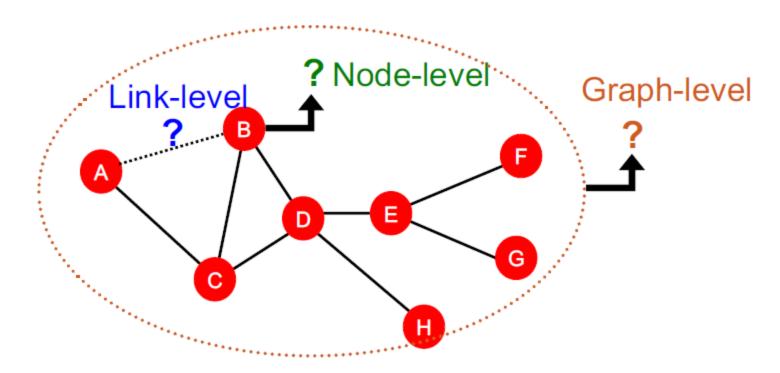
# Traditional Graph Machine Learning

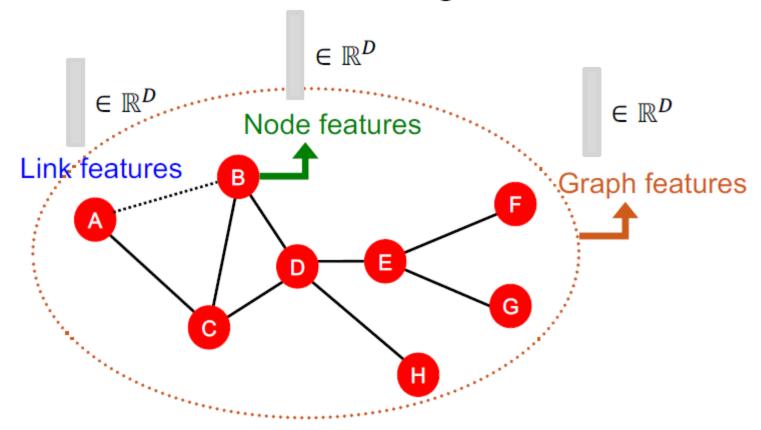
## **Predictions in Graphs**

- Node Level Prediction
- Edge Level Prediction
- Graph Level Prediction



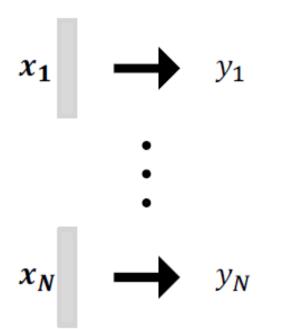
## Traditional ML Pipeline

- Design features for nodes/links/graphs
- Obtain features for all training data



## Traditional ML Pipeline

- Train an ML model:
  - Random forest
  - SVM
  - Neural network, etc.



#### Apply the model:

 Given a new node/link/graph, obtain its features and make a prediction



- Relies on Effective Feature Engineering
- Traditional ML relies on handdesigned features

## Machine Learning in Graphs

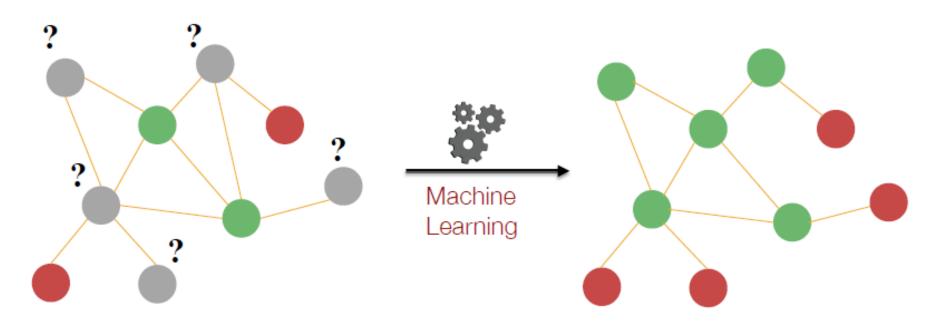
Goal: Make predictions for a set of objects

#### **Design choices:**

- Features: d-dimensional vectors
- Objects: Nodes, edges, sets of nodes, entire graphs
- Objective function:
  - What task are we aiming to solve?
    - ullet Given:G=(V,E)
    - Learn a function:  $f:V o\mathbb{R}$

How do we learn the function?

#### **Node Classification Task**



Node classification

ML needs features.

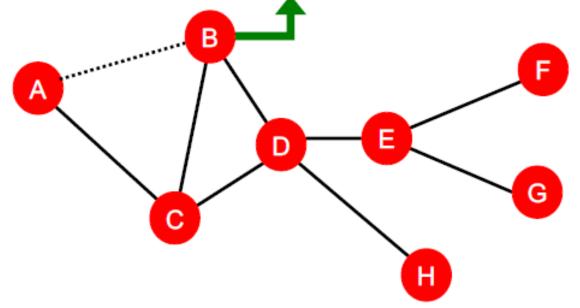
#### Node Level Features

**Goal:** Characterize the structure and position of a node in the network:

- Node degree
- Node centrality

Clustering coefficient
 Node feature

Graphlets



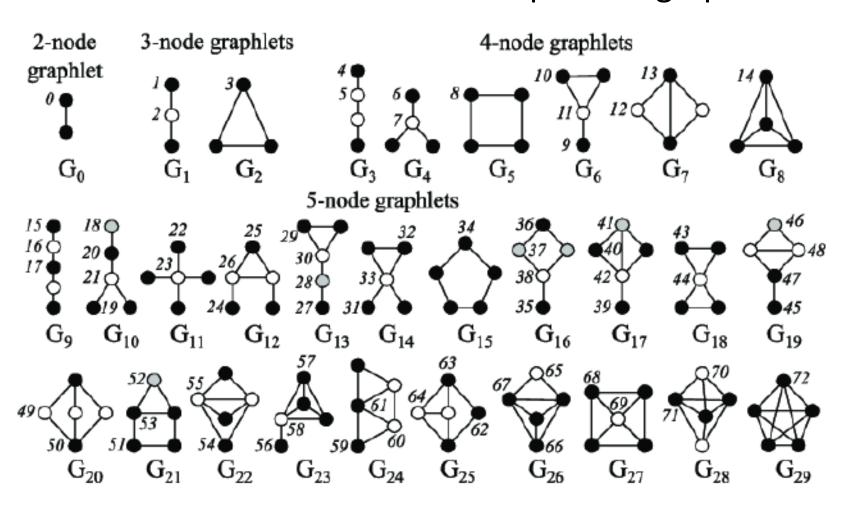
#### Node Level Features

- Node degrees: Simple but treats each of the neighbors equally
- Node Centrality: Measures node importance
  - Eigen Vector, PageRank, Betweenness, Closeness
- Clustering Coefficient: Measures cohesiveness
  - Counts # of triangles in the graph
  - We can generalize the counting to a pre-specified subgraph size (Graphlets)
- Graphlet counts

#### Node Level Features

#### Graphlets

Rooted connected non-isomorphic subgraphs



## Node features: Graphlets

Graphlet Degree Vector (GDV): Graphlet-base features for nodes

- Degree counts #(edges) that a node touches
- Clustering coefficient counts #(triangles) that a node touches.

GDV counts #(graphlets) that a node touches

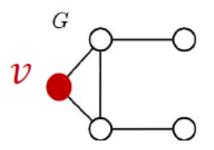
## Node Features: Graphlets

 Graphlet Degree Vector (GDV): A count vector of graphlets rooted at a given node.

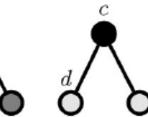
Example:

P P

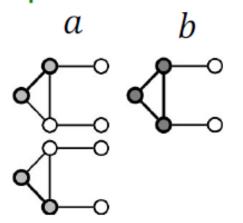




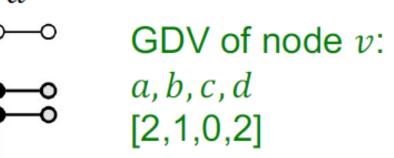




Graphlet instances:







### Node Features: Graphlets

- Considering graphlets on 2 to 5 nodes we get:
  - Vector of 73 coordinates is a signature of a node that describes the topology of node's neighborhood
  - Captures its interconnectivities out to a distance of 4 hops
- Graphlet degree vector provides a measure of a node's local network topology:
  - Comparing vectors of two nodes provides a more detailed measure of local topological similarity than node degrees or clustering coefficient.

## Node Level Feature Summary

- Importance-based features:
  - Node degree
  - Different node centrality measures
- Structure-based features:
  - Node degree
  - Clustering coefficient
  - Graphlet count vector

## Node Level Feature Summary

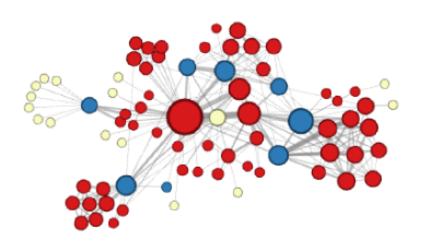
- Importance-based features: capture the importance of a node is in a graph
  - Node degree:
    - Simply counts the number of neighboring nodes
  - Node centrality:
    - Models importance of neighboring nodes in a graph
    - Different modeling choices: eigenvector centrality, betweenness centrality, closeness centrality
- Useful for predicting influential nodes in a graph
  - Example: predicting celebrity users in a social network

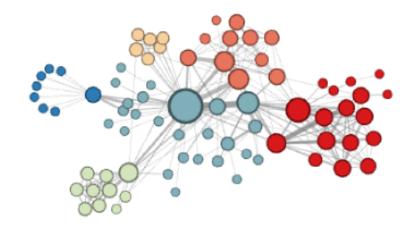
## Node Level Feature Summary

- Structure-based features: Capture topological properties of local neighborhood around a node.
  - Node degree:
    - Counts the number of neighboring nodes
  - Clustering coefficient:
    - Measures how connected neighboring nodes are
  - Graphlet degree vector:
    - Counts the occurrences of different graphlets
- Useful for predicting a particular role a node plays in a graph:
  - Example: Predicting protein functionality in a protein-protein interaction network.

#### What it still misses?

#### Different ways to label nodes of the network:





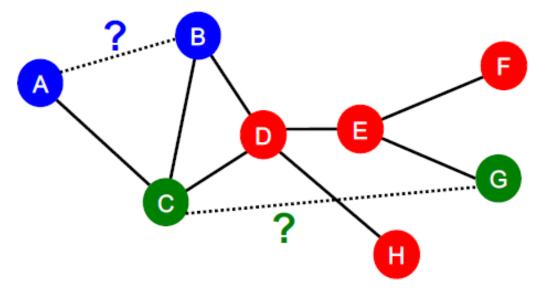
Node features defined so far would allow to distinguish nodes in the above example

However, the features defines so far would not allow for distinguishing the above node labelling

## **Link Level Prediction Tasks**

#### Link Level Prediction

- The task is to predict new links based on existing links.
- At test time, all node pairs (no existing links)
   are ranked, and top K node pairs are predicted.
- The key is to design features for a pair of nodes.



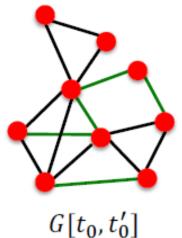
#### Link Prediction as a task

#### Two formulations of the link prediction task:

- 1) Links missing at random:
  - Remove a random set of links and then aim to predict them
- 2) Links over time:
  - Given  $G[t_0, t'_0]$  a graph on edges up to time  $t'_0$ , output a ranked list Lof links (not in  $G[t_0, t'_0]$ ) that are predicted to appear in  $G[t_1, t'_1]$

#### Evaluation:

- $n = |E_{new}|$ : # new edges that appear during the test period  $[t_1, t_1']$
- Take top n elements of L and count correct edges

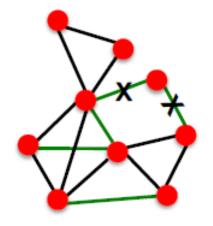


 $G[t_0, t'_0]$  $G[t_1, t'_1]$ 

## Link Prediction via Proximity

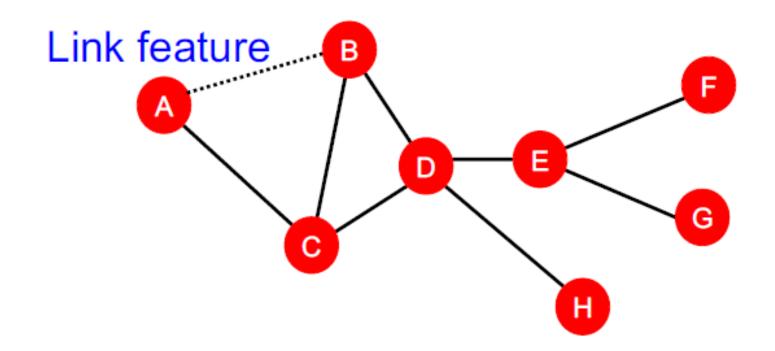
#### Methodology:

- For each pair of nodes (x,y) compute score c(x,y)
  - For example, c(x,y) could be the # of common neighbors of x and y
- Sort pairs (x,y) by the decreasing score c(x,y)
- Predict top n pairs as new links
- See which of these links actually appear in  $G[t_1, t_1']$



#### Link Level Features

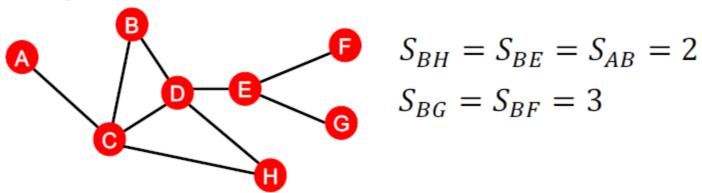
- Distance-based feature
- Local neighborhood overlap
- Global neighborhood overlap



#### Distance based features

#### Shortest-path distance between two nodes

Example:



- However, this does not capture the degree of neighborhood overlap:
  - Node pair (B, H) has 2 shared neighboring nodes, while pairs (B, E) and (A, B) only have 1 such node.

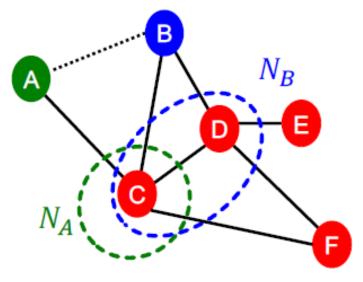
## Local Neighborhood Overlap

## Captures # neighboring nodes shared between two nodes $v_1$ and $v_2$ :

- Common neighbors:  $|N(v_1) \cap N(v_2)|$ 
  - Example:  $|N(A) \cap N(B)| = |\{C\}| = 1$
- Jaccard's coefficient:  $\frac{|N(v_1) \cap N(v_2)|}{|N(v_1) \cup N(v_2)|}$ 
  - Example:  $\frac{|N(A) \cap N(B)|}{|N(A) \cup N(B)|} = \frac{|\{C\}|}{|\{C,D\}|} = \frac{1}{2}$
- Adamic-Adar index:

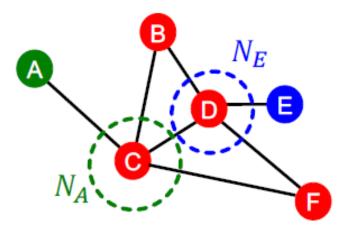
$$\sum_{u \in N(v_1) \cap N(v_2)} \frac{1}{\log(k_u)}$$

• Example:  $\frac{1}{\log(k_C)} = \frac{1}{\log 4}$ 



## Global Neighborhood Overlap

- Limitation of local neighborhood features:
  - Metric is always zero if the two nodes do not have any neighbors in common.



$$N_A \cap N_E = \phi$$
$$|N_A \cap N_E| = 0$$

- However, the two nodes may still potentially be connected in the future.
- Global neighborhood overlap metrics resolve the limitation by considering the entire graph.

## Global Neighborhood

- Katz index: count the number of paths of all lengths between a given pair of nodes.
- Q: How to compute #paths between two nodes?
- Use powers of the graph adjacency matrix!

## Power of Adjacency matrices

- Computing #paths between two nodes
  - Recall:  $A_{uv} = 1$  if  $u \in N(v)$
  - Let  $P_{uv}^{(K)} = \text{\#paths of length } K$  between u and v
  - We will show  $P^{(K)} = A^k$
  - $P_{uv}^{(1)} = \text{\#paths of length 1 (direct neighborhood)}$ between u and  $v = A_{uv}$   $P_{uv}^{(1)} = A_{uv}$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Power of Adjacency matrix

- How to compute  $P_{uv}^{(2)}$  ?
  - Step 1: Compute #paths of length 1 between each of u's neighbor and v
  - Step 2: Sum up these #paths across u's neighbors

$$P_{uv}^{(2)} = \sum_{i} A_{ui} * P_{iv}^{(1)} = \sum_{i} A_{ui} * A_{iv} = A_{uv}^{2}$$

Node 1's neighbors #paths of length 1 between Node 2 
$$P_{12}^{(2)} = A_{12}^2$$
  $A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ 

## Global Neighborhood Overlap

- Katz index: count the number of paths of all lengths between a pair of nodes.
- How to compute #paths between two nodes?
- Use adjacency matrix powers!
  - $A_{uv}$  specifies #paths of length 1 (direct neighborhood) between u and v.
  - $A_{uv}^2$  specifies #paths of length 2 (neighbor of neighbor) between u and v.
  - And,  $A_{uv}^{l}$  specifies #paths of length l.

## Global Neighborhood Overlap

• Katz index between  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  is calculated as Sum over all path lengths

$$S_{v_1v_2} = \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \beta^l A^l_{v_1v_2}$$
 #paths of length  $l$  between  $v_1$  and  $v_2$   $0 < \beta < 1$ : discount factor

Katz index matrix is computed in closed-form:

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \beta^i A^i = (I - \beta A)^{-1} - I,$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \beta^i A^i$$
by geometric series of matrices

## Link Level Features Summary

#### Distance-based features:

 Uses the shortest path length between two nodes but does not capture how neighborhood overlaps.

#### Local neighborhood overlap:

- Captures how many neighboring nodes are shared by two nodes.
- Becomes zero when no neighbor nodes are shared.

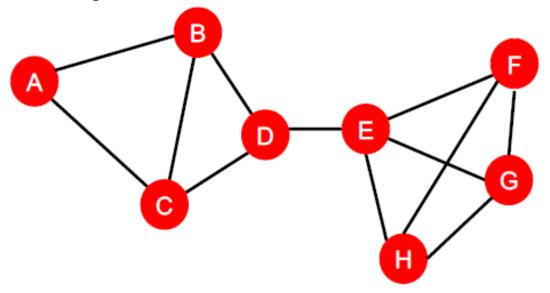
#### Global neighborhood overlap:

- Uses global graph structure to score two nodes.
- Katz index counts #paths of all lengths between two nodes.

## **Graph Level Features**

 Goal: We want features that characterize the structure of an entire graph.

#### For example:



#### **Kernel Methods**

- Kernel methods are widely-used for traditional ML for graph-level prediction.
- Idea: Design kernels instead of feature vectors.
- A quick introduction to Kernels:
  - Kernel  $K(G, G') \in \mathbb{R}$  measures similarity b/w data
  - Kernel matrix  $K = (K(G, G'))_{G,G'}$  must always be positive semidefinite (i.e., has positive eigenvals)
  - There exists a feature representation  $\phi(\cdot)$  such that  $K(G, G') = \phi(G)^T \phi(G')$
  - Once the kernel is defined, off-the-shelf ML model, such as kernel SVM, can be used to make predictions.

## **Graph Level Features**

- Graph Kernels: Measure similarity between two graphs:
  - Graphlet Kernel [1]
  - Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel [2]
  - Other kernels are also proposed in the literature (beyond the scope of this lecture)
    - Random-walk kernel
    - Shortest-path graph kernel
    - And many more...

## **Graph Kernel**

- **Goal**: Design graph feature vector  $\phi(G)$
- Key idea: Bag-of-Words (BoW) for a graph
  - Recall: BoW simply uses the word counts as features for documents (no ordering considered).
  - Naïve extension to a graph: Regard nodes as words.
  - Since both graphs have 4 red nodes, we get the same feature vector for two different graphs...

$$\phi(\square) = \phi(\square)$$

## **Graph Kernel**

#### What if we use Bag of **node degrees**?

Deg1: • Deg2: • Deg3: •  $\phi(\boxed{)} = \operatorname{count}(\boxed{)} = [1, 2, 1]$ Obtains different features for different graphs!  $\phi(\boxed{)} = \operatorname{count}(\boxed{)} = [0, 2, 2]$ 

Both Graphlet Kernel and Weisfeiler-Lehman (WL) Kernel use Bag-of-\* representation of graph, where \* is more sophisticated than node degrees!

## Graphlet features

 Key idea: Count the number of different graphlets in a graph.

- Note: Definition of graphlets here is slightly different from node-level features.
- The two differences are:
  - Nodes in graphlets here do not need to be connected (allows for isolated nodes)
  - The graphlets here are not rooted.
  - Examples in the next slide illustrate this.

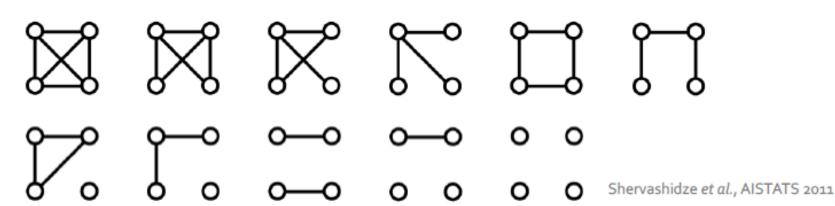
# Graphlet features Example

Let  $G_k = (g_{1,} g_{2}, ..., g_{n_k})$  be a list of graphlets of size k.

• For k=3, there are 4 graphlets.



• For k=4, there are 11 graphlets.



# Graphlet features

• Given graph G, and a graphlet list  $G_k = (g_1, g_2, ..., g_{n_k})$ , define the graphlet count vector  $\mathbf{f}_G \in \mathbb{R}^{n_k}$  as

$$(f_G)_i = \#(g_i \subseteq G) \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ..., n_k.$$

# **Graphlet Features**

• Example for k = 3.

G

 $g_4$ 

$$f_G = (1,$$

$$(0)^{\mathrm{T}}$$

# **Graphlet Kernel**

 Given two graphs, G and G', graphlet kernel is computed as

$$K(G,G') = \boldsymbol{f}_G^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{f}_{G'}$$

- Problem: if G and G' have different sizes, that will greatly skew the value.
- Solution: normalize each feature vector

$$\mathbf{h}_G = \frac{\mathbf{f}_G}{\operatorname{Sum}(\mathbf{f}_G)} \qquad K(G, G') = \mathbf{h}_G^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{h}_{G'}$$

## **Graph Kernel**

### Limitations: Counting graphlets is expensive!

- Counting size-k graphlets for a graph with size n by enumeration takes  $n^k$ .
- This is unavoidable in the worst-case since subgraph isomorphism test (judging whether a graph is a subgraph of another graph) is NP-hard.
- If a graph's node degree is bounded by d, an
   O(nd<sup>k-1</sup>) algorithm exists to count all the
   graphlets of size k.

### Can we design a more efficient graph kernel?

### Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel

- Goal: design an efficient graph feature descriptor  $\phi(G)$
- Idea: use neighborhood structure to iteratively enrich node vocabulary.
  - Generalized version of Bag of node degrees since node degrees are one-hop neighborhood information.
- Algorithm to achieve this:

**Color refinement** 

- Given: A graph G with a set of nodes V.
  - Assign an initial color  $c^{(0)}(v)$  to each node v.
  - Iteratively refine node colors by

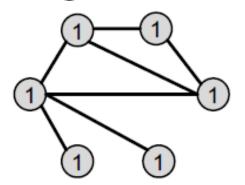
$$c^{(k+1)}(v) = \mathsf{HASH}\left(\left\{c^{(k)}(v), \left\{c^{(k)}(u)\right\}_{u \in N(v)}\right\}\right),\,$$

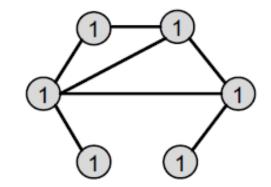
where HASH maps different inputs to different colors.

• After K steps of color refinement,  $c^{(K)}(v)$  summarizes the structure of K-hop neighborhood

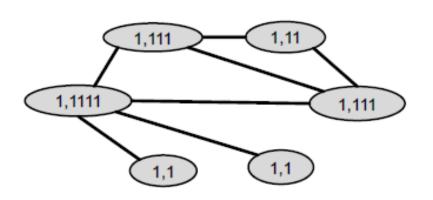
### Example of color refinement given two graphs

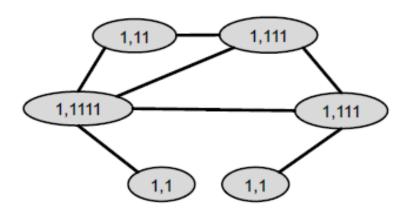
Assign initial colors





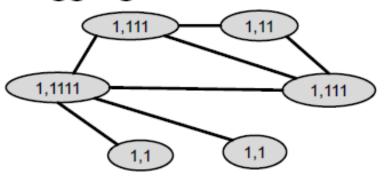
Aggregate neighboring colors

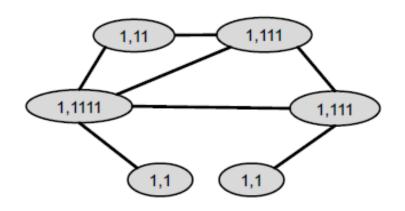




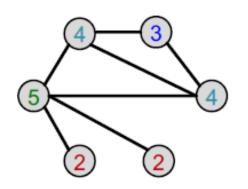
### Example of color refinement given two graphs

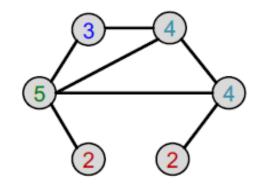
Aggregated colors





Hash aggregated colors



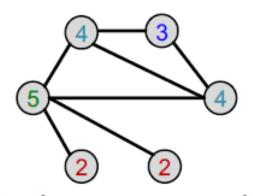


#### Hash table

1,1	>	2
1,11	>	3
1,111	>	4
1,1111	>	5

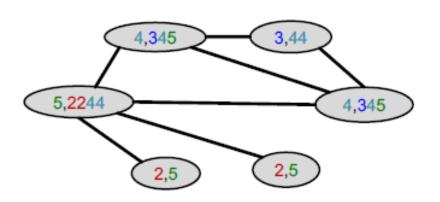
### Example of color refinement given two graphs

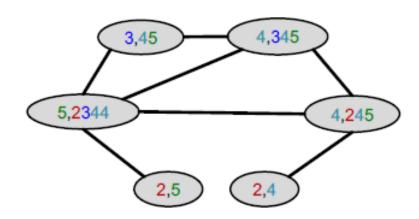
Aggregated colors



5 2 2

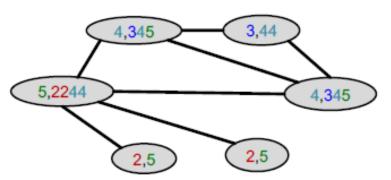
Hash aggregated colors

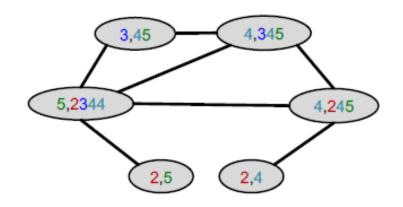




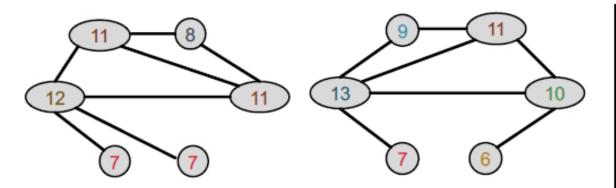
### Example of color refinement given two graphs

Aggregated colors





Hash aggregated colors

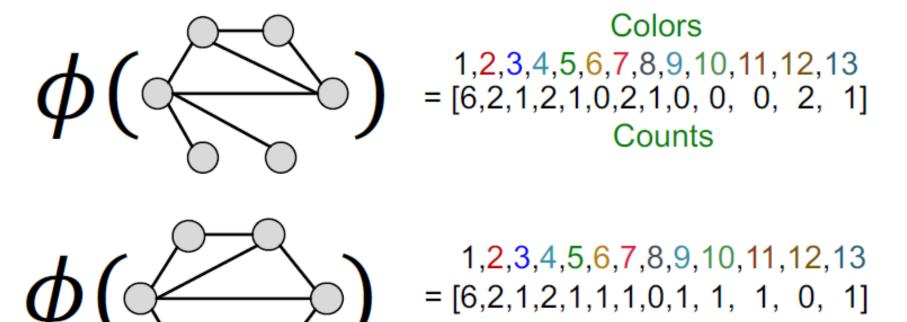


#### Hash table

2,4 2,5 3,44 3,45 4,245 4,345 5,2244	> > > >	6 7 8 9 10 11
5,2244	>	12
5,2344	>	13

## Weisfeiler-Lehman Graph features

After color refinement, WL kernel counts number of nodes with a given color.



### Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel

The WL kernel value is computed by the inner product of the color count vectors:

$$K(\stackrel{\checkmark}{\longleftrightarrow}, \stackrel{\checkmark}{\longleftrightarrow})$$

$$= \phi(\stackrel{\checkmark}{\longleftrightarrow})^{T}\phi(\stackrel{\checkmark}{\longleftrightarrow})$$

$$= 49$$

### Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel

- WL kernel is computationally efficient
  - The time complexity for color refinement at each step is linear in #(edges), since it involves aggregating neighboring colors.
- When computing a kernel value, only colors appeared in the two graphs need to be tracked.
  - Thus, #(colors) is at most the total number of nodes.
- Counting colors takes linear-time w.r.t. #(nodes).
- In total, time complexity is linear in #(edges).

## Graph Level features summary

### Graphlet Kernel

- Graph is represented as Bag-of-graphlets
- Computationally expensive
- Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel
  - Apply K-step color refinement algorithm to enrich node colors
    - Different colors capture different K-hop neighborhood structures
  - Graph is represented as Bag-of-colors
  - Computationally efficient
  - Closely related to Graph Neural Networks (as we will see!)