Associative Learning for Network Embedding

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ABSTRACT

The network embedding task is to represent the node in the network as a low-dimensional vector while incorporating the topological and structural information. Most existing approaches solve this problem by factorizing a proximity matrix, either directly or implicitly. In this work, we introduce a network embedding method from a new perspective, which leverages Modern Hopfield Networks (MHN) for associative learning. Our network learns associations between the content of each node and that node’s neighbors. These associations serve as memories in the MHN. The recurrent dynamics of the network make it possible to recover the masked node, given that node’s neighbors. Our proposed method is evaluated on different downstream tasks such as node classification and linkage prediction. The results show competitive performance compared to the common matrix factorization techniques and deep learning based methods.

ACM Reference Format:

1 INTRODUCTION

Network embedding task is to represent the node of the network as a low-dimensional vector while retaining the topological information (usually reflected by the first-order proximity or second-order proximity). In order to build a good embedding, the model has to extract and store the common topological structure in the network, and use that information to guide the embedding, so that two nodes with similar topological structures have similar encodings.

Associative Memories are systems which are closely related to pattern recognition, retrieval and storage. In a typical Associative Memory task a group of stimuli are stored as a multidimensional memory vector. When certain subset of the stimuli is activated, the network recalls the related stimuli stored in the same or related memories. The Hopfield Network [11, 12] is the simplest mathematical implementation of this idea. The information about the dataset is stored as a collection of attractor fixed points (memories). In order to build a good embedding, the model has to extract and store the common topological structure in the network, and use that information to guide the embedding, so that two nodes with similar topological structures have similar encodings.

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2 RELATED WORK

Graph Embedding. There are mainly two types of approaches for the homogeneous network embedding task: matrix factorization based approaches and deep learning based approaches.
The matrix factorization-based approaches factorize some matrix which reflects the topological information of the network. There are mainly two different directions: one is to factorize the graph Laplacian eigenmaps [2, 10], and the other is to factorize the node proximity matrix [6]. For a given network \( G = (V, E) \) with \( m \) nodes, graph Laplacian eigenmaps factorization lets similar node embeddings have similar values; the high similarity nodes with very different embeddings are heavily penalized. Different approaches utilize different ways to craft the node similarity matrix. For instance, [10] uses euclidean distance between the feature vectors, [2, 8] construct the \( k \)-nearest neighbor graph to enhance the local connections, and [13] uses an anchor graph which is shown to be effective at preserving the local projection. For node proximity matrix factorization, the goal is to minimize the loss of approximating the proximity matrix directly. Different methods have different ways of constructing the proximity matrix and different factorization techniques. GraRep [3] leverages \( k \)-hop transfer information to construct the proximity matrix and uses singular value decomposition for the factorization. [20] uses different similarity metrics for quantifying the proximity matrix, and uses generalized SVD to speed up the computation. [30] uses low-rank matrix factorization over the pointwise mutual information matrix and adds context information during the factorization. [23] unifies LINE [27] and PTE [26] to do implicit matrix factorization for different proximity matrices, and proposes different proximity matrices for small and large window sizes. Recently, [31] proposes a unified architecture for the general embedding process.

For the deep learning-based approaches, one direction of research is related to random walks, where the whole network can be represented by a set of random walks starting from random nodes in the network. A node’s neighbor information can be reflected by the neighbor information in the random walk sequence. Then we can get node embeddings by embedding the random walk sequences. Inspired by word2vec [18] in the natural language processing area, Deepwalk [22] utilizes the SkipGram model to maximize the probability of seeing the neighboring nodes in the node sequence, conditioned on the node embedding itself. Hierarchical softmax and negative sampling [19] is used to increase the model efficiency. Many subsequent studies try to improve the graph diffusion process in order to better model the representation of the network. For example, Node2vec [7] uses both the breadth first search (BFS) and depth first research (DFS) to control the breadth and depth of the exploration. BFS helps to express the neighbor information and DFS helps to reflect the global information of the network. Aside from random walk based approaches, there are other deep learning based methods such as SDNE [29] and SAE [28] based on autoencoders.

**Associative Memories.** Associative Memories are systems which are closely related to pattern recognition, retrieval and storage. The Hopfield Network [11, 12] is the simplest mathematical implementation of this idea. The information about the dataset is stored as a collection of attractor fixed points (memories) of a recurrent neural network. However, the memory storage capacity for the traditional Hopfield network is small; in a \( d \)-dimensional space, the network can only store \( 0.138d \) memories \([1, 9, 11]\). Modern Hopfield Networks [16], also known as Dense Associative Memories, modify the energy function and the update rule of the original Hopfield Network to include stronger (higher-order in terms of interactions) non-linear activation functions. This results in a significant increase in the memory storage capacity making it super-linear in the dimensionality of the feature space. For certain choices of the activation functions, even an exponential storage capacity is possible [4]. Modern Hopfield Networks with continuous states have been formulated in a series of papers \([14–16, 24]\). It has also been shown that the attention mechanism can be regarded as a special case of the MHN with certain choice of the activation function (softmax) for the hidden neurons.

### 3 Modern Hopfield Networks for Node Embeddings

Consider a network \( G = (V, E) \). Each node \( v \in V \) in the network can be represented by its context vector, denoted by \( v_{\text{context}} \). The context is one or more hops neighbors around it, resulting in a \( m = |V| \) dimensional binary context vector \( v_{\text{context}} \in \{0, 1\}^m \). The target node embedding can be represented as the one-hot encoding for the node itself, which serves as the ground truth when computing the loss. The target node embedding is also an \( m \)-dimensional binary vector.

#### 3.1 Iterative Update Rule

Intuitively, our goal is to retrieve the target node from the memory with the help of the input context information and information from the previous step. The overall architecture of our retrieval process is shown in Fig. 1.

During the retrieval stage the update rule for our network is given by

\[
D_{\text{sim}} = f(\beta_1 v_{\text{target}}^{(t)} + \beta_2 v_{\text{context}}^{(t)})
\]

\[
v_{\text{update}}^{(t)} = \Phi v_{\text{target}}^{(t)} D_{\text{sim}}
\]

\[
v_{\text{target}}^{(t+1)} = \alpha v_{\text{target}}^{(t)} + \beta (v_{\text{update}}^{(t)} - v_{\text{target}}^{(t)})
\]

where \( v_{\text{context}} \) is the input context encoding, \( v_{\text{target}}^{(t)} \) is the target encoding at the step \( t \). At the beginning of the retrieval dynamics, \( v_{\text{target}}^{(0)} \) is initialized as a vector of zeros. The matrices \( \Phi v_{\text{target}} \in R^{K \times m} \) and \( v_{\text{context}} \in R^{K \times m} \) are memories stored in the network for target and context blocks, respectively. We store \( K \) context memory patterns and \( K \) target memory patterns, where each memory pattern is an \( m \)-dimensional vector. Both \( v_{\text{context}} \) and \( v_{\text{target}} \) are learnable parameters, \( f \) is the softmax function, and parameters \( \beta_1 \) and \( \beta_2 \) control the temperature of the softmax. \( D_{\text{sim}} \) is the similarity between the current pattern and all patterns stored in the network (considering both context block and target block). \( v_{\text{update}}^{(t)} \) is the readout from the memory for the target block. \( \alpha \) is the update rate for each step (it is a hyperparameter of our model). Intuitively, at every step our approach tries to retrieve the correct target information \( v_{\text{target}}^{(t)} \) from the memory with the help of the context information \( v_{\text{context}}^{(t)} \) as well as the target information from the previous step \( v_{\text{target}}^{(t)} \). The target block state is gradually updated until it becomes stable.

**Stored Memories as Energy Minima.** The above network architecture is a special kind of Modern Hopfield Network \([14, 15, 24]\). It can be shown that the network’s updating process is
minimizing the following energy (Lyapunov) function

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (v_{\text{target}})_i^2 - \log \left[ \sum_{\mu=1}^{K} \exp \left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\Phi_{\text{target}})_i (v_{\text{target}})_i + \epsilon_\mu \right) \right]$$

where $v_{\text{target}}$ is the i-th element in the final target vector $v_{\text{target}}$, $(\Phi_{\text{target}})_i$ is the i-th element for the $\mu$-th target memory and $\epsilon_\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\Psi_{\text{context}})_i (v_{\text{context}})_i$. Additionally, $(v_{\text{context}})_i$ is the i-th element for the input context vector, and $(\Psi_{\text{context}})_i$ is the i-th element of the $\mu$-th context memory. The energy monotonically decreases as dynamics progresses. Eventually, the state of the network will converge to the local minimum corresponding to one of the stored memory patterns.

3.2 Training and Embedding Generation

In the training phase, we collect the encoding of the target block $v_{\text{target}}^{(T)}$ after T steps of the iterative dynamics when the retrieval is stable, and then compute the cross entropy loss between this target state and the actual encoding for the target node (which is represented as a one hot encoded vector). This loss function is used for training the memory matrices $\Phi_{\text{context}}$ and $\Phi_{\text{target}}$ using the backpropagation algorithm.

In the embedding generation phase after the training is complete, the K-dimensional embedding for each node can be computed using the following equation

$${\text{node embedding}} = \Psi_{\text{context}} v_{\text{context}}$$

where $v_{\text{context}} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the context encoding for that node, and $\Psi_{\text{context}} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times m}$ is the memory matrix for the context block, which has already been learned during the training phase. Intuitively, each element of the final embedding indicates a similarity score between the input context vector and specific memories stored in the Dense Associative Memory network.

3.3 Complexity Analysis

The most expensive part of our approach is the matrix multiplication $\Phi_{\text{target}} v_{\text{target}}^{(T)}$, where $\Phi_{\text{target}} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times m}$ and $v_{\text{target}}^{(T)} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times B}$ ($K$ is the number of memories, $m$ is the number of nodes and $B$ is the batch size). The complexity for this matrix multiplication is $O(KBm)$. For each batch of data, we iterate $T$ steps. Thus, the time complexity per epoch is $O(KTm^2)$. Since both $K$ and $T$ are constant, the total time complexity is $O(m^2)$, which is similar to other baseline methods such as LINE [27] and SDNE [29].

4 EMPIRICAL EVALUATION

In this section we empirically evaluate the performance of our proposed network embedding model in node classification and linkage prediction downstream tasks on commonly used benchmarks.

4.1 Datasets

For the network embedding generation task, we first learn unsupervised node features purely from the network’s structure and then report the performance of our embeddings for multi-label classification and linkage prediction downstream task on three datasets: BlogCatalog [25], Protein-Protein Interactions [21] and Wikipedia [7, 17]. BlogCatalog is a network of social relationships reflected by the blog user, and the label is indicated by the categories of the blogs. Protein-Protein Interactions is a network which indicates the interactions of proteins that are found in humans, and the label indicates the biological state. Wikipedia is a word co-occurrence network for the first $10^9$ bytes of the English Wikipedia dump.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset</th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blogcatalog</td>
<td>10312</td>
<td>3890</td>
<td>4777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>333983</td>
<td>76584</td>
<td>184812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>categories</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Graph statistics for the datasets.
There exists an edge between words co-occurring in a 2-length window. The statistics of the networks and number of labels/categories for the nodes are summarized in Table 1.

### 4.2 Baseline Methods and Metrics

We compare our embedding approach against Deepwalk [22], LINE [27], Node2vec [7], and PhUSION [31], which are commonly used approaches for learning the latent node representations. Deepwalk first represents the network by a set of random walks starting from random nodes in the graph, so that a node’s neighbor information can be reflected by the neighbor information in the random walk sequence. The node embedding is obtained by embedding the random walk sequences using the SkipGram model [18]. Node2vec is a modification of DeepWalk with a small difference in random walks. It uses two parameters to control the breadth and depth of the exploration. LINE optimizes a carefully designed objective function that preserves both local and global network structures. PhUSION proposes a unified architecture of the general embedding process, which consists of node proximity calculation, nonlinear transformation function, and embedding functions.

For the node classification downstream evaluation, we follow the procedure of previous methods, i.e. train a one-vs-rest logistic regression model using the LibLinear library [5] on top of all the embedding for the classification task and report the micro-f1 and macro-f1 scores based on the average performance of 20 runs. In our experiments, the train/test split for the evaluation is 9 : 1, and we also report the standard deviation. For our embedding model, we use 2000 memories across all datasets. For the baseline models we have run their codes using the default setting. All the parameters are learned by the backpropagation algorithm.

For the linkage prediction downstream evaluation, we randomly sample 500 positive and negative node pairs respectively for each dataset. The task is to predict whether or not there is an edge between the node pairs based on their embedding. The probability of an edge between nodes \(i\) and \(j\) is given by \(\sigma(h_i^T h_j)\), where \(\sigma\) is the sigmoid function, and \(h_i, h_j\) are node embeddings. We report Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve as well as the Area Under Curve (AUC) scores for all the embedding methods. Also, we include a heuristic method using Jaccard’s Coefficient for reference. The Jaccard’s Coefficient is defined as \(\frac{\left| N(u) \cap N(v) \right|}{\left| N(u) \cup N(v) \right|}\) for a given node pair \((u, v)\) with the immediate neighbor sets \(N(u)\) and \(N(v)\) respectively.

For our graph node embedding generation, Adam optimizer and weight decay is used during training, and learning rate is initialized as 0.01; \(\beta_1\) is 1, \(\beta_2\) is 0.5, and the update rate \(\alpha\) is 0.2.

### 4.3 Network Embedding Empirical Evaluation

**Node Classification:** Table 2 summarizes the results for graph node embeddings generated by different methods on the downstream node classification task. Our MHN based approach outperforms DeepWalk, Node2vec, LINE and PhUSION on two out of three datasets both for micro- and macro-f1 scores. On BlogCatalog our method loses to DeepWalk, but still performs better than other methods. Associative Memory network works particularly well on the Wikipedia dataset resulting in more than 7% improvement over DeepWalk and Node2vec, and over 6% improvement over LINE for the micro-f1 score.

**Linkage Prediction:** Table 3 and Fig. 2 summarize the results for the downstream linkage prediction task. For every pair of nodes the dot product of their embedding vectors is passed through a sigmoid function and thresholded at a certain value. Scores above the threshold are predicted as links, and below the threshold as absence of links. The ROC curves are obtained as the discrimination threshold is varied. Our Associative Memory based method does extremely well on the linkage prediction task across all the benchmark datasets. Such a strong performance is expected from the conceptual computational design of our network. On the one hand, nodes with similar neighborhood structure tend to have a link connecting them. On the other hand, nodes with similar neighborhood structure will be more likely attracted (in the course of the Hopfield dynamics) by the same group of memories. Thus, the core computational strategy of our model is particularly well suited for this task.

### 5 CONCLUSIONS

In this work we have proposed a framework for learning node embeddings using the Modern Hopfield Networks in combination with the masked node training. The context of each node activates a set of memory vectors that are used for predicting the identity of
Table 2: Area Under the Curve (AUC) scores for the multi-label classification task. We use 7 update steps for the retrieval dynamics of our model and 2000 hidden units for storing the memories.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Node2vec</th>
<th>LINE</th>
<th>PhUSION</th>
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<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPI</td>
<td>0.91(3%)</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wikipedia</td>
<td>0.87(17%)</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Area Under the Curve (AUC) scores for linkage prediction. Comparison with popular baselines. The number in parenthesis shows the performance gain when compared with the second best baseline.

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</tr>
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</table>

the masked node. From the theoretical perspective, our main contribution is the extension of the Modern Hopfield Network framework to the settings where each data point (a given node in the graph) is represented by several distinct kinds of attributes (e.g., context, target node identity, labels). Some of these attributes (e.g., masked node identity) can evolve in time using the Hopfield dynamics, while others (e.g., context) can be kept clamped to guide the dynamical trajectory in the direction of appropriate (for that context) memories. The core computational strategy of the Dense Associative Memory network naturally incorporates the appropriate pattern completion for the masked node and learns useful representations for the memory vectors, which can be utilized for multiple downstream tasks.

Our work opens up several avenues for future work. We plan to do a more extensive comparison on a larger variety of networks, and other methods for learning unsupervised structural representations. Other directions include developing hierarchical Associative Memories to capture higher-level graph features.

REFERENCES