# Introduction of Graph Neural Network Personal Reading Notes

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# Preliminaries

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# Preliminaries—Why Graph Neural Network

- While deep learning effectively captures hidden patterns of Euclidean data, there is an increasing number of applications where data are represented in the form of graphs.
- As graphs can be irregular, a graph may have a variable size of unordered nodes, and nodes from a graph may have a different number of neighbors, resulting in some important operations (e.g., convolutions) being easy to compute in the image domain, but difficult to apply to the graph domain.
- A core assumption of existing machine learning algorithms is that instances are independent of each other. This assumption no longer holds for graph data because each instance (node) is related to others by links of various types.

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### Graph Laplacian

Given a undirected and connected graph  $\mathcal{G} = \{\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \mathbf{A}\}$ , where  $\mathcal{V}$  is a finite set of  $|\mathcal{V}| = N$ ,  $\mathcal{E}$  is a set of edges, and  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  is a weighted adjacency matrix encoding the connection weight between two vertices. An essential operator in spectral graph analysis is the graph Laplacian, which combinatorial definition is:

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{A} \tag{1}$$

where **D** is a diagonal degree matrix with  $\mathbf{D}_{ii} = \sum_{j} \mathbf{A}_{ij}$ , and normalized definition is:

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I}_N - \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$
(2)

where  $\mathbf{I}_N$  is the identity matrix.

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As **L** is a real symmetric positive semidefinite matrix, it has complete set of orthonormal eigenvectors  $\{\mathbf{u}_l\}_{l=0}^{N-1}$ , known as the graph Fourier modes, and their associated ordered real nonnegative eigenvalues  $\{\lambda_l\}_{l=0}^{N-1}$ . The Laplacian is indeed diagonalized by the Fourier basis  $\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_0, \dots, \mathbf{u}_{N-1}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  such that:

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \tag{3}$$

where  $\mathbf{\Lambda} = diag([\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_{N-1}]) \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ .

### Graph Fourier Transform

For a signal  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{R}^N$  defined on a graph  $\mathcal{G}$ , its *Graph Fourier Transform* is defined as follows:

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}} = \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{f}$$
 (4)

where U consists of eigenvectors of the Laplacian matrix of  ${\cal G}$  and  $\hat{f}$  is the obtained graph Fourier coefficients for the signal f.

There graph Fourier coefficients describe how each graph Fourier component contributes to the graph signal **f**. Specifically, the *i*-th element of  $\hat{\mathbf{f}}$  corresponds to the *i*-th graph Fourier component  $\mathbf{u}_i$  with the frequency  $\lambda_i$ , where  $\lambda_i$  is the eigenvalue corresponding to  $\mathbf{u}_i$ .

To modulate the frequencies of the signal  $\mathbf{f}$ , we filter the graph Fourier coefficients as follows:

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}}'[i] = \hat{\mathbf{f}}[i] \cdot \gamma(\lambda_i), \quad \text{for} \quad i = 1, \dots, N.$$
(5)

where  $\gamma(\lambda_i)$  is a function with the frequency  $\lambda_i$  as input which determines how the corresponding frequency component should be modulated. In matrix form, we have:

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}}' = \gamma(\mathbf{\Lambda}) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{f}} = \gamma(\mathbf{\Lambda}) \cdot \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{f}, \tag{6}$$

where  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix consisting of the frequencies (eigenvalues of the Laplacian matrix).

#### Inverse Graph Fourier Transform

With the filtered coefficients, we can reconstruct the signal to the graph domain using the *Inverse Graph Fourier Transform* as follows:

$$\mathbf{f}' = \mathbf{U}\hat{\mathbf{f}}' = \mathbf{U} \cdot \gamma(\mathbf{\Lambda}) \cdot \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{f}, \qquad (7)$$

where  $\mathbf{f}'$  is the obtained filtered graph signal.

The filtering process can be regarded as applying the operator  $\mathbf{U} \cdot \gamma(\mathbf{\Lambda}) \cdot \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}$  to the input graph signal.

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If we know how we want to modulate the frequencies in the input signal, we can design the function  $\gamma(\lambda)$  in a corresponding way. However, when utilizing the spectral-based filter as a graph filter in graph neural networks, we often do not know which frequencies are more important.

To solve this problem, we can model  $\gamma(\Lambda)$  with certain functions and then learn the parameters with the supervision from data, by which the graph filters can be learned in a data-driven way.

Bruna et al., Spectral Networks and Deep Locally Connected Networks on Graphs, arXiv 2013

A natural attempt is to give full freedom when designing  $\gamma()$  (or a nonparametric model). Specifically, the function  $\gamma()$  is defined as follows:

$$\gamma(\lambda_I) = \theta_I \tag{8}$$

where  $\theta_l$  is a parameter to be learned from data.

### Drawbacks:

- The number of parameters to be learned is equal to the number of nodes *N*, which can be extremely large in real-world graphs. Hence, it requires lots of memory to store these parameters and also abundant data to fit them.
- The filter U · γ(Λ) · U<sup>T</sup> is likely to be a dense matrix. Therefore, the calculation of the *i*-th element of the output signal f' could relate to all the nodes in the graph. In other words, the operator is not spatially localized.
- The computational cost is quite expensive due to the eigendecomposition of the Laplacian matrix and the matrix multiplication between dense matrices when calculating  $\mathbf{U} \cdot \gamma(\mathbf{\Lambda}) \cdot \mathbf{U}^{T}$ .

Defferrard et al., Convolutional Neural Networks on Graphs with Fast Localized Spectral Filtering, NIPS 2016

To address the above-mentioned issues, a polynomial filter operator is proposed, in which the function  $\gamma()$  can be modeled with a *K*-order truncated polynomial as follows:

$$\gamma(\lambda_l) = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_k \lambda_l^k \quad \text{or} \quad \gamma(\mathbf{\Lambda}) = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_k \mathbf{\Lambda}^k \tag{9}$$

where  $\theta_l$  is a parameter to be learned from data.

With this polynomial filter, we can get the output  $\mathbf{f}'$  as follows:

$$\mathbf{f}' = \mathbf{U} \cdot \gamma(\mathbf{\Lambda}) \cdot \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{f} = \mathbf{U} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_k \mathbf{\Lambda}^k \cdot \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{f}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_k \mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{\Lambda}^k \cdot \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{f} = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_k \mathbf{U} \cdot (\mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{U})^k \cdot \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{f}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_k \underbrace{(\mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{\Lambda} \cdot \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}) \cdots (\mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{\Lambda} \cdot \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}})}_{k} \cdot \mathbf{f}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_k \mathbf{L}^k \mathbf{f}$$
(10)

#### Lemma

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a graph and **L** be its Laplacian matrix. Then, the *i*,*j*-th element of the *k*-th power of the Laplacian matrix  $\mathbf{L}_{ij}^{k} = 0$  if  $dis(v_i, v_j) > k$ , where dis() is the shortest path distance.

- The polynomials of the Laplacian matrix are all sparse.
- Spectral filters represented by *K*<sup>th</sup>-order polynomials of the Laplacian are exactly *K*-localized (only involves *K*-hop neighborhoods).
- The learning complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(K)$ , the support size of the filter, and thus the same complexity as classical CNNS.

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### Merits:

U · γ(Λ) · U<sup>T</sup> can be simplified to be a polynomial of the Laplacian matrix, meaning that no eigendecomposition is needed and the polynomial parametrized filtering operator is spatially localized, i.e., the calculation of each element of the output f' only involves a small number of nodes in the graph.

# Drawbacks:

• The basis of the polynomial  $(1, x, x^2, ...)$  is not orthogonal to each other. Hence, the coefficients are dependent on each other, making them unstable under perturbation during the learning process. In other words, an update in one coefficient may lead to changes in other coefficients.

To address the above-mentioned issues, we first give the definition of Chebyshev polynomial.

#### Chebyshev Polynomial

*Chebyshev polynomial*  $T_k(x)$  of order k can be computed by the stable recurrence relation:

$$T_k(x) = 2xT_{k-1}(x) - T_{k-2}(x)$$
(11)

with  $T_0 = x$  and  $T_1 = x$ . These polynomials form an orthogonal basis for  $L^2([-1,1], dy/\sqrt{1-y^2})$ , the Hilbert space of square integrable functions with respect to the measure  $dy/\sqrt{1-y^2}$ .

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With the Chebyshev polyomial, the filter can be parametrized as the truncated expansion:

$$\gamma(\mathbf{\Lambda}) = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_k T_k(\widetilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}})$$
(12)

where  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$  is a vector of Chebyshev coefficients, and  $T_{k}(\widetilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}) \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ is the Chebyshev polynomial of order k evaluated at  $\widetilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}} = 2\mathbf{\Lambda}/\lambda_{max} - \mathbf{I}_{N}$ , a diagonal matrix of scaled eigenvalues that lie in [-1, 1].

The process of applying the Chebyshev filter on a graph signal  $\mathbf{f}$  can be defined as:

$$\mathbf{F}' = \mathbf{U} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_k T_k(\widetilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}) \cdot \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{f}$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_k \mathbf{U} \cdot T_k(\widetilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}) \cdot \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{f}$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_k T_k(\widetilde{\mathbf{L}}) \mathbf{f}$$
(13)

where  $T_k(\widetilde{\mathbf{L}}) \in \mathbf{R}^{N \times N}$  is the Chebyshev polynomial of order k evaluated at the scaled Laplacian  $\widetilde{\mathbf{L}} = \frac{2\mathbf{L}}{\lambda_{max}} - \mathbf{I}_N$ .

N. Kipf et al., Semi-Supervised Classification with Graph Convolutional Networks, ICLR 2017

A simplified version of Chebyshev filter is named GCN filter is proposed, which sets the order of Chebyshev polynomials to K = 1 and approximates  $\lambda_{max} = 2$  (i.e.,  $\tilde{\Lambda} = 2\Lambda/\lambda_{max} - I_N = \Lambda - I_N$ ):

$$\gamma(\mathbf{\Lambda}) = \theta_0 T_0(\widetilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}) + \theta_1 T_1(\widetilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}}) = \theta_0 \mathbf{I}_N + \theta_1 \widetilde{\mathbf{\Lambda}} = \theta_0 \mathbf{I}_N + \theta_1 (\mathbf{\Lambda} - \mathbf{I}_N)$$
(14)

Applying the GCN filter on a graph signal f, we have:

$$\mathbf{f}' = \mathbf{U}\gamma(\mathbf{\Lambda})\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{f} = \theta_0\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{f} + \theta_1\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{\Lambda} - \mathbf{I}_N)\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{f} = \theta_0\mathbf{f} + \theta_1(\mathbf{L} - \mathbf{I}_N)\mathbf{f} = \theta_0\mathbf{f} + \theta_1(\mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}})\mathbf{f}$$
(15)

where  $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I}_N - \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ .

By setting  $\theta = \theta_0 = -\theta_1$ , we have:

$$\mathbf{f}' = \theta_0 \mathbf{f} + \theta_1 (\mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}) \mathbf{f} = \theta (\mathbf{I}_N + \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}) \mathbf{f}$$
(16)

Note that,  $\mathbf{I}_N + \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}$  has eigenvalues in the range [0, 2]. Repeated application of this operator can therefore lead to numerical instabilities and exploding/vanishing gradients when used in a deep neural network model.

To alleviate this problem, we introduce the renormalization trick:

$$\mathbf{I}_{N} + \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \to \widetilde{\mathbf{D}}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \widetilde{\mathbf{A}} \widetilde{\mathbf{D}}^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$
(17)

where  $\widetilde{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{I}_N$  and  $\widetilde{\mathbf{D}}_{ii} = \sum_j \widetilde{\mathbf{A}}_{ij}$ .

The final GCN filter after these simplification is defined as:

$$\mathbf{f}' = \theta \widetilde{\mathbf{D}}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \widetilde{\mathbf{A}} \widetilde{\mathbf{D}}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{f}$$
(18)

- For a single node, this process can be viewed as aggregating information from its 1-hop neighbors where the node itself is also regarded as its 1-hop neighbor.
- The GCN filter can also be viewed as a spatial-based filter, which only involves directly connected neighbors when updating node features.

Generalization to Multi-channel Graph Signals:

We can generalize this definition to a signal  $\mathbf{F}' \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times F}$  with *C* input channels (i.e., a *C*-dimensional feature vector for every node) and *F* filters or feature maps as follows:

$$\mathbf{F}' = \widetilde{\mathbf{D}}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \widetilde{\mathbf{A}} \widetilde{\mathbf{D}}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{F} \mathbf{\Theta}$$
(19)

where  $\Theta \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times F}$  is a matrix of filter parameters and  $\mathbf{F}'$  is the convolved signal matrix.

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#### Hamilton et al., Inductive Representation Learning on Large Graphs, NIPS 2017

The GraphSAGE model introduces a spatial based filter, which is based on aggregating information from neighboring nodes. For a single node  $v_i$ , the process to generate its new features can be formulated as:

$$\mathcal{N}_{S}(v_{i}) = SAMPLE(\mathcal{N}(v_{i}), S)$$
  

$$\mathbf{f}'_{\mathcal{N}_{S}(v_{i})} = AGGREGATE(\{\mathbf{F}_{j}, \forall v_{j} \in \mathcal{N}_{S}(v_{i})\})$$
  

$$\mathbf{F}'_{i} = \sigma\left(\left[\mathbf{F}_{i}, \mathbf{f}'_{\mathcal{N}_{S}(v_{i})}\right]\mathbf{\Theta}\right)$$
(20)

where SAMPLE() is a function that takes a set as input and randomly samples S elements from the input as out, AGGREGATE() is a function to combine the information from the neighboring nodes where  $\mathbf{f}'_{\mathcal{N}_{S}(v_{i})}$  denotes the output of the AGGREGATE() function, and  $[\cdot, \cdot]$  is the concatenation operation.

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There are several AGGREGATE() functions as below:

- Mean aggregator, which is to simply take element-wise mean of the vectors in {F<sub>j</sub>, ∀v<sub>j</sub> ∈ N<sub>S</sub>(v<sub>i</sub>)}.
- LSTM aggregator, which is to treat the set of the sampled neighboring nodes  $\mathcal{N}_S(v_i)$  of node  $v_i$  as a sequence and utilize the LSTM architecture to process the sequence. Since there is no natural order among the neighbors, a random ordering is adopted.
- Pooling aggregator, which adopts the max pooling operation to summarize the information from the neighboring nodes.

Velickovic et al., Graph Attention Networks, ICLR 2018

Motivation:

- In all of the aforementioned spectral approaches, the learned filters depend on the Laplacian eigenbasis, which depends on the graph structure. Thus, a model trained on a specific structure cannot be directly applied to graph with a different structure.
- In the spatial approach, GraphSAGE needs to sample a fixed-size neighborhood of each node in order to keep its computational footprint consistent. This does not allow it access to the entirety of the neighborhood while performing inference.
- One of the benefits of attention mechanisms is that they allow for dealing with variable sized inputs, focusing on the most relevant parts of the input to make decisions.

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When generating the new features for a node  $v_i$ , GAT attends to all its neighbors to generate an importance score for each neighbor. Specifically, the importance score of node  $v_j \in \mathcal{N}(v_i) \cup \{v_i\}$  to the node  $v_i$  can be calculated as follows:

$$e_{ij} = a(\mathbf{F}_i \mathbf{\Theta}, \mathbf{F}_j \mathbf{\Theta}) \tag{21}$$

where  $\Theta$  is a shared parameter matrix and a() is a shared attention function.

To make the importance scores easily comparable across different nodes, we need to normalize them across all choices of j using the softmax function:

$$\alpha_{ij} = softmax_j(e_{ij}) = \frac{exp(e_{ij})}{\sum_{k \in \mathcal{N}_i} exp(e_{ik})}$$
(22)

The attention function a() is a single-layer feedforward network, parametrized by a weight vector **a** and applying the *LeakyReLU* nonlinearity, as follows:

$$\alpha \left( \mathbf{F}_{i} \mathbf{\Theta}, \mathbf{F}_{j} \mathbf{\Theta} \right) = LeakyReLU(\mathbf{a}^{T} [\mathbf{F}_{i} \mathbf{\Theta}, \mathbf{F}_{j} \mathbf{\Theta}])$$
(23)

where  $[\cdot, \cdot]$  denotes the concatenation operation, **a** is a parametrized vector and *LeakyReLU* is the nonlinear activation function.

$$\alpha_{ij} = \frac{\exp(e_{ij})}{\sum_{k \in \mathcal{N}_i} \exp(e_{ik})} = \frac{\exp\left(LeakyReLU\left(\mathbf{a}^T[\mathbf{F}_i\boldsymbol{\Theta}||\mathbf{F}_j\boldsymbol{\Theta}]\right)\right)}{\sum_{k \in \mathcal{N}_i} \exp\left(LeakyReLU\left(\mathbf{a}^T[\mathbf{F}_i\boldsymbol{\Theta}||\mathbf{F}_k\boldsymbol{\Theta}]\right)\right)}$$
(24)

where || is the concatenation operation.

With the normalized importance scores, the new representation  $\mathbf{F}'_i$  of node  $v_i$  can be computed as:

$$\mathbf{F}'_{i} = \sigma \left( \sum_{\mathbf{v}_{j} \in \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v}_{i}) \cup \{\mathbf{v}_{i}\}} \alpha_{ij} \mathbf{F}_{j} \mathbf{\Theta} \right)$$
(25)

To stabilize the learning process of self-attention, we employ multi-head attention. Specifically, K independent attention mechanisms execute the transformation of (25) and then their features are concatenated, resulting in the following output feature representation:

$$\mathbf{F}'_{i} = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \sigma \left( \sum_{\mathbf{v}_{j} \in \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v}_{i}) \cup \{\mathbf{v}_{i}\}} \alpha_{ij}^{k} \mathbf{F}_{j} \mathbf{\Theta}^{k} \right)$$
(26)

where || represents concatenation.

If we perform multi-head attention on the final layer of the network, concatenation is no longer sensible—instead, we employ averaging, and delay applying the final nonlinearity:

$$\mathbf{F}'_{i} = \sigma \left( \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{v_{j} \in \mathcal{N}(v_{i}) \cup \{v_{i}\}} \alpha_{ij}^{k} \mathbf{F}_{j} \mathbf{\Theta}^{k} \right)$$
(27)

Simonovsky et al., Dynamic Edge-Conditioned Filters in Convolutional Neural Networks on Graphs, CVPR 2017

Motivation:

- There may be edge information available in the graph. However, the current formulations of graph convolution do not exploit edge labels.
- We formulate a convolution-like operation on graph signals performed in the spatial domain where filter weights are conditioned on edge labels and dynamically generated for each specific input sample.

For a given edge  $(v_i, v_j)$ , we use  $tp(v_i, v_j)$  to denote its type. Then the edge-conditioned convolution (ECC filter) is defined as:

$$\mathbf{F}'_{i} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{N}(v_{i})|} \sum_{v_{j} \in \mathcal{N}(v_{i})} \mathbf{F}_{j} \mathbf{\Theta}_{tp(v_{i}, v_{j})}$$
(28)

where  $\Theta_{tp(v_i,v_j)} = f(\mathbf{L}_{ji}; \omega)$ , f() is parameterized by a learnable network with weights  $\omega$ , and  $\mathbf{L}$  is the edge label matrix.

Monti et al., Geometric Deep Learning on Graphs and Manifolds Using Mixture Model CNNs, CVPR 2017

The mixture model networks (MoNet) is a general framework allowing to design convolutional deep architectures on non-Euclidean domains such as graphs and manifolds. For each neighbor  $v_j \in \mathcal{N}(v_i)$  of a center node  $v_i$ , a vector of pseudo-coordinate is introduced to denote the relevant relation between nodes  $v_i$  and  $v_i$  with their degrees as:

$$\mathbf{u}(v_i, v_j) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{d_i}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{d_j}}\right)$$
(29)

where  $d_i$  and  $d_j$  denote the degree of nodes  $v_i$  and  $v_j$ , respectively.

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Then, a Gaussian kernel is applied on the pseudo-coordinate to measure the relation between the two nodes as

$$\alpha_{ij} = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{u}(v_i, v_j) - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{u}(v_i, v_j) - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$
(30)

where  $\Sigma$  and  $\mu$  are learnable covariance matrix and mean vector of a Gaussian kernel, respectively. The aggregation process is as:

$$\mathbf{F}'_{i} = \sum_{\mathbf{v}_{j} \in \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v}_{i})} \alpha_{ij} \mathbf{F}_{j}$$
(31)

Typically, a set of K kernels with different means and covariances are adopted, resulting in:  $\kappa$ 

$$\mathbf{F}'_{i} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{\mathbf{v}_{j} \in \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v}_{i})} \alpha^{k}_{ij} \mathbf{F}_{j}$$
(32)

where  $\alpha_{ii}^k$  is from the *k*-th Gaussian kernel.

#### Gilmer et al., Neural Message Passing for Quantum Chemistry, ICML 2017

Many spatial-based graph filters can be formulated in the Message Passing Neural Networks (MPNN). For a node  $v_i$ , the MPNN filter updates its features as follows:

$$\mathbf{m}_{i} = \sum_{\mathbf{v}_{j} \in \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v}_{i})} M(\mathbf{F}_{i}, \mathbf{F}_{j}, \mathbf{e}_{(\mathbf{v}_{i}, \mathbf{v}_{j})})$$
  
$$\mathbf{F}_{j}' = U(\mathbf{F}_{i}, \mathbf{m}_{i})$$
(33)

where M() is the message function that generates the messages to pass to node  $v_i$  from its neighbors, U() is the update function that updates the features of node  $v_i$  by combing the original features and the aggregated message from its neighbors, and  $\mathbf{e}_{(v_i,v_i)}$  is edge features if available. Wu et al., A Comprehensive Survey on Graph Neural Networks, TNNLS 2021

Spectral models have a theoretical foundation in graph signal processing. However, spatial models are preferred over spectral models because of:

• Efficiency: spectral models either need to perform eigenvector computation or handle the whole graph at the same time. Spatial models are more scalable to large graphs as they directly perform convolutions in the graph domain via information propagation. The computation can be performed in a batch of nodes instead of the whole graph.

# Comparison between Spectral and Spatial Graph Filters

- Generality: spectral models which rely on a graph Fourier basis generalize poorly to new graphs. They assume a fixed graph. Any perturbations to a graph would result in a change of eigenbasis. Spatial-based models perform graph convolutions locally on each node where weights can be easily shared across different locations and structures.
- Flexibility: spectral models are limited to operate on undirected graphs. Spatial models are more flexible to handle multi-source graph inputs such as edge inputs, directed graphs, signed graphs, and heterogeneous graphs, because these graph inputs can be incorporated into the aggregation function easily.

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- The graph filters refine the node features without changing the graph structure. Typically, the graph filter operations are sufficient for node-focused tasks. However, for graph-based tasks, a representation of the entire graph is desired.
- There are two main kinds of information that are important for generating the graph representation, including node features and graph structure. The graph representation is expected to preserve both the node feature information and the graph structure information.
- Similar to the classical convolutional neural network, graph pooling layers are proposed to generate graph level representations.

In general, there are two kinds of graph pooling layers:

- Flat graph pooling: which generates the graph-level representation directly from the node representations in a single step. For example, the mean/max/sum pooling layers can be adapted to GNN by applying them to each feature channel.
- Hierarchical graph pooling: which summarizes the graph information by coarsening the original graph step by step. In this design, there are often several graph pooling layers, each of which follows a stack of several filters.

#### Wu et al., A Comprehensive Survey on Graph Neural Networks, TNNLS 2021

The mean/max/sum pooling is the most primitive and effective way to implement down-sampling since calculating the mean/max/sum value in the pooling window is fast:

$$\mathbf{f}_{G} = mean/max/sum(\mathbf{f}_{1}^{K}, \mathbf{f}_{2}^{K}, \cdots, \mathbf{f}_{N}^{K})$$
(34)

where K is the index of the last graph convolutional layer.

#### Li et al., Gated Graph Sequence Neural Networks, ICLR 2016

An attention-based flat pooling operation utilizes an attention score to summarize the node representations for generating the graph representation. Specifically, the attention score for node  $v_i$  is computed as:

$$s_{i} = \frac{\exp\left(h(\mathbf{F}_{i})\right)}{\sum_{v_{i} \in \mathcal{N}(v_{i})} \exp\left(h(\mathbf{F}_{j})\right)}$$
(35)

where *h* is a feedforward network on map  $\mathbf{F}_i$  to a scalar. With the learned attention scores, the graph representation can be summarized from the node representations as:

$$\mathbf{f}_{G} = \sum_{\mathbf{v}_{j} \in \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v}_{i})} s_{i} \cdot tanh(\mathbf{F}_{i}\mathbf{\Theta}_{i})$$
(36)

where  $\Theta_i$  are parameters to be learned.

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The aforementioned pooling methods mainly consider graph features and usually ignore the hierarchical graph structural information. Hierarchical graph pooling layers aim to preserve such information by coarsening the graph step by step until the graph representation is achieved. There are roughly two ways to coarsen the graph:

- Downsampling-based graph pooling: selects the most important nodes as the nodes for the coarsened graph.
- Supernode-based graph pooling: combines nodes in the input graph to form supernodes that serve as the nodes for the coarsened graph.

The main difference between the two ways is that the downsampling based methods keep nodes from the original graph while the supernode-based methods generate new nodes for the coarsened graph.

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### Downsampling-based graph pooling:

To coarsen the input graph, a set of  $N_{op}$  nodes are selected according to some importance measures, and then graph structure and node features for the coarsened graph are formed upon these nodes.

There are three key parts in a downsampling-based graph pooling layers:

- Develop the measure for downsampling.
- Generate graph structure for the coarsened graph.
- Generate node features for the coarsened graph.

#### Gao et al., Graph U-Nets, ICML 2019

In gPool layer, the importance measure for nodes is learned from the input node features  $\mathbf{F}^{ip}$  as:

$$\mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{F}^{i\rho}\mathbf{p}}{||\mathbf{p}||} \tag{37}$$

where  $\mathbf{F}^{ip} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{ip} \times d_{ip}}$  is the matrix of the input node features and  $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{ip}}$  is a vector to be learned to project the input features into importance scores. With the importance scores, we can rank all the nodes and select the  $N_{op}$  most important ones as:

$$idx = rank(\mathbf{y}, N_{op}) \tag{38}$$

where  $N_{op}$  is the number of nodes in the coarsened graph and *idx* denotes the indices of the selected top  $N_{op}$  nodes.

Then, the graph structure for the coarsened graph can be induced from the graph structure of the input graph as:

$$\mathbf{A}^{op} = \mathbf{A}^{ip}(idx, idx) \tag{39}$$

Similarly, the node features can also be extracted from the input node features. In addition, it adopts a gating system to control the information flow from the input features to the new features. Specifically, the selected nodes with a higher importance score can have more information flow to the coarsened graph, by:

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{y}} = \sigma(\mathbf{y}(idx)); \quad \widetilde{\mathbf{F}} = \mathbf{F}^{ip}(idx, :); \quad \mathbf{F}_p = \widetilde{\mathbf{F}} \odot \left(\widetilde{\mathbf{y}} \mathbf{1}_{d_{ip}}^T\right)$$
(40)

where  $\sigma()$  is the sigmoid function mapping the importance score to (0, 1).

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#### Lee et al., Self-Attention Graph Pooling, ICML 2019

The gPool layer learns the importance measure for nodes solely based on the input features, and ignores the graph structure information. To solve this problem, SAGPool utilizes the GCN filter to learn the importance score:

$$\mathbf{y} = \sigma \left( GCNFilter(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{F}) \right) = \sigma \left( \widetilde{\mathbf{D}}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \widetilde{\mathbf{A}} \widetilde{\mathbf{D}}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{F} \mathbf{\Theta}_{att} \right)$$
(41)

where  $\sigma$  is an activation function,  $\Theta_{att} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times 1}$  is the only parameter of the SAGPool, and **y** is a vector of self-attention score.

### Supernode-based graph pooling:

In downsampling-based graph pooling, the information about the unselected nodes is lost as these nodes are discarded. Supernode-based pooling methods aim to coarsen the input graph by generating supernodes. Specifically, they try to learn to assign the nodes in the input graph into different clusters, where these clusters are treated as supernodes.

There are three key parts in a supernode-based graph pooling layers:

- Generate supernodes as the nodes for the coarsened graph.
- Generate graph structure for the coarsened graph.
- Generate node features for the coarsened graph.

Ying et al., Hierarchical Graph Representation Learning with Differentiable Pooling, NIPS 2018

DiffPool learns a soft assignment matrix from the nodes in the input graph to the supernodes by using a GCN filter as follows:

$$\mathbf{S}^{(l)} = softmax(GCNFilter_{(l),pool}(\mathbf{A}^{(l)}, \mathbf{F}^{(l)}))$$
(42)

where  $\mathbf{S}^{(l)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_l \times N_{l+1}}$  is a cluster assignment matrix at layer *l*, each row of  $\mathbf{S}^{(l)}$  corresponds to one of the  $N_l$  nodes at layer *l* and each column of  $\mathbf{S}^{(l)}$  corresponds to one of the  $N_{l+1}$  clusters (supernode) at the next layer l+1. The *softmax* function is applied row-wisely; hence, each row is normalized to have a summation of 1. The *j*-th element in the *i*-th row indicates the probability of assigning the *i*-th node to the *j*-th supernode.

With the assignment matrix  $\mathbf{S}$ , the graph structure for the coarsened graph and the node features for the supernodes can be generated by:

$$\mathbf{A}^{(l+1)} = \mathbf{S}^{(l)^{T}} \mathbf{A}^{(l)} \mathbf{S}^{(l)}; \quad \mathbf{F}^{(l+1)} = \mathbf{S}^{(l)^{T}} \mathbf{Z}^{(l)}$$
(43)

where

$$\boldsymbol{Z}^{(l)} = \textit{GCNFilter}_{(l),\textit{embed}}(\boldsymbol{A}^{(l)}, \boldsymbol{F}^{(l)})$$

is the node embedding at layer *I*.

Note that, the two GCNFilters consume the same input data but have distinct parameterizations and play separate roles:  $GCNFilter_{(I),embed}$  generates new embeddings for the input nodes at layer *I*, while the  $GCNFilter_{(I),pool}$ generates a probabilistic assignment of the input nodes to clusters  $N_{l+1}$ .

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#### Ma et al., Graph Convolutional Networks with EigenPooling, KDD 2019

EigenPooling generates the supernodes using spectral clustering methods, which first constructs a set of non-overlapping clusters  $(N_{op})$  being regarded as the supernodes for the coarsened graph. Given the list of nodes in the k-th cluster  $\Gamma^k$ , a sampling operator  $\mathbf{C}^k \in \{0,1\}^{N_{ip} \times N^k}$  is defined as:

$$\mathbf{C}_{ij}^{k} = 1$$
 if and only if  $\Gamma_{j}^{k} = \mathbf{v}_{i}$  (44)

where  $\Gamma_j^k = v_i$  means node  $v_i$  corresponds to the *j*-th node in *k*-th cluster. Then, the adjacency matrix for the *k*-th cluster can be defined as:

$$\mathbf{A}^{k} = \mathbf{C}^{k^{T}} \mathbf{A}^{ip} \mathbf{C}^{k}$$
(45)

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# Graph Pooling—Hierarchical Graph Pooling

To form the graph structure between the supernodes, only the connections across the clusters in the original graph are considered. To this end, we first generate the intra-cluster adjacency matrix, which only consists of the edges within each cluster as:

$$\mathbf{A}_{intra} = \sum_{k=1}^{N_{op}} \mathbf{C}^k \mathbf{A}^k \mathbf{C}^{k^T}$$
(46)

Then, the inter-cluster adjacency matrix, which consists of the edges across the clusters, can be presented as  $\mathbf{A}_{inter} = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}_{intra}$ , and the adjacency matrix for the coarsened graph can be obtain by:

$$\mathbf{A}^{op} = \mathbf{S}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}_{inter} \mathbf{S}$$
 (47)

where  $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{ip} \times N_{op}}$  is an assignment matrix, which indicates whether a node belongs to a specific subgraph as:

$$\mathbf{S}_{ij} = 1$$
 if and only if  $\mathbf{v}_i \in \Gamma^j$  (48)

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## Preliminaries

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- Graph Autoencoders.
- Spatial-Temporal GNN.
- GNN on Complex Graphs.



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