How Powerful are Graph Neural Networks? (EE531 Final Project - Graph)

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- But why GNNs work? Why are they so powerful?
- Most interestingly, how powerful are they?

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- Above works focus on a specific architecture and do not easily generalize to other architectures.
- This paper presents a general framework for analyzing/characterizing the expressive power of a broad class of GNNs!

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Node Classification Problem

Each $v \in V$ has an associated label y_v .

Goal: Learn a representation vector h_v of v such that $y_v = f(h_v)$ i.e. such that v's label can be predicted.

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Graph Classification Problem

A set of graphs $\{G_1, \ldots, G_N\} \subset \mathcal{G}$ is given, along with their labels $\{y_1, \ldots, y_N\} \subset \mathcal{Y}$.

Goal: Learn a representation vector h_G of G such that $y_G = f(h_G)$ i.e. such that G's label can be predicted.



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- k-th layer of a GNN is

$$\begin{aligned} a_v^{(k)} &= \mathsf{AGGREGATE}^{(k)} \left(\left\{ h_u^{(k-1)} : u \in \mathcal{N}_G(v) \right\} \right) \\ h_v^{(k)} &= \mathsf{COMBINE}^{(k)} \left(h_v^{(k-1)}, a_v^{(k)} \right) \end{aligned}$$



 Different choices of AGGREGATE^(k) and COMBINE^(k) have led to different GNN variants/architectures.

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Graph Convolutional Networks, or GCN⁵:

$$h_{v}^{(k)} = \mathsf{ReLU}\left(W \, \mathsf{MEAN}\left\{h_{u}^{(k-1)} : u \in \mathcal{N}_{G}(v) \cup \{v\}\right\}\right)$$

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• In case of node classification, the final node representation $h_{\nu}^{(K)}$ is used for prediction.

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 READOUT can be a simple permutation invariant function, or something more sophisticated⁶⁷

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Question: $G_1 \cong G_2$?

- Appears in: discrete mathematics, mathematical logic, theory of computation, machine learning, computer vision...etc.
- This seemingly harmless problem has harassed researchers for decades!

Here are some facts related to GI:

Not known to be of class NP-complete nor tractable!
 (Researchers have actually defined a new complexity class GI)

⁸László Babai. "Graph isomorphism in quasipolynomial time [extended abstract]". In: Proceedings of the 48th Annual ACM SIGACT Symposium on Theory of Computing, STOC 2016, Cambridge, MA, USA, June 18-21, 2016. 2016, pp 684-697. ◆ ○ ○

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Theorem (Babai, 2015)

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- Some practical algorithms: McKay (1981), Schmidt & Druffel (1976), Ullman (1976)...etc.

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• Weisfeiler-Lehman test of graph isomorphism⁹, or simply WL test, is a combinatorial algorithm for GI.

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- WL test is proved to be successful (and computationally efficient) in isomorphism testing for a broad class of graphs¹⁰

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- WL test is proved to be successful (and computationally efficient) in isomorphism testing for a broad class of graphs¹⁰
- There are some cases (ex. regular graphs) when the WL test fails 11

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- 1-dimensional form of the WL test ("naïve vertex refinement") is based on neighbor aggregations, analogous to the GNNs!
- Overview of the algorithm:
 - Aggregate the labels of nodes and their neighborhoods
 - Hashes the aggregated label into unique new labels
 - If at some iteration the labels of the nodes between the two graphs differ, then the two graphs are non-isomorphic.

Let (G, I) be a labeled graph i.e. a graph G with an endowed node coloring $I: V(G) \to \Sigma$. $(\Sigma: arbitrary codomain)$

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• At *t*-th iteration ($t \ge 0$), the 1-WL computes a node coloring $c_l^{(t)}: V(G) \to \Sigma$, which depends on the previous node coloring:

$$c_l^{(0)} = l, \ c_l^{(t)}(v) = \mathsf{HASH}\left(\left(c_l^{(t-1)}(v), \{\{c_l^{(t-1)}(u)|u \in \mathcal{N}(v)\}\}\right)\right)$$

(HASH bijectively maps the above pair to a unique value in Σ that hasn't been used in previous iterations)

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- If at some iteration, the two graphs have a different number of nodes colored $\sigma \in \Sigma$, conclude that the graphs are not isomorphic.

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- Run above algorithm in parallel for the two input graphs.
- If at some iteration, the two graphs have a different number of nodes colored $\sigma \in \Sigma$, conclude that the graphs are not isomorphic. (This why this 1-dim version is commonly called the *color refinement algorithm*)

• Graph kernel: kernel function that defines *inner product on graphs*¹² (Function measuring the similarity of a pair of two given graphs)

¹²S. V. N. Vishwanathan et al. "Graph Kernels". In: J. Mach. Learn. Res. 11 (2010), pp. 1201–1242.

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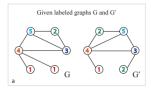
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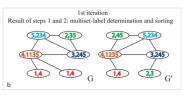
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- Weisfeiler-Lehman subtree kernel¹³: counts common original and compressed labels (resulting from 1-dim WL test) in two graphs.

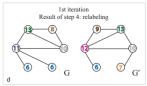
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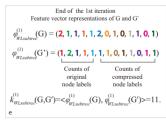
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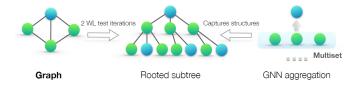


• Is it related to GNN?

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- The kernel uses the *counts of node labels* at different iterations of the WL test as the *feature vector* of a graph.
- Intuitively, a node's label at the *k*-th iteration of the 1-dim WL test represents a subtree structure of height k rooted at the node.



 Thus, the graph features considered by the WL subtree kernel are essentially counts of different rooted subtrees in the graph!

• k-dim WL test is a generalization of the 1-dim WL test; it colors tuples from $V(G)^k$ instead of nodes.

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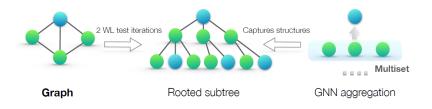
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- In this work, we only focus on 1-dim WL test.

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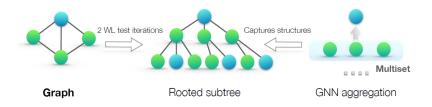
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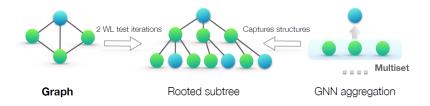




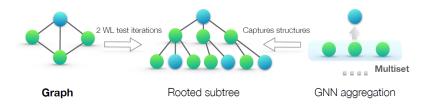
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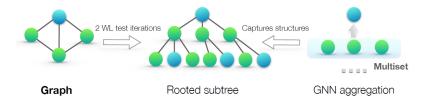
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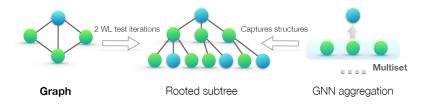
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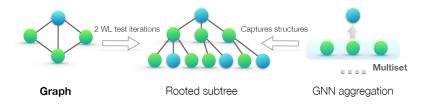
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- Assign each feature vector a unique label from a countable universe.
- Then, feature vectors of a set of neighboring nodes form a multiset.



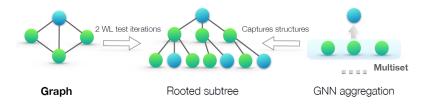
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Let G_1 and G_2 be any two non-isomorphic graphs.

If a graph neural network $\mathcal{A}:\mathcal{G}\to\mathbb{R}^d$ maps G_1 and G_2 to different embeddings, the Weisfeiler-Lehman graph isomorphism test also decides G_1 and G_2 are not isomorphic.

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 It says that any aggregation-based GNN is at most as powerful as the WL test in distinguishing different graphs.

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Theorem 3

Let $\mathcal{A}:\mathcal{G}\to\mathbb{R}^d$ be a GNN.

With a sufficient number of GNN layers, \mathcal{A} maps any G_1 and G_2 that the Weisfeiler-Lehman test of isomorphism decides as non-isomorphic, to different embeddings if the following conditions hold:

ullet A aggregates and updates node features iteratively with

$$h_{v}^{(k)} = \phi\left(h_{v}^{(k-1)}, f\left(\left\{h_{u}^{(k-1)}: u \in \mathcal{N}_{G}(v)\right\}\right)\right)$$

where the functions f, which operates on multisets, and ϕ are *injective*.

• \mathcal{A} 's graph-level readout, which operates on the multiset of node features $\left\{h_v^{(k)}\right\}$, is *injective*.

• Node feature vectors in the WL test are essentially one-hot encodings, and thus cannot capture similarity between subtrees!

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- GNNs can not only discriminate different structures, but can also learn to map similar graph structures to similar embeddings and capture dependencies between graph structures.
- Especially useful when co-occurrence of subtrees is sparse across different graphs, or there are noisy edges and node features.¹⁵

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 Well we've proved (or more accurately, seen) that GNNs under certain conditions is maximally powerful.

¹⁶ Manzil Zaheer et al. "Deep Sets". In: Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 30: Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2017, 4-9 December 2017, Long Beach, CA, USA≥ 201∄ pp. 3391–3401. ▶ ■

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- Let us develop a simple architecture, GIN!
- Idea: deep multisets¹⁶ i.e. parametrizing universal multiset functions with neural networks.

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Lemma 5

Assume \mathcal{X} is countable. There exists a function $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^n$ so that $h(X) = \sum_{x \in X} f(x)$ is unique for each multiset $X \subset \mathcal{X}$ of bounded size. Moreover, any multiset function g can be decomposed as $g(X) = \phi\left(\sum_{x \in X} f(x)\right)$ for some function ϕ .

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- Observe that certain popular injective set functions, such as the mean aggregator, are not injective multiset functions!
- This lemma tells us that sum aggregators can represent injective, in fact, universal functions over multisets.
- Thus, we can conceive aggregation schemes that can represent universal functions over a node and the multiset of its neighbors, satisfying the *injectiveness condition* (a) in Theorem 3!

Here is a simple and concrete formulation of the previous discussion:

Corollary 6

Assume \mathcal{X} is countable. There exists a function $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^n$ so that for infinitely many choices of ϵ , including all irrational numbers,

 $h(c,X) = (1+\epsilon)f(c) + \sum_{x \in X} f(x)$ is unique for each pair (c,X), where $c \in \mathcal{X}$ and $X \subset \mathcal{X}$ is a multiset of bounded size.

Moreover, any function g over such pairs can be decomposed as $g(c,X) = \varphi\left((1+\epsilon)f(c) + \sum_{x \in X} f(x)\right)$ for some function φ .

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Moreover, any function g over such pairs can be decomposed as $g(c,X) = \varphi\left((1+\epsilon)f(c) + \sum_{x \in X} f(x)\right)$ for some function φ .

• We can use MLPs to model and learn f and φ , thanks to the Universal Approximation Theorem¹⁷¹⁸.

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How powerful is MLP?

Universal Approximation Theorem (Hornik, 1991)

Define

$$\mathscr{N}_{k}^{(n)}(\psi) = \left\{ h : \mathbb{R}^{k} \to \mathbb{R} \middle| h(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \beta_{j} \psi(a'_{j} x - \theta_{j}) \right\}$$

as the set of all functions implemented by such a network with n hidden units, where ψ is the common activation function of the hidden units. If ψ is continuous, bounded and nonconstant, then $\mathscr{N}_k^{(n)}(\psi)$ is dense in $\mathscr{C}(X)$ for all compact subsets X of \mathbb{R}^k .

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- Every continuous function can be approximated arbitrarily closely by a multi-layer perceptron with just one hidden layer.
- The choice of the activation function doesn't matter; it's the multilayer feedforward architecture that gives neural networks the potential of being universal approximators.

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- ullet We may make ϵ as a learnable parameter, or a fixed scalar.
- Then, GIN updates node representations as:

$$h_{v}^{(k)} = \mathsf{MLP}^{(k)}\left(\left(1+\epsilon^{(k)}\right)h_{v}^{(k-1)} + \sum_{u \in \mathscr{N}(v)}h_{u}^{(k-1)}
ight)$$

 Node embeddings, learned by the GIN, can be directly used for node classification and link prediction.

¹⁹ Keyulu Xu et al. "Representation Learning on Graphs with Jumping Knowledge Networks". In: Proceedings of the 35th International Conference on Machine Learning, ICML 2018, Stockholmsmässan, Stockholm, Sweden, July 10-15, 2018. 2018, pp. 5449–5458.

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$$h_G = \mathsf{CONCAT}\left(\mathsf{READOUT}\left(\left\{h_v^k|v\in V(G)\right\}\right)\Big|k=0,1,\ldots,K\right)$$

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 Note that if GIN replaces READOUT with summing all node features from the same iteration, it provably generalizes the WL test and the WL subtree kernel.

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• Unlike models using MLPs, 1-layer perceptron (even with the bias term) is not a universal approximator of multiset functions.

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- GCN utilizes mean aggregator.
- How can we characterize the structures that GCN can or cannot capture?

• Consider two multisets $X_1 = (S, m)$ and $X_2 = (S, km)$

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Corollary 8

Assume \mathcal{X} is countable. There exists a function $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^n$ so that $h(X) = \frac{1}{|X|} \sum_{x \in X} f(x)$, $h(X_1) = h(X_2)$ if only if multisets X_1 and X_2 have the same distribution. That is, assuming $|X_2| \ge |X_1|$, we have $X_1 = (S, m)$ and $X_2 = (S, km)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

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 This is as powerful as the sum aggregator if the node features are diverse and rarely repeat, and thus effective for node classification.

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GraphSAGE

As described previously, GraphSAGE²² takes the form:

$$\begin{aligned} a_v^{(k)} &= \mathsf{MAX}\left(\left\{\mathsf{ReLU}\left(Wh_u^{(k-1)}\right) : u \in \mathcal{N}_G(v)\right\}\right) \\ h_v^{(k)} &= W\left[h_v^{(k-1)}, a_v^{(k)}\right] \end{aligned}$$

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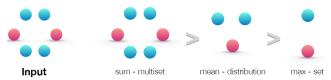
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Corollary 9

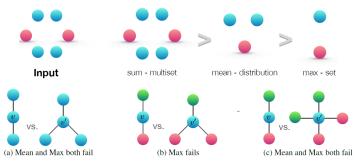
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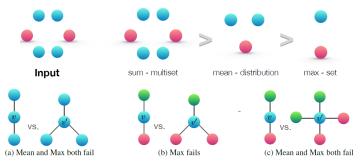


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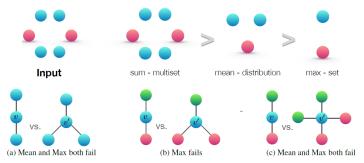
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- Sum over multiset aggregator (as in GIN) completely captures the exact structure of graph.
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- Max-pooling aggregator (as in GraphSAGE) captures the representative elements of the graph, or its skeleton

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Experiments

The goal of the experiment is to compare the training and test performance of GIN and less powerful GNN variants.

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- Training set performance: compare different GNN models based on their representational power
- Test set performance: quantifies generalization ability

Experiment Design

- 9 graph classification benchmarks were used²³:
 - 4 bioinformatics datasets (MUTAG, PTC, NCI1, PROTEINS)
 - 5 social network datasets (COLLAB, IMDB-BINARY, IMDB-MULTI, REDDIT-BINARY, REDDIT-MULTI5K)

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- Several models were used:
 - GIN $-\epsilon$: GIN that *learns* ϵ by gradient descent
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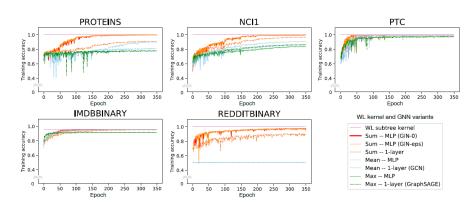
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- The baselines used were:
 - WL subtree kernel with C-SVM used as a classifier
 - Deep learning architectures i.e. DCNN, PATCHY-SAN, DGCNN
 - AWL

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Results



Results

Datasets	IMDB-B	IMDB-M	RDT-B	RDT-M5K	COLLAB	MUTAG	PROTEINS	PTC	NCII
ថ្មី # graphs	1000	1500	2000	5000	5000	188	1113	344	4110
# graphs # classes	2	3	2	5	3	2	2	2	2
Avg # nodes	19.8	13.0	429.6	508.5	74.5	17.9	39.1	25.5	29.8
WL subtree	73.8 ± 3.9	50.9 ± 3.8	81.0 ± 3.1	52.5 ± 2.1	78.9 ± 1.9	90.4 ± 5.7	75.0 ± 3.1	59.9 ± 4.3	86.0 \pm 1.8 *
g DCNN	49.1	33.5	-	-	52.1	67.0	61.3	56.6	62.6
E PATCHYSAN DGCNN	71.0 ± 2.2	45.2 ± 2.8	86.3 ± 1.6	49.1 ± 0.7	72.6 ± 2.2	92.6 \pm 4.2 *	75.9 ± 2.8	60.0 ± 4.8	78.6 ± 1.9
DGCNN	70.0	47.8	-	-	73.7	85.8	75.5	58.6	74.4
AWL	74.5 ± 5.9	51.5 ± 3.6	87.9 ± 2.5	54.7 ± 2.9	73.9 ± 1.9	87.9 ± 9.8	-	-	-
SUM-MLP (GIN-0)	$\textbf{75.1} \pm \textbf{5.1}$	$\textbf{52.3} \pm \textbf{2.8}$	92.4 ± 2.5	$\textbf{57.5} \pm \textbf{1.5}$	$\textbf{80.2} \pm \textbf{1.9}$	89.4 ± 5.6	76.2 ± 2.8	64.6 ± 7.0	$\textbf{82.7} \pm \textbf{1.7}$
SUM−MLP (GIN-ε)	$\textbf{74.3} \pm \textbf{5.1}$	$\textbf{52.1} \pm \textbf{3.6}$	92.2 ± 2.3	$\textbf{57.0} \pm \textbf{1.7}$	$\textbf{80.1} \pm \textbf{1.9}$	89.0 ± 6.0	75.9 ± 3.8	63.7 ± 8.2	$\textbf{82.7} \pm \textbf{1.6}$
SUM−MLP (GIN-ε) SUM−1-LAYER MEAN MID	74.1 ± 5.0	$\textbf{52.2} \pm \textbf{2.4}$	90.0 ± 2.7	55.1 ± 1.6	80.6 ± 1.9	90.0 ± 8.8	76.2 ± 2.6	63.1 ± 5.7	82.0 ± 1.5
MEAN-MLP	73.7 ± 3.7	$\textbf{52.3} \pm \textbf{3.1}$	50.0 ± 0.0	20.0 ± 0.0	79.2 ± 2.3	83.5 ± 6.3	75.5 ± 3.4	66.6 ± 6.9	80.9 ± 1.8
MEAN-1-LAYER (GCN)	74.0 ± 3.4	51.9 ± 3.8	50.0 ± 0.0	20.0 ± 0.0	79.0 ± 1.8	85.6 ± 5.8	76.0 ± 3.2	64.2 ± 4.3	80.2 ± 2.0
MAX-MLP	73.2 ± 5.8	51.1 ± 3.6	-	-	-	84.0 ± 6.1	76.0 ± 3.2	64.6 ± 10.2	77.8 ± 1.3
MAX-1-LAYER (GraphSAGE)	72.3 ± 5.3	50.9 ± 2.2	_	_	_	85.1 ± 7.6	75.9 ± 3.2	63.9 ± 7.7	77.7 ± 1.5

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- Theoretical foundations for reasoning about the expressive power of GNNS
- Tight bounds on the representational capacity of popular GNN variants. (cf. WL test)
- Designed a provably maximally powerful GNN under the neighborhood aggregation framework (Graph Isomorphism Network)

• Different aggregators?

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- Better understanding of the optimization landscape

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Summary of GNNs

Here is a summary of "major" GNNs²⁴: (next page)

²⁴Zonghan Wu et al. "A Comprehensive Survey on Graph Neural Networks". In: arXiv e-prints (Jan. 2019). arXiv: 1901.00596 [cs.LG].

Summary of GNNs

(1: RecGNN, 2: Spectral-based ConvGNN, 3: Spatial-based ConvGNN)

Method	Category	Time Complexity	Features
GNN[16]	1	O(m)	Information diffusion mechanism, updates nodes' states until a stable equilibrium is reached.
Spectral CNN[4]	2	$O(n^3)$	Treats the filters as a set of learnable parameters.
ChebNet[6]	2	O(m)	Approximates the filger by Chebyshev polynomials of the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues.
GCN[11]	2	O(m)	First-order approximation of ChebNet
AGCN[13]	2	$O(n^2)$	Learns hidden structural relations by using the residual graph adjacency matrix through learnable metric.
DualGCN[27]	2	O(m)	Introduces dual graph convolutional architecture with two graph convolutional layers in parallel.
NN4G[14]	3	O(m)	Performs graph convolutions by summing up a node's neighborhood information directly.
DCNN[1]	3	$O(n^2)$	Treats graph convolutions as a diffusion process
MPNN[7]	3	O(m)	Treats graph convolutions as a message passing process.
GraphSAGE[8]	3	-	Sampling of fixed number of neighbors for each node.
GIN[21]	3	O(m)	This paper!

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Thank you for your attention! Any questions?