

Building deep retrieval models in practical applications

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Khoa D. Doan

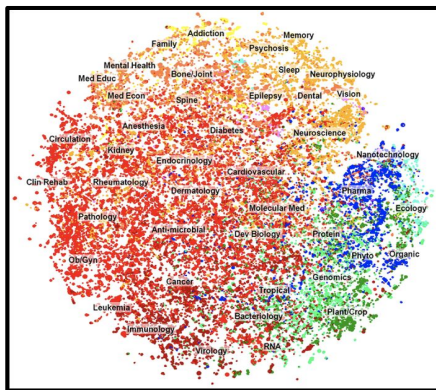
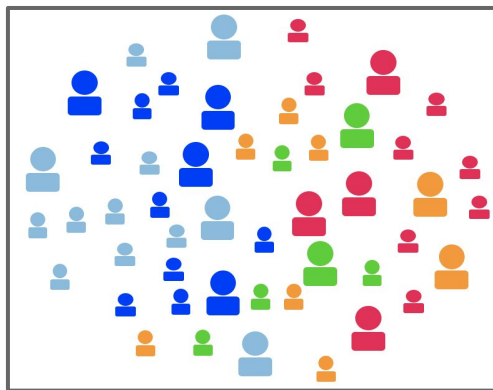
COMPUTER SCIENCE
VIRGINIA TECH.

04/01/2022

OUTLINE

- ▷ The retrieval problem
- ▷ Hashing Approaches
 - Single-loss quantization
 - Energy-based Hashing Networks
- ▷ Interpretable Retrieval
- ▷ Thoughts on Hashing
- ▷ Q & A!

Retrieving data is around us...

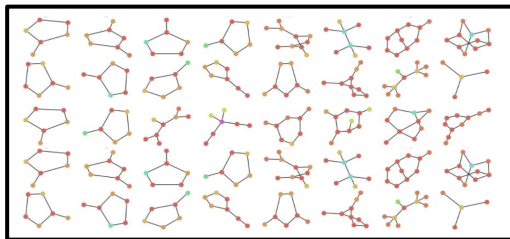
Document Retrieval
[Salakhutdinov et al. 2009]

Similar Users Search

[Doan et al. 2019]



Image Retrieval
[Doan et al. 2022]

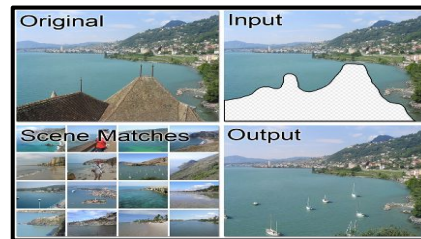


Graph Search

[Doan et al. 2021]



Fingerprint Matching



Near-duplicate Detection

[Henzinger et al. 2006]



Scene Completion

Retrieval & Similarity Search

Problem: Given a dataset of N items $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$ and a query q , we aim to find l items $R = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_l\}$ such that, for a similarity function sim , we have:

$$sim(q, x_i) \geq sim(q, x_j)$$

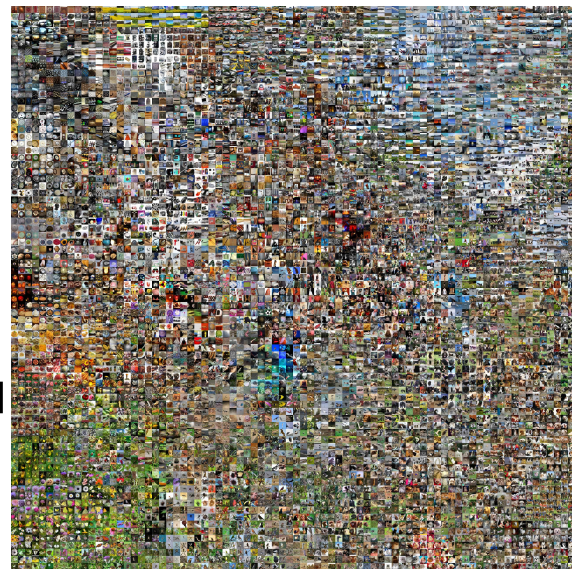
$$\forall x_i \in R, \forall x_j \in X \setminus R$$



query



find similar
images



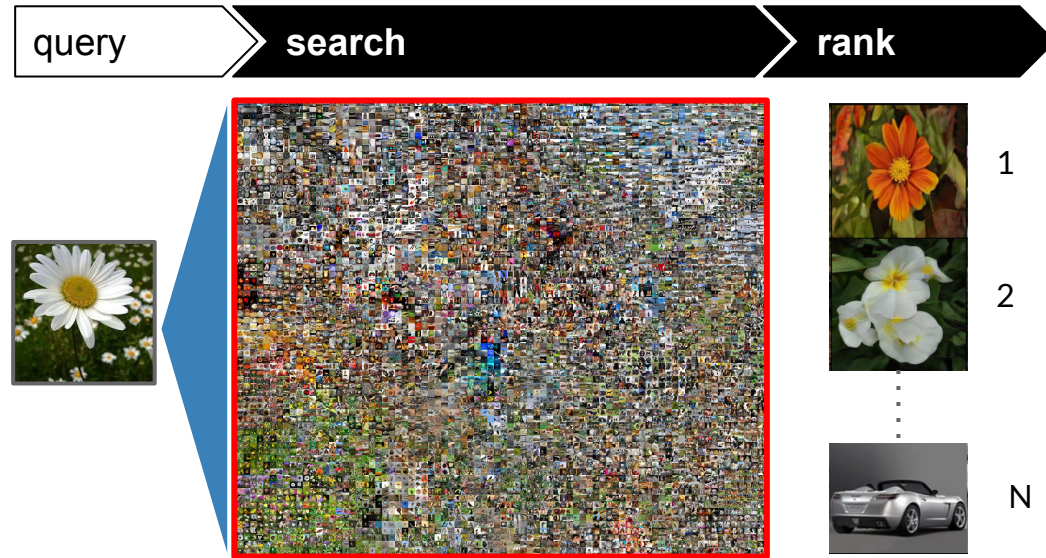
large image database



search results



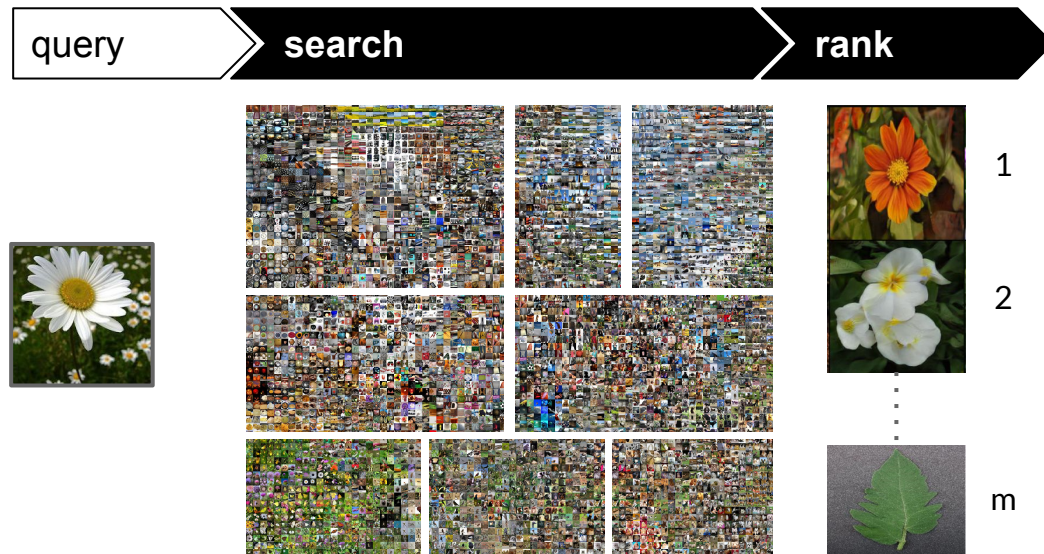
Linear Search



Exhaustive search

- ▷ infeasible in large database of millions or billions of items.
- ▷ wasteful of computation
 - only a small subset is relevant
 - real-time ranking is impossible

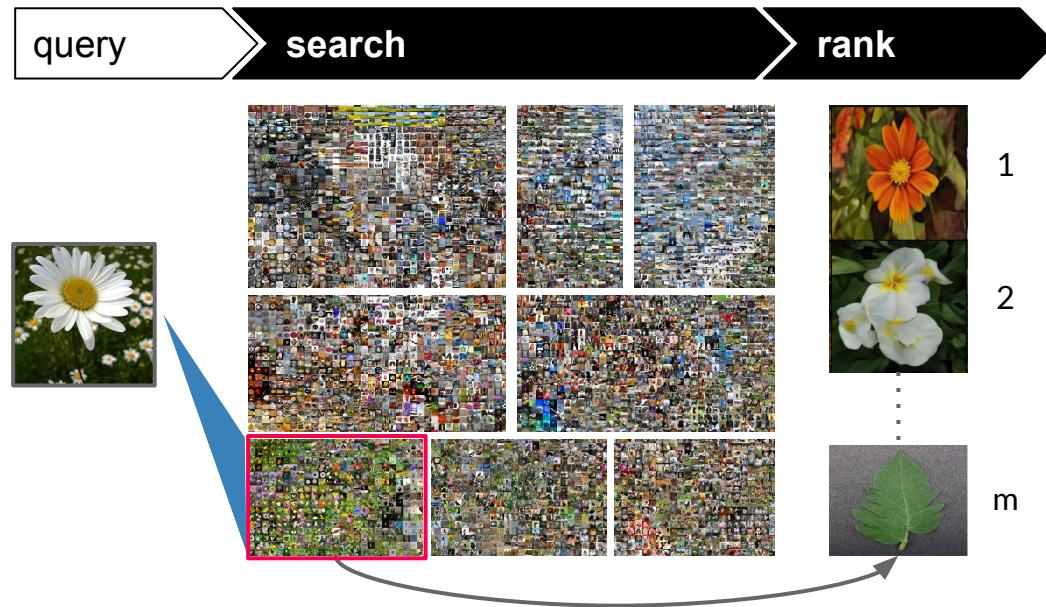
Approximate nearest neighbor



Approximate Search

- ▷ ANN search builds an index structure

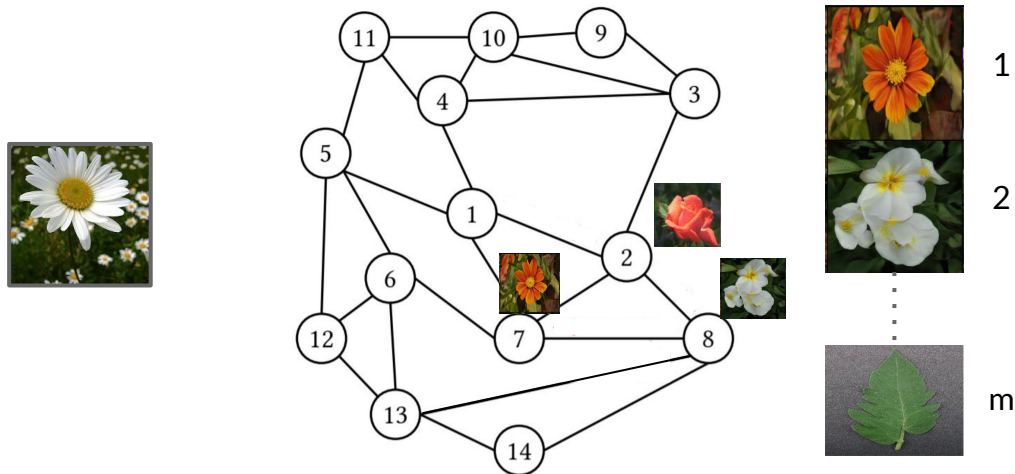
Approximate nearest neighbor



Approximate Search

- ▷ ANN search builds an index structure
 - limits the search to a subset of candidate items (sub-linear)
- ▷ What if the index is not perfectly constructed?

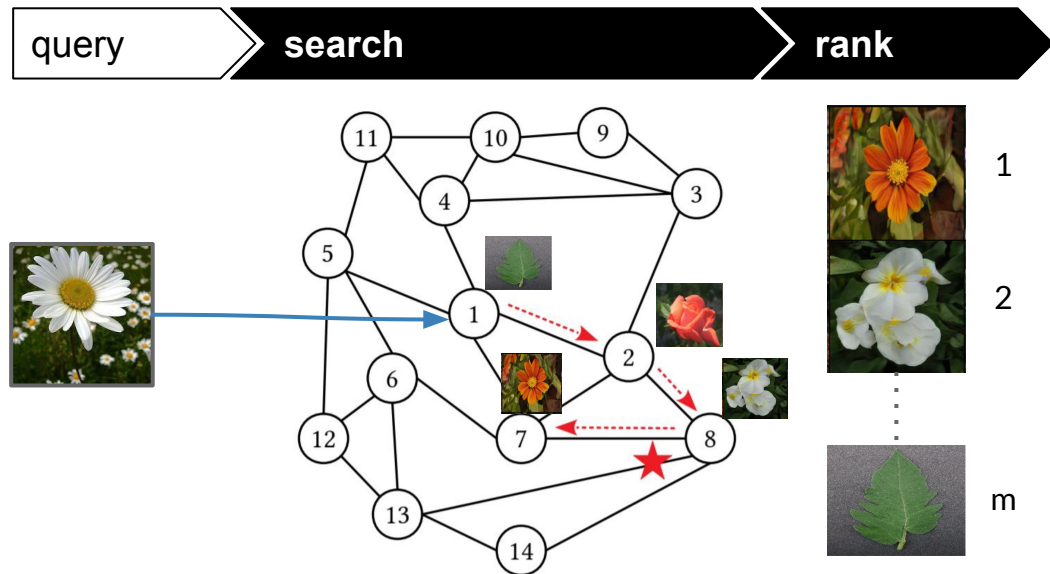
Approximate nearest neighbor



Approximate Search (Graph)

- ▷ Construct a proximity graph of items

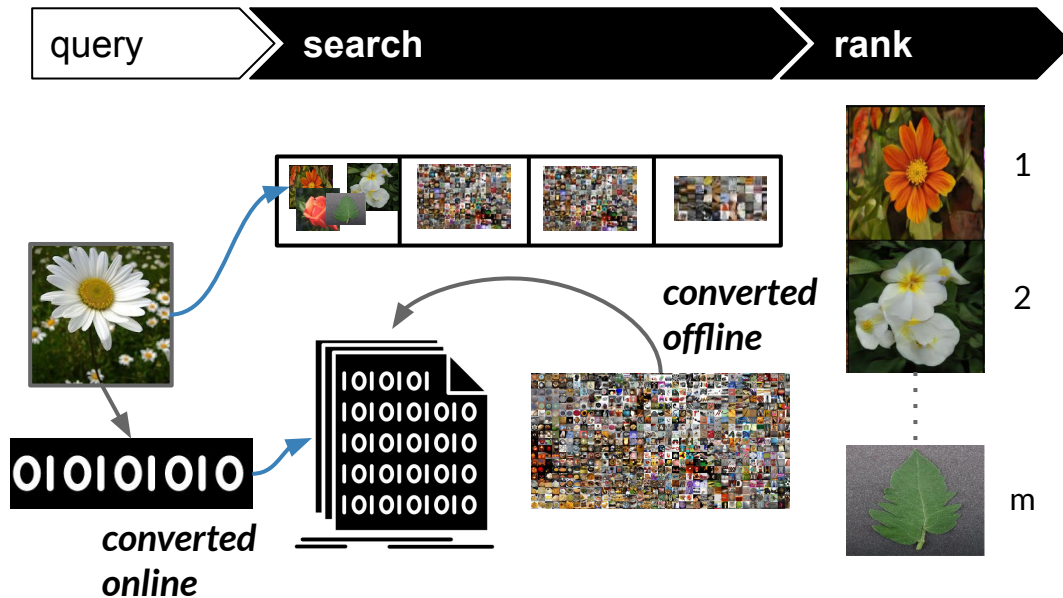
Approximate nearest neighbor



Approximate Search (Graph)

- ▷ Construct a proximity graph of items
- ▷ Search becomes traversing the graph
 - Compute some distance at each vertex

Approximate nearest neighbor

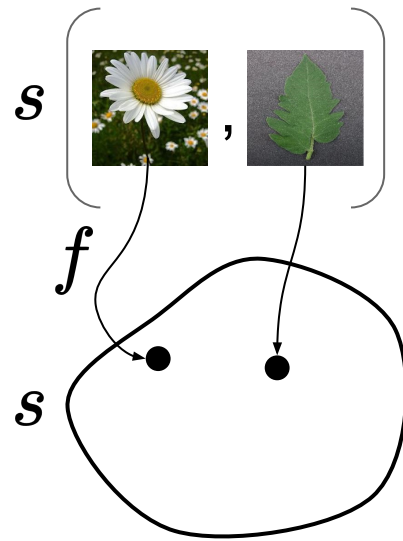


Approximate Search (Hashing)

- ▷ Transforms images into binary vectors
- ▷ Search via table look-up
- ▷ Linear Search in Discrete space:
 - Memory efficient: 4MB for 1M items
 - Compute efficient: 2 instructions per distance computation
 - Can be parallelized in distributed systems
 - **Avoid original similarity computation, thus more computationally efficient than graph-based ANN**

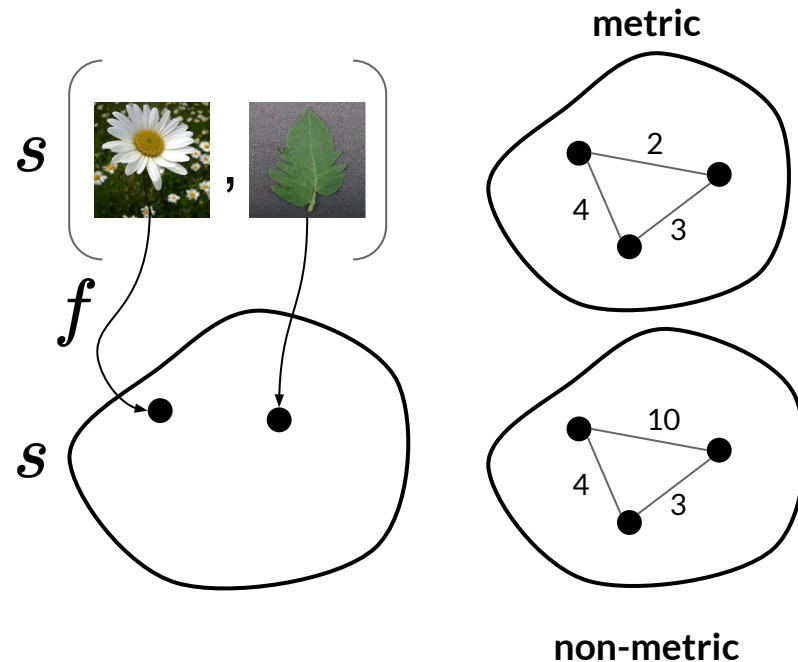
How to define the similarity function?

- ▷ Explicit representations of items
 - Input space
 - Representation space



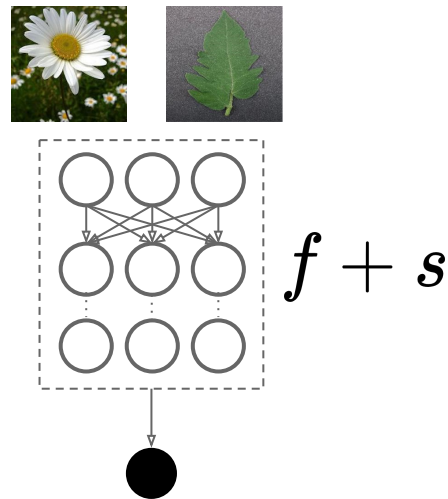
How to define the similarity function?

- ▷ Explicit representations of items
 - Input space
 - Representation space
 - Popular distance measures such as
 - Metric: Euclidean, Cosine...
 - Non-metric: Inner Product (MIPS Problems) [Shrivastava et al. 2014]



How to define the similarity function?

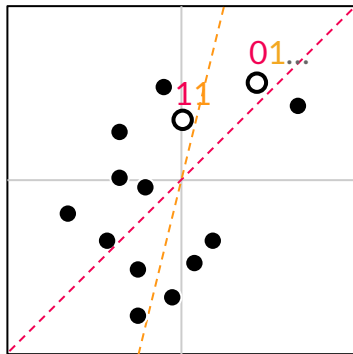
- ▷ Explicit representations of items
 - Input space
 - Representation space
 - Popular distance measures such as
 - Metric: Euclidean, Cosine...
 - Non-metric: Inner Product (MIPS Problems) [Shrivastava et al. 2014]
- ▷ Black-box distance measure: general non-linear, non-metric
 - Neural Network [Tan et al. 2020]



Quick Recap

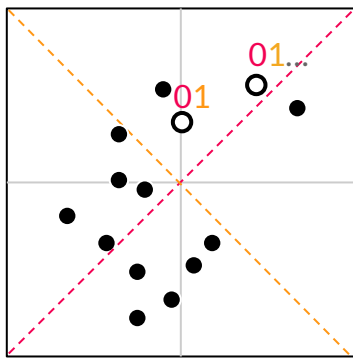
- ▷ Quickly discussed
 - Retrieval applications
 - Linear search vs. Approximate Search
 - How is similarity defined
- ▷ In this talk:
 - Hashing approaches that learn the hash function.
 - When the similarity function is not defined
 - Retrieval approach that explains its decision.
 - Applications of Hashing in other tasks.

Hashing Approaches



Data Independent

- Locality Sensitive Hashing: MinHash [Li et al. 2011]
Sign Random Projection [Li et al. 2014]

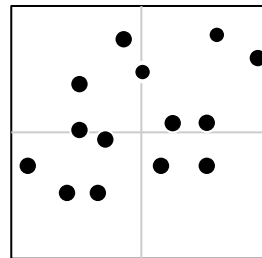


Data Dependent

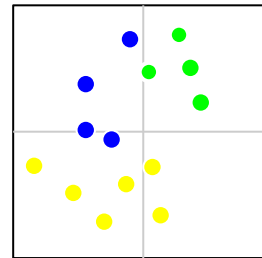
- Spectral Hashing [Weiss et al. 2009],
• Iterative Quantization Gong et al. 2012]

Unsupervised or Supervised

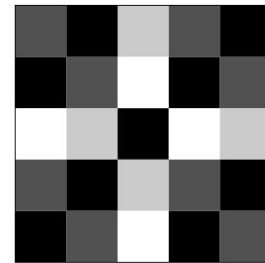
Unlabeled



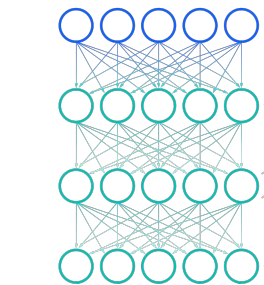
Point-wise Labeled



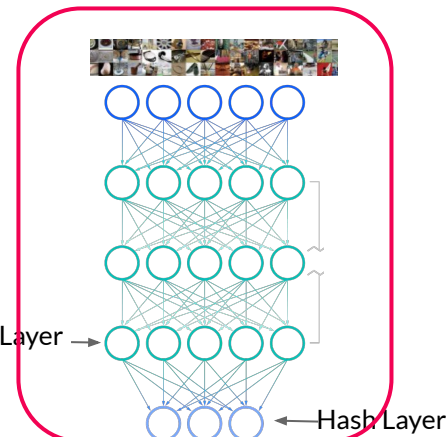
Pair-wise Labeled



Shallow or Deep



Learn similarity
from fixed features



Learn feature and
similarity end to end

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Hash-function learning

- ▷ Learn a hash function

quantized during
inference (i.e., > 0.5)



$$F : \mathcal{R}^n \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}^m \longrightarrow F : \mathcal{R}^n \longrightarrow [0, 1]^m$$

discrete optimization continuous relaxation

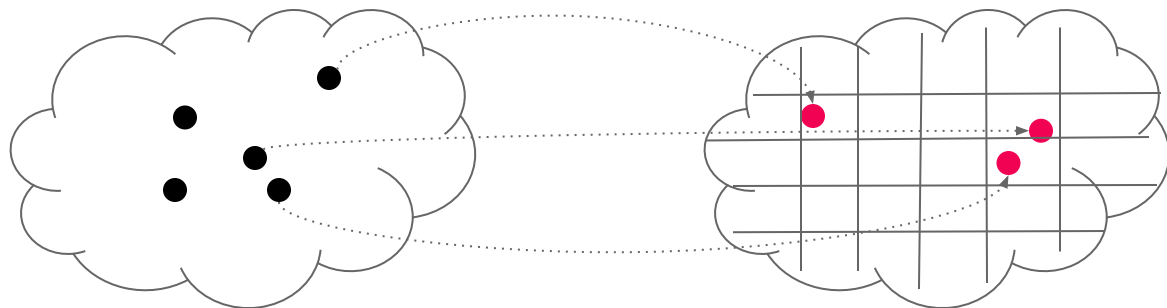
- ▷ Overall objective function of hashing methods

$$\arg \min_f E_{x \sim D_x} L(x, f(x)) + E_{x \sim D_x} \sum_k \lambda_i \times H_k(f(x))$$

locality-preserving loss hashing regularizer

- ▷ **Locality loss** preserves the semantics of *sim* in discrete space
- ▷ **Heuristic regularizers** minimize the gaps between continuous and discrete optimizations.

Locality Preservation



Several definitions
(depends on models and
problems)

$$x_i \in \mathcal{N}_d(x) \implies F(x_i) \in \mathcal{N}_{\tilde{d}}(F(x))$$

Typically cosine/euclidean

Usually hamming distance

▷ **Example:** Given (x, x^-, x^+)

Dissimilar point
current point similar point

- **Similar/Dissimilar:** same class/different class
- **Similar/Dissimilar:** nearest neighbor/distant neighbor

$$\min_{\theta} \sum_x \max(0, 1 + |F(x) - F(x^+)|_2 - |F(x) - f(x^-)|_2)$$

Quantization Regularization helps efficiency

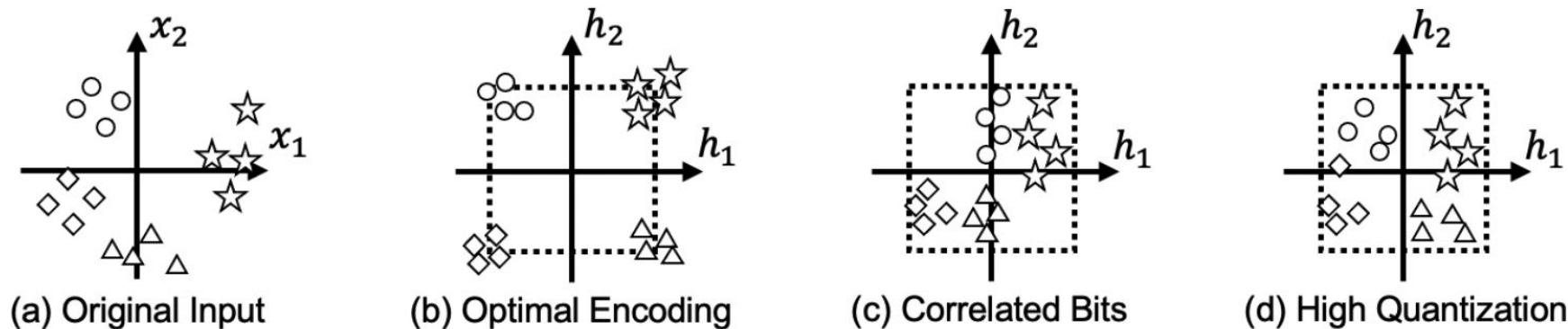
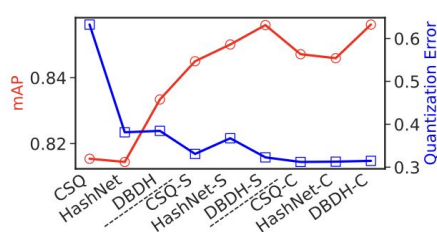
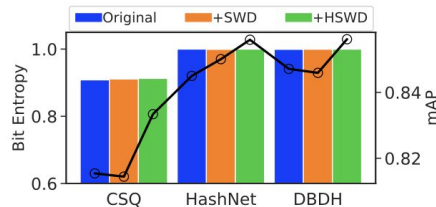


Figure 1. A visual illustration of the optimal function (Figure (b)) and learned hash function with poor the code balance (Figure (c)) and quantization constraint (Figure (d)). Figure (a) shows the original data clusters from four classes.



(a) Quantization Error



(b) Bit Entropy

Better Quantization leads to Better Performance

[Doan et al. 2022]

Achieving optimal quantization

- ▷ Bit Balance

$$\min_{\theta} \sum_k \bar{b}_k \log(\bar{b}_k) + (1 - \bar{b}_k) \log(1 - \bar{b}_k)$$

- ▷ Bit Uncorrelation

- ▷ Low-quantization Error

1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1
0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1
				⋮			
0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1

50% being 0 or 1

Achieving optimal quantization

- ▶ Bit Balance
- ▶ Bit Uncorrelation

$$\min_{\theta} |W^T W - I|_2$$

- ▶ Low-quantization Error

1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1
0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1
				⋮			
				⋮			
0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1

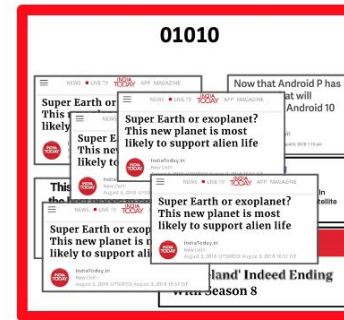
✓

bits are not dependent
(i.e. encode different information)

Achieving optimal quantization

Code Balance

- ▷ Bit Balance
- ▷ Bit Uncorrelation
- ▷ Low-quantization Error



Bad: more work



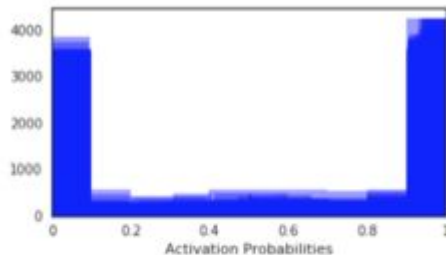
Good: when needing more examples, increase the hamming ball

Achieving optimal quantization

- ▷ Bit Balance
- ▷ Bit Uncorrelation
- ▷ Low-quantization Error

$$\min_{\theta} \sum_i \sum_k -b \log(b) - (1 - b) \log(1 - b)$$

0.9	0.1	...	0.1
0.1	0.2	...	0.3
		⋮	
0.1	0.3	...	0.1
0.2	0.1	...	0.1



Single-shot Quantization

Previous approaches: constraint several quantization losses on the learned distribution.

$$\arg \min_f E_{x \sim D_x} \sum_k \lambda_i \times H_k(f(x))$$

Advantages: easier optimization

Disadvantages: more hyperparameter tuning

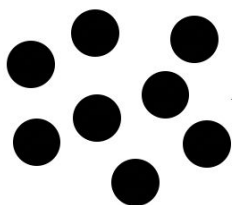
Our approach: directly minimizes a single divergence loss of 2 distributions.

$$\arg \min_f d(q(b) || q^*(b))$$

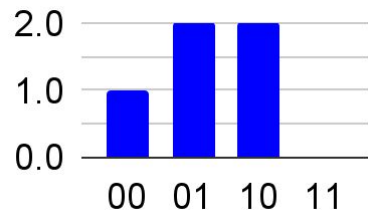
Advantages: single-shot optimization

Disadvantages: can be challenging to optimize

Task: learn 2-bit hash function.
Optimal discrete distribution is one with equal-arrangement of the data into the binary codes

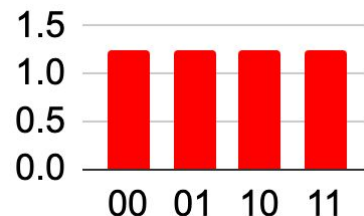


F



learned distribution q

$$q^* : b_i \sim \text{bernoulli}(0.5)$$



optimal distribution q^*
(with maximum entropy)

Single-shot Quantization

Previous approaches: constraint several quantization losses on the learned distribution.

$$\arg \min_f E_{x \sim D_x} \sum_k \lambda_i \times H_k(f(x))$$

Advantages: easier optimization

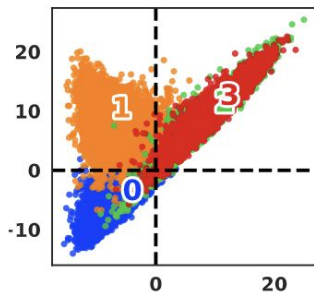
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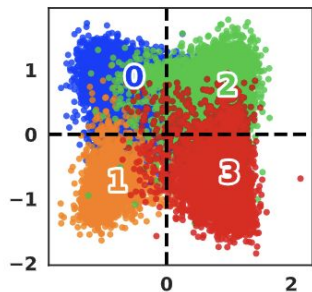
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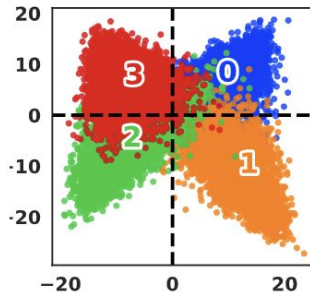
Disadvantages: can be challenging to optimize



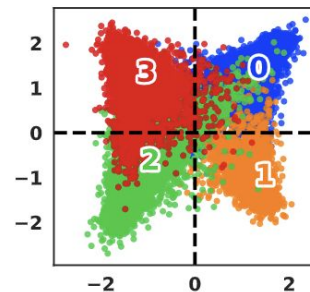
(a) HashNet (mAP: 0.7208)



(b) HashNet-C (mAP: 0.8500)



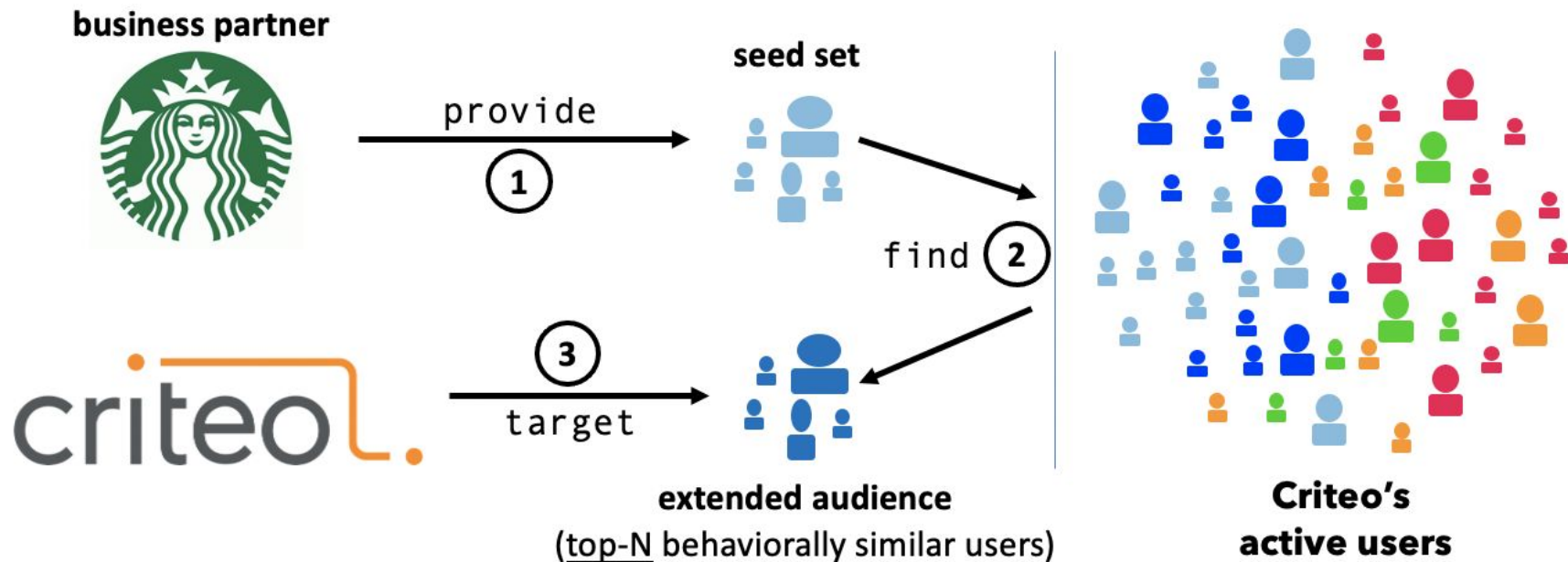
(c) CSQ (mAP: 0.8280)



(d) CSQ-C (mAP: 0.8521)

Learn 2-bit hash function on CIFAR10's data from 4 classes

Application in Look-alike Modeling



[Doan et al. 2019]

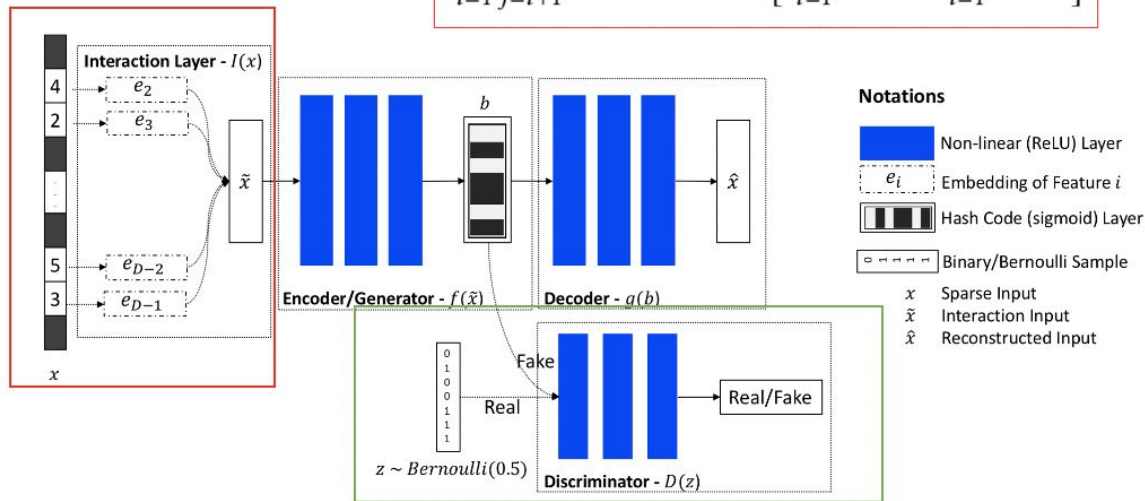
How to find look-alikes?

- ▷ Learn a **classifier** to determine if a user belongs to seed set
 - **Advantage:** good performance (with large seed sets)
 - **Disadvantage:**
 - time-consuming training (a model for every seed set)
 - severe overfitting (with less data)
- ▷ Learn an unsupervised **retrieval model** & find similar users
 - **Advantage:** one model for all seed sets
 - **Disadvantage:**
 - Completely unsupervised (may have poor performance)
 - We argue: poor representation learning + ineffective retrieval

Adversarial Factorization Autoencoder

learn sparse, high-dimensional data with high-order interaction

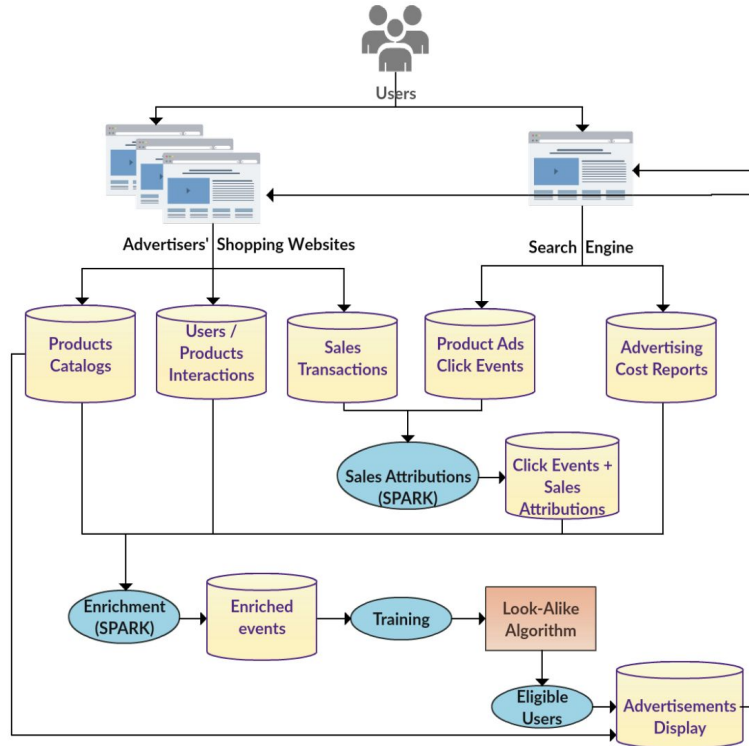
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n x_i e_i \odot x_j e_j = \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i \right)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i e_i)^2 \right]$$



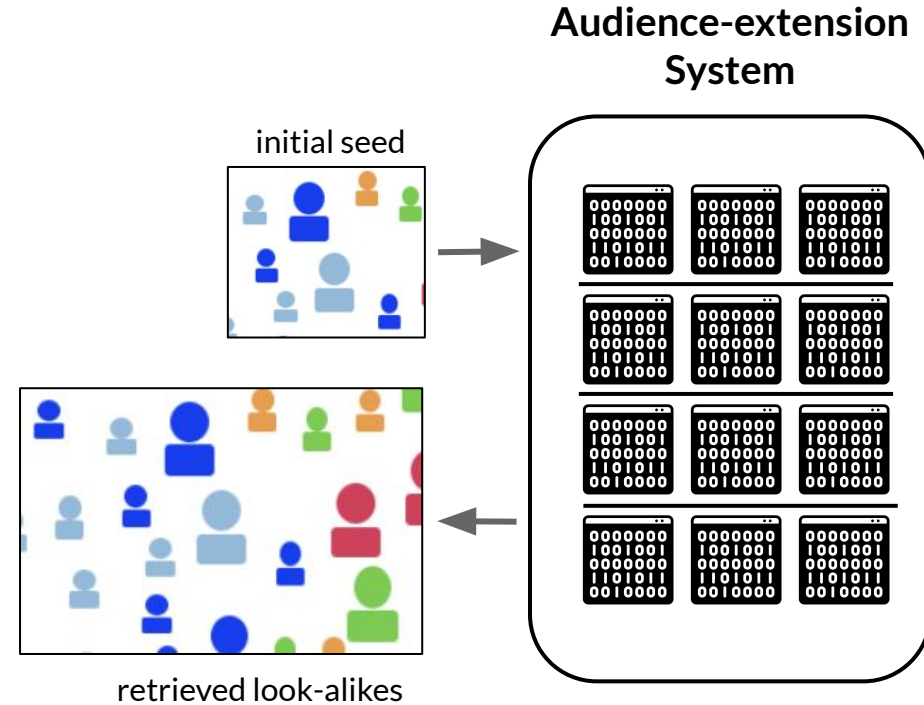
implicitly learns an optimal hash-function

$$\min_{\Theta_E} \max_{\Theta_D} L(E, D) = \min_{\Theta_E} \max_{\Theta_D} E_{z \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)} [\log D(z)] + E_{x \sim D_x} [\log(1 - D(f(I(x))))]$$

Deployed Retrieval-based Look-alike System



Detailed Processing Pipeline



retrieved look-alikes

HOW DOES PERFORMANCE IMPROVE?

Recall w.r.t Ground-truth Look-alike users.

Dataset	Existing Hashing	Density Estimation	Classification	OURS
Apparel-1	0.466	0.522	<u>0.604</u>	0.853
Electronics-1	0.434	0.227	<u>0.657</u>	0.843
Home/Garden	0.457	0.541	<u>0.631</u>	0.758
Electronics-2	0.022	0.000	<u>0.044</u>	0.652

1. Achieves best performance when labeled data is scarce (**top 4**).

HOW DOES PERFORMANCE IMPROVE?

Recall w.r.t Ground-truth Look-alike users.

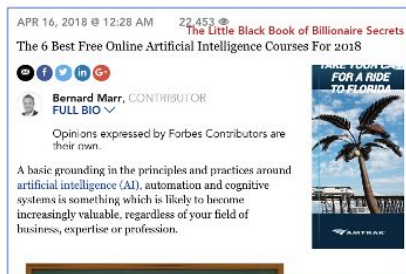
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Electronics-2	0.022	0.000	<u>0.044</u>	0.652
Animal/Pet	0.548	0.757	0.941	<u>0.900</u>
Apparel-2	0.638	0.757	0.776	<u>0.766</u>

1. Achieves best performance when labeled data is scarce (**top 4**).

2. Achieves second-best when there are more seed data (**bottom 2**).

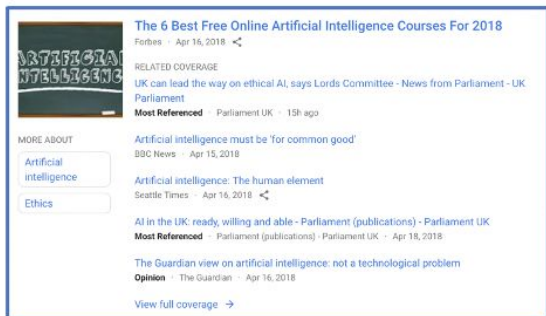
Application in Text Retrieval

computer science
career
artificial
intelligence
business cognitive
education



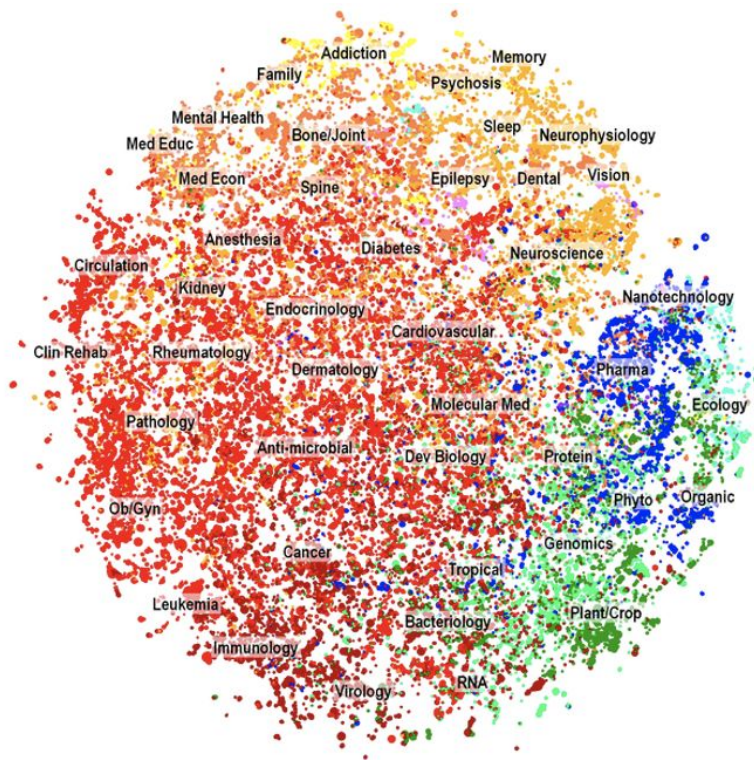
1

find other coverages



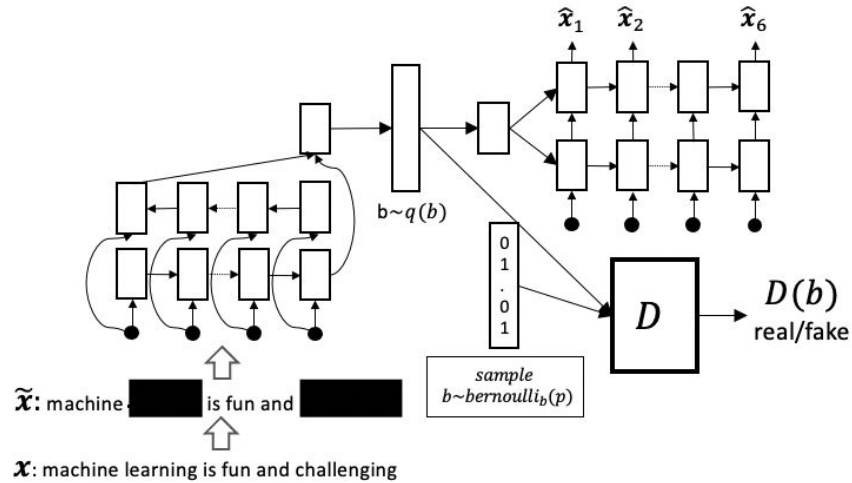
similar articles

2

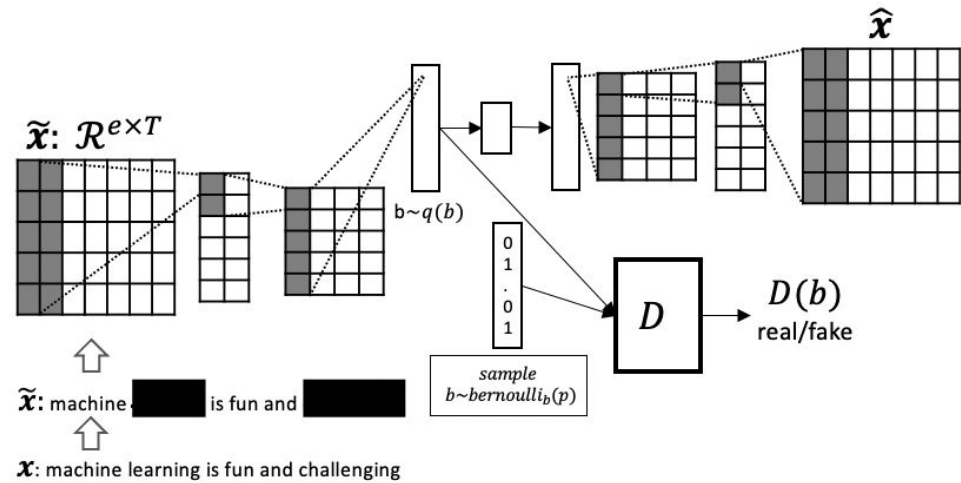


[Doan et al. 2021]

Adversarial Autoencoder Models

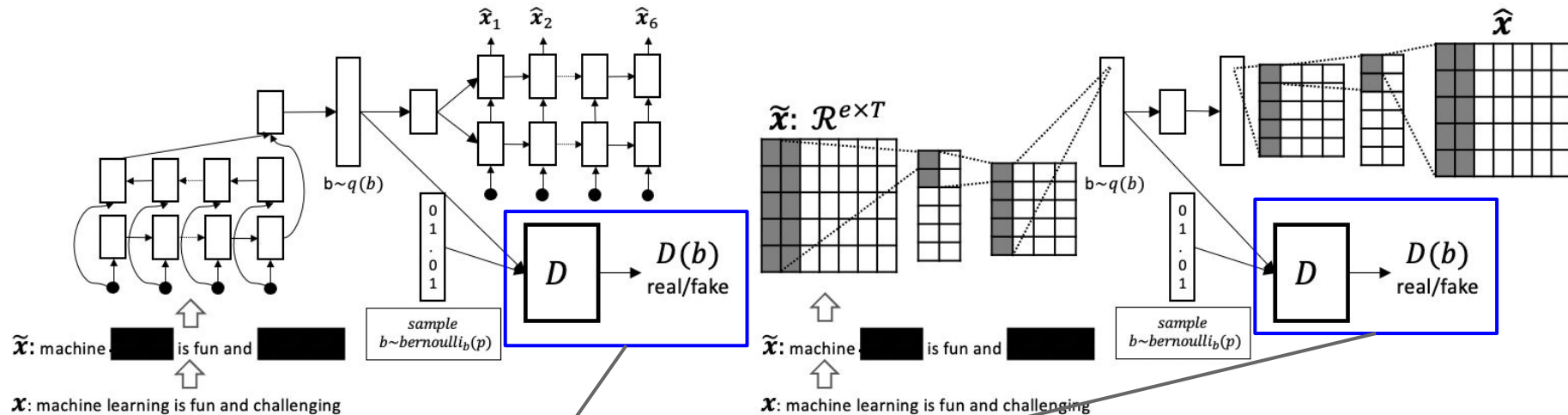


DABA-RNN



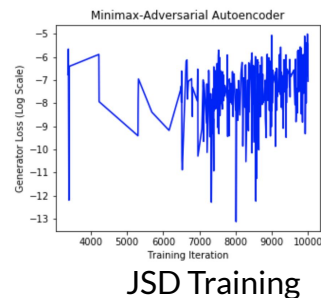
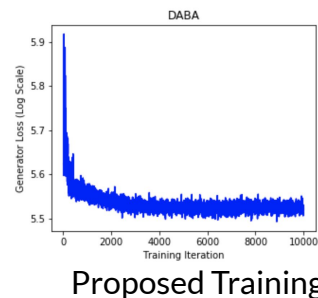
DABA-CNN

Adversarial Autoencoder Models



$$\min_{\theta_E} \max_M \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N M_{i,j} d_{\theta_G}^p(z_i, b_j)$$

$$\text{s.t. } \sum_{i=1}^N M_{i,j} = 1, \sum_{j=1}^N M_{i,j} = 1, M_{i,j} \in \{0, 1\}$$



Text Retrieval Performance

Method	20Newsgroup				Reuters			
	P@10	P@50	P@100	MAP	P@10	P@50	P@100	MAP
ITQ-Linear	0.524	0.457	0.384	0.320	0.799	0.731	0.667	0.430
STH-Non-VAE	0.523	0.501	0.565	0.328	0.817	0.798	0.755	0.476
SemH-RBM	0.520	0.435	0.390	0.322	0.780	0.703	0.650	0.462
VDSH-VAE	0.552	0.550	0.431	0.339	0.839	0.815	0.775	0.495
NASH-VAE	0.579	0.544	0.539	<u>0.349</u>	0.867	<u>0.840</u>	0.799	0.501
OURS-MLP	0.559	0.542	<u>0.565</u>	0.339	0.836	0.831	0.772	0.497
OURS-RNN	<u>0.628</u>	<u>0.579</u>	<u>0.565</u>	0.366	0.859	0.833	0.830	0.520
OURS-CNN	0.639	0.612	0.590	0.341	<u>0.860</u>	0.861	<u>0.820</u>	<u>0.509</u>

(1) Significant improvement from linear and non-linear methods

(2) Representation Learning + Effective Quantization are necessary

Application in Image Retrieval

KL/JSD/Wasserstein Distance

- Inefficient to estimate

$$\mathcal{D}(\mu, \nu) = \left(\inf_{\gamma \in \Pi(\mu, \nu)} \int_{(z, b) \sim \gamma} p(z, b) \|z - b\|_2 dz db \right)^{1/2}$$

Sliced Wasserstein Distance

- Several random projections are non-informative

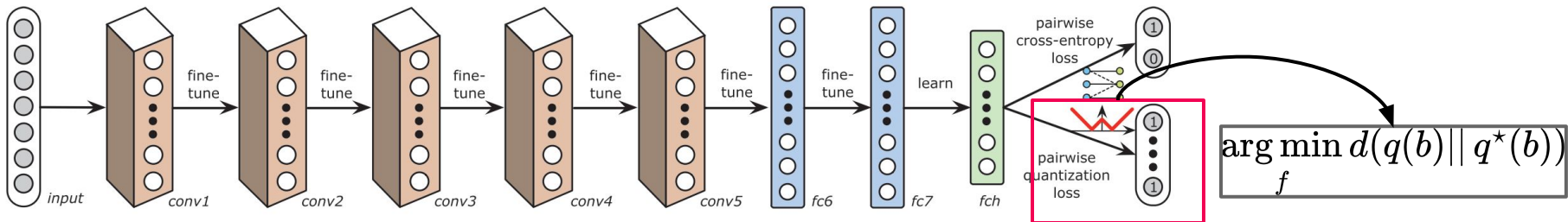
$$\mathcal{D}(h(X), B) \approx \left(\frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \mathcal{W}(\omega_l^T h(X), \omega_l^T B) \right)^{1/2}$$

Hash-Sliced Wasserstein Distance

Doan et al. 2022

- Fixed discriminative projections

$$\mathcal{D}(h(X), B) \approx \left(\frac{1}{m} \sum_{l=1}^m [\mathcal{W}(h(X)_{l,:}, B_{l,:})]^2 \right)^{1/2}$$



[Zhu et al. 2016]

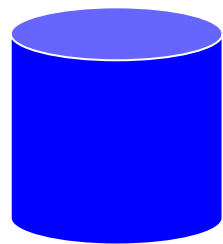
Performance Evaluation (mAP)

Method	CIFAR-10			NUS-WIDE			COCO		
	16 bits	32 bits	64 bits	16 bits	32 bits	64 bits	16 bits	32 bits	64 bits
DSDH [40]	0.7909	0.8072	0.8278	0.8270	0.8455	0.8640	0.7331	0.7853	0.8074
DSDH-S	0.8187/ 3.5%	0.8439/ 4.6%	0.8517/ 2.9%	0.8282/ 0.1%	0.8461/ 0.1%	0.8712/ 0.8%	0.7330/ 0.0%	0.8030/ 2.3%	0.8404/ 4.1%
DSDH-C	0.8531/ 7.9%	0.8620/ 6.8%	0.8658/ 4.6%	0.8433/ 2.0%	0.8631/ 2.1%	0.8749/ 1.3%	0.7424/ 1.3%	0.8032/ 2.3%	0.8408/ 4.1%
HashNet [6]	0.6922	0.8311	0.8566	0.7728	0.8336	0.8654	0.6899	0.7666	0.8098
HashNet-S	0.8131/ 17%	0.8573/ 3.2%	0.8749/ 2.1%	0.8062/ 4.3%	0.8438/ 1.2%	0.8713/ 0.7%	0.7215/ 4.6%	0.7764/ 1.3%	0.8189/ 1.1%
HashNet-C	0.7939/ 14%	0.8467/ 1.9%	0.8691/ 1.5%	0.8002/ 3.5%	0.8437/ 1.2%	0.8791/ 1.6%	0.7202/ 4.4%	0.7789/ 1.6%	0.8202/ 1.3%
GreedyHash [50]	0.8223	0.8474	0.8646	0.7802	0.8081	0.8328	0.6533	0.7219	0.7561
GreedyHash-S	0.8280/ 0.7%	0.8497/ 0.3%	0.8653/ 0.1%	0.7815/ 0.1%	0.8083/ 0.0%	0.8390/ 0.7%	0.6668/ 2.1%	0.7291/ 1.0%	0.7618/ 0.8%
GreedyHash-C	0.8375/ 1.9%	0.8536/ 0.7%	0.8722/ 0.9%	0.7890/ 1.1%	0.8179/ 1.2%	0.8477/ 1.8%	0.6637/ 1.6%	0.7299/ 1.1%	0.7712/ 2.0%
DCH [5]	0.8302	0.8432	0.8558	0.8015	0.8061	0.8040	0.7578	0.7792	0.7723
DCH-S	0.8372/ 0.8%	0.8515/ 1.0%	0.8602/ 0.5%	0.8058/ 0.5%	0.8079/ 0.2%	0.8067/ 0.3%	0.7657/ 1.1%	0.7831/ 0.5%	0.7803/ 1.0%
DCH-C	0.8446/ 1.7%	0.8596/ 1.9%	0.8711/ 1.8%	0.8159/ 1.8%	0.8145/ 1.0%	0.8155/ 1.4%	0.7702/ 1.6%	0.7892/ 1.3%	0.7807/ 1.1%
CSQ [58]	0.8069	0.8291	0.8366	0.7992	0.8384	0.8596	0.6783	0.7550	0.8146
CSQ-S	0.8401/ 4.1%	0.8555/ 3.2%	0.8554/ 2.3%	0.8044/ 0.7%	0.8495/ 1.3%	0.8626/ 0.4%	0.7036/ 3.7%	0.7765/ 2.8%	0.8234/ 1.0%
CSQ-C	0.8457/ 4.8%	0.8558/ 3.2%	0.8652/ 3.4%	0.8054/ 0.8%	0.8511/ 1.5%	0.8701/ 1.2%	0.6989/ 3.0%	0.7752/ 2.7%	0.8255/ 1.3%
DBDH [60]	0.7660	0.8223	0.8492	0.8305	0.8552	0.8666	0.7202	0.7826	0.8042
DBDH-S	0.8458/ 10%	0.8587/ 4.4%	0.8603/ 1.3%	0.8387/ 1.0%	0.8577/ 0.3%	0.8680/ 1.8%	0.7461/ 2.2%	0.7996/ 3.7%	0.8336/ 4.3%
DBDH-C	0.8466/ 10%	0.8593/ 4.5%	0.8668/ 2.1%	0.8395/ 1.1%	0.8633/ 0.9%	0.8760/ 1.1%	0.7389/ 2.6%	0.7889/ 0.8%	0.8308/ 3.9%

Performance Evaluation (mAP)

Method	CIFAR-10			NUS-WIDE			COCO																		
	16 bits						2 bits	64 bits																	
DSDH [40]	0.7909	Table: Averaged running time per epoch across different supervised hashing methods (in seconds). <table><tr><th>Dataset</th><th>Original</th><th>SWD</th><th>HSWD</th></tr><tr><td>CIFAR-10</td><td>19.4</td><td>24.2</td><td>17.1/40%</td></tr><tr><td>NUS-WIDE</td><td>58.3</td><td>71.2</td><td>50.1/41%</td></tr><tr><td>COCO</td><td>55.6</td><td>68.1</td><td>49.5/37%</td></tr></table> More computationally efficient than the original quantizations						Dataset	Original	SWD	HSWD	CIFAR-10	19.4	24.2	17.1/40%	NUS-WIDE	58.3	71.2	50.1/41%	COCO	55.6	68.1	49.5/37%	7853	0.8074
Dataset	Original							SWD	HSWD																
CIFAR-10	19.4							24.2	17.1/40%																
NUS-WIDE	58.3							71.2	50.1/41%																
COCO	55.6							68.1	49.5/37%																
DSDH-S	0.8187/3							8030/2.3%	0.8404/4.1%																
DSDH-C	0.8531/7							8032/2.3%	0.8408/4.1%																
HashNet [6]	0.6922							7666	0.8098																
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HashNet-C	0.7939/1							7789/1.6%	0.8202/1.3%																
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DBDH-C	0.8466/10%	0.8593/4.5%	0.8668/2.1%	0.8395/1.1%	0.8633/0.9%	0.8760/1.1%	0.7389/2.6%	0.7889/0.8%	0.8308/3.9%																

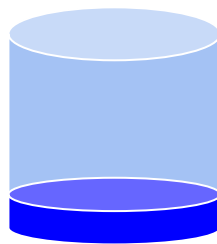
Learning hash function in real applications



Fully Labeled



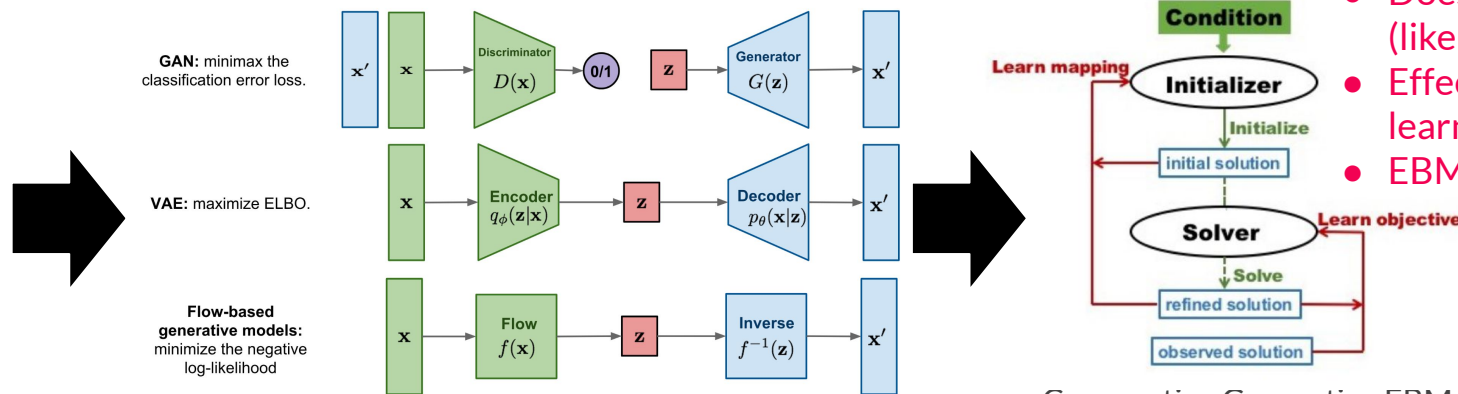
Fully Unlabeled



Partially Unlabeled



Corruption and Distributional Drift



- Does not have mode collapse (likelihood learning)
- Effective representation learning
- EBM is more robust

Cooperative Generative EBM
[Xie et al. 2018]

Source: [Lil'Log](#)

Multipurpose Generative Hashing Network

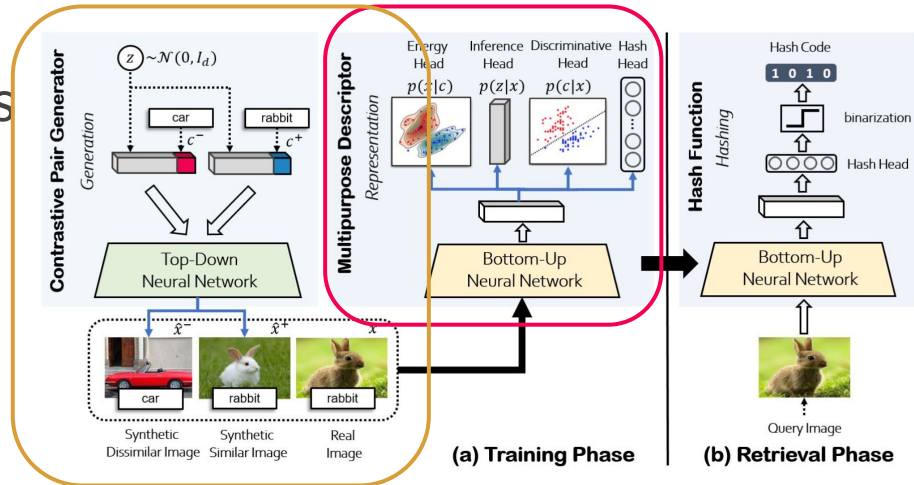
- ▷ **Learns to solve multiple objectives**
 - **Energy head** to estimate $p(x,c)$ and to generate new data for hash learning.
 - **Classification head** to estimate $p(c|x)$.
 - **Hashing head** to learn hash function: with contrastive generated samples.

- ▷ **Learning:** short-run MCMC

$$\hat{x} = g(c, \hat{z}; \Lambda), \hat{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_d)$$

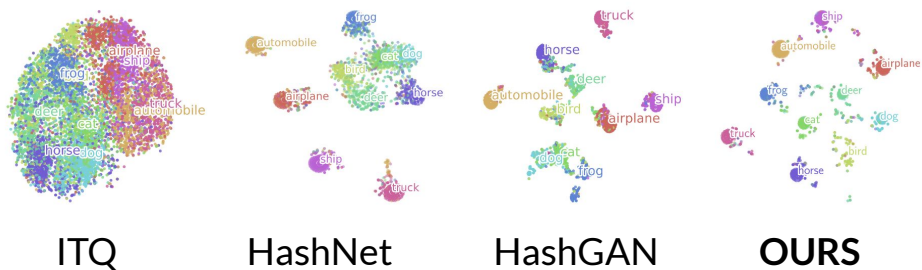
$$\tilde{x}_{t+1} = \tilde{x}_t - \frac{\delta^2}{2} \frac{\partial f_E(\tilde{x}_t, c; \Theta_E)}{\partial \tilde{x}} + \delta \mathcal{N}(0, I_D), \tilde{x}_0 = \hat{x}$$

generator's samples



Cooperative EBM Learning

[Doan et al. 2021]



Retrieval performance and robustness

Retrieval Performance (mAP)

Method	NUS-WIDE		CIFAR10	
	32-bit	64-bit	32-bit	64-bit
ITQ-Unsupervised	0.405	0.373	0.414	0.449
CNNH-Linear	0.583	0.593	0.472	0.489
DVStH-VAE	0.680	0.698	0.695	0.708
Hashnet-Nonlinear	0.699	0.711	0.699	0.711
HashGAN	<u>0.737</u>	<u>0.744</u>	<u>0.731</u>	<u>0.735</u>
OURS	0.759	0.778	0.742	0.781

(1) Both GAN-based (HashGAN) and ours achieve significant improvement over existing linear and non-linear supervised methods

(2) Our method achieve 2-5% improvement over HashGAN (GAN-based data synthesis)

Retrieval performance and robustness

Out-of-distribution (OOD) Queries (mAP)

Train with SVHN	HashNet	HashGAN	OURS
Query: MNIST	0.181	<u>0.354</u>	0.609
Query: SVHN	0.837	<u>0.889</u>	0.895
Train with MNIST	HashNet	HashGAN	OURS
Query: SVHN	0.193	<u>0.280</u>	0.498
Query: MNIST	0.957	<u>0.990</u>	0.991

(1) Significant performance drop when the query is out-of-distribution data in both SOTA non-linear method & HashGAN

(2) Our method still perform reasonably well in OOD retrieval (**2x better**), compared to other methods.

Retrieval performance and robustness

Input Data Corruption (mAP)

Salt-and-Pepper Corruption			
	HashNet	HashGAN	OURS
Clean	0.837	<u>0.889</u>	0.895
Corrupted	0.181	<u>0.354</u>	0.609
Large Rectangular Mask Corruption			
	HashNet	HashGAN	OURS
Clean	0.957	<u>0.990</u>	0.991
Corrupted	0.193	<u>0.280</u>	0.498

(1) Significant performance drop when the data is corrupted in other methods.

(2) Our method still perform reasonably well with corrupted data (**almost 2x better**), compared to other methods.

How similar are two graphs?

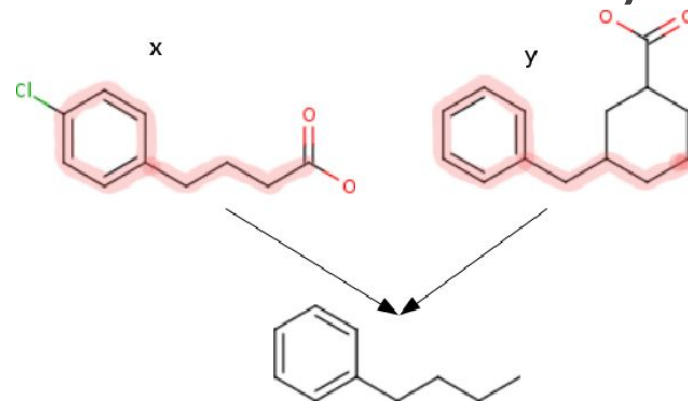
Intrusion detection



Behavioral patterns

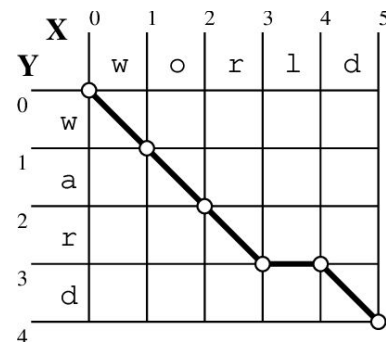


Molecule similarity

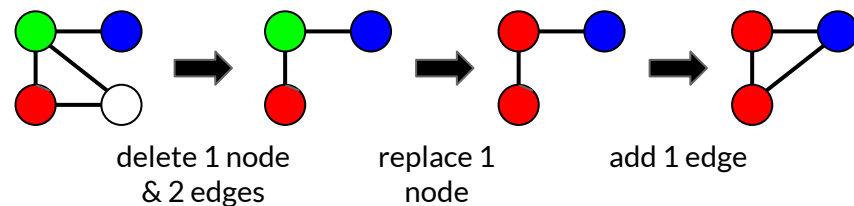


How similar are two graphs?

- ▷ Application-agnostic measures such as **GED** or **MCS** are important.
 - MCS is a special case of GED
- ▷ Explicitly explainable
 - In case of comparing molecules, GED tells the sequence of atoms/bonds to insert/delete or substitute that transforms one molecule to the other.



String edit distance is based on the sequence of edits (character insertion, deletion or substitution) to transform one string to the other.

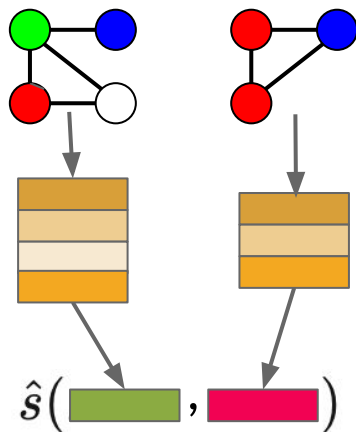


Graph Edit Distance is based on the sequence of edits (node/edge insertion, deletion or substitution) to transform one graph to the other.

Existing GED Computation Solutions

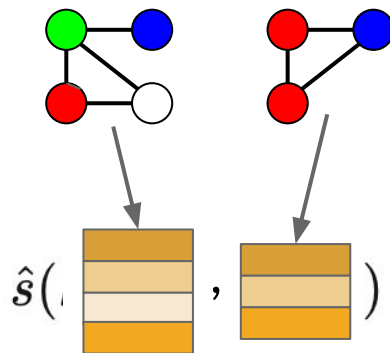
- ▷ Exact GED computation is NP-hard
 - Combinatorial Search: A^*
 - Impractical for graphs with more than a few tens of nodes.

Sub-optimal Performance



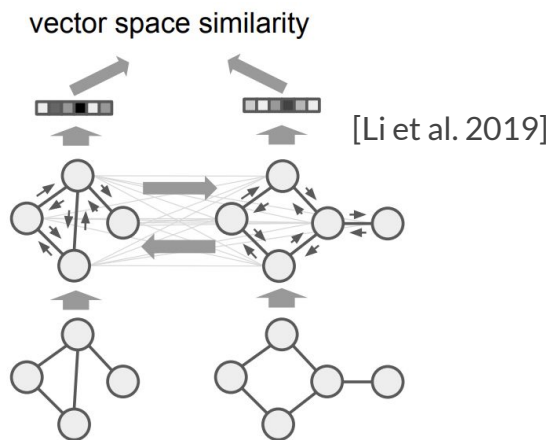
Function of graph embeddings

- Heuristic Order
- Does not capture, thus cannot explain the edit operations.



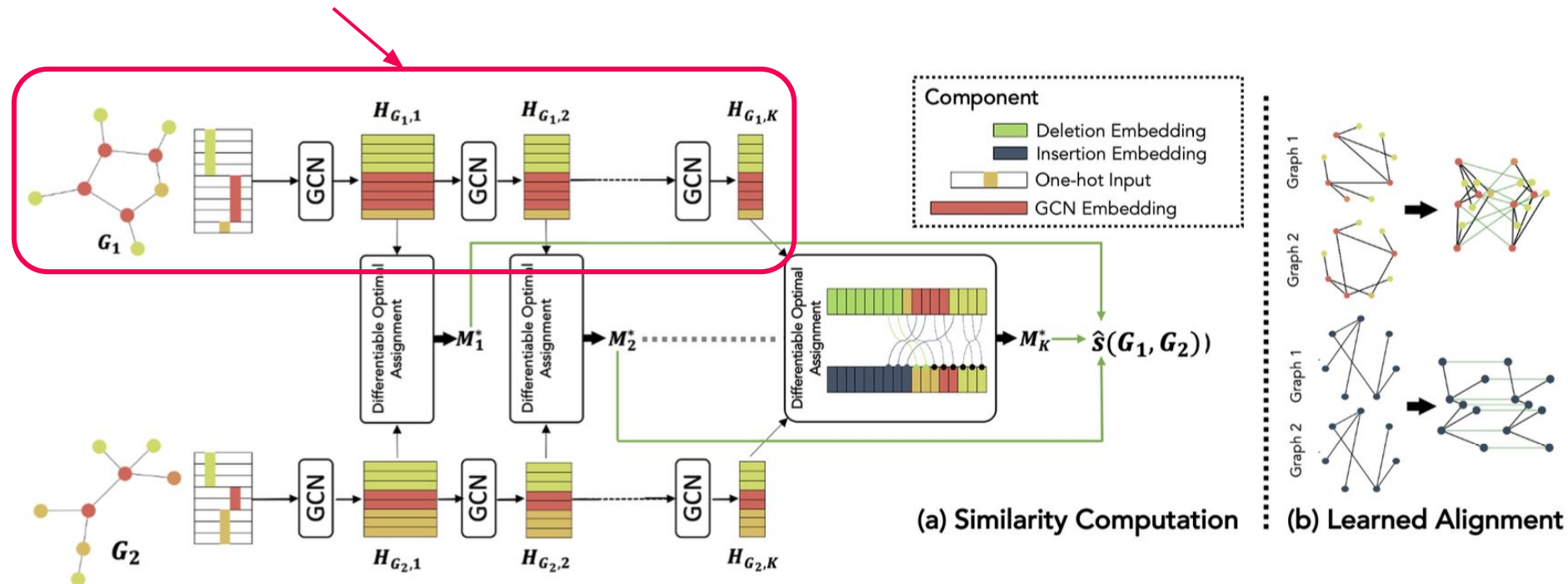
Function of node embeddings

Graph-matching do not learn bijective mapping



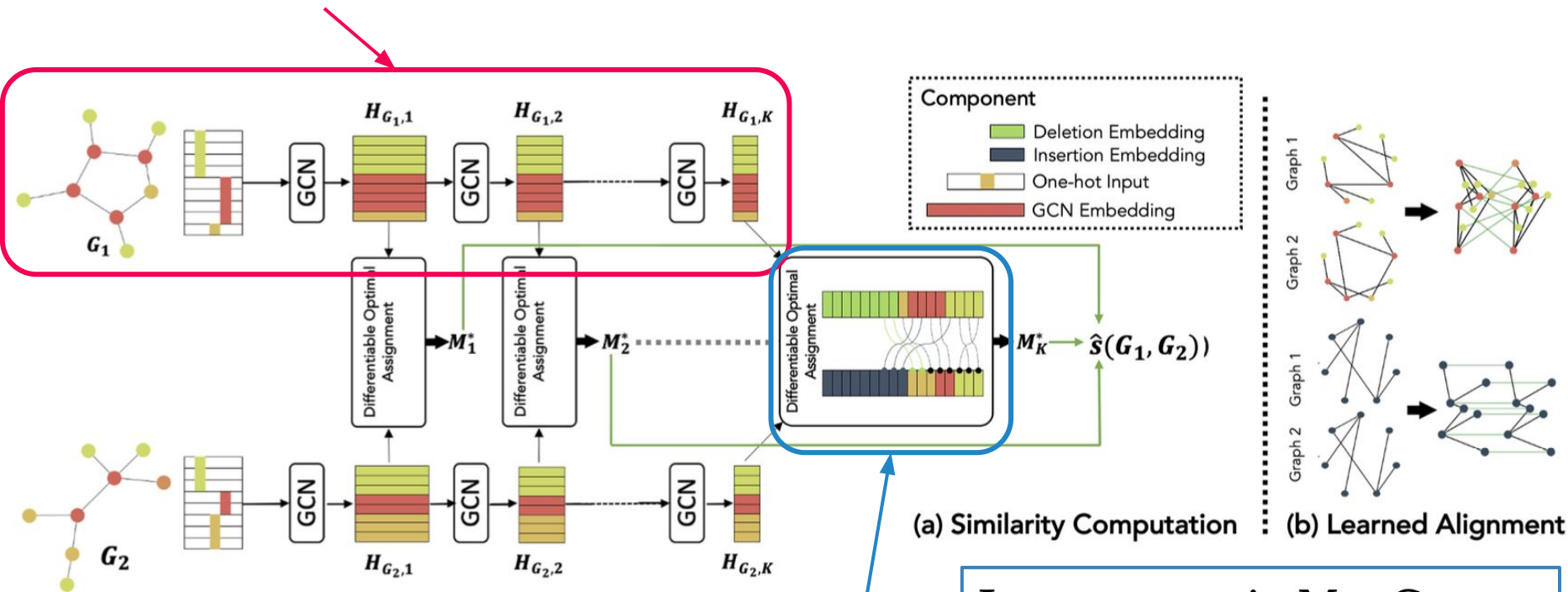
Graph Optimal Transport Similarity Computation

multi-level GCN embeddings



Graph Optimal Transport Similarity Computation

multi-level GCN embeddings



Differentiable Optimal Alignment

$$L_{G_1, G_2, k} = \min_M M \circ C_{G_1, G_2, k}$$

Augmented similarity matrix

$$C_{G_1, G_2, k} = \begin{array}{c} \text{node assignment} \qquad \text{node deletion} \\ \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} \mathbf{c}_{k,1,1} & \cdots & \mathbf{c}_{k,1,N_2} & \mathbf{d}_{k,1} & \cdots & \infty \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{c}_{k,N_1,1} & \cdots & \mathbf{c}_{k,N_1,N_2} & \infty & \cdots & \mathbf{d}_{k,N_1} \\ \hline \mathbf{a}_{k,1} & \cdots & \infty & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \infty & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_{k,N_2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{array} \right] \\ \text{node addition} \end{array}$$

M is now a permutation matrix

➔ Simpler and more stable derivative

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{L}_{G_1, G_2, k}}{\partial \theta} = \mathbf{M}_k^* \frac{\partial \mathbf{C}_{G_1, G_2, k}}{\partial \theta}$$

$$\mathbf{c}_{k,i,j} = c(\mathbf{h}_{G_1,k,i}, \mathbf{h}_{G_2,k,j})$$

$$\mathbf{a}_{k,i} = c(\mathbf{h}_{G_2,k,i}, \mathbf{h}_{k,a})$$

$$\mathbf{d}_{k,i} = c(\mathbf{h}_{G_1,k,i}, \mathbf{h}_{k,d})$$

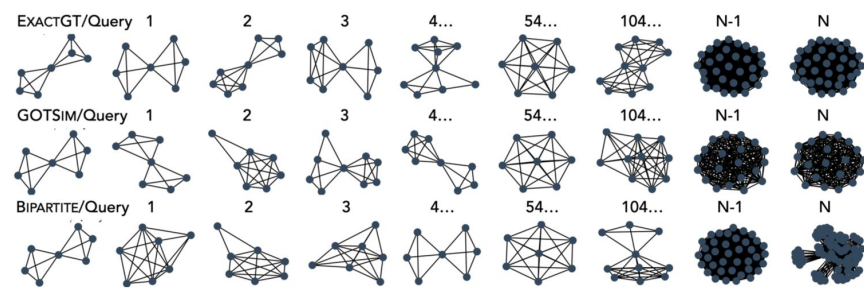
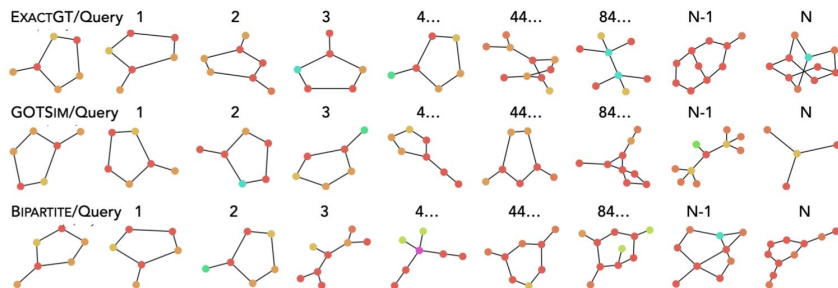
global embedding vectors

SOTA Retrieval Performance

Exact Ground-truth available

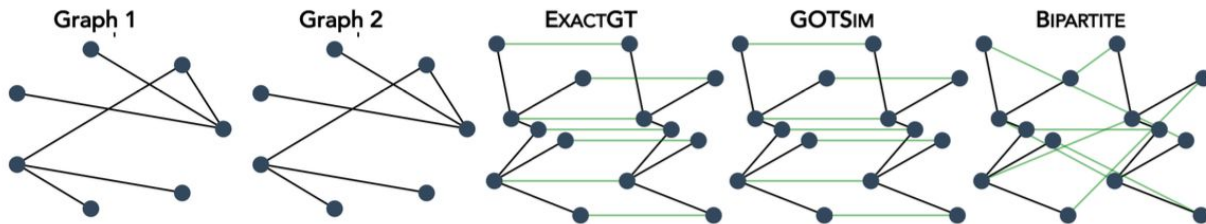
Only approximated ground-truth available

	AIDS			LINUX			PTC		
	τ	ρ	P@10	τ	ρ	P@10	τ	ρ	P@10
EXACTGT	1.00 $\pm$ 0.00	1.00 $\pm$ 0.00	1.00 $\pm$ 0.00	1.00 $\pm$ 0.00	1.00 $\pm$ 0.00	1.00 $\pm$ 0.00	–	–	–
BIPARTITE	0.26 $\pm$ 0.02	0.37 $\pm$ 0.02	0.32 $\pm$ 0.04	0.32 $\pm$ 0.02	0.43 $\pm$ 0.03	0.45 $\pm$ 0.03	0.65 $\pm$ 0.02	0.82 $\pm$ 0.02	0.79 $\pm$ 0.03
HAUSDORFF	0.48 $\pm$ 0.02	0.63 $\pm$ 0.03	0.54 $\pm$ 0.05	0.78 $\pm$ 0.01	0.88 $\pm$ 0.01	0.78 $\pm$ 0.05	0.78 $\pm$ 0.01	0.91 $\pm$ 0.01	0.90 $\pm$ 0.02
EmbMEAN	0.41 $\pm$ 0.04	0.53 $\pm$ 0.04	0.60 $\pm$ 0.10	0.55 $\pm$ 0.02	0.60 $\pm$ 0.02	0.51 $\pm$ 0.01	0.16 $\pm$ 0.04	0.23 $\pm$ 0.06	0.41 $\pm$ 0.08
EmbMAX	0.42 $\pm$ 0.02	0.57 $\pm$ 0.01	0.61 $\pm$ 0.06	0.57 $\pm$ 0.03	0.65 $\pm$ 0.01	0.71 $\pm$ 0.01	0.21 $\pm$ 0.03	0.29 $\pm$ 0.03	0.49 $\pm$ 0.03
EmbGATED	0.43 $\pm$ 0.02	0.66 $\pm$ 0.02	0.70 $\pm$ 0.04	0.58 $\pm$ 0.03	0.88 $\pm$ 0.01	0.81 $\pm$ 0.01	0.66 $\pm$ 0.10	0.81 $\pm$ 0.13	0.84 $\pm$ 0.08
GMN	0.47 $\pm$ 0.05	0.69 $\pm$ 0.02	0.72 $\pm$ 0.02	0.78 $\pm$ 0.03	0.88 $\pm$ 0.01	0.80 $\pm$ 0.01	0.40 $\pm$ 0.02	0.71 $\pm$ 0.03	0.70 $\pm$ 0.04
SIMGNN	0.67 $\pm$ 0.03	0.82 $\pm$ 0.02	0.84 $\pm$ 0.04	0.80 $\pm$ 0.01	0.92 $\pm$ 0.01	0.82 $\pm$ 0.05	0.80 $\pm$ 0.02	0.93 $\pm$ 0.01	0.91 $\pm$ 0.01
GRAPHSIM	0.68 $\pm$ 0.03	0.57 $\pm$ 0.03	0.76 $\pm$ 0.03	0.83 $\pm$ 0.02	0.92 $\pm$ 0.02	0.84 $\pm$ 0.03	0.79 $\pm$ 0.01	0.91 $\pm$ 0.01	0.91 $\pm$ 0.02
GOTSIM	0.72 $\pm$ 0.02	0.86 $\pm$ 0.02	0.87 $\pm$ 0.03	0.89 $\pm$ 0.02	0.92 $\pm$ 0.01	0.86 $\pm$ 0.02	0.82 $\pm$ 0.01	0.95 $\pm$ 0.01	0.94 $\pm$ 0.01



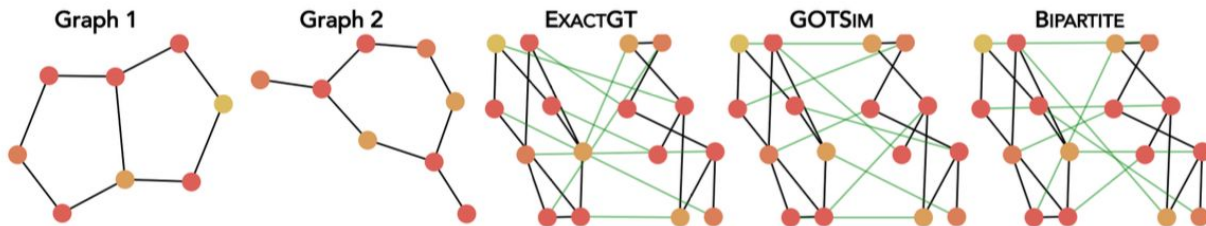
Learned Node Assignment (GED approx.)

LINUX



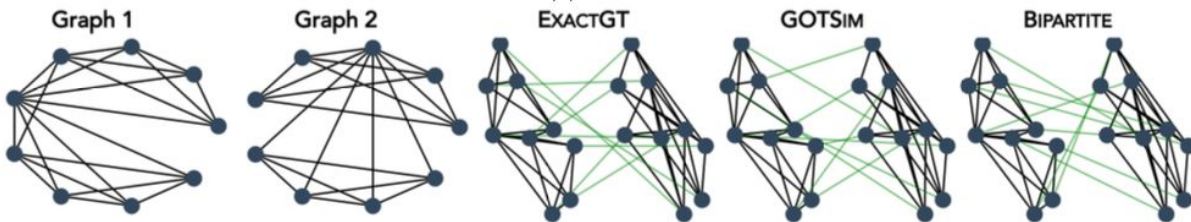
Capture the exact alignment of isomorphic graphs

PTC

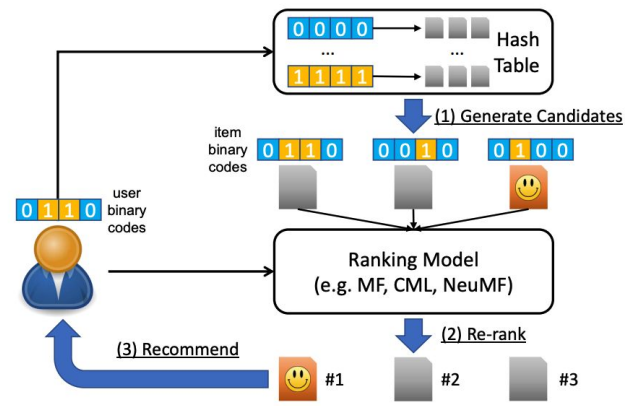


Capture similar alignments as those of the ground-truth GED computation, for both multi-labeled and unlabeled cases

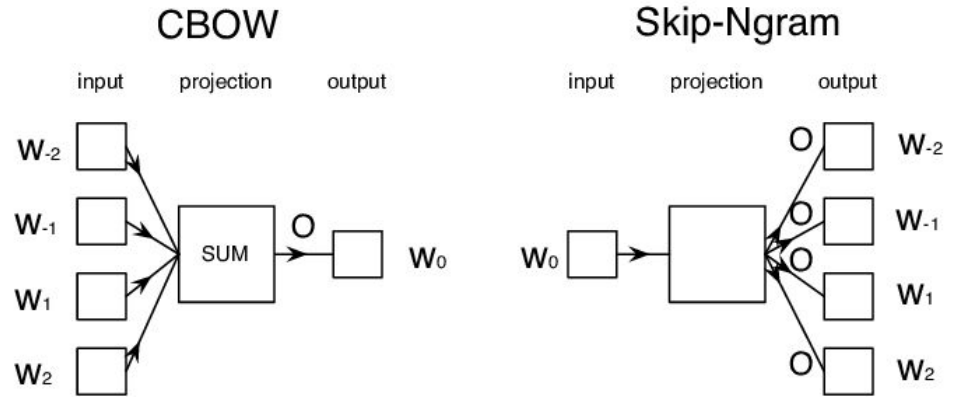
IMDB



Retrieval in Machine Learning



Real-time Recommendation
(Kang et al. 2019)



Dynamic Negative Sampling
(Chen et al. 2018)

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Doan et al. *One Loss for Quantization: Deep Hashing with Discrete Wasserstein Distributional Matching*. CVPR 2022.

Credits to my collaborators for this talk!



Chandan Reddy
Virginia Tech



Keerthi Selvaraj
Linkedin AI



Ping Li
Baidu Research



Saurav Manchanda
Instacart



Sarkhan Badirli
Eli Lilly



Jianwen Xie
Baidu Research



Shulong Tan
Baidu Research



Weijie Zhao
RIT



Peng Yang
Baidu Research

and others...

THANK YOU!

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