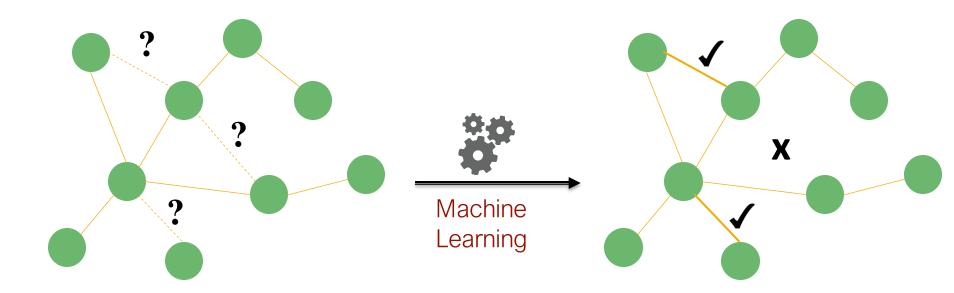
# Graph Representation Learning

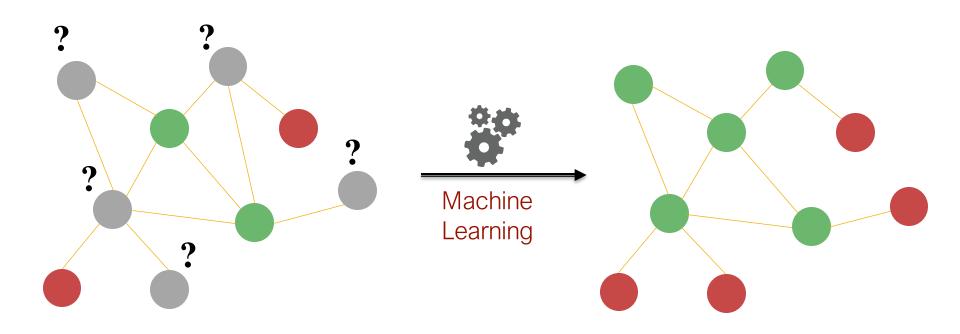
CS246: Mining Massive Datasets
Joshua Robinson, Stanford University
http://cs246.stanford.edu



#### **Example: Link Prediction**



#### **Machine Learning in Networks**



Node classification

#### **Example: Node Classification**

Classifying the function of proteins in the interactome

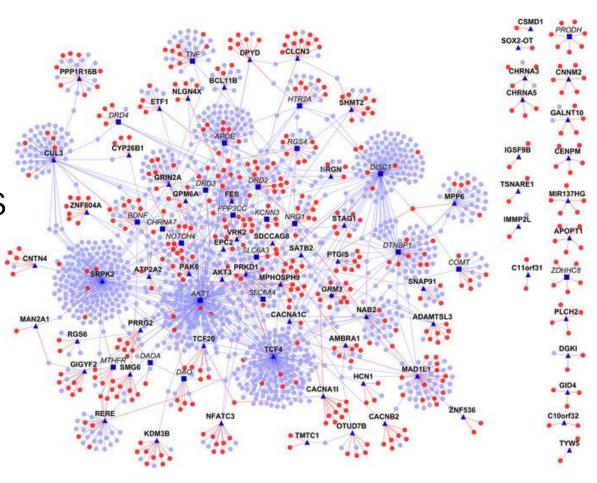
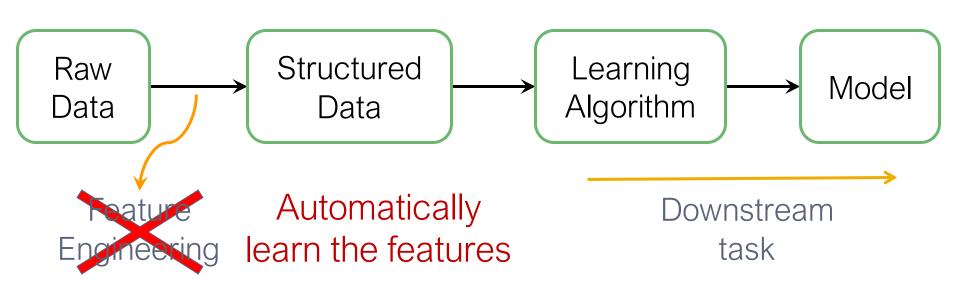


Image from: Ganapathiraju et al. 2016. <u>Schizophrenia interactome with 504 novel protein–protein interactions</u>. *Nature*.

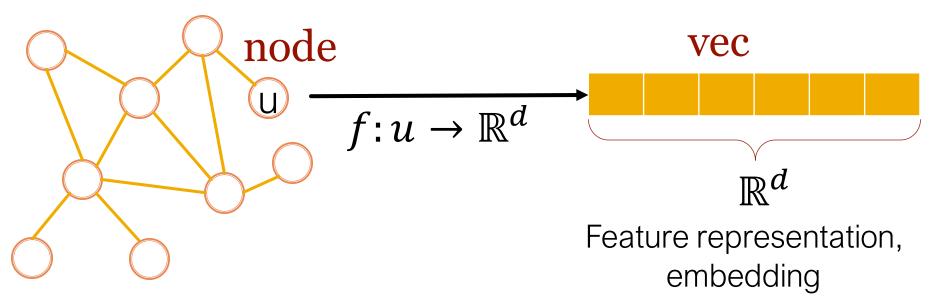
#### **Machine Learning Lifecycle**

 (Supervised) Machine Learning Lifecycle requires feature engineering every single time!



#### Feature Learning in Graphs

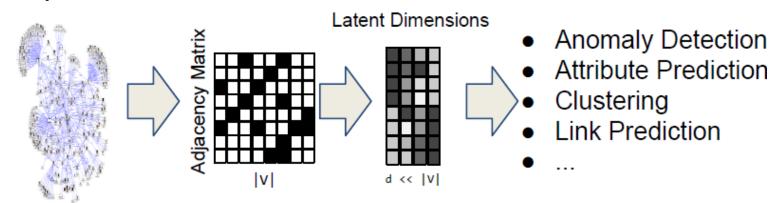
Goal: Efficient task-independent feature learning for machine learning in networks!



#### Why network embedding?

## Task: We map each node in a network to a point in a low-dimensional space

- Distributed representation for nodes
- Similarity of embedding between nodes indicates their network similarity
- Encode network information and generate node representation



#### Example Node Embedding

## 2D embedding of nodes of the Zachary's Karate Club network:

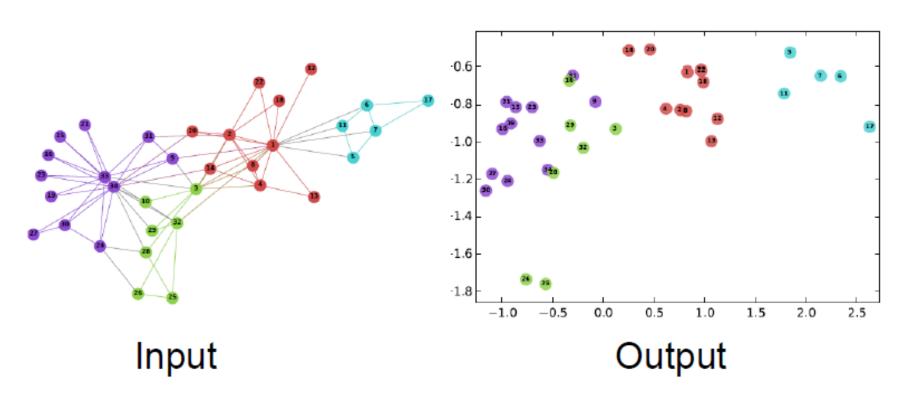


Image from: Perozzi et al. DeepWalk: Online Learning of Social Representations. KDD 2014.

## **Embedding Nodes**

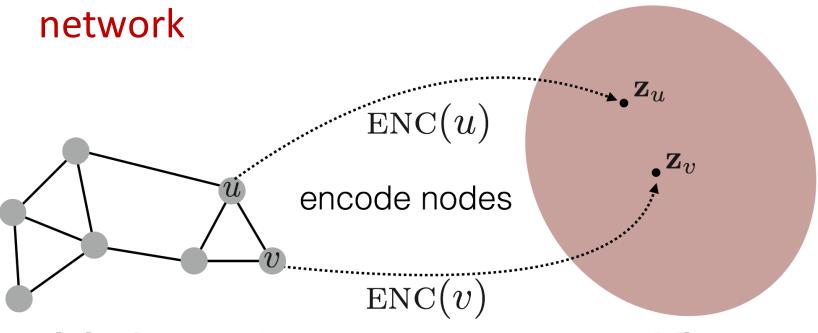
#### Setup

#### Assume we have a graph G:

- V is the vertex set
- A is the adjacency matrix (assume binary)
- No node features or extra information is used!

#### **Embedding Nodes**

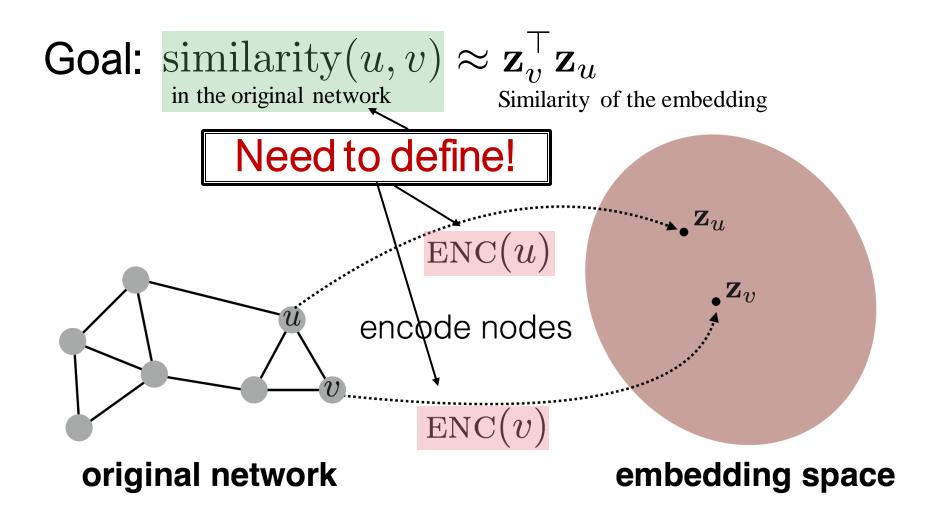
 Goal is to encode nodes so that similarity in the embedding space (e.g., dot product) approximates similarity in the original



original network

embedding space

#### **Embedding Nodes**



#### Learning Node Embeddings

- Define an encoder (i.e., a mapping from nodes to embeddings)
- Define a node similarity function (i.e., a measure of similarity in the original network)
- 3. Optimize the parameters of the encoder so that:

$$ext{similarity}(u,v) pprox \mathbf{z}_v^{\top} \mathbf{z}_u$$
 in the original network Similarity of the embedding

#### **Two Key Components**

- Encoder maps each node to a low-dimensional vector d-dimensional  $\mathrm{ENC}(v) = \mathbf{z}_v$  embedding node in the input graph
- Similarity function specifies how relationships in vector space map to relationships in the original network

#### "Shallow" Encoding

 Simplest encoding approach: encoder is just an embedding-lookup

$$ENC(v) = \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{v}$$

$$\mathbf{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times |\mathcal{V}|}$$

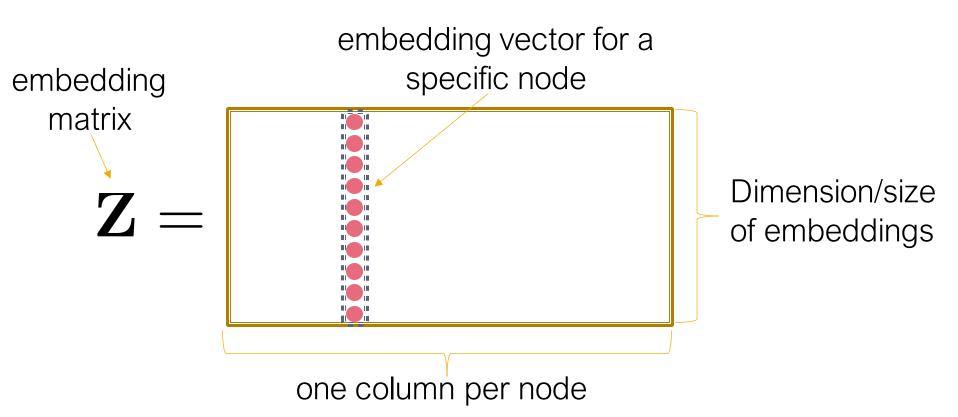
Matrix, each column is *d*-dim node embedding [what we learn!]

$$\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{I}^{|\mathcal{V}|}$$

Indicator vector, all zeroes except for a "1" at the position that corresponds to node v

#### "Shallow" Encoding

 Simplest encoding approach: encoder is just an embedding-lookup



#### "Shallow" Encoding

Simplest encoding approach: encoder is just an embedding-lookup

Each node is assigned a unique embedding vector

Many methods: node2vec, DeepWalk, LINE

#### **How to Define Node Similarity?**

Key choice of methods is how they define node similarity.

E.g., should two nodes have similar embeddings if they...

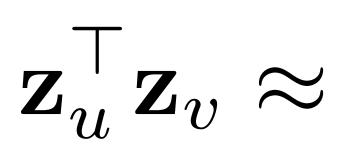
- are connected?
- share neighbors?
- have similar "structural roles"?
- **.**..?

# Random Walk Approaches to Node Embeddings

#### Material based on:

- Perozzi et al. 2014. DeepWalk: Online Learning of Social Representations. KDD.
- Grover et al. 2016. node2vec: Scalable Feature Learning for Networks. KDD.

#### Random-walk Embeddings



Probability that *u* and *v* co-occur on a random walk over the network

 $z_u$  ... embedding of node u

#### Random-walk Embeddings

1. Estimate probability of visiting node  $m{v}$  on a random walk starting from node  $m{u}$  using some random walk strategy  $m{R}$ 

Optimize embeddings to encode these random walk statistics:

Similarity (here: dot product= $cos(\theta)$ ) encodes random walk "similarity"

#### Why Random Walks?

- Expressivity: Flexible stochastic definition of node similarity that incorporates both local and higherorder neighborhood information
- 2. Efficiency: Do not need to consider all node pairs when training; only need to consider pairs that co-occur on random walks

#### Unsupervised Feature Learning

- Intuition: Find embedding of nodes in d-dimensional space so that node similarity is preserved
- Idea: Learn node embedding such that nearby nodes are close together in the network
- Given a node u, how do we define nearby nodes?
  - $N_R(u)$  ... neighbourhood of u obtained by some strategy R

#### Feature Learning as Optimization

- Given G = (V, E)
- Our goal is to learn a mapping  $z: u \to \mathbb{R}^d$
- Log-likelihood objective:

$$\max_{\mathbf{z}} \sum_{u \in V} \log P(N_{\mathbf{R}}(u) | z_u)$$

- where  $N_R(u)$  is neighborhood of node u
- Given node u, we want to learn feature representations predictive of nodes in its neighborhood  $N_{\rm R}(u)$

- 1. Run **short fixed-length random walks** starting from each node on the graph using some strategy R
- 2. For each node u collect  $N_R(u)$ , the multiset\* of nodes visited on random walks starting from u
- 3. Optimize embeddings according to: Given node u, predict its neighbors  $N_{\rm R}(u)$

$$\max_{\mathbf{z}} \sum_{u \in V} \log P(N_{\mathbf{R}}(u) | z_u)$$

 ${}^*N_R(u)$  can have repeat elements since nodes can be visited multiple times on random walks

$$\max_{\mathbf{z}} \sum_{u \in V} \log P(N_{\mathbf{R}}(u) | z_u)$$

Assumption: Conditional likelihood factorizes over the set of neighbors:

$$\log P(N_R(u)|z_u) = \sum_{v \in N_R(u)} \log P(z_v | z_u)$$

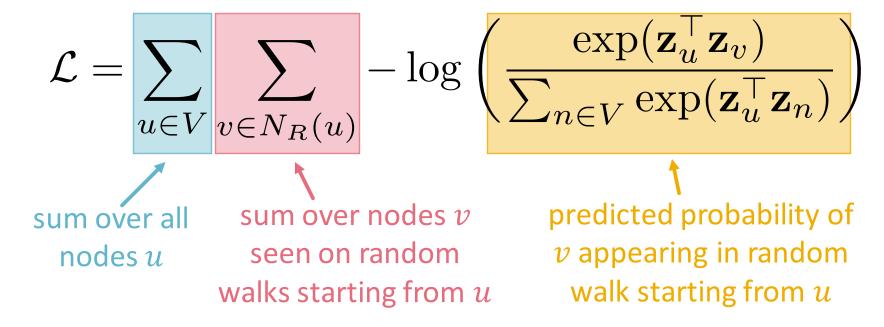
Softmax parametrization:

$$P(z_v|z_u) = \frac{\exp(z_v \cdot z_u)}{\sum_{n \in V} \exp(z_n \cdot z_u)}$$

Why softmax?

We want node v to be most similar to node u (out of all nodes n). Intuition:  $\sum_{i} \exp(x_i) \approx \max_{i} \exp(x_i)$ 

#### Putting it all together:



#### Optimizing random walk embeddings =

Finding node embeddings z that minimize L

#### But doing this naively is too expensive!!

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{u \in V} \sum_{v \in N_R(u)} -\log \left( \frac{\exp(\mathbf{z}_u^\top \mathbf{z}_v)}{\sum_{n \in V} \exp(\mathbf{z}_u^\top \mathbf{z}_n)} \right)$$

Nested sum over nodes gives  $O(|V|^2)$  complexity!

But doing this naively is too expensive!!

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{u \in V} \sum_{v \in N_R(u)} -\log \left( \frac{\exp(\mathbf{z}_u^\top \mathbf{z}_v)}{\sum_{n \in V} \exp(\mathbf{z}_u^\top \mathbf{z}_n)} \right)$$

The normalization term from the softmax is the culprit... can we approximate it?

### **Negative Sampling**

Solution: Negative sampling

$$\log \left( \frac{\exp(\mathbf{z}_u^{\top} \mathbf{z}_v)}{\sum_{n \in V} \exp(\mathbf{z}_u^{\top} \mathbf{z}_n)} \right)$$

$$\approx \log(\sigma(\mathbf{z}_u^{\top}\mathbf{z}_v)) - \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} \log(\sigma(\mathbf{z}_u^{\top}\mathbf{z}_{n_i})), n_i \sim P_V$$

sigmoid function

(makes each term a "probability" between 0 and 1)

Why is the approximation valid?

Technically, this is a different objective. But Negative Sampling is a form of Noise Contrastive Estimation (NCE) which approx. maximizes the log probability of softmax.

New formulation corresponds to using a logistic regression (sigmoid func.) to distinguish the target node v from nodes  $n_i$  sampled from background distribution

More at

https://arxiv.org/pdf/1402.3722.pdf

random distribution over all nodes

Instead of normalizing w.r.t. all nodes, just normalize against k random "negative samples"  $n_i$ 

### **Negative Sampling**

$$\log \left( \frac{\exp(\mathbf{z}_u^{\top} \mathbf{z}_v)}{\sum_{n \in V} \exp(\mathbf{z}_u^{\top} \mathbf{z}_n)} \right) \quad \text{random distribution} \\ \approx \log(\sigma(\mathbf{z}_u^{\top} \mathbf{z}_v)) - \sum_{i=1}^k \log(\sigma(\mathbf{z}_u^{\top} \mathbf{z}_{n_i})), n_i \sim P_V$$

- Sample k negative nodes proportional to degree
- lacktriangle Two considerations for k (# negative samples):
  - 1. Higher k gives more robust estimates
  - 2. Higher k corresponds to higher prior on negative events. In practice k=5-20

#### Random Walks: Stepping Back

- 1. Run **short fixed-length** random walks starting from each node on the graph using some strategy R.
- 2. For each node u collect  $N_R(u)$ , the multiset of nodes visited on random walks starting from u
- 3. Optimize embeddings using Stochastic Gradient Descent:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{u \in V} \sum_{v \in N_R(u)} -\log(P(v|\mathbf{z}_u))$$

We can efficiently approximate this using negative sampling!

Jure Les kovec, Stanford C246: Mining Massive Datasets

#### How should we randomly walk?

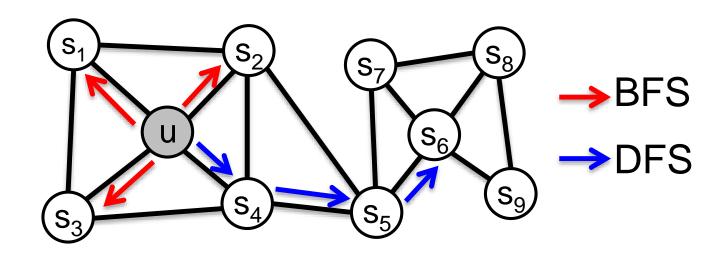
- So far we have described how to optimize embeddings given random walk statistics
- What strategies should we use to run these random walks?
  - Simplest idea: Just run fixed-length, unbiased random walks starting from each node (i.e., DeepWalk from Perozzi et al., 2013).
    - The issue is that such notion of similarity is too constrained
  - How can we generalize this?

#### Overview of node2vec

- Goal: Embed nodes with similar network neighborhoods close in the feature space
- We frame this goal as prediction-task independent maximum likelihood optimization problem
- Key observation: Flexible notion of network neighborhood  $N_R(u)$  of node u leads to rich node embeddings
- Develop biased 2<sup>nd</sup> order random walk R to generate network neighborhood  $N_R(u)$  of node u

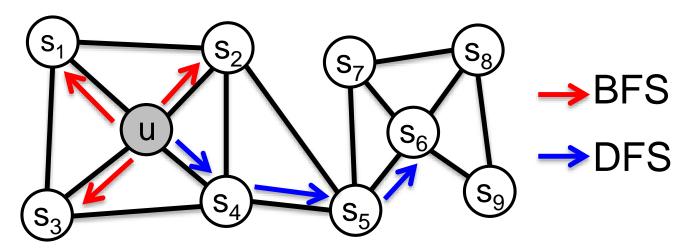
#### node2vec: Biased Walks

Idea: use flexible, biased random walks that can trade off between local and global views of the network (Grover and Leskovec, 2016).



#### node2vec: Biased Walks

Two classic strategies to define a neighborhood  $N_R(u)$  of a given node u:



Walk of length 3 ( $N_R(u)$ ) of size 3):

$$N_{BFS}(u) = \{s_1, s_2, s_3\}$$
 Local microscopic view

$$N_{DFS}(u) = \{s_4, s_5, s_6\}$$
 Global macroscopic view

# Interpolating BFS and DFS

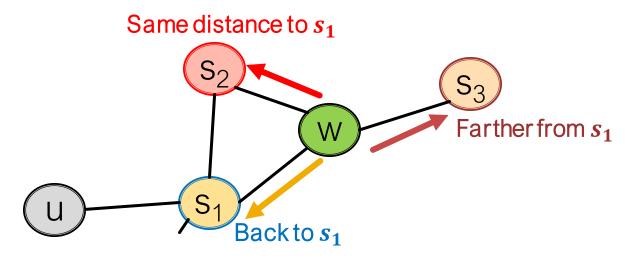
# Biased fixed-length random walk R that given a node u generates neighborhood $N_R(u)$

- Two parameters:
  - Return parameter p:
    - Return back to the previous node
  - In-out parameter q:
    - Moving outwards (DFS) vs. spreading (BFS)
    - Intuitively, q is the "ratio" of BFS vs. DFS

### **Biased Random Walks**

# Biased 2<sup>nd</sup>-order random walks explore network neighborhoods:

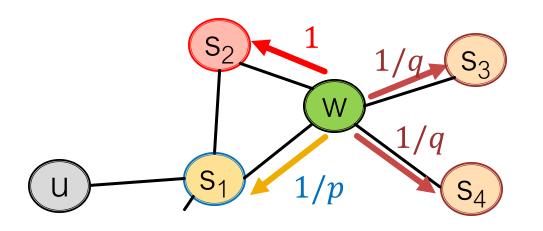
- Rnd. walk just traversed edge  $(s_1, w)$  and is now at w
- Insight: Neighbors of w can only be:



Idea: Remember where that walk came from

### **Biased Random Walks**

Walker came over edge (s<sub>1</sub>, w) and is at w. Where to go next?

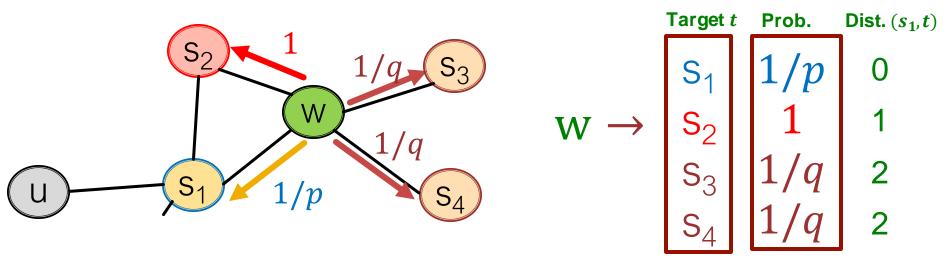


1/p, 1/q, 1 are unnormalized probabilities

- p, q model transition probabilities
  - p ... return parameter
  - q ... "walk away" parameter

### **Biased Random Walks**

Walker came over edge (s<sub>1</sub>, w) and is at w. Where to go next?



- BFS-like walk: Low value of p
- DFS-like walk: Low value of q

Unnormalized transition prob. segmented based on distance from  $s_1$ 

 $N_R(u)$  are the nodes visited by the biased walk

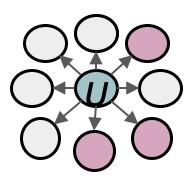
# node2vec algorithm

- 1) Compute random walk probabilities
- ullet 2) Simulate r random walks of length l starting from each node u
- 3) Optimize the node2vec objective using Stochastic Gradient Descent

Linear-time complexity.

All 3 steps are individually parallelizable

### BFS vs. DFS



BFS:

Micro-view of neighbourhood

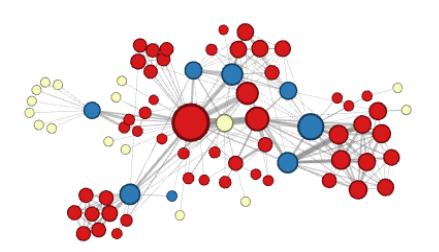


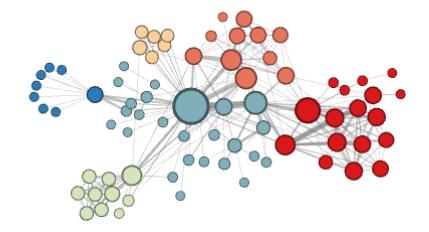
DFS:

Macro-view of neighbourhood

## Experiments: Micro vs. Macro

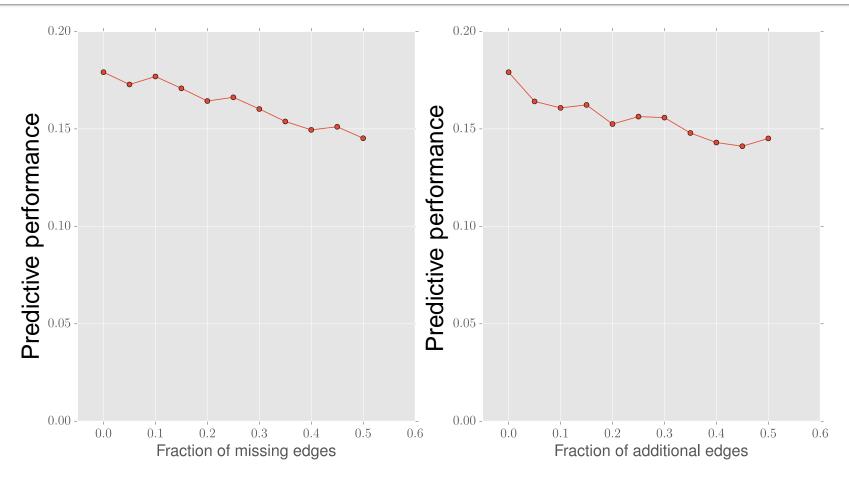
# Small network of interactions of characters in a novel:





p=1, q=2 Microscopic view of the network neighbourhood p=1, q=0.5 Macroscopic view of the network neighbourhood

## Nodezvec: Incomplete Network



#### How does predictive performance change as we

- randomly remove a fraction of edges (left)
- randomly add a fraction of edges (right)

### Other random walk ideas

#### (not covered in detailed here but for your reference)

- Different kinds of biased random walks:
  - Based on node attributes (<u>Dong et al., 2017</u>).
  - Based on a learned weights (<u>Abu-El-Haija et al., 2017</u>)
- Alternative optimization schemes:
  - Directly optimize based on 1-hop and 2-hop random walk probabilities (as in <u>LINE from Tang et al. 2015</u>).
- Network preprocessing techniques:
  - Run random walks on modified versions of the original network (e.g., <u>Ribeiro et al. 2017's struct2vec</u>, <u>Chen et al.</u> <u>2016's HARP</u>).

# How to Use Embeddings

- How to use embeddings  $z_i$  of nodes:
  - Clustering/community detection: Cluster nodes/points based on  $z_i$
  - Node classification: Predict label  $f(z_i)$  of node i based on  $z_i$
  - Link prediction: Predict edge (i, j) based on  $f(z_i, z_j)$ 
    - Where we can: concatenate, avg, product, or take a difference between the embeddings:
      - Concatenate:  $f(z_i, z_j) = g([z_i, z_j])$
      - Hadamard:  $f(z_i, z_i) = g(z_i * z_i)$  (per coordinate product)
      - Sum/Avg:  $f(z_i, z_j) = g(z_i + z_j)$
      - Distance:  $f(z_i, z_j) = g(||z_i z_j||_2)$

# Summary

 Basic idea: Embed nodes so that similarities in embedding space reflect node similarities in the original network.

#### Different notions of node similarity:

- Adjacency-based (i.e., similar if connected)
- Multi-hop similarity definitions.
- Random walk approaches (covered today)

# Summary

- So what method should I use..?
- No one method wins in all cases....
  - E.g., node2vec performs better on node classification while multi-hop methods perform better on link prediction (Goyal and Ferrara, 2017 survey)
- Random walk approaches are generally more efficient
- In general: Must choose def'n of node similarity that matches your application!