# Graph Neural Networks

CPSC483: Deep Learning on Graph-Structured Data

**Rex Ying** 

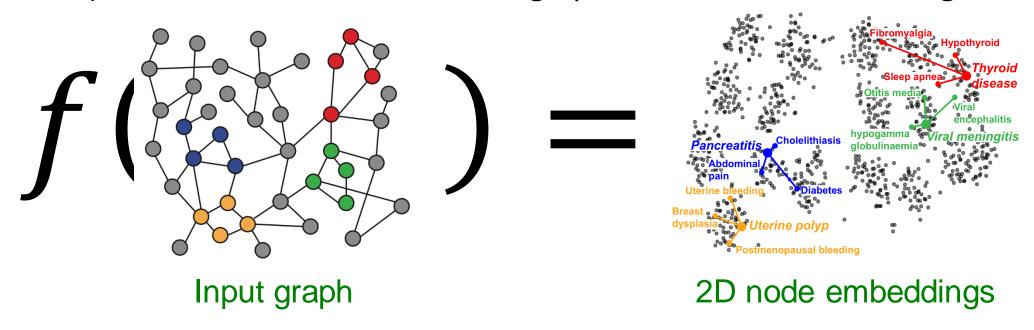
### Readings

Readings are updated on the website (syllabus page)

- Lecture 2 readings: PageRank and Personalized PageRank (PPR)
- Lecture 3 readings:
  - Graph representation learning: methods and application
  - Inductive Representation Learning for Large Graphs (GraphSAGE)

### Node Embeddings

• Intuition: Map nodes to d-dimensional **embeddings** (which are "**representations**" of nodes) such that similar nodes in the graph are embedded close together



How to learn the mapping function f?

### Deep Graph Encoders (1)

 Today: We will now discuss deep methods based on graph neural networks (GNNs):

ENC( $\cdot$ ) = multiple layers of non-linear transformations based on graph structures

Graph Neural Networks!

ENC(u)

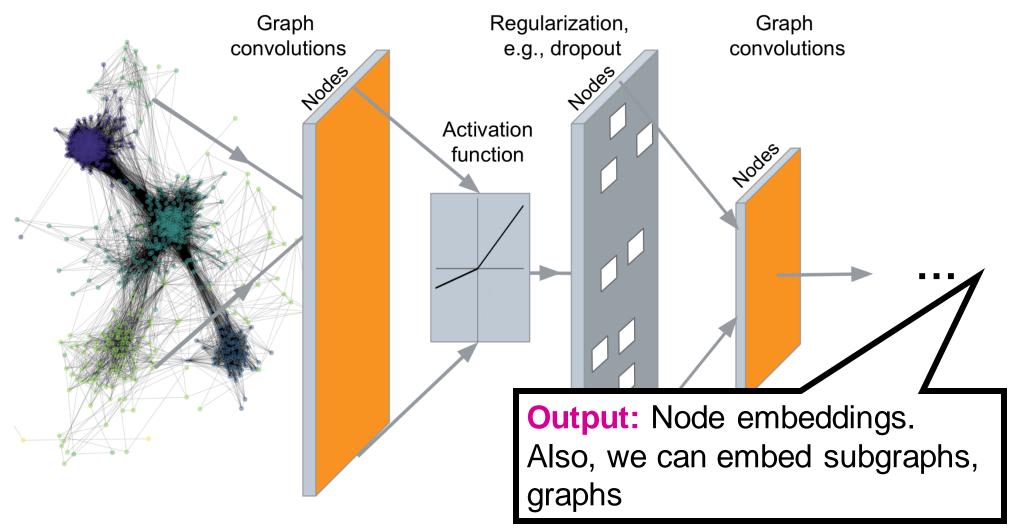
encode nodes

ENC(v)

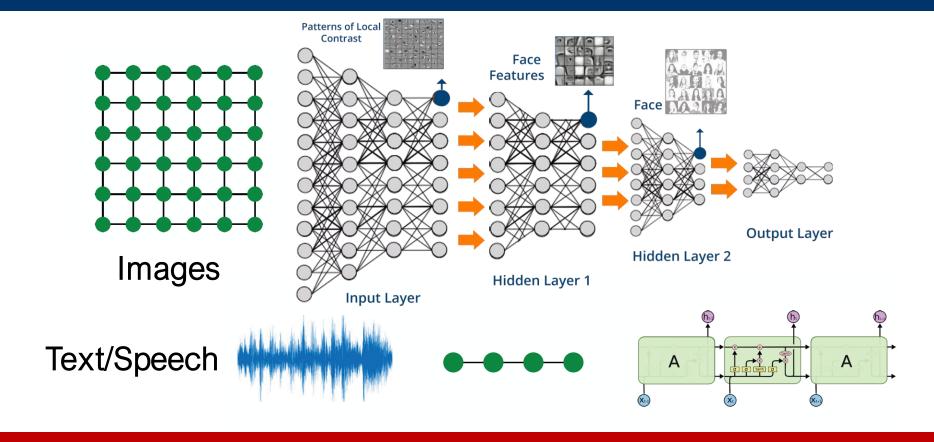
original network

embedding space

### Deep Graph Encoders (2)



#### Modern ML Toolbox

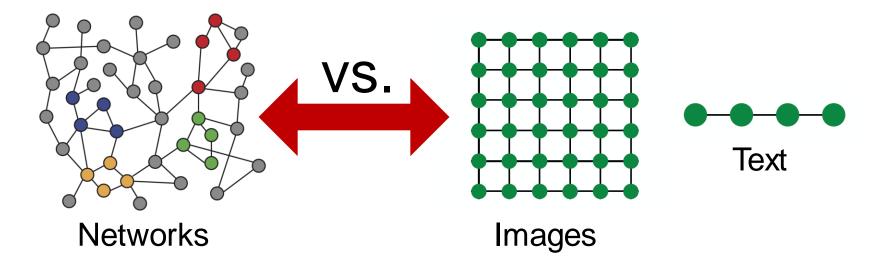


Modern deep learning toolbox is designed for simple sequences & grids

### Why is it Hard?

#### But networks are far more complex!

• Arbitrary size and complex topological structure (i.e., no spatial locality like grids)



- No fixed node ordering or reference point
- Often dynamic and have multimodal features

### Outline of Today's Lecture

1. Basics of deep learning

2. Deep learning for graphs

### Outline of Today's Lecture

### 1. Basics of deep learning

### 2. Deep learning for graphs

## Basics of Deep Learning

### Machine Learning as Optimization (1)

- Supervised learning: we are given input x, and the goal is to predict label y
- Input x can be:
  - Vectors of real numbers
  - Sequences (natural language)
  - Matrices (images)
  - Graphs (potentially with node and edge features)
- We formulate the task as an optimization problem

## Machine Learning as Optimization (2)

• Formulate the task as an optimization problem:

$$\min_{\Theta} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, f(\mathbf{x}))$$

•  $\Theta$ : a set of **parameters** we optimize

- **Objective function**
- Could contain one or more scalars, vectors, matrices ...
- E.g.  $\Theta = \{Z\}$  in the shallow encoder (the embedding lookup)
- $\mathcal{L}$ : loss function. Example: L2 loss

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, f(\mathbf{x})) = \|\mathbf{y} - f(\mathbf{x})\|_{2}$$

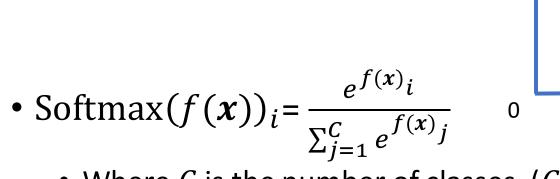
- Other common loss functions:
  - L1 loss, huber loss, max margin (hinge loss), cross entropy ...
  - See <a href="https://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#loss-functions">https://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#loss-functions</a>

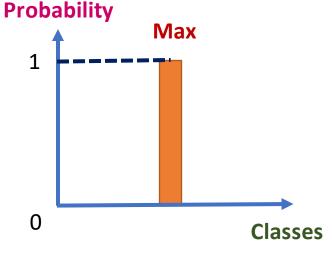
## Loss Function Example: Cross Entropy (1)

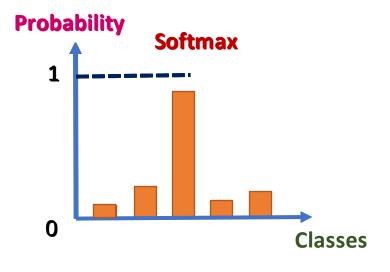
- One common loss for classification: cross entropy (CE). Supposed that:
- f(x) is the output of a model
  - E.g. f(x) = [0.1, 0.1, 0.6, 0.2, 0]
- Label y is a categorical vector (one-hot encoding)
  - E.g.  $y = [0, 0, 1, 0, 0]^T$  y belongs to class "3" because the 3<sup>rd</sup> entry is 1
- Softmax $(f(x))_i = \frac{e^{f(x)}i}{\sum_{i=1}^C e^{f(x)}i}$   $\longrightarrow$   $f(x)_i$  denotes i-th coordinate of the vector f(x)
  - Where C is the number of classes. (C = 5 in this example)
  - E.g.  $f(x) = [0.1767, 0.1767, 0.2914, 0.1953, 0.1599]^T$

### Softmax

• Softmax is a differentiable (or soft) version of the max function



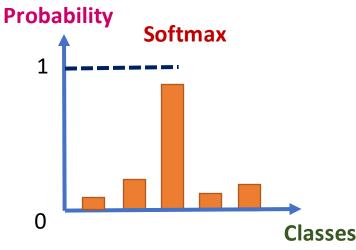




- Where C is the number of classes. (C = 5 in this example)
- E.g.  $f(x) = [0.1767, 0.1767, 0.2914, 0.1953, 0.1599]^T$

## Loss Function Example: Cross Entropy (2)

- $CE(\mathbf{y}, f(\mathbf{x})) = -\sum_{i=1}^{C} (\mathbf{y}_i \log f(\mathbf{x})_i)$ 
  - $y_i$ ,  $f(x)_i$  are the **actual** and **predicted** value of the *i*-th class.
  - Intuition: the lower the loss, the closer the prediction is to one-hot
- In classification, y is one-hot, whereas f(x) is the output of a softmax
  - The summation in CE only has 1 non-zero term
- Total loss over all training examples
  - $\mathcal{L} = \sum_{(x,y)\in\mathcal{T}} CE(y,f(x))$
  - T: training set containing all pairs of data and labels (x, y)



### Machine Learning as Optimization (1)

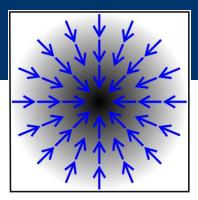
- How to optimize the objective function?
- Non-gradient approaches
  - Bayesian optimization, Gaussian processes, Simulated annealing, Evolutionary algorithms

In deep learning, we use gradient approaches for scalability

- Therefore, we require the loss function  $\mathcal{L}$  to be **differentiable** 
  - There are ways to tackle optimization for non-differentiable functions:
    - Straight-through estimator (Gumbel Softmax)
    - Reinforce algorithm, or more generally, reinforcement learning

### Machine Learning as Optimization (2)

How to optimize the objective function?



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gradient

Gradient vector: Direction and rate of fastest increase

$$\nabla_{\Theta} \mathcal{L} = (\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \Theta_1}, \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \Theta_2}, \dots)$$
 — Partial derivative

- $\Theta_1$ ,  $\Theta_2$  ...: components of  $\Theta$
- Recall directional derivative
   of a multi-variable function (e.g. ∠) along a given vector represents the
   instantaneous rate of change of the function along the vector.
- Gradient is the directional derivative in the direction of largest increase

### Gradient Descent

• Iterative algorithm: repeatedly update weights in the (opposite) direction of gradients until convergence

$$\Theta \leftarrow \Theta - \eta \nabla_{\Theta} \mathcal{L}$$

- **Training:** Optimize ⊕ iteratively
  - Iteration: 1 step of gradient descent
- Learning rate (LR)  $\eta$ :
  - Hyperparameter that controls the size of gradient step
  - Can vary over the course of training (LR scheduling)
- Ideal termination condition: 0 gradient
  - In practice, we stop training if it no longer improves performance on validation set (part of dataset we hold out from training)

### Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

#### Problem with gradient descent:

- Exact gradient requires computing  $\nabla_{\Theta} \mathcal{L}(y, f(x))$ , where x is the **entire** dataset!
  - This means summing gradient contributions over all the points in the dataset
  - Modern datasets often contain billions of data points
  - Extremely expensive for every gradient descent step
- Solution: Stochastic gradient descent (SGD)
  - At every step, pick a different **minibatch**  ${\mathcal B}$  containing a subset of the dataset, use it as input  ${\mathcal X}$

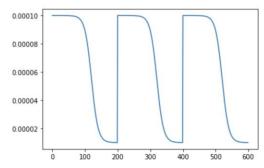
### Minibatch SGD

#### Concepts:

- Batch size: the number of data points in a minibatch
  - E.g. number of nodes for node classification task
- Iteration: 1 step of SGD on a minibatch
- **Epoch**: one full pass over the dataset (# iterations is equal to ratio of dataset size and batch size)
- SGD is unbiased estimator of full gradient:
  - But there is no guarantee on the rate of convergence
  - In practice often requires tuning of learning rate

### Variants of SGD

- Common optimizer that improves over SGD:
  - Adam, Adagrad, Adadelta, RMSprop ...
  - Adam is commonly a good choice
  - Automatic optimization in PyTorch Lightning could be good for many models
  - Learning rate annealing schedules
  - Hyper-parameter search over optimizer / scheduler parameters



Example: tanh scheduler

```
from timm.scheduler import TanhLRScheduler
def configure_optimizers(self):
    optimizer=...
    scheduler=TanhLRScheduler(optimizer,...)
    return[optimizer],[{"scheduler":scheduler, "interval": "epoch"}]

def lr_scheduler_step(self,scheduler,metric):
    scheduler.step(epoch=self.current_epoch)
```

#### **Use in PyTorch Lightning**

### Neural Network Function (1)

- Objective:  $\min_{\Theta} \mathcal{L}(y, f(x))$
- In deep learning, the function f can be very complex
- To start simple, consider linear function

$$f(x) = W \cdot x$$
,  $\Theta = \{W\}$ 

• If f returns a scalar, then W is a learnable vector

$$\nabla_{W} f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{1}}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{2}}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{3}} \dots\right)$$

• If f returns a vector, then W is the weight matrix

$$\nabla_W f = W^T$$

### Neural Network Function (2)

Generalized Derivative of $f$ w.r.t. X	Scalar	Vector	Matrix
Scalar	Scalar	Vector	Matrix
Vector	Vector	Matrix	Tensors ⊖
Matrix	Matrix	Tensors ⊗	Tensors ⊗

- Higher order (>2) tensor operations are not very intuitive
- GPU and CUDA kernels are mostly optimized for matrix computations

Jacobian matrix of *f* 

### Back-propagation

How about a more complex function:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = a = W_2(W_1\mathbf{x}),$$

Recall chain rule:

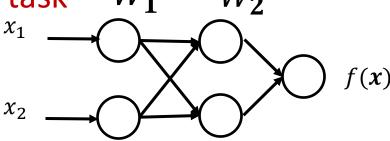
• E.g. 
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{f} = \frac{\partial a}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$$

$$\Theta = \{W_1, W_2\}$$
We define:
 $\mathbf{z} = W_1 \mathbf{x}$ 
 $a = f(\mathbf{x}) = W_2 \mathbf{z}$ 

• Back-propagation: Use of chain rule to propagate gradients of intermediate steps, and finally obtain gradient of  $\mathcal{L}$  w.r.t.  $\Theta$ 

### Back-propagation Example (1)

- Example: Simple 2-layer linear network, regression task
- $f(\mathbf{x}) = a = W_2 \mathbf{z} = W_2 (\underbrace{W_1 \mathbf{x}}_{\mathbf{z}})$



- $\mathcal{L} = \sum_{(x,y)\in\mathcal{B}} \left| \left| (y f(x)) \right| \right|_2$  sums the L2 loss in a minibatch  $\mathcal{B}$
- Hidden layer: intermediate representation for input x
  - Here we use  $z = W_1 x$  to denote the hidden layer

## Back-propagation Example (2)

 Forward propagation: Compute loss starting from input

• 
$$x \longrightarrow z \longrightarrow a \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}$$
  
Multiply  $W_1$  Multiply  $W_2$  Loss

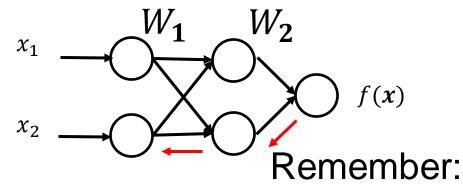


$$\Theta = \{W_1, W_2\}$$

• Start from loss, compute the gradient

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_2} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a} \cdot \frac{\partial a}{\partial W_2} , \qquad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_1} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a} \cdot \frac{\partial a}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}}{\partial W_1}$$

**Compute backwards** 



$$f(x) = W_2(W_1x)$$

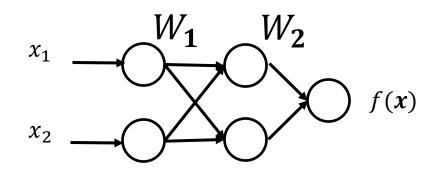
$$z = W_1 x$$

$$a = W_2 \mathbf{z}$$

 $\partial \mathcal{L} \qquad \partial \mathcal{L} \quad \partial a \quad \partial \mathbf{z}$ 

## Back-propogation: Concrete Example (1)

- Suppose that (minibatch of size 1)
  - Features:  $x = (x_1 \ x_2)^T = (0.8 \ 1.1)^T$
  - Label: y = 1.00



- Weights:  $W_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.1 & 0.2 \\ 0.3 & 0.4 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $W_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.6 \end{pmatrix}$
- Model output:  $a = f(x) = W_2 W_1 x = (0.5 \ 0.6) \begin{pmatrix} 0.1 & 0.2 \\ 0.3 & 0.4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0.8 \\ 1.1 \end{pmatrix} = 0.558$
- Loss function:  $\mathcal{L} = ||y a|| = (0.558 1)^2 = 0.1954$

### Back-propogation: Concrete Example (2)

- To calculate gradients of  $W_2$ :
- Recall that

• 
$$\mathcal{L} = \|y - a\|_2$$

• 
$$a = W_2 \mathbf{z}$$

• 
$$z = W_1 x$$

Apply chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_1} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a} \cdot \frac{\partial a}{\partial W_1} = -2(y - a) \cdot (xW_2)^T = \begin{pmatrix} -0.3536 & -0.4862 \\ -0.4243 & -0.5834 \end{pmatrix}$$

### Non-linearity

• Note that in  $f(x) = W_2(W_1x)$ ,  $W_2W_1$  is another matrix (or vector, if we do binary classification and output only 1 logit)

• Hence f(x) is still linear w.r.t. x no matter how many weight matrices we

compose

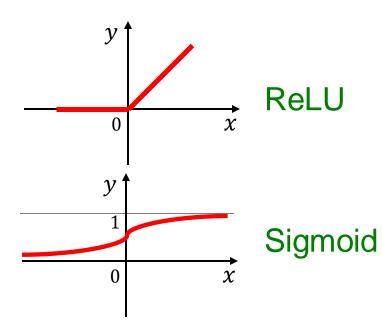
• Introduce non-linearity:

Rectified linear unit (ReLU)

$$ReLU(x) = \max(x, 0)$$

Sigmoid

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

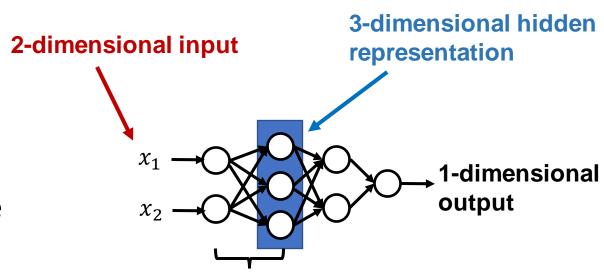


### Multi-layer Perceptron (MLP)

 Each layer of MLP combines linear transformation and non-linearity:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(l+1)} = \sigma(W_l \mathbf{x}^{(l)} + b^l)$$

- where  $W_l$  is weight matrix that transforms hidden representation at layer l to layer l+1
- $b^l$  is bias at layer l, and is added to the linear transformation of x
- $\sigma$  is non-linearity function (e.g., sigmoid)
- Suppose x is 2-dimensional, with entries  $x_1$  and  $x_2$



Every layer: Linear transformation + non-linearity

### Summary

Objective function:

$$\min_{\Theta} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{y}, f(\boldsymbol{x}))$$

- f can be a simple linear layer, an MLP, or other neural networks (e.g., a GNN later)
- Sample a minibatch of input x
- Forward propagation: compute  $\mathcal{L}$  given x
- Back-propagation: obtain gradient  $\nabla_{\Theta} \mathcal{L}$  using a chain rule
- Use stochastic gradient descent (SGD) to optimize for ⊕ over many iterations

### Outline of Today's Lecture

1. Basics of deep learning

### 2. Deep learning for graphs

## Deep Learning for Graphs

#### Content

#### Local network neighborhoods:

- Describe aggregation strategies
- Define computation graphs

#### Stacking multiple layers:

- Describe the model, parameters, training
- How to fit the model?
- Simple example for unsupervised and supervised training

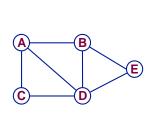
### Setup

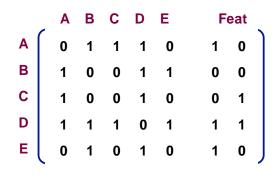
#### • Assume we have a graph G:

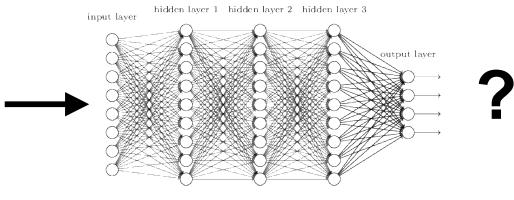
- V is the vertex set
- A is the adjacency matrix (assume binary)
- $X \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times |V|}$  is a matrix of node features
- v: a node in V; N(v): the set of neighbors of v.
- Node features:
  - Social networks: User profile, User image
  - Biological networks: Gene expression profiles, gene functional information
  - When there is no node feature in the graph dataset:
    - Indicator vectors (one-hot encoding of a node)
    - Vector of constant 1: [1, 1, ..., 1]

### A Naïve Approach

- Join adjacency matrix and features
- Feed them into a deep neural net:



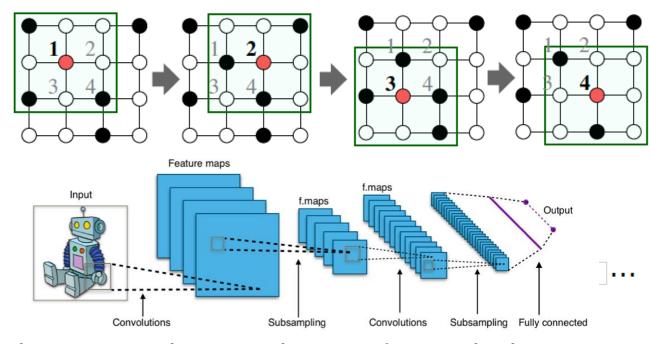




- Issues with this idea:
  - O(|V|) parameters
  - Not applicable to graphs of different sizes
  - Sensitive to node ordering

#### Idea: Convolutional Networks

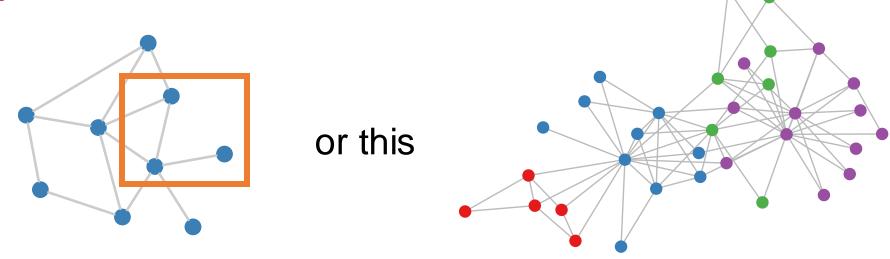
CNN on an image:



- Goal is to generalize convolutions beyond simple lattices
- Leverage node features/attributes (e.g., text, images)

### Real-World Graphs

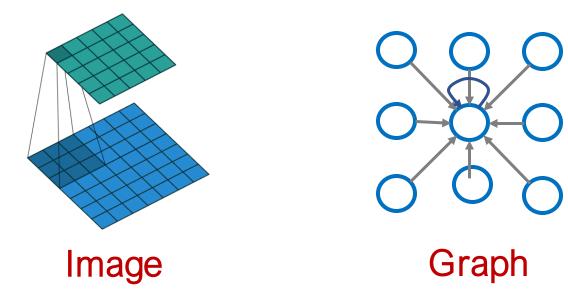
But our graphs look like this:



- There is no fixed notion of locality or sliding window on the graph
- Graph is permutation invariant

# From Images to Graphs

Single Convolutional neural network (CNN) layer with 3x3 filter:

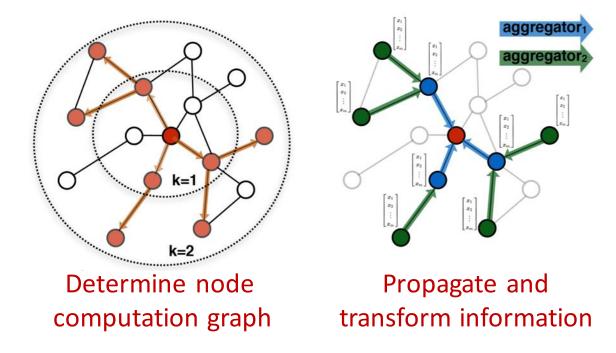


Idea: transform information at the neighbors and combine it:

- Transform "messages"  $h_i$  from neighbors:  $W_i$   $h_i$
- Add them up:  $\sum_i W_i h_i$

## Graph Convolutional Networks

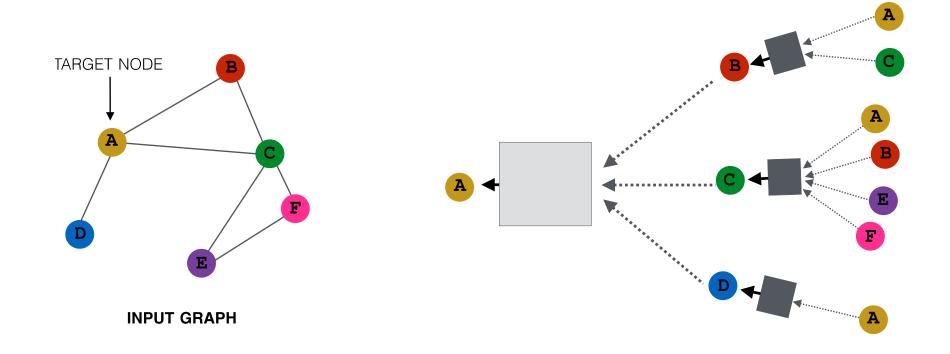
• Idea: Node's neighborhood defines a computation graph



Learn how to propagate information across the graph to compute node features

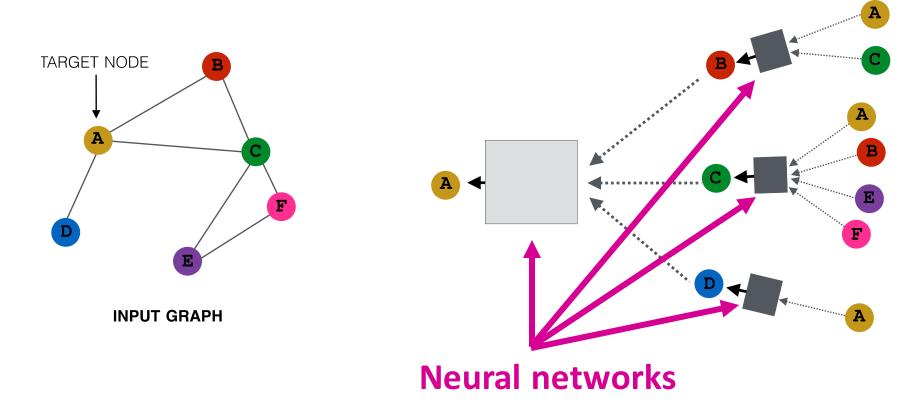
## Idea: Aggregate Neighbors (1)

 Key idea: Generate node embeddings based on local network neighborhoods



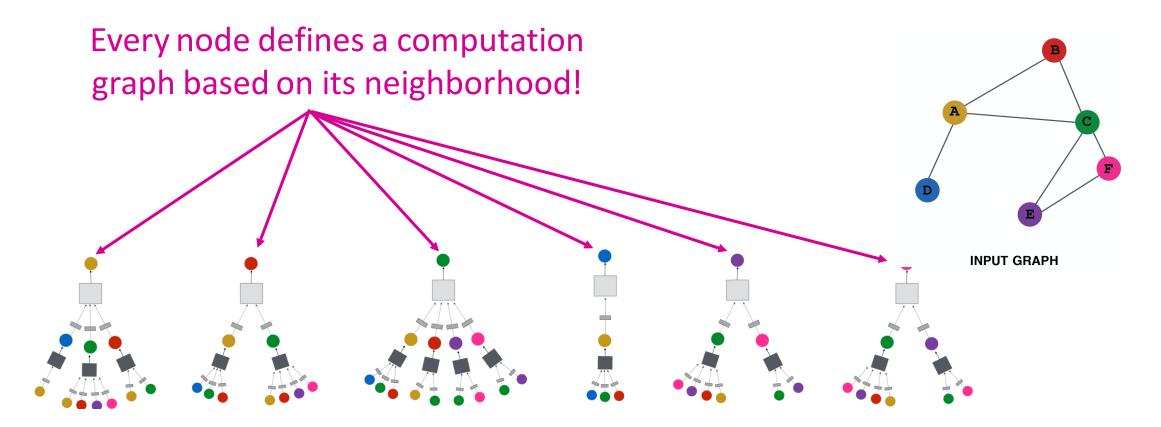
## Idea: Aggregate Neighbors (2)

 Intuition: Nodes aggregate information from their neighbors using neural networks



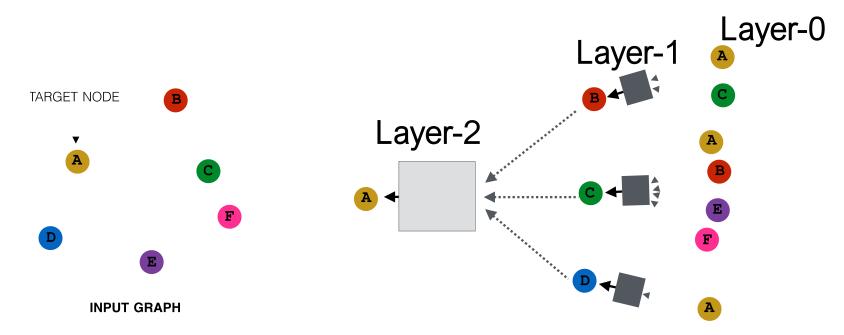
# Idea: Aggregate Neighbors (3)

• Intuition: Network neighborhood defines a computation graph



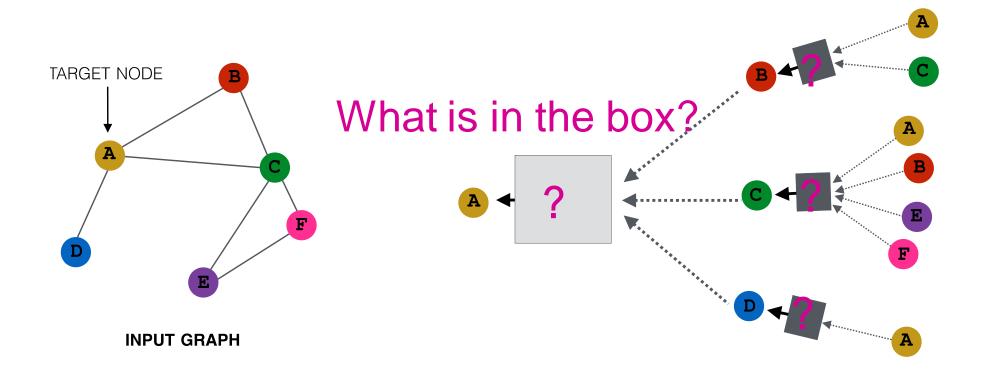
### Deep Model: Many Layers

- Model can be of arbitrary depth:
  - Nodes have embeddings at each layer
  - Layer-0 embedding of node u is its input feature,  $oldsymbol{x}_u$
  - Layer-k embedding gets information from nodes that are k hops away



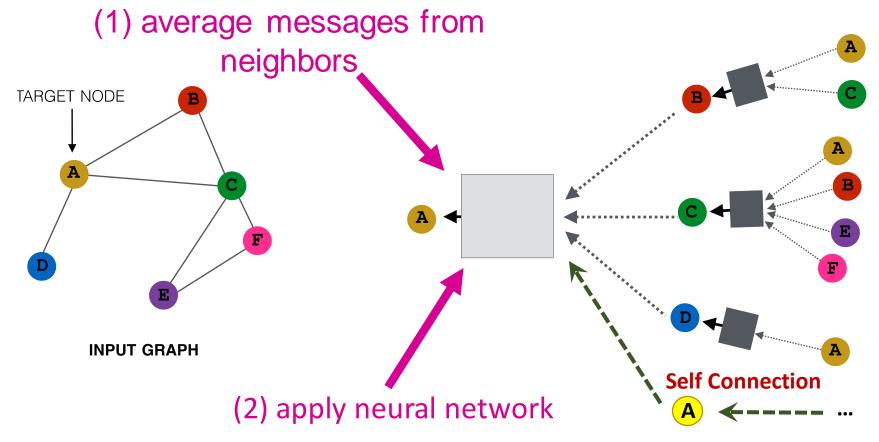
# Neighborhood Aggregation (1)

 Neighborhood aggregation: Key distinctions are in how different approaches aggregate information across the layers



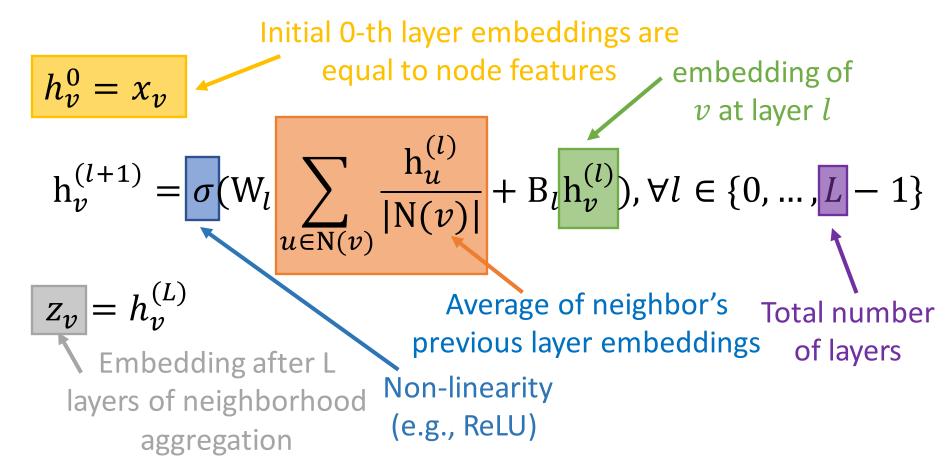
# Neighborhood Aggregation (2)

 Basic approach: Average information from neighbors and apply a neural network



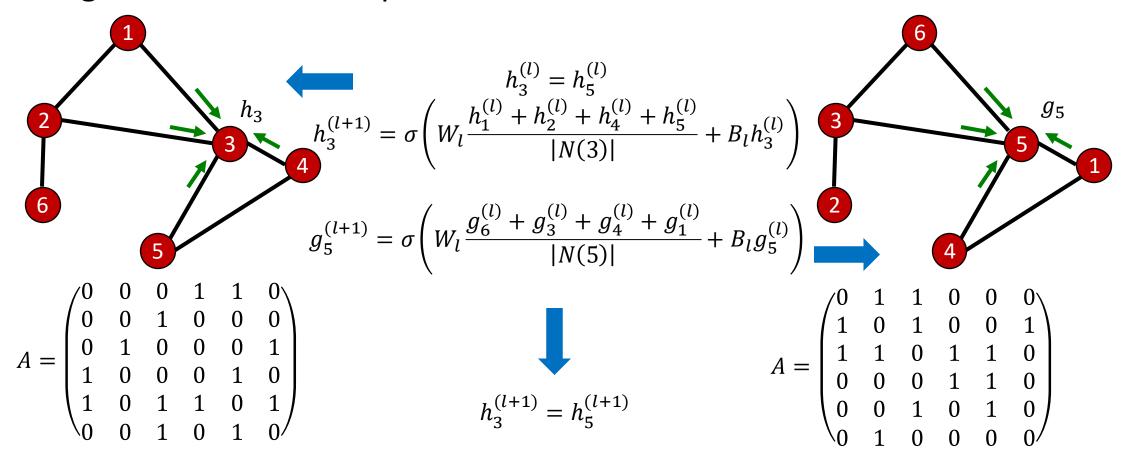
## The Math: Deep Encoder

• Basic approach: Average neighbor messages and apply a neural network



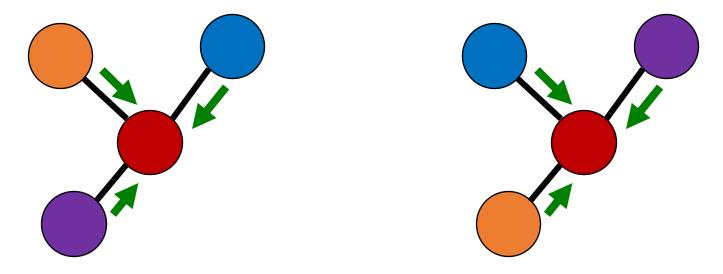
#### Order Invariance (Node Permutation)

Ordering of nodes is not important.



## Order Invariance (Neighbor Permutation)

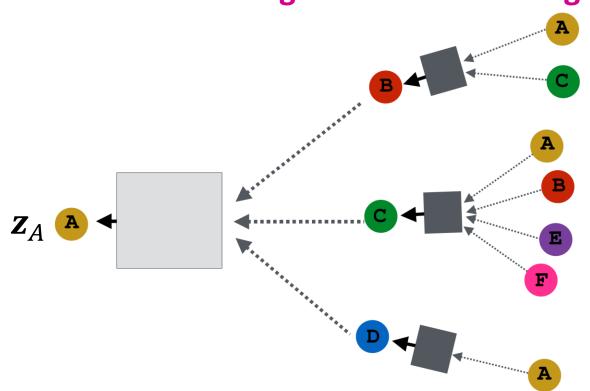
Aggregation function has to be order-invariant.



• Aggr( $\bullet$ ,  $\bullet$ ,  $\bullet$ )  $\neq$  Aggr( $\bullet$ ,  $\bullet$ ,  $\bullet$ ) if the aggregation function is not order invariant. That's not what we want because the two graphs are actually the same graph.

## Training the Model

How do we train the model to generate embeddings?



Need to define a loss function on the embeddings

#### Model Parameters

Trainable weight matrices  $\mathbf{h}_{v}^{(0)} = \mathbf{x}_{v} \qquad \text{(i.e., what we learn)} \\ \mathbf{h}_{v}^{(l+1)} = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_{l} \sum_{u \in \mathbf{N}(v)} \frac{\mathbf{h}_{u}^{(l)}}{|\mathbf{N}(v)|} + \mathbf{B}_{l} \mathbf{h}_{v}^{(l)}), \forall l \in \{0, \dots, L-1\} \\ \mathbf{z}_{v} = \mathbf{h}_{v}^{(L)} \qquad \qquad \text{Final node embedding}$ 

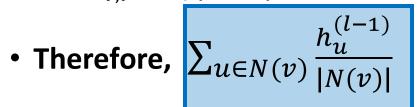
We can feed these embeddings into any loss function and run SGD to train the weight parameters

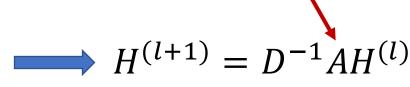
 $h_v^l$ : the hidden representation of node v at layer l

- $W_k$ : weight matrix for neighborhood aggregation
- $B_k$ : weight matrix for transforming hidden vector of self

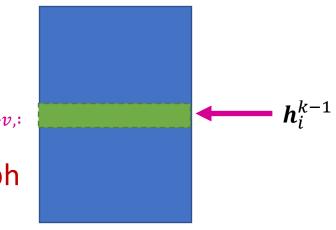
#### Matrix Formulation (1)

- Many aggregations can be performed efficiently by (sparse) matrix operations
- Let  $H^{(l)} = [h_1^{(l)} \dots h_{|V|}^{(l)}]^T$
- Then:  $\sum_{u \in N_n} h_u^{(l)} = A_{v,:}H^{(l)}$
- Let D be diagonal matrix where  $D_{v,v} = \text{Deg}(v) = |N(v)|$ 
  - The inverse of  $D: D^{-1}$  is also diagonal: should be  $A^T$  in directed graph  $D_{v,v}^{-1} = 1/|N(v)|$





Matrix of hidden embeddings  $H^{k-1}$ 



## Matrix Formulation (2)

Re-writing update function in matrix form:

$$H^{(l+1)} = \sigma(\tilde{A}H^{(l)}W_l^{T} + H^{(l)}B_l^{T}) -$$

- where  $\tilde{A} = D^{-1}A$ 
  - Red: neighborhood aggregation
  - Blue: self transformation (matrix)
- In practice, this implies that efficient sparse matrix multiplication can be used ( $ilde{A}$  is sparse)
- Note: not all GNNs can be expressed in matrix form, when aggregation function is complex

 $H^{(l)} = [h_1^{(l)} \dots h_{|V|}^{(l)}]^T$ 

#### How to train a GNN

- Node embedding  $z_v$  is a function of input graph
- Supervised setting: we want to minimize the loss  $\mathcal{L}$  (see also slide):  $\min_{\Omega} \mathcal{L}(y, f(z_v))$ 
  - y: node label
  - $\mathcal{L}$  could be L2 if y is real number, or cross entropy if y is categorical
- Unsupervised setting:
  - No node label available
  - Use the graph structure as the supervision!

# Unsupervised Training

"Similar" nodes have similar embeddings

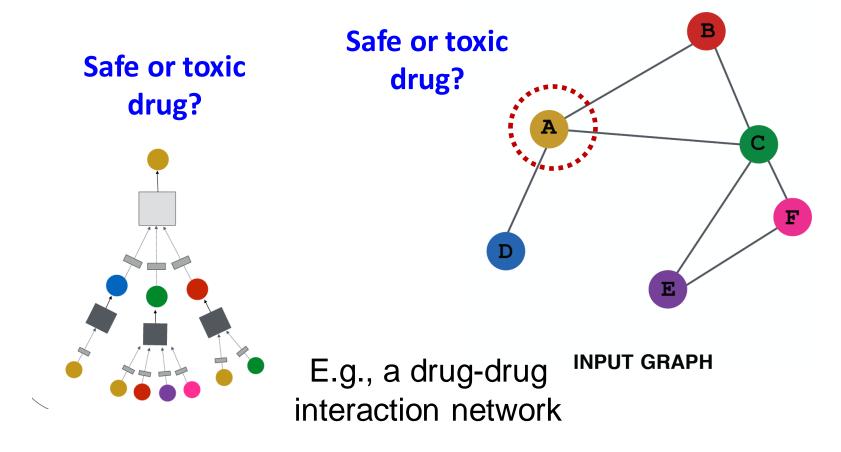
$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{z_u, z_v} CE(y_{u,v}, DEC(z_u, z_v))$$

 $CE(y, f(x)) = -\sum_{i=1}^{C} (y_i \log f(x)_i)$ 

- Where  $y_{u,v} = 1$  when node u and v are similar
- CE is the cross entropy (slide)
- DEC is the decoder such as inner product
- Node similarity can be anything, e.g., a loss based on (we may talk in the future):
  - Random walks (node2vec, DeepWalk, struc2vec)
  - Matrix factorization
  - Node proximity in the graph

# Supervised Training (1)

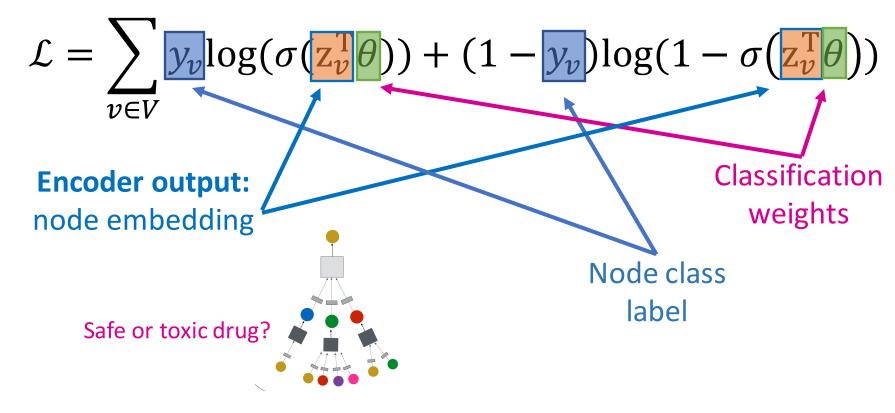
Directly train the model for a supervised task (e.g., node classification)



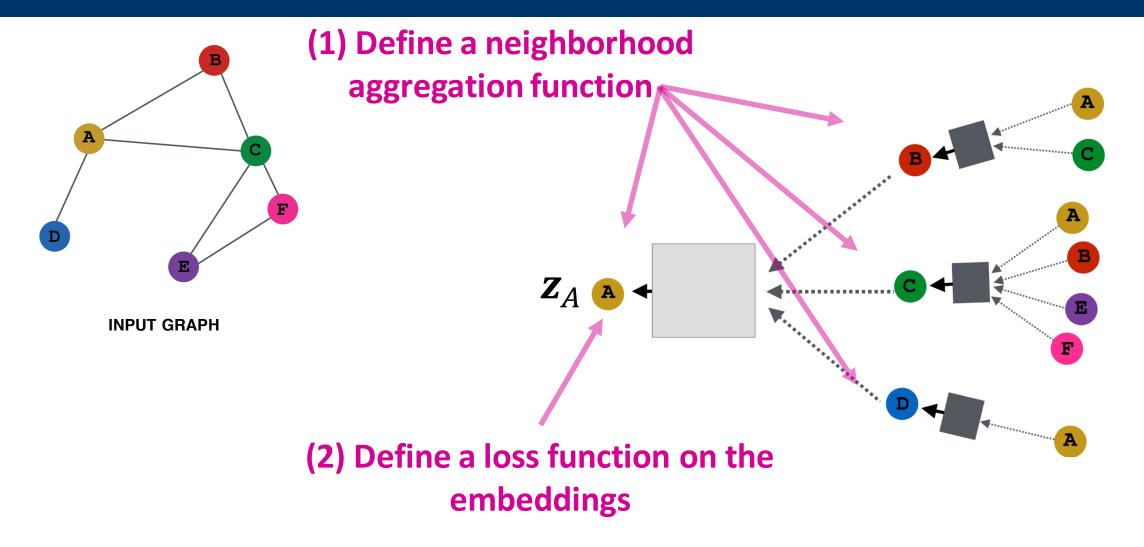
# Supervised Training (2)

Directly train the model for a supervised task (e.g., node classification)

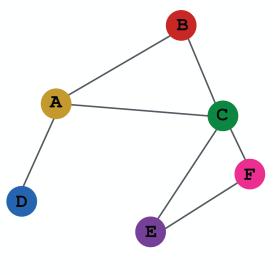
Use cross entropy loss (<u>slide</u>)



## Model Design: Overview (1)

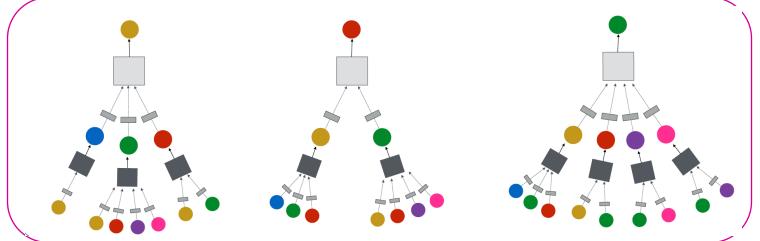


# Model Design: Overview (2)

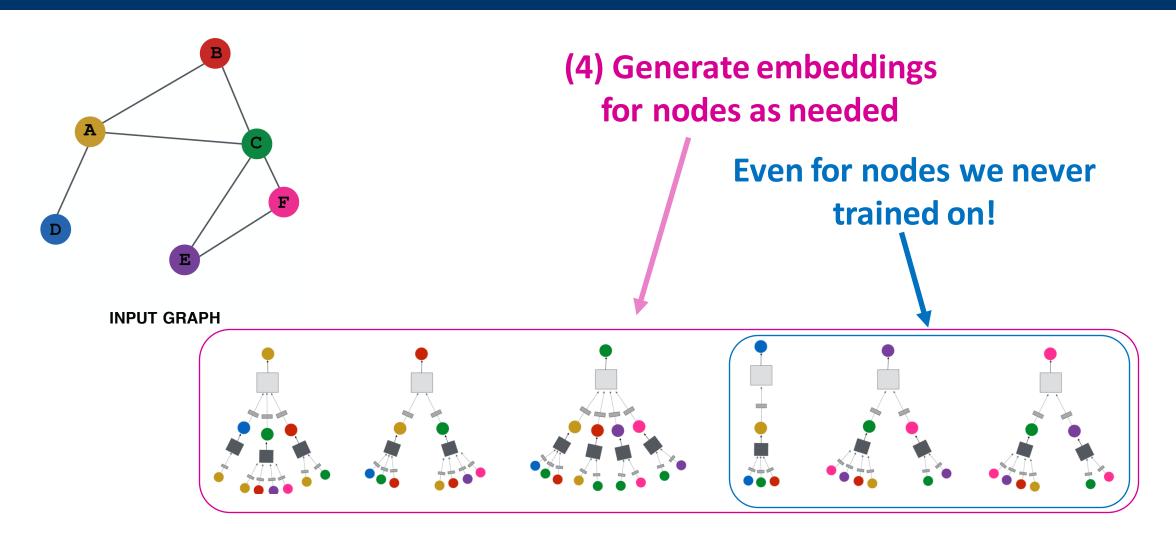


**INPUT GRAPH** 

(3) Train on a set of nodes, i.e., a batch of compute graphs

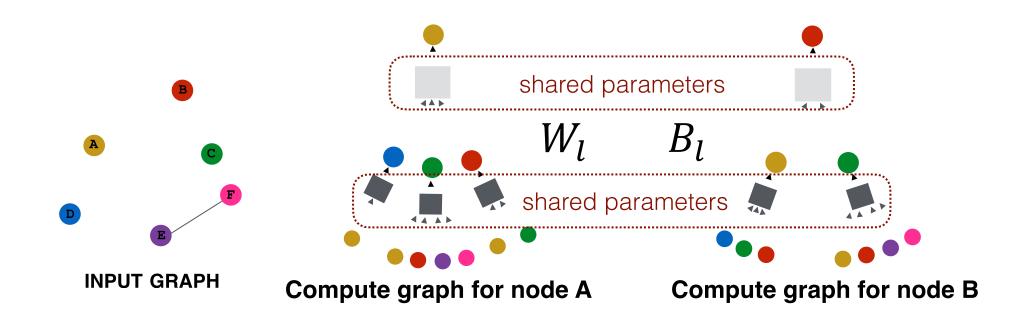


# Model Design: Overview (3)

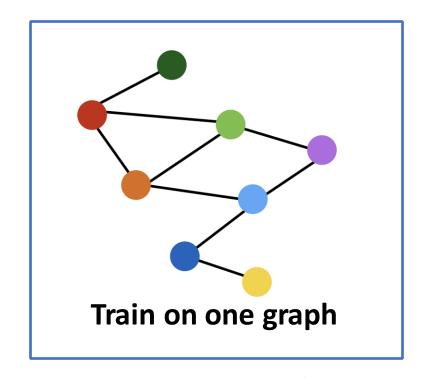


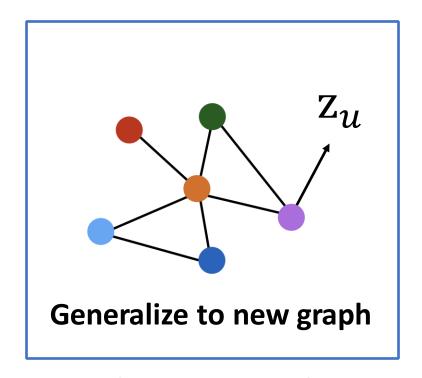
# Inductive Capability

- The same aggregation parameters are shared for all nodes:
  - The number of model parameters is sublinear in |V| and we can generalize to unseen nodes!



# Inductive Capability: New Graphs

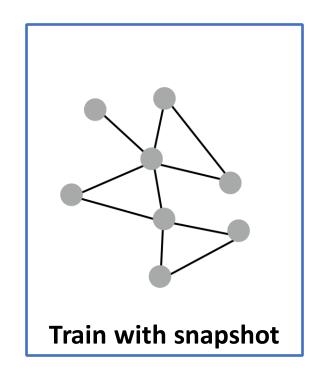


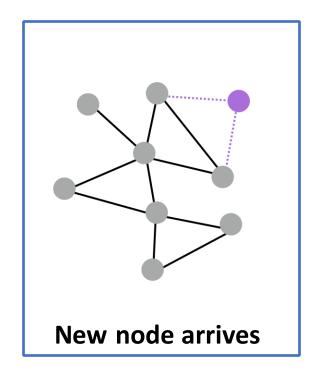


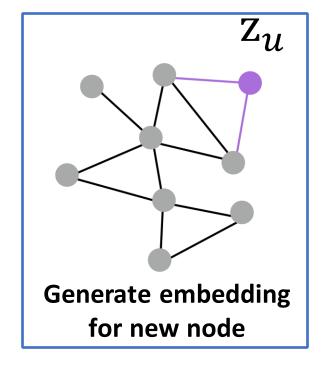
Inductive node embedding --> Generalize to entirely unseen graphs

E.g., train on protein interaction graph from model organism A and generate embeddings on newly collected data about organism B

### Inductive Capability: New Nodes







- Many application settings constantly encounter previously unseen nodes:
  - E.g., Reddit, YouTube, Google Scholar
- Need to generate new embeddings "on the fly"

# Summary

- Recap: Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) generates node embeddings by aggregating neighborhood information
  - Key distinctions between different architectures are in how they aggregate information across the layers

Next: Describe GraphSAGE graph neural network architecture

## Outline of Today's Lecture

1. Basics of deep learning



2. Deep learning for graphs



3. Graph Convolutional Networks and GraphSAGE

