

Topological Deep Learning

Part 1: Topological Message Passing

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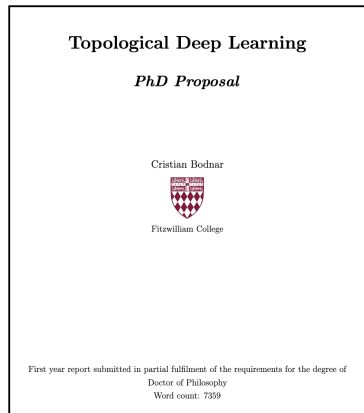
July 26, 2022



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Introduction

Topological Deep Learning



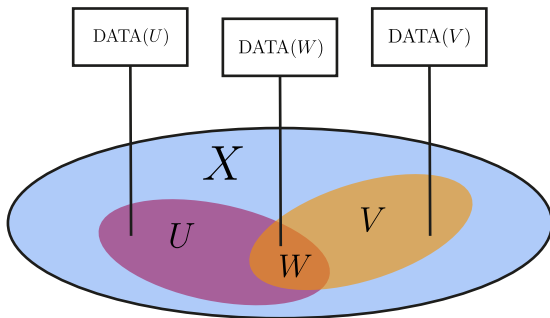
This talk is an attempt to describe the vision for a research programme on Topological Deep Learning.¹

PhD Proposal (2020)

¹This term and similar ones have been used informally and in print Carlsson, *Topological Deep Learning*, 2021; Hajij and Istvan, "Topological Deep Learning: Classification Neural Networks", 2021; Rieck, *Topological Representation Learning: A Differentiable Perspective*, 2022

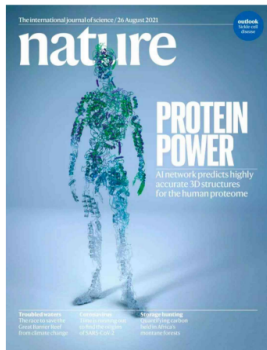
Topological Deep Learning

A research programme studying deep learning on data attached to topological spaces and topological aspects of machine learning models.



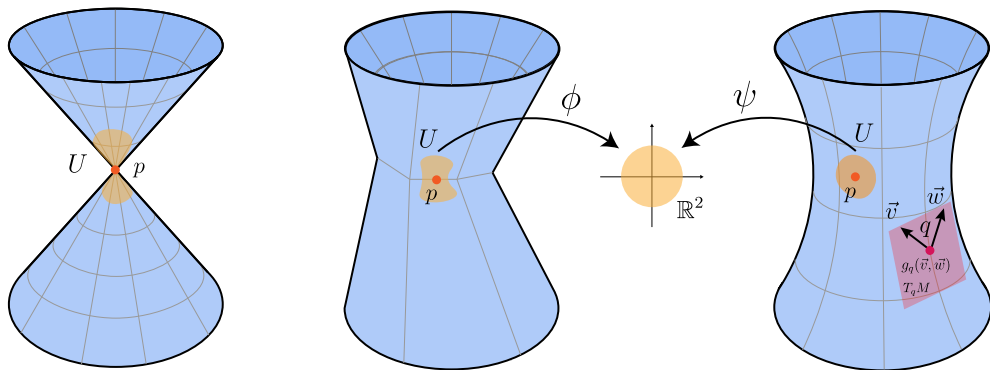
Geometric Deep Learning

Data often resides on structured domains: molecules, meshes, manifolds ...



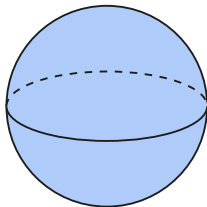
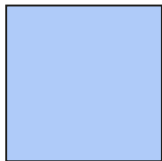
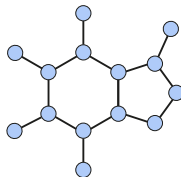
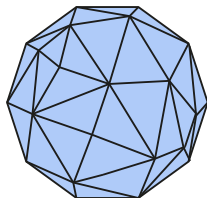
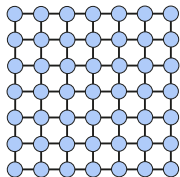
Is geometry all you need?

We must work with a chain of structural dependencies and not all spaces can be equipped with geometrical structure.



Geometry on graphs

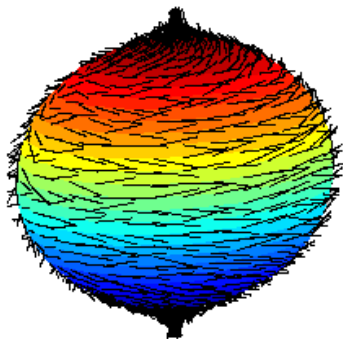
Graphs, the most prevalent space in GDL do not have a “natural” geometric structure².



²The diagram is inspired from Bronstein, *Graph Neural Networks through the lens of Differential Geometry and Algebraic Topology*, 2022

Topological Obstructions

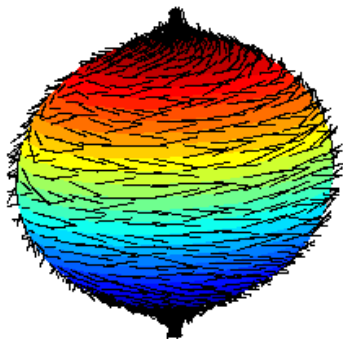
The structure of the topological layer affects the geometrical layer. Therefore, the topology of the space also affect the properties of the models working on it.



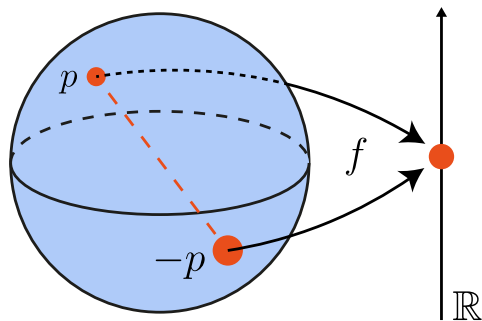
The Hairy Ball Theorem (Source: wikipedia).

Topological Obstructions

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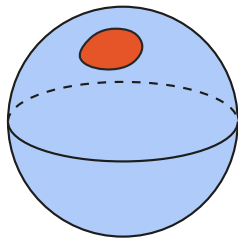
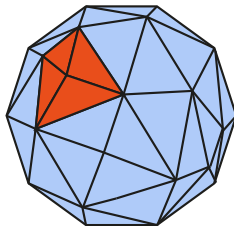
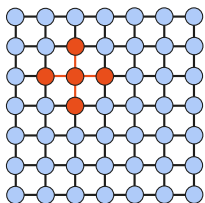
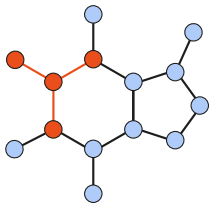
The Hairy Ball Theorem (Source: wikipedia).



The Borsuk-Ulam Theorem.

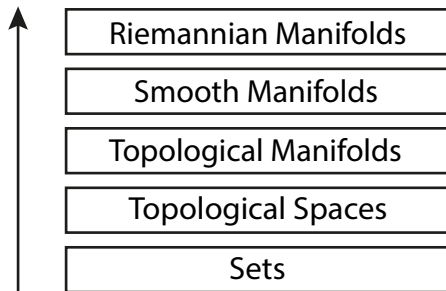
A structure to rule them all

By adopting this very general viewpoint, we can treat all the spaces of interest in a unified manner.



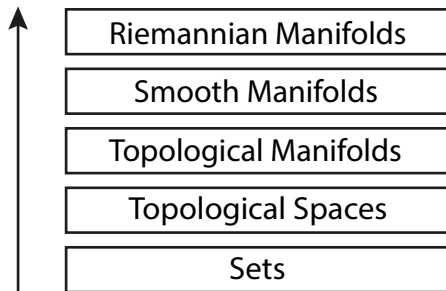
We can understand all types of spaces in terms of its neighbourhood or open set structure.

A bottom up approach



The topological perspective provides us with a bottom-up approach for learning from non-Euclidean data.

A bottom up approach

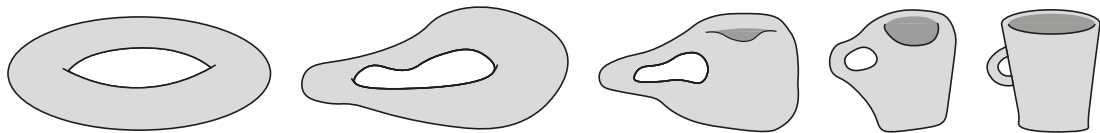


The topological perspective provides us with a bottom-up approach for learning from non-Euclidean data.

We will see that in this way we can recover (to some degree) these higher-level structures even on ill-behaved spaces like graphs.

Noise robustness

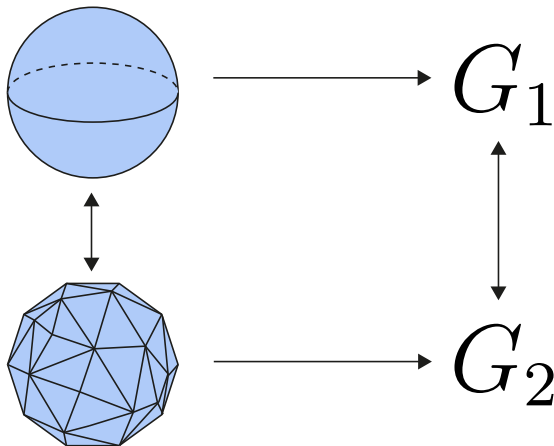
Topological properties are by construction invariant under smooth deformations and therefore, robust to noise. This observation led to Topological Quantum Computers.



To a topologist, a donut and a mug are the same.

A categorical foundation of data processing

Category theory was invented by Samuel Eilenberg and Saunders Mac Lane during their work on algebraic topology. It is a general theory of mathematical structures.

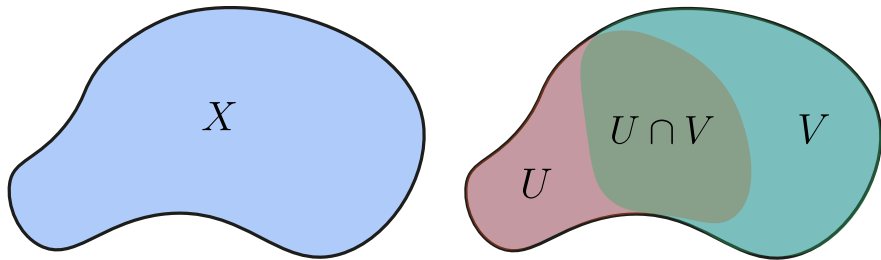


Category theory allows us to translate relations between spaces to relation between groups.

Topological Spaces

A *topological space* is a set X together with a collection \mathcal{T} of subsets of X called the *open sets* of X and satisfying certain axioms:

1. The empty set and X belong to \mathcal{T} .
2. Any finite intersection and arbitrary union of open sets is an open set.



A topological space X and its open sets. These sets provide neighbourhood structure for the points of X .

A subfield of Geometric Deep Learning?



Henri Poincaré
(Source: wikipedia).

In “Analysis Situs” Poincaré discusses the group of homeomorphisms of a space and topology as the study of the invariants of the actions of this group. Thus he considered topology as a subfield of (Klein’s) geometry.

A subfield of Geometric Deep Learning?



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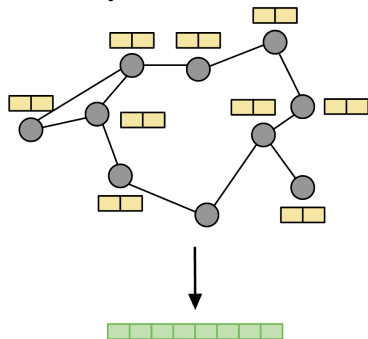
In this sense, Topological Deep Learning can be seen as a subfield of Geometric Deep Learning.

Topological Message Passing

Graph Machine Learning

Two typical tasks showing up in graph ML:

Graph-Level Tasks

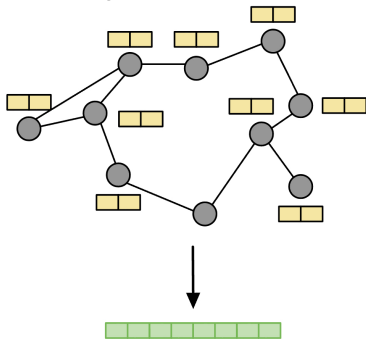


e.g. predicting solubility of molecules

Graph Machine Learning

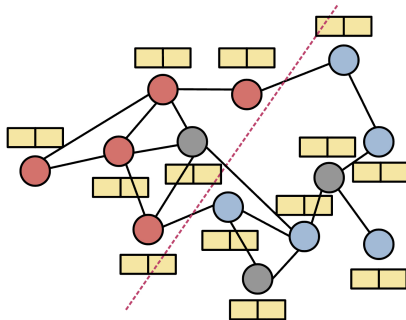
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Node-level Tasks

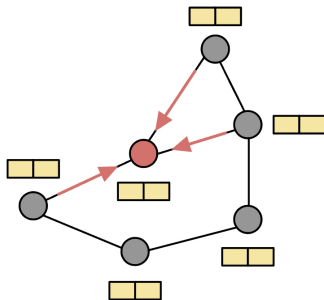


e.g. fraud detection

Message Passing Neural Networks

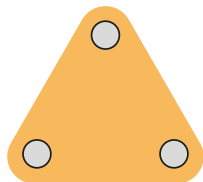
Most Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) can be understood as message passing:

$$m_v^k := \text{AGGREGATE}(\{h_u^{k-1} \mid u \in \mathcal{N}(v)\}) \quad h_v^k := \text{COMBINE}(h_v^{k-1}, m_v^k)$$

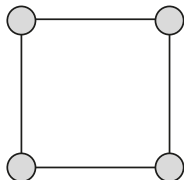


Limitations of Graph Neural Networks

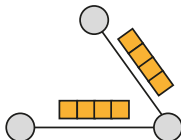
Message Passing GNNs come with a series of limitations...



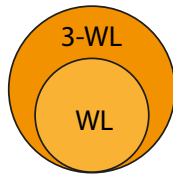
Higher-order interactions



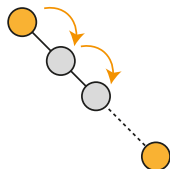
Higher-order structures



Higher-order features



Expressive power



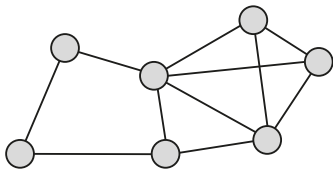
Long-range interactions

Higher-dimensional generalisations of graphs

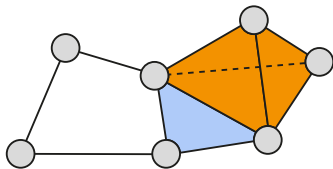
We will see that these limitations are to some degree related to the underlying space.

Higher-dimensional generalisations of graphs

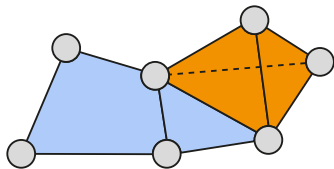
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Graph



Simplicial Complex

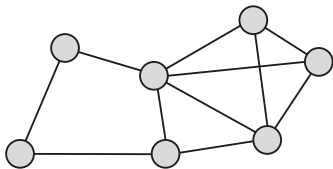


Cell Complex

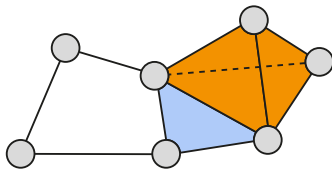
Graphs are part of a hierarchy of combinatorial topological spaces that are built from d -dimensional cells.

Higher-dimensional generalisations of graphs

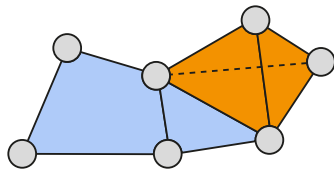
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Graph



Simplicial Complex



Cell Complex

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Idea

How can we extend message passing to simplicial and cell complexes?

Message Passing Simplicial Networks

Simplicial Complexes

Let V be a non-empty vertex set. A *simplicial complex* K is a collection of nonempty subsets of V , called *simplices*, such that:

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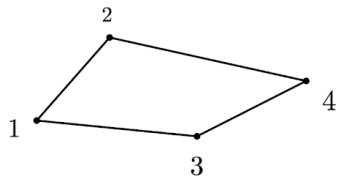
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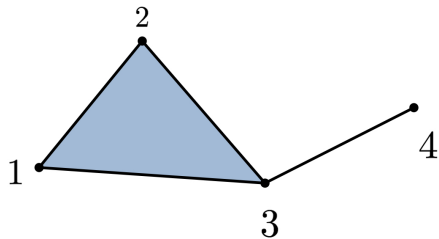
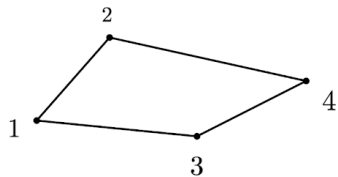


$$\{ \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{4\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{2,4\}, \{3,4\} \}$$

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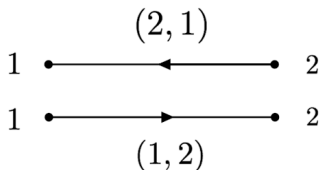
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Orientations

An *oriented* simplex is a simplex with a specified order of its vertices. These can be visualised as a walk on the simplex in the order specified by the vertices.

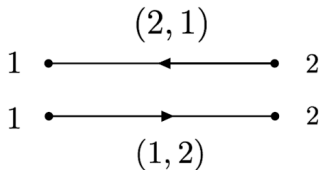


The orientations of the 1-simplex $\{1, 2\}$

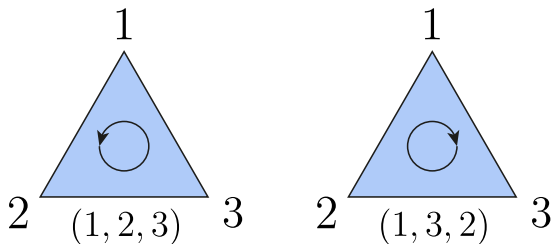
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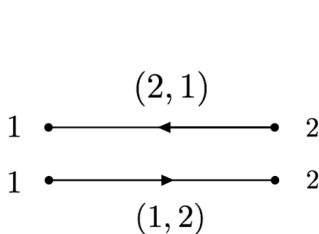


Two orientations of the 2-simplex $\{1, 2, 3\}$

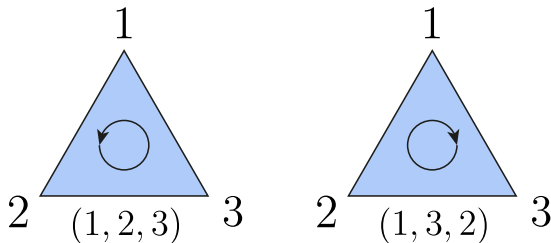
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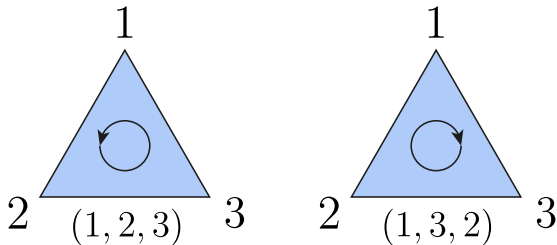


Two orientations of the 2-simplex $\{1, 2, 3\}$

We represent oriented simplices as tuples (\cdot) and unoriented ones as sets $\{\cdot\}$.

Orientations

Ignoring the starting point, each k -simplex with $k > 0$ has two distinct orientations.



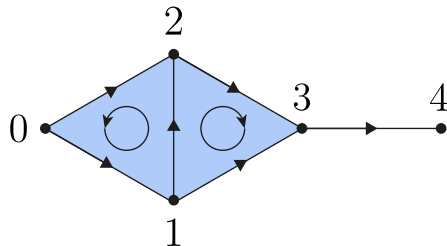
We can choose a representative for each of these two equivalence classes:

$123 := \{(1, 2, 3), (2, 3, 1), (3, 1, 2)\} \leftarrow$ Even permutations

$132 := \{(1, 3, 2), (2, 1, 3), (3, 2, 1)\} \leftarrow$ Odd permutations

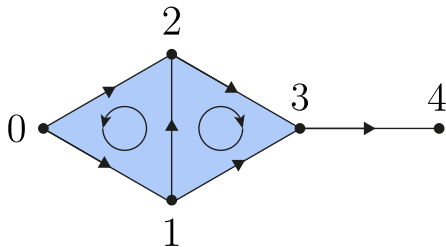
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Oriented Simplicial Complexes

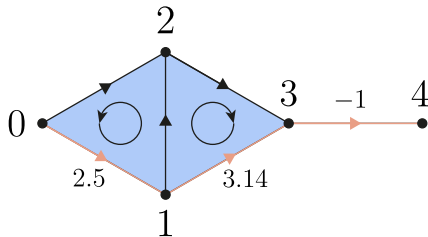
An *oriented simplicial complex* is a simplicial complex with a choice of orientation for each of its simplices.



An easy way to choose an orientation for a complex is to choose a global order for the vertices $[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ and then use this order for the vertices of any simplex σ .

Chains

The vector space of k -chains $C_k(K, \mathbb{R})$ is the vector space with real coefficients having as a basis the oriented k -simplices of K .

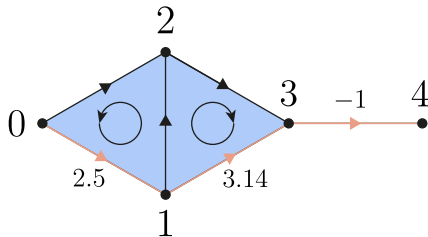


Consider the 1-chain $c_1 \in C_1(K, \mathbb{R})$.

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 &= 2.5(0, 1) - (3, 4) + 3.14(1, 3) \\ &= 2.5(0, 1) + (4, 3) + 3.14(1, 3) \end{aligned}$$

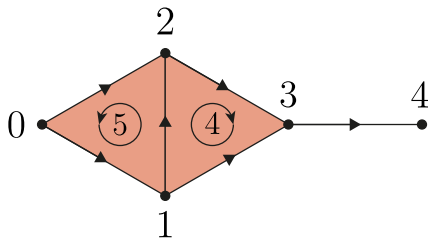
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Consider the 2-chain $c_2 \in C_2(K, \mathbb{R})$.

$$c_2 = 5.0(0, 1, 2) + 4.0(1, 2, 3)$$

Boundary operator

Denote by $\sigma_{-i} := (v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_i, \dots, v_k)$ the simplex obtained by dropping the vertex v_i .

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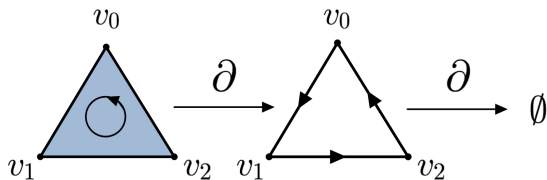
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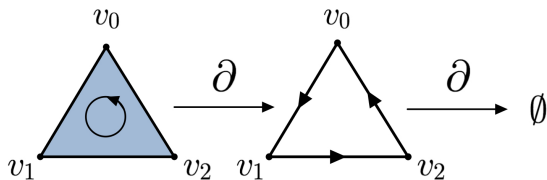


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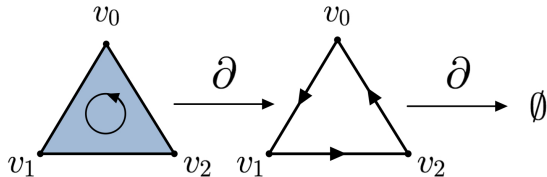
$$\partial(v_0, v_1, v_2) = (v_1, v_2) - (v_0, v_2) + (v_0, v_1) = (v_1, v_2) + (v_2, v_0) + (v_0, v_1) \quad (1)$$

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$$\partial\partial(v_0, v_1, v_2) = \partial(v_1, v_2) + \partial(v_2, v_0) + \partial(v_0, v_1) \quad (2)$$

$$= (v_2 - v_1) + (v_0 - v_2) + (v_1 - v_0) = 0 \quad (3)$$

Boundary of a Boundary

Is the last result a coincidence? Does it actually work for more complicated cases?

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Proposition

The boundary of a boundary is zero: $\partial_{k-1} \circ \partial_k = 0 \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{im} \partial_k \subseteq \ker \partial_{k-1}$

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Proposition

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Proof.

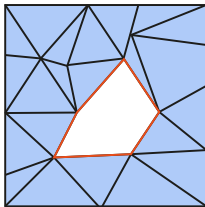
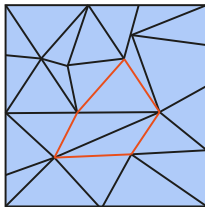
$$(\partial_{k-1} \circ \partial_k)(v_0, \dots, v_k) = \partial_{k-1} \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i (v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_i, \dots, v_k) \quad (4)$$

$$= \sum_{j < i} (-1)^j (-1)^i \sigma_{-i, -j} + \sum_{j > i} (-1)^{j-1} (-1)^i \sigma_{-i, -j} = 0 \quad (5)$$



What is a topological hole?

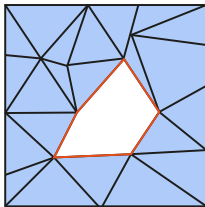
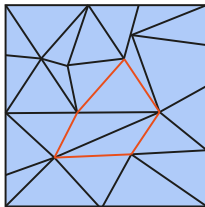
What is the difference between these two 1-chains? One is a hole and the other is not.



Two 1-cochains, c_1 and c_2 . The second is a hole, while the first is not.

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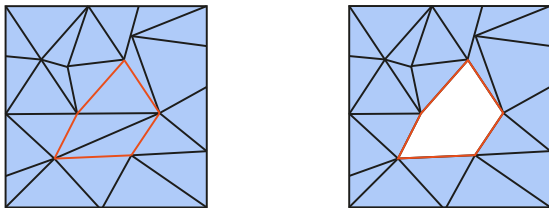


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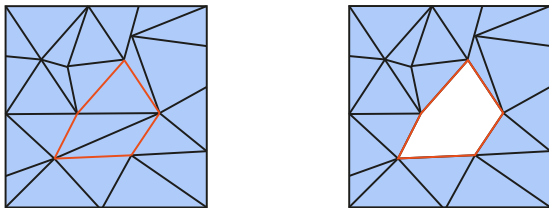


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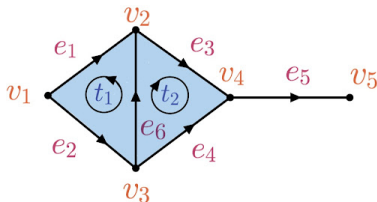
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This leads to a definition of k -dimensional holes, given by the k -th Homology group

$$H_k(K) := \ker \partial_k / \text{im } \partial_{k+1}$$

Boundary matrices

We can represent the boundary operator for each dimension using a matrix.



$$B_1 = \begin{matrix} & e_1 & e_2 & e_3 & e_4 & e_5 & e_6 \\ \begin{matrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \\ v_5 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ +1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & +1 \\ 0 & +1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & +1 & +1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & +1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

$$B_2 = \begin{matrix} & t_1 & t_2 \\ \begin{matrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \\ e_4 \\ e_5 \\ e_6 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ +1 & 0 \\ 0 & +1 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ +1 & +1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

Hodge Laplacian

The k -th Hodge Laplacian³ $\mathbf{L}_k : C_k(K, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow C_k(K, \mathbb{R})$ is given by:

$$\mathbf{L}_k = \mathbf{L}_k^\downarrow + \mathbf{L}_k^\uparrow = \mathbf{B}_k^\top \mathbf{B}_k + \mathbf{B}_{k+1} \mathbf{B}_{k+1}^\top$$

³Horak and Jost, "Spectra of combinatorial Laplace operators on simplicial complexes", 2013; Muhammad and Egerstedt, "Control using higher order Laplacians in network topologies", 2006; Lim, "Hodge Laplacians on graphs", 2020; Barbarossa and Sardellitti, "Topological signal processing over simplicial complexes", 2020; Schaub et al., "Random walks on simplicial complexes and the normalized Hodge 1-Laplacian", 2020.

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Denote by $\sigma_i \vee \sigma_j$ if σ_i, σ_j share a $(k-1)$ -simplex and $\sigma_i \wedge \sigma_j$ if they are on the boundary of the same $(k+1)$ -simplex.

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$$\mathbf{L}_k^\downarrow(i, j) = \begin{cases} k+1 & \text{if } i = j \\ \pm 1 & \text{if } i \neq j \text{ and } \sigma_i \vee \sigma_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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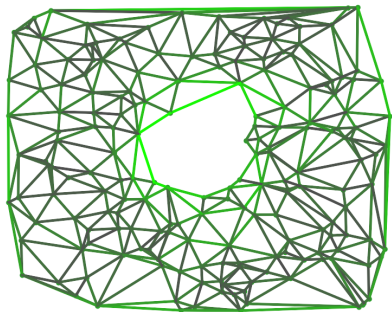
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Importantly, $\mathbf{L}_0 = \mathbf{B}_1 \mathbf{B}_1^\top = \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{A}$ is the usual graph Laplacian.

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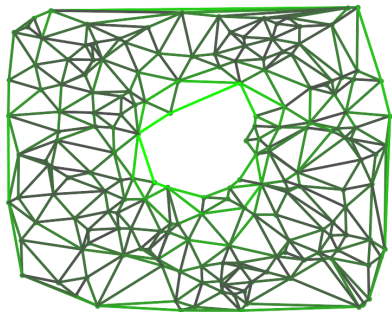
Hodge Theorem



Harmonic eigenvector of L_1
Credits to Andrei C. Popescu

Plotting the harmonic eigenvector of L_1 we notice that its energy is concentrated around the hole of the complex. What is going on?

Hodge Theorem



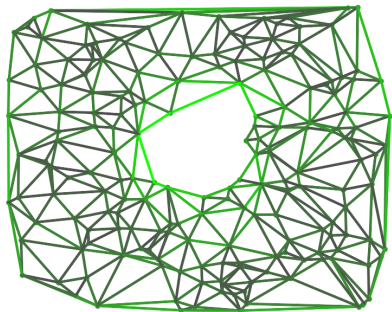
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$\ker L_k$ and $H_k(K)$ are isomorphic vector spaces.

Hodge Theorem



Harmonic eigenvector of \mathbf{L}_1
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Theorem (Hodge Theorem)

$\ker \mathbf{L}_k$ and $H_k(K)$ are isomorphic vector spaces.

Moreover, $\beta_k = \dim(\ker \mathbf{L}_k) = \dim(H_k)$ gives us the k -th *Betti number*, counting the number of k -dim holes in the complex.

Simplicial Convolutional Networks

Let K be a simplicial complex with normalised Hodge Laplacian $\Delta_k = \alpha \mathbf{L}_k$ with $\alpha > 0$, and k -simplex features $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_k \times d}$.

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We can build a simplicial equivalent of GCN⁴: $\mathbf{Y} := \sigma\left((\mathbf{I} - \Delta_0)\mathbf{X}\mathbf{W}\right)$.

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Define $\lambda_* = \max_{\lambda_i \neq 0} (1 - \lambda_i)^2$, where λ_i denotes the eigenvalues of Δ_k and assume $\sigma = \text{id}$. Additionally, define the *Dirichlet energy* E of a signal \mathbf{X} as $\text{trace}(\mathbf{X}^\top \Delta_k \mathbf{X})$.

Applying the proof technique of Cai and Wang⁵, we have:

Theorem

$E(\mathbf{Y}) \leq \lambda_* \|\mathbf{W}^\top\|_2^2 E(\mathbf{X})$ and if α is sufficiently low, the model converges exponentially fast to $\ker \Delta_k$.

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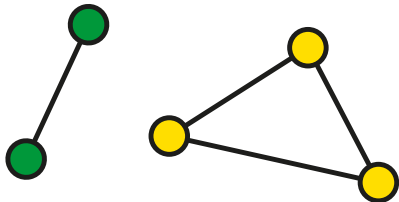
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Implications

Main idea

The asymptotic behaviour of Deep Linear GCNs and its simplicial version is topological.

(Linear) GCN



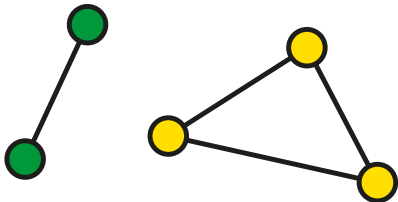
The features converge to a signal depending only on the connected components of the graph and their degrees.

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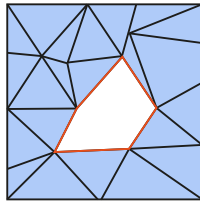
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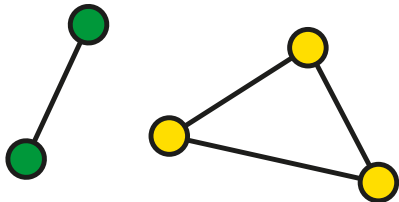
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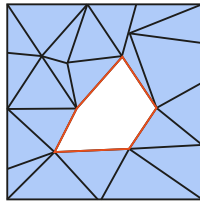
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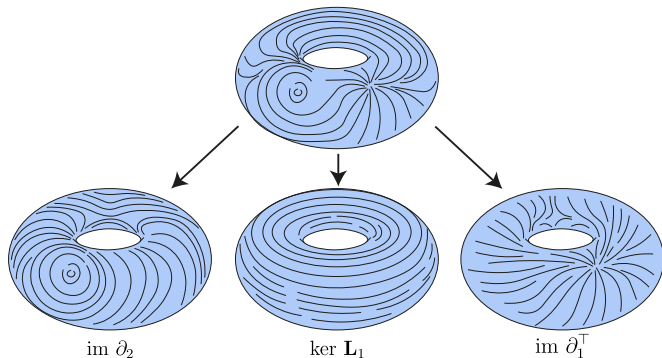
The features converge to a signal whose energy is concentrated around the holes of the complex.

Finally, remark that because β_k is a topological invariant, the dimension of the subspace the model converges to remains invariant under homeomorphisms.

The Hodge Decomposition

Theorem (Hodge Decomposition)

$$C_k(K, \mathbb{R}) = \text{im } \partial_k^\top \oplus \ker \mathbf{L}_k \oplus \text{im } \partial_{k+1}$$



Chain decomposed into rotational, harmonic, and gradient parts. Diagram inspired from K. Crane⁶

⁶Crane et al., "Digital Geometry Processing with Discrete Exterior Calculus", 2013.

The Zoo of Simplicial Convolutional Networks

Equipped with a Laplacian, one can define all sorts of simplicial convolutions⁷. All of these can be seen as a form of message passing⁸.

⁷Ebli et al., "Simplicial Neural Networks", 2020; Bunch et al., "Simplicial 2-Complex Convolutional Neural Networks", 2020; Glaze et al., "Principled Simplicial Neural Networks for Trajectory Prediction", 2021; Keros et al., "Dist2cycle: A simplicial neural network for homology localization", 2022; Goh et al., "Simplicial Attention Networks", 2022; Giusti et al., "Simplicial Attention Networks", 2022.

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Let $\mathbf{X}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{V \times F}$, $\mathbf{X}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{E \times F}$, $\mathbf{X}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times F}$ be matrices of 0, 1, 2-chains respectively, \mathbf{W}_i a set of weights. Then the convolutions above typically look like below, where $\mathbf{L}_1^\downarrow, \mathbf{L}_1^\uparrow, \mathbf{B}_1^\top, \mathbf{B}_2$ can be replaced by any matrix with the same sparsity pattern (e.g. attention matrix).

$$\mathbf{Y} = \psi \left(\underbrace{\mathbf{L}_1^\downarrow \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{W}_1}_{\text{Lower adj.}} + \underbrace{\mathbf{L}_1^\uparrow \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{W}_2}_{\text{Upper adj.}} + \underbrace{\mathbf{B}_1^\top \mathbf{X}_0 \mathbf{W}_3}_{\text{Boundary adj.}} + \underbrace{\mathbf{B}_2 \mathbf{X}_2 \mathbf{W}_4}_{\text{Coboundary adj.}} + \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{W}_5 \right)$$

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This factorisation can be interpreted via the Hodge decomposition.

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Symmetries: Permutation Equivariance

A simplicial complex of dimension d can be specified by all its boundary matrices $\mathcal{B} = (\mathbf{B}_1, \dots, \mathbf{B}_d)$. Similarly define a tuple of permutation matrices $\mathcal{P} = (\mathbf{P}_0, \dots, \mathbf{P}_d)$ and denote by $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{B} = (\mathbf{P}_0\mathbf{B}_1\mathbf{P}_1^\top, \dots, \mathbf{P}_{d-1}\mathbf{B}_d\mathbf{P}_d^\top)$.

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$f : C_k(K, \mathbb{R})^{F_1} \rightarrow C_k(K, \mathbb{R})^{F_2}$ is *permutation equivariant* if $f(\mathcal{P}\mathcal{B}, \mathbf{P}_k\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{P}_k f(\mathcal{B}, \mathbf{X})$

Proposition

The function $f(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}) := \psi(\mathbf{L}_1^\downarrow \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{W}_1 + \mathbf{L}_1^\uparrow \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{W}_2)$ is permutation equivariant.

Proof sketch.

Considering only lower adjacencies:

$$(\mathbf{P}_0\mathbf{B}_1\mathbf{P}_1^\top)^\top (\mathbf{P}_0\mathbf{B}_1\mathbf{P}_1^\top) (\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{X}_1) \mathbf{W}_1 = \mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{B}_1^\top \mathbf{B}_1\mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{W}_1$$

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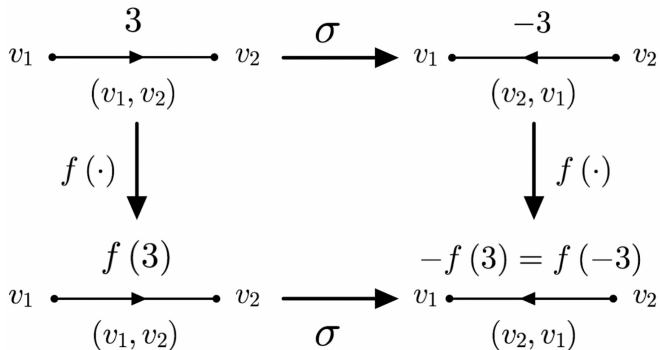
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Upper adjacencies proceed similarly and the nonlinearity ψ commutes with \mathbf{P}_1 . □

Symmetries: Orientation Equivariance

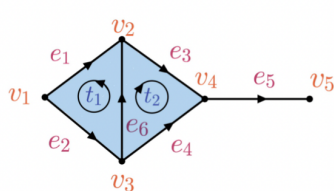
Mathematically, the choice of orientation is irrelevant. Therefore, we would like our model to produce the same outputs up to a change in orientation.



The function f must be odd.

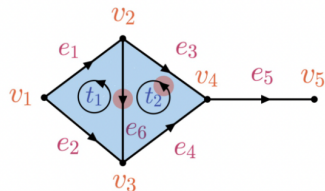
Symmetries: Orientation Equivariance

If a simplex changes its orientation, then it flips its relative orientation with respect to its adjacent neighbours.



$$B_1 = \begin{matrix} & e_1 & e_2 & e_3 & e_4 & e_5 & e_6 \\ \begin{matrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \\ v_5 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ +1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & +1 \\ 0 & +1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & +1 & +1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & +1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

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This amounts to flipping the sign in the corresponding rows and columns of the boundary matrices.

Symmetries: Orientation Equivariance

Consider a tuple of matrices $\mathcal{T} = (\mathbf{T}_0, \dots, \mathbf{T}_d)$, where each \mathbf{T}_i is a diagonal matrix with values in $\{\pm 1\}$. Additionally, because vertices always have a positive orientation, we restrict $\mathbf{T}_0 = I$. Then denote by $\mathcal{TB} = (\mathbf{T}_0 \mathbf{B}_1 \mathbf{T}_1, \dots, \mathbf{T}_{d-1} \mathbf{B}_d \mathbf{T}_d)$

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Proposition

$f(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}) := \psi(\mathbf{L}_1^\downarrow \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{W}_1 + \mathbf{L}_1^\uparrow \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{W}_2)$ is orientation equivariant when ψ is odd.

Proof sketch.

$\psi((\mathbf{T}_0 \mathbf{B}_1 \mathbf{T}_1)^\top (\mathbf{T}_0 \mathbf{B}_1 \mathbf{T}_1) \mathbf{T}_1 \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{W}) = \psi(\mathbf{T}_1 \mathbf{L}_1^\downarrow \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{W})$. Odd ψ commutes with \mathbf{T}_1 . □

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This idea can be generalised to general simplicial message passing architectures⁹, including attention¹⁰.

⁹Bodnar, Frasca, Yuguang Wang, et al., "Weisfeiler and Lehman Go Topological: Message Passing Simplicial Networks", 2021.

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Convolutions on Chains Complexes

The boundary maps produce a *chain complex*, which is a sequence of vector spaces:

$$0 \rightarrow C_n(K, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \cdots \xrightarrow{\partial_{k+1}} C_k(K, \mathbb{R}) \xrightarrow{\partial_k} C_{k-1}(K, \mathbb{R}) \cdots \xrightarrow{\partial_2} C_1(K, \mathbb{R}) \xrightarrow{\partial_1} C_0(K, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow 0$$

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We can see our convolution works on chain complexes and boundary matrices ensure communication between different dimensions of this chain.

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Proof sketch.

If ψ is the identity, consider how 2-chains propagate to the 0-chain level:

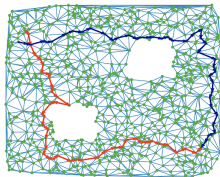
$$\mathbf{B}_1(\mathbf{B}_2 \mathbf{X}_2 \mathbf{W}_4^1) \mathbf{W}_4^2 = (\mathbf{B}_1 \mathbf{B}_2) \mathbf{X}_2 \mathbf{W}_4^1 = 0$$

Application: Trajectory Classification

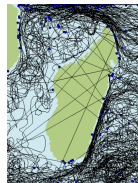
We are interested in classifying trajectories represented as 1-chains. At train time we use a fixed orientation and, at test time, we randomly flip the orientations of the edges.

Method	Synthetic Flow		Ocean Drifters	
	Train	Test	Train	Test
GNN L_0 -inv	63.9 \pm 2.4	61.0 \pm 4.2	70.1 \pm 2.3	63.5 \pm 6.0
MPSN L_0 -inv	88.2 \pm 5.1	85.3 \pm 5.8	84.6 \pm 4.0	71.5\pm4.1
MPSN - ReLU	100.0\pm0.0	50.0 \pm 0.0	100.0\pm0.0	46.5 \pm 5.7
MPSN - Id	88.0 \pm 3.1	82.6 \pm 3.0	94.6 \pm 0.9	73.0\pm2.7
MPSN - Tanh	97.9 \pm 0.7	95.2\pm1.8	99.7\pm0.5	72.5\pm0.0

Trajectory classification accuracy. The tasks are inspired from Schaub et al.¹⁸.



The task is to classify random walks.



The task is to classify ocean drifter trajectories around Madagascar.

¹⁸Schaub et al., "Random walks on simplicial complexes and the normalized Hodge 1-Laplacian", 2020

Message Passing on Cell Complexes

Cell complexes

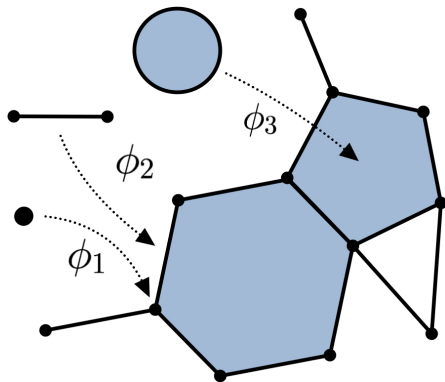
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Cell complexes

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A finite (regular) *cell complex* is a topological space X formed of a finite disjoint union of subspaces called *cells* such that:

1. Each cell is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n , for some n .
2. The closure of each cell is homeomorphic to a closed ball in \mathbb{R}^n .

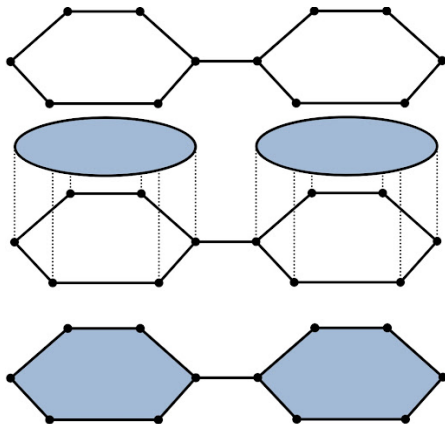


A cell complex X and the corresponding homeomorphisms to the closed balls for three cells of different dimensions in the complex.

Constructing cell complexes

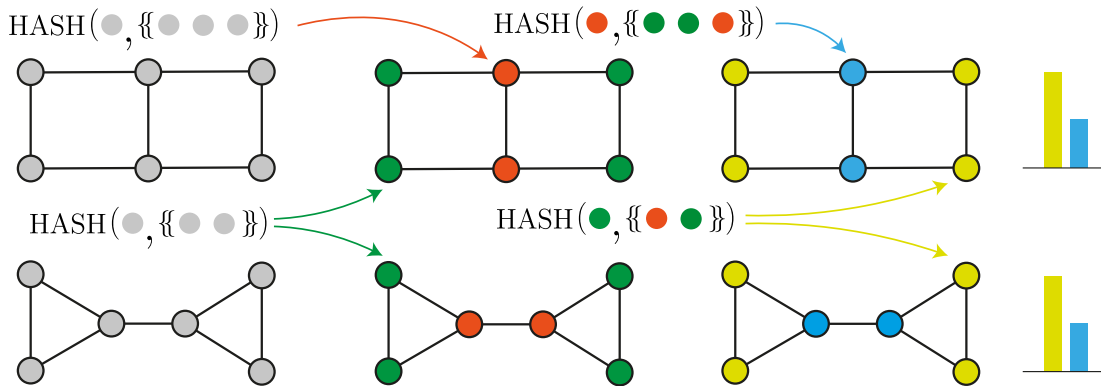
Cell complexes can be constructed hierarchically:

1. Start with a set of vertices.
2. Glue the boundary of a set of line segments to these vertices.
3. Glue the boundary of two-dimensional disks to cycles present in the graph previously obtained.



The Weisfeiler Lehman Test

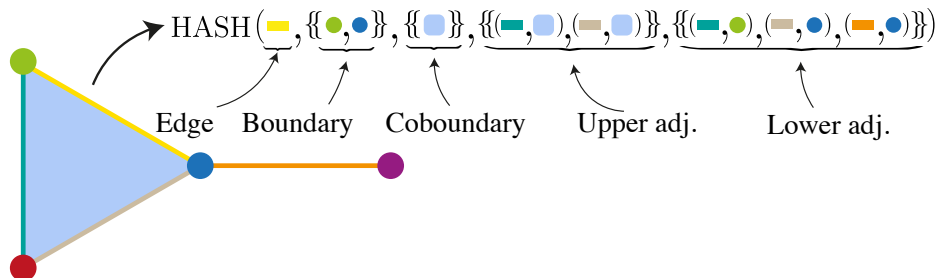
The WL test is an heuristic algorithm for testing the isomorphisms of two graphs. It performs iterative colour-refinement.



If the two graphs converge to the same histogram, the test is inconclusive. In this case, the WL test fails to distinguish these non-isomorphic graphs.

The Cellular Weisfeiler Lehman Test

Generalising the Weisfeiler-Lehman algorithm for graphs, we can define a cellular version of the WL test¹¹. We call this *cellular WL*.



An example of a colour refinement step of CWL for an edge of the cell complex. This iteration is performed over all the cells in the complex until convergence.

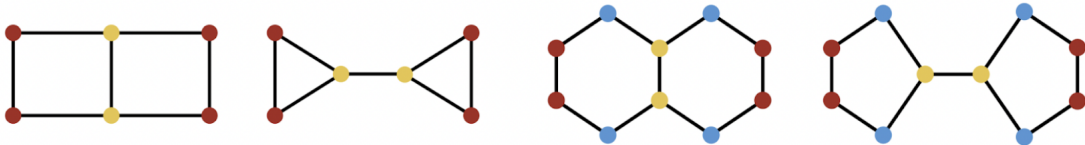
¹¹Bodnar, Frasca, Otter, et al., "Weisfeiler and Lehman Go Cellular: CW Networks", 2021.

Expressive power of CWL

Let k -CL, k -IC, k -C be the “lifting” maps attaching cells to all the cliques, induced cycles and simple cycles, respectively, of size at most k .

Theorem

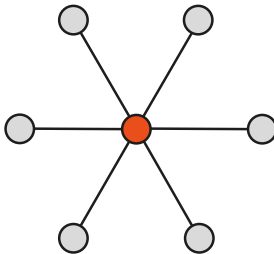
For $k \geq 3$, $CWL(k\text{-CL})$, $CWL(k\text{-IC})$ and $CWL(k\text{-C})$ are strictly more powerful than WL.



Pairs of graphs WL cannot distinguish but CWL can.

Sparse adjacencies

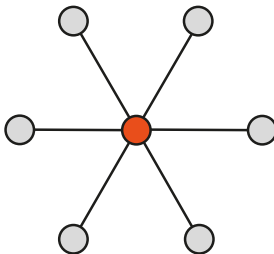
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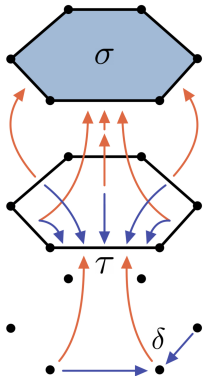
CWL without coboundary and lower adjacencies is as expressive as CWL with the full set of adjacencies.

Topological Message Passing

The cells receive two types of messages:

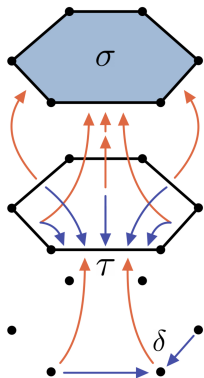
$$m_{\mathcal{B}}^{t+1}(\sigma) = \text{AGG}_{\tau \in \mathcal{B}(\sigma)} \left(M_{\mathcal{B}}(h_{\sigma}^t, h_{\tau}^t) \right)$$

$$m_{\uparrow}^{t+1}(\sigma) = \text{AGG}_{\tau \in \mathcal{N}_{\uparrow}(\sigma), \delta \in \mathcal{C}(\sigma, \tau)} \left(M_{\uparrow}(h_{\sigma}^t, h_{\tau}^t, h_{\delta}^t) \right)$$



Orange arrows indicate boundary messages received by cells σ and τ , while blue ones show upper messages received by cells τ and δ

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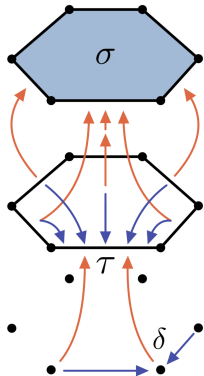
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The update function takes as input these messages:

$$h_{\sigma}^{t+1} = U \left(h_{\sigma}^t, m_{\mathcal{B}}^t(\sigma), m_{\uparrow}^{t+1}(\sigma) \right)$$

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A readout function computes a final representation:

$$\text{READOUT}(\{ \{ h_{\sigma}^L \} \}_{\dim(\sigma)=0}, \{ \{ h_{\sigma}^L \} \}_{\dim(\sigma)=1}, \{ \{ h_{\sigma}^L \} \}_{\dim(\sigma)=2})$$

Message passing on cell complexes has also been considered by Hajij, Istvan, and Zamzmi, "Cell Complex Neural Networks", 2020

Expressive power

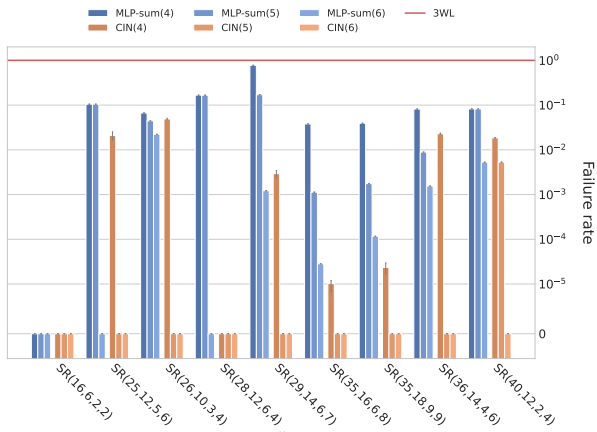
Theorem

When using injective neighbourhood aggregators and a sufficient number of layers, topological message passing is as powerful as CWL.

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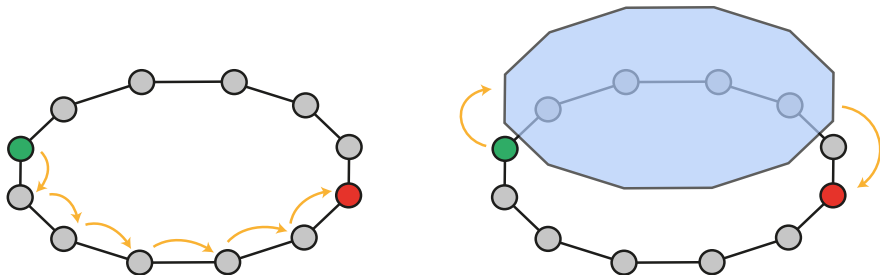
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Long-range interactions

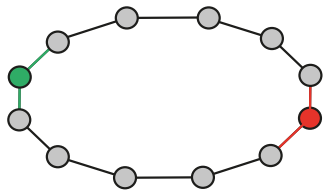
The neighbourhood structure induced by cell complex naturally allows long-range interactions with a reduced number of computational steps.



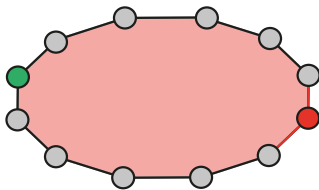
Comparison between regular message passing on graphs and topological message passing.

A more sophisticated topological structure

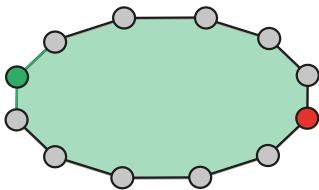
Given a cell σ define *the star* of σ , denoted by $\text{st } \sigma$, as the union of all the cells having σ as a face. The stars of all cells form the basis of a topology for the cell complex.



$\text{st } \bullet \cup \text{st } \bullet$



$\text{st } \bullet$

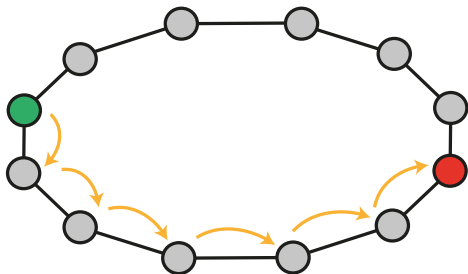


$\text{st } \bullet$

In the graph case (left), the open neighbourhoods of the two nodes do not intersect. In the higher-dimensional cell complex (right), the neighbourhoods of the nodes are significantly expanded.

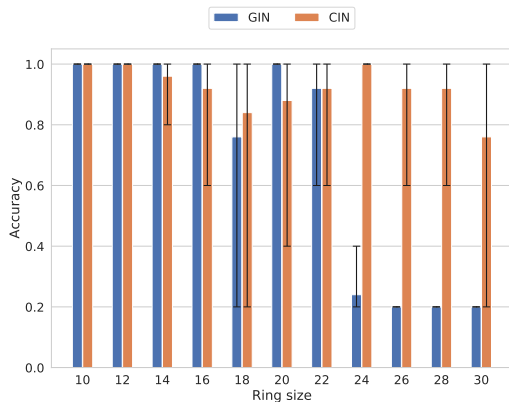
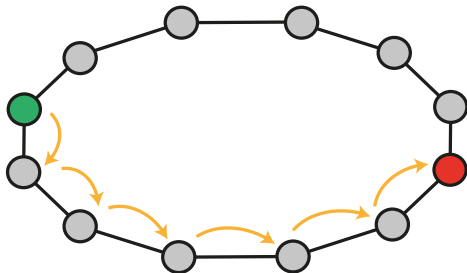
Long-range interactions experiment

We validated the benefits of long-range interactions with an experiment where the model has to transfer a value from one side of the ring to the other.



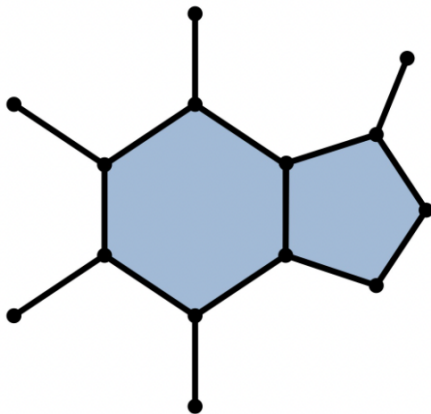
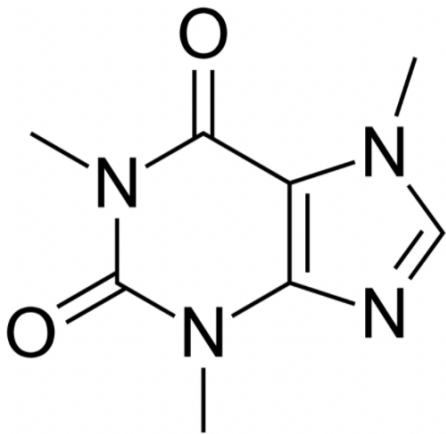
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Domain alignment

This type of space aligns well with certain applications such as molecular modelling.



Molecular Property Prediction

ZINC (MAE), ZINC-FULL (MAE) and Mol-HIV (ROC-AUC).

Method	ZINC ↓		ZINC-FULL ↓	MOLHIV ↑
	No Edge Feat.	With Edge Feat.	All methods	All methods
GCN	0.469±0.002	N/A	N/A	76.06±0.97
GAT	0.463±0.002	N/A	N/A	N/A
GatedGCN	0.422±0.006	0.363±0.009	N/A	N/A
GIN	0.408±0.008	0.252±0.014	0.088±0.002	77.07±1.49
PNA	0.320±0.032	0.188±0.004	N/A	79.05±1.32
DGN	0.219±0.010	0.168±0.003	N/A	79.70±0.97
HIMP	N/A	0.151±0.006	0.036±0.002	78.80±0.82
GSN	0.139±0.007	0.108±0.018	N/A	77.99±1.00
CIN-small (Ours)	0.139±0.008	0.094±0.004	0.044±0.003	80.55±1.04
CIN (Ours)	0.115±0.003	0.079±0.006	0.022±0.002	80.94±0.57

Thanks for your attention!

Email: `cb2015@cam.ac.uk`

Twitter: `@crisbodnar`