

# Data Mining for Networks

Frédéric Giroire

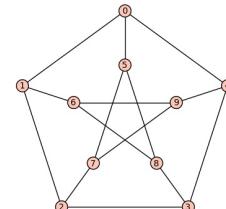
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Master 2



\*Combinatorics, Optimisation et Algorithms  
For Telecommunications



$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}} y_e \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{a \in A_i^+(u)} f_a^i - \sum_{a \in A_i^-(u)} f_a^i = \begin{cases} |V_i| - 1 & \text{if } u = s_i \\ -1 & \text{if } u \neq s_i \end{cases} \quad \forall u \in V_i, \quad V_i \in C \\ & f_a^i \leq |V_i| \cdot x_a, \quad \forall V_i \in C, a \in A \\ & x_{(u,v)} \leq y_{uv}, \\ & x_{(v,u)} \leq y_{uv}, \end{aligned}$$

# Table of Content

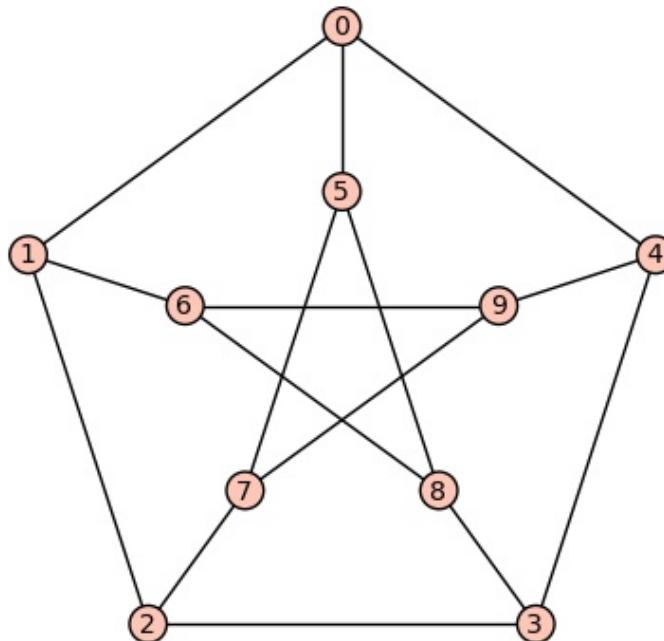
1. A few words on machine learning
2. A classification algorithm using Kernels - SVM
3. Graph Kernels
4. An application: Anomaly detection

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1. A few words on machine learning
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  3. **Random walk kernel**
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4. An application: Anomaly detection

# Machine Learning on Graphs

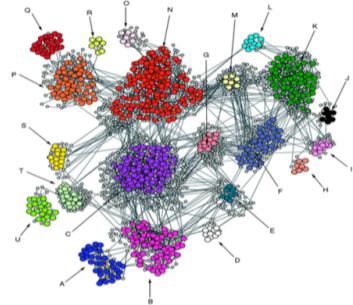
- Graphs in reality:
  - Graphs model objects and their **relationships**.
  - Also referred to as **networks**.
  - All common data structures can be modeled as graphs.



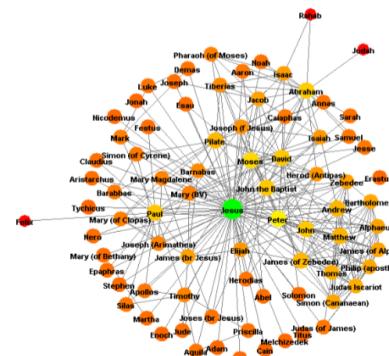
# Machine Learning on Graphs

- Graphs are everywhere

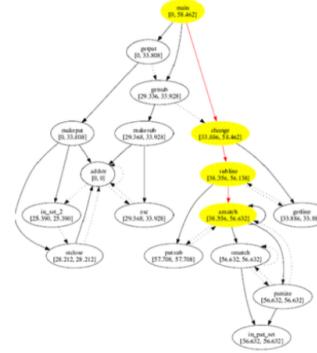
Magwene et al. *Genome Biology* 2004, **5**:R100



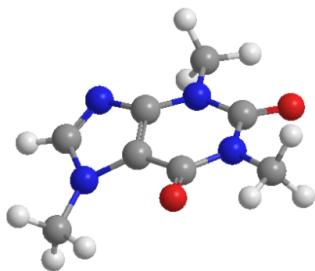
Co-expression Network



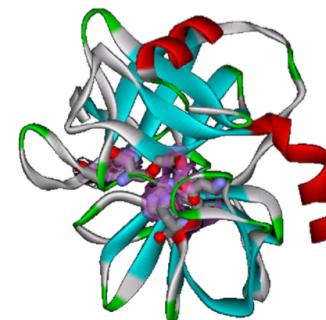
Social Network



Program Flow



Chemical Compound



Protein Structure

# Machine Learning on Graphs

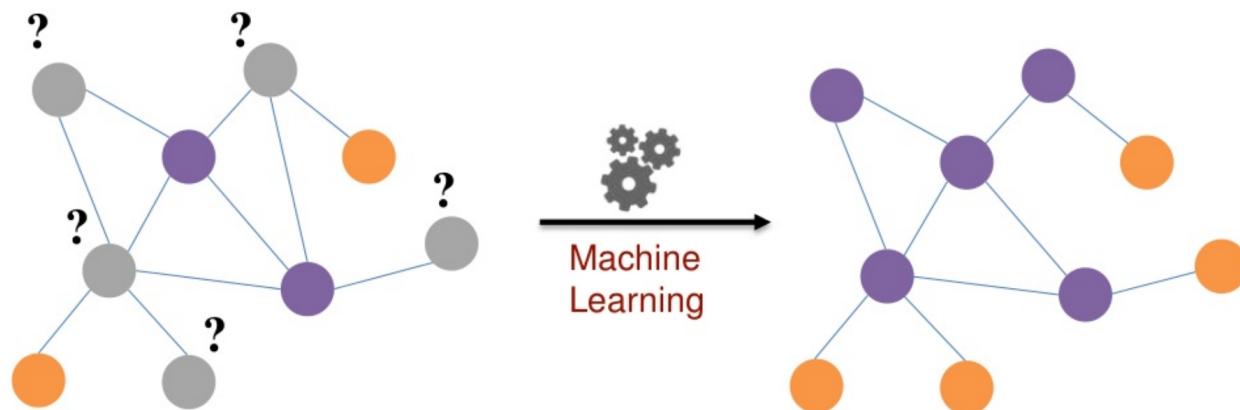
Important **Machine learning tasks** on graphs:

- Node classification
- Graph clustering
- Link Prediction
- Graph classification

# Machine Learning on Graphs

Machine learning tasks on graphs:

- **Node classification:** given a graph with labels on some nodes, provide a high quality labeling for the rest of the nodes  
Labels: demographic (age, gender, location), interests (hobbies), etc.

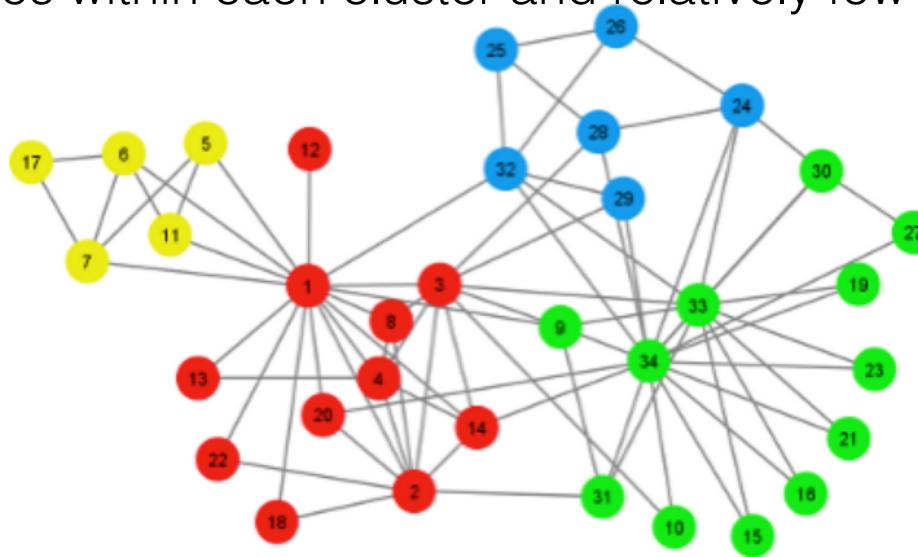


Classification can be done on many criteria (Node degree, pagerank, neighbors, ...)

# Machine Learning on Graphs

Machine learning tasks on graphs:

- **Graph clustering:** given a graph, group its vertices into clusters taking into account its edge structure in such a way that there are many edges within each cluster and relatively few between the clusters

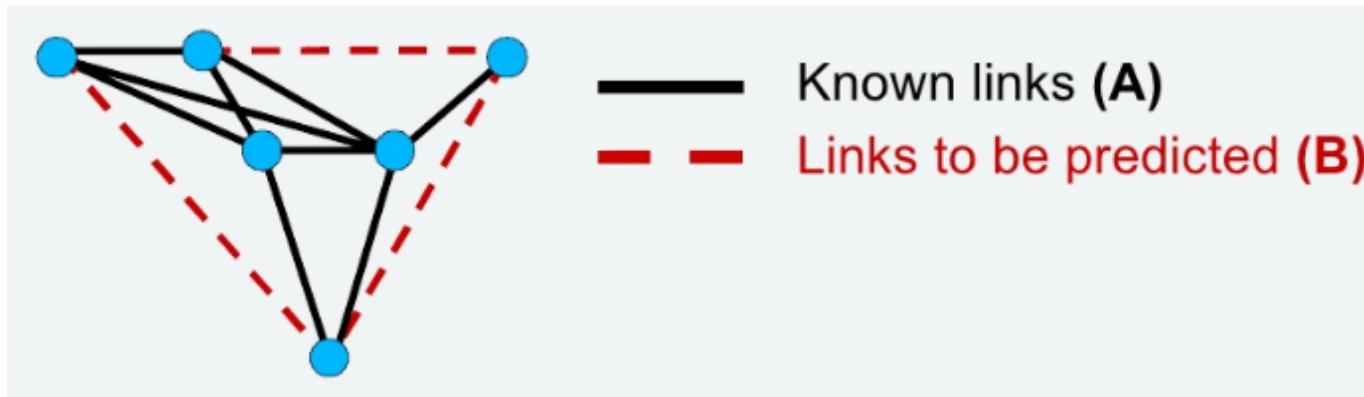


Clusters: people with the same label. (Age, citizenship, interest, ...)

# Machine Learning on Graphs

Machine learning tasks on graphs:

- **Link Prediction:** given a pair of vertices, predict if they should be linked with an edge

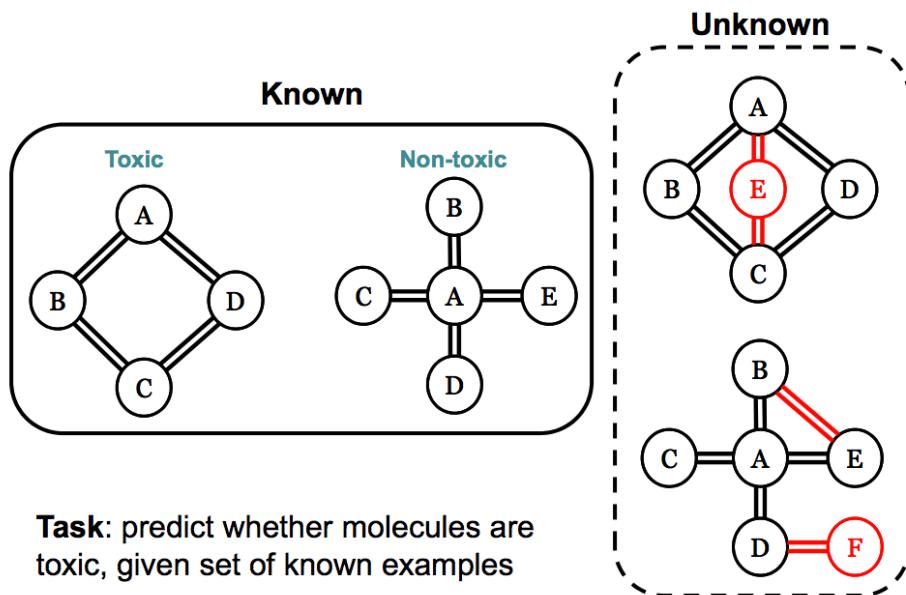


Used to predict future link in a social network (friends or interest) for **recommendation**, or reconstruct missing links due to incomplete data

# Machine Learning on Graphs

Machine learning tasks on graphs:

- **Graph classification:** given a set of graphs with known class labels for some of them, decide to which class the rest of the graphs belong

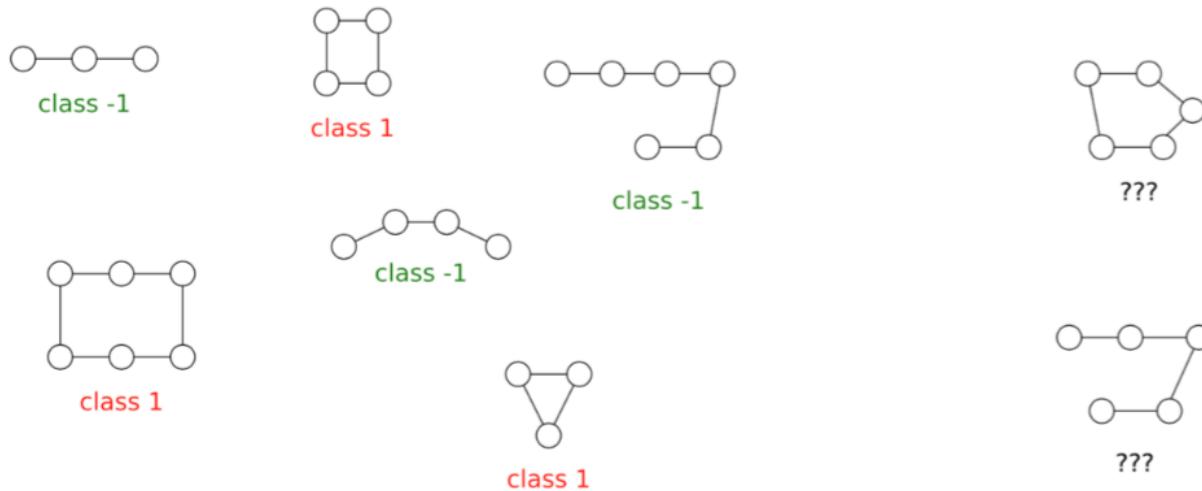


# Machine Learning on Graphs

Machine learning tasks on graphs:

- **Node classification**: given a graph with labels on some nodes, provide a high quality labeling for the rest of the nodes
- **Graph clustering**: given a graph, group its vertices into clusters taking into account its edge structure in such a way that there are many edges within each cluster and relatively few between the clusters
- **Link Prediction**: given a pair of vertices, predict if they should be linked with an edge
- **Graph classification**: given a set of graphs with known class labels for some of them, decide to which class the rest of the graphs belong

# Graph Classification



- Input data  $x \in \mathcal{X}$
- Output  $y \in \{-1, 1\}$
- Training set  $\mathcal{S} = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$
- Goal: estimate a function  $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  to predict  $y$  from  $f(x)$

# Graph Classification Motivation - Anomaly Detection

Given a computer program, create its control flow graph

```
    processed_pages.append(processed_page)
    visited += 1
    links = extract_links(html_code)
    for link in links:
        if link not in visited_links:
            links_to_visit.append(link)

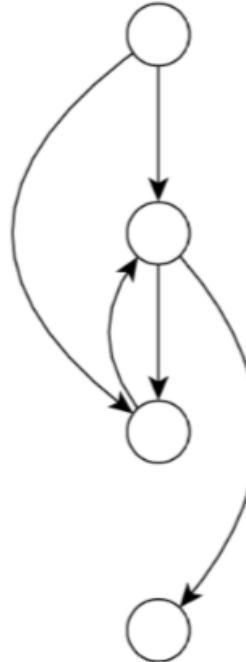
    return create_vocabulary(processed_pages)

def parse_page(html_code):
    punct = re.compile(r'([^\w\.\-\_])')
    soup = BeautifulSoup(html_code, 'html.parser')
    text = soup.get_text()
    processed_text = punct.sub(" ", text)
    tokens = processed_text.split()
    tokens = [token.lower() for token in tokens]
    return tokens

def create_vocabulary(processed_pages):
    vocabulary = {}
    for processed_page in processed_pages:
        for token in processed_page:
            if token in vocabulary:
                vocabulary[token] += 1
            else:
                vocabulary[token] = 1

    return vocabulary
```

→



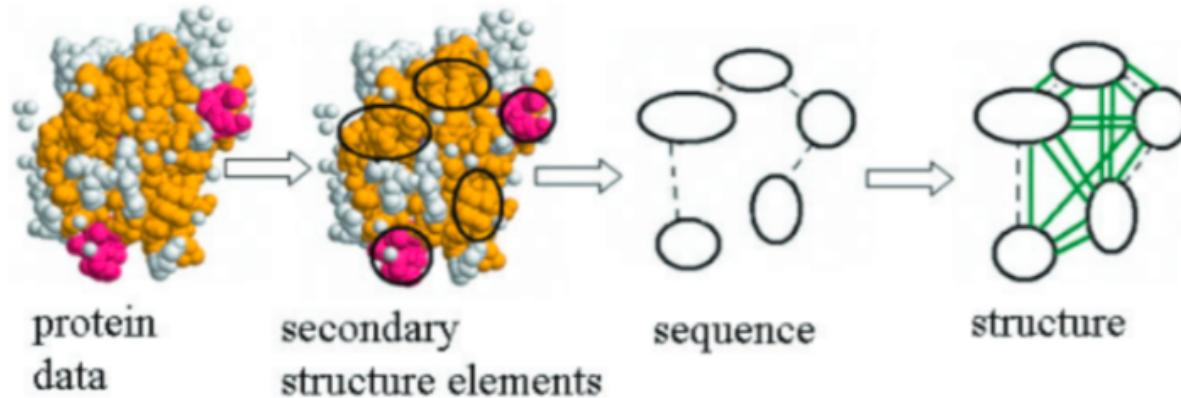
Perform **graph classification** to predict if there is malicious code inside the program or not

Gascon et al. "Structural detection of android malware using embedded call graphs". In AISec'13

# Graph Classification Motivation - Protein Function Prediction

For each protein, create a graph that contains information about its

- structure
- sequence
- chemical properties



Perform **graph classification** to predict the function of proteins

# Graph Classification

Graph Classification

very related to

Graph Comparison

Example

$$f(\text{graph}, \text{graph}) + k-nn = \text{graph classification}$$

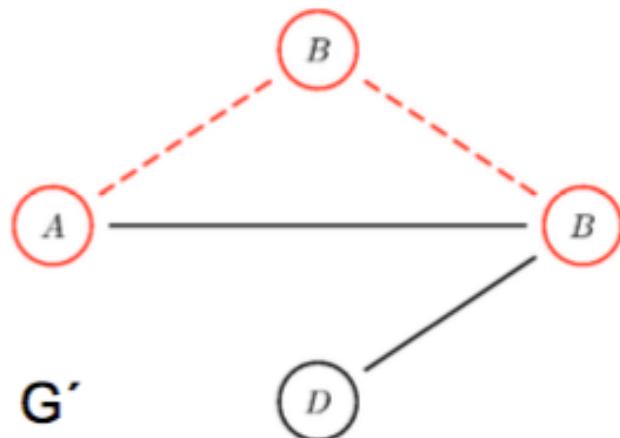
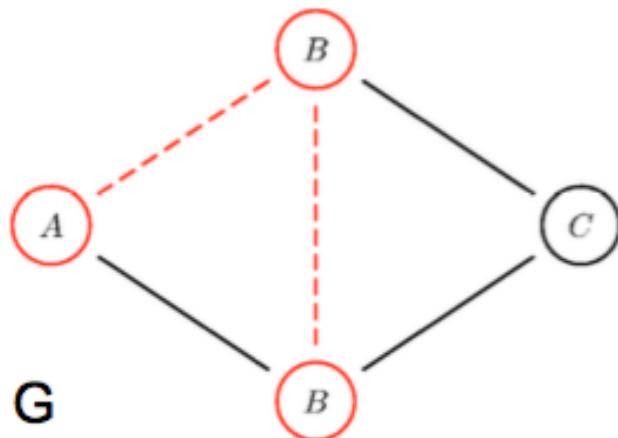
- Although graph comparison seems a very tractable problem, it is **very complex**.
- We are interested in algorithms capable of measuring the similarity between two graphs in polynomial time.

# Graph Comparison

**Definition 1 (Graph Comparison Problem)** Given two graphs  $G$  and  $G'$  from the space of graphs  $\mathcal{G}$ . The problem of graph comparison is to find a mapping

$$s : \mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

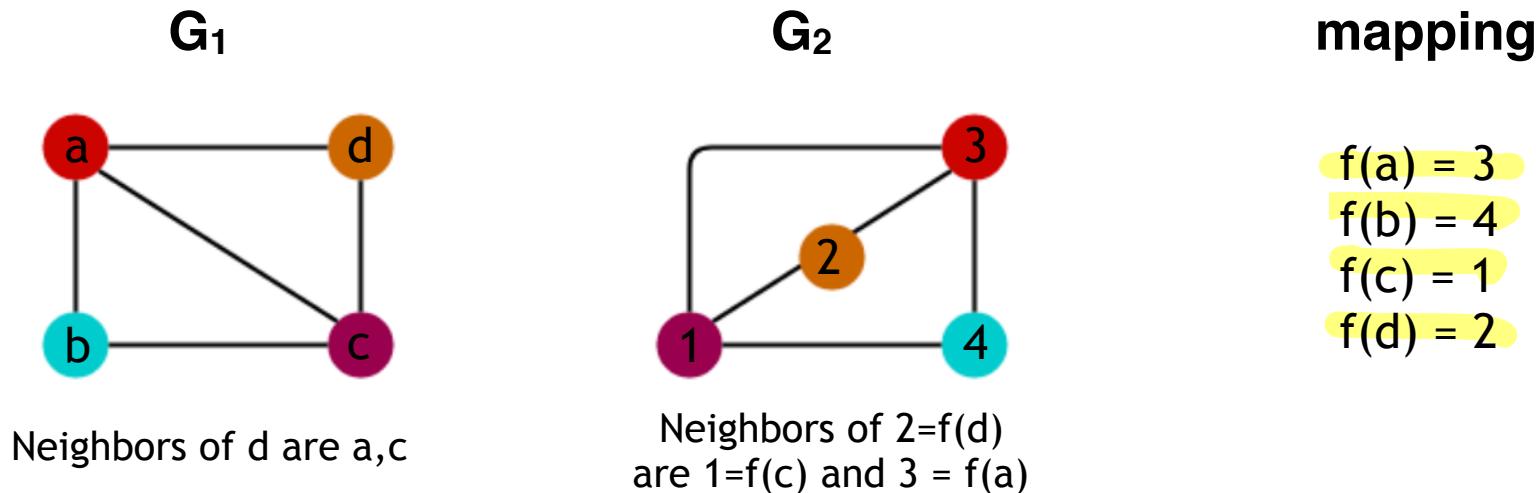
such that  $s(G, G')$  quantifies the similarity (or dissimilarity) of  $G$  und  $G'$ .



# Approaches for Comparing Graphs

A first approach. **Graph isomorphism**.

1. **Graph isomorphism:** find a mapping of the vertices of  $G_1$  to the vertices of  $G_2$  s.t.  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are identical  
i.e.  $(x,y)$  is an edge of  $G_1$  iff  $(f(x),f(y))$  is an edge of  $G_2$ . Then  $f$  is an isomorphism, and  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are called isomorphic

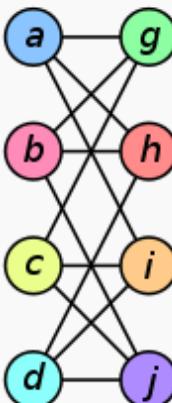
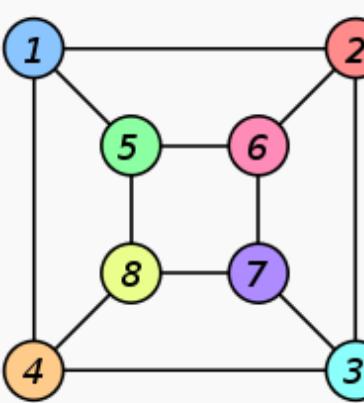


**$G_1$  and  $G_2$  are isomorphic.**

# Approaches for Comparing Graphs

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Graph G	Graph H	An isomorphism between G and H
		$\begin{aligned}f(a) &= 1 \\f(b) &= 6 \\f(c) &= 8 \\f(d) &= 3 \\f(e) &= 5 \\f(f) &= 2 \\f(g) &= 4 \\f(h) &= 7\end{aligned}$

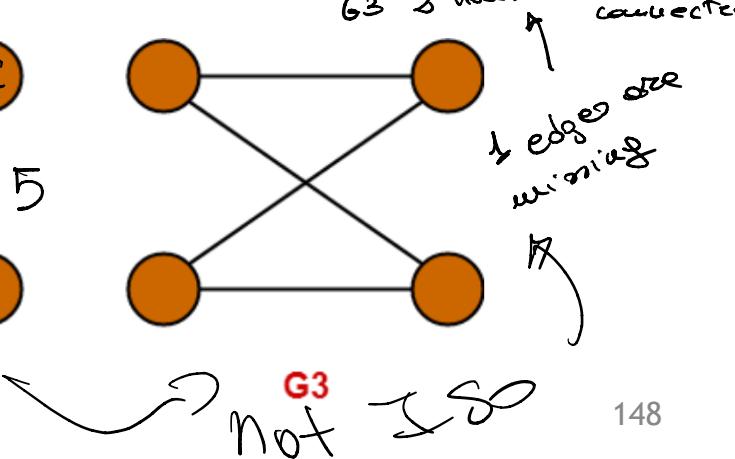
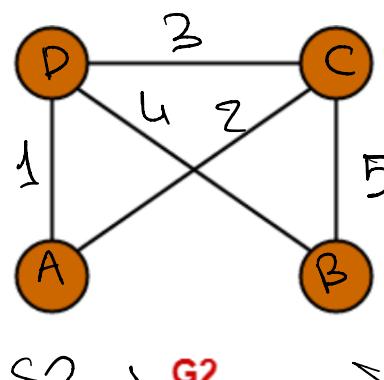
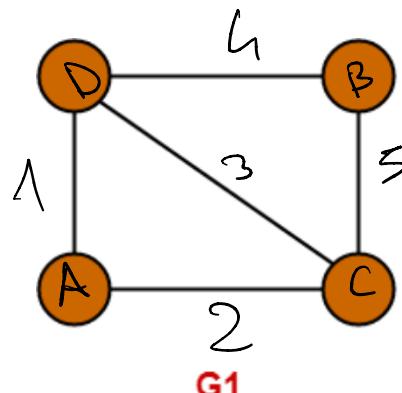
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Exercise:

Which of the following graphs are isomorphic?



$G_1 \xrightarrow{\text{ISO}} G_2$

$\curvearrowright G_3 \xrightarrow{\text{Not ISO}}$

# Approaches for Comparing Graphs

A first approach. Graph isomorphism.

1. Graph isomorphism: find a mapping of the vertices of  $G_1$  to the vertices of  $G_2$  s.t.  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are identical  
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  1. No polynomial-time algorithm is known
  2. Neither is it known to be NP-complete
2. Subgraph isomorphism: find if any subgraph of  $G_1$  is isomorphic to a smaller graph  $G_2$ 
  1. NP-complete

# Approaches for Comparing Graphs

A first approach. Graph isomorphism.

- NP-completeness
  - A decision problem  $C$  is NP-complete iff
    - $C$  is in NP
    - $C$  is NP-hard, i.e. every other problem in NP is reducible to it.
- Problems for the practitioner
  - Excessive runtime in worst case
  - Runtime may grow exponentially with the number of nodes
  - For larger graphs with many nodes and for large datasets of graphs, this is an enormous problem

# Approaches for Comparing Graphs

A first approach. Graph isomorphism.

Exercise:

1. Propose algorithms to check if 2 graphs (without labels) are isomorphic.

A. A brute force one.

B. A faster one based on using node degrees.

2. Adapt them to labeled graphs. ↓

$$\textcircled{A} \quad G = (V, E) \quad V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$$

"For all permutations of nodes:  
compute the adjacencies"

Permutations Iterator permutation ( $v_1, \dots, v_n$ )

for  $(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  in Permutations  $n!$

for  $v_i \in V$ :  
stop = false  
if neighbors( $v_i$ ) != neighbors( $v_{\pi(i)}$ ) and  $E$ :  
stop = true  
break

if !stop:  
return ISOMORPHIC

return NOT ISOMORPHIC

WORST CASE where  $|E| = |V| - 1$

$$n! \cdot n^3 \rightarrow \text{EXponential} \rightarrow O\left(\frac{n^{n+3}}{e^n}\right)$$

A	1	1	2	3	3	2
B	2	3	1	1	2	2
C	3	2	3	2	1	1

6 permutations of 1,2,3, A,B,C  
to 6 mappings.

$n$  numbers  $\Rightarrow n!$  permutations

$$3! = 6$$

\textcircled{B}

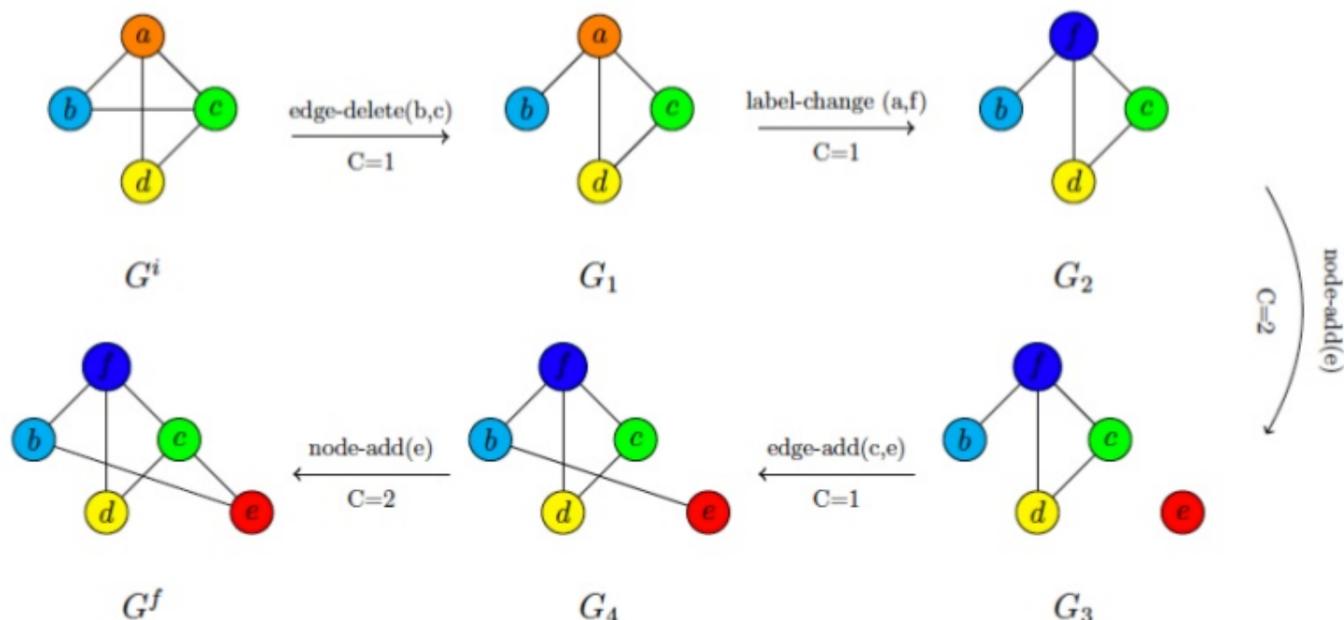
1- "check the sequence of degree on vertex: if not the same  
return not isomorphic"

2- You build all permutations mapping nodes of degree  $d$  to a  $node$  of  
same degree

# Approaches for Comparing Graphs

A second approach. **Graph edit distance:**

- Principle:
  - Count necessary operations to transform  $G_1$  into  $G_2$
  - Assign costs to different types of operations (edge/node insertion/deletion, modification of labels)



# Approaches for Comparing Graphs

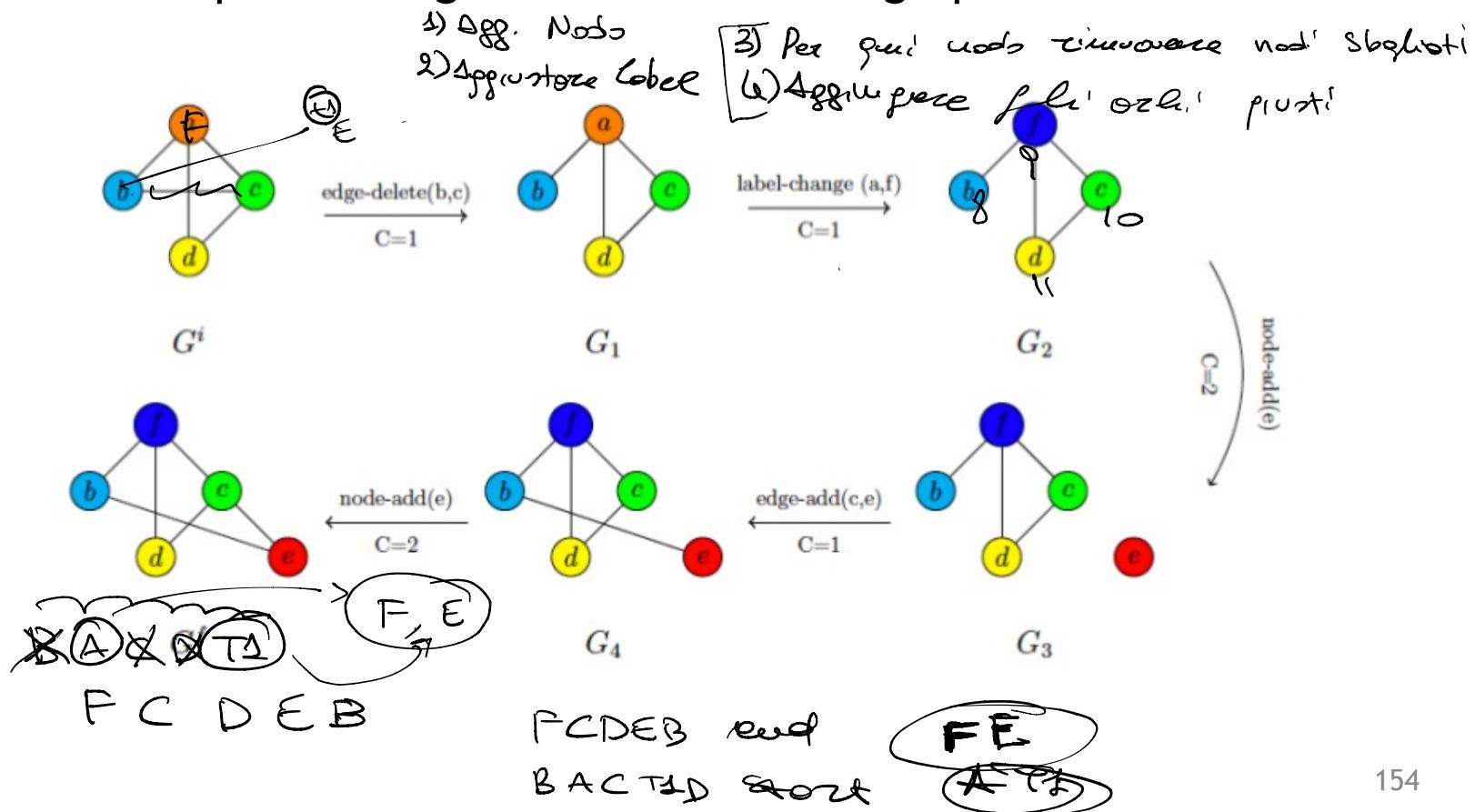
A second approach. **Graph edit distance:**

- **Advantages**
  - Captures partial similarities between graphs
  - Allows for noise in the nodes, edges and their labels
  - Flexible way of assigning costs to different operations
- **Disadvantages**
  - Contains subgraph isomorphism check as one intermediate step
  - Choosing cost function for different operations is difficult

# Approaches for Comparing Graphs

A second approach. Graph edit distance:

- Exercise: Propose an algorithm to estimate graph edit distance.

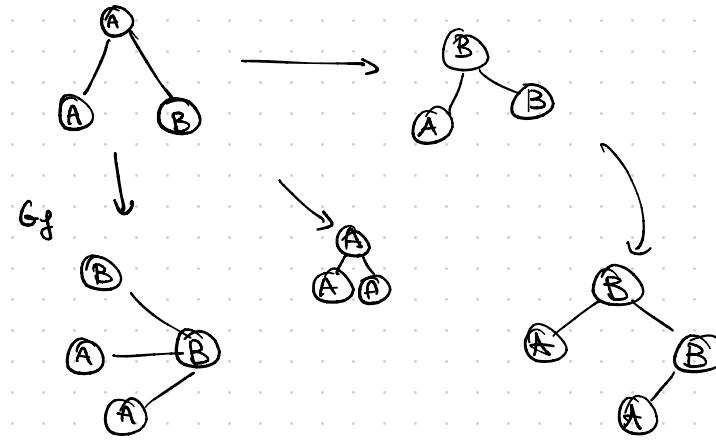


1) Consider a graph of graphs  $G = (\Sigma^G, \mathcal{E})$  in which each node is a graph and an edge  $T_{\text{edge}} = \text{directed edge}$  between two graphs  $G$  and  $G'$ . If we can go from  $G$  to  $G'$  with a basic operation (Add/Remove Node/Edge/Modify Label).

2)

Finding the graph edit distance between two graphs  $G_i, G_f$  in  $G$  "bof?" down to computing the minimum cost.

$G_i$



Path between  $G_i$  and  $G_f$  in  $G$

There are very efficient algorithms to compute it: Dijkstra, Bellman-Ford,  $A^*$ ]  
The hard part is building  $G$  so that  $G$  is not too big.

# Approaches for Comparing Graphs

A third approach. Topological Descriptors.

- Principle
  - Map each graph to a feature vector
  - Use distances and metrics on vectors for learning on graphs
- Advantages
  - Reuses known and efficient tools for feature vectors
- Disadvantages
  - Efficiency comes at a price: feature vector transformation leads to loss of topological information (or includes subgraph isomorphism as one step)

# Approaches for Comparing Graphs

A third approach. Topological Descriptors.

- Wanted: Polynomial-time similarity measure for graphs  
-> Graph kernels: compare substructures of graphs that are computable in polynomial time.

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1. A few words on machine learning
2. A classification algorithm using Kernels- SVM
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  1. Introduction: graph comparison
  2. **Graph Kernels**
  3. Random walk kernel
  4. Shortest path kernel
4. An application: Anomaly detection

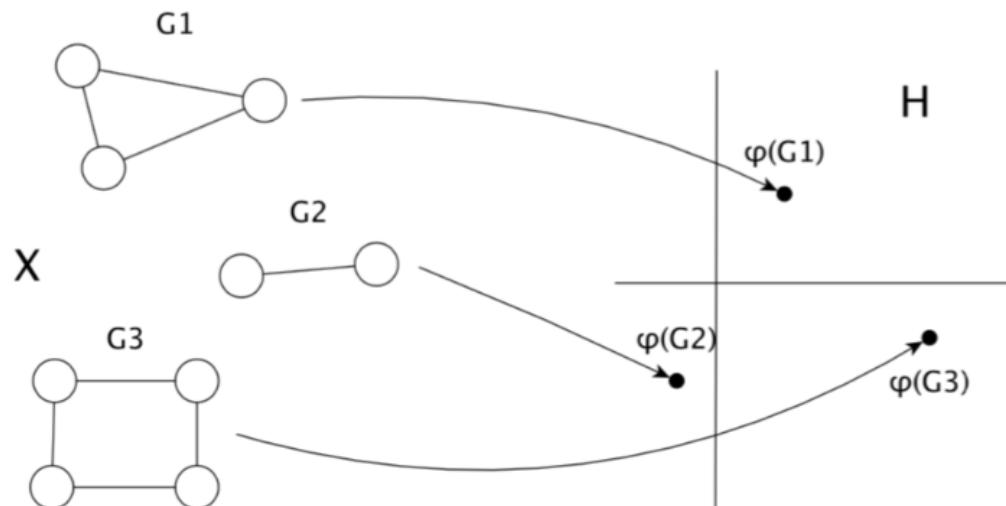
# Graph Kernels

A third approach. Topological Descriptors.

## Definition (Graph Kernel)

A graph kernel  $k : \mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is a kernel function over a set of graphs  $\mathcal{G}$

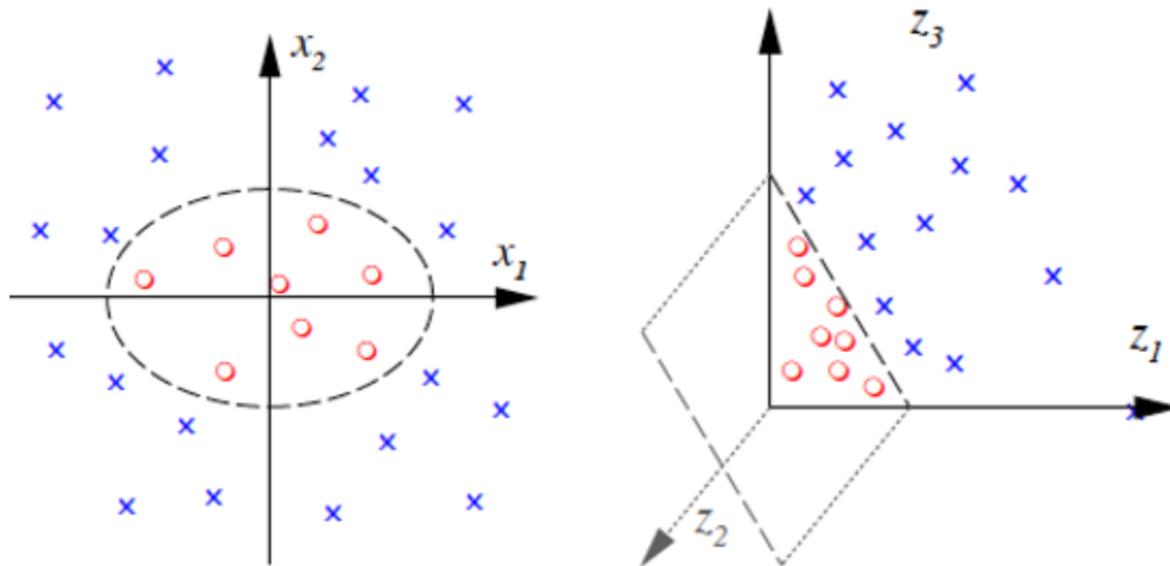
- It is equivalent to an inner product of the embeddings  $\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{H}$  of a pair of graphs into a Hilbert space:  $k(G_1, G_2) = \langle \phi(G_1), \phi(G_2) \rangle$
- Makes the whole family of kernel methods (e.g. SVMs) applicable to graphs



# The Kernel Trick (Reminder)

- ML method to use a linear classifier to solve a **non** linear problem.

$$\Phi : R^2 \rightarrow R^3$$
$$(x_1, x_2) \mapsto (z_1, z_2, z_3) := (x_1^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, x_2^2)$$



# The Kernel Trick (Reminder)

- In higher dimensions:

The problem in higher dimension can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\alpha_i} \quad L_D(\alpha) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{i'=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha'_i \quad \phi(x_i) \cdot \phi(x'_i) \\ \alpha_i &\geq 0 \quad \text{for all } i, 1 \leq i \leq n \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

where  $\phi(x)$  is the transformation in the higher dimensional space and

$$K(x_i, x'_i) = \phi(x_i) \cdot \phi(x'_i)$$

is the Kernel function.

- **Implicit feature space:** coordinates of the data in the high-dimensional space are not computed.

**Principle:** use Kernel functions.

# Approaches for Comparing Graphs

A third approach. Topological Descriptors.

- Wanted: Polynomial-time similarity measure for graphs

-> **Graph kernels**: compare substructures of graphs that are computable in polynomial time.

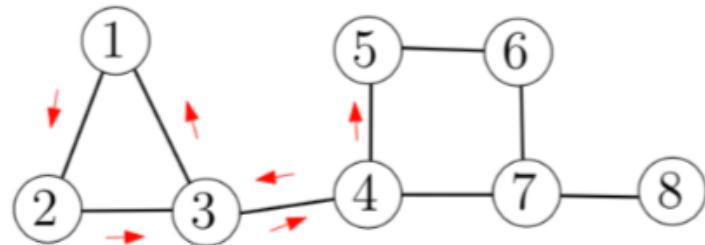
- Criteria for a good graph kernel

- Expressive
- Efficient to compute
- Positive definite
- Applicable to wide range of graphs

# Substructure Based Graph Kernels

A large number of graph kernels compare substructures of graphs that are computable in polynomial time:

- walks

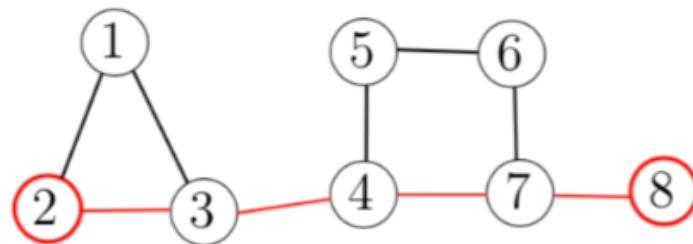


Walk:  $4 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 5$

# Substructure Based Graph Kernels

A large number of graph kernels compare substructures of graphs that are computable in polynomial time:

- walks
- shortest path lengths

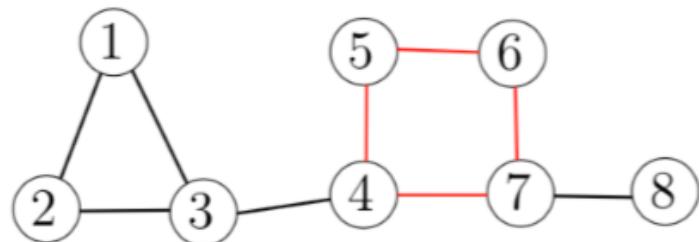


SP length between vertices 2 and 8 : 4

# Substructure Based Graph Kernels

A large number of graph kernels compare substructures of graphs that are computable in polynomial time:

- walks
- shortest path lengths
- cyclic patterns

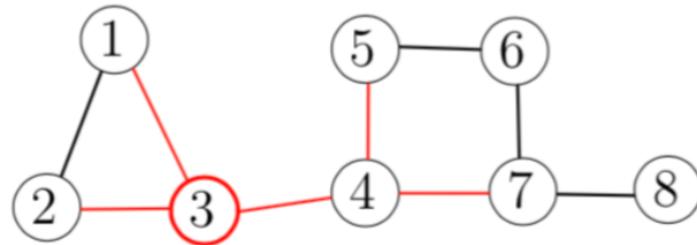


Cycle:  $4 \rightarrow 7 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 4$

# Substructure Based Graph Kernels

A large number of graph kernels compare substructures of graphs that are computable in polynomial time:

- walks
- shortest path lengths
- cyclic patterns
- rooted subtrees

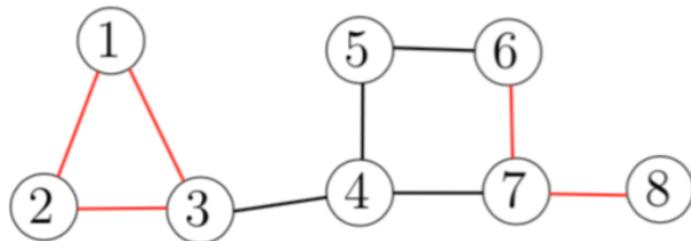


Subtree rooted at vertex 3

# Substructure Based Graph Kernels

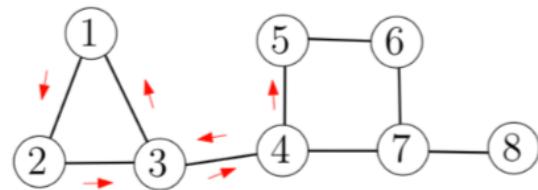
A large number of graph kernels compare substructures of graphs that are computable in polynomial time:

- walks
  - shortest path lengths
  - cyclic patterns
  - rooted subtrees
  - graphlets
- ⋮

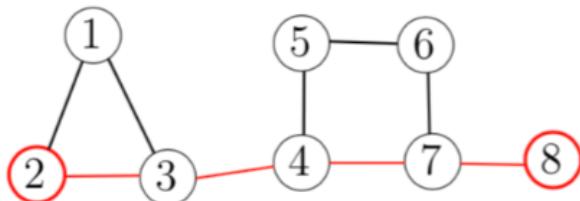


Shervashidze et al. "Efficient graphlet kernels for large graph comparison.". In AISTATS'09

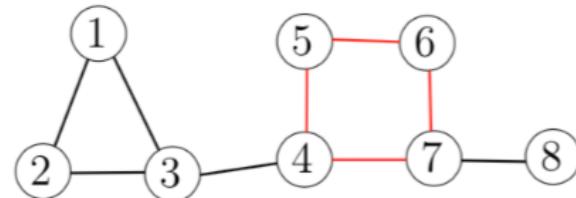
# Substructure Based Graph Kernels



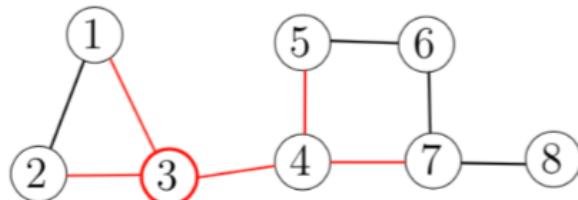
Walk:  $4 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 5$



SP length between vertices 2 and 8 : 4



Cycle:  $4 \rightarrow 7 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 4$



Subtree rooted at vertex 3

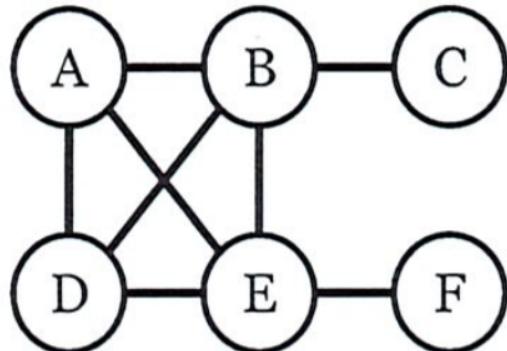
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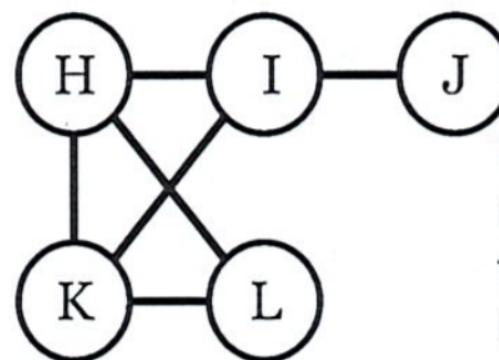
# Walk-based Similarity

- Intuition – two graphs are similar if they exhibit similar patterns when performing random walks

Random walk vertices heavily distributed towards A,B,D,E

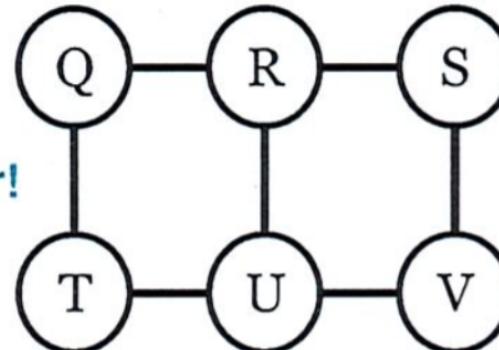


Similar!



Random walk vertices heavily distributed towards H,I,K with slight bias towards L

Not Similar!



Random walk vertices evenly distributed

# References

Some slides are courtesy of

- Karsten Borgwardt (University of Cambridge), Xifeng Yan (IBM T. J. Watson Research Center), and Oliver Stegle (Max Planck Institute)
- Bibliography:
  - *Shortest-path kernels on graphs*, K. M. Borgwardt and H.-P. Kriegel, ICDM, 2005.
  - *Marginalized Kernels Between Labeled Graphs*, H. Kashima, K. Tsuda, and A. Inokuchi, ICML, 2003.
  - *On Graph Kernels: Hardness Results and Efficient Alternatives*, Thomas Gartner, P. Flach, and S. Wrobel, COLT, 2003
  - *Deep Graph Kernels*, P. Yanardag, S.V.N. Vishwanathan, KDD, 2015.
  - *Profiling the End Host*, T. Karagiannis, K. Papagiannaki, N. Taft, and M. Faloutsos, PAM 2007.

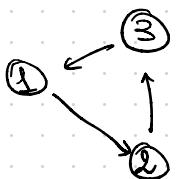
## GRAPHS KERNEL

??  
Power of graph

A graph  $G$  is a set of  $n$  nodes (or vertices)  $V$  and  $m$  edges (or labels)  $E$ .  
An attributed graph is a graph with labels on nodes and/or edges,  
we refer to labels as attributes.

The adjacent matrix  $A$  of  $G$  is identified as

$$[A]_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (v_i, v_j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



$$G = (V, E)$$

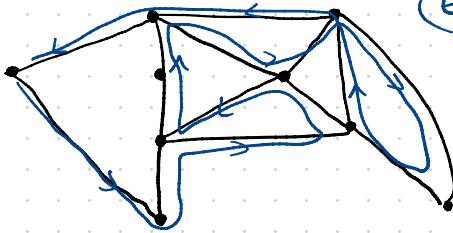
$$V = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$E = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (2, 2)\}$$

$1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3$  PATH  
 $1 \rightarrow 2 - 3 \rightarrow 2$  WALK

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- When  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are nodes of  $G$ ,  
A **WALK**  $w$  of length  $k-1$  in a graph is a sequence of nodes  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$  where  $(v_{i-1}, v_i) \in E$  for  $1 < i \leq k$
- A walk  $w$  is a **PATH** if  $v_i \neq v_j$  iff  $i \neq j$   $v_i \in [1, \dots, k]$   
↳ walk with no repetition of vertices
- A **CYCLE** is a walk with  $v_1 = v_k$
- A **SIMPLE CYCLE** is a cycle with no repeated nodes ( $v_i$  except  $v_1$ )
- A **graph** is **fully connected** if there is an edge between every pair of nodes
- A **Hamiltonian Path** is a path that visits every node exactly once.
- A **EULER WALK** is a walk that visits every edge exactly once.



EULERIAN GRAPH

- Determining if an Eulerian Cycle exists is TRIVIAL:

- In an undirected graph, such a cycle exist IF:
  - all vertices have even degree

- Determining whether a Hamiltonian path or cycle is NP-COMPLETE

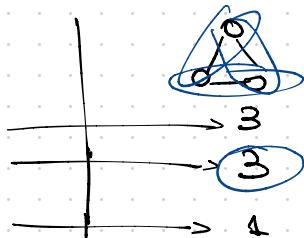
### AN IDEAL GRAPH KERNEL

Consider an Ideal graph kernel that has  $n-1$  features  $\phi_i$  for each possible graph  $H$ . Each feature measures how many subgraphs of  $G$  have the same structure as graph  $H$ .

#### (EXAMPLE)

Features possible subgraphs

size 1	$\emptyset$
size 2	$\emptyset\emptyset$
size 3	$\emptyset\emptyset\emptyset$

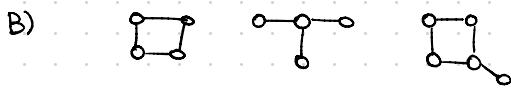


$3 \neq$  nodes



$2 \neq$  edges

0



size 1

0	4	4	5
---	---	---	---

size 2

	4	3	5
--	---	---	---

size 3

	4	3	5
	0	0	0

SIZE 4

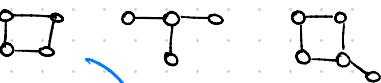
	4	0	1
	1	1	1

	0	0	1
	0	0	1

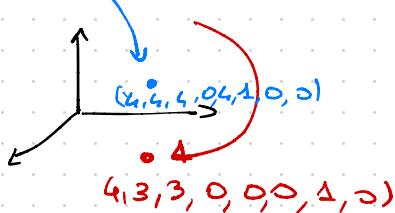
size 5

	0	0	1
--	---	---	---

---



→ For ideal graph  
kernel  
I map the graph  
on the axes



Too expressive  $\rightarrow$  NP-COMPLETE

However, the ideal kernel allows graphs with specific substructures, such as a hamiltonian cycle, to be identified.

A sequence of adjacent vertices and edges containing all vertices exactly once, which is NP-HARD  $\rightarrow$  we know an exponential algorithm

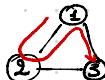
## RANDOM WALK KERNEL

Refresh: walks on sequence of sequences of nodes that allow repetition of nodes.

Principle of Risk: Count common workers in two input graphs  $G$  and  $G'$

Feature space : The numbers of walks of length  $k$ ,  $k = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$  from node  $u$  to node  $v$  in a graph  $G$ .

### EXAMPLE



A walk of length 3 from node 1 to node 3

How many walks of length  $\phi$ ?

$1 \rightarrow 1$       #1      i.e. I have 1 walk from 1 to 1  
 $1 \rightarrow 2$       #0      i.e. I have 0 walk from 1 to 2  
 $1 \rightarrow 3$       #0      "      "      "      "      "      1 to 3

Put in a table

	1	2	3
1	1	0	0
2	0	1	0
3	0	0	1

How many walks of length  $k$

	1	2	3
4	0	1	1
2	1	0	1
3	1	1	0

> Because if I use  
1 edge I go from  
1 to 2 or to 3 but  
I cannot go back

How many walks of length 2

	1	2	3
1	2	1	1
2	1	2	1
3	1	1	2

Length 3?

	1	2	3
1	2	3	3
2	3	2	3
3	3	3	2

### Important Trick

- How to compute an efficient method to compute the number of walks of length  $k$
- Using matrix multiplication

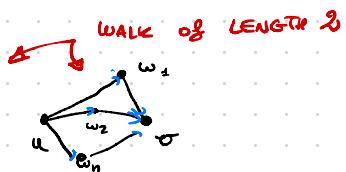
$A = [a_{ij}]$  Adjacency matrix for which  $a_{ij}=1$  if vertices  $i$  and  $j$  are linked by

an edge

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc} & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \quad \text{0 otherwise}$$

It represent the walks of length 1

The number of walks of length  $k$  are the sum of the number of walks from  $u$  to  $w_1$  times the number of walk from  $w_n$  to  $v$ .



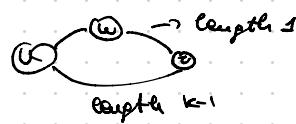
A walk of size 2 from  $u$  to  $v$  going through  $w$  can be noted  $u \xrightarrow{w} v$

$$\begin{aligned} \# \text{ walks } u \xrightarrow{w} v \text{ of size 2} &= \sum_{w \in V(G)} \# \text{ walks } u \xrightarrow{w} v \text{ of size 2} \\ &= \sum_{w \in V(G)} \# \text{ walks } u \xrightarrow{w} w \text{ of size 1} \bullet \# \text{ walks } w \xrightarrow{v} v \text{ of size 1} \\ &= \sum_{w \in V(G)} [A^1]_{uw} [A^1]_{vw} \\ u \left[ \begin{array}{c|cc} A^2 & v \\ \hline w & \oplus \end{array} \right] &= u \left[ \begin{array}{c|cc} A & v \\ \hline w & \oplus \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{c|cc} A & v \\ \hline v & \oplus \end{array} \right] \\ \hookrightarrow \text{means the matrix multiplication} \end{aligned}$$

The number of walks  $u \xrightarrow{w} v$  of length 2 =  $A^2_{uv}$

More generally, the number of walks of length  $k$  is given by  $A^k$

Proof: by induction

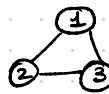


$$\# \text{ walks } u \xrightarrow{w} v \text{ length } k = \sum_{w \in V(G)} \# \text{ walks } u \xrightarrow{w} w \text{ of length } k-1 \bullet \# \text{ walks } w \xrightarrow{v} v \text{ of length 1}$$

$$A_{uv}^k = \sum_{w \in V(G)} A_{uw}^{k-1} \cdot A_{vw}$$

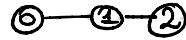
### EXERCISE 1

Compute # of walks of length 4 for



### EXERCISE 2

Compute the walks of length 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 for the graph



### EXERCISE 1

length 0

	1	2	3	
1	1 0 0	1 0 1	1 1 1	1
2	0 1 0	0 1 0	1 0 1	2
3	0 0 1	1 1 0	1 0 1	3

	1	2	3	
1	1 2 1	2 1 1	1 1 1	1
2	1 2 1	1 2 1	1 1 2	2
3	1 1 2	1 1 2	1 2 2	3

	1	2	3	
1	2 3 3	3 2 3	3 3 2	3
2	3 2 3	3 3 2	3 3 2	3
3	3 3 2	3 3 2	3 3 2	3

$$A^4 = A^3 \cdot A^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 5 & 5 \\ 5 & 6 & 5 \\ 5 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

### EXERCISE 2

$$A^0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad A^2 = A^1 \cdot A^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^3 = A^2 \cdot A^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

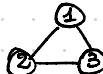
$$A^4 = A^3 \cdot A^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= A^2 \cdot A^2$$

We take a set of features the number of walks of any length  $k=0, 1, \dots$ , between each pair of nodes.

For example for graph

walks of length 0 = [ ]



1.  $L = [ ]$

2.  $L = [ ]$

# of nodes

$$n = |V(G)|$$



If we limit ourselves to walks of length  $K_{\max}$ , we have  $(K_{\max} + 1) \cdot n^2$  features

Note that the features can be represented as a vector  $X$ , the features vector

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ line 1 of } A^0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ " 2 "}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ " 3 "}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ line 1 of } A^1$$

Remark for the future:

In general, we will not stop at  $K_{\max}$ , we will have an infinite number of features

## Comparing Graphs / Comparing Vectors

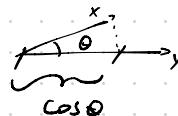
To compare 2 graphs, we can compute the feature values (feature vector) and, then, compare them using a similarity value.

Classic similarity value: The cosine similarity

The cosine similarity is a measure of similarity between 2 and 2 vectors measuring the cosine of the angle  $\theta$  between the similarity  $\Rightarrow \cos \theta = \frac{x \cdot y}{\|x\| \|y\|}$

Remark: The "dot" product of two vectors

$$x \cdot y = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n$$



The metric ranges from -1 to 1

- 1 means similarity
- -1 " dissimilarity
- 0 " decorrelation

It is a judgement of orientation and not of magnitude [Vector words ??]

The cosine similarity is particular used in the positive state, where the outcome is between 0 and 1 and for high dimensional space. In particular in information retrieval value and text meaning.

Each term  $v$  is associated to different dimension.

A document is characterized by a vector where the value in each dimension corresponds to the number of times the term appears in the document.

Cosine Similarity then gives a measures how similar two documents are likely to be in terms of their subject matter.

$\theta \approx 0^\circ \rightarrow$  similarity close to 1

$\theta \approx 90^\circ \rightarrow$  " " " " 0

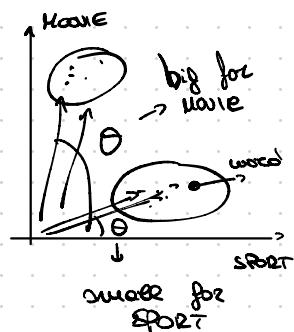
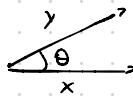
The fact that the vector norm is not taken into account allows not to discriminate short or long text.

For graphs, we will not use the cosine similarity value, but a kernel value

$$k(x, y) = x \cdot y$$

Properties:

$$\cos \theta = \frac{x \cdot y}{\|x\| \cdot \|y\|}$$



## Similarity and Graph Kernel

For RW for graph kernel, the similarity is given by the kernel function:

$$k(x, y) = x \cdot y \text{ with: } x = \text{The number of walks between all pairs of nodes in graph } G \\ y = \text{ " " " " in graph } G'$$

### Another trick

How to compute efficiently the number of common walks in two graphs

→ Use the Directed Product Graph of  $G$  and  $G'$

**Def: Directed Product Graph:** The direct product  $G \times H$  of graphs  $G$  and  $H$  is a graph such that:

- $V(G \times H)$  is the cartesian product  $V(G) \times V(H)$  and
- distinct vertices  $(u, u')$  and  $(v, v')$  are adjacent in  $G \times H$  if and only if  $u$  is adjacent to  $v$  and  $u'$  is adjacent to  $v'$

**Def:** The cartesian product of two sets  $A$  and  $B$  denoted as  $A \times B$  is the set of all ordered pairs  $(a, b)$  when  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ . That is

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$$

### EXAMPLE



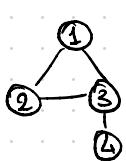
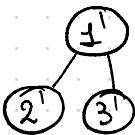
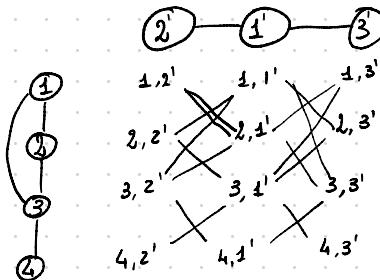
$G \times H$

	1'	2'
1	1,1'	1,2'
2	2,1'	2,2'
3	3,1'	3,2'

→ choose the edges:  
if the nodes are adjacent!

**EXERCISE**

write the directed product of

 $G$  $H'$ 

Each walk in the direct product graph  
corresponds to a walk in  $G \times H$

**EXAMPLE** $G \times H$ 

	$1'$	$2'$
$1$	$1,1'$	$1,2'$
$2$	$2,1'$	<del><math>2,2'</math></del>
$3$	$3,1'$	$3,2'$



correspond to  $1 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 1$  in  $G$   
 $1' \rightarrow 2' \rightarrow 1' \rightarrow 2'$  in  $H$

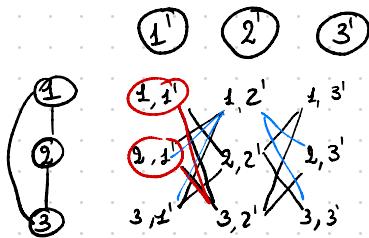
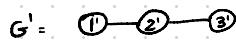
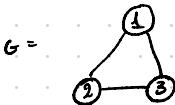
And Vice-versa thus:

The number of walks in  $G \times H$  of length  $K$  = # walks in  $G$  • # walks in  $H$  of length  $K$

This is what we need to compute  
for similarity measure?on?  
Kosaraju function.

Related to the Kosaraju trick, No need to explicitly compute the feature vectors of  $G$  and  $H$ !

How many walks between  $(1, 1')$  and  $(2, 2')$  of length 2 in the direct product graph of



# walks of length 2 from  $(1, 2')$  to  $(1, 2')$  is  $2 \times 2 = 4$

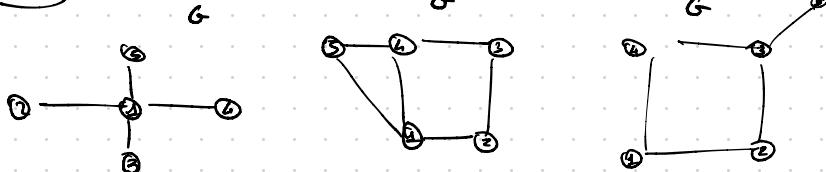
Kernev function  $K(x, y) = x \cdot y$

When using the direct product graph, the Kernev function of two graphs  $G$  and  $G'$  is given by

$$K_x(G, G') = \sum_{i,j=1}^{|V_x|} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A_x^k \right]_{ij} \quad \text{where } A_x \text{ is the adjacent matrix of } G \times G'$$

### EXERCISE

#### HW3



Compute the Kernev Value of  $G$  and  $G' = K(G, G')$  } discuss it  
 $K(G', G'')$   
 " }

Instead of  $\infty$  in the formula I go to 4

Play with graphs and exhibit triplets of graphs for which  
 2 similar and 2 different

## KERNEL FUNCTION

Kernel function  $K(x, y) = x \cdot y$ .

With kernel trick I avoid to make all the computation because I use the direct product graph. The kernel function of two graphs  $G$  and  $G'$  is given by  $K_x(G, G') = \sum_{i,j=1}^{N_G} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A_x^k \right]_{ij}$ , where  $A_x$  is the adjacency matrix of  $G \times G'$ .

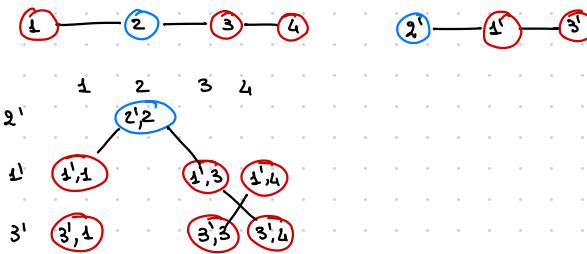
- Product graph in the case of labeled graphs

Def:  $G_x = (V_x, E_x)$  s.t.

$$V_x = \{(v_i, w_j) \in V_1 \times V_2 \mid \text{label}(v_i) = \text{label}(w_j)\}$$

$$E_x = \{(v_i, w_j), (v_i, w_k) \in V(G_1 \times G_2), (v_j, v_k) \in E_1 \text{ and } (w_i, w_k) \in E_2 \text{ and } \text{label}(v_i, v_k) = \text{label}(w_i, w_k)\}$$

Meaning: the direct product graph consists of pairs of identically labeled nodes and edges from  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  ex.



- To summarize let  $G$  and  $G'$  be two labeled graphs.

The rank of  $G$  and  $G'$  denoted as  $K_x(G, G')$  is defined as the number of pairs of matching walks (where matching means "same length and labels") weighted by their length.

It can be computed with the following formula:

$$K_x(G, G') = \sum_{i,j=1}^{N_G} \left[ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda^n A_x^n \right]_{ij} = e^T (I - \lambda A_x)^{-1} \cdot e \quad \text{where } e = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\lambda < 1$  is a decaying factor for the sum to converge with  $A_x$  the adjacency matrix of  $G_x$  the labeled direct graph of  $G$  and  $G'$

- Computing  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A^k$

I) A solution is of course to limit the length of the walk to  $k_{\max}$ .

For example, if we limit the length of the walks to  $k_{\max}=3$ ,

we get  $\sum_{k=0}^3 A^k = A^0 + A^1 + A^2 + A^3$

II) But, there exists efficient ways to compute the infinite sum.

Intuition: If we consider the geometric series  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y^i = 1 + y + y^2 + \dots$ . This is known to converge if and only if  $|y| < 1$ . In this case, the limit is given by:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^n y^i = \frac{1}{1-y}$

We have an equivalent with matrices under some condition, we have:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^n E^i = \frac{I}{I-E}$$

more formally:

Def: Let  $E$  be a square matrix, then the sequence  $\{S_n\}_{n \geq 0}$  defined by  $S_n = I + E + E^2 + \dots + E^n$  so  $I = S_0$  is called the geometric series generated by  $E$ .

The series converges if the sequence  $\{S_n\}_{n \geq 0}$  converges, we then write  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} E^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$

Theorem: The geometric series generated by  $E$  converges if and only if:

1)  $|\lambda_i| < 1$  for each eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  of  $E$ .

If this condition holds, then  $I - E$  is invertible and we have

$$2) S_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E^k = (I - E)^{-1} (I - E)^n$$

and hence the series converges to

$$3) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} E^k = (I - E)^{-1} = \frac{I}{(I - E)}$$

Remark: condition (1) is equivalent to (4)

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E^n = 0$$

$$K_x(G, G') = \sum_{i,j=1}^{|V_G|} \left[ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda^n A_x^n \right]_{ij}$$

$$= e^T (I - \lambda A_x)^{-1} e \quad \text{with } e = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

## RUNTIME / COMPLEXITY of RANDOM WALKS

NOTATION: Given two graphs  $G$  and  $G'$ ,  $n$  is the number of nodes in  $G$  and  $G'$ .

1<sup>st</sup> STEP: Compute the direct graph.

- joined nodes: create all pairs of nodes in  $G$  and  $G' \Rightarrow O(n^2)$

- joined edges: an edge is a pair of nodes in  $\forall x$ .

Compute all pairs of nodes in  $G$  and  $G' \Rightarrow O(n^4)$

i.e. [number of edges in a graph with  $O(n^2)$  vertices]

2<sup>nd</sup> STEP: Invert the adjacency matrix  $A_x$ .

- Matrix multiplication or inversion for  $n^2 \times n^2$  matrix  $\Rightarrow O(n^6)$  runtime

TOTAL RUNTIME is  $O(n^6)$  ← "what we use"

↳ can speed up to  $O(n^3)$

We achieved our goal to have a polynomial method to compute graphs



Classic algorithms:

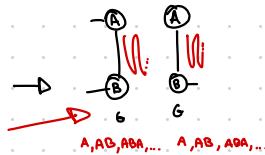
$O(n^3)$  for  $n \times m$  matrix  
Best algorithms

$$O(n^2) = O(n^{2.34})$$

## PROBLEM OF RANDOM WALK KERNEL:

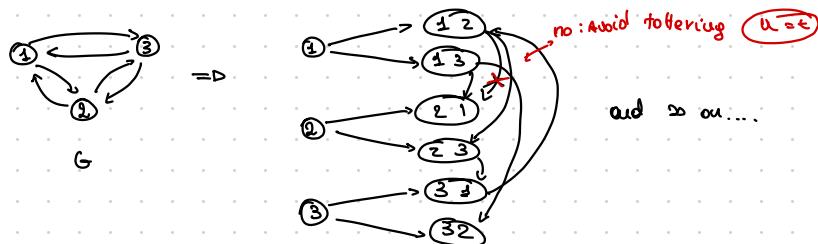
### TOTTERING

- Walks allow repetitions of nodes
- A walk can visit the same cycle of nodes all over again  
↳ A small substructure can cause a huge kernel value (TOTTERING)



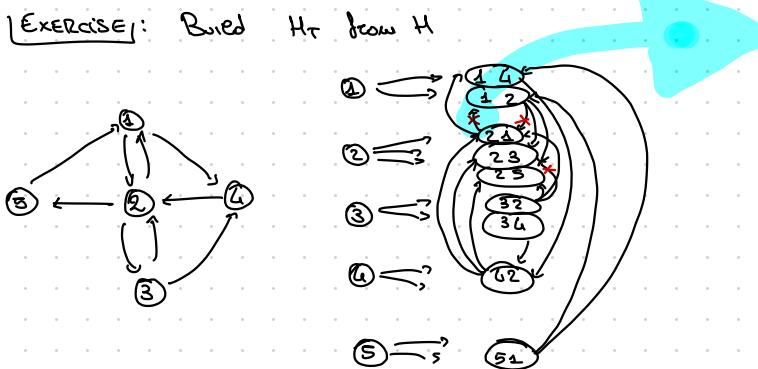
## PREVENT TOTTERING

- Expected to forbid tottering between 2 nodes that is any walk  $(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_c)$  such that  $v_i = v_{i+2}$  for any  $i \in \{1, \dots, c-2\}$
- Special transformation of each of the input graphs  $G = (V, E)$ :
  - Create new graph  $G_T$  with  $V_T = V \cup E$  and
 
$$E_T = \{(v, (v, t)) \mid v \in V, (v, t) \in E\} \cup \{(u, v), (v, t) \mid (u, v) \in E, (v, t) \in E, u \neq t\}$$
  - The set of nodes of  $G_T$  is the set of vertices and edges of  $G$
  - In  $G_T$ , there are directed edges between each node from  $G$  and each adjacent edge, and between edges from  $G$  that share exactly a node [i.e. the target node is one edge and the sequence node is the other]



PROPERTY 1: Walks in  $G_T$  correspond to walks in  $G$ , but it is not possible to totter between two nodes.

EXERCISE: Build  $H_T$  from  $H$



?? how? ha  
considerato  
perche fia'  
eliminato?