

000 001 002 003 004 005 ENERGY GUIDED SMOOTHNESS TO IMPROVE 006 ROBUSTNESS 007 008 009

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ABSTRACT

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030 Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) perform well on graph classification tasks but
031 are notably susceptible to label noise, leading to compromised generalization and
032 overfitting. We investigate GNNs' robustness, identify generalization failure modes
033 and causes, and prove our hypothesis with three robust GNN training methods.
034 Specifically, GNN generalization is compromised by label noise in simpler tasks
035 (few classes), low-order graphs (few nodes), or highly parameterized models.
036 Focusing on graph classification, we show the link between GNN robustness and
037 the smoothness of learned node representations, as quantified by the Dirichlet
038 energy. We show that GNN learns smoother representations with decreasing
039 Dirichlet energy during training, until the model fits on noisy labels, adding high-
040 frequency components to the representations. To verify our analysis, we propose
041 three robust training strategies for GNNs: (a) a spectral inductive bias by enforcing
042 positive eigenvalues in GNN weight matrices to demonstrate the link between
043 smoothness and robustness; (b) a Dirichlet energy overfitting control mechanism,
044 which relies on a noise-free validation set; (c) a noise-robust loss function tailored
045 for GNNs to induce smooth representations. Crucially, our methods do not degrade
046 performance in noise-free data, reinforcing our central hypothesis that GNNs'
047 smoothness bias defines their robustness to label noise.
048
049

1 INTRODUCTION

050 Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) are powerful for modeling graph structured data Zhang et al. (2018),
051 especially for solving the graph classification task where the objective is to assign a label to each
052 graph in the dataset. The applications of graph classification span across domains, including social
053 and citation networks Yanardag & Vishwanathan (2015a), bioinformatics Borgwardt et al. (2005), and
054 chemical molecule analysis (Wale & Karypis, 2006). Crucially, in many real world applications, the
055 label acquisition process is noisy. Compared to image Algan & Ulusoy (2021) or node classification
056 Dai et al. (2021), the problem of graph classification with noisy labels is relatively less explored.
057 While initial pioneering works Nt & Maehara (2019); Yin et al. (2023) have begun to address this
058 challenge, a systematic understanding of when and why GNNs are vulnerable to noisy labels and
059 the development of robust mitigation strategies tailored to the unique inductive biases of GNNs
060 remain active areas of research. In this paper, we address this noise robustness challenge and study
061 GNNs' susceptibility to label noise when some samples are labeled incorrectly. The conventional
062 understanding is that cross entropy loss (CE), usually used in GNN classification tasks, typically leads
063 to overfitting in the presence of noisy labels, particularly when the model has sufficient expressivity
064 (Zhang et al., 2017a). We observed that, for graph classification, GNNs trained with standard CE can
065 show varying degrees of robustness when exposed to label noise. We investigate the hypothesis that
066 GNNs leverage smooth representations as an inductive bias for generalization and noise robustness.
067 Through theoretical and empirical analysis, we confirm this link and show that noise overfitting
068 corresponds to latent node features sharpening. Based on these insights, we develop methods to detect
069 overfitting and propose three distinct strategies to enhance robustness in noisy graph classification.
070 Specifically, our contributions are the following:
071

072 • We present the first systematic study linking **label noise robustness in graph classification**
073 to the **spectral dynamics of Dirichlet energy** (E^{dir}). While prior works have studied
074 oversmoothing and energy decay in node classification, we reveal how noise memorization

054 in graph classification corresponds to a characteristic rise in high frequency Dirichlet
 055 components.

056

- 057 • We propose a **unifying energy based perspective** on robustness, showing that three seem-
 058 ingly different approaches (i) enforcing positive eigenvalues in GNN weights, (ii) directly
 059 regularizing Dirichlet energy, and (iii) introducing the novel GCOD loss can all be under-
 060 stood as mechanisms that constrain harmful high frequency energy.
- 061 • We provide **comprehensive empirical evidence** across diverse benchmarks and both sym-
 062 metric and asymmetric noise, establishing Dirichlet energy as a reliable signal of overfitting.
 063 Crucially, our methods **improve robustness without degrading clean data performance**.

064 Together, these contributions introduce a principled framework that connects spectral smoothness,
 065 Dirichlet energy, and noise robust learning in GNNs. We believe this perspective opens a new
 066 direction for designing graph models that are not only robust to label noise, but also more stable
 067 under domain shift and adversarial perturbations. Overall, this study improves our understanding
 068 of the sources of GNNs robustness, its smoothness, and its inductive bias, and offers guidance for
 069 practitioners to apply GNNs efficiently to real world applications. The code is available at https://anonymous.4open.science/r/Robustness_Graph_Classification-E76F.

071 2 RELATED WORKS

072

073 **Learning under label noise.** A large body of work is devoted to the challenge of learning with
 074 noisy labels. Several methods are based on **robust loss functions**, using symmetric losses Ghosh
 075 et al. (2017), or loss correction methods (Patrini et al., 2017). Other works are the **Neighboring-
 076 based noise identification** approaches (Zhu et al., 2022). Several approaches are based on the **early
 077 learning phenomenon** Arpit et al. (2017), and others proposed to improve the quality of training
 078 data by treating samples with a small loss value as correctly labeled during the training process (Gui
 079 et al., 2021). Additional methods for learning in the presence of noisy labels are in Appendix D.

080 **Graph Learning in noisy scenarios.** The methods discussed earlier focus mainly on learning from
 081 noisy labels in image datasets. Unlike images, graphs exhibit noise in labels, graph topology (e.g.,
 082 adding/removing edges or nodes), and node features. Most prior work discusses noisy node labels
 083 NT et al. (2019); Yuan et al. (2023a); Yin et al. (2023); Yuan et al. (2023b); Li et al. (2024); Dai et al.
 084 (2021); Kang et al. (2018), while noise at the edge and feature levels have also been explored (Fox &
 085 Rajamanickam, 2019; Dai et al., 2022; Yuan et al., 2023b). However, fewer studies investigate graph
 086 classification under noise, limiting progress in applying and improving graph classification tasks.
 087 The seminal work of NT et al. (2019) addresses graph classification with label noise, proposing a
 088 surrogate loss to discard noisy labels under certain assumptions, without comparison to clean label
 089 scenarios. More recently, Yin et al. (2023) introduces a method combining contrastive learning and
 090 MixUp Lim et al. (2021) within the loss function to improve generalization, along with a curriculum
 091 learning strategy to dynamically discard noisy samples. In contrast, we propose tackling noisy labels
 092 using an effective loss function inspired by Wani et al. (2024) or by enhancing graph smoothness.

093 **Dirichlet Energy, Smoothing bias and Sharpening** Dirichlet energy is a key measure in GNN,
 094 quantifying the smoothness or variation of features across nodes (Zhou & Schölkopf, 2005). Most
 095 GNNs function as low pass filters, emphasizing low frequency components while diminishing high
 096 frequency ones (Nt & Maehara, 2019; Rusch et al., 2023). Specifically, Nt & Maehara (2019) showed
 097 this phenomenon holds for graphs without non trivial bipartite components, with self loops further
 098 shrinking eigenvalues. Cai & Wang (2020); Oono & Suzuki (2021) prove that GNN Dirichlet energy
 099 exponentially decreases with additional layers when the product of the largest singular value of the
 100 weight matrix and the largest eigenvalue of the normalized Laplacian is less than one. GNN learnable
 101 weight matrices fundamentally control whether features are smoothed or sharpened (Di Giovanni
 102 et al., 2023). While Dirichlet energy evolution has been studied in relation to oversmoothing Cai &
 103 Wang (2020); Nt & Maehara (2019), and various mitigation approaches leveraging energy properties
 104 exist Bo et al. (2021); Zhou et al. (2021a); Chen et al. (2023), these work has primarily focused on
 105 node classification, where oversmoothing significantly impacts performance (Yan et al., 2022). The
 106 role of energy dynamics in graph classification, especially with label noise, remains less explored. In
 107 this work, we provide theoretical and practical insights on leveraging Dirichlet energy to enhance
 108 graph classification performance, even in the presence of label noise (comprehensive discussion in
 109 Appendix D).

108 **3 BACKGROUND**
 109

110 Let $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \mathbf{X})$ be an undirected graph, with \mathcal{V} the set of nodes and \mathcal{E} the set of edges. We denote
 111 by $N = |\mathcal{V}|$ the number of nodes of \mathcal{G} . \mathcal{N}_u is the neighborhood of the node u , and $d_u = |\mathcal{N}_u|$ is its
 112 degree. $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ is the degree matrix, a diagonal with entries $D_{uu} = d_u$. Each node u has feature
 113 vector $\mathbf{x}_u \in \mathbb{R}^m$. The feature matrix $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times m}$ stacks all the feature vectors. $\mathbf{A} \in \{0, 1\}^{N \times N}$ is
 114 the graph's adjacency matrix, with $A_{uv} = 1$ if $(u, v) \in \mathcal{E}$ and $A_{uv} = 0$ otherwise.

115 **Graph Neural Networks for Graph Classification.** In graph classification, each sample in the
 116 dataset, \mathcal{D} , is a graph, i.e., $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathcal{G}^i, \mathbf{y}_i\}_{i=1}^n$, where $\mathcal{G}^i = (\mathcal{V}^i, \mathcal{E}^i, \mathbf{X}^i)$, and $\mathbf{y}_i \in \{0, 1\}^{|C|}$ is its class
 117 associated one-hot encoded representation. We represent the set of labels for \mathcal{D} as $\mathbf{y} \in \{0, 1\}^{n \times |C|}$.
 118 More simply we use c_i to express the class of sample i . $\mathbf{X}^i \in \mathbb{R}^{N_i \times m}$, and $\mathbf{A}^i \in \mathbb{R}^{N_i \times N_i}$ are the
 119 feature and adjacency matrices of graph i respectively. In the case of learning under label noise,
 120 in the training data c_i may differ from the ground truth. In this setting, GNNs are employed to
 121 extract features from graph structured data. In the message passing formalism Gilmer et al. (2017),
 122 each feature matrix $\mathbf{X}^i \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ is iteratively updated within the GNN, yielding a new set
 123 of latent features $\mathbf{Z}^i \in \mathbb{R}^{N_i \times m'}$ for the graph \mathcal{G}^i . We denote the intermediate representations as
 124 \mathbf{H}_i^l , $0 \leq l \leq L$, for each GNN layer up to the L -th one. We identify $\mathbf{X}^i \equiv \mathbf{H}_i^0$ and $\mathbf{Z}^i \equiv \mathbf{H}_i^L$. Given
 125 a set of weights \mathbf{W}_l and Ω_l for layer l , the message-passing update rule for graph i is:

$$\mathbf{H}_i^{l+1} = UP_{\Omega_l}(\mathbf{H}_i^l, AGGR_{\mathbf{W}_l}(\mathbf{H}_i^l, \mathbf{A}^i)), \quad 0 \leq l \leq L, \quad l \in \mathbb{N}, \quad (1)$$

126 where UP_{Ω_l} and $AGGR_{\mathbf{W}_l}$ denote the *update* and *aggregation* functions of the message passing
 127 mechanism. After obtaining the final node representations $\mathbf{Z}^i \in \mathbb{R}^{N_i \times m'}$, a learnable, permutation-
 128 invariant function $f_{\theta} : \mathbb{R}^{N_i \times m'} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{|C|}$ is applied to transform them into class probabilities. The
 129 predicted output is then represented as a one hot encoded vector $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i$.

130 **Dirichlet Energy on graphs.** We now define the Dirichlet energy for graph data: E^{dir} , which
 131 quantifies the smoothness of a scalar or vector field defined over the nodes of a graph. For a graph
 132 $\mathcal{G}^i = (\mathcal{V}^i, \mathcal{E}^i)$ with node representation matrix $\mathbf{Z}^i \in \mathbb{R}^{N_i \times m'}$, where \mathbf{Z}^i denotes the latent features of
 133 nodes, the Dirichlet energy is defined as:

$$E^{dir}(\mathbf{Z}^i) = \sum_{(u,v) \in \mathcal{E}^i} \|\mathbf{Z}_u^i / d_u - \mathbf{Z}_v^i / d_v\|_2^2 \quad (2)$$

134 where \mathbf{Z}_u^i denotes the representation of node u . $E^{dir}(\mathbf{Z}^i)$ sums the squared differences of the
 135 feature vectors across all edges. Intuitively, E^{dir} is small when the connected nodes have similar
 136 representations (smooth signal), and large when the neighboring nodes differ (indicating sharpening).

137 **4 GNN ROBUSTNESS TO NOISY GRAPH LABELS, AND ITS FAILURES MODES**
 138

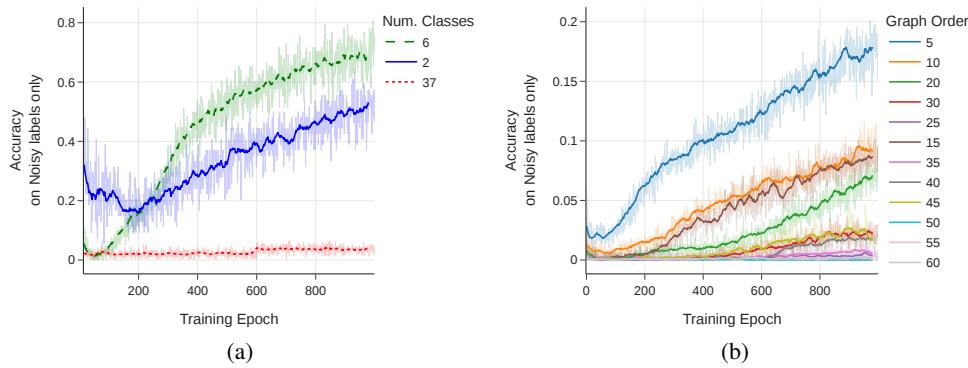


Figure 1: Training accuracy on noisy labels only. Effect of dataset properties: (a) Fewer classes in
 PPA lead to faster overfitting on noise. (b) Lower graph order leads to faster overfitting on noise..

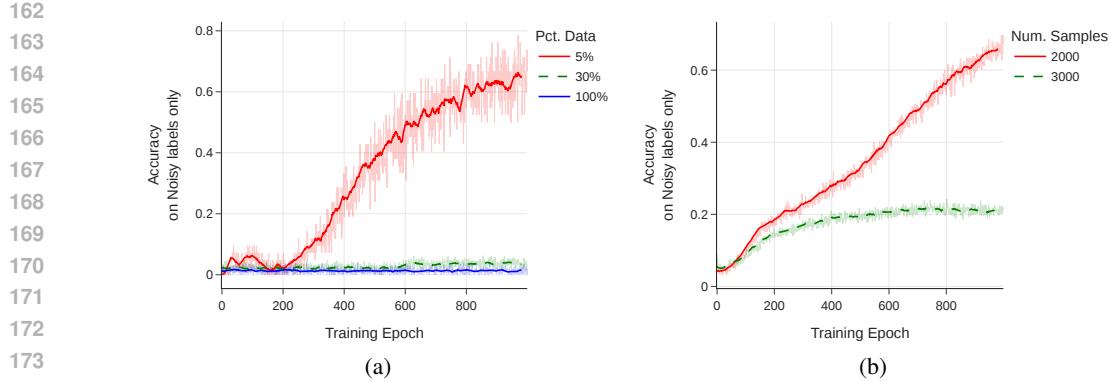


Figure 2: Training accuracy on noisy labels only. Effect of dataset size: (a) Smaller fractions of the PPA dataset lead to stronger noise memorization. (b) Smaller synthetic datasets are also more prone to memorizing noise.

We study when and why a GNN overfits noisy labels. Interestingly, GNNs exhibit a degree of inherent robustness. For instance, injecting noise into the full PPA dataset Szklarczyk et al. (2018), or large portions of it, does not significantly degrade model performance (see Fig. 1(a), 2(a), 6). We hypothesize that the observed robustness on PPA stems from the fact that the models may be under parameterized for the inherent difficulty of the PPA benchmark, on which state of the art methods struggle to achieve perfect accuracy¹. This finding aligns with general findings that under parameterized models are often more robust to noise (Zhang et al., 2017a). Despite this, we show that GNNs nevertheless fail under certain conditions of label noise. To examine this, we fix the model architecture and manipulate task complexity by (i) varying the number of classes as a proxy for over-parameterization, (ii) varying the average number of nodes in synthetic datasets, and (iii) varying the share of training data used. We study the average training accuracy on noisy labels as a direct measure of how much the model fits noise. Higher accuracy on noisy samples indicates the model is memorizing them, while lower accuracy suggests that the model is not fitting the noise.

GNN Robustness varying number of classes We use 30% of the PPA dataset and inject 20% symmetric noise into this subset by randomly replacing labels with uniformly sampled incorrect classes. The model here and below, if not said otherwise, is a 5-layer Graph Isomorphism Network (GIN) Xu et al. (2019) with 300 hidden units. Specifically, we create a sub-sampled PPA dataset with 2, 6, and the full 37 classes. Intuitively, reducing the number of classes simplifies the classification task and reduces the effective dataset size, making the fixed model increasingly overparameterized relative to the task. Fig. 1(a) shows the training accuracy on noisy samples across epochs. For the full 37-class task, the GNN does not memorize noise and remains relatively robust. However, when the number of classes is reduced to 6 and further to 2, the model increasingly fits the noisy labels. Interestingly, the 2-class case exhibits slightly more robustness than the 6-class case due to the symmetric nature of the injected noise, since random flipping between two classes produces highly contrasting noisy samples.

GNNs are not robust on low-order graphs. We generated synthetic datasets (see procedure in Appendix, Section B.2) to study the effect of graph order (number of nodes). As shown in Fig. 1(b), GNNs become increasingly sensitive to noise as the graph order decreases. Small graphs lack sufficient internal structure and aggregation capacity, making them vulnerable to treating noisy labels as signals. Conversely, larger graphs provide more nodes over which the model can average, diluting the influence of noisy samples.

GNNs are not robust on small training sets. The size of a training set affects the robustness to noisy labels. For the PPA dataset, we keep all 37 classes, but subsample the number of training graphs per class. As shown in Fig. 2(a), reducing the number of training samples increases the likelihood of overfitting noise. A similar trend is observed for the synthetic datasets (with graph order 7 and 6 classes) under 35% label noise, as shown in Fig. 2(b). In both cases, models trained on smaller

¹<https://paperswithcode.com/sota/graph-property-prediction-on-ogbg-ppa>

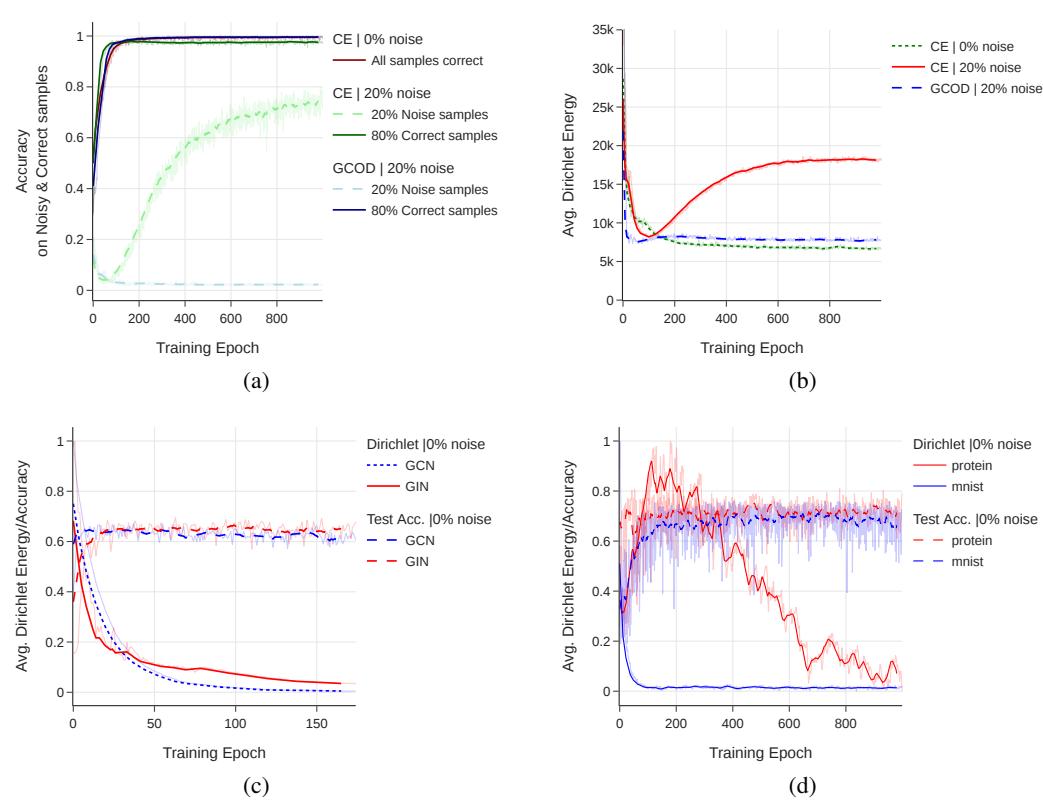


Figure 3: (a) Evolution of training Accuracy for GIN model on the PPA dataset (30% sample, 6 classes) with clean 0% or 20% label noise for CE and GCOD. (b) Dirichlet energy for clean and noise introduced PPA dataset (30% sample, 6 classes). The Dirichlet energy increases when the model with CE fits on noise. (c) Dirichlet energy and test Accuracy on the PPA dataset using CE with GIN and GCN models. (d) Dirichlet energy and test Accuracy on different datasets using GIN model (axes scaled for comparison).

datasets have a higher tendency to memorize noisy samples due to insufficient clean data to learn generalizable patterns.

5 REPRESENTATION DIRICHLET ENERGY INDICATES OVERFITTING ON NOISY LABELS

Across all experimental setups, we consistently observe that the Dirichlet energy (E^{dir}) of the learned node representations increases once the model begins to fit on noisy labels (see Fig. 3(b)). During early training, when the model captures true patterns, E_{dir} remains low; however, as the model starts fitting the noisy samples, the energy increases significantly. This consistent behavior across diverse datasets and conditions (Fig. 3(b) and Figure 4) motivates us to use E^{dir} as a signal to detect and monitor overfitting to label noise.

This leads to our first research question **RQ1**: *Is Dirichlet energy related to GNN performance on graph classification tasks, and how does it evolve when label noise is introduced during training?*

To address this, we propose a graph-level Dirichlet energy measure for the graph classification task and analyze its empirical behavior during training under noise conditions. Given a set of graphs \mathcal{S} , composed of graphs \mathcal{G}^i with latent representation \mathbf{Z}^i , we define the Dirichlet energy of the set \mathcal{S} as

$$E_{\text{set}}^{\text{dir}}(\mathcal{S}) := \frac{1}{|\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{\mathcal{G}^i \in \mathcal{S}} E^{\text{dir}}(\mathbf{Z}^i). \quad (3)$$

270 In particular, we study $E_{\text{set}}^{\text{dir}}(\mathcal{D}_c)$, the average Dirichlet energy of graphs belonging to class c , where
 271 \mathcal{D}_c denotes the subset of training graphs with the label c .
 272

273 Our empirical analysis provides a consistent answer to **RQ1**. In clean datasets, i.e., without label
 274 noise, $E_{\text{set}}^{\text{dir}}(\mathcal{D}_c)$ may fluctuate during the initial training phase as the model begins to adjust to the
 275 task. However, we consistently observe a steady decrease in the later stages of training, culminating
 276 in low and stable Dirichlet energy values once the model converges to high classification accuracy.
 277 This behavior is illustrated in Fig. 3(c) and Fig. 3(d) for models trained with standard Cross-Entropy
 278 (CE) loss and no label noise (CE-0%).
 279

280 However, when synthetic label noise is introduced (e.g., 20% symmetric flipping), the behavior
 281 diverges. As shown in Fig. 3(a), while the initial phase of training still exhibits a decrease in
 282 $E_{\text{set}}^{\text{dir}}(\mathcal{D}_c)$, this is followed by a significant increase during later epochs, precisely when the model
 283 starts to fit the noisy labels. This memorization phase is marked by rising training accuracy on noisy
 284 samples (see CE-20%), demonstrating a direct link between noise fitting and increased Dirichlet
 285 energy. This phenomenon is consistently observed across datasets and model architectures, including
 286 MUTAG, MNIST, and PROTEINS (see Fig. 3(d) and Fig. 9 in Appendix I). These findings confirm
 287 that Dirichlet energy serves as a reliable signal of representation smoothness and its disruption as a
 288 result of noise memorization.
 289

290 Furthermore, to isolate the spectral dynamics, we utilize the HLFF-GNN framework Xu et al.
 291 (2024), which decomposes the node representations into low-frequency \mathbf{Z}_1 and high-frequency \mathbf{Z}_2
 292 components. Experiments show that while $E^{\text{dir}}(\mathbf{Z}_1)$ remains stable, $E^{\text{dir}}(\mathbf{Z}_2)$ sharply increases
 293 during noise overfitting, confirming that high frequency energy components are responsible for fitting
 294 mislabeled data (detailed analysis of these experiments is provided in Appendix E).
 295

296 From these observations, we conclude that maintaining a low Dirichlet energy, particularly by
 297 suppressing some high-frequency components, correlates with robust generalization. However,
 298 directly minimizing $E_{\text{set}}^{\text{dir}}(\mathcal{S})$ as a loss term presents practical challenges. First, the asymptotic energy
 299 level varies between datasets and architectures, making it difficult to define a universal target. Second,
 300 $E_{\text{set}}^{\text{dir}}$ is a global dataset level quantity, which is not easily decomposed into sample gradients for
 301 stochastic optimization. We propose alternative strategies to promote smoothness.
 302

303 6 ROBUST STRATEGIES BASED ON SMOOTHING

304 6.1 METHOD 1: ROBUST GNN BY ENFORCING POSITIVE EIGENVALUES OF 305 TRANSFORMATIONS

306 Our previous findings established a strong correlation between a GNN’s overfitting of noisy labels
 307 and a significant increase in the Dirichlet energy of its learned node representations. The spectral
 308 properties of the learnable weight matrices within GNN layers fundamentally shape the network’s
 309 behavior on the graph, particularly concerning smoothing and sharpening of features. Prior work Cai
 310 & Wang (2020); Oono & Suzuki (2021); Di Giovanni et al. (2023) has shown that the eigenvalues of
 311 learnable weight matrices interact with the graph Laplacian, inducing either smoothing or sharpening
 312 effects. In particular, Di Giovanni et al. (2023) demonstrates that positive eigenvalues promote
 313 attraction between connected nodes, while negative eigenvalues induce repulsion. These findings
 314 suggest that controlling the sign of the weight spectrum could architecturally enforce a smoothing
 315 inductive bias. This lead us to formulate our second research question: **RQ2** *Does the spectrum of
 316 the weight matrices affect the evolution of equation 3 during training?*

317 To justify our dataset level analysis of Dirichlet energy, we first present the following result:
 318

Proposition 6.1. *Let $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathcal{G}^1 = (\mathbf{Z}^1, \mathbf{A}^1), \dots, \mathcal{G}^n = (\mathbf{Z}^n, \mathbf{A}^n)\}$ be a set of graphs. Then
 $E_{\text{set}}^{\text{dir}}(\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}|} E^{\text{dir}}(\mathbf{Z})$, where $\mathbf{Z} = [\mathbf{Z}^1 \| \dots \| \mathbf{Z}^n]$ and \mathbf{A} is a block-diagonal matrix with blocks \mathbf{A}^i
 319 along the diagonal. That is, the dataset-level Dirichlet energy corresponds to the Dirichlet energy of
 a single disconnected graph composed of all graphs in \mathcal{D} .*

320 **Remark 1.** *Reducing $E_{\text{set}}^{\text{dir}}(\mathcal{D})$ during training implies that the model is simultaneously enhancing
 321 low-frequency representations across all graphs in the dataset.*

322 Discussion of Proposition 6.1 and Remark 1 is provided in Appendix F.1. This result supports the idea
 323 that smoothing at the dataset level can be induced by controlling the local graph behavior. Motivated

324 by Di Giovanni et al. (2023), we hypothesize that smoothing can be enhanced by removing negative
 325 eigenvalues from the learned weight matrices of the GNN. To test this hypothesis, we constrain
 326 the spectrum of the weight matrix $\mathbf{W}^{(2)}$ in each GNN layer after neighborhood aggregation. We
 327 refer to this approach as **CE+W2**, which uses standard cross entropy loss but with post-hoc positive
 328 eigenvalue enforcement on $\mathbf{W}^{(2)}$. *The full derivation of the update rules, spectrum filtering, and*
 329 *implementation details are provided in Appendix C.1.* The performance of the method is reported in
 330 Table 1. Despite the findings affirm that controlling the weight matrix spectrum influences Dirichlet
 331 energy and robustness, the eigen decomposition step introduces severe training overhead (Table 7)
 332 and potential instability (Appendix Fig. 11).

333 6.2 METHOD 2: ROBUST GNN BY DIRECT ENERGY MANIPULATION

334 In this Section, We introduce a training method that explicitly constrains Dirichlet energy. By
 335 penalizing graphs with energy above a threshold, the model is encouraged to learn smoother, low-
 336 frequency representations, which we hypothesize improves robustness to label noise. Our approach is
 337 motivated by the empirical observations presented in Section 5 and Appendix G, which show that
 338 Dirichlet energy increases under overfitting and grows proportionally with label noise.

339 Formally, for a training set $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathcal{G}_1, \dots, \mathcal{G}_N\}$ with associated Dirichlet energies $E_i = E^{dir}(\mathcal{G}_i)$
 340 and class labels c_i , we define the regularization term:

$$341 \mathcal{L}_{DE}(\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N [\max(0, E_i - U_{c_i})]^2, \quad (4)$$

342 where $U_{c_i} \in \mathbb{R}$ is the energy threshold for class c_i . The overall training loss becomes $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{CE} +$
 343 $\lambda \mathcal{L}_{DE}$, where λ balances the smoothness constraint against the classification objective. We explore
 344 two strategies for setting U_c (see also Section C.4 for more details on these strategies):

345 **Class-specific bound:** A dynamic threshold U_c computed after each epoch as the average Dirichlet
 346 energy of clean validation graphs in class c . The validation set must be clean to provide a reliable
 347 reference for estimating class-dependent energy levels. When noise is high, especially symmetric
 348 noise, the class-specific upper bounds U_c may lose discriminative power as energy distributions
 349 across classes become similar, reducing the method’s effectiveness. Using clean validation data
 350 preserves the class-specificity of the thresholds.

351 **Fixed bound:** A global threshold $U_c = U$ for all classes. In this case, the approach is not dynamic;
 352 instead U is kept fixed during training and treated as a hyperparameter tuned to balance the need to
 353 prevent excessive smoothing while still limiting energy growth under noise.

354 On the PPA dataset with symmetric label noise, both variants of \mathcal{L}_{DE} improved test accuracy over
 355 standard \mathcal{L}_{CE} . The fixed bound effectively constrained energy but occasionally over smoothed
 356 representations, particularly under clean labels. In contrast, class-specific bounds yielded better
 357 generalization and stability, improving accuracy under both noisy and clean conditions (Table 1).
 358 These results confirm that Dirichlet energy regularization helps stabilize feature evolution and
 359 enhances robustness by limiting harmful high frequency components.

360 7 METHOD 3: ROBUST GNN WITH GCOD LOSS FUNCTION

361 Having shown that noise overfitting aligns with increasing Dirichlet energy and that E^{dir} decreasing
 362 methods improve robustness, we now explore an alternative path; a robust loss function. We introduce
 363 Graph Centroid Outlier Discounting GCOD, adapted from Wani et al. (2024) image classification for
 364 learning with noisy labels. Unlike previous methods, GCOD enhances robustness directly through its
 365 formulation, not by explicitly controlling E^{dir} . While GCOD is not designed to directly minimize
 366 Dirichlet energy, we investigate its performance in the presence of label noise and, crucially, observe
 367 the corresponding behavior in terms of E^{dir} . In this section, we focus on research questions: **RQ3.** *Is*
 368 *GCOD able to prevent learning of noisy samples and promote smoothness of equation 3, even though*
 369 *it is not specifically designed for it?* We analyze this question through a set of experiments.

370 NCOD Wani et al. (2024) is a loss function designed to address overfitting due to noisy labels for
 371 image classification (Zhang et al., 2017a). NCOD assumes samples of the same class are closer in
 372 latent space and leverages Deep Neural Networks’ tendency to first learn from clean samples before
 373 noisy ones (Arpit et al., 2017).

378 Our GCOD method adapts the NCOD framework for graph classification with noisy labels. All the
 379 details about the newly designed loss are relegated to Section C.3 in the Appendix. We introduce
 380 two main modifications over the original NCOD. We add a third loss term \mathcal{L}_3 (see eq. equation 9 in
 381 Section C.3). This term uses a regularization based on a per sample trainable parameter to help the
 382 model distinguish between clean and noisy samples for better alignment. We incorporate the current
 383 training accuracy (a_{train}) as feedback into other loss terms (eq equation 7, 8 in Section C.3). This
 384 prioritizes learning from samples that the model correctly fits in early training, assuming these are
 385 more likely to be clean.

386 GCOD consistently reduces overfitting on noisy samples and preserves smoothness in graph learning,
 387 as evidenced by the decreasing Dirichlet energy (Fig. 3(a) and 3(b)). Our results for Graph Isomor-
 388 phism Networks (GIN) Xu et al. (2019) in Table 1, Table 6, and (Fig. 10 and for Graph Convolutional
 389 Networks (GCN) Kipf & Welling (2016) in Fig. 7 in the Appendix) show that GCOD effectively
 390 mitigates noise impact, validating our hypothesis and answering **RQ3**.

391
 392
 393 Table 1: Performance on the PPA dataset using 30% of
 394 the data restricted to 6 selected classes. The best test
 395 accuracy is highlighted in bold red, the second best in
 396 blue. Reported values denote mean \pm standard deviation
 397 across 4 independent runs

Noise	Method	Test Acc.		Train Acc.	
		Best	Last	Best	Last
0 %	CE	96.25 \pm 0.05	91.25	1.00	99.33
	GCOD	96.65 \pm 0.52	93.25	99.23	99.03
	CE + W2	96.50 \pm 1.12	86.50	99.76	99.29
	Fixed	96.58 \pm 0.27	85.70	99.26	98.29
	Class-specific	96.96 \pm 0.04	88.67	99.41	98.67
	CE (clean only)	96.15 \pm 0.09	90.66	84.50	84.07
20 %	CE	88.66 \pm 0.16	62.58	94.98	93.45
	SOP	91.01 \pm 0.44	85.50	79.17	77.64
	GCOD	93.91 \pm 0.26	92.58	80.11	79.52
	CE + W2	89.83 \pm 1.23	76.66	84.90	83.68
	Fixed	89.69 \pm 0.57	80.25	78.07	70.14
	Class-specific*	92.34 \pm 0.41	80.92	84.55	83.73
40 %	CE (clean only)	95.08 \pm 0.13	80.44	68.15	67.05
	CE	82.08 \pm 0.22	51.83	82.47	78.88
	SOP	82.33 \pm 1.32	65.41	58.90	57.68
	GCOD	93.88 \pm 0.04	91.08	65.09	64.31
	CE + W2	88.25 \pm 1.13	56.33	68.78	65.88
	Fixed	88.58 \pm 0.75	77.12	61.08	54.53

417 * Requires clean validation set.

422 8 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

424 This section presents the empirical evaluation of our proposed GCOD loss function, along with the
 425 two methods leveraging Dirichlet energy regularization (CE+W2 and a method directly using \mathcal{L}_{DE}
 426 with fixed and class-specific bounds), comparing their robustness against label noise across diverse
 427 datasets and conditions. In addition to standard Cross Entropy (CE) baselines, we include two recent
 428 state of the art methods for robustness: SOP Liu et al. (2022) and OMG (Yin et al., 2023). SOP is a
 429 leading approach for noise robust image classification based on sample reweighting, while OMG is a
 430 graph specific method designed to mitigate overfitting to noisy supervision. Their inclusion provides
 431 a strong comparative reference for evaluating the noise robustness of GCOD and our Dirichlet energy
 methods in both general and graph specific settings.

Table 2: Performance of the GIN network
 across multiple datasets under 40% asymmetric label noise. Reported values are
 test accuracy (%). Columns correspond to
 cross-entropy (CE) with clean labels (0%
 CE), cross entropy with noisy labels (40%
 CE), and GCOD under 40% noise (40%
 GCOD).

Dataset	0% CE	40% CE	40% GCOD
PROTEINS	81.16	72.90	76.19
MNIST	72.69	71.15	72.61
ENZYMES	73.33	65.80	69.81
IMDB/B	76.50	68.18	72.89
MUTAG	94.73	91.16	93.19
REDDIT	48.15	48.01	47.94
MSRC/21	96.69	94.39	95.57

Table 3: Percentage improvement over
 cross entropy (CE) using the GIN network.
 Values show gains of OMG and GCOD on
 selected datasets.

Dataset	OMG	GCOD
MUTAG	0.061	0.062
IMDB-B	0.047	0.049
PROTEINS	0.039	0.041

432 **Results on PPA** Table 1 summarizes the results under 0%, 20%, and 40% label noise on the PPA
 433 dataset, where 30% of the data across 6 classes was selected, utilizing a 5-layered GIN network
 434 (details provided in Appendix B)

435 The proposed GCOD loss consistently outperforms other methods by achieving a smaller gap between
 436 the best and final accuracies, which reflects improved generalization and robustness to noise. SOP,
 437 despite being competitive, exhibits wider accuracy gaps, indicating its susceptibility to overfitting.
 438 CE+W2 occasionally surpasses SOP at certain noise levels; its excessive smoothing leads to overfitting
 439 in noise-free scenarios. Precisely CE+W2 improves test accuracy under moderate noise (e.g., 20%:
 440 89.83 vs. 88.66 compared to CE) and narrows the gap between training and test performance,
 441 indicating reduced overfitting. However, under clean labels (0% noise), CE+W2 tends to over-smooth,
 442 with slightly degraded final accuracy. The eigen decomposition step introduces a modest training
 443 overhead (see Table 7) and potential instability. However, the findings confirm that controlling the
 444 weight matrix spectrum influences Dirichlet energy and robustness. \mathcal{L}_{DE} with a *Fixed bound* shows
 445 results in line with CE+W2: it's able to imporve the performance in the presence of moderate levels
 446 of noise, but in noise-free settings the gains were limited due to potential over-smoothing. With the
 447 use *Class-specific bounds*, instead, the adaptive mechanism allowed the regularization to align with
 448 the intrinsic complexity of each class, which enable the method to improve the accuracy at all levels
 449 of label noise, including the absence of noise. This suggests the class specific method improves
 450 generalization as well as model robustness.

451 **Results Across Multiple Datasets (20% Symmetric Noise)** Table 6 compares GCOD with standard
 452 CE under 20% symmetrical noise across several datasets. The Table shows that GCOD outperforms
 453 CE on most datasets, highlighting its resilience regardless of the specific data characteristics (with
 454 the exception of REDDIT-MULTI-12K in this specific test).

455 **Results under Asymmetric Noise (40%)** In Table 2, a comparison of GCOD and CE under 40%
 456 asymmetric label noise across datasets is presented. GCOD consistently outperforms CE, demonstating
 457 its robustness in handling asymmetric label noise.

458 **Comparison with OMG** Lastly, Table 3 compares the percentage accuracy improvements of the
 459 OMG method and our proposed GCOD method across three datasets (MUTAG, IMDB-B, and
 460 PROTEINS) under experimental conditions similar to those in the OMG paper. It further underscores
 461 the superior performance and robustness of GCOD in noisy environments.

462 **Computational Efficiency and Hyperparameter Sensitivity of GCOD** Table 7 compares the
 463 percentage runtime increase for various methods relative to GIN trained with cross entropy loss,
 464 normalized to 1, CE+W2 incurs a 33% increase in training time. The GCOD loss function introduces
 465 no additional hyperparameters beyond the learning rate for the learnable parameters (the weights and
 466 a parameter u). Table 5 shows the impact of the learning rate of u on GCOD performances.

467 9 CONCLUSIONS

470 In this paper, we examined GNN performance in graph classification under label noise. We identified
 471 robust scenarios where label noise has limited impact, but also highlighted GNN vulnerabilities where
 472 overly expressive models or low label coverage lead to performance drops. Unlike previous work,
 473 we explored robustness through an energy based lens, using the Dirichlet energy. Our findings show
 474 that learned smoother representations lead to better performance, while sharpness is linked to lower
 475 performance and noisy sample memorization. To make GNNs robust, we propose three methods:
 476 (i) inducing representation smoothness by relating graph Laplacian and weight matrix spectra; (ii)
 477 bounding the Dirichlet energy of representations in training; and (iii) offering GCOD loss function
 478 to enhance representation smoothness. All methods showed promising results without degrading
 479 performance in the absence of noise, which confirmed our hypotheses. **Limitations:** Although our
 480 work provides insight into the factors that influence GNN performance in the presence of noise, the
 481 experiments relied on limited theoretical foundations. In future work, we aim to theoretically explore
 482 the reasons leading to node feature sharpening in presence of noisy labels and investigate alternative
 483 applications of the Dirichlet energy in loss regularization. **Broader Impact and Outlook.** Beyond
 484 robustness to noisy labels, our findings suggest that Dirichlet energy may serve as a general lens for
 485 understanding the spectral dynamics of GNNs. We believe that controlling energy opens a path to
 486 principled design of architectures and losses that balance low and high frequency information, with
 487 potential benefits not only for noisy labels but also for other challenges.

486 REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT
487488 All implementation details and hyperparameter settings required to reproduce our results are provided
489 in Appendix B. The source code is available at our GitHub repository https://anonymous.4open.science/r/Robustness_Graph_Classification-E76F.
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A APPENDIX704
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This appendix provides additional details, extended experiments, and proofs that support the main
paper. Section A describes the experimental settings and datasets. Section B presents further details
on the proposed methods. Section C reviews additional related works. Section D–H contain extended
experiments, ablation studies, and supplementary figures.
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B EXPERIMENTAL SETTINGS
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In our experimental setup, we performed tests on several datasets to evaluate performance. The first
714 dataset, ogbg-ppa Szklarczyk et al. (2018), consists of undirected protein association neighborhoods
715 derived from the protein-protein association networks of 1,581 species, spanning 37 broad taxonomic
716 groups. Another dataset, ENZYME Borgwardt et al. (2005), includes 600 protein tertiary structures
717 from the BRENDA enzyme database, representing six different enzyme classes. The MSRC_21
718 dataset Neumann et al. (2016) contains 563 graphs across 20 categories, with an average of 77.52
719 nodes per graph. The PROTEINS Borgwardt et al. (2005) dataset is a binary classification set with
720 1,113 graphs, having an average node count of 39.06 per graph. The MUTAG Kriege & Mutzel
721 (2012) dataset is another small binary graph dataset, consisting of 188 graphs, each with an average
722 of 18 nodes. The IMDB-BINARY Yanardag & Vishwanathan (2015b) dataset, as the name suggests,
723 is a binary graph classification dataset containing 1,000 graphs with an average node count of 20 per
724 graph, and no node features. Similarly, the REDDIT-MULTI-12K dataset Yanardag & Vishwanathan
725 (2015b) includes 11,929 graphs spread across 11 classes, with an average of 391 nodes per graph and
726 no node features.
727728
729 Additionally, we utilized the MNIST graph dataset, which is derived from the MNIST computer
730 vision dataset. This dataset contains 55,000 images divided into 10 classes, where each image is
731 represented as a graph.
732733
734 Our experimental investigations were primarily conducted employing Graph Convolutional Networks
735 (GCN) Kipf & Welling (2016) and Graph Isomorphism Networks (GIN) Xu et al. (2019) networks.
736 Notably, the experimental methodology adopted possesses a generality that extends to encompass
737 all Message Passing Neural Networks (MPNNs). Our study centers on observing the learning
738 dynamics of networks during graph classification, particularly examining their adaptability to label
739 noise. We aim to enhance robustness by employing tailored loss functions. Notably, the selection of
740 hyperparameters remains unrestricted, as these parameters depend on both the model architecture and
741 the dataset employed, ensuring a nuanced and generalized approach. In each experiment, we initialize
742 with hyperparameters suited for clean, non-noisy conditions, ensuring optimal model performance.
743 These parameters are subsequently held constant as we introduce varying levels of noise, sample
744 density, or graph order. This approach ensures fair comparisons across experiments and facilitates
745 a comprehensive exploration of model capacities. The synthetic label noise is generated following
746 the methodologies described in Han et al. (2018b) and Xia et al. (2021) which are considered to be
747 standard techniques for generating synthetic label noise.
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B.1 HYPERPARAMETERS751
752 We employed the standard GIN Xu et al. (2019) and GCN Kipf & Welling (2016) architectures
753 for most of our experiments. However, to investigate the impact of positive eigenvalues on weight
754 matrices, as outlined in 6.1, we applied targeted modifications to both the GIN and GCN models C.1.
755756
757 The table below summarizes the key hyperparameters used for the experiments.
758759
760 All experiments have been performed over NVIDIA RTX A6000 GPU. For implementation, visit the
761 following anonymous GitHub: Robustness Graph Classification Project.
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B.2 DETAILS ON THE SYNTHETIC DATASET USED FOR FIGURE 1(B)765
766 Figure 1(b) presents results from synthetic datasets with varying graph order (i.e., number of nodes
767 per graph). We generate datasets with average graph orders ranging from 5 to 60, sampling actual
768 node counts from a Poisson distribution with mean equal to the target graph order. Each dataset
769

Parameter	Value
Architecture	GCN, GIN
Learning Rate	0.001
Optimizer	Adam,
Batch Size	32
Loss Function	CrossEntropy, SOP and GCOD
Epochs	200(PPA) to 1000
Noise Percentage	0% to 40%
Weight Decay	1e-4
Evaluation Metric	Accuracy
GNN Layers	5
Learning Rate u	1
Hidden Units	300

Table 4: Network architecture and hyperparameters.

contains 6 classes, with 1400 graphs per class, a fixed average degree of 2, and edges sampled uniformly at random.

Node features are sampled from a Gaussian distribution with a mean determined by the class label and a standard deviation of 1.5. For all graph orders, we apply a consistent label noise rate of 35% using uniform class flipping. Results demonstrate that GNNs become increasingly sensitive to noise as the graph order decreases. Small graphs lack sufficient internal structure and aggregation capacity, making them vulnerable to treating noisy labels as signal. Conversely, larger graphs provide more nodes and connectivity over which the model can average, diluting the influence of noisy samples.

C ADDITIONAL DETAILS ON THE THREE PROPOSED METHODS

C.1 SPECTRAL BIAS IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

C.1.1 GNN UPDATE RULES AND SPECTRAL ANALYSIS SETUP

To operationalize spectral bias in GNNs, we evaluate both GCN (Kipf & Welling, 2016) and GIN (Xu et al., 2019) layer update mechanisms. For each input graph \mathcal{G}_i , we define the GCN update rule as:

$$\text{GCN: } \mathbf{H}_i^{l+1} = \sigma(\Delta \mathbf{H}_i^l \mathbf{W}_i^1) \mathbf{W}_i^2, \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, \quad (5)$$

and the GIN update rule as:

$$\text{GIN: } \mathbf{H}_i^{l+1} = \sigma \left(\sigma \left((1 + \epsilon) \mathbf{H}_i^l + \mathbf{A}_i \mathbf{H}_i^l \right) \mathbf{W}_i^1 \right) \mathbf{W}_i^2, \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}. \quad (6)$$

Here, ϵ is a scalar hyperparameter and both \mathbf{W}_i^1 and \mathbf{W}_i^2 are square matrices of size $\mathbb{R}^{m' \times m'}$, allowing direct eigendecomposition. \mathbf{W}_i^2 is used as a shallow projection matrix after message aggregation.

C.2 WEIGHT MATRIX SPECTRUM AND CLIPPING PROCEDURE

For each layer l and each weight matrix $v \in \{1, 2\}$, let the eigenvalues and eigenvectors be denoted:

$$\{\mu_{0,l}^v, \dots, \mu_{m'-1,l}^v\}, \quad \{\Phi_{0,l}^v, \dots, \Phi_{m'-1,l}^v\}.$$

Unlike the graph Laplacian Δ , these eigenvalues $\mu_{i,l}^v$ can be negative, which enables feature "sharpening" effects. As shown in Di Giovanni et al. (2023), weight matrices with negative eigenvalues can amplify high frequency components often associated with noisy or irregular node signals.

To counteract this, we enforce a spectral bias by eliminating the influence of negative eigenvalues. The procedure is as follows:

810 1. Compute the eigendecomposition:
 811

$$\mathbf{W}_l^v = \Phi_l^v \boldsymbol{\mu}_l^v (\Phi_l^v)^{-1},$$

813 where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_l^v$ is a diagonal matrix of eigenvalues.
 814

815 2. Apply element-wise ReLU to retain only non-negative eigenvalues:
 816

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_l^{v+} = [\boldsymbol{\mu}_l^v]^+ = \max(\boldsymbol{\mu}_l^v, 0).$$

817 3. Reconstruct the filtered weight matrix:
 818

$$\mathbf{W}_l^{v+} = \Phi_l^v \boldsymbol{\mu}_l^{v+} (\Phi_l^v)^{-1}.$$

821 This process removes sharpening components from the learned transformations, effectively biasing
 822 the GNN towards smooth solutions.
 823

824 C.2.1 TRAINING INTEGRATION AND BACKPROPAGATION HANDLING

825 In practice, we apply this spectral projection **after each gradient update**, treating it as a deter-
 826 ministic architectural constraint rather than part of the loss. The operation is not included in the
 827 computational graph—no gradients are propagated through the eigendecomposition or clipping.
 828

829 This ensures that the model learns using unconstrained gradients, but the actual transformation used
 830 in forward passes remains positive-semidefinite.
 831

832 C.3 DETAIL ON THE DESIGN OF OUR GCOD

833 In our notation, $f_\theta : \mathbb{R}^{N \times m'} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{|C|}$ maps the final node representations $\mathbf{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times m'}$ to the class
 834 probabilities. We apply f_θ to batches of size B , and introduce $\mathbf{u}_B \in \mathbb{R}^B$ as a trainable parameter,
 835 with $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_B$ as one-hot encoded class predictions, and $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_B$ as calculated soft labels and as in Wani et al.
 836 (2024).

837 The \mathbf{Z}_B is the tensor containing node representation for each graph in the batch, $\text{diag}_{\text{mat}}(M)$ Extract-
 838 ing the diagonal elements of a matrix M , while $\text{diag}_{\text{vec}}(\mathbf{v})$ construct a diagonal matrix from a vector
 839 \mathbf{v} . Here we offer its extension to Graph tasks with a new GCOD :
 840

$$\mathcal{L}_1(\mathbf{u}_B, f_\theta(\mathbf{Z}_B), \mathbf{y}_B, \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_B, a_{\text{train}}) = \mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}}(f_\theta(\mathbf{Z}_B) + a_{\text{train}} \text{diag}_{\text{vec}}(\mathbf{u}_B) \cdot \mathbf{y}_B, \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_B), \quad (7)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_2(\mathbf{u}_B, \hat{\mathbf{y}}_B, \mathbf{y}_B) = \frac{1}{|C|} \|\hat{\mathbf{y}}_B + \text{diag}_{\text{vec}}(\mathbf{u}_B) \cdot \mathbf{y}_B - \mathbf{y}_B\|^2, \quad (8)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_3(\mathbf{u}_B, f_\theta(\mathbf{Z}_B), \mathbf{y}_B, a_{\text{train}}) = (1 - a_{\text{train}}) \mathcal{D}_{KL} \{ \mathcal{L}, \sigma(-\log(\mathbf{u}_B)) \} \quad (9)$$

841 where \mathcal{L} is $\log(\sigma(\text{diag}_{\text{mat}}(f_\theta(\mathbf{Z}_B)\mathbf{y}_B^T)))$ and a_{train} is training accuracy.
 842

843 Equation 9, is an additional term w.r.t vanilla NCOD, where we employ the Kullback-Liebler
 844 divergence as a regularization term to regulate the alignment of model predictions with the true class
 845 for clean samples (small u) while preventing alignment for noisy samples (large u). Moreover in
 846 equation 7, 8, we insert a_{train} as a feedback term.
 847

848 The parameters of the losses are updated using stochastic gradient descent as follows:
 849

$$\theta^{t+1} \leftarrow \theta^t - \alpha \nabla_\theta (\mathcal{L}_1 + \mathcal{L}_3) \quad \mathbf{u}^{t+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{u}^t - \beta \nabla_u \mathcal{L}_2 \quad (10)$$

850 The parameter \mathbf{u} helps to reduce the importance of noisy labels during training, allowing the model
 851 to focus more on clean data. The computation of the soft label $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{|C|}$ (i.e. the i -th row of $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$)
 852 relies on the concept of class embedding Wani et al. (2024).
 853

861 C.4 DETAILS ON THE DEFINITION OF THE BOUNDS FOR \mathcal{L}_{DE}

862 We defined two strategies for defining the upper bound for the regularization term \mathcal{L}_{DE} : a fixed
 863 global threshold and a class-dependent adaptive threshold.
 864

864 **Class-dependent.** This approach is motivated by the observation that Dirichlet energy is influenced
 865 by factors that can be inherent to each class, such as graph topology. As a result, graphs from different
 866 classes may naturally exhibit distinct Dirichlet energy distributions.
 867

868 To address this variability, as stated in the main text, we proposed the class-specific bound formulation.
 869 For each class c , the upper bound U_c is computed at each epoch as the average Dirichlet energy over
 870 the clean validation graphs belonging to class c . Formally, given \mathcal{D}_c^{val} the set of validation graphs in
 871 class c , and E_i the Dirichlet energy of graph \mathcal{G}_i , the bound U_c is computed as:
 872

$$U_c = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}_c^{val}|} \sum_{\mathcal{G}_i \in \mathcal{D}_c^{val}} E_i \quad (11)$$

873 The use of clean validation data is essential for ensuring that the thresholds U_c are reliable indicators
 874 of the intrinsic smoothness or complexity associated with each class. Relying on noisy samples to
 875 compute U_c , especially in the case of high symmetric label noise, would distort the energy, causing
 876 different class thresholds to collapse toward similar values. This would reduce the discriminative
 877 power of the regularization and lead U_c to not be reflective of the true underlying structure of each
 878 class.
 879

880 This adaptive strategy, then, ensures the regularization remains sensitive to plausible class-dependent
 881 variations between the distributions of the energy, which prevents the over penalization of inherently
 882 complex classes and under penalization of simpler ones.
 883

884 **Fixed.** For the fixed settings, a constant threshold U was applied uniformly across all the training
 885 samples, regardless of the class. This approach simplifies the regularization term and, by enforcing
 886 uniform penalization, provides a consistent regularization framework..
 887

888 However, careful tuning of U was necessary. If set too high, the regularization effect is negligible,
 889 allowing the model to overfit noise; if set too low, excessive smoothing occurs, causing a notable drop
 890 in accuracy due to the model’s reduced ability to capture and distinguish important variations in the
 891 data. Consequently, U was progressively decreased during experimentation until such a performance
 892 drop became evident. The selected value of U thus represents a trade-off: energy is sufficiently
 893 reduced to prevent overfitting on noisy labels, while maintaining the model’s capacity to distinguish
 894 between classes.
 895

896 D ADDITIONAL RELATED WORKS

897 **Learning under label noise.** Some methods focus on sample relabelling (Arazo et al., 2019; Reed
 898 et al., 2014). Another family of techniques address noisy labels using two networks, splitting the
 899 training set and training two models for mutual assessment (Han et al., 2018a; Li et al., 2020; Kim
 900 et al., 2023). Regarding **regularization** for noisy labels, mixup augmentation Zhang et al. (2017b) is
 901 a widely used method that generates extra instances through linear interpolation between pairs of
 902 samples in both image and label spaces. Additionally, exist also **Reweighting techniques** aiming to
 903 improve the quality of training data by using adaptive weights in the loss for each sample (Liu & Tao,
 904 2015; Pleiss et al., 2020).
 905

906 **Graph Learning in noisy scenarios.** Works on node classification under label noise attempt to learn
 907 to predict the correct node label when a certain proportion of labels of the graph nodes are corrupted.
 908 In Du et al. (2023), authors exploit the pairwise interactions existing among nodes to regularize the
 909 classification. Other approaches use regularizes that detecting those nodes that are associated with
 910 the wrong information. Among these are contrastive losses Yuan et al. (2023a); Li et al. (2024), to
 911 mitigate the impact of a false supervised signal. Then in Yuan et al. (2023b), it was also proposed a
 912 self supervised learning method to produce pseudo labels assigned to each node. Other mechanisms
 913 that employ pseudo-labels are discussed in Qian et al. (2023), showing different policies to down
 914 weight the effect of noisy candidates into the final loss function.
 915

916 The parallel line of work concerning GNN under noise is related to noise coming from missing or
 917 additional edges, and also noisy features. In Fox & Rajamanickam (2019), they focus on structural
 918 noise. They show that adding edges to the graph degrades the performance of the architecture. And
 919 propose a node augmentation strategy that repairs the performance degradation. However, this method
 920 is only tested with synthetic graphs. In Dai et al. (2022), they develop a robust GNN for both noisy
 921

graphs and label sparsity issues (RS-GNN). Specifically, they simultaneously tackle the two issues by learning a link predictor that down weights noisy edges, so as to connect nodes with high similarity and facilitate the message passing. RS-GNN uses a link predictor instead of direct graph learning to save computational cost. The link predictor is MLP-based since edges can be corrupted. Their assumption is that node features of adjacent nodes will be similar. Once the dense adjacency matrix is reconstructed it is used to classify nodes through GCN. Even though these methods achieve state of the art performance they are specifically designed for node classification and have some assumptions on the input graph, such as the homophily property (Dai et al., 2022; Du et al., 2023; Yuan et al., 2023a; Dai et al., 2021). Moreover, some of these are validated only within graphs with the same semantics Dai et al. (2022); Du et al. (2023); Yuan et al. (2023b); Li et al. (2024); Dai et al. (2021) (e.g. citation networks), where the homophily assumption could be valid, but limiting for the overall research impact.

Dirichlet Energy. Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) face several challenges, including limited message passing expressiveness Morris et al. (2021), over smoothing Oono & Suzuki (2021), and over-squashing Alon & Yahav (2021). Over-smoothing has been studied using Dirichlet energy Zhou & Schölkopf (2005), which quantifies signal smoothness across graph nodes. Previous research explores the relationship between energy evolution and over smoothing Cai & Wang (2020); Nt & Maehara (2019), highlighting design choices that exacerbate this issue. Various approaches have been proposed to mitigate over-smoothing using energy properties Bo et al. (2021); Zhou et al. (2021a); Chen et al. (2023), though they are focused on node classification, where over-smoothing severely impacts performance (Yan et al., 2022). This narrow focus leaves unexplored how energy dynamics affects other graph tasks. In this work, we provide theoretical and practical insights on leveraging Dirichlet energy to enhance graph classification performance, even in the presence of label noise.

Smoothing bias. Most GNNs function as low-pass filters, emphasizing low-frequency components while diminishing high-frequency ones Nt & Maehara (2019); Rusch et al. (2023). Specifically, Nt & Maehara (2019) showed this phenomenon holds for graphs without non-trivial bipartite components, with self-loops further shrinking eigenvalues. Similarly, Topping et al. (2022) finds that non-bipartite graphs, especially without residual connections, exhibit low-frequency dominance. They also show that continuous-time models like CGNN, GRAND, and PDE-GCND maintain low-pass filtering. Cai & Wang (2020); Oono & Suzuki (2021) prove that GNN Dirichlet energy exponentially decreases with additional GCN layers when the product of the largest singular value of the weight matrix and the largest eigenvalue of the normalized Laplacian is less than one. Here, it is important to emphasize that Kang et al. (2018) examines graph classification under label noise using the mix-up technique. While the mix-up may indirectly promote smoothness in the graph, they do not discuss or establish a relationship between graph smoothness and the Dirichlet energy. Furthermore, their work centers on the smoothness of clusters within the graphs, rather than on the overall smoothness of the graph structure.

D.1 LIPSCHITZ CONTINUITY IN GRAPH NEURAL NETWORKS

Regarding Lipschitz continuity, a key aspect of model robustness, Chuang & Jegelka (2022) provides a theoretical bound on the Lipschitz constant of the Graph Isomorphism Network (GIN) with respect to the Tree Mover’s Distance (TMD). The derived bound, $|h(G_a) - h(G_b)| \leq \sum_{l=1}^{L+1} K_\phi^{(l)} \cdot \text{TMD}_w^{L+1}(G_a, G_b)$, relates the change in the GIN’s output to the distance between the input graphs as measured by TMD. This theorem highlights that if the constituent learnable functions $\phi^{(l)}$ have bounded Lipschitz constants $K_\phi^{(l)}$, then the entire GIN architecture exhibits a Lipschitz property with respect to TMD. Notably, TMD serves as a pseudometric for graphs that are distinguished by the L -iteration Weisfeiler-Leman (WL) test, a crucial property given that GIN’s representational power is closely tied to the WL test. Davidson & Dym (2024) further contribute to the understanding of Lipschitz properties in neural networks operating on sets of features, which are fundamental building blocks in MPNNs. Their analysis of ReLU summation, a common aggregation function, demonstrates that it is uniformly Lipschitz under certain conditions. Moreover, their informal theorem on Hölder MPNN embeddings suggests that if the aggregation, combination, and readout functions within an MPNN are Lipschitz continuous, then the overall MPNN will also be Lipschitz continuous. Juvina et al. (2024) delve into tight Lipschitz constraints for GNNs in the context of node classification. By analyzing a generic graph convolution operation, they derive an optimal Lipschitz constant $\vartheta = \phi(\lambda_K)$ for the network, where λ_K is the maximum eigenvalue of a weighted adjacency matrix

M, assuming non-negative weights and ReLU activations without bias. This work provides a more precise characterization of the robustness of GNNs to input perturbations. Gama et al. (2020) examine the stability of GNNs with respect to perturbations in the graph shift operator. Their Theorem 4 establishes that if the graph shift operator S is perturbed by E such that $|E| \leq \epsilon$, and the filter banks used in the GNN are bounded and the non-linearity is Lipschitz continuous, then the output of the GNN with the perturbed graph \hat{S} will be close to the output with the original graph S , with a bound proportional to ϵ and the number of layers.

982 D.2 OVERSHARPENING IN GRAPH NEURAL NETWORKS

The primary definition of GNN oversharpening, as introduced in the literature and particularly highlighted by analyses such as Di Giovanni et al. (2023), characterizes it as an asymptotic behavior. Specifically, oversharpening occurs when the node features, after passing through multiple GNN layers, become predominantly determined by their projection onto the eigenvector of the graph Laplacian associated with its highest frequency. This implies that the learned representations capture primarily the most rapidly varying components of the signal over the graph. Pioneering work, notably by Di Giovanni et al., has rigorously established how the eigenvalues of GNN weight matrices directly influence feature dynamics, leading to either smoothing or sharpening effects. This analysis primarily considers linear graph convolutions employing symmetric weight matrices W . The key findings are: **Positive eigenvalues of W :** These induce an attractive force between the features of connected nodes. This attraction causes their representations to become more similar, promoting a smoothing effect across the graph. Consequently, features tend to align with the low-frequency components of the graph Laplacian, which is characteristic of oversmoothing. **Negative eigenvalues of W :** Conversely, these induce a repulsive force between the features of connected nodes. This repulsion drives their representations apart, leading to increased differences and thus a sharpening effect. This enhances the high-frequency components of the features. If these negative eigenvalues are sufficiently dominant and interact appropriately with the graph Laplacian's spectrum, this can lead to the oversharpening phenomenon, where node features become primarily aligned with the highest-frequency eigenvector of the graph Laplacian. The spectral norm of GNN weight matrices, while not a direct cause of oversharpening in the same way as the sign of eigenvalues, plays a significant modulatory role. It governs the overall "energy" or "scale" of the transformations applied by the GNN layers, thereby influencing the potential for various spectral phenomena, including oversharpening. The link between a large spectral norm (or large weight variance) and "oversharpening" (defined as high-frequency dominance) is indirect but significant. A large spectral norm, by definition, allows for eigenvalues of large magnitudes, both positive and negative. If learning dynamics or initialization conditions lead to a scenario in which negative eigenvalues of large magnitude become dominant within this expanded spectral envelope, the oversharpening conditions, as described by Di Giovanni et al. (2023), could be met.

Zhou et al. (2021b) analyzes this issue through the lens of Dirichlet energy, a measure of the variance of node embeddings. This work shows that the Dirichlet energy at each layer of a Graph Convolutional Network (GCN) is bounded by the Dirichlet energy of the previous layer, scaled by the singular values of the weight matrix. By imposing constraints on the Dirichlet energy, it is possible to control the smoothness of the learned embeddings. The work titled "Graph Neural Networks Do Not Always Oversmooth" challenges the universality of the oversmoothing problem. It establishes a "chaotic, non-oversmoothing phase" in GCNs that can be reached by appropriately tuning the weight variance at initialization. This suggests that oversmoothing is not an inherent limitation of GCN architectures, but rather a consequence of parameter initialization. Eldan et al. (2017)'s lemma on the spectral gap and edge addition provides insights into how graph structure influences spectral properties, which are related to information propagation and potentially oversmoothing. Their result shows that adding an edge can decrease the spectral gap of the Laplacian matrix under certain conditions related to the eigenvector and degrees of the connected nodes. Finally, the paper Zhuo et al. (2024) demonstrates that with carefully chosen weights, GNNs can avoid oversmoothing even in deep architectures. Specifically, by employing a whitening transformation on the node features at each layer, the network can prevent the convergence of node representations to a constant vector, suggesting that learnable weights play a crucial role in mitigating oversmoothing.

1026 **E DIRICHLET ENERGY AMPLIFICATION IN HIGH-FREQUENCY COMPONENTS**
 1027 **UNDER LABEL NOISE: A THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS**
 1028

1029 In continuation of the findings presented in Section 5, where we established the role of Dirichlet
 1030 Energy in identifying overfitting in noisy settings, we now deepen this perspective by dissecting the
 1031 learned representations into frequency components. While we previously observed that elevated
 1032 Dirichlet Energy in the later phases of training corresponds with the onset of noisy label fitting, our
 1033 objective here is to uncover which representation subspaces are most impacted, and to understand
 1034 the underlying dynamics. To this end, we utilize the HLFF-GNN framework Xu et al. (2024),
 1035 "implemented in our work as FGRLConv", to demonstrate that high-frequency components bear the
 1036 brunt of overfitting when GNNs are trained on noisy labels.

1037 Empirical results already showed that the total Dirichlet Energy of graph representations tends to
 1038 rise as the model begins fitting corrupted labels. However, this increase is not uniform across all
 1039 representation spaces. The HLFF-GNN architecture offers a decomposition into three orthogonal
 1040 signals: Y (shared residual), Z_1 (low-frequency), and Z_2 (high-frequency). We hypothesize, and
 1041 confirm, that it is the high frequency subspace Z_2 that is most vulnerable to label noise. This
 1042 hypothesis, tested under graph classification (an extension beyond the original node classification
 1043 setting of HLFF-GNN), is validated both theoretically and empirically.

1044 Consider a graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \mathbf{X})$, where \mathcal{V} is the node set, $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V}$ the edge set, and $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times m}$
 1045 the input feature matrix. Within HLFF-GNN, node features evolve through frequency modulated
 1046 propagation into three latent subspaces (Xu et al., 2024). In our FGRLConv implementation:

1047

- 1048 • Y represents the residual representation,
- 1049 • Z_1 encodes low-frequency, smooth features propagated via message passing,
- 1050 • Z_2 captures high-frequency, local features filtered using the graph Laplacian Δ .

1052 These representations are updated as follows:

1053

$$1054 Y^{(l+1)} = P - \beta A_Z^{(l)}, \quad Z_1^{(l+1)} = Z_1^{(l)} - \frac{\beta}{\lambda} A_{YZ_1}^{(l)}, \quad Z_2^{(l+1)} = \Delta Z_2^{(l)} - \frac{\beta}{\alpha} A_{YZ_2}^{(l)}$$

1055

1056 where A_{YZ_1}, A_{YZ_2}, A_Z are batch aware attention mechanisms modulating signal interactions (Xu
 1057 et al., 2024). The model minimizes a composite loss:

1058

$$1059 \mathcal{L} = \|Y - X\|_F^2 + \lambda \text{tr}(Z_1^\top \Delta Z_1) + \alpha \text{tr}(Z_2^\top (I - \Delta) Z_2) + \beta (\|Y^\top Z_1\|_F^2 + \|Y^\top Z_2\|_F^2)$$

1060 Under clean labels, the objective guides the model toward smooth, interpretable feature spaces.
 1061 However, in the presence of noisy supervision, the model is forced to encode erroneous patterns,
 1062 disproportionately influencing Z_2 . In the spectral domain, the Dirichlet Energy for Z_2 becomes:

1063

$$1064 E^{\text{dir}}(Z_2) = \sum_{r=1}^m \sum_{u=0}^{N-1} \lambda_u (\psi_u^\top Z_{2r})^2$$

1065

1066 where λ_u and ψ_u are eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the Laplacian. Larger λ_u correspond to higher
 1067 frequencies, thereby exaggerating the effect of noise on the Z_2 energy profile.

1068 To verify these dynamics, we trained FGRLNet on the ENZYMES dataset under both clean labels
 1069 and 30% symmetric label noise. We tracked average per class per sample Dirichlet Energy for
 1070 Y, Z_1, Z_2 across training epochs. Under clean supervision, Z_2 's energy increased modestly, while Z_1
 1071 and Y either stabilized or declined. In contrast, noisy supervision triggered a sharp and continuous
 1072 rise in Z_2 's energy, marking it as a reliable signal of overfitting. This phenomenon is visualized in 4.
 1073

1074 Furthermore, statistical descriptors such as slope and standard deviation of $E_{\text{dir}}(Z_2)$ were found to be
 1075 strong early indicators of label noise. Under clean conditions, these metrics remained stable, but they
 1076 deviated significantly under noisy labels, especially for mislabeled graphs.

1077 These insights lead to actionable strategies for robust training:

1078

- 1079 • High-frequency components (Z_2) are principal amplifiers of label inconsistencies.

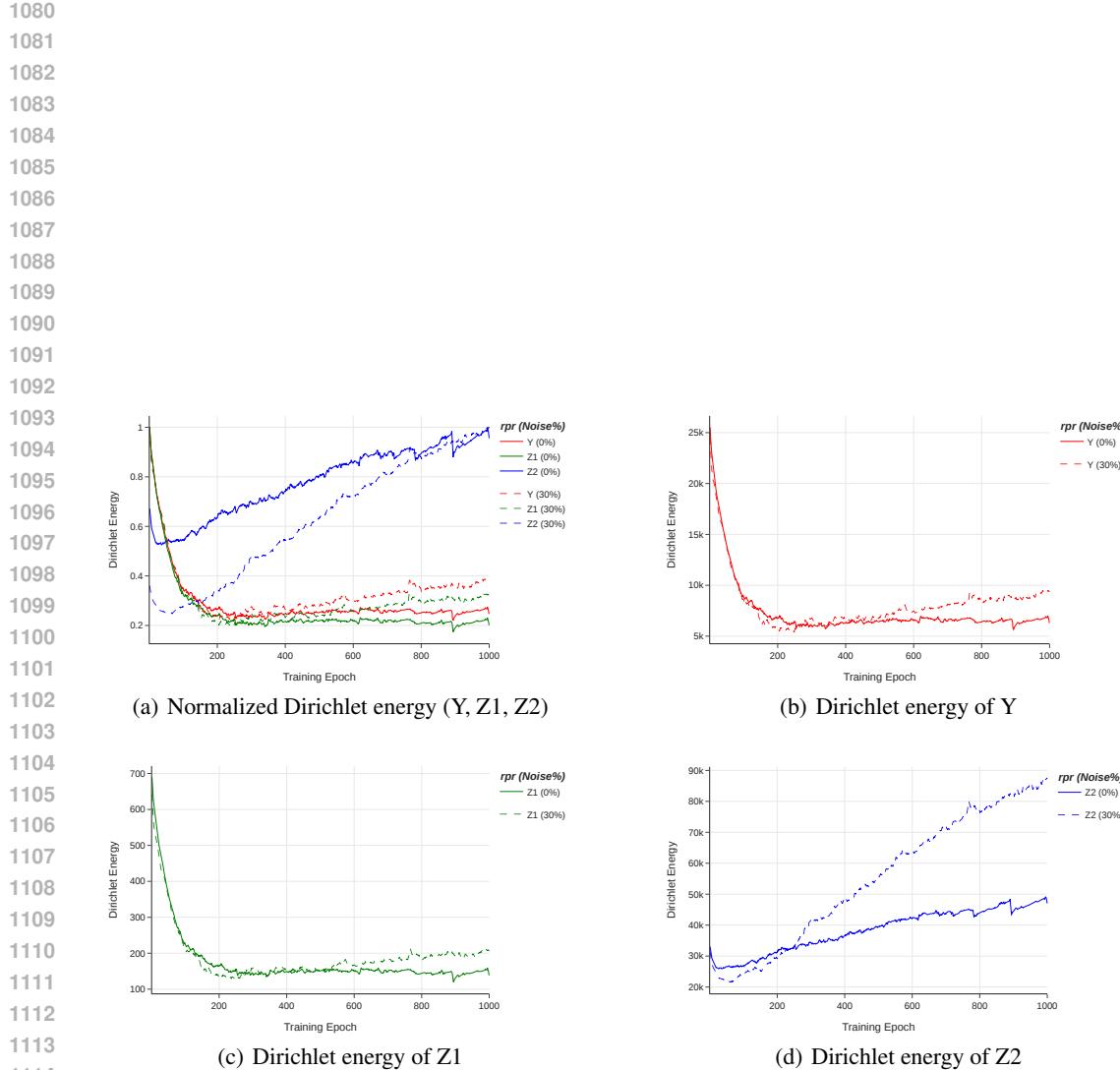


Figure 4: Evolution of Dirichlet energy across training epochs for the representations Y , Z_1 , and Z_2 learned by the FGRL model on the ENZYME dataset. Solid lines represent training with 0% label noise, while dashed lines correspond to 30% symmetric label noise. The top-left plot shows the normalized energy trajectories for all three representations, with each normalized by its own maximum value to enable direct comparison. The remaining plots display the raw Dirichlet energy for each representation individually, preserving their respective scales to emphasize magnitude differences and noise sensitivity.

1134 • Monitoring $E^{\text{dir}}(Z_2)$ dynamics allows early identification of noise driven instability.
 1135 • Losses can be adaptively modulated to suppress noisy gradient propagation through Z_2 .
 1136

1137 By grounding robustness in frequency sensitive learning signals, we offer a principled mechanism
 1138 that can be used to detect and curb overfitting. This analysis extends and reinforces the findings of
 1139 Section 5, charting a refined path forward in noise resilient GNN design.

1140

1141 **F ROBUST GNN BY ENFORCING POSITIVE EIGENVALUES OF
 1142 TRANSFORMATIONS**

1143

1144 **F.1 PROOF OF SECTION 6.1**

1145

1146 *Proof of Proposition 6.1.* Let us denote $\Lambda = \{\lambda_u^i, 0 \leq u \leq N^i \wedge 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ as the set of the all
 1147 graph frequencies in \mathcal{D} and we rewrite it as $\Lambda = \{\lambda_k | 0 \leq k \leq N_{\text{tot}} \wedge N_{\text{tot}} = \sum_{i=0}^n N^i\}$. This
 1148 formalization is agnostic to the specific graph in the dataset.

1149 From this we can easily rewrite equation 12 as follows:

1150
$$E^{\text{dir}}(\mathcal{D}) := \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}|} \sum_{r=1}^m \sum_{u=1}^{N_{\text{tot}}} \lambda_u (\psi_u^\top \mathbf{Z}_r^{\text{tot}})^2, \quad (12)$$

1153 having $\mathbf{Z}^{\text{tot}} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\text{tot}} \times m'}$ and $\psi_u \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\text{tot}} \times 1}$.

1154 Let us assume now the case of a graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{A})$, where $\mathbf{Z} = [\mathbf{Z}^1 \| \dots \| \mathbf{Z}^n] \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\text{tot}} \times m'}$, and
 1155 $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\text{tot}} \times N_{\text{tot}}}$ is a diagonal block matrix, where each block i in the diagonal is \mathbf{A}^i . The resulting
 1156 $E^{\text{dir}}(\mathbf{Z})$ can be computed as:

1157
$$E^{\text{dir}}(\mathbf{Z}) := \sum_{r=1}^m \sum_{u=1}^{N_{\text{tot}}} \lambda'_u (\psi'_u^\top \mathbf{Z}_r^{\text{tot}})^2, \quad (13)$$

1160 Let's notice that equation 13 differs from equation 12 in their set of eigenvalues and eigenvectors,
 1161 and the scaling factor $|\mathcal{D}|$.

1162 Let us now define the graph Laplacian of \mathcal{G} as $\Delta = \mathbf{I}_{N_{\text{tot}}} - \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. Being \mathcal{G} composed by
 1163 disconnected graphs we can write its Laplacian as the following diagonal block matrix:

1164
$$\Delta = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{N^1} - (\mathbf{D}^1)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{A}^1 (\mathbf{D}^1)^{-\frac{1}{2}} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \mathbf{I}_{N^n} - (\mathbf{D}^n)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{A}^n (\mathbf{D}^n)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta^1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \Delta^n \end{bmatrix} \quad (14)$$

1169 From 14, we can evince that the eigenvalues set of eigenvalues Λ' of Δ corresponds to the union
 1170 of the eigenvalues for each Laplacian of the disconnected graphs s.t. $\Lambda' = \{\Lambda^i | 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. This
 1171 derives from the property that $\det(\Delta - \lambda \mathbf{I}_{N_{\text{tot}}}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \det(\Delta^i - \lambda \mathbf{I}_{N^i})$ (Anton & Rorres, 2014).
 1172 So this proves that $\lambda_u \equiv \lambda'_u, \forall u$ in Equations 12 and 13.

1173 For the eigenvectors, suppose ψ_j^i is the j -th eigenvector of Δ^i corresponding to eigenvalue λ_j^i (e.g.
 1174 $j \in \{0, \dots, N^i\}$). We construct the corresponding eigenvector of Δ through the diagonal block
 1175 matrix properties. Formally, the corresponding eigenvector ψ'_u of Δ corresponding to λ_j^i is given by:

1176
$$\psi'_u = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ \psi_j^i \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ \psi_u \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

1184 This vector ψ'_u satisfies the eigenvector equation for Δ :

1185
$$\Delta \psi'_u = \lambda_u \psi'_u = \lambda'_u \psi'_u$$

1186 From this, it follows always that $\psi_u^\top \mathbf{Z}_r^{\text{tot}} = \psi_j^{i\top} \mathbf{Z}_r^i, \forall r$.

1187 Thus, it follows that $E^{\text{dir}}(\mathcal{D}) = |\mathcal{D}| \cdot E^{\text{dir}}(\mathbf{Z})$.

1188 G ADDITIONAL EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON DIRICHLET ENERGY BEHAVIOUR
1189

1190 To gain deeper insight into the behavior of the Dirichlet energy during training, we conducted two
1191 additional experiments. These studies aim to clarify how energy evolves under different training
1192 dynamic, specifically in scenarios of overfitting and varying levels of label noise.

1193 **Overfitting on clean data**
1194

1195 The first experiment investigates the evolution of Dirichlet energy when a model is intentionally
1196 overfitted to clean data. We trained a GIN model on the ENZYMES dataset without regularization
1197 and with the explicit goal of fitting the training data completely. As shown in Figure 5(a), the model
1198 successfully overfits the training set, as evidenced by the near-perfect training accuracy and the large
1199 gap between training and validation accuracy.

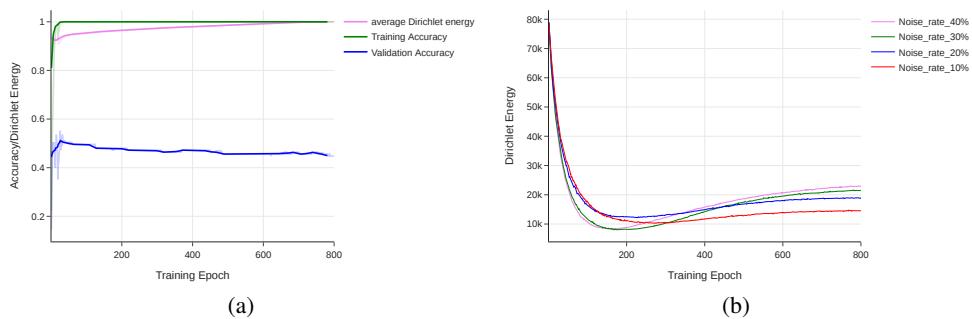
1200 Notably, the Dirichlet energy consistently increases throughout the training process. This finding
1201 suggests that an upward trend in energy is not necessarily caused by label noise, but may instead be a
1202 general result of overfitting. In particular, the model’s growing capacity to memorize fine-grained
1203 details may lead to less smooth and more fluctuating feature representations, reflected by higher
1204 Dirichlet energy.

1205 **Training under varying levels of noise**
1206

1207 The second experiment investigates how the Dirichlet energy evolves during training when the dataset
1208 contains varying levels of label noise. A GIN model was trained on the PPA dataset under symmetric
1209 label noise at rates of 10%, 20%, 30%, and 40%. During training, we tracked the evolution of the
1210 Dirichlet energy according to the noise rate.

1211 As illustrated in Figure 5(b), all noise levels exhibit a similar pattern in energy evolution: an initial
1212 decrease followed by a rise. This U-shaped trajectory suggests that the model initially learns
1213 generalizable low-frequency patterns, then begins to memorize label noise, resulting in less smooth
1214 node representations and thus higher Dirichlet energy.

1215 Crucially, we observe that higher label noise levels consistently lead to higher final Dirichlet energy.
1216 The 40% noise curve ends with the highest energy, while the 10% noise setting maintains the lowest.
1217 This trend highlights a direct relationship between label noise and energy growth, further suggesting
1218 that Dirichlet energy can serve as an indicator of the extent to which the model is fitting noise.



1220
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1231 Figure 5: Empirical observations on Dirichlet energy dynamics. (a) Training on ENZYMES without
1232 noise, where the model is deliberately overfitted. The plot shows normalized Dirichlet energy
1233 alongside training and validation accuracy. As the model memorizes the training data, Dirichlet
1234 energy increases, indicating a rise in high-frequency components. (b) Evolution of normalized
1235 Dirichlet energy during training on PPA with symmetric label noise levels (10% to 40%). All curves
1236 follow a similar pattern: an initial energy decrease followed by a rise. Higher noise levels result
1237 in higher final energy, suggesting a link between Dirichlet energy growth and the amount of noisy
1238 labels.
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1240 H ADDITIONAL TABLES
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12431244 Table 5: Sensitivity analysis of lr_u for u under 40% asymmetric noise, **%Change** shows the percent-
1245 age difference of test Accuracy using GCOD with two different learning rates for u .

Dataset	$lr_u = 1$	$lr_u = 0.1$	% Change
Proteins	76.19	75.89	-0.39%
MNIST	72.61	72.48	-0.18%
Enzymes	69.81	68.33	-2.12%
IMDB/Binary	72.89	71.94	-1.30%
Mutag	93.19	92.61	-0.62%
Reddit	47.94	48.08	+0.29%
MSRC/21	95.57	95.45	-0.13%

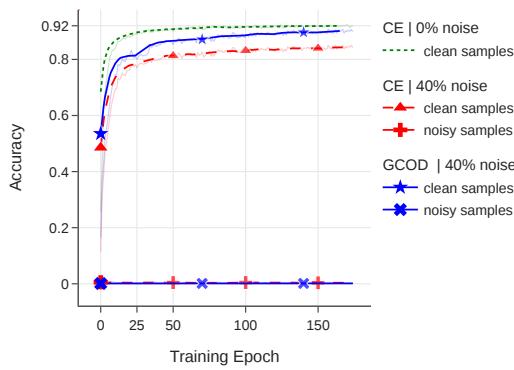
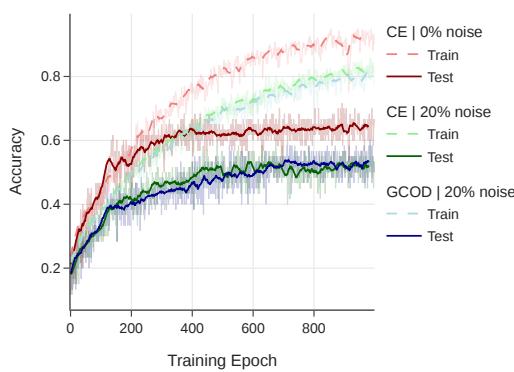
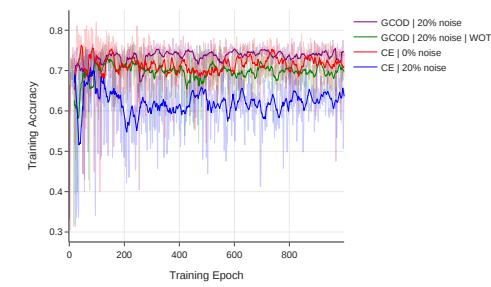
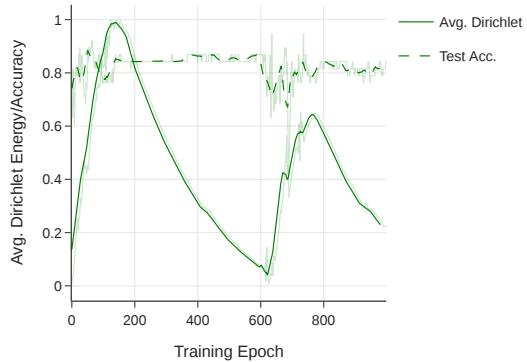
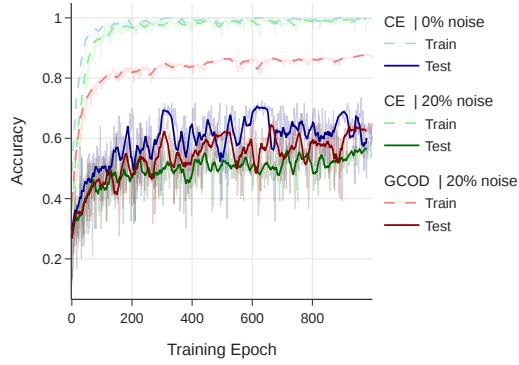
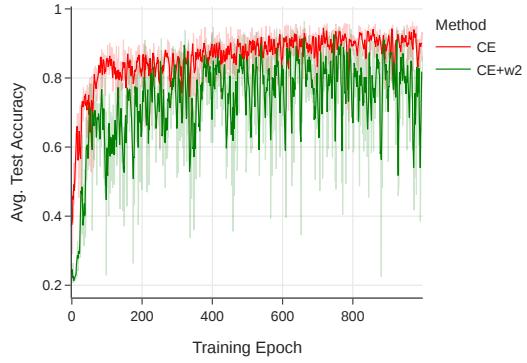
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12561257 Table 6: Performance of CE vs. GCOD with 20 % symmetric label noise. The last column reports the
1258 difference (GCOD – CE) on test accuracy.

Dataset	Metric	0 % CE	20 % CE	20 % GCOD	20 % (GCOD-CE)
MNIST	Best	72.69	66.30	71.26	+4.96
	Last	69.80	53.64	67.88	+14.24
	Difference	2.89	12.66	3.38	
ENZYMES	Best	73.33	64.16	68.69	+4.53
	Last	65.78	57.50	62.54	+5.04
	Difference	7.55	6.66	6.15	
MSRC_21	Best	96.69	90.26	94.69	+4.43
	Last	93.80	79.64	90.26	+10.62
	Difference	2.89	10.62	4.43	
PROTEINS	Best	81.16	76.23	79.38	+3.15
	Last	79.18	62.32	78.12	+15.80
	Difference	1.98	13.91	1.26	
MUTAG	Best	94.73	89.47	90.01	+0.54
	Last	84.21	68.42	86.84	+18.42
	Difference	10.52	21.05	3.17	
IMDB-BINARY	Best	76.50	75.00	75.40	+0.40
	Last	71.60	71.00	73.50	+2.50
	Difference	4.90	4.00	1.90	
REDDIT-MULTI-12K	Best	48.15	45.05	44.98	-0.07
	Last	46.01	44.67	44.89	+0.22
	Difference	2.14	0.38	0.09	

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12861287 Table 7: Relative runtime comparison of GIN trained with standard Cross Entropy (baseline, runtime
1288 normalized to 1.00) versus alternative robustness-enhancing methods (SOP, GCOD, and CE+W2) on
1289 the PPA dataset (using 30% data, 6 classes).

Method	Runtime
GIN	1.00
SOP	1.048
GCOD	1.029
CE+W2	1.33

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1296 **I ADDITIONAL FIGURES**
12971311 Figure 6: Training accuracy for known noisy and
1312 clean samples using GCN with CE loss. (4 class
1313 form PPA, with 40% symmetrical noise)1327 Figure 7: Comparison of the train and test accuracy
1328 for the Enzymes dataset. GCN model with
1329 different losses and noise levels.
13301341 Figure 8: Ablation study showing that scaling
1342 u by training accuracy prevents it from growing
1343 too aggressively. Without this scaling (GCOD
1344 WOT), u dominates early and harms generalization,
1345 whereas in GCOD where u is scaled by training
1346 accuracy activates u gradually and achieves
1347 higher test accuracy.
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13491311 Figure 9: Average test accuracy and average
1312 Dirichlet energy on the MUTAG dataset with 0%
1313 label noise using the GIN model. The plot illus-
1314 trates the evolution of accuracy and representation
1315 smoothness over training epochs.1327 Figure 10: Comparison of the train and test accuracy
1328 for the Enzymes dataset with GIN model, on
1329 clean and 20% symmetric noise.
13301341 Figure 11: Test accuracy on the PPA dataset (30%
1342 subset, 6-class task) using Cross-Entropy (CE)
1343 and the CE+W2 method, which enforces positive-
1344 semidefinite weight matrices via eigendecomposi-
1345 tion. While comparable peak accuracy, CE+W2
1346 exhibits unstable convergence due to the spectra
1347 constraint applied after each epoch disrupts opti-
1348 mization.
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