



Degree Project in Computer Science and Engineering

Second cycle, 30 credits

Lightweight Memory Networks for Link Prediction

Generalization of the LiMNet Architecture

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Date: May 24, 2025

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Host company: RISE, Research Institute of Sweden

Swedish title: Lightweight Memory Networks för Länkprediktion

Swedish subtitle: Generalization av LiMNet Arkitektur

Abstract

- User-item recommendation is a central problem for search engines, social medias and streaming services. Yet, it is challenging because it necessitate to deal with information that is both relational and evolving over time. And common solutions have commonly been neglecting one of these aspects.
- In this work, we try to address these limitations by using the recent Lightweight Memory Networks (LiMNet). A model that captures causal relationships within temporal interaction.
- We demonstrate the potential of this solution throughout a framework for user-item recommendation that allow us to compare the performance of LiMNet with other baselines. The datasets used for the experiments record edits on Wikipedia pages, edits on Reddit pages and music streams on LastFM website. Each of these dataset presenting different scales and challenges for user-item recommendation.

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- What is the topic area? (optional) Introduces the subject area for the project.
- Short problem statement
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- How did you solve the problem? What was your method/insight?
- Results/Conclusions/Consequences/Impact: What are your key results/conclusions? What will others do based on your results? What can be done now that you have finished - that could not be done before your thesis project was completed?

Keywords

Graph Representation Learning, Temporal Interaction Networks, Link Prediction, Data Mining, Machine Learning, Recommendations

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Graph Representation Learning, Temporal Interaction Networks, Link Prediction, Data Mining, Machine Learning, Recommendations

Acknowledgments

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Stockholm, May 2025

Titouan Mazier

Contents

1. Introduction	1
1.1. Purpose/Motivation	1
1.2. Problem	2
1.3. Delimitations	2
1.4. Contributions	2
1.5. Ethics and Sustainability	3
2. Background	5
2.1. User-Item Link Prediction	5
2.2. Graph Representation Learning	6
2.3. Dynamic Graphs	7
2.4. Cross-RNN	8
2.5. LiMNet	9
3. Method	11
3.1. Datasets	11
3.2. Experimental framework	12
3.2.1. Preparation of the data	13
3.2.2. Batching Strategy	13
3.2.3. Training and evaluation loops	14
3.2.4. Comparison of the embeddings	14
3.2.5. Code maintainability	15
3.3. Adaptations of the Lightweight Memory Networks (LiMNet) architecture	16
3.3.1. Loss functions	16
3.3.2. Addition of time features	16
3.3.3. Normalization of the embeddings	17
3.3.4. Stacking several LiMNet layers	17
3.4. Baselines	18
4. Results	21
4.1. Effects of the proposed improvements for LiMNet	22
4.1.1. Time features	22
4.1.2. normalization	22
4.1.3. Multiple layers	22
4.2. Comparison with Jodie	22
4.2.1. limnet vs jodie	22
4.2.2. embeddings size on jodie	22
4.2.3. jodie op ?	23

4.3. Effect of the batching strategy	23
References	25

List of Figures

Figure 2.1 Architecture of LiMNet . User embeddings are indicated in green and items embeddings in purple.	10
Figure 3.1 Architecture of LiMNet with two layers.	18

List of Tables

Table 3.1 Details of the datasets.	12
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Acronyms and Abbreviations

CTDG – Continuous-Time Dynamic Graph: Dynamic graph where each edge is associated with a timestamp. 7

GRL – Graph Representation Learning: The task of computing high level representation of graphs, subgraphs, nodes or edges. Used as inputs for Machine Learning algorithms. 6, 7

GRU – Gated Recurrent Unit: A type of recurrent neural network that simplifies the LSTM architecture by combining the forget and input gates into a single update gate. 8, 9

LiMNet – Lightweight Memory Networks: A neural network architecture that focuses on efficient memory utilization and lightweight design for temporal interaction network embeddings computations. vii, ix, 2, 3, 9, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 18, 21, 22

LSTM – Long-Short Term Memory: A type of recurrent neural network designed to effectively learn and remember short and long-term dependencies in sequential data by using specialized memory cells and gating mechanisms. 8, 9

RNN – Recurrent Neural Network: A neural network whose output depends on both the inputs and on the state of an internal memory that is updated with each input. 8, 9

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Purpose/Motivation

The rapid expansion of digital technologies has resulted in the production of an overwhelming abundance of information, to the point that it is a challenge to find relevant and meaningful material among the multitude. Thus, search engines and recommendation systems have become essential tools to not only alleviate this information overload, but also to leverage the large pools of data. These two tools share one common goal: filtering information. Among the many techniques that have emerged to tackle this task, content personalization has emerged as a significant factor. Instead of filtering the information in the same way for everyone, the systems will use the user's context: their search history, demographics, pasts interactions with the system, etc. to filter the information to display. Content personalization is the whole core of recommendation systems, but it is also very efficient for search engines. For example, the search for the term "football" should yield different results for a user interested in American football and a user interested in association football (soccer).

Content personalization can be represented as a single algorithm that accepts as input user related information and output an item from a catalog. In order to measure the performance of such an algorithm, we need to know what items would be relevant for each users. Gathering this information is costly, and sometimes even impossible. However, it is easy to collect user behaviors such as interaction with items, thus, content recommendation is commonly approximated to an interaction prediction task.

Interaction prediction is a self-supervised learning task where interactions are used as labels to predicts before being given as inputs to predict future interactions. What sets this task apart from other self-supervised tasks is the relational aspect of the information used, each interaction explicitly connecting information with other interactions and the interacting elements. In addition, interaction order and temporality usually matters.

LiMNet [1] is a simple Machine Learning model that is designed to process interactions in a causal way, leveraging both relational information and the interactions order. This model proved it's performance at solving the task of botnet detection in IoT network, and has been designed in a modular and adaptive way that makes it easy to employ for different tasks. Given these promising results and that it is designed to exploit precisely the specific information that makes interaction prediction challenging, we believe that LiMNet can be an interesting solution to the interaction prediction task.

1.2. Problem

While LiMNet have shown significant success and potential, it has only been tested on the task of botnet detection on IoT networks, with some additional results available for the task of cryptocurrency fraud detection [2]. Thus, the goal of this project is to apply and evaluate LiMNet on interaction prediction tasks, in order to assess the capabilities of the architecture across a wider variety of problems. Furthermore, this project implements and evaluates adaptations and changes to the model's architecture, attempting to further enhance it's performances on the task of interaction prediction.

To summarize, the core research question for this work is the following:

“How will LiMNet perform on the task of interaction prediction?”

This question follow two broader goals:

1. Explore the range of applications of the LiMNet model.
2. Help understand the success of state of the art interaction prediction models.

1.3. Delimitations

This project focuses solely on predicting interactions for user-item networks. Thus, it does not cover tasks such as user/item label classification or link prediction between users or items separately.

1.4. Contributions

The contribution of this project are listed below:

- We publish a framework for model evaluation on user-item interaction prediction task.

- We present and evaluate LiMNet , a new embedding model inspired from IoT botnet detection.
- We propose and test modifications to this model targeted at improving performances for the specific task of user-item interaction prediction.
- We reproduce and evaluate a state of the art model as a baseline.

1.5. Ethics and Sustainability

The progress of Machine Learning applications, that allow to leverage big data sources at the expense of large infrastructure costs, increases the risk of inequalities by increasing the power of bigger institutions. However, for this project that risk is mitigated thanks to three aspect of the LiMNet architecture. First, the big selling points of this architecture are its scalability and lightweight aspect, both elements that participate to reduce the entry cost to run such model. Second, there is ongoing research to adapt this architecture into a decentralized and collaborative variant [3]. That variant may allow communities to leverage the model using distributed resources. Lastly, this project is public and thus easily accessible for legislators and law enforcers. There is an ever-increasing need to push the legislation on the use of new technologies, and to perform research to allow legislator to take informed decision about the subject that still contains a lot of unknowns.

The reduced cost in computing is also subject to potential environmental impacts. It is still unclear, however, if increasing energy efficiency leads to an actual energy saving on the long run [4].

Chapter 2

Background

This chapter provide the background for the project. In Section 2.1 we provide an overview of link prediction and the classical solutions for the problem, in Section 2.2 we further develop the concept of graph embedding and some common methods to create them. Then in Section 2.3 we discuss the addition of a time dimension in graph-shaped data and the way it can be exploited, followed by a presentation of cross-RNN architectures in Section 2.4. Finally we present the model of interest for this work in Section 2.5 and why we believe that it is a relevant addition to the task of link prediction.

2.1. User-Item Link Prediction

Content personalization can commonly be represented as a link-prediction problem in a user-item graph. In such a graph, each user and each item is associated to a node. An item can be any kind of information or content the user is interested in, such as web pages, music tracks, or items in an e-commerce catalog. For each interaction a user has with the system, it registers as an edge in the graph. The goal of the personalization system is to find which items are the most relevant for a given user at a given time, which is the same as predicting which interactions could be added next in the graph. Note that the relevance of an item is highly contextual, for example Christmas songs are very relevant around December and much less in July.

Two different way to approach that problem are to use the graph analytics or to use features. By measuring how close each item is to the user in the graph through graph analytics methods, we get recommendations based on the user's past interactions and on the interactions users with similar history had. Research in graph theory has provided us with a range of different ways to compute closeness between two nodes, such as measuring the shortest path connecting them, how many neighbors they share or how exclusive their common neighbors are.

The other approach exploits additional information we get in addition of the relationship between users and items. Most real-world system provide

rich information about the nature of each interactions, users, and items, for example, in a music streaming service, a song can have a length and a genre while a user can have an age. We call these information features and exploiting them is the core of Machine Learning. This approach, doesn't make suggestion based on the users past interactions but instead will suggest similar results to users with similar attributes.

The challenge is then to meld both approaches. Lichtenwalter et al. proposed to approach link prediction as a supervised Machine Learning problem where the objective is to predict if an edge will exist in the future between a given pair of user and item. To include the relational data to their model, they add some of the closeness metrics from graph analytics to the users and items features[5]. This setup invites to exploits the graph-based data not directly to predict the result but to build relevant features to enhance existing feature based solutions. Instead of looking for the desired property in the structure of the graph, this approach will try to summarize the structure into rich representation compatible with machine learning algorithm.

All the previously mentioned methods presents one main drawback: each time a user want to be predicted an item, the score for each item regarding that user must be evaluated. This constraint makes it impossible to scale the solutions to large pools of items. To limit the number of comparisons, a solution is to create a high-dimensional representation of the users and items separately and use simple proximity functions on these embeddings as a scoring function. This spatial representation allow to reduce the problem to a nearest neighbor search for which scalable solutions have been found.

2.2. Graph Representation Learning

The task of learning high level representation from graph data is called Graph Representation Learning, abbreviated as GRL . GRL is a broad family of machine learning approaches that capture the complex non-euclidian structure of graphs into low-dimensional euclidian representations (i.e. numerical vectors), enabling its use by downstream ML methods. It can be used to classify graph structures such as protein graphs, to capture information from a subgraph for example by creating subgraph representation from a knowledge graph to feed into a Large Language Model, and more commonly, to create embeddings for nodes in a graph. These embeddings must capture information about the node's features but also about the context of the node

in the graph, which is typically defined as the neighboring nodes and their respective features and context.

2.3. Dynamic Graphs

Most of the information we get from networks is dynamic, especially for user-item interaction networks where each interaction is usually happening at a given time. Yet, when dealing with relational data, this temporal dimension is often disregarded to limit the complexity of the problem, or simplified as a mere feature of the interaction. However temporal data constitute a unique kind of information, allowing to exploit causality relationship between the different interactions.

Causality is the idea that causes will have consequences in the future. It becomes especially critical when studying phenomena that can spread through the networks like diseases, information, or trends. In such settings, each interaction can be the cause for a new state in the interacting nodes, requiring a different treatment for the same node at different times. While this concept is very intuitive for us, it is not the case for common GRL techniques described in Section 2.2 that let the information spread along the graph regardless of the order in which they are created.

In their review of dynamic network[6], Zheng et al. explain two ways temporal information are commonly included into graph data. The first one considers a series of snapshot of the graph at successive timestamps. The second one, called Continuous-Time Dynamic Graph (CTDG), records every edition to the graph as an event, associated with a timestamp. A typical event in a CTDG is an edge addition or deletion. For this work, the focus is on CTDG with all events being punctual interactions. We call such networks temporal interaction networks. These networks have the benefit to represent reality of a lot of system in a completely faithful way. However, the structure of the graph is blurry as each interaction corresponds to a point-in-time edge that is deleted as soon as it appears. Because of this, we tend to approach such graphs as a stream of interactions rather than a structured network.

A popular approach to leverage temporal data when creating nodes embeddings is to maintain a memory of the embeddings and update them as interactions are read. One of the building block for this approach is Deep-Coevolve[7], a model for link prediction that uses a cross-RNN (detailed further in Section 2.4) to update the representation of the users and items,

followed by an intensity function to predict the best match for the user at every given time t . Following DeepCoevolve, other cross-RNN models have been proposed with notables performance upgrade.

JODIE[8] builds upon DeepCoevolve by adding a static embedding component to the representation, using the Cross-RNN part to track the users and items trajectories. It then employs a neural network layer to project the future embedding of each node at varying time. operation carried over by the intensity function in DeepCoevolve.

DeePRed[9] is an other approach building on top of DeepCoevolve, this time with the aim to accelerate and simplify the training by getting rid of the recurrence in the cross-RNN mechanism. To achieve this, the dynamic embeddings are computed based on static embeddings, effectively getting rid of the recurrence by never reusing the dynamic embeddings for further computations. The lack of long term information passing, is compensated by the use of a sliding context window coupled with an attention mechanism to best identify the meaningful interactions.

2.4. Cross-RNN

The key mechanism for all the aforementioned models is called cross-RNN where RNN stands for Recurrent Neural Network. A RNN is a neural network with the specificity of processing sequential data, passing an internal memory embedding between each step of the sequence of inputs. Formally, a RNN layer is defined as

$$o(i_t) = f(i_t, h_{t-1}) \quad (1)$$

$$h_t = g(i_t, h_{t-1}) \quad (2)$$

Where t stands for the time step of the input i_t . $o(i_t)$ marks the output of the layer and h_t represent the memory of the layer after receiving the input i_t . The functions f and g can vary depending on the nature of the RNN but they will rely on weights, tuned during the model training. Popular RNN architectures try to keep a memory of long-term knowledge. Typically, the Long-Short Term Memory (LSTM) architecture maintains two distinct memories, a short term one and a long term one. The Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) architecture iterate over LSTM by simplifying it, removing one of the two memories while keeping the gating mechanism. In practice both approaches

perform significantly better than the naïve RNN implementation, with GRU achieving comparable performances than LSTM, in spite of its reduced cost.

A Cross-RNN layer is slightly different. Instead of keeping track of a single memory embedding \mathbf{h}_t , it maintain a memory for all nodes in the graph $\mathbf{H}_t = (\mathbf{h}_t^u)_{u \in \mathbb{U}} \cup (\mathbf{h}_t^i)_{i \in \mathbb{I}}$, where \mathbb{U} and \mathbb{I} are the sets of users and items in the graph. For each interaction (u, i, t, \mathbf{f}) the memory is updated as follow:

$$\mathbf{h}_t^u = g^u(\mathbf{h}_{t-1}^u, \mathbf{h}_{t-1}^i, t, \mathbf{f}) \quad (3)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_t^i = g^i(\mathbf{h}_{t-1}^i, \mathbf{h}_{t-1}^u, t, \mathbf{f}) \quad (4)$$

And for all other users and nodes the memory is carried over.

$$\mathbf{h}_t^v = \mathbf{h}_{t-1}^v \quad \forall v \in \mathbb{U} \setminus \{u\} \cup \mathbb{I} \setminus \{i\} \quad (5)$$

Where u is the user interacting with item i at time t with feature \mathbf{f} , and g^u and g^i are tunable functions, comparable to the function g in Eq. 2. LSTM and GRU cells designed for classical RNNs can be used for cross-RNN, the only modification being the memory management external to the cell.

The main benefit of cross-RNN architectures is that conservation of causality is granted by design. It comes, however, with a cost: the input of a cross-RNN model is sequential and cannot be made parallel. This cost is nonetheless mostly an issue for the training of the model, because processing one input in inference do not require to pass through the entire sequence.

2.5. LiMNet

LiMNet is a cross-RNN model designed to optimize the memory utilization and computational speed at inference time. In the original paper[1], LiMNet is designed as a complete framework for botnet detection in IoT networks, with four main components: an input feature map, a generalization layer, an output feature map and a response layer. For the purpose of this work, we will however consider LiMNet as a graph embedding module. Because the input feature map, output feature map and the response layer are task-dependent, the denomination “LiMNet” in this present work will designate only the generalization layer from this point.

LiMNet as a graph embedding module is a straightforward implementation of a cross-RNN module. This simplicity in the design brings two main benefits: first, LiMNet is very cheap to run at inference time, with a memory

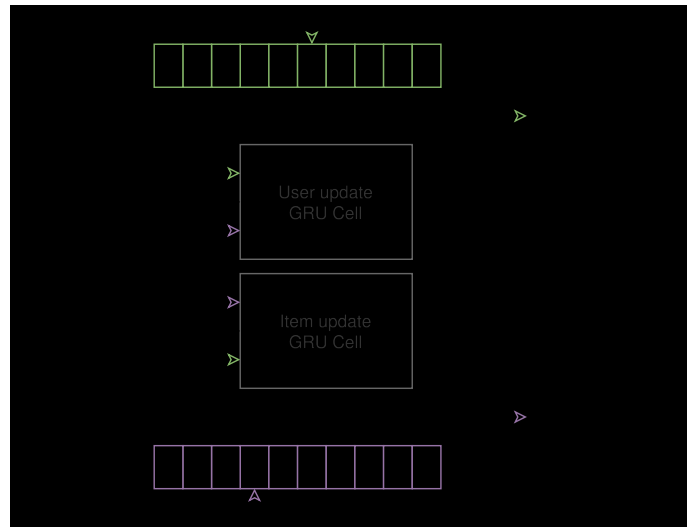


Figure 2.1: Architecture of LiMNet . User embeddings are indicated in green and items embeddings in purple.

requirement linear in the number of nodes in the network. Secondly, it is flexible to node insertion or deletions. If a new node is added to the graph, it's embedding can be computed immediately, without a need to retrain the model. Node deletions are even easier to handle, all it takes is to delete the corresponding embedding from the memory. In practice, LiMNet has already proven it's potential on the task of IoT botnet detection[1] and fraud detection[2], it is thus expected that it could yield satisfying results for link-prediction, while requiring less resources than State of the Art solutions.

Chapter 3

Method

In this chapter, we detail the experiments conducted throughout this work. First in Section 3.1, we introduce the datasets used in this work. Section 3.2 details the framework developed to conduct the experiments in a fair and controlled environment. Next, we present in Section 3.3 the various adaptations proposed for LiMNet to solve the task of link-prediction. Finally, we discuss in Section 3.4 exploration we conducted with the baselines.

3.1. Datasets

We use three public datasets in this project, all directly taken from the Stanford Large Network Dataset Collection (accessible at snap.stanford.edu/jodie/#datasets). More specifically, these datasets were created by Kefato et al. in [8] and have been reused a large number of times since then, to the extent that they have become de facto standard benchmarks for interaction network predictions.

- **Wikipedia edits:** This dataset gathers edits on Wikipedia pages over the course of a month. It is made of the 1,000 most edited pages during the month and the 8,227 users that edited at least 5 time any of these pages. In total, the dataset records 157,474 edits.

- **Reddit posts:** This dataset was built in a similar fashion to the Wikipedia dataset. It comprises posts on the 1,000 most active subreddits, published by the 10,000 most active users over the course of a month. In total, this dataset records 672,447 interactions.

- **Reddit LastFM songs listens:** This dataset records music streams of the 1,000 most listened songs on the LastFM website. These streams are performed by 1,000 users throughout one month, and results in 1,293,103 total interactions.

The initial publication also included another dataset compiling user interaction with massive online open courses (MOOC). However, we decided to

	Wikipedia	Reddit	LastFM
Users	8,227	10,000	1,000
Items	1,000	1,000	1,000
Interactions	157,474	672,447	1,293,103
Unique edges	18,257	78,516	154,993

Table 3.1: Details of the datasets.

set it aside because it contained too few data points to work with: only a couple interaction per users in average.

The Table 3.1 summarizes the characteristics of the datasets. We can see that the main difference between the Wikipedia and the Reddit datasets is the density. They both have similar number of users and items but in Reddit there are about four times more connections between them than in Wikipedia. In LastFM the density is almost 20 times higher compared with Reddit, note also that the balance between users and items is perfectly respected, compared with the two other datasets.

3.2. Experimental framework

Evaluating embedding models is a complex task because it requires to accommodate for a wide variety of inputs and outputs shapes, along with diverse training and inference procedures, while still ensuring the fairness of the evaluation between the different methods.

This complexity blooms with temporal graphs because there are different ways to approach them. One model can be approaching a temporal graph as a series of static graphs, another one can approach it as a time series [6], and yet another one could try to maintain a dynamical representation of the graph on the fly. None of these approaches is inherently better or worse than the others and they can all open up for different design opportunities.

The implementation we came up with is publicly available on GitHub under the following link: <https://github.com/mazerti/link-prediction>.

In this section, we will precise the design decisions that led to our final evaluation framework. We grouped these decisions into four categories: Preparation of the data, Batching strategy, Training and evaluation loops, and comparison of the embeddings.

3.2.1. Preparation of the data

The datasets provide us with three types of information for each recorded interaction: the identifiers of the interacting user and item, the timestamp at which the interaction took place and a set of features providing additional information about the interaction. Most of the time, the models tested use only the identifiers and the implicit order of the interaction. Thus the framework will always provide as inputs the ids of the user and item interacting in the order the interactions happen.

In addition, the framework can add features to the inputs. These features can be requested either by the user through the configuration file, or directly by the model's implementation during the model's initialization. This second option allows to seamlessly add models relying on custom features without the requirement to manually request the features each time the model is used. This is especially relevant for time information, because each model can have a different use of the timestamps. A common usage is to use the time delta between successive interactions of a same user. This information would be expensive to compute at inference because it would require to keep track of the timestamp of the last interaction each user have performed at any time step. Pre-computing it as a feature on the other hand is much more convenient because we have access to all the interactions at once and computing time deltas results in a simple query operation.

3.2.2. Batching Strategy

As pointed out by previous work [8], [9] temporal interaction comes with a tradeoff regarding the ability to leverage parallelism for training. Kumar et al. proposed for their model JODIE an elaborate batching strategy based on the structure of the graph [8], and Kefato et al. removed the recursions from their model DeePRed by approximating the dynamic embeddings with static ones [9].

Inspired by the original LiMNet proposition [1], we decided instead to slice the data into sequences of fixed size. The idea is that big enough sequences could be good enough approximation of the actual sequence of all the interactions. While each sequence still require to be processed in order, several sequences can however be processed in parallel, speeding up the training.

3.2.3. Training and evaluation loops

The on-demand feature preparation discussed in Section 3.2.1 ensures that each model can access the inputs that it requires, unfortunately the models outputs also presents structural discrepancies. Since this work's scope is limited to embedding models, all model's outputs should be fixed size embeddings for either users or items, some models, though, come with their own loss functions based on internal states. Accessing the right outputs to compute either the loss function or the metrics from the embeddings is therefore not something that can be managed identically for all models.

Because of this limitation, we took the decision to tie the evaluation logic of the models with the models implementations. This include going over a batch of interaction sequences, running the predictions, computing the loss, back propagation, updating the model memories, and producing measurable embeddings. However, we made sure to standardize all measures with fixed functions designed independently from the models with a sole purpose of measuring embeddings for the task of link prediction. In addition, the training and evaluation loops are managed in a unified way, limiting the risks of bugs to occur due to errors in code reproduction. These loops include going over the batches, reporting the results, and iterating over the epochs,

3.2.4. Comparison of the embeddings

The last challenge in the implementation concerns the embeddings. While we want to create embeddings to synthesize the information, it is not the actual end goal of the system. The end goal is to rank the items for a given user, and, if the model is performant, to rank the item that will interact with the user high on the list. There are several ways to convert the embeddings into ranking, because this is not the focus of this work, we decided to use a simple approach: we rank the item embeddings based on their proximity with the user embedding. We did however consider two separate approaches to compute the proximity between embeddings to best accommodate the diversity of models tested.

The first one is computed as the dot product of the normalized embeddings, which is equivalent to the cosine of the angle formed by the two embeddings with the origin of the embedding space.

$$\text{dot_product_score}(e^{\text{user}}, e^{\text{item}}) = \frac{e^{\text{user}}}{\|e^{\text{user}}\|} \cdot \frac{e^{\text{item}}}{\|e^{\text{item}}\|} \quad (6)$$

The higher the dot-product score between an item embedding, and the target user embedding, the closer these embeddings will be, therefore, the item should be ranked higher for that user.

The second proximity used is the L2 distance, a generalization of geometric distance to k -dimensional spaces.

$$\text{L2_score}(e^{\text{user}}, e^{\text{item}}) = \sqrt[k]{\|e^{\text{user}} - e^{\text{item}}\|^k} \quad (7)$$

For this score, lower values will indicate closer embeddings and be ranked higher.

For all our experiments, we measure the performances with both scoring methods and report the highest measured value among the two.

3.2.5. Code maintainability

For exploratory research projects such as this one, it could be beneficial to write the whole codebase from scratch rather than re-use an existing codebase. Doing so removes from the research process the craft of dependencies management, the need to understand the detail of the implementation as well as the necessity to comply with a previous framework. Starting from scratch also allow to approach problems from a different angle, and generally let the researcher focus on challenges emerging from the novelty. However, it is crucial to be able to reproduce experiments and to re-use existing models that can be used as baselines or as base for further developments.

Thus, this framework has been developed with the goal of being easy to understand and either build upon or reproduce. To reach this goal, two lines have been followed through the development process: thorough documentation and functional approach. The systematic documentations of every function in the framework should be able to help future researchers to understand the details of the implementation faster, whether it is for reusing it or to reproduce its behavior in a new experimental context. With the same goal of simplicity of understanding, the state have also been gathered as much as possible into a single location: the Context class. This class acts as a simple store for all stateful parts of the framework, making them never more than one variable away, wherever it is called from. In addition the framework has been written in a functional aspiring style, always favoring pure functions for their conceptual simplicity and consistency. Unfortunately this functional approach couldn't be applied on every part of the program,

notable exceptions are the PyTorch modules that had to be implemented in an object oriented way to accommodate PyTorch’s framework.

3.3. Adaptations of the LiMNet architecture

This work’s primary goal was to test how the LiMNet model would perform for the link-prediction task. However, as discussed in Section 2.5, the implementation we use is stripped down of it’s inputs and outputs maps, as well as the response layer used in the original paper to fit the specific needs of the task of IoT botnet detection.

3.3.1. Loss functions

We also had to adapt the loss used to train LiMNet , because, unlike botnet detection, link-prediction isn’t a classification setting, so we couldn’t use cross entropy Loss as the original model did. Instead we decided to use a mix of two losses. The first is an objective loss to minimize the distance between the embedding of the interacting user and item, it is calculated using the mean squared error for the embeddings or their dot product to 1. And the second is a regularization loss to maximize the information retention by maximizing the distance between different users and between different items. This loss is computed as follow:

$$L_{\text{reg}} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T + \mathbf{I}\mathbf{I}^T \quad (8)$$

Where \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{I} are respectively the matrix containing all the users embeddings and the matrix containing all the items embeddings.

In addition of this simplification, we proposed three separate modifications to enhance the model: adding time features, normalizing the embeddings and stacking several LiMNet layers.

3.3.2. Addition of time features

While LiMNet takes advantage of the order of the interaction to propagate information in a causal way, it doesn’t use the actual timestamps to compute the embeddings. One of our assumption was that this would lead to a loss of relevant information that could otherwise have been useful to predict the best item. In order to check that assumption, we created time features to provide the model with information about when the interaction happen. We specifically intended to capture cyclic patterns in the user behaviors such as week/weekend or day/night differences in behaviors.

Unfortunately, our datasets only provide relative timestamps that obfuscated the exact time and day of the interactions, so we had to approximate these patterns by using a frequency decomposition of the timestamps. Specifically, we use the two following features to capture a temporal pattern:

$$\cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{\Delta}t\right), \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{\Delta}t\right) \quad (9)$$

Where t is the timestamp of the interaction, and Δ is the duration of the pattern we want to capture (a day or a week) in the unit of the timestamps. This aims at providing the model with a time representation that is more compatible with its machine learning components, that tend to fail to extract patterns from one dimensional values.

3.3.3. Normalization of the embeddings

An efficient way to compute the dot-product scores (Eq. 6) is to normalize all the embeddings to the unit sphere. While doing this, we realized that it could also be applied to the embeddings in LiMNet's memory, this way, the cross-RNN mechanism is also fed with normalized embeddings as inputs. Our hopes were that this way the model would be more focused on encoding information through the angles between the embeddings rather than through their amplitudes.

Another benefit of this method is that it prevents the embeddings to collapse to 0. While the regularization loss is meant to prevent embeddings to converge all to the same value, it actually only makes sure that the embeddings are not aligned, therefore, 0 remains a potential convergence point. Keeping the embeddings normalized at any time is thus a good solution to this issue.

Our experiments yielded significantly better results with embeddings normalization, so we decided to use this modification by default for all the experiments conducted with LiMNet on this project.

3.3.4. Stacking several LiMNet layers

The last improvement to LiMNet that we have tried was to stack several layers of the LiMNet architecture on top of each other, effectively turning it into a deep recurrent neural network. Figure 3.1 illustrate the architecture of this new model. The leaky ReLU functions inserted between each layers aims to add non-linearity and increase the expressiveness of the model.

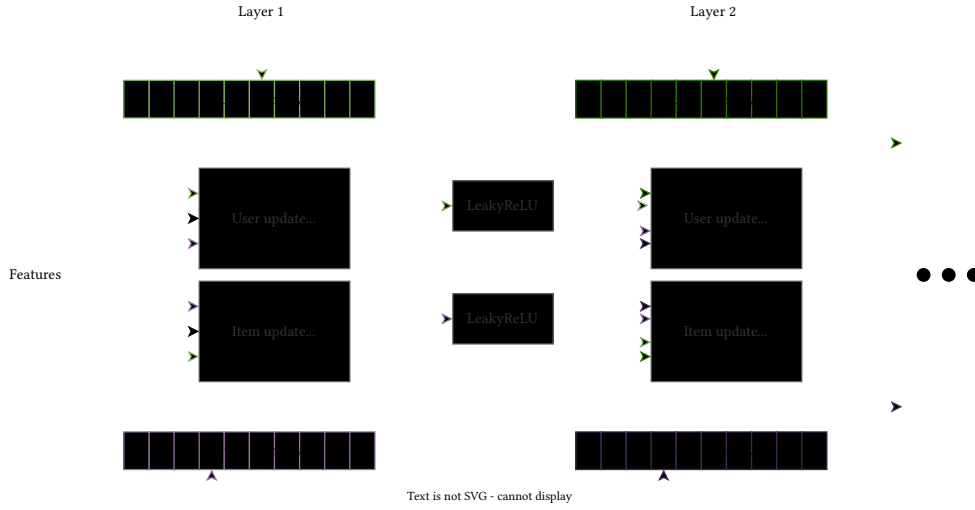


Figure 3.1: Architecture of LiMNet with two layers.

3.4. Baselines

We evaluated the performances of LiMNet against 2 other baselines: static embeddings and Jodie.

We trained static embeddings for each user and item, with the same loss functions that we described in Section 3.3.1 for LiMNet . This baseline is oblivious to the relational and temporal information contained in the data. It is also inconvenient to deploy for real world application because it requires to be entirely re-trained to account for any new information such as new interactions, new users, or new items.

The other baseline Jodie is described in [8], it is build upon the same core of cross-RNN embeddings than LiMNet but present three major differences. First, in addition to the cross-RNN dynamic embeddings, Jodie uses one-hot representations of the users and items to create the final embeddings. Secondly, Jodie exploits the time delta between two interaction of a user throughout a projection operation that tries to anticipate the embeddings' trajectory. Lastly, the model is trained with a dedicated loss function that ensure that the embeddings won't change too radically as a consequence of an interaction.

We identified two differences between our implementation of Jodie and the original proposition, the absence of the t-batch algorithm, replaced by fixed-length sequences and the absence of interaction features, ignored for simplicity. Compared with the static embeddings, Jodie doesn't need to be re-

trained to acknowledge new interactions, but it still can't deal dynamically with user or item insertion or deletions.

Chapter 4

Results

- Jodie is sensitive to the embedding size
- Adding layers to LiMNet doesn't improve the performance for link prediction
- Adding time features does not improve the performance
- Jodie can perform much better (???)
- Normalizing results seems to increase performances for LiMNet and Embeddings

Claim	Wikipedia		Reddit		Lastfm	
Changing embedding size Jodie	∅	∅	✓	✓	✓	
Adding layers LiMNet	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Adding time features LiMNet	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	~
Normalizing results LiMNet	~	~	✓	✓	✓	✓

- with little to no information the model is performing somewhat good

Experiments to conduct:

- Each model at its best
- LiMNet with time features (none, both, day, week)
- LiMNet without normalization (with/without)
- LiMNet at several layers (1, 3, 5, 2)
- Jodie at several embedding size (32, 64, 16, 48, 128)
- Models with a small sequence length

In this chapter, we present the results of the **6** experiments performed. First, we discuss in Section 4.1 the measured performances of the proposed improvements on the LiMNet architecture. Then, Section 4.2 present the results yielded by our implementation of Jodie[8], and we discuss the differences we noticed with the initial publication. Lastly, Section 4.3 exhibits the impact of the batching strategy on the two models.

4.1. Effects of the proposed improvements for LiMNet

4.1.1. Time features

table

Adding time of day seem to provide slightly better results in average, but not every time. Wikipedia have the best performances with all time features, but only a slight improvement over only time of day or even none. reddit have sensibly identical results on average but using both time features seem to yield more consistent results, while none produce much better results sometimes. on Lastfm using only time of day is best. note that on all datasets, the features never yield a significant improvements, and using only the time of the week always results in worst results.

4.1.2. normalization

table

removing the normalization reduces the performance significantly on all datasets, we thus recommend to always normalize the embeddings.

4.1.3. Multiple layers

table

on wikipedia 1 layer is best the rest is equivalent on reddit 2/3 perform the best on lastfm 3/5 perform best never very significant but the more dense the dataset the more layer

4.2. Comparison with Jodie

4.2.1. limnet vs jodie

table

jodie is always significantly better

4.2.2. embeddings size on jodie

as explained in the paper, embedding size doesn't matter

4.2.3. jodie op ?

wikipedia: 83% (+10%) reddit: 98% (+25%) lastfm: 83% (+60%)

differences with original paper:

- batching strategy
-

4.3. Effect of the batching strategy

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