
LOBSTUR: A Local Bootstrap Framework for Tuning Unsupervised Representations in Graph Neural Networks

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Abstract

1 Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) are increasingly used in conjunction with un-
2 supervised learning techniques to learn powerful node representations, but their
3 deployment is hindered by their high sensitivity to hyperparameter tuning and
4 the absence of established methodologies for selecting the optimal models. To
5 address these challenges, we propose LOBSTUR-GNN (**L**ocal **B**ootstrap for
6 **T**uning **U**nsupervised **R**epresentations in GNNs), a novel framework designed
7 to adapt bootstrapping techniques for unsupervised graph representation learning.
8 LOBSTUR-GNN tackles two main challenges: (a) adapting the bootstrap edge
9 and feature resampling process to account for local graph dependencies in cre-
10 ating alternative versions of the same graph, and (b) establishing robust metrics
11 for evaluating learned representations without ground-truth labels. Using locally
12 bootstrapped resampling and leveraging Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA)
13 to assess embedding consistency, LOBSTUR provides a principled approach for
14 hyperparameter tuning in unsupervised GNNs. We validate the effectiveness and
15 efficiency of our proposed method through extensive experiments on established
16 academic datasets, showing an 65.9% improvement in the classification accuracy
17 compared to an uninformed selection of hyperparameters. Finally, we deploy our
18 framework on a real-world application, thereby demonstrating its validity and
19 practical utility in various settings.

20 1 Introduction

21 With the expanding availability of network and spatial data in the sciences, Graph Neural Networks
22 (GNNs) have emerged as a compelling approach to identify interaction patterns within complex
23 systems. In many of these applications, scientists are increasingly interested in using GNNs in
24 conjunction with *unsupervised* learning techniques for learning informative representations, due to
25 the paucity of available labeled data, or as a way of automatically detecting structure or patterns (Zhu
26 et al., 2018; Dong and Zhang, 2022; Lamurias et al., 2022; Le et al., 2020). Within the methods
27 community, on the other hand, recent advances in unsupervised node representation learning seem
28 to have primarily been driven by contrastive learning (Stokes et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021; You
29 et al., 2021). This popular self-supervised learning framework has indeed demonstrated impressive
30 performance for learning rich and versatile data representations across various domains. However, in
31 the graph-setting, despite their promising results on academic benchmarks, these methods are not
32 tuning-free, making them difficult to deploy in real-world applications. In fact, they rely heavily on
33 selecting appropriate values for several of their hyperparameters, but incorrect hyperparameter values
34 can lead to severely distorted data representations.

Despite the empirical importance of hyperparameter tuning, there is currently no valid hyperparameter selection procedure for unsupervised GNN representation learning. In the methods community, new unsupervised learning approaches are commonly tested on established benchmark datasets, with hyperparameters selected based on performance in a downstream node classification task. However, this procedure essentially converts the problem into a supervised learning setting, making it unsuitable for genuinely unsupervised, real-world use cases.

Hyperparameter tuning in unsupervised settings is made difficult by two main challenges: (a) the absence of a clear ground truth or statistical framework for unsupervised learning, and (b) the lack of an established metric to evaluate the learned embeddings. To our knowledge, the only study that attempts to measure the quality of latent representations is that of Tsitsulin et al., which empirically evaluates various metrics. Yet, without a proper inference framework, pinpointing a suitable metric remains a significant challenge.

Contributions. In this paper, we propose the first bootstrapped-based method for selecting hyperparameters for unsupervised GNN representation learning. More specifically,

1. We cast the learning of representations as an estimation problem: we posit that the learned representations correspond to a learned low-dimensional manifold, which must therefore be consistent under a noise model, as explicated in Section 2.
2. To generate independent copies of the same graph, we propose a bootstrap procedure based on nonparametric modeling of the graph as a graphon Su et al. (2020) (Section 2.1).
3. To evaluate the quality of the embeddings learned on independent copies of the same graph in the absence of labels, we suggest using Canonical Correlation Analysis (Hotelling, 1936) as a translation- and rotation-invariant tool to quantify the stability of the learned embedding spaces (Section 2.2).

2 Proposed Methodology

Establishing a framework for hyperparameter tuning in unsupervised learning requires us to address two fundamental questions: what are we aiming to estimate, and where does the randomness come from?

In the graph setting, the data is presented in two modalities: a feature matrix, and an adjacency matrix. Unsupervised learning can be framed as learning what information is shared across modalities, and what information is specific to each one in a condensed format. This approach is typically described in the data-integration literature using a latent variable space model Bishop (1998); Hoff et al. (2002), which we adapt here for the graph domain.

Inference setting. We consider a graph G on n nodes with features $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, and denote by $A \in \{0, 1\}^{n \times n}$ its corresponding (binary) adjacency matrix. We assume the graph is sampled from a graphon W (see for instance Gao et al.) — a non-parametric random graph model—, and that node features are a noisy transformation of the latent variable U_i :

$$\begin{aligned} \forall i \in [n], U_i &\sim \text{Unif}([0, 1]), \\ \forall j \in [n], A_{ij} &\sim \text{Bernoulli}(W(U_i, U_j)), \\ X_i &\sim g(U_i) + \epsilon_i, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where $W(U_i, U_j)$ denotes the graphon function evaluated at the latent positions U_i and U_j , ϵ_i denotes some independent, mean-zero noise, and $g \sim [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ is a feature-generating function or feature map, which deterministically maps the latent position $U_i \in [0, 1]$ of node i to a p -dimensional feature vector. This model allows us to reason on the randomness of the generation procedure without making assumptions on the specifics of the graph generation process. While graphons are known to generate dense graphs, their output can be sparsified by scaling W by a sparsity factor that tends to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$, e.g. $\rho_n = \frac{\log(n)}{n}$ (Davison and Austern, 2023; Gaucher and Klopp, 2021).

The quality of the learned embeddings might be evaluated based on their reproducibility, or the alignment between the latent structure stemming from representations learned on one dataset to those learned on another. Devising a criterion leveraging this notion would require two main components:

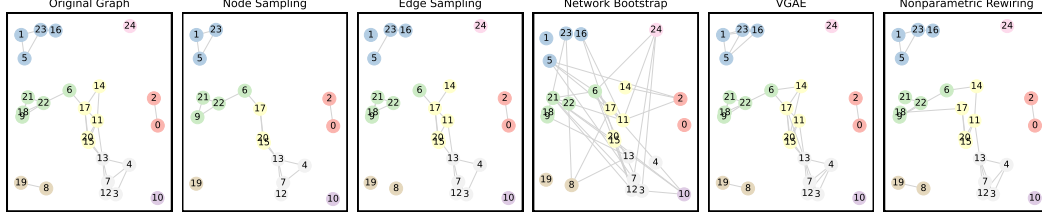


Figure 1: Illustration of different techniques for generating new copies of a simple graph (left-most image). The original graph has a distinctive community structure. Note that node sampling or edge sampling randomly removes either nodes or edges, disrupting the original graph structure.

- 81 (a) a data generation procedure, to create independent draws of the same datasets (Section 2.1), and
- 82 (b) a metric to measure the alignment between representations (Section 2.2).

83 2.1 A Local Graph Bootstrapping Procedure

84 In the GNN literature, data splitting and resampling are usually done in one of two ways: by
 85 resampling the nodes or by resampling the edges. However, in the unsupervised setting, these
 86 two sampling procedures are not necessarily suitable: (a) this type of sampling can considerably
 87 disrupt the structure of the graph (by thinning nodes or edges, respectively), as reflected in Figure 1,
 88 Table 6 and Figure 7 in the Appendix, and (b) these procedures require the specification of the node
 89 (respectively edge) drop rate.

90 Instead, we propose a nonparametric technique for resampling graphs based on the model detailed in
 91 (1), thus requiring minimal assumptions about the underlying graph structure.

92 **The Oracle Case** We begin by assuming that, for each latent variable U_i , we have oracle knowledge
 93 of its k -nearest neighbors. We denote the resulting directed k -nearest neighbor graph as $\mathcal{G}_{knn}$. Under
 94 sufficiently smooth functions W and g (as defined in the next paragraphs), for a given node i , its
 95 neighbors in $\mathcal{G}_{knn}$ have similar distributions, and can thus be viewed as alternative realizations of the
 96 same underlying stochastic process (conditioned on U).

97 We leverage this observation to propose a bootstrap procedure conditioned on the realized U_i :

- 98 1. *Feature resampling*: we resample the features of each node by drawing at random a feature
 99 vector from one of k -nearest neighbors. This ensures preserving the covariance between
 100 features by sampling full vectors.
- 101 2. *Edge rewiring*: let $\mathcal{N}_m(i)$ denote the m^{th} closest neighbor of node i according to the
 102 oracle graph $\mathcal{G}_{knn}$. For each pair of node (i, j) , sample an edge with probability $\hat{p}_{ij} =$
 103 $\frac{1}{k} \sum_{m=1}^k A_{\mathcal{N}_m(i), j}$, effectively estimating the underlying probability $\mathbb{P}[A_{ij} = 1 | U_i, U_j]$. An
 104 efficient procedure for resampling is presented in Algorithm 2.

105 To extend this procedure to generate *marginally-resampled* graphs, we propose simply sampling with
 106 replacement nodes (which effectively implies resampling the U_i), and applying the same procedure
 107 as above. The whole procedure is described in more detail in Algorithm 3. In either case (marginally
 108 or conditionally on U), this framework preserves local latent-space similarities while generating
 109 plausible bootstrap replicates of the graph.

110 **The Noisy Setting** The resampling procedure highlighted in the previous paragraph requires oracle
 111 knowledge of the k NN graph on the latent U . In practice, the graph $\mathcal{G}_{knn}$ has to be estimated from
 112 the data. To this end, we suggest to use *an empirical kNN graph from the adjacency matrix*. While
 113 some might argue that it is better to use 2 kNN based on features and toplogy, the kNN induced by
 114 the features (and used to resample edges), in practice, might not be as reliable as the one induced
 115 by the edges (see Table 5 in the Appendix). This is because, in high-dimensional feature spaces,
 116 kNN suffers from the curse of dimensionality, making it difficult to ensure the consistency of the
 117 kNN graph. As an alternative, one can define the kNN graph solely based on the graph structure
 118 for all components of the algorithm. While this approach does not guarantee theoretical consistency

Statistic	Graphon (n = 500)		Cora		Citeseer		Twitch	
	True	Ours	True	Ours	True	Ours	True	Ours
$ \mathcal{V} $	500	500±0	2708	2708±0	3327	3327±0	1912	1912±0
$ \mathcal{E} $	769	757.9±2.5	5278	5171.78±7.34	4552	4127.78±10.93	31299	31082.05±22.83
Avg. Degree	3.08	3.03±0.01	3.90	3.82±0.01	2.74	2.48±0.01	32.74	32.51±0.02
Density	0.01	0.01±0	0.00	0.00±0	0.00	0.00±0	0.02	0.02±0
Clustering Coefficient	0.01	0.01±0	0.24	0.05±0	0.14	0.03±0	0.32	0.17±0
Connected Components	29.00	31±2	78	67.91±6.70	438	635.09±11.87	1.00	1.14±0.39
Giant Component Size	471.00	467±3	2485	2620.80±10.80	2120	2418.12±35.69	1912	1911.72±0.77
Assortativity	-0.04	-0.08±0.03	-0.07	-0.07±0	0.05	-0.08±0	-0.23	-0.29±0
PageRank Sum	249.5	249.5±0	1353.50	1353±0	1663	1663±0	955.50	955.5±0
Transitivity	0.01	0.01±0	0.09	0.03±0	0.13	0.04±0	0.13	0.08±0
Number of Triangles	7	5±2.3	1630	471±27	1167	304.6±19.59	173510	105534.51±1904.54

Table 1: Graph statistics for synthetic graphon data, citation networks (Cora, Citeseer), and a social network (Twitch) (Huang et al., 2023). We generated 500 bootstrap samples and report the mean and standard deviation. The size of the neighborhood (k) used for sample generation is fixed at 20. Results for additional datasets and different graphon settings are included in Appendix G.2.

in estimating the relevant quantities, it exhibits promising empirical performance, as shown in the experiments (Section 3).

2.1.1 Validation of Bootstrap Samples

To evaluate the quality of bootstrapped samples, we propose bootstrapping different graphs (synthetic and real), and to compare key graph statistics, including node and edge counts, average degree, and degree distribution, against those of the original graph.

Table 1 summarizes these comparisons for a synthetic graphon function and three well-established graph benchmarks. Additional results for more datasets and graphon settings, including the effect of the choice of k , are provided in Appendix G.2. While not exhaustive, these comparisons help assess whether the structural properties of the original graph are preserved in the bootstrapped samples. In particular, we note that our approach typically produces graphs with a closer average degree and edge count than other methods (see for instance Table 6 and Figure 7 in the Appendix). When the underlying graph is a graphon, our model is in fact very good at reproducing graphs with the similar statistics (see Table 7, 8, 9, 10). On real datasets, our method seems to produce reasonable copies of the same graph as well, as reflected by similar average degrees and number of connected components (Table 11 and 12). However, the graphon assumption upon which our method relies seems to hit a limit in the ability of the method to reproduce a graph with as many triangles (see results Cora in Table 1).

2.2 CCA-based Evaluation Metrics

If the generation of independent copies of the same graph poses a significant challenge, determining an appropriate evaluation metric in the absence of known labels poses another.

We note that we cannot use this objective as our hyperparameter tuning criterion: (a) the loss function is designed to optimize the model’s internal objective, which may not necessarily reflect meaningful patterns or structures in the data, and (b) the scale of the loss function can vary with different hyperparameters. To ensure robust evaluation, it is essential to employ a separate, universal metric that directly evaluates the learned embeddings to assess model performance.

We propose to measure the consistency of embeddings out of the pair of models as such universal metric; however, the scale and location can in fact vary greatly from one run to the next. To remedy these issues, we propose here using a procedure based on Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) (Hotelling, 1936). Canonical correlation analysis is a classical method for finding the correspondence between two datasets on the same samples by finding linear transformations of X and Y that maximizes their correlation. The CCA objective can be written as a prediction problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{U}, \hat{V} \in \arg \min_{U \in \mathbb{R}^{p_1 \times r}, V \in \mathbb{R}^{p_2 \times r}} \|XU - YV\|_F^2 \\ \text{subject to } U^T \Sigma_X U = I_r, \quad V^T \Sigma_Y V = I_r. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where Σ_X and Σ_Y denote the covariance matrices of X and Y respectively.

	Spleen			TNBC			CRC		
λ	ACC	Mean	SD	AUC	Mean	SD	AUC	Mean	SD
0.000001	0.4114	56,955	23,032	0.7566	4,765	3,617	0.8039	26,385	3,812
0.00001	0.4135	58,398	30,425	0.7487	5,217	4,284	0.8039	26,699	3,746
0.0001	0.4146	40,017	12,422	0.7249	4,734	3,348	0.8170	25,972	5,934
0.001	0.4128	21,741	5,732	0.7513	3,781	1,782	0.7974	8,844	1,893
0.01	0.3691	42,336	1,970	0.7328	3,425	1,566	0.8431	6,425	1,319
0.1	0.3986	50,351	2,550	0.8757	3,149	1,111	0.9412	5,940	1,538
1	0.3914	55,264	2,788	0.8307	3,516	1,309	0.9346	5,543	889
10	0.3184	61,804	2,339	0.8704	3,689	1,443	0.8627	5,951	1,301

Table 2: For each dataset, the first column reports the downstream task performance, while the second and third columns present the mean and standard deviation of the evaluation metric defined in (2). We adopt the architecture from Zhang et al. (2021) and fix all hyperparameters except for λ in the CCA-SSG loss (8). Using Algorithm 3, the minimum average distances are achieved at $\lambda_{\text{MS}} = 0.001$ for the mouse spleen dataset (Goltsev et al., 2018), $\lambda_{\text{TNBC}} = 0.1$ for Triple Negative Breast Cancer (TNBC) (Keren et al., 2018), and $\lambda_{\text{CRC}} = 1.0$ for colorectal cancer (CRC) (Schürch et al., 2020). Notably, strong downstream performance coincides with improved embedding alignment, as indicated by lower average distances reported in the second column for each dataset.

As we seek to evaluate unsupervised representations, we assume that we have generated $3n_b$ independent versions of graphs with the procedure described in Section 2.1. For each generated graph $i \in [2n_b]$, we learn an unsupervised representation of the nodes: $H_i = \text{GNN}_i(\mathcal{G}_i, \theta)$, where θ indicates the tunable hyperparameters. We propose evaluating the quality of the learned representation by comparing the alignment of the embeddings learned by different models on replicas of the same dataset as per (2).

The solution to the CCA problem (2) has a closed-form expression. Let U_0, V_0 be the left and right singular vectors of the cross-covariance matrix:

$$\text{corr}(H_i, H_j) = \hat{\Sigma}_{H_i}^{-1/2} \hat{\Sigma}_{H_i H_j} \hat{\Sigma}_{H_j}^{-1/2} = U_0 \Lambda_0 V_0^\top,$$

where $\hat{\Sigma}_{H_i}$ is the empirical covariance of embeddings from dataset i , and $\hat{\Sigma}_{H_i H_j}$ is the empirical cross-covariance of embeddings from datasets i and j . The solutions to (2) are

$$\hat{U}(i, j) = \hat{\Sigma}_{H_i}^{-1/2} U_0, \quad \hat{V}(i, j) = \hat{\Sigma}_{H_j}^{-1/2} V_0. \quad (3)$$

and we can compute the alignment between versions of the dataset as:

$$\text{alignment} = \|H_i \hat{U}(i, j) - H_j \hat{V}(i, j)\|_F,$$

where the alignment is evaluated and aggregated over the bootstrapped samples $i, j \in [n_b], i \neq j$.

2.2.1 Validation of the Evaluation Metric

We evaluate the validity of our metric (2) on three biological datasets: spleen (Goltsev et al., 2018), the MIBI-TOF breast cancer (Keren et al., 2018), and colorectal cancer (CRC) dataset (Schürch et al., 2020). Each dataset comprises multiple graphs, allowing us to assess the validity of our proposed metric (2) independently of the graph bootstrapping procedure. In spleen dataset (Goltsev et al., 2018), each graph contains 81,148 nodes and corresponds to a full tissue section from a single mouse. We evaluate across 3 different mice, totaling over 240k cells processed. In breast cancer dataset (Keren et al., 2018), each tissue graph has 5,162 nodes on average, and we analyze 41 patient samples, for a total of over 211k nodes across the cohort. In colorectal cancer dataset Schürch et al. (2020), each graph has 6,302 nodes on average, evaluated across 33 patient samples, adding up to more than 207k nodes. Table 2 presents both the evaluation of our metric (2) along with the downstream task performance measured in Area Under the Curve (AUC-ROC). In addition, visualizations provided in Appendix Figure 6 further support the utility of our metric in guiding the hyperparameter selection (e.g., the regularization strength parameter λ), effectively recovering biologically meaningful cell microenvironments. Detailed descriptions of the datasets and downstream tasks are provided in Appendix G.1.1.

2.3 Proposed Hyperparameter Tuning Framework

We now describe the full procedure, which we call LOBSTUR (**L**ocal **B**ootstrap for **T**uning **U**nsupervised **R**epresentations in GNNs). We first generate $3n_b$ bootstrap graphs using the local resampling scheme (Section 2.1). For each candidate set of hyperparameters $\theta \in \Theta$, we train unsupervised GNNs on the bootstrap replicates, g_i and g_{i+n_b} , respectively, $i \in [n_b]$. We first filter out degenerate embeddings using StableRank (See Appendix B.3 for the details of an additional step to safeguard our pipeline against degeneracies) and evaluate the stability of the embeddings on g_{i+2n_b} , $i \in [n_b]$ by computing CCA alignment (Section 2.2). Finally, we select the hyperparameters that minimize the CCA distance, which yields a principled and label-free choice. Our full procedure is highlighted in Algorithm 3 in the Appendix B.

Dataset	Default	Ours	α -ReQ	pseudo- κ	RankME	NESum	SelfCluster	Stable Rank	Coherence
<i>Classification tasks</i>									
Cora	0.36	0.65	<u>0.66</u>	0.54	0.63	0.63	0.69	0.59	0.47
PubMed	0.62	0.81	<u>0.75</u>	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.82	0.75	0.76
Citeseer	0.32	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	<u>0.48</u>	0.51	0.22
CS	0.47	<u>0.79</u>	0.86	0.72	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.76
Photo	0.29	<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.79</u>	<u>0.79</u>	<u>0.79</u>	<u>0.79</u>	0.57	0.81	0.69
Computers	0.37	<u>0.57</u>	0.45	<u>0.57</u>	0.45	0.39	0.39	<u>0.57</u>	0.65
<i>Regression tasks</i>									
Chicago	<u>0.39</u>	0.34	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.29	0.40
Anaheim	0.13	0.23	0.12	0.18	0.18	0.12	0.23	0.18	0.12
Twitch	0.47	0.52	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.46	0.15	0.48
Education	0.23	<u>0.26</u>	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	<u>0.26</u>
Avg clf	0.41	0.68	0.67	0.65	0.66	0.65	0.63	0.68	0.59
Avg reg	0.30	0.34	0.24	0.25	<u>0.25</u>	0.24	0.34	0.24	<u>0.32</u>

Table 3: Downstream task (classification or regression) performance of the best model and hyperparameters chosen by each criterion. The best value is bolded and the second best is underlined. We compare to the BGRL (Thakoor et al., 2021) with default hyperparameters ($\text{fmr} = 0.5$, $\text{edr} = 0.25$, $\lambda = 10^{-2}$) in the left-most column.

3 Experiments

We demonstrate the validity of our entire framework on GNN benchmark datasets such as Cora, Citeseer, and Pubmed. We show that hyperparameter and model selection using our suggested framework results in robust, high downstream task performance on benchmark datasets, thereby indicating embeddings of good quality. More specifically, we consider the task of learning unsupervised GNN embeddings using four different methods (CCA-SSG, BGRL, DGI, and GRACE, see Appendix C), and choosing the correct set of hyperparameters in each method. *Note that we do not look at the classification accuracy ahead of time and use them for choosing the model and hyperparameters.* Instead, we only report them after choosing the model to validate the approach, reflecting a more practical scenario to apply unsupervised GNNs on real datasets.

In Table 3, we report the downstream task performance (classification or regression) of the model chosen by our framework (Algorithm 3) and metrics proposed in Tsitsulin et al. (2023). Our method shows a robust performance and achieves either the best or the second best performance compared to the existing metrics for 7 out of 10 datasets, and achieving the best overall accuracy. A similar table reporting the performance by different GNN architectures (Thakoor et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2020) is presented in Table 13, 14, 15 in the Appendix.

4 Conclusion

We presented LOBSTUR, a framework for hyperparameter tuning in unsupervised GNNs. By combining local graph bootstrap with CCA-based stability metrics, LOBSTUR provides the first principled, label-free procedure for model selection in this domain. Results on benchmarks and biological datasets demonstrate robustness and practical utility. Extensions to block-bootstrap suggest promise for larger graphs, making this a foundation for future work (see Appendix D.4, E).

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A Theoretical Results

A.1 Definitions

Throughout this manuscript, we assume the same conventions as in the general literature on graphon estimation (see, for instance, Gao et al. (2015); Gaucher and Klopp (2021)).

In particular, for a function $f : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$, the derivative operator is defined by

$$\nabla_{jk} f(x, y) = \frac{\partial^{j+k}}{(\partial x)^j (\partial y)^k} f(x, y),$$

and we adopt the convention $\nabla_{00} f(x, y) = f(x, y)$.

Definition A.1 (Hölder class for Graphon functions (from Gao et al. (2015))). The Hölder norm is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}_\alpha} &= \max_{j+k \leq \lfloor \alpha \rfloor} \sup_{x, y \in \mathcal{D}} |\nabla_{jk} f(x, y)| \\ &\quad + \max_{j+k = \lfloor \alpha \rfloor} \sup_{(x, y) \neq (x', y') \in \mathcal{D}} \frac{|\nabla_{jk} f(x, y) - \nabla_{jk} f(x', y')|}{(|x - x'| + |y - y'|)^{\alpha - \lfloor \alpha \rfloor}}. \end{aligned}$$

The Hölder class is defined by

$$\mathcal{H}_\alpha(M) = \{ \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}_\alpha} \leq M : f(x, y) = f(y, x) \text{ for } x \geq y \},$$

where $\alpha > 0$ is the smoothness parameter and $M > 0$ is the size of the class, which is assumed to be a constant.

Definition A.2 (Distance Measures). For nodes $i, j \in [n]$:

$$\begin{aligned} d_L(i, j) &= |U_i - U_j| \quad (\text{Latent distance}) \\ d_F(i, j) &= \|X_i - X_j\|_2 \quad (\text{Feature distance}) \\ d_G(i, j) &= \text{length of shortest path from } i \text{ to } j \quad (\text{Graph distance}) \end{aligned}$$

Note that in the actual implementation, other graph distances are available as an option, but for the analysis purpose, we assume $D_G(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a shortest-path distance.

Definition A.3 (k-NN Neighborhoods). For node i :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{N}_k^U(i) &= \{j : U_j \text{ is among } k\text{-nearest neighbors of } U_i\} \\ \mathcal{N}_k^X(i) &= \{j : X_j \text{ is among } k\text{-nearest neighbors of } X_i\} \\ \mathcal{N}_k^G(i) &= \{j : \text{node } j \text{ is among } k\text{-nearest neighbors of node } i\} \end{aligned}$$

where $X_i = g(U_i) + \epsilon_i$, and $U_i \sim \text{Unif}[0, 1]$. The neighborhood is determined by corresponding distance. For example, the neighborhood in the latent space is determined by latent distance.

A.2 Consistency of Feature Resampling

The following theorem characterizes the consistency of the procedure in deriving nodes with similar features.

Theorem A.4. Assume that $\mathcal{G}_k$, the directed k -nearest neighbor graph induced by the latent variable $\{U_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is known, with k such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{k}{n} = 0$. Suppose g is an α -Hölder-continuous function on the interval $[0, 1]$, so that there exists a constant C such that: $|g(U_i) - g(U_j)| \leq C|U_i - U_j|^\alpha$ for $\alpha > 0$.

Let $\mathcal{X}$ denote the domain of the features (so that for each node i , its features are denoted $X_i \in \mathcal{X}$). Then, the procedure described in Algorithm 1 is asymptotically consistent in that for any set $\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{X}$:

$$\forall j \in \mathcal{N}_{knn}(i), \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\mathbb{P}(X_j \in \mathcal{A} | U_j) - \mathbb{P}(X_i \in \mathcal{A} | U_i)| = 0,$$

where $\mathcal{N}_{knn}(i)$ denotes a set containing k -nearest neighbors of i in the latent space.

Proof. The proof follows a similar argument to the previous theorem and is deferred to Appendix A. $\square$

328 *Remark A.5.* We note that the noise ϵ_i on the features does not need to be globally identically
 329 distributed for the previous construction to hold. Instead, since the procedure only relies on the
 330 k -nearest neighborhood of each node, it suffices to assume that these properties hold locally.

Proof. Under (1), $\forall i$, $X_i = g(U_i) + \epsilon_i$, where ϵ_i is independent, identically distributed centered
 noise, and $g(U_i)$ is the expectation of X given the latent U_i . Since the ϵ are assumed to be i.i.d, we
 can write for any nodes i and j :

$$X_i \stackrel{d}{=} g(U_i) + \epsilon_j = g(U_i) + X_j - g(U_j).$$

331 The quantity $g(U_i) - g(U_j)$ represents the bias in using the expectation X_j to approximate the
 332 distribution of X_i , and since g is assumed to be Hölder-continuous: $\|g(U_i) - g(U_j)\| \leq C|U_i - U_j|^\alpha$.

333 Consider now j to be chosen to be one of the k -nearest neighbors of node i . $|U_i - U_j|^\alpha$ is
 334 a monotonously decreasing function of n , and with high probability (over the distribution of
 335 $U_1, \dots, U_n$), we have $|U_i - U_j| \leq c_0 \frac{k}{n}$, for all $j \in \mathcal{N}(U_i)$, and a constant c_0 . Therefore,
 336 $\|g(U_i) - g(U_j)\|$ tends to 0 (in probability) as n goes to ∞ . Therefore, by Slutsky's lemma,
 337 as n goes to ∞ , $\{X_j|U_j\}_{j \in \mathcal{N}_{knn}(i)} \xrightarrow{d} X_i|U_i$. $\square$

338 A.3 Consistency of Edge Resampling

339 The following theorem highlights the consistency of the edge rewiring procedure.

340 **Theorem A.6.** Suppose that the k_n -nearest neighbor graph $\mathcal{G}_{k_n}$ induced by the latent variables
 341 $\{U_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is known, where k_n is such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{k_n}{n} = 0$, and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} k_n = \infty$. Suppose that W is
 342 an α -Hölder graphon function (Gao et al., 2015) (see definition A.1 in the Appendix) with $\alpha \in (0, 1]$.

Then, the quantity $\hat{p}_{ij} = \frac{1}{k_n} \sum_{m=1}^{k_n} A_{\mathcal{N}_m(i),j}$ is a consistent estimator of p_{ij} in the sense that:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \hat{p}_{ij} = \mathbb{P}[A_{ij}|U_i, U_j].$$

343 *Proof.* Letting $\mathcal{N}_k(i)$ denote the k^{th} closest neighbor of node i according to the oracle graph $\mathcal{G}_{knn}$.
 For any pair of nodes (i, j) , as we are resampling, we are effectively replacing the underlying
 connection probability $\mathbb{P}[A_{ij} = 1|U_i, U_j]$ by:

$$\hat{p}_{ij} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K A_{\mathcal{N}_k(i),j}$$

We decompose the risk of this estimator as:

$$\mathbb{E} \left[(\mathbb{P}[A_{ij} = 1|U_i, U_j] - \hat{p}_{ij})^2 \right] = \text{Bias}^2 + \text{Variance}$$

344 where

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Bias} &= \mathbb{P}[A_{ij} = 1|U_i, U_j] - \mathbb{E}[\hat{p}_{ij}] \\ &= \frac{1}{k} \sum_{m=1}^k (\mathbb{P}[A_{ij} = 1|U_i, U_j] - \mathbb{P}[Y_{\mathcal{N}_m(i),j} = 1|U_{\mathcal{N}_m(i)}, U_j]) \\ \text{Variance} &= \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{m=1}^k (\mathbb{P}[Y_{\mathcal{N}_m(i),j} = 1|U_{\mathcal{N}_m(i)}, U_j] - A_{\mathcal{N}_m(i),j}) \right)^2 \right] \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

345 By assumption, since W is assumed to be α -Hölder, as emphasized in Gao et al. (2015), when
 346 $\alpha \in (0, 1]$, a function $f \in \mathcal{H}_\alpha(M)$ satisfies the Lipschitz condition

$$|f(x, y) - f(x', y')| \leq M(|x - x'| + |y - y'|)^\alpha, \quad (5)$$

347 Therefore, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
|\text{Bias}| &= \left| \mathbb{P}[A_{ij} = 1 | U_i, U_j] - \frac{1}{k} \sum_{m=1}^k \mathbb{P}[Y_{\mathcal{N}_m(i),j} = 1 | U_{\mathcal{N}_m(i)}, U_j] \right| \\
&\leq \frac{1}{k} \sum_{m=1}^k M |U_i - U_{\mathcal{N}_m(i)}|^\alpha.
\end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

348 The quantity $|U_i - U_m|^\alpha$ (with m a k -nearest neighbor of i) is a monotonously decreasing function
349 of n , and with high probability (over the distribution of $U_1, \dots, U_n$), we have $|U_i - U_m|_2 \leq c_0 \frac{k}{n}$,
350 for all $m \in \mathcal{N}(U_i)$, and a constant c_0 . Therefore, as n goes to infinity, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\text{Bias}| = 0$.

351 Similarly, for the variance:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Variance} &= \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{m=1}^k (\mathbb{P}[Y_{\mathcal{N}_m(i),j} = 1 | U_{\mathcal{N}_m(i)}, U_j] - A_{\mathcal{N}_m(i),j}) \right)^2 \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{k^2} \sum_{m=1}^k \mathbb{P}[Y_{\mathcal{N}_m(i),j} = 1 | U_{\mathcal{N}_m(i)}, U_j] (1 - \mathbb{P}[Y_{\mathcal{N}_m(i),j} = 1 | U_{\mathcal{N}_m(i)}, U_j]) \\
&\leq \frac{1}{k}.
\end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

352 As $k \rightarrow \infty$, this converges to 0.

353 This shows that $\hat{p}_{ij}$ is a consistent estimator of p_{ij} .

354 □

355 A.4 Additional Proofs

356 The assertion that the distance to a k -nearest neighbor is small with high probability is a standard
357 result in non-parametric statistics, which can be made precise with a probabilistic bound. Let $\{U_i\}_{i=1}^n$
358 be n points drawn i.i.d. from a Uniform $[0, 1]$ distribution. For a given point U_i , let D_k be the distance
359 to its k -th nearest neighbor. We aim to show that for a constant c_0 , the probability $\mathbb{P}(D_k > c_0 k/n)$ is
360 exponentially small.

Consider an interval I of radius $r = c_0 k/n$ centered at U_i . The number of points, N_I , falling within this interval follows a Binomial distribution, $N_I \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$, where p is the length of the interval, $p = 2r = 2c_0 k/n$. The expected number of points in I is thus $\mu = np = 2c_0 k$. The event that the k -th neighbor is farther than r away, $\{D_k > r\}$, is equivalent to the event that the interval I contains fewer than k points, $\{N_I < k\}$. We can bound this probability using a Chernoff bound for the lower tail of a binomial distribution, which states that $\mathbb{P}(N_I \leq (1 - \delta)\mu) \leq e^{-\delta^2 \mu/2}$ for $\delta \in (0, 1)$. By setting $c_0 = 1$, we have $\mu = 2k$. To bound $\mathbb{P}(N_I < k)$, we can set the threshold $(1 - \delta)\mu = k$, which gives $(1 - \delta)2k = k$, or $\delta = 1/2$. Applying the bound yields:

$$\mathbb{P}(N_I < k) \leq \mathbb{P}(N_I \leq k) \leq e^{-(1/2)^2 (2k)/2} = e^{-k/4}$$

B Proposed Algorithms in Section 2

B.1 Nonparametric Graph Bootstrap

Algorithm 1 Non-parametric Resampling of Node Features

- 1: **Input:** Graph G with node features $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$, $\mathcal{G}_{knn}$ k -nearest neighbor graph on U .
 - 2: **for** each node $i \in [n]$ **do**
 - 3: Identify the set of neighboring nodes $N(i) = \{j : j \sim i\}$ in the graph $\mathcal{G}_{knn}$,
 - 4: Construct the candidate set for resampling: $C_i = \{X_i\} \cup \{X_j\}_{j \in N(i)}$.
 - 5: Resample the feature vector for node i by selecting a vector uniformly from C_i : $X_i^{\text{new}} \sim \text{Unif}(C_i)$.
 - 6: **end for**
 - 7: **Output:** Resampled node features $\{X_i^{\text{new}}\}_{i=1}^n$.
-

Algorithm 2 Non-parametric Resampling of Edges

- 1: **Input:** Graph $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ with $n = |\mathcal{V}|$ nodes; flattened list of edge stems

$$L = \{u \mid u \in E[:, 0]\} \cup \{v \mid v \in E[:, 1]\},$$
 where $E \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{E}| \times 2}$, and k -nearest neighbor graph $\mathcal{G}_{knn}$ on U .
- 2: Initialize an empty graph G' with n nodes.
- 3: **while** $\text{len}(L) > 0$ **do**
- 4: Sample a source node u uniformly at random from L and remove it: $u \leftarrow \text{pop}(L)$.
- 5: Sample a target node v from

$$v \sim L \cap \left(\bigcup_{m=1}^k \mathcal{N}_A(\mathcal{N}_m^{\text{knn}}(u)) \right),$$

- where $\mathcal{N}_A(i)$ denotes the set of neighbors of node i in G , and $\mathcal{N}_m^{\text{knn}}(u)$ denotes the m -th nearest neighbor of node u in $\mathcal{G}_{knn}$.
- 6: Remove the selected node v from L .
 - 7: Add an undirected edge between u and v in G' .
 - 8: **end while**
 - 9: **Output:** Resampled edge structure $\{A_{ij}^{\text{new}}\}_{i,j=1}^n$.
-

B.2 Full Tuning Procedure

B.3 Adjustment for Dimensional Collapse

Our proposed alignment metric is grounded in a straightforward statistical method, Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA). The strength of this method lies in its assessment of *correlations* between representations. However, because it accounts for different variances, this method may struggle to accurately reflect the quality of embeddings in the presence of dimensional collapse (Hua et al., 2021). Dimensional collapse, a phenomenon common in self-supervised representation learning, occurs when the learned representations are confined to a low-dimensional manifold. For example, when training a model with an embedding dimension of $p = 2$, dimensional collapse may result in embeddings that lie along a single line (reduced to a one-dimensional representation) or form a blob. In such cases, although the embeddings lack informative structure, their alignment across different samples may still be high, leading to an over-inflated metric.

The *StableRank* metric (Tsitsulin et al., 2023) is defined as $\sum_i \sigma_i^2 / \sigma_1^2$, where σ_i are the singular values of the embeddings $H \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ in descending order, and assesses the numerical rank of the embedding space. We will use this metric to filter out embeddings that are clearly suboptimal (Jing et al., 2022) before applying our CCA-based metric to tune hyperparameters. An alternative choice for the threshold metric could be *RankMe* proposed by Garrido et al. (2023).

Algorithm 3 Hyperparameter Tuning Procedure

- 1: **Input:** An input graph G and a set of hyperparameters Θ from which to choose an optimal value.
 - 2: Create $3n_b$ bootstrap samples of the graph, denoted as $\{\hat{G}_i\}_{i=1}^{3n_b}$ (Algorithm 1 , 2).
 - 3: **for** each value $\theta \in \Theta$ **do**
 - 4: **for** $i = 1, \dots, 2n_b$ **do**
 - 5: Train an unsupervised GNN, $f_i(\cdot, \theta)$ on $\hat{G}_i$.
 - 6: **end for**
 - 7: **for** each pair of models $f_i(\cdot, \theta)$ and $f_{i+n_b}(\cdot, \theta)$ with $i \in \{1, \dots, n_b\}$ **do**
 - 8: Compute the distance between embeddings from models f_i and f_{i+n_b} on the test graph $\hat{G}_{i+2n_b}$:

$$d_i(\theta) = \ell(f_i(\hat{G}_{i+2n_b}, \theta), f_{i+n_b}(\hat{G}_{i+2n_b}, \theta)),$$
 where $\ell(\cdot)$ is some metric, like the one we proposed in Section 2.2.
 - 9: **end for**
 - 10: **end for**
 - 11: Choose the optimal hyperparameters: $\hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta \in \Theta, \text{StableRank} \geq t}{\operatorname{argmin}} \bar{d}(\theta)$, where $\bar{d}(\theta)$ is the average distance across $i \in [n_b]$, and t is the *StableRank* threshold.
-

Choice of the Threshold. We turn to the problem of selecting a stable-rank threshold. We suggest using the reasonable lower bound for the latent (effective) dimension as sufficient. For Tables 3 and 16, we set the threshold to $t = 2$. This choice ensures that the embeddings retain a minimum effective dimensionality, preventing collapse to a single line. Consequently, our alignment metric accurately measures meaningful signal alignment rather than trivial, collapsed patterns. It is important to highlight the trade-off associated with this threshold: setting a higher threshold enhances robustness but may inadvertently exclude beneficial models, while a lower threshold allows greater model diversity but risks increased variability and potential collapse of representations.

C Summary of Selected Unsupervised GNNs

CCA-SSG: CCA-SSG (Zhang et al., 2021) is inspired by statistical canonical correlation analysis(CCA) that constructs the loss on the feature-level rather than instance-level discrimination, which is typical in contrastive methods. They augment the original graph in a random fashion by dropping edges or masking the node features to make a pair of graphs for learning.

$$\mathcal{L} = \underbrace{\|\tilde{Z}_A - \tilde{Z}_B\|^2}_{\text{invariance term}} + \lambda \underbrace{\|\tilde{Z}_A^\top \tilde{Z}_A - I\|_F^2 + \|\tilde{Z}_B^\top \tilde{Z}_B - I\|_F^2}_{\text{decorrelation term}} \quad (8)$$

Although their model structure is relatively simple and does not require a parametrized mutual information estimator or additional projection network, they still have the issue of choosing hyperparameters (e.g. λ) which has a non-negligible impact on the model performance.

GRACE: Contrastive learning or self-supervised method has gotten increasing attention as they do not require label availability as supervised GNN does. Deep Graph Contrastive Representation Learning (GRACE) (Zhu et al., 2020) is one of the popular graph contrastive learning methods.

1. For each iteration, GRACE generates two graph views, $\tilde{G}_1, \tilde{G}_2$, by either randomly removing edges or randomly masking node features.
2. Let $U = f(\tilde{X}_1, \tilde{A}_1), V = f(\tilde{X}_2, \tilde{A}_2)$ be the embedded representation of two graph views, and their corresponding node features and adjacency matrices.
3. Positive samples: For any node v_i , its corresponding representation in another view u_i is treated as natural positive pair.
4. Negative samples: For given node v_i , any nodes in another view $u_{k \neq i}$ are treated as negative pair.

5. Node-wise objective:

$$\ell(u_i, v_i) = \log \frac{e^{\theta(u_i, v_i)/\tau}}{\underbrace{e^{\theta(u_i, v_i)/\tau}}_{\text{the positive pair}} + \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^N \mathbb{1}_{k \neq i} e^{\theta(u_i, v_k)/\tau}}_{\text{inter-view negative pairs}} + \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^N \mathbb{1}_{k \neq i} e^{\theta(u_i, u_k)/\tau}}_{\text{intra-view negative pairs}}}$$

408 6. Overall loss function: $\ell = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^N [\ell(u_i, v_i) + \ell(v_i, u_i)]$

409 7. Optimization: apply stochastic gradient descent.

DGI: Deep Graph Infomax (Stokes et al., 2020) is another option for the unsupervised graph representation learning. DGI optimizes the mutual information between the local patch representation of the graph and the overall high-level summaries.

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N+M} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{E}_{(X,A)} [\log \mathcal{D}(\vec{h}_i, \vec{s})] + \sum_{j=1}^M \mathbb{E}_{(X,A)} [\log(1 - \mathcal{D}(\vec{h}_i, \vec{s}))] \right)$$

410 **BGRL:** Large-Scale Representation Learning on Graphs via Bootstrapping (BGRL) (Thakoor et al.,
411 2023) similar to CCA-SSG, BGRL uses node and feature masking to augment the original graph. At
412 the core of BGRL is a bootstrapping mechanism that updates the target representations gradually,
413 borrowing ideas from consistency regularization and contrastive learning. Unlike contrastive learning
414 methods that require negative samples, BGRL avoids the computational overhead associated with
415 negative sampling by using a bootstrapping approach. This involves maintaining two networks: an
416 online network that is updated using gradients and a target network that is slowly updated with the
417 parameters of the online network. This setup encourages the embeddings to become more stable and
418 consistent over iterations.

1. Update the online encoder:

$$\ell(\theta, \phi) = -\frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{\tilde{Z}_{(1,i)} \tilde{H}_{(2,i)}^\top}{\|\tilde{Z}_{(1,i)}\| \|\tilde{H}_{(2,i)}^\top\|}$$

419 2. Update the target encoder: $\theta \leftarrow \tau \phi + (1 - \tau) \theta$

420 **GCA:** Graph Contrastive Learning with Augmentations (GCA) (You et al., 2021) introduces a
421 contrastive learning framework designed specifically for graph data. GCA applies data augmentation
422 techniques on both the node features and graph structure, creating different views of the same
423 node. The central idea is to maximize the agreement between the representations of the same node
424 in different augmented views, while ensuring that the representations of different nodes remain
425 distinguishable.

The contrastive loss is designed to encourage the representations of different views, a and b of the same node i , with temperature scaling τ .

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{GCA}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N -\log \frac{\exp(\text{sim}(\mathbf{z}_i^a, \mathbf{z}_i^b)/\tau)}{\sum_{j=1}^N \exp(\text{sim}(\mathbf{z}_i^a, \mathbf{z}_j^b)/\tau)}$$

426 where $\text{sim}(z_i, z_j) = z_i^T z_j / (\|z_i\| \cdot \|z_j\|)$ is a cosine similarity.

427 **VGAE:** Variational Graph Autoencoder (VGAE) (Kipf and Welling, 2016) is a framework designed
428 for learning graph embeddings through variational inference. It is a probabilistic approach that
429 leverages both graph structure and node features to infer latent node representations. VGAE aims to
430 model the underlying distribution of the graph data, capturing the uncertainty in the embeddings by
431 using a variational autoencoder architecture. This setup allows VGAE to generate robust embeddings
432 that generalize well to unseen nodes or links. The model consists of an encoder that approximates
433 the posterior distribution over latent variables and a decoder that reconstructs the graph from these
434 variables.

435 The loss function comprises two components: a reconstruction loss that encourages the model to
436 accurately predict the adjacency matrix, and a regularization term in the form of the KL-divergence,
437 which ensures the latent variables follow the prior distribution.

1. Update the encoder by maximizing the evidence lower bound (ELBO):

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathbb{E}_{q(Z|X,A)}[\log p(A|Z)] - KL(q(Z|X,A)||p(Z))$$

2. The prior over the latent variables Z is typically set to a standard Gaussian: $p(Z) = \mathcal{N}(0, I)$.

D Additional Literature Review

D.1 Cross-Validation

In the supervised learning literature, cross-validation (CV) (Hastie et al., 2001; Tibshirani and Walther, 2005) stands as a fundamental strategy for selecting hyperparameters and evaluating models. In the usual (Euclidean) setting, this technique involves partitioning the dataset into distinct subsets: a "training set" for model training and a "test set" for its evaluation. The partitioning is justified by the independence between observations, which implies that the subsamples still follow the same distribution as the original data. A commonly used method is K -fold cross-validation, where the dataset is divided into K subsets or folds. For simplicity, we assume there are n samples, and each fold has m data points so that $n = K \times m$. We denote a set of index for the k -th fold as I_k . The model is trained K times, each time using $K - 1$ folds for training and the remaining fold for validation. Evaluation of the validation set is performed through an appropriate evaluation function $\ell(\cdot)$ measuring the discrepancy between the observations y_i and their predicted values $\hat{y}_i = \hat{f}(x_i, \theta)$. This loss is usually taken to be the mean squared error (MSE) in the regression case, ($\text{MSE}_k = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i \in I_k} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$), or to be the classification accuracy in the classification setting. By averaging this metric over all k folds, cross-validation provides a reliable estimate of the model's prediction error on unseen data.

While the implementation and practice of cross-validation is simple and straightforward, its interpretation has only recently been investigated in work by Bates et al. (2024). The authors' key finding is that the cross-validation does not estimate the prediction error for the model trained on a specific dataset but rather the "average" prediction error across all possible training datasets from the same distribution.

$$\widehat{Err}^{(CV)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i \in I_k} \ell(\hat{f}(x_i, \hat{\theta}^{(-k)}), y_i). \quad (9)$$

The intuition is the inner summation in Equation 9 estimates the prediction error of the model at hand, and the outer summation calculates the empirical average over all possible training sets of the same size. In the previous equation, $\hat{\theta}^{(-k)}$ denotes the parameters of the model fitted on all but the k^{th} fold, and $\hat{f}(x_i, \hat{\theta}^{(-k)})$ indicates the estimator of y .

D.2 Cross-Validation for Unsupervised Learning

Despite the popularity and simplicity of the cross-validation procedure, its application in unsupervised learning has been relatively underexplored, largely due to the absence of clear evaluation metrics. Perry (2009) addressed this gap by examining cross-validation in unsupervised settings and proposing several solutions, with a focus on methods utilizing Singular Value Decomposition (SVD). Among the strategies reviewed, two are particularly relevant for this discussion. The first is a traditional hold-out method, where a portion of the data is set aside for validation, and the second involves treating random elements of the dataset as "missing values." For a detailed explanation of these methods, refer to Perry (2009), Chapter 5. However, it is important to note that these methods were originally designed for conventional, independent, tabular data for unsupervised tasks. In this study, we build on Perry's framework, focusing on its connection to graph neural networks (GNNs) and extending its use to evaluate unsupervised learning methods in the context of GNNs in Section 2.2.

For the hold-out method, we randomly partition the data $Z \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ into $\begin{pmatrix} Z_1 \\ Z_2 \end{pmatrix}$, where $Z_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times p}$ is a training set, $Z_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2 \times p}$ is a test set, and $n_1 + n_2 = n$. We want to approximate the test data by projecting it onto the principal spaces of the training data. To do so, one can calculate the k -dimensional reduced SVD of Z_1 , where $\hat{Z}_1(k) = \sqrt{(n)} \hat{U}_1 \hat{D}_1(k) \hat{V}_1$. Project the test set onto the

principal space of Z_1 .

$$\hat{Z}_2(k) = Z_2 \hat{Z}_1(k)^\top (\hat{Z}_1(k) \hat{Z}_1(k)^\top)^\dagger \hat{Z}_1(k) = Z_2 \hat{V}_1 \hat{V}_1^\top.$$

$X^\dagger$ denotes the pseudo-inverse of X . The performance can be evaluated using ℓ_2 loss, $\|Z_2 - \hat{Z}_2(k)\|_F^2$. Although this method cannot be used in practice because the loss is a decreasing function with k , the idea of using projection to compute the projection error for unsupervised tasks was insightful.

The second is called either missing value strategy or Wold hold-outs. Instead of simply splitting the data, one could randomly select the indices $I \in \mathcal{I}$, which denote the missing elements. Then, $Z_I = \begin{cases} Z_i & i \in I \\ * & \text{o.w} \end{cases}$; similarly, $Z_{\bar{I}} = \begin{cases} Z_i & i \notin I \\ * & \text{o.w} \end{cases}$. Apply k-rank missing value SVD algorithm to

find the decomposition of $Z_{\bar{I}}(k) = U_k D_k V_k^\top$. There are many options() including the one proposed by Perry (2009). The performance can again be evaluated using $\|U_k D_k V_k^\top - Z_{\bar{I}}\|_{F,I}^2$.

The last method is basically to convert the unsupervised task into the supervised task, and called Gabriele hold-outs. Given the data, we could randomly permute the row and column so that we have the following decomposition $P^\top Z Q = \begin{pmatrix} Z_{11} & Z_{12} \\ Z_{21} & Z_{22} \end{pmatrix}$, where P and Q are the permutation matrices.

There is continuing work on applying this hold-out approach (especially Gabriele’s hold-out on clustering analysis Fu and Perry (2017)).

D.3 Cross Validation for Network Analysis

There have been relatively few studies (Li et al., 2020; Hoff, 2007; Chen and Lei, 2018) on the cross-validation of network data. In Li et al. (2020), the key assumption for the entire analysis is that the edge is the realization of independent Bernoulli random variables, and the probability of connection M , which is realized by the observed adjacency matrix A , is approximately of low rank. The edge cross-validation proposed in this study is different from traditional node-splitting methods in that the random dropping applies to the connected pair of nodes. The model by Chen and Lei (2018) is particularly designed for determining the number of communities within the network data, as well as choosing between the regular stochastic block model and the degree-corrected stochastic block model(DCSBM). The core idea is a block-wise node-pair splitting, which is then combined with an integrated step of community recovery using sub-blocks of the adjacency matrix.

Leiner and Ramdas (2024) introduces another cross-validation method for graphs but approaches the problem from a different angle. The study applies data thinning to data following convolution-closed distributions by Neufeld et al. (2023). This procedure creates data folds that maintain the same distribution as the original data, are independent of each other, and sum to the original random variable. A canonical example of it is a normal variable. Given data $X \sim (\mu, \sigma^2)$, with unknown parameter of interest μ . Through data thinning algorithm, we could thin X into $X^{(1)} \sim N(\epsilon\mu, \epsilon^2\sigma^2)$ and $X^{(2)} \sim N((1-\epsilon)\mu, (1-\epsilon)^2\sigma^2)$, where these two thinned variables are independent to each other. Leiner and Ramdas (2024) is an extension of this concept to graph data, applying data thinning to node features while treating the adjacency matrix as fixed.

However, all these statistical methods heavily rely on the certain generation mechanism of underlying networks, such as the stochastic block model (Chen and Lei, 2018) or low-rank structure of expected value of adjacency matrix (Li et al., 2020). The assumptions of the aforementioned approaches on which part of the graph is a random component are also different. Leiner and Ramdas (2024) treats the graph structural component (V, E) as non-random and the node feature as random; however, Li et al. (2020) treats edge as then random realization based on statistical graph generation model, such as stochastic block model.

D.4 Bootstrap

The bootstrap (Efron, 1979) has been widely used as a non-parametric method for estimating the distribution of a statistic through resampling with replacement. This method is useful because it does not rely on assumptions about the underlying distribution, making it applicable across various fields where such assumptions are challenging. The validity of the bootstrap is supported by its consistency (Horowitz, 2019) under mild assumptions, where the bootstrap distribution converges to the true

sampling distribution as the sample size increases. However, the validity of the bootstrap relies on having access to independent samples, an assumption violated in the graph case. We thus consider two distinct scenarios, depending on the nature of the graph at hand:

- *For graphs with short-range dependencies*, such as for instance, spatial graphs: we propose to apply a graph-based **block bootstrap** method, inspired by its use in time series and spatial statistics (Politis and Romano, 1994; Castillo-Páez et al., 2019). The block bootstrap is based on the assumption that the dependency structure is well contained within the small neighborhood that we could assume independence among these neighborhoods. We extend the application of the block bootstrap to the graph case here by splitting the graph into smaller (non-overlapping) neighborhoods of size B , and creating new graphs based on replacing each of these neighborhoods by sampling with replacement from the total set of possible neighborhoods (see Algorithm 4). Similar to the spatial setting (Castillo-Páez et al., 2019), the size of the blocks is crucial to the success of the procedure. To guide the choice of the neighborhood, we propose using descriptive graph statistics (see next section) to generate graphs with similar characteristics.
- *For graphs with long-range dependencies*, For non-spatial and homophilic graphs, we propose to use an extension of **network bootstrap** by Levin and Levina (2021). In this work, Levin and Levina (2021) consider random dot product graphs (RDPG) where the edge connectivity is determined by the inner product of the latent positions H of two nodes: for each edge A_{ij} between node i and j , $A_{ij} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(H_i^T H_j)$. The crux of this method is that by converting an observed network into its latent positions, we can leverage the independence among its latent variables. In our setting, we propose to extend this setting to larger classes of graphs by learning node representations $H_i = \text{GNN}(X, A)$ of the graph (see Algorithm 5).

Algorithm 4 Resample Graphs through Block Bootstrap

```

1: Input: Spatial coordinates  $x\_coord, y\_coord, grid\_size, n\_samples$ .
2: Output: Block bootstrapped graphs  $samples$ .
3: for  $i = 1$  to  $n\_samples$  do
4:   Step 1: Shuffle Data Points
5:   Create a grid over the spatial domain using coordinates  $x\_coord$  and  $y\_coord$ .
6:   Shuffle the grids to create new patched data,  $shuffled\_data$ .
7:   Step 2: Convert Shuffled Data to Graphs
8:   Convert  $shuffled\_data$  into a graph by the method of choice (e.g. k-NN or radius graph)
9:   Store the graph  $samples[i] = G$ 
10: end for
```

Algorithm 5 Resample Graphs through Network Bootstrap

```

1: Input: Graph  $G$ , embedding dimension  $d$ ,  $n\_samples$ , neighborhood size  $k$ 
2: Output: Bootstrapped graph samples  $samples$ 
3: Generate spectral embedding  $H$  of adjacency matrix using top  $d$  eigenvectors
4: for  $i = 1$  to  $n\_samples$  do
5:   Sample indices  $bootstrap\_idx$  from  $H$  with replacement
6:   Generate new graph  $\hat{A}$  from bootstrapped latent positions
7:   Initialize node features  $x$  as zeros in the new graph  $\hat{G}$ 
8:   for each node  $i$  in  $\hat{G}$  do
9:     Calculate distances from node  $i$  to all other nodes in  $H$ 
10:    Sort distances and find nearest neighbors (based on neighborhood size  $k$ )
11:    Randomly select a neighbor and assign its features to node  $i$ 
12:   end for
13:   Store the generated graph  $\hat{G}$  in the sample set  $samples$ 
14: end for
```

Bayesian Bootstrap Rubin (1981) introduces the Bayesian bootstrap (BB) as a nonparametric alternative to traditional Bayesian inference, sidestepping the need for explicit likelihood functions.

549 Unlike the frequentist bootstrap, which resamples data *with replacement*, the Bayesian bootstrap as-
 550 signs Dirichlet-distributed random weights to observed data points, generating a posterior distribution
 551 for parameters of interest. Specifically, for a dataset $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$, instead of sampling with
 552 replacement as in the frequentist bootstrap, the Bayesian bootstrap draws a random probability vector
 553 $p = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n)$ from a $Dir(1, 1, \dots, 1)$ distribution, ensuring that $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1$ and $p_i > 0$.
 554 This randomized weighting serves as a Bayesian nonparametric prior, effectively treating the empirical
 555 distribution of the data as the prior distribution.

556 Efron (2012) explores the relationship between Bayesian inference and the parametric bootstrap,
 557 demonstrating how frequentist resampling techniques can be adapted to estimate posterior distribu-
 558 tions. The key insight of this work is that the parametric bootstrap, traditionally used to approximate
 559 sampling distributions, can serve as an efficient computational tool for Bayesian inference when
 560 paired with importance sampling. Efron (2012) shows that bootstrap reweighting can be used to
 561 transform frequentist confidence intervals into Bayesian credible intervals. This approach provides
 562 a bridge between the two paradigms, enabling frequentist methods to yield posterior distributions
 563 without relying on Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) techniques.

564 The Bayesian bootstrap provides a perspective for interpreting the proposed nonparametric graph
 565 rewiring, particularly when edge resampling is guided by shared neighborhood structure. Just as
 566 the BB assigns Dirichlet-distributed weights to data points to construct a posterior distribution,
 567 the graph rewiring process can be seen as assigning probabilistic weights to edges based on local
 568 graph structure, thereby producing alternative realizations of the same graph. In this context, the
 569 neighborhood-weighted resampling in LOBSTUR aligns with Bayesian importance sampling, where
 570 the rewired edges represent a form of pseudo-posterior distribution over network structures.

571 **Extended VGAE Approach** Inspired by Kipf and Welling (2016), we tried using the Variational
 572 Graph Autoencoder(VGAE) as a new graph sampler. The extension was needed as the original
 573 method only reconstructed the adjacency matrix. The proposed loss function includes a feature
 574 reconstruction component alongside the edge reconstruction and KL divergence losses. With the edge
 575 decoder designed by the original work, the feature decoder generates reconstructed node features, and
 576 the reconstruction loss for features is based on the sum of squared differences between the original
 577 and reconstructed features.

The total loss used for training consists of three parts: the KL divergence loss regularizing the latent variables, the edge reconstruction loss, and the feature reconstruction loss, scaled by a regularization parameter λ . The overall objective is:

$$\text{Total Loss} = \frac{\text{KL}}{n} + \text{loss}_A + \lambda \times \text{loss}_X$$

578 In our implementation, the parameter λ controls the weight of the feature reconstruction in the loss.
 579 This allows the model to focus primarily on learning the graph structure while still incorporating
 580 node feature information.

581 D.4.1 Experiments: Block Bootstrap

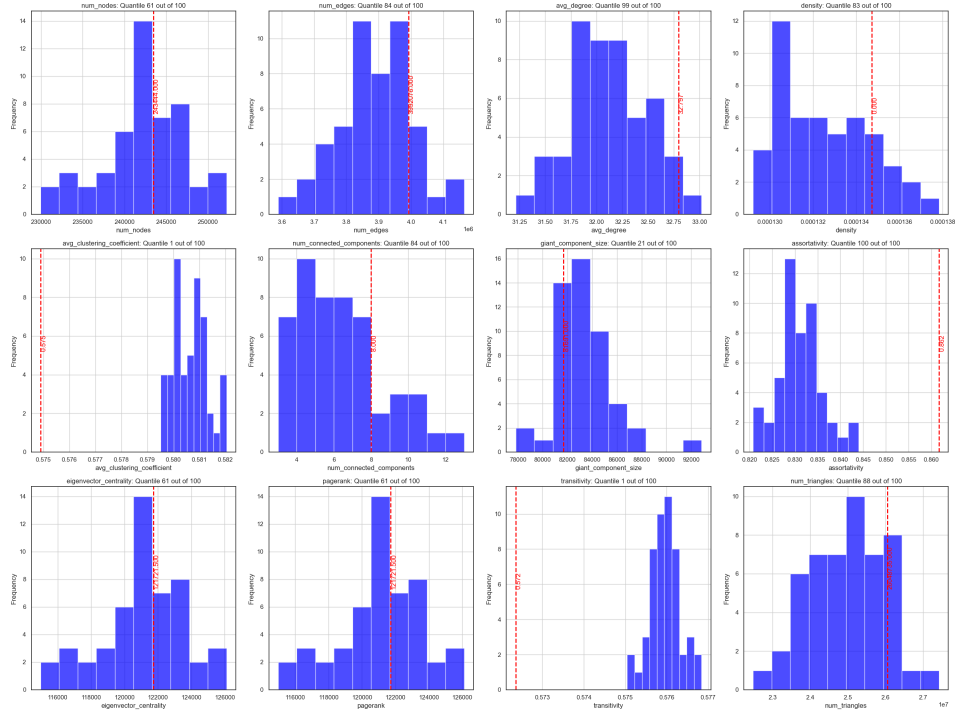


Figure 2: Block Bootstrap for Mouse Spleen data. Distribution of graph statistics of bootstrapped graphs. The principle is to see if the graph statistics of the original graph is within the extremity of the distribution of generated samples. The red dotted line indicates the statistics computed on the original graph. Most of the graph statistics do not lie at the extremity of the distribution of graph statistics by bootstrapped samples.

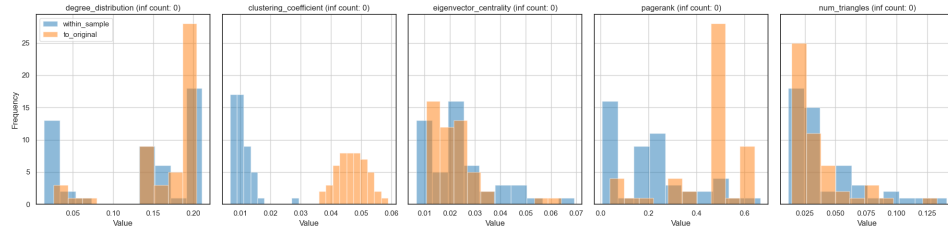


Figure 3: Block Bootstrap for Mouse Spleen data. Distribution of node-level statistics of bootstrapped graphs. The orange-colored distribution represents the JS divergence between the bootstrapped samples and the original graph, and the blue-colored distribution represents among bootstrapped samples divergence. The more the distributions overlap, the bootstrapped samples ‘mimic’ the original graph well in terms of node-level statistics.

582 D.5 Evaluating Embedding Qualities

583 In Section 2.2, we propose a stability metric. There are few works proposing metrics to evaluate the
 584 quality of unsupervised embeddings, although they are not intended for hyperparameter tuning.

585 **Alignment-based metrics** Our first family of metrics focuses on measuring how well two em-
 586 beddings align with each other. Suppose we have two embeddings, H_i and H_j , produced by the
 587 same learning procedure but on different graph folds. We propose two discretized versions of (2),
 588 measuring how much two embeddings align with each other.

- 589 1. **Label Matching:** The first thing we can think of is to make the label from the embedding
 590 from each fold, which follows the “converting to the supervised task” convention.
- 591 (a) Determine the clusters on embeddings using simple clustering algorithm such K-
 592 Nearest Neighbor or Gaussian Mixture Model(GMM)
- 593 (b) Use widely used clustering evaluation metrics, such as Adjusted Rand Index(ARI) by
 594 Hubert and Arabie (1985) or Normalized Mutual Index(NMI), to see the labels from
 595 H_i and H_j agree to each other.
- 596 2. **Neighborhood Matching:** If the model is able to extract enough of the latent structure of
 597 data, the model trained on the different folds of a graph should be similar. With this reasoning,
 598 we can evaluate the model by how much of the neighborhoods in the embedding agree with
 599 each other. To avoid the usage of data twice, we will evaluate the neighborhood from H_i
 600 and H_j and report the ratio of overlapping neighbors. To construct the neighborhood in the
 601 embedding space, we will use the simple k-Nearest algorithm with varying sizes of k. For
 602 each node on output embeddings, H_i and H_j , we first find the m-nearest neighbors. Then
 603 for node-level neighbor-kept ratio is defined as $N_i(m) = \# \text{ of overlapped neighbors} / m$,
 604 where $m \leq k$ is the neighbor size. Graph-level ratio can be calculated by simply averaging
 605 over the nodes, $N(m) = \sum_i N_i(m)$.
- 606 **Direct Embedding Quality Metrics** Beyond measuring alignment between two embeddings, one
 607 can also evaluate an embedding’s internal quality or degree of collapse. These methods offer a
 608 complementary view: even if two embeddings align with each other, they could both be suffering
 609 from dimension collapse or poor distribution of singular vectors.

1. **RankMe:** Garrido et al. (2023) proposes *RankMe* a metric to measure the effective dimension of embeddings to quantify the embedding collapse in self-supervised learning. To overcome the numerical instability of the exact rank computation, for example, due to round-off error, they propose an alternative to use Shannon entropy of normalized singular values. The formula was originally proposed by Roy and Vetterli (2007) and then applied to dimension collapse context by Garrido et al. (2023). Formally,

$$\text{RankMe}(H) = \exp \left(- \sum_{k=1}^{\min(n,p)} p_k \log p_k \right), \text{ with } p_k = \frac{\sigma_k(H)}{\|\sigma(H)\|_1} + \epsilon.$$

- 610 2. **Metrics proposed in Tsitsulin et al. (2023):** Tsitsulin et al. (2023) further extended the
 611 approaches and proposed four different metrics to evaluate the embedding quality in terms of
 612 embedding collapse and stability perspective. The key differences between their experiment
 613 setting and ours are, first, Tsitsulin et al. (2023) only consider the graph structure, not the
 614 node features, and second, they do not change the model parameters but change the level
 615 of perturbation on the structure (edge dropping or node masking). Let $H \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ be an
 616 embedding obtained from the trained unsupervised model of choice.

- (a) **Coherence:** The coherence metric measures how concentrated the rows of the singular vector matrix U are. A low coherence indicates that the energy is spread more uniformly across all rows (good for compressed sensing), while a high coherence suggests that the energy is concentrated in a few rows, which can indicate a poorly distributed set of singular vectors.

$$\text{Coherence}(H) = \frac{\max_i \|U_i\|_2^2 \cdot n}{p},$$

617 where $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ is reduced left singular matrix of $H \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$.

- (b) **Stable Rank:** It is the quantity called a “numerical rank” (or effective rank) in numerical analysis.

$$\text{Stable Rank}(H) = \frac{\|H\|_F^2}{\|H\|_2^2},$$

618 where $\|H\|_F$ denotes the Frobenius norm, $\|H\|_F^2 = \sum \sigma_i^2$, and $\|H\|_2 = \sigma_1$, where
 619 $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n$ denotes the singular values of H .

- (c) **Pseudo-condition number:** Let SVD of the embedding H be $H = U \Sigma V^\top$.

$$\kappa_p(H) = \|H\|_p \|H^\dagger\|_p \stackrel{p=2}{=} \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_n}$$

- (d) **SelfCluster**: The idea is to estimate how much the embeddings are clustered in the embedding space compared to random distribution on a sphere. Let $\tilde{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ be the normalized embeddings.

$$\text{SelfCluster}(H) = \frac{\|\tilde{H}\tilde{H}^\top\|_F - n - n \times (n-1)/d}{n^2 - n - n \times (n-1)/d}$$

E Scalability

While our framework performs well on graphs of moderate size (up to 19k nodes, e.g., the Pubmed citation network), scalability remains a challenge. The bootstrapping procedure and CCA-based evaluation introduce significant additional computation, which can limit applicability to larger graphs. In particular, when applying our method to the OGBN-Arxiv dataset (over 170k nodes), we encountered substantial runtime challenges that made the process very time-consuming.

The main limitation, however, stems from the need to train multiple graph neural networks (GNNs) during the bootstrapping process. This requirement significantly increases the computational cost, but it is essential to ensure robust hyperparameter selection, especially in high-precision applications such as finance or biomedical domains, where reliability and unbiased evaluation are critical.

To address scalability challenges, we have begun exploring two strategies (1) block bootstrapping where the graph is partitioned into smaller subgraphs and bootstrapping is applied within blocks; and (2) approximate rewiring schemes to reduce computational overhead during resampling. Preliminary results for block bootstrapping, presented in D.4, suggest that this direction holds promise.

E.1 Alternative Algorithm for Scalability

Algorithm 6 Approximate Edge Rewiring via A^2

- 1: **Input:** Graph $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ with $n = |\mathcal{V}|$ nodes, flattened list of edge stems $L = \{u \mid u \in E[:, 0]\} \cup \{v \mid v \in E[:, 1]\}$, where $E \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{E}| \times 2}$, and the squared adjacency matrix A^2 representing 2-hop connectivity strengths between nodes.
 - 2: Initialize an empty graph $G' = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}')$ with n nodes.
 - 3: Compute the sparse adjacency matrix A of G and symmetrize it to ensure it is undirected.
 - 4: Compute the matrix product $A^2 = A \times A$, remove self-loops by setting the diagonal of A^2 to zero, and eliminate any zero entries.
 - 5: **while** $\text{len}(L) > 0$ **do**
 - 6: Sample a source node u uniformly at random from the list L , and remove it from L .
 - 7: Retrieve the set of candidate nodes v for u , where each candidate v satisfies $A_{uv}^2 > 0$ and $v \neq u$, and where $v \in L$.
 - 8: If no such candidate exists, discard u and continue to the next iteration.
 - 9: Otherwise, sample a target node v from the set of candidates according to the normalized weights given by A_{uv}^2 .
 - 10: Remove the sampled node v from the list L .
 - 11: Add an undirected edge between u and v in the graph G' .
 - 12: **end while**
 - 13: **Output:** Bootstrapped graph G' with resampled edge structure.
-

The original edge rewiring algorithm (Algorithm 2 explores a node’s local 1-hop neighborhood at each iteration. For a randomly selected node u , it first identifies its k -nearest neighbors based on some graph-based distance, then for each k -nearest neighbor m , it retrieves all direct neighbors $\mathcal{N}_A(m)$ in the original graph. The node u samples a new connection v from this dynamically built candidate set, with probabilities weighted by the frequency of appearance across different m . This ensures that edge resampling captures local neighborhood information around each node. However, this procedure incurs high computational cost because it needs to explore multiple neighborhoods at every rewiring step.

The approximate algorithm (Algorithm 6) instead precomputes the 2-hop neighborhood connectivity of the graph by squaring the adjacency matrix, yielding A^2 . Here, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the (symmetric)

adjacency matrix of the graph, and A_{ij}^2 counts the number of distinct 2-hop paths between nodes i and j . In this setting, each node u directly samples a target node v from the 2-hop neighbors based on their weighted connection strength given by A_{uv}^2 . The sampling probability is proportional to the number of 2-hop paths between u and v , i.e.,

$$P(v|u) = \frac{A_{uv}^2}{\sum_{v' \in \mathcal{C}(u)} A_{uv'}^2},$$

643 where $\mathcal{C}(u)$ is the set of candidates for node u with positive 2-hop connectivity and available stems.
 644 If no candidates are found, the algorithm discards u and continues.

645 The relationship between Algorithm 2 and the approximate method (Algorithm 6) depends on the
 646 degree of each node and the choice of k for the k -nearest neighbor graph. Specifically, whether the
 647 candidate set in the original method is larger or smaller than the set of direct neighbors depends on
 648 the comparison between a node’s degree and the size of k . If a node u has a low degree, meaning it is
 649 connected to only a few nodes in the original graph, then the k -nearest neighbor (k -NN) graph will
 650 forcefully connect it to k other nodes based on feature similarity or graph distance, even if u does
 651 not have that many direct connections. In this case, the k -NN set can be larger than the direct 1-hop
 652 neighbor set. The original algorithm supplements the missing local structure by adding neighbors
 653 based on external feature similarity rather than existing edges. Consequently, when $\deg(u) < k$, the
 654 original rewiring may result in a broader candidate set than the direct neighborhood.

655 On the other hand, if a node u has a high degree, meaning it is already connected to many nodes in
 656 the adjacency graph, then the k -nearest neighbor graph selects only a subset of its many neighbors.
 657 Here, k -NN acts as a filter, choosing the most “important” or closest k neighbors, possibly ignoring
 658 others. In this case, because k is smaller than the degree, the k -NN candidate set becomes smaller
 659 than the full direct neighborhood. When $\deg(u) \geq k$, the original algorithm is thus more restrictive
 660 compared to simply traversing all direct neighbors.

661 Therefore, the original algorithm is not always narrower or broader by default; it depends on the
 662 relative size of a node’s degree and k . This behavior is different from the approximate method using
 663 A^2 , where no such filtering exists. The approximate method (Algorithm 6) uses all nodes that are
 664 reachable in exactly two hops, without considering feature space distances or k -nearest neighbor
 665 constraints. As a result, the approximate method includes any node with a 2-hop path from a node u ,
 666 potentially adding candidates that would never have been explored in the original method, especially
 667 when the node’s degree is small and the k -NN graph must reach out to faraway nodes.

F GNN Experiment Details

We use benchmark datasets for node classification, including Cora, Pubmed, and Citeseer, and test our framework on node regression datasets from Huang et al. (2023). We summarize the datasets used to demonstrate the entire hyperparameter tuning procedure in Table 4.

We consider various benchmark datasets for node classification tasks, including Cora, Pubmed, Citeseer. Additionally, we have tested our framework on a few datasets for the node regression by Huang et al. (2023). To demonstrate our full framework for hyperparameter tuning, we used the following datasets, and their details are summarized in Table 4.

Dataset	Num Nodes	Num Edges	Num Classes	Description	Source
Cora	2708	5429	7	Citation network	PyTorch Geometric
Citeseer	3327	4732	6	Citation network	PyTorch Geometric
Pubmed	19717	44338	3	Citation network	PyTorch Geometric
Amazon Photo	7650	119081	8	Product co-purchasing network	PyTorch Geometric
Amazon Computers	13752	245861	10	Product co-purchasing network	PyTorch Geometric
Coauthor CS	18333	81894	15	Coauthorship network	PyTorch Geometric
Anaheim	914	3881	–	Graph of transportation networks	Conformalized GNN (Huang et al., 2023)
ChicagoSketch	2176	15104	–	Urban traffic network (sketch)	Conformalized GNN (Huang et al., 2023)
County Education	3234	12717	–	County-level education metrics (2012)	Conformalized GNN (Huang et al., 2023)
Twitch PTBR	1912	3170	–	Brazilian Twitch interactions	Conformalized GNN (Huang et al., 2023)

Table 4: Summary of benchmark datasets used for the experiments, including both classification and regression datasets.

The followings are tested combinations of hyperparameters, including different types of unsupervised GNN models.

- model: {CCA-SSG, DGI, BGRL, GRACE}
- feature masking rate (FMR): {0.05, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75}
- edge dropping rate (EDR): {0.05, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75}
- λ (CCA-SSG, BGRL) or τ (GRACE): $\{10^{-5}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-2}, 10^{-1}, 1.0, 10.0\}$
- number of layers: 2
- hidden dimension: 256
- output dimension (p): 8
- learning rate: 10^{-3}
- epochs: 500
- number of simulations for each dataset (n_b): 20

F.1 Computer Resources Used

The experiments in this study were conducted using a combination of personal and institutional computational resources. Preliminary analyses and prototyping were performed on a MacBook Pro with an Intel Core i7 processor and 16GB of RAM. For larger-scale experiments, including graph bootstrapping and downstream evaluations, we used high-performance computing resources provided by the institution’s research cluster, which includes access to multi-core CPUs and GPU-enabled nodes. While execution time varied by dataset and task, typical runs for clustering and evaluation completed within a few hours. Detailed resource specifications and runtime profiles are available upon request to support reproducibility.

697 G Additional Tables and Figures

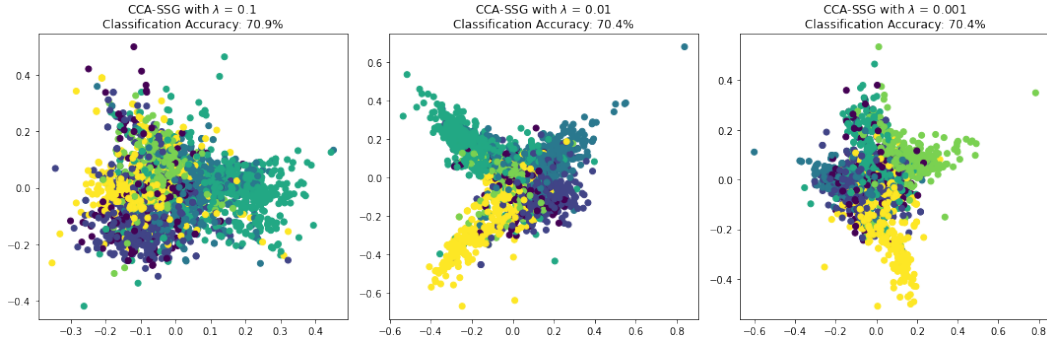


Figure 4: CiteSeer: Model trained by different hyperparameters. 2D Visualization through PCA. The learned representations vary by the choice of hyperparameters.

698 G.1 Validation of Metrics

699 **Synthetic Datasets.** The motivation for using synthetic data is that we know the exact data-
700 generating process (DGP), enabling us to replicate the dataset and focus on validating our metric. By
701 controlling the DGP, we remove confounding factors related to real-world data and can better isolate
702 and evaluate the performance of algorithms and metrics.

703 In this synthetic dataset generation, we create spatially structured data using a simple Gaussian blob.
704 We first define n cluster centers and standard deviations to simulate spatial groupings in a 2D space,
705 which belong to distinct clusters. For each point, we generate a 32-dimensional feature vector, with
706 features generated from Laplacian eigenmap by Belkin and Niyogi (2001). The final dataset includes
707 2D spatial coordinates, cluster labels, and 32-dimensional feature vectors. We generated 15 copies of
708 graphs following the same (and known) data-generating process. We run the procedure (Algorithm 3)
709 and compute the metrics’ average and prediction accuracy (Figure 5). Our proposed metric matches
710 the clustering alignments (NMI, ARI) and shows a strong negative correlation with accuracy.

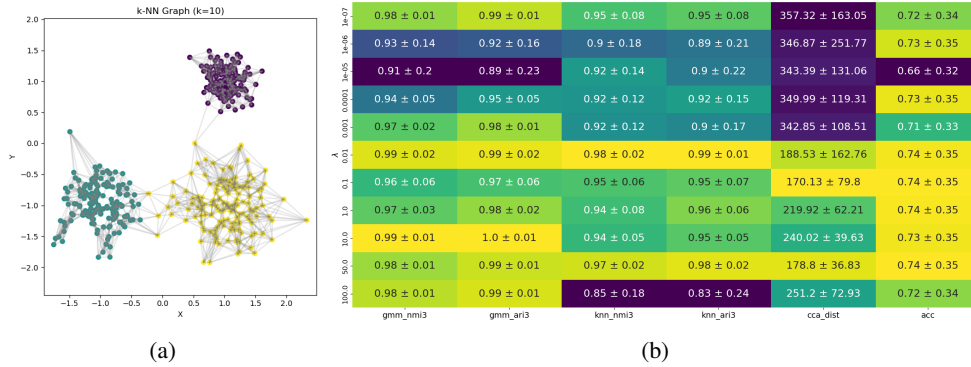


Figure 5: Summary of synthetic dataset and experiment results. The proposed metric and prediction accuracy show a strong negative Spearman rank correlation (-0.71).

711 G.1.1 Application to Spatial Single-Cell Datasets

712 There is a growing demand for robust computational tools that can extract biologically meaningful
713 representations across heterogeneous samples. In such applications, it is crucial to obtain consistent
714 and high-quality embeddings that generalize across samples while preserving fine-grained spatial
715 structure. Our proposed metric is particularly well-suited for this goal, as it evaluates the stability
716 and informativeness of unsupervised embeddings without requiring labeled data. When annotations

are available, we further demonstrate that our method aligns closely with manual labels, exhibiting strong spatial continuity and biological interpretability across a range of datasets.

Mouse Spleen (CODEX) We apply our procedure to a high-resolution spatial proteomics dataset of the mouse spleen from Goltsev et al. (2018). This dataset, generated using CO-Detection by Indexing (CODEX), provides single-cell spatial and phenotypic profiles of immune cells across intact spleen tissue. With over 30 measured protein markers, it enables precise mapping of cell types, functional states, and spatial interactions at sub-tissue resolution. The dataset preserves key anatomical compartments—including T cell zones, B cell follicles, and red and white pulp—and highlights how spatial arrangement corresponds to immune function, such as structured lymphocyte zones and compartmentalized myeloid populations. We also have an access to the expert annotated labels, which we report the accuracy against it in Table 2. Figure 6 also reflects varying quality of learned embeddings by the choice of λ .

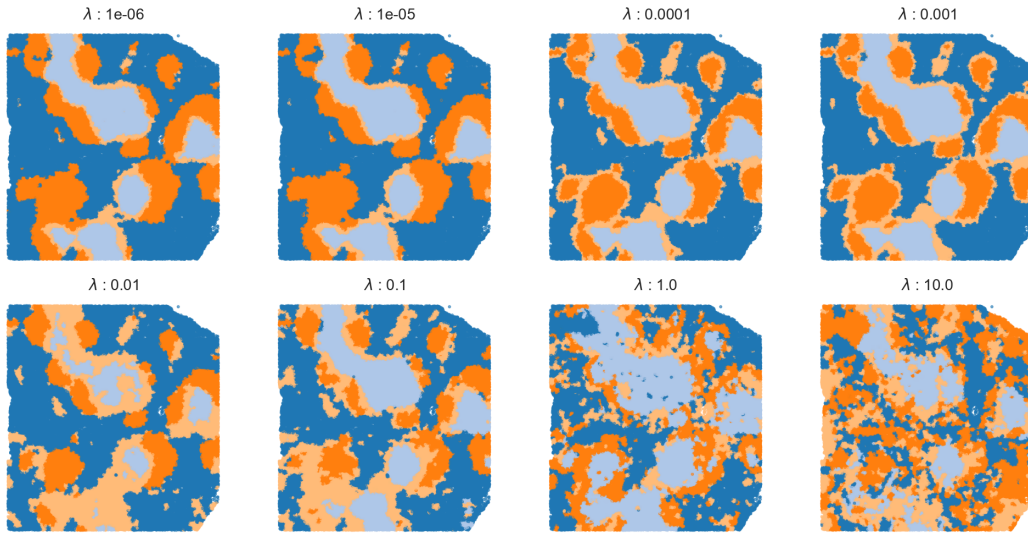


Figure 6: Visualizations of mouse spleen CODEX data based on the output of CCA-SSG model with different λ settings. We can observe that depending on the choice of λ , the quality of expression varies a lot. When λ becomes too large, the learned representation fail to recover the underlying cell environments. See Section 2.2.1 for the setup.

Triple Negative Breast Cancer Dataset The dataset from Keren et al. (2018) comprises MIBI-TOF imaging data from 41 TNBC patients, capturing the spatial expression of 36 proteins across tumor, immune, and regulatory markers at subcellular resolution. Tumors are classified into three immune architectures—cold, mixed, and compartmentalized—based on spatial patterns of immune infiltration, cell type organization, and marker expression. Compartmentalized tumors are linked to the best survival outcomes. Mixed tumors, featuring intermingled tumor and immune cells with high CD8+ T cell and checkpoint marker expression, may benefit from immunotherapy. Cold tumors show sparse immune presence and poor prognosis. Among these, the mixed and compartmentalized tumor microenvironments (TMEs) represent favorable immune architectures that the authors aim to recover, as they are identified through a combination of cell type composition, spatial organization, and marker expression profiles. We predict such group (mixed vs. comparatmentalized) based on the learned embeddings. The AUC for the prediction is reported in Table 2.

Colorectal Cancer Dataset The colorectal cancer (CRC) dataset from Schürch et al. (2020) includes 140 tissue regions from 35 advanced-stage CRC patients, profiled using FFPE-CODEX imaging with 56 protein markers to identify diverse cell populations within the tumor microenvironment (TME). The study identified nine distinct cellular neighborhoods (CNs) through unsupervised clustering of spatial co-occurrence patterns, revealing how the spatial organization of immune and stromal cells shapes immune responses. Two major immune architectures emerged (1) Crohn’s-like reaction (CLR), associated with structured immune infiltration and favorable outcomes, and (2)

diffuse inflammatory infiltration (DII), marked by disorganized immune presence and poor prognosis. These TMEs, distinguished by differences in cell types, spatial arrangements, and marker expression, represent the patterns the authors aim to recover, as they reflect clinically relevant immune organization associated with patient survival. The AUC for the predicting such group (CLR vs. DII) is reported in Table 2.

G.2 Validation of Bootstrap Samples

	True	Solution 1	Solution 2 (graph k-NN)
Number of Nodes	2708	2708±0	2708±0
Number of Edges	5278	5200.54±9	5171.78±7.34
Average Degree	3.8980	3.84±0.01	3.82±0.01
Density	0.0014	0±0	0±0
Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.2407	0.01±0	0.05±0
Avg Connected Component	78	13.16±3.26	67.91±6.7
Giant Component Size	2485	2684.28±6.51	2620.38±10.78
Assortativity	-0.0659	-0.06±0	-0.07±0
PageRank	1353.5	1353.5±0	1353.5±0
Transitivity	0.0935	0.01±0	0.03±0
Number of Triangles	1630	133.96±11.62	471.48±27.11

Table 5: Graph statistics for Cora illustrating the two solutions suggested in Section 2.1. We see the clear deviation on graph statistics, especially the average connected component and the number of triangles when we follow the *Solution 1*.

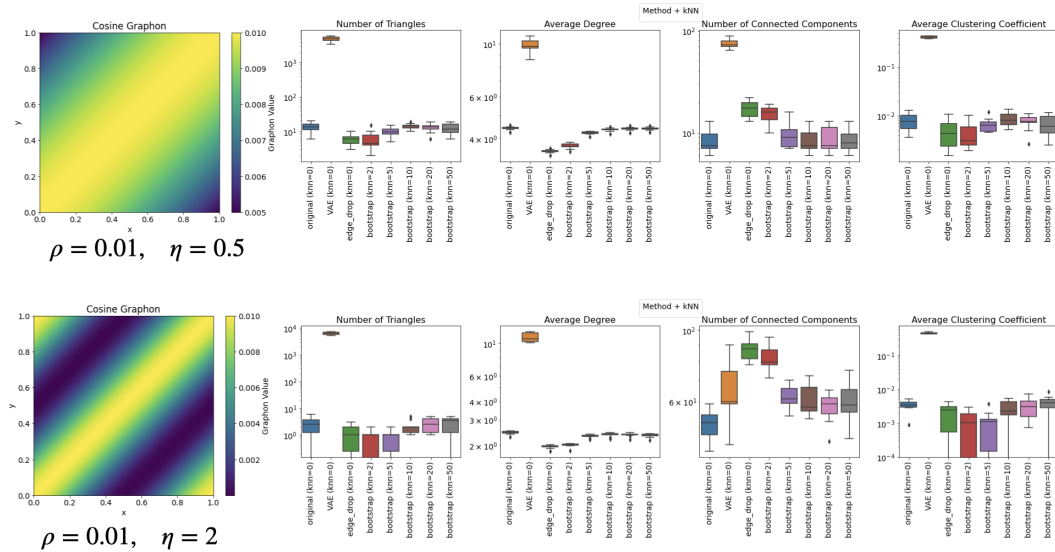


Figure 7: Visualization of the statistics obtained by different methods. The left most plot in each row corresponds to a visualization of the graphon function $W(x, y) = \rho * (1 + \cos(\eta\pi \cdot (x - y)))/2$, for $\rho = 0.01$ and different values of η . Each row presents a visualization of 10 instances of a resampling of a graphon generated according to W using different methods.

		True	Edge Drop	Node Drop	Ours	NB	VAE
Scenario 1	Assortativity	-0.0345	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	-0.44±0.05
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0.12±0.01
	Avg Degree	0.12	0.12±0	0.1±0.01	0.08±0	0.04±0.02	2.63±0.47
	Density	0.0002	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0.01±0
	Giant Component Size	3	2.93±0.26	2.53±0.5	2.79±0.4	4.12±1.36	90.08±8.22
	Num Connected Components	470	471.13±0.87	380.72±2.44	480±1.15	492.81±3.52	410.89±8.21
	Num Edges	30	28.87±0.87	19.28±2.44	20±1.15	8.82±5.12	657.73±118.12
	Num Nodes	500	500±0	400±0	500±0	500±0	500±0
	Num Triangles	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	1.48±2.22	3060.65±1108.48
Scenario 2	PageRank	249.5	249.5±0	199.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0
	Transitivity	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0.33±0.31	0.47±0.05
	Assortativity	-0.0227	-0.02±0.01	-0.02±0.04	-0.02±0.03	0.01±0.04	0.04±0.04
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0.0064	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.02±0.01	0.16±0.01
	Avg Degree	3.224	3.1±0.02	2.58±0.07	3.2±0.01	3.68±0.29	3.13±0.09
	Density	0.0065	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Giant Component Size	479	475.02±2.21	360.97±6.3	481.21±2.64	407.42±11.16	70.91±7.09
	Num Connected Components	18	21.41±1.81	33.23±4.71	17.89±1.25	91.93±10.74	391.57±4.03
	Num Edges	806	774.11±4.42	515.92±13.17	801.17±1.81	921±71.47	782.12±21.59
Scenario 3	Num Nodes	500	500±0	400±0	500±0	500±0	500±0
	Num Triangles	7	6.16±0.89	3.59±1.35	5.42±2.36	68.31±21.3	4469.92±189.99
	PageRank	249.5	249.5±0	199.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0
	Transitivity	0.0083	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.04±0.01	0.69±0.01
	Assortativity	-0.0227	-0.02±0.01	-0.02±0.04	-0.01±0.03	0.01±0.04	-0.58±0.06
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0.0064	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.02±0.01	0.11±0.02
	Avg Degree	3.224	3.1±0.02	2.58±0.07	3.21±0.01	3.68±0.29	1.28±0.18
	Density	0.0065	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0±0
	Giant Component Size	479	475.02±2.21	360.97±6.3	481.2±2.77	407.42±11.16	49.52±10.72
Scenario 4	Num Connected Components	18	21.41±1.81	33.23±4.71	17.84±1.28	91.93±10.74	421.24±11.14
	Num Edges	806	774.11±4.42	515.92±13.17	801.7±1.61	921±71.47	321.11±45.67
	Num Nodes	500	500±0	400±0	500±0	500±0	500±0
	Num Triangles	7	6.16±0.89	3.59±1.35	5.74±2.34	68.31±21.3	798.48±165.04
	PageRank	249.5	249.5±0	199.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0
	Transitivity	0.0083	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.04±0.01	0.46±0.06
	Assortativity	-0.0833	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	-0.02±0.11
	Avg ClusteringCoefficient	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0.01	0.23±0.01
	Avg Degree	0.104	0.1±0	0.08±0.01	0.07±0.01	0.04±0.02	7.39±0.37
Scenario 4	Density	0.0002	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0.01±0
	Giant Component Size	3	3±0.06	2.77±0.42	2.58±0.49	4.28±1.43	81.19±7.89
	Num Connected Components	474	475.1±0.82	383.45±2.4	482.85±1.29	492.15±3.75	350.19±9.04
	Num Edges	26	24.9±0.82	16.55±2.4	17.15±1.29	9.68±5.66	1847.28±91.84
	Num Nodes	500	500±0	400±0	500±0	500±0	500±0
	Num Triangles	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	1.75±2.65	19727.09±959.62
	PageRank	249.5	249.5±0	199.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0
	Transitivity	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0.34±0.32	0.75±0.02

Table 6: Comparison of all sampling methods on graphon model as posited in Equation 1. The ground truth graphon is generated with $n = 500$, $p = 150$, $k = 20$. For each methods, 500 (bootstrap) samples are generated. For edge and node drop, we randomly remove 20% of edges or nodes (and corresponding edges). Our proposed nonparametric bootstrap consistently achieves significant similarities with the ground truth graph under different scenarios.

754 We analyze four scenarios (each in Table 7, 8, 9, and 10) of recovering the underlying dependency by
755 our proposed nonparametric bootstrap method either through graph-knn or feature-knn. The graph is
756 generated by the model posited in Equation 1 with varying graphon function W and feature generator
757 g .

		graph-kNN				feature-kNN		
		Original	k = 5	k=20	k=50	k = 5	k=20	k=50
n= 100	Assortativity					0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg Degree	0.02	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Density	0.0002	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Giant Component Size	2	1±0	1±0	1±0	1±0	1±0	1±0
	Num Connected Components	99	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0
	Num Edges	1	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Num Nodes	100	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0
	Num Triangles	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	PageRank	49.5	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0
	Transitivity	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
n=500	Assortativity	-0.0345	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg Degree	0.12	0±0	0.01±0	0.02±0	0.04±0.01	0.08±0	0.11±0
	Density	0.0002	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Giant Component Size	3	2.04±0.82	2.32±0.47	2.34±0.47	2±0	2.79±0.4	2.94±0.24
	Num Connected Components	470	498.96±0.82	497.07±0.82	495.4±0.96	489.19±1.61	480±1.15	472.94±0.86
	Num Edges	30	1.04±0.82	2.93±0.82	4.6±0.96	10.81±1.61	20±1.15	27.06±0.86
	Num Nodes	500	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0
	Num Triangles	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	PageRank	249.5	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0
	Transitivity	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
n=1000	Assortativity	-0.112	-0.39±0.15	-0.36±0.14	-0.33±0.13	0±0	-0.01±0.11	-0.02±0.08
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg Degree	0.182	0.03±0.01	0.03±0.01	0.04±0.01	0.09±0.01	0.14±0	0.17±0
	Density	0.0002	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Giant Component Size	4	3.45±0.5	3.42±0.49	3.46±0.51	3.37±0.49	4.06±0.6	4.23±0.48
	Num Connected Components	909	984.21±2.87	983.32±2.82	980.71±2.92	955.1±2.99	928.42±2.25	916.2±1.51
	Num Edges	91	15.79±2.87	16.68±2.82	19.29±2.92	44.9±2.99	71.6±2.24	83.81±1.51
	Num Nodes	1000	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0
	Num Triangles	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0.02±0.13	0±0.06
	PageRank	499.5	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0
	Transitivity	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0.01±0.04	0±0.01

Table 7: Scenario 1: the graph structure is highly localized ($W(u, v) = \mathbb{1}\{|u - v| < 0.01\}$), leading to disconnected components and the failure of graph-based kNN, while features ($\mathcal{N}(5u, 0.01)$) exhibit a strong correlation with the latent variable u , enabling feature-based kNN success. The greyed-out cells indicate values that are unavailable.

		graph-kNN				feature-kNN		
		Original	k = 5	k=20	k=50	k = 5	k=20	k=50
n=100	Assortativity	0.2884	-0.24±0.16	-0.12±0.18	-0.13±0.17	-0.01±0.19	-0.11±0.17	-0.1±0.17
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg Degree	0.66	0.37±0.03	0.49±0.03	0.6±0.02	0.53±0.03	0.63±0.02	0.65±0.01
	Density	0.0067	0±0	0±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Giant Component Size	8	6.15±1.21	6.36±1.4	5.97±1.23	5.22±1.26	5.86±1.25	6.09±1.39
	Num Connected Components	67	81.9±1.59	75.54±1.45	70.24±1.24	73.58±1.56	68.5±0.79	67.6±0.56
	Num Edges	33	18.27±1.57	24.54±1.44	29.78±1.24	26.44±1.55	31.52±0.79	32.41±0.55
	Num Nodes	100	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0
	Num Triangles	0	0±0	0.02±0.15	0.02±0.13	0.01±0.12	0.01±0.12	0.01±0.12
	PageRank	49.5	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0
n=500	Transitivity	0	0±0	0.01±0.03	0±0.03	0±0.03	0±0.02	0±0.02
	Assortativity	-0.0359	-0.12±0.03	-0.08±0.03	-0.08±0.03	-0.04±0.03	-0.02±0.03	-0.01±0.04
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0.0052	0±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Avg Degree	3.076	2.91±0.02	3.03±0.01	3.02±0.01	2.96±0.02	3.06±0.01	3.07±0
	Density	0.0062	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Giant Component Size	471	463.59±3.66	466.91±3.48	468.15±3.02	466.85±3.11	469.38±2.64	469.54±2.58
	Num Connected Components	29	34.37±2.24	31.73±1.94	31.15±1.79	32.07±1.91	29.84±1.27	29.66±1.23
	Num Edges	769	727.53±5.05	757.88±2.53	756.11±2.92	740.32±4.78	764.09±1.75	767.16±1.04
	Num Nodes	500	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0
	Num Triangles	7	4.08±2.01	5.03±2.33	5.09±2.33	4.54±2.05	5.37±2.38	5.48±2.33
n=1000	PageRank	249.5	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0
	Transitivity	0.0087	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Assortativity	0.0122	-0.05±0.02	-0.03±0.02	-0.04±0.02	-0.01±0.02	0±0.02	0±0.02
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0.0078	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Avg Degree	6.594	6.37±0.02	6.56±0.01	6.59±0	6.5±0.01	6.58±0	6.59±0
	Density	0.0066	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Giant Component Size	999	998.74±0.5	998.98±0.13	999±0.06	998.94±0.26	998.99±0.08	998.99±0.15
	Num Connected Components	2	2.25±0.5	2.02±0.13	2±0.06	2.06±0.25	2.01±0.08	2.01±0.1
	Num Edges	3297	3185.15±9.77	3281.22±3.6	3293.46±1.6	3248.4±6.06	3289.46±2.37	3294.19±1.49
	Num Nodes	1000	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0
n=1000	Num Triangles	50	40.6±6.86	47.34±6.66	48.53±6.7	46.97±6.8	50.03±7.75	50.54±7.07
	PageRank	499.5	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0
	Transitivity	0.0069	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Assortativity	0.0122	-0.05±0.02	-0.03±0.02	-0.04±0.02	-0.01±0.02	0±0.02	0±0.02

Table 8: Scenario 2 has a well-structured graph ($W(u, v) = 1 - |u - v|$), ensuring graph kNN success, but highly oscillatory features ($\sin(10u) + \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1)$) disrupt feature-based kNN.

		graph-kNN				feature-kNN		
		Original	k = 5	k=20	k=50	k = 5	k=20	k=50
n= 100	Assortativity	-0.0344	-0.15±0.14	-0.08±0.15	-0.06±0.14	-0.05±0.15	-0.09±0.16	-0.08±0.15
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0	0±0	0±0.01	0±0.01	0±0.01	0±0.01	0±0.01
	Avg Degree	0.78	0.56±0.03	0.66±0.03	0.74±0.02	0.65±0.03	0.75±0.01	0.77±0.01
	Density	0.0079	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Giant Component Size	13	10.37±2.03	10.83±3.2	13.93±3.78	10.35±3.12	13.05±3.86	13.88±3.95
	Num Connected Components	62	72.71±1.53	67.23±1.49	63.09±1.09	67.71±1.65	62.69±0.85	61.78±0.7
	Num Edges	39	27.91±1.45	32.95±1.43	37.19±1	32.46±1.63	37.52±0.73	38.46±0.56
	Num Nodes	100	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0
	Num Triangles	0	0.01±0.09	0.1±0.31	0.12±0.34	0.09±0.31	0.1±0.3	0.11±0.32
	PageRank	49.5	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0
	Transitivity	0	0±0.01	0.01±0.04	0.01±0.03	0.01±0.04	0.01±0.03	0.01±0.03
n=500	Assortativity	-0.009	-0.09±0.03	-0.09±0.03	-0.11±0.03	-0.05±0.03	-0.02±0.04	-0.02±0.03
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0.00575685	0±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Avg Degree	3.228	3.07±0.02	3.19±0.01	3.19±0.01	3.15±0.01	3.21±0.01	3.22±0
	Density	0.0065	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Giant Component Size	479	473.05±3	474.67±2.97	476.17±2.19	476.13±2.16	476.77±2.06	476.69±2.09
	Num Connected Components	22	26.44±2	24.65±1.57	23.92±1.34	23.9±1.29	23.14±0.99	23.14±1.01
	Num Edges	807	766.71±5.09	796.85±2.43	796.3±2.54	787.46±3.64	802.61±1.64	805.05±1.07
	Num Nodes	500	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0
	Num Triangles	8	4.08±2.03	5.18±2.31	5.23±2.25	4.94±2.15	5.97±2.44	6.02±2.59
	PageRank	249.5	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0
	Transitivity	0.0094	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
n=1000	Assortativity	0.0014	-0.06±0.02	-0.03±0.02	-0.06±0.02	0±0.02	0.01±0.02	0.01±0.02
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0.0077	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Avg Degree	6.584	6.36±0.02	6.55±0.01	6.58±0	6.53±0.01	6.57±0	6.58±0
	Density	0.0066	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Giant Component Size	997	996.68±0.63	996.94±0.31	996.99±0.15	996.97±0.19	996.96±0.28	996.98±0.2
	Num Connected Components	4	4.3±0.57	4.04±0.19	4.01±0.1	4.03±0.19	4.02±0.15	4.01±0.11
	Num Edges	3292	3179.28±10.22	3276.36±3.69	3288.4±1.53	3262.62±4.73	3285.76±2.2	3289.42±1.38
	Num Nodes	1000	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0
	Num Triangles	60	47.84±7.03	49.11±7.17	50.94±7.08	50.74±6.88	55.12±6.99	55.54±7.53
	PageRank	499.5	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0
	Transitivity	0.0082	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0

Table 9: Scenario 3 maintains a structured graph ($W(u, v) = 1 - |u - v|$) and smooth feature variation ($\mathcal{N}(5u, 0.01)$), leading to the success of both methods.

		graph-kNN				feature-kNN		
		Original	k = 5	k=20	k=50	k = 5	k=20	k=50
n= 100	Assortativity					0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg Degree	0.02	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Density	0.00020202	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Giant Component Size	2	1±0	1±0	1±0	1±0	1±0	1±0
	Num Connected Components	99	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0
	Num Edges	1	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Num Nodes	100	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0	100±0
	Num Triangles	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	PageRank	49.5	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0	49.5±0
	Transitivity	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
n=500	Assortativity	-0.2	0±0	-0.34±0.19	0±0	0±0	0±0	-0.15±0.1
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg Degree	0.12	0.02±0.01	0.03±0.01	0.04±0.01	0.04±0.01	0.08±0.01	0.11±0
	Density	0.00024048	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Giant Component Size	3	2.89±0.31	3.11±0.32	3.07±0.26	2.8±0.4	3±0.04	3.16±0.37
	Num Connected Components	470	494.14±1.63	491.73±1.63	489.81±1.48	489.6±1.66	480.53±1.37	472.85±1.03
	Num Edges	30	5.86±1.63	8.27±1.63	10.19±1.48	10.4±1.66	19.47±1.37	27.15±1.03
	Num Nodes	500	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0	500±0
	Num Triangles	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	PageRank	249.5	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0	249.5±0
	Transitivity	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
n=1000	Assortativity	0.14150943	-0.15±0.16	-0.08±0.15	-0.06±0.13	-0.09±0.08	0±0.1	0±0.1
	Avg ClusterCoefficient	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg Degree	0.208	0.05±0.01	0.05±0.01	0.06±0.01	0.09±0.01	0.17±0	0.19±0
	Density	0.00020821	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Giant Component Size	7	6.31±0.8	6.18±0.86	6.21±0.86	3.39±0.6	4.58±0.75	5.22±0.98
	Num Connected Components	896	976.5±2.95	975.11±2.75	970.02±2.58	953.18±3.15	916.91±2.48	904±1.75
	Num Edges	104	23.71±2.94	25.15±2.76	30.18±2.55	46.82±3.15	83.11±2.48	96.01±1.74
	Num Nodes	1000	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0	1000±0
	Num Triangles	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0.02±0.13	0.01±0.09
	PageRank	499.5	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0	499.5±0
	Transitivity	0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0.03	0±0.01

Table 10: Scenario 4 combines a fragmented graph ($W(u, v) = \mathbb{1}\{|u - v| < 0.01\}$) with oscillatory features ($\sin(10u) + \mathcal{N}(0, 0.1)$), making the problem hard for both graph- and feature-based kNN. The greyed-out cells indicate values that are unavailable.

	Statistic	Original	k=3	k=5	k=7	k=10	k=15	k=20	k=50
Cora	Number of Nodes	2708	2708±0	2708±0	2708±0	2708±0	2708±0	2708±0	2708±0
	Number of Edges	5278	4793.52±14.73	4962.71±13.23	5035.19±12.52	5087.69±10.33	5154.92±9.11	5171.78±7.34	5196.15±7.42
	Average Degree	3.90	3.54±0.01	3.67±0.01	3.72±0.01	3.76±0.01	3.81±0.01	3.82±0.01	3.84±0.01
	Density	0.00	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.24	0.1±0.01	0.09±0	0.08±0	0.07±0	0.06±0	0.05±0	0.03±0
	Avg Connected Component	78	136.32±6.99	114.71±6.76	97.29±7.3	97.52±7	62.44±6.95	67.91±6.7	42.54±6.08
	Giant Component Size	2485	2479.92±19.9	2530.81±21.35	2571.64±18.39	2580.51±14.08	2625.44±11.64	2620.38±10.78	2652.33±9.41
	Assortativity	-0.07	-0.09±0	-0.09±0	-0.08±0	-0.08±0	-0.08±0	-0.07±0	-0.08±0
	PageRank	1353	1353.5±0	1353.5±0	1353.5±0	1353.5±0	1353.5±0	1353.5±0	1353.5±0
	Transitivity	0.09	0.04±0	0.04±0	0.04±0	0.03±0	0.03±0	0.03±0	0.02±0
Citeseer	Number of Triangles	1630	716.03±32.22	664.18±29.42	623.48±29.33	575.85±29.4	512.85±27.32	471.48±27.11	319.15±21.65
	Number of Nodes	3327	3327±0	3327±0	3327±0	3327±0	3327±0	3327±0	3327±0
	Number of Edges	4552	3846.33±15.1	3951.45±13.58	3997.51±13.36	4031.65±12.6	4059.15±11.71	4127.78±10.93	4150.58±11.39
	Average Degree	2.74	2.31±0.01	2.38±0.01	2.4±0.01	2.42±0.01	2.44±0.01	2.48±0.01	2.5±0.01
	Density	0.00	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.14	0.05±0	0.05±0	0.04±0	0.04±0	0.04±0	0.03±0	0.03±0
	Avg Connected Component	438	868.13±12.49	848.01±10.31	840.08±11.44	830.07±10.87	795.53±10.75	635.09±11.87	570.92±13.67
	Giant Component Size	2120	1934.25±42.19	2010.02±32.77	2043.56±31.79	2063.28±31.07	2098.62±36.32	2418.12±35.69	2585.67±23.96
	Assortativity	0.05	-0.02±0.01	-0.01±0.01	-0.01±0.01	0±0.01	0.01±0.01	-0.08±0	-0.1±0
	PageRank	1663	1663±0	1663±0	1663±0	1663±0	1663±0	1663±0	1663±0
ChicagoSketch	Transitivity	0.13	0.07±0	0.07±0	0.06±0	0.05±0	0.05±0	0.04±0	0.03±0
	Number of Triangles	1167	574.04±29.17	550.58±28.97	520.69±27.43	462.24±27.24	431.58±25.85	304.64±19.59	227.62±16.37
	Number of Nodes	2176	2176±0	2176±0	2176±0	2176±0	2176±0	2176±0	2176±0
	Number of Edges	15104	14505.33±22.7	14811.91±17.53	14914.4±14.51	14956.5±12.89	14999.55±11.49	15014.23±10.28	15066.34±5.57
	Average Degree	13.88	13.33±0.02	13.61±0.02	13.71±0.01	13.75±0.01	13.79±0.01	13.84±0.01	13.85±0.01
	Density	0.01	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.57	0.19±0	0.17±0	0.16±0	0.14±0	0.13±0	0.12±0	0.08±0
	Avg Connected Component	1	1±0	1±0	1±0	1±0	1±0	1±0	1±0
	Giant Component Size	2176	2176±0	2176±0	2176±0	2176±0	2176±0	2176±0	2176±0
	Assortativity	0.65	0.31±0.01	0.3±0.01	0.3±0.01	0.31±0.01	0.31±0.01	0.29±0.01	0.13±0.01
Twitch_PTBR	PageRank	1087	1087.5±0	1087.5±0	1087.5±0	1087.5±0	1087.5±0	1087.5±0	1087.5±0
	Transitivity	0.56	0.19±0	0.17±0	0.16±0	0.14±0	0.13±0	0.12±0	0.08±0
	Number of Triangles	38240	11919.95±119.57	11097.95±105.45	10402.11±108.83	9577.65±106.85	8637.74±102.45	8006.58±95.13	5592.24±76.04
	Number of Nodes	1912	1912±0	1912±0	1912±0	1912±0	1912±0	1912±0	1912±0
	Number of Edges	31299	30803.01±27.13	30985.09±25.09	31049.84±24.48	31076.91±23.3	31084.55±23.33	31082.05±22.83	31058.76±25.23
	Average Degree	32.74	32.22±0.03	32.41±0.03	32.48±0.03	32.51±0.02	32.52±0.02	32.51±0.02	32.49±0.03
	Density	0.02	0.02±0	0.02±0	0.02±0	0.02±0	0.02±0	0.02±0	0.02±0
	Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.32	0.17±0	0.17±0	0.17±0	0.17±0	0.17±0	0.17±0	0.17±0
	Avg Connected Component	1.00	1.33±0.55	1.17±0.4	1.2±0.44	1.26±0.5	1.19±0.44	1.14±0.39	1.07±0.25
	Giant Component Size	1912	1911.31±1.19	1911.64±0.84	1911.59±0.9	1911.47±1.01	1911.61±0.88	1911.72±0.77	1911.87±0.5
Education	Assortativity	-0.23	-0.31±0	-0.3±0	-0.3±0	-0.3±0	-0.29±0	-0.29±0	-0.28±0
	PageRank	955	955.5±0	955.5±0	955.5±0	955.5±0	955.5±0	955.5±0	955.5±0
	Transitivity	0.13	0.08±0	0.08±0	0.08±0	0.08±0	0.08±0	0.08±0	0.08±0
	Number of Triangles	173510	103368.74±1614.98	102572.23±1741.49	103379.78±1759.64	104007.92±1678.98	105301.1±1862.01	105534.51±1904.54	106230.23±1900.76
	Number of Nodes	3234	3234±0	3234±0	3234±0	3234±0	3234±0	3234±0	3234±0
	Number of Edges	12717	12449.4±13.31	12567.43±9.6	12593.18±8.39	12606.58±8.34	12616.48±7.7	12615.12±7.79	12608.38±8.42
	Average Degree	7.86	7.7±0.01	7.77±0.01	7.79±0.01	7.8±0.01	7.8±0	7.8±0	7.8±0.01
	Density	0.00	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0	0±0
	Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.43	0.19±0	0.17±0	0.15±0	0.14±0	0.12±0	0.12±0	0.12±0
	Avg Connected Component	17.00	2.24±0.5	1.2±0.44	1.13±0.37	1.14±0.36	1.27±0.55	1.64±0.79	4.14±1.56
Anaheim	Giant Component Size	3109	3155.56±2.16	3228.04±20.42	3233.87±40.37	3233.86±40.36	3233.73±40.55	3233.36±40.79	3230.86±1.56
	Assortativity	0.14	0.02±0.01	0.02±0.01	0.02±0.01	0.02±0.01	0.02±0.01	0.03±0.01	0.04±0.01
	PageRank	1616.50	1616.5±0	1616.5±0	1616.5±0	1616.5±0	1616.5±0	1616.5±0	1616.5±0
	Transitivity	0.39	0.19±0	0.16±0	0.15±0	0.13±0	0.12±0	0.12±0	0.11±0
	Number of Triangles	6490	5402.03±65.45	4712.47±56.84	4356.54±57.62	3980.89±58.92	3569.63±54.37	3486.89±53.63	3346.53±48.62
	Number of Nodes	914	914±0	914±0	914±0	914±0	914±0	914±0	914±0
	Number of Edges	3881	3557.23±17.18	3744.01±10.86	3804.45±8.77	3845.48±5.53	3855.53±4.2	3858.74±4.21	3855.93±4.51
	Average Degree	8.49	7.78±0.04	8.19±0.02	8.32±0.02	8.41±0.01	8.44±0.01	8.44±0.01	8.44±0.01
	Density	0.01	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.01±0
	Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.55	0.19±0.01	0.16±0.01	0.14±0	0.12±0	0.11±0	0.09±0	0.05±0
Anaheim	Avg Connected Component	1.00	1.17±0.42	1.1±0.33	1.09±0.29	1.05±0.22	1.02±0.15	1.01±0.1	1.01±0.08
	Giant Component Size	914	913.82±0.44	913.89±0.35	913.9±0.36	913.95±0.25	913.98±0.15	913.99±0.1	913.99±0.08
	Assortativity	0.71	0.51±0.01	0.45±0.01	0.41±0.01	0.39±0.01	0.39±0.01	0.39±0.01	0.15±0.01
	PageRank	456	456.5±0	456.5±0	456.5±0	456.5±0	456.5±0	456.5±0	456.5±0
	Transitivity	0.60	0.2±0	0.16±0	0.14±0	0.12±0	0.11±0	0.1±0	0.06±0
	Number of Triangles	7162	1968.36±46.38	1779.38±43.05	1575.97±39.58	1438.32±38.23	1270.53±35.34	1163.42±32.96	768.93±28.73

Table 11: Graph statistics of bootstrapped samples generated by Algorithm 2 with varying neighborhood size (k).

		Original	Edge Drop	Node Drop	Ours	Network Bootstrap	VAE
Cora	Assortativity	-0.07	-0.07 ± 0	-0.07 ± 0.01	-0.07±0	<u>-0.03 ± 0.03</u>	-0.43 ± 0
	Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.24	0.22 ± 0	0.17 ± 0.01	0.05±0	<u>0.02 ± 0.01</u>	0.5 ± 0
	Avg Degree	3.90	3.74 ± 0.01	2.63 ± 0.07	3.82±0.01	<u>2.11 ± 0.18</u>	10.04 ± 0.05
	Density	0.00	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	0±0	<u>0 ± 0</u>	0 ± 0
	Giant Component Size	2485	2457.77 ± 9.09	1819.98 ± 30.29	2620.38±10.78	1090.22 ± 41.05	1931.32 ± 9.06
	Num Connected Components	78	100.12 ± 4.7	587.49 ± 16.74	67.91±6.7	1595.93 ± 38.78	<u>777.68 ± 9.06</u>
	Num Edges	5278	5066.1 ± 11.78	3382.72 ± 87.72	5171.78±7.34	<u>2857.55 ± 244.83</u>	13598.31 ± 67.26
	Num Nodes	2708	2708 ± 0	2569.6 ± 9.32	2708±0	2708 ± 0	2708 ± 0
	Num Triangles	1630.00	1441.03 ± 20.11	835.13 ± 63.84	<u>471.48±27.11</u>	801.19 ± 338.24	78345.91 ± 643.03
	Pagerank	1353.50	1353.5 ± 0	1294.43 ± 4.23	1353.5±0	1353.5 ± 0	1353.5 ± 0
	Transitivity	0.09	0.09 ± 0	0.09 ± 0.01	0.03±0	<u>0.07 ± 0.01</u>	0.12 ± 0
TwitchPTBR	Assortativity	-0.23	-0.23±0	-0.23±0.01	-0.29±0	0±0	<u>-0.45±0</u>
	Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.32	0.25±0	0.26±0.01	<u>0.17±0</u>	0±0	0.41±0
	Avg Degree	32.74	26.19±0	21.87±0.84	32.51±0.02	0±0	<u>19.89±0.04</u>
	Density	0.02	0.01±0	0.01±0	0.02±0	0±0	<u>0.01±0</u>
	Giant Component Size	1912	1883.96±4.76	1506±5.9	1911.72±0.77	1±0	893.77±7.03
	Num Connected Components	1.00	28.12±4.49	325.55±8.23	1.14±0.39	1912±0	1016.37±6.87
	Num Edges	31299	25039±0	20029.75±776.17	31082.05±22.83	0±0	<u>19010.87±40.09</u>
	Num Nodes	1912	1912±0	1831.36±7.18	1912±0	1912±0	1912±0
	Num Triangles	173510	88756.59±980.58	89048.18±9052.57	105534.51±1904.54	0±0	332319.47±623.05
	Pagerank	955.50	955.5±0	921.8±3.18	955.5±0	955.5±0	955.5±0
	Transitivity	0.13	0.1±0	0.13±0	0.08±0	0±0	<u>0.31±0</u>
ChicagoSketch	Assortativity	0.65	456.5 ± 0	441.21 ± 2.15	0.29±0.01	456.5 ± 0	456.5 ± 0
	Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.57	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	0.12±0	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
	Avg Degree	13.88	0.48 ± 0	0.6 ± 0.01	13.8±0.01	0 ± 0	<u>0.59 ± 0.01</u>
	Density	0.01	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	0.01±0	<u>0 ± 0</u>	0 ± 0
	Giant Component Size	2176	2175.97 ± 0.18	1739.89 ± 0.44	2176±0	1 ± 0	<u>703.59 ± 6.77</u>
	Num Connected Components	1.00	1.03 ± 0.16	349.83 ± 7.54	1±0	2176 ± 0	<u>1473.41 ± 6.77</u>
	Num Edges	15104	12083 ± 0	9658.73 ± 46.97	15014.23±10.28	0 ± 0	<u>9156.6 ± 85.77</u>
	Num Nodes	2176	2176 ± 0	2088.77 ± 7.54	2176±0	2176 ± 0	2176 ± 0
	Num Triangles	38240	19576.4 ± 101.57	19554 ± 325.13	8006.58±95.13	0 ± 0	<u>83059.43 ± 1685.2</u>
	Pagerank	1087.50	1087.5 ± 0	1051.19 ± 3.29	1087.5±0	1087.5 ± 0	1087.5 ± 0
	Transitivity	0.56	0.45 ± 0	0.56 ± 0	<u>0.12±0</u>	0 ± 0	0.51 ± 0
Education	Assortativity	0.14	0.11 ± 0.01	0.33 ± 0.02	0.03±0.01	0 ± 0	-0.24 ± 0
	Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.43	0.34 ± 0	0.36 ± 0	<u>0.12±0</u>	0 ± 0	0.37 ± 0
	Avg Degree	7.86	6.29 ± 0	5.58 ± 0.02	7.8±0	<u>0 ± 0</u>	16.63 ± 0.07
	Density	0.00	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	0±0	0 ± 0	<u>0.01 ± 0</u>
	Giant Component Size	3109	3103.63 ± 2.38	2478.84 ± 8.39	3233.36±0.79	2.34 ± 0.94	<u>1826.67 ± 7.86</u>
	Num Connected Components	17	25.11 ± 2.6	539.85 ± 8.69	1.64±0.79	3231.81 ± 1.71	1408.33 ± 7.86
	Num Edges	12717	10173 ± 0	8654.72 ± 30.07	12615.12±7.79	<u>2.94 ± 2.91</u>	26887.73 ± 118.84
	Num Nodes	3234	3234 ± 0	3104.69 ± 8.44	3234±0	3234 ± 0	3234 ± 0
	Num Triangles	6490	3321.39 ± 32.58	3321.02 ± 37.46	3486.89±53.63	<u>0.96 ± 2.18</u>	257887.78 ± 2061.14
	Pagerank	1616.50	1616.5 ± 0	1562.58 ± 3.73	1616.5±0	1616.5 ± 0	1616.5 ± 0
	Transitivity	0.39	0.32 ± 0	0.39 ± 0	0.12±0	0.36 ± 0.48	<u>0.35 ± 0</u>
Anaheim	Assortativity	0.71	0.6 ± 0.01	0.69 ± 0.02	0.39±0.01		-0.15 ± 0.02
	Avg Clustering Coefficient	0.55	0.44 ± 0.01	0.46 ± 0.01	<u>0.09±0</u>		0.22 ± 0
	Avg Degree	8.49	6.79 ± 0	5.66 ± 0.08	8.44±0.01		5.06 ± 0.07
	Density	0.01	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	0.01±0		0 ± 0
	Giant Component Size	914	0.01 ± 0	0.01 ± 0	913.99±0.1		0.01 ± 0
	Num Connected Components	1.00	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	1.01±0.1		0 ± 0
	Num Edges	3881	911.49 ± 2.43	727.17 ± 3.63	3858.74±4.21		121.87 ± 13.67
	Num Nodes	914	2.8 ± 1.45	149.32 ± 5.24	914±0		645.81 ± 5.49
	Num Triangles	7162	3104 ± 0	2483.09 ± 37.24	1163.42±32.96		2311.09 ± 32.23
	Pagerank	456.50	914 ± 0	877.31 ± 4.94	456.5±0		914 ± 0
	transitivity	0.60	3661.41 ± 51.07	3667.47 ± 152.92	0.1±0		14770.14 ± 386.77

Table 12: Graph statistics of bootstrapped samples generated by Algorithm 2 with $k = 20$, simple generation with Edge or Node Drop (with $p = 0.2$), and network bootstrap (NB) (Levin and Levina, 2021) and the extended VAE approach in Appendix-D.4. The best values among our method, NB and VAE are bolded, and the second best values are underlined. The simple split methods largely distort the original connectivity structure, reflected in the Giant Component Size or the Number of Connected Components. Our proposed local bootstrap consistently mimics the original graph in terms of the reported graph statistics. The greyed-out cells indicate values that are unavailable due to instability encountered during training.

758 *Remark G.1.* When the graph structure is sufficiently informative for the underlying latent variable
759 distribution (see the differences in Table 7 and Table 9 for the graph-kNN case), the bootstrapped
760 graphs show noticeable robustness to the choice of k (the number of nearest neighbors). For example,
761 with 500 nodes and $k=20$, the bootstrapped graph retains about 98% of the original edges and
762 recovers approximately 70% of its triangles (see Table 8 for detailed statistics). Increasing k produces
763 progressively denser graphs with more edges and higher average degrees, but it also tends to lower
764 the clustering coefficient and reduce the number of triangles. Conversely, using a very small k leads
765 to sparser graphs that may preserve more local structure—reflected by higher clustering coefficients
766 and relatively more triangles per edge—but can underrepresent global connectivity, often resulting

in many small components. On real datasets, setting $k = 20$ typically recovers an edge count close to that of the original graph, though it still underestimates the original triangle count (see Table 11). Nonetheless, our proposed method produces graphs whose triangle counts more closely match the original than those generated by other methods (see Table 12).

G.3 Validation of the Entire Framework (Algorithm 3)

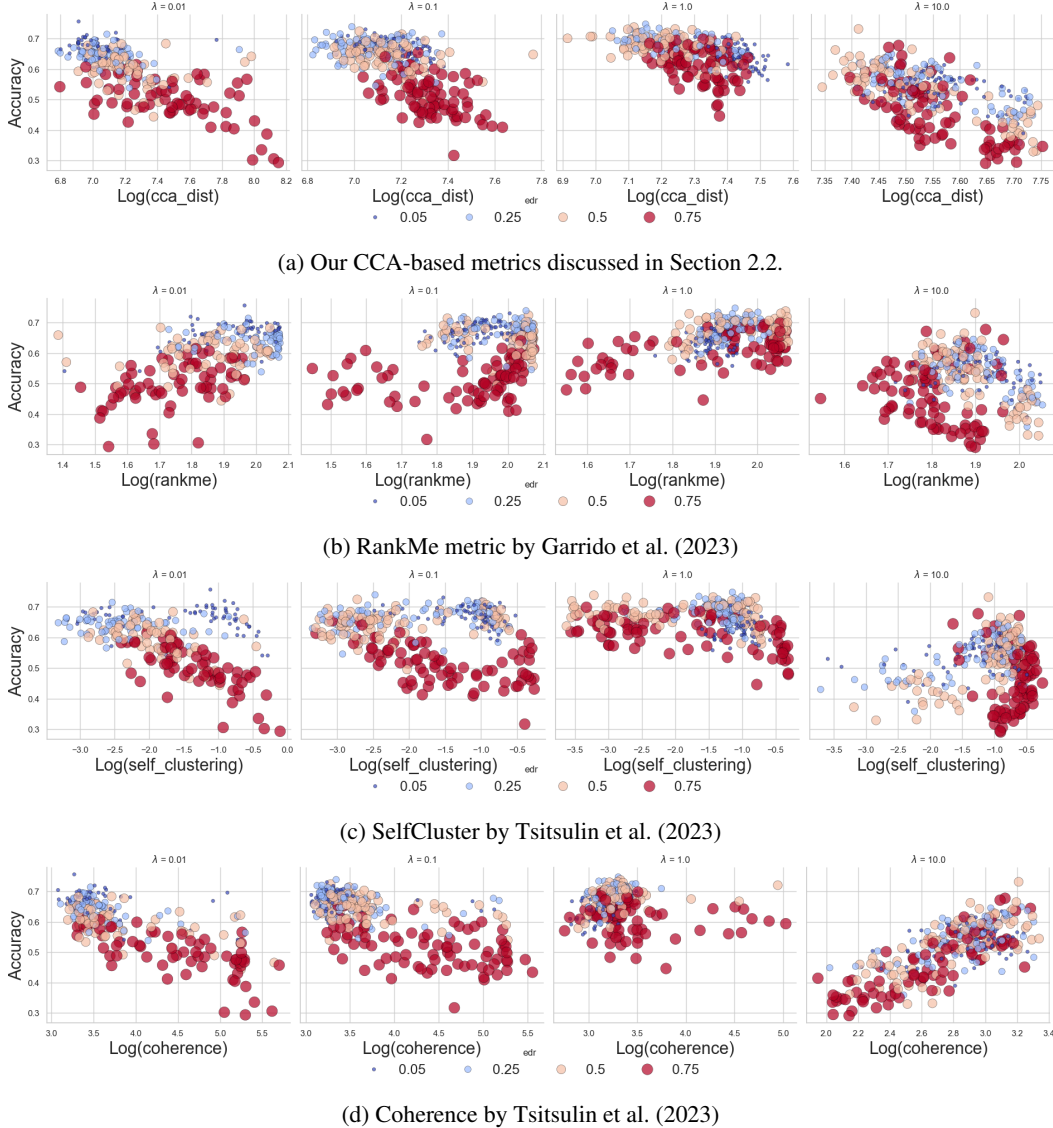


Figure 8: Visualizations of metrics value and classification accuracy on Cora. The CCA-SSG (Zhang et al., 2021) model is trained on set of hyperparameter combinations including λ , edge drop rate (EDR), and feature masking rate (FMR). Each point denotes the each combination of hyperparameters. The color denotes the edge dropping rate with blue dots referring small value ($edr = 0.05$) whereas the red dot referring to the large value ($edr = 0.75$). In this dataset, a clear negative correlation is noted for our metrics across all combinations of hyperparameters.

Dataset	Default	Ours	α -ReQ	pseudo- κ	RankME	NESum	SelfCluster	Stable Rank	Coherence
Cora	0.36	0.4	0.4	0.57	<u>0.55</u>	0.4	0.4	0.57	0.54
PubMed	0.62	0.68	0.67	0.74	0.67	0.67	<u>0.69</u>	0.74	0.74
Citeseer	0.32	0.42	0.42	0.42	0.42	0.42	0.42	0.42	0.42
CS	0.47	0.71	0.82	<u>0.75</u>	<u>0.75</u>	0.82	0.82	<u>0.75</u>	0.82
Chicago	0.39	0.34	<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.35</u>	0.29	0.4
Anaheim	0.13	0.23	0.12	<u>0.18</u>	<u>0.18</u>	0.12	0.23	<u>0.18</u>	0.12
Education	<u>0.23</u>	0.26	0.18	0.17	0.18	0.16	0.18	0.26	0.21
Avg_clf	0.44	0.55	0.58	<u>0.62</u>	0.60	0.58	0.58	<u>0.62</u>	0.63
Avg_reg	<u>0.25</u>	0.28	0.22	0.23	0.24	0.21	<u>0.25</u>	0.24	0.24

Table 13: Downstream task (classification or regression) performance of the BGRL with hyperparameters chosen by each criteria. We compare to the BGRL (Thakoor et al., 2021) with the default parameters in the left-most column, $\text{fmr} = 0.5$, $\text{edr} = 0.25$, $\lambda = 10^{-2}$. The best value is bolded and the second best is underlined.

Dataset	Default	Ours	α -ReQ	pseudo- κ	RankME	NESum	SelfCluster	Stable Rank	Coherence
Cora	0.35	0.65	0.66	<u>0.67</u>	0.63	0.63	0.69	0.59	0.47
PubMed	0.49	<u>0.81</u>	0.82	0.56	0.56	0.56	0.82	0.82	0.76
Citeseer	0.38	<u>0.51</u>	0.53	<u>0.51</u>	0.53	0.53	0.53	<u>0.51</u>	0.22
CS	0.65	<u>0.79</u>	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.76
Photo	0.32	0.73	0.58	0.53	0.53	0.73	0.73	0.73	<u>0.69</u>
Computers	0.42	0.57	0.66	0.57	0.66	0.66	0.66	0.57	<u>0.65</u>
Anaheim	<u>0.37</u>	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38
Twitch	0.47	0.52	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.46	0.15	<u>0.48</u>
Education	0.29	0.26	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.26
Avg_clf	0.44	0.68	<u>0.69</u>	0.62	0.63	0.66	0.72	0.68	0.59
Avg_reg	<u>0.38</u>	0.39	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.39	0.29	0.37

Table 14: Downstream task (classification or regression) performance of the CCA-SSG with hyperparameters chosen by each criteria. We compare to the CCA-SSG (Zhang et al., 2021) with the default parameters in the left-most column, $\text{fmr} = 0.5$, $\text{edr} = 0.25$, $\lambda = 10^{-4}$. The best value is bolded and the second best is underlined.

Dataset	Default	Ours	α -ReQ	pseudo- κ	RankME	NESum	SelfCluster	Stable Rank	Coherence
Cora	<u>0.64</u>	0.68	0.54	0.54	0.54	0.54	0.5	0.54	0.42
PubMed		<u>0.78</u>	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.79
Citeseer	<u>0.53</u>	0.55	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.48	0.51	0.44
CS		0.72	0.72	0.72	0.72	0.72	0.72	0.72	0.61
Photo	0.71	0.83	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.57	<u>0.81</u>	0.41
Computers		0.45	0.45	0.45	0.45	<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.39</u>
Avg_clf	0.63	0.67	0.63	<u>0.63</u>	<u>0.63</u>	0.62	0.57	0.62	0.50

Table 15: Downstream task (classification or regression) performance of the GRACE with hyperparameters chosen by each criteria. We compare to the GRACE (Zhu et al., 2020) with the default parameters in the left-most column, $\text{fmr} = 0.5$, $\text{edr} = 0.25$, $\tau = 1$. The best value is bolded and the second best is underlined. The greyed-out cells indicate values that are unavailable due to instability encountered during training.

	Ours	Literature			Tsitsulin et al. (2023)			
	CCA dist ($\downarrow$)	α -ReQ ($\downarrow$)	pseudo- κ ($\uparrow$)	RankMe ($\uparrow$)	NEsum ($\uparrow$)	SelfCluster ($\downarrow$)	Stable Rank ($\uparrow$)	Coherence ($\downarrow$)
Cora	-0.6596	-0.2414	0.2036	0.1998	0.2738	0.017	0.1146	<u>0.2914</u>
PubMed	-0.7702	-0.2379	0.1422	0.2048	<u>0.4854</u>	-0.0103	0.0532	0.127
Citeseer	-0.2014	-0.3183	0.2842	0.2781	0.2518	<u>-0.3156</u>	0.0609	-0.295
CS	0.1875	-0.5459	0.5356	<u>0.5577</u>	0.5608	-0.4376	0.1899	-0.3776
Photo	-0.3797	-0.2886	0.274	0.3155	0.2698	-0.5009	<u>0.4722</u>	-0.3782
Computers	-0.2433	-0.1943	0.0777	0.2498	<u>0.2875</u>	-0.0714	0.3322	-0.283
Chicago	-0.1225	0.6618	-0.6887	-0.6667	-0.3284	0.3701	-0.451	0.1446
Anaheim	-0.1528	0.352	-0.3273	-0.3091	-0.1757	0.2337	-0.0864	<u>-0.0543</u>
Twitch	-0.5858	0.6246	-0.4868	-0.5414	-0.4852	0.3034	-0.2921	0.2839
Education	-0.3464	0.4286	-0.4315	-0.3548	-0.0065	0.0171	0.0917	<u>-0.1247</u>
Avg_clf	<u>-0.3445</u>	-0.3044	0.2529	0.3010	0.3549	-0.2198	0.2038	-0.1526
Avg_reg	-0.3019	0.5168	-0.4836	-0.4680	-0.2490	0.2311	-0.1845	0.0624

Table 16: Spearman correlation between each metric and the node classification accuracy (R^2 if the predicted value is continuous) across different models and sets of hyperparameters. The higher the absolute value is, the better with the sign aligning with the arrow. We note that many other metrics lose their intended direction for some dataset. For example, the high *StableRank* should indicate the better performance but the real relationship turns out to be reversed for Chicago, Anaheim and Twitch dataset.