QUINT: Node embedding using network hashing

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Abstract—Representation learning using network embedding has received tremendous attention due to its efficacy to solve downstream tasks. Popular embedding methods (such as deepwalk, node2vec, LINE) are based on a neural architecture, thus unable to scale on large networks both in terms of time and space usage. Recently, we proposed BinSketch, a sketching technique for compressing binary vectors to binary vectors. In this paper, we show how to extend BinSketch and use it for network hashing. Our proposal named QUINT is built upon BinSketch, and it embeds nodes of a sparse network onto a low-dimensional space using simple bit-wise operations. QUINT is the first of its kind that provides tremendous gain in terms of speed and space usage without compromising much on the accuracy of the downstream tasks. Extensive experiments are conducted to compare QUINT with seven state-of-the-art network embedding methods for two end tasks – link prediction and node classification. We observe huge performance gain for QUINT in terms of speedup (up to $7000 \times$) and space saving (up to $80 \times$) due to its bit-wise nature to obtain node embedding. Moreover, QUINT is a consistent top-performer for both the tasks among the baselines across all the datasets. Our empirical observations are backed by rigorous theoretical analysis to justify the effectiveness of QUINT. In particular, we prove that QUINT retains enough structural information which can be used further to approximate many topological properties of networks with high confidence.

Index Terms—Network embedding, Node classification, Link prediction, Binary sketch, Dimensionality reduction, Sparse network

1 INTRODUCTION

Machine learning tasks that involve networks, such as node classification, clustering, link prediction, find it challenging to use large networks due to the difficulty in succinctly representing their structures. For example, representing the neighborhood information of a node in an $n$-node network would require an $n$-dimensional binary vector or a $k$-dimensional real vector in which $k$ indicates the number of neighbors of any node, and each entry takes $\log n$ bits. This motivated the problem of network embedding, also known as network representation learning, in which each node is assigned a low-dimensional vector such that it maintains the structural or geometric relationship among the nodes.

A number of challenges have been uncovered in the last few decades that have led to a series of studies to propose efficient and effective node embedding methods [2]. Most embedding techniques “learn” an optimal encoding for specific machine learning tasks. This involves employing an optimization algorithm (say, gradient descent) which usually lacks worst-case guarantees and is also difficult to scale for massive networks. Recently, a few GPU-based approaches were proposed to improve scalability [3]. However, we are interested in CPU-only approaches. Furthermore, the embeddings obtained thus are optimized for specific tasks and may not be effective for others. The final challenge is the space complexity of the embeddings. It is desirable to get a succinct embedding of nodes because of two reasons: (i) It requires less storage; e.g., employing 128 dimensional real-valued vectors costs 1KB of storage per node (on a 64-bit machine) which shoots to 1GB for a million node network. (ii) A succinct embedding leads to faster training and inference of machine learning models.

Preserving the semantics of latent representation is another challenge since many proposed techniques are evaluated using statistical methods on standard datasets which may fail to bring out the rich structural invariants that these techniques might be capturing. A few approaches such as deepwalk that captures short random walks [4] and GraRep that captures powers of an adjacency matrix [5], explicitly consider certain structural aspects. However, to the best of our knowledge, how their embeddings fare on other structural properties of a graph is yet to be established.

Of late, randomization has been proved to be highly effective in algorithm design; yet, barring a few approaches based on random walks [4], [6], random projections [7], and random hashing [8], randomized approaches are not extensively studied in the domain of graph embedding. Walking along the relatively less popular path of non-learning based and randomized approaches, we present QUINT, a QUick thIN and bitTfy mapping of nodes in a sparse network to low-dimensional bit-vectors. The prime takeaway from this work is the affirmation of bit-wise hashing as a sound alternative to learning based methods. It has theoretical bounds on the worst-case situations, delivers comparable (and sometimes better) accuracy with much less space and requires significantly less time compared to the state-of-the-art. This work also suggests that sparse data can be analysed better with sparsity-aware methods; despite many networks being sparse in nature, we are aware of only a handful of approaches specifically for them [9], [10], [11].

Major contributions: Our main contribution is QUINT that takes a large $n$-node network as an input and outputs a $d$-bit binary embedding corresponding to each node. QUINT uses a modified version of BinSketch [1], a sketching algorithm that we recently proposed for binary data. Here, $d$ denotes the dimension of the embedding, and we give a formula to compute it in terms of the maximum degree of any node of a network (which we will simply denote by ‘degree’ when the context is clear). We make two important modifications to BinSketch, one of them being a larger dimension than what is stipulated by BinSketch; however, it is...
common for real-world networks to have a low degree compared to the number of nodes, and the best part is that a much smaller $d$ suffices in practice.

Our approach addresses many of the concerns raised above and emerges as a strong contender for node embedding in a resource-constrained scenario — it requires shorter embedding time and generates small-sized embeddings. We emphasise that QUINT is designed to handle networks without attributes and weights.

(i) Speedup in embedding: QUINT takes an adjacency matrix or an edge list of a network as an input and outputs binary embedding of nodes using just one pass over the network while doing bit manipulations. Due to its simplicity, it computes the embeddings in almost real time. For instance, on the BlogCatalog network [12] with 10,312 nodes and 333,983 edges, QUINT finishes within 1.6 sec (for $d=1000$), about 5 $\mu$sec per edge; in contrast, node2vec, deepwalk, LINE require 23 mins, 19 mins and 32 mins, respectively, for a single epoch. Similarly, on Flickr [13] network with 80,513 nodes and 5,899,882 edge, QUINT finished within 30.63 sec (for $d=1000$), by taking about 5.2 $\mu$sec per edge; on the other hand, node2vec and LINE did not finish in 10 hours; deepwalk, VERSE and NodeSketch require 2.1 hr, and 4.8 hr and 18 mins, respectively. Also on Youtube network [13] with 1,138, 499 nodes and 2,990, 443 edges, QUINT finished within 35.06 sec (for $d=1000$), about 11.7 $\mu$sec per edge; whereas, node2vec, deepwalk, LINE, VERSE did not finish in 10 hours and NodeSketch require 15 mins.

(ii) Less space overhead: Popular embedding methods output real-valued embedding, generally 128 or 256 dimensional real-valued vectors, whereas QUINT generates binary embeddings consuming $d$ bits for a $d$-dimensional embedding of a node. In the link prediction task (aka. link discovery) on BlogCatalog, we find that node2vec, NodeSketch, LINE and deepwalk generate 128-dimensional real-valued vectors that consume $128 \times 64 = 8,192$ bits, and these embeddings generate a maximum AUC score of 66. In contrast, QUINT with $d=1000$ uses only a tenth of that space (1000 bits) to achieve 84.4 AUC-ROC. Similarly, on Youtube dataset node2vec and NodeSketch for 128-dimension embedding achieve a maximum AUC score of 65.1, whereas QUINT with $d=1000$ achieve 90 AUC-ROC value, while using only 1/80 of space in comparison.

(iii) State-of-the-art accuracy: We compare QUINT with seven recently proposed state-of-the-art embedding methods — node2vec [6], deepwalk [4], LINE [14], Verse [15], NetMF [16], NodeSketch [17], and SGH [18], for link prediction and node classification, and on altogether ten real-world publicly available datasets and several LFR generated synthetic graphs. For our experiments we perform the end tasks considering the embeddings obtained from the competing methods. QUINT remains one of the top performers in terms of accuracy across all the networks and end tasks. We attribute this to BinSketch that has displayed the ability to generate succinct representations which simultaneously “preserve” multiple similarities [1].

(iv) Supporting theoretical analysis: We also present a rigorous theoretical analysis of the appealing properties that give QUINT an edge over the existing techniques. Embedding obtained from QUINT is essentially a compressed form of the neighborhood information of a node. We show that the embedding, even though compressed, retains information about the network structure such as the degrees, the number of common neighbors, the number of even length paths, etc. More generally, we discuss how any even power of an adjacency matrix can be approximately computed from the embedding with a large confidence and accuracy. Not surprisingly, our embedding allows us to perform link prediction and node classification as good as the others, and sometimes better. We hope that similar performance would be observed for other machine learning tasks (e.g., clustering) that rely only on the structural properties of a network, i.e., without using any metadata.

(v) Sparsity-aware design: Many real-world networks are sparse in nature. However, to the best of our knowledge, most of the embedding approaches do not tend to include optimisations specific to sparse data or provide theoretical guarantees that depend on its sparsity, except a few, e.g., NetSMF [9], STRAP [10], SSNE [11]. QUINT is designed keeping sparse networks in mind. Both the empirical and analytical results explain how QUINT leverages the notion of sparsity of a network, which we quantify by the largest degree among all nodes.

(vi) QUINT vs. uncompressed representation: Since QUINT embeddings are compressed forms of rows of an adjacency matrix, one may wonder about the payoffs when the uncompressed adjacency lists or the adjacency rows (rows of an adjacency matrix) are instead used as “embeddings”. Adjacency lists of sparse networks are no doubt compact, but are not immediately suitable due to unequal number of neighbors, complete dependence of the embedding on the ordering of nodes, etc. Adjacency rows avoid these problems but are verbose; nevertheless we compare it with QUINT. Quite surprisingly, we find that the classification and prediction performances of QUINT almost match the accuracy using uncompressed adjacency matrix. In fact, on Enron, QUINT achieves 94.75 AUC score (with $d=4000$) which is close to that with the adjacency matrix (95.42 AUC). This shows that our compression retains many of the useful information in its embedding. Notice that the uncompressed embedding, for Enron, is a 36,692-dimensional binary vector, which is almost 9 times the size of that with QUINT with $d=4000$ and can become embarrassingly large for large sparse networks. Compression also improves the training time, e.g., training during link prediction runs out of memory on an uncompressed embedding of Gowalla.

Organisation: We formally state our problem and briefly discuss our earlier work, BinSketch, in this context in Section 2. Related works are discussed in Section 3. Our QUINT embedding method is presented in Section 4 whose theoretical properties and a few related algorithms are discussed in Section 5. In Section 6 we present the results of our empirical evaluation on several real-world datasets against state-of-the-art algorithms. Section 7 concludes the paper with several open questions.

Reproducibility: The datasets that were used are described along with the specific experiments and are publicly available. We have made available the source codes of the techniques that we used, including that of QUINT, on an accessible server [19].

2 Problem Statement and Background

Let $G = (V, E)$ be an unweighted undirected network with $|V| = n$ nodes and $|E| = e$ edges. The network can also be represented by the adjacency matrix $A \in \{0,1\}^{n \times n}$, where $A_{i,j} = 1$ implies that there is an edge between node $i$ and node $j$, and is set to 0 otherwise. We use $A_i$ to denote the $i$-th row of $A$, which in turn represents a $|V|$-dimensional binary vector for the node $i$. The sparsity of $A_i$ indicates the number of ones
Node embedding problem: Our aim is to compute a binary embedding of the nodes of a network, essentially an $n \times d$ binary matrix where $d$ (typically $d \ll n$) is the dimension of the embedding, in a manner that preserves local network structures. These structures can be categorized into first, second, third-order proximities and so on, based on their coverage.

First-order proximity. The first-order proximity between nodes $i$ and $j$, denoted by $s^{(1)}_{ij}$, captures the presence of an edge between them and is set to $A_{ij}$ for unweighted networks.

Second and higher order proximities. The $k$-th order proximity is defined inductively. Let $s^{(k)}_i = [s^{(k)}_{i1}, s^{(k)}_{i2}, \ldots, s^{(k)}_{in}]$ denote the $k$-th order proximity between node $i$ and the other nodes. Then the $(k+1)$-th order proximity $s^{(k+1)}_{ij}$ between nodes $i$ and $j$ is computed using a suitable “similarity function” between $s^{(k)}_i$ and $s^{(k)}_j$. A common practice, for example, is to use the inner product for computing similarity. It should be noted that a high (or low) $k$-th order proximity between two nodes may not automatically establish a high (or low) $(k+1)$-th order proximity between them. Therefore, different embedding techniques target proximities of specific orders. However, we shall explain later how $QUINT$, in some manner, ensures proximities of multiple orders.

Extension to Binsketch: Recently, we proposed a randomized sketching technique for binary data, named Binsketch. It compresses high-dimensional sparse binary vectors to extremely compact binary sketches. The sketch of a vector $a \in \{0, 1\}^n$ is a $d$-dimensional binary vector $\sigma_a$ whose $i$-th bit is set to $a_j$, where $\pi$ is a random mapping from $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, \ldots, d\}$. We also proved that these sketches allow efficient estimation of inner product similarity and a few other similarity metrics.

Theorem 1 (Theorem 1, [1]). The inner product of two binary vectors with sparsity at most $\psi$ can be estimated from their sketches with probability at least $(1 - \rho)$ and accuracy $O\left(\sqrt{\psi \ln \frac{2}{\rho}}\right)$ if we set the size of the sketches to $d = \psi \sqrt{\frac{n}{2} \ln \frac{2}{\rho}}$.

The motivation behind $QUINT$ is the observation that the rows of the adjacency matrix of a network could be embedded in the above manner to low-dimension binary vectors. Further, since the inner product between two adjacency vectors represents the number of common neighbors of the corresponding nodes, it is possible to estimate the number of common neighbors between any two nodes from their embedding vectors. However, it is not clear whether this idea is practical, i.e., whether it would stand up for the common uses of node embedding in different downstream tasks, or even theoretically sound. The contribution of the current paper is an emphatic “yes” to this question, along with the modifications necessary towards this goal.

Binsketch consists of two major players – an algorithm to generate a sketch and a suite of estimators for several distance measures. The estimator for inner product distance was deemed as the largest sparsity of any $A_i$. from embeddings, which turns out to be equivalent to the inner product similarity. Though a much smaller dimension appears to be effective in practice, the larger dimension, along with the check, is required to prove the theoretical guarantees on the embeddings offered by $QUINT$, in particular Theorem 6 and Theorem 10.

In our earlier work on Binsketch, we were solely concerned with sparse binary vectors and estimation of similarity values. Now, with all the modifications stated above, in this work we are interested in the performance of Binsketch sketches when the binary vectors come from the adjacency vectors of a network. For example, we prove that when our neighborhood estimation algorithm is used, various structural properties of the network can be determined solely from the embeddings. We further report results of network analytics, namely node classification and link prediction, on real networks.

3 Related Work

Popular node embedding methods can be broadly classified into four categories: (1) data independent hashing, (2) learned hashing, (3) factorization based approaches, and (4) deep learning based approaches. Our method falls in the first category which creates small randomized sketches (also known as signatures in literature) without any “learning” from the data. The sketches are designed to allow fast computation of similarity in a suitable space. Lack of any learning step makes these efficient in time; however, the challenge is to ensure that proximities, especially those of the higher orders, can also be computed apart from the similarities.

NodeSketch [17] addresses this problem by using “consistent weighted sampling” that can be used to estimate a weighted variant of Jaccard similarity. Our technique, at its core, uses BinSketch [1] which can be used to estimate Jaccard, Hamming, and a few other similarity measures at the same time.

The learned hashing techniques, on the other hand, create randomized embeddings using a data dependent hash function that is learned from the data. Spectral Hashing [21] uses Laplacian of the corresponding graph, whereas, Scalable Graph Hashing (SGH) [18] avoids computation of the entire node-to-node similarity matrix by doing a feature transformation followed by a sequential learning step.

Factorization based methods represent graph property, e.g., pairwise similarity of nodes, in the form of a matrix and factorize this matrix to obtain node embedding [22], [23]. GraRep [5] factorizes the $k$-th order transition matrix, HOPE [24] and LQNAR [25] factorize up to-$k$-order proximity matrix, and NetMF [16] factorizes a matrix obtained using random walks. Recently, TNH–MF [26] was proposed to specifically learn a binary embedding using matrix factorization. These techniques come with elegant theoretical promises, but suffers from high complexity in practice due to the optimization steps, e.g., during factorization.

Deep learning based approaches for graph embedding broadly fall into two categories. In the first category, a graph is explored using different exploration methods, and then the contexts of the nodes obtained from the random walks are fed into the skip-gram model [30]. Deepwalk preserves higher-order proximity between nodes. It uses depth-first search to generate random walks. node2vec was later proposed based on the same idea, but with the difference that it employs biased random walks that provide a trade-off between breadth-first search and depth-first search exploration strategies. Choosing the right balance between these two enables node2vec to
preserve community structure and structural equivalence between
nodes. metapath2vec [31] extends a similar approach for
Heterogeneous Networks by performing meta-path based random
walks to construct the heterogeneous neighborhood of a node
and then leverages a heterogeneous skip-gram model to perform
node embeddings. A major limitation of such methods is that
it only considers a local context within a path. Moreover, it is
difficult to determine the optimal sampling strategy. The second
category of algorithm does not use any random walk; instead,
they model variable-sized subgraph structures in homogeneous
graphs. Some examples are GCN [32], GraphSAGE [33], and
struc2vec [34]. To summarise, the advantage of deep learning
based methods is that they are effective and robust and don’t
require feature engineering, but the downside is that they incur
a high computational cost.

Slightly less popular, but relevant nonetheless, are matrix-
based methods. They are usually difficult to scale without intricate
optimizations. For example, RandNE [7] applies SVD to billion-
scale networks for which they use Gaussian random projection
and the Johnson-Lindenstrauss (JL) Lemma [35]. It should be
noted that the JL Lemma is applicable primarily to real vectors
and for Euclidean distance; however, we work on binary vectors,
and hence, require similarity metrics relevant for binary vectors.

To take advantage of bitwise operations that are known for speed
and space efficiency, we use our own algorithm, BinSketch [1].

Recently, sketching-based techniques have been explored for
generating node embeddings of large networks. Chen et al. [36]
proposed an algorithm for computing node embedding of large
networks using very sparse random projections [37]. FREDE [38]
generates linear space embedding of nodes using deterministic
matrix sketching [39], and InstantEmbedding [40] computes
node embedding using local PageRank computation. However, all
these results lead to real-valued embedding in contrast to the space
efficient binary embedding obtained via our approach.

It is common for networks to have attributes associated with
their nodes or edges or both. Several solutions have been proposed
for embedding such networks. For example, BANE [41] proposes
binary embedding of attributed network by joint representation
learning of node links and attributes. Along the similar lines,
ASNE [42] too generates embedding that tries to retain both
structural and attribute proximities, and GNN [29] uses a graph
neural network. DNE (Discrete Network Embedding) [43] is a
supervised technique which learns binary node representations
to speed up node classification by jointly learning the discrete
embedding and classifier within a unified framework. While these
are all supervised techniques, an unsupervised technique named
NetHash was proposed recently that uses a recursive hashing
approach for embedding an attributed network [8]. In contrast,
QUINT is designed to embed nodes without any attributes.

The “Feature hashing” algorithm due to Weinberger et al. [44]
takes high-dimensional real-valued data as input and outputs low-
dimensional real-valued vectors (sketch) which closely approxi-
mates the original pairwise inner product similarities. If we naively
apply Feature hashing on our adjacency matrix, the sketch may
not remain binary (node2hash [45] builds upon this idea).
BinSketch offers a similar guarantee but generates binary sketches.
In this manner, BinSketch can be seen as Feature hashing for
binary data that outputs binary vectors and allows approximation
of the inner product similarity, the cosine similarity, the Jaccard
similarity, and the Hamming distance.

Many of the above techniques generate real-valued embed-

dings, whereas QUINT generates binary embeddings. There are a
few more ways in which our approach follows a quite different
trajectory compared to the above approaches. First, we avoid
direct operations on the adjacency matrix which can be extremely
huge. Secondly, the above approaches try to learn the optimal
embedding that minimizes a difference function; the difference
function captures the desideratum of accurately obtaining some
graph property (e.g., neighborhood of a node) or the effectiveness
of the embedding for a certain machine learning task. QUINT
deviates from the norm and generates a random embedding
upfront in an unsupervised manner. It leaves the heavy duty of
using it effectively to algorithms for estimating graph properties,
e.g., the degree of a node or the number of length-2 paths between
two nodes. We feel that the key factor behind the effectiveness
of QUINT is the effective use of the low-sparsity nature of the
networks that it was designed for. None of the above techniques
are explicitly designed for such networks.

4 QUINT EMBEDDING

QUINT uses the BinSketch sketching algorithm that is appropri-
ately designed for node embedding and modified to obtain
theoretical guarantees. We describe it in Algorithm [1] It uses
a random mapping, denoted π, that maps every vertex to a uniformly
chosen bin among d bins. To embed a node v, it puts the endpoints
of all the edges from v into a uniformly and identically chosen bin
using π. The embedding of v is a binary vector indicating which
of the d bins are non-empty.

First enhancement to BinSketch: The first modification that we
make is a larger embedding dimension; we set $d = \psi^2 \sqrt{\frac{2}{\ln p}}$, where $\psi$ is an upper bound on the degree of any
node. This enables us to show that the sketches preserve the higher
order proximities with reasonable accuracy (see Theorem [10]).

Algorithm 1 QUINT embedding all nodes of a graph

Input: undirected unweighted graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$

Parameter: probability of error $\rho$

1: Compute $\psi \leftarrow \text{upper bound on degree of } G$
2: Embedding dimension $d \leftarrow \psi^2 \sqrt{\frac{2}{\ln \rho}} \propto \text{Increased from BinSketch}$
3: $\pi \leftarrow \text{a random mapping from } \{1, \ldots, |V| \} \rightarrow \{1, \ldots, d\}$
4: For all $i = 1, \ldots, |V|$, initialize $\sigma_i$ as the vector $00\ldots 0$
5: Set $L \leftarrow \text{list of edges } E$
6: For all edge $(i, k) \in L$ do
7: Determine $j = \pi(k)$
8: Set the $j$-th bit of $\sigma_i$ to 1
9: end for
10: return embeddings $\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \ldots\}$ of all nodes

QUINT falls under the “direct encoding approaches” in a
recent categorization of graph representation methods [2]. The
“encoding” of a node $i$, represented by its adjacency vector $A_i$,
is given by the matrix-vector product $P \cdot A_i^T$ where $P$ is a
$d \times n$ matrix. For QUINT, we choose $P$ as a random sparse
binary matrix with $n$ ones such that there is exactly one 1 in
any column. For the matrix product, we use a Boolean-logic
equivalent of standard matrix product, i.e., the $i$-th entry of the
product of a binary matrix $M$, and a binary vector is computed as
\[ \pi : \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 5 & 3 & 6 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 100000 \\ 001100 \\ 010010 \end{bmatrix} \cdot [010110]^T = [011]^T \]

Fig. 1. QUINT embedding of a node with edges to 2, 4, 5 is 011. The mapping \( \pi \) is shown on the left.

\[ \sqrt[n]{k=1} (M_{ik} \land v_k). \] An example illustrating this notion is given in Figure 1.

5. Analyzing QUINT

In this section, we analyze the theoretical properties of QUINT that make it suitable for embedding graphs while retaining information about its structural properties, and this, we believe, helps in node classification and link prediction. It will be helpful to remember that the embedding of a node \( i \) is a \( d \)-dimensional binary vector which is denoted \( \sigma_i \) and is defined as:

\[ j\text{-th coordinate of } \sigma_i : (\sigma_i)_j = \sqrt[k=1]{v_k A_{ik}} \]

where \( \pi \) denotes a random mapping from \( \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, n\} \) to \( \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, d\} \) and \( A \) is the adjacency matrix.

5.1 Time and space complexity

The random mapping can be generated once and stored as a fast-lookup table or can be implemented using an efficient hashing algorithm. Let \( S \) denote the space required and \( T \) denote the time-complexity to compute \( \pi(;): \) for a lookup table stored in RAM, \( S = O(n \log d) \) and \( T = O(1) \). Apart from the overhead of \( \pi \), QUINT only involves bit manipulations which makes it extremely efficient. We assume that \( G \) is stored as an adjacency list (which has asymptotically same space complexity as that of an edge-list representation).

**Lemma 2.** Algorithm \( 7 \) runs in time \( \Theta(T \cdot |E|) \), returns an embedding using \( d \cdot |V| \) bits and requires an additional space \( S \) for the embedding.

We point out that \( \pi \) does not need to be stored once a graph is embedded. While the node embeddings can be stored in RAM, another alternative is to not store the embedding, but to store only \( \pi \) and generate \( \sigma_i \) on demand; this approach is also efficient given the lightweight embedding algorithm.

**Lemma 3.** The embedding of a single node \( i \) uses only \( d \) bits and can be computed in time \( O(T \cdot n(i)) \), where \( n(i) \) denotes the degree of \( i \), and without any additional space overhead.

Taking \( T \) and \( d \) to be constant for practical scenarios, both these approaches take constant time per edge of the network and use constant space per node of the network.

5.2 Estimating number of neighbors

The number of neighbors of a node can be easily estimated from its embedding by re-using a result that was proved by us for BinSketch except that we use a larger \( d \) compared to what was used there. Choosing a larger reduced dimension obviously does not adversely affect the accuracy.

**Lemma 4** (Lemma 8, [11]). There is a linear-pass algorithm to estimate the number of neighbors of a node \( i \) with at most \( 4\sqrt{\frac{d}{2}} \ln \frac{2}{\delta} \) additive inaccuracy and probability at least \( 1 - \delta \).

5.3 Estimating lower order proximities

We used the “inner product” similarity measure for node classification and link prediction. The first-order proximity between two nodes, say \( s^{(1)}_{ij} \), is always the presence of an edge between them, i.e., same as \( A_{ij} \). To compute the second-order proximity, observe that \( s^{(2)}_{ij} = [s^{(1)}_{i1}, s^{(1)}_{i2}, \ldots, s^{(1)}_{im}] \) which is identical to \( A_i \). Now, \( s^{(2)}_{ij} \) is the inner product of \( s^{(1)}_i \) and \( s^{(1)}_j \) and this is same as the inner product of \( A_i \) and \( A_j \). Further, the latter can be easily shown to be the number of common neighbors of \( i \) and \( j \)—denoted \( n_{ij} \) (this can also be represented as the \( (i, j) \)-th entry of \( A^2 \)). Note that \( n_{ij} \leq \psi \), degree of the graph.

First we show that QUINT allows us to estimate the first-order proximity for the inner product similarity measure. The first-order proximity between nodes \( i \) and \( j \) indicates the presence of an edge between them. There was no mention of anything similar in BinSketch so we show how this can be estimated from their sketches \( \sigma(i) \) and \( \sigma(j) \) using Algorithm 2.

**Algorithm 2** Estimate presence of an edge between nodes \( i, j \)

Input: Nodes \( i \) and \( j \)

Input: Embeddings \( \sigma_i \) of \( i \) and \( \sigma_j \) of \( j \)

1: Compute \( a = \pi(i) \)
2: Compute \( b = \pi(j) \) \( \triangleright \) \( a, b \) could be same or different
3: if \( b \)-th bit of \( \sigma_i \) and \( a \)-th bit of \( \sigma_j \) are both 1 then
4: return \( \text{true} \)
5: else
6: return \( \text{false} \)
7: end if

It is obvious that if there is an edge between nodes \( i \) and \( j \) then Algorithm 2 is correct, since \( i_j = j_i = 1 \) and that implies that the \( b \)-th bit of \( \sigma_i \) and \( a \)-th bit of \( \sigma_j \) is the other case of no edge between \( i \) and \( j \) is covered by Lemma 5.

**Lemma 5.** Algorithm 2 is always correct when there is an edge between \( i \) and \( j \) and has a probability of error at most \( \frac{2\psi}{\sqrt{\log \frac{2}{\delta}}} \) when there is no such edge.

**Proof.** The proof of the first case is given above. The proof of the second case is obtained by bounding the probability of events \( E_i = \{\pi(k) \neq \pi(j) \text{ for all neighbor } k \text{ of } i\} \) (there are at most \( \psi \) neighbors) and \( E_j \) is defined similarly for \( j \). Note that the probability that the estimator is correct can be expressed as \( \Pr[|E_i \cup E_j|] \) which is at least \( \Pr[E_i] + \Pr[E_j] - 1 \). The proof follows from the observation that \( \Pr[E_i] \geq (1 - \frac{1}{\psi})^\psi \).

Next we show that QUINT allows us to estimate the second-order proximity using the above similarity measure — the number of common neighbors. We describe this approach in Algorithm 3. Given embeddings \( \sigma_i \) and \( \sigma_j \) of nodes \( i \) and \( j \), respectively, the algorithm first determines the number of ones in those embeddings. Observe that the number of ones in the \( i \)-th row of \( A \) determines the degree of \( i \). Conceptually the algorithm will use the number of ones in \( \sigma_i \) to determine the number of ones in \( A_i \), albeit with some inaccuracy, and thereby estimate its degree.

Then the algorithm computes the number of common indices where both \( \sigma_i \) and \( \sigma_j \) are one, denoted \( \hat{n}_{i,j} \). Once again, the number of common indices where both \( A_i \) and \( A_j \) are one is exactly the number of common neighbors they have, and, will be estimated from \( \hat{n}_{i,j} \). It turns out this estimation requires the degrees of \( i \) and \( j \) whose approximate values we calculated above.
The next theorem formalizes our claim that the embeddings preserve the second order proximities.

**Theorem 6.** Let $\psi$ be an upper bound on the degree of $G$ and $\rho$ be the desired probability of error. If the embedding dimension $d$ is chosen as $\psi^2 \sqrt{\frac{\ln \frac{n}{\rho}}{2}}$, then EstCN ensures that its output satisfies the following with probability $\geq 1 - \rho$.

\[ n_{i,j} - 14\sqrt{\frac{\psi^2}{2}} \ln \frac{6}{\rho} < \hat{n}_{i,j} < n_{i,j} + 14\sqrt{\frac{\psi^2}{2}} \ln \frac{6}{\rho} \]

(2) Furthermore, if $n_{i,j} > 0$ then $\hat{n}_{i,j} > 0$, and if $n_{i,j} = 0$ then $\hat{n}_{i,j} = 0$ with probability at least $1 - \sqrt{2/(\psi^2 n^2)}$.

**Second enhancement to BinSketch:** We quickly discuss the role of the enhancements to BinSketch in proving this theorem. The first part about the accuracy of EstCN in Theorem 6 is known to be a feature of the BinSketch algorithm (refer to Theorem [1]), except that the embedding dimension used there was $\psi^2 \sqrt{\frac{\ln \frac{n}{\rho}}{2}}$. Our first modification was a larger value $\psi^2 \sqrt{\frac{\ln \frac{n}{\rho}}{2}}$. But since the embedding dimension has increased, there are now even lesser chances of collision in the computation of $\pi(\cdot)$ and higher chances that a particular bit of an embedding is set by only one bit of an input vector. Intuitively speaking, this will only result in a better accuracy and lower probability of error during an estimation compared to the that by the BinSketch algorithm.

The second part says that, with high probability, $n_{i,j} = 0$ iff $\hat{n}_{i,j} = 0$. This is important, since otherwise, the estimated number of common neighbors of $i$ and $j$ could be as large as $14\sqrt{\frac{\psi^2}{2}} \ln \frac{6}{\rho}$ even when $i$ and $j$ share no common neighbor. The enhancement in Line 5 of Algorithm 3 is crucial to prove the second part.

Both the modifications in Algorithm [1] and Algorithm 3 are neither cosmetic nor heuristic but are necessary to prove Theorem 6, especially that $\hat{n}_{i,j}$ is concentrated around $n_{i,j}$ in the second part. This, in turn, enables us to prove Theorem 10 which says that certain higher order proximities are preserved by QUINT.

**Proof sketch for the first part.** We present a sketch of the proof here; for the detailed calculations, please refer to our earlier work on BinSketch [1].

Due to the uniform nature of the random mapping $\pi$ used in Algorithm [1], it is easy to show that $\mathbb{E}[\hat{n}^2] = d(1 - D^{deg(i)})$ in which $deg(i)$ denotes the degree of the node $i$; a similar identity also holds for $\hat{n}^2_j$. These formula allow us to express $deg(i)$ in terms of $\mathbb{E}[\hat{n}^2]$.

Next, observe that the $t$-th bit of both $\sigma_i$ and $\sigma_j$ can be set only in one of two ways.

1) Both $i$ and $j$ have an edge to some node $k$ which is mapped by $\pi$ to $t$.

2) Nodes $i$ and $j$ do not share a common neighbor but the $t$-th bit is set due to some neighbor $a$ of $i$ for which $\pi(a) = t$ and due to some neighbor $b$ of $j$ for which $\pi(b) = t$.

Once again the uniform nature of $\pi$ allows us to express the expected number of bits that are set in both $\sigma_i$ and $\sigma_j$ by the following formula.

\[ \mathbb{E}[\hat{n}^2_{i,j}] = d\left(1 - D^{deg(i)} - D^{deg(j)} + D^{deg(i)+deg(j)+n_{i,j}}\right) \]

This expression allows us to express $n_{i,j}$ in terms of $\mathbb{E}[\hat{n}^2_{i,j}]$, $deg(i)$ and $deg(j)$, and further, in terms of $\mathbb{E}[\hat{n}^2_{i,j}]$, $\mathbb{E}[\hat{n}^2_i]$ and $\mathbb{E}[\hat{n}^2_j]$ using the two formulæ given above. This is precisely what Algorithm 3 does. Of course, it does not have the actual expectation values. But fortunately we can show that the observed values $\hat{n}^2_{i,j}$, $\hat{n}^2_i$ and $\hat{n}^2_j$ are tightly concentrated around their expectations. In other words, it suffices to use the observed values in place of their expectations in lieu of some inaccuracy in $\hat{n}(i,j)$; the inaccuracy too can be bounded by carefully combining the concentration bounds of $\hat{n}^2_{i,j}$, $\hat{n}^2_i$ and $\hat{n}^2_j$.

**Proof of second part.** For the first claim, we observe that if $n_{i,j} > 0$, then there must be some $k$ such that $A_{ik} = A_{jk} = 1$. Let $t$ denote $\pi(k)$; then both $\langle \sigma_i, \pi(k) \rangle$ will be set to 1. Thus, $\hat{n}^2_{i,j} = \langle \sigma_i, \sigma_j \rangle > 0$. By way of contradiction, assume that $\hat{n}_{i,j} = 0$. But then we can derive the following identities based on Algorithm 3.

\[ \hat{n}_{i} + \hat{n}_{j} = \frac{1}{\ln d} \ln \left(D^{\hat{n}_i} + D^{\hat{n}_j} + \frac{\hat{n}^2_{i,j}}{d} - 1\right) \]

\[ D^{\hat{n}_i} \cdot D^{\hat{n}_j} = D^{\hat{n}_i} + D^{\hat{n}_j} + \frac{\hat{n}^2_{i,j}}{d} - 1 \]

\[ \left(1 - \frac{\hat{n}_i}{d}\right) \left(1 - \frac{\hat{n}_j}{d}\right) = \left(1 - \frac{n^2_i}{d}\right) + \left(1 - \frac{n^2_j}{d}\right) + \frac{n^2_{i,j}}{d} - 1 \]

\[ \frac{\hat{n}_i \cdot \hat{n}_j}{d^2} = \frac{n^2_{i,j}}{d^2} \implies |\sigma_i| \cdot |\sigma_j| = \langle \sigma_i, \sigma_j \rangle \]

The last identity may not always hold. For example, consider a scenario in which $\sigma_i \sim \sigma_j$ with the number of ones in each much less than $d$; in this case $|\sigma_i| \approx |\sigma_j|$ which are less than $d$, thus contradicting the identity. This proves that $\hat{n}_{i,j} > 0$.

For proving the second claim, take any $i$ and $j$ such that $n_{i,j} = 0$, i.e., there is no $k$ such that both $A_{ik} = A_{jk} = 1$. For the sake of contradiction, assume that $\hat{n}_{i,j} > 0$, i.e., there is some $x$ such that $\langle \sigma_i, x \rangle = \langle \sigma_j, x \rangle = 1$; this means that there must be some $k_1$ and $k_2$ such that $A_{ik_1} = A_{jk_1} = 1$ and $\pi(k_1) = \pi(k_2) = x$. The probability for the latter event, denoted $E$, is same as the probability that in a group of $|A_i|$ men and $|A_j|$ women, there exists at least one pair with a common birthday, which can be shown to be

\[ 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{|A_i|} \binom{|D|}{k} k! s_{|A_i|, k}(d - k)|A_i|/d^{|A_i|} = |A_i| \]
in which \( S \) denotes Stirling’s number of the second kind \([46]\).

Getting a closed form of this is difficult; therefore, we show a different technique of bounding the probability of \( E \).

Let \( E_x \) be the event that \((\sigma_i)_x = (\sigma_j)_x = 1\). It can be shown that
\[
\mathbb{E}(E_x) = (1 - D)^{|A_i|} \cdot (1 - D)^{|A_j|} \quad [41, \text{Lemma 5}].
\]
Since \(|A_i|\) and \(|A_j|\) are both at most \( \psi \), and \( D < 1 \),
\[
\mathbb{E}(E_x) \leq (1 - D)^2 = \left(1 - \left(1 - \psi^2\right)^2\right) \leq \left(\frac{\psi^2}{d}\right)^2
\]
which implies that \( \mathbb{E}[\sum_x E_x] = d \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{\psi}{\sigma}\right)^2\right] = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{\ln 2}} \ll 1 \).

Let \( E_{\text{all}} \) denote \( \sum_x E_x\); \( E_{\text{all}} \) is a random variable that denotes the number of positions \( x \) such that \((\sigma_i)_x = (\sigma_j)_x = 1\) and whose expectation we computed above. Since \( E \) is equivalent to \( “E_{\text{all}} \geq 1” \), we apply Markov’s inequality to bound it.

For the rest of this section, we will use the fact that \( \text{EstCN} \) estimates non-zero \( n_{ij} \) values with a small additive error and accurately identifies \( n_{ij} = 0 \) values (both of these happen with non-negligible probability which we would not explicitly state to simplify calculations).

The above theorem allows us to accurately quantify the loss function (aka. objective function) that is used by most node embedding algorithms to learn the embedding \([2]\). Using the mean-squared-error (MSE) to compute the loss function, we can represent it as
\[
\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{(i,j) \in T \cap V \times V} |n_{ij} - \text{EstCN}(i,j)|^2.
\]
Here \( T \) represents a “training set of edges” that is traditionally used to learn an embedding. Our proposed technique does not involve any learning; nevertheless, for the sake of comparison we present an explicit upper bound on \( \mathcal{L} \) — it follows directly from Theorem \[6\].

**Lemma 7.** Using QAINT for embedding and \( \text{EstCN} \) for estimating node similarity, \( \mathcal{L} \) is upper bounded by \( 196 \psi^2 \ln \frac{6}{\beta} \).

### 5.4 Estimating higher-order proximities

Many node embedding algorithms operate on the paths in a graph, often up to a certain length. For example, both the random-walk based approaches, deepwalk and node2vec, consider two nodes to be similar if their presence in short random walks on the graph are highly correlated. Here we show that QAINT also “preserves” path information in a certain manner. The key observation here is that the square of the adjacency matrix precisely contains the \( n_{ij} \) values.

**Observation 8.** For any \( i, j, A^2_{ij} = n_{ij} \).

This holds due to the following calculation.
\[
\sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik} A_{kj} = |\{k \in V : (i, k) \in E, (k, j) \in E\}|.
\]
This observation along with Theorem \[6\] implies that \( \text{EstCN} \) can approximately compute \( A^2 \).

**Lemma 9.** \( \text{EstCN}(\sigma_i, \sigma_j) \) approximately computes \( A^2_{ij} \) with a small additive error. If \( A^2_{ij} = 0 \) \( \text{EstCN}(\sigma_i, \sigma_j) \) outputs 0.

Next we show how to translate the above lemma to higher even powers of \( A \). We first show the result for the 4-th power, \( A^4 \), each of whose entry, say \( A^4_{ij} \), denotes the number of paths between \( i \) and \( j \) using 4 nodes (and 3 edges).

We use \( \epsilon_2 \) to denote the small additive error mentioned in Lemma \[9\]. To maintain consistency of notations, we will use \( \hat{n}2_{i,j} \) to denote \( n_{i,j} \), by construction, \( \hat{n}2 \) is symmetric.

**Theorem 10.** Let \( \hat{n}4_{i,j} \) denote the expression \( \sum_{k=0}^{n} \hat{n}2_{i,k} \cdot \hat{n}2_{k,j} \) for all \( i, j = 1 \ldots n \). Then \( \hat{n}4_{i,j} \) approximately computes \( A^4_{ij} \) with a small additive error. If \( A^4_{ij} = 0 \) then \( \hat{n}4_{i,j} \) outputs 0.

**Proof.** Recall that \( A^4_{i,j} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} A^2_{i,k} A^2_{k,j} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} A^2_{i,k} A^2_{k,j} \) and further more, each term in the summation is non-negative. Therefore, \( A^4_{i,j} = 0 \) implies that \( A^2_{i,k} = 0 \) and \( A^2_{k,j} = 0 \) for every \( k = 1 \ldots n \). We know from Lemma \[9\] that, in this case, \( \hat{n}2_{i,k} = 0 \) and \( \hat{n}2_{k,j} = 0 \) for all \( k \). Clearly, \( \hat{n}4_{i,j} = 0 \) too — this proves the second part of the theorem.

For the first part, take any \( x, y \) such that \( A^2_{x,y} > 0 \). That is, \( \sum_{k=1}^{n} A^2_{x,k} \cdot A^2_{k,y} > 0 \). From Lemma \[9\] we know that \( |\hat{n}2_{x,y} - A^2_{x,y}| \leq \epsilon_2 \); using \( z \) to denote the left-hand side, we can write \( \hat{n}2_{x,y} = A^2_{x,y} + z \) where \( -\epsilon_2 \leq z \leq \epsilon_2 \).

We now state a technical result about \( A \).

**Claim 11.** \( \sum_{u=1}^{n} A^2_{x,u} \leq \psi^2 \).

**Proof.** \( \psi \) being an upper bound on the degree of any node, the total number of length-2 paths from \( x \) is at most \( \psi^2 \). \( A^2_{x,u} \) is the total number of length-2 paths from \( x \) to \( u \) and \( \sum_{u} A^2_{x,u} \) is the total number of length-2 paths from \( x \) to any node, which is, therefore, upper bounded by \( \psi^2 \).

The next observation is applicable to sparse graphs in general but immensely beneficial to graphs where \( \psi^2 \ll n \).

**Observation 12.** Since the entries of \( A^2_{x,u} \) are non-negative, **Claim 11** implies that at most \( \psi^2 \) entries are non-zero in the \( x \)-th row of \( A^2 \), i.e., among \( A^2_{x,u} \) : \( u \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\} \). That is, at least \( n - \psi^2 \) entries of \( A^2 \) are zero.

This observation, along with Lemma \[9\] implies that for any \( x \), at most \( \psi^2 \) values in the set \( \{n_{2,x,u} : u \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\} \} \) are non-zero. We use \( \sum_{u=1}^{n} \psi^2 \) to denote the fact that in a summation with \( n \) summands, at most \( \psi^2 \) terms are non-zero. Getting back to proving the theorem,
\[
\hat{n}4_{x,y} = \sum_{u=1}^{n} \hat{n}2_{x,u} \cdot \hat{n}2_{y,u}
\]
\[
=(\sum_{u=1}^{n} \psi^2 (A^2_{x,u} + z) \cdot (A^2_{y,u} + z)
\]
\[
= \sum_{u=1}^{n} A^2_{x,u} \cdot A^2_{y,u} + z \cdot \sum_{u=1}^{n} A^2_{x,u}
\]
\[
+ z \cdot \sum_{u=1}^{n} A^2_{y,u} + (\sum_{u=1}^{n} \psi^2)^2
\]
\[
=A^4_{x,y} + 2z\psi^2 + z^2\psi^2 \quad \text{(Using Claim 11)}
\]

Thus we get,
\[
|\hat{n}4_{x,y} - A^4_{x,y}| = |2z + z^2| \psi^2 = \begin{cases} 
3|z|\psi^2 & \text{if } |z| < 2 \\
2z^2\psi^2 & \text{if } |z| \geq 2
\end{cases}
\]
Since \( |z| \leq \epsilon_2 \) and the additive error \( \epsilon_2 \) for \( \hat{n}2 \) is \( O(\sqrt{\psi}) \) from Theorem \[6\] (here \( O(1) \) hides \((1/\rho)\) factors), so both \( |z|, z^2 \) is \( O(\psi) \). Therefore, the additive error for \( \hat{n}4 \) is \( O(\psi^3) \).
Table 1: Datasets used for link prediction.

| Dataset          | Nodes   | Edges    | Max. degree |
|------------------|---------|----------|-------------|
| Gowalla          | 196,591 | 950,327  | 14,730      |
| Enron Emails Network | 36,692  | 183,831  | 1,383       |
| Facebook         | 4,039   | 88,234   | 1,045       |
| BlogCatalog      | 10,321  | 333,983  | 3,992       |
| Flickr           | 80,513  | 5,899,882| 5,706       |
| Youtube          | 1,138,499 | 2,990,443 | 28,754     |

Table 2: Comparison of space required for storing embeddings

| Method                                      | dimension | # of binary bits |
|---------------------------------------------|-----------|------------------|
| node2vec, deepwalk, LINE                   | 128       | 128 × 64 = 8,192 |
| VERSE, NetMF, NodeSketch                   | a         | a                |
| Uncompressed                                | | V | (no. of nodes) |

Theorem [10] can be generalized to show that entries of \( A^t \), for \( t \geq 1 \), can be approximated with additive error \( O(poly(\psi)) \).

Since any even power of \( A \) can be written as a product of \( A \) raised to the power of 2, we have established that our QUINT embedding effectively preserves all even powers of the adjacency matrix \( A \), and therefore, can approximate information about paths of even lengths in \( G \).

### 6 Empirical Evaluation

We first describe our experimental setup. Then we report how our proposed solution performs on two end tasks – node classical and link prediction, with specific emphasis on speed and quality.

**Hardware description:** We performed most of our experiments on a laptop with the following configuration: Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-4710MQ CPU @ 2.50GHz x 8, 7.5 GB RAM, Ubuntu 18.04 64-bits OS. The experiments on the Gowalla [47], Youtube [13], and Flickr [13] datasets were performed on a server with the following configuration: Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-2650 v3 @ 2.30GHz, 94 GB RAM, Ubuntu 64-bits OS.

**Baseline methods:** We evaluated our approach against seven state-of-the-art node embedding methods – node2vec [6], deepwalk [4], LINE [14], NodeSketch [17], and SGH [18]; SGH generates binary embedding like QUINT. Since QUINT generates the embedding of a node by compressing its adjacency vector, we also performed experiments using the uncompressed adjacency matrix where the \( i \)-th row of the matrix is used as the embedding of the \( i \)-th node; we refer to this method as "Uncompressed".

For node2vec, we used the implementation provided by its author. We did a grid search over its parameters \( p \) and \( q \in [0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, 4] \), which is equivalent to running 25 different experiments. Here we only report the result for the optimum choice of \( p \) and \( q \). deepwalk is a special case of node2vec when \( p = q = 1 \) [6], so the earlier node2vec implementation was used here with the specified parameters. For LINE, we used a standard implementation available online and performed experiments considering both first and second order proximity — and reported the best result. VERSE [15] uses the idea of personalised PageRank to compute the embedding of nodes.

NetMF [16] unifies the idea of sampling based algorithms such as node2vec, deepwalk, LINE in the matrix factorisation framework to generate embeddings. NodeSketch [17] is built on top of an efficient sketching technique, and it outputs embeddings which preserve higher-order proximity via a recursive approach. SGH [18] learns the binary embedding of nodes by minimizing the difference between the similarity of a pair of nodes and the Hamming similarity of the corresponding binary hash codes.

The embeddings obtained from QUINT, SGH, and full adjacency matrix representation are binary, whereas the other algorithms output real-valued vectors. A real-valued vector that is represented using 64-bit floating point numbers (a common configuration) takes \( 64 \times \) more space as compared to a binary vector of the same dimension. We summarise this in Table 2. For all the algorithms which give real-valued embeddings, we report the results of embedding in 128 dimensions in this section. The results for embedding in 256 dimensions are similar and are given in Tables [9][10] and [12] in Supplementary.

#### 6.1 Comparing performance on link prediction

In the link prediction problem, we are given a network with a certain fraction of missing edges, and the task is to predict these missing edges. It can be recast as a classification problem where the goal is to train a classifier that, given a pair of nodes, outputs if there is an edge between them.

For the purpose of classification, we generated a labeled dataset of edges by splitting a dataset into training and testing partition in 70 – 30 ratio. To generate the positive training and testing samples, we randomly sampled 30% of edges and removed them. During the removal of edges, we made sure that the residual graph obtained after edge removal remains connected. If the sampled edges do not ensure this, we chose a different edge. We then generated “missing edges” equal in number to those in the original dataset — these are “edges” that are absent in the graph. We split the generated missing edges into training and testing partition in 70 – 30 ratio to form negative training and testing samples, respectively. We computed inner product for all the edges and labeled them 0 or 1 depending on whether it is a missing edge or an actual edge. Then we combined the positive and negative test samples to form the test data.

We learned embedding of the graph using all the candidate algorithms on our training samples. To measure the performance of the classifier on the embeddings, we calculated the inner product similarity among the embeddings of a pair of nodes from the test data; for QUINT, we used the EstCN algorithm to estimate similarities. We trained a logistic regression on the final training data considering AUC-ROC as our evaluation metric.

**Datasets:** Gowalla [27] is a location-based social networking website where users share their locations by checking-in. The dataset consists of a total of 6, 442, 890 check-ins of these users over the period of Feb. 2009 - Oct. 2010. Enron Emails Network [47] covers all the email communication within a dataset of around half million emails. Nodes of the network are email addresses and if an address \( i \) sent at least one email to address \( j \), the graph contains an undirected edge from \( i \) to \( j \).

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1. https://github.com/aditya-grover/node2vec
2. https://github.com/shenweichen/GraphEmbedding
3. https://github.com/xgfs/verse
4. https://github.com/xptree/NetMF
5. https://github.com/xptree/NetMF
6. https://github.com/jiangy/SBH-JICA2015
Comparison on AUC-ROC and compression time of QUINT and other baselines (using 128 dimensions) for the link prediction experiments. For the datasets on which QUINT outperformed the baselines, we have reported the performance of QUINT on the smallest dimension at which it outperformed the latter; for the other datasets we have reported the best performance of QUINT (see Table 11 in Supplementary for the results for all the dimensions). We stopped baselines that took 10 hours or more and indicate them by DNS; OOM indicates baselines that ran out of memory. Smaller datasets were embedded to a maximum of 4000 dimensions. The best AUC-ROC among the baselines and for QUINT are highlighted.

Table 3

| Method   | Dim. | Gowalla AUC-ROC | Time(s) | Dim. | Flickr AUC-ROC | Time(s) | Dim. | Youtube AUC-ROC | Time(s) |
|----------|------|-----------------|---------|------|-----------------|---------|------|-----------------|---------|
| node2vec | 128  | 75.48           | 7827    | 128  | 76.4            | 8706.8  | 128  | 65.1           | 30899.28 |
| deepwalk | 128  | 74.79           | 7075    | 128  | 67.7            | 4978.64 | 128  | —              | DNS     |
| LINE     | 128  | —               | DNS     | 128  | —              | DNS     | 128  | —              | DNS     |
| VERSF    | 128  | 87.35           | 4902.8  | 128  | 91.6            | 9469.08 | 128  | —              | DNS     |
| NetMF    | 128  | —               | OOM     | 128  | —              | OOM     | 128  | —              | OOM     |
| NodeSketch | 128 | 50.02          | 328.30  | 128  | 50.03           | 770.65  | 128  | 50.04          | 538.81  |
| SGH      | 128  | —               | OOM     | 128  | —              | OOM     | 128  | —              | OOM     |
| QUINT    | 1000 | 87.71           | 7.15    | 100  | 86.7           | 7.41    | 100  | 80            | 8.86    |
| Uncompressed | — | —                |         | —    | —              |         | —    | —              | —       |

Table 4

Datasets used for node classification. The first three datasets are also used for link prediction.

| Dataset      | # Nodes | # Edges | # Classes | Max. degree |
|--------------|---------|---------|-----------|-------------|
| Flickr       | 80.513  | 5,899,882 | 195       | 5,706       |
| Youtube      | 1,138,499 | 2,990,443 | 35         | 28,754      |
| BlogCatalog  | 10,312  | 333,983  | 39         | 3,992       |
| IMDB         | 19,773  | 3,86,124  | 1000       | 540         |
| Pubmed       | 19,717  | 44,338   | 3          | 171         |
| Citeseer     | 3,327   | 4,732    | 6          | 26          |
| Cora         | 2,708   | 5,429    | 7          | 5           |

Empirical results and insights: Table 3 summarizes the comparative analysis (Table 11 in Supplementary has the complete details). We observed significant speedup for QUINT in compression time, along with better accuracy as compared to other candidate algorithms. For instance, on the Gowalla dataset (using 1000 dimensions for QUINT), we obtained $46 \times 10^3 \times 10^3$ speedup on the compression times w.r.t. the other candidate algorithms. Our embedding also saves on space as well (see Table 2).

It is evident that AUC-ROC for QUINT is comparable with the best among the baselines (a tie on Gowalla and Facebook and a close second on Flickr and Enron), and sometimes even better (on Youtube, BlogCatalog), but always using a fraction of their times. VERSF turns out to be a worthy alternative for all the datasets but Youtube, but it is a lot slower because it learns an embedding by running a single-layer neural network.

An attractive property of BinSketch is the ability to recover to $j$. BlogCatalog [12] is the social blog directory which manages the bloggers and their blogs. The dataset contains the friendship network crawled and group memberships. Here, nodes represent users, and edges represent a friendship relation between any two users. In the Facebook [47] network, nodes represent users, and edges represent friendship relations between users.

We used two social network datasets – Flickr and YouTube [13]. Flickr dataset is of photo-sharing social network, where labels represent the self-identified interests of particular users and edges correspond to the messages between two users. YouTube dataset is a video-based social network of user interactions where labels indicate interest in a particular video genre. We use these datasets, and BlogCatalog, for both node classification and link prediction experiments. Statistics of these datasets are summarised in Table 4.

6.2 Comparing performance on node classification

For node classification, every node is assigned one or more labels from a given set. The dataset is randomly divided into 70% and 30% for training and testing, respectively. We repeated the experiment 10 times for each network and report the average accuracy. We used logistic regression as classifier. Unlike the experiments on link prediction where a subgraph with 70% edges is embedded to generate training data, embedding of the entire network is first computed for the node classification experiments; this shows up in the form of larger compression times.

Datasets: Some of the datasets used for link prediction are not labelled and hence, they are not suitable for node classifi-
cclusion. So we used three additional citation datasets — Cora, Citeseer and Pubmed [48] for the experiments. Here, citation relationships are viewed as directed edges. Attributes associated with nodes are extracted from the title and the abstract of the each article and are presented as sparse bag-of-word vectors, after removing the stop words and low-frequency words. Each article in these datasets has only one label representing the class it belongs to. We also considered IMDB-BINARY [49], [50], which is a movie collaboration dataset where actor/actress and genre information of different movies on IMDB are collected. Nodes represent actors/actresses, and an edge between them signifies a joint appearance in some movie. Collaboration graphs is generated on the “action” and the “romance” genres and ego-networks are derived for each actor/actress. A movie can belong to both genres at the same time, therefore movies from the romance genre are discarded if they are already included in the action genre. Each ego-network is labeled with the genre graph it belongs to. The task is then simply to identify which genre an ego-network graph belongs to. All the datasets are summarised in Table 4.

Empirical results and insights: Table 5 summarizes the performance of the competing algorithms (see Table 3 for complete details) which show a similar trend as in the link prediction experiments. Many baselines failed to generate an embedding of Flickr and/or Youtube datasets within 10 hours, or ran out of memory; however, QUINT did not have any such difficulty and was able to comfortably finish all embedding tasks within a few minutes, mostly taking a few seconds.

Compared with the baselines that could finish embedding within 10 hours, QUINT achieved a higher Macro F1 on Youtube, IMDB, Citeseer, Cora, Pubmed and was a close second on Flickr. It fell behind by 10-15% on BlogCatalog which could be due its network characteristics; even Uncompressed, that which QUINT tries to improve upon, was unable to obtain a high score on that network. The general conclusion that we can draw is that QUINT offers significant speed-up during node embedding while offering comparable accuracy for node classification when compared with the state-of-the-art techniques.

6.3 Comparing Uncompressed with QUINT.

We also want to draw attention towards the Uncompressed embedding. However naive it may sound, empirically it appears that the neighborhood of a node, when represented as an array, is a reasonably good embedding for the purposes of link prediction and node classification (see the last rows of Tables 3 and 5). The challenge is that training on such embeddings of a large network (e.g., Flickr with 80K nodes) is almost impossible on off-the-shelf hardware. Even for smaller networks, the training time is significantly higher compared to the QUINT embeddings. We list out the speed-up in training time of QUINT over Uncompressed in Table 6. QUINT embeddings are a compressed version of Uncompressed embeddings, and we can safely conclude that it is able to strike a good balance between speed and accuracy.

6.4 Performance on training size

We varied the training size in our experiments to show how the competing algorithms react to this variation. For this we split

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**Table 5**

Comparison on Micro $F_1$, Macro $F_1$ and compressions time of QUINT and other baselines (using 128 dimensions) for the task of node classification. For the datasets on which QUINT outperformed the baselines, we have reported the performance of QUINT on the smallest dimension at which it outperformed the latter; for the other datasets we have reported the best performance of QUINT (see Tables 3 and 10 in Supplementary for the results for all the dimensions). We stopped baselines that took 10 hours or more and indicate them by DNS; OOM indicates baselines that ran out of memory. The best Macro $F_1$ scores among the baselines and for QUINT are bolded.

| Method       | Dim. Micro $F_1$ Score | Flickr Macro $F_1$ Score | Comp. time(s) | Dim. Micro $F_1$ Score | Youtube Macro $F_1$ Score | Comp. time(s) | Dim. Micro $F_1$ Score | IMDB Macro $F_1$ Score | Comp. time(s) |
|--------------|------------------------|--------------------------|---------------|------------------------|---------------------------|---------------|------------------------|----------------------|---------------|
| node2vec     | 128                    | 39.67                    | 38.90         | 128                    | 39.67                     | 38.90         | 128                    | 39.67                | 38.90         |
| deepwalk     | 128                    | 41.12                    | 43.11         | 128                    | 41.12                     | 43.11         | 128                    | 41.12                | 43.11         |
| LINE         | 128                    | 29.67                    | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                     | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                | 31.41         |
| VERSE        | 128                    | 31.41                    | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                     | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                | 31.41         |
| NetMF        | 128                    | 31.41                    | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                     | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                | 31.41         |
| NodeSketch   | 128                    | 31.41                    | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                     | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                | 31.41         |
| SGH          | 128                    | 31.41                    | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                     | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                | 31.41         |
| QUINT        | 128                    | 31.41                    | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                     | 31.41         | 128                    | 31.41                | 31.41         |
| Uncompressed | -                      | -                        | -             | -                      | -                         | -             | -                      | -                    | -             |

---

**Table 6**

Comparing Uncompressed with QUINT.

We also want to draw attention towards the Uncompressed embedding. However naive it may sound, empirically it appears that the neighborhood of a node, when represented as an array, is a reasonably good embedding for the purposes of link prediction and node classification (see the last rows of Tables 3 and 5). The challenge is that training on such embeddings of a large network (e.g., Flickr with 80K nodes) is almost impossible on off-the-shelf hardware. Even for smaller networks, the training time is significantly higher compared to the QUINT embeddings. We list out the speed-up in training time of QUINT over Uncompressed in Table 6. QUINT embeddings are a compressed version of Uncompressed embeddings, and we can safely conclude that it is able to strike a good balance between speed and accuracy.
the datasets into various ratios of training and test partitions, starting at 10% training and 90% test partitions, and moving to 90% training and 10% test partitions at intervals of 10%. We ran node classification and link prediction on these partitions and observed the Micro F1 and AUC-ROC scores, respectively. We compared the performance of QUINT w.r.t. other candidate algorithms for these experiments, and report the results for two datasets in Figure 2. The results for the other datasets were similar.

We noticed that for node classification on the Cora dataset the Micro F1 score always remains higher as compared to the other candidate algorithms (we obtained a similar result on Macro F1 score as well). For link prediction on the Enron dataset, we noticed that the AUC-ROC score is comparable to that of VERSE and significantly better than the other baselines. This essentially confirms that even on small training data, QUINT maintains its competitive advantage w.r.t. other baselines.

![Graph showing node classification and link prediction performance](image)

**6.5 Scalability experiments**

Due to the bitwised operations and simplicity of Algorithm 1, the time taken by QUINT increases very slowly in the embedding dimension. This was evident in our experiments on the real-life datasets (see Section A and Tables 6 and 7 in Supplementary).

To evaluate the effect of the size of a network, we experimented with link prediction on synthetically generated LFR graphs [51] of varied nodes and edges generated using Python NetworkX with parameters $\mu = 0.1$, $\tau_1 = 2$, $\tau_2 = 1.1$. The first set of experiments were on graphs with 10K to 100K nodes and second were on graphs with 50K nodes and 1000K to 10,000K edges; the AUC-ROC scores and compression times of QUINT and the baseline algorithms are plotted in Figures 3 and 4, respectively. We observed that in both the experiments, QUINT, when embedded on 1000 — 4000 dimensions, is consistently producing a high AUC-ROC along with node2vec, deepwalk, VERSE and netmf. Few of the baselines, including netmf, did not run for the graph with 1000K nodes, and QUINT exhibited one to four orders of speedup for the rest.

**7 CONCLUSION AND OPEN QUESTIONS**

In this work, we proposed QUINT which takes a large scale graph as input and outputs succinct low-dimensional binary embedding for each node. The major advantage of QUINT is that it is extremely fast — it computes the embedding of a large graph in almost real time. QUINT does not have a strong hardware requirement and consumes less space for computing and storing the embedding of a graph. In fact, most of our experiments were conducted on an off-the-shelf laptop. We evaluated the performance of QUINT on the task of node classification and link prediction and noticed that QUINT offers massive speed up in compression time while offering comparable performance with respect to the state-of-the-art algorithms. Moreover, our embedding is binary which makes it space efficient as compared to the real-valued embeddings generated by the most of the baselines.

QUINT has a few added advantages that could be explored further. First is applicability in the sense that the same embedding can be used for both link prediction and node classification, and
we conjecture that the same would be applicable to other machine learning tasks based on structural properties of networks, like node clustering. The second advantage comes from the bitwise nature of QUINT. It may possibly be used in a distributed setting where embeddings of different groups of nodes are generated on different machines and then combined. Observe that the combination of multiple QUINT embeddings is simply their bitwise-OR.

The final advantage is in regards to evolving networks. We do not consider them in this work but we do make the observation that QUINT embeddings are easy to update. This is since an addition of a new edge, say between nodes i and j, essentially leads to setting one bit each in the embeddings of i and j and this can be done independently. To the best of our understanding, most learning-based algorithms would require solving an optimization problem afresh which may mean running their entire algorithm once again.

Our work leaves open the possibility of several future directions. First, we wonder if our results can be extended to efficiently embed hypergraphs? Hypergraphs are a common choice to model non-binary relationships but are difficult to analyse due to high complexity of even simple tasks. A few solutions have been proposed for clustering, classification, and other data analytic tasks based on spectral techniques [52] and random walk [53]. A binary embedding technique ala. QUINT would make hypergraphs considerably easy to handle.

On the theoretical side it would be worth exploring what specific structural features of networks can be efficiently estimated from their embeddings. For example, global clustering coefficient of nodes could be one such candidate since it is basically the ratio of the number of triangle and an expression involving degree of specific structural features of networks can be efficiently estimated.

The affinity of QUINT towards sparse graphs, we wonder whether QUINT can be successful for graphs that are sparse for individual features but dense otherwise. We hope that our simple yet powerful technique can be easily adapted to bring forth efficient solutions to challenging graph embedding problems.

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**QUINT: Node embedding using network hashing (Appendix)**

Fig. 5. Figure (a) shows the dimensions at which QUINT’s node classification performance on the IMDB dataset matches that of various baselines, and Figure (c) shows the time QUINT takes to do so. Figures (b) and (d) show the same for link prediction on the BlogCatalog dataset.

**APPENDIX A**

**EFFECT OF EMBEDDING DIMENSION**

The optimum embedding dimension for QUINT on any dataset is theoretically upper-bounded by an expression on its sparsity (the largest degree of a node). However, it is evident from Tables 3 and 5 that much lower dimensions works in practice. Further, we observed that embedding on a higher dimension is not much slower and requires at most a few additional seconds (see Tables 11 and 8 in Supplementary for the compression times on all dimensions).

To illustrate this observation further, we plot the performance and compression times of QUINT against embedding dimension for the IMDB dataset and the BlogCatalog dataset, for node classification and link prediction, respectively. Figures 5(a) and 5(c) show the embedding dimensions of QUINT at which it matches the performance of the other baselines. Figures 5(b) and 5(d) show the times taken by QUINT when it matches the baselines. These figures show that QUINT is able to match the performance of the baselines for node classification on IMDB and link prediction on BlogCatalog, and that too in only a few seconds (similar figures can be inferred from Tables 3 and 5 for the other datasets and baselines that QUINT matches).
TABLE 7
Result of link prediction on the BlogCatalog dataset where instead of inner product, we use few other similarity measures.

| Method        | BlogCatalog (cosine similarity) | BlogCatalog ($\ell_1$ norm) | BlogCatalog ($\ell_2$ norm) |
|---------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
|               | Dim. | AUC-ROC | Time (s) | Dim. | AUC-ROC | Time (s) | Dim. | AUC-ROC | Time (s) |
| node2vec      | 128  | 65.93   | 979.02   | 128  | 75.09   | 979.02   | 128  | 75.36   | 979.02   |
| deepwalk      | 128  | 61.6    | 774.31   | 128  | 82.66   | 774.31   | 128  | 82.83   | 774.31   |
| LINE          | 128  | 65.07   | 2379     | 128  | 65.15   | 2379     | 128  | 36.79   | 2379     |
| VERSE         | 128  | 79.3    | 351.38   | 128  | 61.32   | 351.38   | 128  | 62.47   | 351.38   |
| NetMF         | 128  | 62.18   | 7.7      | 128  | 79.54   | 7.7      | 128  | 79.84   | 7.7      |
| NodeSketch    | 128  | 61.12   | 75.53    | 128  | 50.00   | 75.53    | 128  | 50.00   | 75.53    |
| SGH           | 128  | 49.95   | 7.53     | 128  | 49.99   | 7.53     | 128  | 49.95   | 7.53     |
| QUINT         | 100  | 84.88   | 0.88     | 100  | 65.65   | 0.88     | 100  | 65.74   | 0.88     |
|               | 128  | 84.77   | 0.92     | 128  | 72.18   | 0.92     | 128  | 72.82   | 0.92     |
|               | 200  | 84.10   | 0.99     | 200  | 80.98   | 0.99     | 200  | 81.16   | 0.99     |
|               | 256  | 83.87   | 1.02     | 256  | 83.8    | 1.02     | 256  | 84.24   | 1.02     |
|               | 1000 | 79.69   | 1.28     | 1000 | 85.48   | 1.28     | 1000 | 86.4    | 1.28     |
|               | 2000 | 77.3    | 1.45     | 2000 | 85.22   | 1.45     | 2000 | 86.36   | 1.45     |
|               | 3000 | 76.18   | 1.62     | 3000 | 85.07   | 1.62     | 3000 | 86.31   | 1.62     |
|               | 4000 | 75.29   | 1.77     | 4000 | 85.02   | 1.77     | 4000 | 86.29   | 1.77     |
| Uncompressed  |      | 74.63   |          |      | 84.60   |          |      | 86.16   |          |
Comparison on Micro $F_1$, Macro $F_1$ and compressions time of QUINT and other baselines (using 128 dimensions) for the task of node classification. We stopped baselines that took 10 hours or more and indicate them by DNS; OOM indicates baselines that ran out of memory.

Smaller datasets were embedded to a maximum of 3000 dimensions. The best Macro $F_1$ scores among the baselines and for QUINT are bolded.

| Method   | Dim. | Flickr Micro $F_1$ Score | Flickr Macro $F_1$ Score | Flickr Comp. time(s) | Youtube Micro $F_1$ Score | Youtube Macro $F_1$ Score | Youtube Comp. time(s) | IMDB Dim. | IMDB Micro $F_1$ Score | IMDB Macro $F_1$ Score | IMDB Comp. time(s) |
|----------|------|-------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| node2vec | 128  | —                       | —                       | DNS                  | —                        | DNS                      | —                     | 128       | 51.91                  | 51.6                  | 117                  |
| deepwalk | 128  | 41.2                    | 29.61                   | 2.1 hr               | —                        | DNS                      | —                     | 128       | 50.68                  | 50.34                  | 118                  |
| LINE     | 128  | —                       | DNS                     | DNS                  | —                        | DNS                      | DNS                   | 128       | 41.25                  | 40.56                  | 1850                 |
| VERSE    | 128  | 41.52                   | 31.41                   | 4.8 hr               | —                        | DNS                      | —                     | 128       | 63.09                  | 63.08                  | 1194.10              |
| NetMF    | 128  | —                       | DNS                     | DNS                  | DNS                      | DNS                      | DNS                   | 128       | 60.30                  | 51.88                  | 21.72                |
| NodeSketch | 128  | 22.37                   | 7.1                     | 1057.30              | 37.55                    | 26.98                    | 902.68                | 128       | 55.69                  | 46.64                  | 6.98                 |

| Method | Flickr | Youtube | IMDB |
|--------|--------|---------|------|
| node2vec | —       | —       | OOM  |
| deepwalk | —       | —       | OOM  |
| LINE     | —       | —       | DNS  |
| VERSE    | —       | DNS     | DNS  |
| NetMF    | DNS     | DNS     | DNS  |
| NodeSketch | —       | DNS     | DNS  |

Uncompressed — DNS OOM OOM OOM OOM — — 94.90 95.91 —
TABLE 9
Comparison on Micro $F_1$, Macro $F_1$ and compressions time of QUINT and other baselines (using 256 dimensions) for the task of node classification. We stopped baselines that took 10 hours or more and indicate them by OOM; OOM indicates baselines that ran out of memory. Smaller datasets were embedded to a maximum of 3000 dimensions. The best Macro $F_1$ scores among the baselines and for QUINT are bolded.

| Method     | Dim. | Flickr Score | Flickr Macro $F_1$ | Flickr Comp. time(s) | Youtube Score | Youtube Macro $F_1$ | Youtube Comp. time(s) |
|------------|------|--------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| node2vec   | 256  | 41.26        | 30.06             | 16286                | 256           | 41.26               | 30.06                 |
| deepwalk   | 256  | 41.29        | 30.06             | 23498.55             | 256           | 41.29               | 30.06                 |
| LINE       | 256  | 30.95        | 30.95             | 315.80               | 256           | 30.95               | 30.95                 |
| VERSER     | 256  | 30.95        | 30.95             | 315.80               | 256           | 30.95               | 30.95                 |
| NetMF      | 256  | 21.56        | 0.688             | 2530.36              | 256           | 36.29               | 26.11                 |
| NodeSketch | 256  | 19.59        | 0.54              | 20.86                | 256           | 19.59               | 0.54                  |
| QUINT      | 256  | 41.39        | 30.95             | 16286                | 256           | 41.39               | 30.95                 |
| SGH        | 256  | 41.32        | 30.95             | 16286                | 256           | 41.32               | 30.95                 |

| Method     | IMDB Score | IMDB Macro $F_1$ | IMDB Comp. time(s) | Pubmed Score | Pubmed Macro $F_1$ | Pubmed Comp. time(s) |
|------------|------------|------------------|--------------------|--------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| node2vec   | 256        | 41.39            | 30.95              | 256          | 30.95              | 256                  |
| deepwalk   | 256        | 30.95            | 30.95              | 256          | 30.95              | 256                  |
| LINE       | 256        | 30.95            | 30.95              | 256          | 30.95              | 256                  |
| VERSER     | 256        | 30.95            | 30.95              | 256          | 30.95              | 256                  |
| NetMF      | 256        | 30.95            | 30.95              | 256          | 30.95              | 256                  |
| NodeSketch | 256        | 30.95            | 30.95              | 256          | 30.95              | 256                  |
| QUINT      | 256        | 30.95            | 30.95              | 256          | 30.95              | 256                  |
| SGH        | 256        | 30.95            | 30.95              | 256          | 30.95              | 256                  |

| Method     | Citeseer Score | Citeseer Macro $F_1$ | Citeseer Comp. time(s) | Cora Score | Cora Macro $F_1$ | Cora Comp. time(s) |
|------------|----------------|----------------------|------------------------|------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| node2vec   | 256           | 41.26                | 30.06                  | 256        | 41.26           | 30.06             |
| deepwalk   | 256           | 41.29                | 30.06                  | 256        | 41.29           | 30.06             |
| LINE       | 256           | 30.95                | 30.95                  | 256        | 30.95           | 30.95             |
| VERSER     | 256           | 30.95                | 30.95                  | 256        | 30.95           | 30.95             |
| NetMF      | 256           | 41.26                | 30.06                  | 256        | 41.26           | 30.06             |
| NodeSketch | 256           | 30.95                | 30.95                  | 256        | 30.95           | 30.95             |
| QUINT      | 256           | 41.26                | 30.06                  | 256        | 41.26           | 30.06             |
| SGH        | 256           | 41.26                | 30.06                  | 256        | 41.26           | 30.06             |

| Method     | Cora Score | Cora Macro $F_1$ | Cora Comp. time(s) |
|------------|------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| node2vec   | 256        | 41.26            | 30.06             |
| deepwalk   | 256        | 41.29            | 30.06             |
| LINE       | 256        | 30.95            | 30.95             |
| VERSER     | 256        | 30.95            | 30.95             |
| NetMF      | 256        | 41.26            | 30.06             |
| NodeSketch | 256        | 30.95            | 30.95             |
| QUINT      | 256        | 41.26            | 30.06             |
| SGH        | 256        | 41.26            | 30.06             |

Uncompressed: – OOM – – – OOM – OOM –
| Method    | Dim. | BlogCatalog | Micro $F_1$ Score | Macro $F_1$ Score | Comp. Score | time(s) |
|-----------|------|-------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------|---------|
| node2vec  | 128  | 38.90       | 23.19             | 1359.25          |             |         |
|           | 256  | 39.5171     | 23.2856           | 1607.86          |             |         |
| deepwalk  | 128  | 41.82       | 28.24             | 1167.95          |             |         |
|           | 256  | 40.3932     | 27.8693           | 1607.86          |             |         |
| LINE      | 128  | 20.17       | 10.15             | 1898.23          |             |         |
|           | 256  | 17.5174     | 9.3982            | 4349.56          |             |         |
| VERSE     | 128  | 41.78       | 29.04             | 847.4            |             |         |
|           | 256  | 40.55       | 28.05             | 1204.72          |             |         |
| NetMF     | 128  | 43.45       | 29.05             | 72.39            |             |         |
|           | 256  | 43.98       | 30.905            | 101.26           |             |         |
| NodeSketch| 128  | 19.76       | 8.66              | 66.36            |             |         |
|           | 256  | 19.0264     | 9.9705            | 175.527          |             |         |
| SGH       | 128  | 13.20       | 4.05              | 18.25            |             |         |
|           | 256  | 10.6008     | 4.608             | 20.45            |             |         |
|           | 2000 | 8.09        | 4.42              | 111.50           |             |         |
|           | 3000 | 9.02        | 4.74              | 120.27           |             |         |
| QUINT     | 100  | 23.78       | 10.05             | 0.84             |             |         |
|           | 128  | 23.74       | 11.87             | 0.88             |             |         |
|           | 200  | 25.86       | 13.73             | 0.96             |             |         |
|           | 256  | 26.42       | 14.86             | 1.19             |             |         |
|           | 1000 | 31.66       | 20.32             | 1.55             |             |         |
|           | 2000 | 34.69       | 21.50             | 1.59             |             |         |
|           | 3000 | 34.28       | 22.50             | 1.64             |             |         |
|           | 4000 | 35.64       | 22.83             | 1.69             |             |         |
|           | 5000 | 36.23       | 23.36             | 1.85             |             |         |
|           | 6000 | 36.05       | 24.04             | 1.95             |             |         |
|           | 8000 | 36.82       | 24.95             | 2.13             |             |         |
|           | 10000| 37.70       | 25.51             | 2.35             |             |         |
| Uncompressed |      | 38.2254     | 25.647            |                  |             |         |
Comparison on AUC-ROC score and compression time of **QUINT** and other baselines (using 128 dimensions) for the link prediction experiments. We stopped baselines that took 10 hours or more and indicate them by **DNS**; **OOM** indicates baselines that ran out of memory. Smaller datasets were embedded to a maximum of 4000 dimensions. The best AUC-ROC among the baselines and for **QUINT** are **bolded**.

| Method      | Gowalla Dim. | AUC-ROC | Time(s) | Flickr Dim. | AUC-ROC | Time(s) | Youtube Dim. | AUC-ROC | Time(s) |
|-------------|---------------|---------|---------|-------------|---------|---------|---------------|---------|---------|
| **node2vec** | 128           | 75.48   | 7827    | 128         | 76.4    | 8706.8  | 128           | 65.1    | 30899.28|
| deepwalk    | 128           | 74.79   | 7075    | 128         | 67.7    | 4978.64 | 128           | --      | DNS     |
| LINE        | 128           | --      | DNS     | 128         | --      | DNS     | 128           | --      | DNS     |
| VERSE       | 128           | 87.35   | 4902.8  | 128         | 91.6    | 9469.08 | 128           | --      | DNS     |
| NetMF       | 128           | --      | OOM     | 128         | --      | OOM     | 128           | --      | OOM     |
| NodeSketch  | 128           | 50.02   | 328.30  | 128         | 50.03   | 770.65  | 128           | 50.04   | 538.81  |

| Method      | Enron Dim. | AUC-ROC | Time(s) | BlogCatalog Dim. | AUC-ROC | Time(s) | Facebook Dim. | AUC-ROC | Time(s) |
|-------------|------------|---------|---------|-------------------|---------|---------|----------------|---------|---------|
| **node2vec** | 128        | 67.13   | 560     | 128               | 63.12   | 979.02  | 128            | 93.64   | 63.98   |
| deepwalk    | 128        | 66.7    | 515.36  | 128               | 61.00   | 774.31  | 128            | 93.10   | 54.39   |
| LINE        | 128        | 75.87   | 4216    | 128               | 66.08   | 2379    | 128            | 83.41   | 250.25  |
| VERSE       | 128        | 97.20   | 1058.42 | 128               | 74.24   | 351.38  | 128            | 94.32   | 88.34   |
| NetMF       | 128        | 83.98   | 62.29   | 128               | 71.68   | 7.7     | 128            | 94.86   | 2.02    |
| NodeSketch  | 128        | 49.99   | 44.07   | 128               | 50.00   | 75.53   | 128            | 50.00   | 10.69   |
| SGH         | 128        | 71.49   | 31.28   | 128               | 70.05   | 7.33    | 128            | 92.20   | 5.3     |
| QUINT       | 100        | 84.23   | 0.55    | 100               | 81.60   | 0.38    | 100            | 81.69   | 0.075   |
|             | 128        | 84.65   | 0.58    | 128               | 82.18   | 0.92    | 128            | 82.98   | 0.096   |
|             | 200        | 84.35   | 0.61    | 200               | 83.26   | 0.99    | 200            | 84.39   | 0.105   |
|             | 256        | 85.6    | 0.64    | 256               | 83.71   | 1.02    | 256            | 85.50   | 0.12    |
|             | 1000       | 92.88   | 0.99    | 1000              | 84.38   | 1.28    | 1000           | 93.85   | 0.18    |
|             | 2000       | 94.26   | 5.39    | 2000              | 85.36   | 1.45    | 2000           | 94.09   | 0.24    |
|             | 3000       | 94.51   | 7.12    | 3000              | 85.64   | 1.61    | 3000           | 94.26   | 0.32    |
|             | 4000       | 94.75   | 9.05    | 4000              | 86.29   | 1.77    | 4000           | 94.58   | 0.45    |
|             | 3500       | 95.23   | 28.47   | 4000              | 86.46   |         |                | 95.44   |         |

Uncompressed – OOM – – OOM – – – OOM – – –
Comparison on AUC-ROC score and compression time of QUINT and other baselines (using 256 dimensions) for the link prediction experiments. We stopped baselines that took 10 hours or more and indicate them by DNS; OOM indicates baselines that ran out of memory. Smaller datasets were embedded to a maximum of 4000 dimensions. The best AUC-ROC among the baselines and for QUINT are bolded.

| Method      | Gowalla Dim. | Gowalla AUC-ROC | Gowalla Time(s) | Flickr Dim. | Flickr AUC-ROC | Flickr Time(s) | Youtube Dim. | Youtube AUC-ROC | Youtube Time(s) |
|-------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| node2vec    | 256          | 74.22           | 9174.34         | 256         | 72.5           | 10210.63       | 256          | **65.4**        | 35612           |
| deepwalk    | 256          | 74.82           | 14235.79        | 256         | 66.25          | 9473.68        | 256          | **DNS**         |                 |
| LINE        | 256          | **86.88**       | 7005.9          | 256         | **86.42**      | 11416.7        | 256          | **DNS**         |                 |
| VERSE       | 256          | **94.87**       | 1629.15         | 256         | 73.19          | 452.78         | 256          | **93.65**       | 25613           |
| NetMF       | 256          | 83.13           | 95.86           | 256         | 71.32          | 10.29          | 256          | **93.65**       | 25613           |
| NodeSketch  | 256          | 50              | 770.3           | 256         | 49.99          | 1930.74        | 256          | **48.84**       | 1265.8          |
| SGH         | 256          | **86.7**        | 7.41            | 256         | **90.00**      | 8.361          | 256          | **90.00**       | 8.361           |

| Method      | Enron Dim.  | Enron AUC-ROC | Enron Time(s) | BlogCatalog Dim. | BlogCatalog AUC-ROC | BlogCatalog Time(s) | Facebook Dim. | Facebook AUC-ROC | Facebook Time(s) |
|-------------|-------------|---------------|---------------|-------------------|----------------------|--------------------|---------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| node2vec    | 256         | 66.34         | 653.92        | 256               | 62.5                 | 1158               | 256          | 91.59             | 74.09             |
| deepwalk    | 256         | 64.59         | 1043.8        | 256               | 58.42                | 1559.03            | 256          | **DNS**           |                  |
| LINE        | 256         | 71.26         | 9132.6        | 256               | 60.45                | 5053.17            | 256          | **DNS**           |                  |
| VERSE       | 256         | **94.87**     | 1629.15       | 256               | 73.19                | 452.78             | 256          | 91.48             | 138.1             |
| NetMF       | 256         | 83.13         | 95.86         | 256               | 71.32                | 10.29              | 256          | **93.65**         | 25613             |
| NodeSketch  | 256         | 50            | 113.22        | 256               | 49.99                | 192.11             | 256          | 50.02             | 24.87             |
| SGH         | 256         | 70.66         | 34.86         | 256               | 65.56                | 7.92               | 256          | **90.49**         | 5.658             |
| QUINT       | 100         | **84.23**     | 0.55          | 100               | 81.60                | 0.38               | 100          | **81.69**         | 0.075             |
|             | 128         | 84.65         | 0.58          | 128               | 82.18                | 0.92               | 128          | 82.98             | 0.096             |
|             | 200         | 84.35         | 0.61          | 200               | 83.26                | 0.99               | 200          | 84.39             | 0.105             |
|             | 256         | 85.6          | 0.64          | 256               | 83.71                | 1.02               | 256          | 85.50             | 0.12              |
|             | 1000        | 92.88         | 0.99          | 1000              | 84.38                | 1.28               | 1000         | 93.85             | 0.18              |
|             | 2000        | 94.26         | 5.39          | 2000              | 85.36                | 1.45               | 2000         | 94.09             | 0.24              |
|             | 3000        | 94.51         | 7.12          | 3000              | 85.64                | 1.61               | 3000         | 94.26             | 0.32              |
|             | 4000        | 94.75         | 9.05          | 4000              | **86.29**            | 1.77               | 4000         | 94.58             | 0.45              |
|             | 35000       | **95.23**     | 28.47         |                   |                      |                   | 4500         | **95.30**         | 0.53              |

Uncompressed: — OOM: –