CSE8803/CX4803

Machine Learning in Computational Biology

Lecture 14b: Traditional ML on graphs

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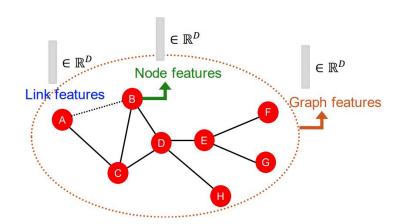
Traditional machine learning for graphs

(for simplicity, we focus on undirected graphs in the lecture)

Machine learning tasks on graphs

- Node-level prediction
- Link-level prediction
- Graph-level prediction

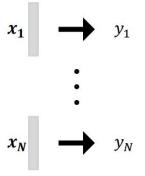
Design features for nodes / links / graphs



Traditional machine learning pipeline

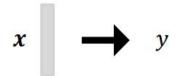
Train an ML model:

- Obtain features of training data (node/edge/graph)
- Train a ML model (SVM, NN, etc)



Apply the model:

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

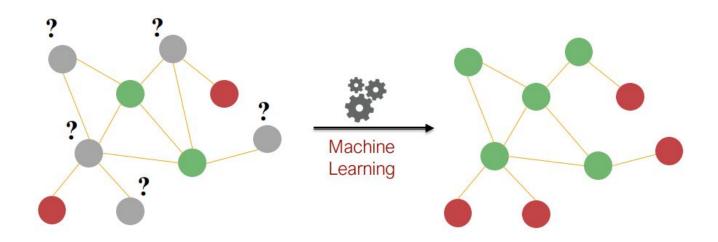


Traditional ML focuses on (manually) designing effective features over graphs

Node-level tasks and features

Node-level tasks

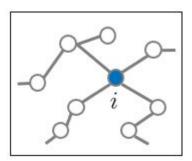
Node classification (e.g., protein function prediction)



Node-level features

Goal: design features that characterize the structure and position of a node in the network

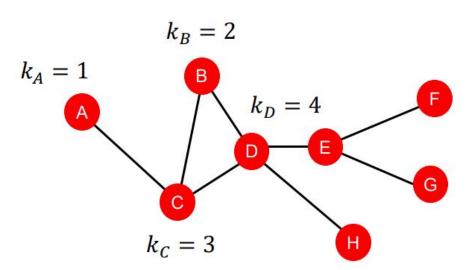
- Node degree
- Node centrality
- Clustering coefficient
- Graphlets



Node degree

Degree k_{ν} of node ν : the number of edges (neighboring nodes) the nodes has.

Treats all neighboring nodes equally



Node centrality

- Node degree counts the neighboring nodes without capturing their importance
- Node centrality c_v takes the node importance in a graph into account
- Different node centrality measures
 - Eigenvector centrality
 - Betweenness centrality
 - Closeness centrality
 - o ...

Node centrality: eigenvector centrality

- A node v is important if surrounded by important neighboring nodes $u \in N(u)$
- The centrality of a node v is defined as the sum of the centrality of neighboring nodes

$$c_v = \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{u \in N(v)} c_u \qquad - \dots$$

Recursive definition

λ is a normalization constant

Node centrality: eigenvector centrality

Rewrite the recursive definition in matrix form

$$c_v = \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{u \in N(v)} c_u$$
 $\lambda c = Ac$

λ is a normalization constant

A: adjacency matrix c: centrality vector

λ: eigenvalue

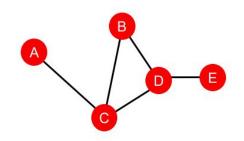
- Centrality c is the eigenvector of A
- The eigenvector c corresponding to λ_{max} is used for centrality

Node centrality: betweenness centrality

A node is important if it lies on many shortest paths between other nodes

$$c_v = \sum_{s \neq v \neq t} \frac{\#(\text{shortest paths betwen } s \text{ and } t \text{ that contain } v)}{\#(\text{shortest paths between } s \text{ and } t)}$$

Unnormalized version:



$$c_A = c_B = c_E = 0$$

 $c_C = 3$
(A-C-B, A-C-D, A-C-D-E)

$$c_D = 3$$
 (A-C-D-E, B-D-E, C-D-E)

- Normalized version:
 - Undirected graph
 - Normalized by (N-1)(N-2)/2
 - Directed graph
 - Normalized by (N-1)(N-2)
 - o E.g.:

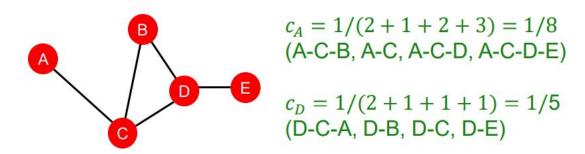
$$c_D = \frac{3}{\binom{N-1}{2}} = 0.5$$

Node centrality: closeness centrality

A node is important if it has small shortest path lengths to all other nodes

$$c_v = \frac{1}{\sum_{u \neq v} \text{shortest path length between } u \text{ and } v}$$

Example:

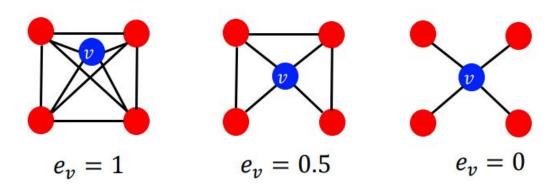


Clustering coefficient

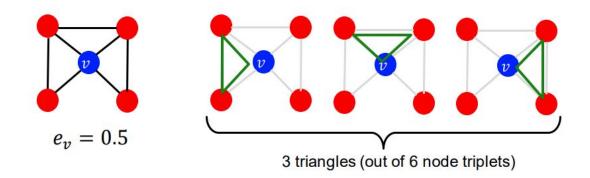
Measures how connected v's neighboring nodes are

$$e_v = \frac{\#(\text{edges among neighboring nodes})}{\binom{k_v}{2}} \in [0,1]$$
Total number of possible edges among v 's neighboring nodes (k_v : degree of node k)

Example:



• Clustering coefficient of **u** counts the #(▲) node **u** touches



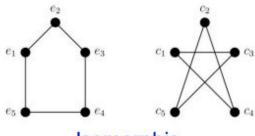
Can we generalize the counting of ▲ to other pre-specified subgraphs (graphlets)?

Induced subgraph & isomorphism

 Def: Induced subgraph is another graph, formed from a subset of vertices and all of the edges connecting the vertices in that subset.

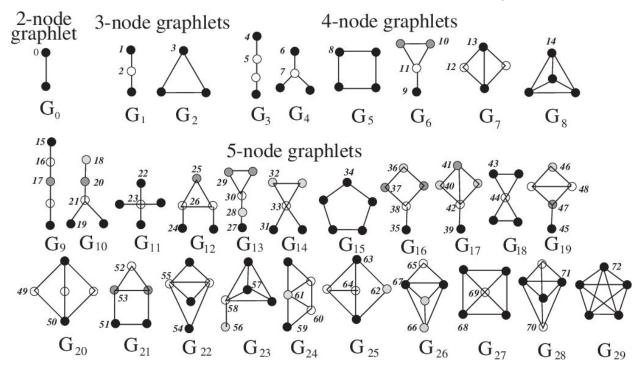


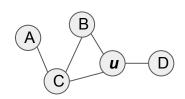
- Def: Graph Isomorphism
 - Two graphs which contain the same number of nodes connected in the same way are said to be isomorphic.



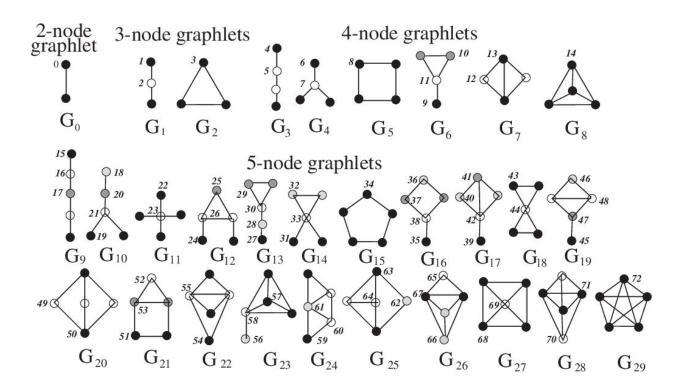
Isomorphic
Node mapping: (e2,c2), (e1, c5), (e3,c4), (e5,c3), (e4,c1)

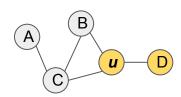
Graphlets: Rooted connected induced non-isomorphic subgraphs





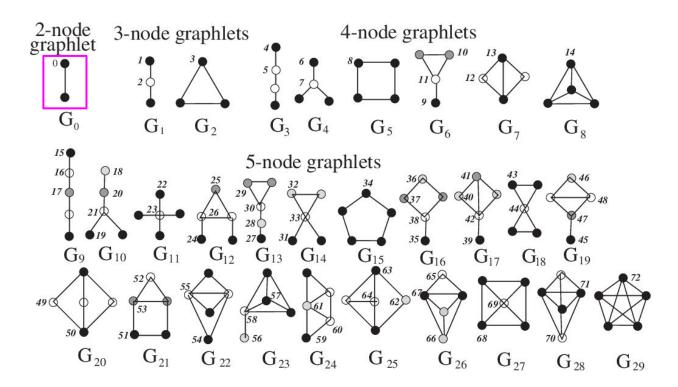
Node u contains graphlets

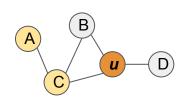




Node *u* contains graphlets • 0,

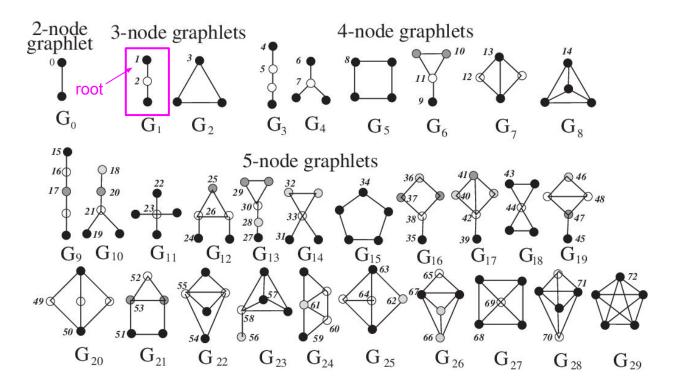
(u-B, u-C are also examples of the 0-th graphlet)

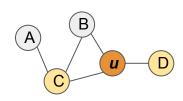




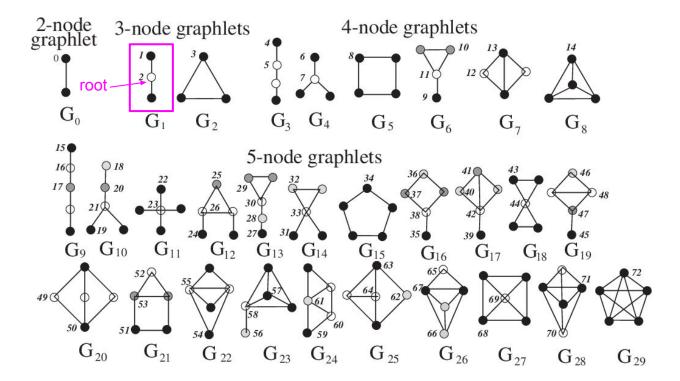
Node *u* contains graphlets

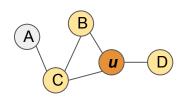
0, 1





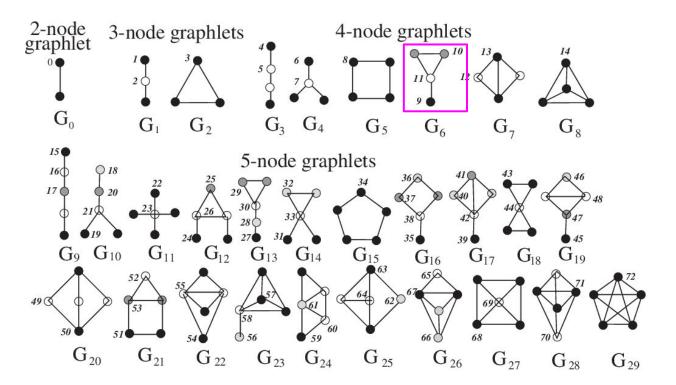
Node *u* contains graphlets • 0, 1, 2





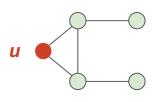
Node *u* contains graphlets

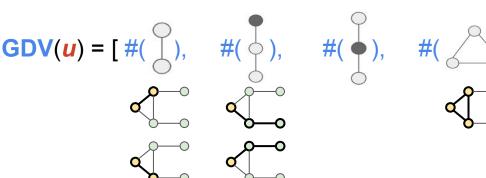
0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 11, ...

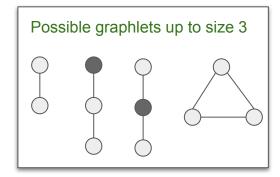


Graphlet Degree Vector (GDV)

- Graphlet degree vector (GDV): a vector that counts the number of graphlet a node touches (for each of the pre-specified graphlet)
- **Example**: Consider GDV of node u for graphlets up to size 3







GDV(u) = [2,

2

0,

1]

Graphlet Degree Vector (GDV)

- Graphlet degree vector (GDV): a vector that counts the number of graphlet a node touches (for each of the pre-specified graphlet)
 - Can extend to more nodes (e.g., 73 dimensions if using 2-5 nodes)
 - o GDV is a **signature** of a node that describing the topology of its neighborhood

Analogy:

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

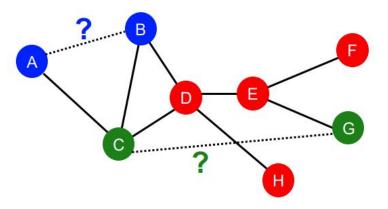
Node-level features: summary

- Importance-based features
 - Node degree
 - Node centrality
 - Eigenvector centrality
 - Betweenness centrality
 - Closeness centrality
- Structure-based features
 - Node degree
 - Clustering coefficient
 - Graphlet degree vector (GDV)

Edge-level tasks and features

Recap: link-level prediction task

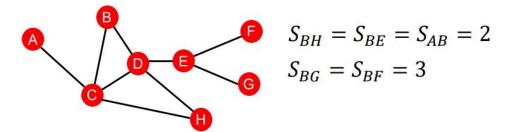
- Link prediction: predict new links based on existing links
- The key is to design feature for a pair of nodes



Distance-based features

Shortest-path distance between two nodes

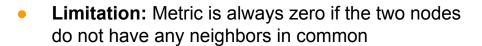
Example:



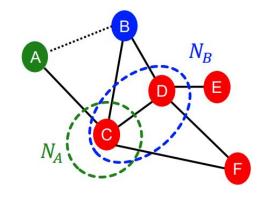
- **Limitation**: does not capture the degree of neighborhood overlap
 - o (B, H) have 2 shared neighbors, while (B, E) and (A, B) only have 1 such node

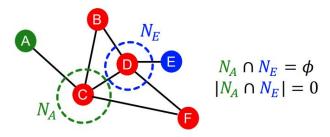
#neighboring nodes shared between two nodes

- 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: $\frac{|N(A) \cap N(B)|}{|N(A) \cup N(B)|} = \frac{|\{C\}|}{|\{C,D\}|} = \frac{1}{2}$



 However, the two nodes may still be connected in the future potentially





Katz index: #(walks) of all lengths between two nodes

- Q: how to compute #(walks) between two nodes?
- A: Use power of the graph adjacency matrix
 - Recall: $A_{uv} = 1$ if $u \in N(v)$
 - Let $P_{uv}^{(K)} = \text{#walks of length } K$ between u and v
 - We will show $P^{(K)} = A^k$
 - $P_{uv}^{(1)} = \text{#walks of length 1 (direct neighborhood)}$ between u and $v = A_{uv}$ $P_{12}^{(1)} = A_{12}$

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

Katz index: #(walks) of all lengths between two nodes

- How to compute $P_{uv}^{(2)}$?
 - Step 1: Compute #walks of length 1 between each of u's neighbor and v
 - Step 2: Sum up these #walks 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
| #walks of length 1 between | Node 1's neighbors and Node 2 |
$$P_{12}^{(2)} = A_{12}^2$$

| A² = $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

Katz index: #(walks) of all lengths between two nodes

- Q: how to compute #(walks) between two nodes?
- A: Use power of the graph adjacency matrix
 - A_{uv} specifies #(walks) of length 1 (direct neighbor) between u and v
 - $A_{uv}^{(2)}$ specifies #(walks) of length 2 (neighbor of neighbor) between u and v
 - 0
 - A_{uv}^(L) specifies #(walks) of length L between u and v

Katz index: #(walks) of all lengths between two nodes

$$S_{u,v} = \sum_{l=1}^{\text{Sum over all walk lengths}} \sharp \text{walk sof length } \textit{l}$$
 between \textit{u} and \textit{v} between \textit{u} and \textit{v}

Katz index can be computed in closed-form:

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

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

Summary of link-level features

- Distance-based features
 - Shortest-path distance between two nodex
 - Does not capture neighborhood overlap
- Local neighborhood overlap
 - #nodes shared between two nodes
 - Becomes 0 when no shared neighbors
- Global neighborhood overlap
 - Katz index: #walks of all lengths between two nodes
 - Captures global graph structure

Graph-level tasks and features

Graph-level tasks and features

• **Graph-level task**: predict property of the entire graph

- Goal of graph-level feature
 - We want features that characterize the structure of an entire graph
- Example in this lecture: graph kernels
 - Measure similarity between two graphs

Background: Kernel methods

- Kernel methods are widely-used in machine learning
- Idea: Design kernels (similarity functions) 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 eigenvalues)
 - 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 kernels

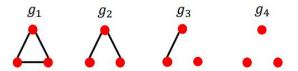
- Kernel kernels measure similarity between two graphs
- Two examples in this lecture
 - Graphlet kernel [1]
 - Weisfeiler-Lehman kernel [2]
- Other graph kernels
 - Random-walk kernel
 - Shortest-path graph kernel
 - 0 ...

^[1] Shervashidze, Nino, et al. "Efficient graphlet kernels for large graph comparison." Artificial Intelligence and Statistics. 2009.

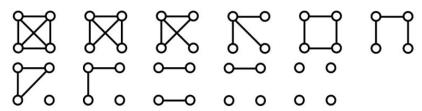
^[2] Shervashidze, Nino, et al. "Weisfeiler-lehman graph kernels." Journal of Machine Learning Research 12.9 (2011).

Graphlet kernel

- Idea: count the #(different graphlets) in a graph
- Let $G_k = (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_{n_k})$ be a list of graphlets of size $\textbf{\textit{k}}$
 - For k = 3, there are 4 graphlets



 \circ For k = 4, there are 11 graphlets



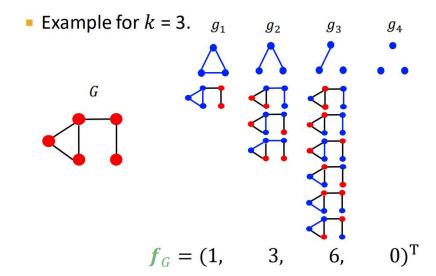
Note: definition of graphlets here is slightly different from node-level features

- Nodes in graphelts do not need to be connected
- Graphlets here are not rooted

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 kernel

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

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

Normalization: if G and G' have different sizes, that will greatly skew the value, so normalize each feature vector:

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

- Limitation: counting graphlets is computationally expensive
 - Counting size-k graphlets for a graph with size n by enumeration takes n^k

Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel

- Idea: use neighborhood structure to iteratively enrich node vocabulary
 - The 1-dim Weisfeiler-Lehman (WL) algorithm is commonly known as color refinement

Algorithm:

- 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

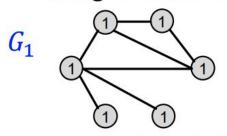
$$c^{(k+1)}(v) = \mathsf{HASH}\left(\left\{c^{(k)}(v), \left\{c^{(k)}(u)\right\}_{u \in N(v)}\right\}\right),\,$$

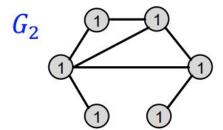
where HASH maps different inputs to different colors.

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

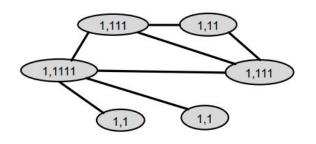
Example of color refinement given two graphs

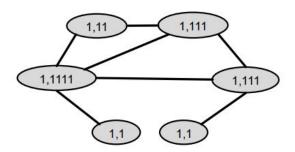
Assign initial colors





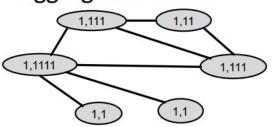
Aggregate neighboring colors

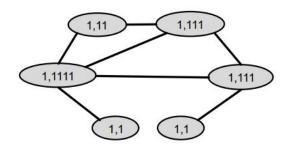




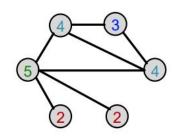
Example of color refinement given two graphs

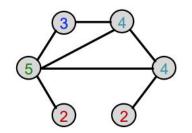
Aggregated colors





Hash aggregated colors



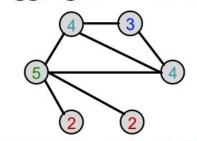


Hash table

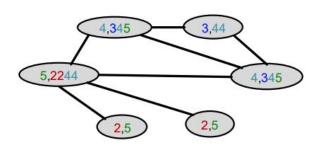
1,1 --> 2 1,11 --> 3 1,111 --> 4 1,1111 --> 5

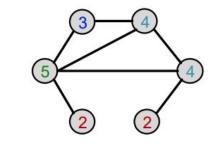
Example of color refinement given two graphs

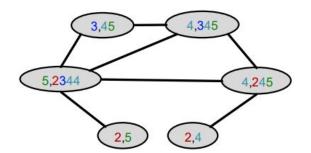
Aggregated colors



Hash aggregated colors

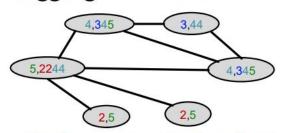


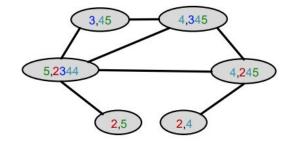




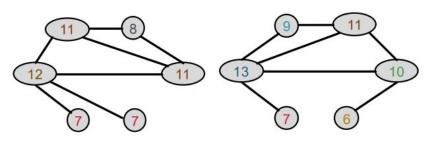
Example of color refinement given two graphs

Aggregated colors





Hash aggregated colors

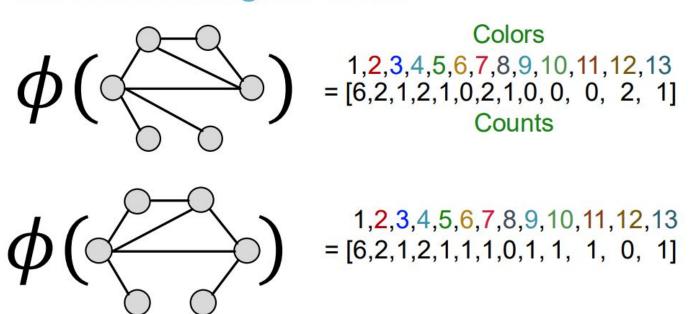


Hash table

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

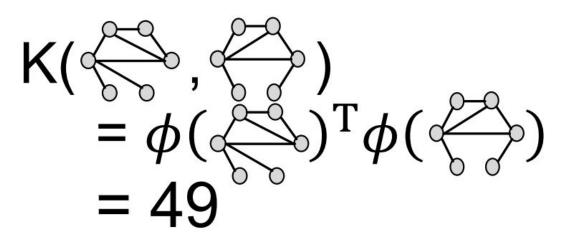
Weisfeiler-Lehman graph features

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:



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).

Summary of graph-level features

- Graphlet kernel
 - Count number of different graphlets
 - Computationally expensive
- Weisfeiler-Lehman kernel
 - K-step color refinement algorithm
 - Computationally efficient

Summary of today

- Network basics
- Traditional ML pipelines for graphs
 - Hand-crafted feature + ML model
- Node-level features
- Link-level features
- Graph-level features