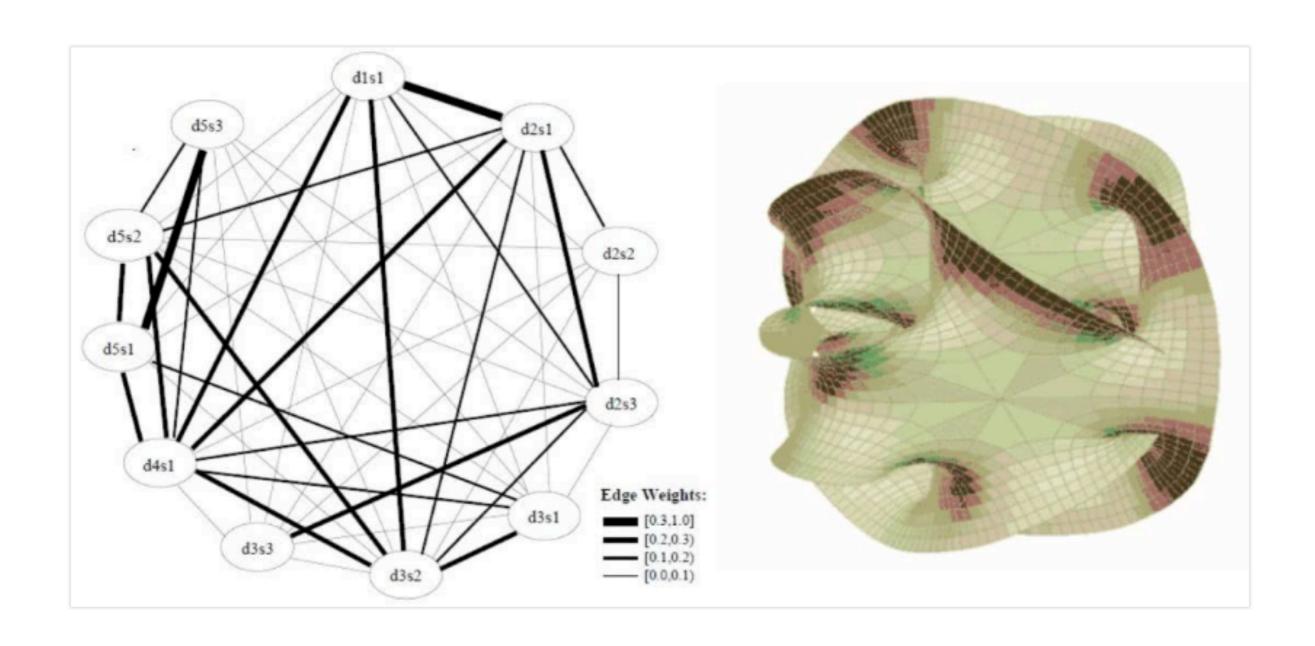
$$U_{\mathbf{\Theta}}(f) = (C_{\Gamma(K)} \cdots P \cdots \circ C_{\Gamma(2)} \circ C_{\Gamma(1)})(f)$$

Supervised learning

$$\min_{\mathbf{\Theta}} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} L(U_{\mathbf{\Theta}}(f_i), y_i),$$

 A key advantage of CNNs explaining their success is that the geometric priors on which CNNs are based result in a learning complexity that avoids the curse of dimensionality.

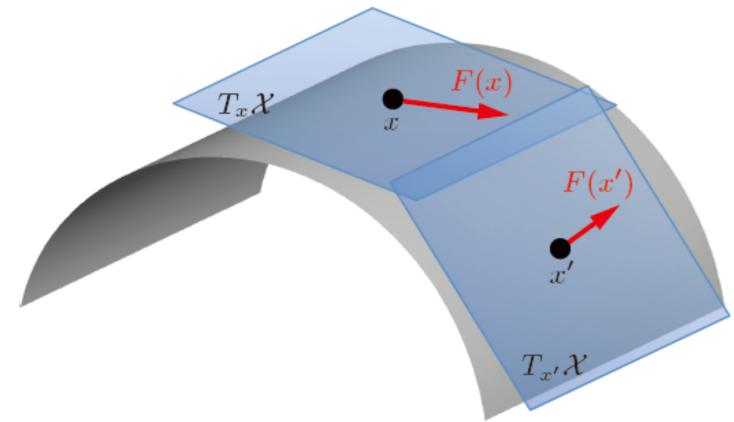
Two prototypical structures: manifolds and graphs



Manifolds

Roughly, a manifold is a space that is locally Euclidean.

Formally speaking, a (differentiable) d-dimensional manifold \mathcal{X} is a topological space where each point x has a neighborhood that is topologically equivalent (homeomorphic) to a d-dimensional Euclidean space, called the *tangent space* and denoted by $T_x\mathcal{X}$ (see Figure 1, top).



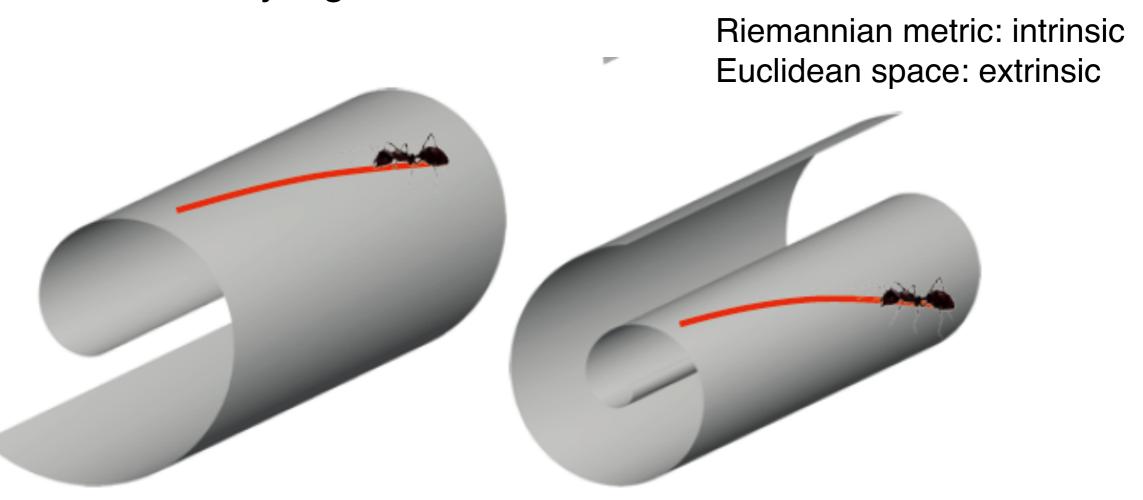
On each tangent space, we define an inner product

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{T_x \mathcal{X}} : T_x \mathcal{X} \times T_x \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R},$$

Riemannian metric in differential geometry

Manifolds

- A manifold equipped with a metric is called a Riemannian manifold
- Nash Embedding Theorem: any sufficiently smooth
 Riemannian manifold can be realized in a Euclidean space of
 sufficiently high dimension



Graphs and discrete differential operators

weighted undirected graphs, formally defined as a pair $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$, where $\mathcal{V} = \{1, \dots, n\}$ is the set of n vertices, and $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V}$ is the set of edges, where the graph being undirected implies that $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}$ iff $(j, i) \in \mathcal{E}$. Furthermore, we associate a weight $a_i > 0$ with each vertex $i \in \mathcal{V}$, and a weight $w_{ij} \geq 0$ with each edge $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}$.

Graphs and discrete differential operators

Real functions $f: \mathcal{V} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $F: \mathcal{E} \to \mathbb{R}$ on the vertices and edges of the graph, respectively, are roughly the discrete analogy of continuous scalar and tangent vector fields in differential geometry. We can define Hilbert spaces $L^2(\mathcal{V})$ and $L^2(\mathcal{E})$ of such functions by specifying the respective inner products,

$$\langle f, g \rangle_{L^2(\mathcal{V})} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{V}} a_i f_i g_i;$$
 (20)

$$\langle F, G \rangle_{L^2(\mathcal{E})} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}} w_{ij} F_{ij} G_{ij}.$$
 (21)

- Graphs and discrete differential operators
 - Graph gradient: mapping functions defined on vertices to functions defined on edges

$$\nabla: L^2(\mathcal{V}) \to L^2(\mathcal{E})$$

$$(\nabla f)_{ij} = f_i - f_j$$

Graph divergence

$$L^2(\mathcal{E}) \to L^2(\mathcal{V})$$

$$(\operatorname{div} F)_i = \frac{1}{a_i} \sum_{j:(i,j)\in\mathcal{E}} w_{ij} F_{ij}$$

- Graphs and discrete differential operators
 - Graph Laplacian $\Delta = -\operatorname{div}\nabla$.

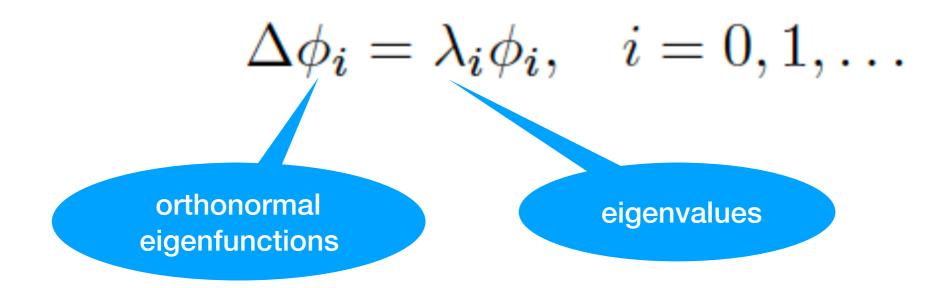
$$\Delta : L^{2}(\mathcal{V}) \to L^{2}(\mathcal{V})$$

$$(\Delta f)_{i} = \frac{1}{a_{i}} \sum_{(i,j)\in\mathcal{E}} w_{ij} (f_{i} - f_{j}).$$

 Intuitive geometric interpretation: the difference between the local average of a function around a point and the value of the function at the point itself.

$$\Delta \mathbf{f} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{W})\mathbf{f}$$

- Fourier analysis on non-Euclidean domains
 - The Laplacian operator is a self-adjoint positivesemidefinite operator



 The eigenfunctions are the smoothest functions in the sense of the Dirichlet energy and can be interpreted as a generalization of the standard Fourier basis to a non-Euclidean domain.

[IN3] Physical interpretation of Laplacian eigenfunctions:

Given a function f on the domain \mathcal{X} , the *Dirichlet energy*

$$\mathcal{E}_{\mathrm{Dir}}(f) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} \|\nabla f(x)\|_{T_x \mathcal{X}}^2 dx = \int_{\mathcal{X}} f(x) \Delta f(x) dx$$
 (27)

measures how smooth it is (the last identity in (27) stems from (19)). We are looking for an orthonormal basis on \mathcal{X} , containing k smoothest possible functions (FIGS3), by solving the optimization problem

$$\min_{\phi_0} \mathcal{E}_{Dir}(\phi_0) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \|\phi_0\| = 1
\min_{\phi_i} \mathcal{E}_{Dir}(\phi_i) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \|\phi_i\| = 1, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots k - 1
\phi_i \perp \text{span}\{\phi_0, \dots, \phi_{i-1}\}.$$
(28)

In the discrete setting, when the domain is sampled at n points, problem (28) can be rewritten as

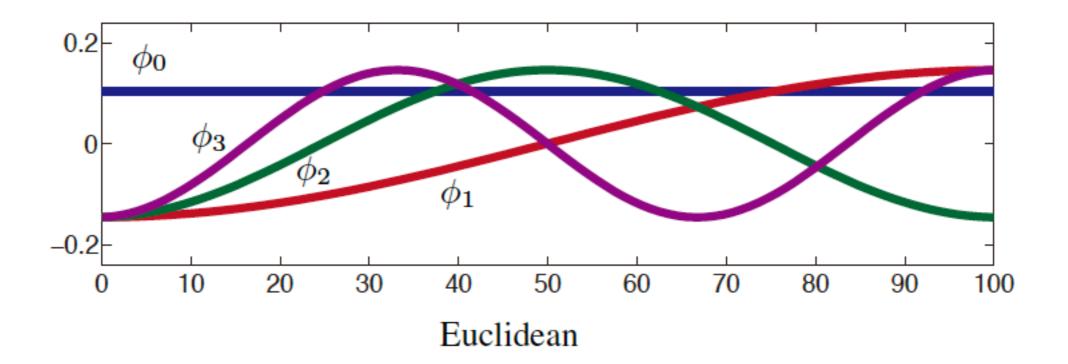
$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\Phi}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}} \operatorname{trace}(\boldsymbol{\Phi}_k^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Delta} \boldsymbol{\Phi}_k) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \boldsymbol{\Phi}_k^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Phi}_k = \mathbf{I}, \quad (29)$$

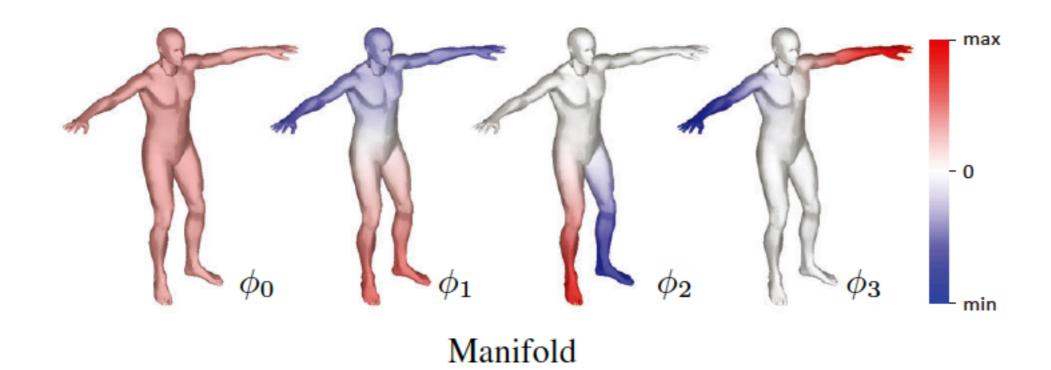
where $\Phi_k = (\phi_0, \dots \phi_{k-1})$. The solution of (29) is given by the first k eigenvectors of Δ satisfying

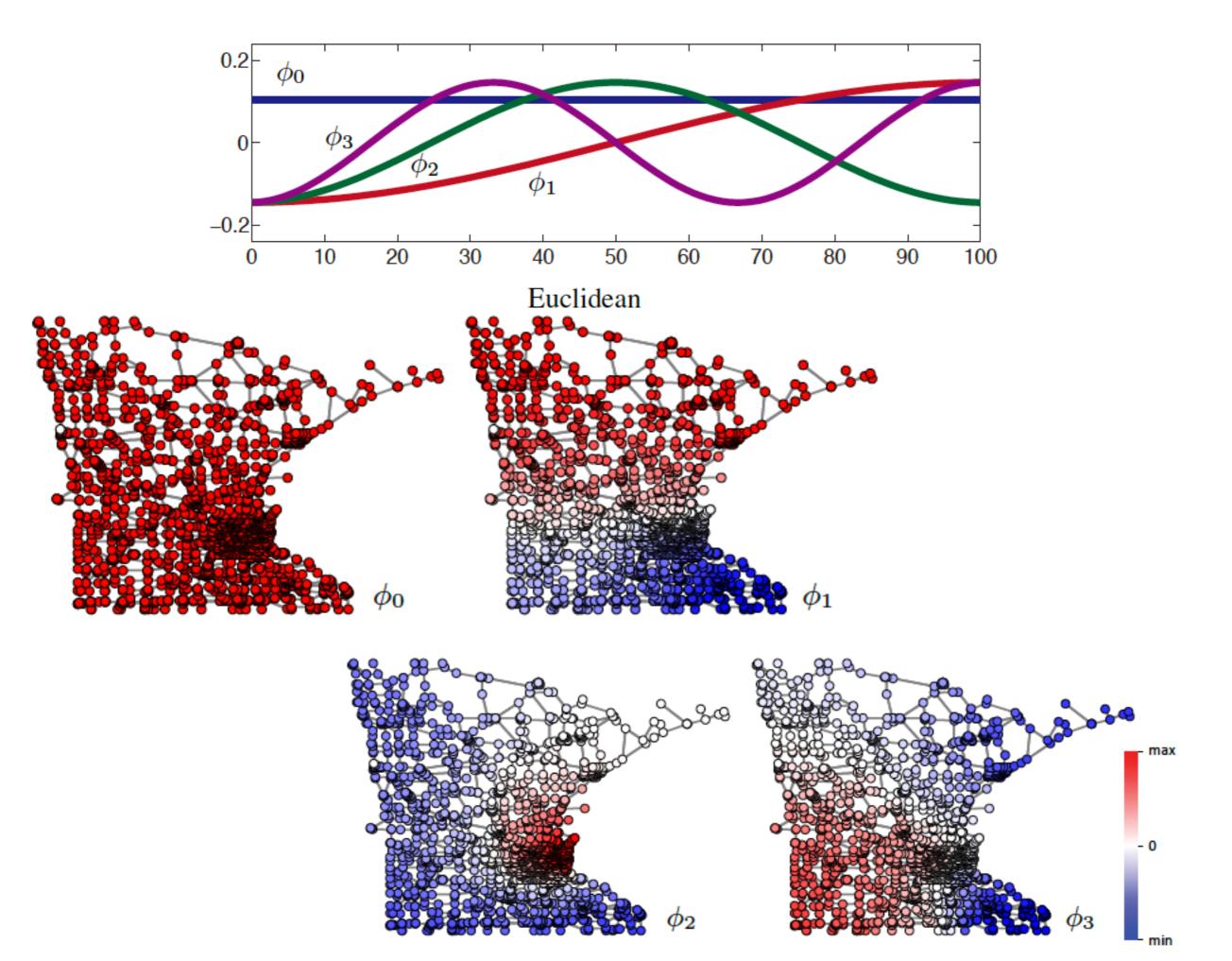
$$\Delta \Phi_k = \Phi_k \Lambda_k, \tag{30}$$

where $\Lambda_k = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_{k-1})$ is the diagonal matrix of corresponding eigenvalues. The eigenvalues $0 = \lambda_0 \le \lambda_1 \le \dots \lambda_{k-1}$ are non-negative due to the positive-semidefiniteness of the Laplacian and can be interpreted as 'frequencies', where $\phi_0 = \operatorname{const}$ with the corresponding eigenvalue $\lambda_0 = 0$ play the role of the DC.

The Laplacian eigendecomposition can be carried out in two ways. First, equation (30) can be rewritten as a generalized eigenproblem $(\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{W})\Phi_k = \mathbf{A}\Phi_k\Lambda_k$, resulting in \mathbf{A} -orthogonal eigenvectors, $\Phi_k^{\top}\mathbf{A}\Phi_k = \mathbf{I}$. Alternatively, introducing a change of variables $\Psi_k = \mathbf{A}^{1/2}\Phi_k$, we can obtain a standard eigendecomposition problem $\mathbf{A}^{-1/2}(\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{W})\mathbf{A}^{-1/2}\Psi_k = \Psi_k\Lambda_k$ with orthogonal eigenvectors $\Psi_k^{\top}\Psi_k = \mathbf{I}$. When $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{D}$ is used, the matrix $\mathbf{\Delta} = \mathbf{A}^{-1/2}(\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{W})\mathbf{A}^{-1/2}$ is referred to as the *normalized symmetric Laplacian*.







A square-integrable function f on \mathcal{X} can be decomposed into Fourier series as

$$f(x) = \sum_{i \geq 0} \underbrace{\langle f, \phi_i \rangle_{L^2(\mathcal{X})}}_{\hat{f}_i} \phi_i(x),$$
 (32)

analysis stage synthesis stage

SPECTRAL METHODS

Spectral CNN (SCNN)

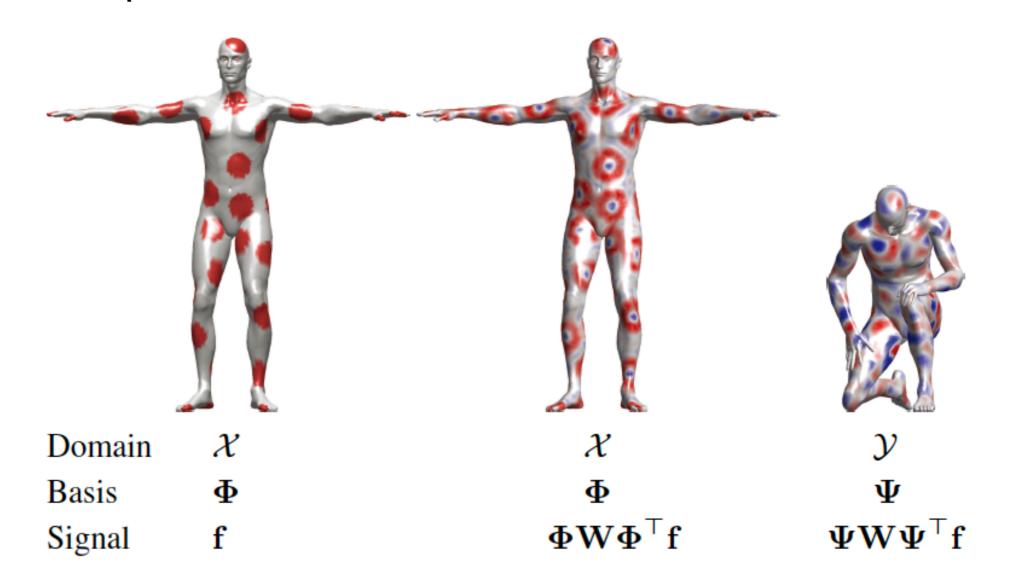
$$\mathbf{g}_l = \xi \left(\sum_{l'=1}^q \mathbf{\Phi}_k \mathbf{\Gamma}_{l,l'} \mathbf{\Phi}_k^{ op} \mathbf{f}_{l'} \right)$$

 $\Gamma_{l,l'}$ is a $k \times k$ diagonal matrix of spectral multipliers

 Using only the first k eigenvectors in sets a cutoff frequency which depends on the intrinsic regularity of the graph and also the sample size.

SPECTRAL METHODS

- Spectral CNN (SCNN)
 - A fundamental limitation of the spectral construction is its limitation to a single domain
 - Basis dependent



SPECTRAL METHODS

Spectral CNN (SCNN)

- A fundamental limitation of the spectral construction is its limitation to a single domain
 - Basis dependent
 - It is possible to construct compatible orthogonal bases across
 different domains resorting to a joint diagonalization procedure
 - Social graph
 - Computer graphics
- Another limitation: too many parameters

$$pqk = O(n)$$

 On Euclidean domains, this is achieved by learning convolutional kernels with small spatial support, which enables the model to learn a number of parameters independent of the input size.