

# 2. Traditional Methods for Machine Learning in Graphs

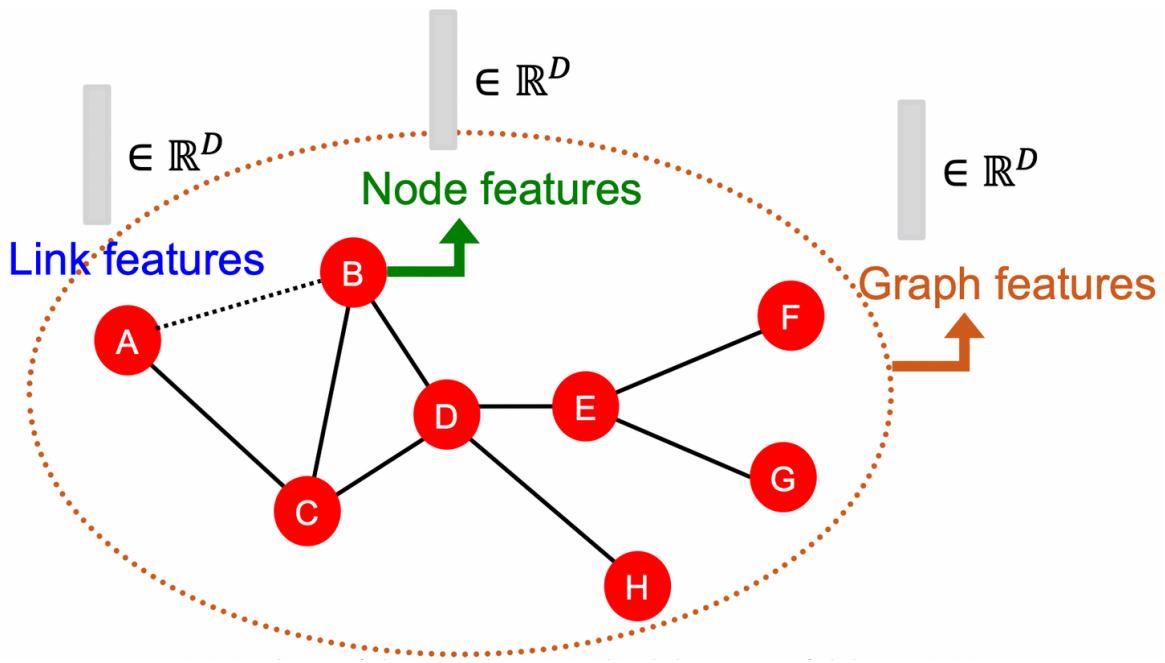
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3IS7UhNMQ3U>

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## 1. Traditional Node-Level Tasks and Features

Traditional ML Pipeline is about designing proper features!



- Traditional ML : hadn-designed features을 이용
- Design features for nodes/links/graphs ⇒ 효과적인 feature representation 을 찾는 것이 performance ↑

1. structural feature(ex. positional...) → Graph-level prediction
2. attributes and properties of node → Node / Link level prediction

## 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?(풀고자 하는 문제에 따라 다름)

### Example: Node-level prediction

- Given:  $G = (V, E)$
- Learn a function:  $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

## How do we learn the function?

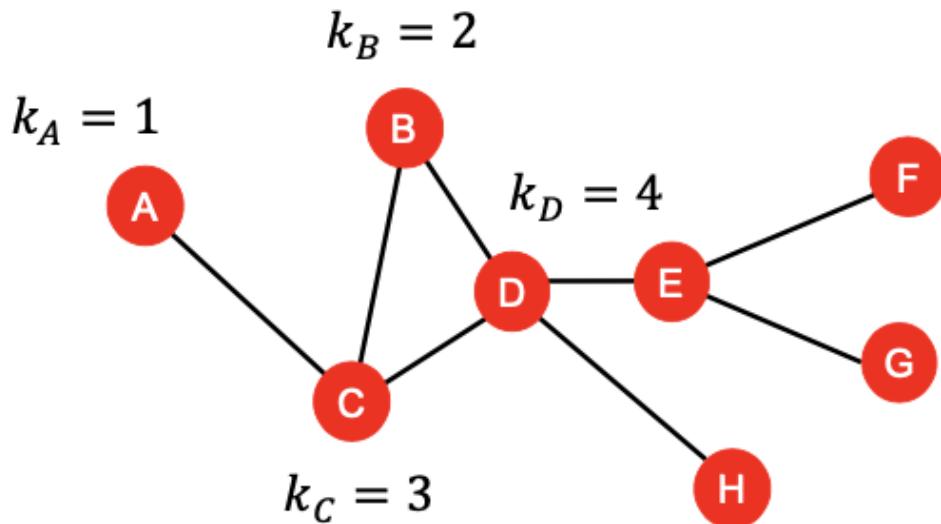
### Node-level Tasks and Features

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

- Node degree
- Node centrality
- Clustering coefficient
- Graphlets

## 1. 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 degree counts the neighboring nodes **without capturing their importance**.
- **Node centrality**  $c_v$  takes the **node importance in a graph** into account

## 2. Node Centrality

- 노드 v의 이웃 노드의 centrality의 합이 크면 importance ↑
- Node Centrality  $c_v$  : 그래프에서 노드가 얼마나 중요한지 고려
- Different ways to model importance
  - Eigenvector centrality
  - Betweenness centrality

- Closeness centrality
- and many others..

## 2.1 Eigenvector centrality

### ■ 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?**

Q) 여기서 centrality는 무엇인가(어떤 값인가)? 결정되지 않은 값인가?

A) Eigenvalue-eigenvector 방정식을 푼다 = 고유값 분해를 통해서 고유값  $\lambda$ 와 고유벡터  $v$ 를 동시에 구해야하는 연립방정식인 “eigenvalue problem”을 해결하는 것으로  $\rightarrow \lambda$ 와  $v$ 가 동시에 결정됨.

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

$\lambda$  is some positive constant

$$\lambda c = Ac$$

- $A$ : Adjacency matrix  
 $A_{uv} = 1$  if  $u \in N(v)$
- $c$ : Centrality vector

- node  $v$ 는 중요한 이웃 node들로 둘러쌓여 있을 때 그 중요성이 크다할 수 있다.

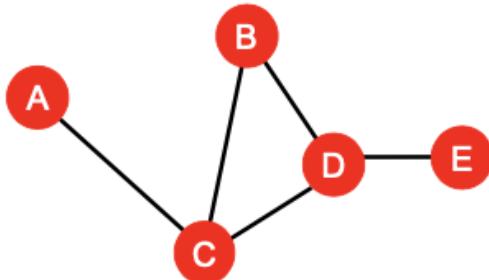
- 따라서 node  $v$ 의 centrality를 이웃 노드들의 centrality의 합으로 정의한다.
- 위 식은 recursive equation이며 matrix 형태로 변환할 수 있다.
- $A$ 는 node들 간의 관계를 나타내는 인접행렬이며  $c$ 는 Centrality vector이므로  $c$ 가 eigenvector임을 알 수 있다.
- The eigenvector  $C_{max}$  corresponding to  $\lambda_{max}$  is used for centrality.

## 2.2 Betweenness centrality

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

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

### ■ Example:



$$\begin{aligned} c_A &= c_B = c_E = 0 \\ c_C &= 3 \\ (\text{A-C-B, A-C-D, A-C-D-E}) \\ c_D &= 3 \\ (\text{A-C-D-E, B-D-E, C-D-E}) \end{aligned}$$

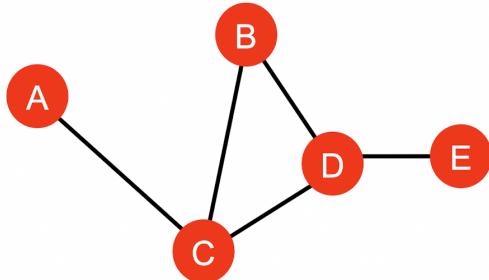
- 어떤 node가 다른 node들의 shortest path를 연결해주는 정점다리 역할을 한다면 중요성이 크다고 할 수 있다.
- node  $s$ 와  $t$ 를 잇는 모든 shortest path중 node  $v$ 를 거치는 경우의 비율을  $c_v$ 로 정의한다.

## 2.3 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)

- 다른 node들과의 거리가 짧을 경우 그 node는 중요성이 크다고 볼 수 있다.
- 모든 node로 가는 shortest path의 길이의 역수로  $c_v$ 를 정의한다.

### 3. Clustering Coefficient

- Measures how connected  $v$ 's neighboring nodes are:

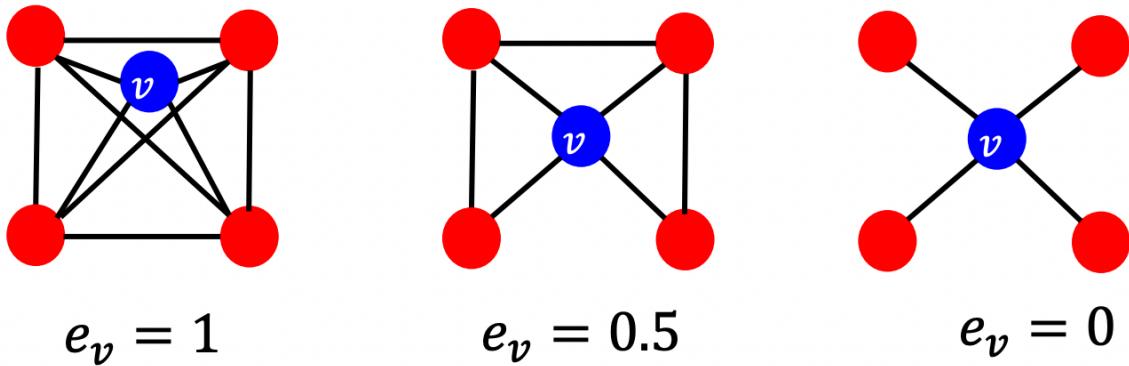
$$e_v = \frac{\#(\text{edges among neighboring nodes})}{\binom{k_v}{2}} \in [0,1]$$

$\#(\text{node pairs among } k_v \text{ neighboring nodes})$

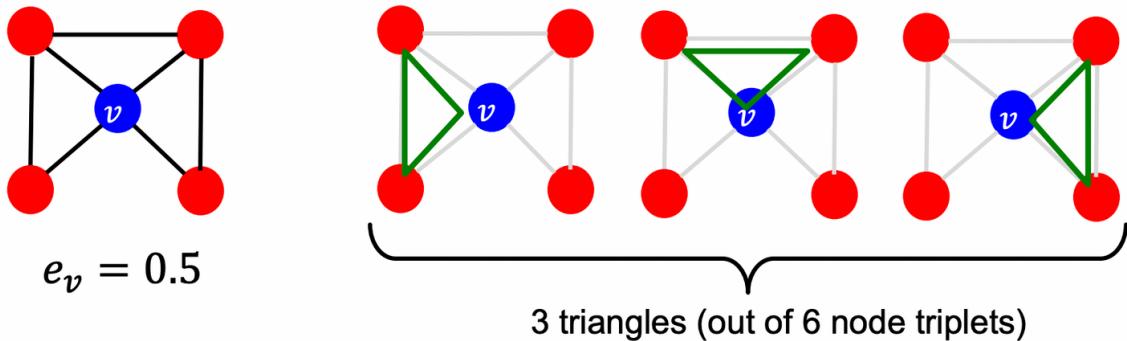
→ 연결 가능한 노드 중에서 실제로 몇개가 연결되어 있는가?

0 : 하나도 연결 x, 1 : 연결 가능한 모든 노드를 연결

- 이웃 node들 간의 연결성을 나타내는 계수로 그 값이 높을수록 clustering되어 있다고 볼 수 있음



**Observation** : Clustering coefficient counts the # (triangles) in the ego-network  
 ego-network = 노드  $v$  와 그 주변 노드를 의미 = neighborhood network around a given node

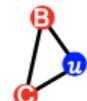


We can generalize the above by counting #(pre-specified subgraphs, i.e., **graphlets**).

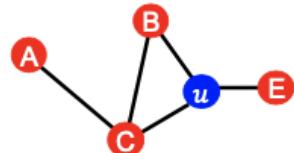
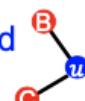
# Induced Subgraph & Isomorphism

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

Induced subgraph:

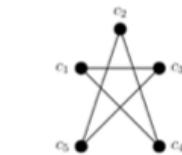
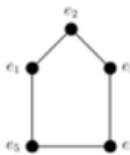


Not induced subgraph:



- Def: Graph Isomorphism

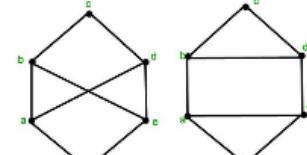
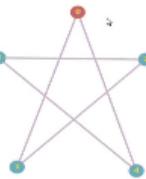
- Two graphs which contain the same number of nodes connected in the same way are said to be isomorphic.



Isomorphic

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

Source: Mathoverflow



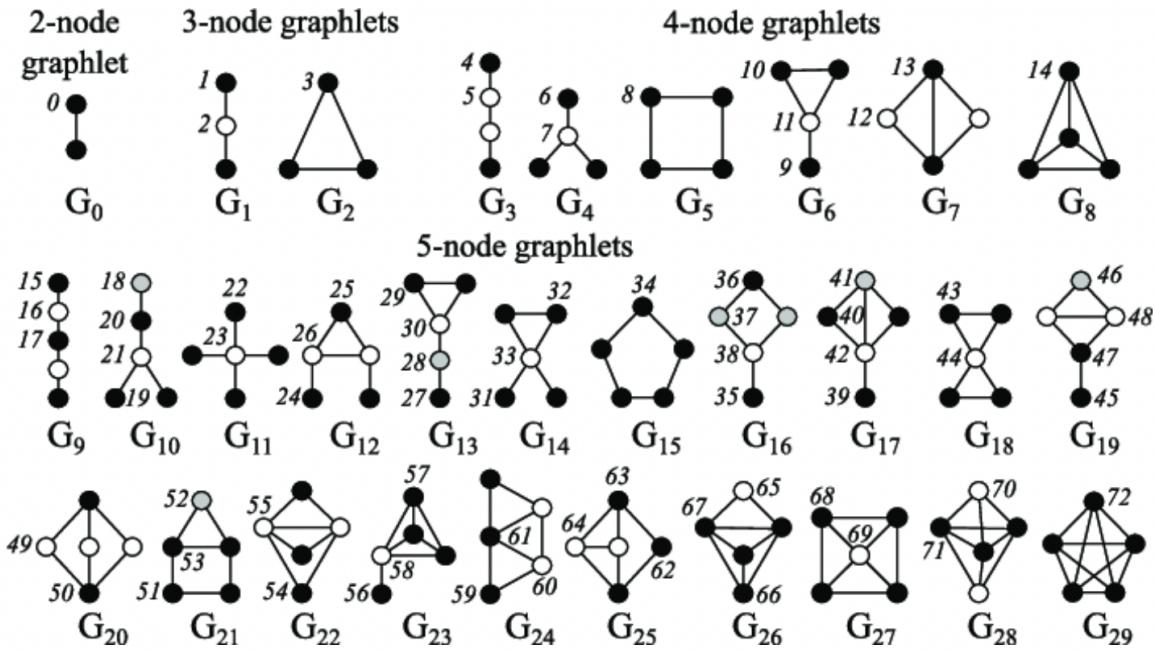
Non-Isomorphic

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

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## 4. Graphlets

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



+ ) 3-node graphlets에서 1번 노드  $\neq$  2번 노드지만, 1번 노드는 2번 아래에 있는 노드와는 (회전하면) 같은 노드로 볼 수 있다. → 1번과 2번은 *non-isomorphic*, 1번과 2번 아래의 노드는 *isomorphic*하다고 할 수 있다.

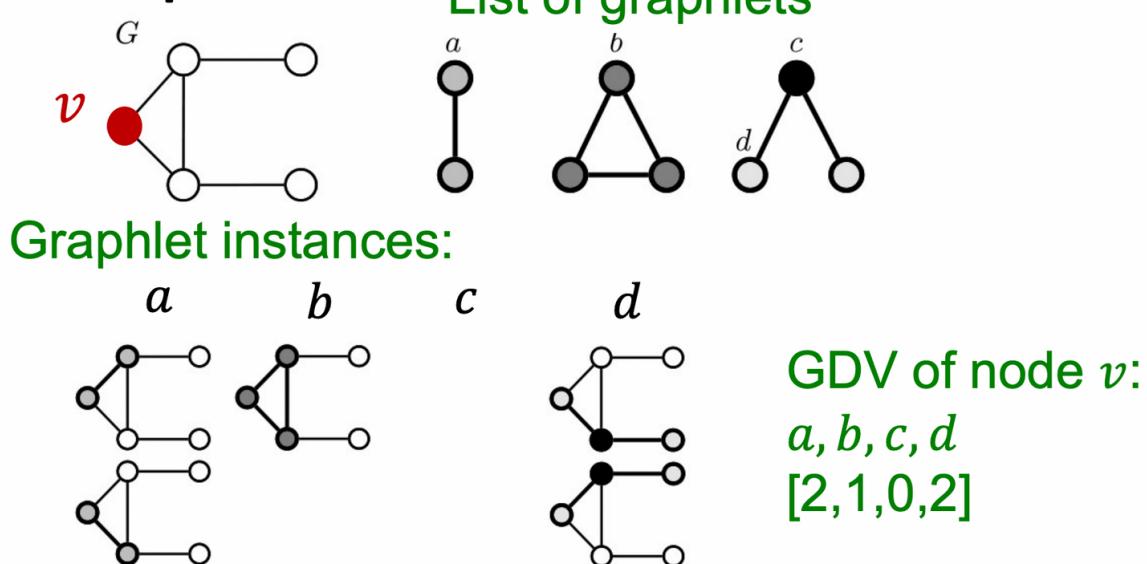
Considering graphlets on **2 to 5** (노드 2개짜리 ~ 5개짜리 graphlet) nodes we get :

- **Vector of 73 coordinates** is a signature of a node that describes the topology of node's neighborhood → 총 73개의 서로 다른 graphlet이 존재할 수 있음 → graphlet 이 노드 이웃의 위상 구조 설명
- Captures its interconnectivities out to a distance of **4 hops** → 5개짜리 graphlet은 노드  $v$ 로부터 4hop 떨어진 ( $length = 4$ ) path가 몇개 있는지 count하는 것!
- 두개 노드를 가지고 비교하는 node degrees or clustering coefficient 보다 **더 자세한 local topological similarity를 측정 가능!**

### Graphlet Degree Vector(GDV)

: A count vector of graphlets rooted at a given node

## ■ Example:



- non-isomorphic subgraphs로 주어진 node를 특징화 할 수 있다.
- Graphlet Degree Vector(GDV)는 node의 지역적 위상을 측정해주는 척도로 두 node의 비교는 그 node의 주변이 얼마나 비슷한지를 나타낸다.
- node *v*를 root로 할 때 *a,b,c,d*가 root인 subgraph와 동일한 모양을 가지는 경우의 수를 벡터 형태로 담아 GDV를 나타낸다.

## Summary

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

- **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
  
- **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.

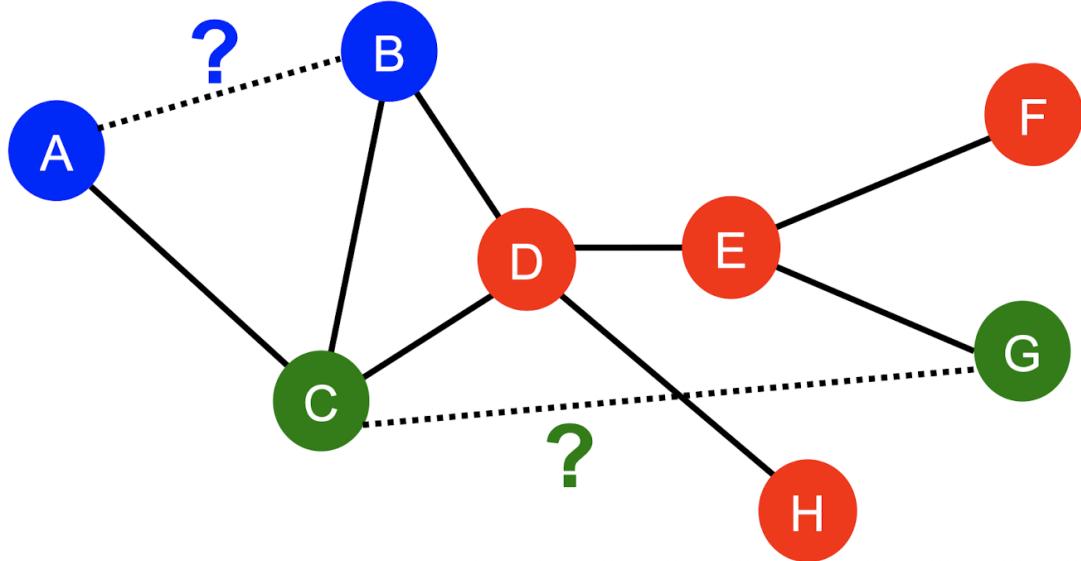
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## 2. Traditional Link Prediction Task and Features

### 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.**



단순히 노드 pair의 feature를 concat해서 train하는 방법은 좋지 X → 두 노드 사이 관계에서 중요한 정보를 잃을 수 있음.

Two formulations of the link prediction task:

### 1. Links missing at random: 랜덤하게 제거한 링크를 예측

- Remove a random set of links and then aim to predict them
- static network 예측에 유리
  - ex) protein-protein interaction network

### 2. Links over time: 시간에 따라 예측

- Given :  $G[t_0, t'0]$  a graph on edges up to time  $t'0$  ( $t_0$  와  $t'0$  사이에 발생한 노드)
- output : a **ranked list L** of links (not in  $G[t_0, t'0]$ ) that are predicted to appear in  $G[t_1, t'1]$  (다음 step  $t_1 \sim t'1$ 에 발생할 노드의 랭킹을 예측)
- Evaluation (학습 방법) :
  - $n = |E_{new}|$  : # new edges that appear during the test period  $[t_1, t'1]$
  - L에서 top n 개의 edge를 예측 → 실제로 발생한 edge와 비교하여 count correct edges
- 시간에 따라 evolve하는 네트워크 예측에 유리

- ex) social media network, citation network ...

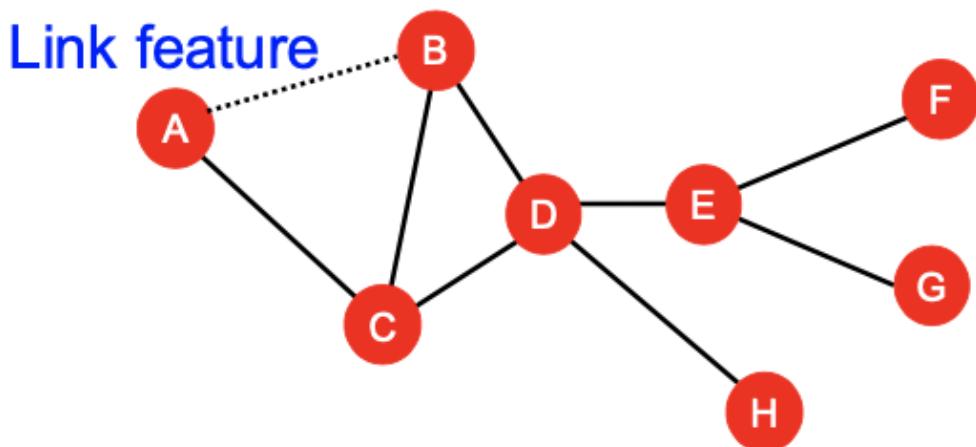
## ■ Evaluation:

- $n = |E_{new}|$ : # new edges that appear during the test period  $[t_1, t'_1]$
- Take top  $n$  elements of  $L$  and count correct edges

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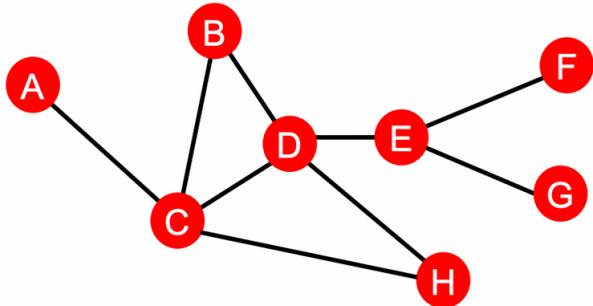
## Link-Level Features : Overview

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



### 2.1 Distance-Based Features

- Shortest-path distance between two nodes



$$S_{BH} = S_{BE} = S_{AB} = 2$$

$$S_{BG} = S_{BF} = 3$$

- However, this does not capture the degree of neighborhood overlap:
  - 예를 들어, Node pair (B, H) 는  $B \rightarrow D \rightarrow H$ ,  $B \rightarrow C \rightarrow H$  두 종류의 최단경로를 가짐
  - pairs (B, E) and (A, B) 같은 경우에는 1 개의 최단경로를 가짐
  - 하지만 이 둘을 똑같이 취급함.  $\Rightarrow$  Strength of connection를 capture하기 위해서 2.2가 등장

## 2.2 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:  $|N(A) \cap N(B)| = |\{C\}| = 1$

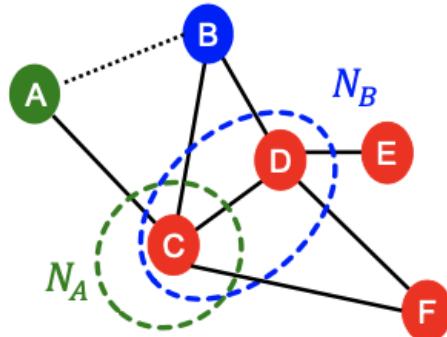
■ **Jaccard's coefficient:**  $\frac{|N(v_1) \cap N(v_2)|}{|N(v_1) \cup N(v_2)|}$

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

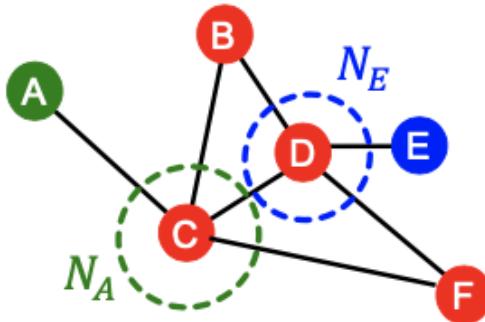
■ **Adamic-Adar index:**

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

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



- Limitation of local neighborhood features:
  - Metric is always zero if the two nodes do not have any neighbors in common
  - However, the two nodes may still potentially be connected in the future.
  - 이러한 한계를 보완하기 위해 2.3이 등장



$$N_A \cap N_E = \emptyset$$

$$|N_A \cap N_E| = 0$$

- **Global neighborhood overlap** metrics resolve the limitation by considering the entire graph

## 2.3 Global Neighborhood Overlap

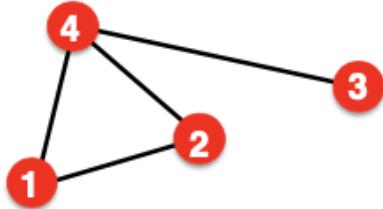
- **Katz index** : count the number of walks of all lengths between a given pair of nodes.

💡 How to compute #paths between two nodes?

⇒ Use **powers** of the `graph adjacency matrix` !

- Computing #walks between two nodes

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



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

### ■ How to compute $P_{uv}^{(2)}$ ?

- Step 1: Compute #walks of length 1 between each of  $u$ 's neighbor and  $v$
- Step 2: Sum up these #walks across  $u$ 's neighbors
- $P_{uv}^{(2)} = \sum_i A_{ui} * P_{iv}^{(1)} = \sum_i A_{ui} * A_{iv} = A_{uv}^2$

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

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

Power of adjacency

- 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  $l$** .

- **Katz index** between  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  is calculated as

**Sum over all walk lengths**

$$S_{v_1 v_2} = \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \boxed{\beta^l} \boxed{A_{v_1 v_2}^l} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{#walks of length } l \\ \text{between } v_1 \text{ and } v_2 \end{array}$$

$0 < \beta < 1$ : discount factor

- Katz index matrix is computed in closed-form:

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \beta^i A^i = \underbrace{(\mathbf{I} - \beta \mathbf{A})^{-1}}_{= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \beta^i \mathbf{A}^i} - \mathbf{I}, \\ &\qquad\qquad\qquad \text{by geometric series of matrices} \end{aligned}$$

- discount factor  $\beta$  = length에 따라 exponentially 감소하면서 longer path에 더 낮은 importance를 부여하게 된다.

## Summary

- Distance-based features:
  - Uses the shortest path length between two nodes but does not capture how neighborhood overlaps.
- Local neighborhood overlap:

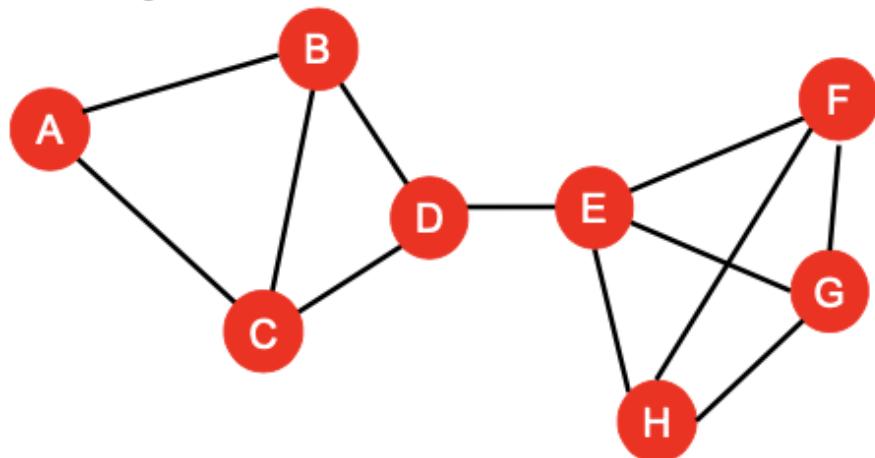
- Captures how many neighboring nodes are shared by two nodes.
- Becomes zero when no neighbor nodes are shared.
- Global neighborhood overlap:
  - Uses global graph structure to score two nodes.
  - Katz index counts #walks of all lengths between two nodes.

### 3. Traditional Graph-Level Features and Graph Kernels

#### Graph-Level Features

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

#### ■ For example:



#### Background : Kernel Methods

- **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  $\mathbf{K} = (K(G, G'))_{G, G'}$ , 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
  - Weisfeiler-Lehman Kernel
  - Other kernels are also proposed in the literature(beyond the scope of this lecture)
    - Random-walk kernel
    - Shortest-path graph kernel
    - And many more...

## 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).
  - Naive 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...

$$\phi(\text{graph 1}) = \phi(\text{graph 2})$$

## What if we use Bag of node degrees?

Deg1: ● Deg2: ● Deg3: ●

$$\phi(\text{graph 1}) = \text{count}(\text{graph 1}) = [1, 2, 1]$$

Obtains different features  
for different graphs!

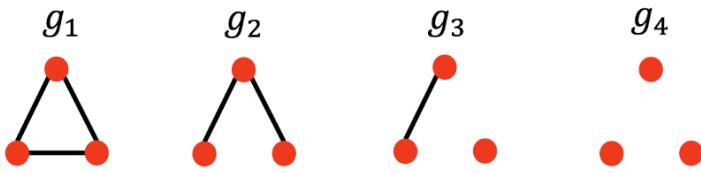
$$\phi(\text{graph 2}) = \text{count}(\text{graph 2}) = [0, 2, 2]$$

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

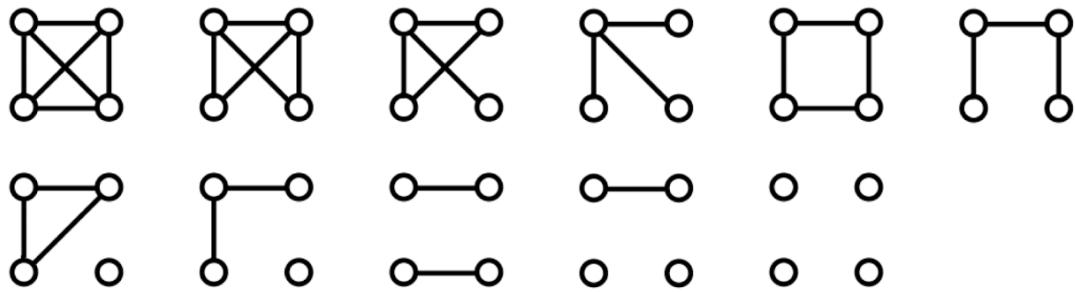
## Graphlet Features

- Key idea** : Count the number of different graphlets in a graph.
  - 💡 Note: node-level features에서 배운 graphlets 정의와 다르다 !
  - The two differences are:
    - Nodes in graphlets here do **not need to be connected**(allows for isolated nodes)
    - The graphlets here are not rooted.

- For  $k = 3$ , there are 4 graphlets.



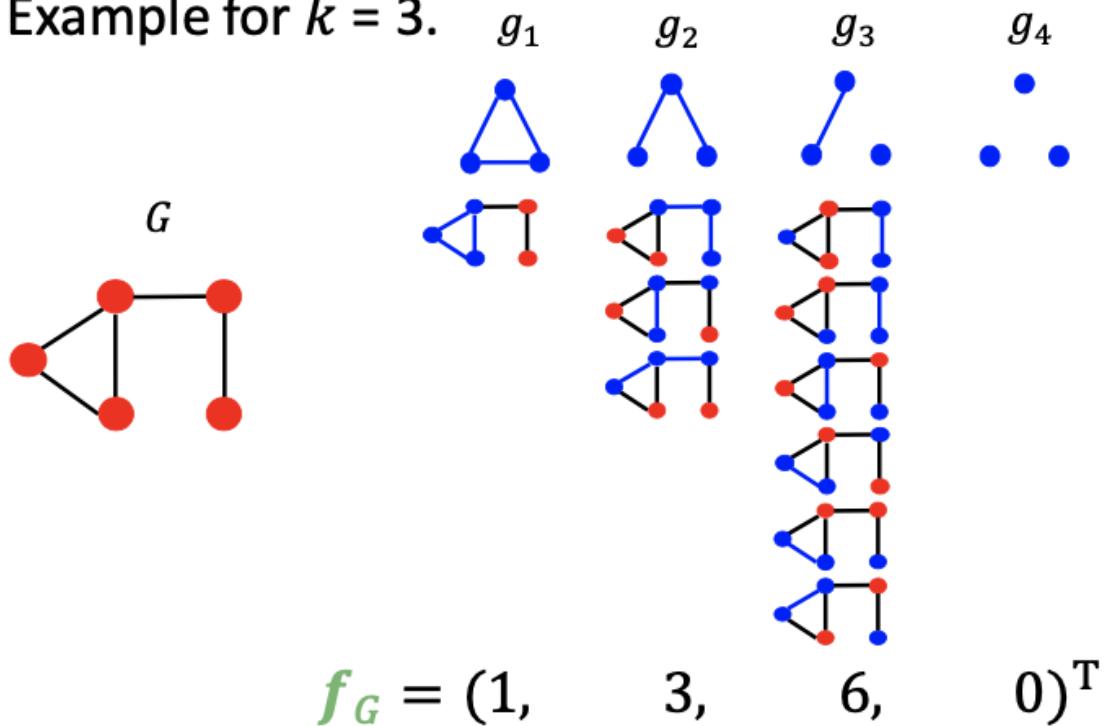
- For  $k = 4$ , there are 11 graphlets.



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

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

- Example for  $k = 3$ .



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

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

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

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

**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.
  - Bag of node degrees를 one-hop ~ multi-hop으로 일반화 한 것!
  - Algorithm to achieve this: **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

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

where **HASH** maps different inputs to different colors.

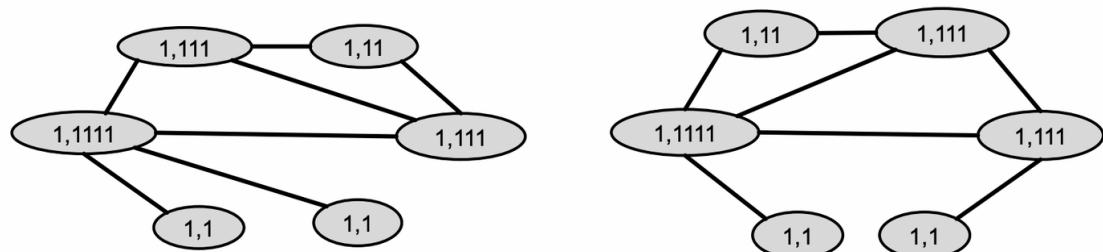
- After  $K$  steps of color refinement,  $c^{(K)}(v)$  summarizes the structure of  $K$ -hop neighborhood

### Example of color refinement given two graphs

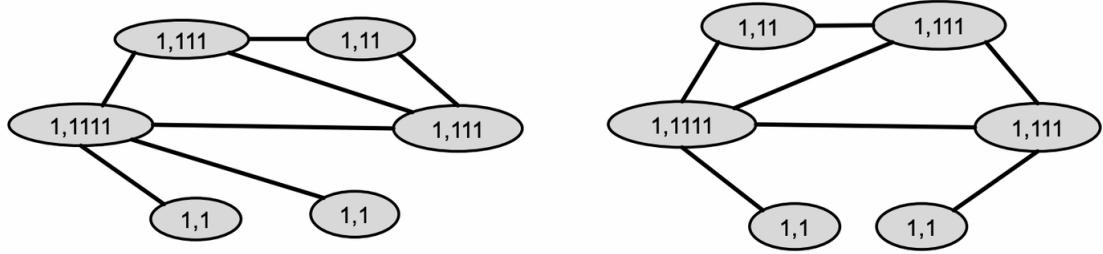
1. Assign initial colors



2. Aggregate neighboring colors



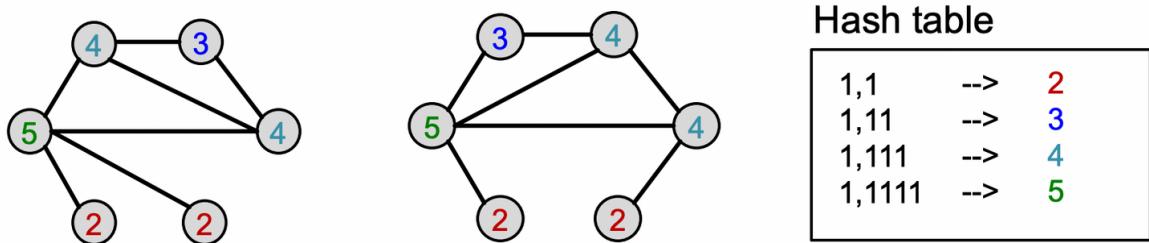
3. Aggregated colors



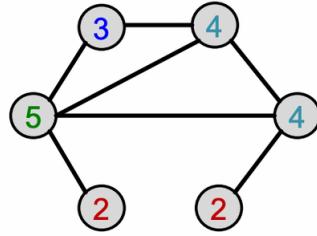
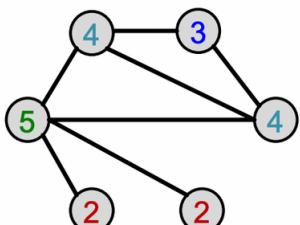
#### 4. Hash aggregated colors

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

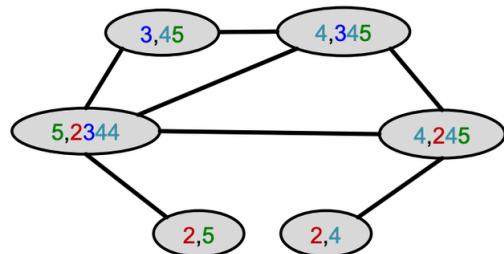
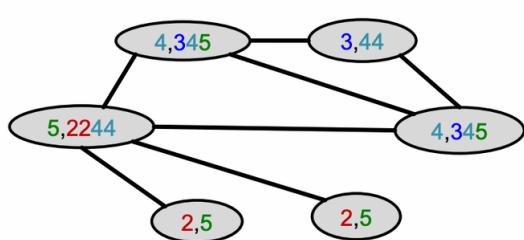
where **HASH** maps different inputs to different colors.



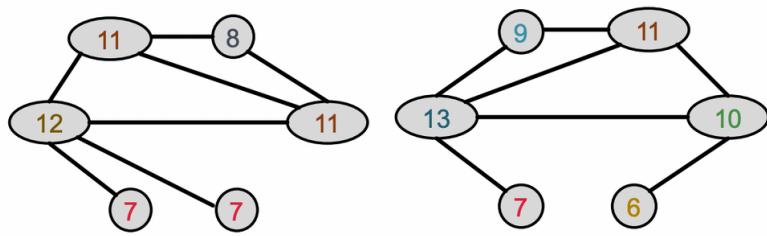
- Aggregated colors



- Hash aggregated colors



- Hash aggregated colors



Hash table

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

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

$$\phi(\text{graph}) = \begin{matrix} \text{Colors} \\ [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13] \\ \text{Counts} \end{matrix}$$

= [6, 2, 1, 2, 1, 0, 2, 1, 0, 0, 0, 2, 1]

2, 1, 0

$$\phi(\text{graph}) = \begin{matrix} \text{Colors} \\ [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13] \\ \text{Counts} \end{matrix}$$

= [6, 2, 1, 2, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1]

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

$$K(\text{graph}, \text{graph}) = \phi(\text{graph})^T \phi(\text{graph}) = 49$$

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

## Summary

- 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
- 

## Today's Summary

- **Traditional ML Pipeline**
  - Hand-crafted feature + ML model
- **Hand-crafted features for graph data**
  - Node-level:
    - Node degree, Node centrality, clustering coefficient, graphlets
  - Link-level:

- Distance-based feature
  - local/global neighborhood overlap
  - Graph-level:
    - Graphlet kernel, WL kernel
- 

## References

<https://velog.io/@helloimyj/CS224W-Lec02>

<https://velog.io/@kimkj38/CS224W-Lecture2-1-Traditional-Feature-based-Methods-Node>