SAGES: Scalable Attributed Graph Embedding with Sampling for Unsupervised Learning

Jialin Wang, Xiaoru Qu, Jinze Bai, Zhao Li, Ji Zhang, and Jun Gao

Abstract—Unsupervised graph embedding method generates node embeddings to preserve structural and content features in a graph without human labeling burden. However, most unsupervised graph representation learning methods suffer issues like poor scalability or limited utilization of content/structural relationships, especially on attributed graphs. In this paper, we propose SAGES, a graph sampling based autoencoder framework, which can promote both the performance and scalability of unsupervised learning on attributed graphs. Specifically, we propose a graph sampler that considers both the node connections and node attributes, thus nodes having a high influence on each other will be sampled in the same subgraph. After that, an unbiased Graph Autoencoder (GAE) with structure-level, content-level, and community-level reconstruction loss is built on the properly-sampled subgraphs in each epoch. The time and space complexity analysis is carried out to show the scalability of SAGES. We conducted experiments on three medium-size attributed graphs and three large attributed graphs. Experimental results illustrate that SAGES achieves the competitive performance in unsupervised attributed graph learning on a variety of node classification benchmarks and node clustering benchmarks.

Index Terms—Attributed Graph Embedding, Unsupervised Graph Learning, Graph Neural Network.

1 INTRODUCTION

Graphs are powerful to model complex relationships in different real-life applications, such as citation networks, economic graphs, and social networks. Among the various graphs, the attributed graph has attracted much attention in recent years [1], [2]. As shown in Figure 1, unlike the plain graphs where only the topological structure is available, nodes in the attributed graph have rich features and attributes associated with them. For example, nodes (articles) in an academic citation graph have substantial text information about the article’s topic, and the nodes (users) in a social network post their profiles as the attribute. These informative attributes can benefit graph analysis [3]. Therefore, the utilization of node attributes information is important to study the attributed graph.

The representation learning for attributed graphs, which generates low-dimensional embeddings of nodes to preserve graph topology structure and attributes, is shown to be especially effective for various graph-based tasks [1], [4]. According to the need for data labeling, these methods are roughly categorized into supervised/semi-supervised [5] and unsupervised learning [6]. This paper focuses on unsupervised learning. Compared with the supervised one, unsupervised learning does not incur a substantial labeling burden. Besides, the node embeddings learned by unsupervised ways can be reused for different downstream machine learning applications, such as node classification, node clustering.

The existing graph representation learning can be roughly divided into three categories: factorization based [7], random walk based [8], and graph autoencoder (GAE) based models [6]. The first two models (factorization based and random walk based) are limited by their shallow architecture, while GAE based models can capture both non-linear graph structures and content by using deeper architectures in neural networks. Therefore, a large amount of GAE based models, such as AGE [9], GALA [10], and DGI [11], are proposed to strengthen the representation power of graph embedding models. Although these GAE based models show their power in various tasks (link prediction, node clustering, etc.), they are hard to scale because of the full-batch training. To make the GAE scalable and applicable to large graphs, some sampling-based approaches are developed. GraphSAGE [12] adopts uniform sampling to obtain a fixed size neighborhood in the encoder, and reconstructs the structural information by negative sampling in the decoder. A scalable GAE is proposed in [13], which trains GAE on the smaller k-core version of the graph, and then propagates node representations to other nodes via a fast heuristics.

Fig. 1. An illustration of the attributed graph. Nodes with different colors have different labels. A and X represent the adjacency matrix and the node attribute matrix of the graph, respectively. A good unsupervised attributed graph embedding method should consider the graph structure, node attribute, and community information.
FastGAE [14] performs importance sampling in encoder like FastGCN [15], and reconstructs structural information of the sampled subgraph in decoder. Nevertheless, these scalable GAE methods have three major drawbacks on large attributed graph embeddings.

Firstly, the graph structure and node attribute information are not well utilized by the sampling strategy. The existing scalable GAE methods either simply sample nodes uniformly across layers [12] or sample subgraph based on graph topology (k-core number or degree of nodes) [13], [14], but ignore node attributes. However, the utilization of node attributes in sampling proved to be essential [16].

Secondly, different sampling strategies result in non-identical node and edge sampling probability, and introduce bias in the forward propagation in GAE each minibatch. This bias should be considered by models.

Thirdly, the most existing GAE based methods only consider simple local structural information in the decoder. In the experiment, we find that the performance of GAE, which only reconstructs adjacency information, is seriously degraded after subgraph sampling. Note that there is no such a problem in supervised scalable GNNs, such as Cluster-GCN [4], because they have a clear label after subgraph sampling. Intuitively, structural information may be disturbed after subgraph sampling while node attribute information is still intact. Besides, the incorporation of community structure in network embedding can make the node representations more discriminative [2]. Therefore, we argue that both the node attributes and community relationships are crucial on the attributed graph.

In this paper, aiming at the following question: *Can we design an efficient and effective graph embedding framework for attributed graphs, such that all of the above three challenges can be tackled?* We propose our framework Scalable Attributed Graph Embedding with Sampling (SAGES) to efficiently train GAE over large attributed graphs. To make the model scalable, SAGES first samples the training subgraphs, and then builds a full GAE on each subgraph. We apply the following three measures to overcome the issues of scalable GAE methods: i) To better utilize graph structure and node attributes during sampling, SAGES utilizes a light-weight subgraph-sampling algorithm, which considers both the node attributes and graph topological information. Thus, nodes with a greater influence on each other have a higher probability of forming subgraphs. ii) To eliminate biases caused by the sampler, we propose normalization techniques so that the feature learning does not give preference to nodes more frequently sampled. iii) To overcome the difficulty in yielding high-quality node embeddings after sampling, we focus on the graph structure, node content, and community information in the decoder. Note that we naturally have communities based on our graph sampler, which offers an obvious advantage for SAGES to capture community-level information without extra cost.

Our contributions can be summarized as follows:

- We develop SAGES, an unsupervised graph learning framework, to learn node representations over large attributed graphs. SAGES samples subgraphs according to the similarity about the node attributes and graph structure. Then SAGES applies the unbiased graph autoencoder models into the subgraphs with highly correlated nodes. The time and space complexity analysis illustrate the scalability of SAGES.
- To learn meaningful node representations capturing local/global information of the attributed graph, SAGES not only uses the reconstruction loss of graph structure, but also introduces the reconstruction loss of node attributes and the mutual information between node and community, as another two important guides in the decoder.
- We conduct the experimental studies on three medium-size attributed graphs and three large attributed graphs under both transductive and inductive learning setups. The results show that SAGES is competitive on both node classification and link prediction tasks. Specially, we observe improvements of 2.5%, 1.2%, and 7.5% respectively compared with STOA unsupervised method DGI [11] on three large graphs in node classification tasks. Our code is available on https://github.com/SAGESAlgorithm/SAGES.

## 2 Related Work

### 2.1 Attributed Graph Embedding

Nodes in a graph are often affiliated with various content, such as abstract text in the citation graph, user attribute in the social network, and item description information in the e-commerce network. Such graphs are called attributed graphs, and the rich attributed information of nodes can benefit graph analysis. For example, Marsden [17] has proved that node attributes can reflect and affect the community structures in social science. Thus utilizing node attributes information is critical and important to study attributed graphs.

Most existing graph embedding methods mainly focus on graph topological information. For example, Deepwalk [8], and node2vec [18] only leverage graph structure and learn node representation by extracting different patterns through different random walk strategies. M-NMF [2] generates node representation through modularized nonnegative matrix factorization. PME [19] learns both first-order and second-order proximities in heterogenous graph. However, the above methods ignore the node attributes. To learn node embeddings which can preserve various proximities in both node attributes and topological structure, a wide variety of attributed graph embedding methods are proposed. TADW [20] regards DeepWalk as an inductive matrix factorization method and adds node attributes (text) for representation learning. LANE [1] leverages spectral techniques to project the adjacency matrix, node feature matrix, and node label matrix into a common vector space. Planetoid [21] trains node embedding by jointly predicting the class label and the neighborhood context in the graph.

However, the majority of attributed graph embedding methods are either non-deep learning methods (matrix factorization and random walks) or shadow models, which are difficult to use deep architectures of neural networks to capture the highly non-linear and high-order property of graphs.
2.2 Supervised Graph Neural Network

Graph neural networks (GNNs) [22] are deep neural networks that capture the dependence of graphs via message passing between the nodes of graphs, and show their power in graph representation learning. Early GNN focused on model structure rather than scalability. Graph Convolutional Networks (GCN) [5], which extends convolution operation to the graph domain, is a powerful model for attributed graph representation learning. Graph Attention Networks (GAT) [23] introduces an attention mechanism to better capture neighbor features by dynamically adjusting edge weights. Despite effective performance achieved, GCN and GAT suffer poor scalability because they train in a full batch manner.

Various methods are proposed to scale GNNs. They are roughly separated into layer sampling and graph sampling methods.

Layer sampling methods first construct a complete GCN and then sample nodes or edges in each layer to form minibatches. GraphSAGE [12] reduces receptive field size through uniform node sampling. PinSage [24] develops efficient random walks to sample neighborhoods. GraphCSC [25] utilizes centrality-biased random walks and centrality-based negative sampling approaches to scale algorithm. S-GCN [26] further restricts the receptive field by utilizing the historical activations in the previous layer to avoid redundant re-evaluation. AS-GCN [27] leverages an adaptive sampling strategy to restrict the neighbor expansion factor. FastGCN [15] applies importance sampling to reduce variance and ensures constant sample size for each layer.

Graph sampling methods first sample subgraphs each minibatch and then train a complete GCN on each subgraph. LouvainNE [28] learns node embeddings by a hierarchical clustering approach. COSINE [29] utilizes graph partitioning methods to graph and builds parameter sharing dependency of nodes based on the result of partitioning. Cluster-GCN [4] first partitions the training graph into densely connected clusters, samples subgraphs by randomly combining clusters, and then performs GCN on each sampled subgraph. GraphSAINT [30] samples subgraph based on the random walk, and proposes a normalization technique to eliminate the bias of graph sampling method. Graph sampling methods are more flexible and efficient especially when we use deep GNNs models [4].

2.3 Unsupervised Graph Neural Networks

Unsupervised graph neural networks aim to generate feature-preserving node representations without explicit user labeled data. Unlike some structure-based graph embedding methods, unsupervised GNNs exploit both topological information and node features simultaneously through deep neural networks. Most of these methods follow the standard autoencoder framework [31] and involve the combination of two stacked models. First, they use the encoder based on GNNs to map the node features into the latent embedding space, and then the decoder tries to reconstruct the information of original graph from the nodes latent embeddings. For example, GAE and VGAE [6] use Graph Convolutional Networks (GCN) as the encoder and simply reconstruct the adjacency matrix. ARGA [32] enforces node embedding to match a prior distribution via an adversarial training scheme. DGI [11] maximizes mutual information between node and graph summary representations in the decoder. GALA [10] proposes Laplacian sharpening as a decoder to prevent over-smoothing when reconstructing node features. MVGRL [33] learns graph representation by contrasting structural views of graphs. AGE [9] applies a Laplacian smoothing filter as the encoder and utilizes adaptive learning to train embeddings. These unsupervised GNNs have been widely adopted to tackle challenging problems in the graph, such as node classification [3] node clustering [32], [34], link prediction [6], and graph generation [35].

Although the above GAE based methods perform well in medium-size graph datasets, they are hard to use in large graph because of the scalability problems. Some scalable GAE frameworks [13], [14] are proposed to solve this issue, while they focus more on graph structure but neglect the utilization of attribute in sampling and training stage. In addition, most of the existing GAE based methods guide the training using the reconstruction loss for the local relations. But we argue that community relationships play key roles especially when there is no explicit label signal.

3 Problem Statement

3.1 Notation

We use bold upper-case letters to denote matrices, bold lower-case letters to represent vectors, and non-bold italicized letters to denote scalars. Moreover, we use $A^T$ to denote the transpose of a matrix $A$. $A_{i,j}$ denotes the entry of matrix $A$ at the $i$–th row and the $j$–th column. Table 1 summarizes the frequently used notations in this paper.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$N$</td>
<td>The number of nodes in the graph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E$</td>
<td>The number of edges in the graph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L$</td>
<td>The number of layers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$</td>
<td>The dimension of node attributes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F^*$</td>
<td>The dimension of hidden node embeddings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f^{(l)}$</td>
<td>The number of node embedding dimensions in the $l$–th encoder/decoder layer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V$</td>
<td>Undirected attributed graph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$Y$</td>
<td>Vetzet set of the graph $G$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E$</td>
<td>Edge set of the graph $G$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A$</td>
<td>Adjacency matrix of the graph $G$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X$</td>
<td>Node attributed matrix of the graph $G$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$Y$</td>
<td>Node labels of the graph $G$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$Z$</td>
<td>Node representation matrix learned by GAE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H^{(l)}$</td>
<td>Node representation matrix of the $l$–th encoder layer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\hat{H}^{(l)}$</td>
<td>Node representation matrix of the $l$–th decoder layer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_i$</td>
<td>The node representation of node $i$ in $X$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N_i$</td>
<td>The neighborhood of node $i$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 Problem Definition.

Suppose an unsupervised attributed graph representation learning setup. An attributed graph is represented as $G = (V, E, X)$, where $V = \{v_i\}$ contains $N$ nodes, and $E = \{e_{ij}\}$ consists of a set of edges. The structural information between nodes can be represented by an adjacency matrix.
4 OUR APPROACH

In order to improve the scalability of model and ensure the quality of generated node embeddings, we present SAGES framework. In this section, we first show the overall architecture of SAGES framework. Then each part of SAGES is described in detail. Finally, the time complexity and space complexity of SAGES algorithm are analyzed.

4.1 Overall Framework.

The overall training algorithm of SAGES is shown in Algorithm 1. The core idea behind SAGES is to scale graph autoencoder to handle large attributed graphs by exploiting sampling subgraphs. Roughly, SAGES first extracts appropriately connected subgraphs by graph sampler considering the information of node connections and attributes. Then SAGES employs an attribute sensitive graph autoencoder on each sampled subgraphs. GAE here can capture local/community relationships (both content and structure) between nodes. We use a normalization technique to eliminate bias caused by graph sampling in SAGES.

The overview of the GAE in SAGES is illustrated in Figure 2. The encoder of SAGES is flexible and can be many GNN architecture variants, such as GCN [5], GAT [23], and JK-Networks [36]. The decoder of SAGES consists of three loss functions: structure loss, content loss, and community loss. Structure loss relies on a simple inner product decoder to reconstruct edges the subgraph. Content loss reconstructs nodal features of the subgraph. Community-level loss is based on local-community mutual information maximization to capture community information of the subgraph. Through the training process in Algorithm 1, SAGES can combine information of extracted subgraphs together so that the training process overall learns a good representation of the full graph.

Algorithm 1 SAGES Training Algorithm

Input: Graph $G(V, E) = (A, X)$; Graph Sampler SAMPLE. Output: The GAE model with trained weights;

1: $G \leftarrow$ construct training graph of $G$. \textbf{\textit{>> Inductive setting}}
2: Preprocessing: Calculating influence matrix $\hat{X}$;
3: Setup the SAMPLE parameters;
4: Compute normalization coefficients $\alpha, \lambda$.
5: for each minibatch do
6: $\hat{G}_t(V_t, E_t) \leftarrow$ SAMPLE($G$).
7: GAE construction on $\hat{G}_t$.
8: $Z_t \leftarrow$ Forward propagation of $\{A_t, X_t\}$ by the encoder of SAGES, normalized by $\alpha$.
9: $\hat{A}_t, \hat{X}_t \leftarrow$ Reconstruct $A_t, X_t$ based on $Z_t$ by attribute-sensitive decoder.
10: $L_A \leftarrow$ Compute $\lambda_{A,t}-normalized$ structure loss $\{A_t, \hat{A}_t\}$.
11: $L_X \leftarrow$ Compute $\lambda_{X,t}-normalized$ content loss $\{X_t, \hat{X}_t\}$.
12: $L_c \leftarrow$ Compute community-level loss.
13: Backward propagation according to $L_A$, $L_X$ and $L_c$.
14: Update weights.
15: end for

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to extract subgraphs with losing little structure and content information. Intuitively, nodes with higher influence with each other should have a higher probability of being sampled into the same subgraph. According to [37], [38], for attributed graphs, ignoring node attributes when sampling nodes may omit informative samples and introduce noises if neighbors with inconsistent contents are sampled, which reduces the ability of GNN-based models for downstream tasks. Our intuition is that a good sampler should consider both the node attributes and the graph structure. Previous works such as VR-GCN [39], LADIES [40] and GraphSAINT [30] have shown that reducing the variance of estimations of the node embeddings caused by sampling in mini-batch GCN training leads to higher model accuracy and higher convergence speed. We prove that the sampler SAGES we proposed in this section is a near optimal solution of minimizing the estimation variance under Equation 8. Details are in Appendix A.

Specifically, based on the calculation formula of the node embeddings in each layer of our model presented in Equation (8), we can derive the variance of estimations of the node embeddings in the complete multi-layer GCN model following GraphSAINT [30]. We consider a sampling strategy where we sample neighbors for the current node in each step. The proportion of the probabilities of neighbors \( v_1 \) and \( v_2 \) being sampled conditioned on the current node \( u \) can be calculated by Equation (27). We derive that

\[
p_{v_1|u} \propto \cos \theta_k, \quad p_{v_2|u} \propto \cos \theta_k,
\]

where \( p_{v_k|u} \) is the probability of the node \( v_k \) being sampled conditioned on the current node \( u \), and \( \theta_k \) is the angle between the node embeddings of \( u \) and \( v_k \). Compared to neighbor \( v_j \), \( v_i \) is more likely to influence \( u \) if the hidden embeddings of neighbor \( v_i \) is more similar to the current node \( u \)’s embedding. The embeddings here are related to node attributes and the graph structure according to the definition in Equation (25), which agrees with our intuition that the optimal sampler should consider both the node attributes and the graph structure. We perform a simple linear K-hop graph convolution transformation:

\[
\tilde{X} = S^KX, \quad S = \tilde{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \tilde{A} \tilde{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}
\]

where \( \tilde{A} = A + I \), \( I \) is identity matrix, and \( \tilde{D} \) is the degree matrix of \( \tilde{A} \). Notably, [41] has proved that the simple linear graph convolution transformation can capture the information of graph structure and node attributes. This is because the expressive power of GCN originates primarily from the repeated graph propagation rather than the nonlinear feature extraction.

We also emphasize that the renormalization trick (add self-loops to original graph) [5] is very helpful here. The simple linear graph convolutional transformation with renormalization trick acts as a lowpass filter in graph spectrum perspective that produces smooth features over the graph. This can lead nearby nodes with similar content tend to share similar representations.

To show the effectiveness of the simple linear graph convolutional transformation, we visualize the Cora dataset in a two-dimensional space by applying the t-SNE [42] algorithm on raw node feature matrix \( X \) and the node embedding matrix \( \tilde{X} \), respectively. We use a linear 2-hop graph convolution transformation to generate \( \tilde{X} \) here. The result in Figure 3 demonstrates that the node representation after linear graph convolution transformation is more meaningful than the raw node feature. Compared with the raw node feature, our node embeddings’ 2D projections exhibit discernible clustering. Thus, we can sample subgraphs with highly correlated nodes, according to the similarity of node embeddings in \( \tilde{X} \).

Algorithm 2 outlines the graph sampling method used in SAGES. Its basic idea is to sample subgraphs that meet the above three requirements by selecting similar nodes in random walk. In Algorithm 2, we first sample \( b \) root nodes for random walk by sample measure \( M \). There are two alternative measures for \( M \): Uniform Sampling, which samples nodes from \( V \) uniformly. Degree Sampling, which is inspired by [15], [30], samples nodes according to a node probability distribution \( P(u) \propto \|\tilde{A}_{:,u}\|_{2} \). Here, \( \tilde{A}_{:,u} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \tilde{A}_{i,u} \). In practice, we find that Uniform Sampling is good enough most of the time. Starting from getting the root nodes, we walk

Fig. 3. The t-SNE visualizations of the node embeddings on the Cora dataset. The left visualization illustrates the node embeddings from the raw node features matrix \( X \), and the right visualization illustrates the node embeddings from node influence representation matrix \( \tilde{X} \). The clusters of the right visualization based on node influence representation matrix \( \tilde{X} \) are clearly defined.

Fig. 4. An illustration of different sampling methods. Nodes with different colors have different labels. The dotted line delineated area represents a sampled subgraph. For the left sampler that only depends on graph topology, the nodes in the subgraph sampled may differ relatively from each other in attribute, which makes the model difficult to learn useful information in the subgraph.

We present the simple linear K-hop graph convolution transformation to generated \( \tilde{X} \):

\[
\tilde{X} = S^KX, \quad S = \tilde{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \tilde{A} \tilde{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}
\]

where \( \tilde{A} = A + I, I \) is identity matrix, and \( \tilde{D} \) is the degree matrix of \( \tilde{A} \). Notably, [41] has proved that the simple linear graph convolution transformation can capture the information of graph structure and node attributes. This is because the expressive power of GCN originates primarily from the repeated graph propagation rather than the nonlinear feature extraction.

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Algorithm 2 Graph Sampling Algorithms SAMPLE

Input: Graph $G$; Node representation matrix $X$;
Sample Measure $M$; Batch size $b$; Sample depth $h$;

Output: Sampled graph $G_s(V_s, E_s)$;

1: $\mathcal{V}_\text{root} \leftarrow b$ root nodes sampled randomly according to $\mathcal{Y}$;
2: $\mathcal{Y} \leftarrow \text{Sample Measure } M \text{ from } V$ of $G$
3: $V_s \leftarrow \mathcal{V}_\text{root}$
4: for $v \in \mathcal{V}_\text{root}$ do > Be able to run in parallel
5: \hspace{1em} $v \leftarrow v$
6: \hspace{1em} for $d = 1$ to $h$ do
7: \hspace{2em} $P_{\text{next}}(r) := \text{softmax}(\cos(x_u, x_r) \geq \text{temp})$, $r \in \mathcal{N}_u$
8: \hspace{2em} $v \leftarrow \text{node sampled from } \mathcal{N}_u \text{ according to } P_{\text{next}}(u)$
9: \hspace{1em} $V_s \leftarrow V_s \cup \{u\}$
10: end for
11: end for
12: return $G_s \leftarrow$ Node induced subgraph of $G$ from $V_s$

$h$-hops for each walker. In each hop of the walker, we randomly sample one neighbor node of the current node $u$ according to $P_{\text{next}}$ defined in line 7 of Algorithm 2. $P_{\text{next}}$ can measure influence between node and its neighbors, $\text{temp}$ is temperature in softmax to control the smoothness of the distribution [43]. Thus, $P_{\text{next}}$ can adapt to different node representation space distribution by controlling $\text{temp}$. In the end, we induce a well-connected subgraph whose nodes are highly related according to $V_s$.

As shown in Figure 4, compared with the graph sampler which only considers graph structure, our graph sampler considering both graph structure and node features, is a better choice. Note that our graph sampler will not cost too much time. The process of sampling each subgraph is independent, so we can sample subgraphs in parallel. For preprocessing part, we will give a detailed explanation in Section 4.3.

4.2.2 Unbiased Attributed Graph Encoder on Subgraph

SAGES framework is relatively flexible, and many GNNs architecture variants are suitable to be our encoder. For simplicity, we will introduce GCN as our encoder. GCN incorporates spectral convolutions into neural networks to learn node representations. We denote encoder GCN as $\Phi$. Given the subgraph $G_t = (V_t, E_t, X_t)$ with adjacency matrix $A_t$, the $l$-th layer of encoder $\Phi$ is as follows:

$$H_t^{(l+1)} = \sigma \left( S_t H_t^{(l)} W^{(l)} \right), \quad S_t = I - \frac{1}{\lambda} A_t D_t^{-\frac{1}{2}} = I - \frac{1}{\lambda} A_t$$

where $H_0^{(l)}$ is the node embedding of the $l$-th layer, $W^{(l)} \in \mathbb{R}^{f^{(l)} \times f^{(l+1)}}$ are trainable parameters of node transformation, and $S_t$ is the symmetric normalization matrix of $A_t$ with self-loops. $\sigma$ is the activation function here, it can be Identity Function : $f(x) = x$ or RELU Function : $f(x) = \max(x, 0)$. For layer 0 to $L-1$, we use Identity Function. For layer $L$, we use RELU. The initial node representations are just the original input features, which means $H_0^{(l)} = X_t$. After applying $L$ encoder layers, we consider the output of the last layer as the final node representations matrix $Z_t$ learned by GAE. Thus for GCN encoder $\Phi$ we have

$$\Phi(A_t, X_t; \Theta_\Phi) = Z_t, \quad Z_t = H_t^{(L)}$$

where all trainable parameters of encoder $\Phi$ can be expressed as

$$\Theta_\Phi = \{W^{(l)}\}_{l=0, \ldots, L-1}$$

Note that, to sample appropriate subgraph, our graph sampler preserves connectivity characteristics of $G$ and pushes the nodes with high impact to gather together. This will result in a skewed sampling of nodes and edges. Therefore, it is inevitable that this sampler will introduce bias into the minibatch estimation. So we propose a normalization technique to eliminate bias of forward propagation and back propagation in training GAE, and we focus on encoder in this part.

For simplicity, we only analyze GCN here, and other GCN architecture variants can be extended from it. Analysis of the complete multi-layer GCN with nonlinear activation is difficult, and sometimes removing the nonlinear activation function will preserve or even improve performances. Thus, we analyze feature propagation of each layer independently. Given node $v \in \mathcal{V}_s$ and $u \in \mathcal{V}_s$, we can compute the aggregated feature of $v$ in the $(l+1)$-th layer as:

$$h_{u}^{(l+1)} = \sum_{u \in \mathcal{N}_u} S_{u,v} \left( W^{(l)} \right)^T h_{u}^{(l)} 1_{u|v}$$

where node $u$ is the neighbor of node $v$, $h_{u}^{(l)}$ is the node $u$’s representation in the $l$-th layer, $S_{u,v}$ is the element of row $v$ and column $u$ in $S$. And $1_{u|v} \in \{0, 1\}$ is the indicator function indicating whether $u$ is in the subgraph (i.e. $1_{u|v} = 0$ if $(u,v) \notin E_s$; $1_{u|v} = 1$ if $(u,v) \in E_s$).

Define $p_u$ as the probability of the node $v$ being sampled in a subgraph, and $p_{u,v} = p_u p_v$ as the probability of the edge $(u,v) \in E_s$ being sampled in the subgraph. Then, we have

$$E(1_{u|v}) = P((u,v) \text{ sampled } | v \text{ sampled }) = \frac{p_{u,v}}{p_v}$$

Equation (6) (conditional edge probability) holds is due to the initial condition that $v$ is sampled in a subgraph. Then, because the linearity of expectation, the estimation of aggregator in a minibatch is as follow:

$$E \left( h_{u}^{(l)} \right) \approx \sum_{u \in \mathcal{Y}} \frac{S_{u,v}}{\alpha_{u,v}} \left( W^{(l)} \right)^T h_{u}^{(l)}, \quad \alpha_{u,v} = \frac{p_{u,v}}{p_v}$$

So we can get an unbiased estimator of the aggregation of node $v$ in full GCN of $G$ each minibatch by calculating node embedding as:

$$h_{v}^{(l+1)} = \sum_{u \in \mathcal{N}_u} \frac{S_{u,v}}{\alpha_{u,v}} \left( W^{(l)} \right)^T h_{u}^{(l)} 1_{u|v}$$

where $h_{v}^{(l+1)}$ is the node $v$ representation in the $(l+1)$-th layer. $\alpha_{u,v}$ is called aggregator normalization coefficients, it is used to normalize eliminate bias.

4.2.3 Joint Loss Function in Decoder

In this section, we carefully design three regulators to restrict the generated unsupervised node embeddings from different aspects. Specifically, $L_c$ restricts the generated embeddings to preserve the connectivity information hidden in the graph; $L_X$ restricts the generated embeddings to preserve the own content information of each node; and $L_{\Phi}$
restricts the node embeddings to preserve the community information, which is relevant to which subgraph each node belongs to (similar to DGI [11]). We describe them respectively in the following.

Sample-aware Attribute Sensitive Decoder. Most existing GAE-based methods only focus on local structure in decoder and use inner product decoder to reconstruct \( A_t \) as follows:

\[
A_t = \text{sigmoid}(Z_tZ_t^\top), \quad L_A = \text{loss}(A_t, \hat{A}_t)
\] (9)

where \( L_A \) is structure reconstruction loss. Specially, for edge \((u, v) \in E_t\), the loss function is as follow:

\[
L_{u,v} = -\log \left( \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z_{u,v}^\top z_{v,u})} \right)
\] (10)

Although \( L_A \) is flexible enough when training on the entire graph, it is not sufficient on attributed graphs to focus only on structure loss. With the graph sampling, structural information may be distorted due to the missing of partial edges, while the node content information is still intact. Therefore we also reconstruct node feature matrix in the decoder. To gain latent representations that better preserve node attributes on \( G_t \), we need to generate \( \hat{X}_t \) from the nodes latent embeddings \( Z_t \) and make \( \hat{X}_t \) as close as possible to original input \( X_t \), so we design attribute-sensitive decoder \( \Psi(A_t, Z_t; \Theta) = \hat{X}_t \). Here, the decoder \( \Psi \) is a single graph attention layer. We first compute the attention matrix \( C_t \in \mathbb{R}^{N_t \times N_t} \) as follows:

\[
C_t = \text{Softmax}\left( \text{Sigmoid}\left( \hat{M}_s + \hat{M}_r \right) \right)
\] (11)

\[
M_s = A_t \odot (v_s^\top \sigma(W_{att}Z_t)) \quad M_r = A_t \odot (v_r^\top \sigma(W_{att}Z_t))
\] (12)

where \( \odot \) is element-wise multiplication with broadcasting capability and \( \sigma \) is RELU. The trainable parameters include \( W_{att} \in \mathbb{R}^{F \times F} \), \( v_s \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times d(k)} \), and \( v_r \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times d(k)} \). Then the decoder \( \Psi \) is as follow:

\[
\Psi(A_t, Z_t) = \sigma(C_tZ_t)
\] (14)

For node \( v \in V_t \), and the node feature matrix \( X_t \), the content reconstruction loss is defined as:

\[
L_v = \|X_v - \hat{X}_v\|_2, \quad L_X = \text{loss}\left( X_t, \hat{X}_t \right)
\] (15)

Further, sampling strategies lead to the non-identical node/edge probabilities, which introduces biases into mini-batch estimation [30]. So we introduce \( \lambda_v = \frac{1}{p_v} \) as content normalization coefficients and \( \lambda_{u,v} = \frac{1}{p_{u,v}} \) as edge normalization coefficients to eliminate biases. We can calculate the unbiased structure reconstruction loss \( L_X \) as:

\[
L_X = \frac{1}{N_t} \sum_{v \in V_t} \lambda_v L_v
\] (16)

where \( N_t \) is the number of nodes in \( G_t \). And the unbiased structure reconstruction loss \( L_A \) can be calculate as:

\[
L_A = \frac{1}{E_t} \sum_{(u,v) \in E_t} \lambda_{u,v} L_{u,v}
\] (17)

where \( E_t \) is the number of edges in \( G_t \).

To learn better node latent representations which capture both node features and graph structure, we minimize the reconstruction error of \( A_t \) and \( X_t \) of the subgraph as follows:

\[
L_r = L_X + \beta_r L_A
\] (18)

where \( \beta_r \geq 0 \) controls the balance between structure and content. \( L_A \) is as Formula (9).

Feature propagation and calculating loss function within subgraphs require normalization factors \( \alpha_{u,v} \) and \( \lambda_{u,v} \), and these factors depend on \( p_v \) and \( p_{u,v} \). In general, \( p_v \) and \( p_{u,v} \) is hard to be derived analytically. Thus, we perform pre-processing for estimation. We repeatedly sample \( N_{sa} \) subgraphs by utilizing our sampler, and use counter \( C_v \), and \( C_{u,v} \) to count times the node or edge appears. Then, we set \( p_v = \frac{C_v}{N_{sa}} \) and \( p_{u,v} = \frac{C_{u,v}}{N_{sa}} \). Note that these sampled subgraphs can be reused as training minibatches. Therefore, the overhead of pre-processing is small.

Local-Community Mutual Information Maximization. We can naturally own the community structure without extra cost, because nodes within the same subgraph have a high influence on each other both in connection and information perspective. Thus, we design a variant of DGI [11] to incorporate community-level information into the node latent representations. The original DGI focuses on local and global relationships in the entire graph, while we focus on local and community relationships. Here, we maximize the mutual information between the node-level embedding and community-level embedding. We can get the node latent representations \( Z_t \) by the encoder on \( G_t \). Then, we compute the community-level summary representation \( s_t \) by leveraging a Readout Function \( R : \mathbb{R}^{N_t \times F'} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{F'} \):

\[
s_t = R(Z_t) = \sigma \left( \frac{1}{N_t} \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} z_i^{(t)} \right)
\] (19)

where \( z_i^{(t)} \) is the embedding of node \( i \) in \( Z_t \), and \( s_t \) summarizes the node latent embeddings into a community-level embedding. \( \sigma \) is a logistic sigmoid nonlinearity function. Then we employ a Discriminator Function \( D : \mathbb{R}^{F \times F'} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) to measure the probability scores for node-community pair (should be higher for nodes and their corresponding community). The definition of \( D \) is as follows:

\[
D(z_i^{(t)}, s_t) = \sigma(s_t^T W_d z_i^{(t)})
\] (20)

where \( \sigma \) is the logistic sigmoid nonlinearity, and \( W_d \in \mathbb{R}^{F' \times F'} \) is trainable parameters. Then, we generate negative examples for \( D \) in community \( G_t \) by utilizing a Corruption Function \( C \) :

\[
C(A_t, X_t) = (\tilde{A}_t, \tilde{X}_t)
\]

where we keep graph structure \( A_t \) unchanged, and corrupt the attribute matrix \( X_t \) by shuffling it in the row-wise manner like [11]. Then we use the encoder \( \Phi \) to generate negative node latent representations \( \tilde{Z}_t = \Phi(\tilde{A}_t, \tilde{X}_t; \Theta_\Phi) \).

Next, given \( Z_t, \tilde{Z}_t \) and \( s_t \), we compute a noise-contrastive community-specific cross entropy:

\[
L_c = \sum_{i=1}^{N_t} \log D(z_i^{(t)}, s_t) + \frac{N_t}{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} \log (1 - D(z_j^{(t)}, s_t))
\] (21)
Joint Learning. To enable the model to learn both node-level and community-level information, the loss function of the whole model is as follows:

$$
J = L_r + \beta L_c
$$

(22)

where $\beta$ controls the balance between local and community relationships.

Remark. We expand Equation 22 and explain the settings of hyper-parameters as follows:

$$
J = \frac{1}{N_v} \sum_{v \in V_t} \lambda_v \|x_v - \hat{x}_v\|_2^2 - \beta_r \frac{1}{E_t} \sum_{(u,v) \in E_t} \lambda_{u,v} \log \left( \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left( -z_u^T z_v \right)} \right) + \beta \sum_{i=1}^{N_s} \log D \left( \tilde{z}_j^{(i)}, s_i \right) + \sum_{j=1}^{N_z} \log \left( 1 - D \left( \tilde{z}_j, s_i \right) \right)
$$

(23)

There are four parameters, $\lambda_v$, $\lambda_{u,v}$, $\beta_r$ and $\beta$. First, $\lambda_v$ and $\lambda_{u,v}$ can be computed as $\lambda_v = \frac{1}{p_v}$ and $\lambda_{u,v} = \frac{1}{p_{u,v}}$, given an input graph, where $p_v$ and $p_{u,v}$ can be estimated in the preprocessing stage — In the preprocessing stage, we run the sampler repeatedly to obtain a set of $N_{sa}$ subgraphs, where $N_{sa}$ is the number of subgraphs. Then $p_v$ and $p_{u,v}$ can be computed as $p_v = \frac{C_u}{N_{vn}}$, $p_{u,v} = \frac{C_{u,v}}{N_{vn}}$, where $C_u$ is the number of times that the node $u$ appears in the subgraphs, and $C_{u,v}$ is the number of times that the node $v$ appears in the subgraphs. Moreover, users can tune $\beta_r$ and $\beta$ to set different weights for different regulators for a given graph to get the best performance.

4.3 Complexity Analysis

In this section, we discuss the preprocessing and analyze the time and space complexity of SAGES to show its scalability. The discussion is divided into two parts: graph sampling and model training.

In graph sampling, we will calculate node influence representation matrix $X$ mentioned in Formula (1). Note that, the dimension of input feature of graph will not be large, because the raw feature is usually processed by dimension reduction methods [44], [45]. In addition, $A$ is typically sparse, and $K$ is usually small. Thus, we can exploit fast sparse-dense matrix multiplication [46] to compute $X$. In our experiment, it takes only 80 seconds to compute the influence representation matrix of a graph (Amazon) with one million of nodes and hundreds of millions of edges.

For model training, we only focus on the complexity of encoder, because the cost of calculating content loss in decoder is the same as that in encoder, and the calculation of structure loss and community loss is not the bottleneck. Here, $\|A_i\|$ and $\|A\|$ are the number of non-zero elements in $A_i$ and $A$, respectively. $D$ is the maximum dimension of all layers, and $b$ is the number of nodes of the largest subgraph. Since we only train the encoder within one subgraph per batch, the computation will purely be matrix products as Formula 2. We need $O(bLD^2)$ time to transform node embeddings and $O(L \|A\|_0 D)$ time to perform the node aggregation function per batch. Therefore, the overall time complexity per batch becomes $O(bLD^2 + L \|A\|_0 D)$, and the overall time complexity per epoch is $O(NLD^2 + L \|A\|_0 D)$. On average, we only need computing $O(bL)$ embeddings each batch, which is linear instead of exponential to $L$. In terms of space complexity, in each batch, we only need to load $b$ nodes and store their embeddings, resulting in $O(bL + LF^2)$ memory complexity.

5 Experiments

In this section, we evaluate the proposed SAGES framework on three medium-size attributed graphs and three large attributed graph datasets. To test the effectiveness and generality of latent representation generated by SAGES encoder, node classification, link prediction and node clustering tasks are conducted. We also take ablation studies to demonstrate that each component of the loss in the decoder is important. All experiments are conducted on a machine with two GPUs (NVIDIA RTX 2080 Ti GPU 12G) and 64 CPUs (Intel Xeon Gold 5218 CPU 2.30GHz). We implement SAGES via the PyTorch Geometric (PyG) [47] package.

5.1 Datasets

SAGES has been studied in six real-world attributed graphs. The details about graph datasets can be found in Table 2. The three medium-size attributed graph datasets used in our experiment include Cora, Citeseer, and Pubmed [21]. They are citation networks that consist of scientific publications as nodes and citation relationships as edges. The node features of these citation networks are unique words in each document. They are widely used for assessment of attributed graph analysis [5].

Besides, there are three large attributed graph datasets, including Flickr, Reddit, and Amazon. Flickr dataset originates from the SNAP website 1, and it forms links between images sharing common metadata from Flickr, the node in Flickr represents one uploaded image, and we create the edge when two images share some common properties. The Reddit dataset is constructed by Reddit posts. The node label is the community that a post belongs to, and node features are word embeddings of the post. More details of Reddit can be found in [12]. Amazon dataset is collected from [30]. Nodes of the Amazon dataset are products on the website and the edges of the Amazon dataset are created if two products are bought by the same customer. The node feature is the word embeddings of the text reviews, and the node label represents the product category (e.g. movies, books, shoes). Note that, we remove the unlabeled nodes from the original Amazon dataset in [30], select the most important category (the category that contains the most products) as the label, and reconstruct the graph on the remaining nodes.

5.2 Node Classification

We compare our SAGES against the state-of-the-art algorithms on a variety of node classification tasks (transductive as well as inductive) and obtain competitive results. Inductive tasks require generalization to the unseen graph, while transductive can see the whole graph during training.

and the detailed difference between them is given by [12]. Like the experiment setting in [11], in each case, SAGES and other unsupervised algorithms will learn node representations in a fully unsupervised manner. Then we will use a simple linear (logistic regression) classifier on learned presentations in a fully unsupervised manner. Then we will and other unsupervised algorithms will learn node representations.

5.2.1 Baselines


- Competitors on large attributed graphs: GraphSAGE [12] scales GNNs by sampling uniformly and aggregating features from a node’s local neighborhood. As our setup is unsupervised, we compare against the unsupervised GraphSAGE version. FastGCN [15] scales

### Table 2

The statistics of the benchmark datasets. Task indicates experimental settings of node classification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Nodes</th>
<th>Edges</th>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Classes</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Train/Val/Test Nodes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cora</td>
<td>Transductive</td>
<td>2,708</td>
<td>5,429</td>
<td>1,433</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>140/500/1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citeseer</td>
<td>Transductive</td>
<td>3,327</td>
<td>4,732</td>
<td>3,703</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>120/500/1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pubmed</td>
<td>Transductive</td>
<td>19,717</td>
<td>44,338</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>151,708/23,699/55,334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flickr</td>
<td>Inductive</td>
<td>89,250</td>
<td>899,756</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>44,625/22,312/22,312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reddit</td>
<td>Inductive</td>
<td>232,965</td>
<td>11,606,919</td>
<td>602</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>153,932/23,699/55,334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amazon</td>
<td>Inductive</td>
<td>1008,606</td>
<td>116,196,671</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>115.2</td>
<td>857,315/50,431/400,860</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3

Node Classification Accuracies on Cora, Citeseer, and Pubmed. Available Data shows the type of data used during training for each method. Data types can be found in Table 1. Y here means labels. Train Graph refers to the graph used in training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Available Data</th>
<th>Train Graph</th>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Cora</th>
<th>Citeseer</th>
<th>Pubmed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>Full Graph</td>
<td>DeepWalk</td>
<td>68.2%</td>
<td>43.2%</td>
<td>65.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, Y</td>
<td>Full Graph</td>
<td>GAE</td>
<td>80.7%</td>
<td>69.0%</td>
<td>76.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Full Graph</td>
<td>STNE</td>
<td>79.8%</td>
<td>68.2%</td>
<td>74.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Full Graph</td>
<td>DGI</td>
<td>82.3%</td>
<td>71.8%</td>
<td>76.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Full Graph</td>
<td>GALA</td>
<td>81.0%</td>
<td>72.1%</td>
<td>76.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Full Graph</td>
<td>MVGRL</td>
<td>82.0%</td>
<td>71.6%</td>
<td>75.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Full Graph</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>80.0%</td>
<td>72.0%</td>
<td>76.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, X</td>
<td>Subgraph</td>
<td>SAGES (ours)</td>
<td>84.5%</td>
<td>73.2%</td>
<td>80.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, X, Y</td>
<td>Full Graph</td>
<td>Planetoid</td>
<td>75.7%</td>
<td>64.7%</td>
<td>77.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, X, Y</td>
<td>Full Graph</td>
<td>GCN</td>
<td>81.5%</td>
<td>70.3%</td>
<td>79.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4

Node Classification Results on large graphs (micro-F1). Available Data is the same meaning as Table 3. The symbol '-' denotes that the competitor is not scalable on the datasets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Available Data</th>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Flickr</th>
<th>Reddit</th>
<th>Amazon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A, X</td>
<td>GraphSAGE-GCN</td>
<td>0.480 ± 0.001</td>
<td>0.908 ± 0.002</td>
<td>0.703 ± 0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, X</td>
<td>GraphSAGE-mean</td>
<td>0.487 ± 0.002</td>
<td>0.897 ± 0.001</td>
<td>0.725 ± 0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, X</td>
<td>GraphSAGE-LSTM</td>
<td>0.451 ± 0.003</td>
<td>0.907 ± 0.004</td>
<td>0.687 ± 0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, X</td>
<td>GraphSAGE-pool</td>
<td>0.456 ± 0.001</td>
<td>0.892 ± 0.001</td>
<td>0.692 ± 0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, X</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>0.493 ± 0.002</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, X</td>
<td>DGI</td>
<td>0.497 ± 0.002</td>
<td>0.940 ± 0.001</td>
<td>0.751 ± 0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, X</td>
<td>SAGES (ours)</td>
<td>0.522 ± 0.001</td>
<td>0.952 ± 0.013</td>
<td>0.823 ± 0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, X, Y</td>
<td>FastGCN</td>
<td>0.504 ± 0.001</td>
<td>0.924 ± 0.001</td>
<td>0.549 ± 0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, X, Y</td>
<td>AS-GCN</td>
<td>0.504 ± 0.002</td>
<td>0.968 ± 0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We compare SAGES with the state-of-the-art unsupervised decoder. Learning node representation will benefit from considering Cora, Citeseer, and Pubmed, respectively. This indicates that supervised methods. Particularly, we observe an improvement of 2% over the state-of-the-art unsupervised model DGI on three datasets by more than 2.4%, 1.0%, and 7.0%, respectively. To our best knowledge, our unsupervised SAGES achieves state-of-the-art test F1 score 52.1 on the Flickr dataset. It confirms the empirical superiority of our graph sampling and three loss function.

### 5.2.2 Experiment Setting

Following the general settings in GNNs like [11], [23], we conduct transductive tasks on three medium-size graphs (Cora, Citeseer, and Pubmed), and perform inductive tasks on three large graphs (Flickr, Reddit, and Amazon). We use mean classification accuracy on transductive tasks and use the micro-averaged F1 score on inductive tasks. We follow the same settings (i.e., the train/validation/test split) as [11] and take the same setting as [30] on the inductive tasks.

For transductive tasks, we reuse the metrics already reported in [5], [11], [21], [49] for the performance of DeepWalk, GCN, Label Propagation (LP), Planetoid, and DGI. For all GAE based models and the SAGES model, we use a 2-layer GCN with 512 node embedding dimensions as the encoder. Other hyperparameter settings are shown in Table 5.

For inductive tasks, we reuse the metrics reported in [11] for the performance of GraphSAGE, DGI on Reddit, as well as the FastGCN and AS-GCN [30] on Flickr and Reddit. For SAGES, we also use a 2-layer GCN as encoder, the dimension of hidden layer is set to 256 for Flickr and Reddit, and 128 for Amazon. Other hyperparameter settings are shown in Table 5.

For all competitors, we adopt the early stopping, which wait 20 steps until no progress on the validation set. Adam optimizer [50] is used here. We perform a hyperparameter sweep on initial learning rates \( \{10^{-3}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-5}\} \) for medium-size graphs and \( \{10^{-1}, 10^{-2}, 10^{-3}\} \) for large graphs respectively.

### 5.2.3 Experiment Results

Table 3 shows the evaluation results on transductive tasks. The results demonstrate that SAGES outperforms all unsupervised methods. Particularly, we observe an improvement of 12.2%, 0.7%, and 3.7% over the state-of-the-art unsupervised model DGI (a full-batch training method) on Cora, Citeseer, and Pubmed, respectively. This indicates that learning node representation will benefit from considering content information and community-level information of the subgraph composed of closely related nodes in the decoder.

Table 4 shows the evaluation results on inductive tasks. We compare SAGES with the state-of-the-art unsupervised scalable GNN models and some supervised scalable GNNs models. The results show the scalability and effectiveness of our framework. Notice that the Reddit dataset is the large attributed graph widely used for assessment of scalable GNNs, and the Amazon dataset has one million of nodes and hundreds of millions of edges. It is worth noting that GALA, MVGRL, and AGE are not scalable to train in Reddit and Amazon. We further observe that SAGES outperforms the previous unsupervised sampling-based GCN variants DGI on three datasets by more than 2.4%, 1.0%, and 7.0%, respectively. To our best knowledge, our unsupervised SAGES achieves state-of-the-art test F1 score 52.1 on the Flickr dataset. It confirms the empirical superiority of our graph sampling and three loss function.

### 5.3 Node Clustering

We compare SAGES with various graph embedding based approaches for node clustering on Cora and Citeseer. Nodes of two datasets are clustered in 6 and 7 topic classes respectively, acting as ground-truth communities. Pubmed is not suitable for node clustering tasks here because it has only three communities.

#### 5.3.1 Baselines

In addition to the methods listed above, some baselines which are designed for clustering are also included. **K-means** is a classical clustering method. **Graph Encoder** [51] trains stacked autoencoder to get node embedding. **DNGR** [52] utilizes stacked denoising autoencoder for graph embedding. To learn node representations, **RTM** [53] considers both text and citation, **RMSC** [54] employs a multi-view method, **TADW** [20] applies matrix factorization. **ARGA** [32] uses adversarially regularized graph autoencoders to learn graph embedding, and **ARVGA** is a variational version of ARGA. **SAGES** is our method.

#### 5.3.2 Experiment Setting

For node clustering tasks, we have the same experiment settings as [9]. For representation learning methods, we apply Spectral Clustering on the generated embeddings, and select the best epoch by DaviesÅBouldin index (DBI) [55]. In particular, the node embeddings here are scaled to
the [0, 1] interval by min-max scaler for variance reduction. For other works that specify on the node clustering task, we reuse the metrics already reported in [32]. For metrics, we follow [54], and employ three metrics to validate the results: accuracy (ACC), normalized mutual information (NMI), and average rand index (ARI). All metrics used in node clustering are related to the labels. A better result should lead to higher values for all the metrics. For SAGES, some hyperparameter settings are shown in Table 5. Other parameters and experiment settings are the same as the node classification task.

5.3.3 Experiment Results

Table 6 shows the results of the node clustering tasks. SAGES outperform other methods across most of the evaluation metrics. We can observe that the models using both content and structure information generally perform better than other autoencoder methods. For example, GALA, AGE, and our methods outperform all the baselines without GNNs encoder. In particular, AGE benefits from adaptive learning that performs well in this task, but it is not scalable and performs mediocre in node classification, while SAGES are competitive in all kinds of tasks. The reasons for this are that (i) the attribute-sensitive decoder can better capture node feature and graph structure than a simple inner-product decoder. (ii) Maximizing the local mutual information of the community is beneficial to capture the relevant information of clustering.

5.4 Link Prediction

We compare SAGES with various graph representation methods for link prediction on Cora and Citeseer. The comparison algorithms are listed in 5.2.1.

5.4.1 Experiment Setting

We partition the datasets following the experimental settings of AGE [9], removing 5% edges for validation and 10% edges for test. To predict whether there is a potential edge existing between two nodes, we use $\hat{A} = \text{sigmoid}(ZZ^T)$ for the node latent embeddings $Z$. For metrics, we follow [9], and report Area Under Curve (AUC) and Average Precision (AP) scores. A higher value indicates better performance. The training procedures and hyperparameters are consistent with the node classification tasks.

5.4.2 Experiment Results

Table 7 shows the results of the link prediction tasks. We report mean scores of Area Under Curve (AUC) and Average Precision (AP) with 10 random initializations. Compared with state-of-the-art methods, SAGES outperform them on both AUC and AP.

5.5 In-depth Analysis

5.5.1 Network Visualisation

To qualitatively investigate the effectiveness of the node embeddings learned by SAGES, we utilize t-SNE [42] to project the learned node embeddings of different models into a two-dimensional space. We focus our analysis exclusively on the Cora dataset, because the Cora dataset has the smallest number of nodes, and this significantly aiding clarity.

In Figure 5, we give the t-SNE visualizations of four kinds of node embeddings in Cora, including node embeddings from raw features, node embeddings learned from a GAE model, node embeddings learned from a DGI model, and node embeddings learned from our SAGES model. Here, all three unsupervised GNNs models follow the graph autoencoder framework, they all use a 2-layer GCN layer as the encoder, and the dimension of node embeddings in all hidden layers is set as 512. In the decoder, the GAE model utilizes inner-product layer to reconstruct edge information in the graph, the DGI model maximizes the mutual information between local patches of a graph and the global representation of the entire graph, and our SAGES model reconstructs structure-level, content-level, and community-level information from properly-sampled subgraphs.

By analyzing the t-SNE visualizations in Figure 5, we have the following observations: (i) Compared to the raw features, all three unsupervised GNNs models exhibit discernible clustering in the 2D projected space. (ii) The node embeddings of GAE model are more meaningless than the other two models, we can see more overlap and confusion in visualizations of GAE, which shows that only reconstructing structural information is not enough to learn meaningful node embeddings. (iii) The node embeddings of DGI model are already meaningful, and we can observe seven discernible clusters, although the red, black, and green parts of figure are somewhat overlapped. (iv) By combining reconstruction loss of structure, content, and community information, the node embeddings become more evident in SAGES model, with less overlapping and each group of nodes gathered together, especially in the green and black parts.

5.5.2 Ablation study

To measure the impact of each component of the decoder in SAGES, we conduct an ablation study of SAGES on Cora and Reddit dataset. The experimental results are shown in Table 8. The approach SAGES(S) means that SAGES only reconstructs structural information in the decoder, and so on in other cases. The hyperparameter setting here is the same as the above experimental part. By analyzing the table, we have the following observations: (i) SAGES outperforms other simplified versions, indicating that each component contributes to the overall performance of our architecture. (ii) Even in the case of using one loss function, SAGES still
maintains good performance, which shows the effectiveness and robustness of our graph sampler. iii. Graph structural information is crucial for representation learning of nodes, while reasonably combining node content information and community-level information can have a better impact on node embedding learning.

Then, we conduct ablation study on Cora and Reddit to manifest the efficacy of graph sampling methods of SAGES. The sampling method of comparison is as follows: Uniform Sampling method samples nodes uniformly to form a sub-graph in each minibatch. Degree Sampling method samples nodes according to Degree Sampling mentioned in Section 4.2.1. Core Sampling method sample nodes according to core number [14]. The core number of a node corresponds to the largest value of $k$ for which node is in the $k$—core [56]. Random Walk Sampling method use a regular random walk sampler, which selects $r$ root nodes uniformly in random and goes $h$ hops. The experimental results are shown in Table 9. We can observe that our sampling method is significantly better than other methods. In addition, degree-based sampling and core-based sampling are empirically more effective than uniform sampling, while the effect of the regular random walker is not stable. The results give verification to the rationality of the graph sampler of SAGES.

Furthermore, we also investigate the influence of $K$ value in the Formula (1) on the performance of the SAGES. The results are report in Figure 6. We can observe that the accuracy of SAGES increases at first and then decreases with the increase of $K$. This is as expected, as nodes usually get information from their neighbors at the beginning. However, as $K$ increases, although linear graph convolutional transformation has the renormalization trick, it also suffers over-smoothing [57] problem. Besides, considering the efficiency and effectiveness of the graph sampling algorithm, we choose a smaller $K$ value for large datasets in the experiment.

### 5.5.3 Runtime

We also report the running time of SAGES and GraphSAGE on the largest attributed graph Amazon. The time cost is shown in Table 10. The GraphSAGE here is GraphSAGE-LSTM, and we sample 10 and 25 neighbors at the first and second level respectively to build receptive field. The preprocessing of GraphSAGE refers to the process of generating...
negative sampling by random walk. The size of subgraph in SAGES is 8000. The preprocessing of SAGES refers to the process of calculating influence matrix and sampling subgraphs to set up normalized parameters. We can find that SAGES improves the performance of the model without consuming too much time. We can also observe that the training time of SAGES is shorter than that of GraphSAGE. It agrees with the proposition [30], [39], [40] that reducing the estimation variance in mini-batch GCN training has a positive effect on model's accuracy and convergence speed.

### APPENDIX A

#### Variance Analysis

Previous works [30], [40] have shown that reducing the estimation variance in mini-batch GCN training has a positive effect on model's accuracy and convergence speed.

Similar to GraphSAINT [30], for all estimators $\eta_v^{(l)}$ described in Equation (8), we define the sum of all node aggregations at all layers as $\eta$:

$$
\eta = \sum_l \sum_{v \in \mathcal{G}_v} \eta_v^{(l)} = \sum_l \sum_{v,u} \frac{S_{v,u}}{p_v \alpha_{l,u}} h^{(l)} v \| v \| \mathbb{1}_{v \in \mathcal{G}}
= \sum_l \sum_e \frac{b_e^{(l)} e}{p_e} \mathbb{1}_e^{(l)}
$$

where $e$ is the edge between $u$ and $v$. And $\mathbb{1}_e^{(l)} = 1$ if $e \in \mathcal{E}_l$; $\mathbb{1}_e^{(l)} = 0$ if $e \notin \mathcal{E}_l$. $p_e$ is the probability of the edge $e$ being sampled in the subgraph $G_v$, and $\sum p_e = m$ (where $m$ is the number of sampled edges in subgraph $G_v$). To simplify the formula, we define

$$
b_e^{(l)} = S_{v,u} h^{l-1}_v + S_{u,v} h^{l-1}_u
$$

We denote the variance of estimations of the node embeddings as $Var(\eta)$. We can derive from GraphSAINT [30] that to minimize $Var(\eta)$, the optimal probability of each edge being sampled should be:

$$
p^*_e = \frac{m}{\sum_l \| \sum_j b^{(l)_j} \|} \| \sum_l b^{(l)}_e \|
$$

where $p^*_e$ is the optimal probability of each edge being sampled. And $p^*_e \propto \| \sum_l b^{(l)_e} \|$. We can observe that $p^*_e$ is related to node features as well as the graph topology.

However, to simplify the probability calculation, GraphSAINT [30] ignores $h^{(l-1)} v$ and $h^{(l-1)} u$ in $b^{(l)} e$. They choose $p_e \propto S_{v,u} + S_{u,v}$, making the edge sampling probability dependent on the graph topology only.

In this paper, to approximate optimal sampling probabilities, we use a more reasonable simplification which considers node features as well as the graph topology when calculating sampling probabilities.

We consider a sampling strategy where we sample neighbors for the current node in each step, . According to Equation (26), we have:

$$
p^*_{v_1|u} = \frac{p_{v_1,u}}{p_{u}} = \frac{p_{v_1,u}}{p_{v_2}} = \frac{p_{v_1,u}}{p_{v_2,u}} = \frac{\sum_l b^{(l)}_{v_1,u}}{\sum_l b^{(l)}_{v_2,u}}
$$

where $p^*_{v_k,u}$ is the optimal probability of the edge $(v_k, u) \in \mathcal{E}$ being sampled, $p_u$ is the probability of the node $u \in \mathcal{V}$ being sampled, and $p^*_{v_k,u}$ is the optimal probability of the node $v_k$ being sampled conditioned on that $u$ is the current node.

We encounter the same problem as GraphSAINT [30], FastGCN [15] and AS-GCN [27] where analysing the complete multi-layer GCN is difficult due to non-linear activations. Following the treatment of these previous works, we analyze the embedding of each layer independently.

$$
p^*_{v_1|u} = \frac{\| S_{v_1,u} h^{l-1}_v + S_{u,v} h^{l-1}_u \|}{\| S_{v_2,u} h^{l-1}_u + S_{u,v} h^{l-1}_u \|}
$$

For the $l$-th layer, $p^*_{v_k|u}$ denotes the optimal probability of each node $v_k$ being sampled conditioned on that $u$ is the current node.

We define $q^{l-1}_{u,1} = S_{v_1,u} h^{l-1}_v$, $q^{l-1}_{u,2} = S_{v_2,u} h^{l-1}_u$, $q^{l-1}_{u,3} = S_{v_3,u} h^{l-1}_{v_3}$. We can derive from GraphSAINT [30]
that compared to neighbor $v_2$, $v_1$ is more likely to influence $u$ if the hidden representation of neighbor $v_1$ is more similar to the current node $u$’s hidden representation. It agrees with our intuition that similar neighbors with similar structural and attribute information are more likely to influence each other. For computation simplicity, we choose $p_{v|u} \propto \cos \theta_k$. 

In our model, we first sample subgraphs using the proposed sampler. Then we train our model to generate representations for each node. The Symmetric normalized Laplacian matrix $S$ keeps the same in each layer. In the stage of subgraph sampling, to approximate $S_{u,v}h_{i-1}$ when calculating the probabilities of each neighbor of the current node to be sampled, we perform a simple linear K-hop graph convolution transformation: $X = S^kX$.

We approximate $\cos \theta_k$ by $\cos <\bar{x}_u, \bar{x}_{v_1}>$. Then we have $p^l_{v|u} \propto \cos <\bar{x}_u, \bar{x}_{v_1}>$. Since $p^l_{v|u} \approx p^l_{w|u}$, we can derive that $p^*_w|u \propto \cos <\bar{x}_u, \bar{x}_{v_1}>$.

So the sampler SAGES that we proposed in Section 4.2.1 is a near optimal solution of minimizing the variance of estimations of the node embeddings calculated by Equation (8).

### References


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