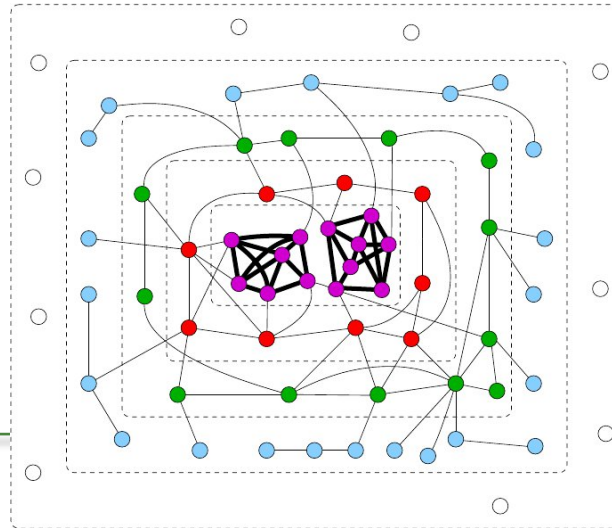


Graph Mining



Michalis Vazirgiannis

LIX @ Ecole Polytechnique

<http://www.lix.polytechnique.fr/dascim/>

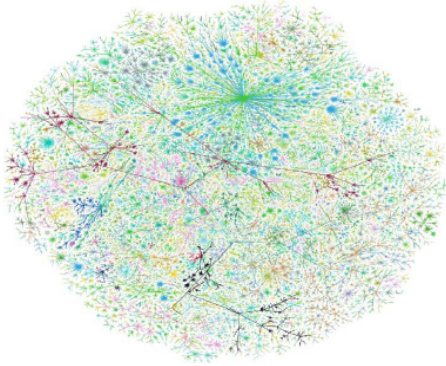
Google Scholar: <https://bit.ly/2rwmvQU>

November 2019

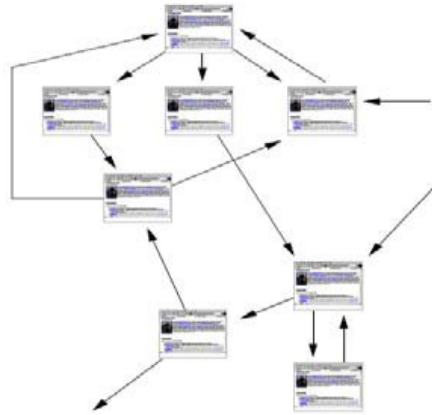
Outline

- Motivating Graph Mining and basic notions
- Graph Exploration and Generation
 - Degree distribution – power laws
 - Graph generators
- Machine Learning for Graphs
 - Community detection
 - Supervised learning with Graph Kernels

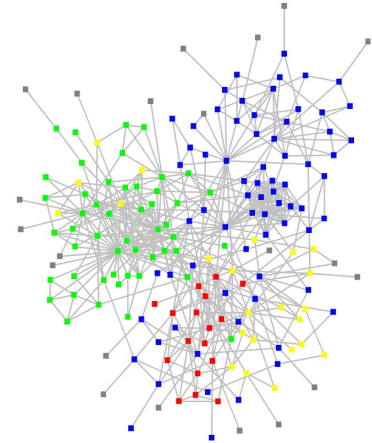
Networks are Everywhere



(a) Internet



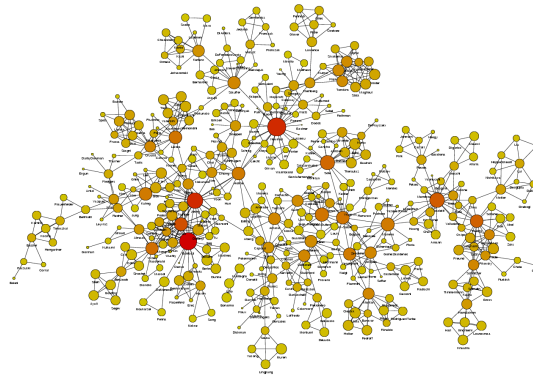
(b) World Wide Web



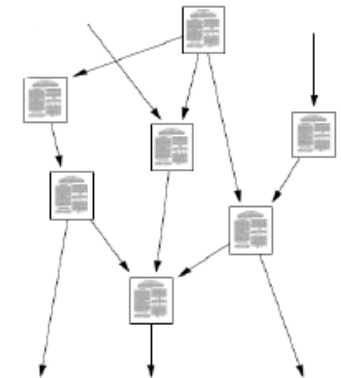
(c) Email network



(d) Social network



(e) Collaboration network



(f) Citation network

Graphs are ubiquitous!

■ Technological networks:

- Internet
- Telephone networks
- Power grid
- Road, airline and rail networks

■ Information networks:

- World Wide Web
- Blog networks
- Citation networks

■ Social networks:

- Collaboration networks
- Organizational networks
- Communication networks

■ Biological networks:

- Networks from Neuroscience
- Protein-protein interaction networks
- Gene regulatory networks
- Food webs

■ Software networks:

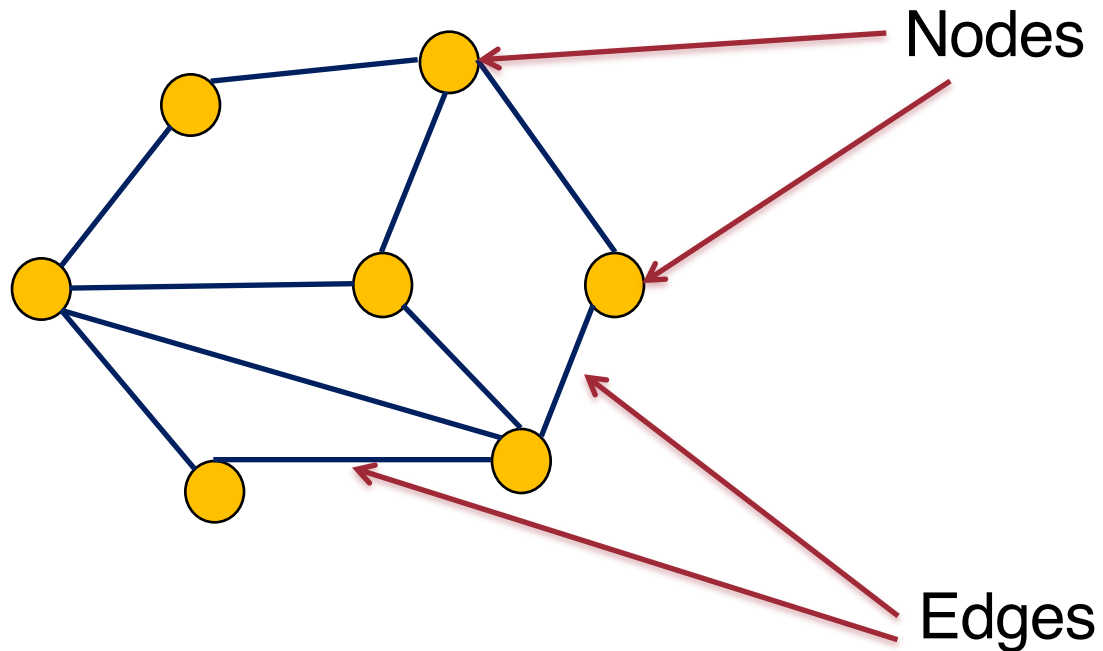
- Call graphs
- Software module/component interaction networks

Elements of Learning from Graph data

- **Graph models/ graph generators** graph generators (erdos reyni, preferential attachment, kronecker graphs)
- **Node base metrics:** - Ranking algorithms (Pagerank), Ranking evaluation measures (Kendal Tau, NDCG),
- **Graph exploration/preprocessing:** degree distributions, visualization
- **Supervised learning for graphs:** link prediction, graph kernels, graph classification
- **Unsupervised learning:** clustering, community mining, degeneracy.
- **Learning theory in graphs:** model ensembling/selection...

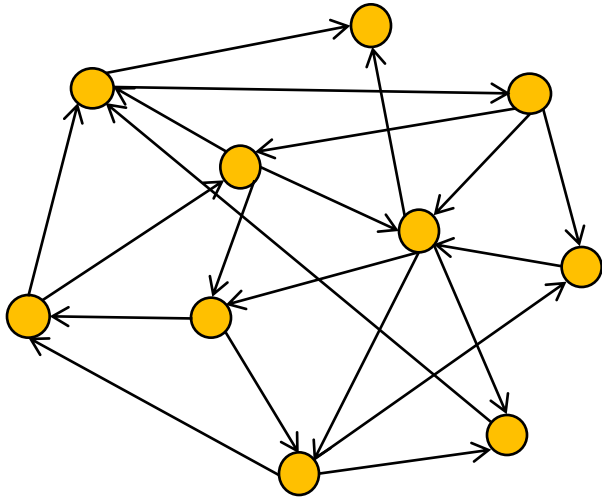
Graphs and Networks

- **Graphs allow for modeling dependencies**

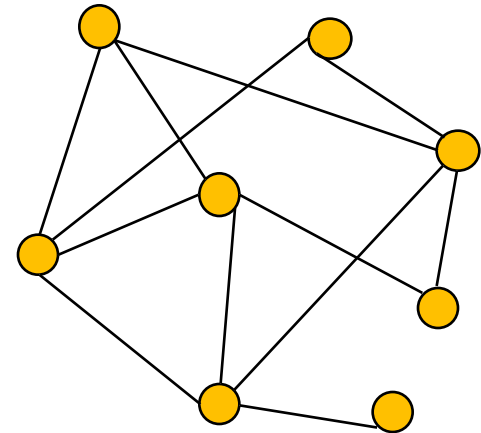


Basic Graph Definitions

- A graph $G=(V, E)$ consists of a set of **nodes** V , $|V|= n$ and a set of **edges** E , $|E| = m$
- Graphs can be **undirected** or **directed**



Directed



Undirected

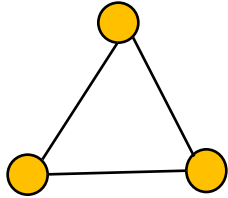
In-degree: $d_{in}(i) = \|\{j \mid (j,i) \text{ is edge}\}\|$

Out-deg: $d_{out}(i) = \|\{j \mid (i,j) \text{ is edge}\}\|$

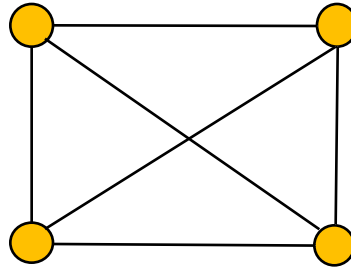
Degree: $d(i) = d_{in}(i) = d_{out}(i)$

Complete Graph

- **Definition:** A graph $G=(V, E)$ is called complete K_n if every pair of nodes is connected by an edge



**Complete graph
with 3 nodes:
triangle**



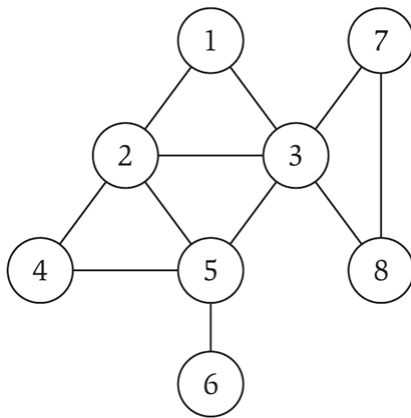
**Complete graph
with 4 nodes**

- What is the number of edges of a complete graph with n nodes?

- Note that, the notion of complete graphs is of particular importance for the problem of community detection
 - **Communities correspond to well-connected subgraphs**

Graph Representation: Adjacency Matrix

- A graph can be represented by the adjacency matrix W
 - Matrix of size $n \times n$, where n is the number of nodes
 - $W_{ij} > 0$, if i and j are connected
 - $W_{ij} = 0$, if i and j are not connected
 - In case of unweighted graphs, $W_{ij} = 1$, if (i, j) is an edge of the graph
 - Space proportional to n^2



Undirected graph

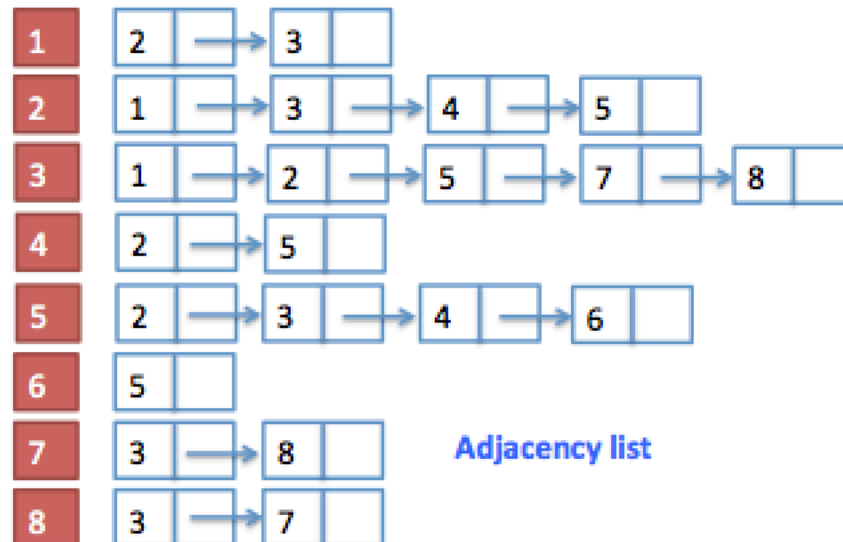
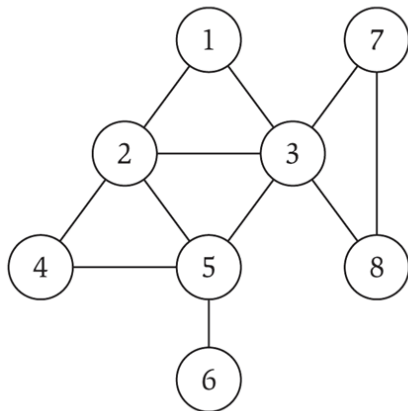
0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0
0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0

Adjacency matrix

Graph Representation: Adjacency Lists

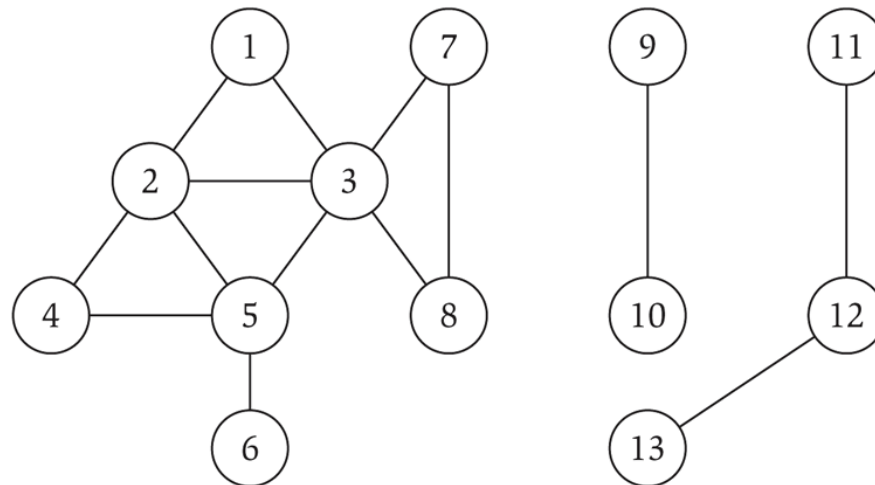
- Adjacency lists

- Representation of a graph with n nodes using an array of n lists of nodes
- List i contains node j if there is an edge (i, j)
- A weighted graph can be represented with a list of node/weight pairs
- Space proportional to $\Theta(m+n)$
- Checking if (i, j) is an edge takes $O(d_i)$ time



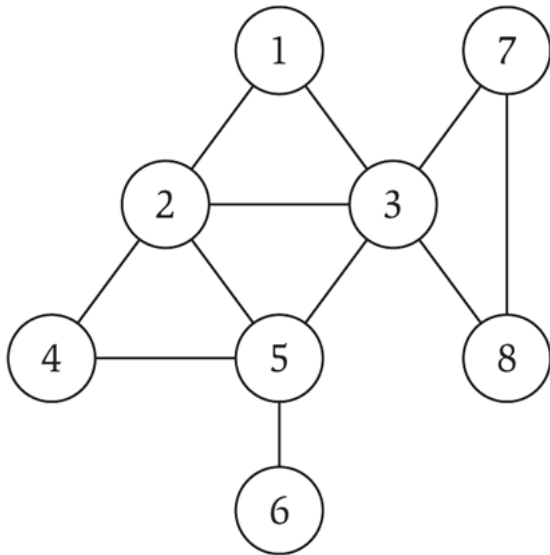
Paths and Connectivity in Graphs

- **Definition:** A path in an undirected graph $G=(V,E)$ is a sequence of nodes v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k with the property that each consecutive pair v_{i-1}, v_i is joined by an edge in E
- **Definition:** An undirected graph is connected if for every pair of nodes u and v , there is a path between u and v



Cycles in Graphs

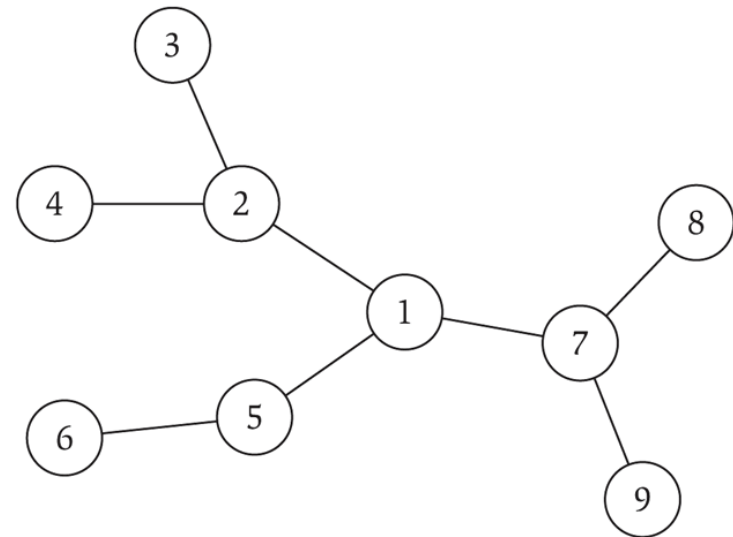
- **Definition:** A cycle is a path v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k in which $v_1 = v_k$, $k > 2$ and the first $k-1$ nodes are all distinct



Cycle $C = 1 - 2 - 4 - 5 - 3 - 1$

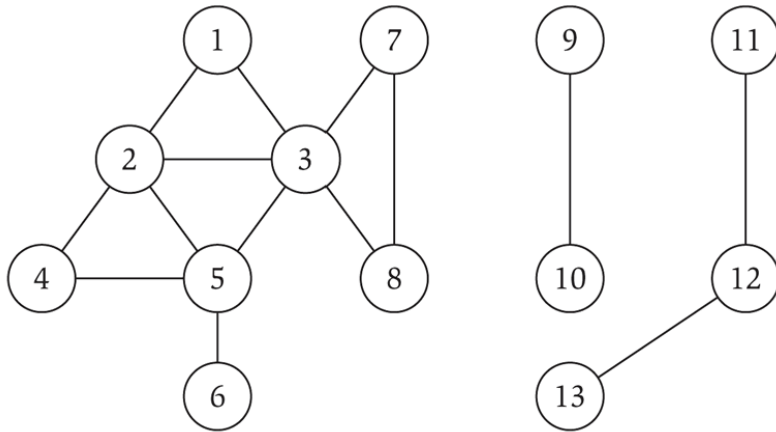
Trees

- **Definition:** An undirected graph is a tree if it is connected and does not contain a cycle
- **Theorem:** Let **G** be an undirected graph with **n** nodes. Then, any two of the following statements imply the third:
 - **G** is connected
 - **G** does not contain a cycle
 - **G** has **n-1** edges



Connected Components

- A **connected component** is a maximal connected subgraph of a graph **G** (there is a path between any pair of nodes)



Connected component containing node 1:
{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8}

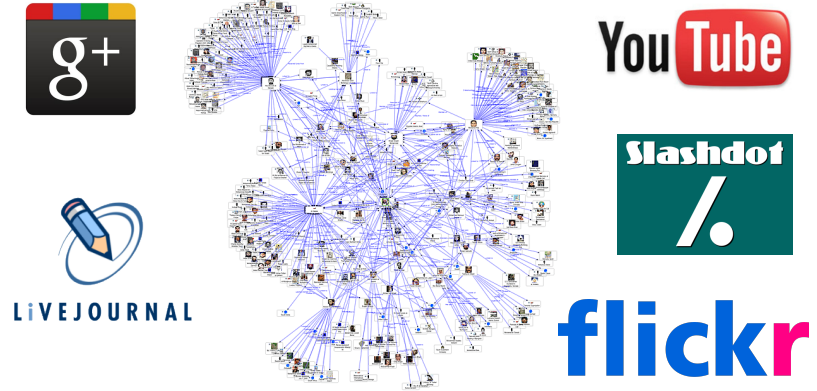
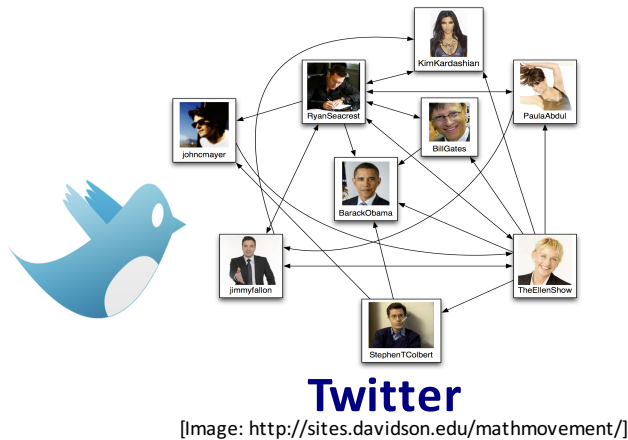
Graph with 3 connected components

Question: How can we compute the connected components of a graph?

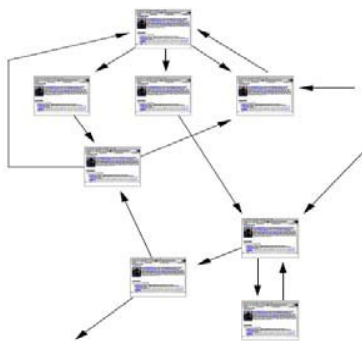
A: Apply BFS

Connectivity in Directed Graphs

- A plethora of network data from several applications is from their nature **directed**



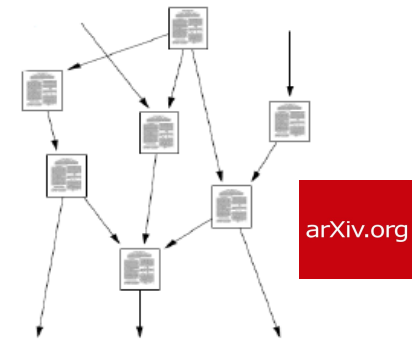
Online Social Networks



Web Graph



Wikipedia

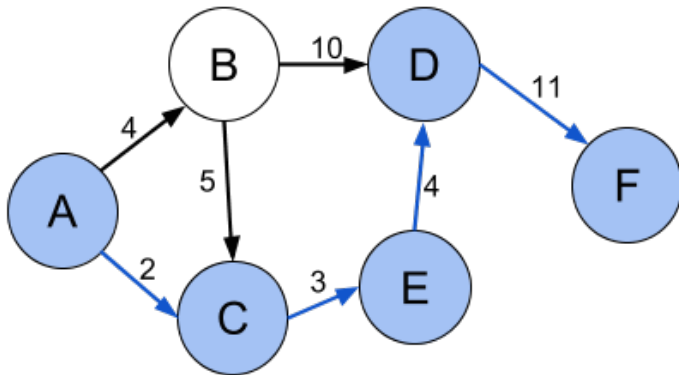


Citation Graph

Shortest Paths

■ **Definition:** find a path between two nodes in a graph, in such a way that the sum of the weights of its constituent edges is minimized

- Many applications (e.g., road networks)
- **Single-source** shortest path problem
- **Single-destination** shortest path problem
- **All-pairs** shortest path problem



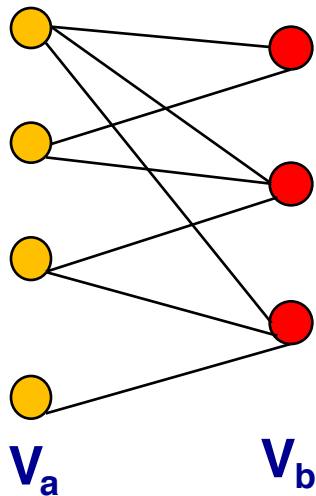
Many algorithms:

- Dijkstra
- Bellman-Ford

Shortest path (A, C, E, D, F) between vertices A and F in the weighted directed graph

Bipartite Graphs

- **Definition:** A graph $G=(V,E)$ is called **bipartite** if the node set V can be partitioned into two disjoint sets V_a, V_b and every edge (u,v) connects a node of V_a to a node of V_b



- Strong modeling capabilities and many real-world applications
- E.g., **Collaborative filtering** in recommender systems
 - Model the customer-product space using a bipartite graph (who-purchased-what)
 - If a user A has purchased the same product with a user B, then it is more likely to purchase another product as B did, than of a person selected randomly

Properties of Real-World Graphs

■ Networks arising from **real-world** applications obey fascinating properties

■ **Static networks**

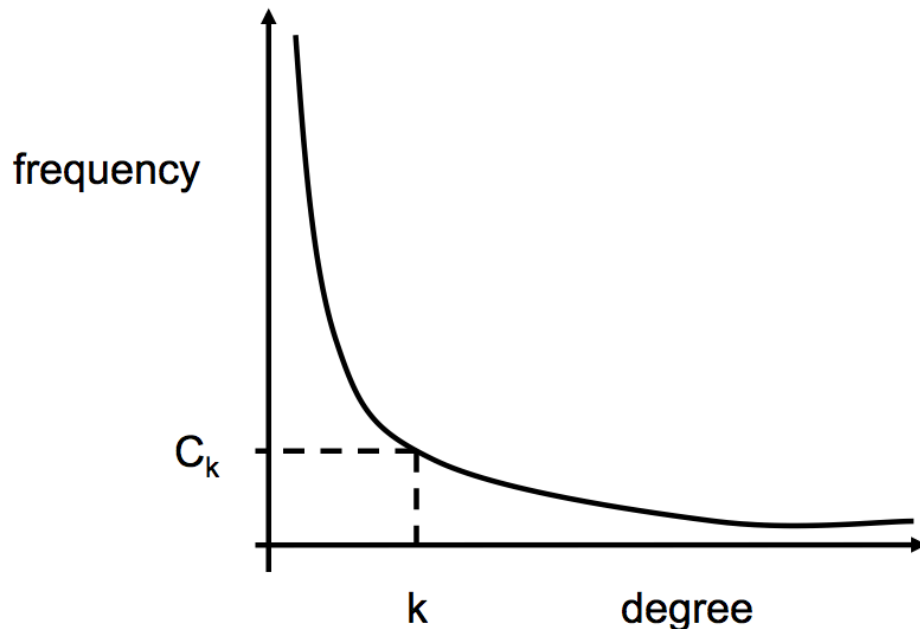
- Heavy-tailed degree distribution
- Small diameter
- Giant connected component (GCC)
- Triangle Power Law
- Community structure
- ...

■ **Dynamic networks**

- Densification
 - Small and shrinking diameter
-

Degree Distribution

- The **probability distribution** of the degrees over the network



- Let C_k = number of nodes with degree k
- **Problem:** find the probability distribution that fits best the observed data

Power-law Degree Distribution

- Let C_k = number of nodes with degree k

$$C_k = c k^{-\gamma}$$

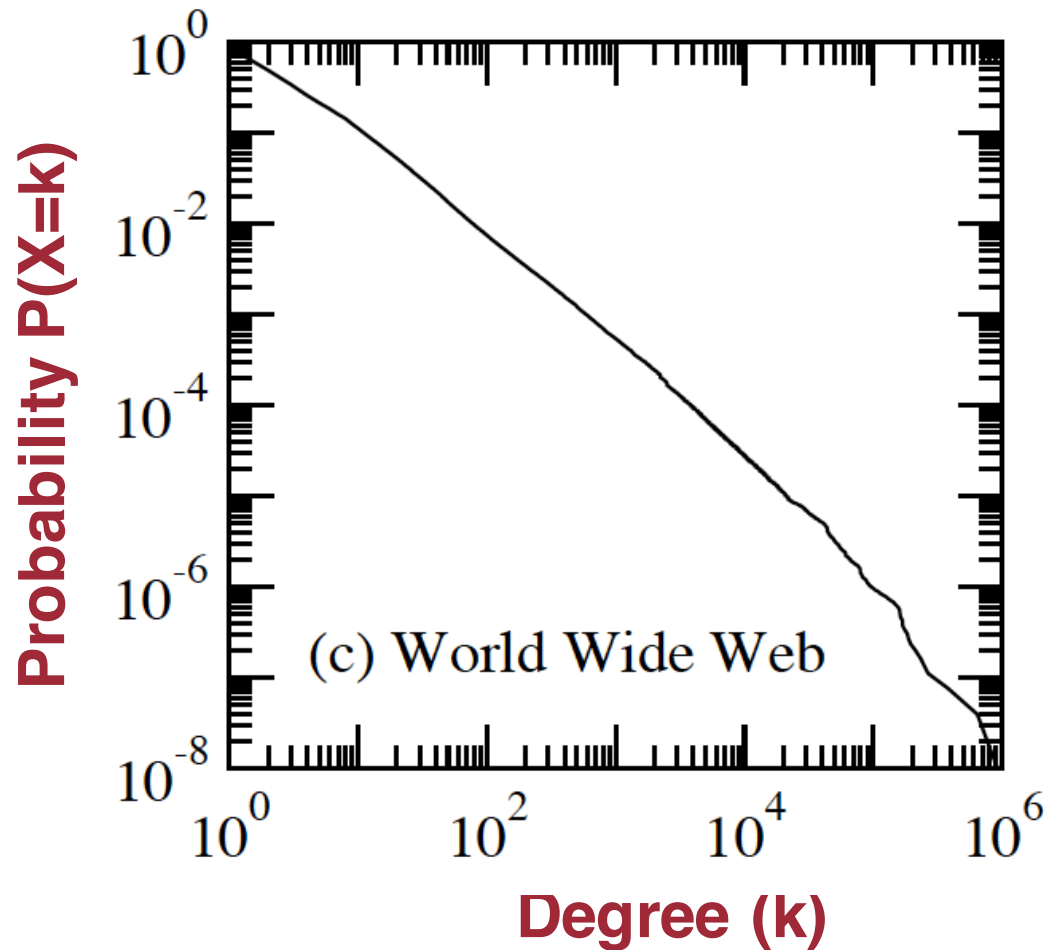
with $\gamma > 1$ and c a constant

- How to recognize a power-law distribution?

$$\ln C_k = \ln c - \gamma \ln k$$

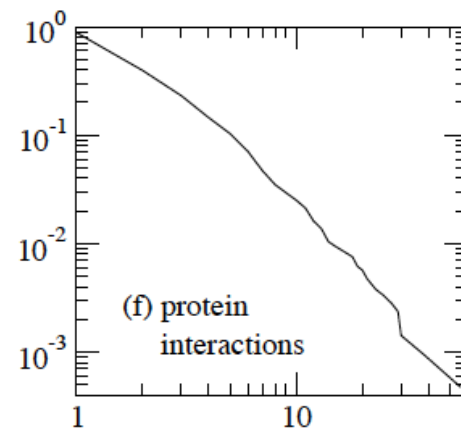
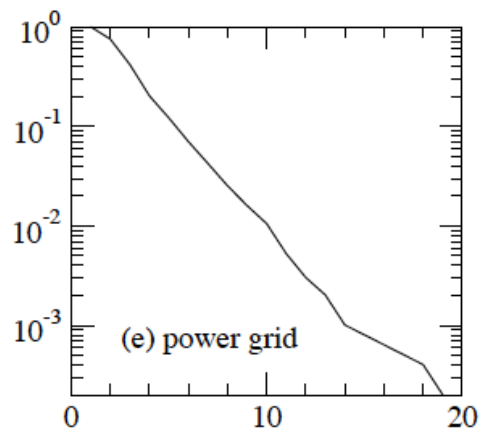
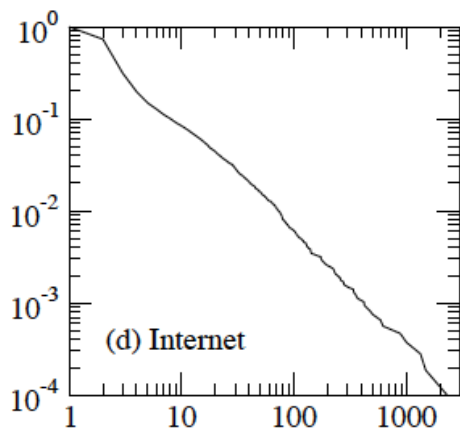
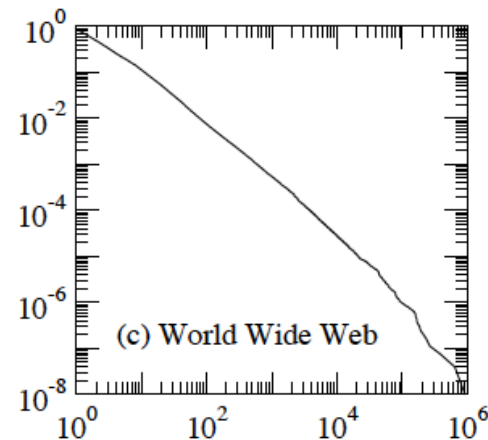
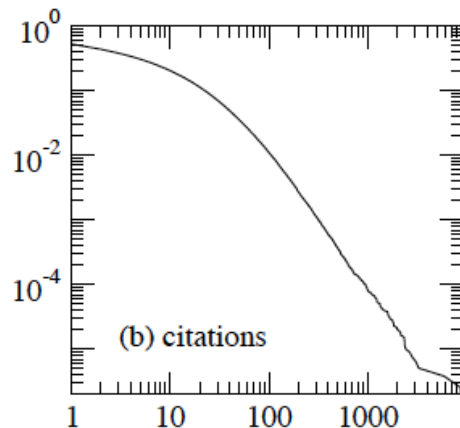
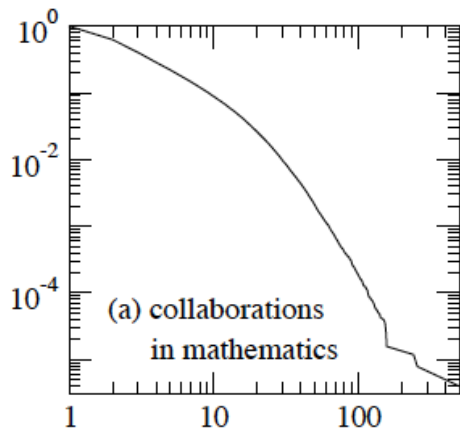
- Plotting $\ln C_k$ versus $\ln k$ gives a straight line with slope $-\gamma$

Power-law Degree Distribution in Real-Networks (1/2)



[Newman, 2003]

Power-law Degree Distribution in Real-Networks (2/2)



Cumulative degree distribution for six different networks [Newman 2003]

Power-law Degree Exponents

- Power law degree exponent is typically $2 < \gamma < 3$
 - Web graph [Broder et al., 2000]
 - $\gamma_{in} = 2.1, \gamma_{out} = 2.4$
 - Autonomous systems (Internet graph) [Faloutsos et al., 1999]
 - $\gamma = 2.4$
 - Actor collaborations [Barabasi and Albert, 2000]
 - $\gamma_{in} = 2.3$
 - Citation graphs [Redner, 1998]
 - $\gamma_{in} = 3$
 - MSN messenger graph [Leskovec et al., 2007]
 - $\gamma_{in} = 2$

[Leskovec, ICML, 2009]

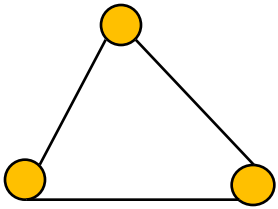
Summary – Degrees in Real Networks

- The degree distribution is **heavily skewed**
 - Distribution is **heavy-tailed** (heavier tails compared to the exponential distribution)

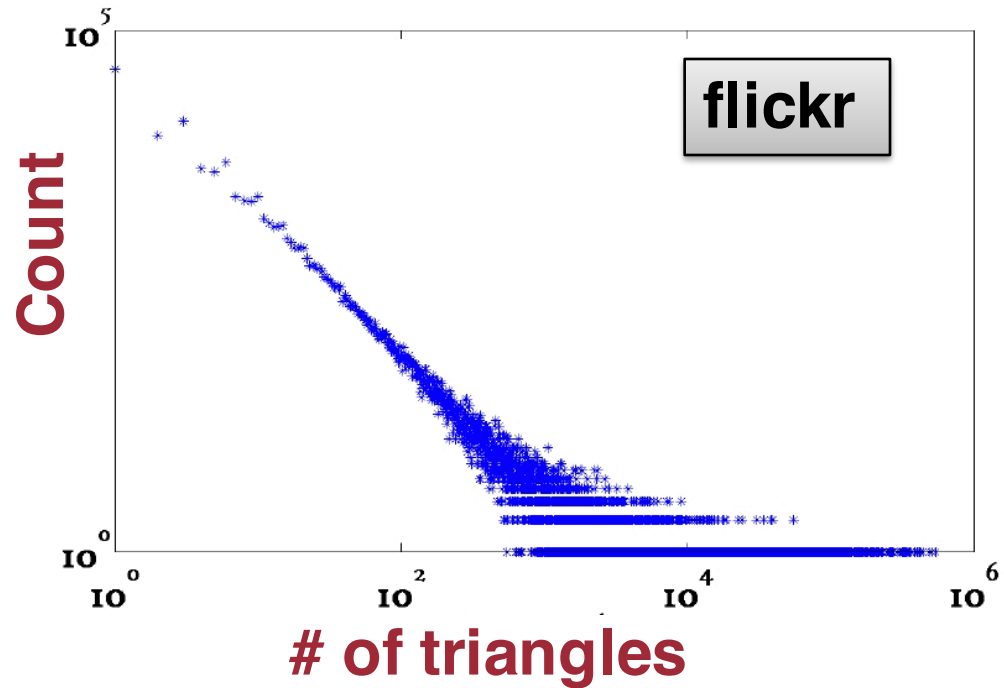
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{Pr(X > x)}{e^{-\epsilon x}} = \infty$$

- Various names and forms
 - Long tail, Zipf's law, Pareto distribution

Triangle Participation Distribution



Complete graph
with 3 nodes:
triangle

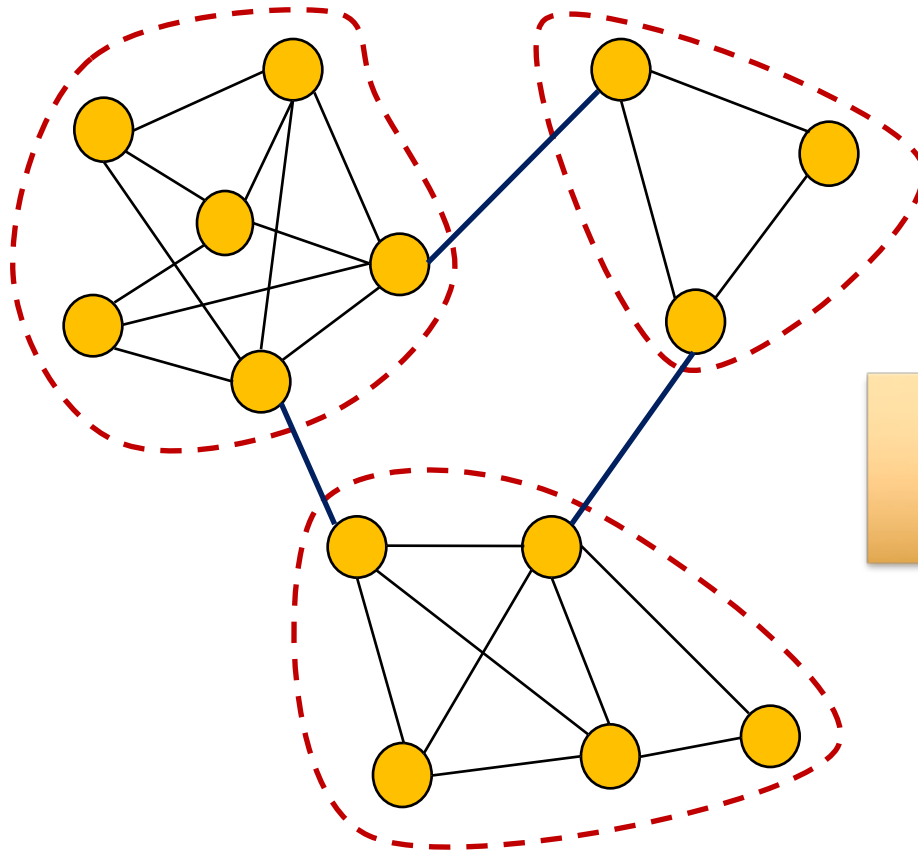


- Number of nodes that participate in k triangles vs. k in log-log scale
- **Heavy-tailed** distribution

Clustering Coefficient

- Captures the tendency of the nodes of a graph to cluster together
 - $T(G) = 3 \times \# \text{ of triangles in } G / \# \text{ of connected triplets}$**
- Captures the transitivity of clustering
 - If **u** is connected to **v** and **v** is connected to **w** ...
 - ... it is likely that **u** is also connected to **w**
- Real-world networks tend to have high clustering coefficient
 - Connections to the existence of clustering and community structure property

Community Structure

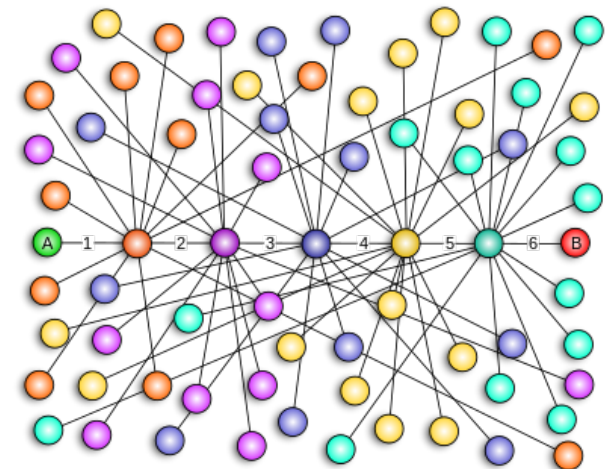


Example graph with
three communities

- Will be covered later on in detail
-

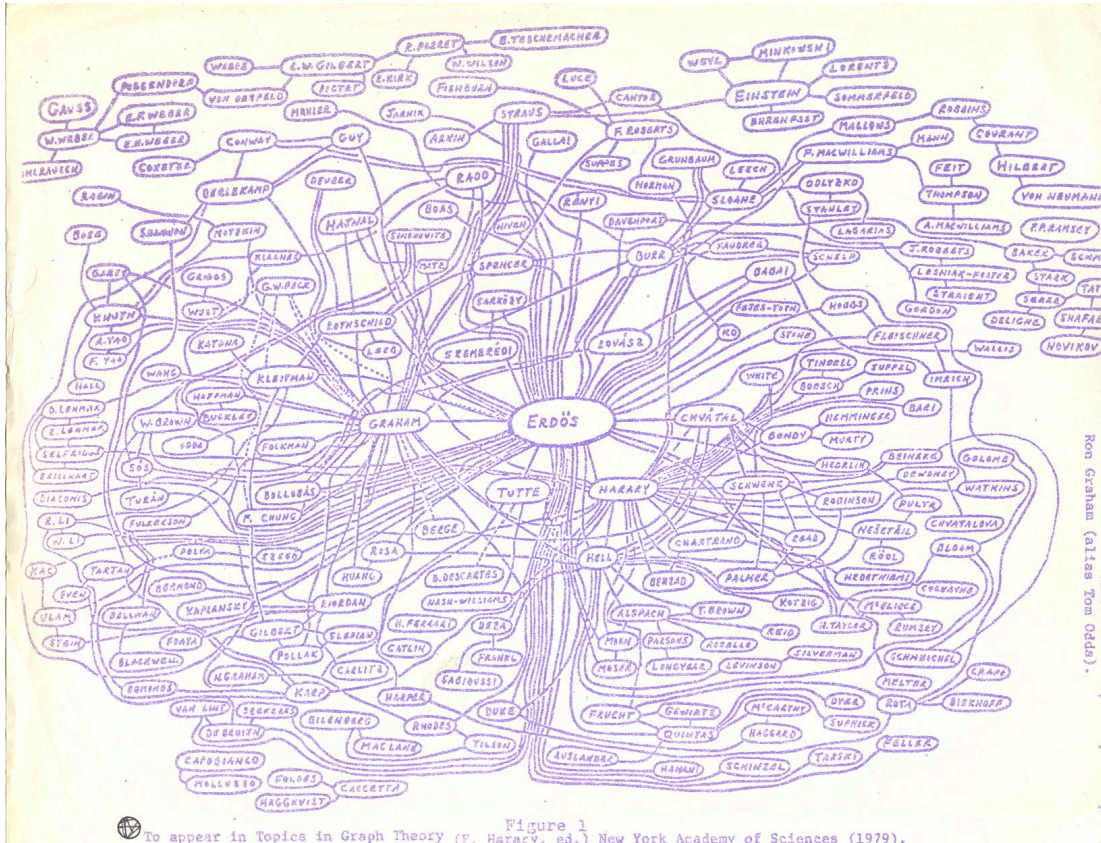
Small-world Phenomenon (1/4)

- Six degrees of separation
 - Experiment done by sociologist Stanley Milgram (1960's)
 - Randomly selected people in Nebraska were asked to send letters to Boston, by contacting somebody with whom they had direct connection
 1. People either sent the letter directly to the recipient
 2. Or to somebody they believed had a high likelihood of knowing the target
- For those letters that reached their destination, the **average path length was 5.5 to 6**
 - Short paths are abundant in the networks
 - **Decentralized routing:** people are capable of discovering which links to follow to reach faster the target

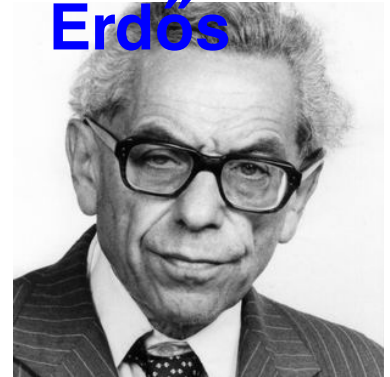


Small-world Phenomenon (3/4)

- The small-world phenomenon appears in various network settings



Paul Erdős



Source: UCSD

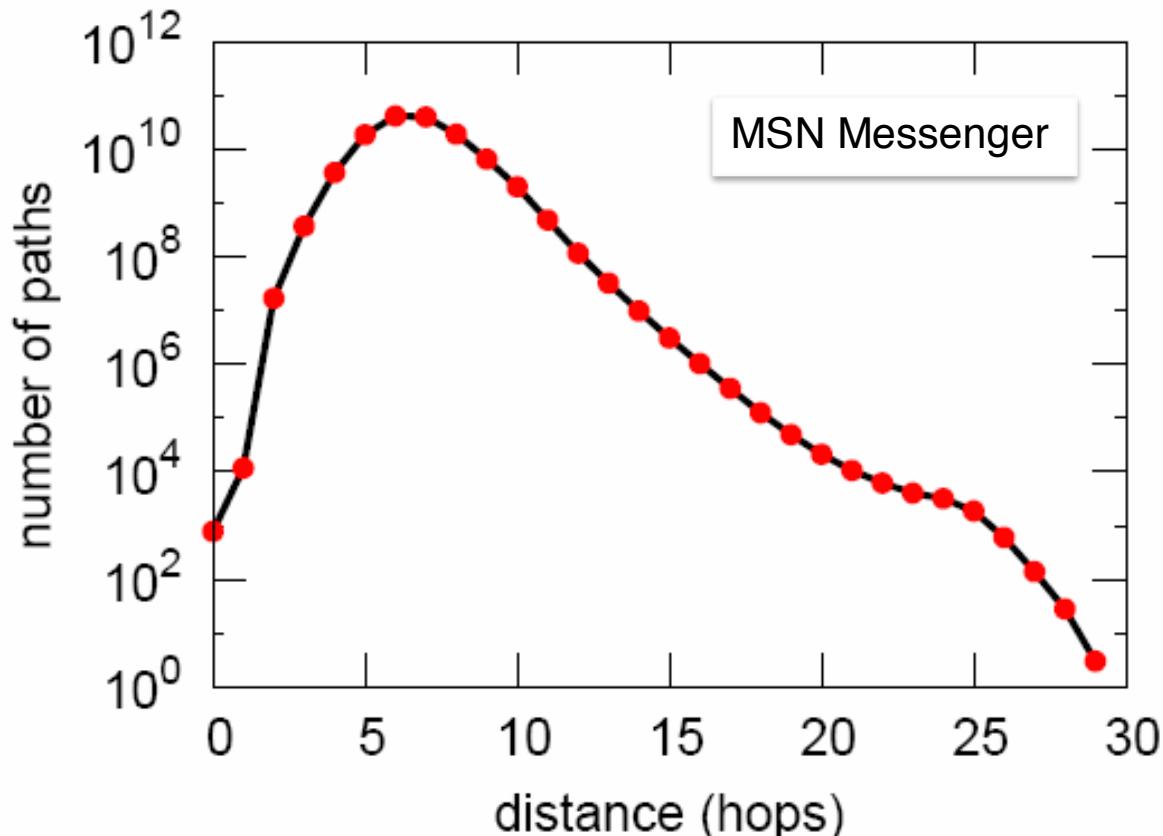
Source: physicsbuzz.physicscentral.com

Erdős number: # of hops needed to connect the author of a paper to Paul

Erdős

Small-world Phenomenon (4/4)

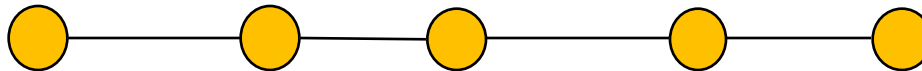
- The small-world phenomenon appears in various network settings



- **Average path length** is **6.6**
- 90% of the nodes are reachable in less than 8 steps
- **Facebook** network:
 - Average distance is **4.7**
 - [Ugander et al., 2011]

Small Diameter

- **Diameter** is the largest shortest path in the graph
 - Diameter is often sensitive to **chains** of nodes

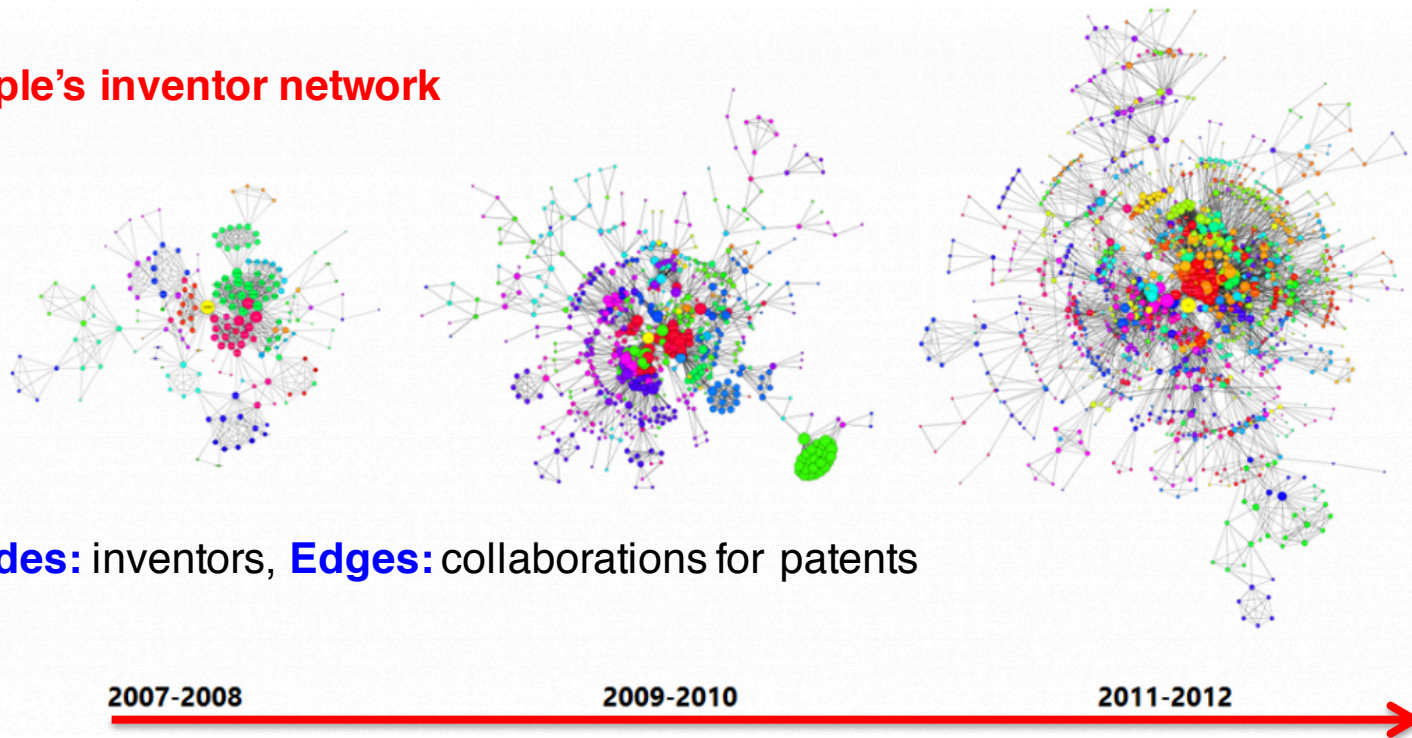


- In practice, we use the **effective diameter**
 - Upper bound of the shortest path over 90% of the pairs of nodes
- As an effect of the small-world phenomenon, real networks have **small diameter**

Network Evolution

- Real-world networks are not static, but they evolve over time
 - New nodes/edges are added and/or deleted
 - We are interested in making predictions about the structure of the network

Apple's inventor network



Nodes: inventors, **Edges:** collaborations for patents

2007-2008

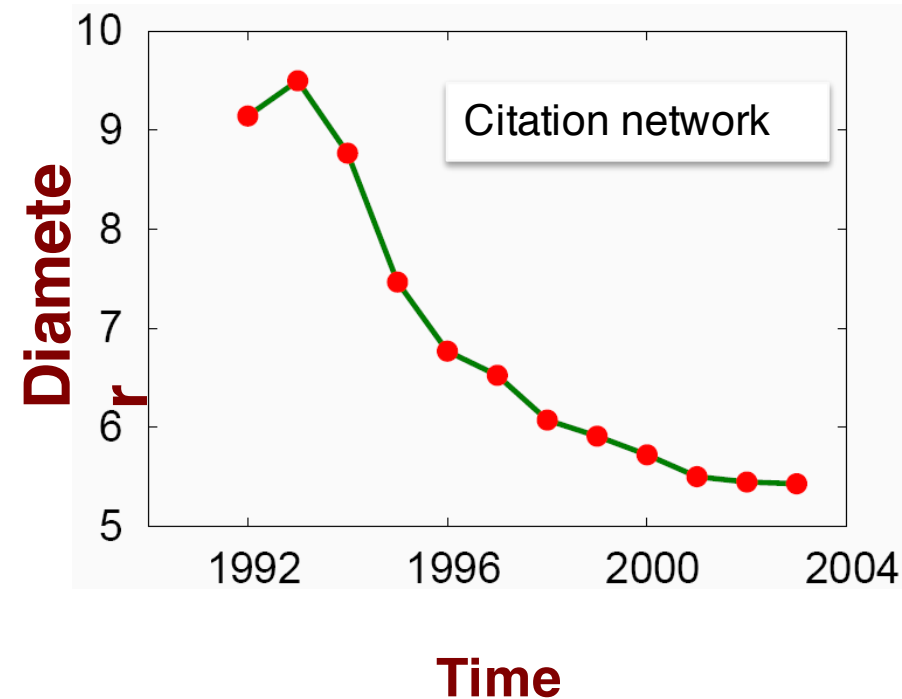
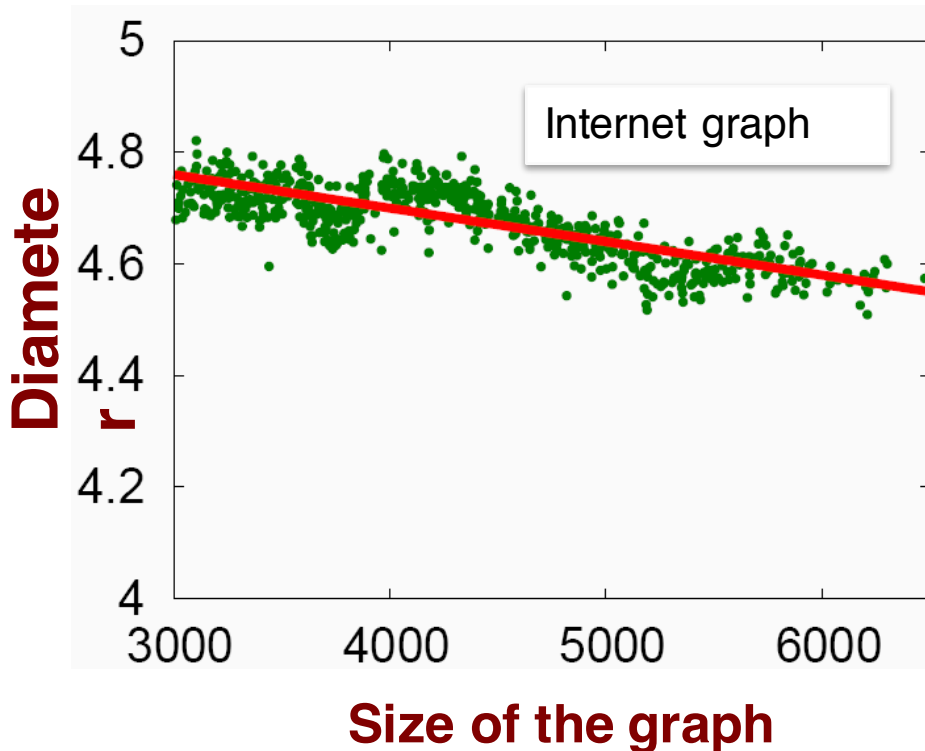
2009-2010

2011-2012

Time evolution

Shrinking Diameter

- **Q:** How does the **diameter** change, while the graph evolves with the addition of nodes and edges?
 - **Intuition:** the diameter should slowly grow (e.g., **$\log N$, $\log \log N$**)
- **Diameter shrinks over time**



Outline

- Motivating Graph Mining and basic notions
- Graph Exploration and Generation
 - Degree distribution – power laws
 - **Graph generators**
- Machine Learning for Graphs
 - Community detection
 - Supervised learning with Graph Kernels

Graph Generators - Network Evolution

Goal: Characterize, model and understand the structure of real networks

- How do real-world networks look like?
 1. **Empirical: statistical properties of networks** (e.g., degree distribution, diameter) **[Previous part]**
 2. **Generative models of network structure [Current part]**
 - Mechanisms that reproduce the underlying generative processes

Why do we Care?

- Creating models for real-world graphs is important for several reasons
 - Help us to **understand** and **reason** about the observed properties
 - Create **artificial data** for simulation purposes
 - **Predict** the evolution of networks
 - **Privacy preservation**: release the parameters of the generative model, instead of the network itself

What is a Network Model?

- Informally, it is a process (randomized or deterministic) for generating a graph
- Models of **static** graphs
 - **Input:** a set of parameter Π and the size of the graph n
 - **Output:** a graph $G(\Pi, n)$
- Models of **evolving** graphs
 - **Input:** a set of parameter Π and an initial graph G_0
 - **Output:** a graph G_t for each time step t

Erdős–Rényi Random Graph Model

- Suppose that we want to generate a network with **n** nodes
- The $\mathbf{G}_{n,p}$ model:
 - Graph with **n** nodes and edge probability **p**
 - For each pair of nodes **(u, v)**, add the edge **(u, v)** **independently** with probability **p**
 - Family of graphs, in which a graph with **m** edges appears with probability
- The $\mathbf{G}_{n,m}$ model: $p^m (1 - p)^{\binom{n}{2} - m}$
 - Select **m** edges uniformly at random

Degree Distribution of the ER Model (1/2)

- **Q:** Do Erdős–Rényi graphs look **realistic**?
- The degree distribution is **Binomial**
 - Let C_k denote the number of nodes with degree k

$$C_k = \binom{n-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-1-k}$$

- What if $n \rightarrow$ **infinity** and we fix the expected degree = c ?

If $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $np \rightarrow c$ (with $c > 0$) then

$$\frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \rightarrow e^{-c} \frac{c^k}{k!}$$

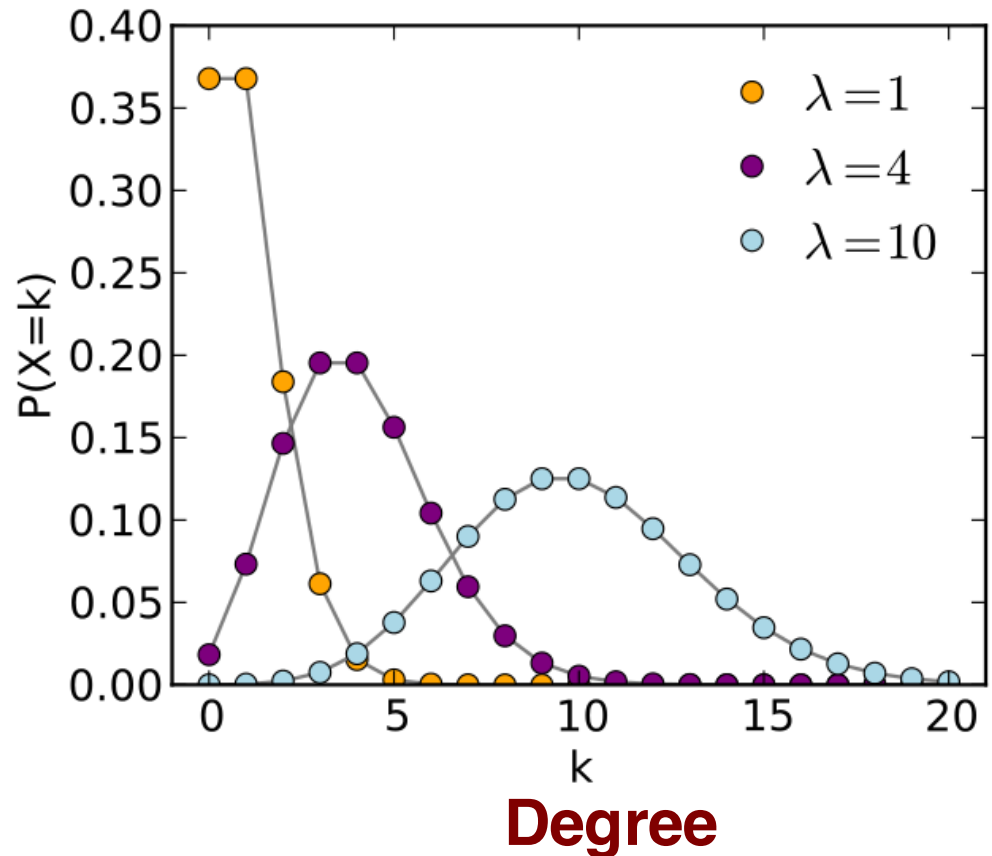
Poisson distribution

Degree Distribution of the ER Model (2/2)

Poisson distribution

$$\frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$$

P(node has degree k)



The degree distribution of ER random graph model is **not realistic** for real-world graphs

Preferential Attachment Model – General Idea

- Recall that real-world networks tend to have **power-law** (or in general heavy-tailed) degree distribution
- **Barabasi-Albert** (BA) model
 - Based on the idea of preferential attachment
- Intuition
 - Design a graph generating model that produces a small number of high degree nodes (hubs) and ...
 - ... also captures the long-tail (nodes with small degree)

Idea: Consider nodes that are more likely to connect to high-degree nodes

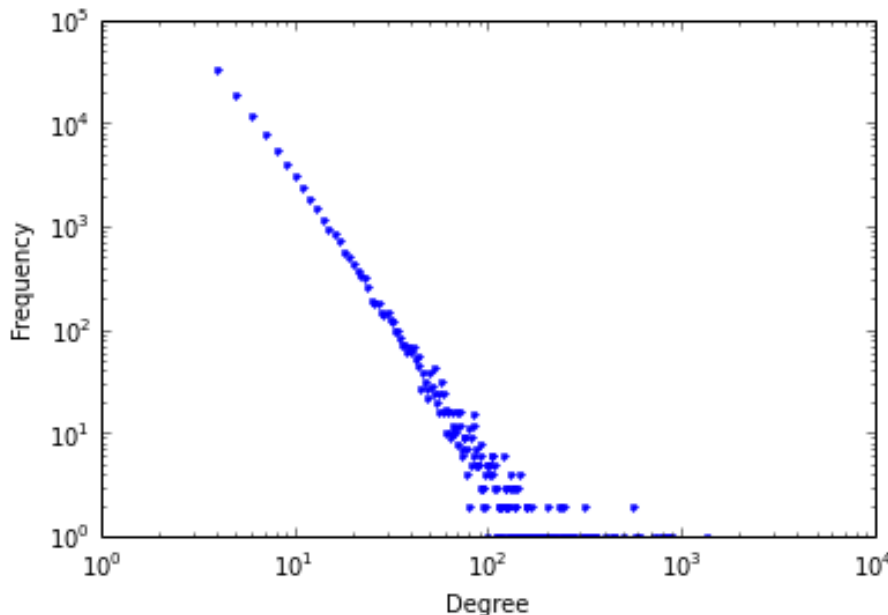
Barabasi-Albert Model (1/2)

- The **Barabasi-Albert** model:
 - **Input:** some initial subgraph G_0 and a parameter m that corresponds to the number of edges per new node
 - The process:
 - The nodes arrive one at the time
 - Each new node connects to m existing nodes selected with probability proportional to their degree
 - Let $[d_1, d_2, \dots, d_t]$ be the degree sequence at time t . Then the node at $t+1$ will be connected to node i with probability

$$p_i = \frac{d_i}{\sum_i d_i}$$

Barabasi-Albert Model (2/2)

- This phenomenon is also known as the **rich get richer** effect
 - E.g., a web page that already has many incoming hyperlinks is likely to get more in the future
- The BA model produces graphs with **power-law** degree distribution $C_k = k^{-\gamma}$, where $\gamma = 3$



- Barabasi-Albert graph
- $n = 100,000$ nodes
- $m = 4$

The BA model holds for several real-world networks (flickr, Delicious, LinkedIn) [Leskovec et al., 2008]

Network Models and Temporal Evolution

- Most of the existing models (e.g., BA) consider that
 - The **number of edges** grows **linearly** with respect to the number of nodes
 - The **diameter increases** based on a factor of **$\log n$** or **$\log \log n$**
- In real networks we have observed
 - **Densification power law**
 - **Shrinking diameter**

How to model the temporal evolution of real-world networks?

Kronecker Model of Graphs (1/4)

- Reminder: **Kronecker product** of matrices
 - $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ an $n \times m$ matrix
 - $\mathbf{B} = [b_{ij}]$ an $p \times q$ matrix
 - Then $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \boxtimes \mathbf{B}$ is defined as the $np \times mq$ matrix

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B} \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1}\mathbf{B} & a_{1,2}\mathbf{B} & \cdots & a_{1,m}\mathbf{B} \\ a_{2,1}\mathbf{B} & a_{2,2}\mathbf{B} & \cdots & a_{2,m}\mathbf{B} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n,1}\mathbf{B} & a_{n,2}\mathbf{B} & \cdots & a_{n,m}\mathbf{B} \end{pmatrix}$$

- **Intuition:** repeat the Kronecker product between the adjacency matrix of an initial graph to get the final graph

Kronecker Model of Graphs (2/4)

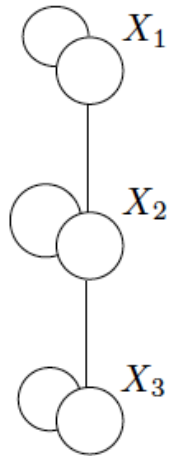
- **Kronecker** model:

- Start by an initiator adjacency matrix \mathbf{A}_1 of size $\mathbf{p} \times \mathbf{p}$
- The Kronecker product of two graphs is defined as the Kronecker product of their adjacency matrices
- The Kronecker graph after \mathbf{k} iterations is defined as the graph with the following adjacency matrix

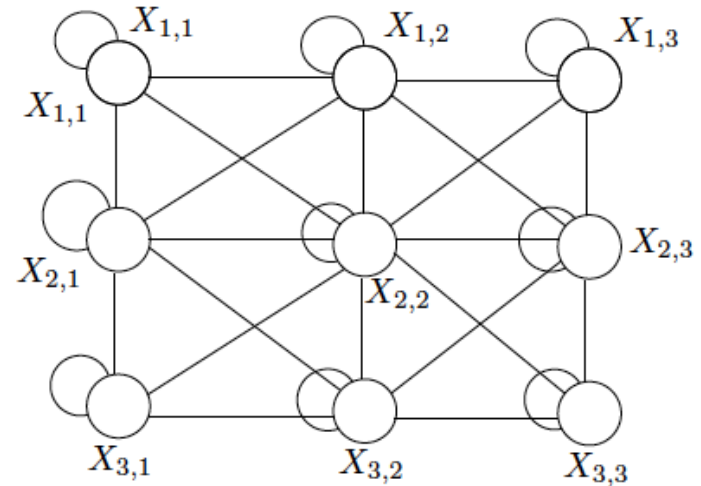
$$\mathbf{A}_k = \underbrace{\mathbf{A}_1 \otimes \mathbf{A}_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbf{A}_1}_{k \text{ iterations}} = \mathbf{A}_{k-1} \otimes \mathbf{A}_1$$

- Each Kronecker multiplication exponentially increases the size of the graph

Kronecker Model of Graphs (3/4)



Graph G_1

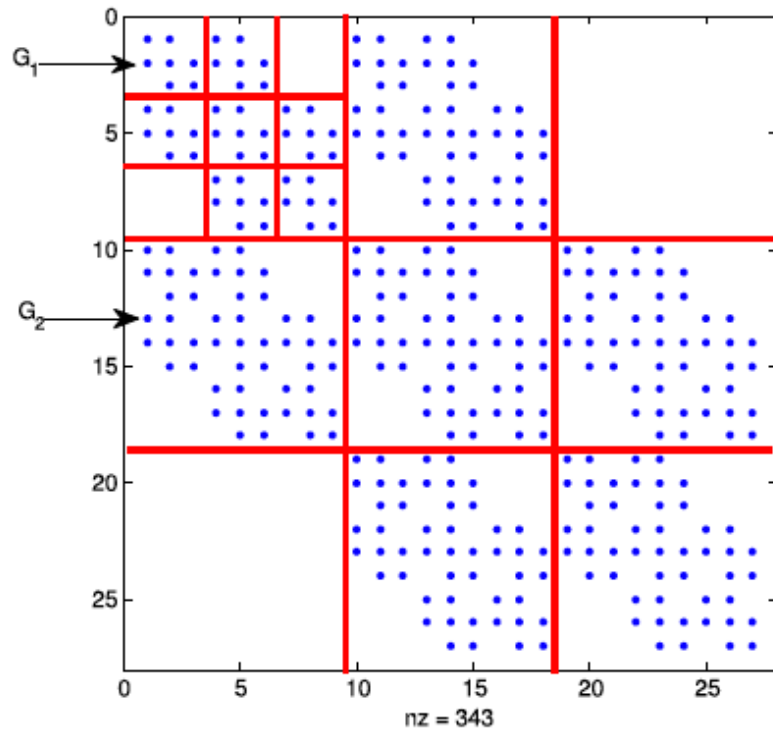


Graph $G_2 = G_1 \boxtimes G_1$

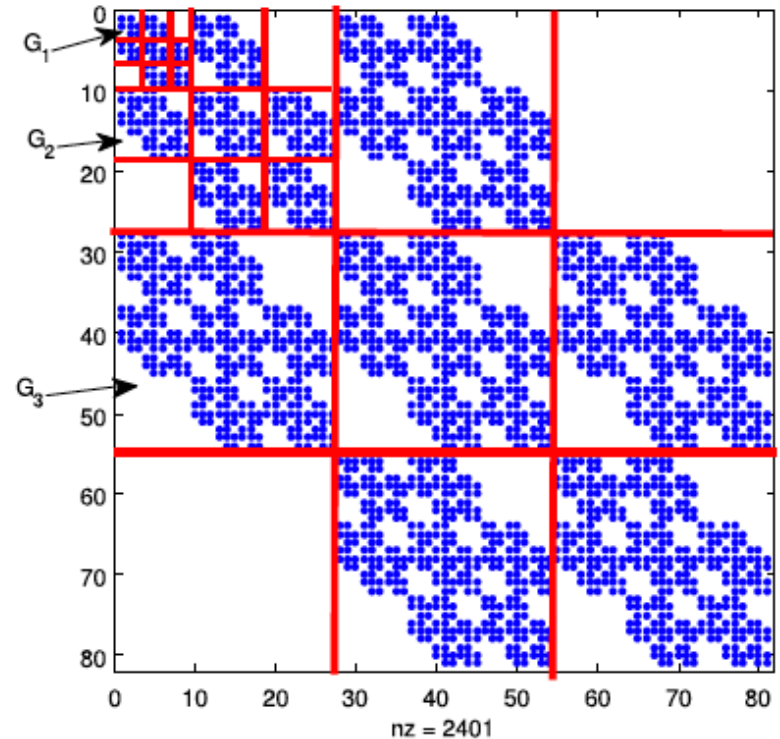
1	1	0
1	1	1
0	1	1

G_1	G_1	0
G_1	G_1	G_1
0	G_1	G_1

Kronecker Model of Graphs (4/4)



$$(\alpha) A(G_3) = A(G_2) \otimes A(G_1)$$



$$(\beta) A(G_4) = A(G_3) \otimes A(G_1)$$

Intuition: Recursion and self-similarity

Stochastic Kronecker Model

- In practice, the **stochastic Kronecker graph** is used
 - Start by an initiator matrix θ

a	b
c	d

- We obtain a graph with $n = 2^k$ nodes by repeating k times the Kronecker product: $\mathbf{A}_{k,\theta} = \theta \boxtimes \dots \boxtimes \theta$
- Consider the value (i, j) of the matrix $\mathbf{A}_{k,\theta}$ as the probability of existence of the edge (i, j) (applying randomized rounding)
- Typically, 2×2 initiator matrices produce good results

Generate Realistic Kronecker Graphs

- Given a network \mathbf{G} , how can we find a “good” initiator matrix θ , such that $\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{G}} \approx \theta \boxtimes \dots \boxtimes \theta$?
 - Fit the parameters θ of the model
 - Idea: use **maximum-likelihood estimation**

$$\arg \max_{\Theta} P(G|\Theta)$$

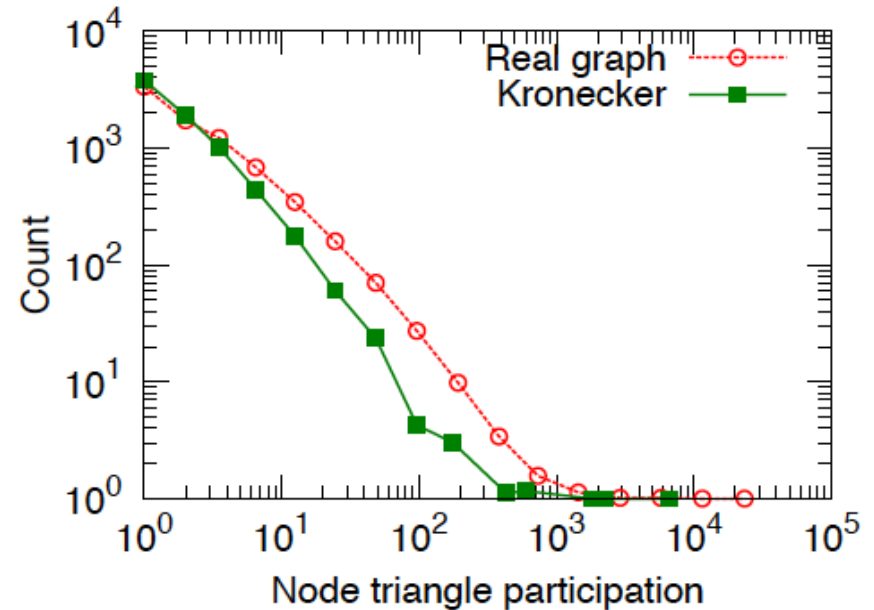
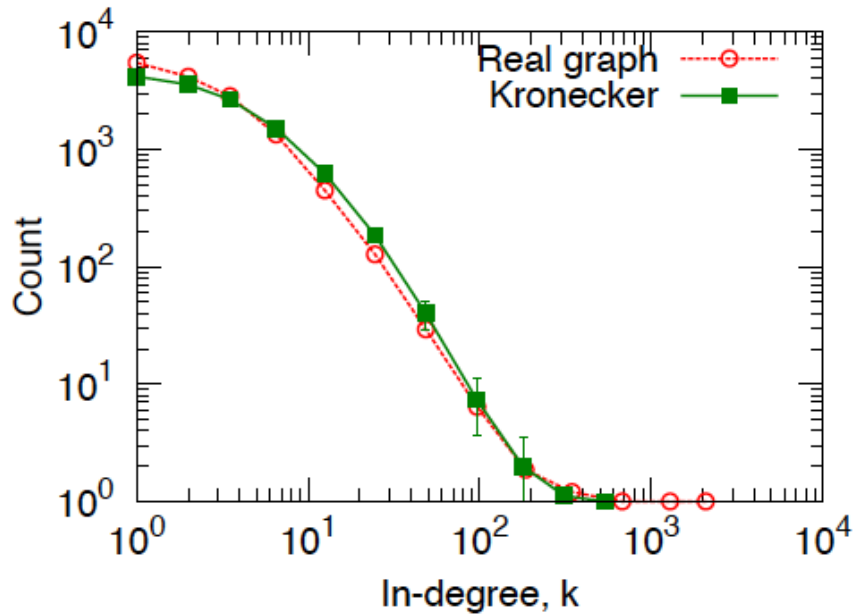
After Kronecker products

$$\arg \max_{G_1} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{[Green noisy matrix]} \\ \text{[Blue structured matrix]} \end{array} \right)$$

Properties of Kronecker Model

- The Kronecker (stochastic) graph model is able to reproduce a plethora of properties
 - Power-law degree distribution
 - Small diameter
 - Shrinking diameter
 - Densification power-law
 - Triangle participation
 - ...

Example: Fitting Kronecker Model to a Graph



Blog-to-Blog network

References

- J. Leskovec. Modeling Large Social and Information Networks. Tutorial at ICML, 2009.
- J. McAuley. Data Mining and Predictive Analytics, UCSD, 2015.
- D. Easley and J. Kleinberg. Networks, Crowds, and Markets: Reasoning About a Highly Connected World. Cambridge University Press, 2010.
- J. Leskovec, D. Chakrabarti, J. Kleinberg, C. Faloutsos, Z. Ghahramani. Kronecker Graphs: An approach to modeling networks. JMLR, 2010.

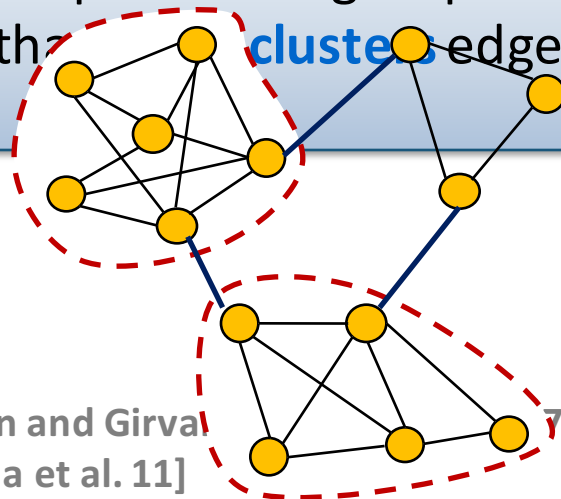
2. Community evaluation measures

3.

Basics

- The notion of **community structure** captures the tendency of nodes to be organized into modules (communities, clusters, groups)
 - Members within a community are **more similar** among each other
- Typically, the communities in graphs (networks) correspond to **densely connected** entities (nodes)

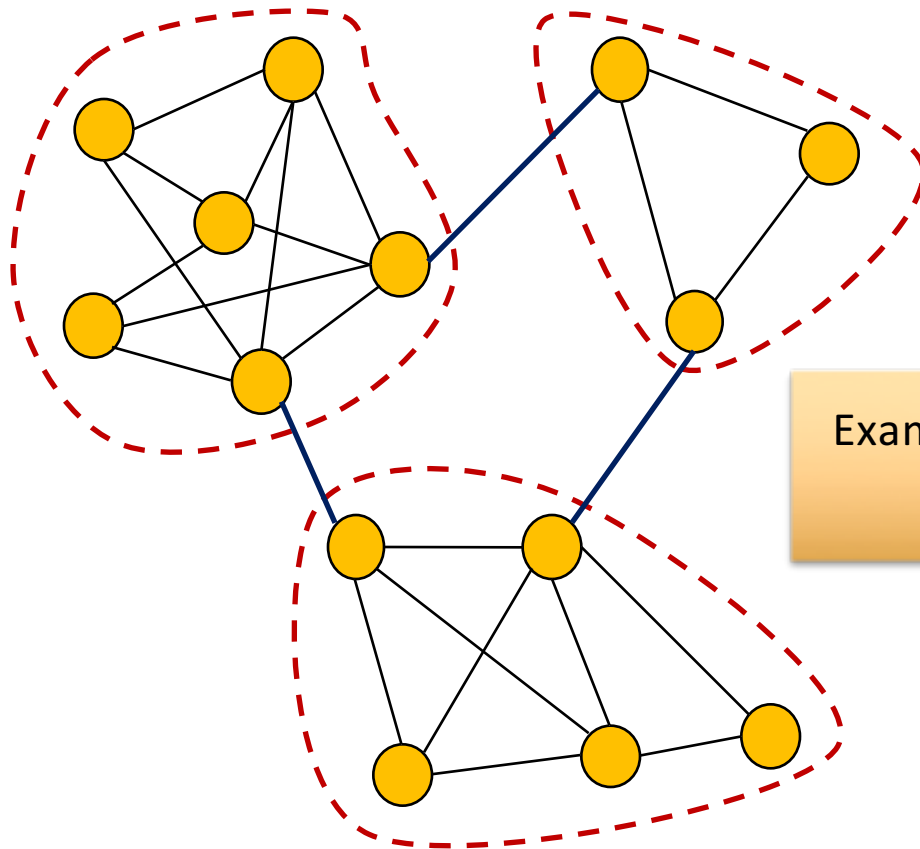
A community corresponds to a group of nodes with more **intra-cluster** edges than **inter-cluster** edges



Example graph
with three
communities

[Newman '03], [Newman and Girvan '04], [Fortunato '10],
[Danon et al. '05], [Coscia et al. 11]

Schematic representation of communities



Example graph with three communities

Community detection in graphs

- How can we extract the inherent communities of graphs?
- Typically, a two-step approach
 1. Specify a **quality measure** (evaluation measure, objective function) that quantifies the desired properties of communities
 2. Apply **algorithmic techniques** to assign the nodes of graph into communities, optimizing the objective function
- Several measures for quantifying the quality of communities have been proposed
- They mostly consider that communities are set of nodes with many edges between them and few connections with nodes of different communities
 - Many possible ways to formalize it

Community evaluation measures

■ Focus on

- Intra-cluster edge density (# of edges within community),
- Inter-cluster edge density (# of edges across communities)
- Both two criteria

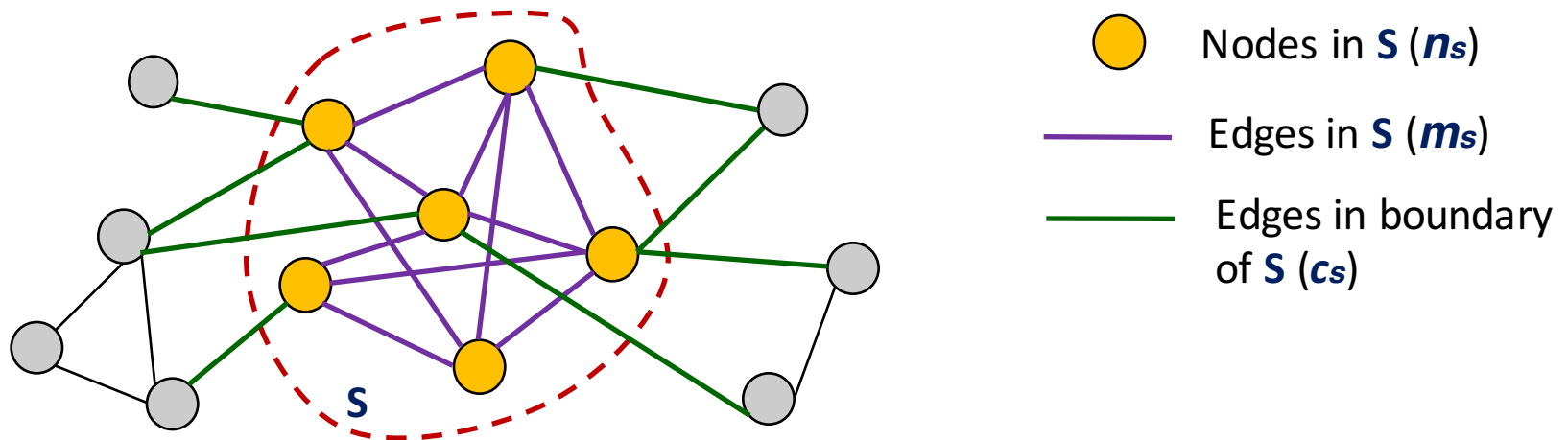
■ We group the community evaluation measures according to

- Evaluation based on **internal** connectivity
- Evaluation based on **external** connectivity
- Evaluation based on **internal and external** connectivity
- Evaluation based on **network model**

[Leskovec et al. '10], [Yang and Leskovec '12], [Fortunato '10]

Notation

- $G = (V, E)$ is an undirected graph, $|V| = n$, $|E| = m$
- S is the set of nodes in the cluster
- $n_s = |S|$ is the number of nodes in S
- m_s is the number of edges in S , $m_s = |\{(u,v): u \in S, v \in S\}|$
- c_s is the number of edges on the boundary of S , $c_s = |\{(u,v): u \in S, v \notin S\}|$
- d_u is the degree of node u
- $f(S)$ represent the clustering quality of set S



Evaluation based on internal and external connectivity

■ Conductance [Chung '97]

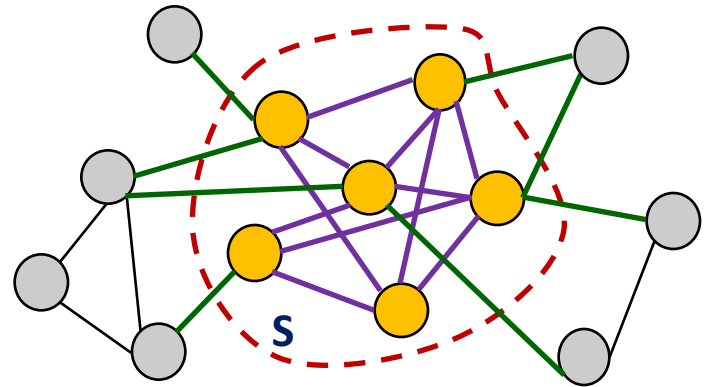
$$f(S) = \frac{c_s}{2m_s + c_s}$$

Measures the fraction of total edge volume that points outside **S**

■ Normalized cut [Shi and Malic '00]

$$f(S) = \frac{c_s}{2m_s + c_s} + \frac{c_s}{2(m - m_s) + c_s}$$

Measures the fraction of total edge volume that points outside **S** normalized by the size of **S**

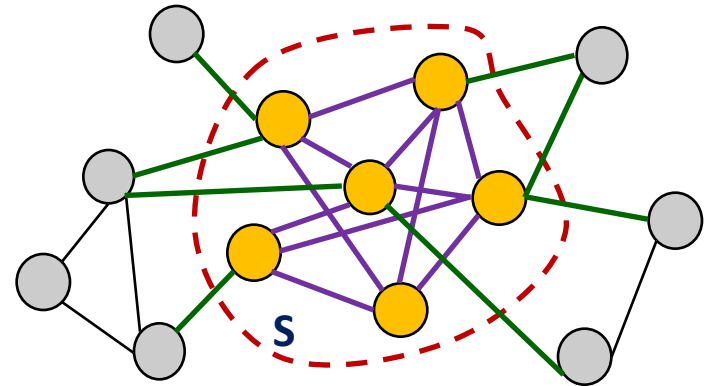


Evaluation based on internal connectivity

■ Triangle participation ratio (TPR) [Yang and Leskovec '12]

$$f(S) = \frac{|\{u: u \in S, \{(v, w): v, w \in S, (u, v) \in E, (u, w) \in E, (v, w) \in E\} \neq \emptyset\}|}{n_S}$$

Fraction of nodes in **S** that belong to a triangle



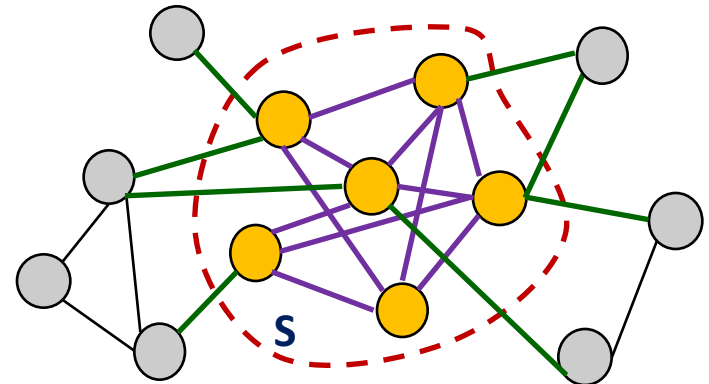
Evaluation based on network model

■ Modularity [Newman and Girvan '04], [Newman '06]

$$f(S) = \frac{1}{4} (m_s - E(m_s))$$

Measures the difference between the number of edges in **S** and the expected number of edges **E(m_s)** in case of a configuration model

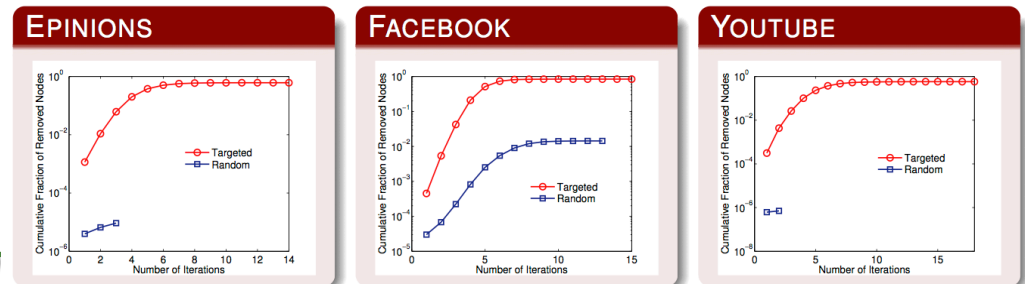
- Typically, a random graph model with the same degree sequence



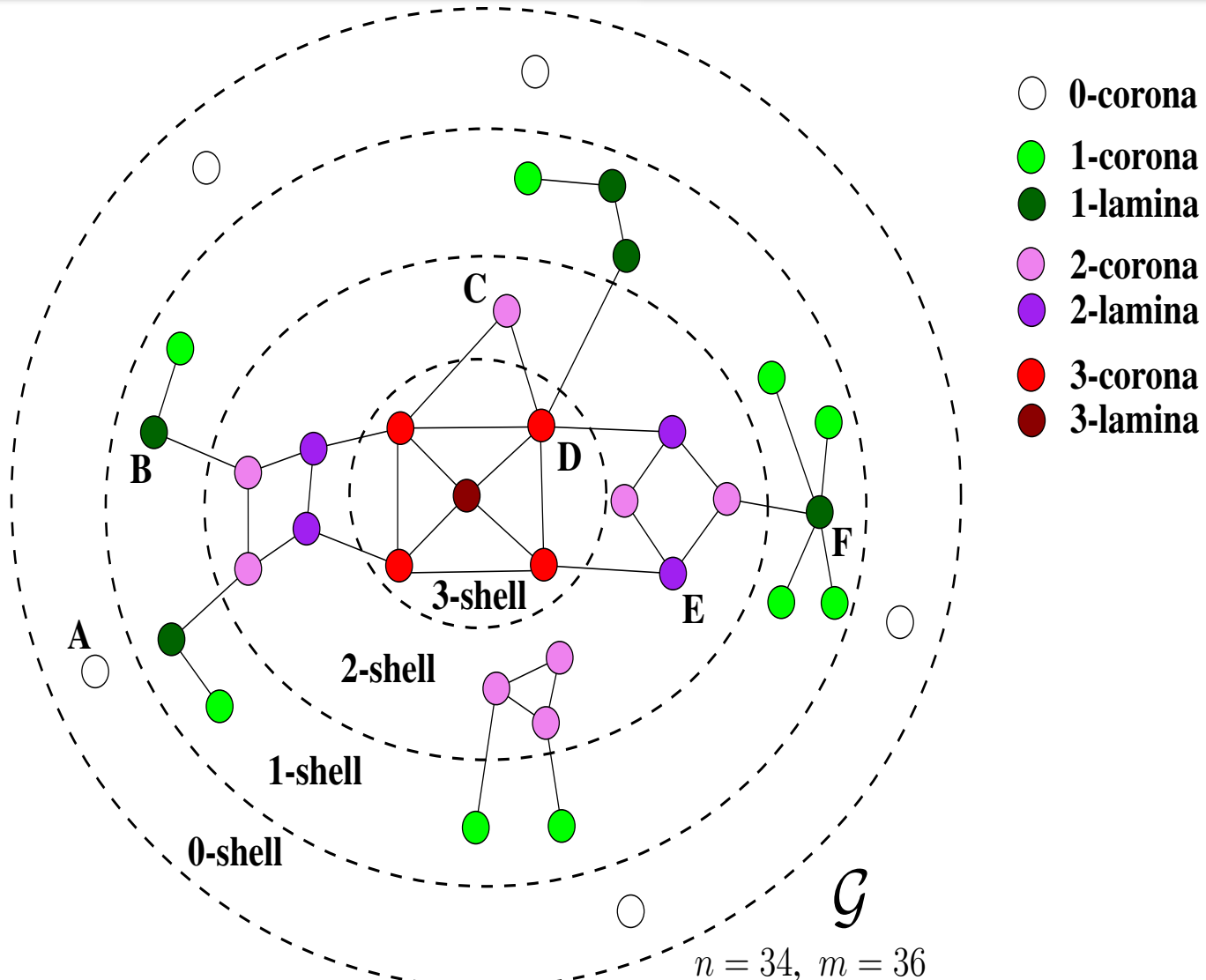
Graph Mining with degeneracy

■ Community detection & evaluation

- Identifying groups of users highly collaborating among them

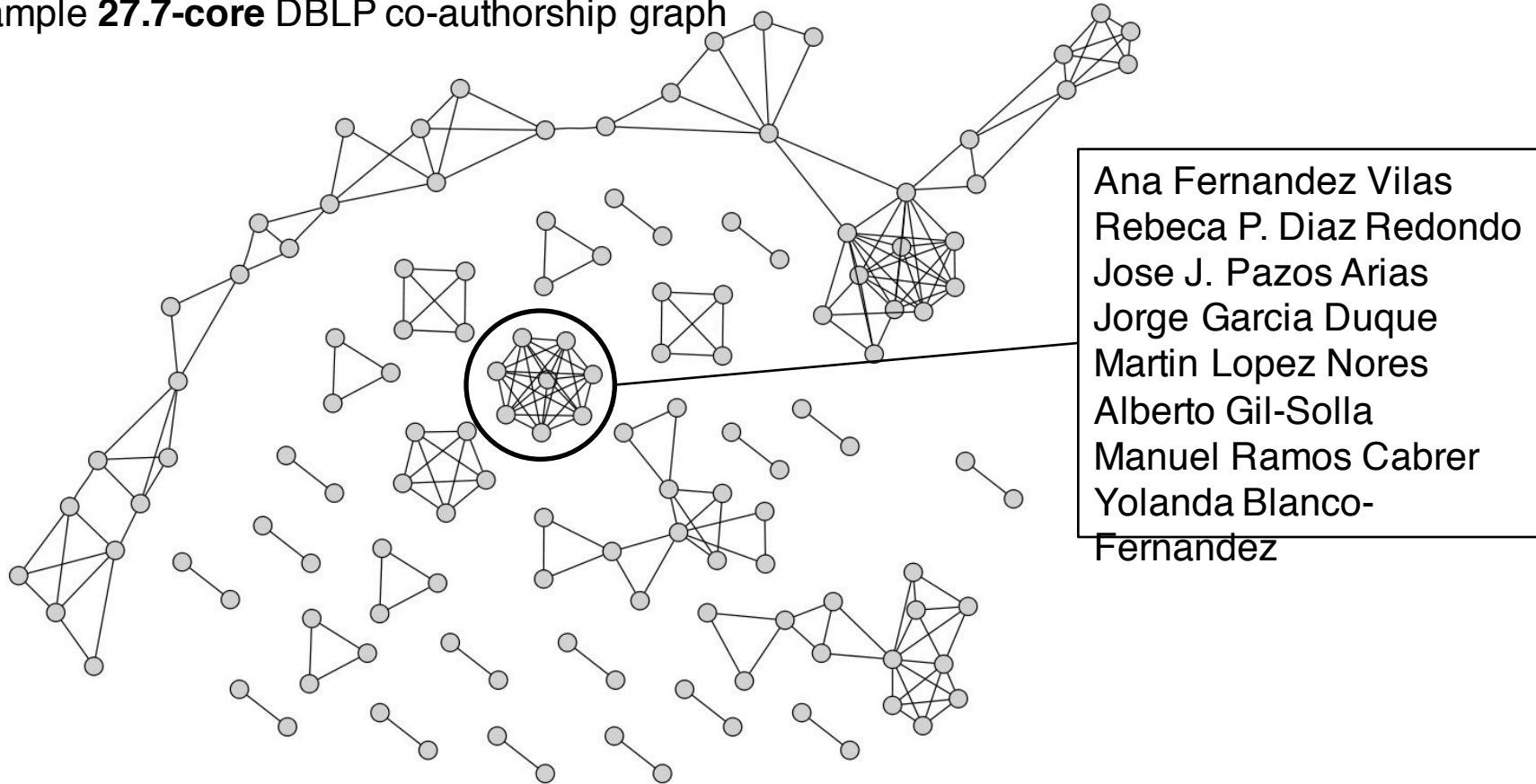


Graph Mining – k-core concept



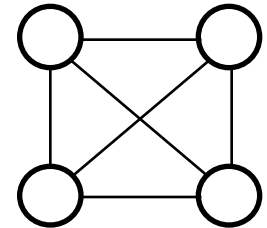
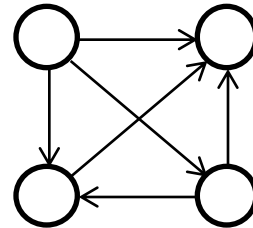
Community detection and evaluation

Example 27.7-core DBLP co-authorship graph



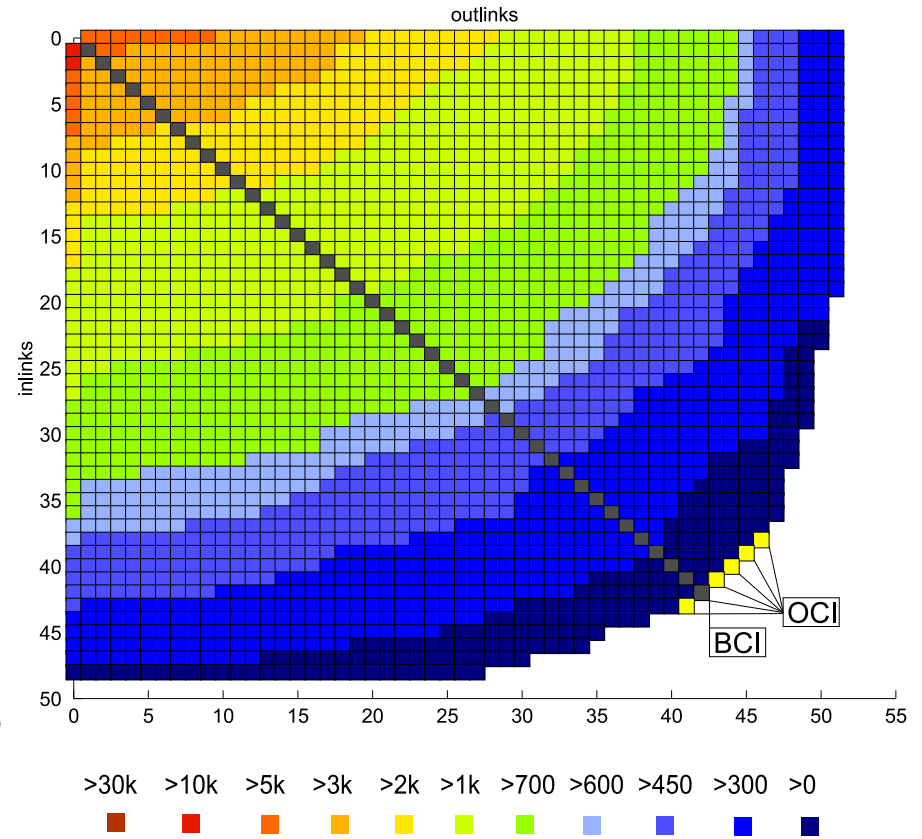
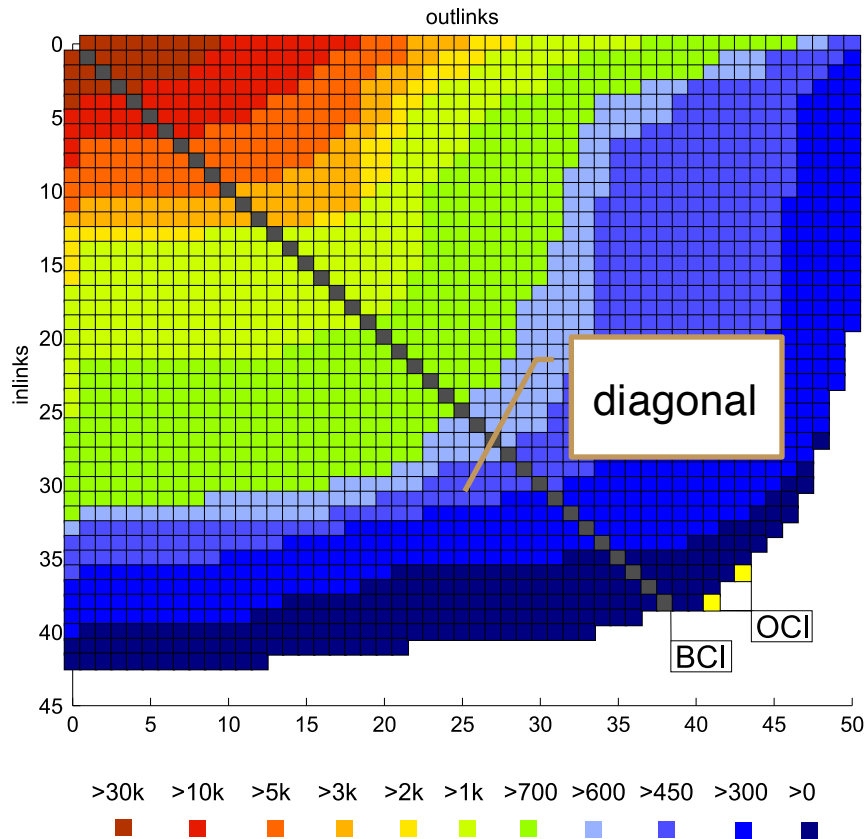
Community detection and evaluation

Degeneracy in directed graphs



- Directed graphs:
 - WIKI - graph
 - DBLP & ARXIV – Citation graph
- Is there a degeneracy notion for directed graphs?
- We extend the k-core concept in directed graphs by applying a limit on in/out edges respectively
- Trade off between in/out edges can give us a more specific view of the cohesiveness and the “social” behavior

D-core matrix Wikipedia & DBLP



Wikipedia
The extreme D-core(38,41) contains 237 pages

DBLP
One of the extreme D-cores(38,46) contains 188 authors

The Extreme DBLP citation graph D-core

José A. Blakeley
Hector Garcia-Molina
Abraham Silberschatz
Umeshwar Dayal
Eric N. Hanson
Jennifer Widom
Klaus R. Dittrich
Nathan Goodman
Won Kim
Alfons Kemper
Guido Moerkotte
Clement T. Yu
M. Tamer A. Zsu
Amit P. Sheth
Ming-Chien Shan
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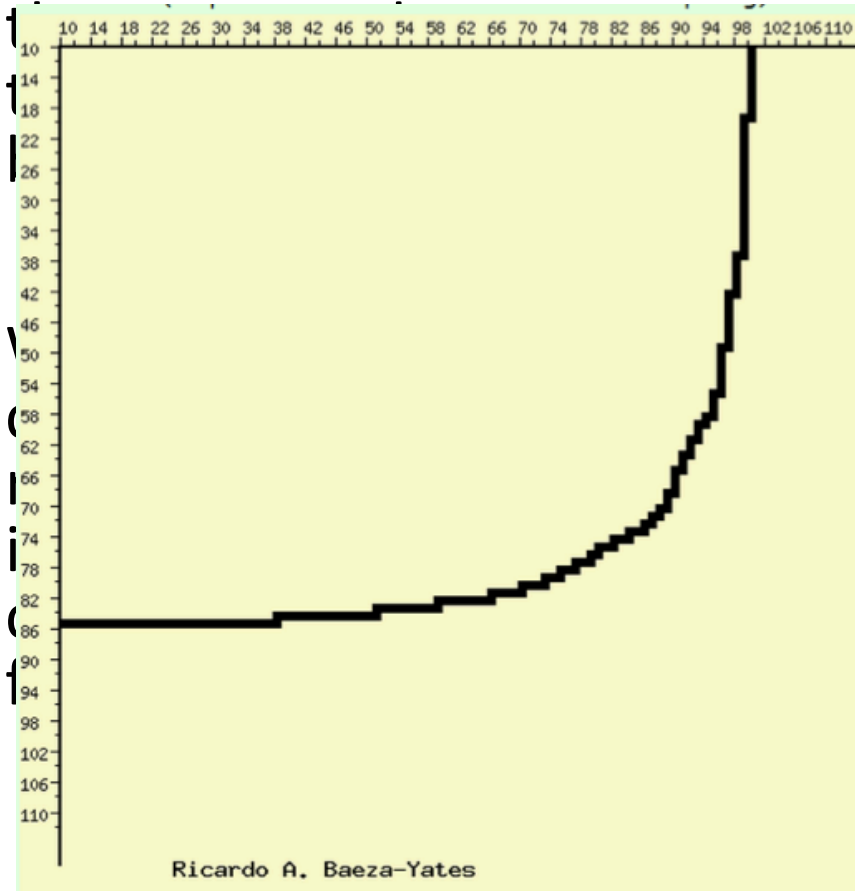
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Inderpal Singh Mumick
Oded Shmueli

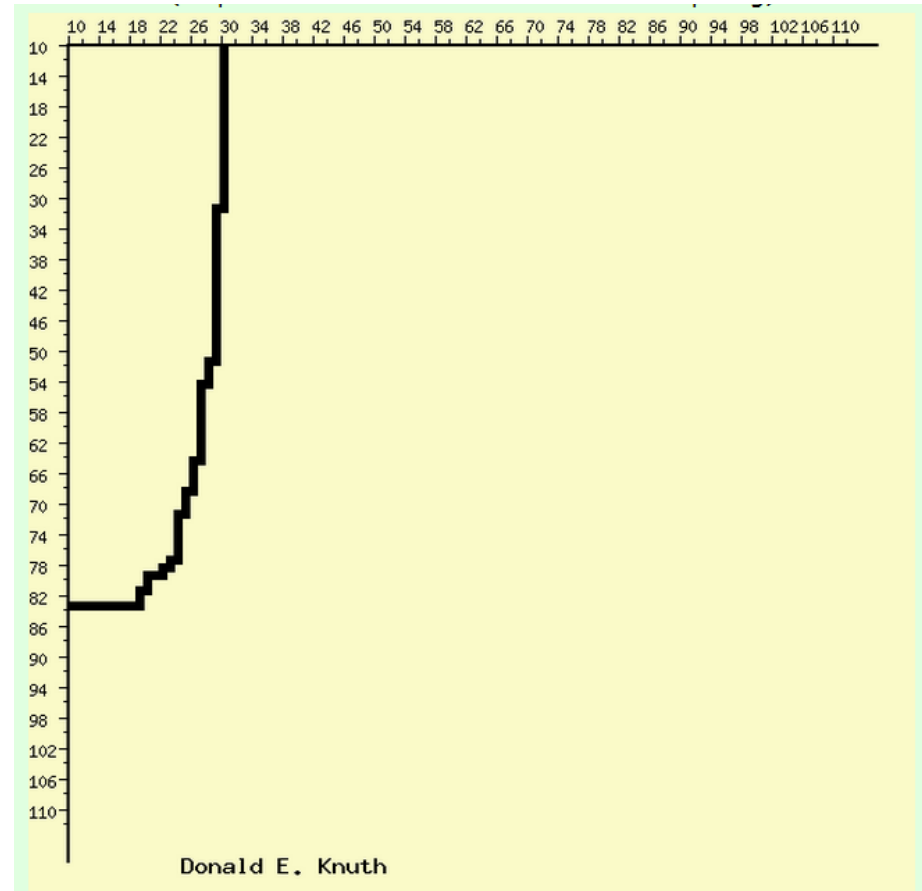
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Anant Jhingran
George Lapis

D-Core frontier for individuals

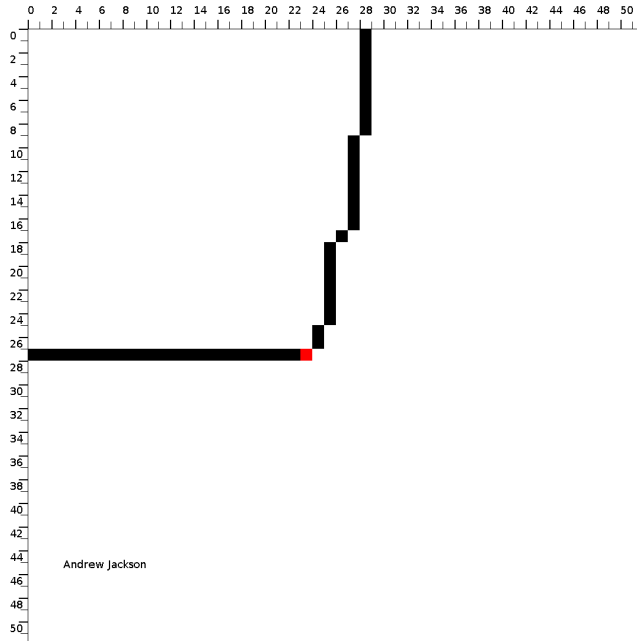
The frontier of an individual: defined by



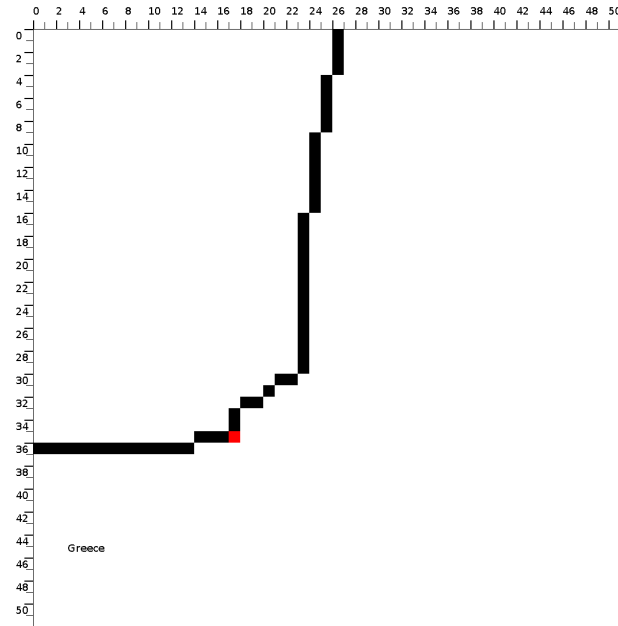
outlinks



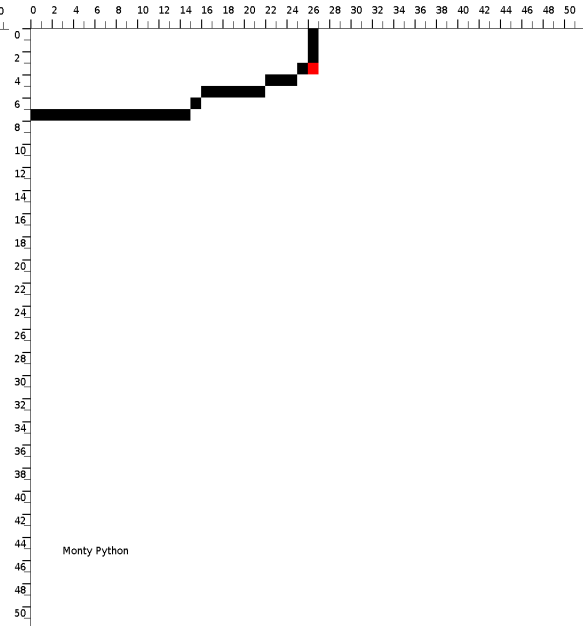
Thematic D-core frontiers - Wikipedia



“Andrew Jackson”



“Greece”




“Monty Python”

D-core adopted by aminer.org

Miner

Keywords Name Organization



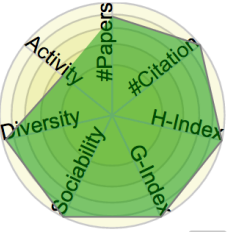
Ian T. Foster 2

Director

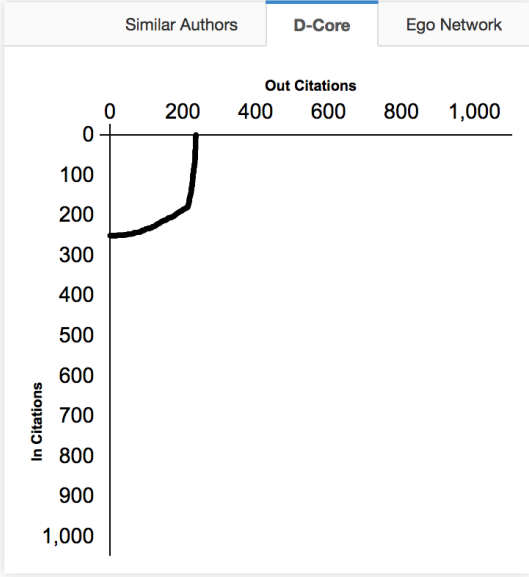
University of Chicago and Argonne National Laboratory

cheng wang

- Grid Computing
- Distributed Computing
- Computer Science
- Parallel Processing
- Resource Management



Similar Authors | **D-Core** | Ego Network



1986 1990 2000 2010 2015

<https://cn.aminer.org/profile/ian-t-foster/53f48850dabfaee4dc8b2045>

Outline

- Motivating Graph Mining and basic notions
- Graph Exploration and Generation
 - Degree distribution – power laws
 - Graph generators
- Machine Learning for Graphs
 - **Community detection - clustering**
 - Supervised learning with Graph Kernels

Notations

■ Given Graph $G=(V,E)$ undirected:

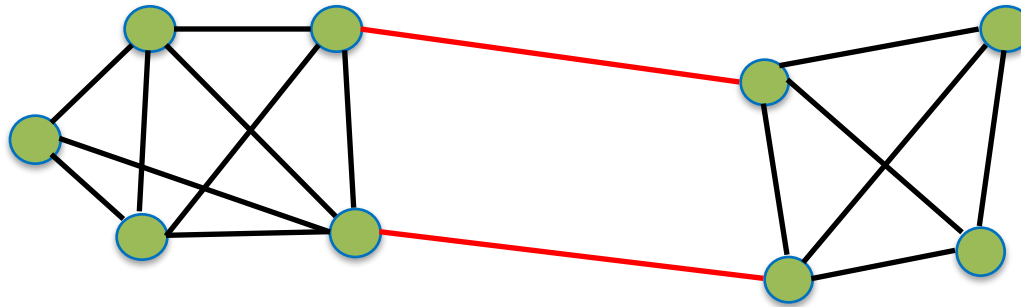
- Vertex Set $V=\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, Edge e_{ij} between v_i and v_j
 - we assume weight $w_{ij} > 0$ for e_{ij}
- $|V|$: number of vertices
- d_i degree of v_i : $d_i = \sum_{v_j \in V} w_{ij}$
- $v(V) = \sum_{v_i \in V} d_i$
- for $A \subset V$ $\bar{A} = V - A$
- Given
 $A, B \subset V$ & $A \cap B = \emptyset$, $w(A, B) = \sum_{v_i \in A, v_j \in B} w_{ij}$
- D : Diagonal matrix where $D(i, i) = d_i$
- W : Adjacency matrix $W(i, j) = w_{ij}$

Graph-Cut

■ For k clusters:

$$- \text{cut}(A_1, \dots, A_k) = 1/2 \sum_{i=1}^k w(A_i, \bar{A}_i)$$

- undirected graph: 1/2 we count twice each edge



- Min-cut: Minimize the edges' weight a cluster shares with the rest of the graph

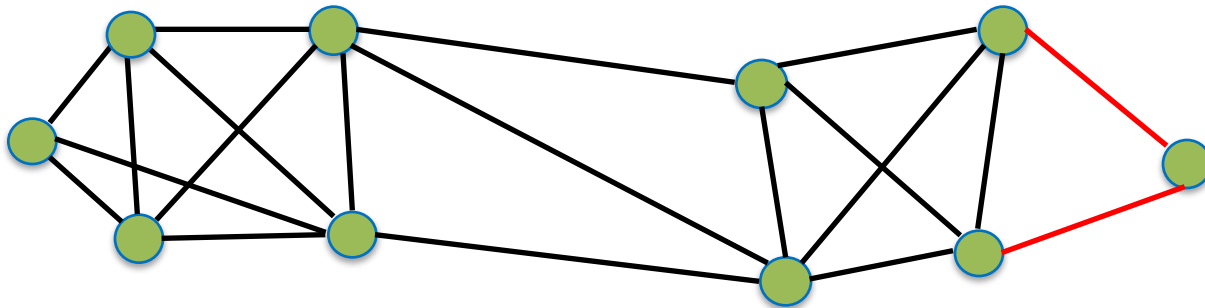
Min-Cut

■ Easy for $k=2$: Mincut(A_1, A_2)

- Stoer and Wagner: “A Simple Min-Cut Algorithm”

■ In practice one vertex is separated from the rest

- The algorithm is drawn to outliers



Normalized Graph Cuts

- We can normalize by the size of the cluster (size of sub-graph) :
 - number of Vertices (Hagen and Kahng, 1992):
$$\text{Ratiocut}(A_1, \dots, A_k) = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\text{cut}(A_i, \overline{A_i})}{|A_i|}$$
 - sum of weights (Shi and Malik, 2000) :
$$\text{Ncut}(A_1, \dots, A_k) = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\text{cut}(A_i, \overline{A_i})}{v(A_i)}$$
- Optimizing these functions is NP-hard
- Spectral Clustering provides solution to a relaxed version of the above

From Graph Cuts to Spectral Clustering

■ For simplicity assume $k=2$:

– Define $f: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for Graph G :

$$f_i = \begin{cases} 1 & v_i \in A \\ -1 & v_i \in \bar{A} \end{cases}$$

• Optimizing the original cut is equivalent to an optimization of:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij} (f_i - f_j)^2 \\ &= \sum_{v_i \in A, v_j \in \bar{A}} w_{ij} (1 + 1)^2 + \sum_{v_i \in \bar{A}, v_j \in A} w_{ij} (-1 - 1)^2 \\ &= \mathbf{8} * \mathbf{cut}(A, \bar{A}) \end{aligned}$$

Graph Laplacian

- How is the previous useful in Spectral clustering?

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij}(f_i - f_j)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij}f_i^2 - 2 \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij}f_i f_j + \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij}f_j^2 \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^n d_i f_i^2 - 2 \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij}f_i f_j + \sum_{i,j=1}^n d_j f_j^2 \\ &= 2 \left(\sum_{i,j=1}^n d_i f_i^2 - \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij}f_i f_j \right) \\ &= 2(\mathbf{f}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{f} - \mathbf{f}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{f}) = 2\mathbf{f}^T (\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{W}) \mathbf{f} = 2\mathbf{f}^T \mathbf{L} \mathbf{f} \end{aligned}$$

- \mathbf{f} : a single vector with the cluster assignments of the vertices
- $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{W}$: the Laplacian of a graph

Properties of L

■ L is

- Symmetric
- Positive
- Semi-definite

■ The smallest eigenvalue of L is 0

- The corresponding eigenvector is $\mathbb{1}$

■ L has n non-negative, real valued eigenvalues

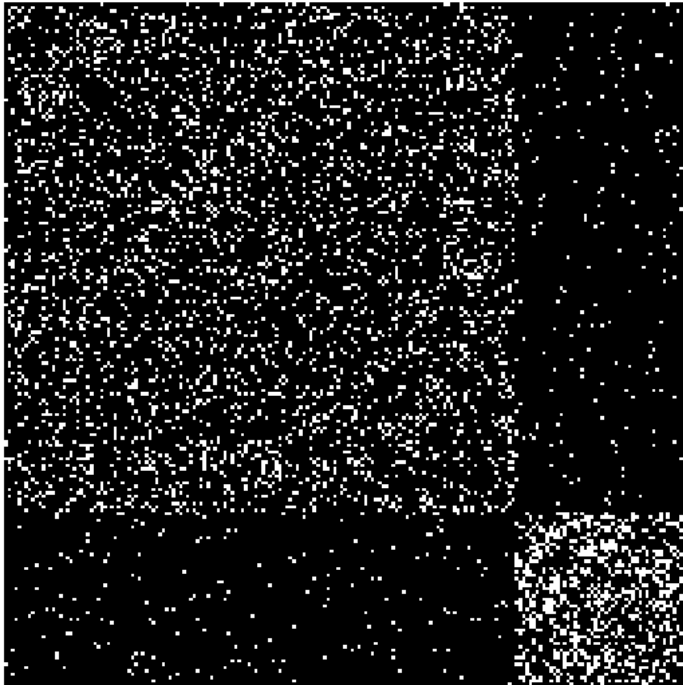
- $0 = \lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$

Two Way Cut from the Laplacian

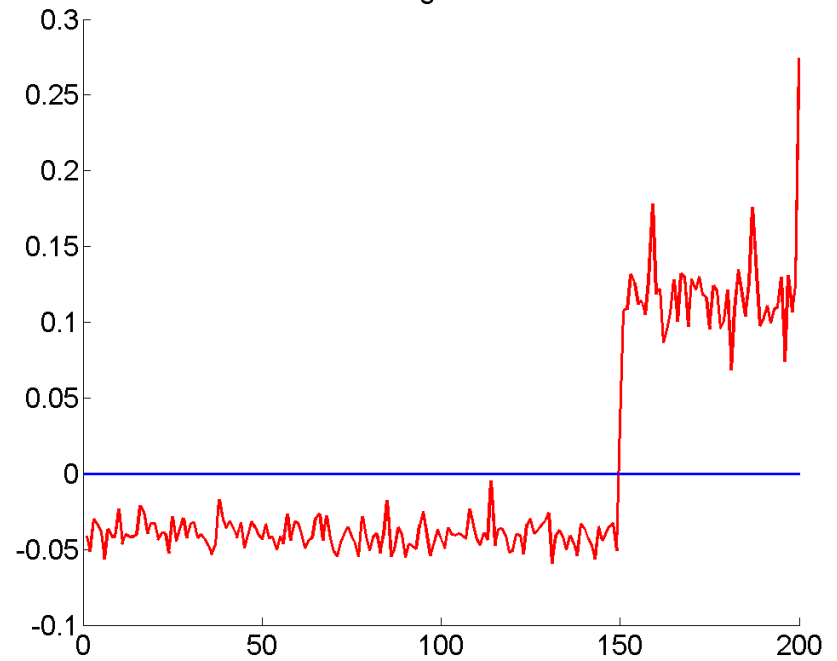
- We could solve $\min_f f^T L f$ where $f \in \{-1, 1\}^n$
- NP-Hard for discrete cluster assignments
 - Relax the constraint to $f \in R^n$:
$$\min_f f^T L f \text{ subject to } f^T \mathbf{1} = 0$$
- The solution to this problem is given by:
 - **(Rayleigh-Ritz Theorem)** the eigenvector corresponding to smallest eigenvalue: 0 and the corresponding eigenvector (full of 1s) offers no information
- We use the second eigenvector as an approximation
 - $f_i > 0$ the vertex belongs to one cluster , $f_i < 0$ to the other

Example

Adjacency Matrix

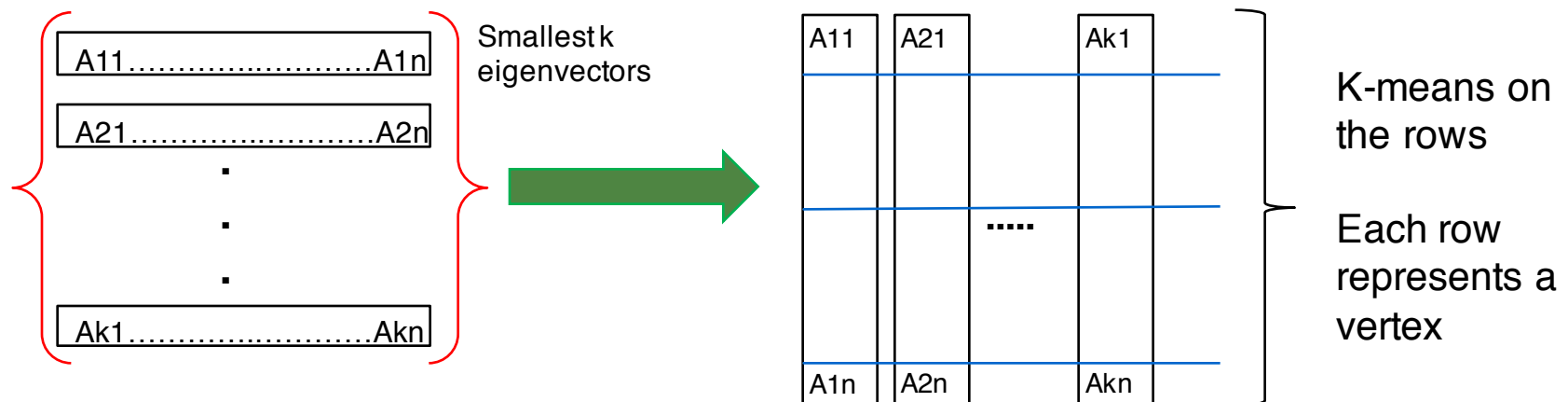


2nd Eigenvector



Multi-Way Graph Partition

- The cluster assignment is given by the smallest k eigenvectors of L
- The real values need to be converted to cluster assignments
 - We use k-means to cluster the rows
 - We can substitute L with L_{sym}



References – Graph clustering

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References (modularity)

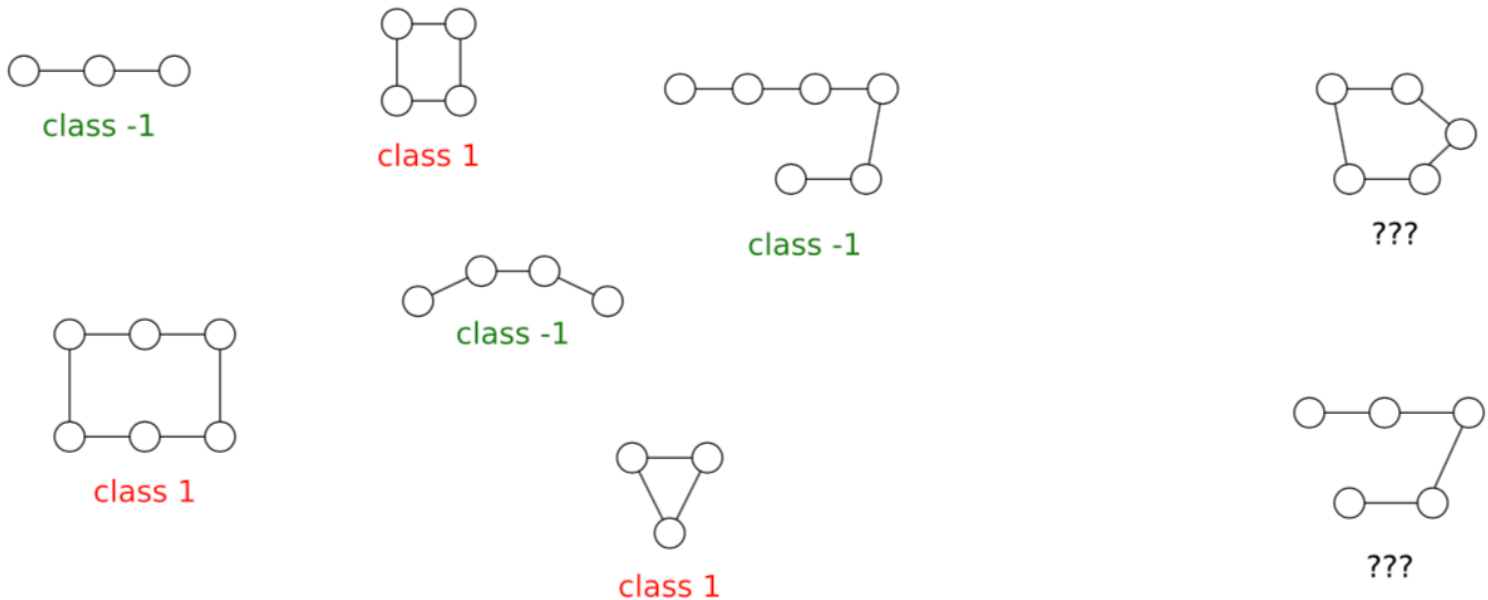
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Outline

- Motivating Graph Mining and basic notions
- Graph Exploration and Generation
 - Degree distribution – power laws
 - Graph generators
- Machine Learning for Graphs
 - Community detection
 - **Supervised learning with Graph Kernels**

Machine Learning for Graphs

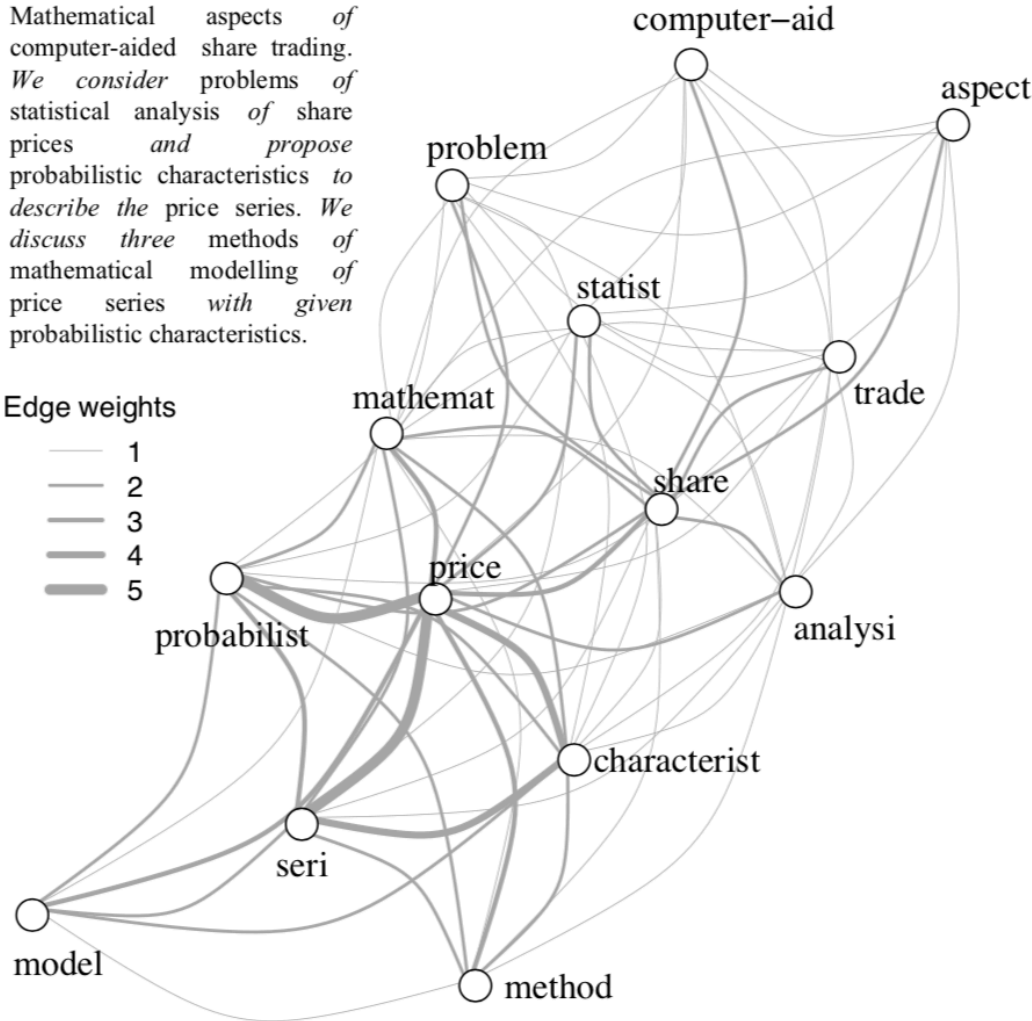
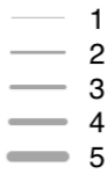
- Node classification
- Graph clustering
- Link Prediction:
- Graph classification



Motivation – Text categorization

Mathematical aspects of computer-aided share trading. We consider problems of statistical analysis of share prices and propose probabilistic characteristics to describe the price series. We discuss three methods of mathematical modelling of price series with given probabilistic characteristics.

Edge weights



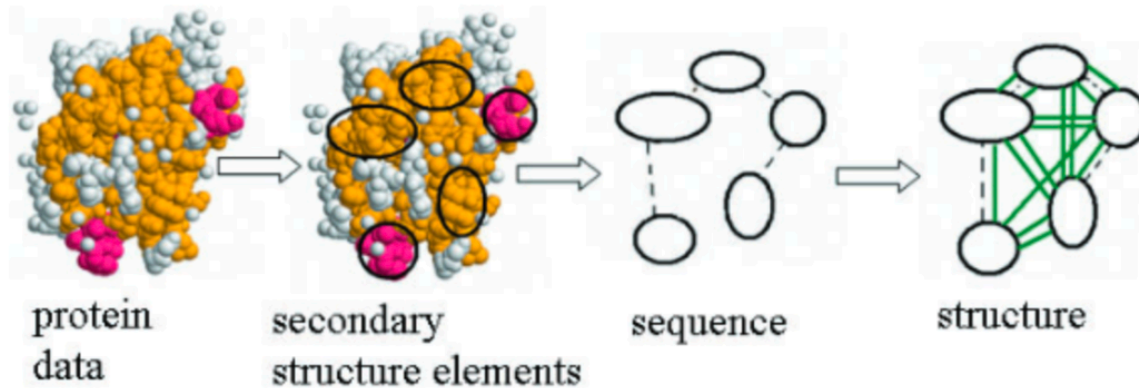
Given a text, create a graph where

- vertices correspond to terms
- two terms are linked to each other if they co-occur within a fixed-size sliding window

Motivation – Protein Function Prediction

For each protein, create a graph that contains information about its

- structure
- sequence
- chemical properties

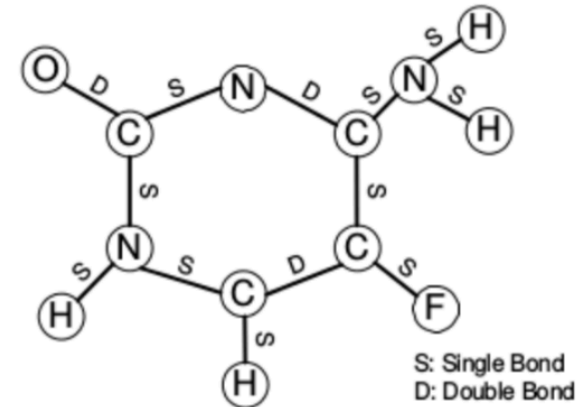
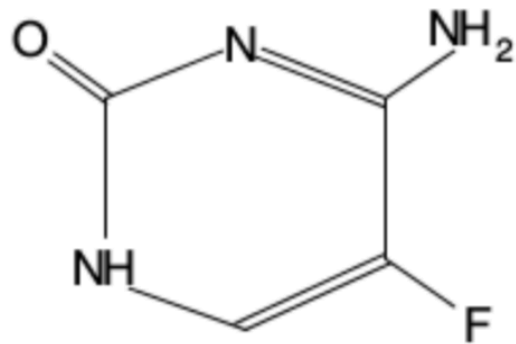


Use graph kernels to

- measure structural similarity between proteins
- predict the function of proteins

Motivation – Chemical compound classification

Represent each chemical compound as a graph



Use a frequent subgraph discovery algorithm to discover the substructures that occur above a certain support constraint

Perform feature selection

Use the remaining substructures as features for classification

Deshpande et al. "Frequent substructure-based approaches for classifying chemical compounds". TKDE 17(8)

Motivation – Malware detection

Given a computer program, create its control flow graph

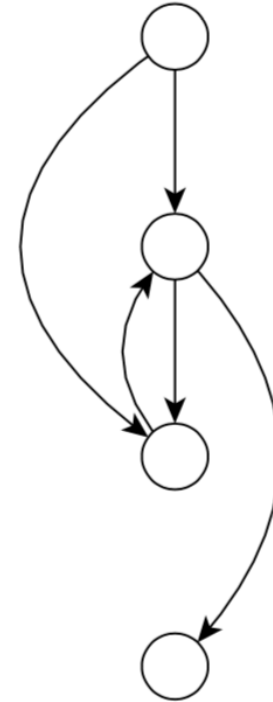
```
processed_pages.append(processed_page)
visited += 1
links = extract_links(html_code)
for link in links:
    if link not in visited_links:
        links_to_visit.append(link)

return create_vocabulary(processed_pages)

def parse_page(html_code):
    punct = re.compile(r'([A-Za-z0-9])')
    soup = BeautifulSoup(html_code, 'html.parser')
    text = soup.get_text()
    processed_text = punct.sub(" ", text)
    tokens = processed_text.split()
    tokens = [token.lower() for token in tokens]
    return tokens

def create_vocabulary(processed_pages):
    vocabulary = {}
    for processed_page in processed_pages:
        for token in processed_page:
            if token in vocabulary:
                vocabulary[token] += 1
            else:
                vocabulary[token] = 1

    return vocabulary
```



Compare the control flow graph of the problem against the set of control flow graphs of known malware

If it contains a subgraph isomorphic to these graphs → malicious code inside the program

Graph similarity

Graph classification very related to graph comparison

Example

$$f(\text{graph}_1, \text{graph}_2) = \text{graph classification}$$

$k-nn$

Although graph comparison seems a tractable problem, it is very **complex**

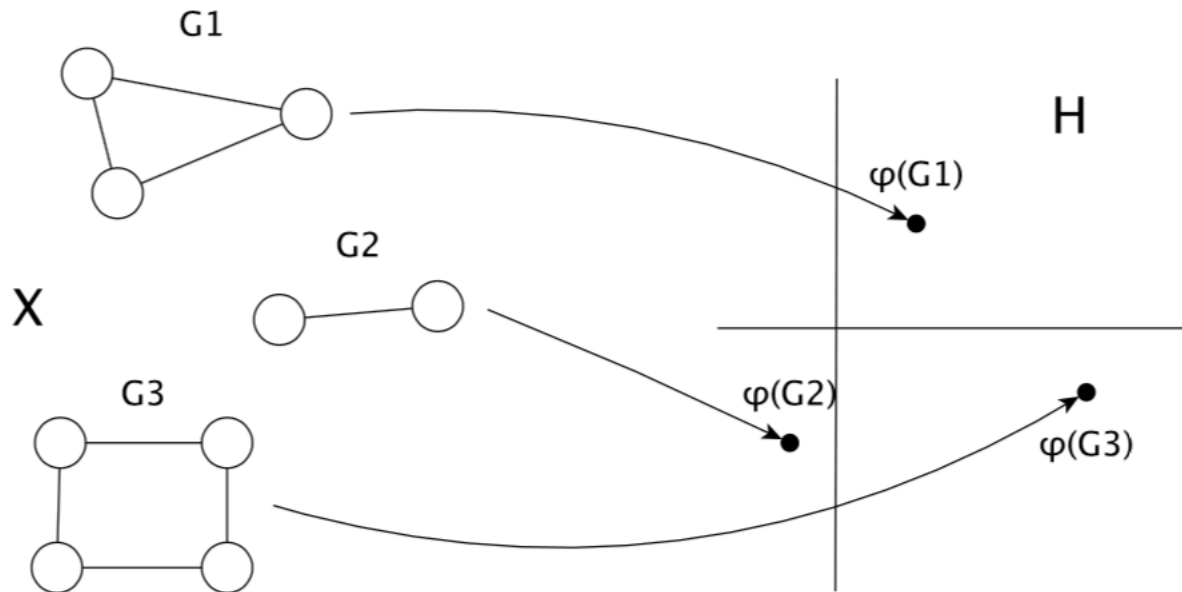
We are interested in algorithms capable of measuring the similarity between two graphs in **polynomial** time

Graph Kernels

Definition (Graph Kernel)

A graph kernel $k : \mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ is a kernel function over a set of graphs \mathcal{G}

- It is equivalent to an inner product of the embeddings $\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{H}$ of a pair of graphs into a Hilbert space: $k(G_1, G_2) = \langle \phi(G_1), \phi(G_2) \rangle$
- Makes the whole family of kernel methods (e.g. SVMs) applicable to graphs



Graph invariants

We saw that proving that two graphs are isomorphic is not a simple task

It is much simpler to show that two graphs are not isomorphic by finding a property that only one of the two graphs has. Such a property is called a *graph invariant*

Definition (Graph Invariant)

A graph invariant is a numerical property of graphs for which any two isomorphic graphs must have the same value

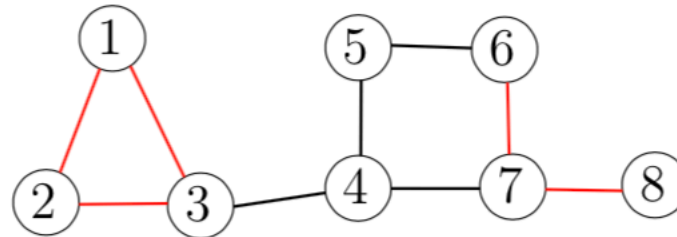
Some examples of graph invariants include:

- ① number of vertices
- ② number of edges
- ③ number of spanning trees
- ④ degree sequence
- ⑤ spectrum

Substructures for similarity

A large number of graph kernels compare substructures of graphs that are computable in polynomial time:

- walks
- shortest path lengths
- cyclic patterns
- rooted subtrees
- graphlets
- \vdots



Shervashidze et al. "Efficient graphlet kernels for large graph comparison." . In AISTATS'09

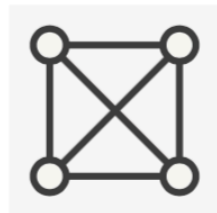
Graphlet Kernel

The graphlet kernel compares graphs by counting *graphlets*

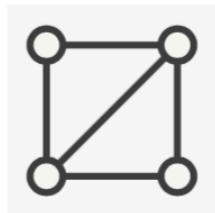
A graphlet corresponds to a small subgraph

- typically of 3,4 or 5 vertices

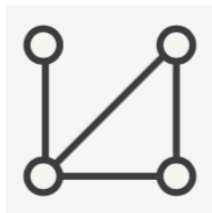
Below is the set of graphlets of size 4



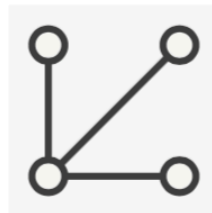
g_1



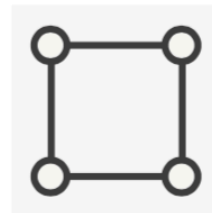
g_2



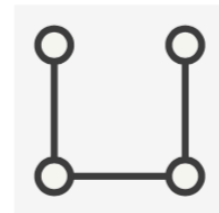
g_3



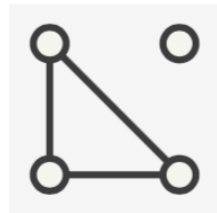
g_4



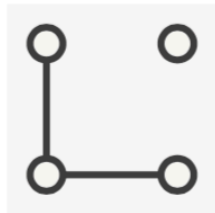
g_5



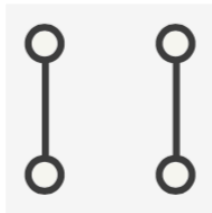
g_6



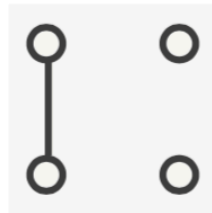
g_7



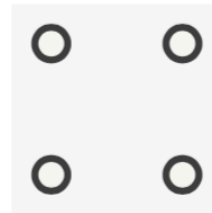
g_8



g_9



g_{10}



g_{11}

Graphlet Kernel

Let $\mathcal{G} = \{graphlet_1, graphlet_2, \dots, graphlet_r\}$ be the set of size- k graphlets

Let also $f_G \in \mathcal{N}^r$ be a vector such that its i -th entry is $f_{G,i} = \#(graphlet_i \sqsubseteq G)$

The graphlet kernel is defined as:

$$k(G_1, G_2) = f_{G_1}^\top f_{G_2}$$

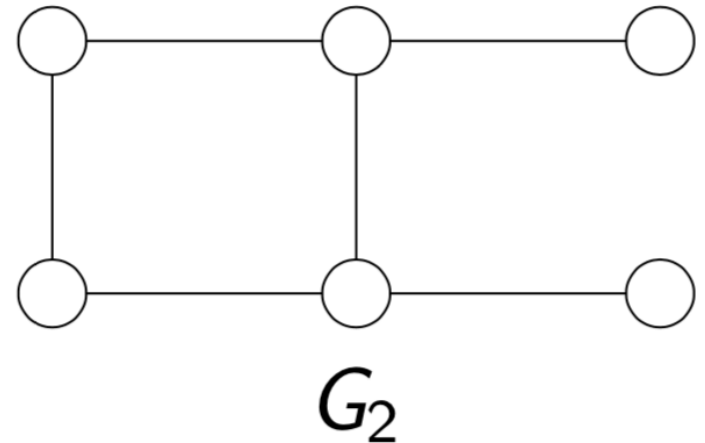
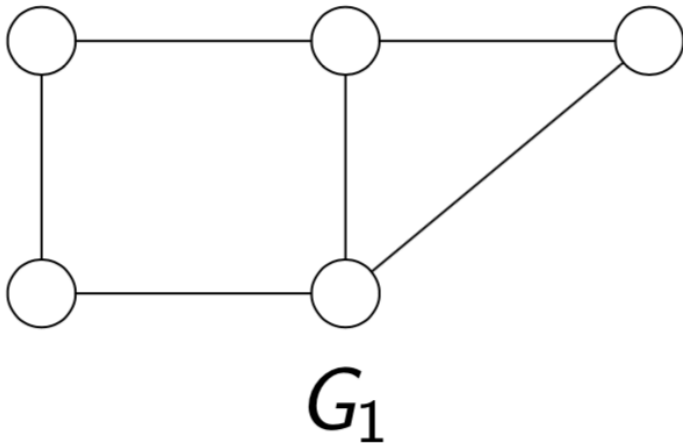
Problems:

- There are $\binom{n}{k}$ size- k subgraphs in a graph
- Exhaustive enumeration of graphlets is very expensive

Requires $O(n^k)$ time

- For labeled graphs, the number of graphlets increases further

Graphlet Kernel



The vector representations of the graphs above according to the set of graphlets of size 4 is:

$$f_{G_1} = (0, 0, 2, 0, 1, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)^T$$

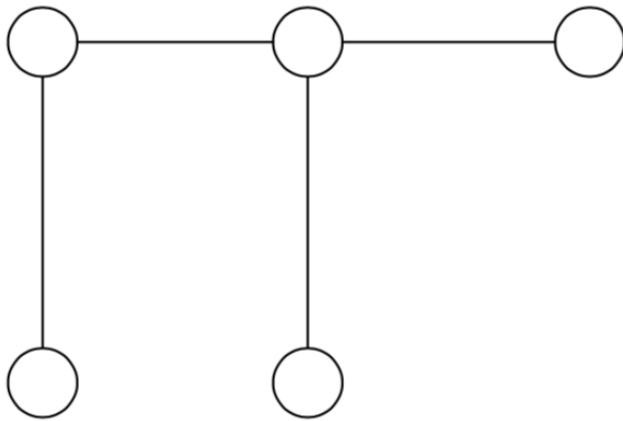
$$f_{G_2} = (0, 0, 0, 2, 1, 5, 0, 4, 0, 3, 0)^T$$

Hence, the value of the kernel is:

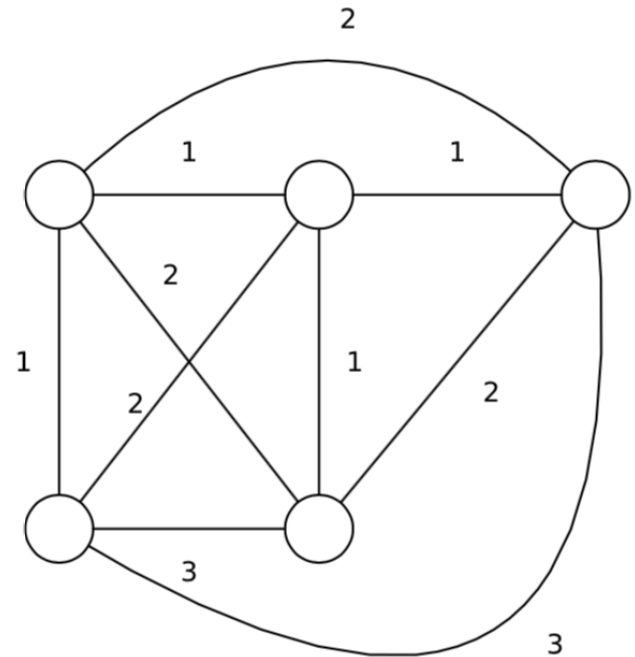
$$k(G_1, G_2) = f_{G_1}^T f_{G_2} = 11$$

Shortest Path Kernel

Floyd-transformation



→



G

S

Shortest Path Kernel

Given the Floyd-transformed graphs $S_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ and $S_2 = (V_2, E_2)$ of G_1 and G_2 , the shortest path kernel is defined as:

$$k(G_1, G_2) = \sum_{e_1 \in E_1} \sum_{e_2 \in E_2} k_{walk}^{(1)}(e_1, e_2)$$

where $k_{walk}^{(1)}$ is a kernel on edge walks of length 1

- For unlabeled graphs, it can be:

$$k_{walk}^{(1)}(e_1, e_2) = \delta(\ell(e_1), \ell(e_2)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \ell(e_1) = \ell(e_2), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $\ell(e)$ gives the label of edge e

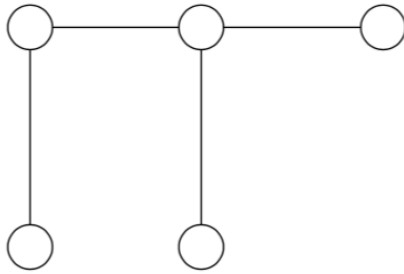
- For labeled graphs, it can be:

$$k_{walk}^{(1)}(e_1, e_2) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \ell(e_1) = \ell(e_2) \wedge \ell(e_1^1) = \ell(e_2^1) \wedge \ell(e_1^2) = \ell(e_2^2), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

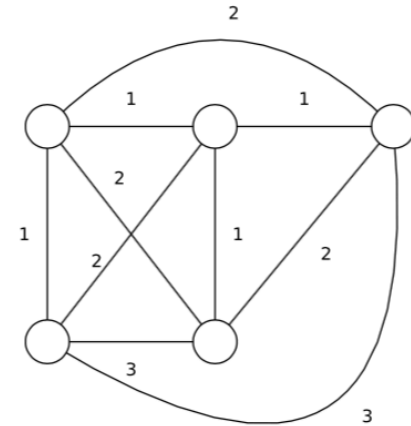
where e^1, e^2 are the two endpoints of e

Shortest Path Kernel

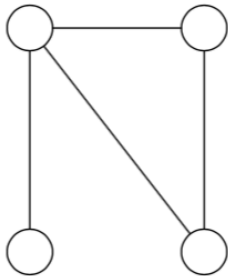
Floyd-transformations



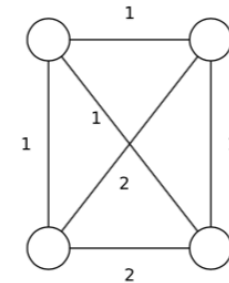
G_1



S_1



G_2



S_2

Shortest Path Kernel

In S_1 we have:

- 4 edges with label 1
- 4 edges with label 2
- 2 edges with label 3

In S_2 we have:

- 4 edges with label 1
- 2 edges with label 2

Hence, the value of the kernel is:

$$k(G_1, G_2) = \sum_{e_1 \in E_1} \sum_{e_2 \in E_2} k_{walk}^{(1)}(e_1, e_2) = 4 * 4 + 4 * 2 = 24$$

Shortest Path Kernel

Computing the shortest path kernel includes:

- Computing shortest paths for all pairs of vertices in the two graphs: $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$
- Comparing all pairs of shortest paths from the two graphs: $\mathcal{O}(n^4)$

Hence, runtime is $\mathcal{O}(n^4)$

Problems:

- Very high complexity for large graphs
- Shortest-path graphs may lead to memory problems on large graphs

Relevant publications

- C. Giatsidis, D. Thilikos, and M. Vazirgiannis, D-cores: Measuring Collaboration of Directed Graphs Based on Degeneracy. *Knowledge and Information Systems Journal*, Springer, 2012.
- C. Giatsidis, K. Berberich, D. M. Thilikos, M. Vazirgiannis, Visual exploration of collaboration networks based on graph degeneracy, *ACM KDD*, 2012.
- C. Giatsidis, D. Thilikos, and M. Vazirgiannis, D-cores: Measuring Collaboration of Directed Graphs Based on Degeneracy. *IEEE ICDM*, 2011,
- C. Giatsidis, D. Thilikos, and M. Vazirgiannis, Evaluating Cooperation in Communities with the k-Core Structure. *ACM/IEEE ASONAM*, 2011.
- F. D. Malliaros and M. Vazirgiannis, To Stay or Not to Stay: Modeling Engagement Dynamics in Social Graphs. *ACM CIKM*, 2013.
- F. D. Malliaros and M. Vazirgiannis, Clustering and Community Detection in Directed Networks: A Survey. *Physics Reports*, 533(4), Elsevier, 2013.
- F. D. Malliaros and M. Vazirgiannis, Vulnerability Assessment in Social Networks under Cascade-based Node Departures, *EPL (Europhysics Letters)*, 11(6), 2015.
- C. Giatsidis, F.D. Malliaros, D. Thilikos, and M. Vazirgiannis, CORECLUSTER: A Degeneracy Based Graph Clustering Framework. *AAAI*, 2014.
- F.D. Malliaros, V. Megalooikonomou and C. Faloutsos. Estimating Robustness in Large Social Graphs. *Knowledge and Information Systems (KAIS)*, Springer, 2015.
- M.-E. G. Rossi, F.D. Malliaros, and M. Vazirgiannis, Spread It Good, Spread It Fast: Identification of Influential Nodes in Social Networks. *WWW*, 2015.

Relevant publications

Invited Tutorials

- C. Giatsidis, F. D. Malliaros and M. Vazirgiannis, Graph Mining Tools for Community Detection and Evaluation in Social Networks and the Web. *WWW*, Rome, Italy, 2013.
- C. Giatsidis, F. D. Malliaros and M. Vazirgiannis, Advanced graph mining for community evaluation in social networks and the web, *ACM WSDM*, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 2013.
- C. Giatsidis, F. D. Malliaros and M. Vazirgiannis, Community Detection and Evaluation in Social and Information Networks. *WISE*, Thessaloniki, Greece, 2014.
- F. D. Malliaros, M. Vazirgiannis and A.N. Papadopoulos, Core Decomposition: Algorithms and Applications, *IEEE/ACM ASONAM*, Paris, France, 2015.
- F. D. Malliaros, A.N. Papadopoulos, Core Decomposition in Graphs: Concepts, Algorithms and Applications. *ICDM*, Barcelona, 2016.

Demos

<http://graphdegeneracy.org/>