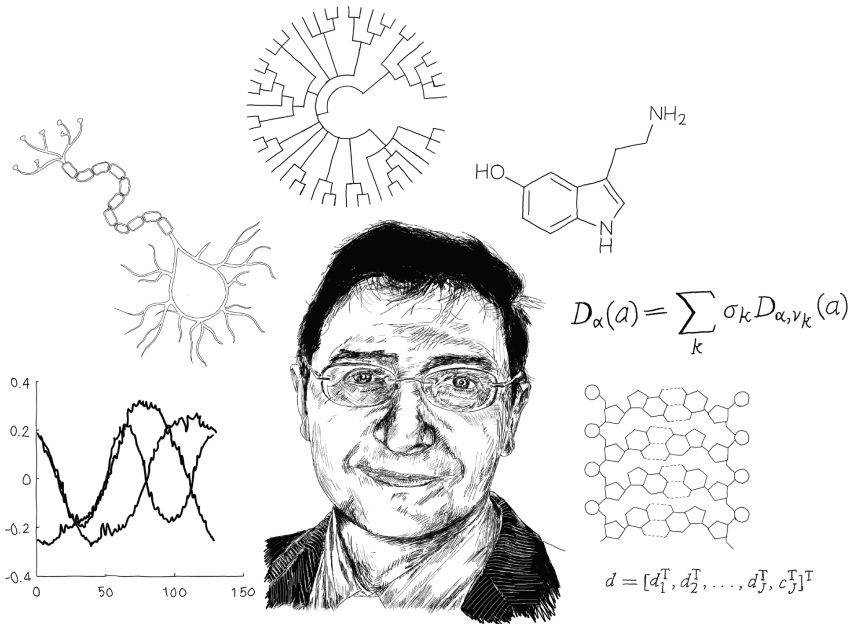


# Geometric deep learning and diffusion approach across scales



Prof. Pietro Lio'

PhD Complex Systems and Non Linear dynamics (Engineering, Firenze)  
PhD Genetics (Pavia)

*Dept of Computer Science and Technology  
Cambridge Center for AI in Medicine  
University of Cambridge  
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# Plan

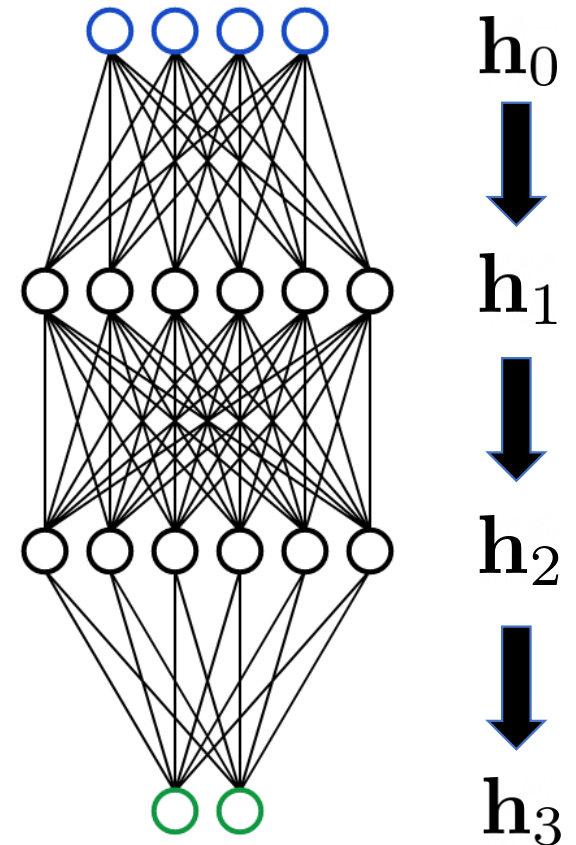
- Geometric Deep Learning
- The interesting crosstalk between diffusion models and graph representation learning.
- Methodological applications across scales (molecules, cells, tissues, full body, population)

# Neural Networks

- Constructed of layers, take vector as input, multiply by weight matrix  $W_n$ , add bias vector  $\mathbf{b}_n$ , apply non-linear element-wise activation function

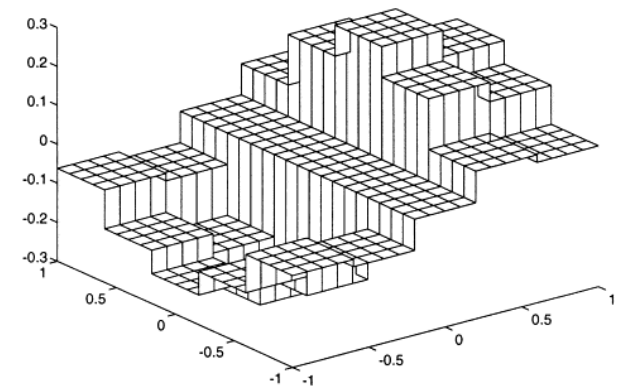
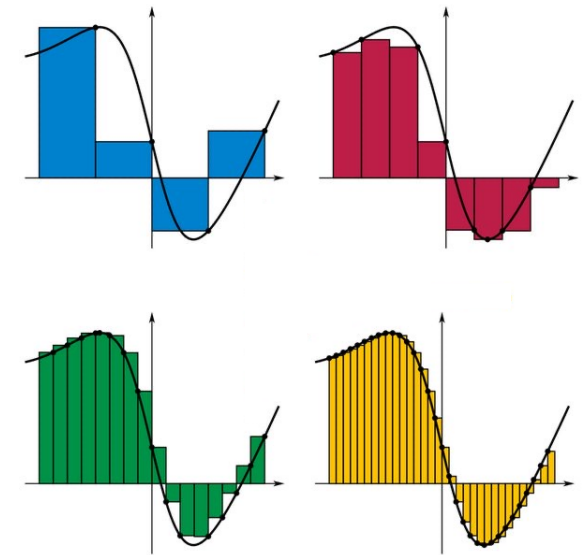
$$\mathbf{h}_{n+1} = \sigma(W_n \mathbf{h}_n + \mathbf{b}_n)$$

- Stack the layers to make a neural network



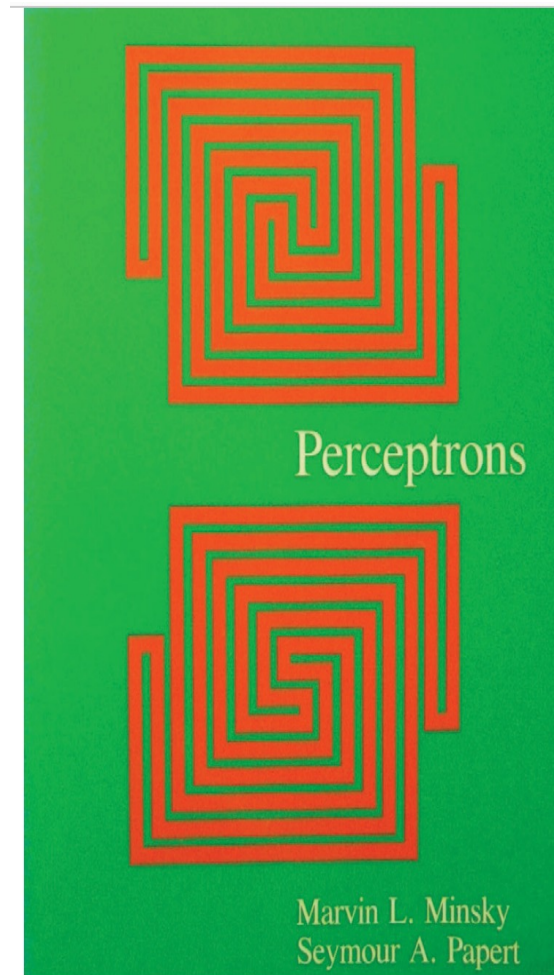
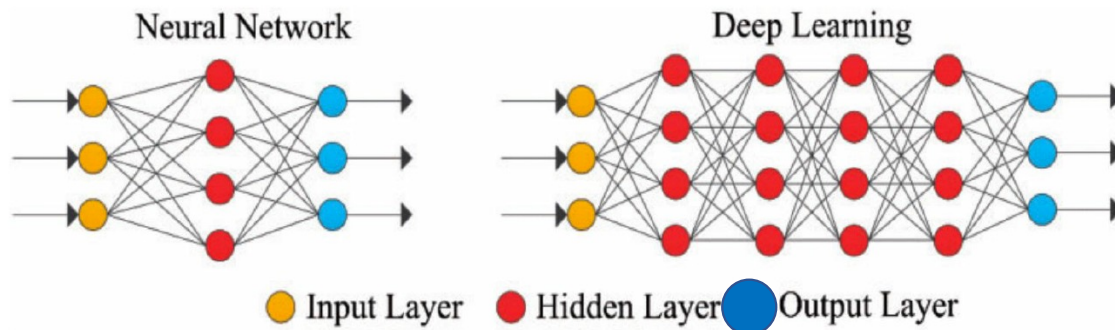
# Neural Networks - Benefits

- Universal Function Approximator – can approximate any function to an arbitrary degree
- Not just universal approximators but seem to be better at generalizing in certain situations, than other universal approximators (large amount of data)
- Train with gradient descent and backpropagation (if a model is differentiable it can be trained this way), can construct complicated architectures





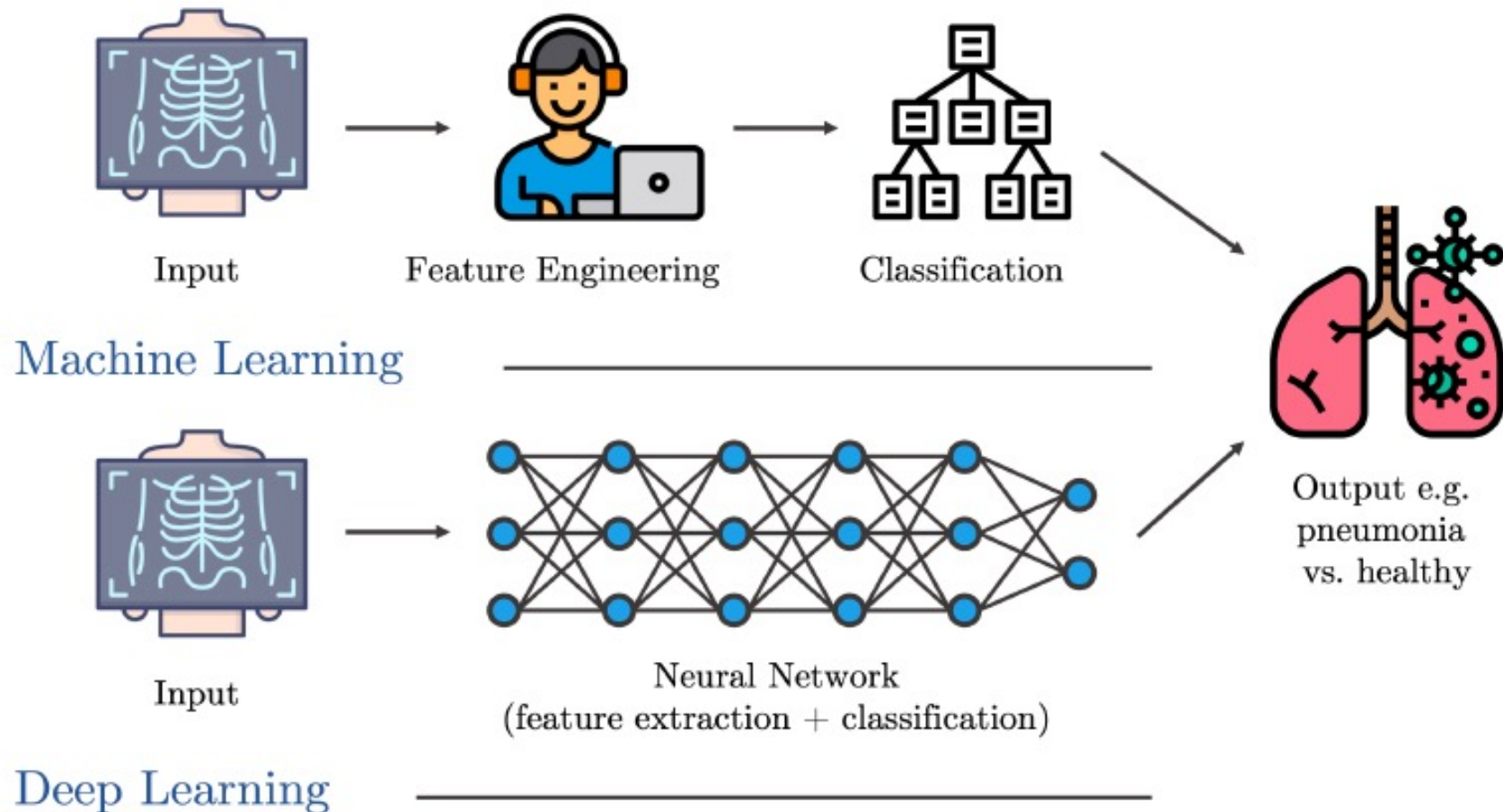
# Complexity



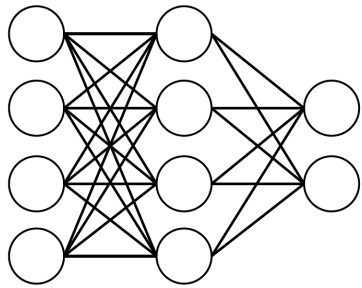
[Link to Image Source](#)

The book cover of an expanded edition of *Perceptrons*. The two red spirals look the same but they aren't. The top one is two disconnected spirals, but the bottom one is a single connected spiral, which you can verify by tracing the insides of the loops with a pencil. Minsky and Papert proved that a perceptron cannot distinguish between these two objects. Can you see the difference without tracing? Why not?

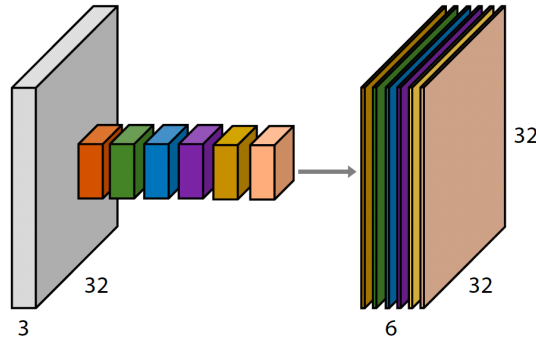
# A traditional machine learning/bioinformatics vs deep learning



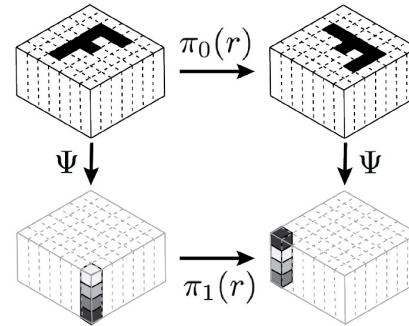
# Architectures



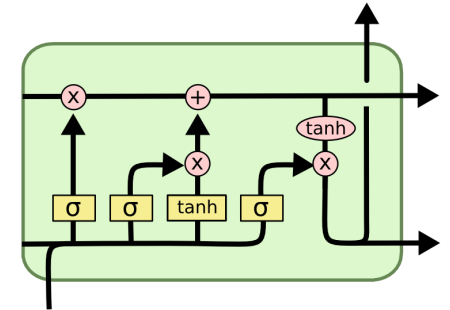
**Perceptrons**  
Function regularity



**CNNs**  
Translation



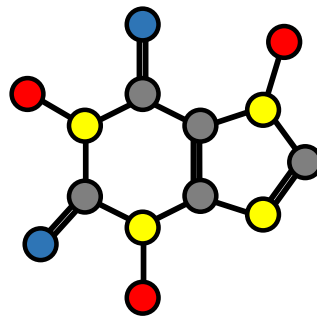
**Spherical CNNs**  
Rotation



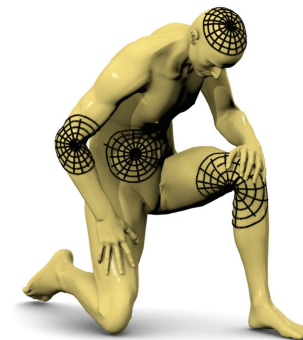
**LSTMs**  
Time warping



**Deep Sets**  
Permutation



**GNNs**  
Permutation

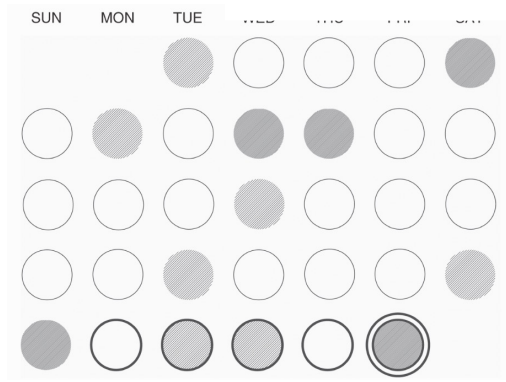
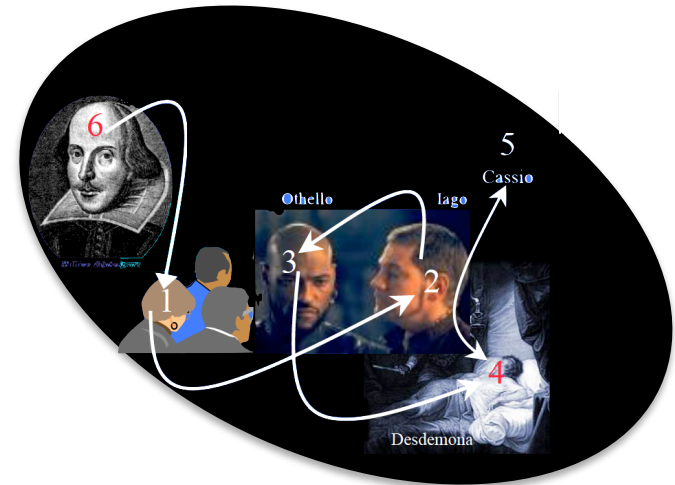
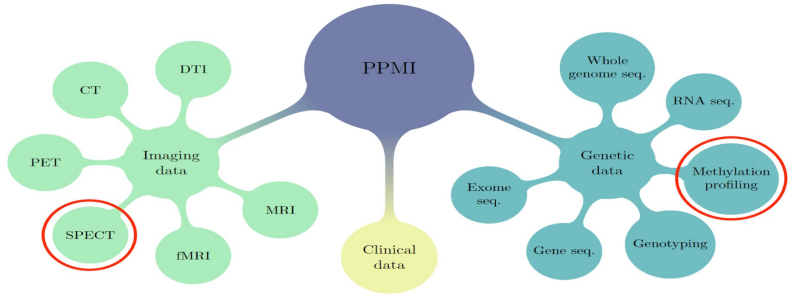


**Intrinsic CNNs**  
Isometry / Gauge choice

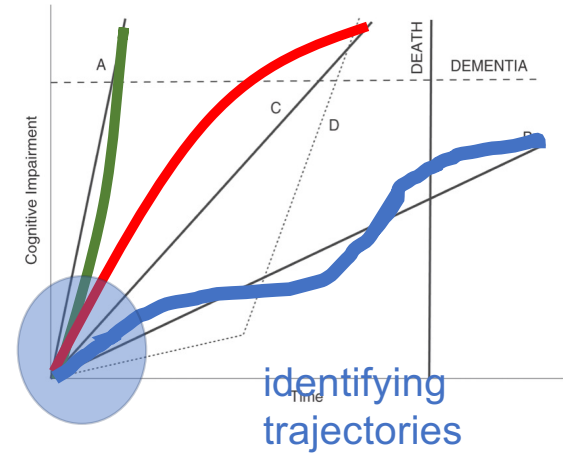
Data Phase	Astronomy	Twitter	YouTube	Genomics
Acquisition	25 zetta-bytes/year	0.5–15 billion tweets/year	500–900 million hours/year	1 zetta-bases/year
Storage	1 EB/year	1–17 PB/year	1–2 EB/year	2–40 EB/year
Analysis	In situ data reduction	Topic and sentiment mining	Limited requirements	Heterogeneous data and analysis
	Real-time processing	Metadata analysis		Variant calling, ~2 trillion central processing unit (CPU) hours
	Massive volumes			All-pairs genome alignments, ~10,000 trillion CPU hours
Distribution	Dedicated lines from antennae to server (600 TB/s)	Small units of distribution	Major component of modern user's bandwidth (10 MB/s)	Many small (10 MB/s) and fewer massive (10 TB/s) data movement

# Data

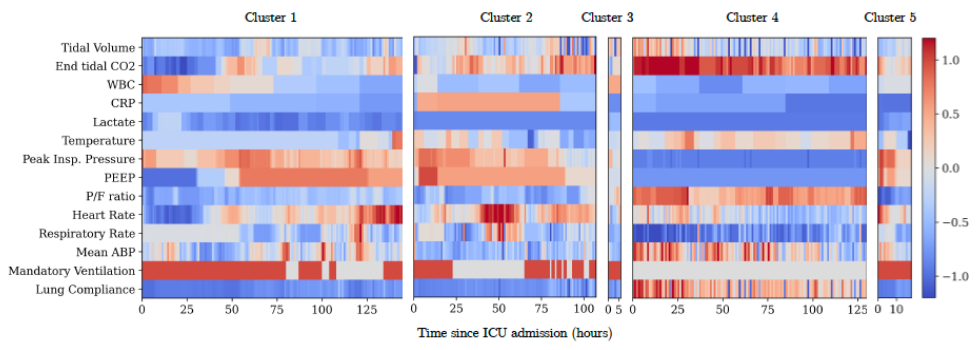
doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.1002195.t001



A series of “good days” and “bad days”



identifying trajectories

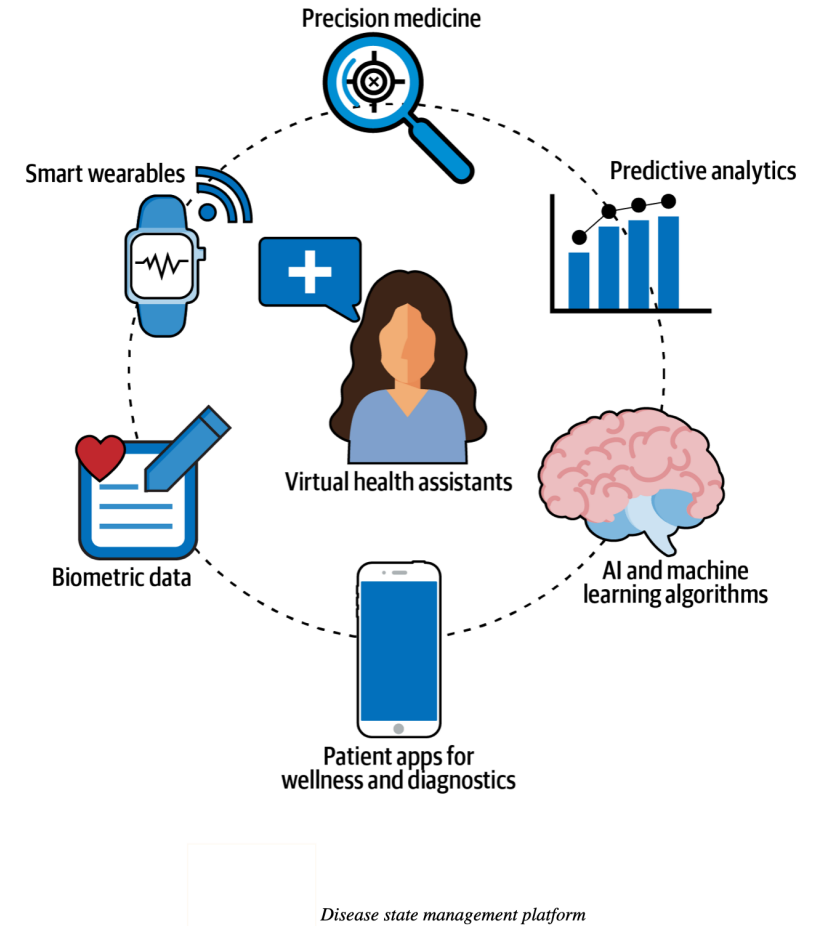
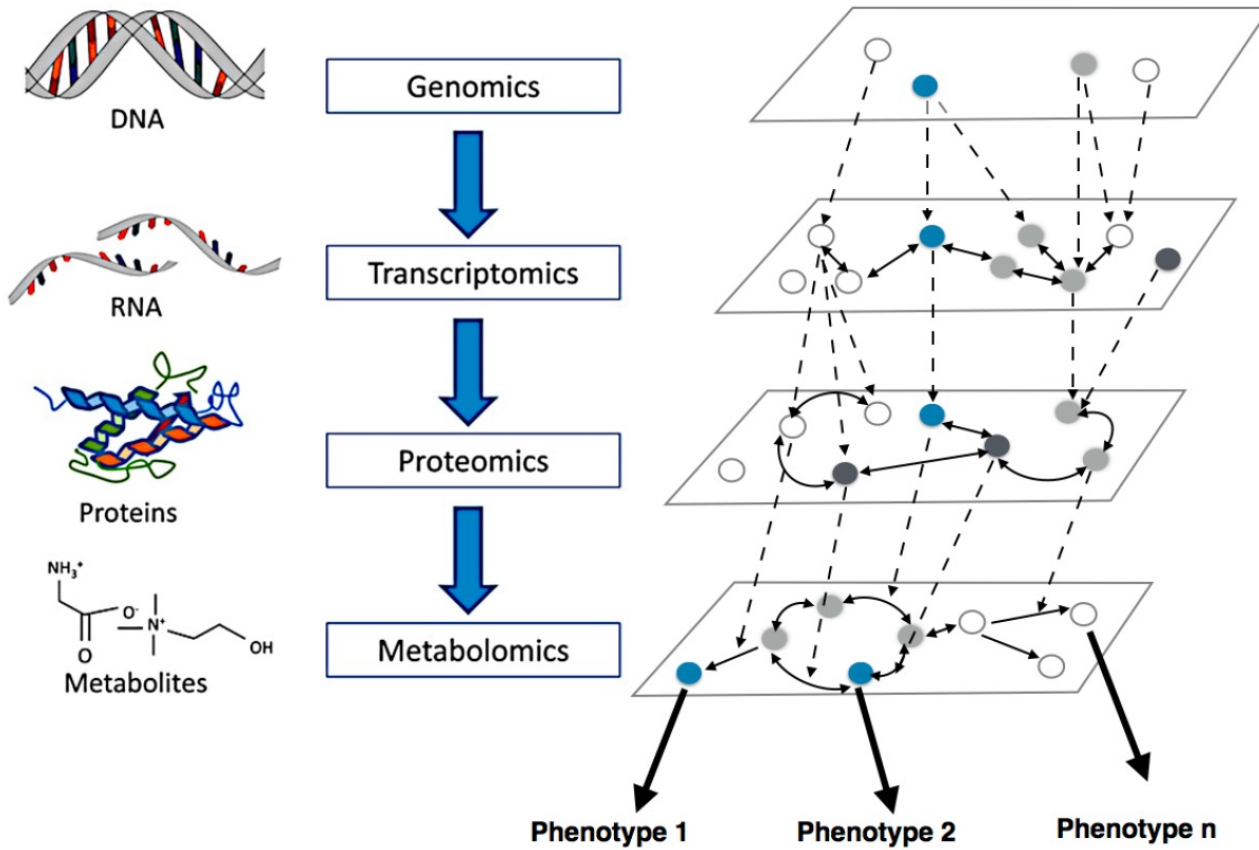


Patient stratification

# Benchside

Narrowing the distance

# Bedside





# Making expert knowledge scalable

## Dermatologist-level classification of skin cancer with deep neural networks

Andre Esteva<sup>1\*</sup>, Brett Kuperl<sup>1\*</sup>, Roberto A. Novoa<sup>2,3</sup>, Justin Ko<sup>2</sup>, Susan M. Swetter<sup>2,4</sup>, Helen M. Blau<sup>5</sup> & Sebastian Thrun<sup>6</sup>

## Comparison of Chest Radiograph Interpretations by Artificial Intelligence Algorithm vs Radiology Residents

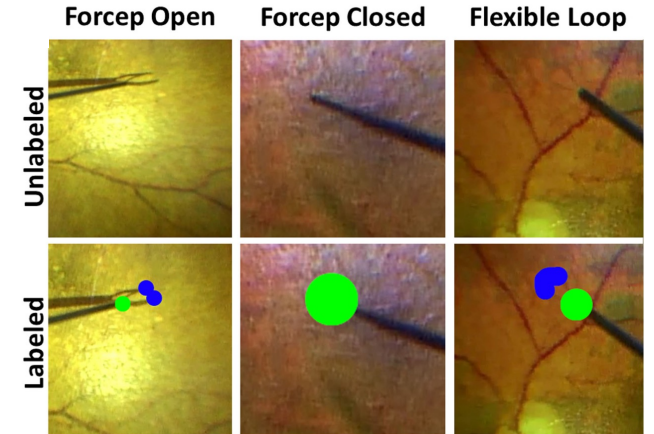
Joy T. Wu, MBChB, MPH,<sup>1</sup> Ken C. L. Wong, PhD,<sup>1</sup> Yaniv Gur, PhD,<sup>1</sup> Nadeem Ansari, MS,<sup>1</sup> Alexandros Karargyris, PhD,<sup>1</sup> Arjun Sharma, MD,<sup>1</sup> Michael Morris, MD,<sup>1</sup> Babak Saboury, MD,<sup>1</sup> Hassan Ahmad, MD,<sup>1</sup> Orest Boyko, MD, PhD,<sup>2</sup> Ali Syed, MD,<sup>1</sup> Ashutosh Jadhav, PhD,<sup>1</sup> Hongzhi Wang, PhD,<sup>1</sup> Anup Pillai, PhD,<sup>1</sup> Satyananda Kashyap, PhD,<sup>1</sup> Mehdi Moradi, PhD,<sup>1</sup> and Tanveer Syeda-Mahmood, PhD<sup>3,1</sup>

## A scalable physician-level deep learning algorithm detects universal trauma on pelvic radiographs

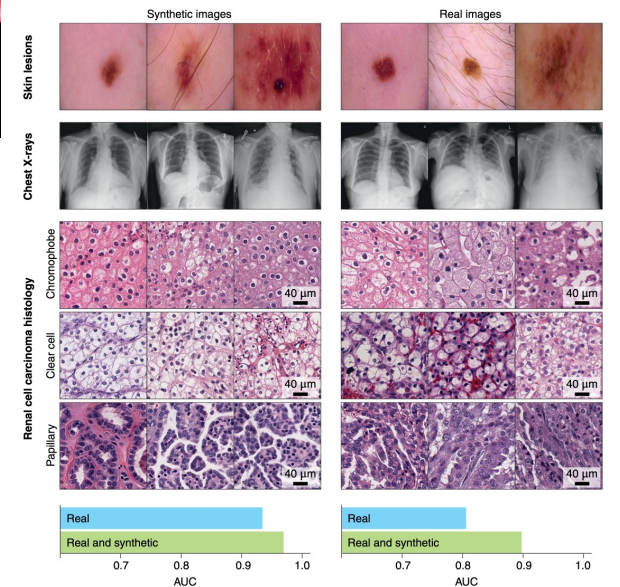
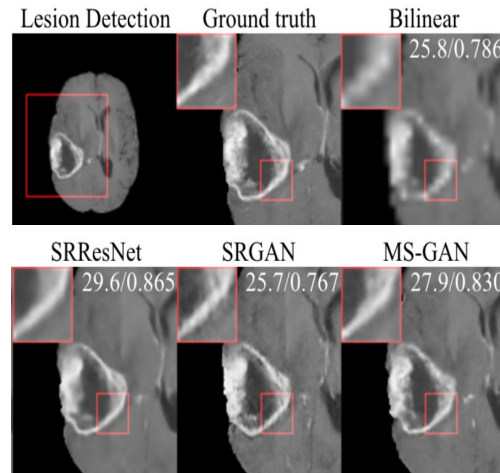
Chi-Tung Cheng<sup>1,7</sup>, Yirui Wang<sup>1,2,7</sup>, Huan-Wu Chen<sup>3</sup>, Po-Meng Hsiao<sup>4</sup>, Chun-Nan Yeh<sup>5</sup>, Chi-Hsun Hsieh<sup>1</sup>, Shun Miao<sup>2</sup>, Jing Xiao<sup>2</sup>, Chien-Hung Liao<sup>1,6,8,9</sup> & Le Lu<sup>1,2</sup>

## Machine learning will replace human radiologists, pathologists, maybe soon

As artificial intelligence, cognitive computing and machine learning systems become better than humans at medicine and cost less, it might even become unethical not to replace people.

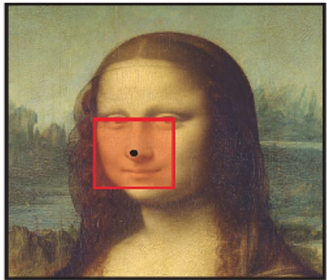


## Super resolution

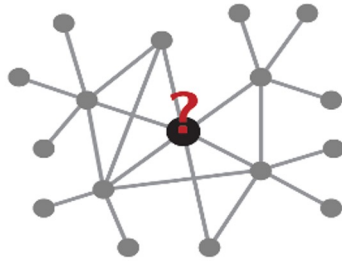


# Geometric Deep Learning

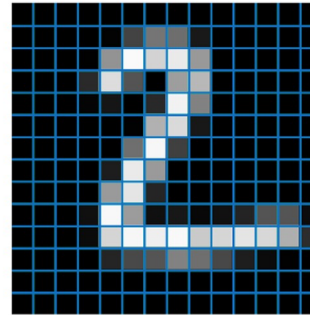
# Learning on irregular domains



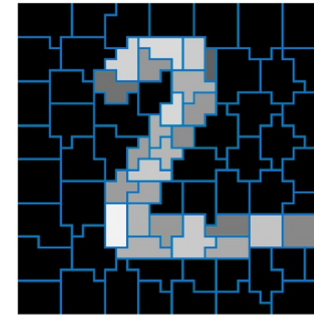
Image



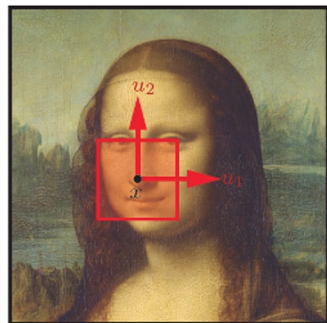
Graph



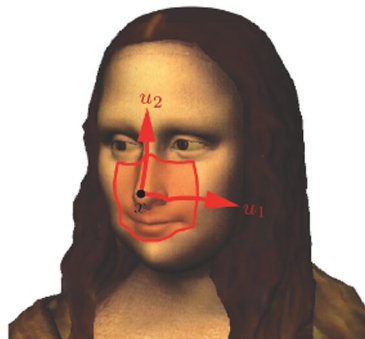
Regular grid



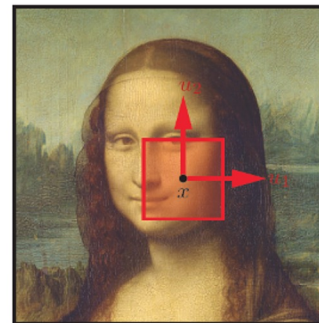
Superpixels



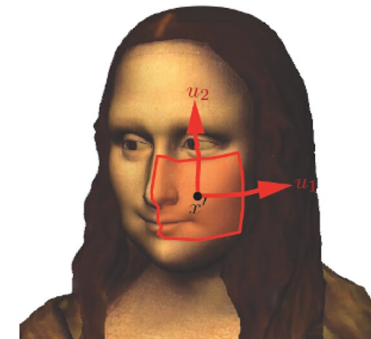
Euclidean



Non-Euclidean



Euclidean



Non-Euclidean

Credits to Michael Bronstein



# Mathematical formulation

- Graphs: collections of *objects (nodes)* + *interactions (edges)* between them

$$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$$

- Formally, a graph is a tuple of nodes ( $V$ ) and edges ( $E$ ).
  - Edges typically operate over *pairs* of nodes, i.e.  $E \subseteq V \times V$ .
  - Depending on context, nodes may be referred to as *vertices*, and edges as *links* or *relations*.

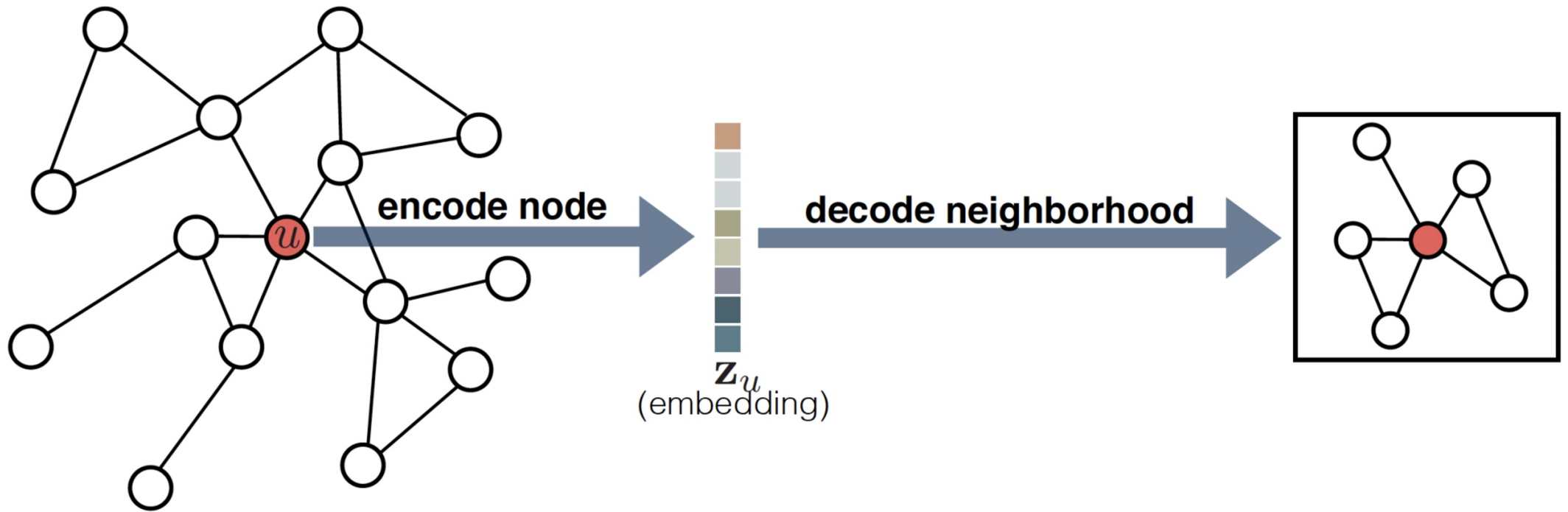
- We can represent edges

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & (i, j) \in \mathcal{E} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{|V| \times |V|}, \text{ such that:}$$

## Some interesting graph types

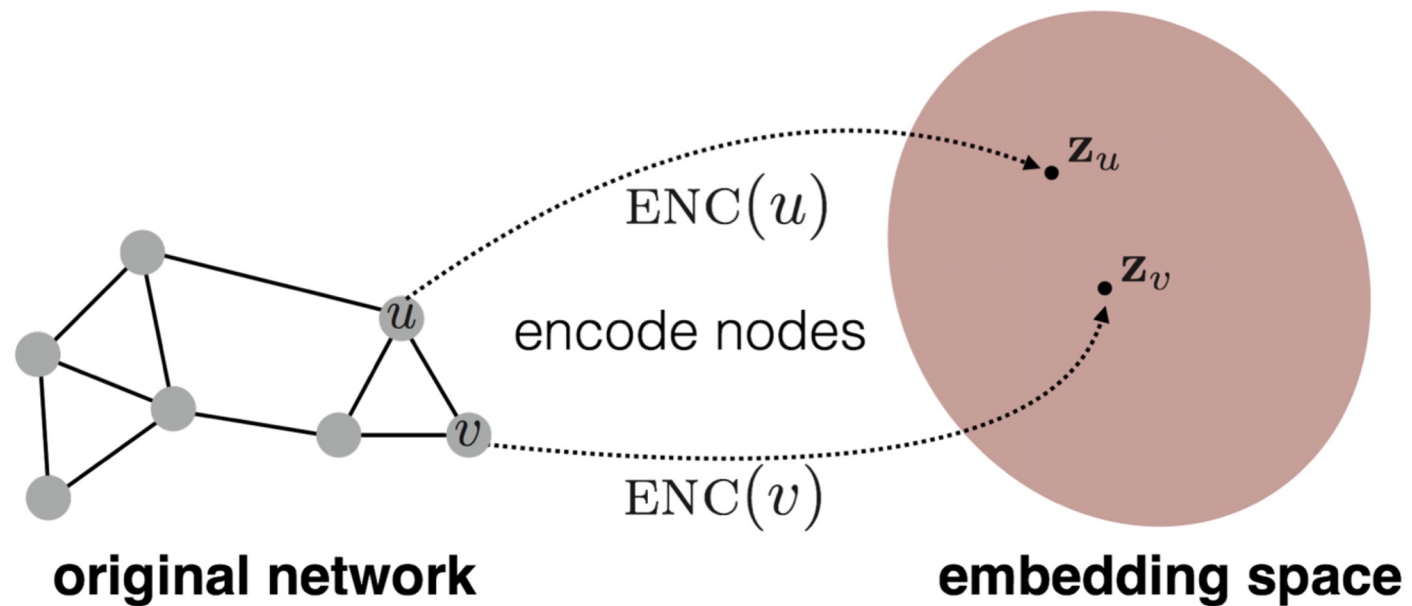
- **Undirected:**  $(u, v) \in E \Rightarrow (v, u) \in E$  (equivalently,  $A^T = A$ )
  - e.g. in a social network, *friendship* links are (usually?) *bidirectional*
- **Weighted:** provided **edge weight**,  $w_{ij}$  for every edge  $(i, j) \in E$ 
  - e.g. in a road network, weights may specify *distances* or *speeds*
- **Multirelational:** various **edge types**;  $(u, t, v) \in E$  if  $(u, v)$  linked by type  $t$ 
  - e.g. in a knowledge graph, types encode different *relations* (“is-parent”, “is-spouse”, ...)
- **Heterogeneous:** various **node types**
  - e.g. in a biomedical interaction graph, nodes may be *drugs*, *proteins* or *diseases*

# Encoder-decoder Setup



# Node Embeddings

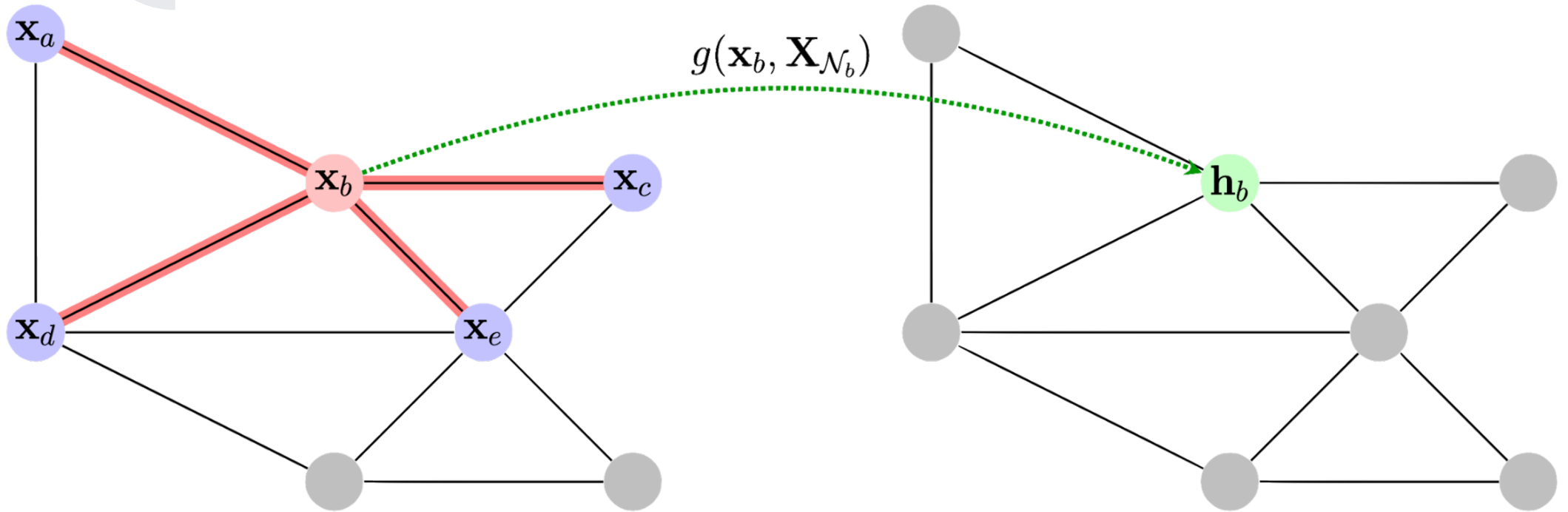
Discover good ways to **embed** nodes into vectors  $\mathbf{z}_u$  using an *encoder* function



Deep learning on graphs *before* GNNs! (use the graph structure **implicitly**)

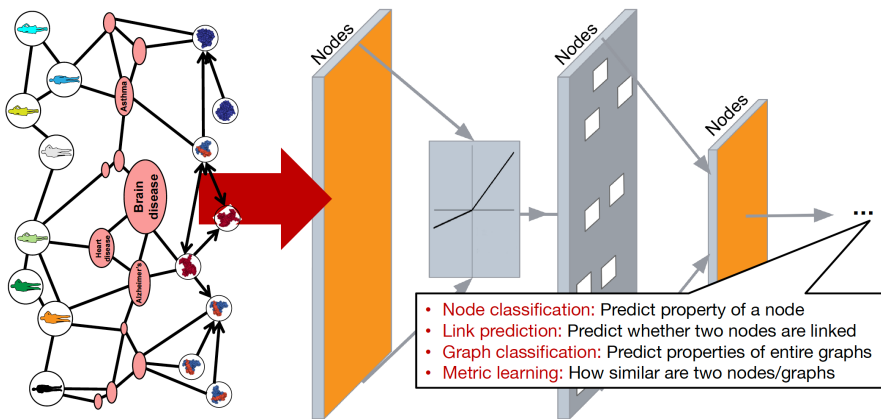
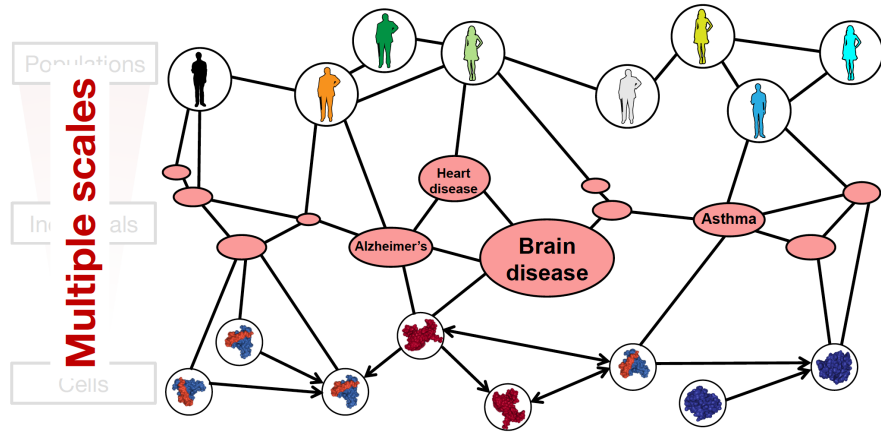
Credits to Will Hamilton

# A recipe for **graph** neural networks, visualised

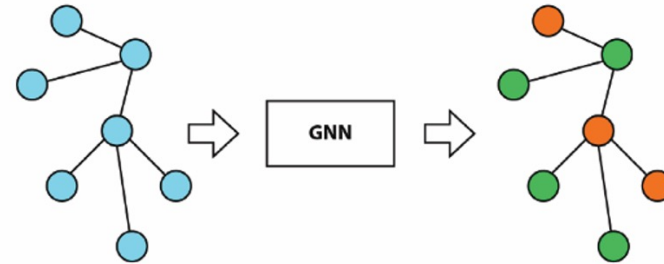


$$\mathbf{X}_{\mathcal{N}_b} = \{\{\mathbf{x}_a, \mathbf{x}_b, \mathbf{x}_c, \mathbf{x}_d, \mathbf{x}_e\}\}$$

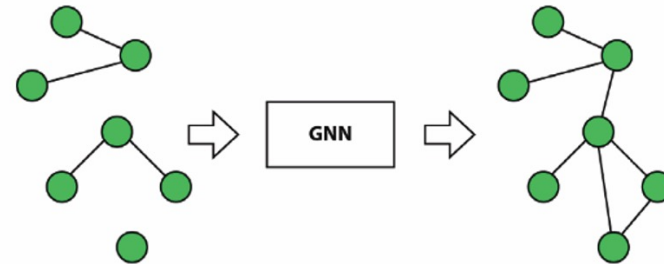
# Graph Neural Networks



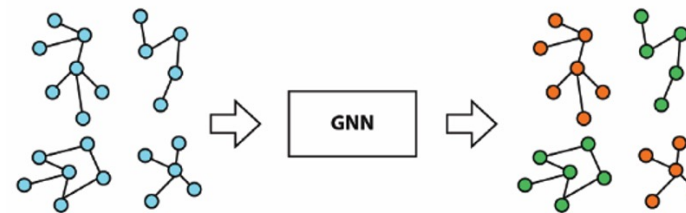
a. Node classification



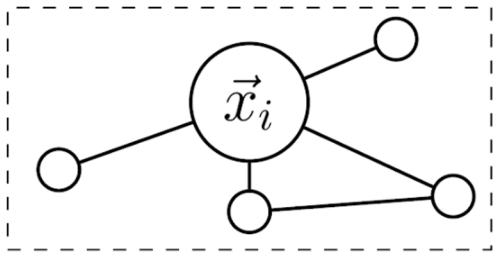
b. Link prediction



c. Graph classification



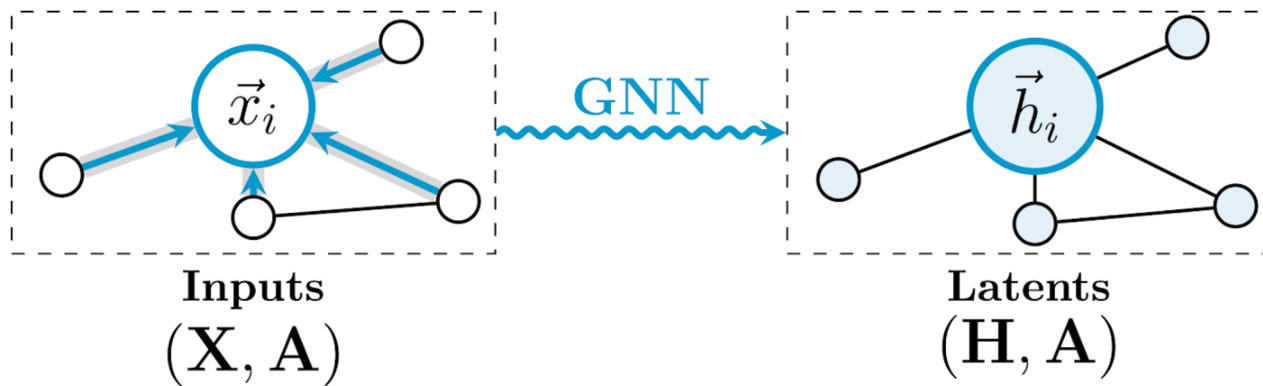
# How to use GNNs?



**Inputs**  
**( $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}$ )**

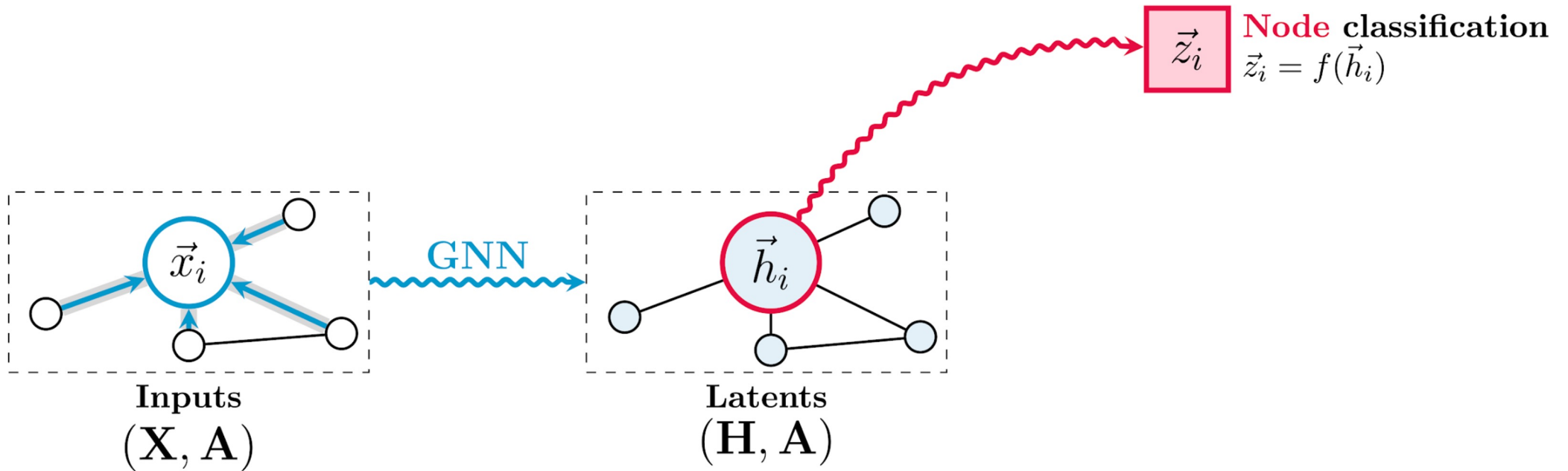
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# How to use GNNs?

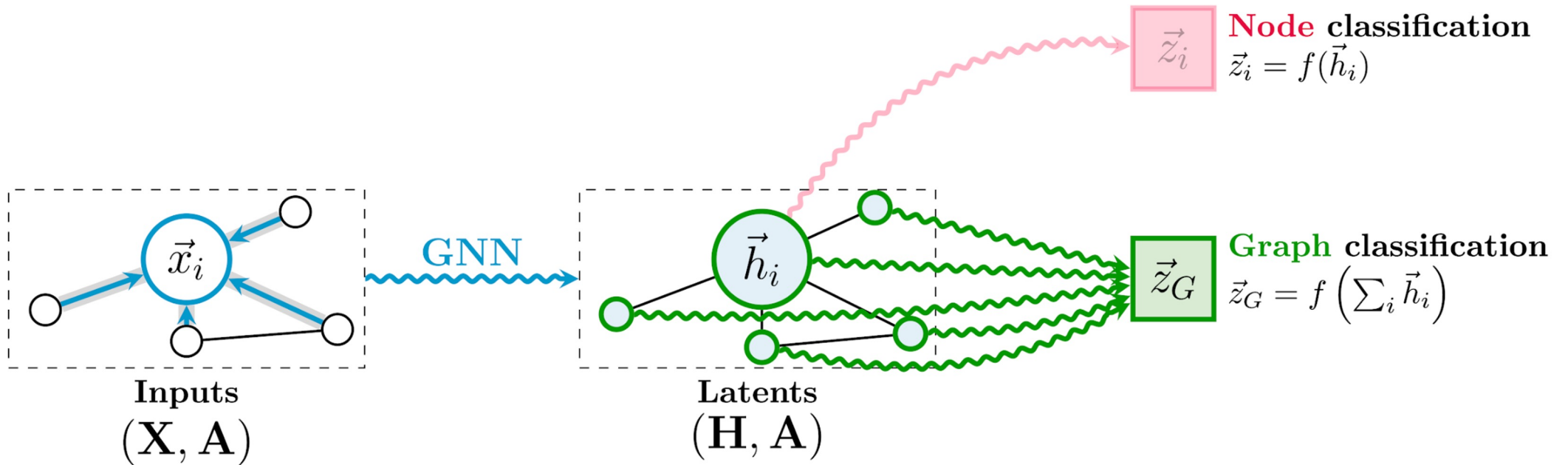




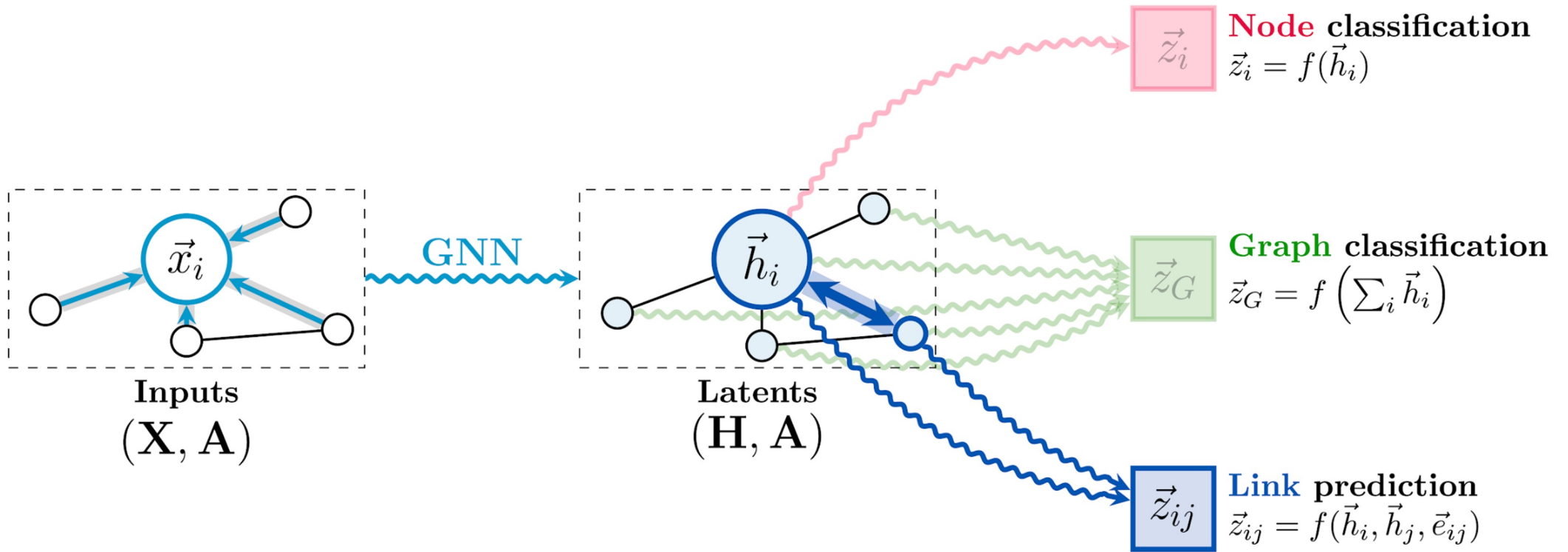
# How to use GNNs?



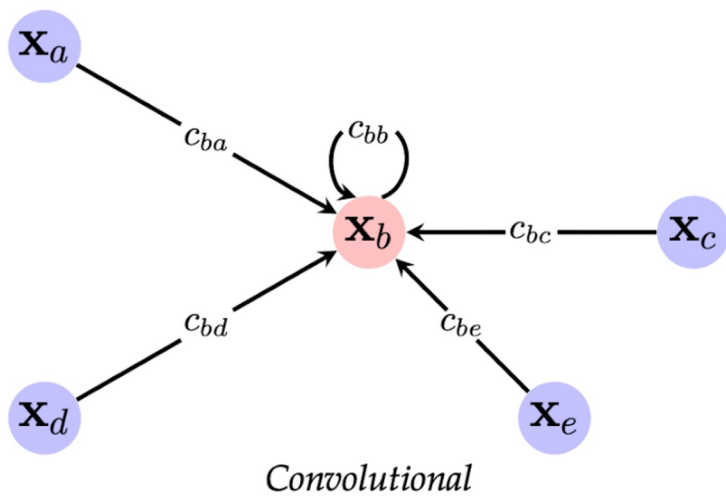
# How to use GNNs?



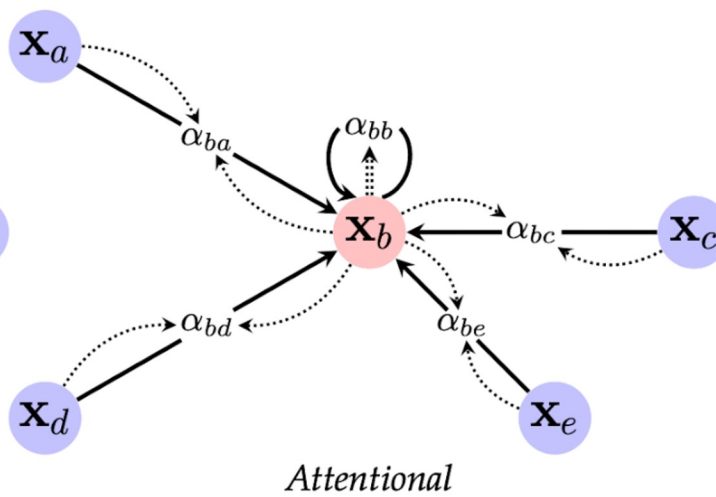
# How to use GNNs?



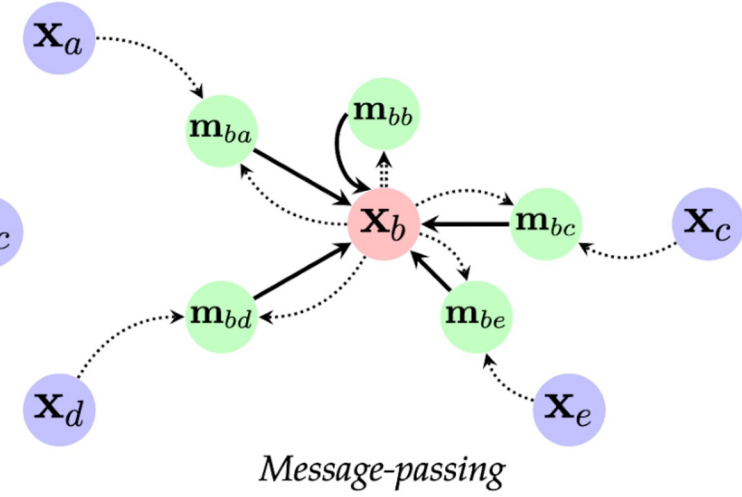
# The three “flavours” of GNN layers



$$\mathbf{h}_i = \phi \left( \mathbf{x}_i, \bigoplus_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} c_{ij} \psi(\mathbf{x}_j) \right)$$



$$\mathbf{h}_i = \phi \left( \mathbf{x}_i, \bigoplus_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} a(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \psi(\mathbf{x}_j) \right)$$

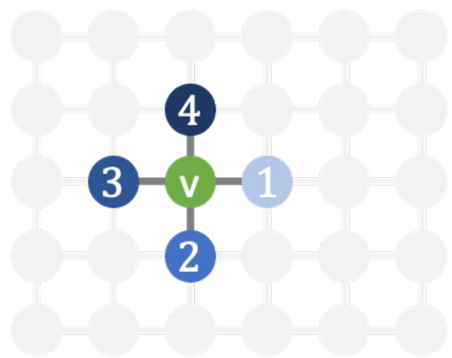


$$\mathbf{h}_i = \phi \left( \mathbf{x}_i, \bigoplus_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} \psi(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \right)$$

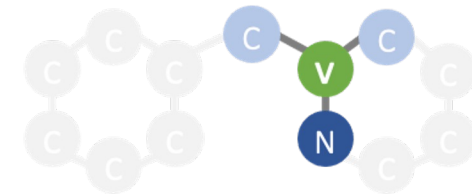
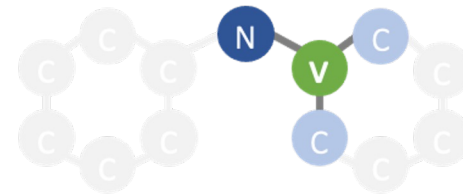
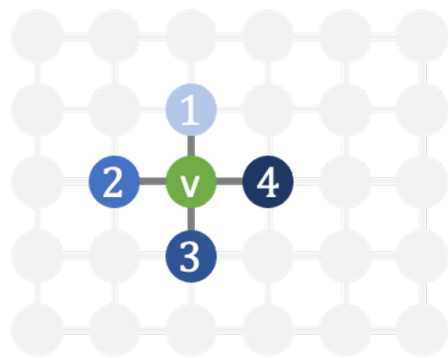
Credits to **Petar velickovic**

# Directional GNN

Nodes in GNNs do not know where Neighbours Are coming from: the aggregation is symmetric

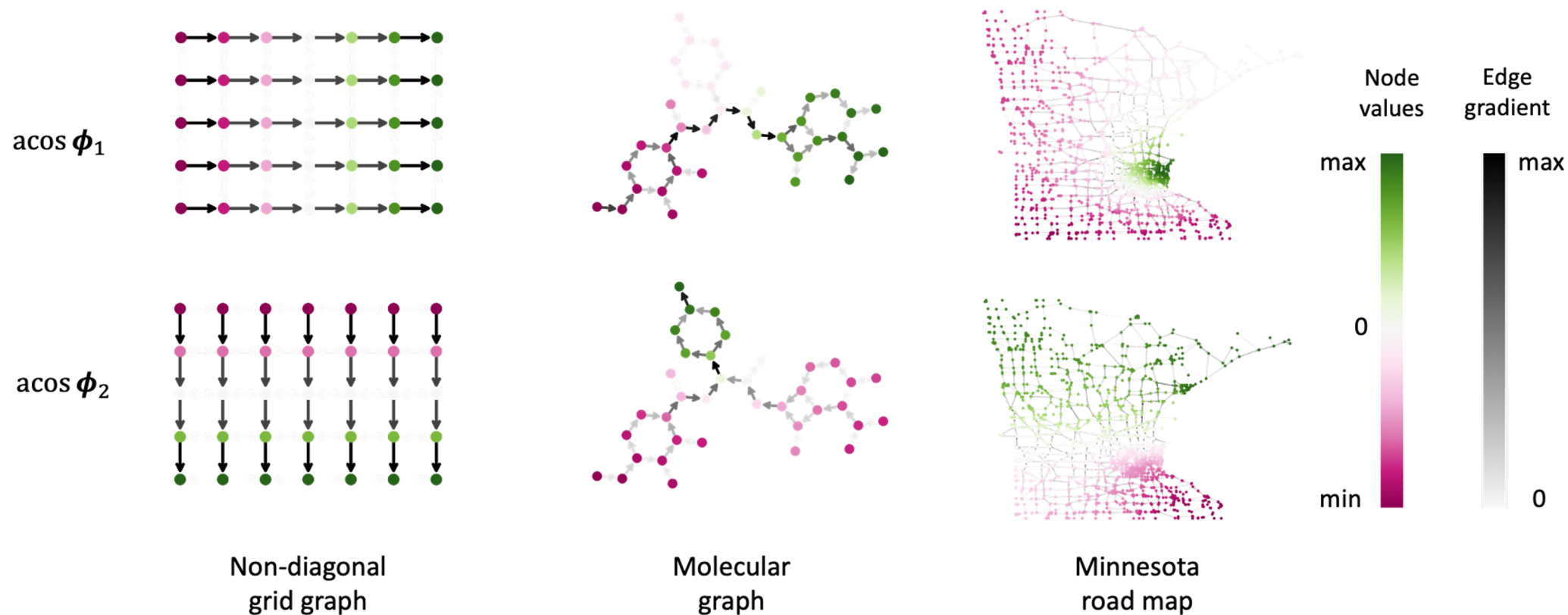


**Grid graph**



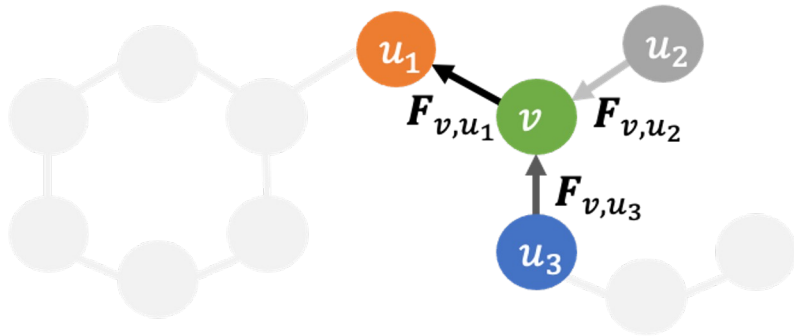
**Molecular graph**

# Directional GNN: Eigenvectors Can Give Structural Information



Credits to Beaini, Passaro, Corso, Hamilton, Lio'

# Directional Aggregators



- $v$  Features of the node receiving the message
- $u_{1,2,3}$  Features of the neighbouring nodes
- $F_{v,u}$  Directional vector field between the node  $v$  and  $u$

*Directional smoothing aggregation*  $B_{av}(\mathbf{F})x$

$$\frac{|F_{v,u_1}|u_1 + |F_{v,u_2}|u_2 + |F_{v,u_3}|u_3}{|F_{v,u_1}| + |F_{v,u_2}| + |F_{v,u_3}|}$$

Absolute weighted sum  
Sum of the absolute weights

*Directional derivative aggregation*  $B_{dx}(\mathbf{F})x$

$$\frac{F_{v,u_1}(u_1 - v) + F_{v,u_2}(v - u_2) + F_{v,u_3}(v - u_3)}{|F_{v,u_1}| + |F_{v,u_2}| + |F_{v,u_3}|}$$

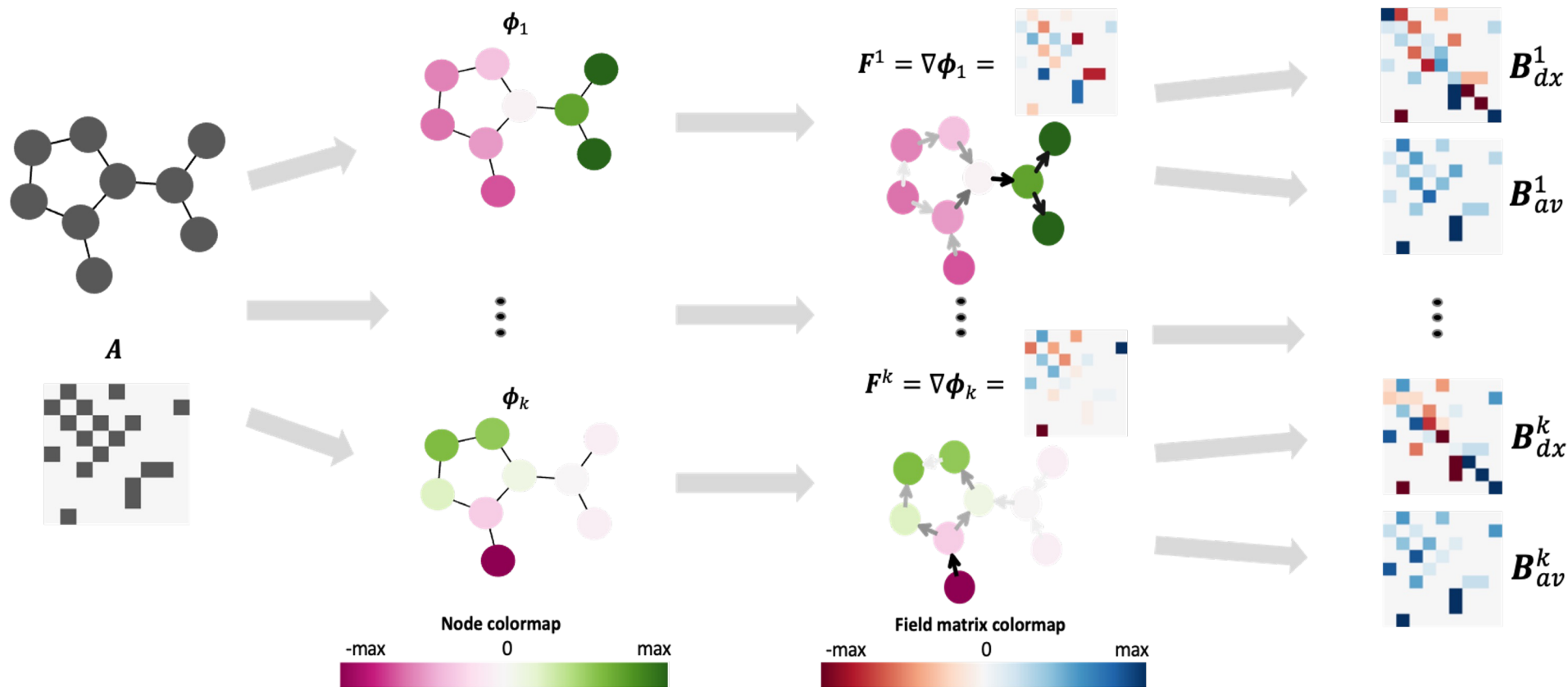
Weighted forward derivative with  $u_1$  + Weighted backward derivative with  $u_2$  + Weighted backward derivative with  $u_3$   
Sum of the absolute weights

# Directional GNN

Input graph

Compute first  $k$  non-trivial eigenvectors

Compute the gradient



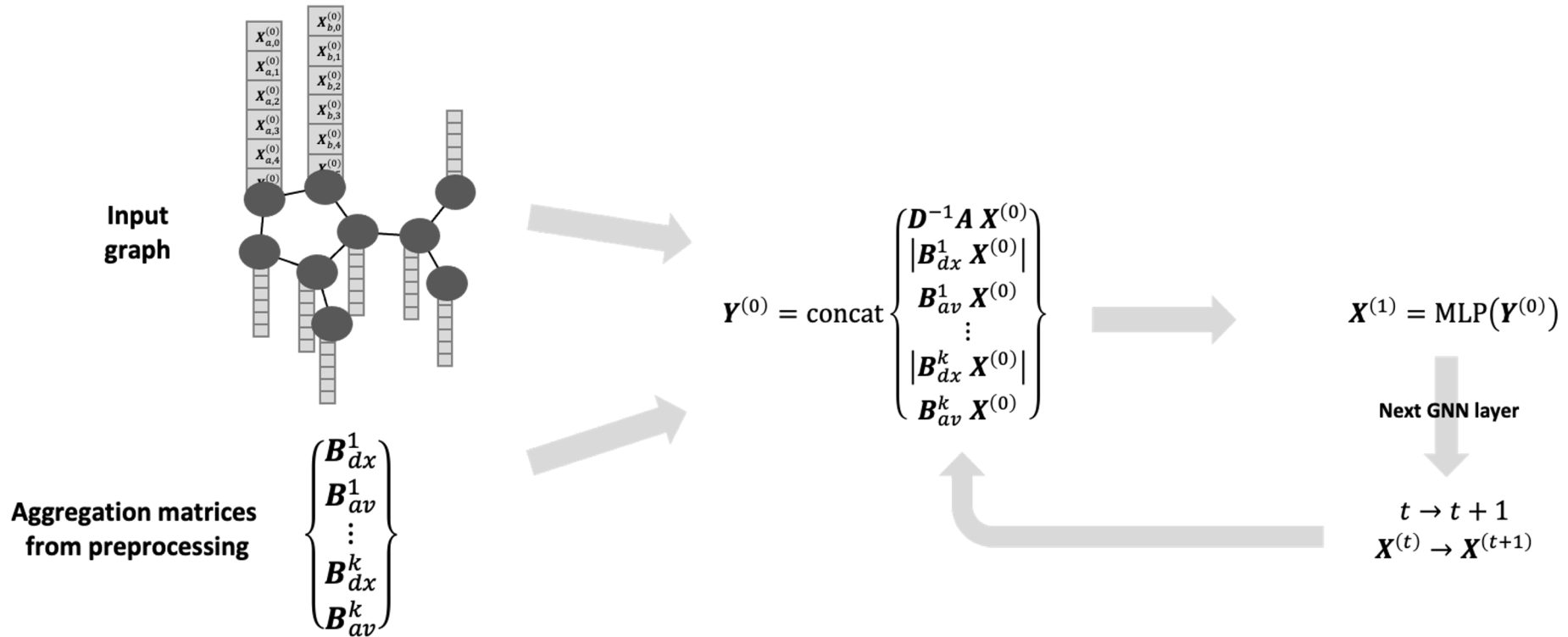


# Directional Graph Neural Networks

Input graph

Aggregation function

Update function



# Directional Graph Neural

- Directional graph neural networks can alleviate over-smoothing and over-squashing.
- In particular, the Laplacian eigenfunctions reveal directions that can counteract over-smoothing and over-squashing by allowing efficient propagation of information between distant nodes instead of following a diffusion process.

Model	ZINC		PATTERN		CIFAR10		MolHIV	MolPCBA
	No edge features	Edge features	No edge features	No edge features	Edge features	No edge features	All models	
	MAE	MAE	% acc	% acc	% acc	% ROC-AUC	% AP	
GCN	0.469±0.002		65.880±0.074	54.46±0.10		76.06±0.97 *	20.20±0.24 *	
GIN	0.408±0.008		85.590±0.011	53.28±3.70		75.58±1.40 *	22.66±0.28 *	
GraphSage	0.410±0.005		50.516±0.001	66.08±0.24				
GAT	0.463±0.002		75.824±1.823	65.48±0.33				
MoNet	0.407±0.007		85.482±0.037	53.42±0.43				
GatedGCN	0.422±0.006	0.363±0.009	84.480±0.122	69.19±0.28	69.37±0.48			
PNA	0.320±0.032	0.188±0.004	86.567±0.075	70.46±0.44	70.47±0.72	79.05±1.32 *	28.38±0.35 *	
DGN	<b>0.219±0.010</b>	<b>0.168±0.003</b>	<b>86.680±0.034</b>	<b>72.70±0.54</b>	<b>72.84±0.42</b>	<b>79.70±0.97</b>	<b>28.85±0.30 *</b>	

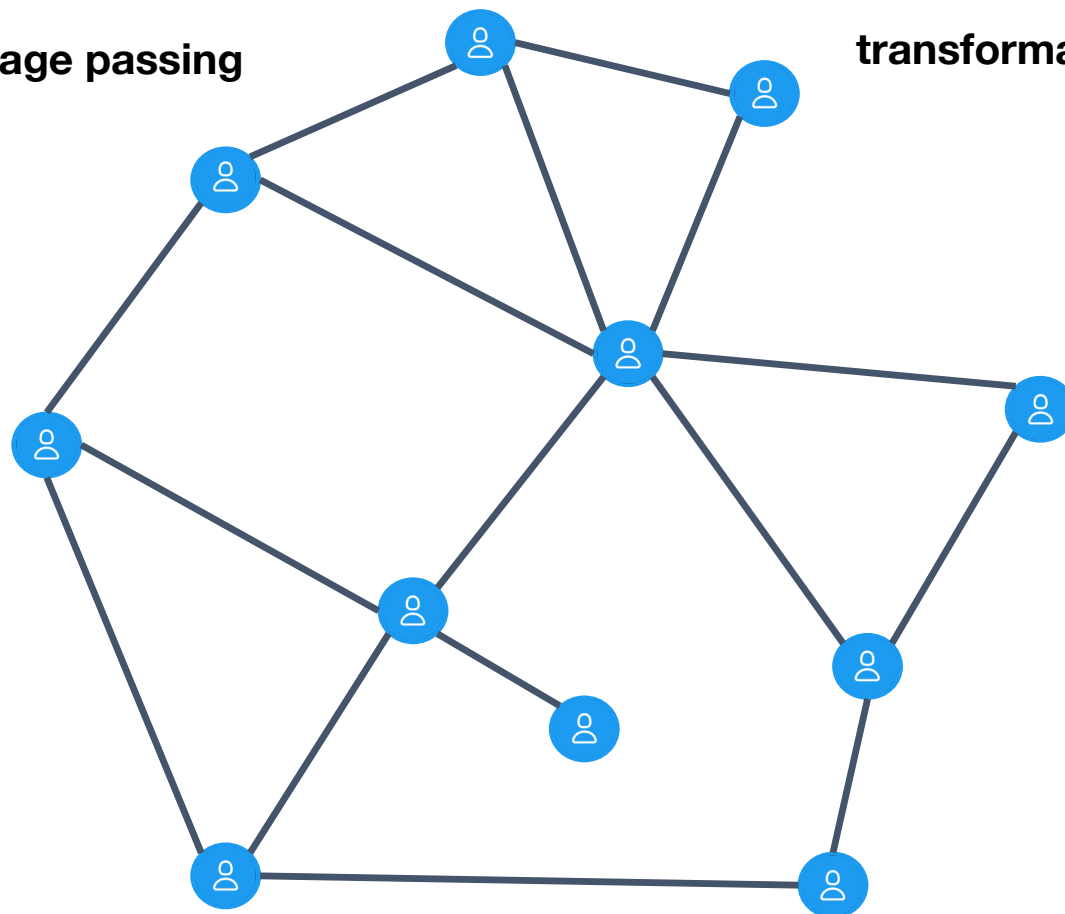
# *Message passing neural network as diffusion of information on a graph*

input

Message passing

transformation

output



Credits to Francesco di Giovanni

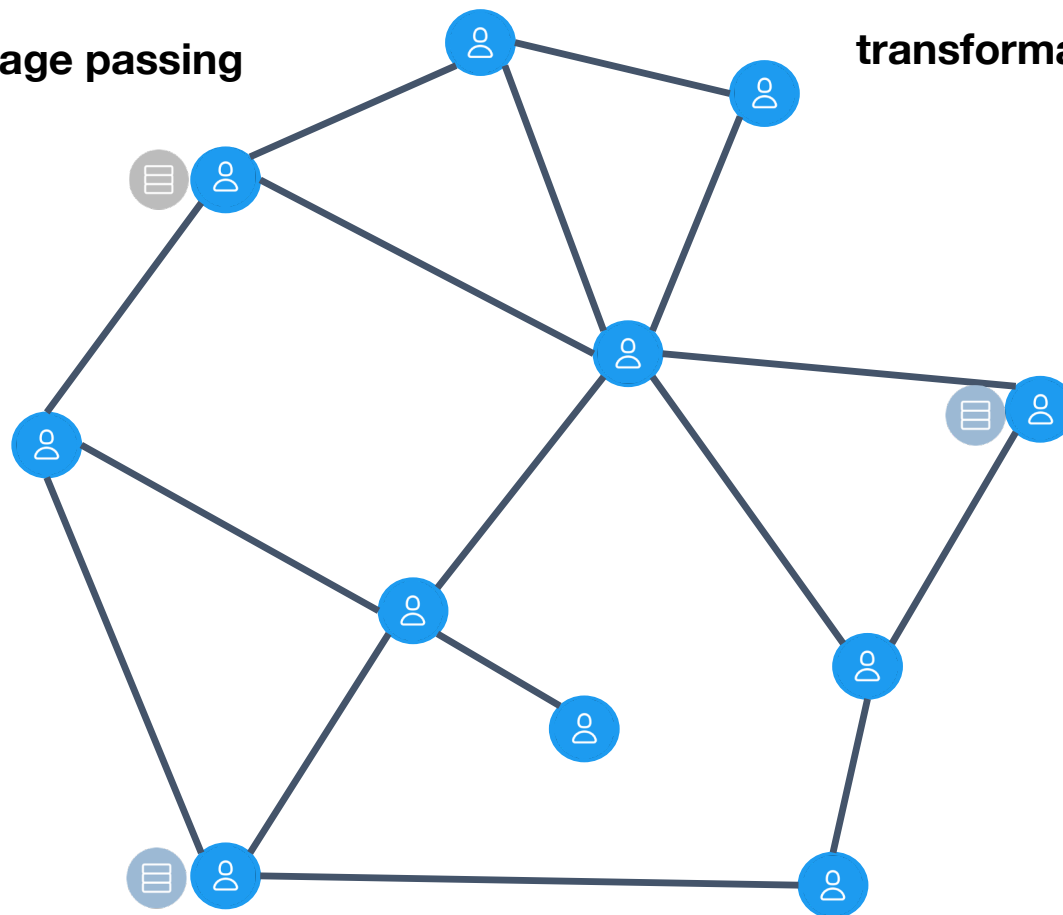
# *Message passing neural network as diffusion of information on a graph*

**input**

**Message passing**

**transformation**

**output**



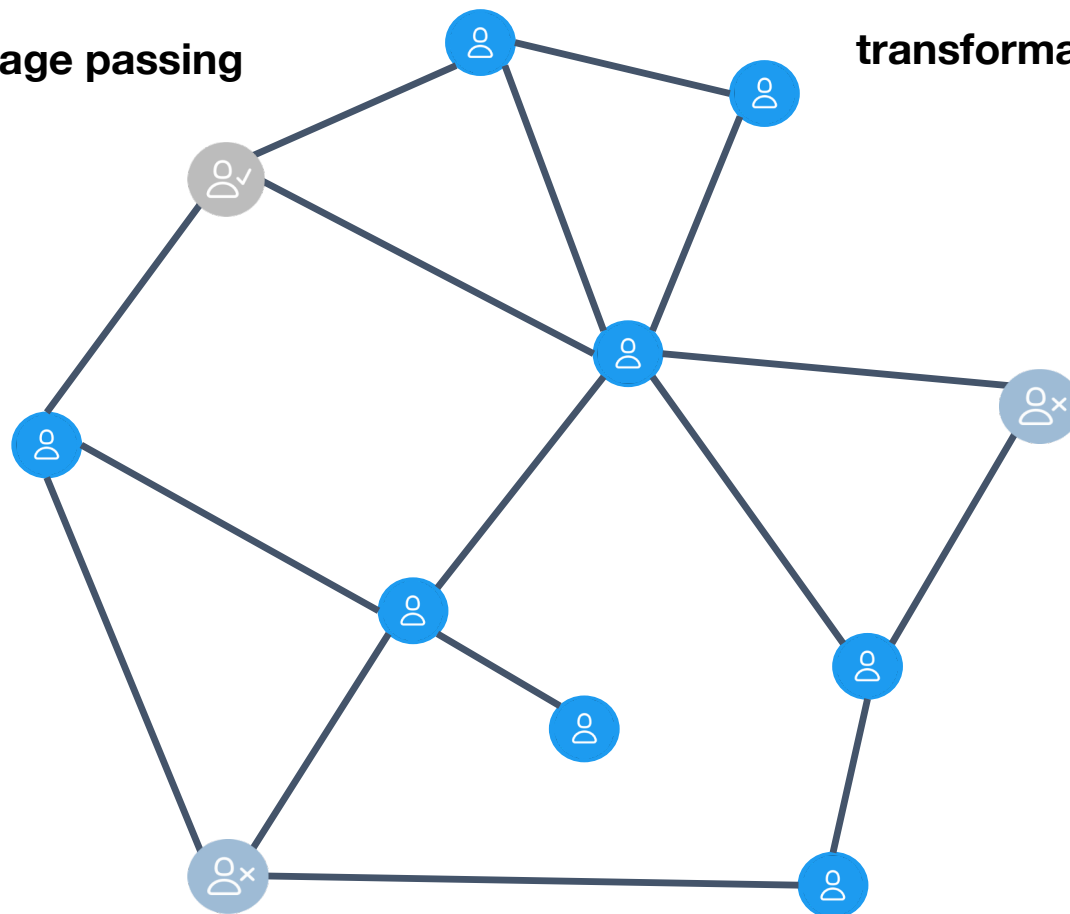
# *Message passing neural network as diffusion of information on a graph*

**input**

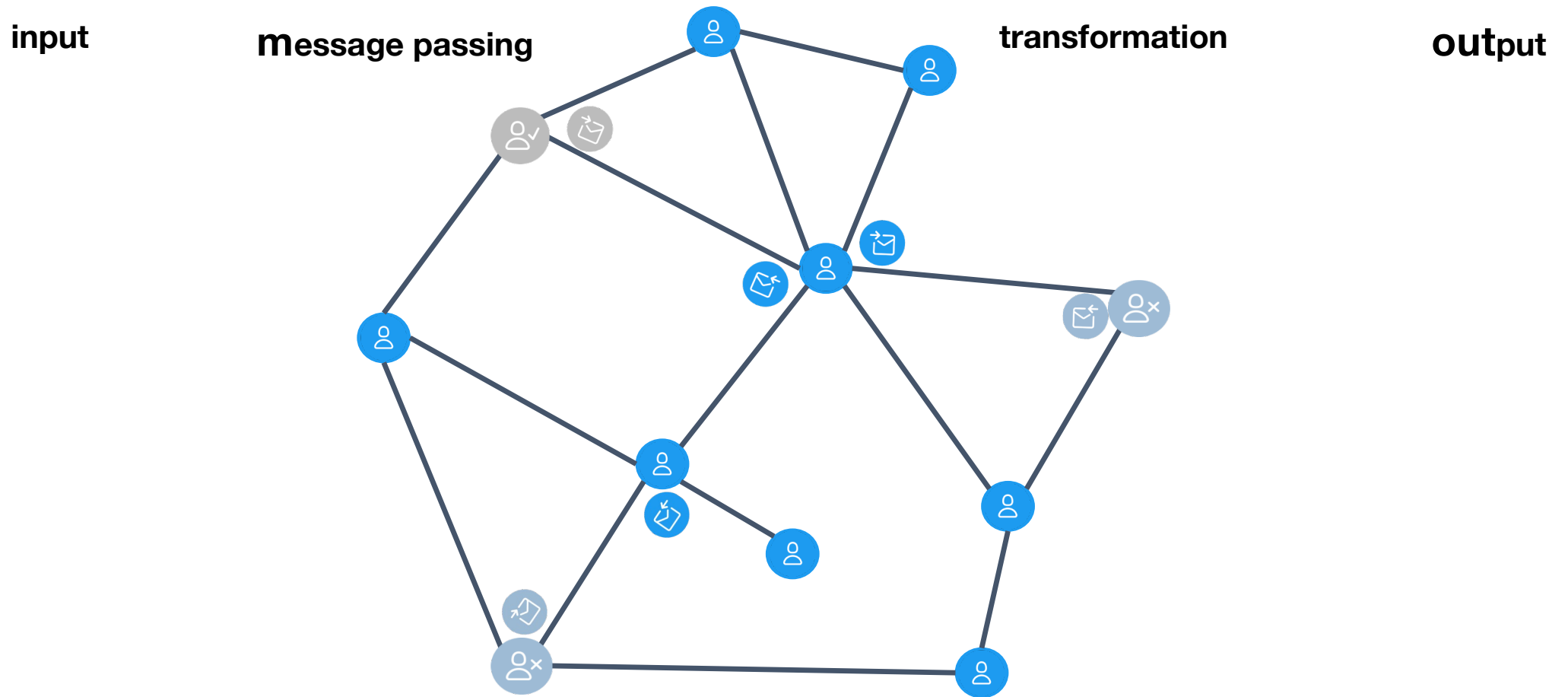
**Message passing**

**transformation**

**output**



*Message passing neural network as diffusion of information on a graph*



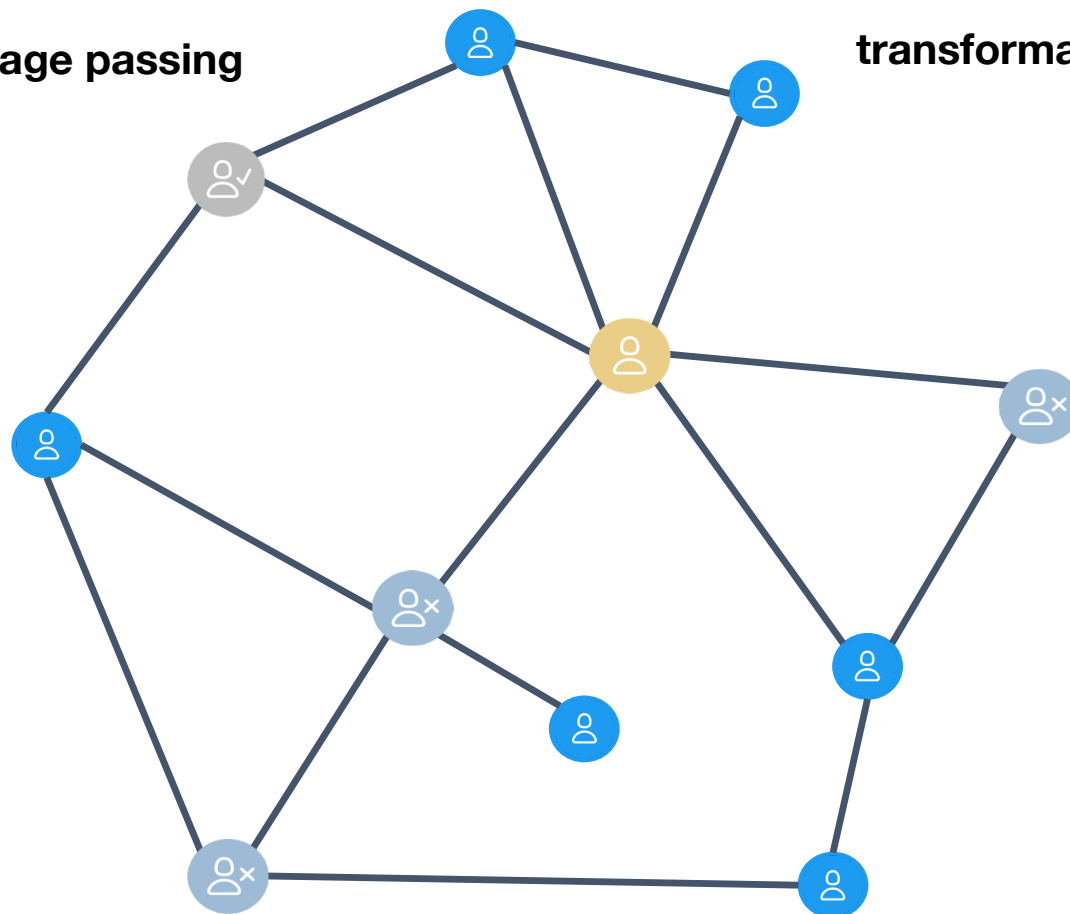
# *Message passing neural network as diffusion of information on a graph*

input

Message passing

transformation

output



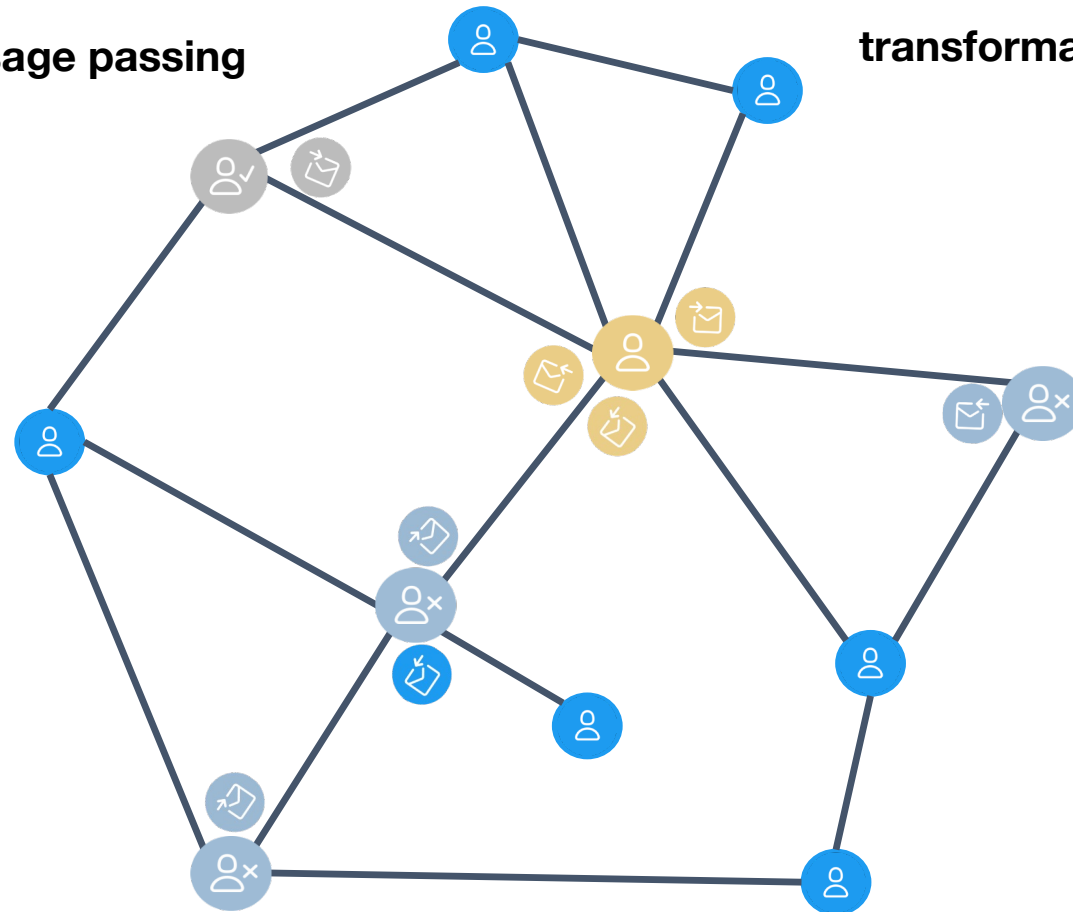
# *Message passing neural network as diffusion of information on a graph*

input

Message passing

transformation

output





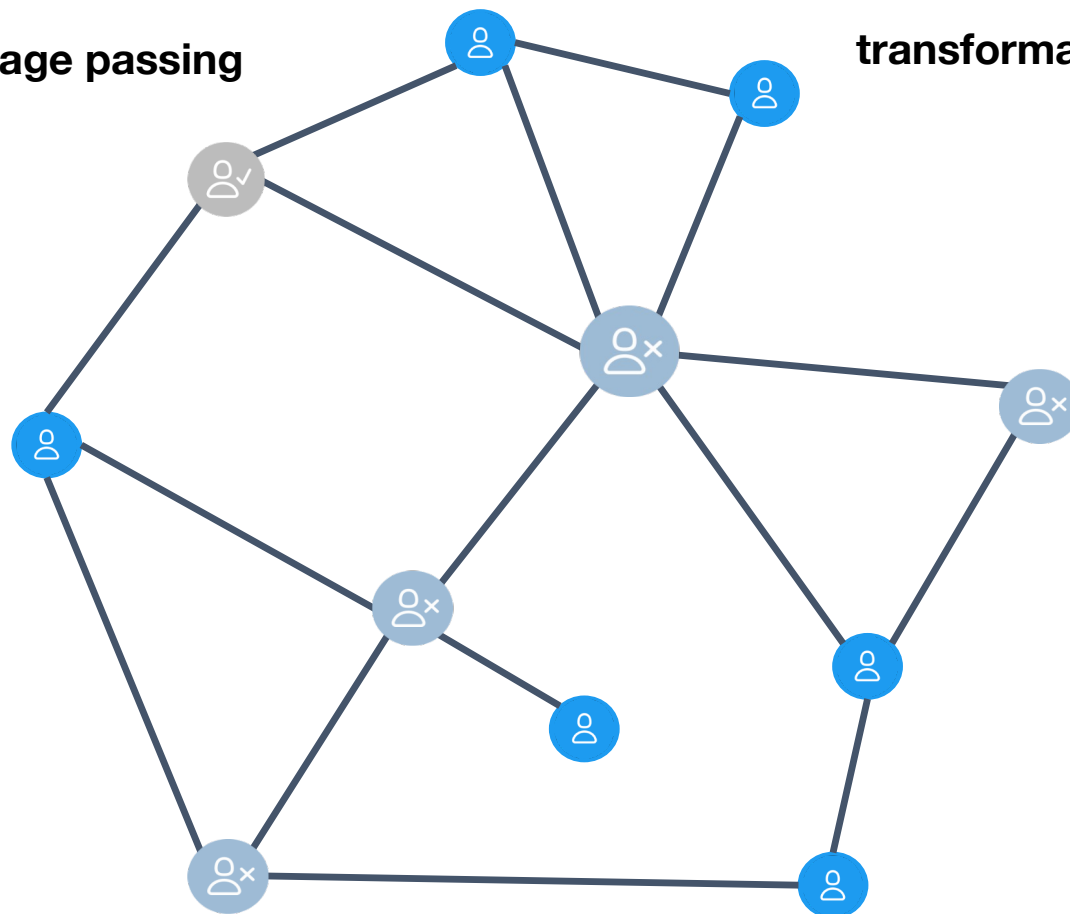
# *Message passing neural network as diffusion of information on a graph*

**input**

**Message passing**

**transformation**

**output**



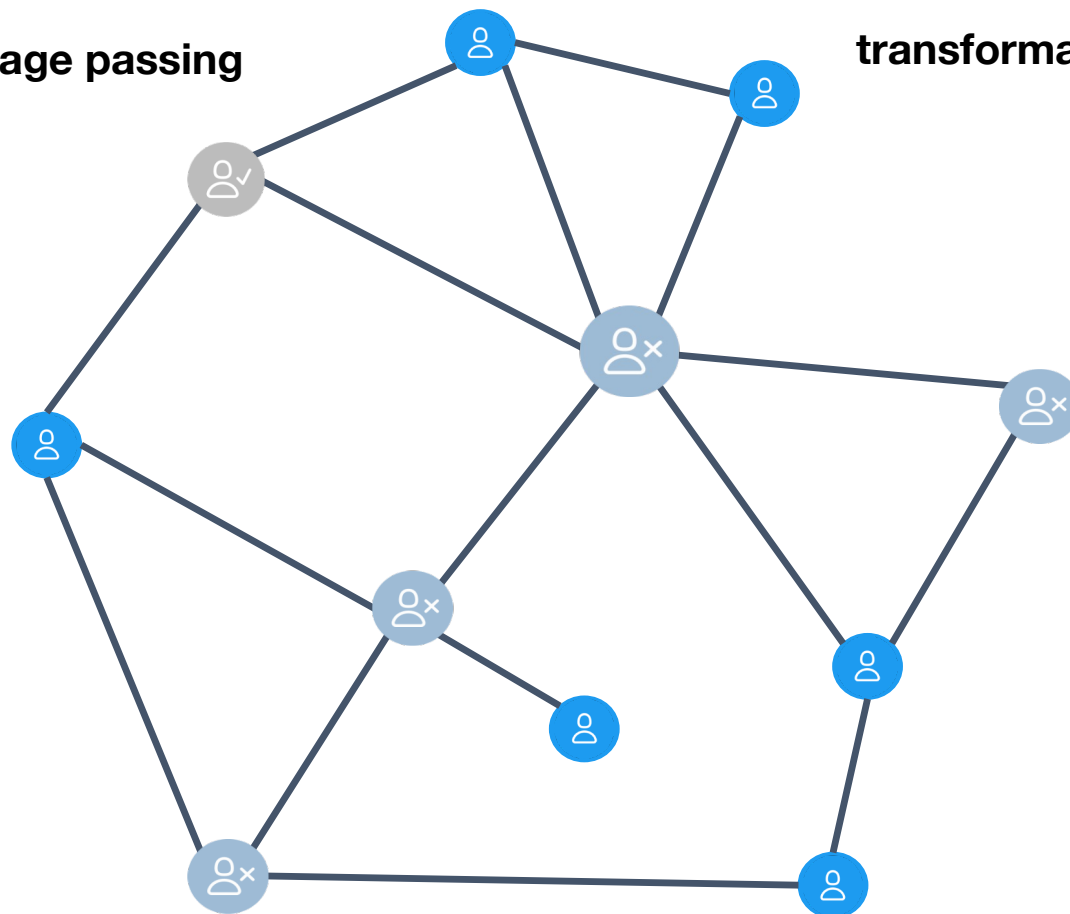
# *Message passing neural network as diffusion of information on a graph*

input

Message passing

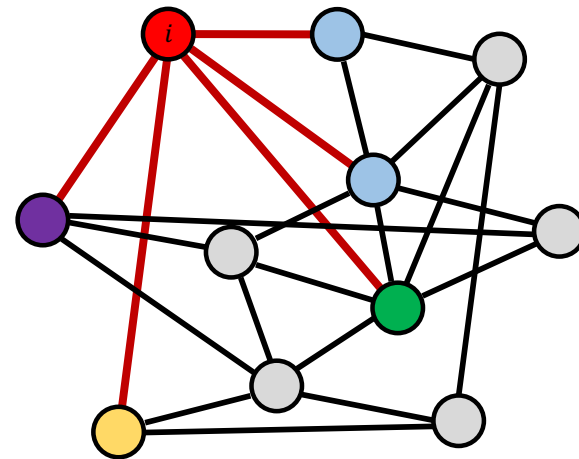
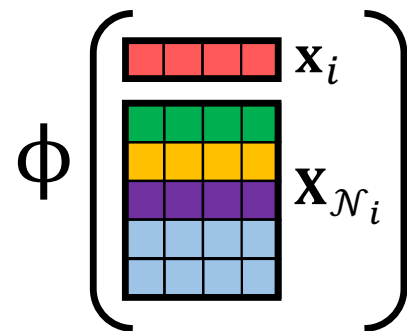
transformation

output



# Graph Neural Networks: Message Passing “flavour”

local function



learnable message function

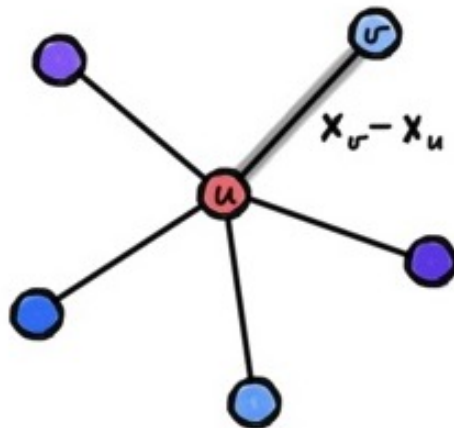
$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \phi \left( \mathbf{x}_i, \boxed{\prod_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} \psi(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)} \right)$$

## Spatial discretisation

$$\frac{\partial x(u,t)}{\partial t} = \text{div}[\nabla x(u,t)] \quad (1)$$

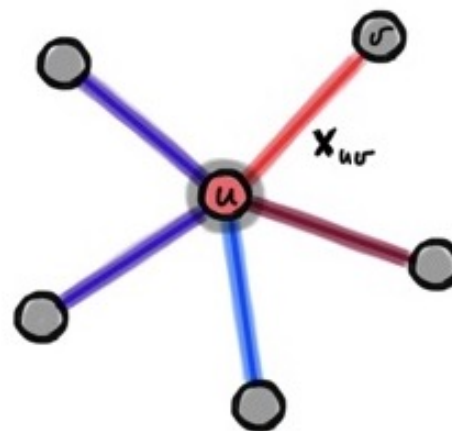
gradient - flow along edges

$$(\nabla X)_{uv} = x_u - x_v$$



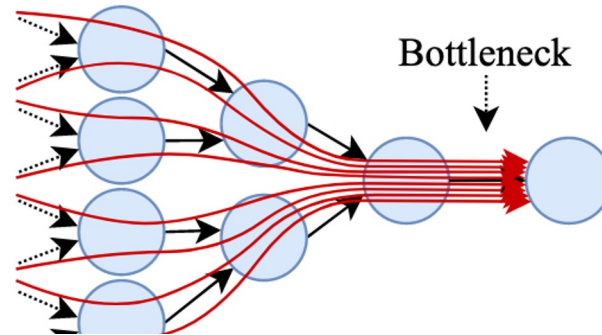
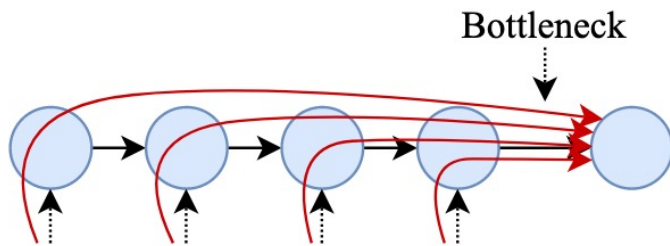
divergence - aggregation of edges

$$(\text{div}(X))_u = \sum_v w_{uv} x_{uv}$$



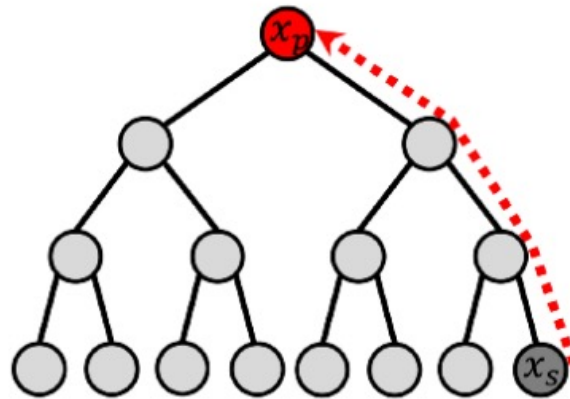
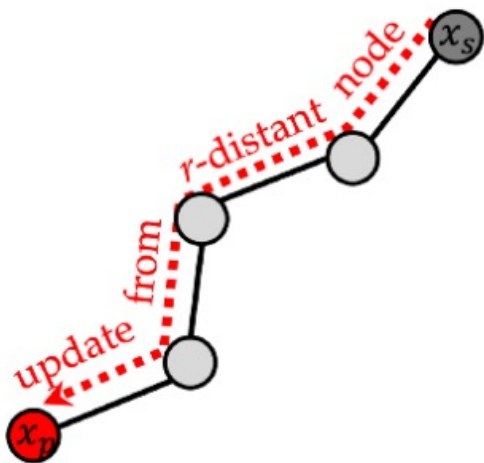
$$\dot{X}(t) = (A(X(t)) - I)X(t) \quad (2)$$

# Over-squashing and over-smoothing



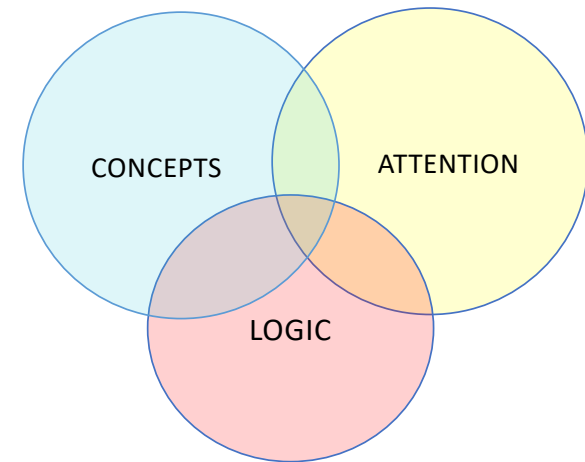
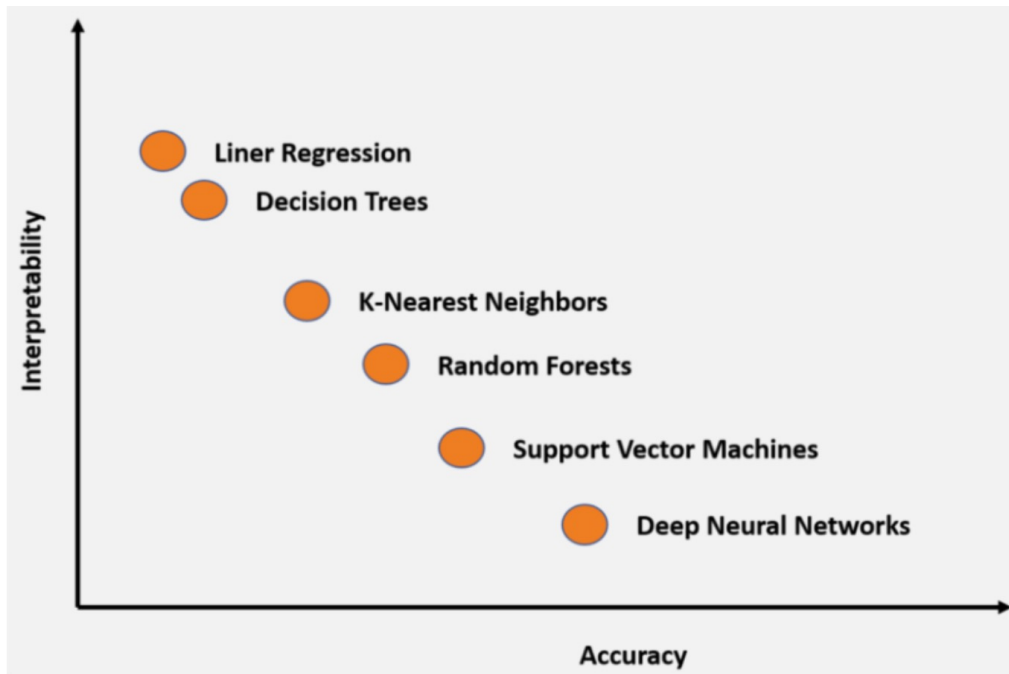
Oversquashing: inability for GNNs to propagate informative signals between distant nodes and is a major bottleneck to training deep GNN models

Over-smoothing: node representations become indistinguishable and prediction performance severely degrades when the number of layers increase



Uri Alon and Eran Yahav (2020) On the Bottleneck of Graph Neural Networks and its Practical Implications. J. Topping, F. Di Giovanni et al., Understanding over-squashing and bottlenecks on graphs via curvature (2021) arXiv:2111.14522

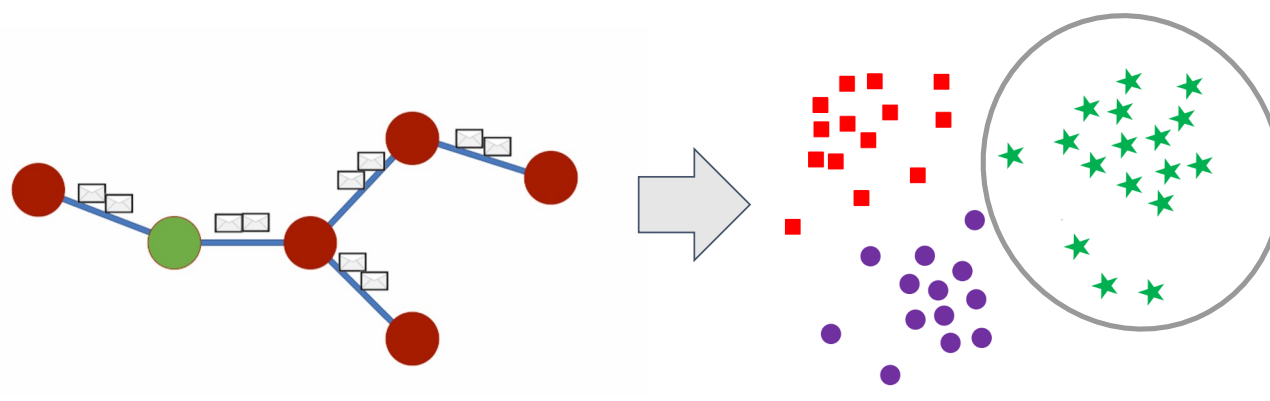
# Interpretability



*One model is more interpretable than another if it is easier for a human to understand how it makes predictions than the other model.*

# GCEExplainer

- **Graph Concept Explainer (GCEExplainer)**
- Key Ideas:
  - Concept-based explanations
  - Global explanations
  - Quantitative evaluation



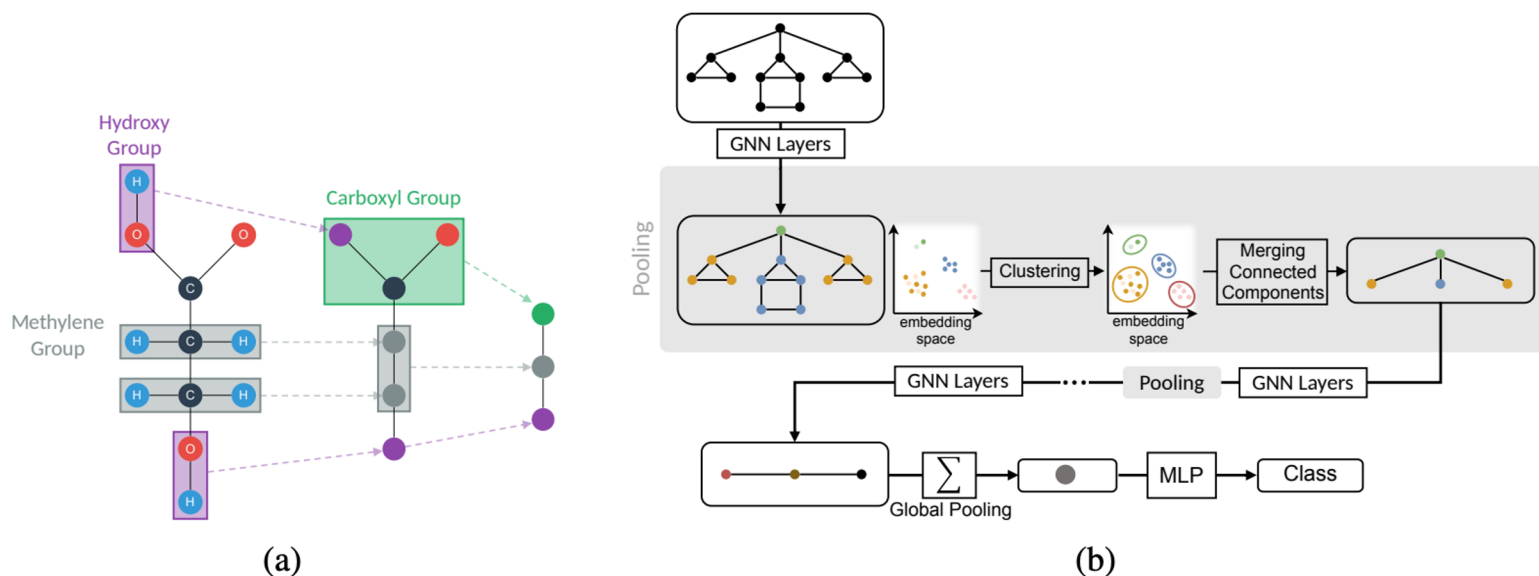
**Graph Neural Network**  
reasons on relational data

**Graph Concept Explainer**  
clusters the GNN's  
embeddings

Magister, Lucie Charlotte, et al (PL). "Gcexplainer: Human-in-the-loop concept-based explanations for graph neural networks." arXiv preprint arXiv:2107.11889 (2021).

# Hierarchical Explainable Latent Pooling (HELP)

- Clusters node embeddings and merges connected components clustered together
- Discovered a hierarchy of Concepts



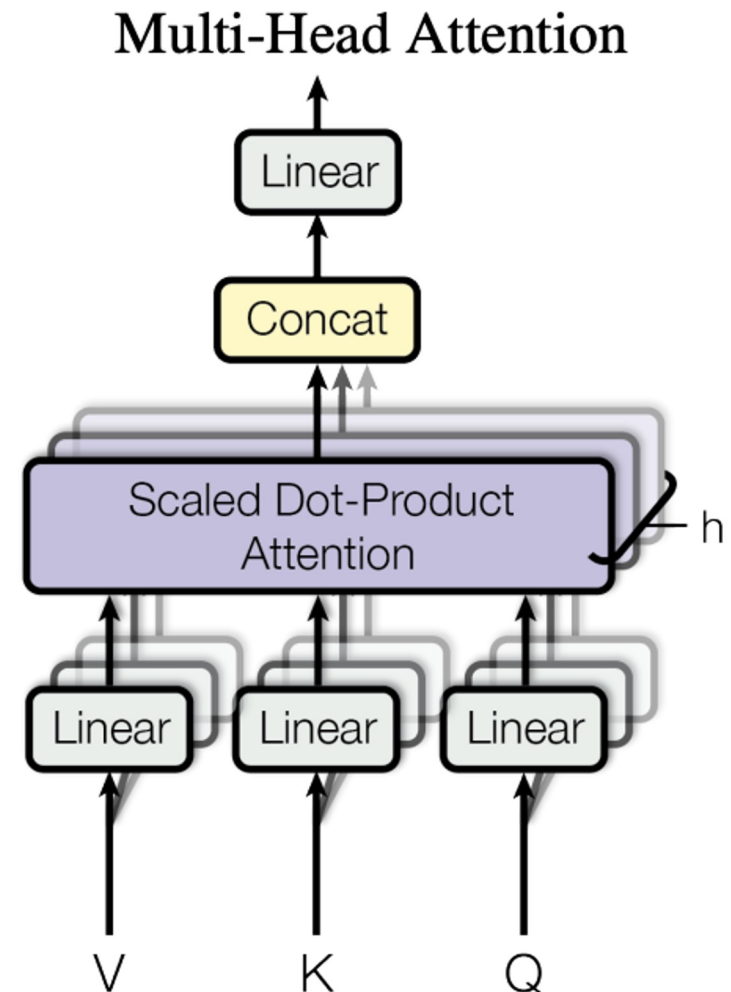
Jürß, Jonas, et al (PL). "Everybody Needs a Little HELP: Explaining Graphs via Hierarchical Concepts." arXiv preprint arXiv:2311.15112 (2023).



# A note on Transformers

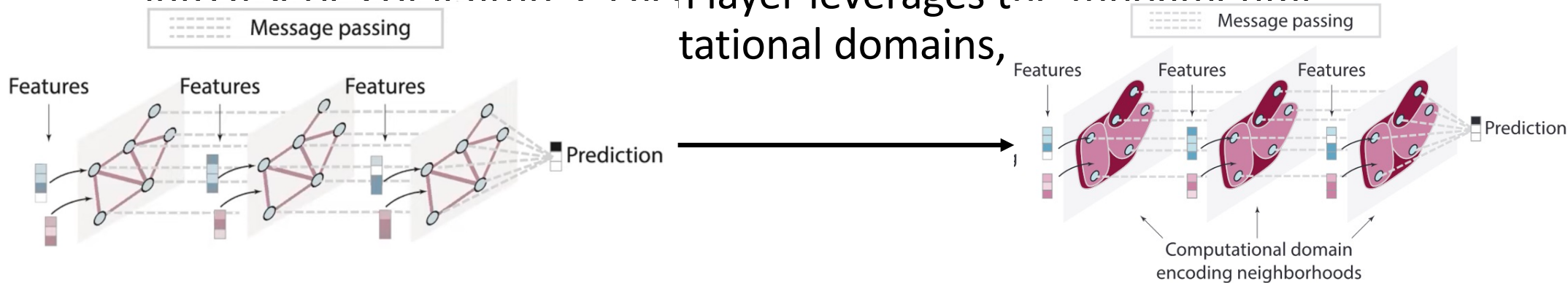
- Transformers **are** Graph Neural Networks!
  - Fully-connected graph
  - Attentional flavour
- The sequential information is injected through the **positional embeddings**. Dropping them yields a fully-connected GAT model.
- Attention can be seen as inferring a “soft” adjacency matrix.

See Joshi (The Gradient; 2020).

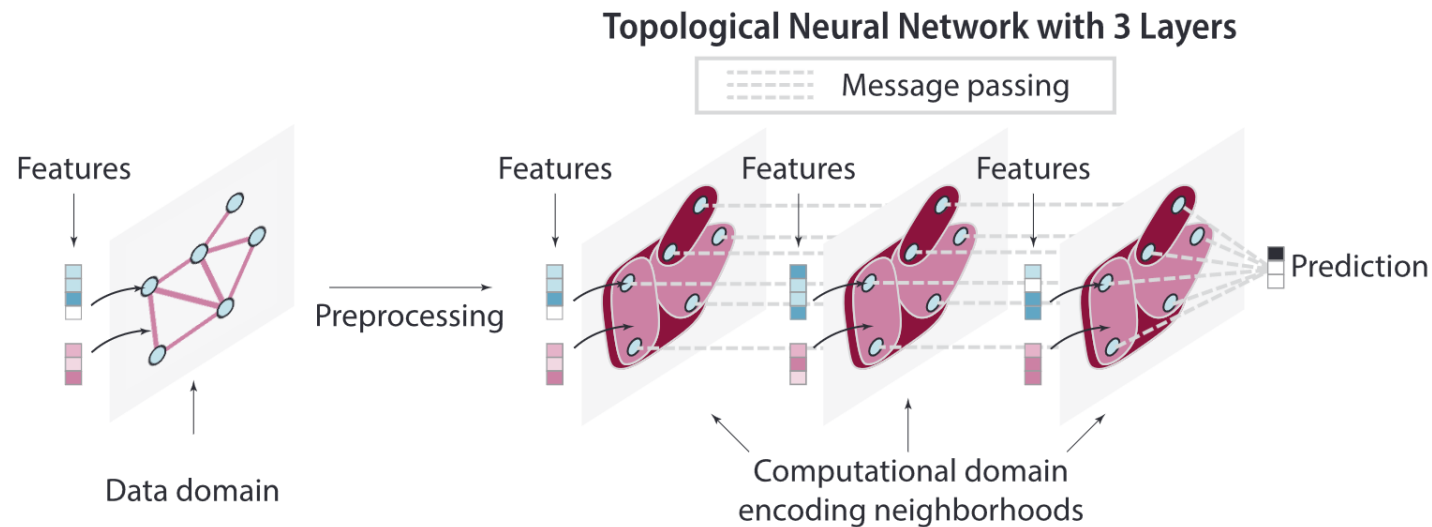


# Topological Neural Networks

- Topological Neural Networks (TNNs) are deep learning architectures that extract knowledge from data associated with topologically rich systems such as protein structures, city traffic maps, or citation networks.
- A TNN, like a GNN, is comprised of stacked layers that transform data into a series of features. Each layer leverages the fundamental topological domains,



# Topological Neural Networks



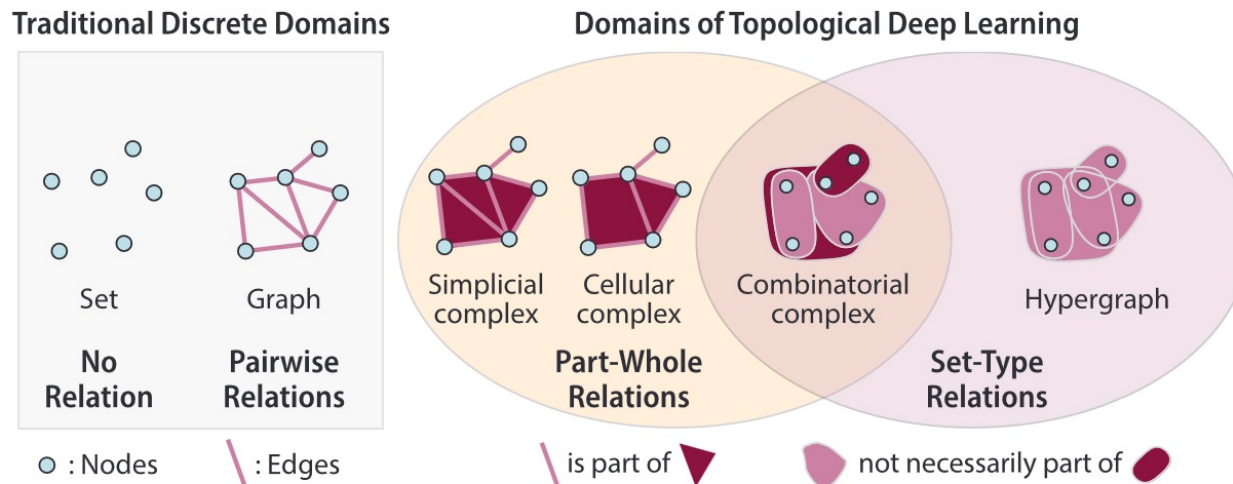
Data associated with a complex system are features defined on a data domain, which is preprocessed into a computational domain that encodes interactions between the system's components with neighborhoods.

The TNN's layers use message passing to successively update features and yield an output, e.g. a categorical label in classification or a quantitative value in regression. The output represents new knowledge extracted from the input data.

# Domains

In Topological Deep Learning (TDL), data are features defined on discrete domains. Traditional examples of discrete domains include sets and graphs.

The domains of TDL generalize the pairwise relations of graphs to part-whole and set-types relations that permit the representation of more complex relational structure (see figure below: Nodes in blue, (hyper)edges in pink, and faces in dark red)

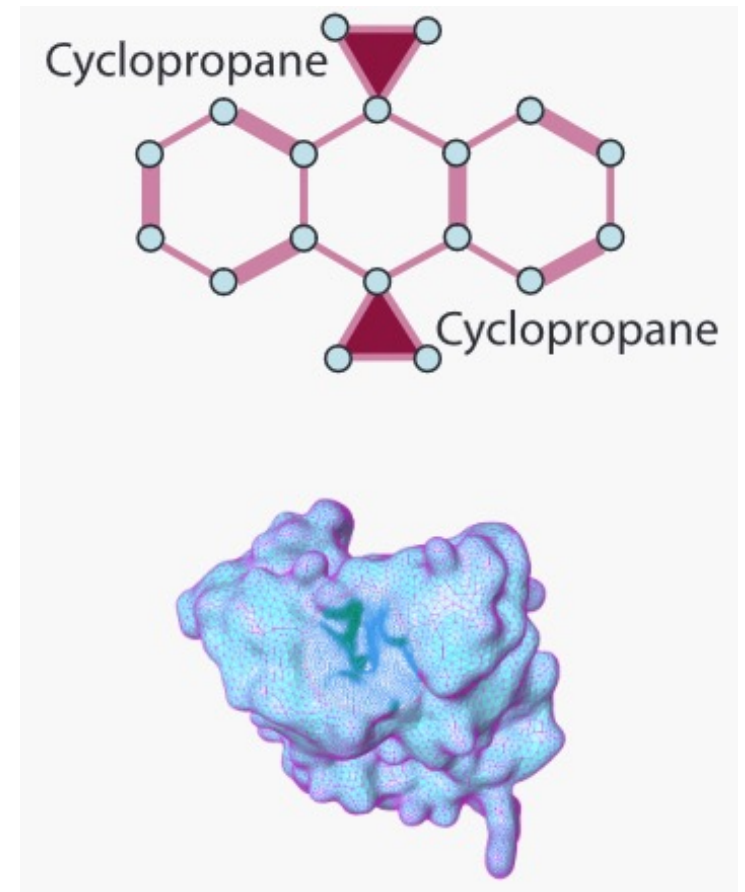


# Simplicial complexes

Simplicial complexes (SCs) generalize graphs to incorporate hierarchical part-whole relations through the multi-scale construction of cells. Nodes are rank 0 cells that can be combined to form edges (rank 1 cells).

Edges are, in turn, combined to form faces (rank 2 cells), which are combined to form volumes (rank 3 cells), and so on. As such, an SC's faces must be triangles, volumes must be tetrahedrons, and so forth.

SCs are commonly used to encode discrete representations of 3D geometric surfaces represented with triangular meshes.

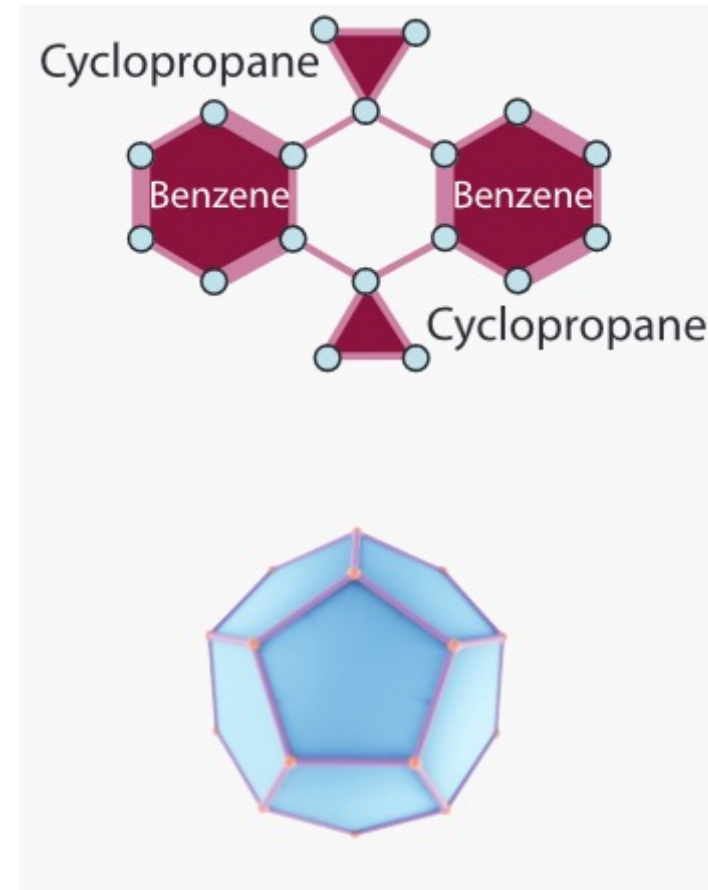


# Cellular complexes

Cellular complexes (CCs) generalize SCs such that cells are not limited to simplexes: faces can involve more than three nodes, volumes more than four faces, and so on.

This flexibility endows CCs with greater expressivity than SCs.

A practitioner should consider employing this domain when studying a system that features part-whole interactions between more than three nodes, such as a molecule with benzene rings



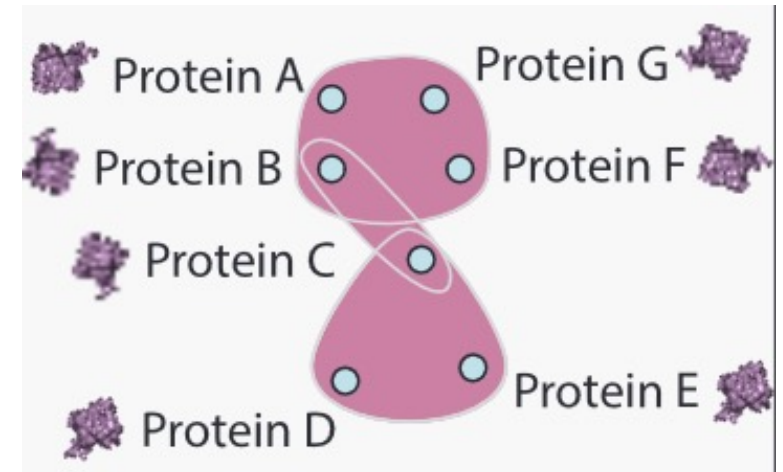
# Hypergraphs

Hypergraphs (HG) extend graphs in that their edges, called hyperedges, can connect more than two nodes. Connections in HGs represent set-type relationships, in which participation in an interaction is not implied by any other relation in the system.

This makes HGs an ideal choice for data with abstract and arbitrarily large interactions of equal importance, such as semantic text and citation networks.

Protein interaction networks also exhibit this property: an interaction between proteins requires a precise set of molecules—no more and no less.

The interaction of Proteins A, B, and C does not imply an interaction between A and B on their own.





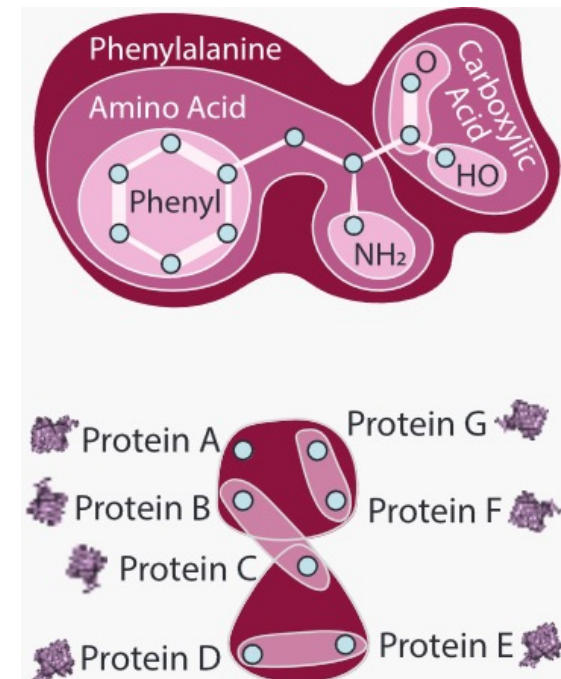
# Combinatorial complexes

Combinatorial complexes generalise CCs and HGs to incorporate both part-whole and set-type relationships .

The benefit of this can be observed in the example of molecular representation.

The strict geometric constraints of simplicial and cellular complexes are too rigid for capturing much of hierarchical structure observed in molecules.

By contrast, the flexible but hierarchically ranked hyperedges of a combinatorial complex can capture the full richness of molecular structure.





# Combinatorial Complexes

Combinatorial complexes including

(a) sequences and images,

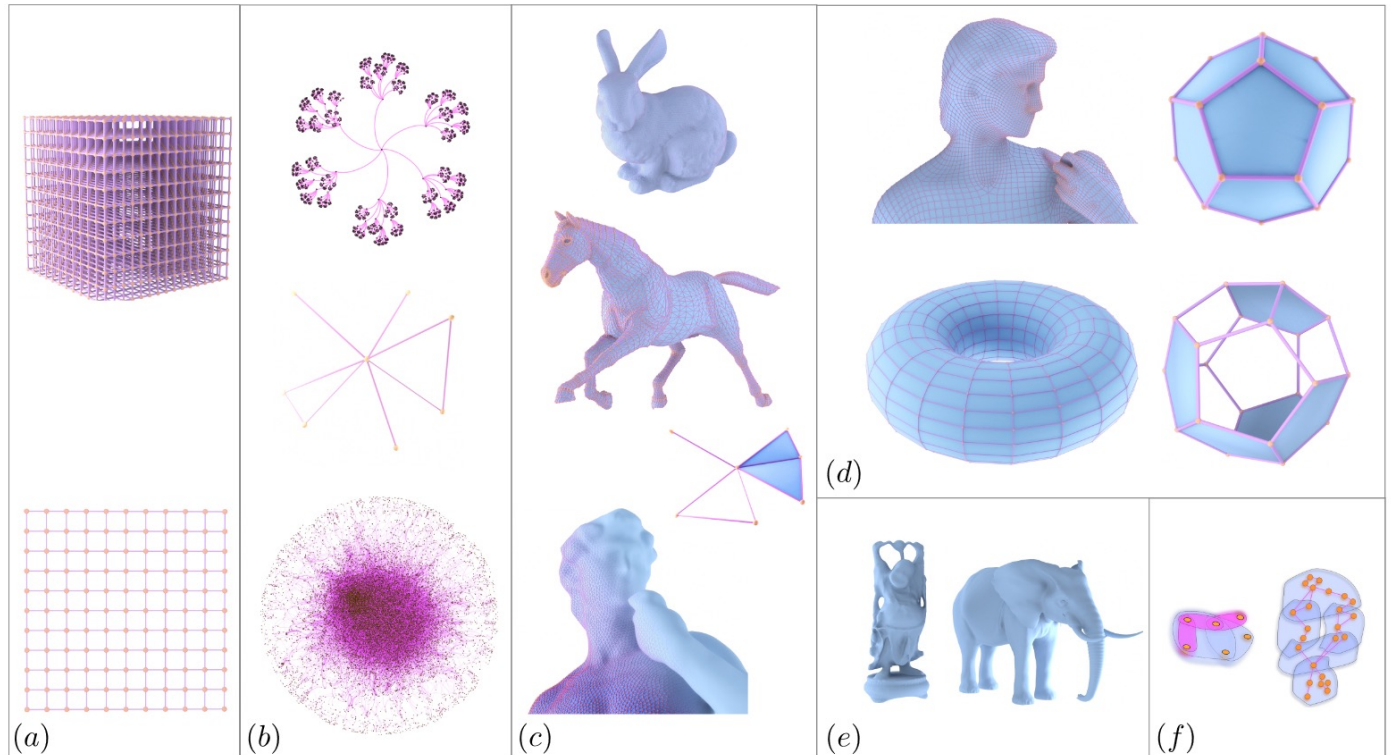
(b) graphs,

(c) 3D shapes and simplicial complexes,

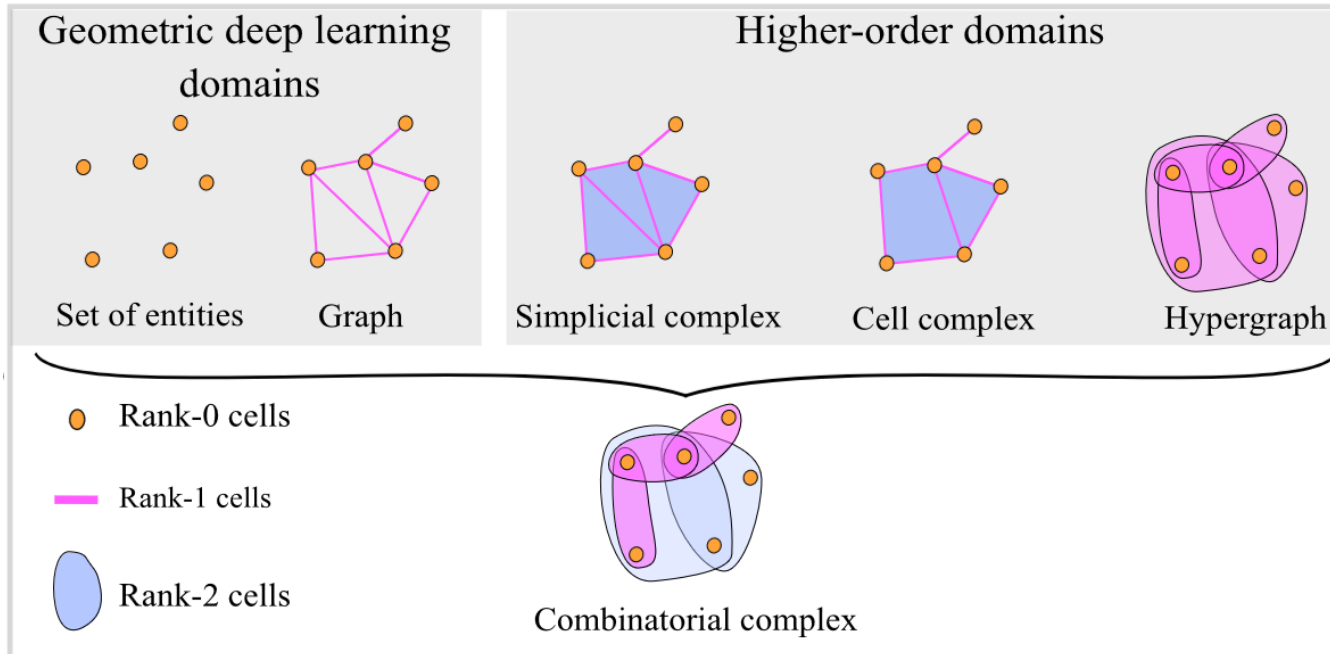
(d) cubical and cellular complexes,

(e) discrete manifolds, and

(f) hypergraphs.



# The landscape of the Combinatorial Complexes



Sets have entities with no connections, graphs encode binary relations between vertices, simplicial and cell complexes model hierarchical higher-order relations, and hypergraphs accommodate arbitrary set-type relations with no hierarchy.

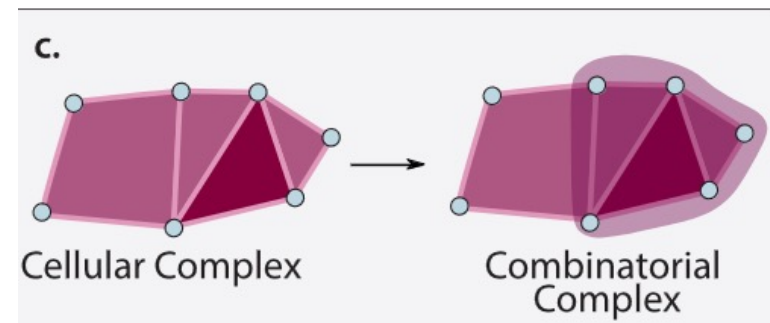
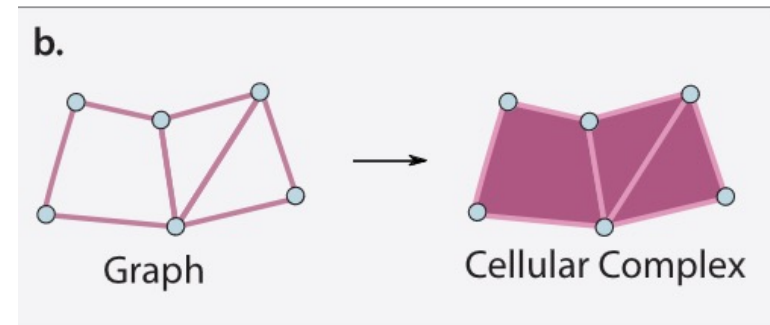
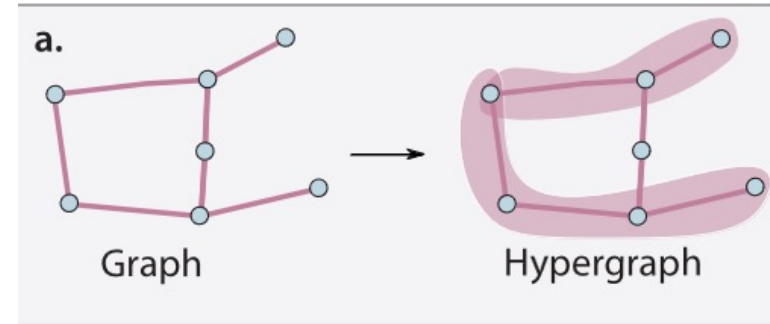
Combinatorial complexes (CCCs) generalise graphs, simplicial and cell complexes, and hypergraphs. CCCs are equipped with set-type relations as well as with a hierarchy of these relation.

# Lifting topological domains

(a) A graph is lifted to a hypergraph by adding hyperedges that connect groups of nodes.

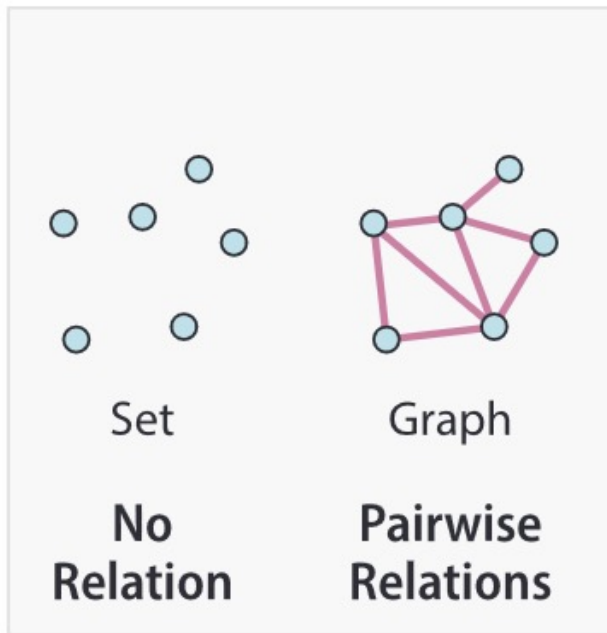
(b) A graph can be lifted to a cellular complex by adding faces of any shape.

(c) Hyperedges can be added to a cellular complex to lift the structure to a combinatorial complex.



# Topological Deep learning

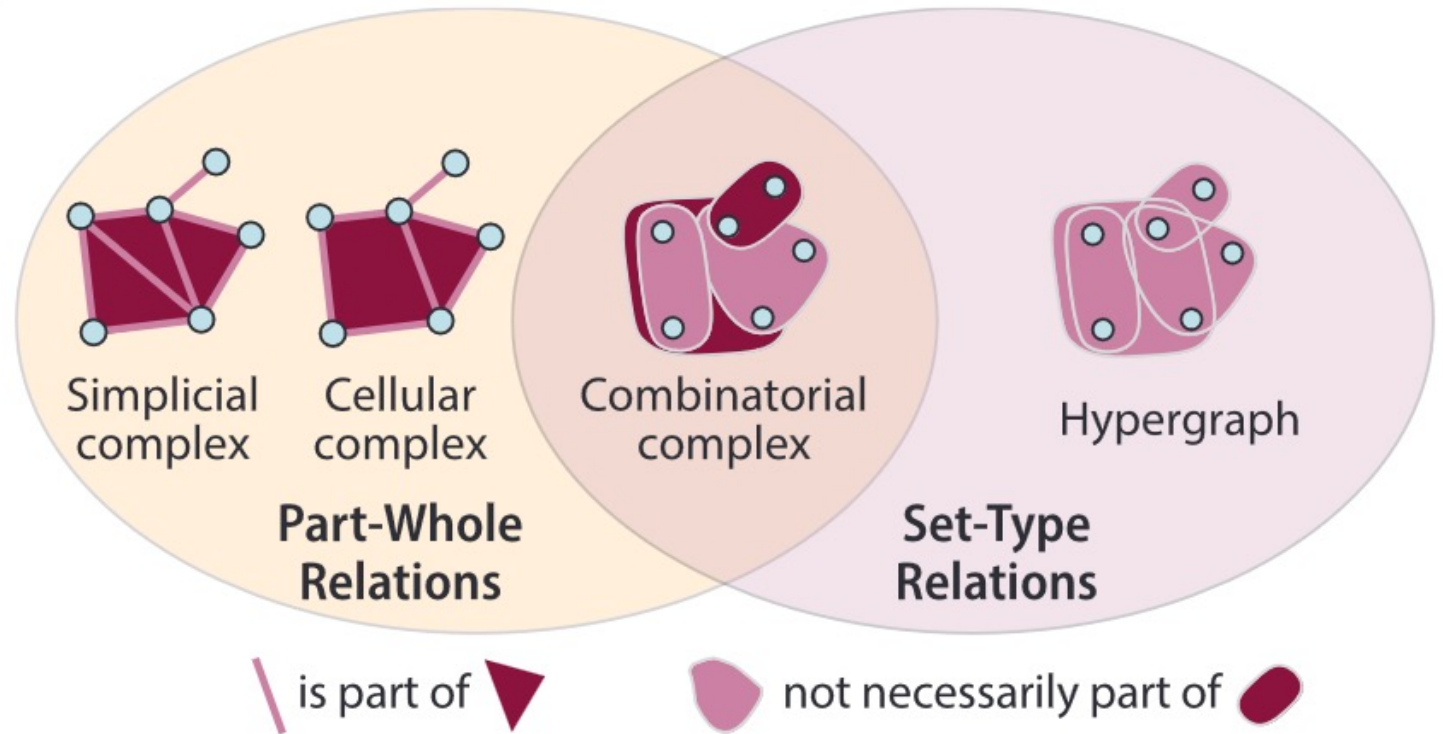
## Traditional Discrete Domains



○ : Nodes

— : Edges

## Domains of Topological Deep Learning

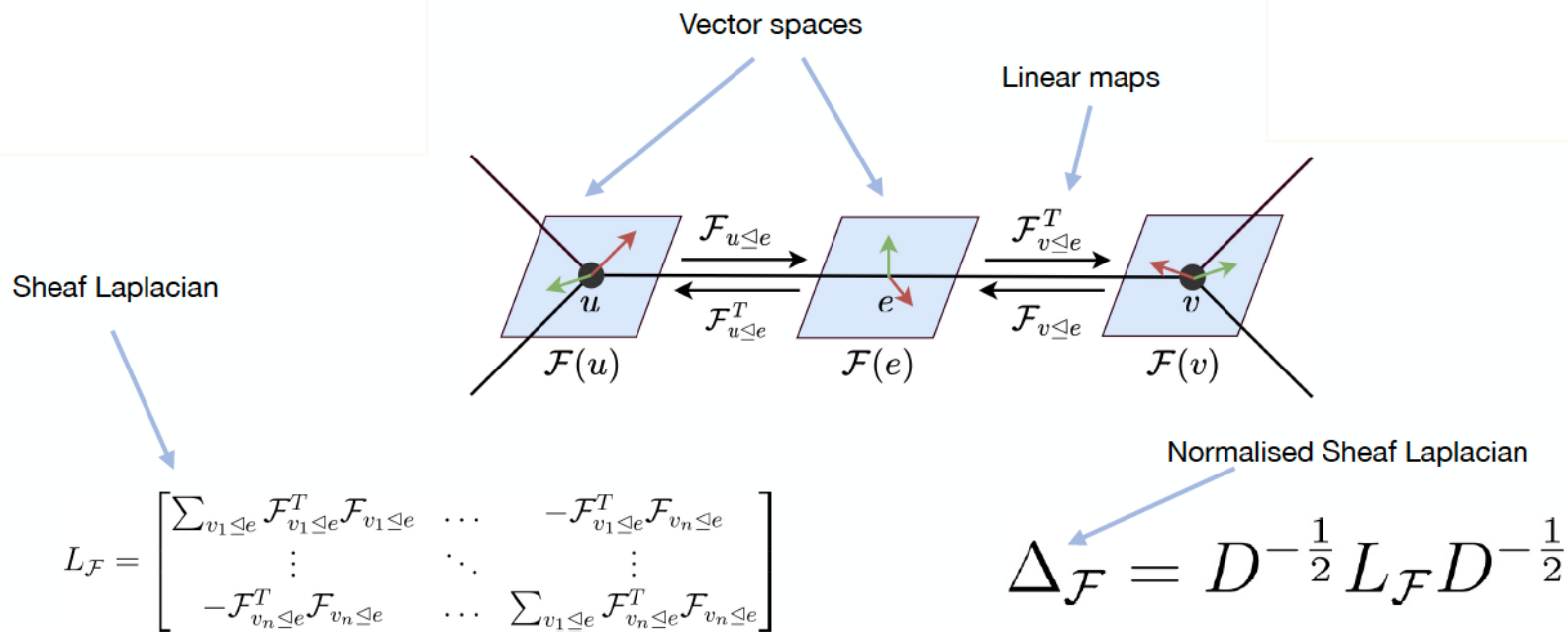


— is part of ▼

◐ not necessarily part of ◑

from Papillon et al. 2023

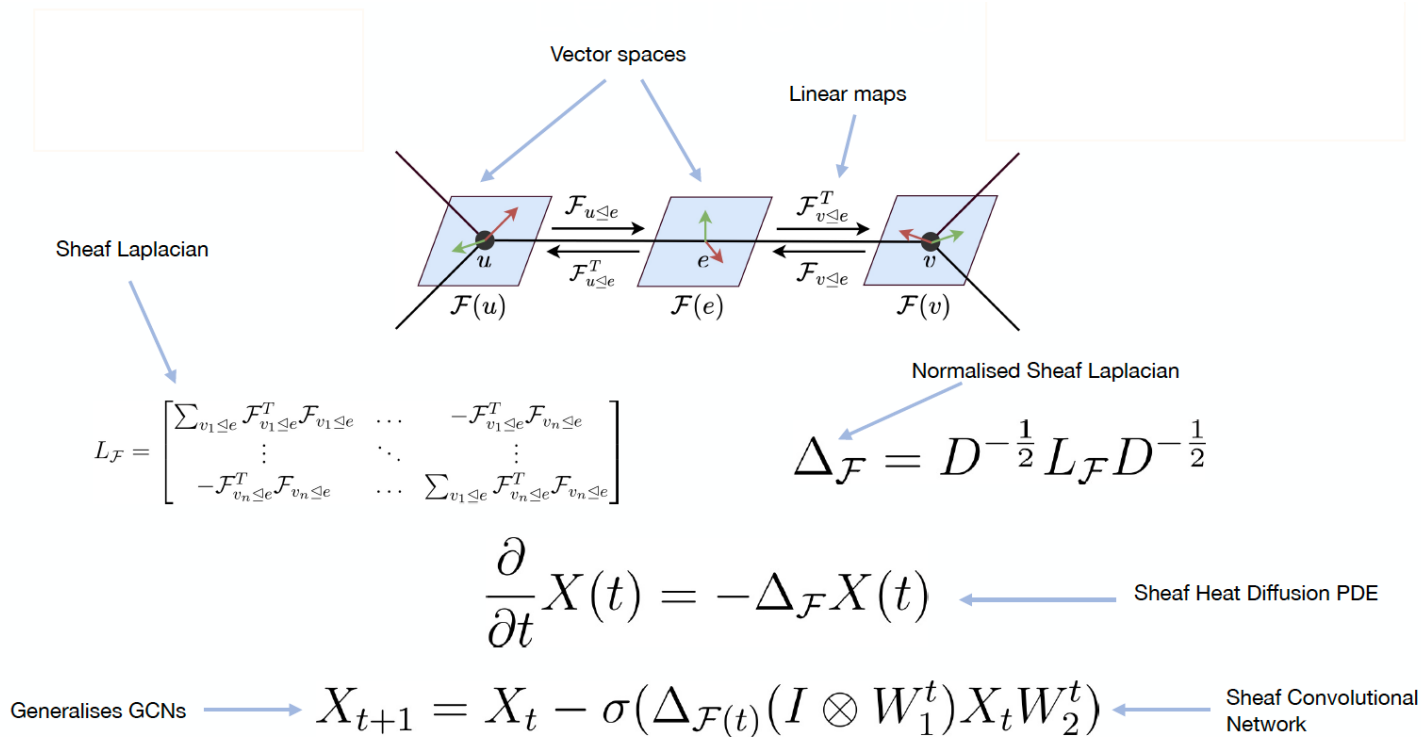
# Sheaf Neural Networks



$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} X(t) = -\Delta_{\mathcal{F}} X(t) \quad \leftarrow \text{Sheaf Heat Diffusion PDE}$$

Generalises GCNs  $\longrightarrow X_{t+1} = X_t - \sigma(\Delta_{\mathcal{F}(t)} (I \otimes W_1^t) X_t W_2^t) \longleftarrow \text{Sheaf Convolutional Network}$

# Sheaf Neural Networks



Barbero et al, Sheaf Neural Networks with Connection Laplacians,

Bodnar et al., Neural sheaf diffusion: A topological perspective on heterophily and oversmoothing in gnns, arxiv

# Sheaf Neural Networks

Attention matrix      Adjacency matrix

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} X(t) = (\Lambda \odot A_{\mathcal{F}} - I)X(t)$$

Sheaf Attention Network

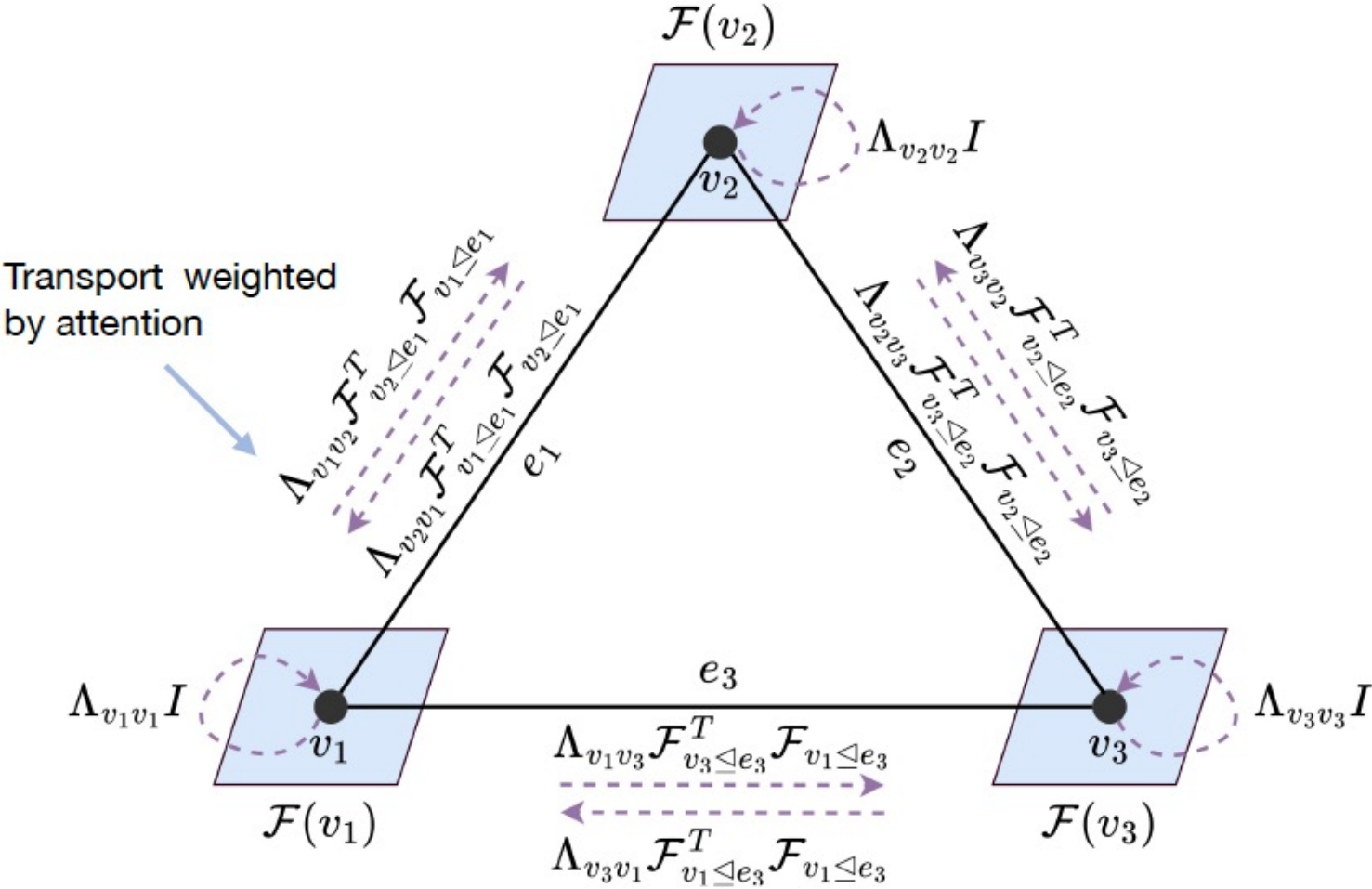


$$X_{t+1} = X_t + \sigma((\Lambda \odot A_{\mathcal{F}} - I)(I \otimes W_1^t)X_t W_2^t)$$



Generalises GATs

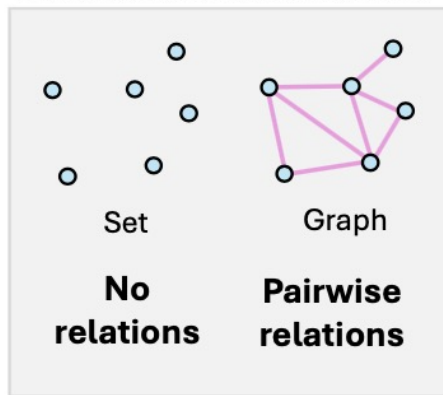
# Sheaf Neural Networks





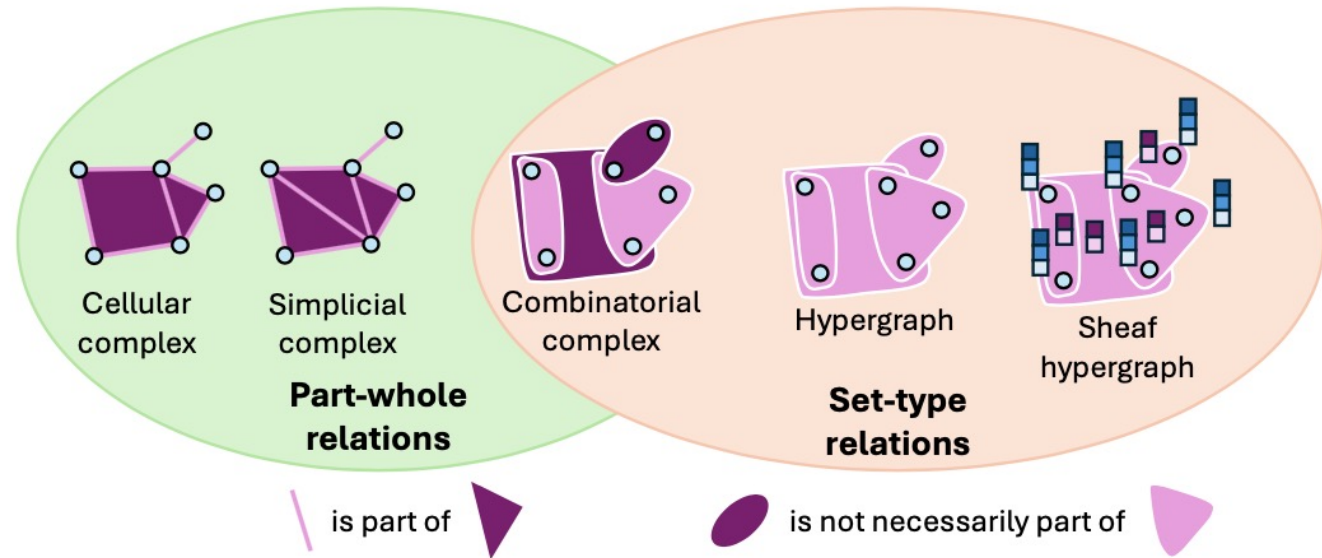
# Topological Deep learning

## Traditional discrete domains



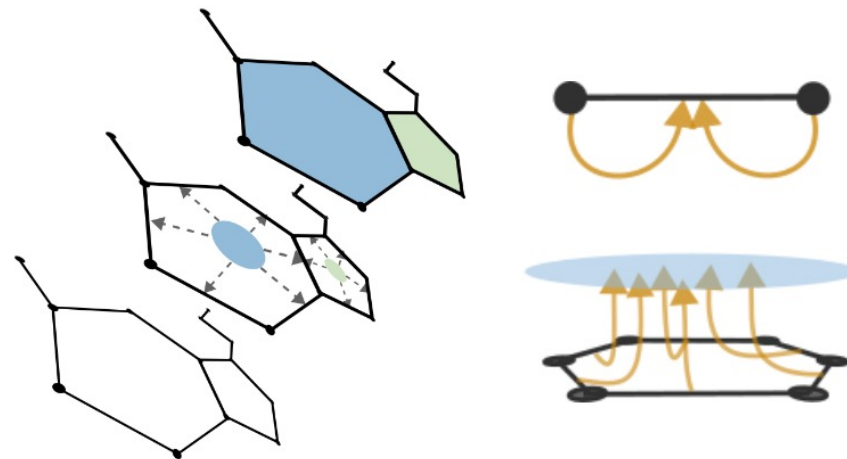
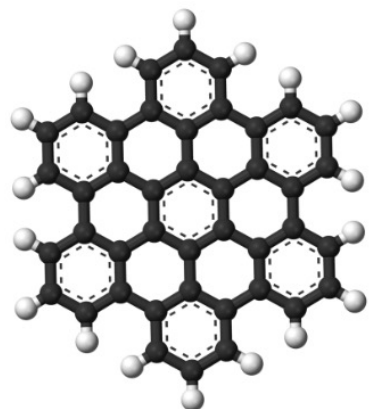
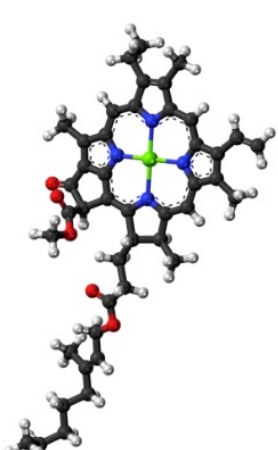
○ : Nodes

— : Edges



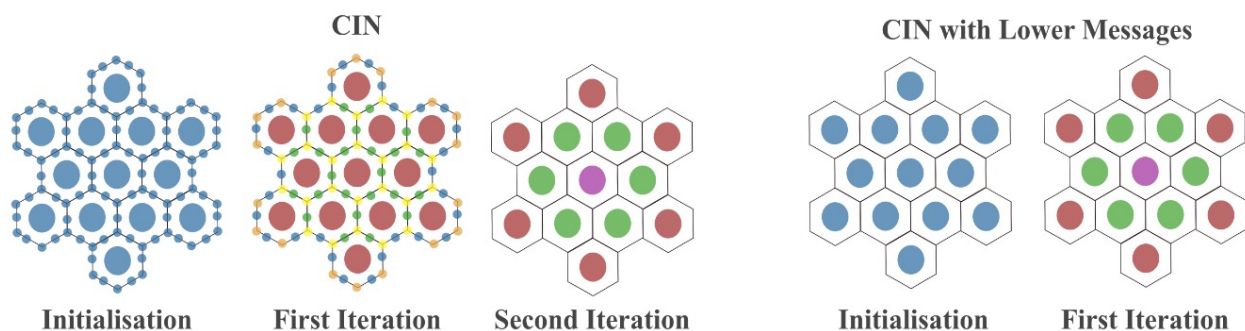
- A taxonomy of topological domains. Adapted from Papillon et al.

# Sheaf for Bigger molecules



Cellular lifting process. Given an input graph  $G$ , we attach closed two-dimensional rings to the boundary of the induced cycles of  $G$ . The result is a 2D regular cell complex  $C$ .

Boundary messages received by an edge (top) and a ring (bottom)

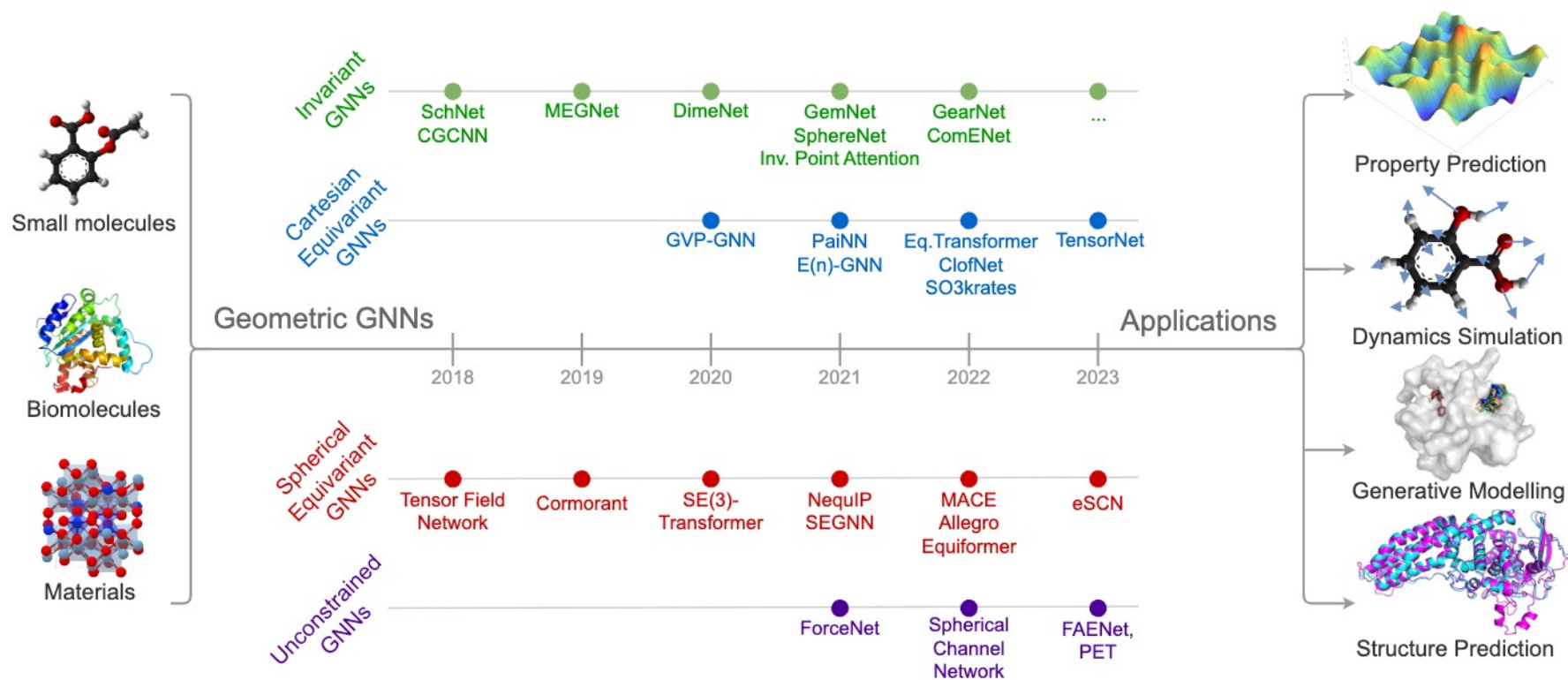


# Geometric Deep Learning Across Scales:

Molecules  
Cell  
Tissues  
Patients  
Population

Molecules

# Geometric Deep Learning has many applications on molecular data



**A Hitchhiker's Guide to Geometric GNNs for 3D Atomic Systems**

Illustration courtesy Chaitanya Joshi

If you're interested in this space, check out  
our tutorial paper.

[2312.07511.pdf \(arxiv.org\)](#)

## A Hitchhiker's Guide to Geometric GNNs for 3D Atomic Systems

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**Taco Cohen**  
Qualcomm AI Research<sup>‡</sup>

**Pietro Liò**  
University of Cambridge, UK

**Yoshua Bengio**  
Mila, Université de Montréal

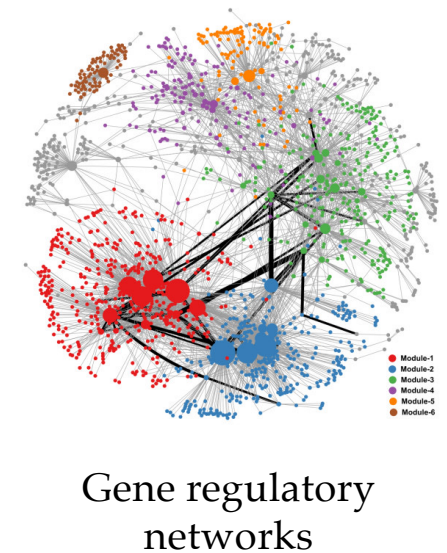
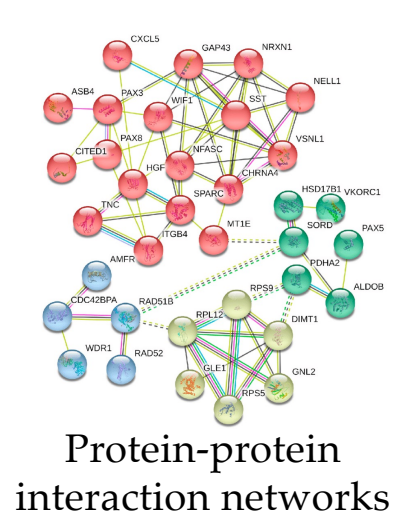
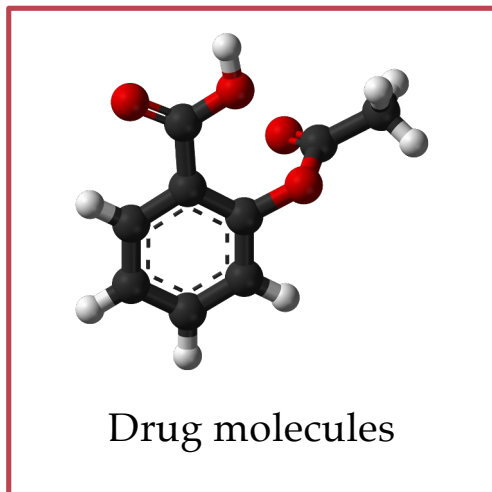
**Michael Bronstein**  
University of Oxford, UK

### Abstract

Recent advances in computational modelling of atomic systems, spanning molecules, proteins, and materials, represent them as *geometric graphs* with atoms embedded as nodes in 3D Euclidean space. In these graphs, the geometric attributes

[cs.LG] 12 Dec 2023

# Graphs are everywhere in biology

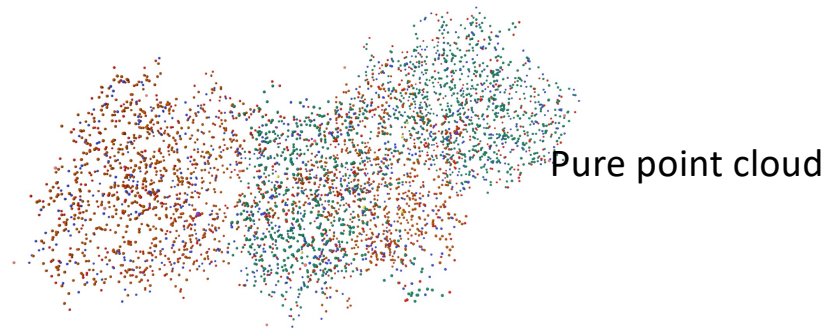


*Unsurprisingly, **Graph Neural Networks (GNNs)** have achieved remarkable results in **biological modelling***

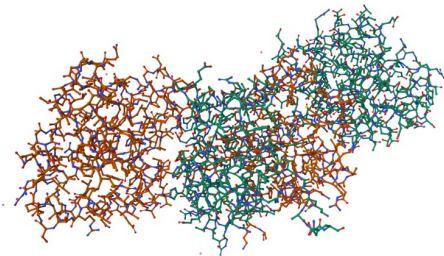
Slide credit: Chaitanya Joshi



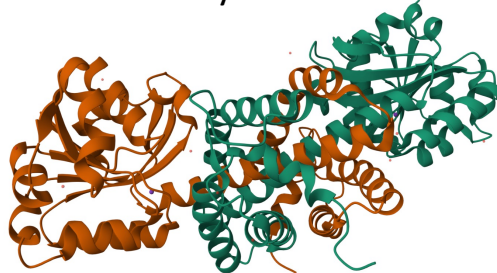
# There are several ways of representing protein structures



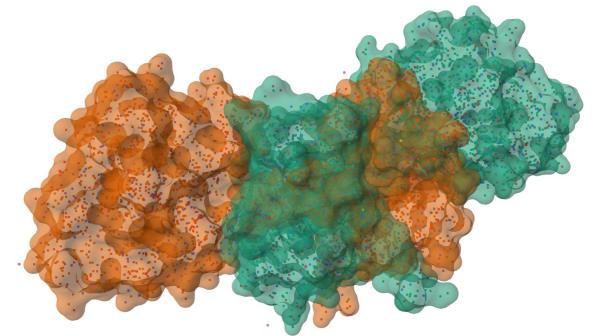
with bonds



with protein-specific  
secondary structure

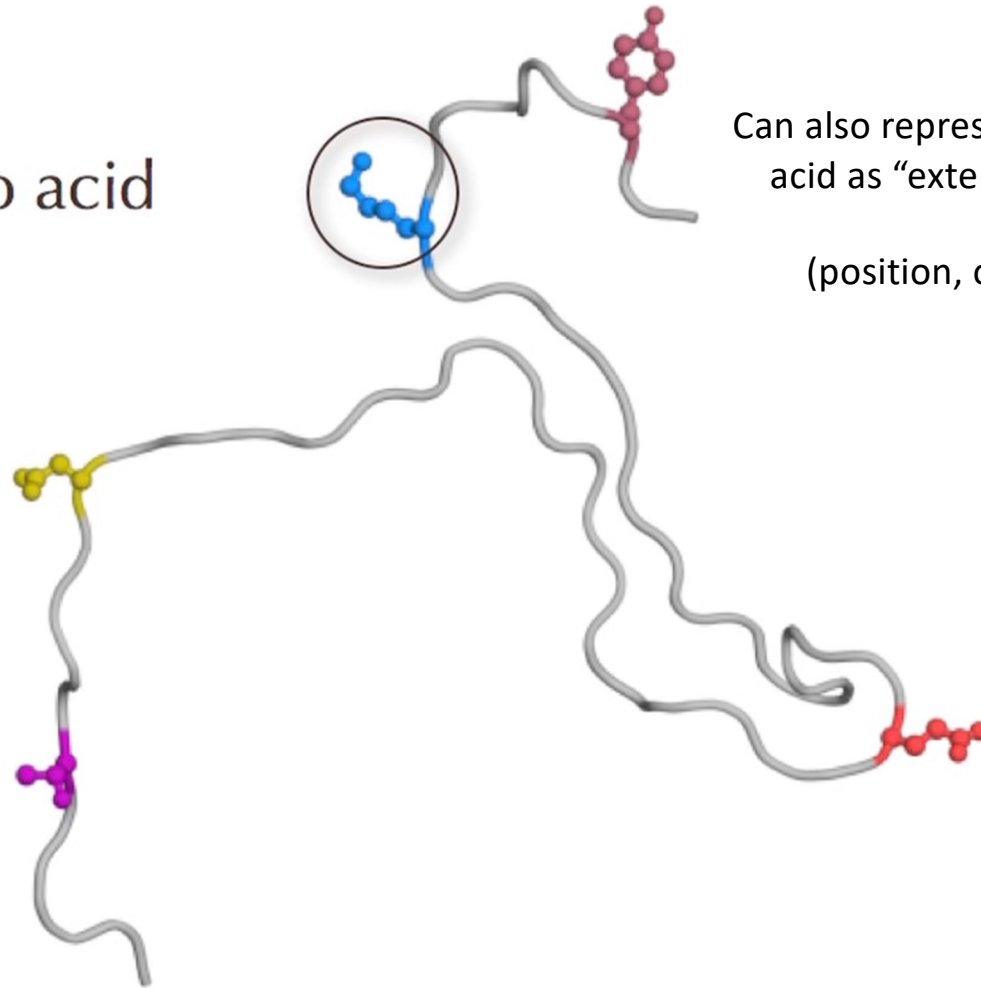


as surface





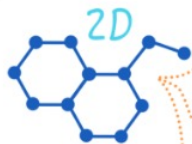
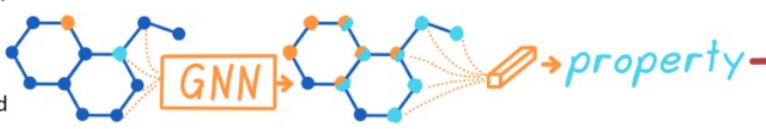

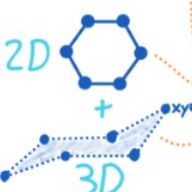
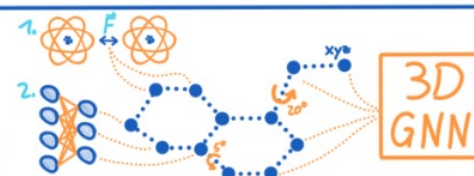

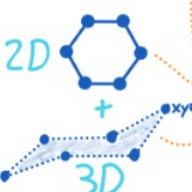
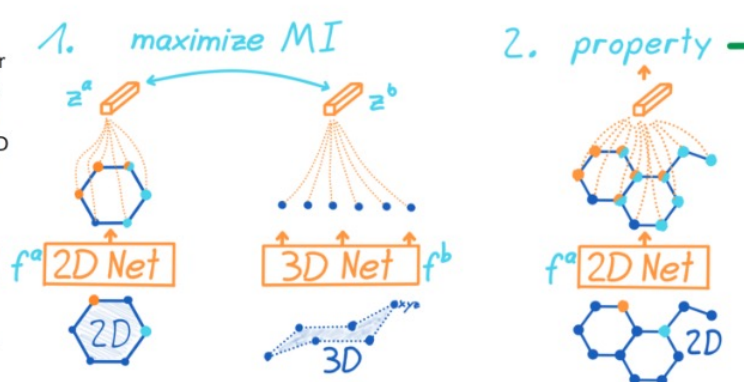


Amino acid



Can also represent each amino acid as “extended object”:

$$(\text{position, orientation}) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \times \text{SO}(3)$$

# 3D Infomax

Setting	Approaches	Result
<p>Molecules <b>without</b> 3D information for which properties have to be predicted.</p>  <p>2D</p>	<p><b>Standard Approach:</b> Use GNNs with the molecular graph as the only input and ignore 3D based atomic interactions.</p>  <p>GNN → property</p>	<p></p> <p>Predictions are fast but less accurate since 3D information cannot be leveraged.</p>
<p>Molecules <b>with</b> 3D information that can be used for pre-training.</p>  <p>2D + 3D</p>	<p><b>Explicit 3D Approach:</b> Employ classic (1) or learned (2) methods to compute 3D coordinates and use them as input to a 3D Graph Neural Network.</p>  <p>1. classic (1) or learned (2) methods to compute 3D coordinates and use them as input to a 3D Graph Neural Network.</p> <p>3D GNN → property</p>	<p></p> <p>Accurate predictions but methods for generating coordinates are too slow for many real-world applications.</p>
<p>Molecules <b>with</b> 3D information that can be used for pre-training.</p>  <p>2D + 3D</p>	<p><b>Our 3D Infomax:</b></p> <p>1. Pre-train 2D Net with the molecules for which 3D information is available and learn to generate implicit 3D information in latent representations.</p> <p>2. Transfer weights of 2D Net and fine-tune for predicting molecular properties.</p>  <p>1. maximize MI</p> <p>2. property</p> <p>2D Net, 3D Net, 2D Net</p>	<p> </p> <p>During fine-tuning the 2D Net still generates latent 3D information and uses it to inform property predictions.</p> <p>→ Predictions are <b>more accurate</b> than methods that do not use 3D information.</p> <p>→ Inference is <b>fast</b> and only uses a single forward pass of the chosen 2D Net.</p>

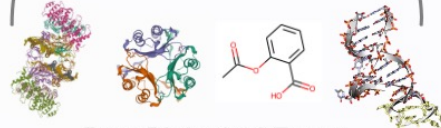
Hannes Stärk, Dominique Beaini, Gabriele Corso, Prudencio Tossou, Christian Dallago, Stephan Günnemann, Pietro Liò 3D Infomax improves GNNs for Molecular Property Prediction <https://arxiv.org/abs/2110.04126>

AlphaFold Protein Structure Database

RCSB PDB BioGRID TRRUST

STRING RegNetwork

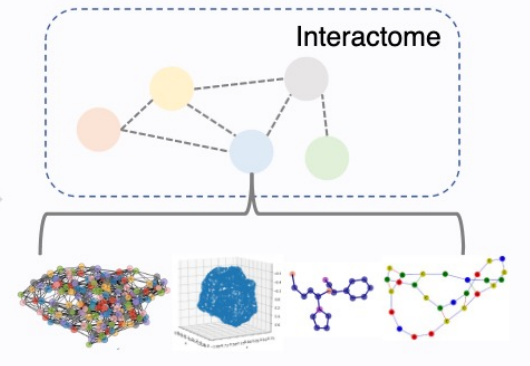
ZINC ChEMBL



Raw Biological Forms



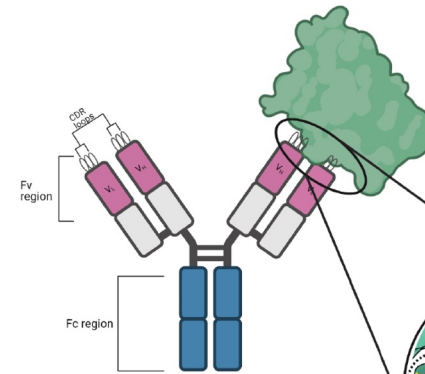
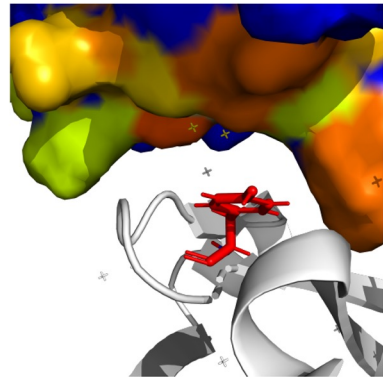
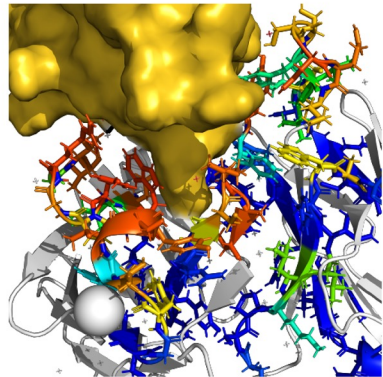
Graphein



Interactome

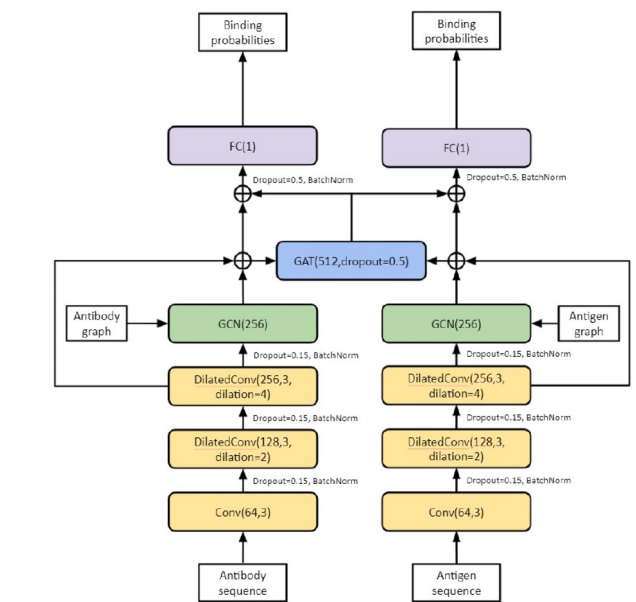
Machine Learning-Ready Datasets

# Designing proteins



Fv region

Fc region



Binding probabilities

Binding probabilities

FC(1)

FC(1)

Antibody graph

Antigen graph

GCN(256)

GCN(256)

DilatedConv(256,3, dilation=4)

DilatedConv(256,3, dilation=4)

DilatedConv(128,3, dilation=2)

DilatedConv(128,3, dilation=2)

Conv(64,3)

Conv(64,3)

Antibody sequence

Antigen sequence

Antibody amino acid sequence: ...ARND CQEGH LFP...

Paratope residues (yellow)  
Non-paratope residues (pink)

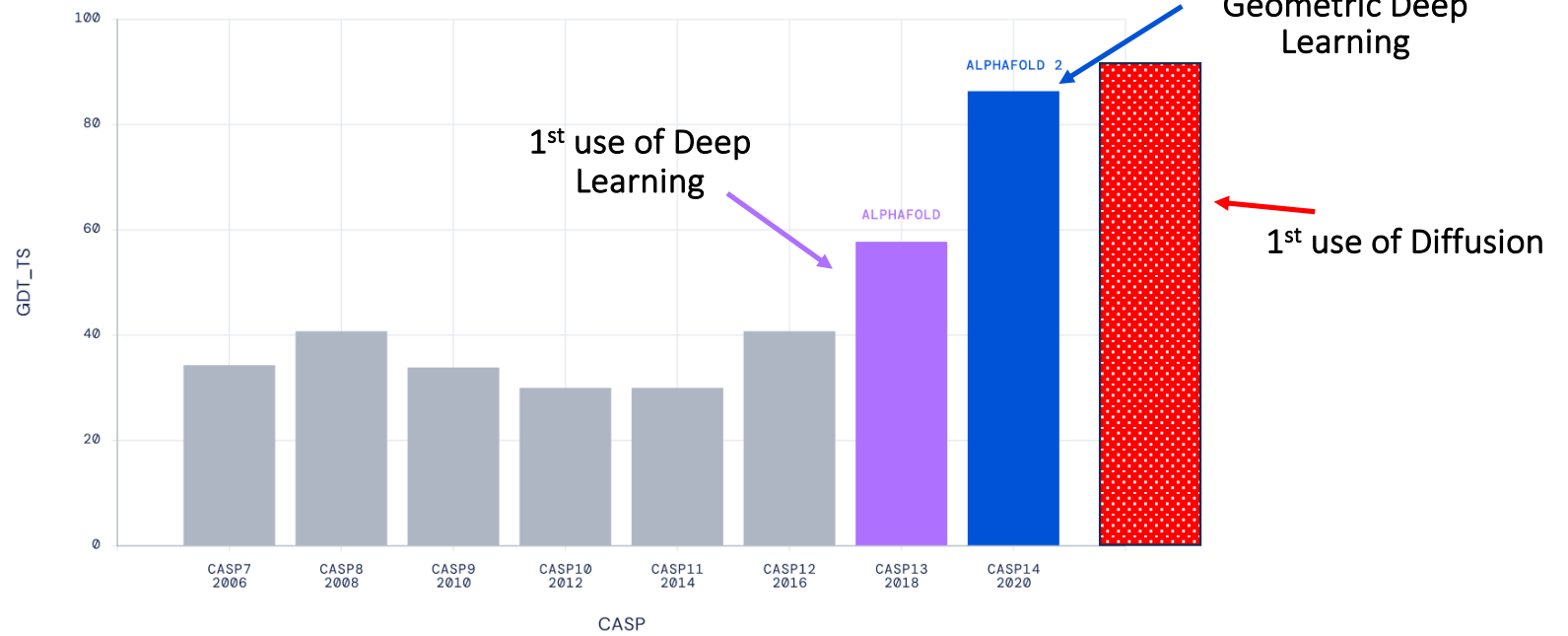
Residues which are <math><4.5\text{\AA}</math> are part of the binding interface

with Arian Jamasb, Andreea Deac, Petar Velickovic, Alice del Vecchio

# AlphaFold2-3

Jumper et al. 2021 (DeepMind)+

Median Free-Modelling Accuracy



Structural information has become much more available recently, in part thanks to geometric deep learning.

# The importance of symmetries

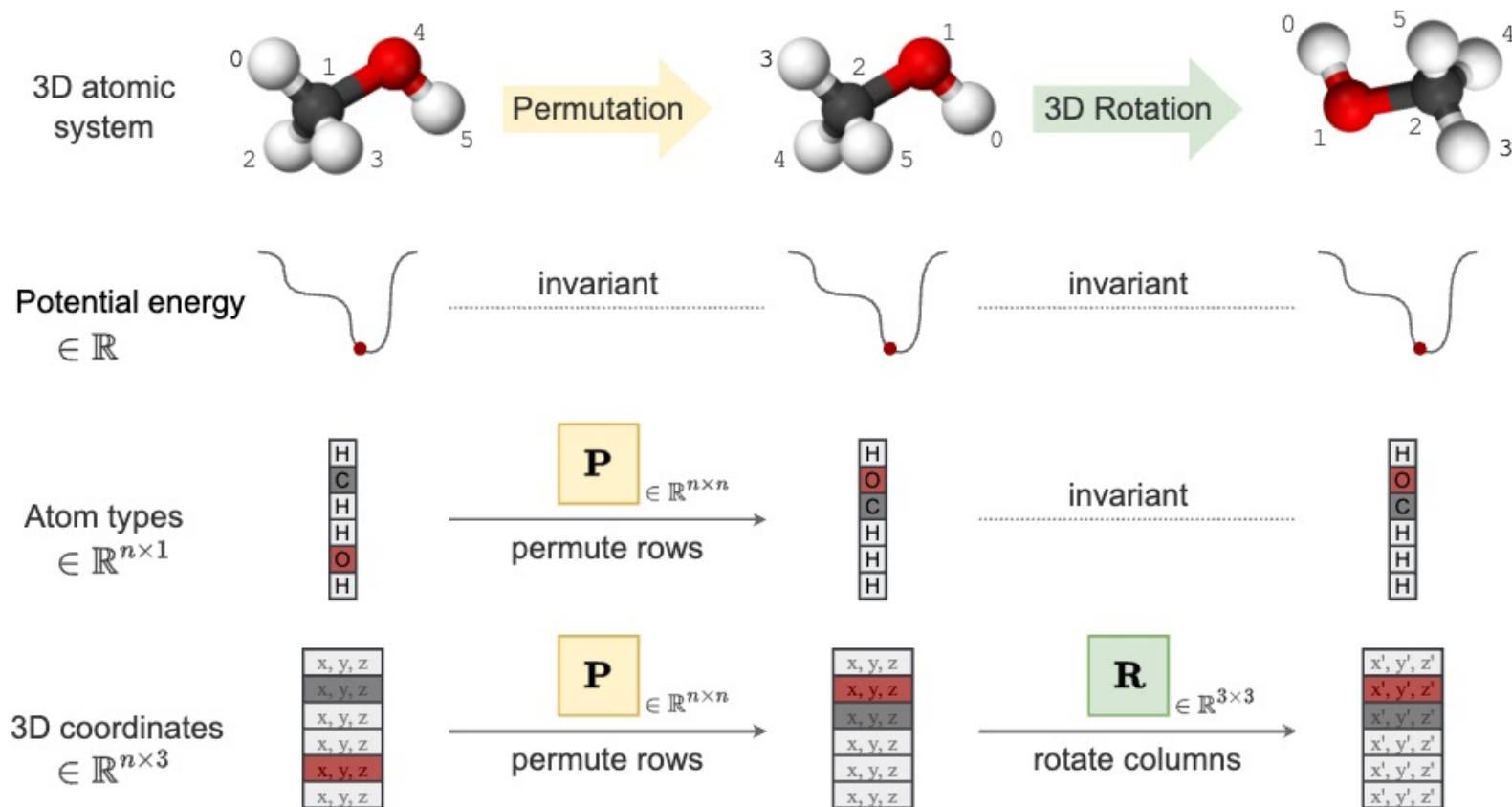
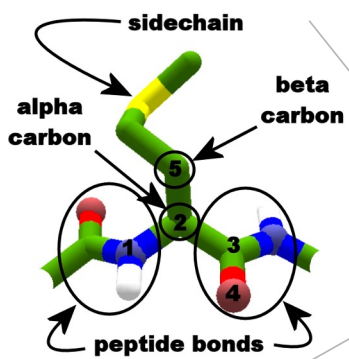


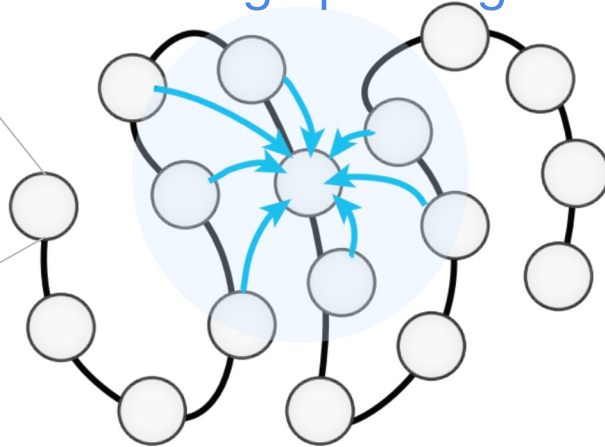
Illustration courtesy Chaitanya Joshi

# Protein backbones as graphs

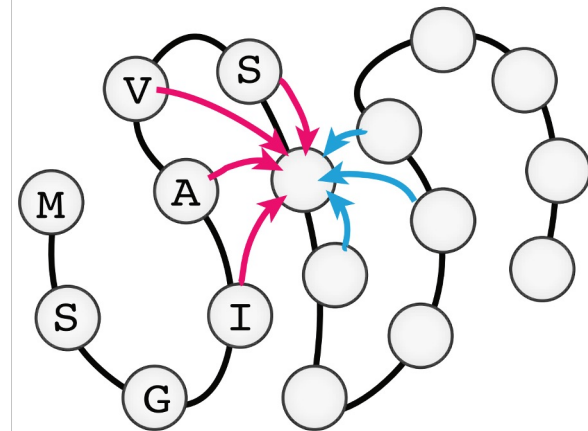
## ProteinMPNN – message passing neural network



message passing



Graph Neural Network



- Node (amino acid)
- ⋯ Backbone
- Neighbourhood in 3D

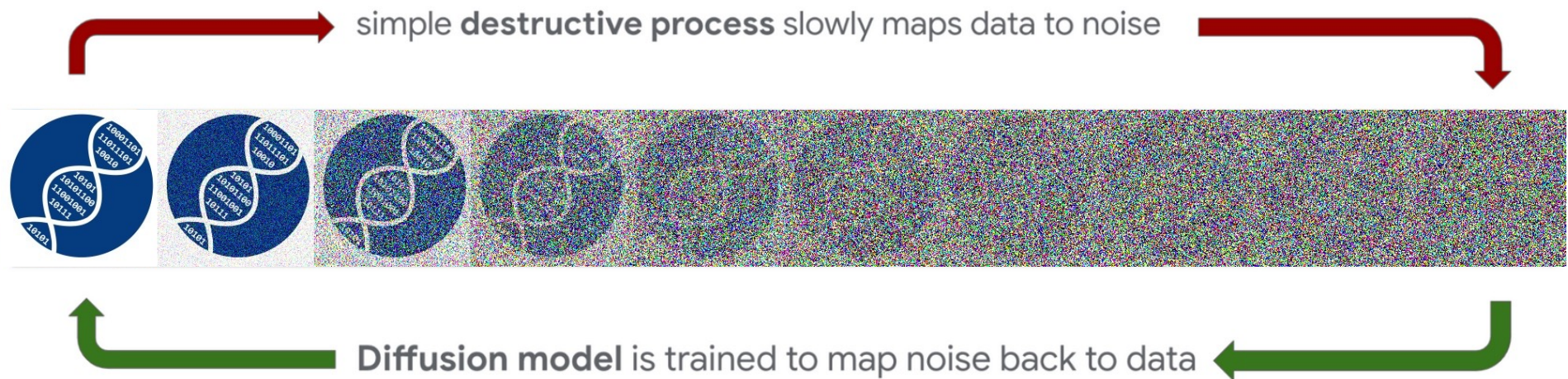
Probability distribution over 20 amino acid types





# Diffusion Models (Level 1)

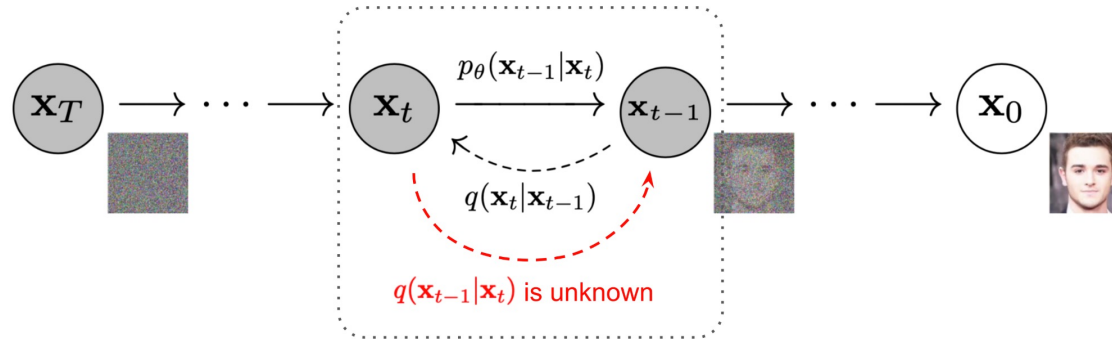
Sohl-Dickstein et al. 2015 (Stanford)



# Diffusion Models (Level 2)

Sohl-Dickstein et al. 2015 (Stanford)

“Diffusion models define a Markovian chain of random diffusion steps, gradually adding noise to sample data until it loses all of its distinguishing features. A neural network is then trained to reverse this process”



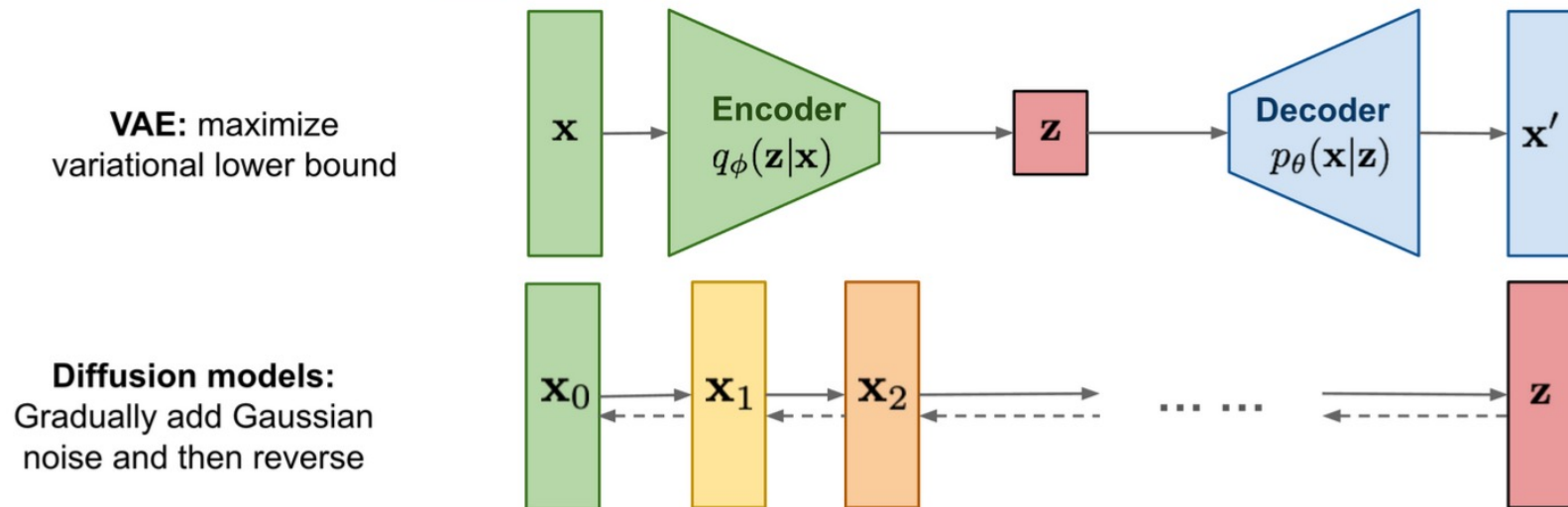
Forward Diffusion Process  $q(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_t; \sqrt{1 - \beta_t}\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \beta_t\mathbf{I})$

Reverse (Generative) Diffusion Process  $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}; \mu_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t), \Sigma_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t))$

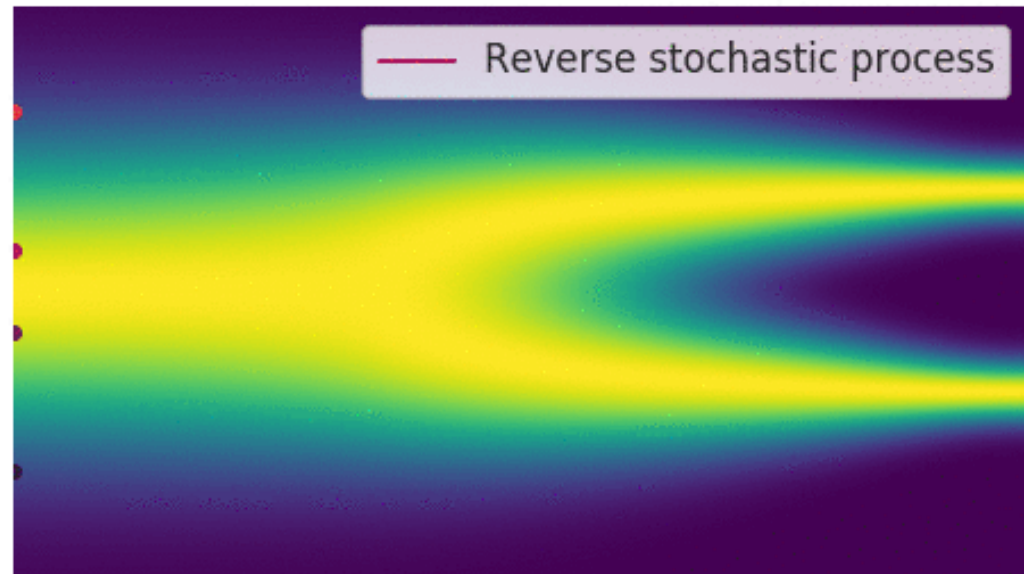
Learned      Usually fixed



# Diffusion models can be seen as a 'stretched out' VAE

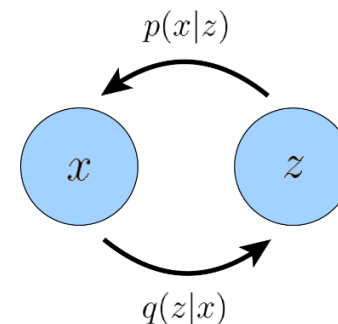


# Approximating some target distribution



# Variational Autoencoders

A Variational Autoencoder graphically represented. Here, encoder  $q(z|x)$  defines a distribution over latent variables  $z$  for observations  $x$ , and  $p(x|z)$  decodes latent variables into observations.



$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z|x)} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})}{q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})} \right] &= \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z|x)} \left[ \log \frac{p_\theta(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{z})}{q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})} \right] && \text{(Chain Rule of Probability)} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z|x)} [\log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})] - \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z|x)} \left[ \log q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \right] && \text{(Split the Expectation)} \\ &= \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z|x)} [\log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})]}_{\text{reconstruction term}} - \underbrace{D_{\text{KL}}(q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \parallel p(\mathbf{z}))}_{\text{prior matching term}} && \text{(Definition of KL Divergence)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}; \boldsymbol{\mu}_\phi(\mathbf{x}), \boldsymbol{\sigma}_\phi^2(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{I}) \\ p(\mathbf{z}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}) \end{aligned}$$

The encoder of the VAE is commonly chosen to model a multivariate Gaussian with diagonal covariance, and the prior is often selected to be a standard multivariate Gaussian; the KL divergence term of the ELBO can be computed analytically, and the reconstruction term can be approximated using a Monte Carlo estimate. Our objective can then be rewritten as:

$$\arg \max_{\phi, \theta} \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z|x)} [\log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})] - D_{\text{KL}}(q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \parallel p(\mathbf{z})) \approx \arg \max_{\phi, \theta} \sum_{l=1}^L \log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}^{(l)}) - D_{\text{KL}}(q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \parallel p(\mathbf{z}))$$

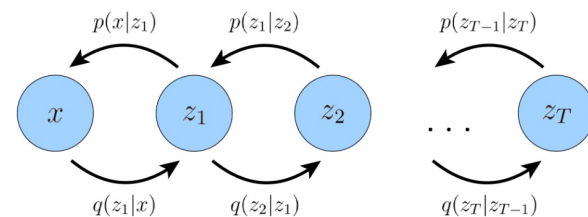
# Hierarchical Variational Autoencoders

A Hierarchical Variational Autoencoder (HVAE) is a generalization of a VAE that extends to multiple hierarchies over latent variables.

Under this formulation, latent variables themselves are interpreted as generated from other higher-level, more abstract latents.

Whereas in the general HVAE with  $T$  hierarchical levels, each latent is allowed to condition on all previous latents, we focus on a special case which we call a Markovian HVAE (MHVAE).

In a MHVAE, the generative process is a Markov chain; that is, each transition down the hierarchy is Markovian, where

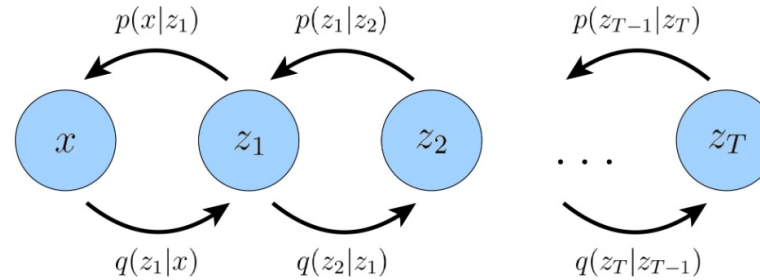


A Markovian Hierarchical Variational Autoencoder with  $T$  hierarchical latents. The generative process is modeled as a Markov chain, where each latent  $z_t$  is generated only from the previous latent  $z_{t+1}$ .

# Hierarchical Variational Autoencoders

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_{1:T}) = p(\mathbf{z}_T) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z}_1) \prod_{t=2}^T p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_{t-1} | \mathbf{z}_t)$$

$$q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}) = q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_1 | \mathbf{x}) \prod_{t=2}^T q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_t | \mathbf{z}_{t-1})$$



A Markovian Hierarchical Variational Autoencoder with  $T$  hierarchical latents. The generative process is modeled as a Markov chain, where each latent  $\mathbf{z}_t$  is generated only from the previous latent  $\mathbf{z}_{t+1}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \log p(\mathbf{x}) &= \log \int p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_{1:T}) d\mathbf{z}_{1:T} \\ &= \log \int \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_{1:T}) q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x})}{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{z}_{1:T} && \text{(Multiply by } 1 = \frac{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x})}{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x})} \text{)} \\ &= \log \mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x})} \left[ \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_{1:T})}{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x})} \right] && \text{(Definition of Expectation)} \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x})} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_{1:T})}{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x})} \right] && \text{(Apply Jensen's Inequality)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x})} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_{1:T})}{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x})} \right] = \mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x})} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{z}_T) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z}_1) \prod_{t=2}^T p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_{t-1} | \mathbf{z}_t)}{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_1 | \mathbf{x}) \prod_{t=2}^T q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}_t | \mathbf{z}_{t-1})} \right]$$

# Variational Diffusion Models

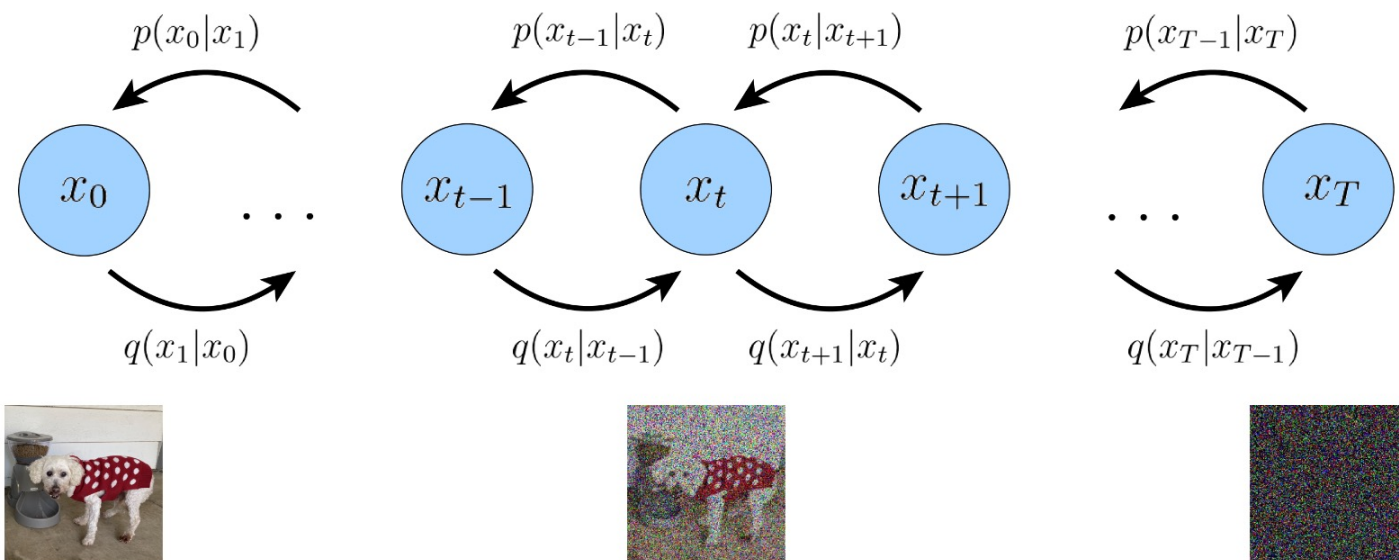
A Variational Diffusion Model (VDM) is simply as a Markovian Hierarchical Variational Autoencoder with three key restrictions:

The latent dimension is exactly equal to the data dimension.

The structure of the latent encoder at each timestep is not learned; it is pre-defined as a linear Gaussian model. In other words, it is a Gaussian distribution centered around the output of the previous timestep.

The Gaussian parameters of the latent encoders vary over time in such a way that the distribution of the latent at final timestep  $T$  is a standard Gaussian.

# Variational Diffusion Models



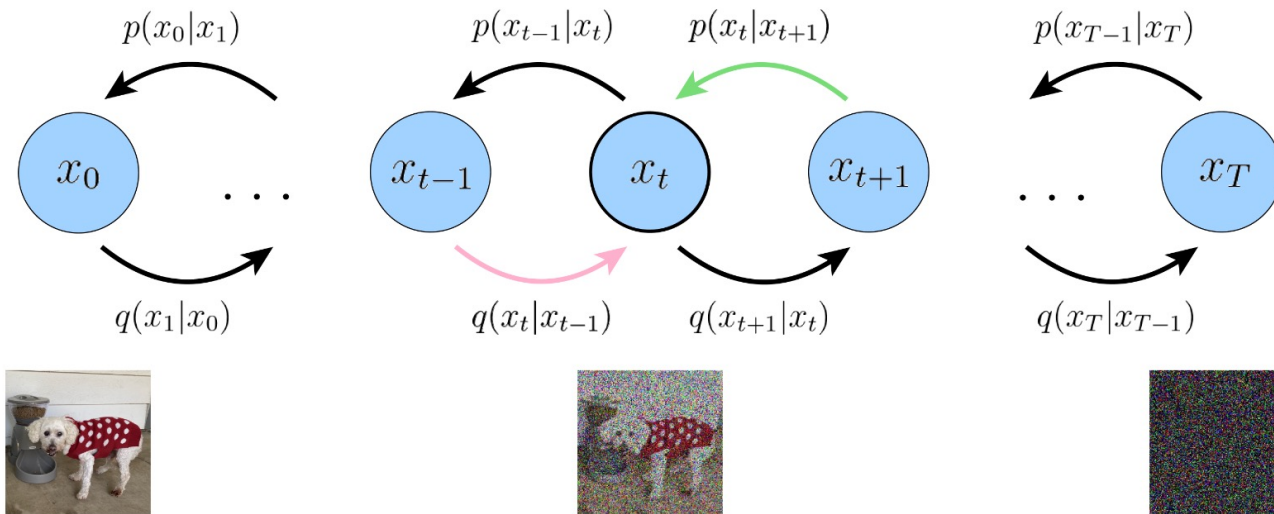
A visual representation of a Variational Diffusion Model;  $x_0$  represents true data observations such as natural images,  $x_T$  represents pure Gaussian noise, and  $x_t$  is an intermediate noisy version of  $x_0$ . Each  $q(x_t|x_{t-1})$  is modeled as a Gaussian distribution that uses the output of the previous state as its mean.

# Maximising the ELBO for VDM

$$\begin{aligned}
\log p(\mathbf{x}) &= \log \int p(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}) d\mathbf{x}_{1:T} \\
&= \log \int \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}) q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)}{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} d\mathbf{x}_{1:T} \\
&= \log \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_{0:T})}{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \right] \\
&\geq \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_{0:T})}{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_T) \prod_{t=1}^T p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1} | \mathbf{x}_t)}{\prod_{t=1}^T q(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1})} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_T) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{x}_1) \prod_{t=2}^T p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1} | \mathbf{x}_t)}{q(\mathbf{x}_T | \mathbf{x}_{T-1}) \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} q(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1})} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_T) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{x}_1) \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t+1})}{q(\mathbf{x}_T | \mathbf{x}_{T-1}) \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} q(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1})} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_T) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{x}_1)}{q(\mathbf{x}_T | \mathbf{x}_{T-1})} \right] + \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \log \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} \frac{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t+1})}{q(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1})} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} [\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{x}_1)] + \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_T)}{q(\mathbf{x}_T | \mathbf{x}_{T-1})} \right] + \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \log \frac{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t+1})}{q(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1})} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} [\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{x}_1)] + \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_T)}{q(\mathbf{x}_T | \mathbf{x}_{T-1})} \right] + \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \log \frac{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t+1})}{q(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1})} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{x}_0)} [\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{x}_1)] + \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{T-1}, \mathbf{x}_T | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_T)}{q(\mathbf{x}_T | \mathbf{x}_{T-1})} \right] + \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t+1} | \mathbf{x}_0)} \left[ \log \frac{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t+1})}{q(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1})} \right] \\
&= \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{x}_0)} [\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{x}_1)]}_{\text{reconstruction term}} - \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{T-1}, \mathbf{x}_T | \mathbf{x}_0)} [D_{\text{KL}}(q(\mathbf{x}_T | \mathbf{x}_{T-1}) \| p(\mathbf{x}_T))]}_{\text{prior matching term}} \\
&\quad - \underbrace{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t+1} | \mathbf{x}_0)} [D_{\text{KL}}(q(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1}) \| p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t+1}))]}_{\text{consistency term}}
\end{aligned}$$

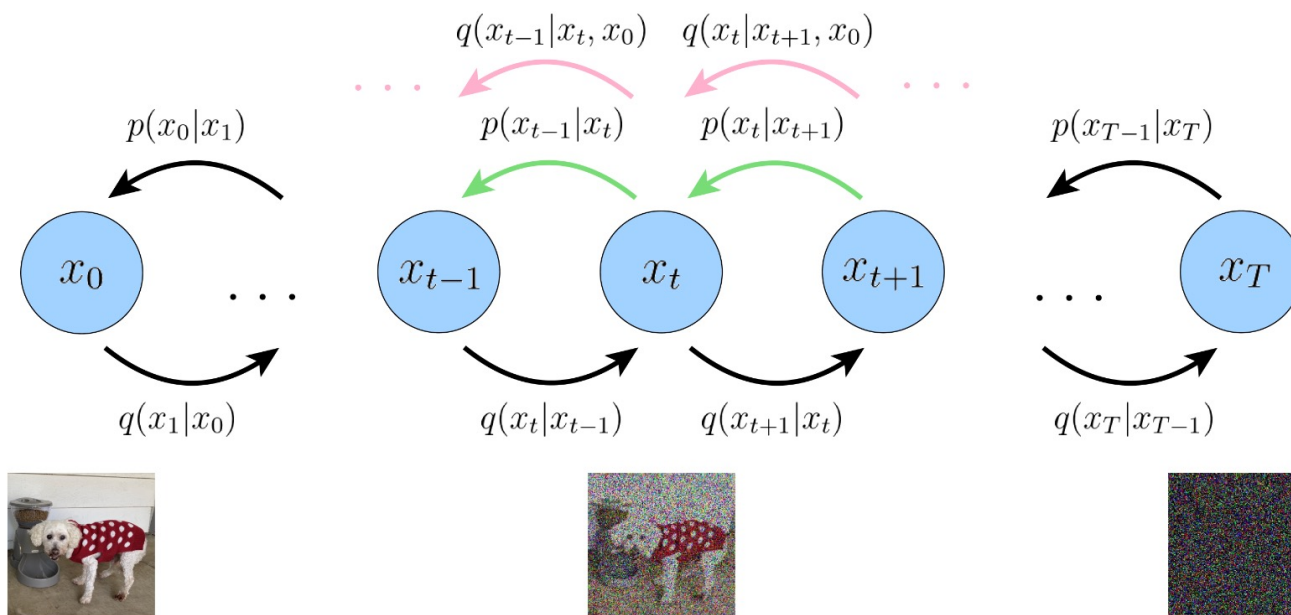


# Variational Diffusion Models



a VDM can be optimized by ensuring that for every intermediate  $x_t$ , the posterior from the latent above it  $p_\theta(x_t|x_{t+1})$  matches the Gaussian corruption of the latent before it  $q(x_t|x_{t-1})$ . In this figure, for each intermediate  $x_t$ , we minimize the difference between the distributions represented by the pink and green arrows.

# Variational Diffusion Models

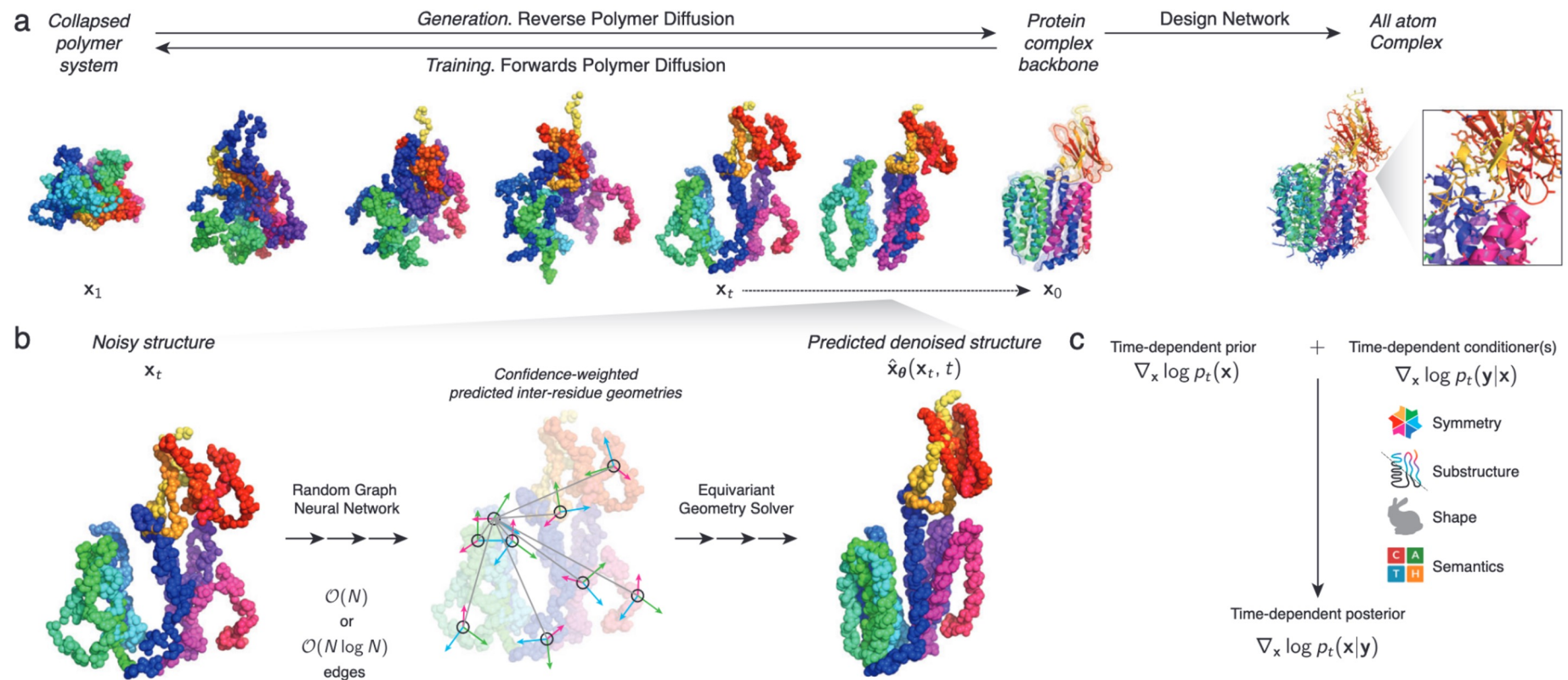


Depicted is an alternate, lower-variance method to optimize a VDM; we compute the form of ground-truth denoising step  $q(x_{t-1}|x_t, x_0)$  using Bayes rule, and minimize its KL Divergence with our approximate denoising step  $p_\theta(x_{t-1}|x_t)$ . This is once again denoted visually by matching the distributions represented by the green arrows with those of the pink arrows. Artistic liberty is at play here; in the full picture, each pink arrow must also stem from  $x_0$ , as it is also a conditioning term.

# Variational Diffusion Models

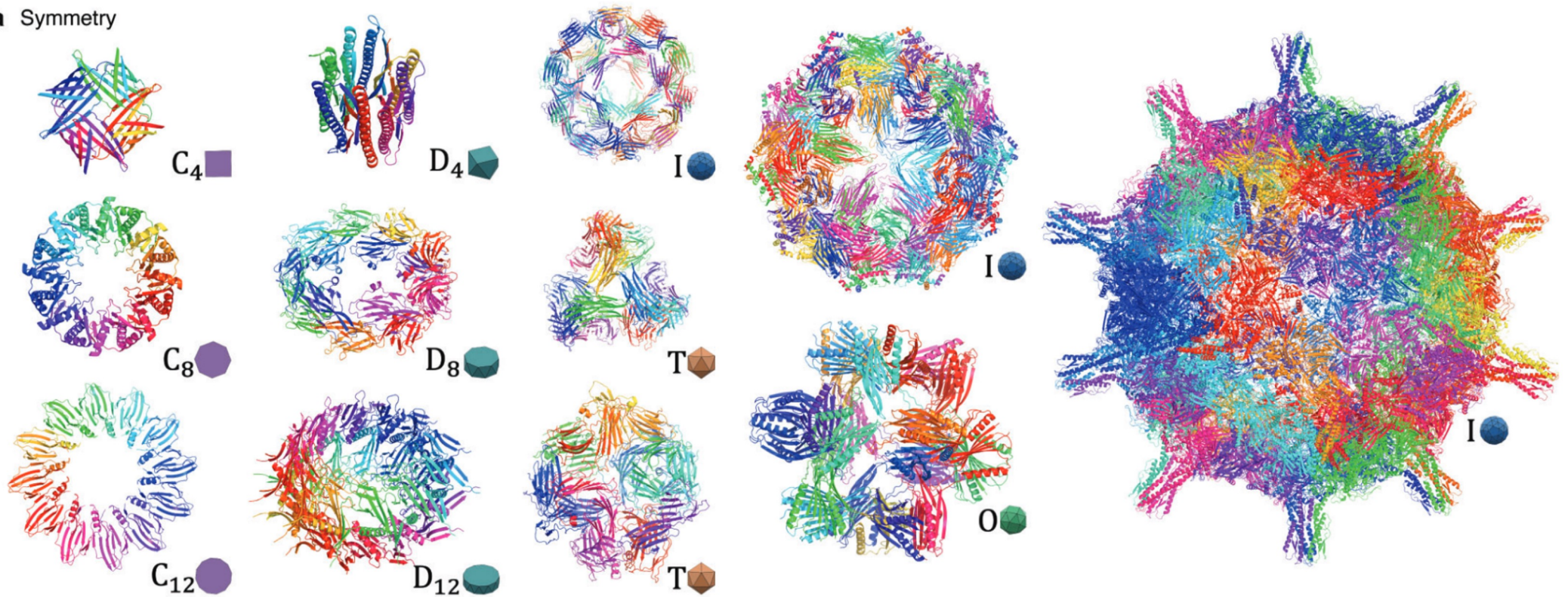
- Variational Diffusion Models as a special case of a Markovian Hierarchical Variational Autoencoder, where three key assumptions enable tractable computation and scalable optimization of the ELBO.
- A VDM boils down to learning a neural network to predict one of three potential objectives:
  - the original source image from any arbitrary noisification of it,
  - the original source noise from any arbitrarily noisified image, or
  - the score function of a noisified image at any arbitrary noise level.

# Chroma and RFDiffusion: Diffusion Models for Protein Design



# Chroma: Design based on symmetry

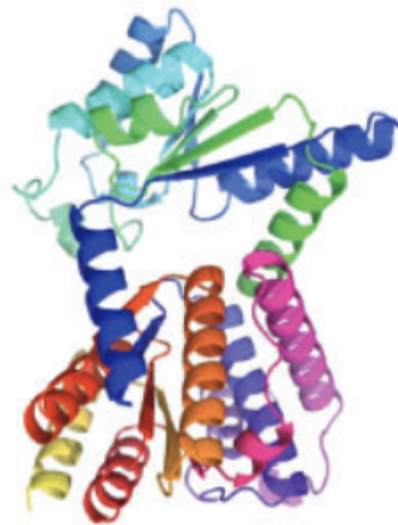
a Symmetry





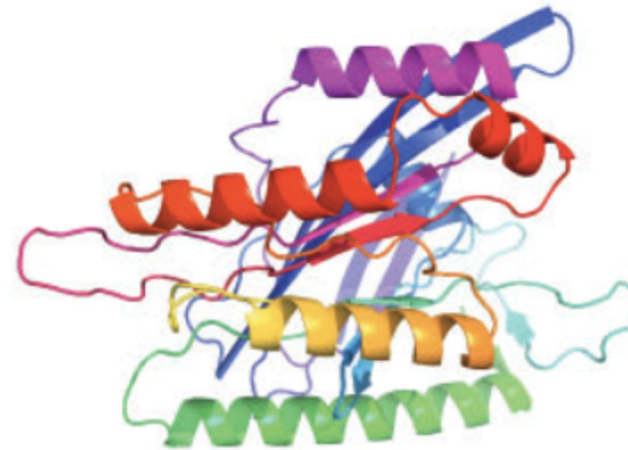
# Chroma: Condition based text (i.e. DALLE-x for proteins)

*“Crystal structure of Aminotransferase”*



caption perplexity = **1.50**

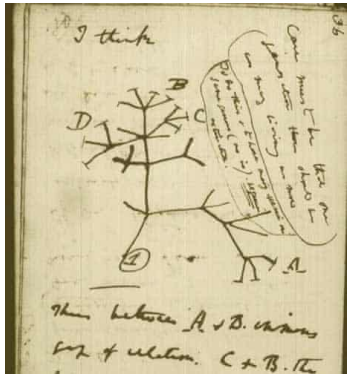
*“Protein with CHAD domain”*



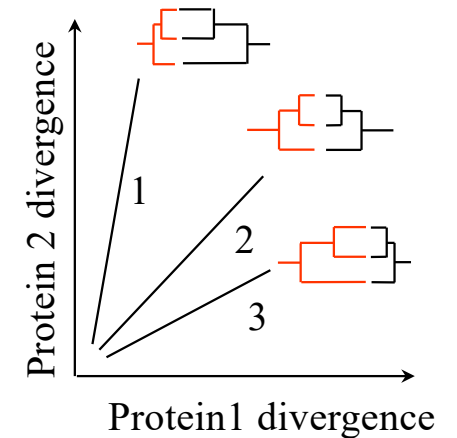
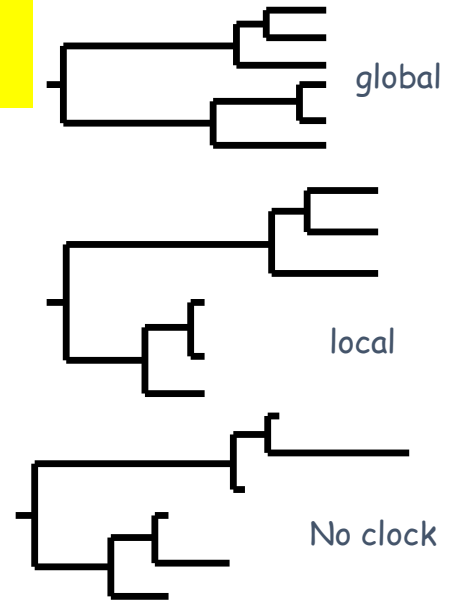
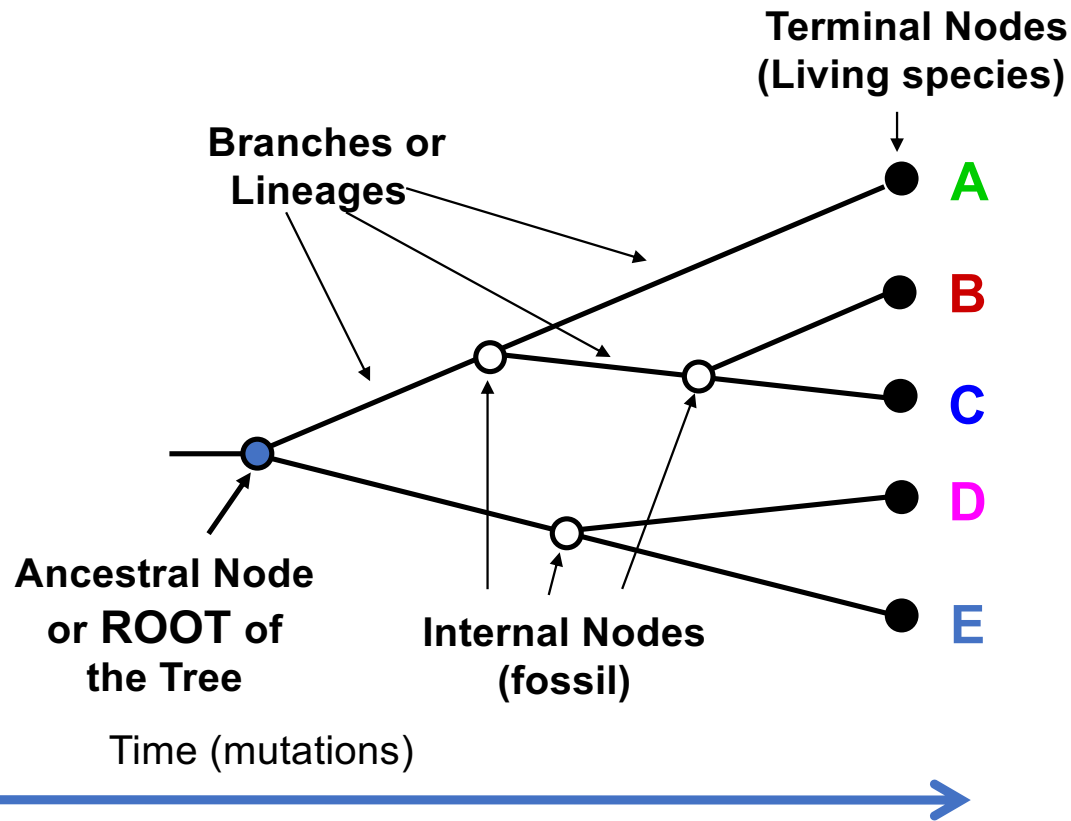
caption perplexity = **4.81**

# Protein Evolution

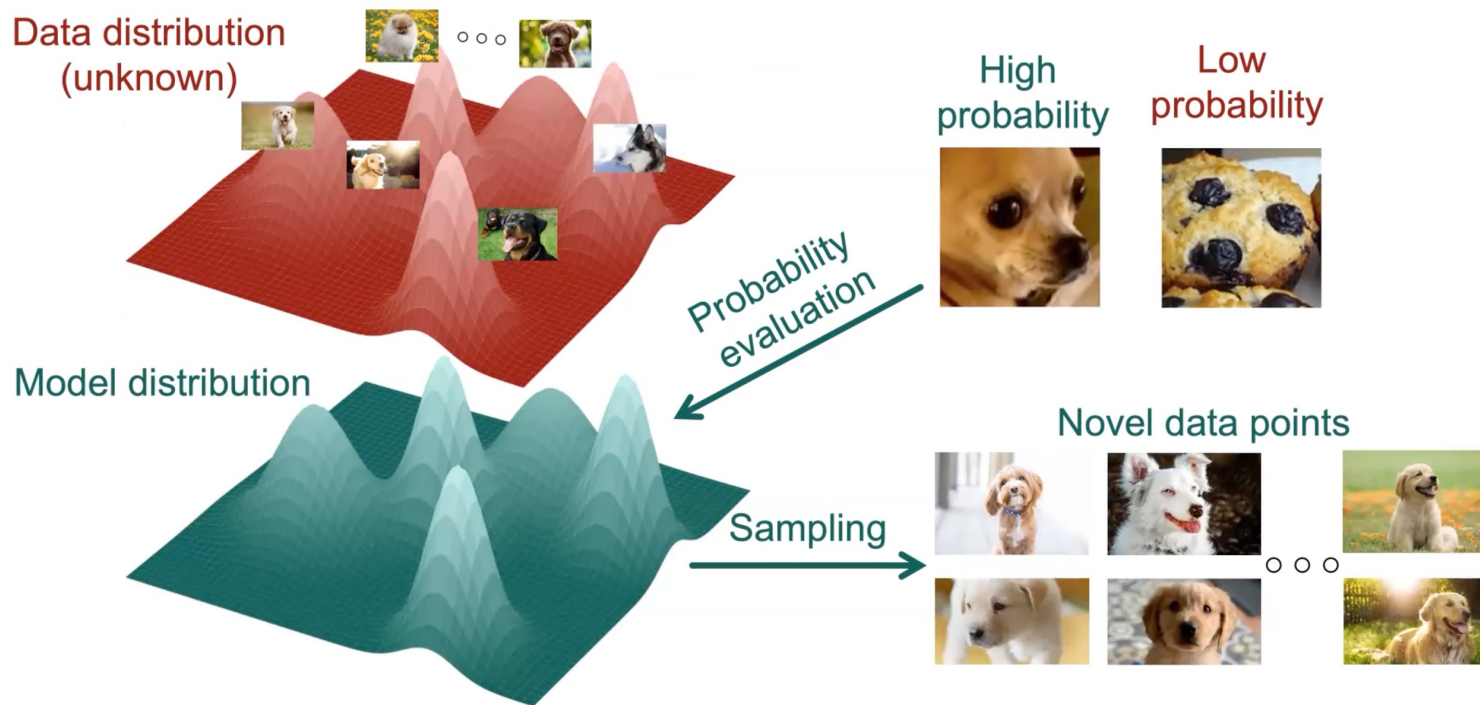
Nothing in Biology Makes Sense Except in the Light of Evolution (Dobzhansky, 1964)



species tree by Darwin

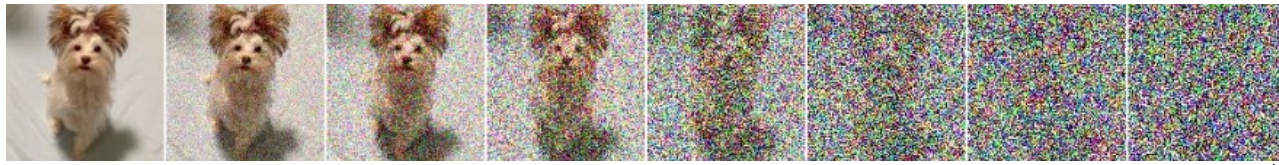


# Generative Modelling



(Credit: Yang Song)



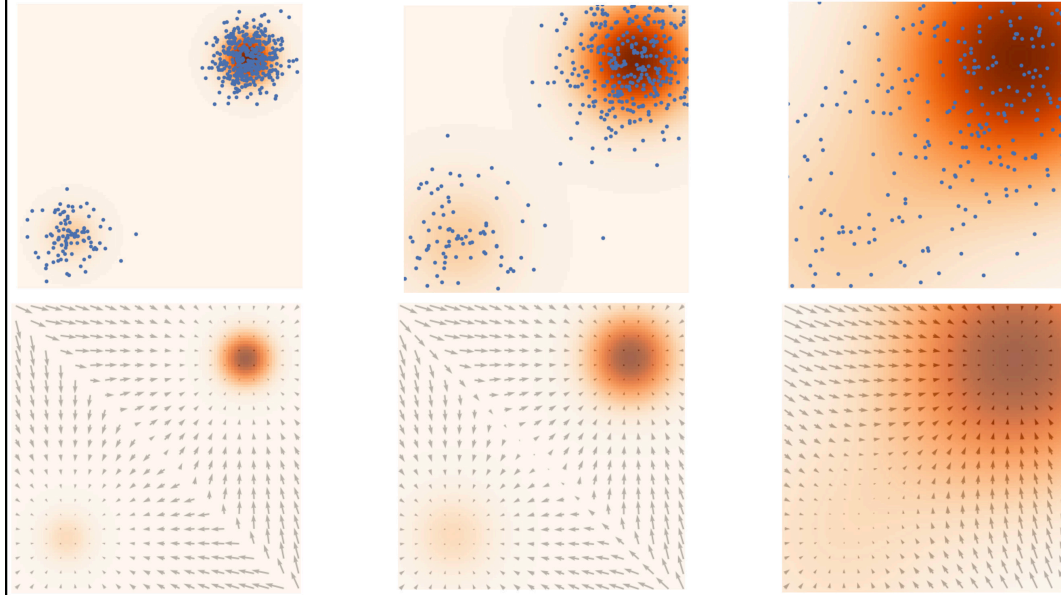


add more and more noise (noise scale  $\sigma$ )

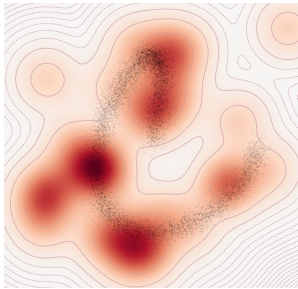
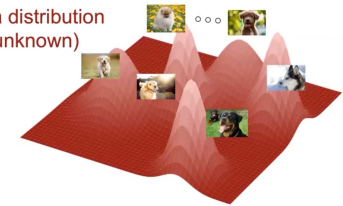
$\sigma_1$

$\sigma_2$

$\sigma_3$

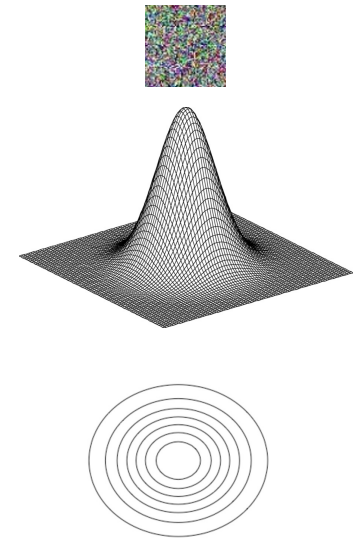


Data distribution  
(unknown)



Data distribution  
(fully denoised)

Hard to sample from.



Sampling distribution  
(fully noised)

Often a unit Gaussian.

Easy to sample from

---

**Algorithm 1** | Unconditional training of denoising diffusion models [Ho et al., 2020]

---

**Require:** Dataset drawn from law  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{data}} = \mathcal{P}_0$  ▷ Dataset law  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{data}}$

**Require:** Noise schedule  $\beta_t = \beta(t), \bar{\alpha}_t = \bar{\alpha}(t)$ , parametrising process  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{data}} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}_{\text{sampling}}$

**Require:** Untrained noise predictor function  $\mathbf{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x}, t)$  with parameters  $\theta$

1: **repeat**

2:  $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim \mathcal{P}_0 = \mathcal{P}_{\text{data}}$

3:  $t \sim \text{Uniform}(\{1, \dots, T\})$

4: ▷ Forward noise sample,  $\mathbf{x}_t \sim \bar{p}_{t|0}(\mathbf{x}_0)$  ◁

5:  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t \sim \mathcal{P}_{\text{noise}}$  ▷ Often Brownian motion,  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{noise}} = \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$

6:  $\mathbf{x}_t \leftarrow \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t} \mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$

7: ▷ Estimate noise of noised sample ◁

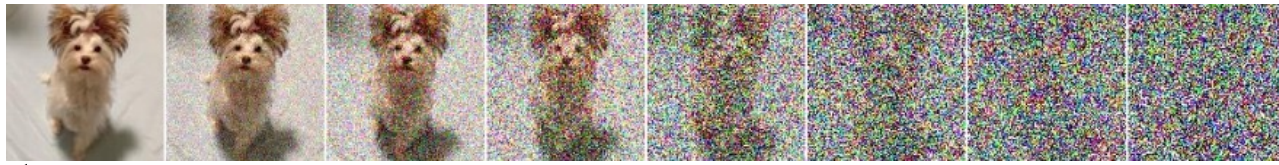
8:  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_\theta \leftarrow \mathbf{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t)$

9: Take gradient descent step on

$\nabla_\theta L(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t, \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_\theta)$  ▷ Typically, loss  $L(x_{\text{true}}, x_{\text{pred}}) = \|x_{\text{true}} - x_{\text{pred}}\|^2$

10: **until** converged or max epoch reached

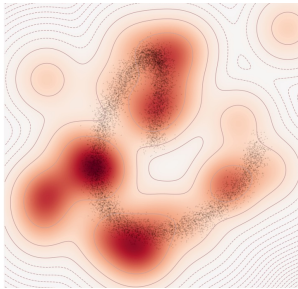
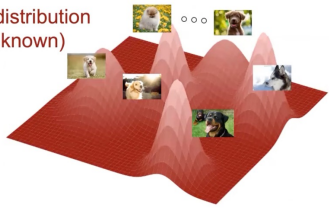
---



remove more and more noise

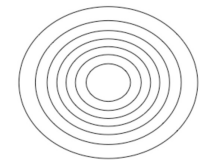
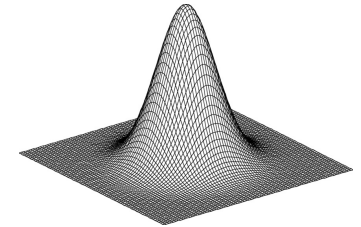
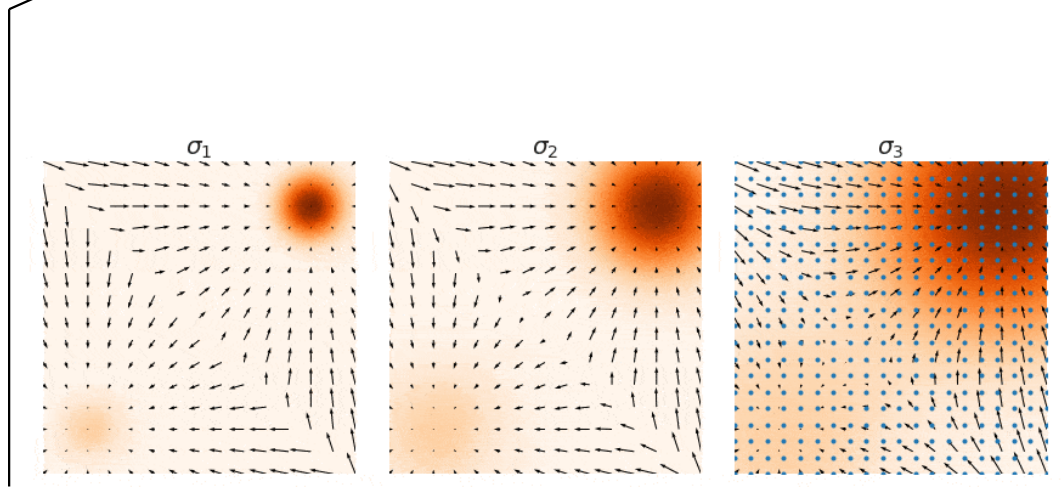
sample random starting point

Data distribution  
(unknown)



Data distribution  
(fully denoised)

Hard to sample from.



Sampling distribution  
(fully noised)

Often a unit Gaussian.

Easy to sample from

---

**Algorithm 2** | Unconditional sampling with denoising diffusion models [Ho et al., 2020]

---

**Require:** Unconditionally trained noise predictor  $\mathbf{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t)$

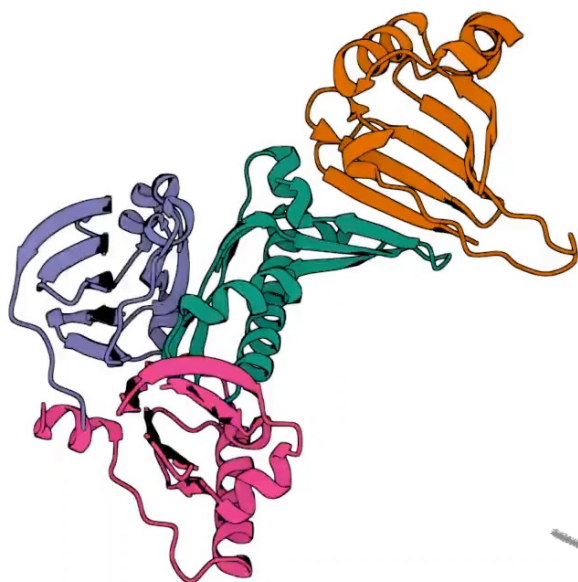
**Require:** Noise schedule  $\beta_t = \beta(t)$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}_t = \bar{\alpha}(t)$ , parametrising process  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{data}} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}_{\text{sampling}}$

- 1:  $\triangleright$  Sample a starting point  $\mathbf{x}_T$   $\triangleleft$
  - 2:  $\mathbf{x}_T \sim \mathcal{P}_T = \mathcal{P}_{\text{sampling}}$   $\triangleright$  Often  $\mathcal{P}_T = \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$
  
  - 3:  $\triangleright$  Iteratively denoise for  $T$  steps  $\triangleleft$
  - 4: **for**  $t$  in  $(T, T - 1, \dots, 1)$  **do**
  - 5:      $\triangleright$  Predict noise with learned network  $\triangleleft$
  - 6:      $\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_\theta = \mathbf{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t)$
  
  - 7:      $\triangleright$  Denoise sample with learned reverse process  $\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \sim \bar{p}_{t-1|t}(\mathbf{x}_t)$   $\triangleleft$
  - 8:      $\triangleright$  Perform reverse drift  $\triangleleft$
  - 9:      $\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \leftarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta_t}} \left( \mathbf{x}_t - \frac{\beta_t}{\sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t}} \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_\theta \right)$
  
  - 10:      $\triangleright$  Perform reverse diffusion, which is often Brownian motion in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , i.e.  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{noise}} = \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$   $\triangleleft$
  - 11:      $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t \sim \mathcal{P}_{\text{noise}}$  if  $t > 1$  else  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t \leftarrow 0$
  - 12:      $\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \sigma_t \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t$   $\triangleright$  A common choice is  $\sigma_t = \beta(t)$
  - 13: **return**  $\mathbf{x}_0$
- 

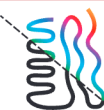
Didi\*, Vargas\*, Mathis\*, Dutordoir\* et al. NeurIPS AI4D3 2023

# Diffusion models for protein design

Enable “controllable” design of proteins for many properties



Symmetry



Substructure



Shape



Semantics



Dynamical properties

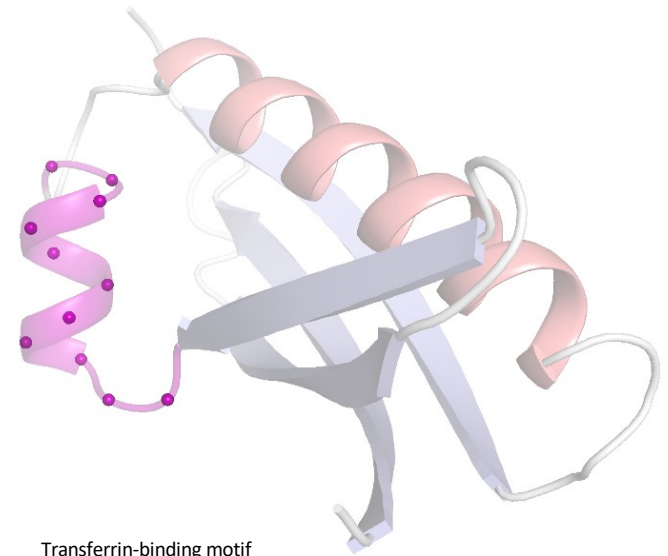


# Tackling Motif Scaffolding

Scaffold a certain motif into diverse backbones



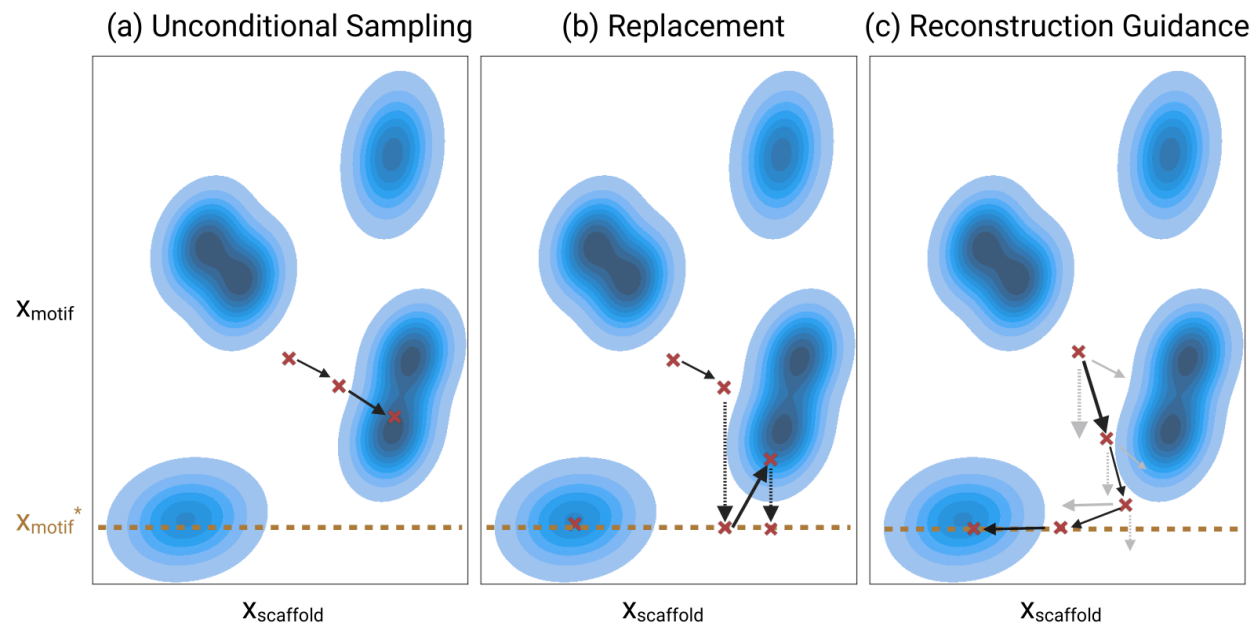
Transferrin-binding motif  
6E6R



Transferrin-binding motif  
+ new scaffold

# Many ways to condition diffusion models

## Tug-of-war between unconditional and conditional update



---

**Algorithm 5** | Amortised training – i.e. Doob’s  $h$ -transform conditional training (new)

---

**Require:** Dataset drawn from  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{data}}$  ▷ Dataset law  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{data}}$

**Require:** Noise schedule  $\beta_t = \beta(t)$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}_t = \bar{\alpha}(t)$ , parametrising process  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{data}} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}_{\text{sampling}}$

**Require:** Untrained noise predictor function  $\mathbf{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x}, t, \mathbf{x}^{[M]}, M)$  with parameters  $\theta$

- 1: **repeat**
  - 2:      $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim \mathcal{P}_0 = \mathcal{P}_{\text{data}}$
  - 3:      $t \sim \text{Uniform}(\{1, \dots, T\})$
  - 4:      $\mathbf{x}_0^{[M]} \cup \mathbf{x}_0^{[\setminus M]} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_0$  ▷ Randomly partition data point into motif and rest
  
  - 5:     ▷ Forward noise full sample via sampling from  $\bar{p}_{0|t}(\mathbf{x}_0)$  ◁
  - 6:      $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t \sim \mathcal{P}_{\text{noise}}$
  - 7:      $\mathbf{x}_t \leftarrow \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t} \mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$
  
  - 8:     ▷ Estimate noise of sample with original motif as additional input ◁
  - 9:      $\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_\theta \leftarrow \mathbf{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t, \mathbf{x}_0^{[M]}, M)$
  - 10:    Take gradient descent step on ▷ Typically,  $L(x_{\text{true}}, x_{\text{pred}}) = \|x_{\text{true}} - x_{\text{pred}}\|^2$   
       $\nabla_\theta L(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_\theta)$
  - 11: **until** converged or max epoch reached
- 

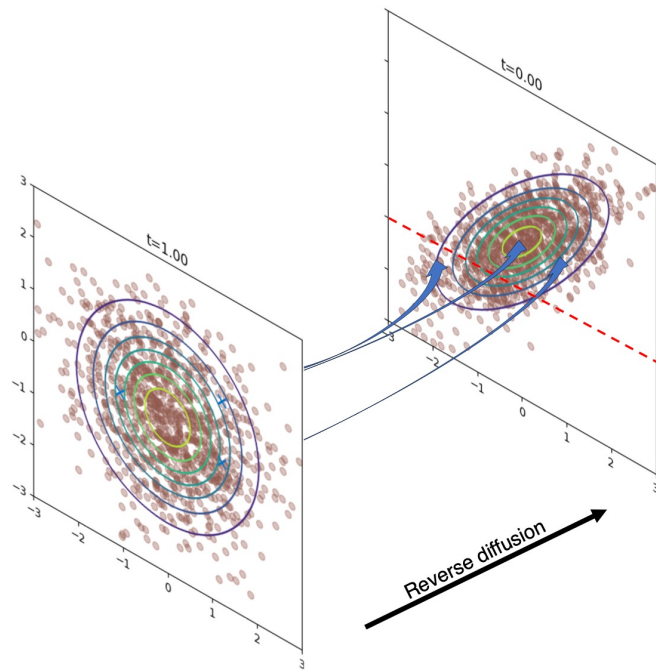
Didi\*, Vargas\*, Mathis\*, Dutordoir\* et al. NeurIPS AI4D3 2023



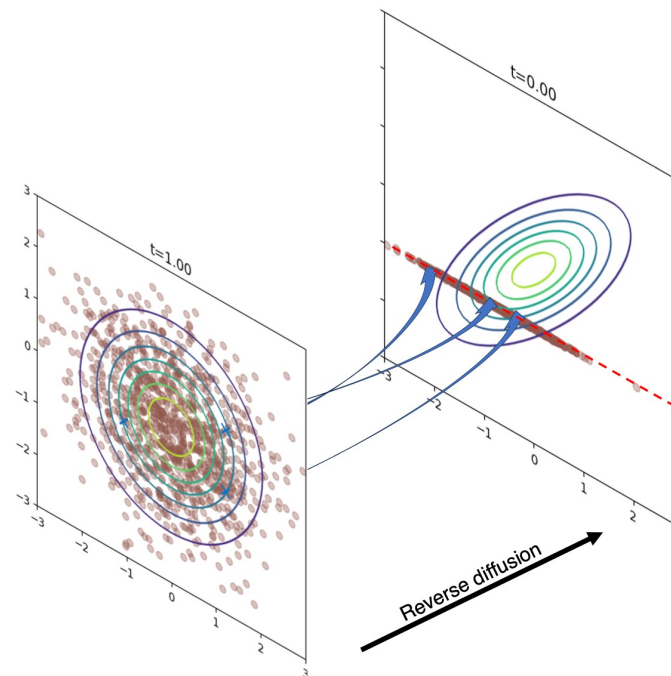
# h-Transforming SDE = Conditional Sampling

General framework to enforce various conditioning constraints

(a) Original SDE → Unconditional Sampling



(b) h-transformed SDE → Conditional Sampling



---

**Algorithm 8** | Reconstruction Guidance (i.e. Moment Matching (MM) Approximation to  $h$ -transform)

---

**Require:** Unconditionally trained noise predictor  $\mathbf{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t)$ , target motif/context  $\mathbf{x}_0^{[M]}$ .

**Require:** Noise schedule  $\beta_t = \beta(t)$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}_t = \bar{\alpha}(t)$ , parameterising process  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{data}} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}_{\text{sampling}}$

**Require:** Guidance scale (schedule)  $\gamma_t = \gamma(t)$

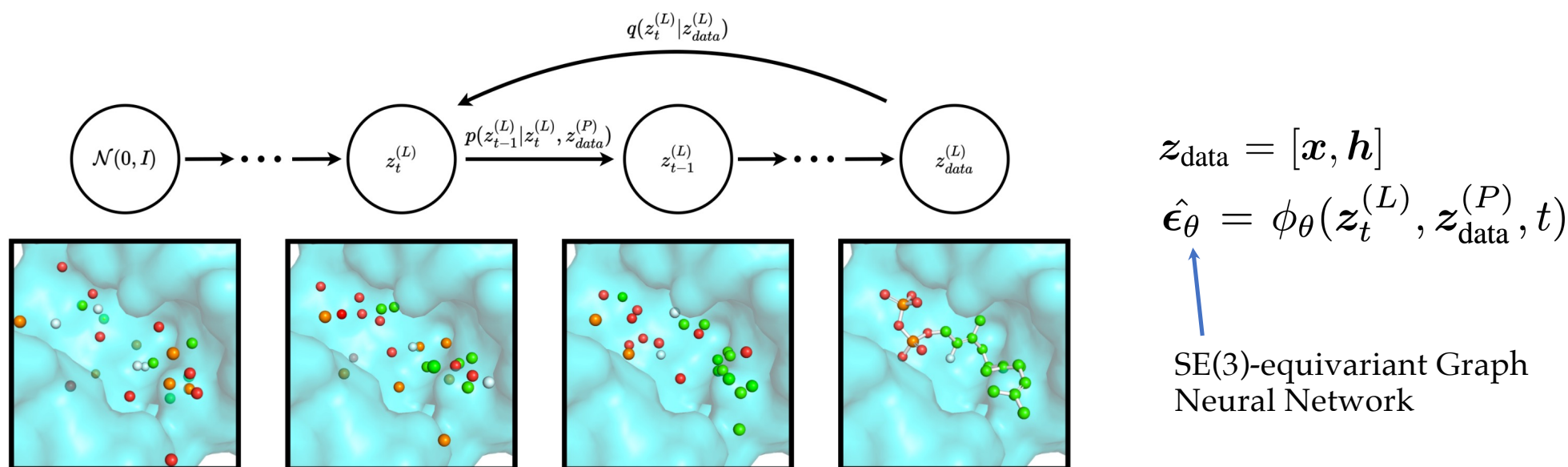
**Require:** Conditioning loss  $l(x_{\text{true}}, x_{\text{pred}})$ . e.g, Gaussian MM  $l(x_{\text{true}}, x_{\text{pred}}) = \|x_{\text{true}} - x_{\text{pred}}\|^2$

- 1:  $\triangleright$  Sample a starting point  $\mathbf{x}_T$   $\triangleleft$
  - 2:  $\mathbf{x}_T \sim \mathcal{P}_T = \mathcal{P}_{\text{sampling}}$   $\triangleright$  Often  $\mathcal{P}_T = \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$
  - 3:  $\triangleright$  Iteratively denoise and condition for  $T$  steps  $\triangleleft$
  - 4: **for**  $t$  in  $(T, T - 1, \dots, 1)$  **do**
  - 5:      $\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_\theta = \mathbf{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t)$   $\triangleright$  Predict noise with learned network
  - 6:      $\triangleright$  Estimate current denoised estimate via Tweedie's formula  $\triangleleft$
  - 7:      $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_0(\mathbf{x}_t, \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_\theta) \leftarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t}} (\mathbf{x}_t - \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_\theta)$   $\triangleright$  c.f. also eq. 15 in Ho et al. [2020]
  - 8:      $\triangleright$  Perform gradient descent step towards condition on motif dimensions  $M$   $\triangleleft$
  - 9:      $\mathbf{x}_t \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_t - \gamma_t \nabla_x l(\mathbf{x}_0^{[M]}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_0^{[M]}(\mathbf{x}_t, \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_\theta))$   $\triangleright$  Requires backprop through  $\mathbf{f}_\theta$  via e.g.  $L_2$  loss
  - 10:      $\triangleright$  Denoise sample with learned reverse process  $\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \sim \bar{p}_{t-1|t}(\mathbf{x}_t)$   $\triangleleft$
  - 11:      $\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \leftarrow (1 - \beta_t)^{-1/2} (\mathbf{x}_t - \beta_t (1 - \bar{\alpha}_t)^{-1/2} \hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_\theta)$   $\triangleright$  Perform reverse drift
  - 12:      $\triangleright$  Perform reverse diffusion, which is often Brownian motion in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , i.e.  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{noise}} = \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$   $\triangleleft$
  - 13:      $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t \sim \mathcal{P}_{\text{noise}}$  if  $t > 1$  else  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t \leftarrow 0$
  - 14:      $\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \sigma_t \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t$   $\triangleright$  A common choice is  $\sigma_t = \beta(t)$
  - 15: **return**  $\mathbf{x}_0$
- 

Didi\*, Vargas\*, Mathis\*, Dutordoir\* et al. NeurIPS AI4D3 2023

# DiffSBDD: Diffusion for Structure-based Drug Design with Equivariant Diffusion Models

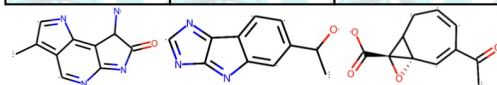
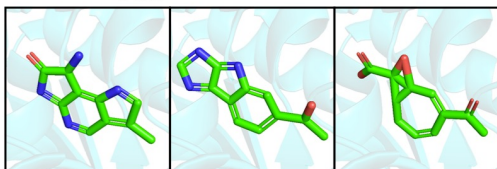
- Both proteins and ligands are represented as all-atom graphs (with coordinates  $x$  and feature {i.e. atoms types} vectors  $h$ ).
- Our model is trained to predict the transitional probability distribution  $p_\theta(z_{t-1}^{(L)} | z_t^{(L)}, z_{data}^{(P)})$  which is conditioned both on the previous latent state of the ligand  $z_t^{(L)}$  and the fixed presentation of the pocket  $z_{data}^{(P)}$ .
- In practice, samples are constructed using a denoising network  $\hat{\epsilon}_\theta$



Based on: Schneuing, Arne, et al. "Structure-based drug design with equivariant diffusion models." *NeurIPS MLSB 2022*.

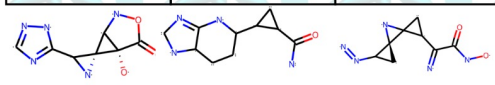
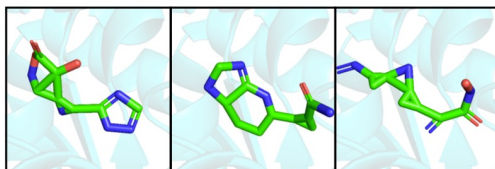
# DiffSBDD: Results

Conditional (2jig)



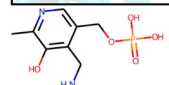
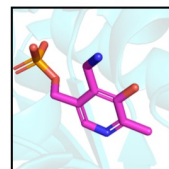
Vina: -6.5 Sim: 0.27 QED: 0.49 SA: 0.43 QED: 0.63 SA: 0.35 QED: 0.54 SA: 0.27

Inpainting-Ca (2jig)



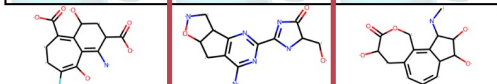
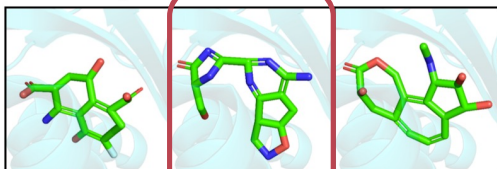
Vina: -6.5 Sim: 0.27 QED: 0.44 SA: 0.29 QED: 0.53 SA: 0.35 QED: 0.21 SA: 0.35

Reference (2jig)



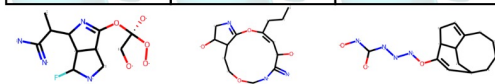
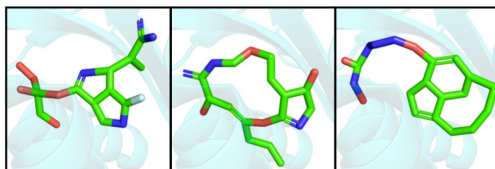
Vina: -5.9 Sim: 1 QED: 0.56 SA: 0.78

Conditional (3kc1)



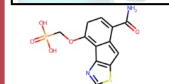
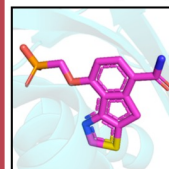
Vina: -8.1 Sim: 0.44 QED: 0.70 SA: 0.45 Vina: -7.2 Sim: 0.50 QED: 0.65 SA: 0.45 Vina: -8.5 Sim: 0.40 QED: 0.63 SA: 0.35

Inpainting-Ca (3kc1)

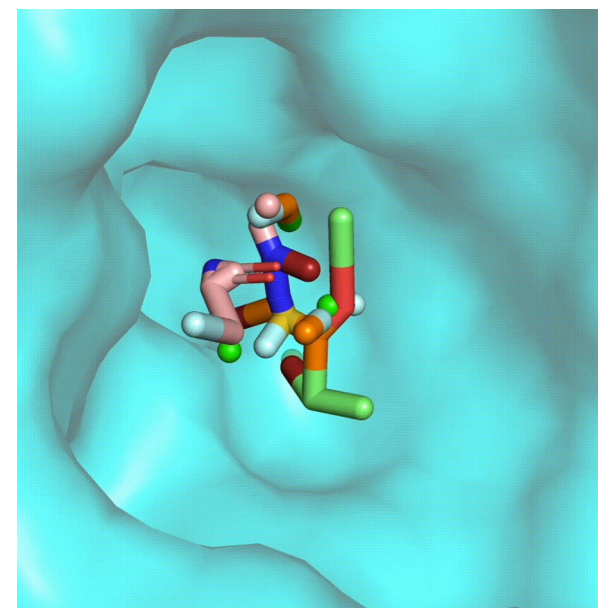


Vina: -6.9 Sim: 0.40 QED: 0.15 SA: 0.36 Vina: -6.9 Sim: 0.32 QED: 0.67 SA: 0.27 Vina: -6.4 Sim: 0.23 QED: 0.45 SA: 0.40

Reference (3kc1)

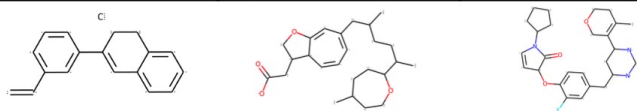
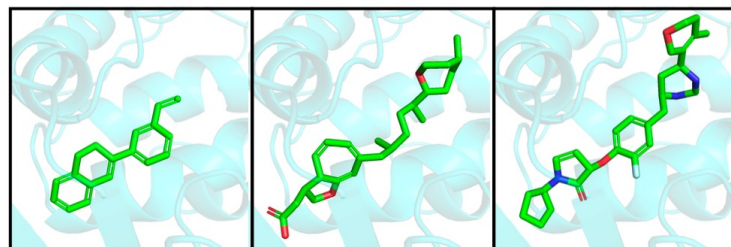


Vina: -6.5 Sim: 1 QED: 0.72 SA: 0.66



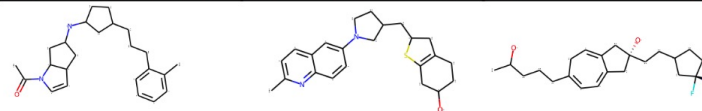
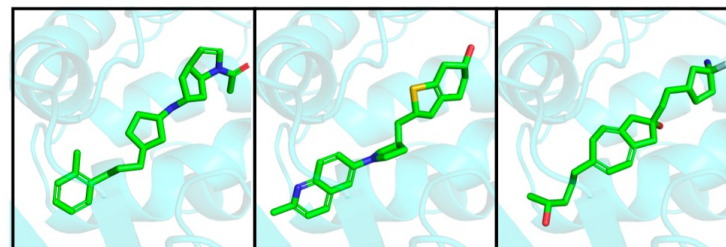
# DiffSBDD: Results

Conditional-Ca (6c0b)



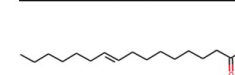
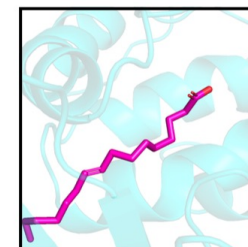
Vina: -12.8 Sim: 0.05 Vina: -11.9 Sim: 0.12 Vina: -11.5 Sim: 0.06  
 QED: 0.74 SA: 0.45 QED: 0.66 SA: 0.25 QED: 0.68 SA: 0.25

Inpainting-Ca (6c0b)



Vina: -12.4 Sim: 0.07 Vina: -12.3 Sim: 0.07 Vina: -12.2 Sim: 0.12  
 QED: 0.76 SA: 0.24 QED: 0.85 SA: 0.25 QED: 0.63 SA: 0.34

Reference (6c0b)



Vina: -8.40 Sim: 1  
 QED: 0.36 SA: 0.89



# DiffSBDD: Results

Table 1. Evaluation of generated molecules for targets from the CrossDocked test set. \* denotes that we re-evaluate the generated ligands provided by the authors. The inference times are taken from their papers.

	Vina Score (kcal/mol, ↓)	QED (↑)	SA (↑)	Lipinski (↑)	Diversity (↑)	Time (s, ↓)
Test set	$-6.871 \pm 2.32$	$0.476 \pm 0.20$	$0.728 \pm 0.14$	$4.340 \pm 1.14$	—	—
3D-SBDD (AR) (Luo et al., 2021)*	$-5.888 \pm 1.91$	$0.502 \pm 0.17$	$0.675 \pm 0.14$	$4.787 \pm 0.51$	$0.742 \pm 0.09$	$19659 \pm 14704$
Pocket2Mol (Peng et al., 2022)*	$-7.058 \pm 2.80$	$0.572 \pm 0.16$	<b><math>0.752 \pm 0.12</math></b>	<b><math>4.936 \pm 0.27</math></b>	$0.735 \pm 0.15$	$2504 \pm 2207$
GraphBP (Liu et al., 2022)	$-4.719 \pm 4.03$	$0.502 \pm 0.12$	$0.307 \pm 0.09$	$4.883 \pm 0.37$	<b><math>0.844 \pm 0.01</math></b>	$10.247 \pm 1.08$
DiffSBDD-cond ( $C_\alpha$ )	$-6.732 \pm 2.34$	$0.539 \pm 0.17$	$0.331 \pm 0.08$	$4.793 \pm 0.52$	$0.724 \pm 0.07$	$49.651 \pm 17.34$
DiffSBDD-inpaint ( $C_\alpha$ , 1)	$-6.768 \pm 2.45$	$0.569 \pm 0.16$	$0.327 \pm 0.08$	$4.803 \pm 0.49$	$0.735 \pm 0.06$	$97.434 \pm 39.79$
DiffSBDD-inpaint ( $C_\alpha$ , 5)	$-6.990 \pm 3.10$	<b><math>0.597 \pm 0.15</math></b>	$0.325 \pm 0.08$	$4.819 \pm 0.48$	$0.719 \pm 0.07$	
DiffSBDD-inpaint ( $C_\alpha$ , 10)	$-7.203 \pm 2.76$	<b><math>0.597 \pm 0.15</math></b>	$0.320 \pm 0.08$	$4.827 \pm 0.47$	$0.716 \pm 0.07$	
DiffSBDD-cond	$-6.895 \pm 2.04$	$0.530 \pm 0.16$	$0.329 \pm 0.08$	$4.779 \pm 0.53$	$0.724 \pm 0.07$	$135.866 \pm 51.66$
DiffSBDD-inpaint (1)	$-5.916 \pm 2.49$	$0.455 \pm 0.14$	$0.316 \pm 0.09$	$4.782 \pm 0.49$	$0.809 \pm 0.06$	
DiffSBDD-inpaint (5)	$-6.914 \pm 2.55$	$0.508 \pm 0.15$	$0.311 \pm 0.09$	$4.803 \pm 0.47$	$0.766 \pm 0.06$	
DiffSBDD-inpaint (10)	<b><math>-7.340 \pm 2.55</math></b>	$0.535 \pm 0.14$	<b><math>0.306 \pm 0.10</math></b>	<b><math>4.831 \pm 0.43</math></b>	<b><math>0.758 \pm 0.05</math></b>	