Proximity and Role-based Graph Representation Learning

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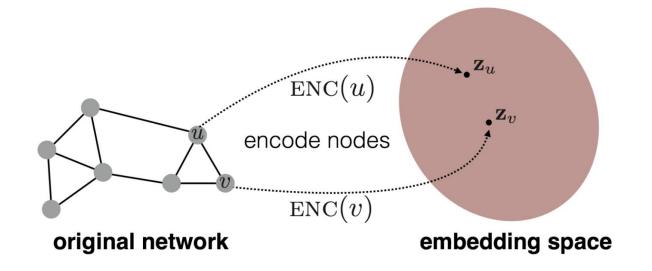
Reminding the Node Embeddings

➤ Goal: Encode nodes → similarity in embedding space (dot product) ≈ similarity in the original graph

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{similarity}(u, v) & \approx & \mathbf{z}_v^T \mathbf{z}_u \\ \text{in the original network} & \text{Similarity of the embedding} \end{array}$$

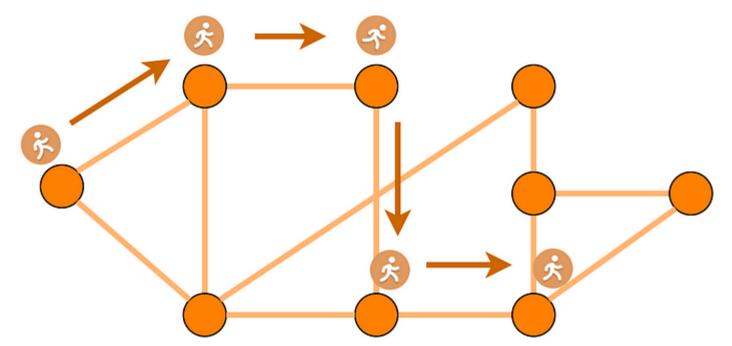
We need to define:

ENC(u)
Similarity(u, v)





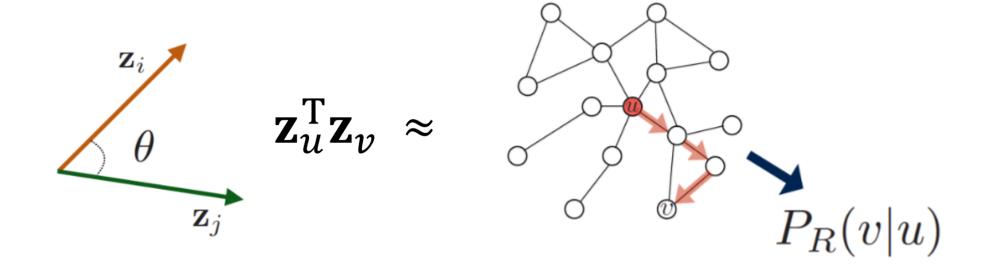
- Given a graph and a starting point, we select a neighbour of it at random, and move to this neighbour.
- > Then, we select a neighbor of this point at random, and move to it,...
- ➤ The random sequence of nodes visited this way is a random walk on the graph





Random Walk Embeddings

- Estimate probability of visiting node v on a random walk starting from node u using some random walk strategy R.
- Optimize embeddings to encode these random walk statistics.



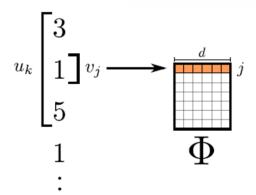
> Employ random walks on the graph to discover the structure

$$v_4 \rightarrow v_3 \rightarrow v_1 \rightarrow v_5 \rightarrow v_1 \rightarrow v_{46}$$

Random walks in Network =

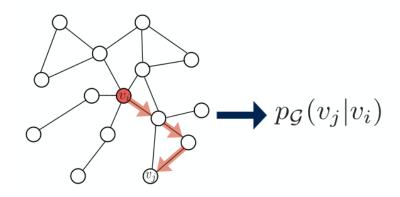
Sentences in NLP



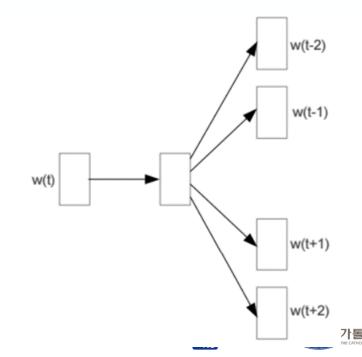


Node sequence as the input of word2vec models

$$\Phi \colon v \in V \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{|V| \times d}$$



1. Run random walks to obtain co-occurrence statistics



DeepWalk: Optimization using Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Figure $\mathcal{L} = \sum_{u \in V} \sum_{v \in N_R(u)} -\log(P(v|\mathbf{z}_u))$
- > (Stochastic) Gradient Descent: a simple way to minimize L

- > SGD Algorithm: evaluate it for each individual training example
 - \triangleright Initialize z_u at some randomized value for all nodes u.
 - Iterative until L converges:
 - > Sample a node u, for all v calculate the derivative $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}^{(u)}}{\partial z_v}$.
 - For all v, update:

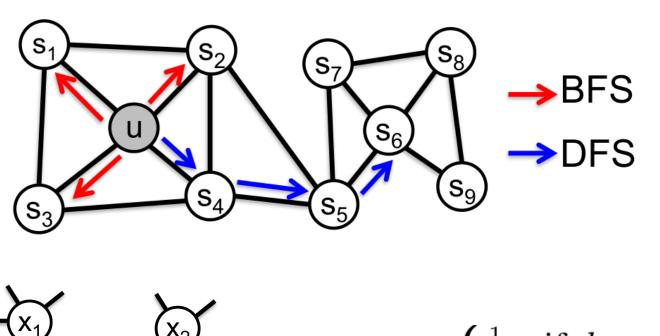
$$z_v \leftarrow z_v - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}^{(u)}}{\partial z_v}$$
Learning rate



Biased random walks

p: controls the walk revisiting a node

q: controls the walk revisiting anode's one-hop neighborhood



$$\alpha = 1/q$$

$$\alpha =$$

p increase \Rightarrow DFS

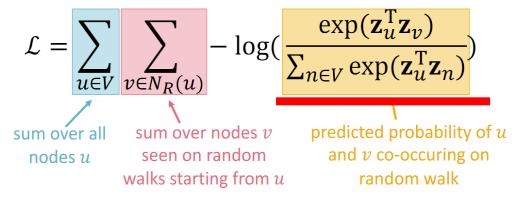
q increase \Rightarrow BFS





Node2Vec: Negative Sampling in SGD

 \triangleright Problem with DeepWalk Random Walk Optimization: Expensive in summing over nodes $(O(|V|^2)$



➤ Solution: Negative Sampling (Softmax → Sigmoid)

$$\log(\frac{\exp(\mathbf{z}_{u}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{z}_{v})}{\sum_{n \in V} \exp(\mathbf{z}_{u}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{z}_{n})}) \approx \log(\sigma(\mathbf{z}_{u}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{z}_{v})) - \sum_{i=1}^{k} \log(\sigma(\mathbf{z}_{u}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{z}_{n_{i}})), n_{i} \sim P_{V}$$
Sigmoid function
random distribution over nodes

 \triangleright Sample k negative nodes n_i each with probability proportional to its degree.





LINE: Large-scale Information Network Embedding

> Motivation:

- Preserving network proximities: LINE seeks to preserve both the first-order proximity (direct connections between nodes) and second-order proximity (shared neighborhood structures) in the learned embeddings.
- Scalable objective functions:
 - consider first-order and second-order proximities separately.
 - different network types: directed, undirected, weighted or unweighted.
- > An edge-sampling algorithm is proposed to help stochastic gradient descent on weighted edges.



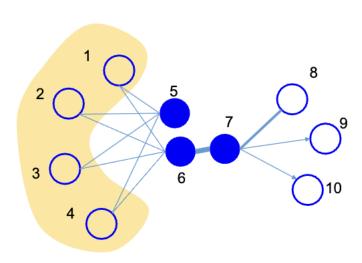
LINE: First-order Proximity and Preserving the First-order Proximity

- First-order proximity: local pairwise proximity between two connected nodes.
- \succ For each node pair (v_i, v_j)
 - ightharpoonup if $(v_i, v_j) \in E$, the first-order proximity between v_i and v_j is w_{ij} .
 - \triangleright otherwise, the first-order proximity between v_i and v_i is 0.
- \triangleright Given an undirected edge (v_i, v_j) , the joint probability of v_i and v_j :

$$p_1(v_i, v_j) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\vec{u}_i^T \cdot \vec{u}_j)}$$
 \vec{u}_i :Embedding of node v_i

$$\hat{p}_1(v_i, v_j) = \frac{w_{ij}}{\sum_{(i',j')} w_{i'j'}}$$

Objective:



First-order: node 6 and 7



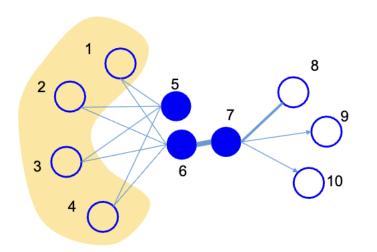


LINE: Second-order Proximity

- Second-order proximity: captures the 2-step relations between each pair of nodes.
- \succ For each node pair (v_i, v_j)
 - > determining by the number of common neighbors shared by the two nodes.

$$\hat{p}_u = (w_{u1}, w_{u2}, ..., w_{u|V|})$$

$$\hat{p}_v = (w_{v1}, w_{v2}, ..., w_{v|V|})$$



Second-order: node 5 and 6

$$\hat{p}_5 = (1,1,1,1,0,0,0,0,0,0,0)$$

$$\hat{p}_6 = (1,1,1,1,0,0,5,0,0,0)$$



LINE: Preserving the Second-order Proximity

 \triangleright Given an undirected edge (v_i, v_i) , the joint probability of v_i and v_i :

$$p_2(v_j|v_i) = \frac{\exp(\vec{u}_j'^T \cdot \vec{u}_i)}{\sum_{k=1}^{|V|} \exp(\vec{u}_k'^T \cdot \vec{u}_i)}, \qquad \text{node.}$$

 $\hat{p}_2(v_j|v_i) = \frac{w_{ij}}{\sum_{k \in V} w_{ik}}$

 \vec{u}_i :Embedding of node v_i when i is a source

node.

 λ_i : Prestige of node in the network $\lambda_i = \sum_j w_{ij}$

$$O_2 = \sum_{i \in V} \widehat{\lambda_i d(\hat{p}_2(\cdot|v_i), p_2(\cdot|v_i))},$$

$$\propto -\sum_{(i,j)\in E} w_{ij} \log p_2(v_j|v_i).$$



LINE: Preserving both the Proximity

Concatenate the embeddings individually learned by the two proximity:

First-order:

Second-order:

LINE: Optimization

- Stochastic Gradient Descent + Negative Sampling.
 - > Randomly sample an edge and multiple negative edges.
- The gradient w.r.t the embedding with edge (i,j)

$$rac{\partial O_2}{\partial ec{u}_i} = w_{ij} \cdot rac{\partial \log p_2(v_j|v_i)}{\partial ec{u}_i}$$
 Multiplied by the weight of the edge w_{ij}

- > Problematic when the weights of the edges diverge
 - The scale of the gradients with different edges diverges.
- Solution: Edge sampling
 - > Sample the edges according to their weights and treat the edges as binary.
- \triangleright Complexity: $\Theta(dK|E|)$
 - Linear to the dimension d, number of negative samples K, and number of edges E.

LINE: Algorithm

- > Initialization: Initialize the embedding vectors for all nodes randomly.
- > Edge Sampling: Sample edges from the network based on their weights.
- > Gradient Descent: For each sampled edge, update the embedding vectors using SGD.
- Negative Sampling: For each positive edge, sample negative edges and update the embedding vectors to maximize the difference between positive and negative samples.
- ➤ **Iteration**: Repeat the edge sampling and gradient descent steps until convergence.



Same as DeepWalk, Node2Vec, and Node2Vec+ but consider the preservation of proximity and directed edge sampling.



Sample code: Edge Sampling

```
# Import library
import networkx as nx
import numpy as np
from vose sampler import VoseAlias
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import collections
from tqdm import tqdm
from tqdm import trange
# Create an Erdős-Rényi graph with 100 nodes and probability 0.1
G erdos = nx.erdos renyi graph(100, 0.1)
# Get the edge list of the graph
edge list = G erdos.edges
# Create a dictionary to store the edge list with weights and total weightsum
edgedistdict = collections.defaultdict(int)
weightsum = 0
# For each edge in the edge list, assign a random weight between 1 and 100.
for edge in edge list:
   weight = np.random.uniform(1, 100)
   edgedistdict[(edge[0], edge[1])] = weight
   weightsum += weight
for edge, weight in edgedistdict.items():
   edgedistdict[edge] = weight / weightsum
# Print the normalized edge list with weights
print(edgedistdict)
defaultdict(<class 'int'>, {(0, 12): 0.0022917282387984626, (0, 25): 0.001658375
# Edge sampling using alias table
edgesaliassampler = VoseAlias(edgedistdict)
batchrange = int(len(edgedistdict) / 5)
for b in trange(batchrange):
 print(edgesaliassampler.sample n(size=5))
                                                                            [(59, 62), (20, 27), (3, 84), (79, 81), (40, 63)]
```

```
[(3, 8), (37, 93), (21, 63), (67, 94), (42, 79)]
[(22, 31), (50, 57), (12, 71), (44, 66), (27, 70)]
[(45, 71), (50, 55), (10, 74), (2, 22), (15, 71)]
[(4, 26), (21, 53), (22, 23), (5, 41), (11, 24)]
[(29, 64), (17, 51), (31, 69), (12, 22), (35, 63)]
[(17, 18), (59, 75), (15, 95), (43, 76), (0, 66)]
[(3, 22), (45, 71), (75, 93), (7, 75), (21, 98)]
[(11, 80), (1, 62), (31, 61), (0, 68), (12, 19)]
[(90, 95), (0, 60), (17, 18), (12, 20), (52, 99)]
[(38, 46), (27, 88), (22, 73), (24, 54), (0, 93)]
[(52, 74), (52, 99), (13, 70), (11, 47), (20, 45)]
[(15, 71), (12, 22), (0, 66), (5, 11), (64, 89)]
[(10, 74), (7, 97), (69, 74), (58, 90), (48, 89)]
[(38, 44), (4, 39), (50, 57), (7, 75), (14, 97)]
[(7, 15), (13, 18), (25, 50), (25, 54), (38, 44)]
[(0, 81), (90, 95), (15, 64), (32, 55), (21, 98)]
[(11, 18), (2, 47), (22, 83), (13, 26), (9, 78)]
[(22, 73), (62, 63), (38, 44), (35, 81), (6, 27)]
[(47, 75), (21, 53), (7, 15), (51, 92), (13, 84)]
[(11, 47), (2, 96), (43, 45), (29, 30), (18, 78)]
[(94, 99), (33, 61), (45, 85), (41, 46), (15, 95)]
[(69, 82), (79, 82), (9, 56), (21, 63), (18, 40)]
[(23, 94), (69, 80), (69, 82), (33, 66), (69, 74)]
```

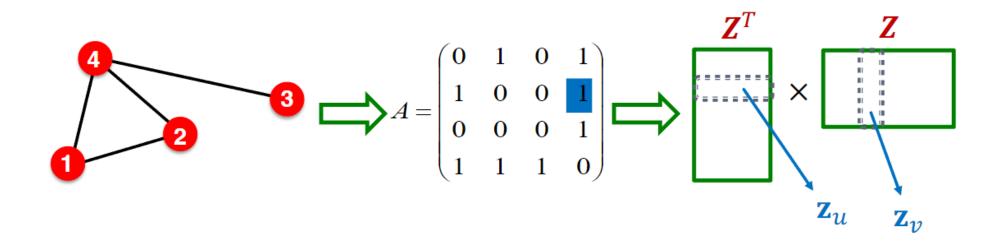




Reminding the Adjacency-based Approaches

- > One of the simplest and most intuitive approaches to defining similarity:
 - adjacency between two nodes v and u.
- > Similarity: Two nodes are adjacent to one another within the structure of the graph.

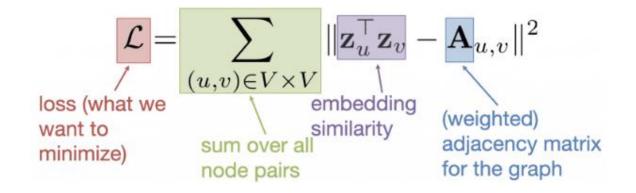
$$\mathbf{z}_{v}^{T}\mathbf{z}_{u}=A_{u,v}$$
 or $\mathbf{Z}^{T}\mathbf{Z}=A$





Reminding the Adjacency-based Approaches

> Encoding: Find the embedding matrix **Z** that minimizes the loss function **L**



> Solution:

- > Option 1: Use stochastic gradient descent (SGD) as a general optimization method.
- > Option 2: Solve matrix decomposition solvers (e.g., SVD or QR decomposition routines).
 - Matrix Factorization-based.

➤ Let A be an m × n adjacency matrix. The factorization of A takes the form

$$A = USV^T$$

where U is a $m \times m$ orthogonal matrix, V^T is a $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix and S is a $m \times n$ diagonal matrix.

- Factorizing to low-rank approximations based on minimizing the sum-squared distance using **Singular Value Decomposition**.
- > To decompose:
 - \triangleright Evaluate the *n* eigenvectors v_i and eigenvalues λ_i of A^TA .
 - \triangleright Make a matrix V from the normalized vectors v_i .
 - ➤ Make a diagonal matrix S from the square roots of the eigenvalues

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$$
 and $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \sigma_3 \dots$

ightharpoonup Find U: $A = USV^T \Rightarrow US = AV \Rightarrow U = AVS^{-1}$.

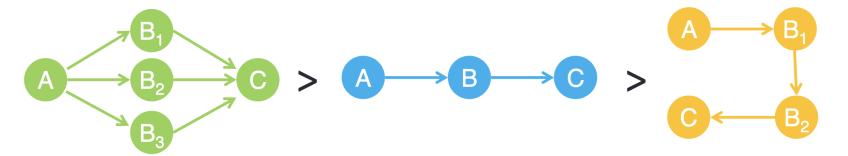
Asymmetric Transitivity Preserving Graph Embedding

- Ideas: Critical property in directed graph Asymmetric Transitivity.
- > Transitivity is Asymmetric in directed graph.
- > Challenge: incorporate asymmetric transitivity in graph embedding.
- Problem: metric space is symmetric.



Asymmetric Transitivity Preserving Graph Embedding

- High-order Proximity with asymmetric transitivity:
 - > Asymmetry: not symmetric in directed graph.
 - Transitivity:
 - More directed paths, larger similarity.
 - Shorter paths, larger similarity



Compare A -> C similarity: Katz Index.

$$\mathbf{S}^{Katz} = \sum_{l=1}^{+\infty} (\beta \cdot A)^l$$



Asymmetric Transitivity Preserving Graph Embedding

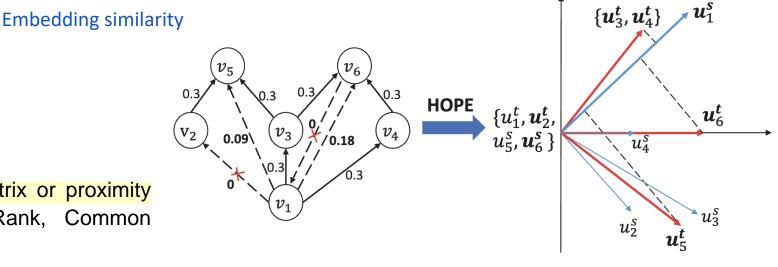
- Preserve high-order proximity embedding:
 - > Katz Index modified:

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

Objective:

$$\min_{U_S,U_t} ||S - U_S \cdot U_t^T||_F^2$$
$$S = M_g^{-1} \cdot M_l$$

where M_g , M_l are polynomial of adjacency matrix or proximity measurements: Katz, Adamic Adar, PageRank, Common Neighbors.



- > Solving by **Generalized Singular Value Decomposition**: decompose *S* without calculating it.
 - Linear complexity w.r.t. the volume of data (i.e. edge number).

Generalized Singular Value Decomposition

Objective:

$$\min_{U_S, U_t} \|\mathbf{S} - U_S \cdot U_t^T\|_F^2$$
$$\mathbf{S} = M_g^{-1} \cdot M_l$$

If we have the singular value decomposition of the general formulation:

where

ightharpoonup There exists a nonsingular matrix X and two diagonal matrices, i.e. Σ^{l} and Σ^{g} , satisfying

$$\mathbf{V}^{t\top}\mathbf{M}_{l}^{\top}\mathbf{X} = \Sigma^{l}$$
$$\mathbf{V}^{s\top}\mathbf{M}_{g}^{\top}\mathbf{X} = \Sigma^{g}$$

Linear complexity w.r.t. the volume of data (i.e. edge number).

$$\begin{array}{c|c} O(K^2L\cdot m) \\ \hline \downarrow \\ \hline \text{Embedding Dimension} & \text{Iteration} \\ \text{(constant)} & \text{(constant)} \\ \end{array}$$

 $\Sigma^{l} = diag(\sigma_{1}^{l}, \sigma_{2}^{l}, \cdots, \sigma_{N}^{l})$ $\Sigma^{g} = diag(\sigma_{1}^{g}, \sigma_{2}^{g}, \cdots, \sigma_{N}^{g})$ $\sigma_{1}^{l} \geq \sigma_{2}^{l} \geq \cdots \geq \sigma_{K}^{l} \geq 0$ $0 \leq \sigma_{1}^{g} \leq \sigma_{2}^{g} \leq \cdots \leq \sigma_{K}^{g}$ $\forall i \qquad \sigma_{i}^{l^{2}} + \sigma_{i}^{g^{2}} = 1$ $\sigma_{i} = \frac{\sigma_{i}^{l}}{\sigma_{i}^{g}}$

HOPE Algorithm

Algorithm 1 High-order Proximity preserved Embedding

Require: adjacency matrix \mathbf{A} , embedding dimension K, parameters of high-order proximity measurement θ .

Ensure: embedding source vectors \mathbf{U}^s and target vectors \mathbf{U}^t .

- 1: calculate \mathbf{M}_g and \mathbf{M}_l .
- 2: perform JDGSVD with \mathbf{M}_g and \mathbf{M}_l , and obtain the generalized singular values $\{\sigma_1^l, \dots, \sigma_K^l\}$ and $\{\sigma_1^g, \dots, \sigma_K^g\}$, and the corresponding singular vectors, $\{\mathbf{v}_1^s, \dots, \mathbf{v}_K^s\}$ and $\{\mathbf{v}_1^t, \dots, \mathbf{v}_K^t\}$.
- 3: calculate singular values $\{\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_K\}$ according to Equation (21).
- 4: calculate embedding matrices \mathbf{U}^s and \mathbf{U}^t according to Equation (19) and (20).

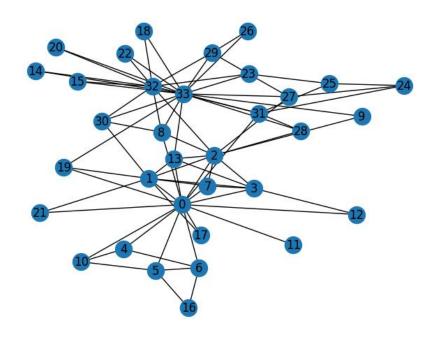
JDGSVD: Iteration of Jacobi-Davidson Generalized Singular Value Decomposition

No need Stochastic Gradient Descent optimization. Focus on solving matrix factorization.



Sample code: SVD on Katz index of Karate Graph

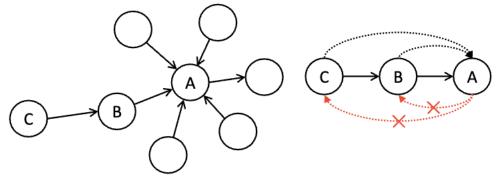
```
import networkx as nx
import numpy as np
from scipy.sparse.linalg import svds
from scipy.sparse import csr matrix
 # Load the karate club network
G = nx.karate_club_graph()
# Define the Katz index similarity
def katz_index(G, alpha=0.5, max_iter=100, tol=1e-3):
    n = len(G.nodes())
    A = nx.adjacency_matrix(G).todense()
    I = np.eye(n)
    X = I
    converged = False
    for i in range(max iter):
                                                                          0.33091154 -0.31235123
         X prev = X
                                                                         [ 0.33411655 -0.30175117
        X = alpha * A.dot(X) + (1 - alpha) * I
         if np.linalg.norm(X - X_prev) < tol:</pre>
              converged = True
              break
                                                                          [-0.02345542 -0.05020307
    return X
 # Compute the Katz index similarity matrix
X = katz_index(G)
# Perform singular value decomposition on the adjacency matrix
U, s, Vh = svds(X, k=2)
                                                                          -0.09815528 -0.08100556
# Print the singular values
print(s)
                                                                          [-0.08436143 -0.15831325
# Print the left singular vectors
print(U)
                                                                          0.18797699 -0.05775017 -0.05189329 0.20018482 -0.05997669 -0.03472371
                                                                          0.20501379 0.33504652 0.31253281 0.14576309 0.03485069 0.02443477
# Print the right singular vectors
                                                                                 -0.31041159 0.16264699 0.07591105 0.05179984 0.02405201 0.27974509
print(Vh)
                                                                          -0.17606471 0.00428549 -0.05424557 -0.33020121]
```

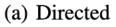


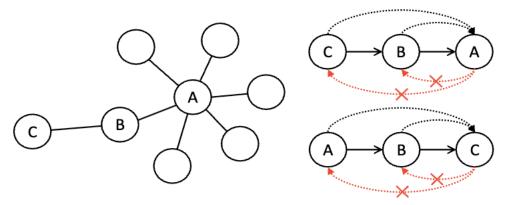


APP: Scalable Graph Embedding for Asymmetric Proximity

- Motivation: Conventional methods, i.e., DeepWalk, LINE, Node2Vec can only preserve symmetric proximities between nodes.
 - insufficient for many applications where asymmetric relationships exist, even in undirected graphs.
- Solution: treats each path as a directed sequence and only observes positive node pairs along the forward direction of the path.
 - Conventional methods have utilized random walk to sample path as an undirected sequence.







(b) Undirected



- > Random Walk with Restart Sampling Algorithm: simulate the asymmetric transition probabilities between nodes.
 - \triangleright performs a random walk starting from node v, with a restart probability α at each step.
 - the walk terminates when a restart occurs, and the last visited node u is returned as the endpoint.
 - > This sampling procedure approximates the Rooted PageRank score between v and u.
- > Stochastic Gradient Descent Algorithm: For each sampled path p = v→ u
 - treats this as an observed positive pair (v, u) in the forward direction only.
 - > optimizes the following Skip-gram style objective with negative sampling.

Path Sharing Optimization: propose extracting multiple node pairs from a single sampled path, by treating all suffix sub-paths or prefix sub-paths as valid sampled paths as well.

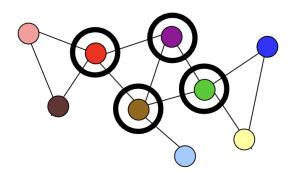
- Combine Skip-gram and SGD from DeepWalk with Negative sampling from Node2vec.
- Different is proposing random walk with restart sampling algorithm and treating as directed path sequence.



Node Representations and Structural Identity

➤ Network embedding: map network nodes into Euclidean space.

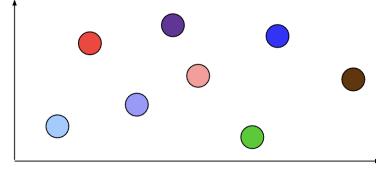
- Structural Identity:
 - Nodes in networks have specific roles
 - E.g., individuals, web pages, proteins, etc
 - Structural identity: identification of nodes based on network structure (no other attribute)
 - often related to role played by node
 - Automorphism: strong structural equivalence



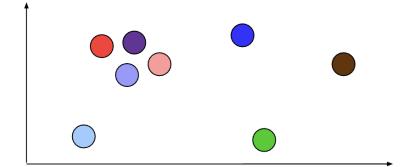
Red, Green: automorphism.

Purple, Brown: structurally similar.

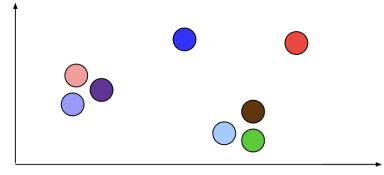
preserve distances



find cliques



preserve degrees







struc2vec: Learning Node Representations from Structural Identity

- Ideas: based on structural identity.
- Structural similarity does not depend on hop distance
 - > neighbor nodes can be different, far away nodes can be similar.
- Structural identity as a hierarchical concept
 - depth of similarity varies.
- Flexible four step procedure
 - operational aspect of steps are flexible.

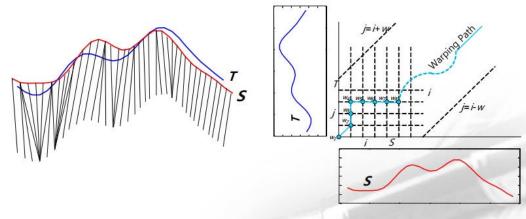


Figure 4. Examples of DTW: (a) Pattern matching between two time series data (b) An example of warping path

struc2vec: Step 1 - Structural Similarity

- > g(D₁,D₂): distance between two ordered sequences
 - cost of pairwise alignment: max(a, b) / min(a, b) 1.
 - optimal alignment by Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) in our framework

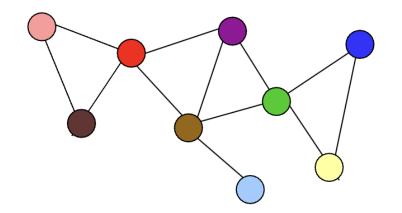
$$s(R_0(u)) = 4$$
 $s(R_1(u)) = 1,3,4,4$ $s(R_2(u)) = 2,2,2,2$
 $s(R_0(v)) = 3$ $s(R_1(v)) = 4,4,4$ $s(R_2(v)) = 1,2,2,2,2$
 $g(.,.) = 0.33$ $g(.,.) = 3.33$ $g(.,.) = 1$

- > f_k(u,v): structural distance between nodes u and v considering first k rings
 - $ightharpoonup f_k(u,v) = f_{k-1}(u,v) + g(s(R_k(u)), s(R_k(v))).$

$$f_0(u,v) = 0.33$$
 $f_1(u,v) = 3.66$ $f_2(u,v) = 4.66$

struc2vec: Step 2 - Multi-layer graph

> Encodes structural similarity between all node pairs.



$$w(u_k, u_{k+1}) = \log(\Gamma_k(u) + e), \quad k = 0, \dots, k^* - 1$$

 $w(u_k, u_{k-1}) = 1, \quad k = 1, \dots, k^*$

$$\Gamma_k(u) = \sum_{v \in V} \mathbb{1}(w_k(u, v) > \overline{w_k})$$

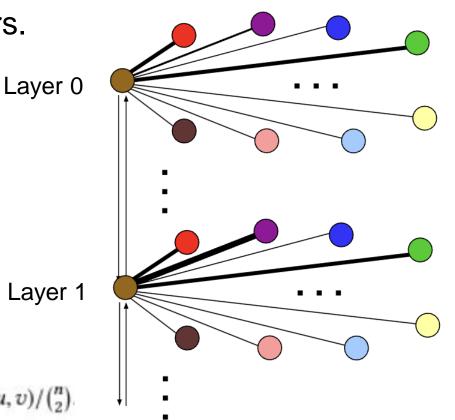
- Each layer is weighted complete graph
 - > corresponds to similarity hierarchies.
- > Edge weights in layer k

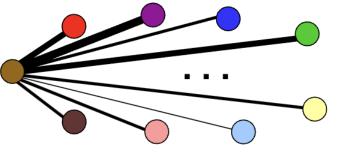
$$\triangleright$$
 $w_k(u, v) = exp{-f_k(u, v)}.$

Connect corresponding nodes in adjacent layers

$$\overline{w_k} = \sum_{(u,v) \in \binom{V}{2}} w_k(u,v) / \binom{n}{2}$$

Layer 4





struc2vec: Step 3 - Generate Context

- Context generated by biased random walk (same as Node2vec)
 - walking on multi-layer graph.
- Walk in current layer with probability p
 - > choose neighbor according to edge weight.
 - RW prefers more similar nodes.
- Change layer with probability 1-p
 - > choose up/down according to edge weight.
 - > RW prefer layer with less similar neighbors.

$$\begin{split} p_k(u_k, u_{k+1}) &= \frac{w(u_k, u_{k+1})}{w(u_k, u_{k+1}) + w(u_k, u_{k-1})} \\ p_k(u_k, u_{k-1}) &= 1 - p_k(u_k, u_{k+1}) \end{split}$$

$$p_k(u,v) = \frac{e^{-f_k(u,v)}}{Z_k(u)} \quad Z_k(u) = \sum_{\substack{v \in V \\ v \neq u}} e^{-f_k(u,v)}$$

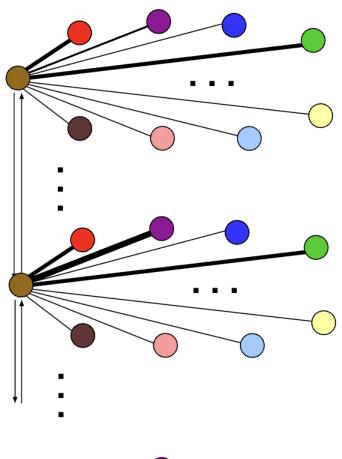


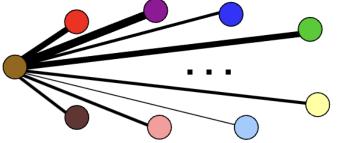
struc2vec: Step 4 – Learn Representation

- For each node, generate set of independent and relative short random walks
 - context for node; sentences of a language.



- > Train a neural network to learn latent representation for nodes
 - maximize probability of nodes within context
 - > Skip-gram (Hierarchical Softmax) adopted.









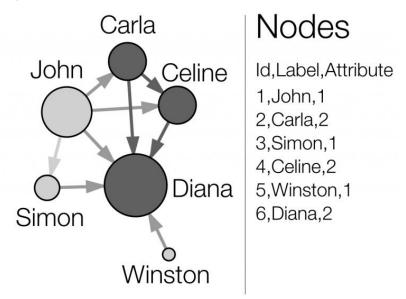
struc2vec: Optimization

- > Reduce time to generate/store multi-layer graph and context for nodes:
 - ➤ Option 1: Reduce length of degree sequences
 - use pairs (degree, number of occurrences).
 - Option 2: Reduce number of edges in multi-layer graph
 - only log n neighbors per node.
 - Option 3: Reduce number of layers in multi-layer graph
 - fixed (small) number of layers.
 - Scales quasi-linearly
 - over 1 million nodes.



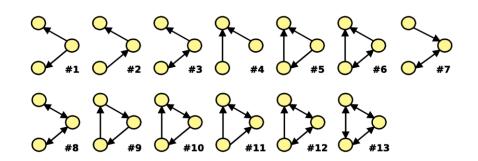
role2vec: Learning Role-based Graph Embeddings

- ▶ Ideas: struc2vec and conventional methods (DeepWalk, Node2vec) learn in node representation.
 - Role2Vec learns embeddings for "node types/roles" determined by node attributes/features.
- Solution: "attributed random walks"
 - > maps nodes to node types/roles using node attributes like motif counts, degrees etc.
 - generates attributed random walks over the node types instead of node IDs.
 - Finally, it learns embeddings for the node types rather than individual nodes.



role2vec: Motifs

- > Given a network, most of the time, some subgraphs are "overrepresented".
- ➤ A connected graph that has many occurrences in a network is called a motif of the network.
- \triangleright Assume set of occurrences G' in G is $occ_G(H)$.
 - \triangleright cardinality of $occ_G(H)$ in G is frequent.
 - \triangleright How to know if G' is frequent in G?





Compute the probability that $occ_N(G') \ge occ_G(G')$ for a random network N.

G' is said to be frequent in G if this probability is small enough.

To compute this probability, we need to have a distribution over networks.



role2vec: Algorithms

- ▶ **Input**: Graph G, node attribute matrix X, embedding dimension D, number of walks per node R, walk length L, context window size ω .
- ➤ If X is not available, extract structural features like motif counts from the graph structure itself and use those as node attributes in X.
- Apply logarithmic binning to the node attribute values in X. Map nodes to node types/roles using a function $\phi(x)$ that takes the node attribute vector x as input.
 - \triangleright two types of ϕ functions:
 - a) Simple functions like concatenation of attribute values.
 - b) Low-rank matrix factorization of X.
- \triangleright Precompute random walk transition probabilities π . Generate R attributed random walks of length L for each node, using the node type mapping ϕ instead of node IDs.
- Learn embeddings using stochastic gradient descent on the attributed random walks, optimizing the probability of observing the context node types in the walks.
- ➤ **Output**: Learned embeddings for each node type $w \in W$, where W is the set of node types found by ϕ .

role2vec: Different from Previous Methods

Mostly same as Node2Vec, except their work are considered in terms of node attribute, not node representation.

- > There are many advantage from node attributed embedding:
 - Embeddings generalize to new nodes/graphs (inductive learning).
 - Better captures structural node roles.
 - Space-efficient as it learns fewer embeddings for node types instead of all nodes.
 - Supports attributed graphs.









