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# Graph Signal Processing for Machine Learning

*A review and new perspectives*



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The effective representation, processing, analysis, and visualization of large-scale structured data, especially those related to complex domains, such as networks and graphs, are one of the key questions in modern machine learning. Graph signal processing (GSP), a vibrant branch of signal processing models and algorithms that aims at handling data supported on graphs, opens new paths of research to address this challenge. In this article, we review a few important contributions made by GSP concepts and tools, such as graph filters and transforms, to the development of novel machine learning algorithms. In particular, our discussion focuses on the following three aspects: exploiting data structure and relational priors, improving data and computational efficiency, and enhancing model interpretability. Furthermore, we provide new perspectives on the future development of GSP techniques that may serve as a bridge between applied mathematics and signal processing on one side and machine learning and network science on the other. Cross-fertilization across these different disciplines may help unlock the numerous challenges of complex data analysis in the modern age.

## Introduction

We live in a connected society. Data collected from large-scale interactive systems, such as biological, social, and financial networks, become largely available. In parallel, the past few decades have seen a significant amount of interest in the machine learning community for network data processing and analysis. Networks have an intrinsic structure that conveys very specific properties to data, e.g., interdependencies between data entities in the form of pairwise relationships. These properties are traditionally captured by mathematical representations such as graphs.

In this context, new trends and challenges have been developing fast. Let us consider, for example, a network of protein-protein interactions and the expression level of individual genes at every point in time. Some typical tasks in network biology related to this type of data are 1) discovery of key genes (via protein grouping) affected by the infection and 2) prediction of how the host organism reacts (in terms of gene expression)

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to infections over time, both of which can inform the best intervention strategies. These are two classical machine learning tasks that involve learning with graph-structured data (see Figure 1 for an illustration). Furthermore, the rapid growth of gene and protein sequence data stretches the limit of graph-based algorithms, which need to be robust and stable against potential noise. Finally, the understanding and interpretability of the learning model (such as the interpretation of the coefficients of the regression model) are of crucial importance to clinical decision making, for example, vaccine administration.

The quest for more efficient representation of signals collected in new structured observation domains has led to the recent development of GSP [1]–[3]. GSP is a fast-growing field at the intersection of applied mathematics and signal processing that has seen a significant amount of research effort in the signal processing community at large. In these settings, data are modeled as signals defined on the node set of a weighted graph, which provide a natural representation that incorporates both the data (node attribute) and the underlying structure (edge attribute). By extending classical signal processing concepts, such as sampling, convolution, and frequency-domain filtering, to signals on graphs, GSP provides new ways of leveraging the intrinsic structure and geometry of the data in the analysis. This provides a generic framework and numerous appealing tools to address some of the new challenges encountered by current machine learning models and algorithms that handle network data.

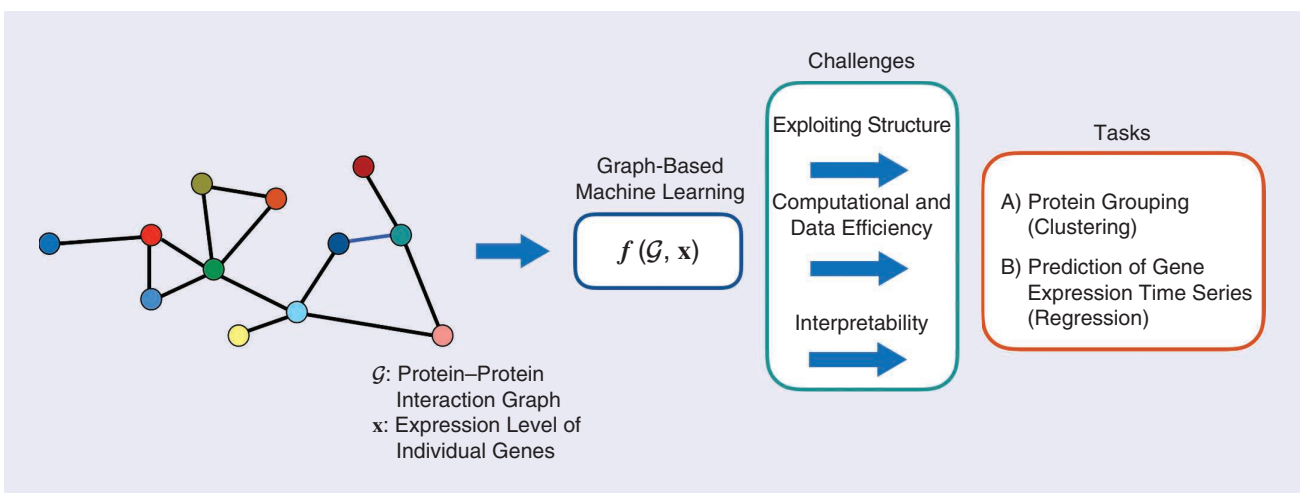
On the one hand, GSP provides new ways of exploiting data structure and relational priors from a signal processing perspective. This leads to both the development of new machine learning models that handle graph-structured data, e.g., graph convolutional networks for representation learning [4], and improvement in the efficiency and robustness of classical network algorithms, e.g., spectral clustering to detect network communities [5]. On the other hand, GSP provides a new perspective

about the interpretability of popular machine learning models, e.g., the deep neural networks (DNNs), and gives additional insights on understanding real-world systems, e.g., by inferring the underlying network structure from observations [6], [7]. Hence, GSP tools interestingly serve as a bridge that connects machine learning, signal processing, and network science toward solving important challenges in modern data analysis.

In this article, we review the application of GSP concepts and tools in developing novel as well as improving existing machine learning models. Our discussion revolves around three broad categories of GSP-based ideas: 1) regularization techniques to enforce smoothness of signals on graphs; 2) sampling techniques, filters, and transforms defined on graphs; and 3) learning models inspired or interpretable by GSP concepts and tools. We highlight their utilization for: 1) exploiting data structure and relational priors; 2) improving data efficiency, computational efficiency, and robustness; and 3) designing interpretable machine learning and artificial intelligence systems. We further provide a number of open challenges and new perspectives on the design of future GSP algorithms for machine learning and data analysis applications in general.

## GSP for exploiting data structure

GSP typically permits one to model, analyze, and process data supported on graphs. For ease of discussion, consider a weighted and undirected graph  $\mathcal{G} = \{\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}\}$  with the node set  $\mathcal{V}$  of cardinality  $N$  and edge set  $\mathcal{E}$ . A graph signal is defined as a function,  $\mathbf{x}: \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , that assigns a scalar value to each node. The main research effort in GSP is therefore concerned with the generalization of classical signal processing concepts and tools to graph signals. One key development is that the set of eigenvectors of the graph Laplacian matrix or a graph shift operator (a generic matrix representation of the graph) provides a notion of frequency on graphs and helps define the



**FIGURE 1.** An illustrative example of a typical graph-based machine learning task and the corresponding challenges. The input of the algorithm consists of 1) a typical protein–protein interaction network captured by a graph and 2) a signal on the graph (color coded) that is an expression level of individual genes at any given time point. The output can be a classical machine learning task, such as clustering of the proteins or prediction of gene expression over time.

so-called graph Fourier transform (GFT). For example, consider the combinatorial graph Laplacian  $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{W}$ , where  $\mathbf{W}$  is the weighted adjacency matrix of the graph and  $\mathbf{D}$  is the degree matrix. The graph Laplacian  $\mathbf{L}$  admits the eigencomposition  $\mathbf{L} = \Phi \Lambda \Phi^T$ , where  $\Phi$  is the eigenvector matrix that contains the eigenvectors as columns and  $\Lambda$  is the eigenvalue matrix  $\text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_N)$  that contains the associated eigenvalues (conventionally sorted in increasing order) along the diagonal. Due to the analogy between the continuous Laplace operator and the graph Laplacian  $\mathbf{L}$ , the operation  $\langle \Phi, \mathbf{x} \rangle = \Phi^T \mathbf{x}$  can be thought of as a GFT for the graph signal  $\mathbf{x}$ , with the  $i$ th entry of  $\Phi^T \mathbf{x}$  being the Fourier coefficient that corresponds to the discrete frequency  $\lambda_i$  [1] (similar transforms could be defined using a general graph shift operator [2], [3]). This observation is useful in two aspects. First, the notion of frequency helps define a measure of smoothness for signals on graphs and provides a new interpretation of the theory of kernels and regularization on graphs [8]. Second, this enables the generalization of operations such as convolution and frequency-domain filtering for graph signals. GSP-based ideas thus provide new tools for exploiting data structure and relational priors. Since their inception, they have been applied in the context of a wide range of machine learning problems. In this section, we discuss the application of GSP in supervised and unsupervised learning problems when the underlying graph is known; alternatively, it may be inferred from observations of different variables (see the “Inference of Hidden Relational Structure for Interpretability” section for further discussion on this point).

### Regression for multiple response variables

Regression is one of the basic forms of supervised learning where, in its simplest setting, we are interested in learning a mapping from a set of inputs (or features) to a real-valued output (or response). Of particular interest is the generalized problem of multivariate regression, where we learn such a mapping for multiple response variables. Existing approaches in the literature usually rely on some type of modeling of the interdependencies between the response variables. For example, in a parametric model, such interdependencies are implicitly captured by the coefficients of a multivariate autoregressive process; in a nonparametric model, they may be explicitly modeled by the kernel function of a multioutput Gaussian process (GP). In particular, in the case of separable kernels for multioutput GP, a positive semidefinite (PSD) matrix is incorporated into the kernel function to encode the interactions among the response variables [9, Sec. 4].

GSP provides an interesting alternative to tackling such regression problems by assuming that observations of the response variables form graph signals with certain properties (e.g., smoothness) on a predefined graph. For example, a globally smooth graph signal,  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , can be obtained by solving a regularization problem on the graph and interpreted as the

outcome of the low-pass filtering of an input signal,  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N$  [1, see Example 2]:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{I} + \alpha\mathbf{L})^{-1}\mathbf{x} = \Phi(\mathbf{I} + \alpha\Lambda)^{-1}\Phi^T\mathbf{x}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{I}$  is an identity matrix and  $\alpha$  is a hyperparameter. Notice that the filter matrix  $\mathbf{B}$ , which is a function of the graph Laplacian  $\mathbf{L}$ , encodes relationships between observations on different nodes. Based on this, the authors of [10] have gone on to propose a GP model on graphs whose kernel function is reminiscent of that in a multi-output GP, where  $\mathbf{B}$  is used to construct the PSD matrix that relates observations of the response variables.

This example demonstrates the usefulness of GSP tools, e.g., graph regularization and graph filters, in designing models that capture interdependencies between multiple response variables in a regression setting. In particular, this enriches the multioutput GP literature by providing new ways of designing the kernel functions. For example, in addition to the example in [10], the recent work in [11] has proposed to learn a graph filter that leads to the most suitable GP kernel for the observed graph data, hence improving the prediction performance.

### Graph-based classification

Another basic form of supervised learning is classification, which is similar to regression but with a categorical response variable. Recent advances in deep learning, in particular convolutional neural networks (CNNs), have led to significant improvements in tasks such as image classification. However, classical CNNs cannot be directly applied to classify signals that are supported on a graph structure due to a lack of notion of shift and convolution in the irregular graph domain.

GSP provides a convenient tool to address such a challenge. More specifically, by providing a notion of frequency and a GFT, convolution may be implicitly defined via the graph spectral domain. Consider a graph signal  $\mathbf{x}$  and a convolutional kernel  $\hat{g}(\lambda)$ , which is defined directly in the graph spectral domain as a function applied to the Laplacian eigenvalues. We may define the convolution between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $g$  as

$$\mathbf{x} * g = \Phi \hat{g}(\Lambda) \Phi^T \mathbf{x} = \hat{g}(\mathbf{L}) \mathbf{x}. \quad (2)$$

In (2),  $\hat{g}(\Lambda) = \text{diag}(\hat{g}(\lambda_1), \hat{g}(\lambda_2), \dots, \hat{g}(\lambda_N))$ ; thus, the convolution operator  $\hat{g}(\mathbf{L})$  can generally be interpreted as a graph filter whose characteristic is determined by the form of  $\hat{g}(\cdot)$ , which can be learned in the context of a neural network. This is exactly the idea behind the work in [12], where the authors have considered the problem of graph signal classification and proposed a spectral CNN whose architecture resembles that of a classical CNN, with the spatial filter replaced by a graph filter:

$$\mathbf{x}_{l+1,q} = \sigma \left( \sum_{p=1}^P \Phi \hat{g}_{\theta_{q,p}}(\Lambda) \Phi^T \mathbf{x}_{l,p} \right). \quad (3)$$

**GSP provides new ways of exploiting data structure and relational priors from a signal processing perspective.**

In (3),  $\mathbf{X}_l \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times P} = [\mathbf{x}_{l,1}, \mathbf{x}_{l,2}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{l,P}]$  and  $\mathbf{X}_{l+1} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times Q} = [\mathbf{x}_{l+1,1}, \mathbf{x}_{l+1,2}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{l+1,Q}]$  are the feature maps at layer  $l$  and  $l+1$ , respectively,  $\hat{g}_{\theta_{q,p}}(\Lambda) = \text{diag}(\theta_{q,p})$ , where  $\theta_{q,p} \in \mathbb{R}^N$  are the learnable parameters, and  $\sigma(\cdot)$  is a nonlinearity applied to the node-wise signal values. In this construction, node-domain convolution is implicitly carried out in the graph spectral domain by an element-wise multiplication between the Fourier coefficients of the signal,  $\Phi^T \mathbf{x}_{l,p}$ , and the learnable parameter vector,  $\theta_{q,p}$ , before going back to the node domain. This early work thus highlights the benefits of GSP tools in addressing an important challenge in the design of graph neural networks (GNNs) [4].

The work in [12] is conceptually important, but it is limiting in a number of ways. In particular, the convolutional filter defined in the graph spectral domain is not necessarily localized in the spatial (node) domain, a property that is often desired in neural network design. Furthermore, the necessity for computing the eigendecomposition [with a complexity of  $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$ ] as well as the GFT via the matrix–vector multiplication [with a complexity of  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ ] prevents this framework from being applied to large-scale graphs. Motivated by these limitations, Defferrard et al. have proposed a graph CNN framework, also known as the ChebNet [13]. The key idea in [13] is the design of the convolutional filter via a finite polynomial of the eigenvalues of the graph Laplacian:

$$\hat{g}_{\theta}(\Lambda) = \sum_{j=0}^K \theta_j \Lambda^j \quad \text{thus} \quad \hat{g}_{\theta}(\mathbf{L}) = \sum_{j=0}^K \theta_j \mathbf{L}^j, \quad (4)$$

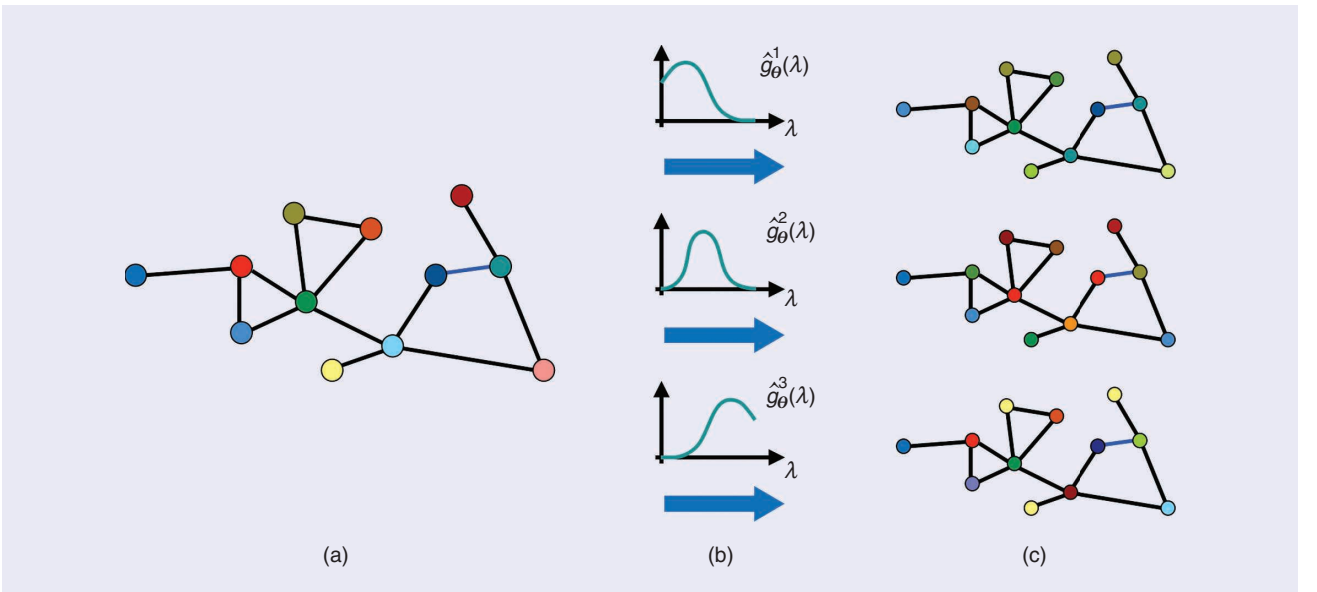
where  $\theta = [\theta_0, \dots, \theta_K] \in \mathbb{R}^{K+1}$  are the learnable parameters. It has been pointed out in [13] that, due to the property of the  $K$ -degree polynomial of the Laplacian, the convolutional filter is guaranteed to be localized within the  $K$ -hop neighbor-

hood of each node. Furthermore, the convolution can be done by matrix–vector multiplication using the powers of the graph Laplacian; no explicit computation of the eigendecomposition or the GFT is required. Finally, to improve the stability of the convolution operation, the authors of [13] consider a scaled version of the graph Laplacian,  $\tilde{\mathbf{L}}$ , and a Chebyshev approximation to  $\hat{g}_{\theta}(\tilde{\mathbf{L}})$ , hence the name of the approach. ChebNet represents an important advance in GNN designs, and its development is based on the core idea of graph convolution via polynomial spectral graph filters in (4). An illustration of the graph convolutional layer of the ChebNet is shown in Figure 2.

The works in [12] and [13] consider supervised learning (classification) of graph signals, an exact analogy to image classification via traditional CNNs. Another popular graph-based classification problem is semisupervised node classification, where one is interested in inferring the label for a set of testing nodes given labels on a set of training nodes as well as the connectivity and any additional features for the full set of nodes. Although there exists an extensive literature on semisupervised learning on graphs, the perspective of neural network-based approaches provides renewed interest in the problem from the machine learning community. A major development along this line is the graph convolutional network (GCN) proposed in [14], which can be thought of as a special case of the ChebNet design by letting  $K = 1$ . After a series of simplifications, one can express the convolutional layer of the GCN as

$$\hat{g}_{\theta}(\mathbf{L}) = \theta \tilde{\mathbf{D}}^{-1/2} \tilde{\mathbf{W}} \tilde{\mathbf{D}}^{-1/2}. \quad (5)$$

In (5),  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$  is a diagonal matrix with the  $i$ th entry of the diagonal being  $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}_{ii} = \sum_j \tilde{W}_{ij}$ , where  $\tilde{W}_{ij}$  is the  $ij$ th entry of the



**FIGURE 2.** The graph convolution via polynomial spectral graph filters proposed in the ChebNet architecture. An input graph signal is passed through three graph filters separately to produce the output of the first graph convolutional layer (before nonlinear activation and graph pooling) of the ChebNet. (a) Input graph signal. (b) Graph filter. (c) Graph convolution output. (Adapted from [13, Fig. 1].)



matrix  $\tilde{\mathbf{W}} = \mathbf{W} + \mathbf{I}$ , and  $\theta$  is the single learnable parameter for each filter. The GCN can be considered as a neural network that updates node features for node classification; hence, it does not require a graph pooling layer as in the case of [12] and [13]. The update process is a simple one-hop neighborhood averaging, as implied by the choice of  $K = 1$  for the convolutional filter and reflected by the form of normalized adjacency matrix in (5). This also demonstrates the interesting point that although GNN designs, such as the ChebNet and the GCN, might be motivated from a graph spectral viewpoint, they may be implemented in the spatial (node) domain directly. The work in [14] has demonstrated that the GCN significantly outperforms a number of baselines in graph-based semisupervised learning tasks, and it has since sparked major interest in developing GNN models from the machine learning community.

In summary, GSP tools, and especially the graph filters, have played an important role in some early designs of GNN architectures. Furthermore, the recent study in [15] has shown that several popular GNNs can be interpreted as implementing denoising and/or smoothing of graph signals. GNNs, especially those designed from a spectral perspective, therefore can be thought of as learning models inspired or interpretable by GSP concepts and tools. They have contributed not only to graph-based classification but also to other aspects of machine learning, as we explain in the following sections.

### Graph-based clustering and dimensionality reduction

Unsupervised learning is another major paradigm in machine learning, where clustering and dimensionality reduction are two main problems of interest. Graph-based clustering, in its simplest form, aims to partition the node set into mutually exclusive clusters using a similarity graph. This problem has attracted major interest in the network science and machine learning communities. Spectral clustering, for example, is one of the most popular solutions that has been introduced in the last two decades.

Although graph-based clustering does not typically involve node attributes (i.e., graph signals), concepts that are provided by GSP have found their application in a number of related problems. One example is multiscale clustering, where one is interested in finding a series of clustering results, each of which reflects the grouping of nodes at a particular scale. While classical solutions are usually based on the generalization of concepts such as modularity to the multiscale scenario, multiscale transforms in signal processing, such as the wavelet transform, provide a natural alternative. For example, the work in [16] has utilized the spectral graph wavelets [17], a generalization of wavelets to the graph domain, to address the problem. Specifically, the graph wavelet  $\psi_{s,v}$  centered around node  $v$  at a particular scale  $s$  is defined as

$$\psi_{s,v} = \Phi \hat{g}(s\mathbf{A}) \Phi^T \delta_v = \hat{g}(s\mathbf{L}) \delta_v, \quad (6)$$

where  $\hat{g}(s\mathbf{A}) = \text{diag}(\hat{g}(s\lambda_1), \hat{g}(s\lambda_2), \dots, \hat{g}(s\lambda_N))$ , and  $\delta_v$  is a delta impulse that has value 1 at node  $v$  and 0 elsewhere. It is clear from (6) that the graph wavelet  $\psi_{s,v}$  can be interpreted as the outcome of a scaled (in the graph spectral domain) graph filter given the delta impulse as the input. It provides an “egocentered view” of the graph seen from node  $v$ , and correlation between such views therefore provides a similarity between the nodes at scale  $s$ . A simple hierarchical clustering is then applied to the similarity matrix at different scales to obtain multiscale clustering. Another example of the GSP approach for clustering is discussed in [5], again based on the graph filters, which we explain in more detail in the “GSP for Improving Efficiency and Robustness” section from an efficiency viewpoint.

Unsupervised learning can also take the form of dimensionality reduction problems. In the context of graph-structured data, this usually means learning a low-dimensional representation for the data entities in the presence of a graph that captures the pairwise similarity between them. Classical solutions to dimensionality reduction, such as matrix factorization and autoencoders, have recently been combined with advances in GNNs to provide novel solutions. For example, the work in [18] has proposed an architecture based on the GCN to train a graph autoencoder

for learning a low-dimensional representation of the data. Another example is the work in [19], where the authors have proposed an architecture that combines the ChebNet with a recurrent neural network architecture for matrix completion and factorization. Both the GCN and ChebNet are based on the idea of polynomial spectral graph filters, which demonstrates how such GSP-inspired models can benefit learning algorithms for dimensionality reduction problems.

### GSP for improving efficiency and robustness

Although GSP is a framework originally developed for incorporating the graph structure into data analysis, recently, many classical machine learning algorithms have also benefited from exploiting typical GSP tools. Significant improvement in terms of robustness with respect to sparse and noisy training data, or adversarial examples, has been shown in tasks such as (semi-)supervised learning, few-shot learning, zero-shot learning, and multitask learning. Furthermore, large-scale data analysis and statistical learning can benefit from typical GSP operations, such as sampling and filtering, to reduce the computational complexity and time of graph-based learning. We discuss some of these aspects in the following sections.

### Improvement on data efficiency and robustness

Graph regularization has been introduced in many learning architectures, including DNNs, to improve the performance of supervised and semisupervised learning tasks. In semisupervised settings, the loss term has been augmented by a graph-based penalization term that biases the network toward

**GSP tools, and especially the graph filters, have played an important role in some early designs of GNN architectures.**

learning similar representations for neighboring nodes on a graph that contains as nodes both labeled and unlabeled data [20]. In supervised learning problems, the regularization technique that encourages smoothness of the label signal on a similarity graph constructed from the data [21] has been shown to improve the robustness of deep learning architectures by maximizing the distance between outputs for different classes. A similar regularization idea can be applied to intermediate representations in a DNN; for example, the regularizer proposed in [22] is based on constructing a series of graphs, one for each layer of the DNN architecture, where each graph captures the similarity between all training examples given their representations at that layer. It aims at achieving robustness by penalizing large changes in the smoothness of class indicator vectors from one layer to the next. Both [21] and [22] demonstrate the benefit of using regularization techniques on graphs to introduce inductive bias toward more effective learning.

Few-shot learning is another domain of machine learning where GSP-inspired models, in particular the GNNs, have been shown to improve generalization to novel tasks using only a few examples from the unknown classes. For instance, GCNs have been introduced in classical learning architectures: in [23], seen and unknown classes are represented by prototypes that are learned jointly; in [24], a graph is constructed from images in all classes, and it is eventually given as an input to a GCN. On the other hand, zero-shot learning, i.e., when samples of the unknown classes do not even exist in the training set, has also benefited from GSP tools such as transforms defined on graphs. As an example, the authors of [25] have

introduced the isoperimetric loss as a regularization criterion for learning the map from a visual representation to a semantic embedding in a zero-shot learning scenario. Sample embeddings are modeled as nodes of a graph whose connectivity is learned in the training phase. Smoothness on the graph is then achieved through the isoperimetric loss, which is approximated using polynomial functions that correspond to the spectral graph wavelets [17].

Generalization across tasks is also key to multitask learning, a field of research that has been recently addressed with

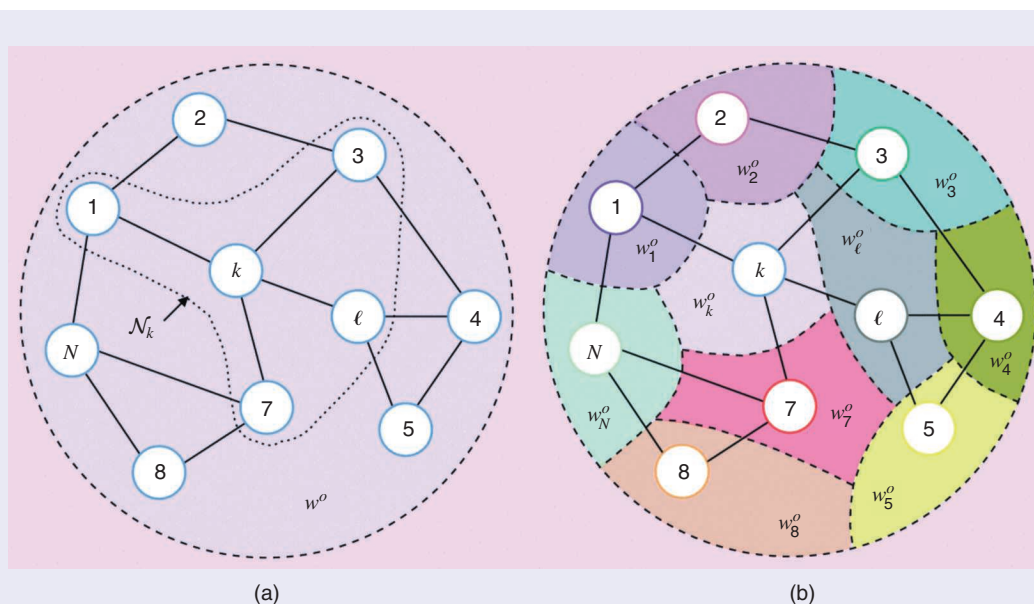
**Recently, many classical machine learning algorithms have also benefited from exploiting typical GSP tools.**

GSP in [26]. In this setting, the graph captures the correlation between multiple tasks, with each task being a node on the graph (see Figure 3 for an illustration). The overall goal is for each task to infer the parameter vector that optimizes a differentiable cost function. Looking at the cost function as a signal on the graph, the knowledge from

other tasks can be exploited by imposing a regularizer on the task graph, promoting the existing relationships between the tasks. This work shows how the structure between tasks can be inferred and exploited in learning-to-learn (or metalearning) settings, generalizing the learning process across tasks.

### Robustness against topological noise

In addition to robustness in terms of data samples, another natural consideration is the stability and robustness of graph-based models against topological noise. This usually means perturbation in the graph topology, which may be due to noise observed in real-world graphs or inaccuracy in the inference of the graph topology if one is not readily available. Stability and robustness against such perturbation is key to



**FIGURE 3.** An illustrative example of (a) a single-task network and (b) a multitask network (b). Nodes represent individual tasks, each of which is to infer a parameter vector,  $w^o$ , that optimizes a differentiable cost function. In a single-task network, all tasks optimize for the same parameter vector  $w^o$ , while in a multitask network they optimize for distinct, though related, parameter vectors  $\{w^o\}$ . (Adapted from [26]; used with permission.)

the generalization capability of graph-based machine learning models.

It is well known that Laplacian eigenvectors are not stable against perturbation in graph topology. The stability of GSP-based tools, especially the Laplacian-based spectral graph filters and spectral domain designs of GNN architectures, has come under scrutiny. However, a few recent results have shown that spectral graph filters are, under certain conditions, indeed stable. For example, the work in [27] has shown that spectral graph filters in the Cayley smoothness space are stable under absolute perturbation in the graph Laplacian, in the sense that the change in the filter output is linear with respect to the amount of perturbation. They have further analyzed the transferability of spectral domain designs of GNNs between graphs that discretize the same underlying metric space. The work in [28] has analyzed the stability of graph filters with respect to both absolute and relative graph perturbation and used the results to bound the change in the output of a GNN architecture as a function of properties of the perturbation (i.e., eigenvector misalignment and upper bound for the norm of the perturbation matrix), filter characteristic (i.e., integral Lipschitz constant of the filter), and design of the GNN architecture (i.e., number of filters and layers).

In addition to these stability results, there exist several other studies on the impact of perturbation or uncertainty in the graph topology on GSP and network analysis in general. For example, recent works have analyzed polynomial graph filters with random graph realizations, changes in the Laplacian eigenvalues and eigenvectors due to perturbation, and stability and continuity of centrality measures in weighted graphs. All of these examples are important attempts in understanding the robustness of network analysis, GSP operations, and GSP-inspired models against topological noise.

### *Improvement of computational efficiency*

The benefit of graph priors in machine learning tools in terms of data efficiency, robustness, and generalization has been empirically and theoretically supported. Nevertheless, these learning frameworks usually scale poorly with the number of graph nodes, resulting in high computational complexity in large-scale problems. Hence, there exists a strand of research aimed at adopting GSP tools to reduce the computational complexity of classical learning frameworks, such as spectral clustering and spectral sparsification.

Spectral clustering is a typical example of highly useful yet expensive frameworks. The three main steps of spectral clustering are 1) graph construction for the  $N$  entities to cluster; 2) computation of the first  $k$  eigenvectors of the graph Laplacian to identify a feature vector (embedding) for each entity; and 3) application of the  $k$ -means algorithm to these feature vectors. Each of these three steps becomes computationally intensive for a large number of nodes  $N$  and/or target number of clusters  $k$ . Fundamental GSP techniques, such as graph filtering and random signal sampling, have been proposed to simplify the last two steps of spectral clustering, leading to a compressive spectral clustering algorithm [5]. In particular, the computa-

tion of the eigenvectors is bypassed by filtering random signals on the graph. The  $k$ -means step is then performed on a small number (instead of  $N$ ) of randomly selected feature vectors, exploiting the theory of random sampling of bandlimited graph signals. We refer the reader to [5] for a review of the recent works aimed at reducing the computational complexity of spectral clustering.

More broadly, analysis and processing of data that reside on large-scale graphs can be simplified by factorizing the complex graph structure into the product of smaller graphs. This is the idea behind the work in [29], which adopts product graph as a model for large graphs and defines signal processing operations, such as the GFT and filtering, in a more efficient manner. For example, a Cartesian product graph can be used to modularize a regular grid image to gain in terms of computational efficiency in the computation of eigendecomposition for the GFT. This enables efficient implementation of GSP analysis on large graphs via parallelization and vectorization.

### **GSP for enhancing model interpretability**

A third domain that has recently benefited from the advances in the GSP literature is the interpretation of complex systems as well as classical machine learning algorithms. In this section, we focus our discussion on two aspects: 1) inferring hidden structure from data that leads to a better understanding of a complex system and 2) explaining the outcome of classical “black-box” learning architectures.

#### *Inference of hidden relational structure for interpretability*

Analysis of complex systems typically involves large sets of data whose underlying structure is often unknown. Such a structure can be estimated from the data to permit effective understanding or visualization of the system behavior. For example, in neuroscience, inferring a structure in the form of the connectivity between brain regions from activation signals may lead to a better understanding of the functionality of the brain.

The problem of structure or topology inference has been studied from classical viewpoints in statistics (e.g., sparse inverse covariance estimation) or physics (e.g., cascade models). More recently, the problem has been addressed from a GSP perspective, where the structure is modeled as a graph that is to be inferred by exploiting the interplay between the graph and the signals observed on the nodes. GSP-based graph learning frameworks therefore have the unique advantage of enforcing certain desirable representations of the signals via frequency-domain analysis and filtering operations on graphs. For example, models based on assumptions such as the smoothness or the diffusion of the graph signals have been successfully applied to identify weather patterns, brain connectivity, mobility patterns, and 3D point cloud structure. We refer the reader to [6] and [7] for two reviews of the recent works on the topic.

Furthermore, topology inference has been introduced in the context of DNNs/GNNs to infer hidden, and more interpretable, structures. For example, the authors in [30] have

proposed to impose a graph-based regularization on features of each layer of the DNN, based on the signal smoothness, by simultaneously learning the feature space graph, with nodes being the neurons. Specifically, features associated with the neurons in the intermediate layers are constrained to take into account the structure of a graph through a smoothness-promoting regularizer. Such an approach is shown to increase the interpretability of the DNN layers. Another example is the graph attention network (GAT) [31], which is a form of GNN that adaptively updates edge weights in a data-driven manner and, thus, can be used to interpret the importance of neighbors in feature aggregation. Interestingly, the recent work in [15] has shown that the GAT itself can be interpreted as implementing denoising of edge weights in a graph signal denoising problem.

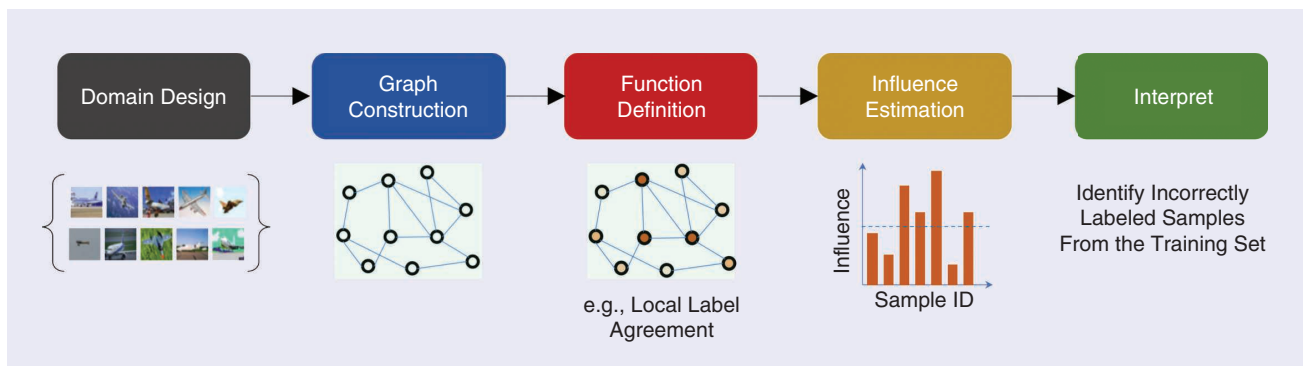
### *A posteriori interpretation of learning architectures*

A first attempt to exploit GSP tools to better understand complex learning architectures is the framework proposed in [32], called *MARGIN*. It provides a generic way to perform several metalearning tasks by allowing the user to incorporate rich semantic information. More specifically, for each task, a graph whose nodes represent entities of interest is constructed, and a hypothesis is defined as a function or signal on that graph. For example, if the task is to determine faulty labels in a data set with corrupted labels, the domain is the set of samples and the hypothesis becomes a local label agreement signal that measures how many neighbors have the same label as the current node. The central idea of *MARGIN* is then to use GSP to identify fluctuations of the signal on the graph, which serve as explanations. In particular, high-pass graph filtering reveals which nodes can maximally describe the variations in the label agreement signal. The node influence scores are computed as the magnitude of the filtered signal value at that node. The influence score is eventually translated into an interpretable explanation. A summary of the different steps of the approach is illustrated in Figure 4. *MARGIN* is an interesting attempt based on GSP tools; however, one limitation of this method is the fact that if the domain is chosen to be the entire data set, the graph construction and the filtering operators become computationally intensive as the size of the data set increases.

Another example for improving interpretability is the work in [33], which uses GSP to monitor the intermediate representations obtained in a DNN. Preliminary findings suggest that smoothness of the label signal on a  $k$ -nearest neighbor graph, which is obtained using normalized Euclidean distance of features in each layer, is a good measure of separation of classes in these intermediate representations. Thus, this constitutes a first step toward exploiting the frequency behavior of the label signal on some well-defined graphs across the layers to provide meaningful interpretations of the DNN layers. Besides global smoothness, other spectral properties of graph signals, such as local smoothness or sparsity, as well as graph metrics, such as centrality and modularity, could be worth investigating toward the same objective.

### **Summary, open challenges, and new perspectives**

Handling complex and dynamic structures within large-scale data sets presents significant challenges in modern data analytics and machine learning tasks. Therefore, the novel signal processing perspective reviewed in this article has both theoretical and practical significance. On the one hand, GSP provides a new theoretical framework for incorporating complex structures within the data and contributes to the development of new data analysis and machine learning frameworks and systems. Furthermore, GSP tools have been utilized to improve existing machine learning models, mainly in terms of data and computational efficiency, robustness against noise in data and graph structure, and model interpretability. Some of the representative contributions discussed in this article are summarized in Table 1 (an extended version of this article with a more comprehensive list of references is available at <https://arxiv.org/abs/2007.16061>). On the other hand, machine learning problems, such as classification, clustering, and reinforcement learning (RL), as well as their application in real-world scenarios, also provide important motivations for new theoretical development in GSP. For these reasons, there has been an increasing amount of interest in the GSP community in engaging with machine learning applications. Here, we will provide a few open challenges and new perspectives on future investigation.



**FIGURE 4.** An illustrative example of *MARGIN*. (Adapted from [32]; used with permission.)



## GSP and probabilistic modeling

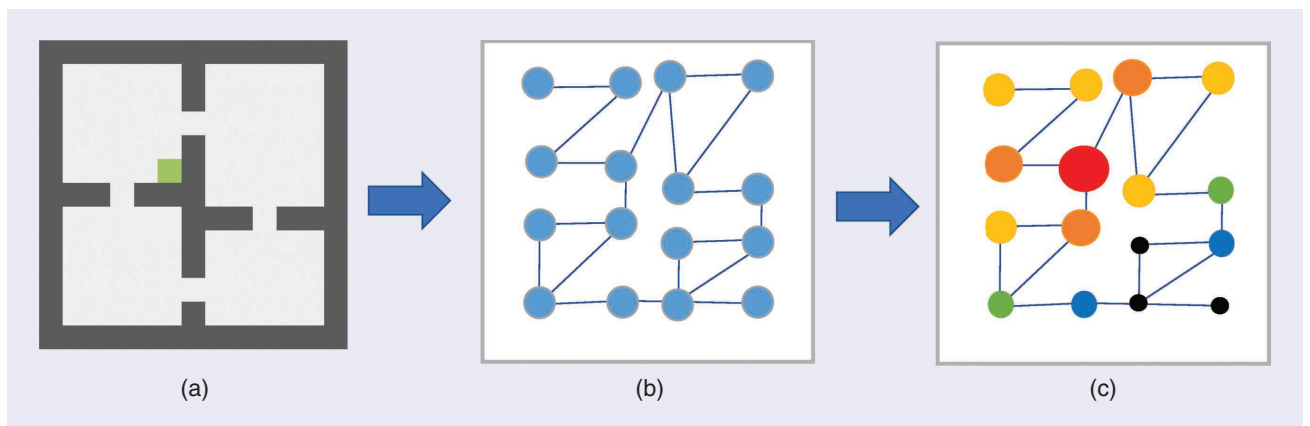
One important direction is the connection between GSP, machine learning, and probabilistic modeling of the graph topology. Most existing GSP and machine learning frameworks and tools follow a deterministic setting, where a fixed graph topology is predefined or inferred from data. Real-world networks, however, are often noisy, incomplete, or evolving constantly over time. Therefore, it is important to take into account the uncertainty in the graph topology in the analysis. First, it would be important to study analytical models for noise in the graph topology and its impact on GSP analysis tasks. For example, the work in [34] has used the Erdős-Rényi graph, a well-known random graph model, as a model for topological noise and analyzed its impact on the filtering operation and independent component analysis of graph signals. Second, it would be interesting to take a Bayesian viewpoint to model the uncertainty in the graph topology. For example, the observed graph may be considered an instance generated from a parametric model, and the posterior of the parameters may be computed so that new instances of the graph may be generated. This is exactly the idea behind the work in [35], which has adopted a mixed membership stochastic block model for the graph and proposed a Bayesian GCN framework. Both are promising future directions to combine GSP and machine learning in a coherent probabilistic framework.

## GSP and decision-making strategy

It is interesting to notice the link recently established between GSP and decision-making strategies (DMSs) under uncertainty, in which an agent needs to accomplish a task (maximize a cumulative or long-term reward) without any prior information. The environment (state space in RL or context in bandit problems) can be modeled as a graph, and instantaneous or long-term rewards can be seen as a signal on the graph (see Figure 5 for an illustration). GSP tools can then be used to provide a sparse representation of the signal and reduce the learning of the agent to a low-dimensional space. This improves the learning rate in DMS problems, which otherwise does not scale with the dimension of the state space, leading to highly suboptimal decisions in large-scale problems. Many open challenges, however, still remain overlooked. First, the graph in these problems is usually constructed and not adaptively inferred, a scenario where GSP-based topology inference ideas may be useful. Second, most solutions to DMS problems involve either the inversion of the Laplacian matrix or an expensive optimization problem, yet they need to be performed at each decision opportunity. GSP tools of lower complexity therefore could be essential in this regard, and related theoretical results may prove to be useful in establishing the error quantification bound for safe DMSs. Finally, an open challenge in the design of DMSs is the control over high-dimensional processes. From a network optimization perspective, several works have

**Table 1. A summary of contributions of GSP concepts and tools to machine learning models and tasks.**

	<b>Graph-Based Smoothness and Regularization</b>	<b>Graph Sampling, Filters, and Transforms</b>	<b>GSP-Inspired/Interpretable Models</b>
Exploiting data structure	GP and kernels on graphs [10], [11]	GP and kernels on graphs [10], [11]; multiscale clustering [16]	Spectral GNNs [12]–[14], [18], [19]
Improving efficiency and robustness	Improving DNNs [20]–[22]; multitask learning [26]	Zero-shot learning [25]; stability of filters and GNNs [27], [28]; spectral clustering [5]; large-scale data processing [29]	Few-shot learning [23], [24]
Enhancing model interpretability	Interpreting DNNs [30], [33]	Topology inference [6], [7]; interpreting DNNs [32]	GAT [31]



**FIGURE 5.** A maze as an RL problem: (a) an environment is represented by its multiple states— $(x, y)$  coordinates in the space. We quantize the maze space into four positions (therefore, states) per room. (b) States are identified as nodes of a graph and state transition probabilities as edge weights. (c) The state value function can then be modeled as a signal on the graph, where both the color and size of the nodes reflect the signal values. (a) Environment. (b) Topology. (c) Value function.

provided appropriate models to characterize systems evolving on high-dimensional networks. However, the theory and optimization techniques developed there do not directly apply to problems involving adaptive and online sequential decision strategies. GSP tools could be adopted to overcome these limitations and tackle the challenge of online control of high-dimensional dynamic processes.

### GSP and model interpretability

GSP can play a significant role toward better defining what we call interpretable machine learning. Currently, deep learning with large systems typically leads to nonrobust and black-box decision systems, which is insufficient in safety-critical applications, such as personalized medicine and autonomous systems. Modeling the structure of the data with a graph could be a way of introducing domain knowledge (e.g., physical interactions such as the ones illustrated in Figure 6) in the learning process and eventually biases the system toward relational learning, which is a core ingredient for human-like intelligence [36]. For this reason, learning architectures that incorporate the graph structure, such as the GNNs described in the “GSP for Exploiting Data Structure” section, are significantly more explainable than typical black-box models. By extending GNNs toward architectures that are built on more generic permutation-invariant functions, we believe that a further step could be made toward relational learning. In addition, creating anisotropic filters [37] and adapting graph attention mechanisms, such as the GAT, both could open the door to more interpretable learning architectures.

### GSP and higher-order structures

There is a growing interest in recent years in analyzing higher-order interactions in networks. In the complex systems literature, it has been shown recently that higher-order structures,

such as network motifs, play a key role in detecting communities in complex networks [38]. A similar idea has been adopted in machine learning, where motifs have been used to design GNN models that are capable of handling directed graphs [39].

The extensions of GSP theories to deal with higher-order structures, such as motifs, simplicial complexes, and hypergraphs, are an interesting direction, and the topological signal processing framework proposed in [40] is a promising first step. Such extensions might reveal a more complex structure within the data that goes beyond pairwise interactions; in addition, they may also help define machine learning models with improved interpretability.

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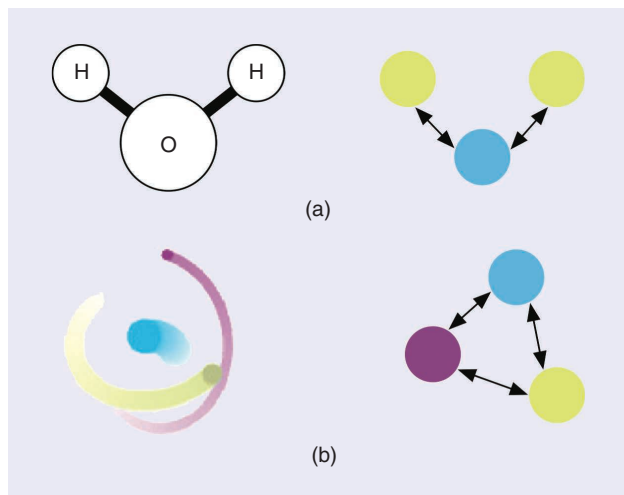
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**GSP can play a significant role toward better defining what we call interpretable machine learning.**



**FIGURE 6.** Examples of relational structures in real-world systems. (a) A molecule (left) as a graph (right), where nodes represent atoms and edges correspond to bonds between them. (b) An  $n$ -body system (left) as a graph (right), where nodes represent bodies and edges correspond to connections between them. (Adapted from [36]; used with permission.)

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