

Fusion of text and graph information for machine learning problems on graphs

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Nowadays, an increased attention is drawn towards Network Representation Learning, which is a technique that maps nodes of a network into vectors of a low dimensional space, preserving their similarity. The vectors can later be used for different downstream tasks such as Node Classification, Link Prediction and Graph Visualization. Naturally, some networks have text information associated with them. For instance, in a citation network each node is a scientific paper associated with its abstract or title, in a social network all users might be viewed as nodes of a network and posts of each user as textual attributes. This work studies, how combination of existing methods can increase accuracy on the downstream tasks and proposes some modifications to popular architectures to better capture textual information.

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3 ABSTRACT

4 Nowadays, an increased attention is drawn towards Network Representation Learning, which is a
5 technique that maps nodes of a network into vectors of a low dimensional space, preserving their
6 similarity. The vectors can later be used for different downstream tasks such as Node Classification,
7 Link Prediction and Graph Visualization. Naturally, some networks have text information associated with
8 them. For instance, in a citation network each node is a scientific paper associated with its abstract or
9 title, in a social network all users might be viewed as nodes of a network and posts of each user as
10 textual attributes. This work studies, how combination of existing methods can increase accuracy on the
11 downstream tasks and proposes some modifications to popular architectures to better capture textual
12 information.

13 **Keywords:** graph embeddings, text embedding, information fusion, node classification, link prediction,
14 node clustering, community detection, network science

15 **1 INTRODUCTION**

16 A lot of real-life problems can be modelled as graphs: citation networks, social networks, knowledge
17 databases, etc. Ability to analyze such data structures is very important for the great variety of applications.
18 For instance, social networks try to recommend for a user people to connect to, to do it one should solve
19 a Link Prediction problem. Marketing departments of Telco companies might want to segment users
20 according to their behaviour within a network of calls, which is the problem of Node Clustering. Biologists
21 could need to find out the structural roles of proteins using their interaction network requiring a solution
22 for Node Classification problem.

23 To be able to solve these problems, one has to devise the efficient representation of a network.
24 Historically, the first way to represent a graph is the adjacency matrix. This representation has two major
25 drawbacks: firstly, it captures only direct relationships between nodes, secondly, for real-life graphs,
26 adjacency matrix tends to be very sparse and does not represent structural features apart from first-order
27 proximity in a direct way.

28 Network Representation Learning (NRL) techniques were devised to mitigate the problems mentioned
29 above. Its main idea to map nodes (or edges) of a graph into low dimensional space preserving their
30 topological structure. The first NRL methods were mostly based on matrix factorization Roweis and
31 Saul (2000) Belkin and Niyogi (2002). These methods do solve the dimensionality problem but are still
32 very computationally expensive. More advanced approaches use random walks on graphs to approximate
33 different kinds of similarity matrices Perozzi et al. (2014) Grover and Leskovec (2016). These methods
34 are very scalable and therefore can be applied even for very big graphs.

35 Quite often nodes of a network have different kinds of attributes associated with them. This work is
36 concerned with one type of attributes, such as text information. The problem of efficient representation
37 of textual information is very similar to the same problem with graphs. The most classical techniques
38 such as Bag of Words Harris (1954) and TF-IDF Salton and Buckley (1988) encode each word as one-hot
39 vector and represent a document as a sum of representations of all words (using some coefficients).
40 These methods are very simple but produce very sparse representations and do not take into account the
41 order of words. More advanced approach, which is called Word2Vec Mikolov et al. (2013), employs a
42 neural network (namely Skip-Gram model) to learn semantic of words, using their context. This method
43 produces dense low dimensional embeddings, which makes it more powerful than the classic approaches.
44 There are some extensions of Word2Vec Pagliardini et al. (2017) and Mikolov and Le (2014) that aim to
45 learn document embeddings instead of embeddings for separate words. The most advanced models use
46 bidirectional transformers Reimers and Gurevych (2019) to learn sensible embeddings.

47 The area of fusion of graph and text information for representation learning is not so well researched.
48 The most simple approach is to learn network and document embeddings separately and then concatenate
49 them to produce the final embedding. More sophisticated approaches include TADW Yang et al. (2015),
50 which incorporates text attributes into matrix factorization problem, TriDnr Pan et al. (2016), which uses
51 combined loss between Doc2Vec and DeepWalk algorithms, and GCN Kipf and Welling (2016), which
52 uses special graph convolutional layers to employ attributes.

53 In this work the following contributions are made:

- 54 1. Different combinations of network and document embeddings are studied to improve the accuracy
55 of the downstream tasks.
- 56 2. Some modifications are proposed to existing architectures to better take into account text informa-
57 tion.
- 58 3. Comprehensive comparison of existing methods is performed.

59 **2 RELATED WORK**

60 In the real-life scenario, graphs quite often are accompanied by additional information. In this work, the
61 main focus is put on one particular case, when each node of a network is associated with a text document.

62 **2.1 Network Embeddings**

63 There are a large variety of network embedding models for different cases. In the current work, we use in
64 experiments only three models without node attributes.

65 **2.1.1 DeepWalk**

66 This model is used, because more advanced methods described below are based on it. DeepWalk (Perozzi
67 et al. (2014)) simply samples random walks and learn to embed using a skip-gram approach similar to
68 word2vec Mikolov et al. (2013).

69 **2.1.2 Node2Vec**

70 Node2Vec (Grover and Leskovec (2016)) is more efficient realization of random walk idea. It balances
71 between breadth-first and depth-first searches to keep trade-off between local and global network structure.

72 **2.1.3 HOPE**

73 HOPE (Ou et al. (2016)) is based on matrix factorization techniques. It is one of the best models in
74 that group in terms of accuracy on different tasks. It preserves asymmetric transitivity by learning
75 decomposition of corresponding graph distance measures like Katz index, Adamic-Adar or common
76 neighbours.

77 **2.2 Text embedding**

78 **2.2.1 Word2vec**

79 The idea of it is to predict a context from word (skip-gram) or a word from its context (Continuous Bag of
80 Word) Mikolov et al. (2013).

81 **2.2.2 Sent2Vec**

82 It is an extension of Word2Vec CBOV model, which was designed specifically to improve sentence
83 embeddings. Firstly, it also learns embeddings for word n-grams. Secondly, it uses a whole sentence as a
84 context window. Such an approach allow receiving better sentence embedding with n-gram aggregations.

85 **2.2.3 Doc2Vec**

86 Doc2Vec Mikolov and Le (2014) extends Word2Vec approach even further to be able to learn continuous
87 representations for texts of variable length (starting from a short phrase to very long articles). Its main
88 distinction from Sent2Vec is that Doc2Vec can preserve document context for very long sequences of
89 words. Doc2Vec additionally create a lookup table with document embeddings. When target word is
90 predicted this vector is concatenated to a source word vector.

91 **2.2.4 SBERT**

92 BERT Devlin et al. (2018) the main idea is to use bidirectional autoencoder, which means that it takes into
93 account left and right contexts of each word. BERT model does not use any convolutional or recurrent
94 layers instead it employs the attention mechanism to capture sequential information.

95 SBERT Reimers and Gurevych (2019) framework propose the idea to use Siamese network architecture
96 to generate sentence embeddings. It adds pooling layer to the pre-trained BERT model. There are 3
97 pooling strategies: using CLS token, taking MEAN of all output vectors, taking MAX of all output vectors.
98 Then softmax classifier is applied.

99 **2.3 Naive mixture**

100 The most straightforward method to fuse graph and text information is to first learn graph embeddings
101 independently (giving up on text information) then learn text embeddings (again without taking into
102 account the graph structure) and finally combine two types of embeddings by simply concatenating them.
103 This method has the following advantages:

- 104 1. Graph and Document embeddings separately have been researched for quite a long time, so there
105 are plenty of available methods/libraries etc.
- 106 2. Because embeddings for a network and texts are learned individually one have a lot of freedom so
107 that one can choose a different dimension for text and graph embeddings, pre-train text embeddings
108 on a completely different corpus of texts etc.

109 The main disadvantage is evident: text information is not taken into account while learning graph
110 embeddings (and vice versa). It is important because two nodes might have the same distance in case of
111 the graph proximity, but completely different semantic meaning.

112 2.4 Advanced mixture

113 **TADW**. One of the first attempts to actually incorporate text information into the process of network
114 representation learning was made in TADW Yang et al. (2015) algorithm. The main idea was to enrich
115 ordinary DeepWalk algorithm by taking into account text attributes. In order to do it the authors first
116 prove that DeepWalk basically performs a matrix factorization process and extend it with TF-IDF feature
117 matrix.

118 **TriDNR**. TriDNR tries to solve two issues of TADW: computational complexity of matrix factorization
119 and missed word order in TF-IDF matrix encoding of texts. As the name suggests the algorithms learn the
120 network representation using 3 (at max) sources:

- 121 1. Graph information.
- 122 2. Text information.
- 123 3. Label information.

124 In order to capture graph information DeepWalk algorithm is applied, for text and label information
125 refined Doc2Vec is used.

126 **Graph Convolutional Network**. Kipf Kipf and Welling (2016) propose Graph Convolution Networks
127 (GCN) as a light-weight approximation for the spectral convolution. This method provides better
128 computational efficiency for semi-supervised tasks, like LPP or node classification Kipf and Welling
129 (2016). One of the main advantages of GCNs is its ability to account node attributes. GCN simply applies
130 the adjacency matrix for filtering neighbourhood in the fully-connected layer.

131 Generally, described fusion methods outperform document or network embeddings, but there is still
132 some room for improvement: as for now, most researchers use Bag of Words or TF-IDF to produce input
133 feature matrix for fusion methods such as TADW and GCN. It is promising to see how the combination of
134 advanced document embeddings techniques with these methods might improve the accuracy of Machine
135 Learning tasks (described in the next section). Also, GCN architecture might be improved so that word
136 embeddings are learned simultaneously with network representations.

137 3 EXPERIMENTS

138 This chapter is devoted to series of experiments with the aim to find out which type of fusion of graph and
139 text information can have an edge over graph or text information alone for Machine Learning problems
140 on graphs.

141 3.1 Datasets

142 In order to be able to compare different kinds of algorithms described above chosen dataset should possess
143 the following properties:

- 144 1. It should have a network structure, i.e. it should contain entities and relations between them.
- 145 2. At least some of the nodes should have text associated with it. It's important to note that texts
146 associated with nodes should be in raw format (e.g. not in BOW). Although it is not required for
147 every single node to have some text associated with it, still the more nodes have it, the better should
148 be the quality.
- 149 3. At least some nodes should be associated with labels. This property is necessary to solve the node
150 classification problem.

151 **Cora** Sen et al. (2008). Cora dataset is a citation network, where each node represent a scientific
152 paper and each link show that one paper cites another one. There are 2708 nodes and 5429 edges in
153 the network. Each node has text with a short description (abstract) of the paper. Average text length in
154 words is 130. All nodes are grouped into 7 classes: Neural Networks, Rule Learning, Reinforcement
155 Learning, Probabilistic Methods, Theory, Case-Based, Genetic Algorithms. The network does not contain
156 any isolated nodes.

157 **CiteSeer-M10** Lim and Buntine (2016). This dataset is a subset of original CiteSeer data, which
158 contains scientific publications in different disciplines grouped into 10 different classes. M10 version
159 consists of 38 996 nodes and 76 630 edges. However, only 10 310 nodes have the text (paper title) and

160 label information associated with them. Average text length in words is 9. In this case, text information
161 contains only the name of the paper (rather than the abstract). Some of the nodes are isolated, which
162 makes this dataset generally harder than the previous one.

163 **DBLP** Yang and Leskovec (2015). DBLP is a bibliographic system for computer science publications.
164 Publications (described by the title) might be connected to each other via citation. In this work only subset
165 Pan et al. (2016) of the network is used, containing 60 744 nodes (all accompanied with text and label
166 attributes) and 52 890 edges. Average text length in words is 8.

167 3.2 Document Embeddings

168 The first part of the experiments is mainly concerned with estimating whether textual information alone is
169 sufficient to effectively solve Machine Learning Problems on text networks. Intuitively, in case of citation
170 networks text description should be correlated with the target class (the topic of research), so results on
171 text data might be a good baseline using which other types of embeddings are compared. Questions to be
172 addressed in this section:

- 173 1. Do advanced document embedding techniques (Sent2Vec, Doc2Vec, SBERT) generally outperform
174 classic approaches (such as BOW, TFIDF) in case of citation networks?
- 175 2. How a share of train data (in comparison with test) affects the prediction power of the model?
- 176 3. How average text length influences model quality?
- 177 4. Whether models pre-trained on huge amount of data perform better than models that are trained
178 “from scratch”?

179 One of the most crucial steps to deal with this problem is text preprocessing. Preprocessing is
180 performed before embedding algorithm is applied and includes the following procedures:

181 3.2.1 Normalization

182 All non-alphanumeric symbols (punctuation, tags, etc.) are removed, the text is lowercased, all extra
183 spaces are removed, words that are less than 3 symbols are removed.

184 3.2.2 Stop words removal

185 Stop words are the subset of the words that are used frequently in a particular language and do not carry
186 any specific meaning. For instance, in case of English the following words might be considered as stop
187 words: “also”, “and”, “any”, “be”, etc.

188 3.2.3 Lemmatization

189 During this step each word is converted to its initial form. For instance “better” is converted to “good”.
190 By doing so a downstream model can better generalize.

191 3.2.4 Filtering

192 Words that are very rare (appear less than 3 times) or very frequent (appear in at least 70% of all
193 documents) are removed.

194 Bag of Words and TF-IDF models use only unigrams as input since datasets are relatively small and
195 choosing higher ngram_range will lead to poor generalization. For LDA algorithm gensim¹ implementa-
196 tion was used because it can use multiple cores to fit and therefore show much better performance. The
197 following hyperparameters are used for LDA: number of topics (effectively embedding size) = 20, $\alpha = 0.1$,
198 $\beta = 0.1$. For Word2Vec, Sent2Vec and Doc2Vec there are two different settings: using a pre-trained
199 model and train a model from scratch. When trained from scratch every model has two variations: with
200 embedding, dimension equals to d and 64, where d is a dimension for pre-trained model and is always
201 greater than 64. The intuition for this is the following: when the amount of data is not very big and
202 the dimension of embedding is a quite high model might overfit easily, in the most extreme case model
203 might just learn one-hot encoding for every word. Therefore it is sensible to try to lower dimension size
204 (64 in this case). However this is not the case for pre-trained models, because they harness the huge
205 amount of data and therefore can afford to choose bigger d (around 100 – 600), still, it is important to
206 train a model from scratch using d , which equals the embedding dimension for the pre-trained version,

¹<https://radimrehurek.com/gensim/models/ldamodel.html>

207 to be able to better compare the results. Word2Vec was pre-trained on Google-News dataset Mikolov
208 et al. (2013), which contains around 100 billion words, vector size for the pre-trained model is 300.
209 Scratch model (gensim implementation ²) is trained using the following parameters: vectors size = 300
210 (or 64), window size is equal to 5, $\alpha = 0.025$, ns_exponent parameter equals to 0.75. Doc2Vec (also
211 implemented in gensim ³) was pre-trained Lau and Baldwin (2016) using English Wikipedia dataset.
212 Scratch version was trained using Distributed Memory mode with vector size = 300 (or 64). Sent2Vec ⁴
213 was also pre-trained Pagliardini et al. (2018) using English Wikipedia with vector size = 600. Scratch
214 model was trained for 100 epoch with learning rate 0.05 using negative sampling. Used SBERT was
215 pre-trained ⁵ on SNLI dataset Bowman et al. (2015), which consists of 570 000 sentence pairs divided
216 into 3 classes: contradiction, entailment and neutral. The reason is that to train SBERT from scratch or at
217 least to fine-tune it on the custom data, one needs to feed pair of documents as input, where each pair is
218 similar or dissimilar, this is not directly applicable to the citation networks data format considered here.

219 **3.3 Network Embeddings**

220 In citation networks, papers from one field tend to cite each other much more frequently than papers from
221 other fields therefore network structure should give very important insights for the node classification and
222 link prediction tasks. Another important issue is to compare how well network embeddings perform in
223 comparison with document embeddings on different datasets.

224 For the experiments with poor network embeddings, three network embeddings were selected: HOPE,
225 Node2Vec and DeepWalk. The reason for such a choice is quite straightforward: these methods tend to
226 outperform others in most settings. For HOPE implementation from GEM ⁶ library is used. Hyperpa-
227 rameter β is chosen to be 0.01 (as it is used in other papers). For DeepWalk original implementation ⁷ is
228 used, with the following hyperparameters: vector size - 10, number of walks per-vertex - 80, window size
229 - 10. Node2Vec also follows original implementation ⁸ with the following hyperparameters: vector size -
230 10, number of walks per-vertex - 80, window size - 10 (the same as DeepWalk).

231 **3.4 Fusion of text and graphs**

232 **3.4.1 Naive Combination**

233 Document embeddings and network embeddings are learned separately, for every node final embedding is
234 represented as concatenation for the corresponding document embedding and network embedding. This
235 method can be viewed as a good baseline for fusion methods. Bag of Words and Sent2Vec are used for
236 document embeddings and DeepWalk for network embeddings.

237 **3.4.2 TADW**

238 Two versions of TADW are used: with TF-IDF and Sent2Vec for the feature generation. The following
239 hyperparameters are used: vector size = 160, number of iterations = 20, $\lambda = 0.2$. SVD is used on input
240 feature matrix to reduce its dimension to 200 (as in the original paper).

241 **3.4.3 Tri-DNR**

242 All three sources are used: texts, network and labels to get the final embeddings. Clearly, only labels from
243 the train set are present while others are masked. The following hyperparameters are used: vector size =
244 160 (to match TADW), text weight = 0.8, passes = 50.

245 **3.4.4 GCN**

246 in most of the papers authors use simple BOW or TF-IDF matrices as a feature matrix for GCN. It might
247 be sensible to experiment with more advanced document embeddings techniques to improve the results as
248 we have already seen that for some settings Sent2Vec or Word2Vec outperform BOW and TF-IDF. The
249 model is trained for 200 epochs using Adam optimizer, the best model (according to validation results) is
250 saved. The vector size is equal to 64, the model contains two convolutional layers.

²<https://radimrehurek.com/gensim/models/word2vec.html>

³<https://radimrehurek.com/gensim/models/doc2vec.html>

⁴<https://github.com/epfml/sent2vec>

⁵<https://github.com/UKPLab/sentence-transformers>

⁶<https://github.com/palash1992/GEM>

⁷<https://github.com/phanein/deepwalk>

⁸<https://github.com/aditya-grover/node2vec>

251 Also it interesting to try new modification for GCN architecture: instead of using a fixed feature
 252 matrix as input, one can replace it with a lookup table with learnable embeddings. This way model can
 253 simultaneously learn text embeddings as well as network embeddings. In this case padded (to ensure
 254 fixed length) sentences of tokens are fed as input, then lookup table with embeddings is used. After that
 255 in order to obtain embeddings for sentences mean and max functions applied for word embeddings of
 256 each sentence. Then the rest of the network is the same as for ordinary GCN.

257 3.5 Validation

258 3.5.1 Node classification

259 firstly, input data (text, graph or both) is preprocessed, then nodes of the network are mapped into latent
 260 space using the input information. After that data is split into train/test subsets using different train ratios
 261 (5%, 10%, 30% and 50%). Then Logistic Regression classifier is fit on train data. Finally, the result is
 262 evaluated on the test set.

263 3.5.2 Link prediction

264 first of all, edges of the graph are randomly split into train test with the specified train ratio. Then test
 265 edges are masked (effectively removed) from the graph. Then for every edge in the train set another
 266 non-existing edge is added. Existing edges are marked as "ones" and non existing as "zeros". The
 267 same is done for the test set also. Then the modified graph is used to learn node embeddings (using
 268 text or graph information or both). After embeddings for all of the nodes are learned Hadamard product
 269 $x_u \odot x_v \equiv x_{u,i} * x_{v,i}$ is applied to get embeddings for edges in both train and test sets. After that Logistic
 270 Regression classifier is trained using a train set with the target variable indicating the presence or absence
 271 of edge. Then quality is validated on the test set.

272 For both cases, this procedure is repeated 5 times with random train/test splits for different values of
 273 train ratio. The mean and standard deviation of the results is reported. As a quality metric F_1 score is
 274 used.

275 For Logistic Regression sklearn⁹ implementation (in python) is used with lbfgs solver, L_2 penalty
 276 and $C = 1$. For multiclass classification (number of classes ≥ 2) OneVsRest Brownlee (2020) setting is
 277 applied, which means that one classifier is trained for every class, besides each model use samples from
 278 all other classes as "zero" class.

279 4 RESULTS

280 4.1 Node classification

281 Table 1 shows the comparison between classic text approaches on Cora dataset. First of all, these
 282 techniques show very decent metrics, especially when the percentage of labelled nodes is not very small.
 283 The best algorithm is Bag of Words, which outperforms every other classic method, it also shows quite a
 284 good stability even for a very small per cent of labelled nodes in the training sample. TF-IDF performs
 285 similarly on 30% and 50% of labelled nodes but degrades significantly on the lower values. Although
 286 LDA results are not very high, it shows a very consistent result across different shares of labelled nodes.

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
BoW	0.63±0.01	0.68±0.01	0.76±0.01	0.78±0.01
TF-IDF	0.35±0.01	0.49±0.01	0.70±0.01	0.76±0.01
LDA	0.49±0.01	0.57±0.01	0.60±0.01	0.61±0.01

Table 1. Classic Document Embeddings on Cora (micro- F_1)

287 Table 2 presents results for more advanced methods on Cora dataset. Models trained from scratch,
 288 despite being significantly simpler and easier to train, generally performed better than their pre-trained
 289 counterparts. The reason for that is probably the fact, that language, which is used to describe the scientific
 290 paper in computer science, significantly differs from the language used in news or (average) Wikipedia
 291 article. The by far best model out of advanced document embeddings is Sent2Vec (trained from scratch),
 292 it also shows very consistent results concerning the different share of labelled nodes. Another insight is
 293 that advanced embeddings could not beat the Bag of Words technique when the share of labelled data is

⁹<https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/>

294 high enough. This might be explained by the nature of the data. Abstract for scientific papers is just a
 295 set of keywords, in this case, the Bag of Words hypothesis is applied very well. However, when there
 296 is a small percentage of labelled data (which is the practice case), advanced embeddings significantly
 297 outperform Bag of Words, which means that they tend to generalize better. One can note that choosing
 298 different values for embeddings dimension does not significantly influence the results.

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
SBERT pretrained	0.57±0.01	0.61±0.01	0.68±0.01	0.70±0.01
Word2Vec pretrained	0.34±0.01	0.44±0.01	0.59±0.01	0.63±0.01
Word2Vec (d=300)	0.64±0.01	0.68±0.01	0.70±0.01	0.71±0.01
Word2Vec (d=64)	0.65±0.01	0.68±0.01	0.70±0.01	0.72±0.01
Doc2Vec pretrained	0.54±0.01	0.61±0.00	0.65±0.01	0.67±0.01
Doc2Vec (d=300)	0.49±0.01	0.58±0.01	0.66±0.01	0.68±0.01
Doc2Vec (d=64)	0.50±0.02	0.58±0.01	0.65±0.00	0.67±0.01
Sent2Vec pretrained	0.63±0.02	0.69±0.01	0.74±0.01	0.77±0.01
Sent2Vec (d=600)	0.68±0.02	0.72±0.01	0.75±0.01	0.77±0.01
Sent2Vec (d=64)	0.68±0.02	0.72±0.01	0.75±0.01	0.77±0.01

Table 2. Advanced Document Embeddings on Cora (micro- F_1)

299 Table 3 and Table 4 present the results on CiteSeer-M10 dataset. This dataset differs from the first one
 300 in a sense that texts are significantly shorter, but the total amount of nodes is bigger. One can note that
 301 although Bag of Words is still the best out of the classic techniques, on CiteSeer-M10 TF-IDF performs
 302 almost as good. The performance does not degrade so significantly when the percentage of labelled nodes
 303 becomes small. The reason for that is twofold: firstly, the absolute number of samples is bigger, so it is
 304 easier to generalize, secondly, text length is much smaller, therefore, there is less "variation" in the data.
 305 Predictably, LDA performed even poorer than on the first dataset. It is a known issue that LDA does not
 306 generally perform well on small datasets because it is much harder to extract "topics" from a few words.

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
BoW	0.62±0.00	0.66±0.00	0.73±0.01	0.76±0.01
TF-IDF	0.61 ±0.01	0.66±0.01	0.72±0.01	0.75±0.00
LDA	0.37±0.01	0.38±0.00	0.39±0.00	0.39±0.00

Table 3. Classic Document Embeddings on Citeseer-M10 (micro- F_1)

307 Considering advanced document embedding techniques (Table 4), all architectures (at least in one of
 308 the configurations) outperforms classic methods, when the percentage of labelled nodes is small (5% or
 309 10%). When the share of labelled data is bigger they show performance similar to Bag of Words. Opposite
 310 to the Cora results, here one can note that pre-trained version of all models substantially outperforms their
 311 counterparts trained from scratch. The explanation for that might be the fact that text length is quite short
 312 and the amount of data is not enough to restore dependencies between words.

313 Table 5 presents the results of classic document embeddings methods on DBLP dataset. One can that
 314 the results are quite similar to the ones achieved on CiteSeer-M10 dataset: Bag of Words and TF-IDF
 315 performs equally good with the former performing slightly better. Also, there is no dramatic degradation
 316 in the score when the percentage of labelled nodes is small.

317 Regarding advanced methods on DBLP dataset Table 6 one can see that Sent2Vec outperforms all other
 318 architectures. Word2Vec also show very decent results (especially in terms of stability). For Doc2Vec (in
 319 opposite to Sent2Vec) pre-trained version performed far better than the one trained from scratch. Again
 320 advanced embeddings outperform classic techniques when it comes to a small percentage of labelled data
 321 and performs almost as good in case of more labelled data.

322 To sum up document embeddings experiments:

- 323 1. Advanced document embeddings techniques such as Sent2Vec, Doc2Vec, Word2Vec outperform
 324 classic approaches such as Bag of Words and TF-IDF when the percentage of labelled data is small
 325 (< 30%) and performs similarly when it is higher. LDA generally shows bad performance on all

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
SBERT pretrained	0.66±0.00	0.68±0.00	0.72±0.01	0.73±0.01
Word2Vec pretrained	0.67±0.00	0.69±0.00	0.72±0.00	0.73±0.01
Word2Vec (d=300)	0.55±0.00	0.57±0.00	0.59±0.00	0.60±0.01
Word2Vec (d=64)	0.58±0.00	0.59±0.00	0.61±0.00	0.62±0.01
Doc2Vec pretrained	0.68±0.00	0.70±0.00	0.74±0.01	0.75±0.00
Doc2Vec (d=300)	0.53±0.00	0.56±0.00	0.59±0.00	0.61±0.00
Doc2Vec (d=64)	0.56±0.01	0.59±0.00	0.62±0.00	0.63±0.00
Sent2Vec pretrained	0.68±0.00	0.70±0.00	0.73±0.01	0.75±0.01
Sent2Vec (d=600)	0.64±0.01	0.66±0.00	0.70±0.01	0.71±0.01
Sent2Vec (d=64)	0.63±0.01	0.65±0.00	0.68±0.00	0.69±0.01

Table 4. Advanced Document Embeddings on Citeseer-M10 (micro- F_1)

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
BoW	0.75±0.00	0.77±0.00	0.79±0.00	0.80±0.00
TF-IDF	0.74 ±0.01	0.76±0.01	0.79±0.01	0.80±0.00
LDA	0.54±0.00	0.55±0.00	0.55±0.00	0.56±0.00

Table 5. Classic Document Embeddings on DBLP (micro- F_1)

326 three datasets. Although pre-trained SBERT model shows decent results on CiteSeer-M10 and
327 DBLP, still it was outperformed by other architectures and even classic approaches.

- 328 2. In general, advanced embeddings techniques and LDA show very consistent results even for a small
329 percentage of trained labels, whereas Bag of Words and TF-IDF show degrading results when there
330 is a small share of labelled nodes. However when text information is short (only titles) and there is
331 more (in absolute values) trained data this effect is mitigated.
- 332 3. TF-IDF and Bag of Words generally performs better for short text (paper titles), because they are
333 basically set of keywords. Advanced methods show good performance in both settings (short and
334 long texts).
- 335 4. One can see that in some cases pre-trained models perform better and in some cases worse, so it is
336 better to experiment with both of the approaches.

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
SBERT pretrained	0.69±0.00	0.72±0.00	0.75±0.01	0.75±0.01
Word2Vec pretrained	0.72±0.01	0.73±0.01	0.74±0.00	0.74±0.01
Word2Vec (d=300)	0.76±0.00	0.76±0.00	0.77±0.00	0.77±0.01
Word2Vec (d=64)	0.76±0.01	0.76±0.00	0.76±0.00	0.77±0.00
Doc2Vec pretrained	0.73±0.00	0.75±0.00	0.76±0.00	0.76±0.00
Doc2Vec (d=300)	0.55±0.01	0.56±0.00	0.57±0.00	0.58±0.00
Doc2Vec (d=64)	0.54±0.01	0.54±0.00	0.55±0.00	0.55±0.00
Sent2Vec pretrained	0.73±0.00	0.75±0.00	0.77±0.01	0.77±0.01
Sent2Vec (d=600)	0.77±0.00	0.78±0.00	0.79±0.00	0.79±0.01
Sent2Vec (d=64)	0.77±0.01	0.78±0.00	0.78±0.00	0.78±0.00

Table 6. Advanced Document Embeddings on DBLP (micro- F_1)

337 According to the results on Cora dataset (Table 7) DeepWalk and Node2Vec show similar performance
338 with DeepWalk being slightly better when the percentage of labelled nodes is bigger than 5%. HOPE
339 shows very poor results (near to random) for Node Classification task. Comparing the results with
340 document embeddings techniques (Tables 1 and 2) one can note that DeepWalk and Node2Vec outperform

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
DeepWalk	0.72±0.01	0.77±0.00	0.81±0.00	0.82±0.01
Node2Vec	0.74 ±0.01	0.76±0.01	0.80±0.00	0.81±0.01
HOPE	0.29±0.00	0.30±0.00	0.30±0.00	0.31±0.00

Table 7. Network Embeddings on Cora (micro- F_1)

341 all other algorithms by a significant margin. Moreover, the tendency holds for different values of labelled
 342 nodes. It generally means that for Cora network data has a higher correlation with the target.

343 For Citeseer-M10 dataset (Table 8) DeepWalk and Node2Vec show identical performance for all
 344 values of labelled nodes, whereas HOPE again performs quite poorly. Interestingly, in contrast with Cora,
 345 here one can see that document embeddings techniques outperform network embeddings.

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
DeepWalk	0.63±0.00	0.65±0.01	0.67±0.00	0.68±0.00
Node2Vec	0.63±0.01	0.65±0.00	0.67±0.00	0.68±0.00
HOPE	0.12±0.00	0.13±0.00	0.17±0.00	0.20±0.00

Table 8. Network Embeddings on Citeseer-M10 (micro- F_1)

346 Table 9 shows the results for network embeddings methods on DBLP dataset. Similar to the Citeseer-
 347 M10 dataset here we can see that DeepWalk and Node2Vec perform equally. Also one can see that
 348 document embeddings techniques severely outperform network embeddings on this dataset.

349 Generally, different datasets show different importances for text and network data. For some datasets
 350 nodes from the same class tend to link each other (the phenomenon is called homophily Barabási and
 351 Pósfai (2016)), which means that network structure is really useful for predicting the target. For other
 352 datasets nodes might as well tend to cite nodes from other classes, in this case, network information is less
 353 useful. Even though on some datasets one type of information (text or network) significantly outperforms
 354 the other, still both might be useful as they tend to provide complementary information (different "views"
 355 on target).

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
DeepWalk	0.52±0.00	0.53±0.00	0.53±0.00	0.53±0.00
Node2Vec	0.52±0.00	0.53±0.00	0.53±0.00	0.53±0.00
HOPE	0.29±0.01	0.30±0.01	0.31±0.00	0.31±0.00

Table 9. Network Embeddings on DBLP (micro- F_1)

356 Analyzing the results on Cora dataset (Table 10) one can note that a naive combination of textual and
 357 network features performs almost as good as more advanced approaches such as TADW and TriDNR.
 358 However, GCN significantly outperforms all other approaches. Also, all approaches except TriDNR
 359 perform better than methods that use only text or only network information, so one can conclude that
 360 these two types of information are complementary and should be considered.

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
BOW + DeepWalk	0.74±0.01	0.80±0.01	0.84±0.00	0.86±0.01
Sent2Vec + DeepWalk	0.76±0.01	0.79±0.00	0.84±0.01	0.85±0.01
TADW - TF-IDF	0.72±0.02	0.80±0.01	0.85±0.01	0.86±0.01
TADW - Sent2Vec	0.75±0.01	0.80±0.01	0.83±0.00	0.85±0.00
TriDNR	0.59±0.01	0.68±0.00	0.75±0.01	0.78±0.01
GCN - TF-IDF	0.80±0.01	0.83±0.01	0.86±0.01	0.87±0.01
GCN - Sent2Vec	0.77±0.01	0.82±0.00	0.85±0.01	0.87±0.01

Table 10. Fusion methods on Cora (micro- F_1)

361 Tables 11 and Table 12 show that unlike Cora dataset naive combination of BOW and DeepWalk
 362 significantly outperforms much more advanced algorithms. GCN modifications show the best results on
 363 all percentages of training nodes except for 5%. Also, the fusion of text and graph information shows
 364 superior results to network or text embeddings alone.

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
BOW + DeepWalk	0.73±0.01	0.76±0.00	0.81±0.01	0.83±0.01
Sent2Vec + DeepWalk	0.73±0.01	0.75±0.00	0.79±0.01	0.80±0.01
TADW - TF-IDF	0.47±0.02	0.51±0.01	0.57±0.01	0.59±0.01
TADW - Sent2Vec	0.57±0.01	0.60±0.00	0.65±0.01	0.66±0.01
TriDNR	0.63±0.01	0.68±0.00	0.74±0.01	0.77±0.01
GCN - TF-IDF	0.71±0.01	0.76±0.01	0.81±0.01	0.83±0.01
GCN - Sent2Vec	0.73±0.01	0.80±0.00	0.84±0.01	0.87±0.01

Table 11. Fusion methods on Citeseer-M10 (micro- F_1)

365 What is more, it is quite interesting to note that fusion of Sent2Vec + GCN show very stable results
 366 across different ratio of labelled nodes and outperforms TF-IDF + GCN when it comes to a very small
 367 training sample.

% Labels	5%	10%	30%	50%
BOW + DeepWalk	0.77±0.02	0.79±0.01	0.81±0.01	0.82±0.01
Sent2Vec + DeepWalk	0.78±0.01	0.80±0.00	0.80±0.01	0.80±0.01
TriDNR	0.72±0.01	0.75±0.00	0.78±0.01	0.79±0.01
GCN - TF-IDF	0.71±0.01	0.76±0.01	0.81±0.01	0.83±0.01
GCN - Sent2Vec	0.78±0.01	0.80±0.00	0.81±0.01	0.81±0.01

Table 12. Fusion methods on DBLP (micro- F_1)

368 4.2 Link prediction

369 For the task of link prediction, one can expect document embeddings to perform more consistently
 370 concerning train ratio in comparison with network embeddings. Because network embeddings techniques
 371 "suffer" twice when the percentage of train data is decreased: firstly, it affects initial graph so it is harder
 372 to learn embeddings itself, secondly, it is harder to train a classifier using less data, whereas document
 373 embeddings have only the second problem is they are not dependent on the graph structure.

374 Table 13 shows results of document embeddings techniques on Cora dataset. Again one can see
 375 that BOW outperforms other methods, but for link prediction (contrary to Node Classification) LDA
 376 demonstrates much better performance. Similar to Node Classification problem on Link Prediction
 377 advanced network embeddings perform worse when the percentage of train data is high but show better
 378 results when it gets lower.

% Train edges	5%	10%	30%	50%
Bag of Words	0.69±0.01	0.71±0.00	0.75±0.01	0.76±0.00
LDA	0.68±0.01	0.69±0.01	0.71±0.01	0.71±0.01
SBERT pretrained	0.69±0.00	0.71±0.00	0.74±0.01	0.76±0.01
Word2Vec (d=300)	0.68±0.00	0.70±0.00	0.72±0.00	0.73±0.01
Doc2Vec (d=300)	0.67±0.01	0.70±0.00	0.73±0.00	0.74±0.00
Sent2Vec (d=600)	0.71±0.00	0.72±0.01	0.75±0.00	0.76±0.01

Table 13. Document Embeddings on Cora Link Prediction (micro- F_1)

379 Table 14 show results for classic methods for Link Prediction problem on CiteSeer dataset, surprisingly,
 380 here BOW and TF-IDF perform very poorly, whereas SBERT shows superior performance. SBERT
 381 performance makes a lot of sense since it is trained to be able to differentiate two texts between each other
 382 so it is incredibly good for such kind of tasks.

% Train edges	5%	10%	30%	50%
Bag of Words	0.52±0.01	0.52±0.00	0.52±0.01	0.52±0.00
LDA	0.69±0.01	0.69±0.01	0.70±0.01	0.71±0.01
SBERT pretrained	0.84±0.00	0.85±0.00	0.86±0.01	0.86±0.01
Word2Vec (d=300)	0.54±0.00	0.54±0.00	0.54±0.00	0.54±0.01
Doc2Vec (d=300)	0.77±0.01	0.77±0.00	0.78±0.00	0.79±0.00
Sent2Vec (d=600)	0.54±0.00	0.55±0.01	0.55±0.00	0.56±0.01

Table 14. Classic Document Embeddings on Citeseer-M10 Link Prediction (micro- F_1)

383 Generally, one can say that for Link Prediction choice of the Document Embeddings algorithm should
384 be made per dataset as there is no universal best performer.

385 When one mask edges of a network, it changes the structure of the graph (contrary to Node Classifica-
386 tion), so it might be more challenging for purely network embeddings method to perform well. Table 15
387 shows how network embedding algorithms perform on Cora for Link Prediction task.

% Train edges	5%	10%	30%	50%
DeepWalk	0.56±0.01	0.60±0.00	0.66±0.00	0.66±0.01
Node2Vec	0.57 ±0.01	0.61±0.01	0.65±0.01	0.68±0.01
HOPE	0.50±0.00	0.50±0.00	0.51±0.00	0.52±0.00

Table 15. Network Embeddings on Cora Link Prediction (micro- F_1)

388 For Citeseer-M10 dataset (Table 16) the situation is quite similar to Cora dataset in a sense that
389 Node2Vec performs better than DeepWalk and both of these methods significantly outperforms HOPE.
390 Results for DBLP are omitted but they are pretty much the same.

391 To sum these experiments up, for a Link Prediction problem (contrary to Node Classification) text
392 information plays a much more important role than network structure.

% Train Edges	5%	10%	30%	50%
DeepWalk	0.55±0.01	0.59±0.01	0.66±0.01	0.66±0.00
Node2Vec	0.55±0.00	0.59±0.00	0.69±0.00	0.71±0.00
HOPE	0.50±0.00	0.51±0.00	0.54±0.00	0.57±0.00

Table 16. Network Embeddings on Citeseer-M10 Link Prediction (micro- F_1)

393 For the Link Prediction task, one can see (Table 17) that classic methods (BOW and TF-IDF) actually
394 outperform more advanced combinations (Sent2Vec and Word2Vec). Also, TADW performs on the same
395 level that plain document embeddings techniques. It might happen because TADW relies mostly on
396 network information rather than on text.

% Train Edges	5%	10%	30%	50%
TADW - BOW	0.72±0.02	0.72±0.01	0.73±0.01	0.73±0.01
TADW - TF-IDF	0.73±0.02	0.74±0.01	0.74±0.01	0.75±0.01
TADW - Sent2Vec	0.70±0.01	0.70±0.01	0.71±0.00	0.73±0.00
TADW - Word2Vec	0.64±0.01	0.68±0.00	0.71±0.01	0.72±0.01
GCN - TF-IDF	0.78±0.01	0.78±0.01	0.79±0.01	0.80±0.01
GCN - Sent2Vec	0.69±0.01	0.71±0.01	0.73±0.01	0.75±0.01
GCN - SBERT	0.67±0.01	0.69±0.01	0.71±0.01	0.73±0.01
GCN (Custom)	0.72±0.01	0.75±0.01	0.75±0.01	0.75±0.01

Table 17. Custom modifications on Cora Link Prediction (micro- F_1)

397 On Citeseer-M10 dataset (Table 18) combination of GCN and SBERT shows by far the best results
398 (especially when the percentage of training edges is high). It is quite predictable considering SBERT

399 performance on this dataset. What is interesting though is the fact that using SBERT alone performs better
400 than in combination with GCN.

% Train Edges	5%	10%	30%	50%
TADW - BOW	0.50±0.01	0.51±0.02	0.51±0.01	0.52±0.01
TADW - TF-IDF	0.51±0.01	0.51±0.01	0.51±0.01	0.52±0.01
TADW - Sent2Vec	0.52±0.01	0.53±0.00	0.53±0.00	0.54±0.00
TADW - Word2Vec	0.52±0.01	0.52±0.01	0.53±0.00	0.53±0.00
GCN - TF-IDF	0.68±0.01	0.69±0.01	0.70±0.01	0.70±0.01
GCN - Sent2Vec	0.59±0.01	0.62±0.01	0.67±0.01	0.68±0.01
GCN - SBERT	0.68±0.01	0.70±0.01	0.72±0.01	0.77±0.01
GCN (Custom)	0.61±0.01	0.67±0.00	0.68±0.01	0.68±0.01

Table 18. Custom modifications on Citeseer-M10 Link Prediction (micro- F_1)

401 As far as other fusion methods are concerned (Table 19) one can note that all methods except for GCN
402 do not significantly outperform document embeddings techniques, which seem to provide a very solid
403 baseline for Link Prediction. Also, GCN shows very consistent results for different percentage of train
404 edges, whereas other methods seem to degrade heavily when the percentage of train nodes is not high.

405 On Citeseer (Table 20) most of the fusion methods perform quite poorly. The only method that shows
406 a good performance is GCN with SBERT as document embeddings technique.

407 Generally, one can see that for Link Prediction task (as opposite to Node Classification problem)
408 SBERT shows superior performance to other document embeddings technique when used alone and in
409 combination with other methods (such as GCN).

410 4.3 Graph Visualization

411 The main goal of Graph Visualization is to produce a meaningful 2-D plot of nodes. Meaningful
412 visualization would place nodes from one class close to each other and nodes from different classes far
413 away from each other. Consequently, having solved the visualization problem, one automatically gets
414 node clustering and vice versa.

415 In order to produce a 2-D plot, one has to find a vector of two points describing the position of a node.
416 This problem can be solved in two ways using network embeddings:

- 417 1. Explicitly learn embeddings of size two using any methods described in the previous chapters.
- 418 2. First learn embeddings of length d , then use a dimensionality reduction method to get vectors of
419 the size 2.

420 Here the second approach would be preferred since the first one generally produce worse results.
421 Because it is a much harder task to learn a sensible representation of size 2. Therefore the embeddings
422 dimension size would be borrowed from the previous experiments. The whole network will be fed into
423 embeddings algorithms without any masking. Then obtained embeddings are to be mapped into 2-D
424 space using T-SNE algorithm.

425 For all models, hyperparameters are chosen in the same way as in previous experiments. In the case
426 of GCN activations of the first convolutional layer are used as graph embeddings.

% Train Edges	5%	10%	30%	50%
BOW + DeepWalk	0.70±0.01	0.73±0.01	0.76±0.00	0.76±0.01
Sent2Vec + DeepWalk	0.70±0.01	0.73±0.01	0.73±0.01	0.75±0.01
TADW - TF-IDF	0.73±0.02	0.74±0.01	0.74±0.01	0.75±0.01
TriDNR	0.71±0.01	0.73±0.00	0.74±0.01	0.76±0.01
GCN - TF-IDF	0.78±0.01	0.78±0.01	0.79±0.01	0.80±0.01
GCN (Custom)	0.72±0.01	0.75±0.01	0.75±0.01	0.75±0.01

Table 19. Fusion methods on Cora Link Prediction (micro- F_1)

% Train Edges	5%	10%	30%	50%
BOW + DeepWalk	0.56±0.01	0.60±0.00	0.66±0.00	0.66±0.01
Sent2Vec + DeepWalk	0.55±0.01	0.59±0.01	0.66±0.01	0.67±0.01
TADW - TF-IDF	0.73±0.02	0.74±0.01	0.74±0.01	0.75±0.01
TADW - TF-IDF	0.51±0.01	0.51±0.01	0.51±0.01	0.52±0.01
GCN - TF-IDF	0.68±0.01	0.69±0.01	0.70±0.01	0.70±0.01
GCN - SBERT	0.68±0.01	0.70±0.01	0.72±0.01	0.77±0.01

Table 20. Fusion methods on Citeseer Link Prediction (micro- F_1)

427 Analyzing results obtained without fusion (Figure 1) one can note that even simple TF-IDF method
 428 provides a very strong baseline - most of the classes (represented by colours) are clearly separable. There
 429 are some exceptions though, purple and pink classes are not concentrated. Sent2Vec shows even better
 430 results, samples of every class are tightly clustered together, the only problem is that clusters itself are
 431 very close to each other, which means that it would be rather hard to separate them using clustering
 432 algorithms. DeepWalk's visualization improves this aspect - different classes are placed quite far away
 433 from each other. However, some classes are separated themselves, for example, green and red classes
 434 clearly consists of two classes.

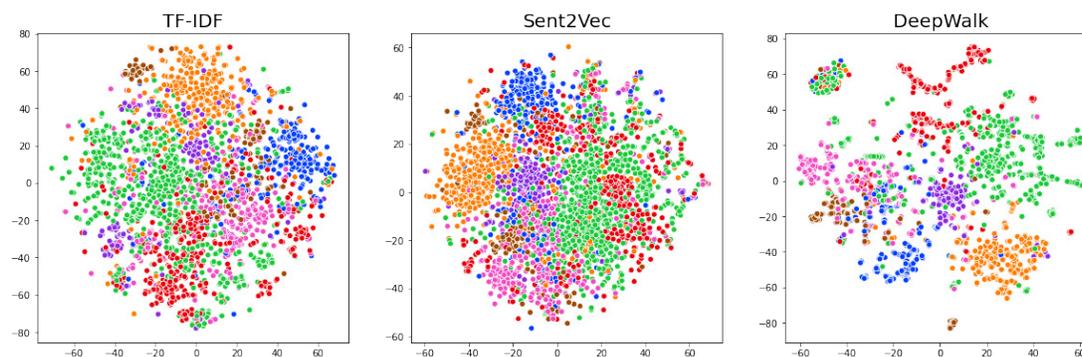


Figure 1. TF-IDF, Sent2Vec and DeepWalk embeddings visualization on Cora

435 Fusion methods (Figure 2) provide even better visualizations: TADW shows results that are very
 436 similar to DeepWalk but with better consistency across different classes. TriDnr is more similar to
 437 Sent2Vec - it provides a very clean separation of classes, but the classes themselves are located very
 438 close to each other, so it would be hard to apply clustering algorithms. GCN provides by far the best
 439 results - classes are far away from each other and clearly separated, so it would be very easy to make a
 440 clusterization.

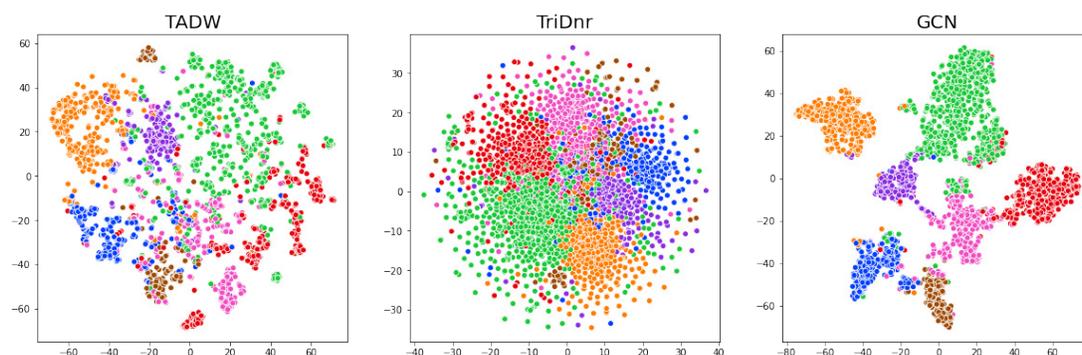


Figure 2. TADW, TriDnr and GCN embeddings visualization on Cora

441 5 DISCUSSION

442 One can see that fusion of graph and text information shows superior results for all Machine Learning
443 tasks on graphs in comparison with methods that use only text or network information. It proves that
444 text information and network structure are complementary to each other, but the contribution of each
445 component depends on a task and a dataset. It is also clear that using advanced document embedding
446 techniques such as Sent2Vec and SBERT can significantly boost the performance of fusion methods
447 such as TADW and GCN. The reason for that is the fact that advanced document embeddings can better
448 capture semantic of the words (synonyms, antonyms, etc.) and therefore better generalize. What is more
449 pre-trained embeddings might be preferable when the number of training samples is low. However, Bag
450 of Words and TF-IDF provide a very solid baseline for Machine Learning tasks on citation networks
451 because nodes (scientific papers) can be efficiently represented by a set of keywords. The choice of the
452 document embedding technique should be task-dependent: SBERT works better for Link Prediction,
453 whereas Sent2Vec shows good performance for Node Classification. It can be explained by the fact that
454 Sent2Vec is aimed to restore overall semantic of a document, whereas SBERT is specifically trained to
455 predict whether two documents describe the same thing or not, so it is no wonder that SBERT is incredibly
456 good for the Link Prediction. Although custom GCN architecture, which allows to simultaneously learn
457 word and network embeddings, do not outperform state of the art algorithms, still there is some potential:
458 it might be a sensible idea to pretrain text embeddings layer first and then finetune convolutional layers,
459 also it might show much better results on bigger networks (millions of nodes) as it takes a lot of data to
460 train good word embeddings.

6 CONCLUSION

In this work, a comprehensive comparison of different fusion methods for Machine Learning problems on graphs was conducted. The best combinations of network and document embeddings for different Machine Learning tasks are outlined and compared with the traditional approaches. The new GCN architecture is proposed to be able to simultaneously learn document and network representations.

Main conclusions of the work:

1. Fusion of text and graph information allows to significantly boost performance on Machine Learning tasks.
2. Usage of advanced document embeddings such as Sent2Vec and SBERT can improve the accuracy of different fusion architectures such as TADW and GCN. SBERT generally works better for Link Prediction, Sent2Vec for Node Classification.
3. There is no universal solution that fits all problems and all datasets. Different methods (and combinations of methods) might work better for different datasets.
4. Proposed GCN modification does not work well for datasets considered in this work but might show a better performance for bigger networks with more text.

This work might be extended in the future in the following ways: firstly, it is promising to experiment with the proposed GCN architecture using bigger networks (ideally millions of nodes), it might show better results because a lot of data is required to learn sensible word embeddings. Another possible extension is to use a joint loss to simultaneously learn network and text embeddings. For instance, combining GCN and BERT might present very competitive results for Link Prediction.

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