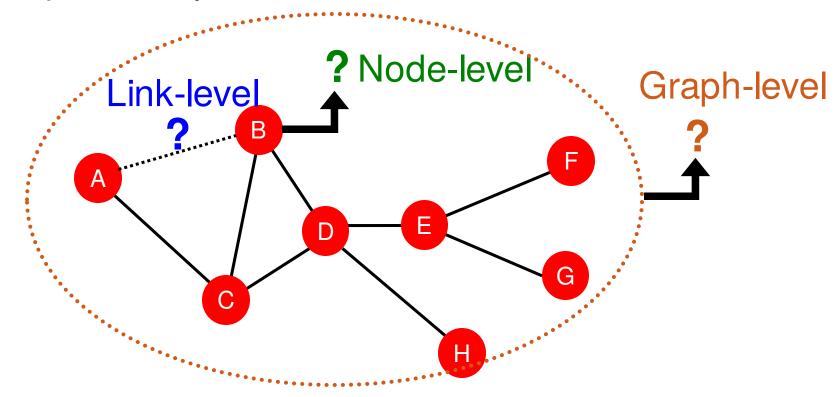
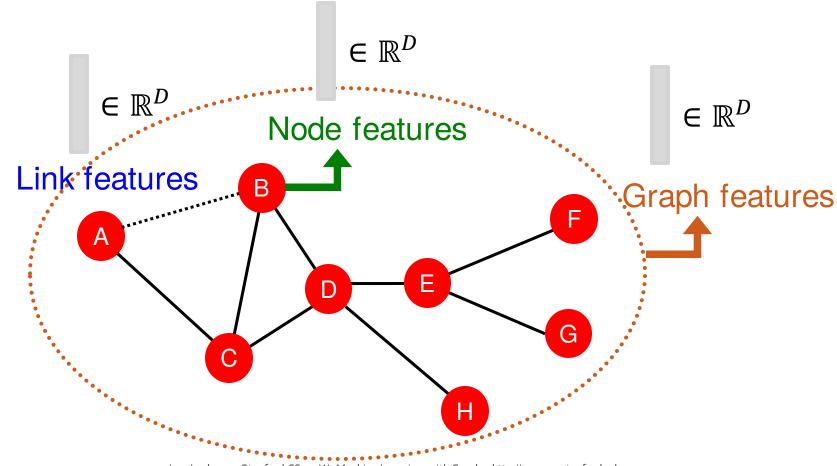
## Machine Learning Tasks: Review

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



## **Traditional ML Pipeline**

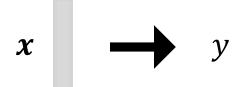
- Design features for nodes/links/graphs
- Obtain features for all training data



## **Traditional ML Pipeline**

- Train an ML model: Apply the model:
  - Random forest
  - SVM
  - Neural network, etc.

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



## This Lecture: Feature Design

- Using effective features over graphs is the key to achieving good model performance.
- Traditional ML pipeline uses hand-designed features.
- In this lecture, we overview the traditional features for:
  - Node-level prediction
  - Link-level prediction
  - Graph-level prediction
- For simplicity, we focus on undirected graphs.

## **Machine Learning in Graphs**

Goal: Make predictions for a set of objects

### **Design choices:**

- Features: d-dimensional vectors
- Objects: Nodes, edges, sets of nodes, entire graphs
- Objective function:
  - What task are we aiming to solve?

## **Machine Learning in Graphs**

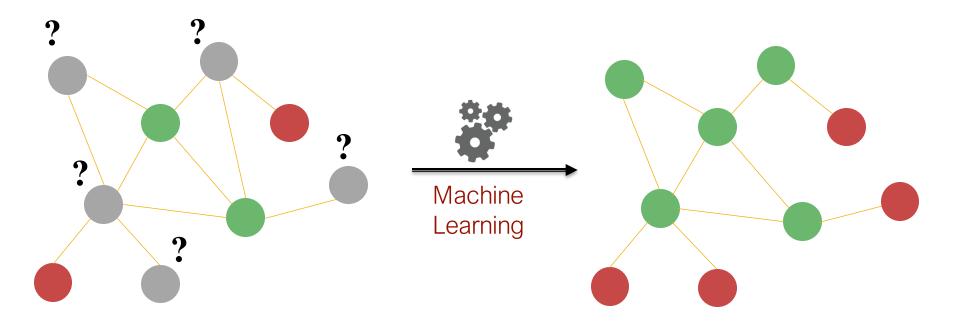
### **Example: Node-level prediction**

$$ullet$$
 Given: $G=(V,E)$ 

- Learn a function:  $f:V o \mathbb{R}$ 

How do we learn the function?

### **Node-Level Tasks**



Node classification

ML needs features.

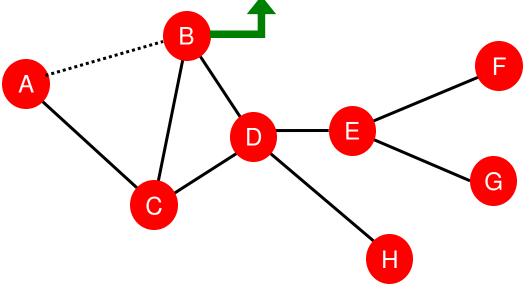
### **Node-Level Features: Overview**

**Goal:** Characterize the structure and position of a node in the network:

- Node degree
- Node centrality

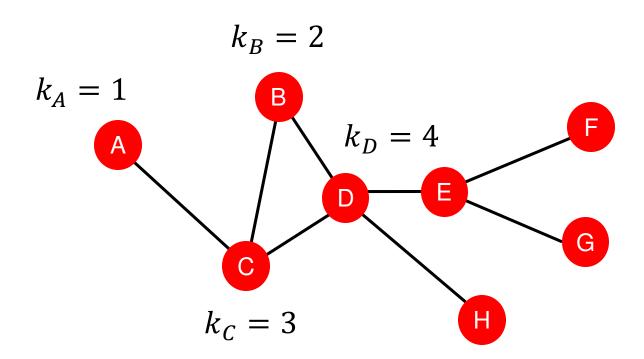
Clustering coefficient
 Node feature

Graphlets



## Node Features: Node Degree

- The degree  $k_v$  of node v is the number of edges (neighboring nodes) the node has.
- Treats all neighboring nodes equally.



## Node Features: Node Centrality

- Node degree counts the neighboring nodes without capturing their importance.
- Node centrality  $c_v$  takes the node importance in a graph into account
- Different ways to model importance:
  - Eigenvector centrality
  - Betweenness centrality
  - Closeness centrality
  - and many others...

## Node Centrality (1)

### Eigenvector centrality:

- A node v is important if surrounded by important neighboring nodes  $u \in N(v)$ .
- We model the centrality of node v as the sum of the centrality of neighboring nodes:

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

 $\lambda$  is normalization constant (it will turn out to be the largest eigenvalue of A)

Notice that the above equation models centrality in a recursive manner. How do we solve it?

## Node Centrality (1)

### Eigenvector centrality:

Rewrite the recursive equation in the matrix form.

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

 $\lambda$  is normalization const (largest eigenvalue of A)

$$\lambda c = Ac$$

- A: Adjacency matrix  $A_{uv} = 1$  if  $u \in N(v)$
- c: Centrality vector
- *λ*: Eigenvalue
- We see that centrality c is the eigenvector of A!
- The largest eigenvalue  $\lambda_{max}$  is always positive and unique (by Perron-Frobenius Theorem).
- The eigenvector  $c_{max}$  corresponding to  $\lambda_{max}$  is used for centrality.

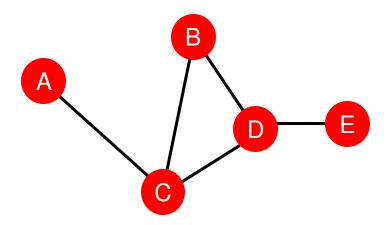
## Node Centrality (2)

### Betweenness centrality:

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

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

#### Example:



$$c_A = c_B = c_E = 0$$
  
 $c_C = 3$   
(A-C-B, A-C-D, A-C-D-E)

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

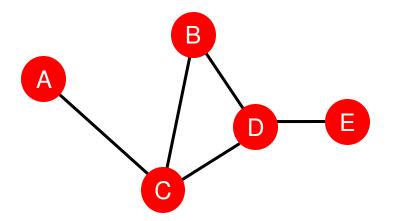
## Node Centrality (3)

### Closeness centrality:

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

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

#### Example:



$$c_A = 1/(2 + 1 + 2 + 3) = 1/8$$
  
(A-C-B, A-C, A-C-D, A-C-D-E)

$$c_D = 1/(2 + 1 + 1 + 1) = 1/5$$
  
(D-C-A, D-B, D-C, D-E)

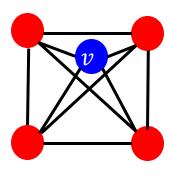
## Node Features: Clustering Coefficient

Measures how connected v's neighboring nodes are:

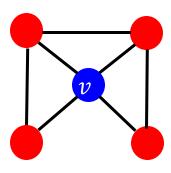
$$e_v = \frac{\#(\text{edges among neighboring nodes})}{\binom{k_v}{2}} \in [0,1]$$

Examples:

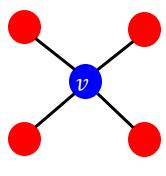
#(node pairs among  $k_v$  neighboring nodes) In our examples below the denominator is 6 (4 choose 2).



$$e_{n} = 1$$

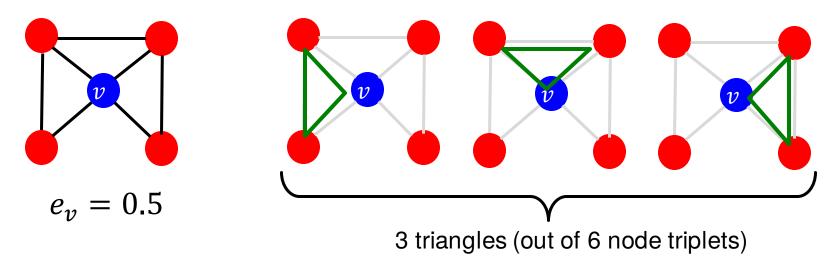


$$e_{v} = 0.5$$



$$e_{v} = 0$$

 Observation: Clustering coefficient counts the #(triangles) in the ego-network



 We can generalize the above by counting #(pre-specified subgraphs, i.e., graphlets).

- Goal: Describe network structure around node u
  - Graphlets are small subgraphs that describe the structure of node u's network neighborhood

### **Analogy:**

- Degree counts #(edges) that a node touches
- Clustering coefficient counts #(triangles) that a node touches.
- Graphlet Degree Vector (GDV): Graphlet-base features for nodes
  - GDV counts #(graphlets) that a node touches

- Considering graphlets of size 2-5 nodes we get:
  - Vector of 73 coordinates is a signature of a node that describes the topology of node's neighborhood
- Graphlet degree vector provides a measure of a node's local network topology:
  - Comparing vectors of two nodes provides a more detailed measure of local topological similarity than node degrees or clustering coefficient.



## Induced Subgraph & Isomorphism

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

Induced subgraph:

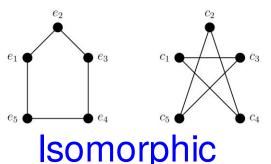


Not induced subgraph:

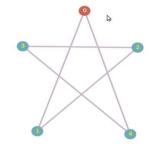


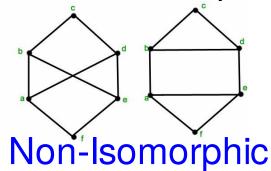


Two graphs which contain the same number of nodes connected in the same way are said to be isomorphic.



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





The right graph has cycles of length 3 but he left graph does not, so the graphs cannot be isomorphic.

Source: Mathoverflow

Jure Leskovec, Stanford CS224W: Machine Learning with Graphs, http://cs224w.stanford.edu

#### **Graphlets:** Rooted connected induced non-isomorphic subgraphs: u has Take some nodes 3-node graphlets 2-node and all the edges 4-node graphlets graphlets: between them. 0, 1, 2, 3, 5, graphlet 10, 11, ... $G_5$ $G_2$ Graphlet id (Root/ "position" of node u) 5-node graphlets $G_{12}$ $G_{13}$ $G_{14}$ $G_{15}$ $G_{16}$ $G_{11}$ $G_{26}$ $G_{27}$

There are 73 different graphlets on up to 5 nodes

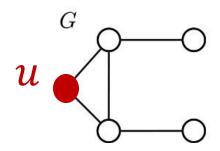
 $G_{24}$ 

 $G_{23}$ 

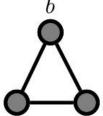
 $G_{22}$ 

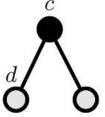
- Graphlet Degree Vector (GDV): A count vector of graphlets rooted at a given node.
- Example:

Possible graphlets up to size 3

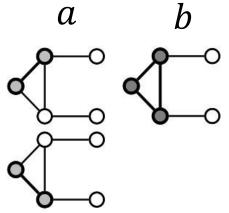




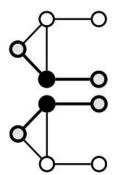




Graphlet instances of node u:



 $\boldsymbol{\mathcal{C}}$ 



GDV of node u:

## Node-Level Feature: Summary

- We have introduced different ways to obtain node features.
- They can be categorized as:
  - Importance-based features:
    - Node degree
    - Different node centrality measures
  - Structure-based features:
    - Node degree
    - Clustering coefficient
    - Graphlet count vector

## Node-Level Feature: Summary

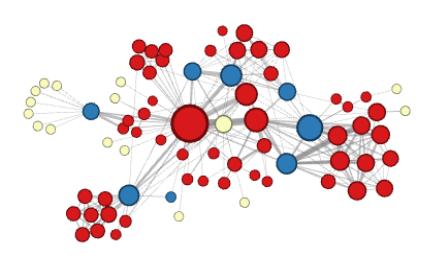
- Importance-based features: capture the importance of a node in a graph
  - Node degree:
    - Simply counts the number of neighboring nodes
  - Node centrality:
    - Models importance of neighboring nodes in a graph
    - Different modeling choices: eigenvector centrality, betweenness centrality, closeness centrality
- Useful for predicting influential nodes in a graph
  - Example: predicting celebrity users in a social network

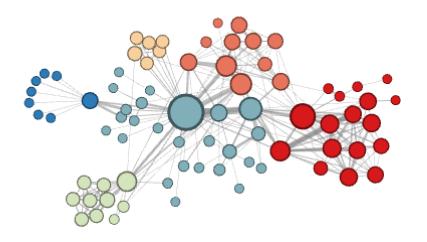
## Node-Level Feature: Summary

- Structure-based features: Capture topological properties of local neighborhood around a node.
  - Node degree:
    - Counts the number of neighboring nodes
  - Clustering coefficient:
    - Measures how connected neighboring nodes are
  - Graphlet degree vector:
    - Counts the occurrences of different graphlets
- Useful for predicting a particular role a node plays in a graph:
  - Example: Predicting protein functionality in a protein-protein interaction network.

### Discussion

### Different ways to label nodes of the network:



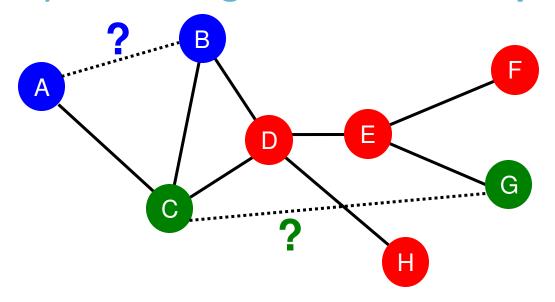


Node features defined so far would allow to distinguish nodes in the above example

However, the features defines so far would not allow for distinguishing the above node labelling

### Link-Level Prediction Task: Recap

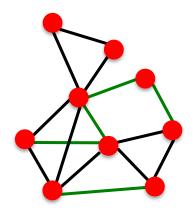
- The task is to predict new links based on the existing links.
- At test time, node pairs (with no existing links)
   are ranked, and top K node pairs are predicted.
- The key is to design features for a pair of nodes.



### Link Prediction as a Task

### Two formulations of the link prediction task:

- 1) Links missing at random:
  - Remove a random set of links and then aim to predict them
- 2) Links over time:
  - Given  $G[t_0, t'_0]$  a graph defined by edges up to time  $t'_0$ , output a ranked list L of edges (not in  $G[t_0, t'_0]$ ) that are predicted to appear in time  $G[t_1, t'_1]$



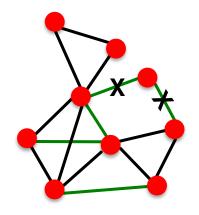
 $G[t_0, t_0']$   $G[t_1, t_1']$ 

- Evaluation:
  - $n = |E_{new}|$ : # new edges that appear during the test period  $[t_1, t_1']$
  - Take top n elements of L and count correct edges

## **Link Prediction via Proximity**

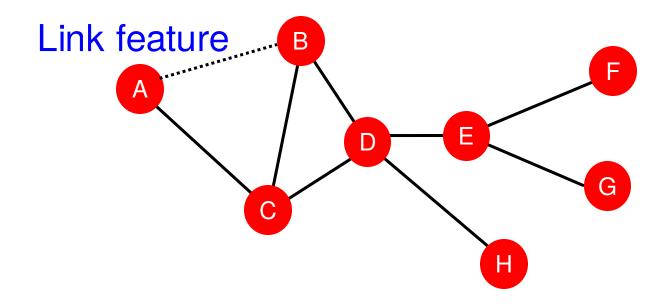
### Methodology:

- For each pair of nodes (x,y) compute score c(x,y)
  - For example, c(x,y) could be the # of common neighbors of x and y
- Sort pairs (x,y) by the decreasing score c(x,y)
- Predict top n pairs as new links
- See which of these links actually appear in  $G[t_1, t'_1]$



### Link-Level Features: Overview

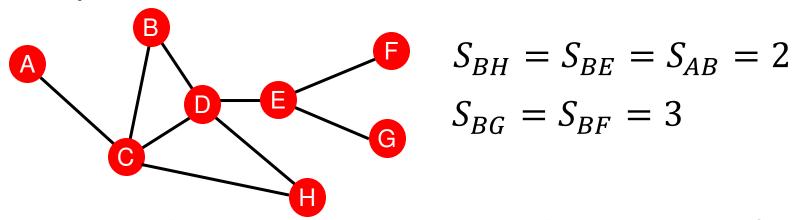
- Distance-based feature
- Local neighborhood overlap
- Global neighborhood overlap



### Distance-Based Features

### Shortest-path distance between two nodes

Example:



- However, this does not capture the degree of neighborhood overlap:
  - Node pair (B, H) has 2 shared neighboring nodes, while pairs (B, E) and (A, B) only have 1 such node.

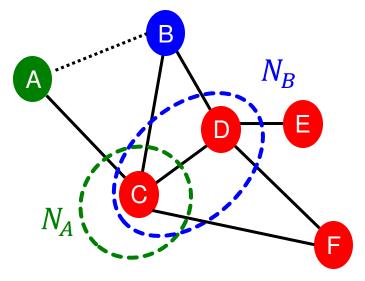
## Local Neighborhood Overlap

# Captures # neighboring nodes shared between two nodes $v_1$ and $v_2$ :

- **Common neighbors:**  $|N(v_1) \cap N(v_2)|$ 
  - Example:  $|N(A) \cap N(B)| = |\{C\}| = 1$
- Jaccard's coefficient:  $\frac{|N(v_1) \cap N(v_2)|}{|N(v_1) \cup N(v_2)|}$ 
  - Example:  $\frac{|N(A) \cap N(B)|}{|N(A) \cup N(B)|} = \frac{|\{C\}|}{|\{C,D\}|} = \frac{1}{2}$
- Adamic-Adar index:

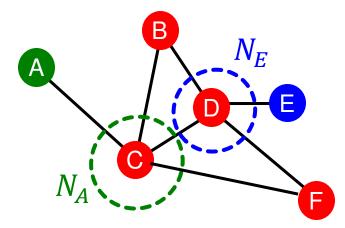
$$\sum_{u \in N(v_1) \cap N(v_2)} \frac{1}{\log(k_u)}$$

• Example:  $\frac{1}{\log(k_C)} = \frac{1}{\log 4}$ 



## Global Neighborhood Overlap

- Limitation of local neighborhood features:
  - Metric is always zero if the two nodes do not have any neighbors in common.



$$\begin{aligned} N_A \cap N_E &= \phi \\ |N_A \cap N_E| &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

- However, the two nodes may still potentially be connected in the future.
- Global neighborhood overlap metrics resolve the limitation by considering the entire graph.

## Global Neighborhood Overlap

- Katz index: count the number of walks of all lengths between a given pair of nodes.
- Q: How to compute #walks between two nodes?
- Use powers of the graph adjacency matrix!

## Intuition: Powers of Adj Matrices

- Computing #walks between two nodes
  - Recall:  $A_{uv} = 1$  if  $u \in N(v)$
  - Let  $P_{uv}^{(K)} = \#$ walks of length K between u and v
  - We will show  $P^{(K)} = A^k$
  - $P_{uv}^{(1)} = \text{#walks of length 1 (direct neighborhood)}$ between u and  $v = A_{uv}$   $P_{12}^{(1)} = A_{12}$

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

## Intuition: Powers of Adj Matrices

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

$$P_{uv}^{(2)} = \sum_{i} A_{ui} * P_{iv}^{(1)} = \sum_{i} A_{ui} * A_{iv} = A_{uv}^{2}$$

#walks of length 1 between Node 1's neighbors Node 1's neighbors and Node 2  $P_{12}^{(2)} = A_{12}^2$ 

$$P_{12}^{(2)} = A_{12}^2$$

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$
 adjacency

## Global Neighborhood Overlap

- Katz index: count the number of walks of all lengths between a pair of nodes.
- How to compute #walks between two nodes?
- Use adjacency matrix powers!
  - $A_{uv}$  specifies #walks of length 1 (direct neighborhood) between u and v.
  - $A_{uv}^2$  specifies #walks of length 2 (neighbor of neighbor) between u and v.
  - And,  $A_{uv}^{l}$  specifies #walks of length l.

# Global Neighborhood Overlap

Katz index between  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  is calculated as Sum over all walk lengths

$$S_{v_1v_2} = \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \beta^l A_{v_1v_2}^l$$
 #walks of length  $l$  between  $v_1$  and  $v_2$   $0 < \beta < 1$ : discount factor

Katz index matrix is computed in closed-form:

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

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

## Link-Level Features: Summary

#### Distance-based features:

 Uses the shortest path length between two nodes but does not capture how neighborhood overlaps.

#### Local neighborhood overlap:

- Captures how many neighboring nodes are shared by two nodes.
- Becomes zero when no neighbor nodes are shared.

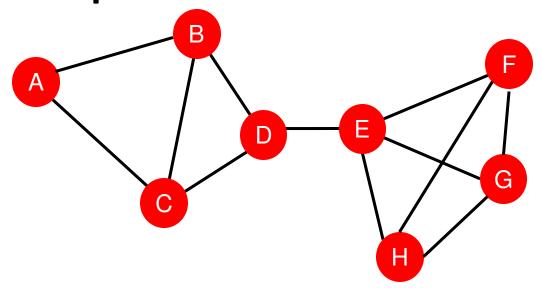
#### Global neighborhood overlap:

- Uses global graph structure to score two nodes.
- Katz index counts #walks of all lengths between two nodes.

### **Graph-Level Features**

 Goal: We want features that characterize the structure of an entire graph.

#### For example:



# Background: Kernel Methods

- Kernel methods are widely-used for traditional ML for graph-level prediction.
- Idea: Design kernels instead of feature vectors.
- A quick introduction to Kernels:
  - Kernel  $K(G, G') \in \mathbb{R}$  measures similarity b/w data
  - Kernel matrix  $K = (K(G, G'))_{G,G'}$  must always be positive semidefinite (i.e., has positive eigenvalues)
  - There exists a feature representation  $\phi(\cdot)$  such that  $K(G, G') = \phi(G)^T \phi(G')$
  - Once the kernel is defined, off-the-shelf ML model, such as kernel SVM, can be used to make predictions.

### **Graph-Level Features: Overview**

- Graph Kernels: Measure similarity between two graphs:
  - Graphlet Kernel [1]
  - Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel [2]
  - Other kernels are also proposed in the literature (beyond the scope of this lecture)
    - Random-walk kernel
    - Shortest-path graph kernel
    - And many more...

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

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

### Graph Kernel: Key Idea

- **Goal**: Design graph feature vector  $\phi(G)$
- Key idea: Bag-of-Words (BoW) for a graph
  - Recall: BoW simply uses the word counts as features for documents (no ordering considered).
  - Naïve extension to a graph: Regard nodes as words.
  - Since both graphs have 4 red nodes, we get the same feature vector for two different graphs...

$$\phi(\square) = \phi(\square)$$

### Graph Kernel: Key Idea

#### What if we use Bag of **node degrees**?

Deg1: • Deg2: • Deg3: •

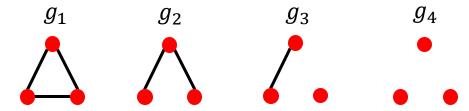
$$\phi(\square) = \operatorname{count}(\square) = [1, 2, 1]$$
 $\phi(\square) = \operatorname{count}(\square) = [0, 2, 2]$ 
 $\phi(\square) = \operatorname{count}(\square) = [0, 2, 2]$ 

Both Graphlet Kernel and Weisfeiler-Lehman (WL) Kernel use Bag-of-\* representation of graph, where \* is more sophisticated than node degrees!

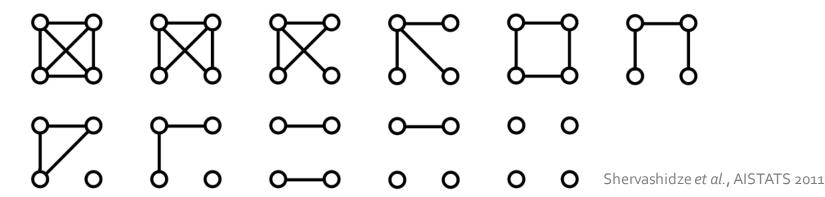
- Key idea: Count the number of different graphlets in a graph.
  - Note: Definition of graphlets here is slightly different from node-level features.
  - The two differences are:
    - Nodes in graphlets here do not need to be connected (allows for isolated nodes)
    - The graphlets here are not rooted.
    - Examples in the next slide illustrate this.

Let  $G_k = (g_{1_1}, g_{2_2}, ..., g_{n_k})$  be a list of graphlets of size k.

• For k=3, there are 4 graphlets.



• For k=4, there are 11 graphlets.



• Given graph G, and a graphlet list  $G_k = (g_1, g_2, ..., g_{n_k})$ , define the graphlet count vector  $f_G \in \mathbb{R}^{n_k}$  as

$$(f_G)_i = \#(g_i \subseteq G) \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ..., n_k.$$

• Example for k = 3.

 $g_2$ 

 $g_4$ 

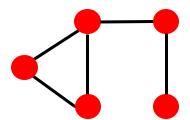




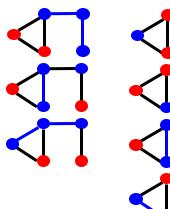












$$f_G = (1,$$

$$(0)^T$$

## Graphlet Kernel

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

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

- Problem: if G and G' have different sizes, that will greatly skew the value.
- Solution: normalize each feature vector

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

# **Graphlet Kernel**

#### Limitations: Counting graphlets is expensive!

- Counting size-k graphlets for a graph with size n by enumeration takes  $n^k$ .
- This is unavoidable in the worst-case since subgraph isomorphism test (judging whether a graph is a subgraph of another graph) is NP-hard.
- If a graph's node degree is bounded by d, an  $O(nd^{k-1})$  algorithm exists to count all the graphlets of size k.

### Can we design a more efficient graph kernel?

### Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel

- Goal: Design an efficient graph feature descriptor  $\phi(G)$
- Idea: Use neighborhood structure to iteratively enrich node vocabulary.
  - Generalized version of Bag of node degrees since node degrees are one-hop neighborhood information.
- Algorithm to achieve this:

### **Color refinement**

### **Color Refinement**

- Given: A graph G with a set of nodes V.
  - Assign an initial color  $c^{(0)}(v)$  to each node v.
  - Iteratively refine node colors by

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

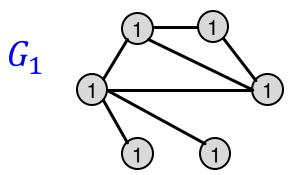
where HASH maps different inputs to different colors.

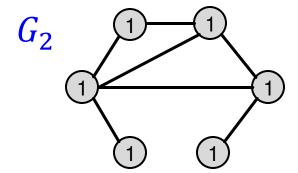
• After K steps of color refinement,  $c^{(K)}(v)$  summarizes the structure of K-hop neighborhood

### Color Refinement (1)

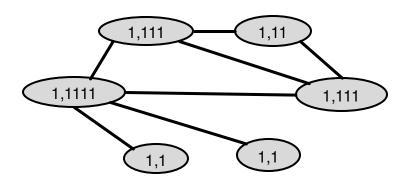
### Example of color refinement given two graphs

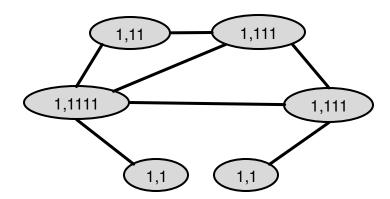
Assign initial colors





Aggregate neighboring colors

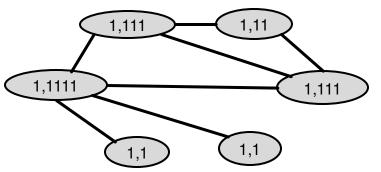


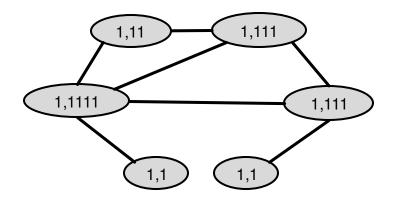


### Color Refinement (2)

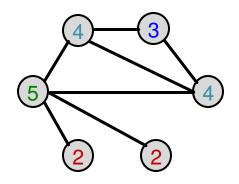
#### Example of color refinement given two graphs

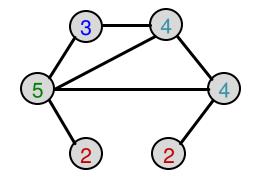
Aggregated colors





Hash aggregated colors





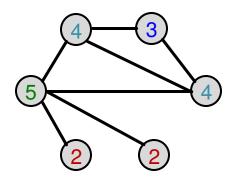
#### Hash table

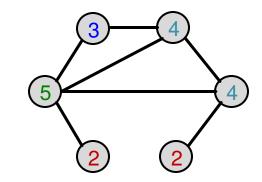
1,1	>	2	
1,11	>	3	
1,111	>	4	
1,1111	>	5	

## Color Refinement (3)

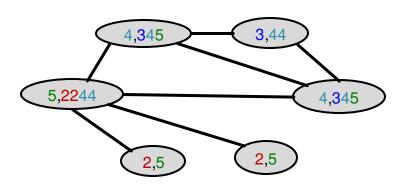
#### Example of color refinement given two graphs

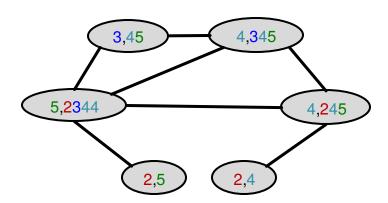
Aggregated colors





Hash aggregated colors

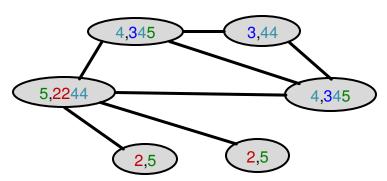


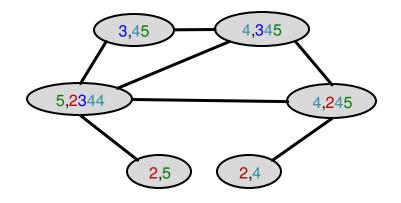


# Color Refinement (4)

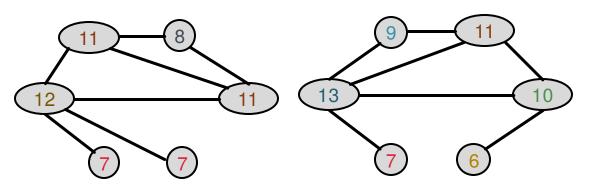
#### Example of color refinement given two graphs

Aggregated colors





Hash aggregated colors

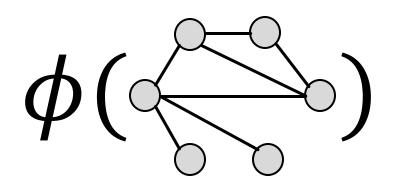


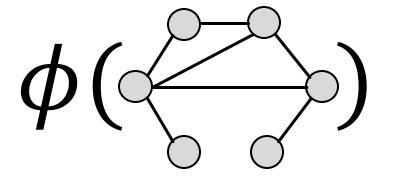
#### Hash table

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

### Weisfeiler-Lehman Graph Features

After color refinement, WL kernel counts number of nodes with a given color.





$$1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13$$
  
=  $[6,2,1,2,1,1,1,0,1,1,1,0,1]$ 

### Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel

The WL kernel value is computed by the inner product of the color count vectors:

$$K(\stackrel{\checkmark}{\longleftrightarrow}, \stackrel{\checkmark}{\longleftrightarrow})^{T} \phi(\stackrel{\checkmark}{\longleftrightarrow})$$

$$= 49$$

### Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel

- WL kernel is computationally efficient
  - The time complexity for color refinement at each step is linear in #(edges), since it involves aggregating neighboring colors.
- When computing a kernel value, only colors appeared in the two graphs need to be tracked.
  - Thus, #(colors) is at most the total number of nodes.
- Counting colors takes linear-time w.r.t. #(nodes).
- In total, time complexity is linear in #(edges).

## Graph-Level Features: Summary

#### Graphlet Kernel

- Graph is represented as Bag-of-graphlets
- Computationally expensive
- Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel
  - Apply K-step color refinement algorithm to enrich node colors
    - Different colors capture different K-hop neighborhood structures
  - Graph is represented as Bag-of-colors
  - Computationally efficient
  - Closely related to Graph Neural Networks (as we will see!)

### Summary

- Traditional ML Pipeline
  - Hand-crafted feature + ML model
- Hand-crafted features for graph data
  - Node-level:
    - Node degree, centrality, clustering coefficient, graphlets
  - Link-level:
    - Distance-based feature
    - local/global neighborhood overlap
  - Graph-level:
    - Graphlet kernel, WL kernel