Lecture 7: Message Passing Neural Networks and Randomisation

Relational Learning

İsmail İlkan Ceylan

Advanced Topics in Machine Learning, University of Oxford

10.02.2021

Overview

• The quest for expressive and scalable models

Overview

- The quest for expressive and scalable models
- MPNNs with random features

Overview

- The quest for expressive and scalable models
- MPNNs with random features
- Universality of MPNNs with random node initialisation



- The quest for expressive and scalable models
- MPNNs with random features
- Universality of MPNNs with random node initialisation
- Benchmarking expressiveness evaluation



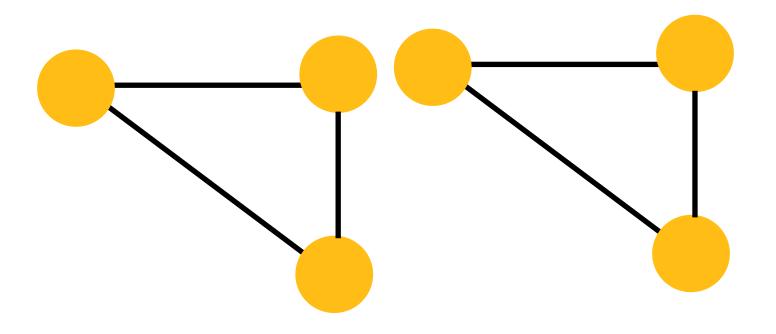
- The quest for expressive and scalable models
- MPNNs with random features
- Universality of MPNNs with random node initialisation
- Benchmarking expressiveness evaluation
- Discussions and outlook



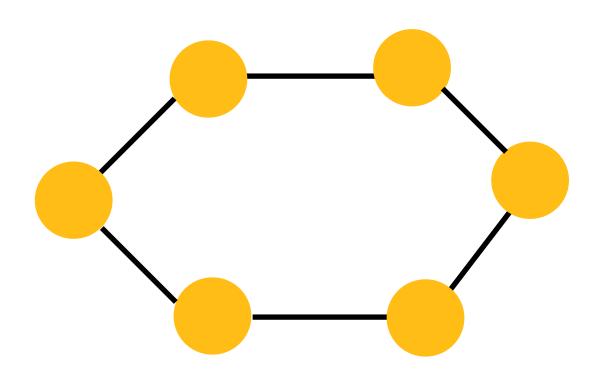
- The quest for expressive and scalable models
- MPNNs with random features
- Universality of MPNNs with random node initialisation
- Benchmarking expressiveness evaluation
- Discussions and outlook
- Summary

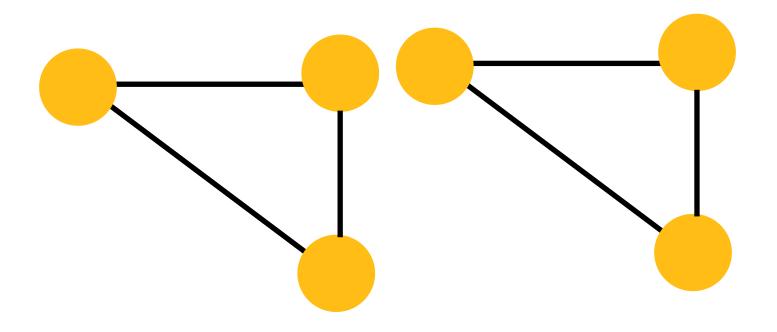


The Quest for Expressive and Scalable Models



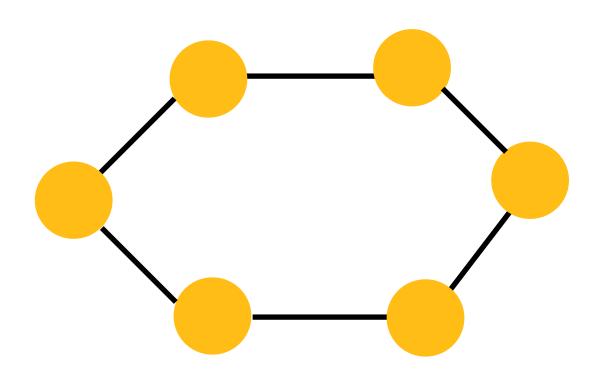
A Tale of Two Graphs



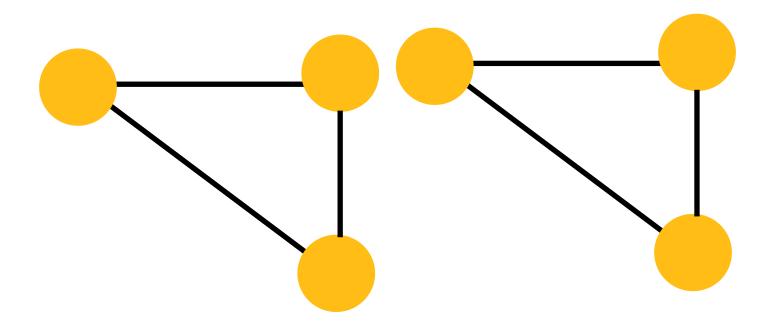


A brief recap

A Tale of Two Graphs

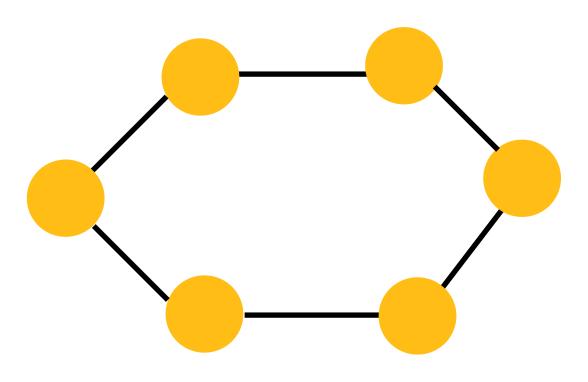


A Tale of Two Graphs

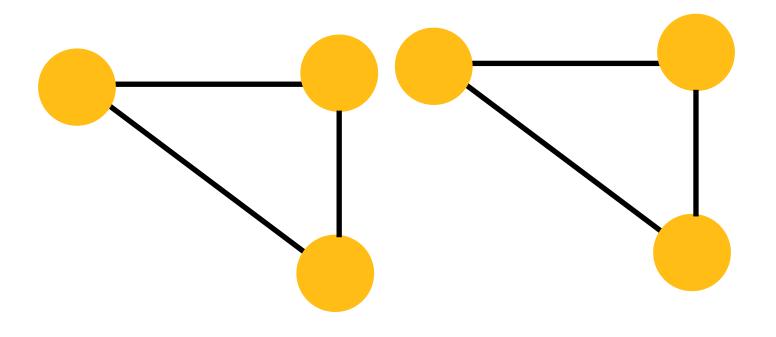


A brief recap

We have seen that 1-WL is insufficient and 2-WL is needed to distinguish these graphs. 1.

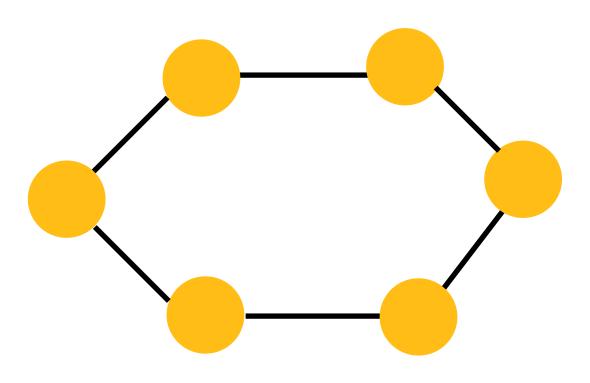


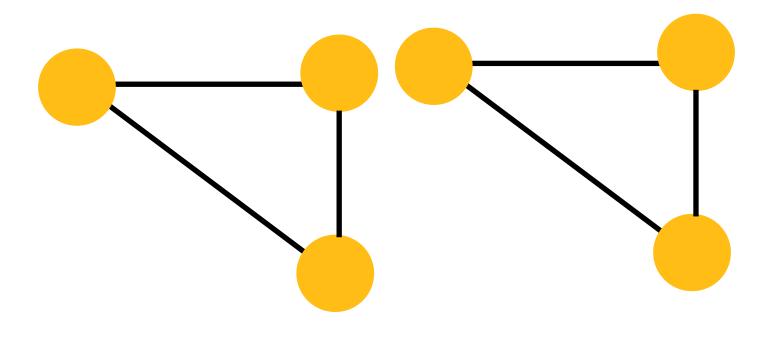
A Tale of Two Graphs



A brief recap

- 1. We have seen that 1-WL is insufficient and 2-WL is needed to distinguish these graphs.
- 2. The embedding learned for the graph on the left-hand side will be exactly the same as the embedding of the graph on the right-hand side for MPNNs!

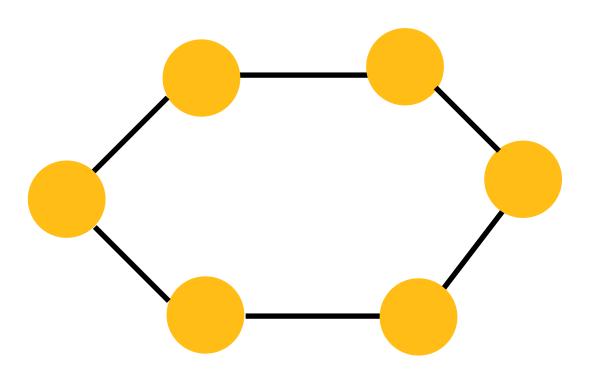




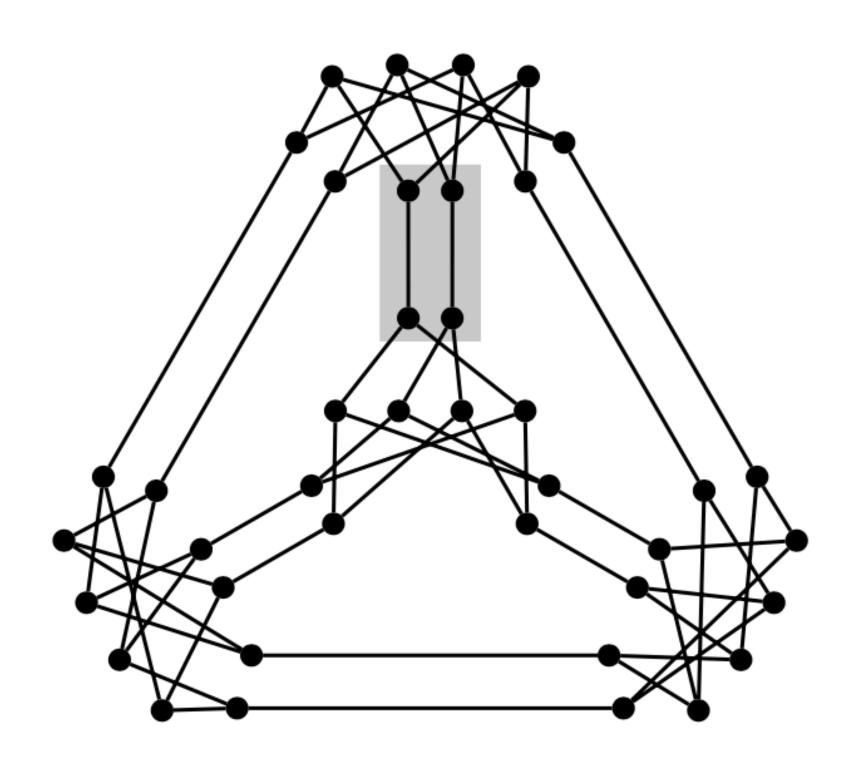
A brief recap

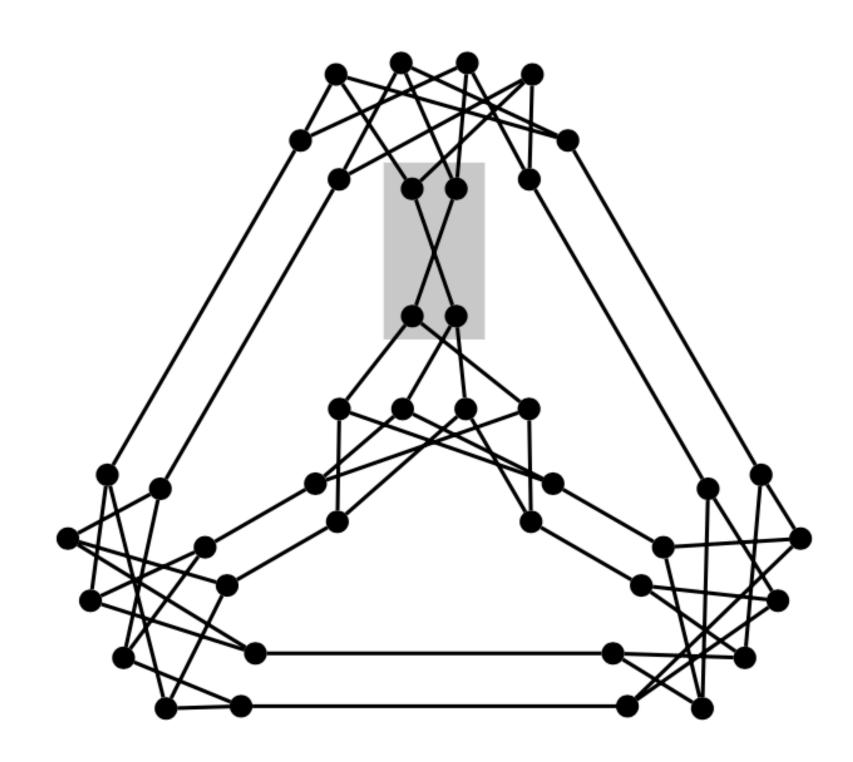
- We have seen that 1-WL is insufficient and 2-WL is needed to distinguish these graphs.
- The embedding learned for the graph on the left-hand side will be exactly the same as the embedding of 2. the graph on the right-hand side for MPNNs!
- 3. There is a pair of non-isomorphic graphs distinguishable by (k + 1)-WL but not by k-WL for each $k \ge 1$.

A Tale of Two Graphs

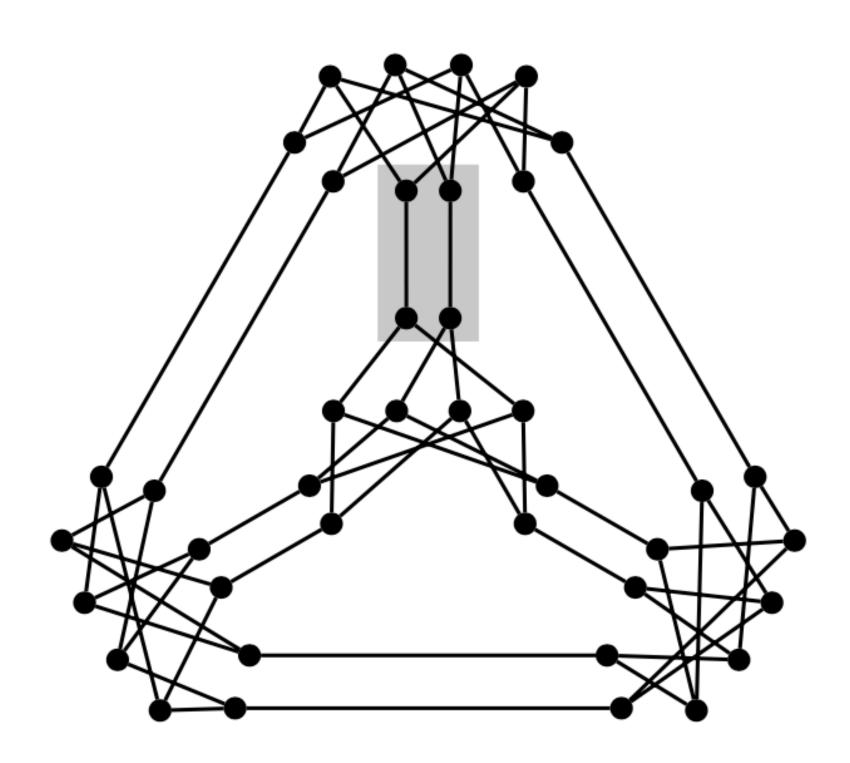


Graph Distinguishability

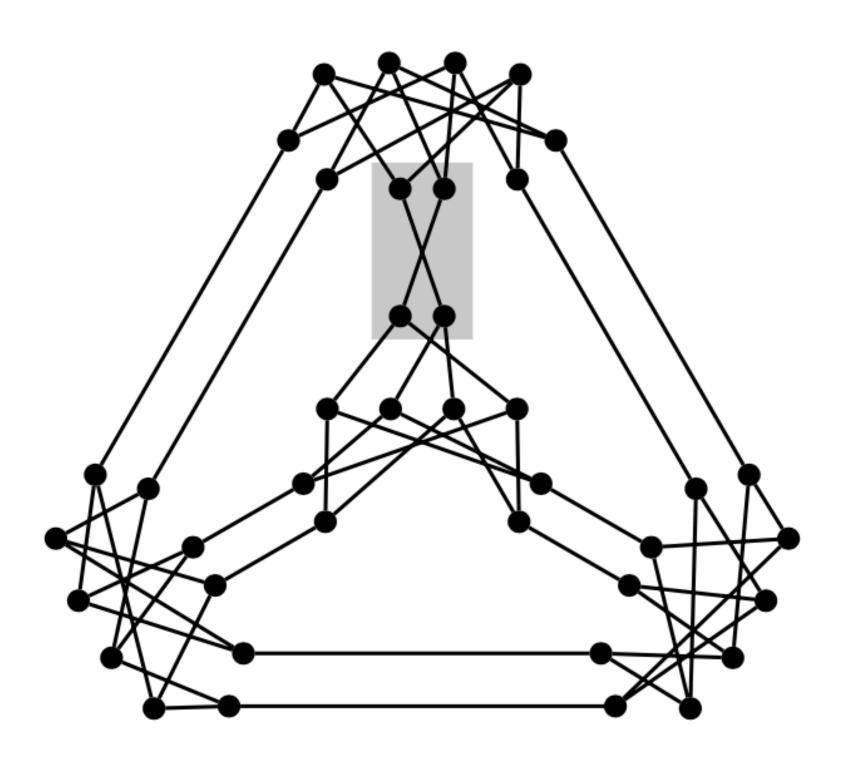




Graph Distinguishability



Example: 2WL cannot distinguish the shown graphs which differ only in the grey area (Grohe, 2017), i.e., even higher-order models such as 3-GNNs do not possess sufficient expressive power to distinguish these graphs.



Some observations:

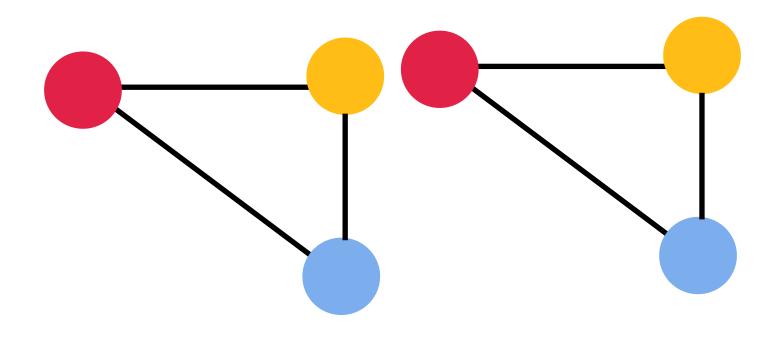
Some observations:

• The graphs we considered were not coloured, or equivalently, single-coloured.

Some observations:

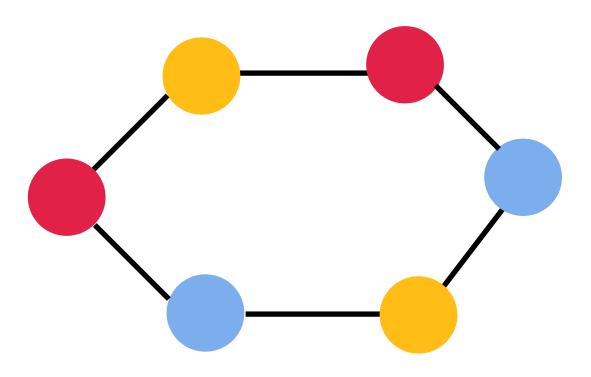
- The graphs we considered were not coloured, or equivalently, single-coloured.

• The WL algorithm is defined in a more general way — we can start with any initial colouring.

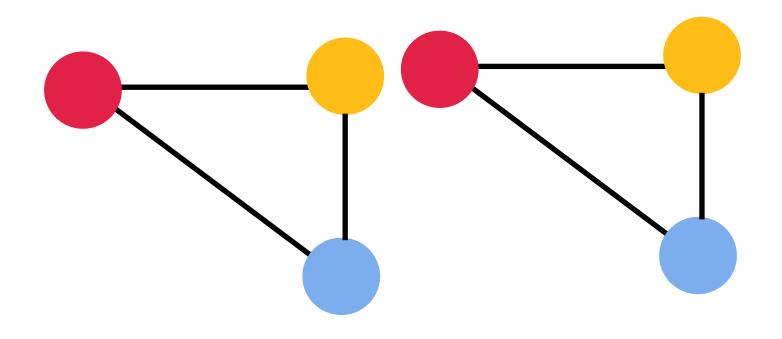


Some observations:

- The graphs we considered were not coloured, or equivalently, single-coloured.

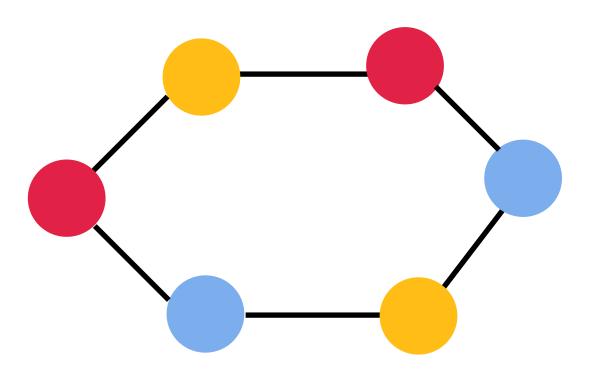


• The WL algorithm is defined in a more general way — we can start with any initial colouring.

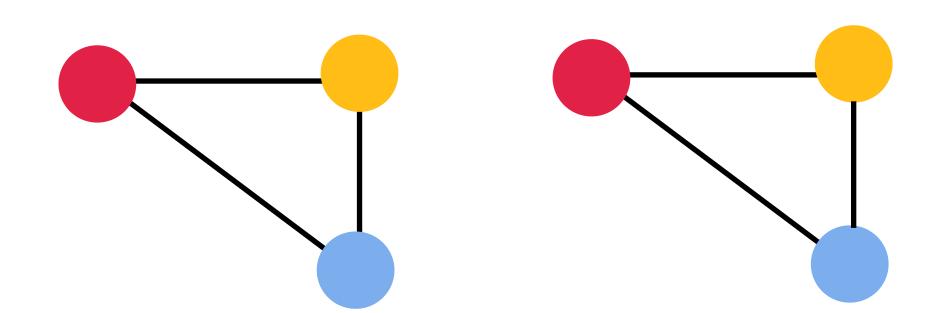


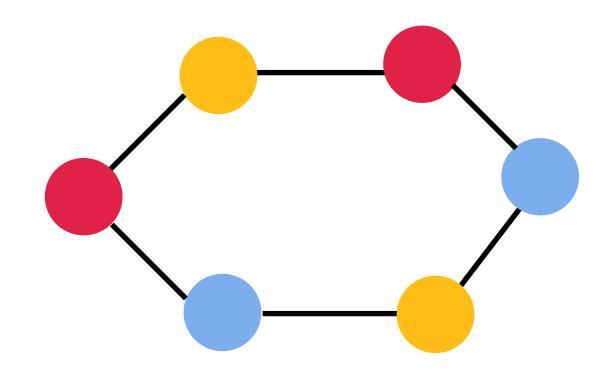
Some observations:

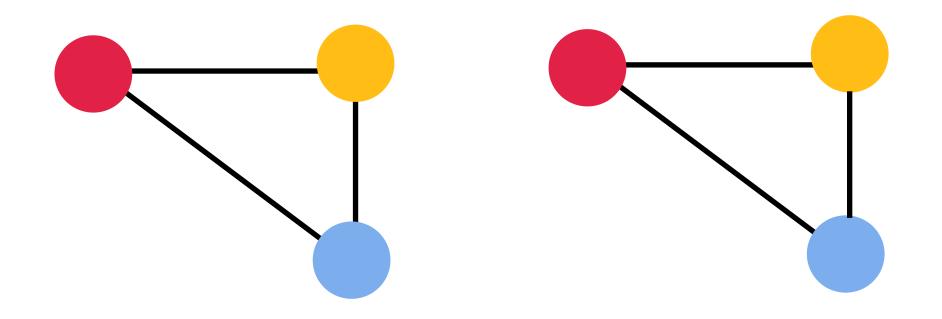
- The graphs we considered were not coloured, or equivalently, single-coloured.
- The same is true for MPNNs we can start with any node features.



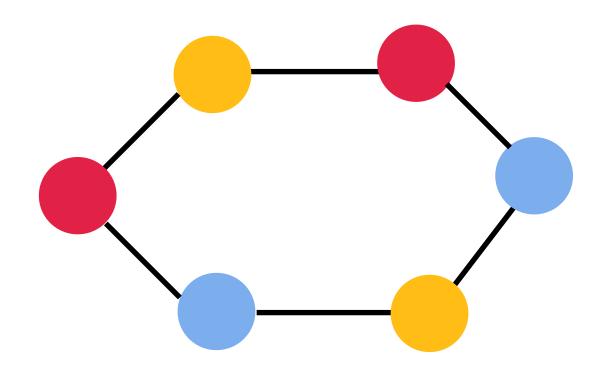
• The WL algorithm is defined in a more general way — we can start with any initial colouring.

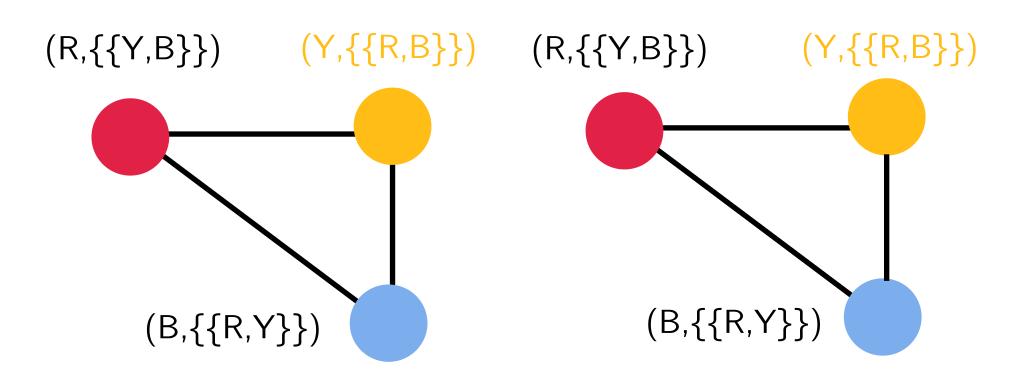




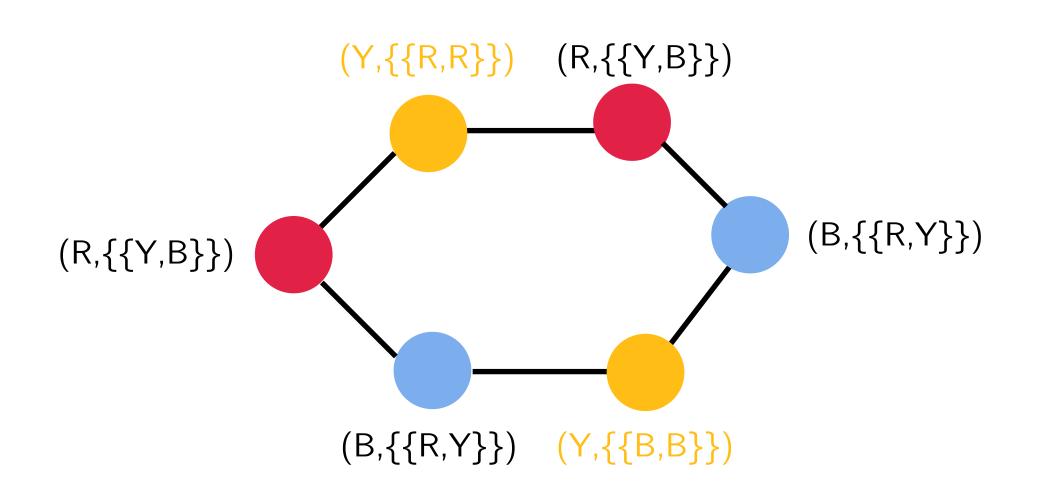


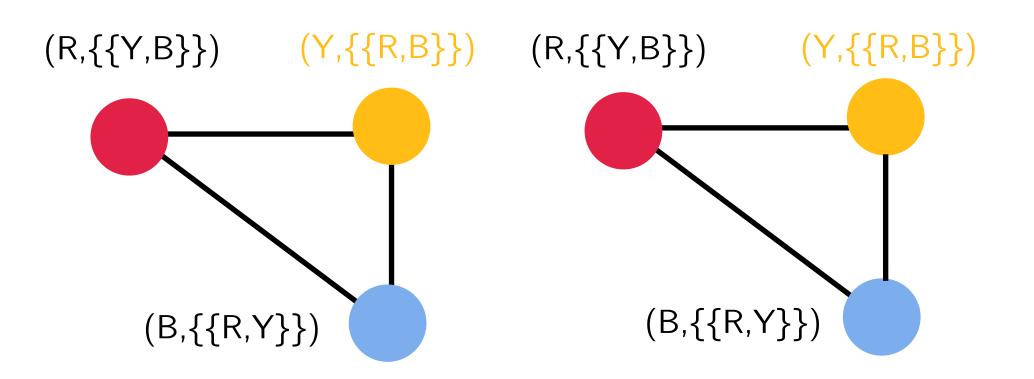
What happens when we colour the graph pairs?



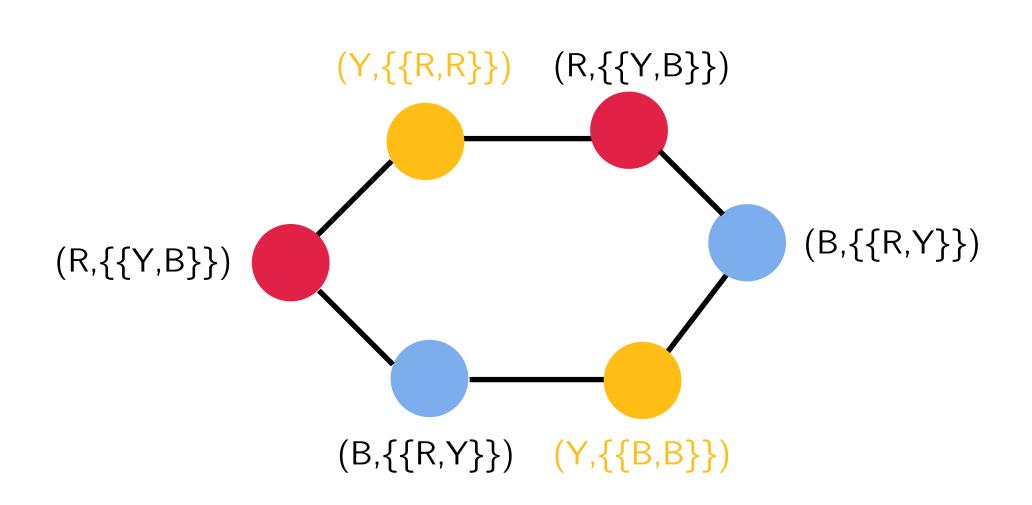


What happens when we colour the graph pairs?

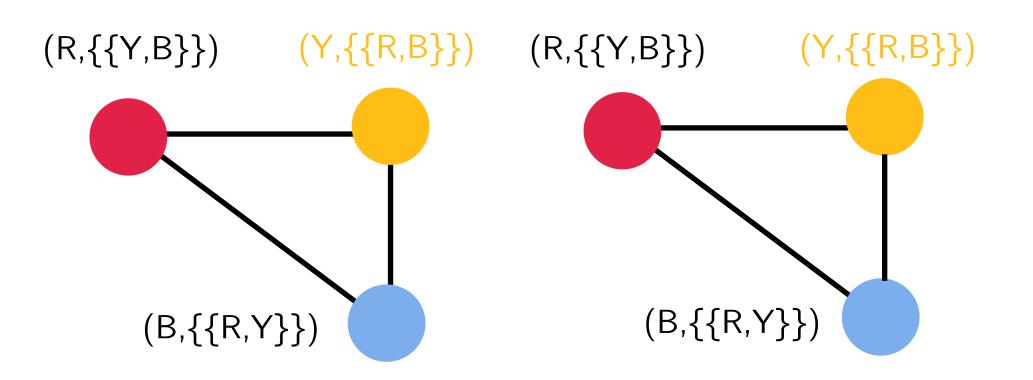




What happens when we colour the graph pairs?

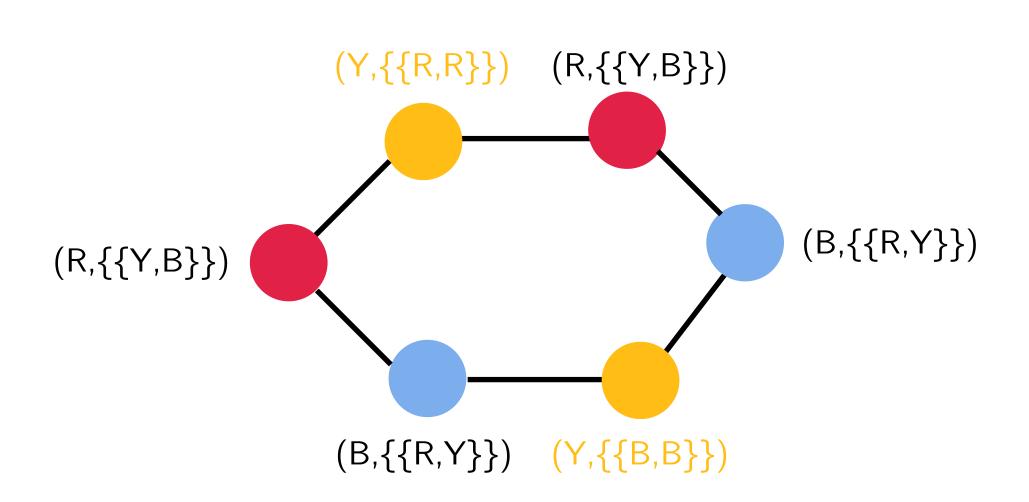


• After the first iteration of the 1-WL algorithm the graphs are distinguished via the initially yellow nodes.

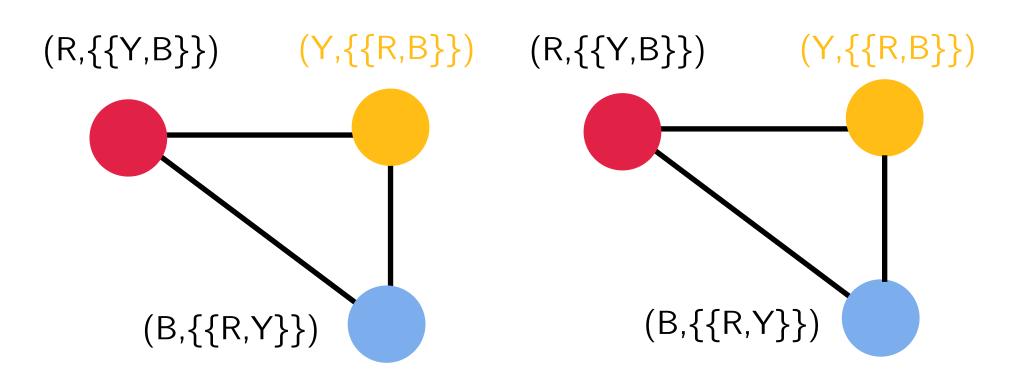


What happens when we colour the graph pairs?

- After the second iteration the graphs will differ with respect to any node.

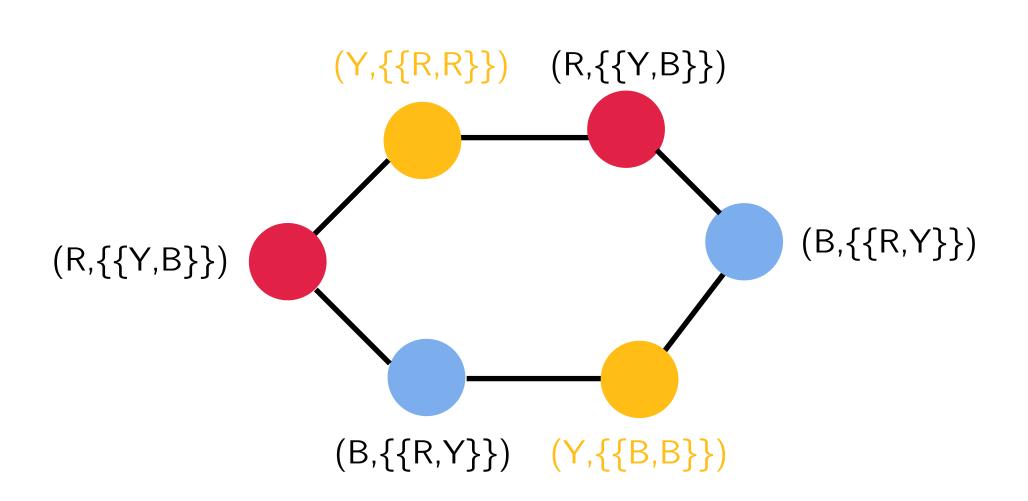


• After the first iteration of the 1-WL algorithm the graphs are distinguished via the initially yellow nodes.

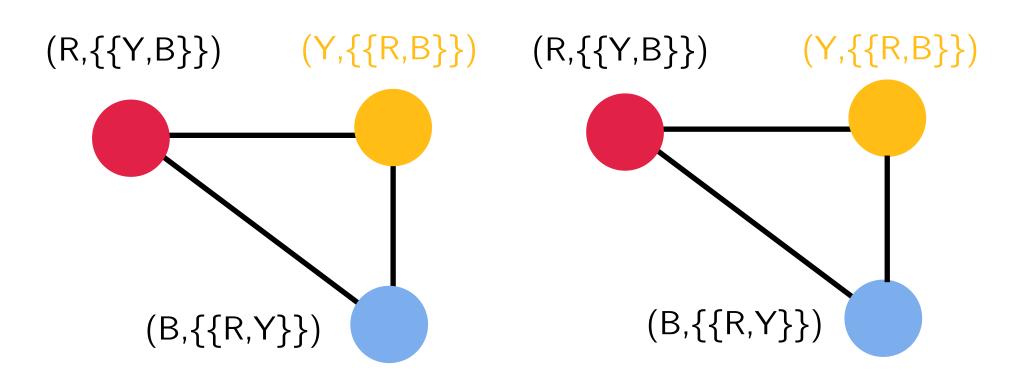


What happens when we colour the graph pairs?

- After the second iteration the graphs will differ with respect to any node.
- The same is true for MPNNs if we set the node features accordingly.

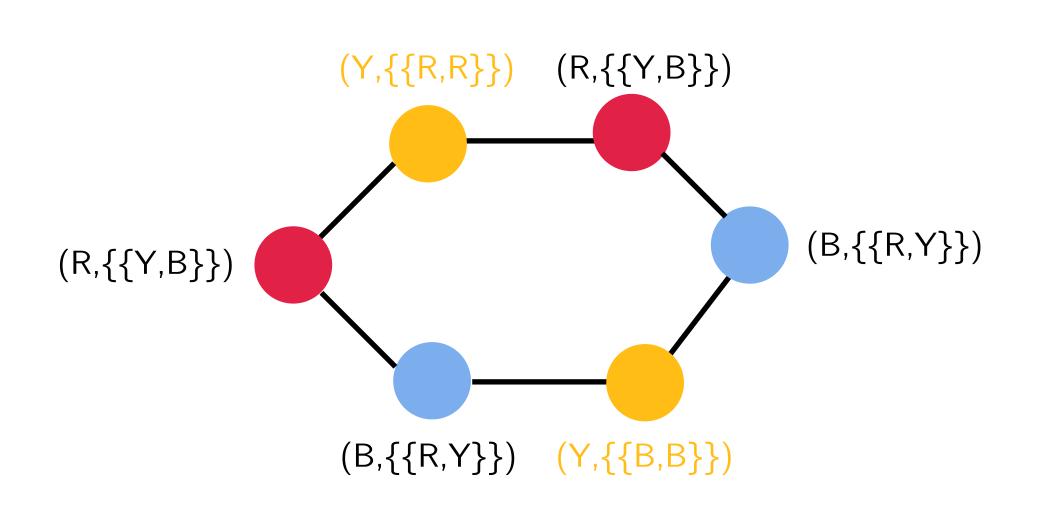


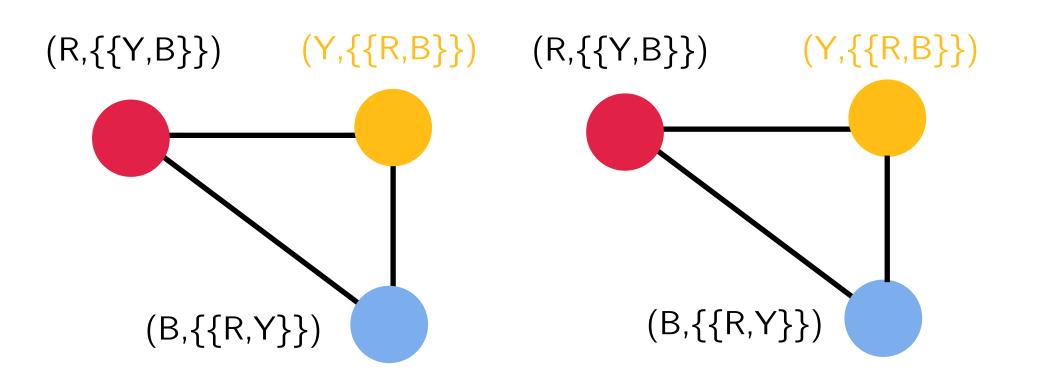
• After the first iteration of the 1-WL algorithm the graphs are distinguished via the initially yellow nodes.



Wouldn't initialising node features in an MPNN to different colours be ideal?

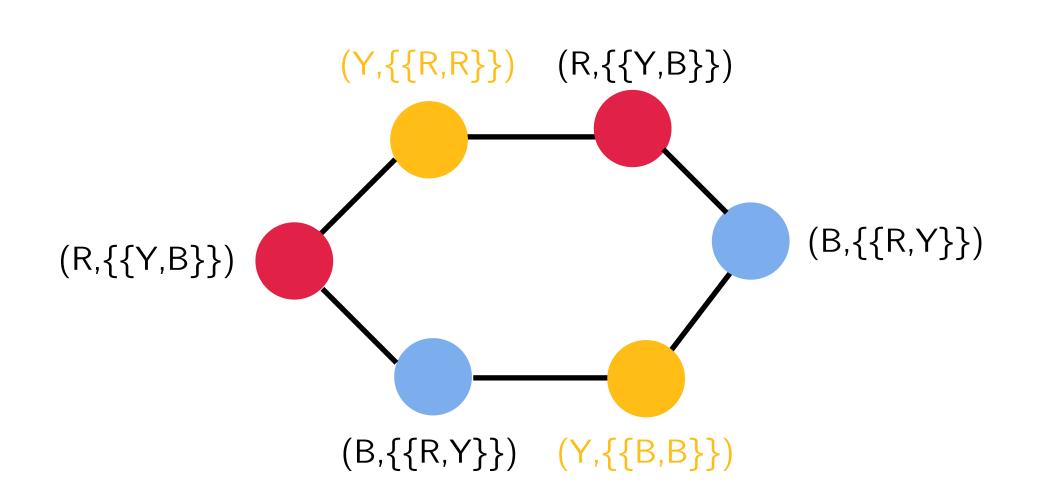
This will yield an expressive model — 1-WL can distinguish any pair of ordered/coloured graphs.





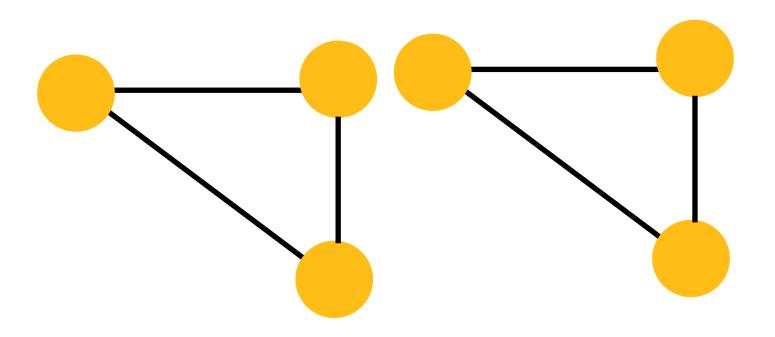
There are **problems** in initialising nodes with such features:

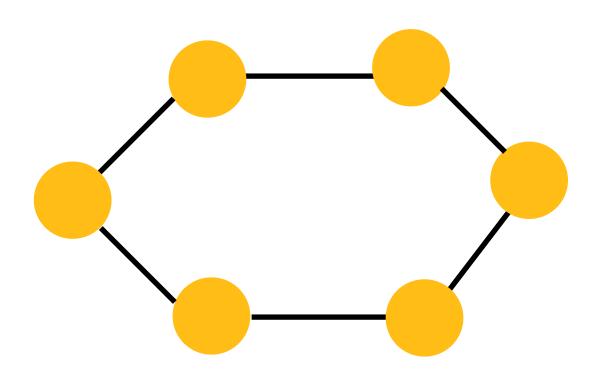
- We change the meaning of the given node features potentially losing valuable information.
- These features are deterministic and it is hard to generalise over these structures.

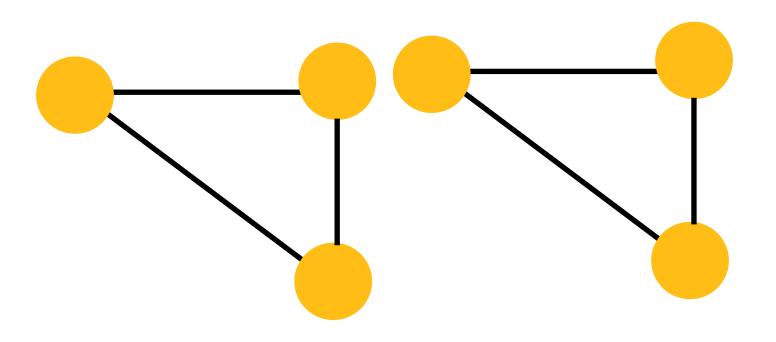


• We assign colours to nodes from a fixed class of colours which do not necessarily have a meaning.

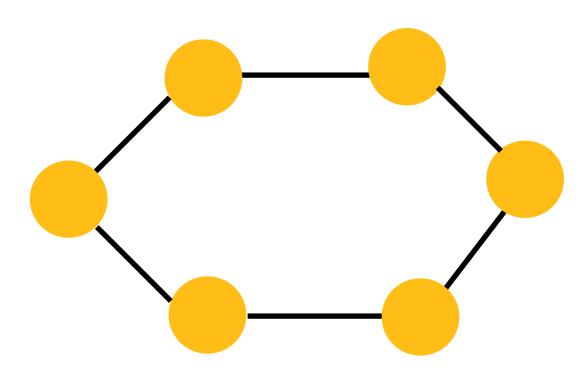
MPNNs with Random Features



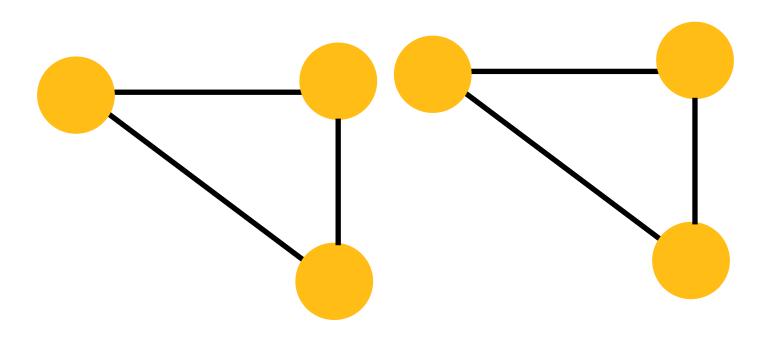




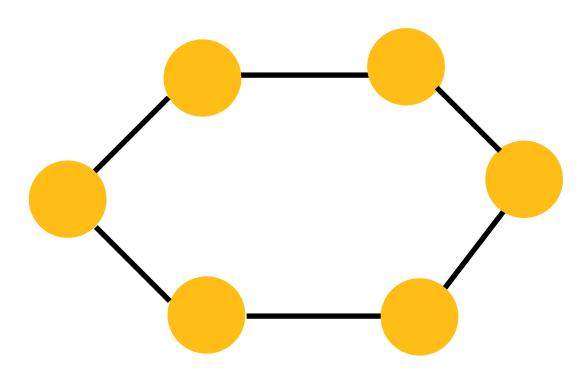
• In this example, we initialise an MPNN with, the nodes, and they cannot be distinguished.



• In this example, we initialise an MPNN with, e.g., node degrees, which results in identical features for

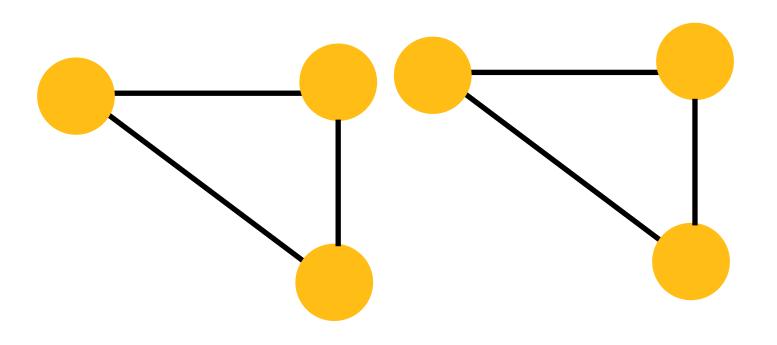


- In this example, we initialise an MPNN with, the nodes, and they cannot be distinguished.
- If we initialise an MPNN with different colou can be distinguished.



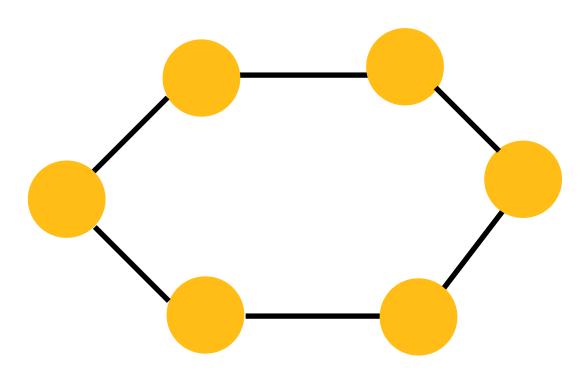
• In this example, we initialise an MPNN with, e.g., node degrees, which results in identical features for

• If we initialise an MPNN with different colours, this results in different features for the nodes, and they



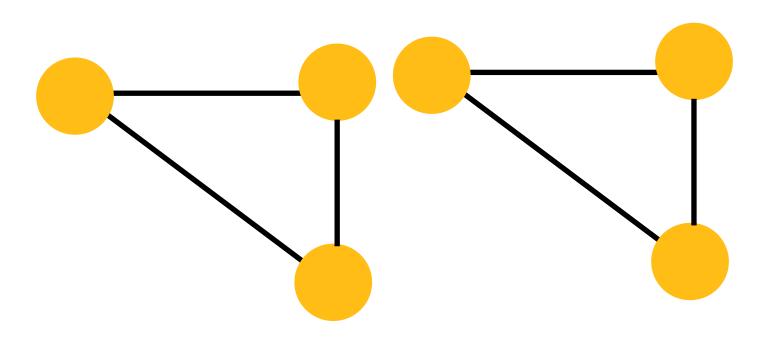
- In this example, we initialise an MPNN with, the nodes, and they cannot be distinguished.
- If we initialise an MPNN with different colou can be distinguished.

Question: What if we initialise an MPNN with random features instead?



• In this example, we initialise an MPNN with, e.g., node degrees, which results in identical features for

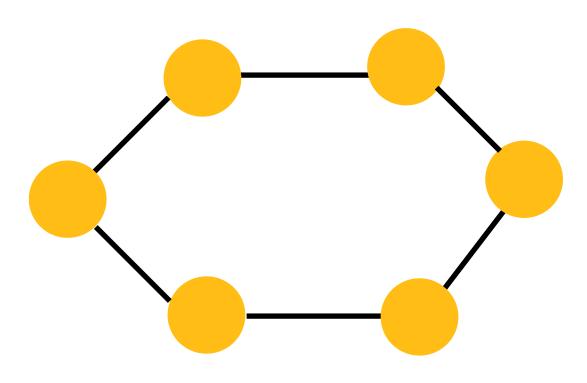
• If we initialise an MPNN with different colours, this results in different features for the nodes, and they



- In this example, we initialise an MPNN with, the nodes, and they cannot be distinguished.
- If we initialise an MPNN with different colou can be distinguished.

Question: What if we initialise an MPNN with random features instead?

Intuition: Random features can implicitly induce a colouring, and yield a more expressive model.



• In this example, we initialise an MPNN with, e.g., node degrees, which results in identical features for

• If we initialise an MPNN with different colours, this results in different features for the nodes, and they

11

MPNNs are enhanced with random node initialisation (RNI) such that the model trains and runs with (partially) randomised initial node features (Sato et al., 2020).

(partially) randomised initial node features (Sato et al., 2020).

- The resulting model is called rGNNs, and more specifically, rGINs, as the base model which is extended with random features is GINs in this paper.
- MPNNs are enhanced with random node initialisation (RNI) such that the model trains and runs with

(partially) randomised initial node features (Sato et al., 2020).

- The resulting model is called rGNNs, and more specifically, rGINs, as the base model which is extended with random features is GINs in this paper.
- We will write MPNN-RNI to denote MPNNs with random node initialisation, and e.g., M-RNI to denote a specific MPNN model M extended with RNI.

MPNNs are enhanced with random node initialisation (RNI) such that the model trains and runs with

(partially) randomised initial node features (Sato et al., 2020).

- The resulting model is called rGNNs, and more specifically, rGINs, as the base model which is extended with random features is GINs in this paper.
- We will write MPNN-RNI to denote MPNNs with random node initialisation, and e.g., M-RNI to denote a specific MPNN model M extended with RNI.
- **Remark**: When we speak of features, it can refer to both node and edge features In fact, edge features are very commonly used in the context of graph neural networks.

MPNNs are enhanced with random node initialisation (RNI) such that the model trains and runs with

(partially) randomised initial node features (Sato et al., 2020).

The resulting model is called rGNNs, and more specifically, rGINs, as the base model which is extended with random features is GINs in this paper.

specific MPNN model M extended with RNI.

are very commonly used in the context of graph neural networks.

that one can also consider random edge initialisations.

MPNNs are enhanced with random node initialisation (RNI) such that the model trains and runs with

- We will write MPNN-RNI to denote MPNNs with random node initialisation, and e.g., M-RNI to denote a
- **Remark**: When we speak of features, it can refer to both node and edge features In fact, edge features
- To make the distinction clear, we speak of node features, and hence of random node initialisations here. Note

It has been shown that GIN-RNI models can detect characteristic sub-graphs in an input graph with high probability.

It has been shown that GIN-RNI models can detect characteristic sub-graphs in an input graph with high probability.

Informally, for a given class of (degree-bounded) graphs \mathscr{G} , and every fixed structure (G, v), where $v \in V_G$, Theorem 4.1 of (Sato et al., 2020) states that there exists a parametrisation θ for an GIN-RNI such that the resulting model can detect the structure (G, v) in the class of graph node pairs with high probability.

It has been shown that GIN-RNI models can detect characteristic sub-graphs in an input graph with high probability.

resulting model can detect the structure (G, v) in the class of graph node pairs with high probability.

Example: If (G, v) characterises v being part of a triangle, then this theorem implies that GIN-RNI can classify the nodes w.r.t. the presence of the triangle structure.

Informally, for a given class of (degree-bounded) graphs \mathscr{G} , and every fixed structure (G, v), where $v \in V_G$, Theorem 4.1 of (Sato et al., 2020) states that there exists a parametrisation θ for an GIN-RNI such that the

It has been shown that GIN-RNI models can detect characteristic sub-graphs in an input graph with high probability.

resulting model can detect the structure (G, v) in the class of graph node pairs with high probability.

classify the nodes w.r.t. the presence of the triangle structure.

- Informally, for a given class of (degree-bounded) graphs \mathscr{G} , and every fixed structure (G, v), where $v \in V_G$, Theorem 4.1 of (Sato et al., 2020) states that there exists a parametrisation θ for an GIN-RNI such that the
- **Example**: If (G, v) characterises v being part of a triangle, then this theorem implies that GIN-RNI can
- GIN-RNI models go beyond the capabilities of GINs which cannot determine the existence of a triangle.

It has been shown that GIN-RNI models can detect characteristic sub-graphs in an input graph with high probability.

resulting model can detect the structure (G, v) in the class of graph node pairs with high probability.

Example: If (G, v) characterises v being part of a triangle, then this theorem implies that GIN-RNI can classify the nodes w.r.t. the presence of the triangle structure.

GIN-RNI models go beyond the capabilities of GINs which cannot determine the existence of a triangle.

Remark: This theorem does not imply universality, as it only asserts distinguishability w.r.t. a fixed structure. This is not the same as being able to approximate any function (which can depend on multiple, interacting) structures) over this space.

Informally, for a given class of (degree-bounded) graphs \mathscr{G} , and every fixed structure (G, v), where $v \in V_G$, Theorem 4.1 of (Sato et al., 2020) states that there exists a parametrisation θ for an GIN-RNI such that the

These findings are empirically evaluated on two synthetic datasets (Sato et al., 2020) and we will briefly discuss one of these.

These findings are empirically evaluated on two synthetic datasets (Sato et al., 2020) and we will briefly discuss one of these.

Triangle: This dataset contains random 3-regular graphs for a binary node classification problem. Both training and test data contain 1000 graphs. The training graphs have 20 nodes, and test graphs have 20 nodes for the normal dataset and 100 nodes for the extrapolation dataset. A node v is positive if v has two neighbouring nodes that are adjacent to each other.

These findings are empirically evaluated on two synthetic datasets (Sato et al., 2020) and we will briefly discuss one of these.

Triangle: This dataset contains random 3-regular graphs for a binary node classification problem. Both training and test data contain 1000 graphs. The training graphs have 20 nodes, and test graphs have 20 nodes for the normal dataset and 100 nodes for the extrapolation dataset. A node v is positive if v has two neighbouring nodes that are adjacent to each other.

Summary of the results: The results are reported for GINs and GCNs and their respective RNI versions.

These findings are empirically evaluated on two synthetic datasets (Sato et al., 2020) and we will briefly discuss one of these.

Triangle: This dataset contains random 3-regular graphs for a binary node classification problem. Both training and test data contain 1000 graphs. The training graphs have 20 nodes, and test graphs have 20 nodes for the normal dataset and 100 nodes for the extrapolation dataset. A node v is positive if v has two neighbouring nodes that are adjacent to each other.

Summary of the results: The results are reported for GINs and GCNs and their respective RNI versions.

• Unsurprisingly, GINs as well as GCNs only achieve 50% accuracy on this dataset.

These findings are empirically evaluated on two synthetic datasets (Sato et al., 2020) and we will briefly discuss one of these.

Triangle: This dataset contains random 3-regular graphs for a binary node classification problem. Both training and test data contain 1000 graphs. The training graphs have 20 nodes, and test graphs have 20 nodes for the normal dataset and 100 nodes for the extrapolation dataset. A node v is positive if v has two neighbouring nodes that are adjacent to each other.

- Unsurprisingly, GINs as well as GCNs only achieve 50% accuracy on this dataset.
- GIN-RNI achieves >90% accuracy and GCN-RNI >85% achieves accuracy on normal and extrapolation datasets.

Summary of the results: The results are reported for GINs and GCNs and their respective RNI versions.

These findings are empirically evaluated on two synthetic datasets (Sato et al., 2020) and we will briefly discuss one of these.

Triangle: This dataset contains random 3-regular graphs for a binary node classification problem. Both training and test data contain 1000 graphs. The training graphs have 20 nodes, and test graphs have 20 nodes for the normal dataset and 100 nodes for the extrapolation dataset. A node v is positive if v has two neighbouring nodes that are adjacent to each other.

- Unsurprisingly, GINs as well as GCNs only achieve 50% accuracy on this dataset.
- GIN-RNI achieves >90% accuracy and GCN-RNI >85% achieves accuracy on normal and extrapolation datasets.
- that MPNN-RNI models can potentially extrapolate to variable size graphs.

Summary of the results: The results are reported for GINs and GCNs and their respective RNI versions.

• Since the test graphs in the extrapolation dataset have more nodes than the training graphs, this shows

Real-world datasets: Other empirical results are conducted on real-world datasets which do not necessarily require more than 1-WL expressivity.

Real-world datasets: Other empirical results are conducted on real-world datasets which do not necessarily require more than 1-WL expressivity.

Briefly, results on real-world datasets confirm that MPNN-RNI models perform either similarly to MPNNs, or marginally improve on them using a partial randomisation.

require more than 1-WL expressivity.

marginally improve on them using a partial randomisation.

graph neural networks.

- **Real-world datasets:** Other empirical results are conducted on real-world datasets which do not necessarily
- Briefly, results on real-world datasets confirm that MPNN-RNI models perform either similarly to MPNNs, or
- Inspired by distributed local algorithms (Sato et al., 2020) also give algorithmic alignment results for certain combinatorial problems that admit such local algorithms, yielding near-optimally approximate solutions with

require more than 1-WL expressivity.

marginally improve on them using a partial randomisation.

graph neural networks.

pinpoint the exact power gained by RNI.

- **Real-world datasets:** Other empirical results are conducted on real-world datasets which do not necessarily
- Briefly, results on real-world datasets confirm that MPNN-RNI models perform either similarly to MPNNs, or
- Inspired by distributed local algorithms (Sato et al., 2020) also give algorithmic alignment results for certain combinatorial problems that admit such local algorithms, yielding near-optimally approximate solutions with
- Overall, this means that the expressive power of MPNN-RNI models go beyond 1-WL, but it remains open to

require more than 1-WL expressivity.

marginally improve on them using a partial randomisation.

graph neural networks.

pinpoint the exact power gained by RNI.

Question: What is the expressive power of MPNN-RNI models, and can these be universal?

- **Real-world datasets:** Other empirical results are conducted on real-world datasets which do not necessarily
- Briefly, results on real-world datasets confirm that MPNN-RNI models perform either similarly to MPNNs, or
- Inspired by distributed local algorithms (Sato et al., 2020) also give algorithmic alignment results for certain combinatorial problems that admit such local algorithms, yielding near-optimally approximate solutions with
- Overall, this means that the expressive power of MPNN-RNI models go beyond 1-WL, but it remains open to

Universality of MPNNs with Random Node Initialisation

Question: What is the expressive power of MPNN-RNI models, and can they be universal?

Question: What is the expressive power of MPNN-RNI models, and can they be universal?

To make this question more concrete, let us focus on graph classification.

Question: What is the expressive power of MPNN-RNI models, and can they be universal?

To make this question more concrete, let us focus on graph classification.

focus on the class of functions of the form $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$.

- Formally, let \mathscr{G}_n be the class of all *n*-vertex graphs, i.e., graphs that consist of at most *n* vertices, and let us

Question: What is the expressive power of MPNN-RNI models, and can they be universal?

To make this question more concrete, let us focus on graph classification.

focus on the class of functions of the form $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$.

associates with every graph $G \in \mathscr{G}_n$ a random variable $\mathscr{F}(G)$ is an (ϵ, δ) -approximation of f if for all $G \in \mathscr{G}_n$:

$$P(\mid f(G) - \mathcal{F}(G)) = \mathcal{F}(G)$$

If \mathcal{F} is computed by an MPNN-RNI M, we say that $M(\epsilon, \delta)$ -approximates f.

- Formally, let \mathscr{G}_n be the class of all *n*-vertex graphs, i.e., graphs that consist of at most *n* vertices, and let us
- An MPNN-RNI can be viewed as computing random functions: We say that a randomised function \mathcal{F} that
 - $(G) \mid \leq \epsilon \geq 1 \delta$.

Question: What is the expressive power of MPNN-RNI models, and can they be universal?

To make this question more concrete, let us focus on graph classification.

focus on the class of functions of the form $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$.

associates with every graph $G \in \mathscr{G}_n$ a random variable $\mathscr{F}(G)$ is an (ϵ, δ) -approximation of f if for all $G \in \mathscr{G}_n$:

$$P(\mid f(G) - \mathcal{F}(G))$$

If \mathcal{F} is computed by an MPNN-RNI M, we say that $M(\epsilon, \delta)$ -approximates f. Given these, we can pose the following concrete question. **Question**: Can MPNN-RNI models approximate all functions $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$?

- Formally, let \mathscr{G}_n be the class of all *n*-vertex graphs, i.e., graphs that consist of at most *n* vertices, and let us
- An MPNN-RNI can be viewed as computing random functions: We say that a randomised function \mathcal{F} that
 - $(G) \mid \leq \epsilon \geq 1 \delta$.

It has been recently shown that MPNN-RNI models are universal, as stated in the following theorem.

It has been recently shown that MPNN-RNI models are universal, as stated in the following theorem.

Theorem (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be an invariant function. Then, for all $\delta > 0$, there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

It has been recently shown that MPNN-RNI models are universal, as stated in the following theorem.

there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

This result relies on the result given for the special case of Boolean functions.

- **Theorem** (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be an invariant function. Then, for all $\delta > 0$,

It has been recently shown that MPNN-RNI models are universal, as stated in the following theorem.

there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

This result relies on the result given for the special case of Boolean functions.

 $\delta > 0$, there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

- **Theorem** (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be an invariant function. Then, for all $\delta > 0$,
- **Lemma** (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{B}$ be an invariant Boolean function. Then, for all

It has been recently shown that MPNN-RNI models are universal, as stated in the following theorem.

there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

This result relies on the result given for the special case of Boolean functions.

 $\delta > 0$, there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

Once this result is obtained, it is not hard to lift this to the real domain and to conclude the theorem:

- **Theorem** (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be an invariant function. Then, for all $\delta > 0$,
- **Lemma** (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{B}$ be an invariant Boolean function. Then, for all

It has been recently shown that MPNN-RNI models are universal, as stated in the following theorem.

there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

This result relies on the result given for the special case of Boolean functions.

 $\delta > 0$, there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

Once this result is obtained, it is not hard to lift this to the real domain and to conclude the theorem:

• Since \mathscr{G}_n is finite, the range $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_s\}$ of the invariant function $f : \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is finite.

- **Theorem** (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be an invariant function. Then, for all $\delta > 0$,
- **Lemma** (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{B}$ be an invariant Boolean function. Then, for all

It has been recently shown that MPNN-RNI models are universal, as stated in the following theorem.

there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

This result relies on the result given for the special case of Boolean functions.

 $\delta > 0$, there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

Once this result is obtained, it is not hard to lift this to the real domain and to conclude the theorem:

- Since \mathscr{G}_n is finite, the range $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_s\}$ of the invariant function $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is finite.
- We know that we can approximate any Boolean function $g: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{B}$, by the lemma above.

- **Theorem** (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be an invariant function. Then, for all $\delta > 0$,
- **Lemma** (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{B}$ be an invariant Boolean function. Then, for all

It has been recently shown that MPNN-RNI models are universal, as stated in the following theorem.

there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

This result relies on the result given for the special case of Boolean functions.

 $\delta > 0$, there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

Once this result is obtained, it is not hard to lift this to the real domain and to conclude the theorem:

- Since \mathscr{G}_n is finite, the range $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_s\}$ of the invariant function $f : \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is finite.
- We know that we can approximate any Boolean function $g: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{B}$, by the lemma above.
- To approximate $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, we can define a function g combining the Boolean functions g_1, \ldots, g_s s.t.:

- **Theorem** (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be an invariant function. Then, for all $\delta > 0$,
- **Lemma** (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{B}$ be an invariant Boolean function. Then, for all

 $g_i(G) \mapsto 1$, if $f(G) \mapsto y_i$, and $g_i(G) \mapsto 0$, otherwise.

It is therefore sufficient to show the approximability of Boolean functions. The proof builds on the following result given for MPNNs (with global readout):

It is therefore sufficient to show the approximability of Boolean functions. The proof builds on the following result given for MPNNs (with global readout):

Theorem (Barcelo et al., 2020). Each C^2 classifier can be captured by an MPNN.

It is therefore sufficient to show the approximability of Boolean functions. The proof builds on the following result given for MPNNs (with global readout):

Theorem (Barcelo et al., 2020). Each C^2 classifier can be captured by an MPNN.

This result is stated for node classification and focuses on formulas with one free variable $\Phi(x)$: A graph G satisfies the property $\Phi(v)$ for a node $v \in V_G$ if $G \models \Phi(v)$.

It is therefore sufficient to show the approximability of Boolean functions. The proof builds on the following result given for MPNNs (with global readout):

Theorem (Barcelo et al., 2020). Each C^2 classifier can be captured by an MPNN.

satisfies the property $\Phi(v)$ for a node $v \in V_G$ if $G \models \Phi(v)$.

 $v \in V_G$, and use this to classify the graph.

This result is stated for node classification and focuses on formulas with one free variable $\Phi(x)$: A graph G

This result also applies to graph classification, since we can simply pool the results of each $\Phi(v)$ for all nodes

result given for MPNNs (with global readout):

Theorem (Barcelo et al., 2020). Each C^2 classifier can be captured by an MPNN.

satisfies the property $\Phi(v)$ for a node $v \in V_G$ if $G \models \Phi(v)$.

 $v \in V_G$, and use this to classify the graph.

Boolean function classifying the graphs with respect to this property.

- It is therefore sufficient to show the approximability of Boolean functions. The proof builds on the following
- This result is stated for node classification and focuses on formulas with one free variable $\Phi(x)$: A graph G
- This result also applies to graph classification, since we can simply pool the results of each $\Phi(v)$ for all nodes
- A sentence Φ in C² expresses a graph property (i.e., there exists a triangle), and so it can be viewed as a

result given for MPNNs (with global readout):

Theorem (Barcelo et al., 2020). Each C^2 classifier can be captured by an MPNN.

satisfies the property $\Phi(v)$ for a node $v \in V_G$ if $G \models \Phi(v)$.

 $v \in V_G$, and use this to classify the graph.

Boolean function classifying the graphs with respect to this property.

viewing $\Phi: V_G \mapsto \mathbb{B}$.

- It is therefore sufficient to show the approximability of Boolean functions. The proof builds on the following
- This result is stated for node classification and focuses on formulas with one free variable $\Phi(x)$: A graph G
- This result also applies to graph classification, since we can simply pool the results of each $\Phi(v)$ for all nodes
- A sentence Φ in C² expresses a graph property (i.e., there exists a triangle), and so it can be viewed as a
- That is, the graph G satisfies the property specified by Φ if $G \models \Phi$, and we can simply denote this by $\Phi(G)$,

Putting these together, and by making the error parameter explicit, we can restate this result as:

Putting these together, and by making the error parameter explicit, we can restate this result as:

Theorem (Barcelo et al., 2020). For every C^2 sentence Φ and every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an MPNN that ϵ -approximates the Boolean function Φ .

Putting these together, and by making the error parameter explicit, we can restate this result as:

Theorem (Barcelo et al., 2020). For every C^2 sentence Φ and every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an MPNN that ϵ -approximates the Boolean function Φ .

Remark: This result is stated for deterministic MPNNs, so the confidence parameter δ simply equal to 0 in this case and it is dropped.

Putting these together, and by making the error parameter explicit, we can restate this result as:

- **Theorem** (Barcelo et al., 2020). For every C^2 sentence Φ and every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an MPNN that ϵ -approximates the Boolean function Φ .
- case and it is dropped.
- This is useful to show the following result:

Remark: This result is stated for deterministic MPNNs, so the confidence parameter δ simply equal to 0 in this

Putting these together, and by making the error parameter explicit, we can restate this result as:

- **Theorem** (Barcelo et al., 2020). For every C^2 sentence Φ and every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an MPNN that ϵ -approximates the Boolean function Φ .
- case and it is dropped.

This is useful to show the following result:

 $\delta > 0$, there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

Remark: This result is stated for deterministic MPNNs, so the confidence parameter δ simply equal to 0 in this

Lemma (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{B}$ be an invariant Boolean function. Then, for all

Putting these together, and by making the error parameter explicit, we can restate this result as:

Theorem (Barcelo et al., 2020). For every C^2 sentence Φ and every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an MPNN that ϵ -approximates the Boolean function Φ .

Remark: This result is stated for deterministic MPNNs, so the confidence parameter δ simply equal to 0 in this case and it is dropped.

This is useful to show the following result:

 $\delta > 0$, there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

It may appear somewhat surprising, and even counter-intuitive, that randomly initialising node features would deliver such a gain in expressiveness.

Lemma (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{B}$ be an invariant Boolean function. Then, for all

Putting these together, and by making the error parameter explicit, we can restate this result as:

Theorem (Barcelo et al., 2020). For every C^2 sentence Φ and every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an MPNN that ϵ -approximates the Boolean function Φ .

Remark: This result is stated for deterministic MPNNs, so the confidence parameter δ simply equal to 0 in this case and it is dropped.

This is useful to show the following result:

 $\delta > 0$, there is an MPNN-RNI that (ϵ, δ) -approximates f.

It may appear somewhat surprising, and even counter-intuitive, that randomly initialising node features would deliver such a gain in expressiveness.

is a C^2 sentence that can uniquely (up to isomorphism) identify an ordered graph.

Lemma (Abboud et al., 2020). Let $n \ge 1$, and let $f: \mathscr{G}_n \mapsto \mathbb{B}$ be an invariant Boolean function. Then, for all

The main connection comes from the fact that 1-WL can distinguish all ordered structures/graphs and so there

Coloured graphs: We say a graph is ordered if there is a total order on the nodes of the graph. Observe that colouring the nodes of a graph with distinct colours induces a total order on the nodes of a graph. We can therefore refer to coloured graphs instead, where each node is assigned colours from a finite set of colours.

Coloured graphs: We say a graph is ordered if there is a total order on the nodes of the graph. Observe that colouring the nodes of a graph with distinct colours induces a total order on the nodes of a graph. We can therefore refer to coloured graphs instead, where each node is assigned colours from a finite set of colours.

Individualised graphs: A coloured graph G is individualised if for any two distinct vertices $v, w \in V_G$ the sets $\pi(v), \pi(w)$ of colours they have are distinct. We say that a sentence ψ identifies a coloured graph G if for all coloured graphs H we have $H \vDash \psi$ if and only if H is isomorphic to G.

Coloured graphs: We say a graph is ordered if there is a total order on the nodes of the graph. Observe that colouring the nodes of a graph with distinct colours induces a total order on the nodes of a graph. We can therefore refer to coloured graphs instead, where each node is assigned colours from a finite set of colours.

Individualised graphs: A coloured graph G is individualised if for any two distinct vertices $v, w \in V_G$ the sets $\pi(v), \pi(w)$ of colours they have are distinct. We say that a sentence ψ identifies a coloured graph G if for all coloured graphs H we have $H \models \psi$ if and only if H is isomorphic to G.

• If we have a sentence ψ that can identify a colou power of distinguishing all such graphs.

• If we have a sentence ψ that can identify a coloured graph uniquely up to isomorphism, then we have the

Coloured graphs: We say a graph is ordered if there is a total order on the nodes of the graph. Observe that colouring the nodes of a graph with distinct colours induces a total order on the nodes of a graph. We can therefore refer to coloured graphs instead, where each node is assigned colours from a finite set of colours.

Individualised graphs: A coloured graph G is individualised if for any two distinct vertices $v, w \in V_G$ the sets $\pi(v), \pi(w)$ of colours they have are distinct. We say that a sentence ψ identifies a coloured graph G if for all coloured graphs H we have $H \vDash \psi$ if and only if H is isomorphic to G.

- power of distinguishing all such graphs.

• If we have a sentence ψ that can identify a coloured graph uniquely up to isomorphism, then we have the

• If, furthermore, all sentences that can identify the class of coloured graphs are in C^2 , then we can leverage the result of (Barcelo et al., 2020) to claim that MPNNs can identify the class of coloured graphs.

Coloured graphs: We say a graph is ordered if there is a total order on the nodes of the graph. Observe that colouring the nodes of a graph with distinct colours induces a total order on the nodes of a graph. We can therefore refer to coloured graphs instead, where each node is assigned colours from a finite set of colours.

Individualised graphs: A coloured graph G is individualised if for any two distinct vertices $v, w \in V_G$ the sets $\pi(v), \pi(w)$ of colours they have are distinct. We say that a sentence ψ identifies a coloured graph G if for all coloured graphs H we have $H \vDash \psi$ if and only if H is isomorphic to G.

- power of distinguishing all such graphs.

Problem: The input to MPNNs is not individualised graphs!

• If we have a sentence ψ that can identify a coloured graph uniquely up to isomorphism, then we have the

• If, furthermore, all sentences that can identify the class of coloured graphs are in C^2 , then we can leverage the result of (Barcelo et al., 2020) to claim that MPNNs can identify the class of coloured graphs.

Coloured graphs: We say a graph is ordered if there is a total order on the nodes of the graph. Observe that colouring the nodes of a graph with distinct colours induces a total order on the nodes of a graph. We can therefore refer to coloured graphs instead, where each node is assigned colours from a finite set of colours.

Individualised graphs: A coloured graph G is individualised if for any two distinct vertices $v, w \in V_G$ the sets $\pi(v), \pi(w)$ of colours they have are distinct. We say that a sentence ψ identifies a coloured graph G if for all coloured graphs H we have $H \vDash \psi$ if and only if H is isomorphic to G.

- power of distinguishing all such graphs.

Problem: The input to MPNNs is not individualised graphs!

Randomisation: RNI yields individualised graphs from input graphs with high probability!

• If we have a sentence ψ that can identify a coloured graph uniquely up to isomorphism, then we have the

• If, furthermore, all sentences that can identify the class of coloured graphs are in C^2 , then we can leverage the result of (Barcelo et al., 2020) to claim that MPNNs can identify the class of coloured graphs.

Given these, the roadmap of the proof is then as follows:

Given these, the roadmap of the proof is then as follows:

1. Establish that for every individualised coloured gus call these graph sentences.

Establish that for every individualised coloured graph G there is a C²-sentence ψ that identifies G, and let

Given these, the roadmap of the proof is then as follows:

- 1. us call these graph sentences.
- 2. also be represented by a C^2 sentence, namely the disjunction of all constituent graph sentences.

Establish that for every individualised coloured graph G there is a C²-sentence ψ that identifies G, and let

Extend this to Boolean functions over sets of individualised graphs, by showing that these functions can

Given these, the roadmap of the proof is then as follows:

- 1. us call these graph sentences.
- 2. also be represented by a C^2 sentence, namely the disjunction of all constituent graph sentences.
- Following this, provide a construction based on MPNN-RNI: 3.

Establish that for every individualised coloured graph G there is a C²-sentence ψ that identifies G, and let

Extend this to Boolean functions over sets of individualised graphs, by showing that these functions can

Given these, the roadmap of the proof is then as follows:

- 1. us call these graph sentences.
- 2. also be represented by a C^2 sentence, namely the disjunction of all constituent graph sentences.
- Following this, provide a construction based on MPNN-RNI: 3.
 - these, show that, with high probability, RNI makes the input graphs individualised.

Establish that for every individualised coloured graph G there is a C²-sentence ψ that identifies G, and let

Extend this to Boolean functions over sets of individualised graphs, by showing that these functions can

• Colours corresponds to node features vectors in MPNN-RNI, initialised randomly, and based on

Given these, the roadmap of the proof is then as follows:

- us call these graph sentences.
- 2. also be represented by a C^2 sentence, namely the disjunction of all constituent graph sentences.
- Following this, provide a construction based on MPNN-RNI: 3.
 - these, show that, with high probability, RNI makes the input graphs individualised.

Establish that for every individualised coloured graph G there is a C²-sentence ψ that identifies G, and let

Extend this to Boolean functions over sets of individualised graphs, by showing that these functions can

• Colours corresponds to node features vectors in MPNN-RNI, initialised randomly, and based on

• Since all such functions can be captured by a sentence in C^2 , and an MPNN with a global readout can capture C^2 (Barcelo et al., 2020), MPNN-RNI can capture arbitrary Boolean functions.

Given these, the roadmap of the proof is then as follows:

- us call these graph sentences.
- 2. also be represented by a C^2 sentence, namely the disjunction of all constituent graph sentences.
- Following this, provide a construction based on MPNN-RNI: 3.
 - these, show that, with high probability, RNI makes the input graphs individualised.

 - Lift the result of Boolean functions to real functions as described earlier.

Establish that for every individualised coloured graph G there is a C²-sentence ψ that identifies G, and let

Extend this to Boolean functions over sets of individualised graphs, by showing that these functions can

• Colours corresponds to node features vectors in MPNN-RNI, initialised randomly, and based on

• Since all such functions can be captured by a sentence in C^2 , and an MPNN with a global readout can capture C^2 (Barcelo et al., 2020), MPNN-RNI can capture arbitrary Boolean functions.

Given these, the roadmap of the proof is then as follows:

- us call these graph sentences.
- 2. also be represented by a C^2 sentence, namely the disjunction of all constituent graph sentences.
- Following this, provide a construction based on MPNN-RNI: 3.
 - these, show that, with high probability, RNI makes the input graphs individualised.

 - Lift the result of Boolean functions to real functions as described earlier.

Remark: This result holds even with partial node initialisations — even with a single randomised dimension.

Establish that for every individualised coloured graph G there is a C²-sentence ψ that identifies G, and let

Extend this to Boolean functions over sets of individualised graphs, by showing that these functions can

• Colours corresponds to node features vectors in MPNN-RNI, initialised randomly, and based on

• Since all such functions can be captured by a sentence in C^2 , and an MPNN with a global readout can capture C^2 (Barcelo et al., 2020), MPNN-RNI can capture arbitrary Boolean functions.

Recall that we did not prefer embedding graphs to an MLP, due to the lack of right inductive bias, and properties such as permutation-invariance. The following question is then in place:

Recall that we did not prefer embedding graphs to an MLP, due to the lack of right inductive bias, and properties such as permutation-invariance. The following question is then in place:

Question: Are MPNN-RNIs permutation-invariant, or, more generally, do MPNN-RNIs have the right inductive bias?

Recall that we did not prefer embedding graphs to an MLP, due to the lack of right inductive bias, and properties such as permutation-invariance. The following question is then in place:

Question: Are MPNN-RNIs permutation-invariant, or, more generally, do MPNN-RNIs have the right inductive bias?

graph, but also on RNI.

• On the surface, MPNN-RNI models no longer preserves the invariance of MPNNs, since the result of the computation of an MPNN-RNI not only depends on the structure (i.e., the isomorphism type) of the input

Recall that we did not prefer embedding graphs to an MLP, due to the lack of right inductive bias, and properties such as permutation-invariance. The following question is then in place:

Question: Are MPNN-RNIs permutation-invariant, or, more generally, do MPNN-RNIs have the right inductive bias?

- graph, but also on RNI.
- (or as generating an output distribution), and this random variable would still be invariant.

• On the surface, MPNN-RNI models no longer preserves the invariance of MPNNs, since the result of the computation of an MPNN-RNI not only depends on the structure (i.e., the isomorphism type) of the input

• The broader picture is, however, rather subtle: We can view such a model as computing a random variable

Recall that we did not prefer embedding graphs to an MLP, due to the lack of right inductive bias, and properties such as permutation-invariance. The following question is then in place:

Question: Are MPNN-RNIs permutation-invariant, or, more generally, do MPNN-RNIs have the right inductive bias?

- graph, but also on RNI.
- (or as generating an output distribution), and this random variable would still be invariant.
- representation of the input graph, which fundamentally maintains invariance.

• On the surface, MPNN-RNI models no longer preserves the invariance of MPNNs, since the result of the computation of an MPNN-RNI not only depends on the structure (i.e., the isomorphism type) of the input

• The broader picture is, however, rather subtle: We can view such a model as computing a random variable

• This means that the outcome of the computation of an MPNN-RNI does still not depend on the specific

Observation: MPNN-RNIs are permutation-invariant in expectation!

Observation: MPNN-RNIs are permutation-invariant in expectation!

Indeed, random features vary around a mean which identical across all nodes.

• Indeed, random features vary around a mean which, in expectation, will inform model predictions, and is

Observation: MPNN-RNIs are permutation-invariant in expectation!

- identical across all nodes.
- mean, enable graph discrimination and improve expressiveness.

• Indeed, random features vary around a mean which, in expectation, will inform model predictions, and is

• However, the variability between different samples, and the variability of a random sample relative to this

Observation: MPNN-RNIs are permutation-invariant in expectation!

- identical across all nodes.
- mean, enable graph discrimination and improve expressiveness.
- invariance, whereas single-sample variance achieves the improved expressiveness.

• Indeed, random features vary around a mean which, in expectation, will inform model predictions, and is

• However, the variability between different samples, and the variability of a random sample relative to this

• Overall, in expectation, all samples over training and evaluation fluctuate around a unique value, preserving

Observation: MPNN-RNIs are permutation-invariant in expectation!

- identical across all nodes.
- mean, enable graph discrimination and improve expressiveness.
- invariance, whereas single-sample variance achieves the improved expressiveness.

Observe also that MPNN-RNIs still have the structural encoding of the graph, and explicit message passing, and the structure-induced bias is preserved.

• Indeed, random features vary around a mean which, in expectation, will inform model predictions, and is

• However, the variability between different samples, and the variability of a random sample relative to this

• Overall, in expectation, all samples over training and evaluation fluctuate around a unique value, preserving

Observation: MPNN-RNIs are permutation-invariant in expectation!

- identical across all nodes.
- mean, enable graph discrimination and improve expressiveness.
- invariance, whereas single-sample variance achieves the improved expressiveness.

Observe also that MPNN-RNIs still have the structural encoding of the graph, and explicit message passing, and the structure-induced bias is preserved.

Together with the arguments above, MPNN-RNI models, allowing variability, are universal models, and preserve the good inductive bias of MPNNs.

• Indeed, random features vary around a mean which, in expectation, will inform model predictions, and is

• However, the variability between different samples, and the variability of a random sample relative to this

• Overall, in expectation, all samples over training and evaluation fluctuate around a unique value, preserving

Benchmarking Expressiveness Evaluation

Recall that existing benchmarks are unlikely to include the cases MPNNs cannot distinguish, and so it is hard to evaluate the models against this criteria.

Recall that existing benchmarks are unlikely to include the cases MPNNs cannot distinguish, and so it is hard to evaluate the models against this criteria.

We have seen experiments conducted on randomly generated graphs with, e.g., triangles as substructures. These datasets require more expressivity, but they are still dealing with an inherently local problem.

Recall that existing benchmarks are unlikely to include the cases MPNNs cannot distinguish, and so it is hard to evaluate the models against this criteria.

We have seen experiments conducted on randomly generated graphs with, e.g., triangles as substructures. These datasets require more expressivity, but they are still dealing with an inherently local problem.

To evaluate whether the universality result is viable practically, the dataset EXP is proposed (Abboud et al., 2020) which aims to evaluate the expressiveness of GNN models and it is based on the well-known propositional satisfiability problem.

Recall that existing benchmarks are unlikely to include the cases MPNNs cannot distinguish, and so it is hard to evaluate the models against this criteria.

We have seen experiments conducted on randomly generated graphs with, e.g., triangles as substructures. These datasets require more expressivity, but they are still dealing with an inherently local problem.

To evaluate whether the universality result is viable practically, the dataset EXP is proposed (Abboud et al., 2020) which aims to evaluate the expressiveness of GNN models and it is based on the well-known propositional satisfiability problem.

Briefly, given a propositional formula ϕ , the satisfiability problem (SAT) is to determine whether the formula has a satisfying assignment, and it is the most prototypical NP-complete problem.

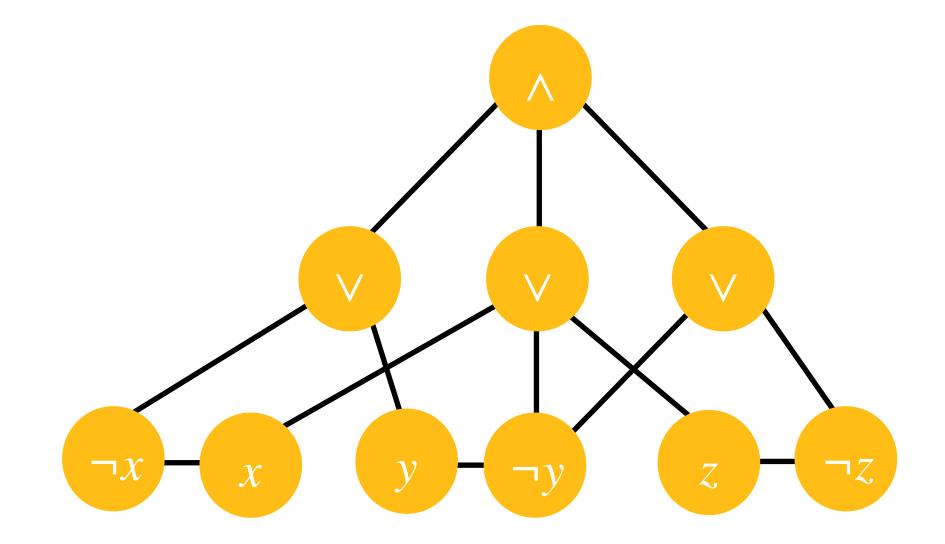
Recall that existing benchmarks are unlikely to include the cases MPNNs cannot distinguish, and so it is hard to evaluate the models against this criteria.

We have seen experiments conducted on randomly generated graphs with, e.g., triangles as substructures. These datasets require more expressivity, but they are still dealing with an inherently local problem.

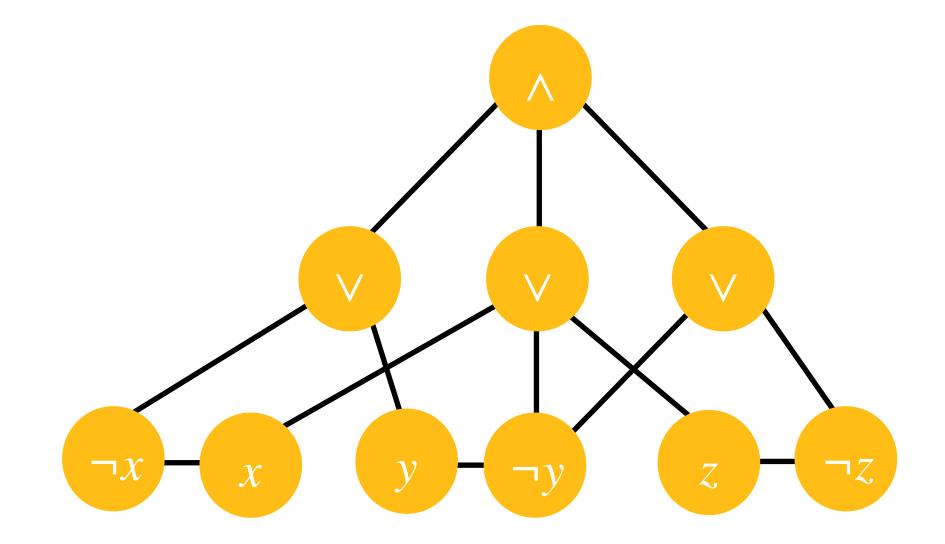
To evaluate whether the universality result is viable practically, the dataset EXP is proposed (Abboud et al., 2020) which aims to evaluate the expressiveness of GNN models and it is based on the well-known propositional satisfiability problem.

Briefly, given a propositional formula ϕ , the satisfiability problem (SAT) is to determine whether the formula has a satisfying assignment, and it is the most prototypical NP-complete problem.

SAT is combinatorial by its nature and is not local, i.e., the satisfiability of a formula cannot be determined by local properties alone.

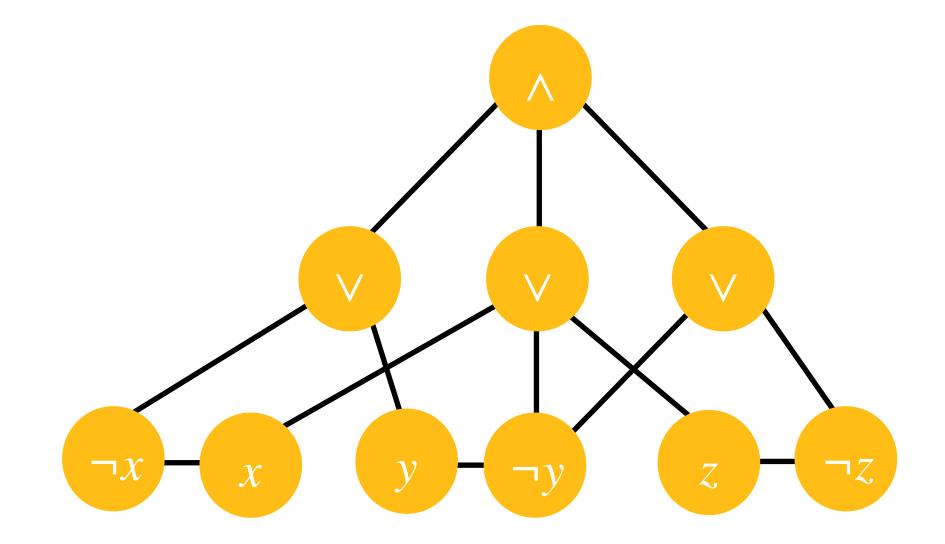


Idea: Encode each SAT instance as a graph (using well-known transformations) and formulate the satisfiability problem as a Boolean graph classification problem.



Idea: Encode each SAT instance as a graph (using well-known transformations) and formulate the satisfiability problem as a Boolean graph classification problem.

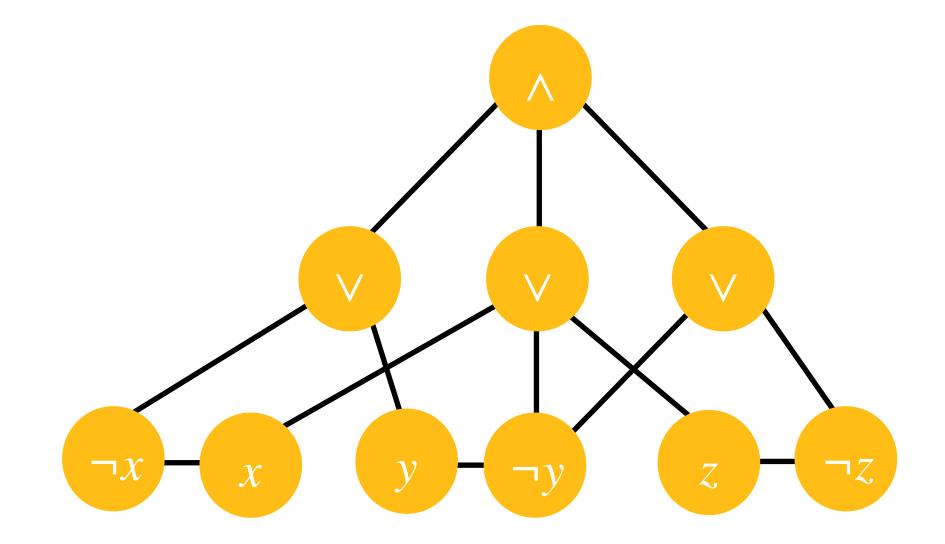
The model then needs to classify graphs that represent satisfiable instances as true and graphs that represent unsatisfiable instances as false.



Idea: Encode each SAT instance as a graph (using well-known transformations) and formulate the satisfiability problem as a Boolean graph classification problem.

The model then needs to classify graphs that represent satisfiable instances as true and graphs that represent unsatisfiable instances as false.

A simple graph encoding of a propositional formula is shown on the right hand side.



The precise details are cumbersome, since it is not sufficient to come up with satisfiable/unsatisfiable instances, but these should also be indistinguishable using 1-WL, once mapped to graph representation.

The precise details are cumbersome, since it is not sufficient to come up with satisfiable/unsatisfiable instances, but these should also be indistinguishable using 1-WL, once mapped to graph representation.

encoding of a propositional formula, and each pair (G_i, H_i) respects the following properties:

Briefly, EXP consists of a set of graph instances $\{G_1, \ldots, G_n, H_1, \ldots, H_n\}$, such that each instance is a graph

The precise details are cumbersome, since it is not sufficient to come up with satisfiable/unsatisfiable instances, but these should also be indistinguishable using 1-WL, once mapped to graph representation.

encoding of a propositional formula, and each pair (G_i, H_i) respects the following properties:

• G_i and H_i are non-isomorphic,

Briefly, EXP consists of a set of graph instances $\{G_1, \ldots, G_n, H_1, \ldots, H_n\}$, such that each instance is a graph

The precise details are cumbersome, since it is not sufficient to come up with satisfiable/unsatisfiable instances, but these should also be indistinguishable using 1-WL, once mapped to graph representation.

encoding of a propositional formula, and each pair (G_i, H_i) respects the following properties:

- G_i and H_i are non-isomorphic,
- G_i and H_i have different SAT outcomes: G_i encodes a satisfiable formula, while H_i encodes an unsatisfiable formula,

Briefly, EXP consists of a set of graph instances $\{G_1, \ldots, G_n, H_1, \ldots, H_n\}$, such that each instance is a graph

The precise details are cumbersome, since it is not sufficient to come up with satisfiable/unsatisfiable instances, but these should also be indistinguishable using 1-WL, once mapped to graph representation.

encoding of a propositional formula, and each pair (G_i, H_i) respects the following properties:

- G_i and H_i are non-isomorphic,
- G_i and H_i have different SAT outcomes: G_i encodes a satisfiable formula, while H_i encodes an unsatisfiable formula,
- MPNNs, and

Briefly, EXP consists of a set of graph instances $\{G_1, \ldots, G_n, H_1, \ldots, H_n\}$, such that each instance is a graph

• G_i and H_i are 1-WL indistinguishable, so are guaranteed to be classified in the same way by standard

The precise details are cumbersome, since it is not sufficient to come up with satisfiable/unsatisfiable instances, but these should also be indistinguishable using 1-WL, once mapped to graph representation.

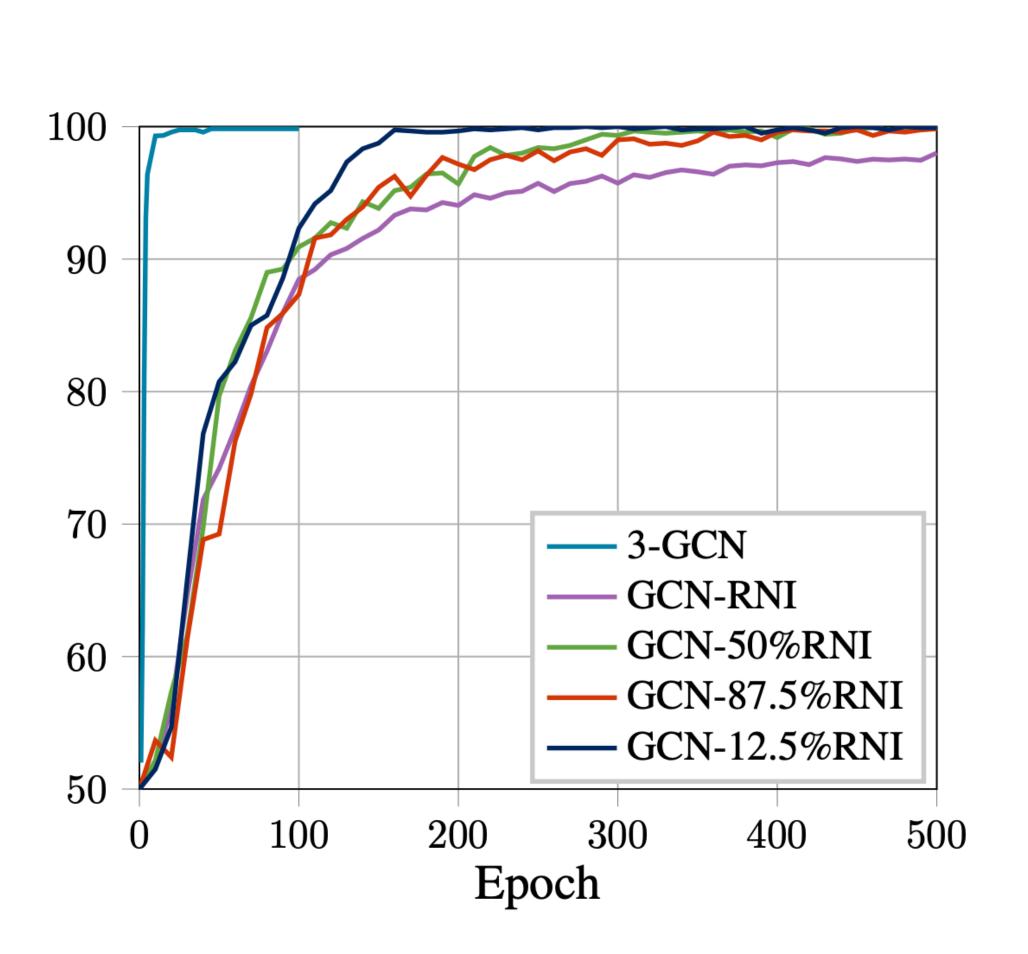
encoding of a propositional formula, and each pair (G_i, H_i) respects the following properties:

- G_i and H_i are non-isomorphic,
- G_i and H_i have different SAT outcomes: G_i encodes a satisfiable formula, while H_i encodes an unsatisfiable formula,
- MPNNs, and
- expressive power.

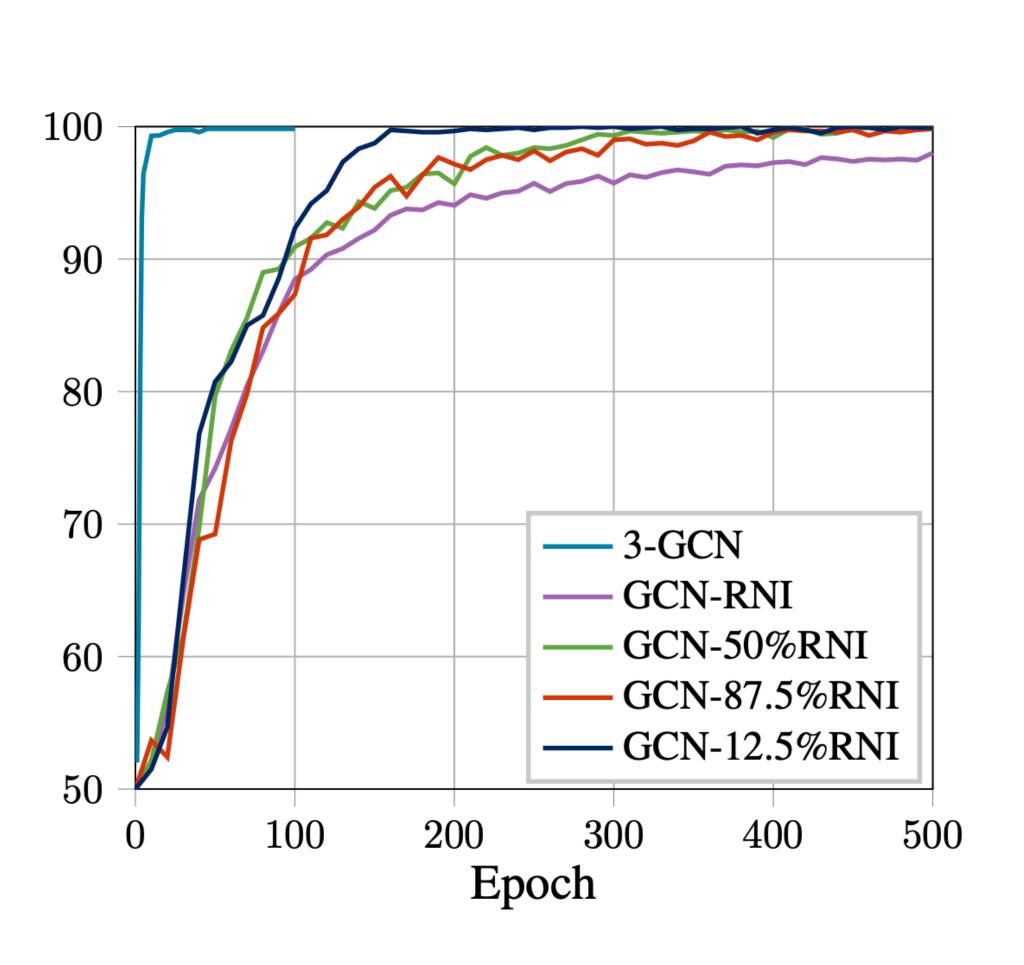
Briefly, EXP consists of a set of graph instances $\{G_1, \ldots, G_n, H_1, \ldots, H_n\}$, such that each instance is a graph

• G_i and H_i are 1-WL indistinguishable, so are guaranteed to be classified in the same way by standard

• G_i and H_i are 2-WL distinguishable, so can be classified differently by higher-order GNNs that have 2-WL

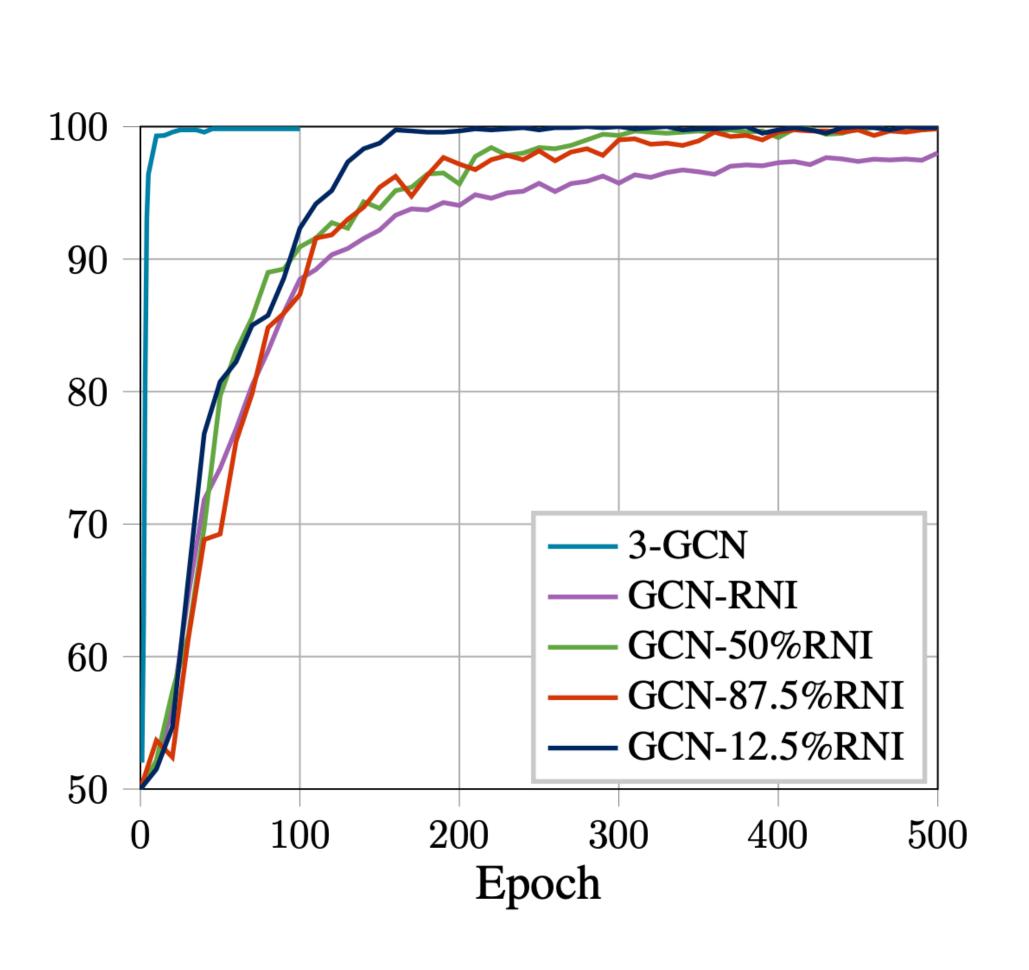


Results: Reported for GCNs and its randomised variants. GCN-x % RNI denotes a GCN-RNI model, where only x % of initial node embeddings are randomised.



Results: Reported for GCNs and its randomised variants. GCN-x % RNI denotes a GCN-RNI model, where only x % of initial node embeddings are randomised.

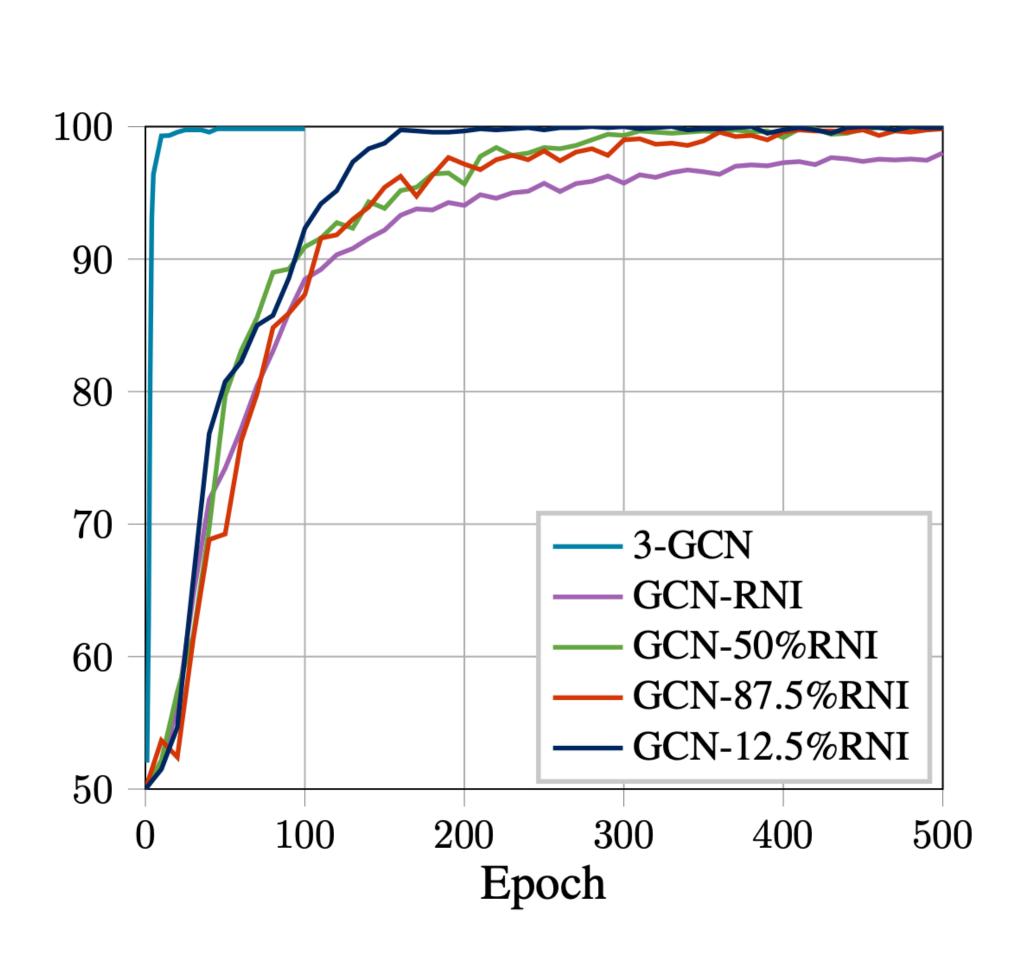
The extreme value $100\,\%$, the intermediate value $50\,\%$, as well as near-edge cases of $87.5\,\%$ and $12.5\,\%$, are reported.



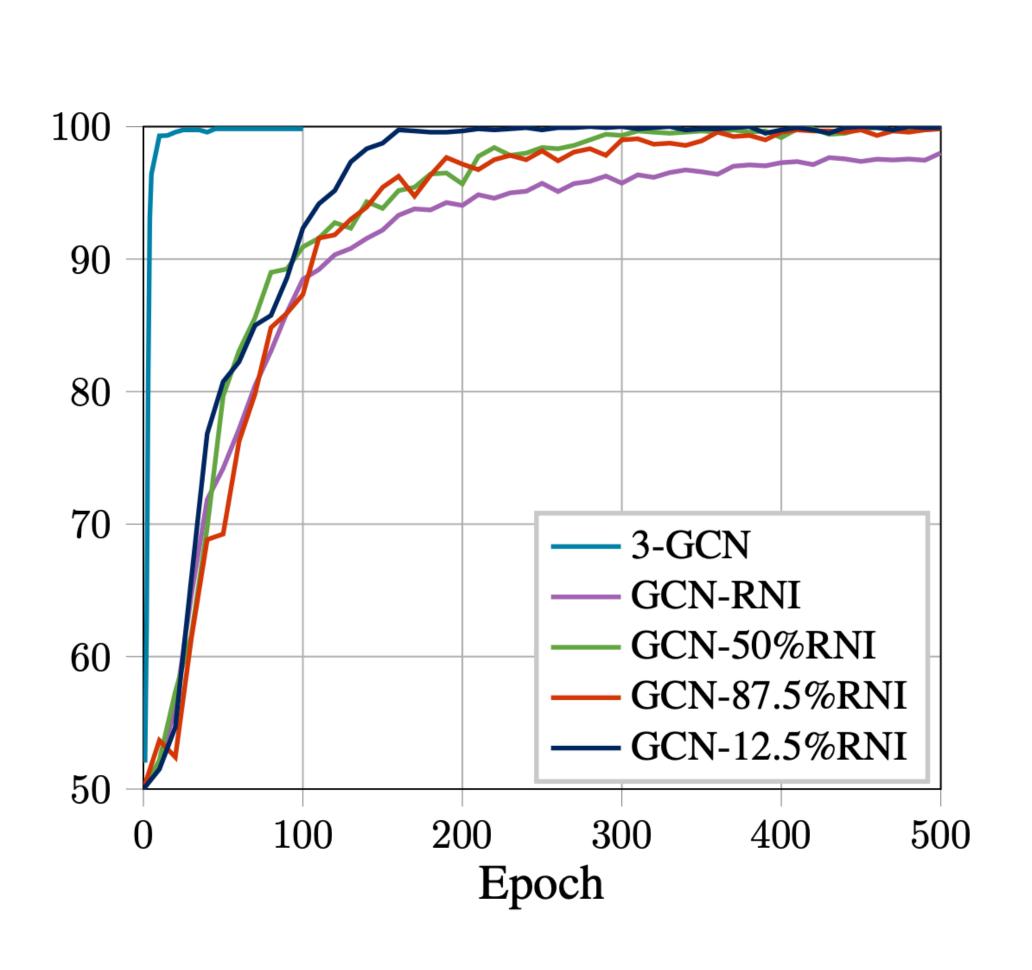
Results: Reported for GCNs and its randomised variants. GCN-x % RNI denotes a GCN-RNI model, where only x % of initial node embeddings are randomised.

The extreme value $100\,\%$, the intermediate value $50\,\%$, as well as near-edge cases of $87.5\,\%$ and $12.5\,\%$, are reported.

Figure from (Abboud et al., 2020) depicts the learning curves of the respective models on the dataset EXP.



- **Results**: Reported for GCNs and its randomised variants. GCN-x % RNI denotes a GCN-RNI model, where only x % of initial node embeddings are randomised.
- The extreme value $100\,\%$, the intermediate value $50\,\%$, as well as near-edge cases of 87.5% and 12.5%, are reported.
- Figure from (Abboud et al., 2020) depicts the learning curves of the respective models on the dataset EXP.
- GCN model achieves exactly 50% (omitted in the figure), and 3-GCN model achieves near-perfect accuracy very quickly.



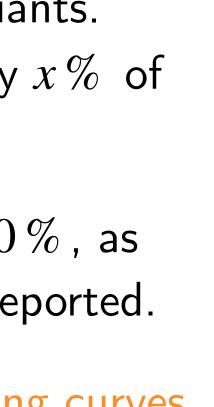
Results: Reported for GCNs and its randomised variants. GCN-x % RNI denotes a GCN-RNI model, where only x % of initial node embeddings are randomised.

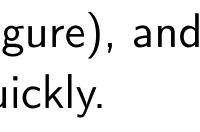
The extreme value $100\,\%$, the intermediate value $50\,\%$, as well as near-edge cases of 87.5% and 12.5%, are reported.

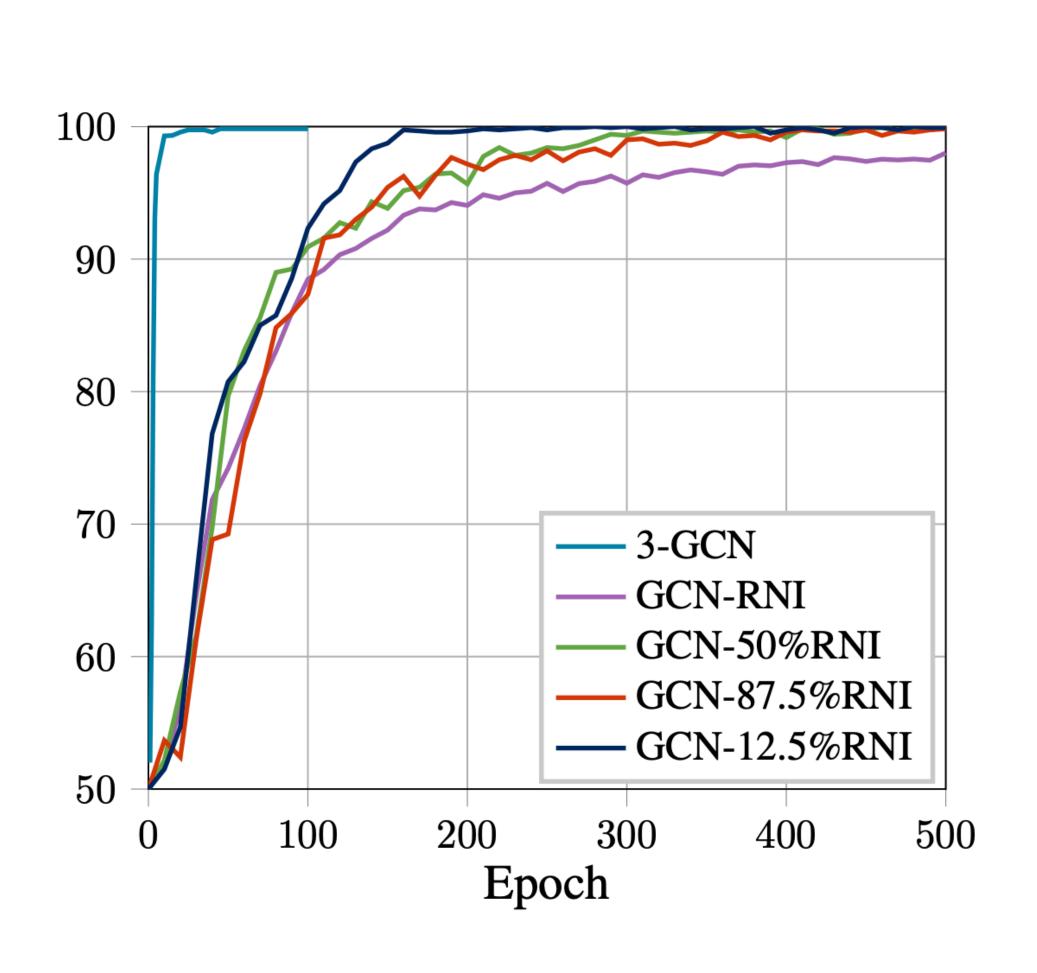
Figure from (Abboud et al., 2020) depicts the learning curves of the respective models on the dataset EXP.

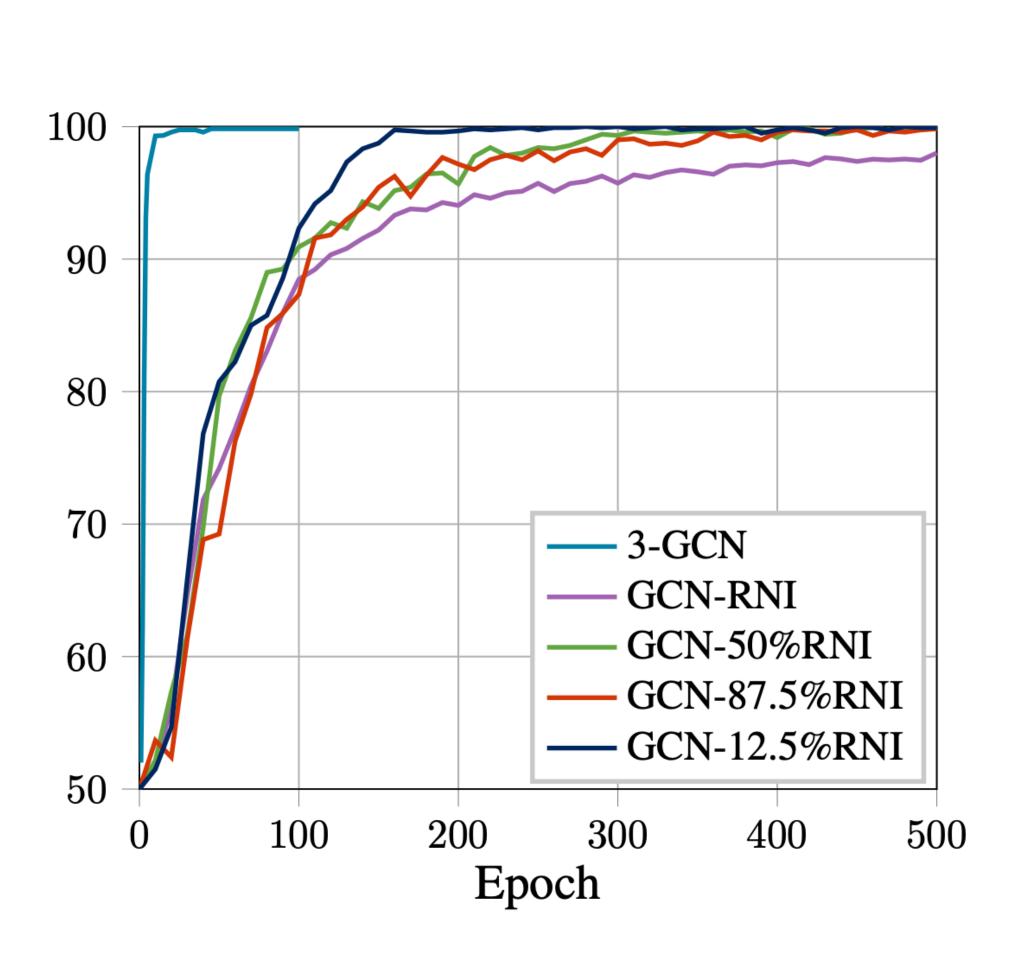
GCN model achieves exactly 50% (omitted in the figure), and 3-GCN model achieves near-perfect accuracy very quickly.

All other GCN-x % RNI models achieve also near-perfect accuracy

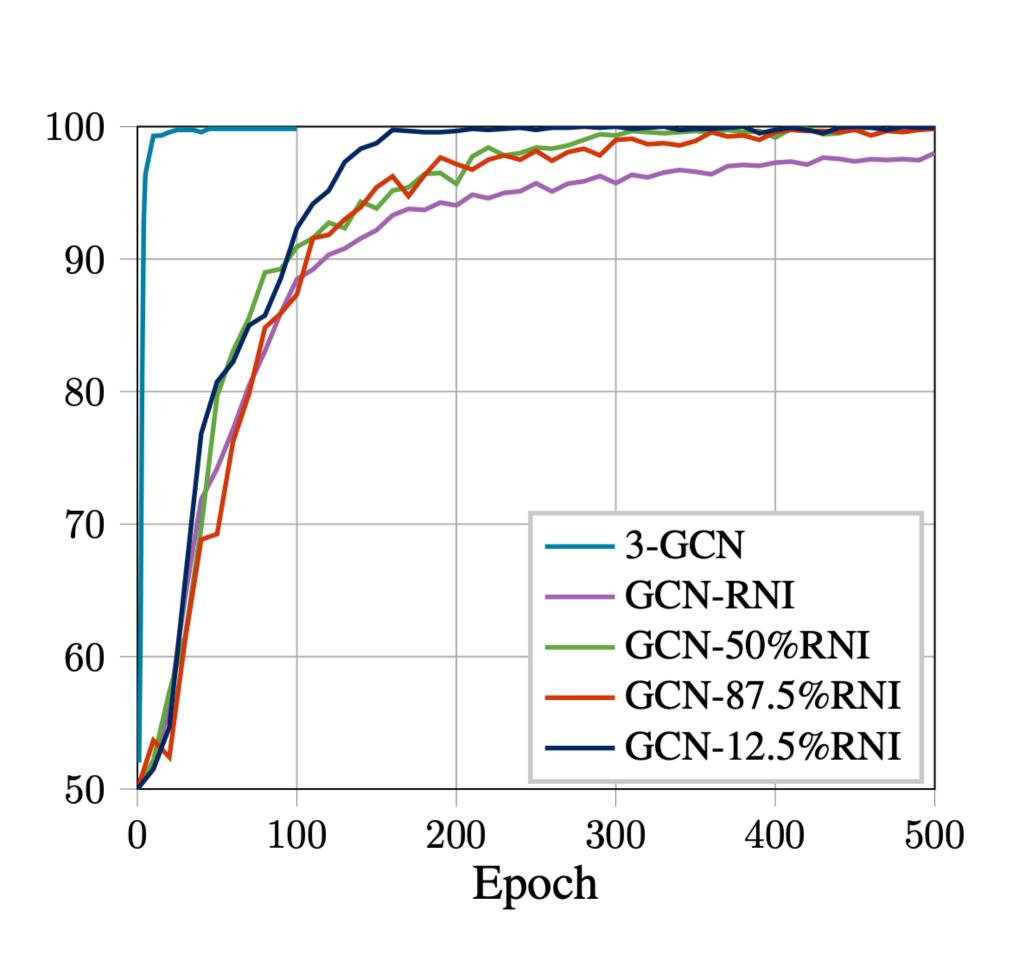








Space-efficiency: This suggest that RNI can practically improve the expressiveness of MPNNs, and make them competitive with higher-order models, despite being significantly less demanding computationally.



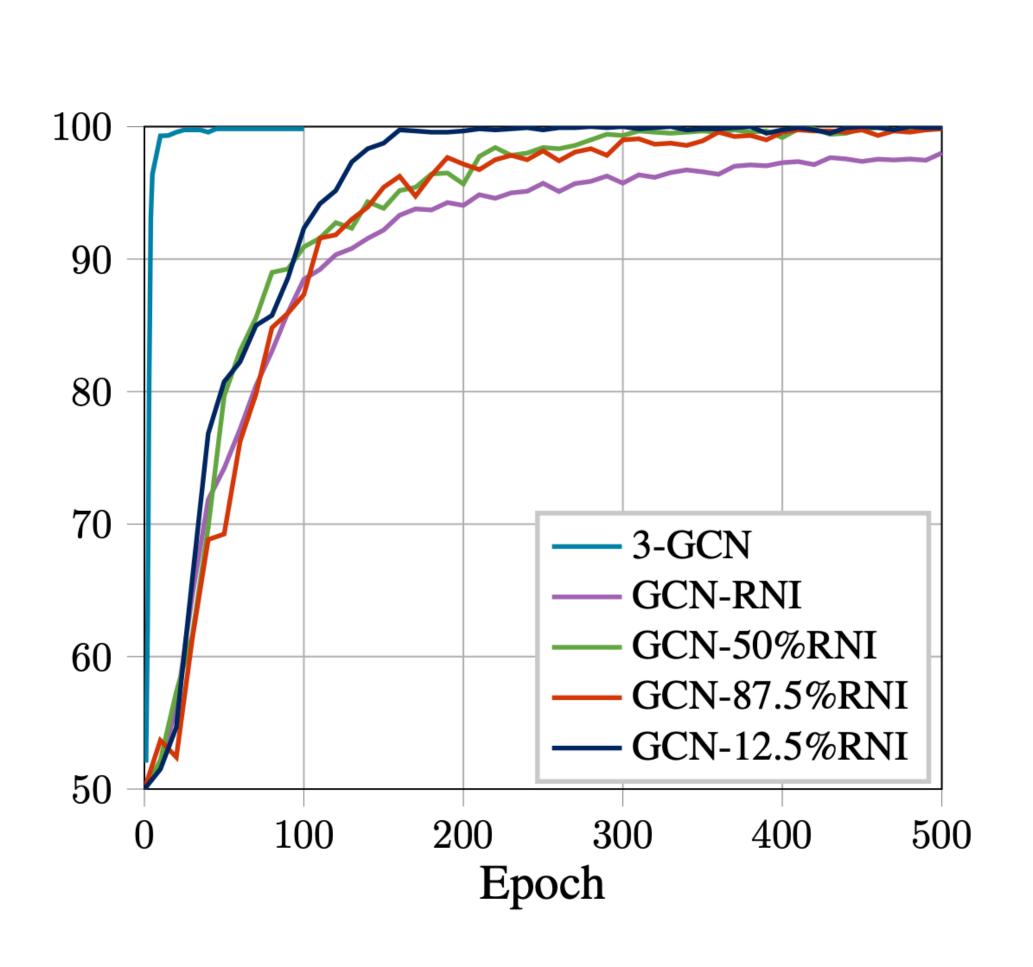
Space-efficiency: This suggest that RNI can practically improve the expressiveness of MPNNs, and make them competitive with higher-order models, despite being significantly less demanding computationally.

MPNNs with RNI are space efficient, unlike higher-order GNNs, and combine expressiveness with efficiency in practice.





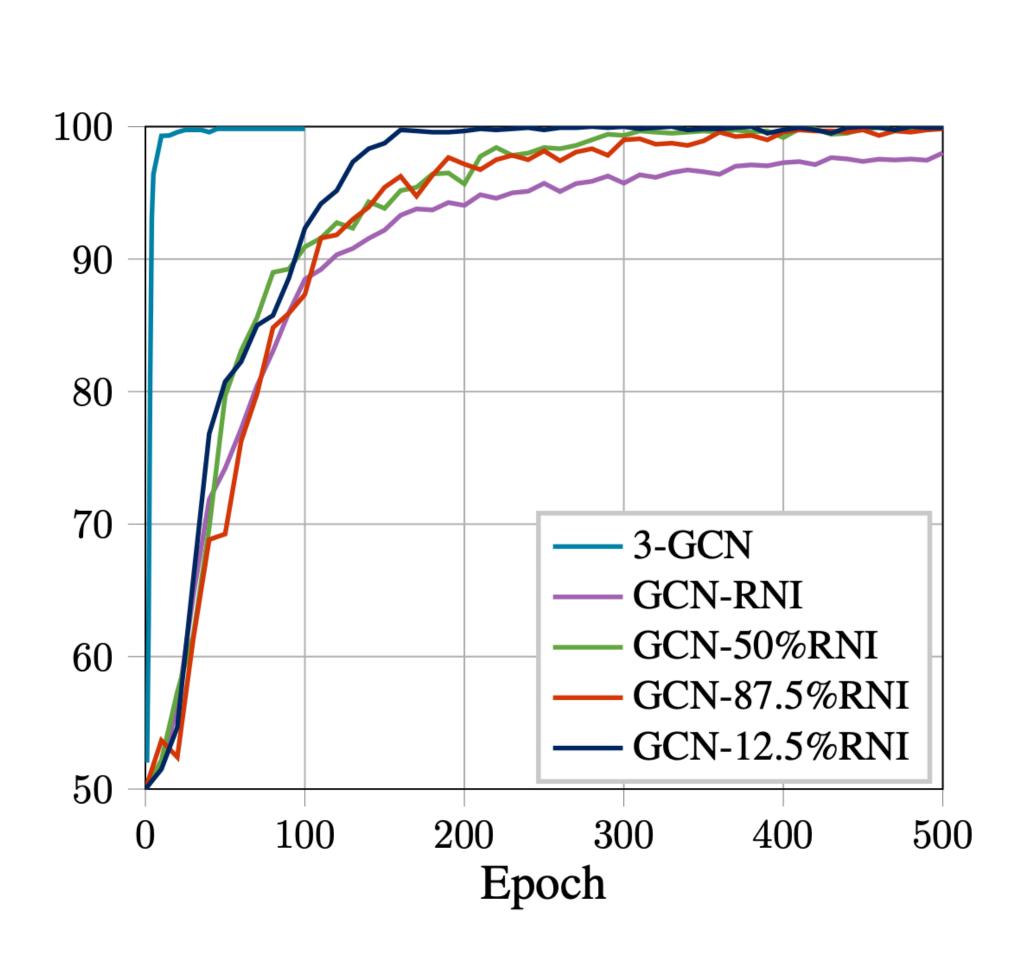




Space-efficiency: This suggest that RNI can practically improve the expressiveness of MPNNs, and make them competitive with higher-order models, despite being significantly less demanding computationally.

MPNNs with RNI are space efficient, unlike higher-order GNNs, and combine expressiveness with efficiency in practice.

Indeed, for a typical EXP instance with 50 nodes, with an embedding dimensionality of 64, GCN-RNI only requires 3200 parameters, whereas 3-GCN requires 1,254,400 parameters!



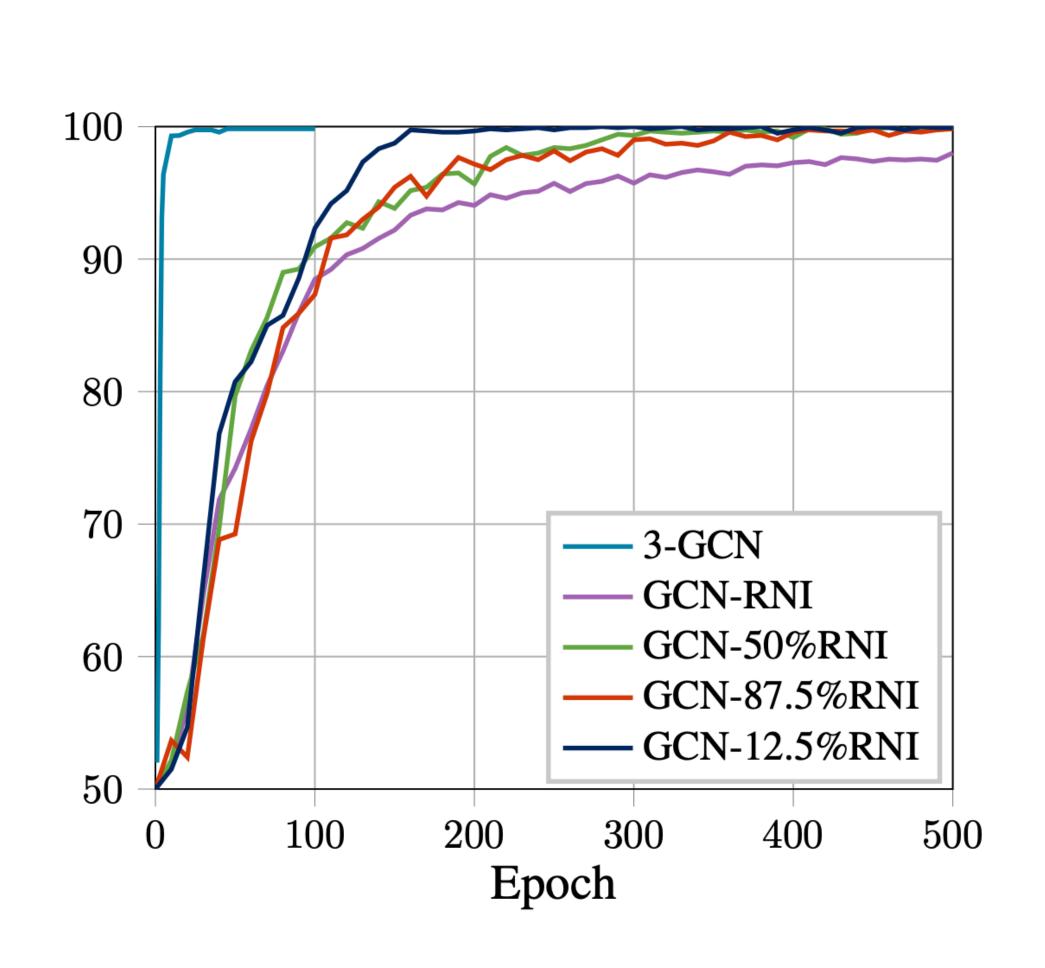
Space-efficiency: This suggest that RNI can practically improve the expressiveness of MPNNs, and make them competitive with higher-order models, despite being significantly less demanding computationally.

MPNNs with RNI are space efficient, unlike higher-order GNNs, and combine expressiveness with efficiency in practice.

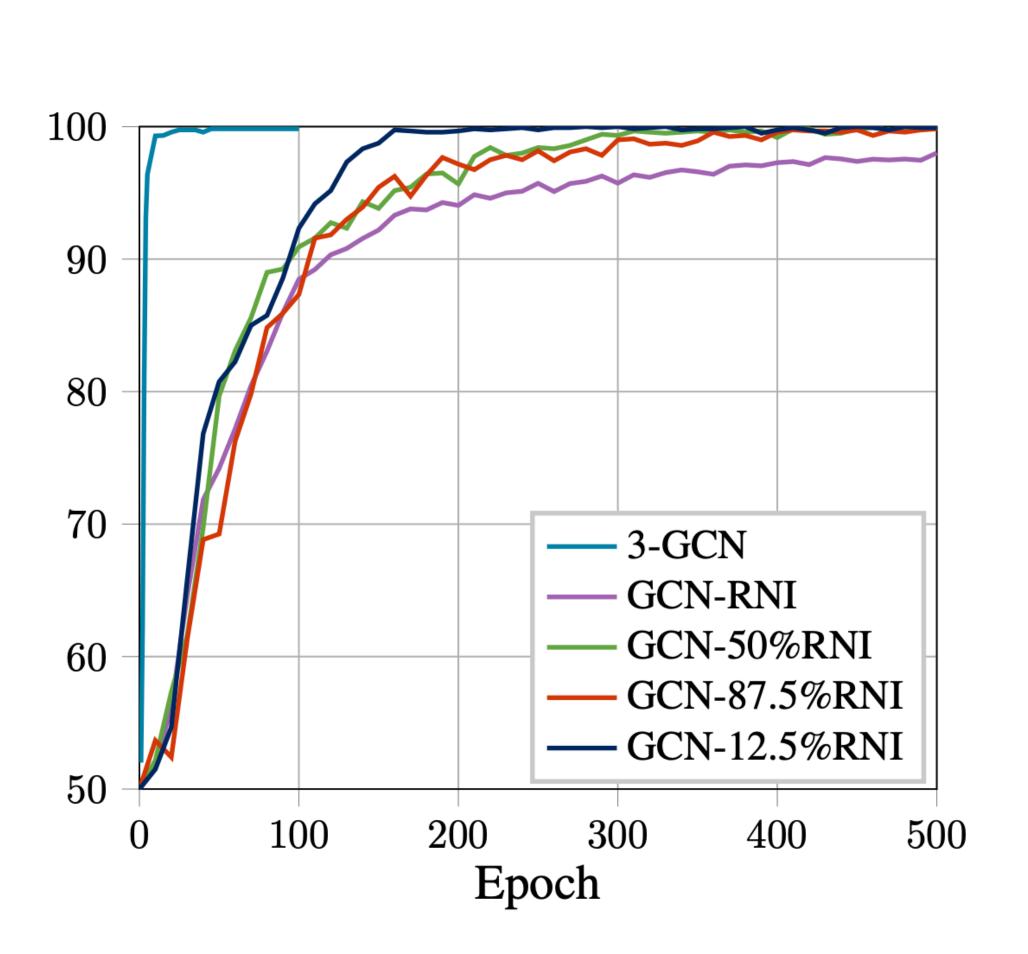
Indeed, for a typical EXP instance with 50 nodes, with an embedding dimensionality of 64, GCN-RNI only requires 3200 parameters, whereas 3-GCN requires 1,254,400 parameters!

Somewhat surprisingly, GCN-RNI closely matches the performance of 3-GCN, and can easily scale to larger instances that are not within reach for 3-GCN.



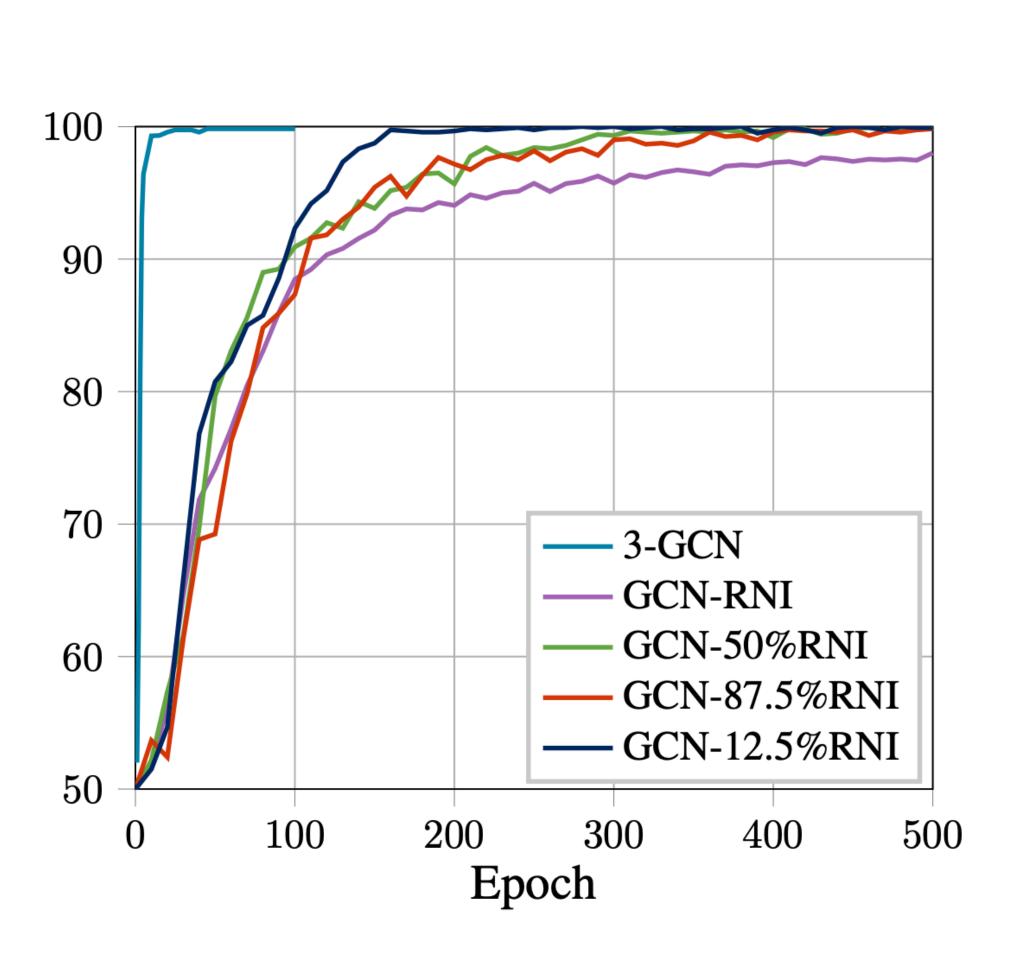


Randomised Models Converge Slower



Randomised Models Converge Slower

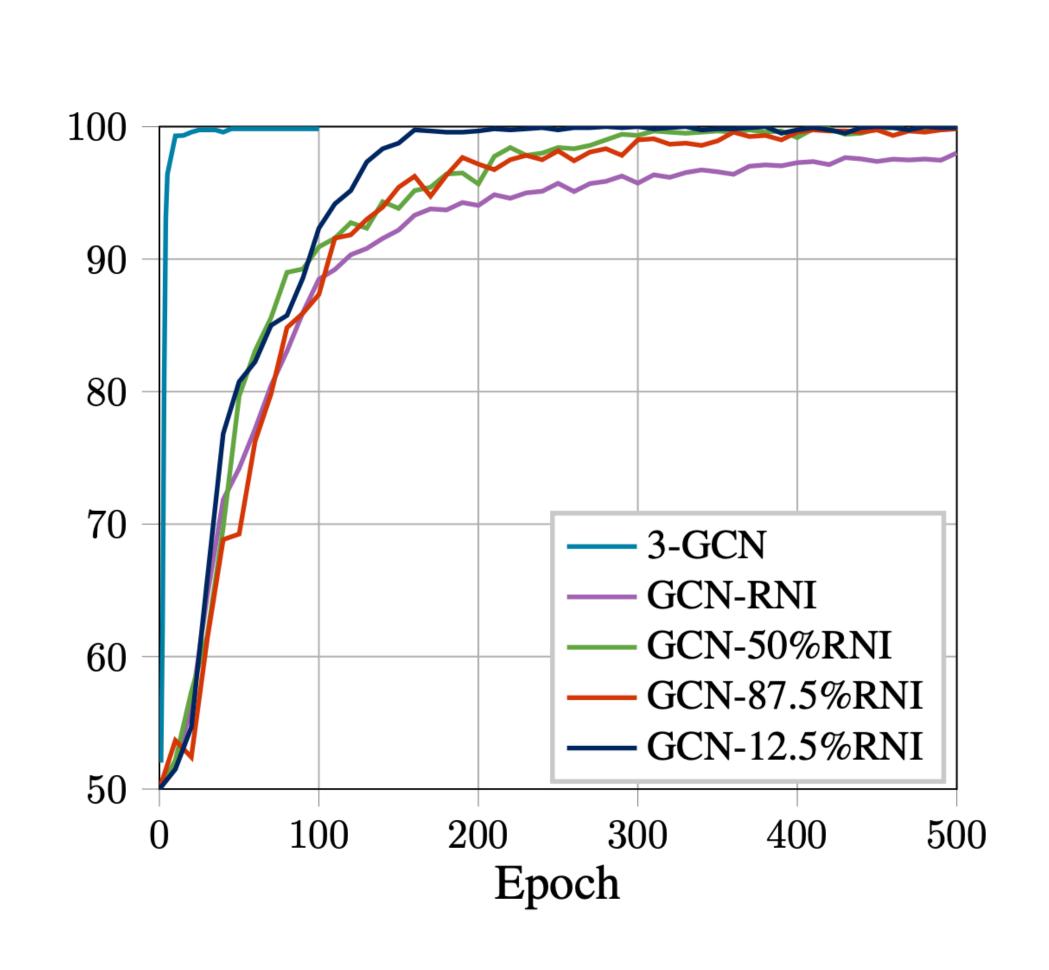
Convergence: Model convergence is slower for GCN-RNI and this is the price to pay, quoting (Abboud et al., 2020):



Randomised Models Converge Slower

Convergence: Model convergence is slower for GCN-RNI and this is the price to pay, quoting (Abboud et al., 2020):

"3-GCN only requires about 10 epochs to achieve its optimal performance, whereas GCN-RNI models all require in excess of 100 epochs. Intuitively, the slower convergence of GCN-RNI can be attributed to a significantly harder learning task compared to 3-GCN: Whereas 3-GCN must learn from a deterministic set of node embeddings, and is naturally capable of discerning between dataset cores, GCN-RNI relies on RNI to discern between data points in EXP, via an artificial node ordering. This in turn implies that GCN-RNI must first leverage RNI to detect structure, then subsequently learn robustness against the variability of RNI, which makes the learning task for GCN-RNI especially challenging."



EXP is solely designed for expressiveness evaluation, and this leaves multiple questions open: How does RNI impact learning when data contains instances with varying expressiveness requirements, and how does RNI affect model generalisation on more variable datasets?

EXP is solely designed for expressiveness evaluation, and this leaves multiple questions open: How does RNI impact learning when data contains instances with varying expressiveness requirements, and how does RNI affect model generalisation on more variable datasets?

CEXP dataset is proposed to address these questions, and it can be seen as a combination of two datasets: EXP dataset and CORRUPT dataset, which a minimally corrupted version of EXP.

EXP is solely designed for expressiveness evaluation, and this leaves multiple questions open: How does RNI impact learning when data contains instances with varying expressiveness requirements, and how does RNI affect model generalisation on more variable datasets?

CEXP dataset is proposed to address these questions, and it can be seen as a combination of two datasets: EXP dataset and CORRUPT dataset, which a minimally corrupted version of EXP.

While EXP graphs are not 1-WL distinguishable, CORRUPT graphs are 1-WL distinguishable. Importantly, CORRUPT graphs are still very similar to their uncorrupted variants, making the overall learning task harder.

EXP is solely designed for expressiveness evaluation, and this leaves multiple questions open: How does RNI impact learning when data contains instances with varying expressiveness requirements, and how does RNI affect model generalisation on more variable datasets?

CEXP dataset is proposed to address these questions, and it can be seen as a combination of two datasets: EXP dataset and CORRUPT dataset, which a minimally corrupted version of EXP.

While EXP graphs are not 1-WL distinguishable, CORRUPT graphs are 1-WL distinguishable. Importantly, CORRUPT graphs are still very similar to their uncorrupted variants, making the overall learning task harder.

CEXP is thus well-suited for evaluating the efficacy of RNI more holistically, as it allows the evaluation of the contribution of RNI jointly on EXP and CORRUPT:

EXP is solely designed for expressiveness evaluation, and this leaves multiple questions open: How does RNI impact learning when data contains instances with varying expressiveness requirements, and how does RNI affect model generalisation on more variable datasets?

CEXP dataset is proposed to address these questions, and it can be seen as a combination of two datasets: EXP dataset and CORRUPT dataset, which a minimally corrupted version of EXP.

While EXP graphs are not 1-WL distinguishable, CORRUPT graphs are 1-WL distinguishable. Importantly, CORRUPT graphs are still very similar to their uncorrupted variants, making the overall learning task harder.

CEXP is thus well-suited for evaluating the efficacy of RNI more holistically, as it allows the evaluation of the contribution of RNI jointly on EXP and CORRUPT:

• EXP requires 2-WL expressiveness, and any model without this power will get 50% accuracy on this subset.

EXP is solely designed for expressiveness evaluation, and this leaves multiple questions open: How does RNI impact learning when data contains instances with varying expressiveness requirements, and how does RNI affect model generalisation on more variable datasets?

CEXP dataset is proposed to address these questions, and it can be seen as a combination of two datasets: EXP dataset and CORRUPT dataset, which a minimally corrupted version of EXP.

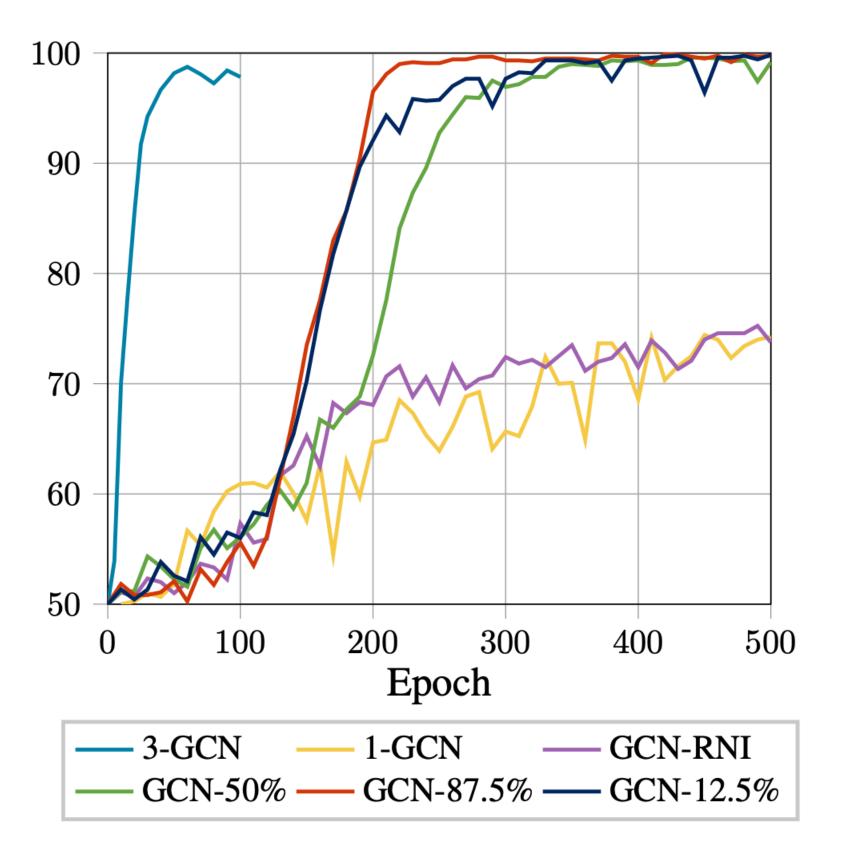
While EXP graphs are not 1-WL distinguishable, CORRUPT graphs are 1-WL distinguishable. Importantly, CORRUPT graphs are still very similar to their uncorrupted variants, making the overall learning task harder.

CEXP is thus well-suited for evaluating the efficacy of RNI more holistically, as it allows the evaluation of the contribution of RNI jointly on EXP and CORRUPT:

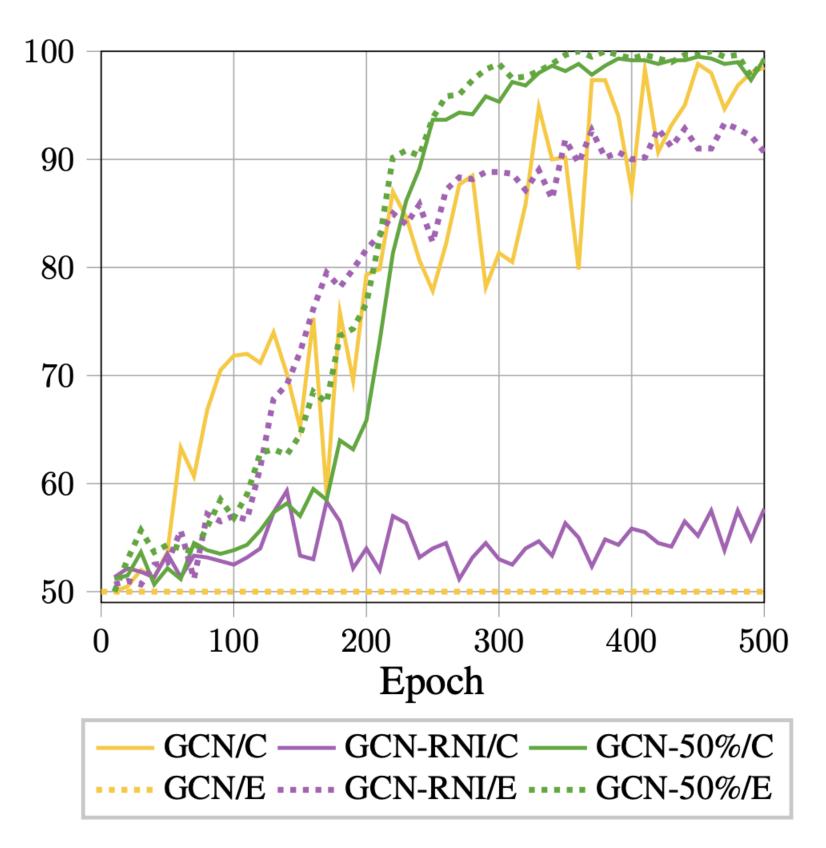
- poor performance on this dataset.

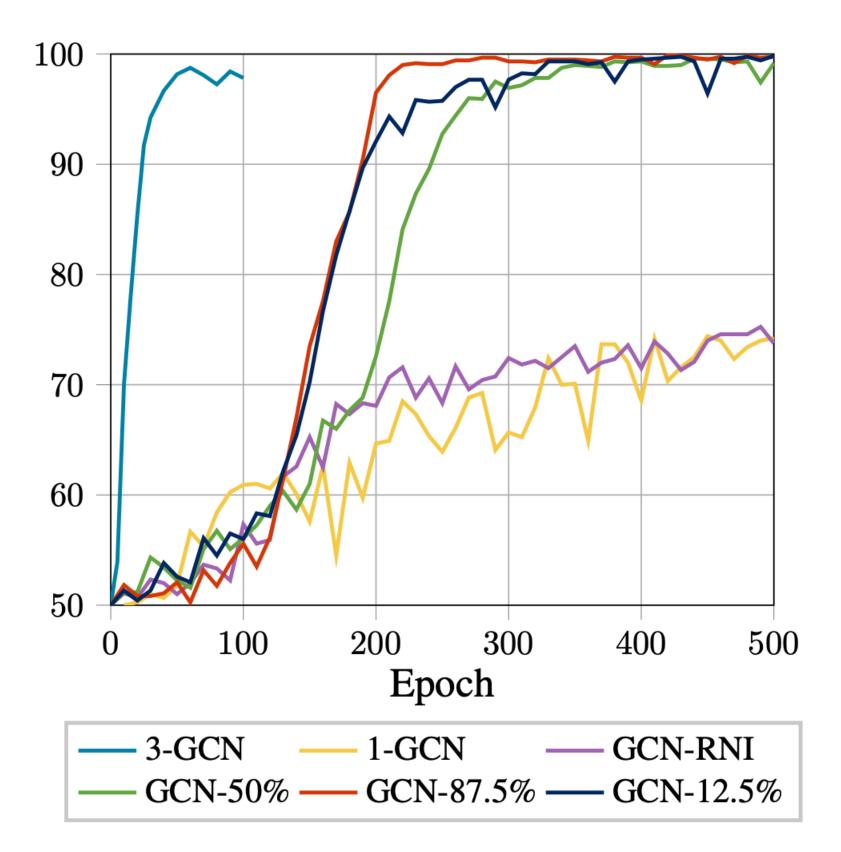
• EXP requires 2-WL expressiveness, and any model without this power will get 50% accuracy on this subset.

• CORRUPT does not require expressiveness, but makes the overall learning task harder due to the structural similarities to EXP instances — Hence, an expressive model that generalises poorly can be identified by



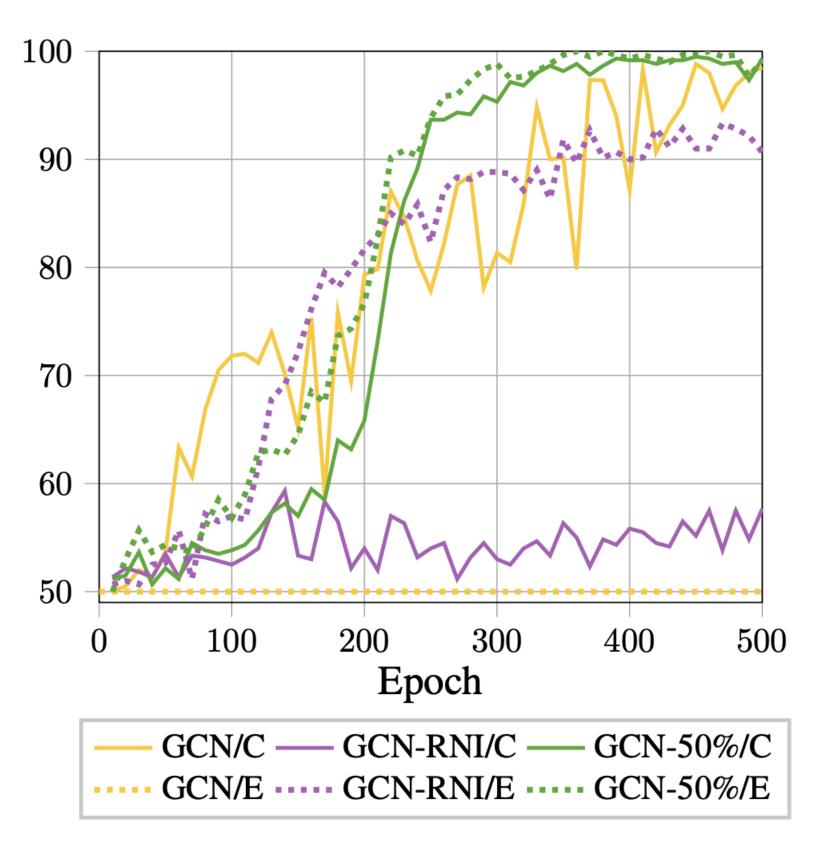
A More Variable Dataset

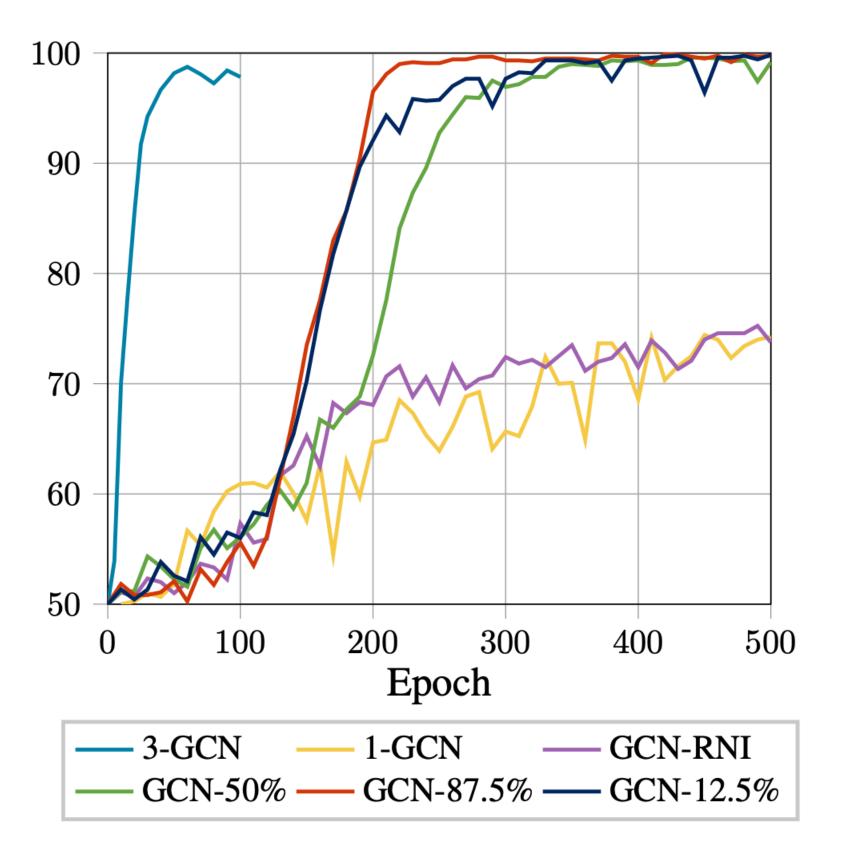




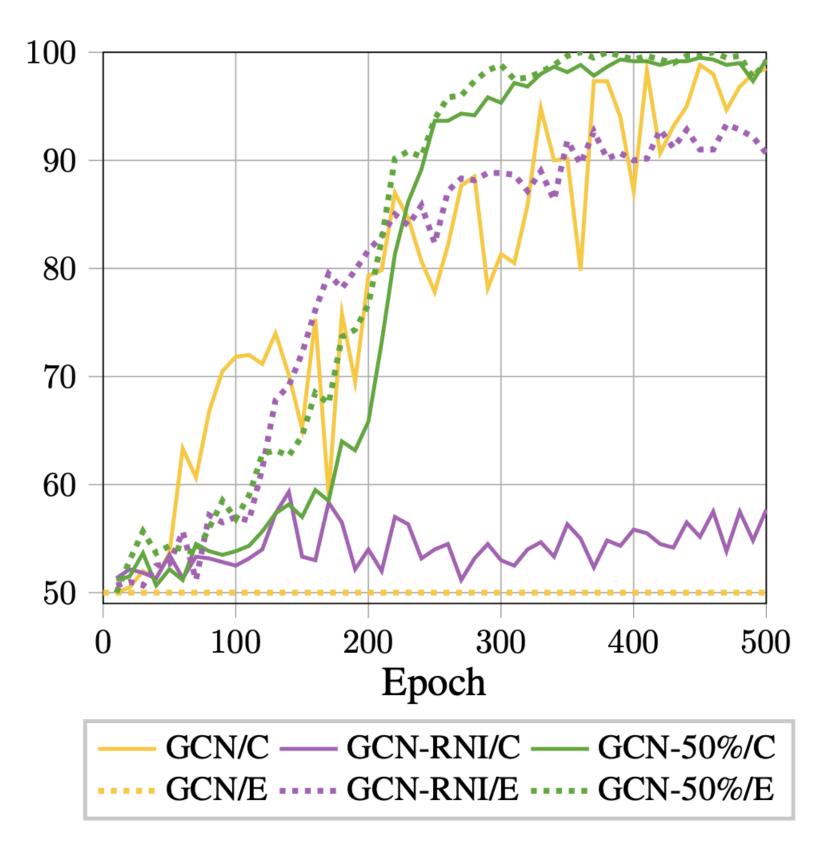
Fully randomised GCN-RNI model achieves 91% accuracy on the EXP subset (dotted-purple line on the RHS), but struggles on CORRUPT subset (purple line on the RHS), slightly below 60%.

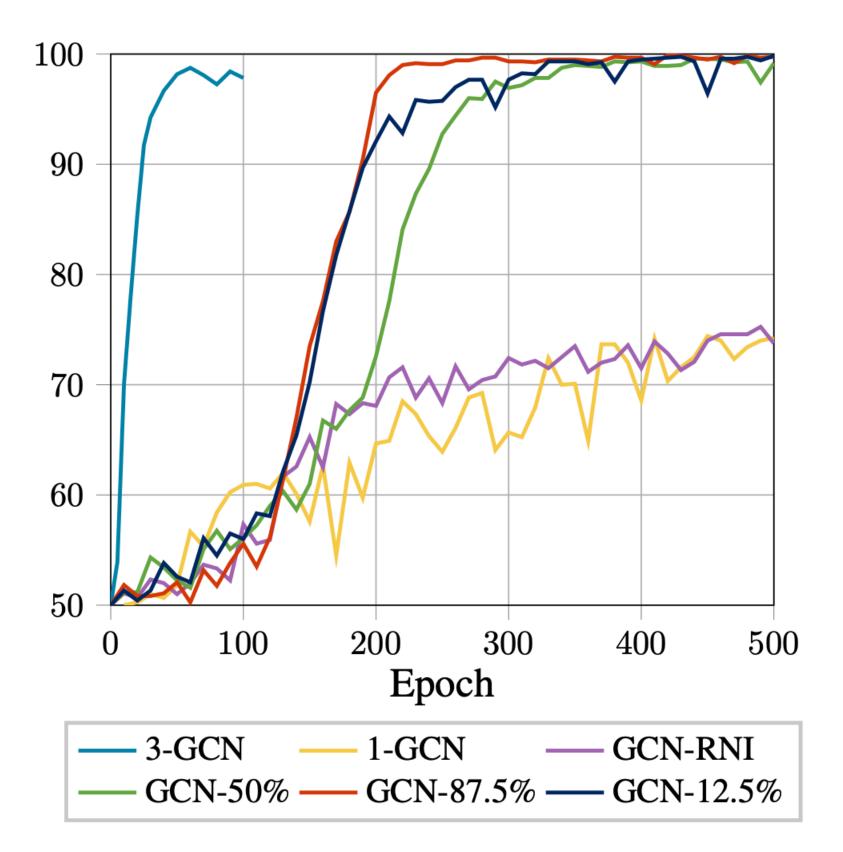
A More Variable Dataset





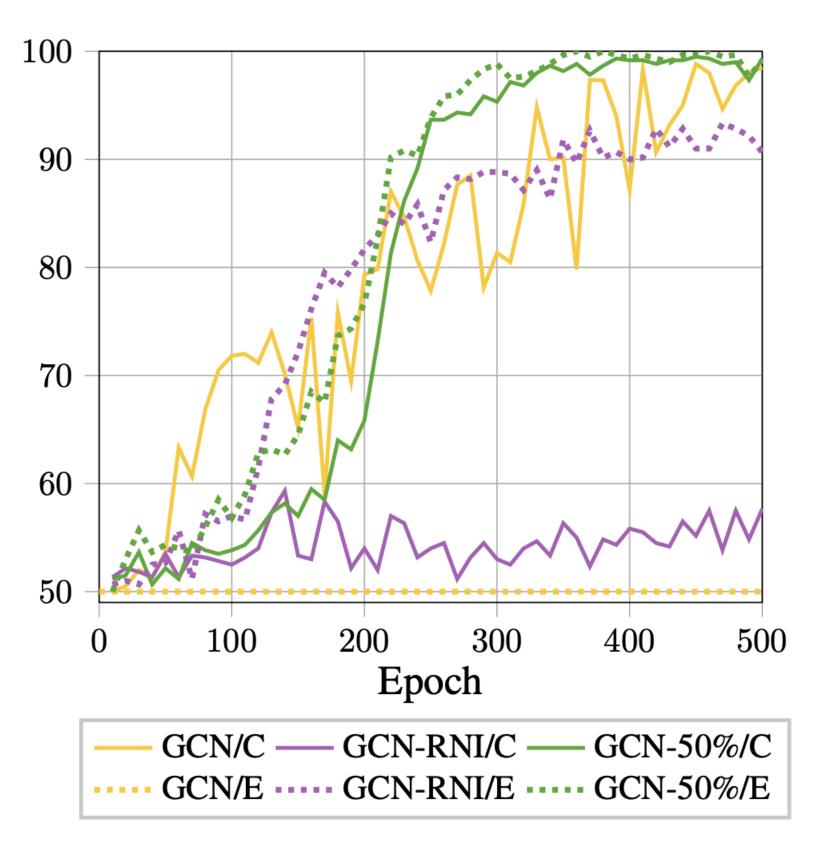
A More Variable Dataset

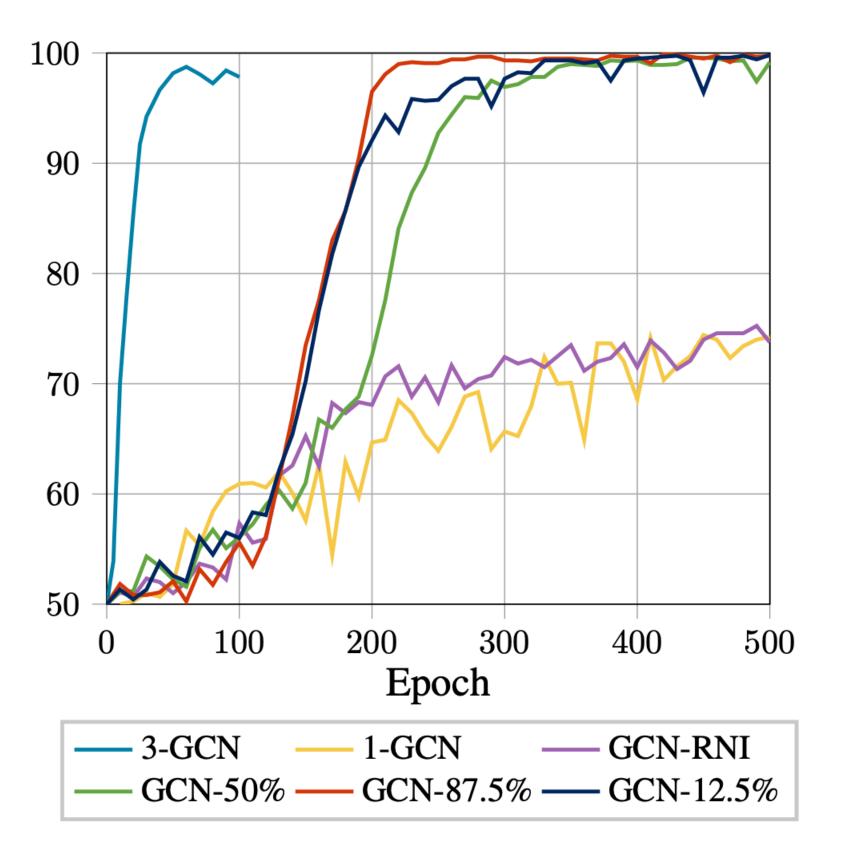




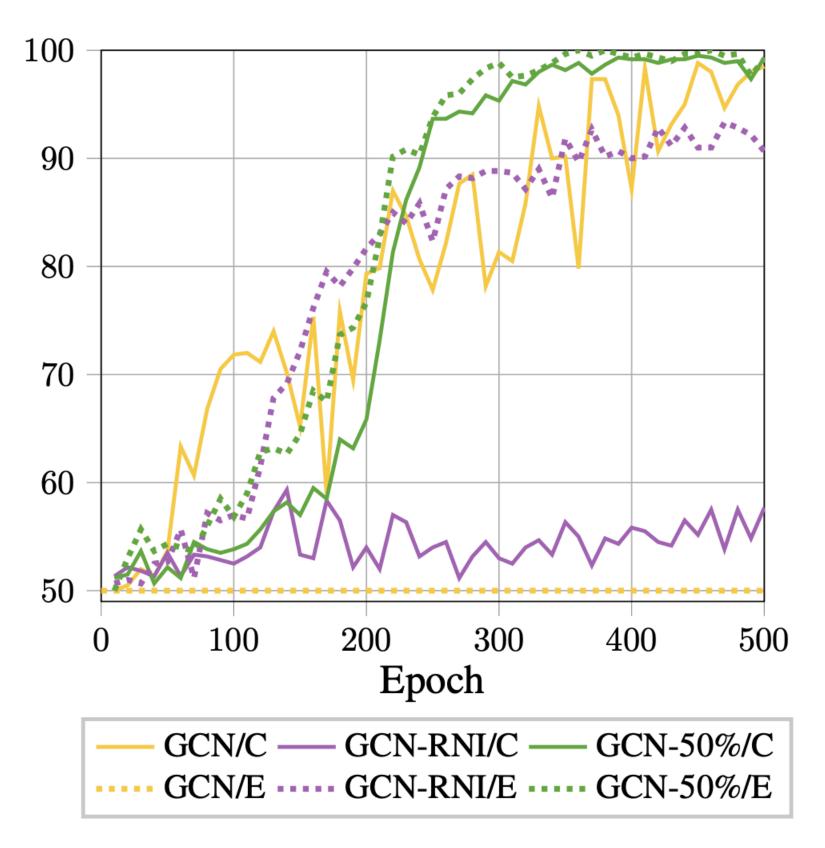
Observation: Fully randomised GCN-RNI loses all node type information, which is valuable for making robust predictions, and therefore struggles on CORRUPT, and converges much slower.

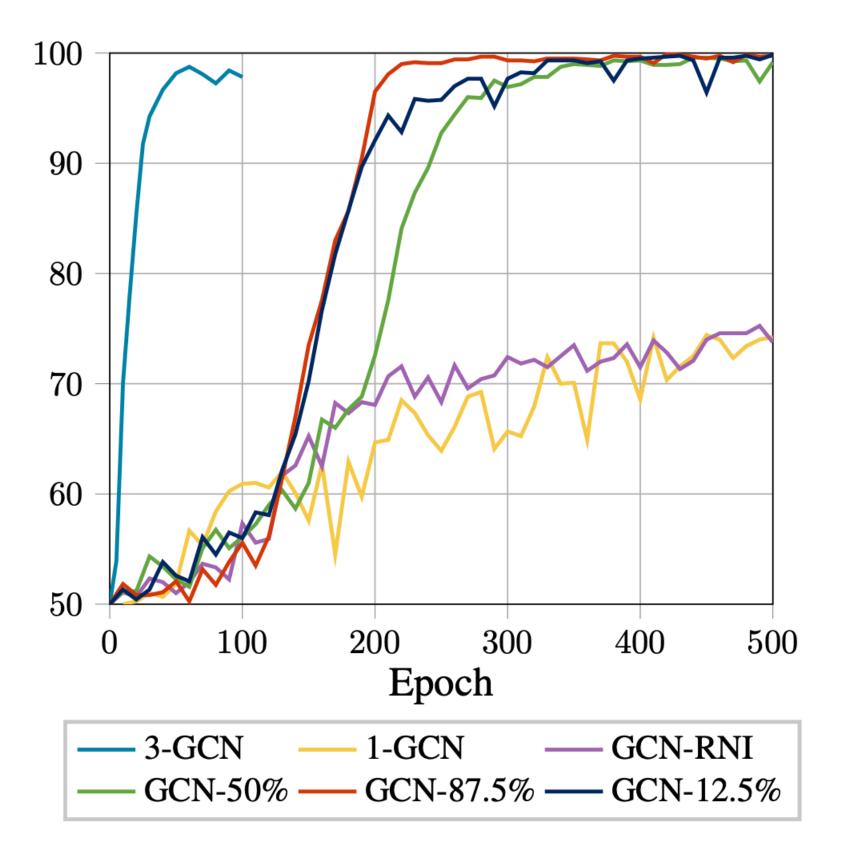
A More Variable Dataset



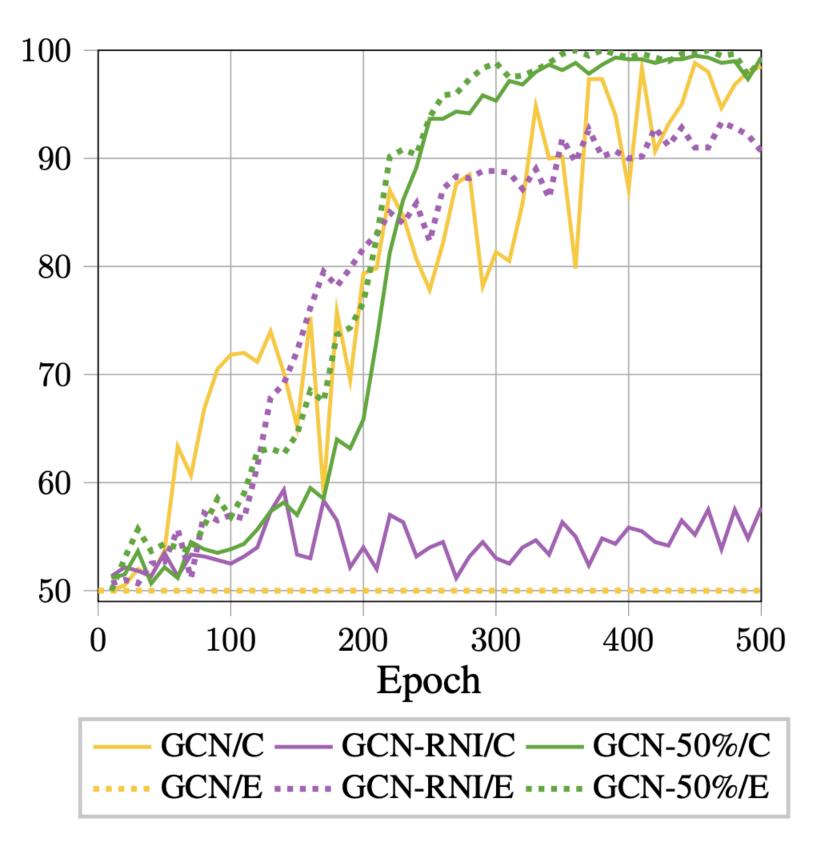


A More Variable Dataset

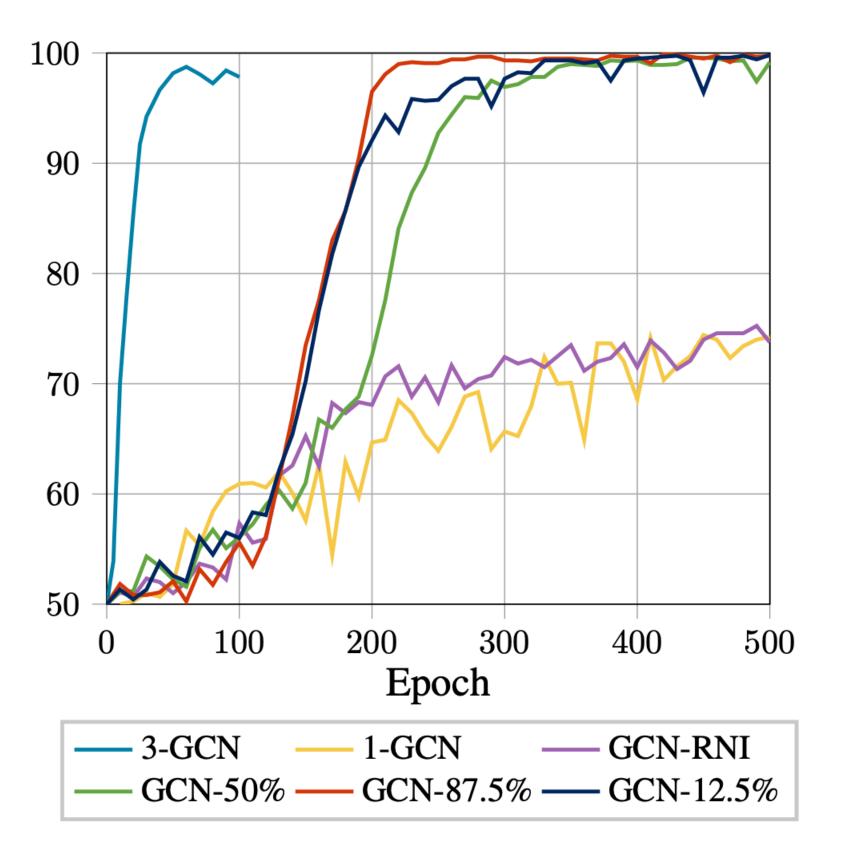




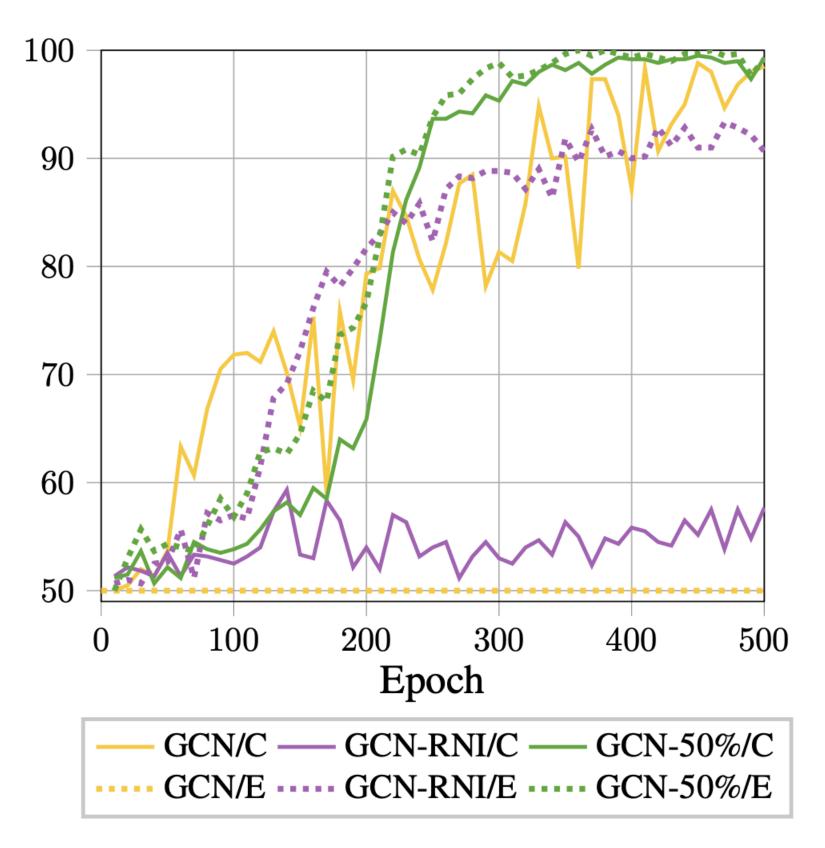
A More Variable Dataset

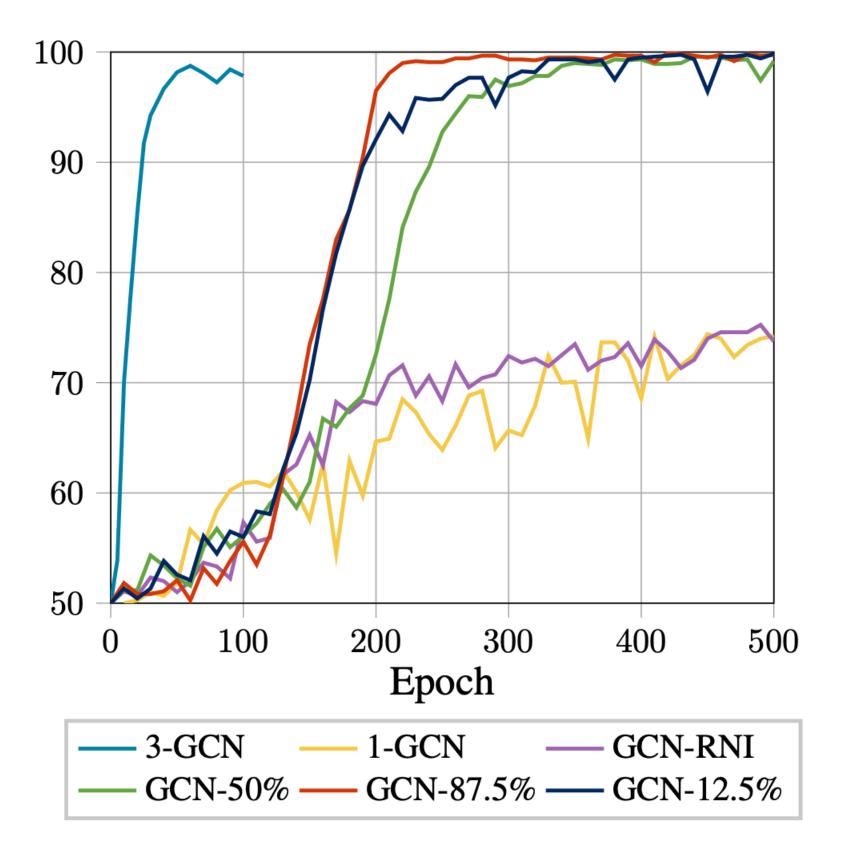


On the other hand, all partially randomised models, perform near-perfect also on this challenging dataset!



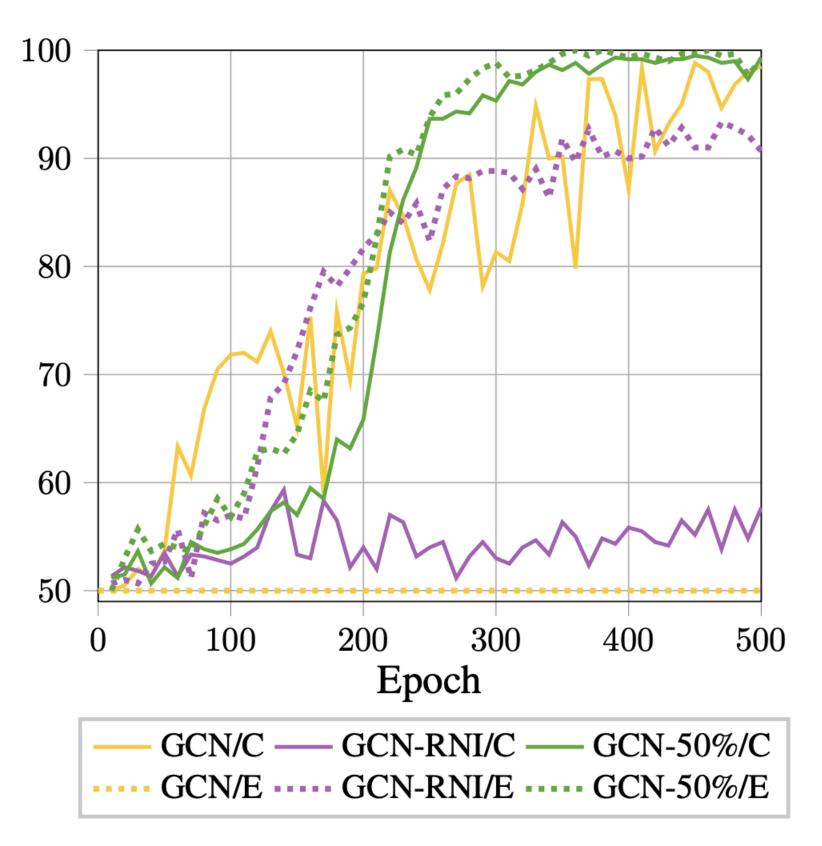
A More Variable Dataset





Observation: Partially randomised models achieve the best of both worlds on CEXP, leveraging inductive bias from deterministic node embeddings, while harnessing the power of random embeddings to gain expressiveness.

A More Variable Dataset



The overall behaviour of MPNN-RNI models can be intuitively described as follows:

 MPNN-RNI models theoretically extend MPNN with high probability.

• MPNN-RNI models theoretically extend MPNN capabilities with RNI and enable individualisation of graphs

- MPNN-RNI models theoretically extend MPNN capabilities with RNI and enable individualisation of graphs with high probability.
- Since at every epoch (a subset of) node features are re-initialised randomly, and intuitively, each sample yields a different order (i.e., coloured graph), and after "sufficiently many" iterations, the model will become robust to different orderings — yielding strong generalisation empirically!

- MPNN-RNI models theoretically extend MPNN capabilities with RNI and enable individualisation of graphs with high probability.
- Since at every epoch (a subset of) node features are re-initialised randomly, and intuitively, each sample yields a different order (i.e., coloured graph), and after "sufficiently many" iterations, the model will become robust to different orderings — yielding strong generalisation empirically!
- For an MPNN-RNI model to converge, it needs to see different orderings and so it is solving a harder task than MPNNs and converges slower.

- MPNN-RNI models theoretically extend MPNN capabilities with RNI and enable individualisation of graphs with high probability.
- Since at every epoch (a subset of) node features are re-initialised randomly, and intuitively, each sample yields a different order (i.e., coloured graph), and after "sufficiently many" iterations, the model will become robust to different orderings — yielding strong generalisation empirically!
- For an MPNN-RNI model to converge, it needs to see different orderings and so it is solving a harder task than MPNNs and converges slower.
- Partially randomised MPNN-RNI models both perform better and converge faster than fully random MPNN-RNI models — attributed to the fact that they combine the best of both worlds.

- MPNN-RNI models theoretically extend MPNN capabilities with RNI and enable individualisation of graphs with high probability.
- Since at every epoch (a subset of) node features are re-initialised randomly, and intuitively, each sample yields a different order (i.e., coloured graph), and after "sufficiently many" iterations, the model will become robust to different orderings — yielding strong generalisation empirically!
- For an MPNN-RNI model to converge, it needs to see different orderings and so it is solving a harder task than MPNNs and converges slower.
- Partially randomised MPNN-RNI models both perform better and converge faster than fully random MPNN-RNI models — attributed to the fact that they combine the best of both worlds.
- Partial RNI is sufficient, and this is more so for real-world datasets that do not require to handle so many edge cases jointly.

Discussions and Outlook

Universality results come in many flavours, as we have seen. One important aspect is their implications on the size of the models, i.e., what is the depth and width of the network needed to capture the target function?

Universality results come in many flavours, as we have seen. One important aspect is their implications on the size of the models, i.e., what is the depth and width of the network needed to capture the target function?

a function that requires exponential time/space etc.

• The given construction of (Abboud et al., 2020) implies an exponential blow-up in the size of the MPNN. This is unsurprising, since there are no restrictions on the target function f that is being learned — It can be

Universality results come in many flavours, as we have seen. One important aspect is their implications on the size of the models, i.e., what is the depth and width of the network needed to capture the target function?

- a function that requires exponential time/space etc.
- the descriptive complexity of the logical representation of the target representation:

• The given construction of (Abboud et al., 2020) implies an exponential blow-up in the size of the MPNN. This is unsurprising, since there are no restrictions on the target function f that is being learned — It can be

• Interestingly, however, when we focus on Boolean functions, the size of the MPNN entirely correlates with

Descriptive Complexity and Network Size

Universality results come in many flavours, as we have seen. One important aspect is their implications on the size of the models, i.e., what is the depth and width of the network needed to capture the target function?

- a function that requires exponential time/space etc.
- the descriptive complexity of the logical representation of the target representation:
 - MPNN will be bounded with the quantifier depth of Φ .

• The given construction of (Abboud et al., 2020) implies an exponential blow-up in the size of the MPNN. This is unsurprising, since there are no restrictions on the target function f that is being learned — It can be

• Interestingly, however, when we focus on Boolean functions, the size of the MPNN entirely correlates with

• If the target function can be represented with a formula Φ in C² then the depth of the resulting

Descriptive Complexity and Network Size

Universality results come in many flavours, as we have seen. One important aspect is their implications on the size of the models, i.e., what is the depth and width of the network needed to capture the target function?

- a function that requires exponential time/space etc.
- the descriptive complexity of the logical representation of the target representation:
 - MPNN will be bounded with the quantifier depth of Φ .

• The given construction of (Abboud et al., 2020) implies an exponential blow-up in the size of the MPNN. This is unsurprising, since there are no restrictions on the target function f that is being learned — It can be

• Interestingly, however, when we focus on Boolean functions, the size of the MPNN entirely correlates with

• If the target function can be represented with a formula Φ in C² then the depth of the resulting

• The width of the resulting MPNN depends polynomially on the confidence parameter δ , as this directly determines the dimensions of the state vectors to reach the desired accuracy

Descriptive Complexity and Network Size

Universality results come in many flavours, as we have seen. One important aspect is their implications on the size of the models, i.e., what is the depth and width of the network needed to capture the target function?

- a function that requires exponential time/space etc.
- the descriptive complexity of the logical representation of the target representation:
 - MPNN will be bounded with the quantifier depth of Φ .
- the way for a principled and formal analysis of MPNN-RNI models.

• The given construction of (Abboud et al., 2020) implies an exponential blow-up in the size of the MPNN. This is unsurprising, since there are no restrictions on the target function f that is being learned — It can be

• Interestingly, however, when we focus on Boolean functions, the size of the MPNN entirely correlates with

• If the target function can be represented with a formula Φ in C² then the depth of the resulting

• The width of the resulting MPNN depends polynomially on the confidence parameter δ , as this directly determines the dimensions of the state vectors to reach the desired accuracy

• This gives rise to direct bounds on the size of MPNN-RNI models for special classes of functions, and paves

MPNN-RNI models exhibit an interesting trade-off between expressive power and inductive capacity.

MPNN-RNI models exhibit an interesting trade-off between expressive power and inductive capacity.

Flexibility: MPNN-RNI models are universal, but they are not designed to target a specific level of expressiveness (unlike, e.g., *k*-GNNs), so their precise expressive power is governed by the particular dataset.

MPNN-RNI models exhibit an interesting trade-off between expressive power and inductive capacity.

Flexibility: MPNN-RNI models are universal, but they are not designed to target a specific level of expressiveness (unlike, e.g., *k*-GNNs), so their precise expressive power is governed by the particular dataset.

For example, the discernment power may not be used if the dataset does not require higher expressiveness, in which case, the model can even degenerate into an MPNN. Taking this perspective, MPNN-RNI models can be seen as faithful extensions of MPNNs.

MPNN-RNI models exhibit an interesting trade-off between expressive power and inductive capacity.

Flexibility: MPNN-RNI models are universal, but they are not designed to target a specific level of expressiveness (unlike, e.g., *k*-GNNs), so their precise expressive power is governed by the particular dataset.

For example, the discernment power may not be used if the dataset does not require higher expressiveness, in which case, the model can even degenerate into an MPNN. Taking this perspective, MPNN-RNI models can be seen as faithful extensions of MPNNs.

Local vs global: While MPNN-RNI models have the capacity to learn global properties using randomisation, they can behave similar to MPNNs w.r.t other properties we discussed. For example, homophily is likely captured by MPNN-RNI models similarly to MPNNs, as they are still based on local neighbourhood aggregation — and they can flexibly adapt to focus on local properties.

MPNN-RNI models exhibit an interesting trade-off between expressive power and inductive capacity.

Flexibility: MPNN-RNI models are universal, but they are not designed to target a specific level of expressiveness (unlike, e.g., *k*-GNNs), so their precise expressive power is governed by the particular dataset.

For example, the discernment power may not be used if the dataset does not require higher expressiveness, in which case, the model can even degenerate into an MPNN. Taking this perspective, MPNN-RNI models can be seen as faithful extensions of MPNNs.

Local vs global: While MPNN-RNI models have the capacity to learn global properties using randomisation, they can behave similar to MPNNs w.r.t other properties we discussed. For example, homophily is likely captured by MPNN-RNI models similarly to MPNNs, as they are still based on local neighbourhood aggregation — and they can flexibly adapt to focus on local properties.

Full vs partial RNI: Empirical evidence suggests that full randomisation can hurt inductive bias — as the randomness increases, the overall learning task becomes harder, and the presence of deterministic features prove helpful to preserve inductive bias, while gaining expressiveness.

• The quest for expressive models and coloured graphs

- The quest for expressive models and coloured graphs
- MPNNs with random node initialisation

- The quest for expressive models and coloured graphs
- MPNNs with random node initialisation
- Random node initialisation makes MPNNs universal even with partial RNI

- The quest for expressive models and coloured graphs
- MPNNs with random node initialisation
- Random node initialisation makes MPNNs universal even with partial RNI
- Permutation-invariance is preserved in expectation

- The quest for expressive models and coloured graphs
- MPNNs with random node initialisation
- Random node initialisation makes MPNNs universal even with partial RNI
- Permutation-invariance is preserved in expectation
- MPNN-RNI models are expressive and scalable no space inefficiency

- The quest for expressive models and coloured graphs
- MPNNs with random node initialisation
- Random node initialisation makes MPNNs universal even with partial RNI
- Permutation-invariance is preserved in expectation
- MPNN-RNI models are expressive and scalable no space inefficiency
- MPNN-RNI models converge slower to see different colourings to become robust to them!

- The quest for expressive models and coloured graphs
- MPNNs with random node initialisation
- Random node initialisation makes MPNNs universal even with partial RNI
- Permutation-invariance is preserved in expectation
- MPNN-RNI models are expressive and scalable no space inefficiency
- MPNN-RNI models converge slower to see different colourings to become robust to them!
- The size of the MPNN-RNI model is correlated with the descriptive complexity of the target function

- The quest for expressive models and coloured graphs
- MPNNs with random node initialisation
- Random node initialisation makes MPNNs universal even with partial RNI
- Permutation-invariance is preserved in expectation
- MPNN-RNI models are expressive and scalable no space inefficiency
- MPNN-RNI models converge slower to see different colourings to become robust to them!
- The size of the MPNN-RNI model is correlated with the descriptive complexity of the target function
- Empirical evaluation suggests partial MPNN-RNI models as a strong alternative

- The quest for expressive models and coloured graphs
- MPNNs with random node initialisation
- Random node initialisation makes MPNNs universal even with partial RNI
- Permutation-invariance is preserved in expectation
- MPNN-RNI models are expressive and scalable no space inefficiency
- MPNN-RNI models converge slower to see different colourings to become robust to them!
- The size of the MPNN-RNI model is correlated with the descriptive complexity of the target function
- Empirical evaluation suggests partial MPNN-RNI models as a strong alternative
- There are more questions than answers in this context more research needed!

- The quest for expressive models and coloured graphs
- MPNNs with random node initialisation
- Random node initialisation makes MPNNs universal even with partial RNI
- Permutation-invariance is preserved in expectation
- MPNN-RNI models are expressive and scalable no space inefficiency
- MPNN-RNI models converge slower to see different colourings to become robust to them!
- The size of the MPNN-RNI model is correlated with the descriptive complexity of the target function
- Empirical evaluation suggests partial MPNN-RNI models as a strong alternative
- There are more questions than answers in this context more research needed!
- With this, we have covered all theoretical and foundational aspects, for practical aspects: Lecture 8.

References

- H. Maron, H. Ben-Hamu, H. Serviansky, and Y. Lipman. Provably powerful graph networks. NeurIPS, 2019a.
- C. Morris, M. Ritzert, M. Fey, W. Hamilton, J. E. Lenssen, G. Rattan, and M. Grohe. Weisfeiler and Leman go neural: Higher-order graph neural networks. *AAAI*, 2019.
- M. Grohe. Descriptive Complexity, Canonisation, and Definable Graph Structure Theory. *Cambridge University Press*, 2017.
- R. Sato, M. Yamada, and H. Kashima. Random features strengthen graph neural networks. CoRR, abs/ 2002.03155, 2020.
- R. Abboud, İ. İ. Ceylan, M. Grohe, T. Lukasiewicz, The Surprising Power of Graph Neural Networks with Random Node Initialization, arXiv:2010.01179, 2020
- M. Grohe. Descriptive Complexity, Canonisation, and Definable Graph Structure Theory. *Cambridge University Press*, 2017.