FINAL PROJECT FOR THE COURSE ADVANCED FOUNDATIONS OF MACHINE LEARNING: ONLINE LEARNING OVER GRAPHS*

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1 Introduction to Graph

1.1 Concepts and Definitions

We first summarise some key concepts of graph theory, for more detailed knowledge, we refer to Bapat (2014). A **simple graph**, that is, graph without loops and parallel edges, G(V, E) consists of a finite set of **vertices** V(G) and a set of **edges** E(G) consisting of distinct, unordered pairs of vertices. $V(G) = \{v_1, v_2, \cdots, v_n\}$ is called the vertex set with $n = |V(G|, E(G) = \{e_{ij}\})$ is called the edge set with m = |E(G)|. An edge e_{ij} connects vertices v_i and v_j if they are **adjacent** or neighbours, which is denoted by $v_i \sim v_j$. The number of neighbours of a vertex v is called the **degree** of v and is denoted by d(v), therefore, for each vertex, $d(v_i) = \sum_{v_i \sim v_j} e_{ij}$. If all the vertices of a graph have the same degree, the graph is **regular**, the vertices of an **Eulerian Graph** have even degree. A graph is **complete** if there is an edge between every pair of vertices.

 $H\left(G\right)$ is a $\boldsymbol{sub-graph}$ of G if $V(H)\subseteq V(G)$ and $E(H)\subseteq E(G)$. A sub-graph $H\left(G\right)$ is an $\boldsymbol{induced}$ $\boldsymbol{sub-graph}$ of G if two vertices of V(H) are adjacent if and only if they are adjacent in G. A \boldsymbol{clique} is a complete sub-graph of a graph. A \boldsymbol{path} of k vertices is a sequence of k distinct vertices such that consecutive vertices are adjacent. A \boldsymbol{cycle} is a connected sub-graph where every vertex has exactly two neighbours. A graph containing no cycles is a \boldsymbol{forest} . A connected forest is a \boldsymbol{tree} .

We define incidence matrix of graph. Let G(V, E) be a graph with $V(G) = \{v_1, v_2, \cdots, v_n\}$ and $E(G) = \{e_1, e_2, \cdots, e_m\}$. Suppose each edge of G(V, E) is assigned an orientation, which is arbitrary but fixed. The vertex-edge *incidence matrix* of G(V, E), denoted by Q(G), is the $n \times m$ matrix defined as follows. The rows and the columns of Q(G) are indexed by V(G) and E(G), respectively. The (i, j) entry of Q(G) is 0 if vertex i and edge e_j are not incident, and otherwise it is -1 or 1 according as e_j originates or terminates at i, respectively. For instance, the incidence matrix Q(G) of the graph that is shown in figure 1.1 is

$$\mathbf{Q}(G) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} . \tag{I.1}$$

We introduce adjacency matrix of graph. Let G(V, E) be a graph with $V(G) = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ and $E(G) = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m\}$. The **adjacency matrix** of G(V, E), denoted by A(G), is the $n \times n$ matrix defined as follows. The rows and the columns of A(G) are indexed by V(G). If $i \neq j$ then the (i, j) entry of A(G) is 0 for vertices i and j non-adjacent, and the (i, j) entry is 1 for i and j adjacent. The (i, j) entry of A(G) is 0 for $i = j = 1, \dots, n$. For instance, the adjacency matrix A(G) of the graph that is shown in

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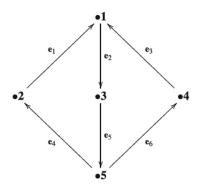


Figure 1.1: Example of Incidence Matrix of Graph

figure 1.2 is

$$\mathbf{A}(G) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} . \tag{I.2}$$

Clearly A is a symmetric matrix with zeros on the diagonal. The (i, j) entry of A^k is the number of walks of length k from i to j.



Figure 1.2: Example of Incidence Matrix of Graph

We define degree matrix of graph. Let G(V, E) be a graph with $V(G) = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ and $E(G) = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m\}$. The **degree matrix** D(G) for G(V, E) is a $n \times n$ diagonal matrix defined as

$$D\left(G\right)_{i,j} \coloneqq \begin{cases} d\left(v_{i}\right) & \text{if } i = j\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

According to this definition, the degree matrix of figure 1.2 is

$$\mathbf{A}(G) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} . \tag{I.3}$$

Weighted graph G(V, E, W) is a graph with real edge weights given by $w: E \to \mathbb{R}$. Here, the weight w(e) of an edge e indicates the similarity of the incident vertices, and a missing edge corresponds to zero similarity. The **weighted adjacency matrix** W(G) of the graph G(V, E, W) is defined by

$$\boldsymbol{W}_{ij} := \begin{cases} w(e) & \text{if } e = (i, j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 (1.4)

The weight matrix W(G) can be, for instance, the k-nearest neighbour matrix $W(G)_{ij} = 1$ if and only if vertex v_i is among the k-nearest neighbours of v_j or vice versa, and is 0 otherwise. Another typical weight matrix is given by the Gaussian kernel of width σ

$$W(G)_{ij} = e^{-\frac{\|v_i - v_j\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}.$$
 (1.5)

Then the **degree** matrix for weighted graph D(G) is defined by

$$D(G)_{i,i} := \sum_{j} W(G)_{ij} \tag{1.6}$$

The graph Laplacian L(G) is defined in two different ways. The normalized graph Laplacian is

$$L(G) := I - D^{-\frac{1}{2}}WD^{-\frac{1}{2}}, \tag{1.7}$$

and the $unnormalized\ graph\ Laplacian$ is

$$L(G) := D - W. \tag{1.8}$$

Let us consider an example to understand the graph Laplacian of the graph that is shown in figure 1.3. Suppose $f:V\to\mathbb{R}$ is a real-valued function on the set of the vertices of graph G(V,E) such that it

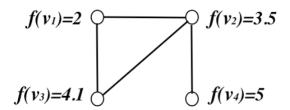


Figure 1.3: Real-Valued Functions on a Graph

assigns a real number to each graph vertex. Therefore, $\mathbf{f} = (f(v_1), f(v_2), \dots, f(v_n))^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a vector indexed by the vertices of graph. Its adjacency matrix is

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \tag{1.9}$$

Hence, the eigenvectors of the adjacency matrix, $Ax = \lambda x$, can be viewed as eigenfunctions $Af = \lambda f$. The adjacency matrix can be viewed as an operator

$$g = Af$$

$$g(i) = \sum_{i \sim j} f(j),$$
(1.10)

and it can also be viewed as a quadratic form

$$\boldsymbol{f}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{f} = \sum_{e_{ij}} f\left(i\right) f\left(j\right). \tag{I.11}$$

Assume that each edge in the graph have an arbitrary but fixed orientation, which is shown in figure 1.4.

Then the incidence matrix of the graph is

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} . \tag{1.12}$$

Therefore the co-boundary mapping of the graph $f \to Qf$ implies $(Qf)(e_{ij}) = f(v_j) - f(v_i)$ is

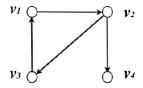


Figure 1.4: Orientation of the Graph

$$\begin{bmatrix} f(2) - f(1) \\ f(1) - f(3) \\ f(3) - f(2) \\ f(4) - f(2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f(1) \\ f(2) \\ f(3) \\ f(4) \end{bmatrix} . \tag{I.13}$$

If we let

$$\boldsymbol{L} = \boldsymbol{Q}^T \boldsymbol{Q},\tag{1.14}$$

then we have

$$(\boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{f})(v_i) = \sum_{v_i \sim v_j} [f(v_i) - f(v_j)]. \tag{1.15}$$

Hence, the connection between the Laplacian and the adjacency matrices is

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \tag{1.16}$$

where the degree matrix D is

$$\boldsymbol{D} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \tag{1.17}$$

If we consider undirected weighted graphs, which is each edge e_{ij} is weighted by w_{ij} , then the Laplacian as an operator is

$$(\mathbf{L}\mathbf{f})(v_i) = \sum_{v_i \sim v_j} w_{ij} \left[f(v_i) - f(v_j) \right]. \tag{1.18}$$

Its quadratic form is

$$\mathbf{f}^{T} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{f} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{e_{ij}} w_{ij} \left[f(v_i) - f(v_j) \right]^2.$$
 (1.19)

The intuition behind a Laplacian matrix is the following. If, for instance, we apply the Laplacian operator of formula 1.16 to the real-valued functions $\mathbf{f} = (f(v_1), f(v_2), f(v_3), f(v_4))^T$ of the set of the vertices of

graph G(V, E), we have

$$(\mathbf{L}\mathbf{f})(v_i) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f(v_1) \\ f(v_2) \\ f(v_3) \\ f(v_4) \end{bmatrix}.$$
(I.20)

For simplicity, let us only look at the first element

$$(Lf)(v_{i})_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f(v_{1}) \\ f(v_{2}) \\ f(v_{3}) \\ f(v_{4}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 2f(v_{1}) - f(v_{2}) - f(v_{3})$$

$$= -[f(v_{2}) - 2f(v_{1}) + f(v_{3})]$$

$$= -[f(v_{2}) - f(v_{1}) - f(v_{1}) + f(v_{3})]$$
(1.21)

If we label $f(v_1) = f_k$, $f(v_2) = f_{k+1}$, and $f(v_3) = f_{k-1}$, then we have

$$(\mathbf{L}\mathbf{f})(v_i)_1 = -[f_{k+1} - 2f_k + f_{k-1}].$$
 (1.22)

We recall that the second order derivative can be approximated by

$$f''(x) = \frac{\frac{f(x+\Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} - \frac{f(x) - f(x-\Delta x)}{\Delta x}}{\Delta x}$$

$$= \frac{f(x+\Delta x) - 2f(x) + f(x-\Delta x)}{(\Delta x)^2}.$$
(1.23)

Hence, we observe that the graph Laplacian is the negative numerator of the finite difference approximation of the second derivative. The Laplacian matrix \boldsymbol{L} is symmetric and positive semi-definite, and it has n nonnegative, real-valued eigenvalues $0 = \lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \cdots \leq \lambda_n$. The number of 0 eigenvalues of the Laplacian matrix \boldsymbol{L} is the number of connected components, because each connected component forms a block in the Laplacian matrix that only has edges within itself, and each block is the Laplacian for a small connected component and it has one zero eigenvalue, so the number of zeros is the number of blocks is the number of connected components.

1.2 Basic Idea for Semi-Supervised Learning over Graphs

The common denominator of semi-supervised learning algorithms over graphs is that the data are represented by the vertices of a graph, the edges of which are labelled with the pairwise distances of the incident vertices, and a missing edge corresponds to infinite distance. Most graph methods refer to the graph by utilizing the graph Laplacian.

Given the graph G(V, E, W), a simple idea for semi-supervised learning label propagation is to propagate labels on the graph. Starting with vertices $1, 2, \cdots, l$ labelled l with their known label l or -1 and nodes $l+1, \cdots, n$ labelled with 0, each vertex starts to propagate its label to its neighbours, and the process is repeated until convergence. Bengio, Delalleau and Roux (2006) proposed a label propagation scheme based on the Jacobi iterative method for linear systems. Estimated labels on both labelled and unlabelled data are denoted by $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = (\hat{\mathbf{Y}}_l, \hat{\mathbf{Y}}_u)$, where where $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}_l$ may be allowed to differ from the given labels $\mathbf{Y}_l = (y_1, y_2, \cdots, y_l)$. It uses an additional regularization term ϵ for better numerical stability, which is shown in algorithm 1.1.

Zhou et al. (2004) proposed a similar label propagation algorithm, see algorithm 1.2, that uses graph Laplacian. At each step a vertex i receives a contribution from its neighbours j and an additional small

Algorithm 1.1 Jacobi Iterative Label Propagation Algorithm

Compute weight matrix W from formula 1.5 such that $W_{ii} = 0$ Compute the diagonal degree matrix D by $D_{ii} = \sum_{j} W_{ij}$ Choose a parameter $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ and a small $\epsilon > 0$ Compute the diagonal matrix \boldsymbol{A} by $\boldsymbol{A}_{ii} = \boldsymbol{I}_l(i) + \mu \boldsymbol{D}_{ii} + \mu \epsilon$ Initialize $\hat{\boldsymbol{Y}}^{(0)} = (y_1, y_2, \cdots, y_l, 0, 0, \cdots, 0)$

Iterate $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \left(\mu \mathbf{W} \hat{\mathbf{Y}}^{(t)} + \hat{\mathbf{Y}}^{(0)} \right)$

until convergence to $\hat{\boldsymbol{Y}}^{(\infty)}$

Label point v_i by the sign of $\hat{y}_i^{(\infty)}$

contribution given by its initial value.

Algorithm 1.2 Graph Laplacian Label Propagation Algorithm

Compute weight matrix W from formula 1.5 for $i \neq j$ and $W_{ii} = 0$

Compute the diagonal degree matrix $m{D}$ by $m{D}_{ii} = \sum_j m{W}_{ij}$

Compute the normalized graph Laplacian $L = D^{-\frac{1}{2}}WD^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ Initialize $\hat{\boldsymbol{Y}}^{(0)} = (y_1, y_2, \cdots, y_l, 0, 0, \cdots, 0)$ Choose a parameter $\alpha \in [0, 1]$

Iterate
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{Y}}^{(t+1)} = \alpha \boldsymbol{L} \hat{\boldsymbol{Y}}^{(t)} + (1 - \alpha) \hat{\boldsymbol{Y}}^{(0)}$$
until convergence to $\hat{\boldsymbol{Y}}^{(\infty)}$

Label point v_i by the sign of $\hat{y}_i^{(\infty)}$

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