Graph Neural Networks with Local Graph Parameters

Abstract

Various recent proposals increase the distinguishing power of Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) by propagating features between k-tuples of vertices. The distinguishing power of these "higher-order" GNNs is known to be bounded by the k-dimensional Weisfeiler-Leman (WL) test, yet their $\mathcal{O}(n^k)$ memory requirements limit their applicability. Other proposals infuse GNNs with local higher-order graph structural information from the start, hereby inheriting the desirable $\mathcal{O}(n)$ memory requirement from GNNs at the cost of a one-time, possibly non-linear, preprocessing step. We propose local graph parameter enabled GNNs as a framework for studying the latter kind of approaches and precisely characterize their distinguishing power, in terms of a variant of the WL test, and in terms of the graph structural properties that they can take into account. Local graph parameters can be added to any GNN architecture, and are cheap to compute. In terms of expressive power, our proposal lies in the middle of GNNs and their higher-order counterparts. Further, we propose several techniques to aide in choosing the right local graph parameters. Our results connect GNNs with deep results in finite model theory and finite variable logics. Our experimental evaluation shows that adding local graph parameters often has a positive effect for a variety of GNNs, datasets and graph learning tasks.

1 Introduction

Context. Graph neural networks (GNNs) [Merkwirth and Lengauer, 2005, Scarselli et al., 2009], and its important class of Message Passing Neural Networks (MPNNs) [Gilmer et al., 2017], are one of the most popular methods for graph learning tasks. Such MPNNs use an iterative message passing scheme, based on the adjacency structure of the underlying graph, to compute vertex (and graph) embeddings in some real Euclidean space. The expressive (or discriminative) power of MPNNs is, however, rather limited [Morris et al., 2019, Xu et al., 2019]. Indeed, MPNNs will always identically embed two vertices (graphs) when these vertices (graphs) cannot be distinguished by the one-dimensional Weisfeiler-Leman (WL) algorithm. Two graphs G_1 and H_1 and vertices v and w that cannot be distinguished by WL (and thus any MPNN) are shown in Fig. 1. The expressive power of WL is well-understood [Cai et al., 1992, Dell et al., 2018, Arvind et al., 2020] and basically can only use *tree-based* structural information in the graphs to distinguish vertices. Hence, no MPNN can detect that vertex v in Fig. 1 is part of a 3-clique, whereas w is not. Similarly, MPNNs cannot detect that w is part of a 4-cycle, whereas v is not. Further limitations of WL in terms of graph properties can be found, e.g., in Arvind et al. [2020], Chen et al. [2020] and Tahmasebi and Jegelka [2020].

To remedy the weak expressive power of MPNNs, so-called *higher-order* MPNNs were proposed [Maron et al., 2019a, Morris et al., 2019, 2020], whose expressive power is well-understood and measured in terms of the k-dimensional WL procedures (k-WL) [Maron et al., 2019a, Chen et al., 2019a, Geerts, 2020, Sato, 2020, Azizian and Lelarge, 2021]. In a nutshell, k-WL operates on k-tuples of vertices and allows to distinguish vertices (graphs) based on structural information related to

38 *graphs of treewidth k* [Dvorak, 2010, Dell et al., 2018]. By definition, WL = 1-WL. As an example,
39 2-WL can detect that vertex v in Fig. 1 belongs to a 3-clique or a 4-cycle since both have treewidth
40 two. While more expressive than WL, the GNNs based on k-WL require $\mathcal{O}(n^k)$ operations in *each*
41 *iteration*, where n is the number of vertices, hereby hampering their applicability.

42 A more practical approach is to extend the
43 expressive power of MPNNs *whilst pre-*
44 *serving their $\mathcal{O}(n)$ cost in each iteration.*
45 Various such extensions [Kipf and Welling,
46 2017, Chen et al., 2019a, Li et al., 2019,
47 Ishiguro et al., 2020, Bouritsas et al., 2020,
48 Geerts et al., 2021] achieve this by infusing
49 MPNNs with *local graph structural infor-*
50 *mation from the start*. That is, the iterative
51 message passing scheme of MPNNs is run
52 on vertex labels that contain quantitative in-
53 formation about local graph structures. It is

Figure 1: Two graphs that are indistinguishable by the WL-test. The numbers between round brackets indicate how many homomorphic images of the 3-clique each vertex is involved in.

54 easy to see that such architectures can go beyond the WL test: for example, adding triangle counts
55 to MPNNs suffices to distinguish the vertices v and w and graphs G_1 and H_1 in Fig. 1. Moreover,
56 the cost is *a single preprocessing step* to count local graph parameters, thus maintaining the $\mathcal{O}(n)$
57 cost in the iterations of the MPNN. While there are some partial results showing that local graph
58 parameters increase expressive power [Bouritsas et al., 2020, Li et al., 2019], their precise expressive
59 power and relationship to higher-order MPNNs was unknown, and there is little guidance in terms of
60 which local parameters do help MPNNs and which ones do not. The main contribution of this paper
61 is a precise characterization of the expressive power of MPNNs with local graph parameters and its
62 relationship to the hierarchy of higher-order MPNNs.

63 **Our contributions.**   In order to nicely formalize local graph parameters, we propose to extend
64 vertex labels with *homomorphism counts* of small graph patterns.[1] More precisely, given graphs
65 P and G, and vertices r in P and v in G, we propose to augment the initial features of v with
66 the number of homomorphisms from P to G that map r to v, denoted by $\text{hom}(P^r, G^v)$, as a way
67 to capture local structural information. More generally, homomorphism counts for a collection of
68 graphs are considered. Indeed, we propose $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs where $\mathcal{F} = \{P_1^r, \ldots, P_\ell^r\}$ is a set of (graph)
69 patterns,which extend MPNNs by (i) first allowing a preprocessing step that labels each vertex v of
70 a graph G with the vector $\big(\text{hom}(P_1^r, G^v), \ldots, \text{hom}(P_\ell^r, G^v)\big)$, and (ii) then run an MPNN on this
71 labelling. Our main contributions are the following:

72 1. We precisely characterize the expressive power of $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs by means of an extension of WL,
73 denoted by $\mathcal{F}$-WL. This characterization gracefully extends the characterization for standard MPNNs,
74 mentioned earlier, by setting $\mathcal{F} = \emptyset$, and provides insights in the expressive power of existing MPNN
75 extensions, most notably the Graph Structure Networks of Bouritsas et al. [2020].

76 2. We compare $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs to higher-order MPNNs, which are characterized in terms of the k-WL-
77 test. On the one hand, while $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs strictly increase the expressive power of the WL-test, for any
78 finite set $\mathcal{F}$ of patterns, 2-WL can distinguish graphs which $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs cannot. On the other hand, for
79 each $k \geq 1$ there are patterns P such that $\{P\}$-MPNNs can distinguish graphs which k-WL cannot.

80 3. We deal with the challenging problem of pattern selection and comparing $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs based on
81 the patterns included in $\mathcal{F}$. We prove two partial results: one establishing when a pattern P in $\mathcal{F}$ is
82 redundant, and another result indicating when P does add expressive power, based on the treewidth
83 of P compared to the treewidth of other patterns in $\mathcal{F}$.

84 4. Our theoretical results are complemented by an experimental study in which we show that for
85 various GNN architectures, datasets and graph learning tasks, all part of the recent benchmark by
86 Dwivedi et al. [2020], the augmentation of initial features with homomorphism counts of graph
87 patterns has often a positive effect, and the cost for computing these counts incurs little to no overhead.

88 As such, we believe that $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs not only provide an elegant theoretical framework for
89 understanding local graph parameter enabled MPNNs, they are also a valuable alternative to
90 higher-order MPNNs as way to increase the expressive power of MPNNs. In addition, and as will
91 be explained in Section 2, $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs provide a unifying framework for understanding the expressive

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[1]We recall that homomorphisms are edge-preserving mappings between the vertex sets.

power of several other existing extensions of MPNNs. Proofs of our results and further details on the relationship to existing approaches and experiments can be found in the supplementary material.

Related Work. Works related to the distinguishing power of the WL-test, MPNNs and their higher-order variants are cited throughout the paper. Beyond distinguishability, GNNs are analyzed in terms of universality and generalization properties [Maron et al., 2019b, Keriven and Peyré, 2019, Chen et al., 2019b, Garg et al., 2020], local distributed algorithms [Sato et al., 2019, Loukas, 2020], randomness in features [Sato et al., 2020, Abboud et al., 2020] and using local context matrix features [Vignac et al., 2020]. Other extensions of GNNs are surveyed, e.g., in Wu et al. [2021], Zhou et al. [2018] and Chami et al. [2021]. Related are the Graph Homomorphism Convolutions by NT and Maehara [2020] which apply SVMs directly on the representation of vertices by homomorphism counts. Finally, our approach is reminiscent of the graph representations by means of graphlet kernels [Shervashidze et al., 2009], but then on the level of vertices.

Limitations of our approach. One of the limitations of $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs is that their expressive power depends on the set $\mathcal{F}$ of patterns. Our work offers tools and guidelines to help in this search, but the best set of patterns must still be found by trial-and-error. However, as we show in Section 6, MPNNs almost always benefit from any set of additional features, assuming that the resulting model goes beyond the WL test. Cliques and cycles are two types of simple patterns that are guaranteed to extend the WL test, and indeed we show that striking gains can be obtained by simply adding these features to existing benchmarks. For simplicity of exposition we focus on vertex-labelled undirected graphs but all our results can be extended to edge-labelled directed graphs.

2 Local Graph Parameter Enabled MPNNs

We here introduce our MPNNs with local graph parameters. We first recall some graph concepts.

Graphs. We consider undirected vertex-labelled graphs $G = (V, E, \chi)$, with V the set of vertices, E the set of edges and χ a mapping assigning a label to each vertex in V. The set of neighbors of a vertex is denoted as $N_G(v) = \{u \in V \mid \{u, v\} \in E\}$. A *rooted graph* is a graph in which one its vertices is declared as its root. We denote a rooted graph by G^v, where $v \in V$ is the root and depict them as graphs in which the root is a blackened vertex. Given graphs $G = (V_G, E_G, \chi_G)$ and $H = (H_H, E_H, \chi_H)$, an *homomorphism* h is a mapping $h : V_G \to V_H$ such that (i) $\{h(u), h(v)\} \in E_H$ for every $\{u, v\} \in E_G$, and (ii) $\chi_G(u) = \chi_H(h(u))$ for every $u \in V_G$. For rooted graphs G^v and H^w, an homomorphism must additionally map v to w. We denote by $\mathrm{hom}(G, H)$ the number of homomorphisms from G to H; similarly for rooted graphs.

MPNNs with local graph parameters. Let $\mathcal{F} = \{P_1^r, \ldots, P_\ell^r\}$ be a set of (rooted) graphs, which we refer to as *patterns*. As a uniform formalization of local graph structural information, we propose the use of *homomorphism counts* of patterns in $\mathcal{F}$ to enhance the initial feature of vertices. To illustrate the idea, consider the graphs in Fig. 1. As mentioned, these graphs cannot be distinguished by the WL-test, and therefore cannot be distinguished by the broad class of MPNNs. If we allow a *preprocessing stage*, however, in which the initial labelling of every vertex v is extended with the number of (homomorphic images of) 3-cliques in which v participates (indicated by numbers between brackets in Fig. 1), then clearly vertices v and w (and the graphs G_1 and H_1) can be distinguished based on this extra structural information. In fact, the initial labelling already suffices for this purpose.

We therefore propose $\mathcal{F}$-*enabled* MPNNs, or just $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs, defined in the same way as MPNNs [Gilmer et al., 2017] with the crucial difference that the initial feature vector of a vertex v (a one-hot encoding of its label $\chi_G(v)$) is augmented with all the homomorphism counts from patterns in $\mathcal{F}$.

Formally, in each round d an $\mathcal{F}$-MPNN M labels each vertex v in graph G with a feature vector $\mathbf{x}_{M,\mathcal{F},G,v}^{(d)}$ which is inductively defined as follows:

$$\mathbf{x}_{M,\mathcal{F},G,v}^{(0)} := \big(\chi_G(v), \mathrm{hom}(P_1^r, G^v), \ldots, \mathrm{hom}(P_\ell^r, G^v)\big)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{M,\mathcal{F},G,v}^{(d)} := \mathrm{UPD}^{(d)}\Big(\mathbf{x}_{M,\mathcal{F},G,v}^{(d-1)}, \mathrm{COMB}^{(d)}\big(\{\!\{\mathbf{x}_{M,\mathcal{F},G,v}^{(d-1)} \mid u \in N_G(v)\}\!\}\big)\Big),$$

where $\mathrm{COMB}^{(d)}$ and $\mathrm{UPD}^{(d)}$ are an *aggregating* and *update* function, respectively, as in standard MPNNs, where $\{\!\{\}\!\}$ denotes a multi-set. We note that standard MPNNs are $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs with $\mathcal{F} = \emptyset$.

141 As for MPNNs, we can equip $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs with a READOUT function that aggregates all final feature
142 vectors into a single feature vector in order to classify or distinguish graphs.

143 We remark that *any* MPNN architecture can be turned in an $\mathcal{F}$-MPNN by a simple homomorphism
144 counting preprocessing step. As such, we propose a *generic plug-in for a large class of* GNN
145 *architectures*. Better still, homomorphism counts of small graph patterns can be efficiently computed
146 even on large datasets [Zhang et al., 2020]. Despite their simplicity, we will show that $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs can
147 substantially increase the power of MPNNs by varying $\mathcal{F}$, only paying a one-time preprocessing cost.

148 **$\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs as unifying framework.** An important aspect of $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs is that they *allow a prin-*
149 *cipled analysis of the power of existing extensions of* MPNN*s*. For example, taking $\mathcal{F} = \{\substack{\bullet \\ \circ}\}$ suffices
150 to capture degree-aware MPNNs [Geerts et al., 2021], such as the Graph Convolution Networks
151 (GCNs) [Kipf and Welling, 2017], which use the *degree of vertices*; taking $\mathcal{F} = \{L_1, L_2, \ldots, L_\ell\}$
152 for rooted paths L_i of length i suffices to model the *walk counts* used in Chen et al. [2019a]; and
153 taking $\mathcal{F}$ as the set of labeled trees of depth one precisely corresponds to the use of the WL-*labelling*
154 *obtained after one round* by Ishiguro et al. [2020]. Furthermore, $\{C_\ell\}$-MPNNs, where C_ℓ denotes
155 the cycle of length ℓ, correspond to the extension proposed in Section 4 in Li et al. [2019].

156 In addition, $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs can also capture the *Graph Structure Networks* (GSNs) by Bouritsas et al.
157 [2020], which use subgraph isomorphism counts of graph patterns. We recall that an isomor-
158 phism from G to H is a *bijective* homomorphism h from G to H which additionally satisfies (i)
159 $\{h^{-1}(u), h^{-1}(v)\} \in E_G$ for every $\{u, v\} \in E_H$, and (ii) $\chi_G(h^{-1}(u)) = \chi_H(u)$ for every $u \in V_H$.
160 When G and H are rooted graphs, isomorphisms should preserve the roots as well. Now, in a GSN,
161 the feature vector of each vertex v is augmented with the the counts of every isomorphism from
162 a rooted pattern P^r to G^v, for rooted patterns P in a set of patterns $\mathcal{P}$,[2] and this is followed by
163 the execution of an MPNN, just as for our $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs. It now remains to observe that subgraph
164 isomorphism counts can be computed in terms of homomorphism counts, and vice versa [Curticapean
165 et al., 2017]. That is, GSNs can be viewed as $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs and thus our results for $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs carry
166 over to GSNs. We adopt homomorphism counts instead of subgraph isomorphism counts because
167 homomorphisms counts underly existing characterizations of the expressive power of MPNNs and
168 homomorphism counts are in general more efficient to compute. Also, Curticapean et al. [2017]
169 indicate that all common graph counts are interchangeable in terms of expressive power.

3 Expressive Power of $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs

171 We next provide exact characterizations of the expressive power of $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs. These results
172 gracefully extend those for standard MPNNs [Xu et al., 2019, Morris et al., 2019, Dell et al., 2018].

173 **Characterization in terms of $\mathcal{F}$-WL.** We bound the expressive power of $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs in terms of
174 what we call the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-*test*. Formally, the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test extends WL [Weisfeiler and Lehman, 1968,
175 Grohe, 2017] in the same way as $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs extend standard MPNNs: by including homomorphism
176 counts of patterns in $\mathcal{F}$ in the initial labelling. The $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test, for $\mathcal{F} = \{P_1^r, \ldots, P_\ell^r\}$, is a vertex
177 labelling algorithm that iteratively computes a label $\chi_{\mathcal{F},G,v}^{(d)}$ for each vertex v of a graph G, as follows:

178
$$\chi_{\mathcal{F},G,v}^{(0)} := \big(\chi_G(v), \mathsf{hom}(P_1^r, G^v), \ldots, \mathsf{hom}(P_\ell^r, G^v)\big)$$

179
$$\chi_{\mathcal{F},G,v}^{(d)} := \mathsf{HASH}\big(\chi_{\mathcal{F},G,v}^{(d-1)}, \{\!\!\{\chi_{\mathcal{F},G,u}^{(d-1)} \mid u \in N_G(v)\}\!\!\}\big), \text{ for } d > 0.$$

180 The $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test stops in round d when no new pair of vertices are identified by means of $\chi_{\mathcal{F},G,v}^{(d)}$,
181 i.e., $\chi_{\mathcal{F},G,v_1}^{(d-1)} = \chi_{\mathcal{F},G,v_2}^{(d-1)}$ implies $\chi_{\mathcal{F},G,v_1}^{(d)} = \chi_{\mathcal{F},G,v_2}^{(d)}$, for any vertices v_1 and v_2 in G. Notice that we
182 recover the standard WL-test by $\emptyset$-WL. We can use the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test to compare vertices of the same
183 graphs, or different graphs. We say that the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test *cannot distinguish vertices* if their final labels
184 are the same, and that the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test *cannot distinguish graphs* G and H if the multiset containing
185 each label computed for G is the same as that of H. Similarly as for MPNNs and the WL-test [Xu
186 et al., 2019, Morris et al., 2019], we obtain that the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test provides an upper bound for the
187 expressiveness of $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs.

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[2]The use of orbits in Bouritsas et al. [2020] is here ignored, but explained in the supplementary material.

Proposition 1 *If two vertices of a graph cannot be distinguished by the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test, then they cannot be distinguished by any $\mathcal{F}$-MPNN either. Moreover, if two graphs cannot be distinguished by the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test, then they cannot be distinguished by any $\mathcal{F}$-MPNN either.*

Furthermore, simply adding local parameters from a set $\mathcal{F}$ of patterns to the GIN architecture of Xu et al. [2019] results in $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs that match the expressive power of the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test.

Characterization in terms of $\mathcal{F}$-pattern trees. At the core of several results about the WL-test lies a characterization linking the test with homomorphism counts of (rooted) trees [Dell et al., 2018, Grohe, 2020a]. In view of the connection to MPNNs, it tells that MPNNs only use *quantitative tree-based* structural information from the underlying graphs. We next extend this characterization to $\mathcal{F}$-WL by using homomorphism counts of so-called $\mathcal{F}$-*pattern trees*. Proposition 1 then reveals that $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs can use quantitative information of *richer graph structures* than the trees used by MPNNs.

To define $\mathcal{F}$-pattern trees we need the *graph join operator* $\star$. Given two rooted graphs G^v and H^w, the join graph $(G \star H)^v$ is obtained by taking the disjoint union of G^v and H^w, followed by identifying w with v. The root of the join graph is v. For example, the join of ⬡ and ⬡ is ⬡.

Further, if G is a graph and P^r is a rooted graph, then joining a vertex v in G with P^r results in the disjoint union of G and P^r, where r is identified with v. Let $\mathcal{F} = \{P_1^r, \ldots, P_\ell^r\}$. An $\mathcal{F}$-*pattern tree* T^r is obtained from a standard rooted tree $S^r = (V, E, \chi)$, called the *backbone* of T^r, followed by joining every vertex $s \in V$ with any number of copies of patterns

Figure 2: Examples of $\mathcal{F}$-pattern trees.

from $\mathcal{F}$. Examples of $\mathcal{F}$-pattern trees, for $\mathcal{F} = \{⬡\}$ are shown in Fig. 2, where grey colored vertices are part of the backbones of the $\mathcal{F}$-pattern trees. We define the *depth* of an $\mathcal{F}$-pattern tree as the depth of its backbone. Standard trees are also $\mathcal{F}$-pattern trees. We next use $\mathcal{F}$-pattern trees to characterize the expressive power of $\mathcal{F}$-WL and thus, by Proposition 1, of $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs.

Theorem 1 *For any finite collection $\mathcal{F}$ of patterns, vertices v and w in a graph G are indistinguishable by the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test if and only if $\mathsf{hom}(T^r, G^v) = \mathsf{hom}(T^r, G^w)$ for every rooted $\mathcal{F}$-pattern tree T^r. Similarly, G and H are undistinguishable by the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test if and only if $\mathsf{hom}(T, G) = \mathsf{hom}(T, H)$, for every (unrooted) $\mathcal{F}$-pattern tree.*

By setting $\mathcal{F} = \emptyset$ we recover the characterization of the expressiveness of WL in terms of homomorphism counts of trees [Dell et al., 2018, Grohe, 2020a] and the proof of Theorem 1 requires extending the techniques from Grohe [2020a,b]. We can even make the above theorem more precise. When $\mathcal{F}$-WL is run for d rounds, then *only $\mathcal{F}$-patterns trees of depth d are required*. This tells that increasing the number of rounds of $\mathcal{F}$-WL results in that more complicated structural information is taken into account. In the supplementary material we give two graphs which cannot be distinguish by $\mathcal{F}$-WL based on the initial labelling only, but can only be distinguished after a number of iterations. We note that $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs are more expressive than MPNNs (recall the graphs G_1 and H_1 and $\mathcal{F} = \{⬡\}$).

Importantly, Theorem 1 discloses the boundaries of $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs. To illustrate this for some specific instances of $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs mentioned earlier, the expressive power of degree-based MPNNs [Kipf and Welling, 2017, Geerts et al., 2021] is captured by $\{L_1\}$-pattern trees, and walk counts-MPNNs [Chen et al., 2019a] are captured by $\{L_1, \ldots, L_\ell\}$-pattern trees. These pattern trees are just trees, since joining paths to trees only results in bigger trees. Thus, Theorem 1 tells that all these extensions are still bounded by WL (albeit needing less rounds). In contrast, beyond WL, $\{C_\ell\}$-pattern trees capture cycle count MPNNs [Li et al., 2019], and for GSNs [Bouritsas et al., 2020] which use subgraph isomorphism counts of pattern $P \in \mathcal{P}$, their expressive power is captured by $\mathsf{spasm}(\mathcal{P})$-pattern trees, where $\mathsf{spasm}(\mathcal{P})$ consists of all surjective homomorphic images of patterns in $\mathcal{P}$ [Curticapean et al., 2017].

4 A Comparison with the k-WL-test

$\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs are an alternative and efficient way to extend the expressive power of MPNNs (and thus the WL-test) compared to the computationally intensive higher-order MPNNs based on the k-WL-test [Maron et al., 2019a, Morris et al., 2019, 2020]. In this section we situate $\mathcal{F}$-WL in the k-WL hierarchy. The definition of k-WL is deferred to the supplementary material.

We have seen that $\mathcal{F}$-WL can distinguish graphs that WL cannot: just consider $\{K_3\}$-WL for the 3-clique K_3. To generalize this observation we need some notation. Let $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ be two sets of patterns and consider an $\mathcal{F}$-MPNN M and a $\mathcal{G}$-MPNN N. We say that M is *upper bounded in expressive power* by N if for any graph G, if N cannot distinguish vertices v and w,[3] then neither can M. A similar notion is in place for pairs of graphs: if N cannot distinguish graphs G and H, then neither can M.

More generally, let $\mathcal{M}$ be a class of $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs and $\mathcal{N}$ be a class of $\mathcal{G}$-MPNNs. We say that the class $\mathcal{M}$ is *upper bounded in expressive power* by $\mathcal{N}$ if every $M \in \mathcal{M}$ is upper bounded in expressive power by an $N \in \mathcal{N}$ (which may depend on M). When $\mathcal{M}$ is upper bounded by $\mathcal{N}$ and vice versa, then $\mathcal{M}$ and $\mathcal{N}$ are said to have the *same expressive power*. A class $\mathcal{N}$ is *more expressive* than a class $\mathcal{M}$ when $\mathcal{M}$ is upper bounded in expressive power by $\mathcal{N}$, but there exist graphs that can be distinguished by MPNNs in $\mathcal{N}$ but not by any MPNN in $\mathcal{M}$.

Finally, we use the notion of *treewidth* of a graph, which measures the tree-likeness of a graph. For example, trees have treewidth one, cycles have treewidth two, and the k-clique K_k has treewidth $k - 1$ (for $k > 1$). We define this standard notion in the supplementary material and only note that we define the treewidth of a pattern P^r as the treewidth of its unrooted version P.

Our first result is a consequence of the characterization of k-WL in terms of homomorphism counts of graphs of treewidth k [Dvorak, 2010, Dell et al., 2018].

Proposition 2 *For each finite set $\mathcal{F}$ of patterns, the expressive power of $\mathcal{F}$-WL is bounded by k-WL, where k is the largest treewidth of a pattern in $\mathcal{F}$.*

For example, since the treewidth of K_3 is 2, we have that $\{K_3\}$-WL is bounded by 2-WL. Similarly, $\{K_{k+1}\}$-WL is bounded in expressive power by k-WL.

Our second result tells how to increase the expressive power of $\mathcal{F}$-WL beyond k-WL. A pattern P^r is a *core* if any homomorphism from P to itself is injective. For example, any clique K_k and cycle of odd length is a core.

Theorem 2 *Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a finite set of patterns. If $\mathcal{F}$ contains a pattern P^r which is a core and has treewidth k, then there exist graphs that can be distinguished by $\mathcal{F}$-WL but not by $(k-1)$-WL.*

In other words, for such $\mathcal{F}$, $\mathcal{F}$-WL is not bounded by $(k-1)$-WL. For example, since K_3 is a core, $\{K_3\}$-WL is not bounded in expressive power by WL = 1-WL. More generally, $\{K_k\}$-WL is not bounded by $(k-1)$-WL. The proof of Theorem 2 is based on extending deep techniques developed in finite model theory, and that have been used to understand the expressive power of *finite variable logics* [Atserias et al., 2007, Bova and Chen, 2019]. This result is stronger than the one underlying the strictness of the k-WL hierarchy [Otto, 2017], which states that k-WL is strictly more expressive than $(k-1)$-WL. Indeed, Otto [2017] only shows the *existence* of a pattern P^r of treewidth k such that $(k-1)$-WL is not bounded by $\{P^r\}$-WL. In Theorem 2 we provide an *explicit recipe* for finding such a pattern P^r, that is, P^r can be taken a core of treewidth k.

In summary, we have shown that there is a set $\mathcal{F}$ of patterns such that (i) $\mathcal{F}$-WL can distinguish graphs which cannot be distinguished by $(k-1)$-WL, yet (ii) $\mathcal{F}$-WL cannot distinguish more graphs than k-WL. This begs the question whether there is a finite set $\mathcal{F}$ such that $\mathcal{F}$-WL is equivalent in expressive power to k-WL. We answer this negatively.

Proposition 3 *For any $k > 1$, there does not exist a finite set $\mathcal{F}$ of patterns such that $\mathcal{F}$-WL is equivalent in expressive power to k-WL.*

In view of the connection between $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs and GSNs mentioned earlier, we thus show that no GSN can match the power of k-WL, which was a question left open in Bouritsas et al. [2020]. We remark that if we allow $\mathcal{F}$ to consist of all (*infinitely many*) patterns of treewidth k, then $\mathcal{F}$-WL is equivalent in expressive power to k-WL [Dvorak, 2010, Dell et al., 2018].

5   When Do Patterns Extend Expressiveness?

Graph patterns are not learned, but must be passed as an input to MPNNs together with the graph structure. Thus, knowing which patterns work well, and which do not, is of *key importance for the*

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[3]As for the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test, $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs cannot distinguish vertices if they are assigned the same feature vector

power of the resulting $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs. This is a difficult question to answer since determining which patterns work well is clearly application-dependent. From a theoretical point of view, however, we can still look into interesting questions related to the problem of which patterns to choose. One such a question, and the one studied in this section, is when a pattern adds expressive power over the ones that we have already selected. More formally, we study the following problem: *Given a finite set $\mathcal{F}$ of patterns, when does adding a new pattern P^r to $\mathcal{F}$ extends the expressive power of the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test?*

To positively answer this question, we need to find two graphs G and H, show that they are indistinguishable by the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test, but show that they can be distinguished by the $\mathcal{F} \cup \{P^r\}$-WL-test. As an example we show that longer cycles always add expressive power.

Proposition 4 *For any $k > 3$, $\{C_3^r, \ldots, C_k^r\}$-WL is more expressive than $\{C_3^r, \ldots, C_{k-1}^r\}$-WL.*

Here, C_k denotes a cycle of length k. We also observe that, by Proposition 2, $\{C_3^r, \ldots, C_k^r\}$-WL is bounded by 2-WL for any $k \geq 3$ because cycles have treewidth two. It is often the case, however, that finding such graphs and proving that they are indistinguishable, can be rather challenging. Instead, in this section we provide two techniques that can be used to partially answer the question posed above by only looking at properties of the sets of patterns. Our first result is for establishing when a pattern does not add expressive power to a given set $\mathcal{F}$ of patterns, and the second one when it does.

Detecting when patterns are superfluous. Our first result states that instead of choosing complex patterns that are the joins of smaller patterns, one should opt for the smaller patterns.

Proposition 5 *Let $P^r = P_1^r \star P_2^r$ be a pattern that is the join of two smaller patterns. Then for any set $\mathcal{F}$ of patterns, we have that $\mathcal{F} \cup \{P^r\}$-WL is upper bounded by $\mathcal{F} \cup \{P_1^r, P_2^r\}$-WL.*

Stated differently, this means that adding to $\mathcal{F}$ any pattern which is the join of two patterns already in $\mathcal{F}$ does not add expressive power. For example, instead of the pattern ⬡ one should use instead the triangle △. This is in line with other advantages of smaller patterns: their homomorphism counts are easier to compute, and, since they are less specific, they should tend to produce less over-fitting.

Detecting when patterns add expressiveness. Joining patterns into new patterns does not give extra expressive power, but what about patterns which are not joins? We provide next a useful recipe for detecting when a pattern does add expressive power. We recall that the *core of a graph P is its unique (up to isomorphism) induced subgraph which is a core.*

Theorem 3 *Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a finite set of patterns and let Q^r be a pattern whose core has treewidth k. Then, $\mathcal{F} \cup \{Q^r\}$-WL is more expressive than $\mathcal{F}$-WL if every pattern $P^r \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfies one of the following conditions: (i) P^r has treewidth $< k$; or (ii) P^r does not map homomorphically to Q^r.*

As an example, $\{K_3, \ldots, K_k\}$-WL is more expressive than $\{K_3, \ldots, K_{k-1}\}$-WL for any $k > 3$ because of the first condition. Similarly, $\{K_3, \ldots, K_k, C_\ell\}$-WL is more expressive than $\{K_3, \ldots, K_k\}$-WL for odd cycles C_ℓ. Indeed, such cycles are cores and no clique K_k with $k > 2$ maps homomorphically to C_ℓ.

6 Experiments

We next showcase that GNN architectures benefit when homomorphism counts of patterns are added as additional vertex features. For patterns where homomorphism and subgraph isomorphism counts differ (e.g., cycles) we compare with GSNs [Bouritsas et al., 2020]. We use the benchmark for GNNs by Dwivedi et al. [2020], as it offers a broad choice of models, datasets and graph classification tasks.

Selected GNNs. We select the best architectures from Dwivedi et al. [2020]: Graph Attention Networks (GAT) [Velickovic et al., 2018], Graph Convolutional Networks (GCN) [Kipf and Welling, 2017], GraphSage [Hamilton et al., 2017], Gaussian Mixture Models (MoNet) [Monti et al., 2017] and GatedGCN [Bresson and Laurent, 2017]. We leave out various linear architectures such as GIN [Xu et al., 2019] as they were shown to perform poorly on the benchmark.

Learning tasks and datasets. As in Dwivedi et al. [2020] we consider (i) graph regression and the ZINC dataset [Irwin et al., 2012, Dwivedi et al., 2020]; (ii) vertex classification and the PATTERN

Table 1: Results for the ZINC dataset.

(a) Results for the ZINC dataset show that homomorphism (hom) counts of cycles improve every model. We compare the mean absolute error (MAE) of each model without any homomorphism count (baseline), against the model augmented with the hom count, and with subgraph isomorphism (iso) counts of C_3–C_{10}.

(b) The effect of different cycles for the GAT model over the ZINC dataset, using mean absolute error.

MODEL	MAE (BASE)	MAE (HOM)	MAE (ISO)
GAT	0.47±0.02	**0.22±0.01**	0.24±0.01
GCN	0.35±0.01	**0.20±0.01**	0.22±0.01
GraphSage	0.44±0.01	**0.24±0.01**	0.24±0.01
MoNet	0.25±0.01	0.19±0.01	**0.16±0.01**
GatedGCN	0.34±0.05	**0.1353±0.01**	0.1357±0.01

SET ($\mathcal{F}$)	MAE
NONE	0.47±0.02
$\{C_3\}$	0.45±0.01
$\{C_4\}$	0.34±0.02
$\{C_6\}$	0.31±0.01
$\{C_5, C_6\}$	0.28±0.01
$\{C_3, \ldots, C_6\}$	0.23±0.01
$\{C_3, \ldots, C_{10}\}$	**0.22±0.01**

and CLUSTER datasets [Dwivedi et al., 2020]; and (iii) link prediction and the COLLAB dataset [Hu et al., 2020]. We omit graph classification: for this task, the graph datasets from Dwivedi et al. [2020] originate from image data and hence vertex neighborhoods carry little information.

Patterns. We extend the initial features of vertices with homomorphism counts of cycles C_ℓ of length $\ell \leq 10$, when molecular data (ZINC) is concerned, and with homomorphism counts of k-cliques K_k for $k \leq 5$, when social or collaboration data (PATTERN, CLUSTER, COLLAB) is concerned. We use the z-score of the logarithms of homomorphism counts to make them standard-normally distributed and comparable to other features. Section 5 tells us that all these patterns will increase expressive power (Theorem 3 and Proposition 4) and are "minimal" in the sense that they are not the join of smaller patterns (Proposition 5). Similar pattern choices were used in Bouritsas et al. [2020]. We use DISC [Zhang et al., 2020][4], a tool specifically built to get homomorphism counts for large datasets. Each model is trained and tested independently using combinations of patterns.

Higher-order GNNs. We do not compare to higher-order GNNs since this was already done by Dwivedi et al. [2020]. They included ring-GNNs (which outperform 2WL-GNNs) and 3WL-GNNs in their experiments, and these were outperformed by our selected "linear" architectures. Although the increased expressive power of higher-order GNNs may be beneficial for learning, scalability and learning issues (e.g., loss divergence) hamper their applicability [Dwivedi et al., 2020]. Our approach thus certainly outperforms higher-order GNNs with respect to the benchmark.

Methodology. Graphs were divided between training/test as instructed by Dwivedi et al. [2020], and all numbers reported correspond to the test set. The reported performance is the average over four runs with different random seeds for the respective combinations of patterns in $\mathcal{F}$, model and dataset. Training times were comparable to the baseline of training models without any augmented features.[5] All models for ZINC, PATTERN and COLLAB were trained on a GeForce GTX 1080 Ti GPU, for CLUSTER a Tesla V100-SXM3-32GB GPU was used.

Next we summarize our results for each learning task separately.

Graph regression. The first task of the benchmark is the prediction of the solubility of molecules in the ZINC dataset [Irwin et al., 2012, Dwivedi et al., 2020], a dataset of about $12\,000$ graphs of small size, each of them consisting of one particular molecule. The results in Table 1a show that each of our models indeed improves by adding homomorphism counts of cycles and the best result is obtained by considering all cycles. GSNs were applied to the ZINC dataset as well [Bouritsas et al., 2020]. In Table 1a we also report results by using subgraph isomorphism counts (as in GSNs): homomorphism counts generally provide better results than subgraph isomorphisms counts. Our best result (framed in Table 1a) is competitive to the value of 0.139 reported in Bouritsas et al. [2020]. By looking at the full results, we see that some cycles are much more important than others. Table 1b shows which cycles have greatest impact for the worst-performing baseline, GAT. Remarkably, adding homomorphism counts makes the GAT model competitive with the best performers of the benchmark.

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[4]We thank the authors for providing us with an executable.

[5]Code to reproduce our experiments is available at https://github.com/LGP-GNN-2021/LGP-GNN

Table 2: Results for the PATTERN dataset show that homomorphism counts improve all models except GatedGCN. We compare weighted accuracy of each model without any homomorphism count (baseline) against the model augmented with the counts of the set $\mathcal{F}$ that showed best performance (best $\mathcal{F}$).

MODEL + BEST $\mathcal{F}$	ACCURACY BASELINE	ACCURACY BEST
GAT $\{K_3, K_4, K_5\}$	78.83 ± 0.60	85.50 ± 0.23
GCN $\{K_3, K_4, K_5\}$	$71.42 \pm 1,38$	82.49 ± 0.48
GraphSage $\{K_3, K_4, K_5\}$	$70.78 \pm 0,19$	$85,85 \pm 0.15$
MoNet $\{K_3, K_4, K_5\}$	$85.90 \pm 0,03$	$\mathbf{86.63 \pm 0.03}$
GatedGCN $\{\emptyset\}$	86.15 ± 0.08	86.15 ± 0.08

Table 3: All models improve the Hits@50 metric over the COLLAB dataset. We compare each model without any homomorphism count (baseline) against the model augmented with the counts of the set of patterns that showed best performance (best $\mathcal{F}$).

MODEL + BEST $\mathcal{F}$	HITS@50 BASELINE	HITS@50 BEST
GAT $\{K_3\}$	50.32 ± 0.55	52.87 ± 0.87
GCN $\{K_3, K_4, K_5\}$	51.35 ± 1.30	$\mathbf{54.60 \pm 1.01}$
GraphSage $\{K_5\}$	50.33 ± 0.68	51.39 ± 1.23
MoNet $\{K_4\}$	49.81 ± 1.56	51.76 ± 1.38
GatedGCN $\{K_3\}$	51.00 ± 2.54	51.57 ± 0.68

Vertex classification. The next task in the benchmark corresponds to vertex classification. Here we analyze two datasets, PATTERN and CLUSTER [Dwivedi et al., 2020], both containing over 12 000 artificially generated graphs resembling social networks or communities. The task is to predict whether a vertex belongs to a particular cluster or pattern, and all results are measured using the accuracy of the classifier. Also here, our results show that homomorphism counts, this times of cliques, tend to improve the accuracy of our models. Indeed, for the PATTERN dataset we see an improvement in all models but GatedGCN (Table 2), and three models are improved in the CLUSTER dataset (reported in the supplementary material). Once again, the best performer in this task is a model that uses homomorphism counts. We remark that for cliques, homomorphism counts coincide with subgraph isomorphism counts (up to a constant factor) so our extensions behave like GSNs.

Link prediction In our final task we consider a single graph, COLLAB [Hu et al., 2020], with over 235 000 vertices, containing information about the collaborators in an academic network, and the task at hand is to predict future collaboration. The metric used in the benchmark is the Hits@50 evaluator [Hu et al., 2020]. Here, positive collaborations are ranked among randomly sampled negative collaborations, and the metric is the ratio of positive edges that are ranked at place 50 or above. Once again, homomorphism counts of cliques improve the performance of all models, see Table 3. An interesting observation is that this time the best set of features (cliques) does depend on the model, although the best model uses all cliques again.

Remarks. The best performers in each task use homomorphism counts, in accordance with our theoretical results, showing that such counts do extend the power of MPNNs. Homomorphism counts are also cheap to compute. For COLLAB, the largest graph in our experiments, the homomorphism counts of all patterns we used, for all vertices, could be computed by DISC [Zhang et al., 2020] in less than 3 minutes. One important remark is that *selecting* the best set of features is still a challenging endeavor. Our theoretical results help us streamline this search, but for now it is still an exploratory task. In our experiments we first looked at adding each pattern individually, and then tried with combinations of those that showed the best improvements. This feature selection strategy incurs considerable cost, both computational and environmental, and needs further investigation.

7 Conclusion

We propose $\mathcal{F}$-MPNNs as an efficient way to increase the expressive power of MPNNs and showed that enriching features with homomorphism counts of small patterns is a promising add-on to any GNN architecture. Graph parameter selection and a complete characterization of when adding a new pattern to $\mathcal{F}$ adds expressive power to the $\mathcal{F}$-WL-test deserves further study.

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