Maximum Independent Set: Self-Training through Dynamic Programming

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Abstract

1	This work presents a novel graph neural network (GNN) framework for solving
2	the maximum independent set (MIS) inspired by dynamic programming (DP).
3	Specifically, given a graph, we propose a DP-like recursive algorithm based on
4	GNNs that firstly constructs two smaller sub-graphs, predicts the one with the
5	larger MIS, and then uses it in the next recursive call. To train our algorithm,
6	we require annotated comparisons of different graphs concerning their MIS size.
7	Annotating the comparisons with the output of our algorithm leads to a self-training
8	process that results in more accurate self-annotation of the comparisons and vice
9	versa. We provide numerical evidence showing the superiority of our method vs
10	prior methods in multiple synthetic and real-world datasets.

11 **1 Introduction**

Deep neural networks (DNNs) have achieved unprecedented success in extracting intricate patterns directly from data without the need for handcrafted rules, while still generalizing well to new and previously unseen instances [He et al., 2016, Vaswani et al., 2017]. Among other applications, this success has led to the development of frameworks that utilize DNNs to solve combinatorial optimization (CO) problems, such as the Traveling Salesman Problem [Xing and Tu, 2020, Hu et al., 2020, Prates et al., 2019], the Job-Shop Scheduling Problem [Zhang et al., 2020, Park et al., 2021], and the Quadratic Assignment Problem [Nowak et al., 2017].

A core challenge for deep learning approaches on CO is the lack of training data. Annotating
such data requires the solution of a huge number of instances of the CO, hence such supervised
learning approaches are computationally infeasible for NP-hard problems [Yehuda et al., 2020].
Circumventing this difficulty is key to unlocking the full potential of otherwise broadly applicable
DNNs for CO.

24 Our work demonstrates how classical ideas in CO together with DNNs can lead to a scalable selfsupervised learning approach, mitigating the lack of training data. Concretely, we focus on the 25 Maximum Independent Set (MIS) problem: Given a graph G(V, E), MIS asks for a set of nodes of 26 maximum cardinality such that no two nodes in the selected set are connected with an edge. MIS 27 is an NP-hard problem with several hand-crafted heuristics (e.g., greedy heuristic, local search). 28 More recently, several deep learning approaches have been proposed [Karalias and Loukas, 2020, 29 Toenshoff et al., 2019, Schuetz et al., 2022a] 30 Our approach involves the following steps to determine an MIS in a graph. We use graph neural 31

networks (GNNs) [Wu et al., 2020] to enable a model to generate approximate maximum independent
 sets after training on data that was annotated by the model itself. For this purpose, we draw inspiration
 from dynamic programming (DP) and employ a DP-like recursive algorithm. Initially, we are given a
 graph. At each recursive step, we select a random vertex from that graph and create two sub-graphs:

one by removing the selected vertex and another by removing all its neighboring vertices. We then

- make a comparison between these sub-graphs to determine which sub-graph is likely to have a larger
- ³⁸ independent set, and we use the sub-graph with the highest estimated IS for the next recursive call.
- ³⁹ We repeat this process until we reach a graph consisting only of isolated vertices, which signifies the
- ⁴⁰ discovery of an independent set for the original graph.
- ⁴¹ Dynamic programming guarantees that if our predictions are accurate (i.e., we select the sub-graph
- 42 with the largest MIS value), our recursive algorithm will always result in a maximum independent set.
- 43 To make accurate predictions, we introduce "graph comparing functions," which take two graphs as
- input and output a winner. We implement such graph-comparing functions with GNNs.

We adopt a self-training approach to train our graph-comparing function and optimize the parameters of the GNN. In each epoch, we update the graph-comparing function parameters to ensure it accurately fits the data it has seen so far. The data comprises pairs of graphs (G, G') along with a label Label $(G, G') \in \{0, 1\}$. For annotating the labels, we utilize the output of the recursive algorithm that leverages the graph-comparing function. Supported by theoretical and experimental evidence, we demonstrate how the self-annotation process improves parameter selection.

datasets. Our algorithm surpasses the performance of previous deep learning methods [Karalias and 52 Loukas, 2020, Toenshoff et al., 2019, Ahn et al., 2020] in the context of the MIS problem. To further 53 validate the efficacy of our method, we explore its robustness on out-of-distribution data. Notably, 54 our results demonstrate that the induced algorithm achieves competitive performance, showcasing the 55 generalization capability of the learned comparator across different graph structures and distributions. 56 In addition, we extend the evaluation of our DP-based self-training approach to tackle the Minimum 57 Vertex Cover (MVC) problem in Appendix E. Encouragingly, similar to the MIS case, our induced 58 GNN-based algorithms for MVC admit competitive performance with respect to other deep-learning 59

60 approaches.

61 2 Related work

62 Our work lies in the intersection of various domains, i.e., combinatorial optimization, Dynamic 63 Programming, and (graph) neural networks. We review the most critical ideas in each domain here 64 and defer a more detailed discussion in Appendix A.

65 Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) have gained widespread popularity due to their ability to learn

representations of graph-structured data [Xiao et al., 2022, Zhang and Chen, 2018, Zhu et al., 2021,
Errica et al., 2019] invariant to the size of the graph. More complex architectural blocks, such as
the Graph Convolutional Network (GCN) [Kipf and Welling, 2017, Zhang et al., 2019], the Graph
Attention Network (GAT) [Veličković et al., 2017], and the Graph Isomorphism Network [Xu et al.,
2018] have become influential instances of GNNs. In our work, we utilize a simple GNN architecture
to showcase the effectiveness of our proposed framework. While our choice of architecture is
intentionally simple, we emphasize its modular nature, which enables us to incorporate more complex

73 GNNs with ease.

Combinatorial optimization: Supervised learning approaches have been used for tackling CO tasks, 74 such as the Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP) [Vinyals et al., 2015], the Vehicle Routing Problem 75 (VRP) [Shalaby et al., 2021], and Graph Coloring [Lemos et al., 2019]. Due to the graph structure of 76 the problems, GNNs are often used for tackling those tasks [Prates et al., 2019, Nazari et al., 2018, 77 Schuetz et al., 2022b]. However, owing to the computational overhead of obtaining supervised labels, 78 such supervised approaches often do not scale well. Instead, unsupervised approaches have been 79 deployed recently [Wang and Li, 2023]. A popular approach relies on a continuous relaxation of the 80 loss function [Karalias and Loukas, 2020, Wang et al., 2022, Wang and Li, 2023]. In contrast to the 81 previous unsupervised works, we adopt Dynamic Programming techniques to diminish the overall 82 time complexity of the algorithm. Another approach uses reinforcement learning (RL) methods to 83 address CO tasks, such as in Covering Salesman Problem [Li et al., 2021], the TSP [Zhang et al., 84 2022], the VRP [James et al., 2019], and the Minimum Vertex Cover (MVC) [Tian and Li, 2021]. 85 However, applying RL to CO problems can be challenging because of the long learning time required 86 and the non-differentiable nature of the loss function. 87

Dynamic Programming has been a powerful problem-solving technique since at least the 50s [Bell man, 1954]. In recent years, researchers have explored the use of deep neural networks (DNNs) to

⁹⁰ replace the function responsible for dividing a problem into subproblems and estimating the optimal

decision at each step [Yang et al., 2018]. Despite the progress, implementing CO tasks with Dynamic
 Programming suffers from significant computational overheads, since the size of the search space

Programming suffers from significant computational overheads, since the size of the search space grows exponentially with the problem size [Xu et al., 2020]. Our approach overcomes this issue by

grows exponentially with the problem size [Xu et al., 2020]. Our approach overcomes this issue by utilizing a model that approximates the standard lookup table from Dynamic Programming, meaning

that we avoid the exponential search space typically associated with DP.

36 3 An optimal solution to Maximum Independent Set (MIS)

⁹⁷ Let us first introduce MIS and its relationship with Dynamic Programming.

Notation: G(V, E) denotes an undirected graph where V stands for vertices and E for the edges. $\mathcal{N}(v)$ denotes the neighbors of vertex $v \in V$, $\mathcal{N}(v) = \{u \in V : (u, v) \in E\}$. The *degree* of vertex $v \in V$ is $d(v) := |\mathcal{N}(v)|$. Given a set of vertices $S \subseteq V$, G/S denotes the remaining graph of G after removing all nodes $v \in S$.

Definition 1 (Maximum Independent Set). Given an undirected graph G(V, E), find a maximum set of nodes $S \subseteq V$ such that $(u, v) \notin E$ for all vertices $u, v \in S$. We denote with |MIS(G)| the size of the maximum independent set of graph G.

Dynamic Programming is a powerful technique for algorithmic design in which the optimal solution 105 of the instance of interest is constructed by combining the optimal solution of smaller sub-instances. 106 The combination step is governed by local optimality conditions which, in the context of MIS, take 107 the form of Theorem 1. Theorem 1 establishes that the decision to remove a node $v \in V$ or its 108 neighbors $\mathcal{N}(v)$ during the recursive process depends on whether $|\mathrm{MIS}(G/\mathcal{N}(v))| > |\mathrm{MIS}(G/v)|$. 109 This decision continues until a graph with no edges is reached. According to Theorem 1, if at each 110 step of the recursion, the choice is made based on whether $|MIS(G/N(v))| \ge |MIS(G/v)|$ or not, 111 then the resulting empty graph is guaranteed to be an optimal solution. The proof is this theorem can 112 be found in Appendix I. 113

Theorem 1. Let a graph $G(V, E) \in \mathcal{G}$. Then for any vertex $v \in V$ with $d(v) \ge 1$,

 $|\mathrm{MIS}(G)| = \max\left(|\mathrm{MIS}\left(G/\mathcal{N}(v)\right)|, |\mathrm{MIS}\left(G/\{v\}\right)|\right)^{1}.$

4 Graph Neural Network-based Algorithm for MIS

In this section, we present our approach for developing algorithms for MIS parameterized by parameters $\theta \in \Theta$. Initially in Sec. 4.1 we present how any *graph-comparing function* taking as input two different graphs and outputting a $\{0, 1\}$ value can be used in the construction of an algorithm computing an independent set (not necessarily optimal). In Sec. 4.2 we present how Graph Neural Networks can be used in the construction of such graph-comparing functions. Finally, in Sec. 4.3, we present our *inference algorithm* that computes an independent set of any graph $G \in \mathcal{G}$.

122 4.1 MIS Algorithms induced by Graph Comparing Functions

¹²³ Consider a function CMP : $\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \mapsto \{0, 1\}$ that compares two graphs G, G' based on the size of their ¹²⁴ MIS. Namely, if $|MIS(G)| \ge |MIS(G')|$ then CMP(G, G') = 0 and CMP(G, G') = 1 otherwise.

Theorem 1 ensures that if we have access in such a graph-comparing function then we can compute an independent set of maximum size for any graph G. From a starting node v, with an initial graph from G, and by recursively selecting either $G/\{v\}$ or $G/\mathcal{N}(v)$ based on $|\text{MIS}(G/\{v\})| \ge$ $|\text{MIS}(G/\mathcal{N}(v))|$, we are ensured to end in an independent set of maximum size. The decision of whether $|\text{MIS}(G/\{v\})| \ge |\text{MIS}(G/\mathcal{N}(v))|$ at each recursive call can be made according to the output of $\text{CMP}(G/\{v\}, G/\mathcal{N}(v))$.

The cornerstone idea of our approach is that any graph-comparing function CMP induces such a recursive algorithm for a MIS. Recursively selecting $G/\{v\}$ or $G/\mathcal{N}(v)$ based on the output

of a graph generating function $CMP(G/\{v\}, G/\mathcal{N}(v)) \in \{0, 1\}$ always guarantees to reach an

¹Note: In the trivial case where G is an empty graph (i.e., it has no edges), the size of the maximum independent set is |V|.

Algorithm 1	Comparator-Induced	Algorithm
	1	0

1: function $\mathcal{A}^{CMP}(G(V, E))$ \triangleright Algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{CMP}(G)$ takes a graph G as input 2: if |E| = 0 then return V 3: end if 4: pick a vertex $v \in V$ with d(v) > 0 uniformly at random. $G_0 \leftarrow G \setminus \{v\}$ and $G_1 \leftarrow G \setminus \mathcal{N}(v)$ 5: if $CMP(G_0, G_1) = 0$ then 6: 7: $G \leftarrow G_0$ \triangleright Remove vertex v8: else $G \leftarrow G_1$ 9: \triangleright Remove the neighbors of v10: end if return $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{CMP}}(G)$ 11: 12: end function

independent set of the original graph. In case $\text{CMP}(G, G') \neq \mathbb{I}[|\text{MIS}(G)| < |\text{MIS}(G')|]$, where \mathbb{I} is the indicator function, it is not guaranteed that the computed independent set is of the maximum size. However, there might exist a reasonable graph comparing functions that *i*) are efficiently computable

- 137 *ii*) lead to near-optimal solutions.
- ¹³⁸ In Definition 2 and Algorithm 1 we formalize the idea above.

Definition 2. A comparator CMP : $\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \mapsto \{0,1\}$ is a function taking as input two graphs G, G'and outputing a $\{0,1\}$ value.

Proposition 1. Any comparator CMP : $\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \mapsto \{0, 1\}$ induces a randomized algorithm \mathcal{A}^{CMP} (Algorithm 1).

Remark 1. Given a graph-comparing function CMP : $\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \mapsto \{0, 1\}$, the induced algorithm is randomized, since at Step 4 of Algorithm 1, a vertex v is randomly selected. Notice that Algorithm 1 recursively proceeds until a subgraph with 0 edges is reached (see Step 2).

Remark 2. Two different comparators CMP and CMP' induce two difference algorithms \mathcal{A}^{CMP} and $\mathcal{A}^{\text{CMP'}}$ for estimating the maximum independent set.

148 4.2 Comparators through Graph Neural Networks

In this section, we discuss the architecture of a model $M_{\theta} : \mathcal{G} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, parameterized by $\theta \in \Theta$, that is used for the construction of a comparator function

$$\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta}(G, G') = \mathbb{I}\left[M_{\theta}(G) < M_{\theta}(G')\right]$$

- 151 In order to embed graph-level information, we introduce a new GNN module, which we refer to as
- the Graph Embedding Module (GEM). Unlike standard GNN modules, this module captures different
- semantic meanings of differing embeddings of a node, its neighbors, and anti-neighbors.

154 Graph Embedding Module (GEM):

¹⁵⁵ The GEM operates using the following recursive formula:

$$\mu_{v}^{k+1} = \operatorname{LN}\left(\operatorname{GELU}\left(\left[\theta_{0}^{k}\mu_{v}^{k} \middle\| \theta_{1}^{k}\sum_{u\in\mathcal{N}(v)}\mu_{u}^{k} \middle\| \theta_{2}^{k}\sum_{u\notin\mathcal{N}(v)}\mu_{u}^{k}\right]\right)\right) .$$
(1)

Initially, all nodes in this graph have zeros embeddings $\mu_v^0 = \vec{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{3p}$. Here, μ_v^0 denotes the initial embedding vector of node v. In Eq. (1), for all iterations $k \in [0, \dots, K-1]$, the embeddings of a node denoted by $\mu_v^k \in \mathbb{R}^{3p}$, its neighbors, and its anti-neighbors v are put through their own linear layers, denoted by $\theta_0^0, \theta_1^k, \theta_2^k \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times 3p}$, which are the parameters of the module. The bias term is omitted in the equation for readability purposes. We incorporate anti-neighbors in the GEM to capture complementary relationships between nodes. By using separate linear layers for different



Figure 1: Architecture of model $M_{\theta}(G)$. From left to right: initially, an input graph G is passed into the model with zeros as node embeddings, which are displayed as white in the figure. The striped green edges connect the anti-neighbors, which are also used in the GEM. After K iterations of the GEM module, the final node embeddings are obtained. These are then averaged to obtain a graph embedding μ_G . Finally, the graph embedding is put through multiple fully-connected layers to obtain a final logit value for the input graph.

features, we emphasize the contrasting semantic meaning between neighbors and anti-neighbors, representing negative and positive relationships in the graph. Then, the individual feature embeddings are concatenated, which is denoted by [...||...], followed by a GELU activation function [Hendrycks and Gimpel, 2016] and layer normalization [Ba et al., 2016a].

The complete model architecture is depicted in Fig. 1. At a high level, the architecture uses a Graph Embedding Module to extract a global graph embedding from the input graph, which is then passed through a set of fully connected layers to output a logit for that graph. During the training process of the comparator function, we utilize $\text{CMP}_{\theta}(G, G') = \text{softmax}([M_{\theta}(G) || M_{\theta}(G')])$, which forms a differentiable loss function for classification.

171 4.3 Inference Algorithm

In the previous section, we discussed how a parameterization $\theta \in \Theta$ defines the graph-comparing function $\text{CMP}_{\theta}(G, G') = \mathbb{I}[M_{\theta}(G) < M_{\theta}(G')]$. As a result, the same parameterization $\theta \in \Theta$ defines an algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{\text{CMP}_{\theta}}$, where at Step 6 of Algorithm 1, the comparing function CMP_{θ} is used.

175 **5** Self-Supervised Training through the Consistency Property

In this section, we present our methodology for selecting the parameters $\theta \in \Theta$ so that the resulting inference algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{\text{CMP}_{\theta}}(\cdot)$ computes independent sets with (close to) the maximum value.

The most straightforward approach is to select the parameters $\theta \in \Theta$ such that $\text{CMP}_{\theta}(G, G') \simeq \mathbb{I}[|\text{MIS}(G)| < |\text{MIS}(G')|]$ using labeled data. The problem with this approach is that a huge amount of annotated data of the form $\{((G, G'), \mathbb{I}[|\text{MIS}(G)| < |\text{MIS}(G')|])\}$ are required. Since finding the MIS is an NP-Hard problem, annotating such data comes with an insurmountable computational burden.

The **key idea** to overcome the latter limitation is to annotate the data of the form $\{(G, G')\}$ by using the algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{CMP}_{\theta}}(\cdot)$ that runs in polynomial time with respect to the size of the graph. Intuitively, our proposed framework entails the optimization of the parameterized comparator function CMP_{θ} on data generated using algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{CMP}_{\theta}}$. A better comparator function leads to a better algorithm, which leads to better data, and vice versa. This mutually reinforcing relationship between the two components of our framework is theoretically indicated by Theorem 2 that we present in Section 5.1. The exact steps are detailed below.

190 5.1 Consistent Graph Comparing Functions

In this section, we introduce the notion of a *consistent* graph-comparing function (Definition 3) that plays a critical role in our self-supervised learning approach. Kindly take note that \mathcal{A}^{CMP} utilizes the unparameterized variant of a comparator function, whereas $\mathcal{A}^{\text{CMP}_{\theta}}$ utilizes its parameterized counterpart. Algorithm 2 Basic Pipeline of our Training Approach

- 1: **Input:** A distribution \mathcal{D} over graphs.
- 2: Initialize parameters $\theta_0 \in \Theta$.
- 3: Initialize a *graph-buffer* $\mathcal{B} \leftarrow \emptyset$.
- 4: for each epoch t = 0, ..., T 1 do
- 5: Sample a graph $G_{\text{init}} \sim \mathcal{D}$.
- 6: Run $\mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta_t}}(G)$ and store in \mathcal{B} all graphs produced during each recursive call of Algorithm 1.
- 7: Update the parameters $\theta_{t+1} \in \Theta$ such that

$$\theta^{t+1} := \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta \in \Theta} \mathbb{E}_{(G,G') \sim \mathcal{B}} \left[\ell \left(\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta}(G,G'), \mathbb{I} \left[\mathbb{E} \left[|\mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta_{t}}}(G)| \right] < \mathbb{E} \left[|\mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta_{t}}}(G')| \right] \right] \right) \right]$$

8: **end for**

Definition 3 (Consistency). A graph-comparing function CMP : $\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \mapsto \{0, 1\}$ is called consistent if and only if for any pair of graphs $G, G' \in \mathcal{G}$,

 $\operatorname{CMP}(G, G') = 0$ if and only if $\mathbb{E}\left[\left|\mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{CMP}}(G)\right|\right] \ge \mathbb{E}\left[\left|\mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{CMP}}(G')\right|\right]$.

Remark 3. In Definition 3 we use $\mathbb{E}\left[\left|\mathcal{A}^{CMP}(G)\right|\right], \mathbb{E}\left[\left|\mathcal{A}^{CMP}(G')\right|\right]$ since, as we have already *discussed, a comparator CMP induces a randomized algorithm* \mathcal{A}^{CMP} .

In Theorem 2, we formally establish that any *consistent graph-comparing function* CMP induces an optimal algorithm for the MIS.

Theorem 2. Let a consistent comparator CMP : $\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \mapsto \{0,1\}$. Then the algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{\text{CMP}}(\cdot)$ always computes a Maximum Independent Set, $\mathbb{E}\left[|\mathcal{A}^{\text{CMP}}(G)|\right] = |\text{MIS}(G)|$ for all $G \in \mathcal{G}$.

Theorem 2 guarantees that any consistent graph comparing function CMP induces an optimal algorithm \mathcal{A}^{CMP} for MIS. The proof for this theorem can be found in Appendix I. Hence, the selection of parameters $\theta^* \in \Theta$ should be selected such that CMP_{θ^*} is *consistent*. More precisely:

Goal of Training: Find parameters $\theta^* \in \Theta$ such that for all $G, G' \in \mathcal{G}$:

$$\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta^{\star}}(G, G') = 0$$
 if and only if $\mathbb{E}\left[\left|\mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta^{\star}}}(G)\right|\right] \geq \mathbb{E}\left[\left|\mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta^{\star}}}(G')\right|\right]$.

208 5.2 Training a Consistent Comparator

The cornerstone idea of our self-supervised learning approach is to make the comparator more and more consistent over time. Namely, the idea is to update the parameters as follows:

$$\theta^{t+1} := \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta \in \Theta} \mathbb{E}_{G,G'} \left[\ell \left(\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta}(G,G'), \mathbb{I} \left[\mathbb{E} \left[\left| \mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta_t}}(G) \right| \right] < \mathbb{E} \left[\left| \mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta_t}}(G') \right| \right] \right] \right) \right]$$
(2)

where $\ell(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a binary classification loss. In Eq. (2), θ_t are the fixed parameters of the previous epoch. Thus, in the next few paragraphs, we only use the notation $\mathcal{A}^{\text{CMP}\theta_t}$ to denote the fixed parameters. Gradient updates are only computed over θ .

Remark 4. We remark that neither solving the non-convex minimization problem of Eq. (2) nor the existence of parameters $\theta^* \in \Theta$ such that CMP_{θ^*} can be guaranteed. However, using a first-order method for Eq. (2) and a large enough parameterization can lead to an approximately consistent comparator with approximately optimal performance.

In Algorithm 2, we present the basic pipeline of the self-training approach that selects the parameters $\theta \in \Theta$ such that the inference algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{CMP}_{\theta_t}}$ admits a competitive performance given as input graphs *G* following a graph-distribution $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$. However, while the basic pipeline of our self-training approach follows Algorithm 2, there are several differences and tweaks that we incorporate into our training process.

Creating the graph buffer \mathcal{B} **:** We are given a shuffled dataset of graphs \mathcal{D} , which represents the training data for the model. The core difference between the pipeline and the training process



Figure 2: An example of data generation for the training. (Left) At the beginning of each training epoch (Step 5), Algorithm 2 samples $G_{init} \sim D$ and computes an independent set by using the comparator CMP_{θ_t} and by following the branches in the *recursion tree* that are marked red, with the doubly circled one being the produced independent set. The generated graphs from this procedure are added to the buffer \mathcal{B} . (Right) Then, a dataset is created by sampling graphs from the buffer and then computing an estimate of their MIS size (based on $\mathcal{A}^{\text{CMP}_{\theta_t}}$). Based on this estimate, a dataset is created with graph pairs (G, G') and their corresponding binary labels denoting which MIS estimates are larger.

comes from the graph buffer \mathcal{B} . In Algorithm 2, this buffer stores any graph G that is found during the recursive call of $\mathcal{A}^{\text{CMP}_{\theta_t}}(G_{\text{init}})$ on $G_{\text{init}} \sim D$ (Step 6 of Algorithm 2). However, in the implementation of the graph buffer, it stores pairs of graphs (G, G') that were generated by $\mathcal{A}^{\text{CMP}_{\theta_t}}(G_{\text{init}})$, alongside a binary label that indicates which of the two graphs has a larger estimated MIS size. How this estimate is generated, will be explained further down this section.

The training process: Prior to starting training, we first set two hyperparameters: one that specifies the number of graphs used to populate the buffer before training the model, and another that determines the number of graph pairs generated from $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{CMP}_{\theta_t}}(G)$ per graph $G \sim \mathcal{D}$. Then, a dataset is created by generating these pairs for the set number of graphs. The dataset is then added to the graph buffer, replacing steps 4, 5, and 6 in Algorithm 2, which only does this with one graph per epoch. Next, training starts, and after completing a set number of epochs, a new dataset is created using the updated model, and the process is repeated iteratively.

Estimating the MIS: Finally, the loss function in Step 7 of Algorithm 2, also operates slightly differently. The main difference arises from $\mathbb{I}\left[\mathbb{E}\left[|\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{CMP}_{\theta_t}}(G)|\right] < \mathbb{E}\left[|\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{CMP}_{\theta_t}}(G')|\right]\right]$, since the estimates $|\mathrm{MIS}(G)| \approx \mathbb{E}\left[|\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{CMP}_{\theta_t}}(G)|\right]$ and $|\mathrm{MIS}(G')| \approx \mathbb{E}\left[|\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{CMP}_{\theta_t}}(G')|\right]$ are not directly utilized. Instead, we propose two other approaches, which are better approximations than the expectations used in Algorithm 2, since they use a maximizing operator.

The first approach involves performing so-called "roll-outs" on the graph pairs generated G and G' by $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{CMP}_{\theta_t}}$, in order to estimate their MIS sizes. To perform the roll-outs, we simply run $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{CMP}_{\theta_t}}$ on graphs G and G' m times and use the maximum size of the found independent sets as an estimate of their MIS. Formally, in a roll-out on a graph G, we sample the independent sets $\mathrm{ISS}_1, \mathrm{ISS}_2, \ldots, \mathrm{ISS}_m \sim \mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{CMP}_{\theta_t}}(G)$. Then, the estimate of the MIS size of G is $\max(|\mathrm{ISS}_1|, |\mathrm{ISS}_2|, \ldots, |\mathrm{ISS}_m|)$.

²⁴⁸ An example of the entire process of generating the dataset using roll-outs can be found in Fig. 2.

Mixed roll-out variant: We introduce a variant of the aforementioned method, which utilizes the 249 deterministic greedy algorithm. This greedy algorithm iteratively creates an independent set by 250 removing the node with the lowest degree and adding it to the independent set. This algorithm is often 251 an efficient approximation to the optimum solution. Our variant is constructed as follows: we compute 252 the maximum between the roll-outs of the model and the result of the greedy algorithm, which creates 253 a dataset with more accurate self-supervised approximations of the MIS values. This, in turn, 254 generates binary targets for the buffer that are more likely to be accurate. Thus, for this second variant, 255 the estimate of the MIS size of a graph G would be $\max(|Greedy(G)|, |ISS_1|, |ISS_2|, \dots, |ISS_m|)$. 256

257 6 Experiments

In this section, we conduct an evaluation of the proposed method for the MIS problem. Let us first describe the training setup, the baselines, and the datasets. Additional details and experiments on MIS are displayed in the Appendices C and D. Our method also generalizes well in MVC, as the results in Appendix E illustrate.

262 6.1 Training setup

Our model: We implement two comparator models: one using just roll-outs with the model, and another using the roll-outs together with greedy, called "mixed roll-out". We train each model using a graph embedding module with K = 3 iterations, which takes in 32-dimensional initial node embeddings.

Baselines: We compare against the neural approaches *Erdos GNN* [Karalias and Loukas, 2020], *RUN-CSP* from Toenshoff et al. [2019], and a method specifically for the MIS problem: LwDMIS [Ahn et al., 2020]. Since we observe unexpected performance from RUN-CSP on the COLLAB and RB datasets, we have omitted those results from the table. We train every model for 300 epochs. Each experiment is performed on a single GPU with 6GB RAM.

Besides neural approaches, we use traditional baselines, such as the *Greedy MIS* [Wormald, 1995], *Simple Local Search* [Feo et al., 1994] and a *Random Comparator* as a sanity check. Furthermore, we implement two mixed-integer linear programming solvers: *SCIP 8.0.3* and the highly optimized commercial solver *Gurobi 10.0*.

Datasets: We evaluate our model on three standard datasets, following Karalias and Loukas [2020]:
 COLLAB [Yanardag and Vishwanathan, 2015], TWITTER [Leskovec and Krevl, 2014] and RB [Xu
 et al., 2007, Toenshoff et al., 2019]. In addition, we introduce the SPECIAL dataset that includes
 challenging graphs for handcrafted approaches as we detail in Appendix C.

280 6.2 Results

Table 1 reports the average approximation ratios on the test instances of the various datasets. The approximation ratio is computed by dividing a solution's independent set size by the optimum solution, which is computed using the Gurobi solver with a time limit of 1 hour per graph.

The results indicate that the greedy algorithm performs strongly in three of the four datasets, which is 284 consistent with the observation of Angelini and Ricci-Tersenghi [2022]. However, notice that our pro-285 posed approach outperforms the greedy in both the Twitter and the SPECIAL datasets, which validates 286 that the greedy heuristic is not optimal in every case and is prone to failing in few cases. Importantly, 287 among the neural approaches that are the main compared methods, our proposed method performs 288 favorably in all datasets. The performance of our method indicates that the proposed self-training 289 scheme is able to learn from diverse data distributions and generalize reasonably well in the test sets 290 of the respective dataset. In addition, the proposed method is faster than the rest neural approaches. 291

The mixed roll-out model in Table 1 outperforms the normal roll-out model in almost all datasets, indicating the effectiveness of the greedy heuristic in roll-outs. This is particularly evident in the RB dataset. However, for SPECIAL instances, the normal model performs marginally better, possibly due to the unsuitability of the greedy guiding heuristic as a baseline for this dataset.

Out of distribution : We examine the performance of the learned comparator through its generalization to new graph distributions. Concretely, we conduct an out-of-distribution analysis as follows: each model is trained in one graph distribution, indicated by the rows of Table 2. Then, the model is evaluated on different graph distributions, indicated by the columns of Table 2. The analysis is conducted on both our model and the approach of *Erdos GNN* [Karalias and Loukas, 2020].

Surprisingly, our model trained over COLLAB displays good generalization skills across different datasets, even outperforming the RB-trained model on the RB dataset. Conversely, *Erdos GNN* trained over RB performs poorly over the COLLAB dataset. Both models trained over the RB dataset perform more poorly in general, likely due to the highly specific graph distribution of the RB dataset. Moreover, our model, on the whole, exhibits good generalization skills over different graph distributions.

Method (\downarrow) Dataset (\rightarrow)	RB	COLLAB	TWITTER	SPECIAL
CMD (Normal Pall outs)	0.770 ± 0.107	0.990 ± 0.051	0.967 ± 0.083	$\textbf{0.996} \pm \textbf{0.029}$
CIVIF (Normal Kon-outs)	(0.43 s/g)	(0.17 s/g)	(0.35 s/g)	(0.04 s/g)
CMD (Mixed Poll outs)	$\textbf{0.836} \pm \textbf{0.083}$	$\textbf{0.990} \pm \textbf{0.049}$	$\textbf{0.977} \pm \textbf{0.031}$	0.994 ± 0.035
CIVIF (IVIIXed Koll-Outs)	(0.36 s/g)	(0.21 s/g)	(0.21 s/g)	(0.05 s/g)
Erdes' CNN	0.813 ± 0.107	0.952 ± 0.142	0.935 ± 0.078	0.921 ± 0.218
EIGOS GININ	(1.39 s/g)	(0.60 s/g)	(1.37 s/g)	(1.03 s/g)
	0.804 ± 0.089	0.978 ± 0.031	0.972 ± 0.032	0.828 ± 0.304
LWDMIS	(0.42 s/g)	(0.17 s/g)	(0.19 s/g)	(0.32 s/g)
DUN CSD (A courrete)			0.875 ± 0.053	0.946 ± 0.059
RUN-CSP (Accurate)	_	—	(0.57 s/g)	(0.51 s/g)
Graady MIS	0.925 ± 0.053	0.998 ± 0.023	0.964 ± 0.048	0.131 ± 0.055
Gleedy MIS	(0.01 s/g)	(0.02 s/g)	(0.04 s/g)	(0.03 s/g)
	(01010/8)	(010=0/8)	(0.00 - 0.0)	(0.05 5/6)
Pandom CMP	0.615 ± 0.155	0.817 ± 0.211	0.634 ± 0.182	0.225 ± 0.279
Random CMP	$\begin{array}{c} (0.615 \pm 0.155 \\ (0.42 \text{ s/g}) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.02 \text{ s/g}) \\ 0.817 \pm 0.211 \\ (0.30 \text{ s/g}) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.36 \pm 0.182) \\ (0.36 \text{ s/g}) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.03 \text{ s/g}) \\ 0.225 \pm 0.279 \\ (0.41 \text{ s/g}) \end{array}$
Random CMP Simple Local Search (10s)	$\begin{array}{c} (0.615\pm0.155\\ 0.615\pm0.155\\ (0.42\text{ s/g})\\ \hline 0.565\pm0.237\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.02 \text{ s/g}) \\ 0.817 \pm 0.211 \\ (0.30 \text{ s/g}) \\ \hline 0.860 \pm 0.213 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.634 \pm 0.182 \\ (0.36 \text{ s/g}) \\ \hline 0.644 \pm 0.218 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} (0.05 \text{ s/g}) \\ 0.225 \pm 0.279 \\ (0.41 \text{ s/g}) \\ \hline 0.188 \pm 0.340 \end{array}$
Random CMP Simple Local Search (10s) SCIP 8.0.3 (1s)	$\begin{array}{c} (0.615\pm 0.155\\ (0.42\ \text{s/g})\\ \hline 0.565\pm 0.237\\ 0.741\pm 0.351\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.817 \pm 0.211 \\ (0.30 \text{ s/g}) \\ \hline 0.860 \pm 0.213 \\ 0.999 \pm 0.016 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.634 \pm 0.182 \\ (0.36 \text{ s/g}) \\ \hline 0.644 \pm 0.218 \\ 0.959 \pm 0.024 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.05\pm 0.02)\\ 0.225\pm 0.279\\ (0.41\text{ s/g})\\ 0.188\pm 0.340\\ 1.000\end{array}$
Random CMP Simple Local Search (10s) SCIP 8.0.3 (1s) SCIP 8.0.3 (5s)	$\begin{array}{c} (0.61\pm 0.9)\\ 0.615\pm 0.155\\ (0.42\ {\rm s/g})\\ 0.565\pm 0.237\\ 0.741\pm 0.351\\ 0.937\pm 0.118\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.02 \pm 3.9) \\ 0.817 \pm 0.211 \\ (0.30 \text{ s/g}) \\ \hline 0.860 \pm 0.213 \\ 0.999 \pm 0.016 \\ 1.000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.634 \pm 0.182 \\ (0.36 \text{ s/g}) \\ \hline 0.644 \pm 0.218 \\ 0.959 \pm 0.024 \\ 0.999 \pm 0.024 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.05\ \text{srg})\\ 0.225\pm0.279\\ (0.41\ \text{s/g})\\ \hline 0.188\pm0.340\\ 1.000\\ 1.000\\ \end{array}$
Random CMP Simple Local Search (10s) SCIP 8.0.3 (1s) SCIP 8.0.3 (5s) Gurobi 10.0 (0.5s)	$\begin{array}{c} (.615 \pm 0.155 \\ (0.42 \ \text{s/g}) \\ \hline 0.565 \pm 0.237 \\ 0.741 \pm 0.351 \\ 0.937 \pm 0.118 \\ 0.969 \pm 0.070 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.32 \pm 0.9) \\ 0.817 \pm 0.211 \\ (0.30 \text{ s/g}) \\ \hline 0.860 \pm 0.213 \\ 0.999 \pm 0.016 \\ 1.000 \\ 0.981 \pm 0.068 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.634 \pm 0.182 \\ (0.36 \ \text{s/g}) \\ \hline 0.644 \pm 0.218 \\ 0.959 \pm 0.024 \\ 0.999 \pm 0.024 \\ 0.985 \pm 0.085 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.03 \pm 0.279 \\ 0.225 \pm 0.279 \\ \hline (0.41 \ \text{s/g}) \\ \hline 0.188 \pm 0.340 \\ 1.000 \\ 1.000 \\ 0.940 \pm 0.237 \end{array}$
Random CMP Simple Local Search (10s) SCIP 8.0.3 (1s) SCIP 8.0.3 (5s) Gurobi 10.0 (0.5s) Gurobi 10.0 (1s)	$\begin{array}{c} 0.615 \pm 0.155 \\ \hline 0.615 \pm 0.155 \\ \hline 0.42 \ \text{s/g} \end{array} \\ \hline 0.565 \pm 0.237 \\ \hline 0.741 \pm 0.351 \\ \hline 0.937 \pm 0.118 \\ \hline 0.969 \pm 0.070 \\ \hline 0.983 \pm 0.051 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.817 \pm 0.211 \\ (0.30 \text{ s/g}) \\ \hline 0.860 \pm 0.213 \\ 0.999 \pm 0.016 \\ 1.000 \\ 0.981 \pm 0.068 \\ 1.000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.634 \pm 0.182 \\ (0.36 \text{ s/g}) \\ \hline 0.644 \pm 0.218 \\ 0.959 \pm 0.024 \\ 0.999 \pm 0.024 \\ 0.985 \pm 0.085 \\ 1.000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} (0.03 \pm 0.279 \\ 0.225 \pm 0.279 \\ (0.41 \ \text{s/g}) \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} 0.188 \pm 0.340 \\ 1.000 \\ 1.000 \\ 0.940 \pm 0.237 \\ 1.000 \end{array}$

Table 1: Test set approximation ratios (higher is better; the best performance in bold) on four datasets. We report the average approximation ratios (along with std and time budget) on MIS. Notice that the proposed method outperforms all the deep-learning-based approaches across datasets.

Table 2: Out-of-distribution approximation ratios during inference (higher is better). Every row denotes a model trained on a specific dataset. Every column considers a different test dataset. The CMP is trained using mixed roll-outs. Notice that the proposed method generalizes well in out-of-distribution structures. This is indicative of the learned comparator extracting robust patterns.

Model (\downarrow) Dataset (\rightarrow)	RB	COLLAB	TWITTER
CMP RB	_	0.903 ± 0.186	0.668 ± 0.187
CMP COLLAB	0.856 ± 0.080	—	0.906 ± 0.094
CMP TWITTER	0.773 ± 0.101	0.927 ± 0.148	_
Erdos' GNN RB	-	0.361 ± 0.334	0.752 ± 0.188
Erdos' GNN COLLAB	0.680 ± 0.071	—	0.592 ± 0.186
Erdos' GNN TWITTER	0.746 ± 0.092	0.666 ± 0.385	_

306 7 Conclusion

Motivated by the principles of Dynamic Programming, we develop a self-training approach for 307 important CO problems, such as the Maximum Independent Set and the Minimum Vertex Cover. 308 Our approach embraces the power of self-training, offering the dual benefits of data self-annotation 309 and data generation. These inherent attributes are instrumental in providing an unlimited source of 310 data indicating that the performance of the induced algorithms can be significantly improved with 311 sufficient scaling on the computational resources. We firmly believe that a thorough investigation 312 into the interplay between Dynamic Programming and self-training techniques can pave the way for 313 new deep-learning-oriented approaches for demanding CO problems. 314

Limitations: Our current empirical approach lacks theoretical guarantees on the convergence or the approximate optimality of the obtained algorithm. Additionally, the implemented GNN is using core modules, while more complex modules could result in further empirical improvements, which can be the next step in this direction.

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