

Lecture - 1 Notes

1. Fundamental Paradigm Shift

Standard machine learning (computer vision, NLP) often relies on the **i.i.d. assumption** (independent and identically distributed data). Graph ML rejects this. It models the dependencies between data points explicitly.

The central hypothesis of Graph ML is **Representation Learning**. Instead of manual feature engineering (like calculating node centrality by hand); we learn a mapping function f that encodes topological structure into a low-dimensional vector space.

$$f: u \rightarrow R^d$$

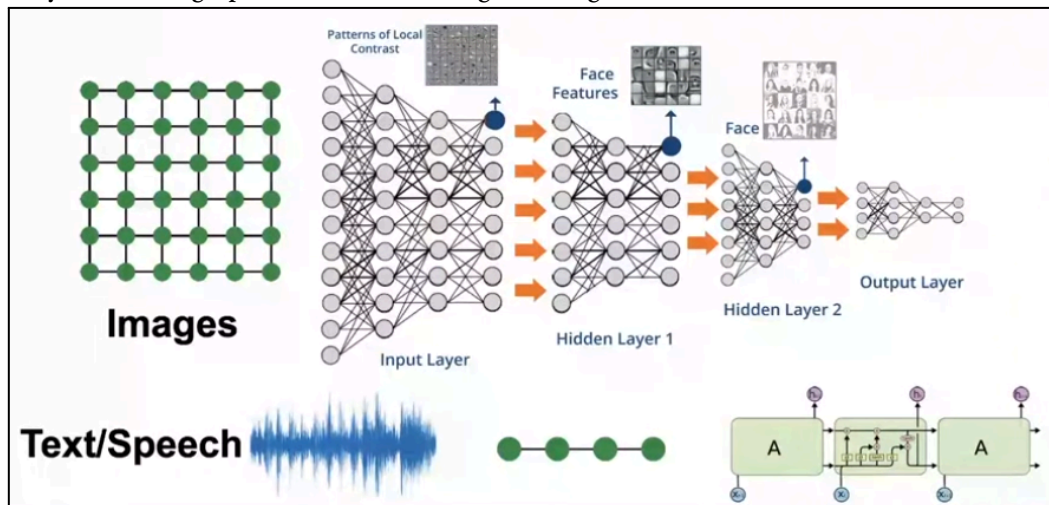
Optimization Goal: Map nodes u and v to embedding vectors z_u and z_v such that their geometric relationship in the embedding space approximates their structural relationship in the original graph.

$$\text{Similarity}(u, v) \approx z_u^T z_v$$

Generalization of Standard Deep Learning

Traditional neural architectures are actually special cases of Graph Neural Networks (GNNs):

- CNNs: Operate on **Grid Graphs**. Nodes are pixels and edges are fixed spatial adjacencies (up, down, left, right). The structure is regular and static.
- RNNs/Transformers: Operate on **Linear/Fully Connected Graphs**. Text is a sequence (linear graph) or a fully connected graph with attention weights as edge attributes



2. Task Taxonomy & Applications

To solve a graph problem, you must first classify it into one of four levels. The choice of level dictates the loss function and architecture.

1: Node-Level Tasks

Goal: Classify or regress a property of a single node u .

- Mechanism: The model aggregates information from the node's **neighborhood** (receptive field).
- Case Study: AlphaFold.
 - *Problem*: Predict 3D coordinates of atoms in a protein.
 - *Graph*: Nodes = Amino acids; Edges = Proximity (sequence-wise or spatial).
 - *Task*: Node regression (predicting coordinates).

2: Edge-Level Tasks

Goal: Link Prediction. Given nodes u and v , predict probability $P(A_{uv} = 1)$

- Mechanism: Often formulated as Matrix Completion. The model learns to fill in missing entries of the adjacency matrix.
- Case Study: Recommender Systems
 - *Graph*: Bipartite (Users U Items V) : these are the two types of nodes
 - *Task*: Predict edges between U and V
 - *Key Constraint*: Scalability. Standard GNNs struggle with massive graphs (Pinterest has $3B$ nodes/edges); requires efficient sampling
- Case Study: Polypharmacy
 - *Problem*: Drug-drug interaction side effects.
 - *Graph*: Bio-medical knowledge graph.
 - *Task*: Predict labeled edges ($Drug_A, Drug_B, type = Hepatotoxicity$)

3: Subgraph-Level Tasks

Goal: Clustering or Community Detection.

- Mechanism: Partitioning the graph G into subgraphs G_1, G_2, \dots based on edge density.
- Case Study: Traffic Prediction (DeepMind).
 - *Graph*: Road network
 - *Task*: Predict "Time of Arrival" by analyzing flow through a specific path (subgraph).

4: Graph-Level Tasks

Goal: Classify or generate an entire graph G .

- Mechanism: Pooling node embeddings into a global graph embedding z_G
- Case Study: Drug Discovery
 - *Graph*: Molecule (Nodes = Atoms, Edges = Bonds).
 - *Task*: Binary classification (Toxic / Non-toxic).
 - *Generative Task*: Generate valid molecular graphs that optimize a property (e.g., solubility)

3. Graph Theory Formalisms & Representation

This section covers the mathematical structures used to represent graphs computationally.

A graph is defined as $G = (N, E)$ where:

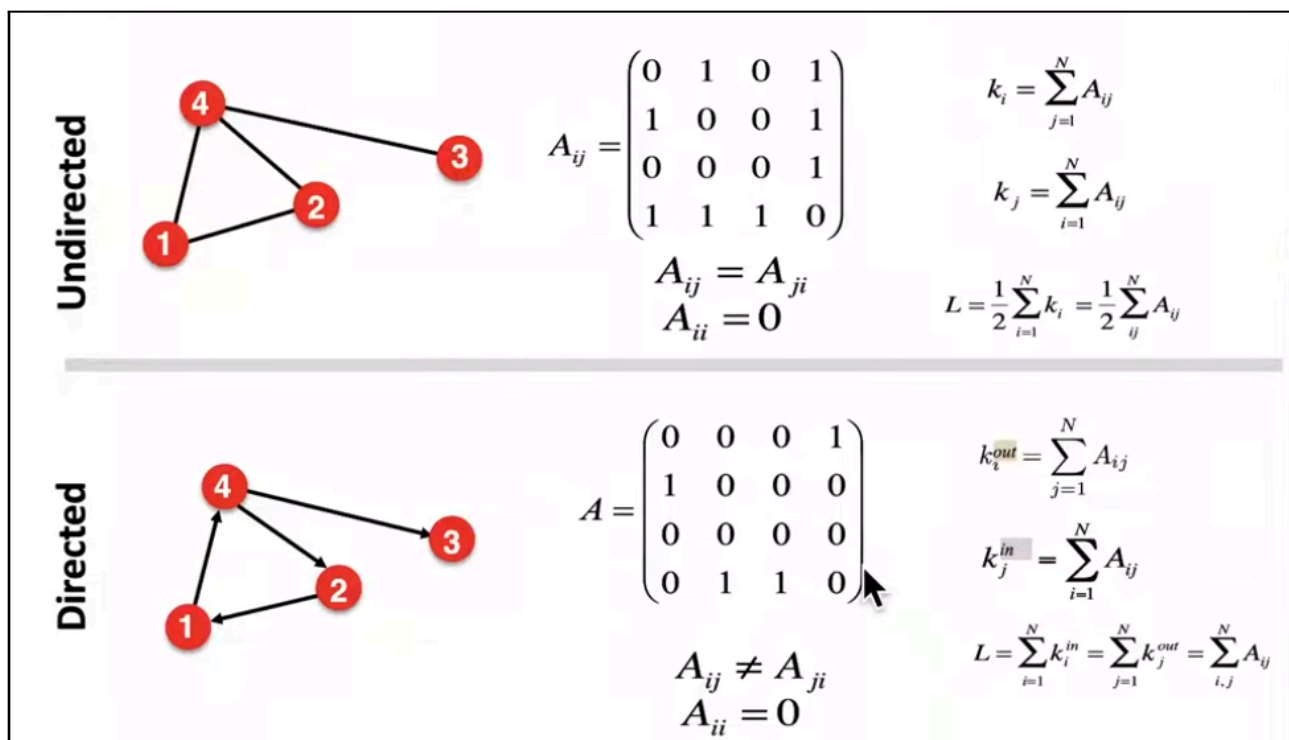
- N : Set of Nodes (Vertices)
- $|N|$ = Number of nodes.
- E : Set of Edges (Links)
- $|E|$ = Number of edges.

Adjacency Matrix (A)

The standard algebraic representation is a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{|N| \times |N|}$

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (i, j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Undirected Graphs: A is Symmetric $A_{ij} = A_{ji}$
- Directed Graphs: A is generally Asymmetric. Directed edges imply:
 $(i, j) \in E$ does not imply $(j, i) \in E$



Node Degrees & Handshaking Lemma

The degree k_i is the number of edges adjacent to node i .

Undirected Case:

- $k_i = \sum_{j=1}^{|N|} A_{ij}$
- Average Degree: $\bar{k} = \frac{2|E|}{|N|}$
- *Derivation:* The sum of degrees is $2|E|$ because every edge is counted twice (once for each endpoint).

Directed Case:

We distinguish between incoming and outgoing connections.

- In-Degree (k_{in}): $\sum_j A_{ji}$ (Sum of column i).
- Out-Degree (k_{out}): $\sum_j A_{ij}$ (Sum of row i).
- Average Degree: $\bar{k} = \frac{|E|}{|N|}$
- *Note:* The factor of 2 vanishes because an edge has a specific source and destination.

Bipartite Graphs

A graph where nodes can be decomposed into two disjoint sets U and V such that every edge connects a node in U to one in V . No edges exist within U or within V .

Folded Networks (Projected Graphs):

You can reduce a bipartite graph to a single-mode graph.

- *Example:* Author-Paper graph.
- *Projection:* Author-Author graph. Two authors are connected if they share a neighbor (Paper) in the bipartite graph.

- *Math:* If B is the interaction matrix between sets U and V , the projection for U is often derived from BB^T

Connectivity & Topology

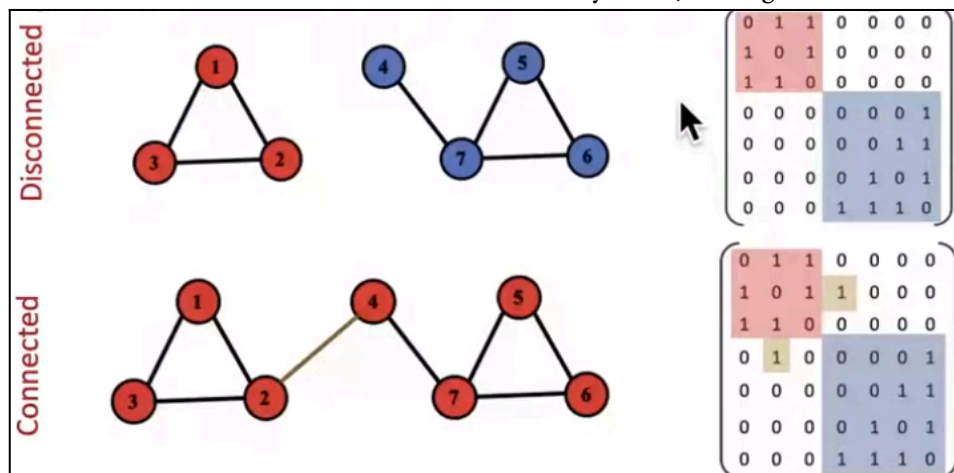
Connectivity describes how information flows through a network. It is defined by the existence of paths (sequences of edges) between nodes.

Undirected Connectivity

- Connected Graph: For any pair of nodes U and V there exists a path connecting them.
- Disconnected Graph: The graph is fragmented into isolated subgraphs called Connected Components.
- NOTE: If you reorder the node IDs of a disconnected graph by their component membership, the Adjacency Matrix A becomes Block Diagonal

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & 0 \\ 0 & A_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Non-zero entries are clustered in square blocks (A_1, A_2) along the diagonal.
- All entries outside these blocks are strictly 0 (no edges between components)



Directed Connectivity

In directed graphs, edge direction constrains the flow, leading to two definitions:

1. Strong Connectivity:

A pair of nodes (U, V) is strongly connected if there is a directed path $U \rightarrow V$ AND a directed path $V \rightarrow U$.

Strongly Connected Component (SCC): A subgraph where *every* node can reach *every other* node within that subgraph.
2. Weak Connectivity:

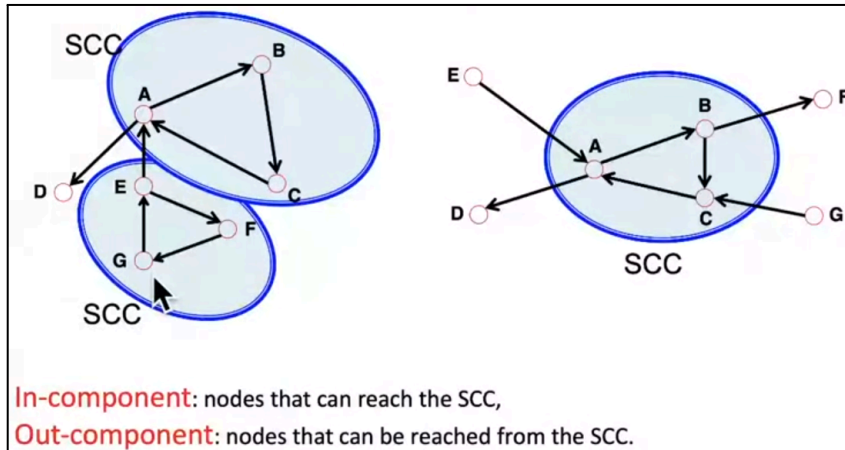
A pair (U, V) is weakly connected if a path exists between them when ignoring edge directions (treating the graph as undirected).

Example:

Real-world directed networks (like the World Wide Web) generally exhibit a distinct component structure:

- Giant SCC: The core of the internet (major hubs) where navigation is easy.
- In-Component: Pages that link *into* the SCC but cannot be reached *from* it (e.g., new pages).

- Out-Component: Pages reached *from* the SCC but link nowhere (e.g., "sink" nodes or dead ends)



4. System Design: Handling Sparsity

The Sparsity Problem:

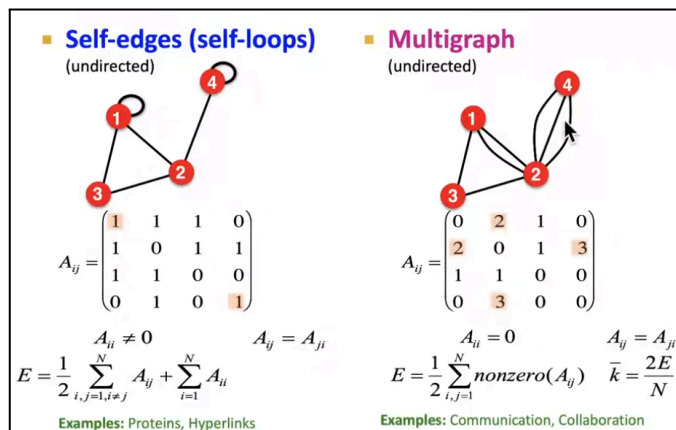
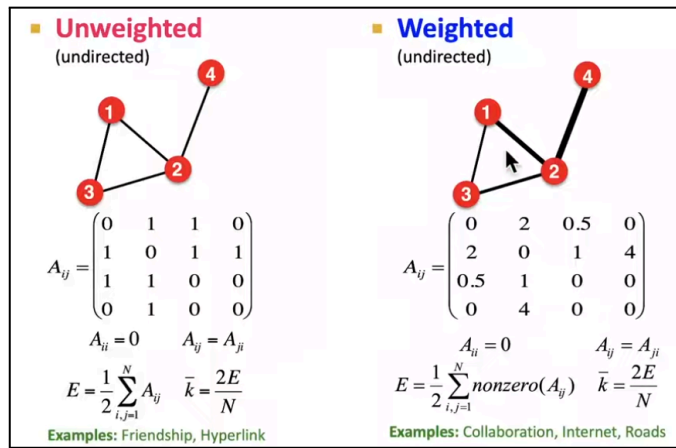
In real-world networks (Social, Web, Biology), the graph is extremely sparse.

$$\text{Density} = \frac{|E|}{|N|(|N| - 1)} \approx 0$$

- *Example:* A social network with $N = 10^9$ might have avg degree $\bar{k} = 100$
- Total edges $E \approx 50 \times 10^9$.
- Matrix Size $N^2 = 10^{18}$.
- Most entries in A are zero.

Representation Choices:

1. Edge List:
 - *Structure:* List of tuples $[(u, v), (w, x), \dots]$.
 - *Use:* Simple storage, often inputs for deep learning frameworks.
2. Adjacency List:
 - *Structure:* Dict { Node_ID : [List_of_Neighbors] }
 - *Space:* $O(|E|)$
 - *Use:* Standard for traversal algorithms (BFS/DFS) and most GNN frameworks (PyTorch Geometric uses **edge_index** tensors in Coordinate Format, effectively a list).
3. Adjacency Matrix:
 - *Space:* $O(N^2)$
 - *Use:* Only for dense graphs or spectral theory derivation. Do not implement this for large graphs.



Note: When analyzing algorithm complexity in Graph ML, always assume the Adjacency List representation. Therefore, operations usually scale with $O(|E|)$ rather than $O(N^2)$