# Online Social Networks and Media 

## Link Prediction, Classification,

Graph Embeddings

## Graph embeddings: what are they?



Map nodes to d-dimensional vectors so that:
"similar" nodes in the graph have embeddings that are close together.

## Example

## Zachary's Karate Club Network:

## Input

## Output




## Graph embeddings: why?

## Machine learning lifecycle



## Graph embeddings: why?

## Machine learning lifecycle



Automatically learn the features (embeddings)

## Machine Learning tasks in networks

- Link prediction and link recommendations
- Node labeling
- Community detection (we have already seen an approach)
- Network similarity

Link Prediction

## Motivation

- Recommending new friends in online social networks, suggesting interactions or collaborations, predicting hidden connections (e.g., terrorist),

In social networks:

- Increases user engagement
- Controls the growth of the network


## Outline

- Estimating a score for each edge (seminal work of LibenNowell\&Kleinberg)
- Classification approach
- The who to follow service at Twitter (one more application of link analysis)


## Problem Definition

Link prediction problem: Given the links in a social network at time $t\left(G_{\text {old }}\right)$, predict the edges that will be added to the network during the time interval from time $t$ to a given future time $t^{\prime}\left(G_{\text {new }}\right)$.

- Based solely on the topology of the network (social proximity) (the more general problem also considers attributes of the nodes and links)
- Different from the problem of inferring missing (hidden) links (there is a temporal aspect)

To save experimental effort in the laboratory or in the field

## Approach

- Assign a connection weight $\operatorname{score}(x, y)$ to each pair of nodes $\langle x, y>$ based on the input graph
- Produce a ranked list of edges in decreasing order of score
- Recommend the ones with the highest score

Note

- We can consider all links incident to a specific node $x$, and recommend to $x$ the top ones
- If we focus to a specific $x$, the score can be seen as a centrality measure for $x$


## How to define the score

How to assign the score( $x, y$ ) between two nodes $x$ and $y$ ?

- Some form of similarity or node proximity

Two general methods

- Neighbors
- Paths


## Neighborhood-based metrics

The larger the overlap of the neighbors of two nodes, the more likely the nodes to be linked in the future

Common neighbors:
$\operatorname{score}(x, y)=|N(x) \cap N(y)|$

A adjacency matrix
$A_{x, y}^{2}$ : number of different paths of length 2

Jaccard coefficient:
$\operatorname{score}(x, y)=\frac{|N(x) \cap N(y)|}{|N(x) \cup N(y)|}$

The probability that both x and y have a feature from a randomly selected feature that either $x$ or $y$ has

## Neighborhood-based metrics

Adamic Adar:

$$
\operatorname{score}(x, y)=\sum_{z \in|N(x) \cap N(y)|} \frac{1}{\log (|N(z)|)}
$$

- Weighted version: common neighbors which themselves have few neighbors get larger weights (larger weights to rare features)
- Neighbors who are linked with 2 nodes are assigned weight $=1 / \log (2)$
- Neighbors who are linked with 5 nodes are assigned weight $=1 / \log (5)$

Note: $|N(x)|=$ degree of $x$, inverse logarithmic centrality

## Neighborhood-based metrics

## Preferential attachment:

$$
\operatorname{score}(x, y)=|N(x)||N(y)|
$$

- Nodes like to form ties with 'popular' nodes
- E.g., empirical evidence suggest that co-authorship is correlated with the product of the neighborhood sizes
- Fall-back strategy: recommending popular users
- Depends on the degrees of the nodes not on their neighbors per se


## Path-based methods

## score $(x, y)=(n e g a t e d)$ length of shortest path between $x$ and $y$

Not just the shortest, but all paths between two nodes

Katz ${ }_{\beta}$ measure: $\quad \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \beta^{l}\left|p a t h_{<x, y>}^{l}\right|$

- Sum over all paths of length $l$
- $0<b<1$ parameter of the predictor, exponentially damped to count short paths more heavily


## Path-based methods

## Katz $_{\beta}$ measure:

$$
\sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \beta^{l}\left|p a t h_{<x, y>}^{l}\right|=\beta \mathrm{A}_{x y}+\beta^{2} A_{x y}^{2}+\beta^{3} A_{x y}^{3}+\ldots
$$

$$
(I-\beta A)^{-1}-I
$$

- $0<6<1$
- Small $\beta$ much like common neighbors
- $\beta$ small: degree, $\beta$ maximal: eigenvalue
- Weighted version


## Path-based methods

## Based on random walks that starts at $x$

Hitting Time $\mathrm{H}_{x, y}$ from $x$ to $y$ : the expected number of steps it takes for the random walk starting at $x$ to reach $y$.

$$
\operatorname{score}(x, y)=-H_{x, y}
$$

Commute Time $C_{x, y}$ from $x$ to $y$ : the expected number of steps to travel from $x$ to $y$ and from $y$ to $x$

$$
\operatorname{score}(x, y)=-\left(H_{x, y}+H_{y, x}\right)
$$

Not symmetric, can be shown

$$
\begin{aligned}
h_{v u} & =\Theta\left(n^{2}\right) \\
h_{u v} & =\Theta\left(n^{3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$



## Path-based methods

Example: hit time $h_{1, n}$ in a line


Stationary-normed versions:
to counteract the fact that $H_{x, y}$ is rather small when $y$ is a node with a large stationary probability regardless of $x$
score $(x, y)=-H_{x, y} \pi_{y}$
$\operatorname{score}(x, y)=-\left(H_{x, y} \pi_{y}+H_{y, x} \pi_{x}\right)$
Personalized (or, Rooted) PageRank: with probability $(1-a)$ moves to a random neighbor and with probability $a$ returns to $x$ score $(x, y)=$ stationary probability of $y$ in a personalized PageRank

## SimRank

Two objects are similar, if they are related to similar objects $x$ and $y$ are similar, if they are related to objects $w$ and $z$ respectively and $w$ and $z$ are themselves similar

$$
\operatorname{similarity}(x, y)=C \frac{\sum_{w \in \mathrm{~N}(x)} \sum_{z \in N(y)} \operatorname{similarity}(w, z)}{|N(x)||N(y)|}
$$

Base case: $\operatorname{similarity}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{x})=1$
$\operatorname{score}(x, y)=\operatorname{similarity}(x, y)$

## SimRank

Introduced for directed graphs: two objects are similar if referenced by similar objects

$$
s(a, b)=\frac{C}{|I(a)||I(b)|} \sum_{i=1}^{|I(a)|} \sum_{j=1}^{|I(b)|} s\left(I_{i}(\alpha), \mathrm{I}_{j}(b)\right)
$$



Average similarity between in-neighbors of $a$ and in-neighbors of $b$ $I(x)$ : in-neighbors of $x, C$ : constant between 0 and 1 , decay
$s(a, b)=1$, if $a=b$

## Iterative computation

$s_{0}(x, y)=1$ if $x=y$ and 0 otherwise
$s_{k+1}$ based on the $s_{k}$ values of its (in-neighbors) computed at iteration $k$

## SimRank: the Pair Graph



Pair graph G ${ }^{2}$
A node for each pair of nodes
An edge $(x, y) \rightarrow(a, b)$, if $x \rightarrow a$ and $y \rightarrow b$ a value per node: similarity of the corresponding pairs

Computation starts at singleton nodes (score = 1)
Scores flow from a node to its neighbors C gives the rate of decay as similarity flows across edges ( $C=0.8$ in the example)

- Symmetric pairs: ( $a, b$ ) node same as ( $b, a$ ) node (with the union of associated edges)
- Omit singleton that do not contribute to score (no \{ProfA, ProfA $\}$ node) and nodes with 0 score $\{$ ProfA, StudentA\})
- Self-loops and cycles reinforce similarity
- Prune: by considering only nodes within a radius


## SimRank and random walks

Expected Meeting Distance (EMD) $m(a, b)$ between $a$ and $b$ : the expected number of steps required before two random surfers, one starting at $a$ and the other starting at $b$, would meet if they walked the graph randomly at lock-step

$=\infty$

$m(u, v)=m(u, w)=\infty$, $m(v, w)=1$
$v$ and $w$ are much more similar than $u$ is to $v$ or $w$.

$=3$,
a lower similarity than between $v$ and $w$ but higher than between $u$ and $v$ (or u and w).

## SimRank and random walks

Let us consider $\mathrm{G}^{2}$
A node ( $a, b$ ) as a state of the tour in G :
if $a$ moves to $c, b$ moves to $d$ in $G$, then $(a, b)$ moves to $(c, d)$ in $\mathrm{G}^{2}$

A tour in $G^{2}$ of length $n$ represents a pair of tours in $G$ where each has length n

What are the states in $\mathrm{G}^{2}$ that correspond to "meeting" points in G? What is the meeting point of $a$ and $b$ ? $m(a, b)$ ?

## SimRank and random walks

What are the states in $\mathrm{G}^{2}$ that correspond to "meeting" points in G?

Singleton nodes (common neighbors)

The EMD $\mathrm{m}(a, b)$ is just the expected distance - hitting time in $\mathrm{G}^{2}$ between $(a, b)$ and any singleton node

- The sum is taken over all walks that start from $(a, b)$ and end at a singleton node

This roughly corresponds to the SimRank of $(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})$ : when two surfers one from $a$ and one from $b$ that randomly walk the graph would meet

## SimRank for bipartite graphs



- People are similar if they purchase similar items.
- Items are similar if they are purchased by similar people Useful for recommendations in general


## SimRank for bipartite graphs



$$
\begin{aligned}
s(A, B) & =\frac{C_{1}}{|O(A)||O(B)|} \sum_{i=1}^{|O(A)|} \sum_{j=1}^{|O(B)|} s\left(O_{i}(A), O_{j}(B)\right) \\
s(c, d) & =\frac{C_{2}}{|I(c)||I(d)|} \sum_{i=1}^{|I(c)||I(d)|} \sum_{j=1}^{\mid I\left(I_{i}(c), I_{j}(d)\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

## SimRank



## Q: What is most related conference to ICDM?

## SimRank



## Evaluation of link recommendations

## Output

a list $L_{p}$ of pairs in $V \times V-E_{\text {old }}$ ranked by score predicted new links in decreasing order of confidence

## Precision at recall

- How many of the top-n predictions are correct where $n=\left|\mathrm{E}_{\text {new }}\right|$


## Improvement over baseline

Baseline: random predictor
Probability that a random prediction is correct:


## Can we combine the various scores? How? <br> Classification (supervised learning)

## Classification

## Using Supervised Learning

Given a collection of records (training set)
Each record contains a set of attributes (features) + the class attribute.
Find a model for the class attribute as a function of the values of other attributes.

Goal: previously unseen records should be assigned a class as accurately as possible.

A test set is used to determine the accuracy of the model.
Usually, the given data set is divided into training and test sets, with training set used to build the model and test set used to validate it.

## Illustrating the Classification Task

| Tid | Attrib1 | Attrib2 | Attrib3 | Class |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | Yes | Large | 125 K | No |
| 2 | No | Medium | 100 K | No |
| 3 | No | Small | 70 K | No |
| 4 | Yes | Medium | 120 K | No |
| 5 | No | Large | 95 K | Yes |
| 6 | No | Medium | 60 K | No |
| 7 | Yes | Large | 220 K | No |
| 8 | No | Small | 85 K | Yes |
| 9 | No | Medium | 75 K | No |
| 10 | No | Small | 90 K | Yes |
| Training Set |  |  |  |  |



| Tid | Attrib1 | Attrib2 | Attrib3 | Class |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 11 | No | Small | 55 K | $?$ |
| 12 | Yes | Medium | 80 K | $?$ |
| 13 | Yes | Large | 110 K | $?$ |
| 14 | No | Small | 95 K | $?$ |
| 15 | No | Large | 67 K | $?$ |

Test Set

## Classification Techniques

- Decision Tree based methods
- Rule-based methods
- Memory based reasoning
- Neural networks (more soon)
- Naïve Bayes and Bayesian Belief networks
- Support vector machines
- Logistic regression


## Example of a Decision Tree

|  |  |  |  | $c^{10^{s^{2}}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tid | Refund | Marital <br> Status | Taxable Income | Cheat |
| 1 | Yes | Single | 125K | No |
| 2 | No | Married | 100K | No |
| 3 | No | Single | 70K | No |
| 4 | Yes | Married | 120K | No |
| 5 | No | Divorced | 95K | Yes |
| 6 | No | Married | 60K | No |
| 7 | Yes | Divorced | 220K | No |
| 8 | No | Single | 85K | Yes |
| 9 | No | Married | 75K | No |
| 10 | No | Single | 90K | Yes |



Training Data
Model: Decision Tree

# Classification for Link Prediction 

## Input

Features describing the two nodes

Output<br>Prediction

## Metrics for Performance Evaluation

Confusion Matrix:

|  | PREDICTED CLASS |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| ACTUAL <br> CLASS |  | Class=Yes | Class=No |
|  | Class=No | FP | TP |
|  |  |  |  |

$$
\text { Accuracy }=\frac{T P+T N}{T P+T N+F P+F N}
$$

## ROC Curve

TPR (sensitivity)=TP/(TP+FN) (percentage of positive classified as positive)
FPR = FP/(TN+FP) (percentage of negative classified as positive)

- $(0,0)$ : declare everything to be negative class
- $(1,1)$ : declare everything to be positive class
- $(0,1)$ : ideal

Diagonal line: Random guessing
Below diagonal line: prediction is opposite of the true class


## Classification for Link Prediction:

For each edge (i, j)

## features

| Name | Parameters | HPLP | HPLP+ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| In-Degree( $i$ ) | - | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| In-Volume( $i$ ) | - | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| In-Degree( $j$ ) | - | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| In-Volume( $j$ ) | - | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Out-Degree( $i$ ) | - | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Out-Volume(i) | - | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Out-Degree( $j$ ) | - | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Out-Volume( $j$ ) | - | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Common Nbrs $(i, j)$ | - | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Max. Flow(i,j) | $l=5$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Shortest Paths( $(i, j)$ | $l=5$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| PropFlow( $i, j)$ | $l=5$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Adamic/Adar( $i, j)$ | - |  | $\checkmark$ |
| Jaccard's Coef(i,j) | - |  | $\checkmark$ |
| Katz(i,j) | $l=5, \beta=0.005$ |  | $\checkmark$ |
| Pref Attach $(i, j)$ | - |  | $\checkmark$ |

PropFlow: corresponds to the probability that a restricted random walk starting at $x$ ends at $y$ in / steps or fewer using link weights as transition probabilities (stops in / steps or if revisits a node)

## How to construct the training set

When to extract features and when to determine class?
Two time instances $\tau_{x}$ and $\tau_{y}$

- From $t_{0}$ to $\tau_{x}$ construct graph and extract features ( $G_{\text {old }}$ )
- From $\tau_{x}+1$ to $\tau_{y}$ examine if a link appears (determine class value)

What are good values

- Large $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{x}}$ better topological features (as the network reaches saturation)
- Large $\tau_{y}$ larger number of positives (size of positive class)
- Should also match the real-world prediction interval


## How to construct the training set

## Unsupervised (single feature)



Figure 1: Performance in the second-degree neighborhood as a function of $\tau_{x}$.

## Datasets

## 712 million cellular phone calls

- weighted, directed networks, weights correspond to the number of calls - use the first 5 weeks of data ( 5.5 M nodes, 19.7M links) for extracting features and the 6th week ( 4.4 M nodes, 8.5 M links) for obtaining ground truth.

19,464 condensed matter physics collaborations from 1995 to 2000.

- weighted, undirected networks, weights correspond to the number of collaborations two authors share.
- use the years 1995 to 1999 (13.9K nodes, 80.6K links) for extracting features and the year 2000 ( 8.5 K nodes, 41.0 K links) for obtaining ground truth.


The assortativity coefficient is the Pearson correlation coefficient of degree between pairs of linked nodes.
Positive values indicate a correlation between nodes of similar degree, while negative values indicate relationships between nodes of different degree.

## Using Supervised Learning: why?


(a) phone

(b) condmat

A different prediction model for each distance

- Predictors that work well in one network not in another
- Should increase with the score (not in phone)
- Preferential attachment increase with distance (when other may fail)


## Using Supervised Learning: why?



- Even training on a single feature may outperform ranking (if no clear bound on score)
- Dependencies between features - use an ensemble of features


## Imbalance

- Sparse networks: $|\mathrm{E}|=\mathrm{k}|\mathrm{V}|$ for constant $\mathrm{k} \ll|\mathrm{V}|$

The class imbalance ratio for link prediction in a sparse network is $\Omega(|\mathrm{V}| / 1)$ when at most |V| nodes are added

Missing links is $|\mathrm{V}|^{2}$
Positives V
n-neighborhood exactly $n$ hops way
Treat each neighborhood as a separate problem


## Results

Ensemble of classifiers: Random Forest

Random forest: Ensemble classifier
constructs a multitude of decision trees at training time output the class that is the mode (most frequent) of the classes (classification) or mean prediction (regression) of the individual trees.

## Results



## Results

- Mechanism by which links arise different both across networks and geodesic distances.
- Local vs Global (preferential attachment)
- Better in condmat network,
- Improves with distance
- HPLP achieves performance levels as much as $30 \%$ higher than the best unsupervised methods


## Salsa

## An application: Wtf

## Wtf ("Who to Follow"): the Twitter user recommendation service

Twitter graph statistics (August 2012)

- over 20 billion edges (only active users)
- power law distributions of in-degrees and out-degrees.
- over 1000 with more than 1 million followers,
- 25 users with more than 10 million followers.

Is it a "social" network as Facebook?
Difference between:

- Interested in
- Similar to

Example (follow @espn but not similar to it)

- do not follow users similar to you, but follow users that the users that are similar to you follow


## Algorithms

- Asymmetric nature of the follow relationship (other social networks e.g., Facebook or Linkedln require the consent of both participating members)
- Directed edge case is similar to the user-item recommendations problem where the "item" is also a user.


## Bipartite graph

## Authorities



## Algorithms: SALSA

SALSA (Stochastic Approach for Link-Structure Analysis) a variation of HITS As in HITS

- hubs
- authorities

HITS


- Good hubs point to good authorities
- Good authorities are pointed by good hubs
hub weight = sum of the authority weights of the authorities pointed to by the hub

$$
h_{i}=\sum_{j: i \rightarrow j} a_{j}
$$

authority weight = sum of the hub weights that point to this authority.

$$
a_{i}=\sum_{j: j \rightarrow i} h_{j}
$$



## Algorithms: SALSA

Random walks to rank hubs and authorities

- Two different random walks (Markov chains): a chain of hubs and a chain of authorities
- Each walk traverses nodes only in one side by traversing two links in each step h->a->h, a->h->a

Transition matrices of each Markov chain: $H$ and A

W: the adjacency of the directed graph $W_{r}$ : divide each entry by the sum of its row $\mathrm{W}_{\mathrm{c}}$ : divide each entry by the sum of its column
$H=W_{r} W_{c}{ }^{\top}$
$A=W_{c}^{\top} W_{r}$


Proportional to the degree

## Algorithms: SALSA

Authorities


Use SALSA to assign scores to both sides
Hub scores: user similarity (based on homophily, also useful) Authority scores: "interested in" user recommendations.

Recommend best in the RHS

## SALSA: summary

## How it works

SALSA mimics the recursive nature of the problem:

- A user $u$ is likely to follow those who are followed by users that are similar to $u$.
- A user is similar to u if the user follows the same (or similar) users.
I. SALSA provides similar users to $u$ on the LHS and similar followings of those on the RHS.
II. The random walk ensures equitable distribution of scores in both directions
III. Similar users are selected from the circle of trust of the user through personalized PageRank.


## Real evaluation

- Offline experiments on retrospective data
- Online $A / B$ testing on live traffic

Various parameters may interfere:

- How the results are rendered (e.g., explanations)
- Platform (mobile, etc.)
- New vs old users


## Evaluation: metrics

Follow-through rate (FTR) (precision)

- Does not capture recall
- Does not capture lifecycle effects (newer users more receptive, etc. )
- Does not measure the quality of the recommendations: all follow edges are not equal

Engagement per impression (EPI):
After a recommendation is accepted, the amount of engagement by the user on that recommendation in a specified time interval called the observation interval.

## Extensions

- Add metadata to vertices (e.g., user profile information) and edges (e.g., edge weights, timestamp, etc.)
- Consider interaction graphs (e.g., graphs defined in terms of retweets, favorites, replies, etc.)


## References

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# Online Social Networks and Media 

Graph Embeddings

## Embedding nodes

Input: Graph G(V, E)
Goal: encode nodes so that similarity in the embedding space approximates similarity in the original network.


## Embedding nodes



## Learning node embeddings

1. Define an encoder that maps nodes to low dimensional spaces
2. Define a node similarity function in the original network.
3. Optimize the parameters of the encoder so that we minimize a loss function $L$ that looks (roughly) like:

$$
L=\sum_{i, j \in V}\left(\operatorname{similarity}(i, j)-z_{i} \cdot z_{j}\right)^{2}
$$

When are two nodes similar? Any ideas?

## Node embeddings

Approaches based on:

- Adjacency matrix
- Multi-hop neighborhoods

Approaches based on Word2Vec

- DeepWalk
- Node2Vec


## Shallow embeddings(*)

Each node is assigned a single d-dimensional vector Learn embedding matrix $Z$ : each column $i$ is the embedding $z_{i}$ of node $i$

(*) As opposed to deep learning in graphs (neural networks embeddings)

## Shallow embeddings

## Encoder is an embedding lookup

$E N C(i)=Z I_{i}$


## Adjacency-based approach



$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{lllll}
0 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\
3 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\
2 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\
1 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

- Similarity function is just the edge (weight) between $u$ and $v$ in the original network.
- Dot products between node embeddings approximate edge existence.


## Adjacency-based approach

## The loss that what we want to minimize



## How to minimize loss

1. Matrix decomposition (for example, SVD decomposition)
2. Scalability issues
3. Produced matrices that are very dense
4. Stochastic gradient descent

## Singular Value Decomposition

$$
\underset{[n \times r][r \times r][r \times n]}{\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{U}} \quad \Sigma \quad \mathrm{~V}^{\mathrm{T}}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
\overrightarrow{\mathrm{u}}_{1} & \overrightarrow{\mathrm{u}}_{2} & \cdots & \overrightarrow{\mathrm{u}}_{\mathrm{r}}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{lllll}
\sigma_{1} & & & \\
& \sigma_{2} & & \\
& & \ddots & \\
& & & \sigma_{\mathrm{r}}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
\overrightarrow{\mathrm{v}}_{1} \\
\overrightarrow{\mathrm{v}}_{2} \\
\vdots \\
\overrightarrow{\mathrm{v}}_{\mathrm{r}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- $r$ : rank of matrix $A$
- $\sigma_{1} \geq \sigma_{2} \geq \ldots \geq \sigma_{r}$ : singular values (square roots of eigenvals $A A^{\top}, A^{\top} A$ )
- $\overrightarrow{\mathrm{u}}_{1}, \overrightarrow{\mathrm{u}}_{2}, \cdots, \overrightarrow{\mathrm{u}}_{\mathrm{r}}$ : left singular vectors (eigenvectors of $A A^{\top}$ )
- $\overrightarrow{\mathrm{V}}_{1}, \overrightarrow{\mathrm{~V}}_{2}, \cdots, \overrightarrow{\mathrm{~V}}_{r}$ : right singular vectors (eigenvectors of $\mathrm{A}^{\top} A$ )

$$
\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{r}}=\sigma_{1} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{u}}_{1} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{v}}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}}+\sigma_{2} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{u}}_{2} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{v}}_{2}^{\mathrm{T}}+\cdots+\sigma_{\mathrm{r}} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{u}}_{\mathrm{r}} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{v}}_{\mathrm{r}}^{\mathrm{T}}
$$

## Adjacency-based approach stochastic gradient descent

## A few manipulations

$$
L=\sum_{i, j \in V x V}\left\|A_{i j}-z_{i} \cdot z_{j}\right\|^{2}
$$

sum over all node pairs

$$
L=\sum_{(i, j) \in E}\left(A_{i j}-z_{i} \cdot z_{j}\right)^{2}
$$

sum over all edges

$$
L=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{(i, j) \in E}\left(A_{i j}-Z_{i} \cdot Z_{j}\right)^{2}+\frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i}\left\|z_{i}\right\|^{2}
$$

## Adjacency-based approach

$$
L=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{(i, j) \in E}\left(A_{i j}-z_{i} \cdot z_{i}\right)^{2}+\frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i}\left\|z_{i}\right\|^{2}
$$

## Taking the gradient

Gradient of $L$ with respect to each row (column) of $Z$ (learn one vector per node)

$$
\frac{\partial L}{\partial z_{i}}=-\sum_{j \in N(i)}\left(A_{i j}-z_{j} \cdot z_{i}\right) z_{j}+\lambda z_{i}
$$

For each edge $(\mathbf{i}, \mathrm{j}) \in E$ this amounts for

$$
\frac{\partial L}{\partial z_{i}}=-\left(A_{i j}-z_{i} \cdot z_{j}\right) z_{j}+\lambda z_{i}
$$

## Adjacency-based approach

Requires: Adjacency matrix $A$, rank $d$, accuracy $\varepsilon$
Ensures: Local minimum
1: Initialize $Z^{\prime}$ at random
2: $\mathrm{t} \leftarrow 1$
3; repeat $\eta$ : learning rate, captures the extent at which
4: $\quad Z \leftarrow Z^{\prime} \quad$ newly acquired information overrides old
5: $\quad$ for all edges $(i, j) \in E$ do
6: $\quad \eta \leftarrow 1 / \sqrt{t}$
7: $\quad \mathrm{t} \leftarrow \mathrm{t}+1$
8: $\quad Z i \leftarrow Z i+\eta((A i j-<Z i \cdot Z j>Z j)+\lambda Z i)$
9: end for
10: until $\left|\left|Z-Z^{\prime}\right|\right|^{2}<=\varepsilon$
11: return Z

- Complexity O(|E|)
- Can be parallelized


## Multi-hop approaches

Only considers direct connections
What about further neighbors?


Look further than the 1-step neighbors and learn by using information from/for $k$-step neighbors

We will see two approaches

- GraRep: looks at probabilities of reaching a node
- HOPE: various metrics of similarity based on neighbors and paths


## GraRep



- Look at the paths that connect the nodes
- More paths -- more similar
- Probability from a node to reach the other
- Considers paths of different lengths


## GraRep

But not all k-neighbors equally important


Nearest neighborhoods more important
Maintain different $k$-step information differently in the graph representation

## GraRep

$P=D^{-1} A=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0\end{array}\right] \quad D=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2\end{array}\right]$

Probabilistic adjacency matrix $P_{i j}$ the probability of transition from node $i$ to node $j$ where the transition has length exactly 1

## GraRep

$v_{5}$

$$
P^{2}=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 / 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 / 2 \\
1 / 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 / 2 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 / 2 & 1 / 6 & 0 & 1 / 3 \\
1 / 6 & 5 / 12 & 5 / 12 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

$P_{i j}^{2}$ the probability of transition form node i from node $j$ when the transition has length exactly 2

## GraRep

$P_{i j}^{k}$ : Transition probability from node $i$ to node $j$ where the transition consists of exactly $k$ steps

1. Minimize the loss for a specific $k$

$$
L_{k}=\sum_{(i, j) \in V x V}\left\|P_{i j}^{k}-Z_{i} \cdot z_{j}\right\|^{2}
$$

2. Concatenate the embeddings for the different $k$

## Basic idea:

- Train embeddings to predict $k$-hop neighbors.
- Approach based on skipgrams (How? Next week)


## High-order Proximity Preserved Embeddings (HOPE)

Based on a high order proximity matrix $S$,
$\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{ij}}=\operatorname{proximity}(\mathrm{i} \mathrm{j})$

Learn two embeddings vectors
$Z=\left|Z^{s}, Z^{t}\right|$
$L=\sum_{(i, j) \in V x V}\left\|S_{i j}-z_{i}^{S} \cdot z_{j}^{t}\right\|^{2}$
M. Ou, P. Cui, J. Pei, Z.i Zhang, W. Zhu: Asymmetric Transitivity Preserving Graph Embedding. KDD 2016

## HOPE

## Local High Order Proximity

Common Neighbors (for directed graphs, source-target)
$S^{C N}=A^{2}$


Adamic-Adar
$S^{A A}=A D A$

Similar but assigns a weight to the neighbor = reciprocal of its degree The more vertices a node is connected to, the less important it is on evaluating the proximity between a pair of nodes

## HOPE

## Global High Order Proximity

Katz
Sum over all paths of length I, using a decay parameter

$$
S^{K a t z}=\sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \beta^{l} A^{l}
$$

Rooted Pagerank

SVD with some tricks to save computations

## References

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