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# Laplacian-Guided Denoising Graph Diffusion for Graph Learning with an Adaptive Prior

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## Abstract

Graph representation learning often relies on manually engineered, task-specific inductive biases, which limit model flexibility and generalization across diverse tasks. While diffusion models have shown promising ability in capturing arbitrary distributions, they frequently lack a deep integration of graph structure. To address this, we propose the LapDiff, a novel diffusion-based framework that learns adaptive priors to dynamically align its inductive bias with the intrinsic characteristics of graph-structured data and their tasks. The novelty of LapDiff is its use of Laplacian smoothing as a structure-aware noise mechanism in the forward process, complemented by topological perturbations. This design enables the denoising network to effectively capture the underlying data-generating factors tied to a graph's unique structure and features. Specifically, the reverse denoising process implicitly learns which structural patterns are informative for a given graph, allowing the model to adapt its representations without fixed architectural assumptions. By capturing priors from a task and data, LapDiff mitigates the limitations of static biases and enhances task-agnostic generalization. Extensive experiments on large-scale OGB benchmarks demonstrate that LapDiff is universally effective for both link prediction and node classification, achieving state-of-the-art performance and offering a new perspective into graph representation learning.

## 1 Introduction

Large-scale network graphs are now foundational data structures across science and industry, from biological systems [1] and drug discovery [2] to recommender systems [3] and fraud detection [4]. The central challenge in this field is learning effective representations that capture the complex, non-Euclidean relationships inherent in such data. Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) have emerged as the dominant paradigm, achieving remarkable success by leveraging strong inductive biases.

However, this reliance on inductive biases is a double-edged sword. The vast majority of GNNs are built on a fixed assumption, such as homophily, the tendency of connected nodes to be similar. While effective in some scenarios, this rigid prior leads to significant performance degradation on graphs with more complex topologies or across different downstream tasks. To compensate, a fragmented landscape of specialized models has emerged, each with manually engineered biases tailored to specific tasks, such as subgraph-based features for link prediction (*e.g.*, SEAL [5]) or generalized graph heuristics (*e.g.*, Neo-GNNs [6]).

This approach merely trades one fixed assumption for another, inherently limiting generalization and requiring separate models for different tasks, which is impractical for real-world deployment [7]. The lack of a single, dominant architecture on comprehensive benchmarks like the Open Graph Benchmark (OGB) [8] highlights this fundamental limitation. For instance, while GCN [9] achieves high accuracy on the OGB-PPA node classification task, its performance plummets in OGB-Collab

link prediction, where heuristic-based methods like SEAL [5] excel. This disparity underscores that fixed, manually-specified priors are a bottleneck for creating truly universal graph representation learning methods.

This predicament raises a fundamental question: *Can we learn powerful graph representations without manually-designed fixed inductive bias?* We argue for a paradigm shift from static, hand-crafted biases to *adaptive* ones that emerge as data-driven priors, conditioned directly on the given task and intrinsic properties of the given graph.

To motivate our approach, we first draw intuition from the No-Free-Lunch (NFL) theorem [10]. The NFL theorem suggests that no single learner is universally optimal across all tasks and data distributions. The practical limitations of fixed-bias GNNs are consistent with this observation and often arise from a misalignment between manually-specified biases and a given objective or dataset. We thus use NFL theorem as intuition to align inductive bias with the problem family. Based on PAC-Bayes [11, 12], we formalize graph adaptive prior. PAC-Bayes theory provides a formal basis for using adaptive priors by directly connecting them to generalization of a model. A standard PAC-Bayes generalization bounds for a posterior over a hypothesis class and a prior. Let  $\pi_\phi$  be a *graph prior* that depends only on unlabeled information of an input graph  $\phi(G)$ , and let  $\rho$  be an arbitrary posterior. With probability at least  $1 - \delta$  over a sample of size  $m$ , the inequality holds for priors  $Q$  as:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim \rho}[R] \leq \mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim \rho}[\hat{R}] + \sqrt{\frac{\text{KL}(\rho \parallel \pi_\phi) + \ln(2\sqrt{m}/\delta)}{2(m-1)}}. \quad (1)$$

We instantiate  $\pi_\phi$  as a prior with precision  $\tau(L(G) + \epsilon I)$ , which encodes *Laplacian smoothing*. Then,  $\text{KL}(\rho \parallel \pi_\phi)$  turns into a Dirichlet-energy penalty. This aligns with our Laplacian-MSE surrogate (Sec. 3.2), a second-order upper bound of the edge-wise Bernoulli KL shown in Appendix A, hence lowering both empirical error and the complexity term.

This bound gives the crucial insight that generalization error depends on an empirical error and on the Kullback-Leibler divergence  $\text{KL}(\rho \parallel \pi_\phi)$ . To minimize  $\text{KL}(\rho \parallel \pi_\phi)$ , a prior  $\pi_\phi$  would be constructed from an input graph without labels and be depend on a given task so that a prior  $\pi_\phi$  reflects the structure of a graph and the objective of interest. By doing so, a prior  $\pi_\phi$  is better aligned with the posterior induced by a dataset.

This theoretical principle provides a foundation for our goal: to learn graph representation with an adaptive prior. We propose **LapDiff**, a novel diffusion-based framework that realizes parameterizing an adaptive prior  $\pi_\phi(z|\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{T})$  not as a static assumption, but as the learned outcome through diffusion models with a parameter prior, *i.e.*,  $\pi_\phi(\theta|\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{T})$ . Its core innovation is the use of Laplacian smoothing as a novel structure-aware noise mechanism, a principled way to align this prior with the intrinsic geometry of graph data. Our contributions are summarized as follows:

- We propose a generative framework **LapDiff** that learns an adaptive, graph-conditioned prior,  $\pi_\phi(z|G)$ , to capture implicit structural and feature-level patterns without handcrafted biases.
- We introduce the novel use of **Laplacian smoothing** as a structure-aware noise mechanism within a diffusion model, providing a new perspective on encoding graph geometry into generative processes.
- We empirically demonstrate that LapDiff achieves state-of-the-art performance on diverse benchmarks for link prediction and node classification, validating the effectiveness of our adaptive, structure-aware learning approach.

## 2 Related work

**Graph Representation Learning.** GNNs like GCN [13] and GAT [14] have achieved strong performance in node classification by exploiting local aggregation schemes. However, these often encode fixed assumptions (e.g., homophily), limiting generalization to diverse graph types. While GRAND [15] models feature diffusion as a continuous process, structural signals remain underutilized in most node-centric models. In contrast, SEAL [5], Neo-GNNs [6], and NBFNet [16] introduce inductive biases tailored for link prediction via subgraph extraction or path-based heuristics. However, these methods are narrowly focused on specific tasks.

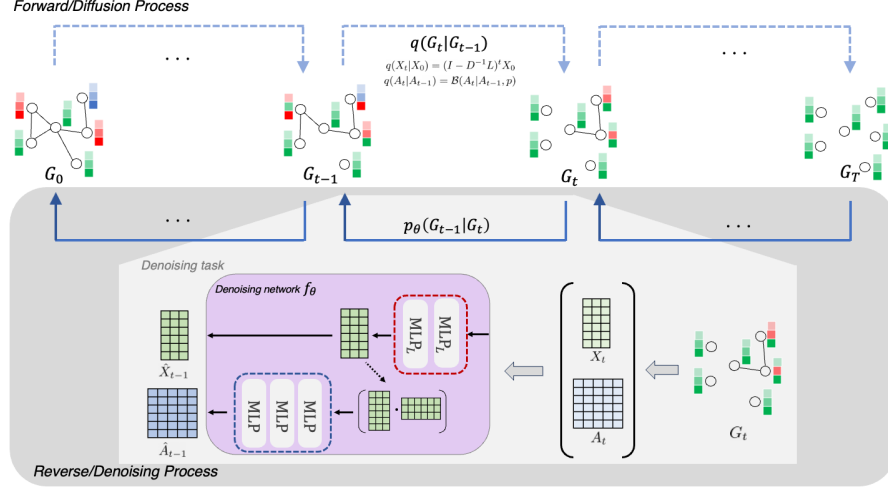


Figure 1: Graphical Model of LapDiff. LapDiff leverages Laplacian smoothing as the noise source of the forward process, inducing signal diffusion that reflects important aspects of graph structure.

**DDPMs on Graph domain.** DDPMs have recently been extended to graphs. Prior generative approaches [17–19] modeled node-edge distributions or joint graph likelihoods. Molecular graph generation works (e.g., [20, 21]) employed categorical and discrete formulations, while [22] proposed scalable structure perturbations. DDM citeyang2023directional introduced diffusion models for graph representation learning with anisotropic node feature noise, yet ignored graph structures. Recently, SGDiff [23] proposed a subgraph-based diffusion model tailored for link prediction, incorporating structural context into diffusion.

**Graph Inverse Problems.** Furthermore, our concept of an *adaptive prior* learned via denoising shares motivation with methods that learn explicit regularization. While these approaches typically learn a task-specific regularization term (e.g., a graph filter), LapDiff learns an entire generative process that models the data distribution conditioned on a graph. This allows the prior to be implicitly learned and adapted through the denoising objective itself, rather than being defined by a fixed parametric form. [24] proposed learning regularization for graph inverse problems, where a trainable graph regularizer is optimized jointly with a data-fidelity term. While both approaches involve graph structure and optimization, our work differs fundamentally: (1) We focus on representation learning rather than inverse problems (denoising, inpainting); (2) Our Laplacian smoothing acts as a fixed structural prior in the forward process, whereas [24] learns the regularizer itself; (3) We integrate topological diffusion (edge removal) alongside feature diffusion. Nevertheless, both works share the insight that structure-aware priors can improve over hand-designed alternatives, and future work could explore combining learnable Laplacian operators with our diffusion framework.

### 3 Method

Our model, **LapDiff**, implicitly learns the adaptive graph prior  $p_\theta(z | G)$  posited in our theoretical motivation via a denoising diffusion process. LapDiff consists of two complementary processes: a **forward process** that incrementally injects structure-aware noise into the input graph  $G_0 = (A_0, X_0)$ , and a **reverse process** that learns to denoise the corrupted graph to reconstruct an informative latent representation. This section details both processes and the resulting objective function.

#### 3.1 LapDiff Generative Process

Our generative process consists of two complementary forward processes applied to the input graph  $G_0 = (A_0, X_0)$ : first, a deterministic feature diffusion based on Laplacian smoothing, and secondly, a stochastic structural diffusion via edge perturbation. This corrupts feature information and topological information differently. A unified denoising network  $f_\theta$  (detailed in Sec 3.2) is then trained to denoise both processes simultaneously, forcing it to learn the complex intervene between graph structure and

node features. We define two Markov chains for feature and structural diffusion,  $q(X_{1:T}|X_0)$  and  $q(A_{1:T}|A_0)$ , respectively.

### 3.1.1 Feature Diffusion via Laplacian Smoothing

To corrupt node features while retaining structural information, we define the forward process noise source using the graph Laplacian. Specifically, we use iterative Laplacian smoothing with the *symmetric* normalized Laplacian  $\mathbf{L}_{\text{sym}} = \mathbf{D}^{-1/2} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{D}^{-1/2}$ , which acts as a low-pass filter on node features, causing them to dissipate and converge towards an over-smoothed state. The feature matrix  $X_t$  at timestep  $t$  is obtained as:

$$X_t = (\mathbf{I} - \alpha \mathbf{L}_{\text{sym}}) X_{t-1} = (\mathbf{I} - \alpha \mathbf{L}_{\text{sym}})^t X_0, \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbf{L}$  is the graph Laplacian of the original graph  $G_0$ ,  $\mathbf{D}$  is its degree matrix, and  $\alpha$  is a scaling factor. For simplicity, we set  $\alpha = 1$ . This process defines a deterministic Markov chain  $q(X_{1:T}|X_0) = \prod_{t=1}^T q(X_t|X_{t-1})$  where the node feature information is progressively smoothed, also known as low-pass filtered, according to the original graph structure.

**Theoretical Grounding of Laplacian Smoothing.** Our choice of Laplacian smoothing as a noise source is theoretically grounded in spectral graph theory. Given the eigendecomposition of the *symmetric* Laplacian  $\mathbf{L}_{\text{sym}} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{U}^\top$ , the feature diffusion in Eq. (2) can be expressed in the spectral domain as:

$$X_t = \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{I} - \alpha \mathbf{\Lambda})^t \mathbf{U}^\top X_0. \quad (3)$$

The term  $(\mathbf{I} - \alpha \mathbf{\Lambda})^t$  acts as a low-pass filter, attenuating high-frequency components of the feature signal (associated with large eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$ ) more rapidly than low-frequency components (small  $\lambda_i$ ). This selective attenuation preserves global structural patterns for longer, forcing the reverse process to learn representations that are tied to the graph’s macro-structure, unlike isotropic Gaussian noise which degrades all signal components uniformly. In the spectral domain, the smoothed coefficients become

$$\hat{x}' = [(1 - \alpha \lambda_1) \hat{x}_1, (1 - \alpha \lambda_2) \hat{x}_2, \dots, (1 - \alpha \lambda_N) \hat{x}_N], \quad (4)$$

which indicates that components associated with larger  $\lambda_i$  are reduced more than those with smaller  $\lambda_i$ .

### 3.1.2 Structural Diffusion via Edge Perturbation

Concurrently of the feature diffusion process, we diffuse the graph topology using stochastic edge removal to ensure stochasticity in diffusion-based models. This process follows a stochastic Markov chain  $q(A_{1:T}|A_0)$ . At each step  $t$ , we sample a subgraph structure by randomly dropping edges from the previous state  $A_{t-1}$  with a removal probability  $1 - p$ . This process gradually sparsifies the graph, destroying its topological information. The per-edge transition is defined as:

$$A_t[i, j] \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p A_{t-1}[i, j]), \quad (5)$$

i.e., an existing edge is retained with probability  $p$  (non-edges remain absent). This defines the structural diffusion process  $q(A_{1:T}|A_0) = \prod_{t=1}^T q(A_t|A_{t-1})$ .

## 3.2 Reverse Process and Objective Function

The reverse process is parameterized by a denoising network  $f_\theta(X_t, A_t, t)$ , which predicts the state at  $t - 1$ . This network is implemented as a  $K$ -layer Graph Neural Network (GNN) encoder followed by two separate 3-layer MLP decoders. The GNN encoder takes both the smoothed features  $X_t$  and the perturbed adjacency matrix  $A_t$  as input, generating node representations  $H_t = \text{GNN}(X_t, A_t)$ . These representations capture the fused information from the corrupted structure and features.  $H_t$  is then fed into two decoders: A feature decoder  $f_\theta^{(X)}(H_t, t)$  to predict  $X_{t-1}$  and a structural decoder  $f_\theta^{(L)}(H_t, t)$  to predict the removed Laplacian components  $(L_0 - L_{t-1})$ .

**Feature Denoising Objective.** The feature denoising term aims to predict the features at the previous step,  $X_{t-1}$ , which can be simplified to a mean squared error loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{feat}}(t) = \|f_\theta^{(X)}(X_t, A_t, t) - X_{t-1}\|_F^2. \quad (6)$$

**Structural Denoising Objective.** Directly optimizing the KL divergence for discrete edges (i.e.,  $\mathcal{L}_{struct}$  in Eq. 294) is unstable. Instead, we optimize a stable, continuous surrogate objective. As theoretically derived in Appendix A, the per-edge Bernoulli KL divergence is upper-bounded by the squared error of the corresponding expected Laplacian matrices. This provides a well-motivated and stable optimization target. Therefore, we define the structural denoising loss  $\mathcal{L}_{struct}$  as the MSE in the Laplacian space. Moreover, the Laplacian captures degree-coupled structural information more smoothly than binary adjacency matrices, leading to more stable gradients during training.

$$\mathcal{L}_{struct}(t) \approx \|f_{\theta}^{(L)}(X_t, A_t, t) - (\mathbf{L}_0 - \mathbf{L}_{t-1})\|_F^2. \quad (7)$$

Here, the network predicts the change in the Laplacian, which corresponds to the structure that was removed between step 0 and  $t - 1$ .

**Final Loss.** Combining the denoising terms for  $t \in [2, T]$  and the explicit reconstruction losses for  $t = 1$  (using MSE for features and binary cross-entropy for the adjacency matrix), the final training loss for LapDiff is:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{LapDiff} := & \sum_{t=2}^T \beta_t \|f_{\theta}^{(X)}(X_t, A_t, t) - X_{t-1}\|_F^2 + \gamma \sum_{t=2}^T \|f_{\theta}^{(L)}(X_t, A_t, t) - (\mathbf{L}_0 - \mathbf{L}_{t-1})\|_F^2 \\ & + \beta_0 \|f_{\theta}^{(X)}(X_1, A_1, 1) - X_0\|_F^2 + \lambda \mathcal{L}_{BCE}(f_{\theta}^{(A)}(X_1, A_1, 1), A_0) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where  $\beta_0, \gamma, \beta_t, \lambda$  are weighting hyperparameters. The total loss is  $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{LapDiff} + \mathcal{L}_{task}$ . The learned representations  $z$  from the denoising process capture the adaptive prior that is informative to solve a given downstream task. For link prediction, we apply MLPs to pairs of node representations, i.e.,  $\hat{y}_{ij} = \text{MLP}(z_i^T z_j)$ . By learning to denoise graph-structured data through the diffusion-based framework, our LapDiff implicitly learns which structural patterns are highly informative to solve a task, making these representations effective across diverse tasks without task-specific handcrafted biases or architectures.

## 4 Experiments

Our goal is to demonstrate that LapDiff’s adaptive prior mechanism leads to universally strong performance across diverse graph learning tasks. We then analyze the contribution of its core components. We evaluate LapDiff on seven benchmark datasets including Open Graph Benchmark (OGB), covering two diverse network graph learning tasks: link prediction and node classification. For evaluation, we follow the standard OGB protocols, using Hits@K and MRR for link prediction, and accuracy for node classification. For node classification, we adopt a challenging few-shot setting with a fixed number of labeled nodes  $k \in \{1, 5, 10\}$  per class to test representation power under extreme label scarcity. We compare LapDiff against a comprehensive set of baselines, including heuristic methods, classic GNNs (GCN, GAT, GraphSAGE), and recent specialized architectures (SEAL, Neo-GNNs, C&S, GraphMAE2). Experimental details are provided in the Appendix. An anonymized implementation is available at <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/NPGMLworkshop2025CDF2>

### 4.1 Performance on Downstream tasks

Across all link prediction and node classification benchmarks, LapDiff consistently outperforms task-specific baselines, indicating it captures both structural and feature-level priors without hand-crafted biases. This robustness across diverse tasks and datasets confirms its ability to learn broadly generalizable graph representations, emphasizing LapDiff’s utility for diverse graph-learning applications.

**Link prediction.** Table 1 reports the results of OGB link prediction benchmarks. Our LapDiff generally shows significantly improved performance than other baselines on OGB-Collab and OGB-DDI datasets and second-best performance on OGB-PPA and OGB-Citation2 with low discrepancy to the best models. This indicates our LapDiff is capable of capturing latent graph priors that are crucial in the context of link prediction tasks and data. Additionally, LapDiff demonstrates robust performance across various datasets. LapDiff has the ability to handle both underlying prior distribution and internal biases in graph structures and node features. For instance, LapDiff achieves the best performance on OGB-DDI, whereas SEAL, which is designed to generalize higher-order

Table 1: Link prediction performances on Open Graph Benchmark (OGB) datasets. OOM denotes 'out of memory'. **Bold underline** indicates the best performance and **bold** indicates the second best performance.

	Model	OGB-PPA	OGB-Collab	OGB-DDI	OGB-Citation2
Neighborhood Heuristics	Common Neighbors	27.65 $\pm$ 0.00	50.06 $\pm$ 0.00	17.73 $\pm$ 0.00	76.20 $\pm$ 0.0
	Adamic Adar	32.45 $\pm$ 0.00	53.00 $\pm$ 0.00	18.61 $\pm$ 0.00	76.12 $\pm$ 0.0
	Resource Allocation	<b>49.33</b> $\pm$ 0.00	52.89 $\pm$ 0.00	6.23 $\pm$ 0.00	76.20 $\pm$ 0.0
Shallow Methods	Matrix Factorization	23.78 $\pm$ 1.82	34.87 $\pm$ 0.23	13.29 $\pm$ 2.32	50.48 $\pm$ 3.09
	MLP	0.99 $\pm$ 0.15	16.05 $\pm$ 0.48	N/A	25.13 $\pm$ 0.28
GRL Methods	GCN	15.37 $\pm$ 1.25	44.57 $\pm$ 0.64	40.87 $\pm$ 6.08	82.57 $\pm$ 0.26
	GAT	OOM	41.73 $\pm$ 1.01	32.57 $\pm$ 3.48	OOM
	SAGE	12.51 $\pm$ 2.02	47.86 $\pm$ 0.64	47.06 $\pm$ 5.21	80.18 $\pm$ 0.15
	JKNet	11.73 $\pm$ 1.98	47.52 $\pm$ 0.73	57.95 $\pm$ 7.69	OOM
	SEAL	47.18 $\pm$ 3.60	<b>54.27</b> $\pm$ 0.46	29.86 $\pm$ 4.37	<b>86.72</b> $\pm$ 0.31
	Neo-GNN	47.53 $\pm$ 0.63	53.95 $\pm$ 0.52	<b>60.02</b> $\pm$ 3.86	85.96 $\pm$ 0.94
	DDM	17.93 $\pm$ 1.91	49.56 $\pm$ 1.79	47.73 $\pm$ 3.10	83.51 $\pm$ 0.20
	LapDiff(ours)	<b>48.32</b> $\pm$ 0.68	<b>54.33</b> $\pm$ 0.35	<b>60.56</b> $\pm$ 2.32	<b>86.70</b> $\pm$ 0.27

Table 2: Node classification performance on OGB-Arxiv, OGB-Products, and PubMed dataset. OOM denotes 'out of memory'. **bold** indicates the best performance.

Model	OGB-Arxiv				OGB-Products				PubMed			
Fixed $k$ nodes	$k = 1$	$k = 5$	$k = 10$		$k = 1$	$k = 5$	$k = 10$		$k = 1$	$k = 5$	$k = 10$	
GCN	31.69 $\pm$ 2.74	52.97 $\pm$ 0.94	58.39 $\pm$ 0.50		38.93 $\pm$ 2.09	62.69 $\pm$ 1.27	66.23 $\pm$ 0.91		45.87 $\pm$ 2.44	60.56 $\pm$ 1.44	69.50 $\pm$ 0.68	
GAT	25.60 $\pm$ 2.95	50.87 $\pm$ 1.78	57.23 $\pm$ 0.75		35.81 $\pm$ 2.42	60.72 $\pm$ 1.93	64.80 $\pm$ 1.21		43.57 $\pm$ 2.71	58.38 $\pm$ 2.06	68.40 $\pm$ 1.49	
APPNP	29.36 $\pm$ 2.19	52.47 $\pm$ 1.26	56.42 $\pm$ 0.83		36.35 $\pm$ 2.20	63.01 $\pm$ 2.10	66.85 $\pm$ 0.84		43.04 $\pm$ 1.72	56.94 $\pm$ 1.90	69.99 $\pm$ 0.73	
GCNII	30.94 $\pm$ 2.30	51.94 $\pm$ 1.18	57.65 $\pm$ 0.94		33.64 $\pm$ 2.32	61.43 $\pm$ 2.36	64.90 $\pm$ 1.39		43.29 $\pm$ 2.53	56.18 $\pm$ 1.84	70.60 $\pm$ 0.93	
C&S	30.63 $\pm$ 1.88	51.73 $\pm$ 1.30	56.57 $\pm$ 1.43		40.47 $\pm$ 1.97	62.18 $\pm$ 1.57	67.53 $\pm$ 1.40		44.91 $\pm$ 1.24	57.44 $\pm$ 1.36	68.78 $\pm$ 1.07	
CCA-SSG	29.21 $\pm$ 3.01	51.67 $\pm$ 2.31	57.40 $\pm$ 0.89		39.95 $\pm$ 2.67	63.10 $\pm$ 2.13	67.62 $\pm$ 1.56		47.56 $\pm$ 3.15	60.44 $\pm$ 2.60	69.24 $\pm$ 0.68	
GraphMAE2	33.83 $\pm$ 3.23	54.67 $\pm$ 2.32	60.16 $\pm$ 0.75		41.65 $\pm$ 2.01	63.69 $\pm$ 2.30	68.08 $\pm$ 1.62		50.76 $\pm$ 5.10	64.29 $\pm$ 0.11	70.51 $\pm$ 0.11	
DDM	36.08 $\pm$ 0.93	55.69 $\pm$ 1.41	60.71 $\pm$ 0.31		45.57 $\pm$ 1.28	64.90 $\pm$ 1.03	69.62 $\pm$ 0.15		50.95 $\pm$ 2.42	65.13 $\pm$ 0.10	70.12 $\pm$ 0.56	
LapDiff(ours)	<b>39.04</b> $\pm$ 1.52	<b>57.83</b> $\pm$ 0.83	<b>61.23</b> $\pm$ 0.37		<b>49.10</b> $\pm$ 1.75	<b>67.47</b> $\pm$ 1.03	<b>70.69</b> $\pm$ 0.61		<b>53.82</b> $\pm$ 1.46	<b>66.93</b> $\pm$ 0.88	<b>72.77</b> $\pm$ 0.62	

structural heuristics shows relatively poor performance. This result illustrates that existing GNNs often show degradation under conditions that are distinct from their intrinsic objectives. Thus, it highlights that our model effectively learn latent representations with hidden, complex aspects that are captured by latent priors in a graph naturally regarding certain objectives.

**Node classification.** We conduct experiments on semi-supervised node classification benchmark datasets to validate the effectiveness of LapDiff on learning node embeddings. We constrained the training index by the fixed  $k$  nodes per label. The number  $k$  is set to 1, 5, and 10. Table 2 shows the performance of a semi-supervised node classification task that is extremely limited to label scarcity. LapDiff outperforms other baselines on all datasets and settings. According to the results, LapDiff effectively captures the latent distribution of nodes, even under very constrained conditions.

## 4.2 Analysis on Components

We empirically validate the efficacy of each component in LapDiff through ablation experiments in Table 3. First, we demonstrate the capability of LapDiff to capture universal and comprehensive representation by training without downstream task loss. It is remarkable that it still shows a relatively high performance than LapDiff without feature process or structure process. Also, it is interesting that it still outperforms conventional GNNs including GCN, GAT, SAGE, and JKNet. This result implies that LapDiff is capable of learning critical latent representations within a graph that are significant by aligning hidden graph priors.

Then, we evaluate LapDiff without the feature diffusion process and structural diffusion process based on the average performance on link prediction datasets. LapDiff without feature diffusion process and LapDiff without structural diffusion process both show degraded performance on OGB-Collab and OGB-PPA.

## 4.3 Analysis on Noise Source

Table 4 presents an analysis of the efficacy of different noise sources to capture underlying latent priors dynamically aligning to the internal structures of task and dataset. The noise sources compared to Laplacian smoothing are random Gaussian noise from DDPM [25] and Anisotropic Gaussian

Table 3: Ablation study analyzing the efficacy of each component of LapDiff.

Dataset	OGB-Collab	OGB-PPA
LapDiff	54.33 $\pm$ 0.37	48.87 $\pm$ 0.64
LapDiff (w/o downstream loss)	51.78 $\pm$ 0.40	44.92 $\pm$ 1.52
LapDiff (w/o feature process)	45.13 $\pm$ 2.33	39.77 $\pm$ 1.13
LapDiff (w/o structure process)	45.47 $\pm$ 3.02	26.42 $\pm$ 2.30

Table 4: Analysis on the efficacy of noise source. As other baselines only consider node features, the structure process in LapDiff is excluded from evaluation.

Dataset	OGB-Collab	OGB-Arxiv ( $k = 5$ )
Metric	Hits@50	Accuracy
LapDiff (Laplacian smoothing)	<b>52.30</b> $\pm$ 0.97	<b>57.02</b> $\pm$ 0.79
DDPM (Random noise)	47.43 $\pm$ 1.58	53.38 $\pm$ 1.02
DDM (Anisotropic noise)	49.56 $\pm$ 1.79	55.69 $\pm$ 1.41

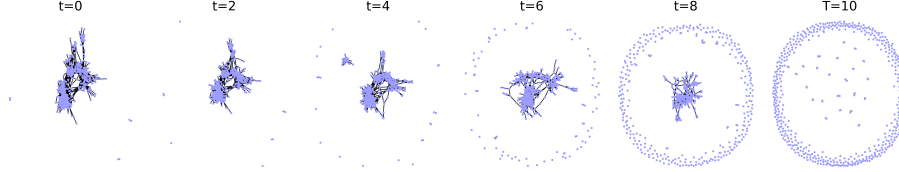


Figure 2: Visualization of graph reconstruction on PubMed at every even number time step. To improve the visibility of the figure, we sampled the subgraph of PubMed with large connectivity.

noise in DDM [26]. The effectiveness of each noise source is evaluated for link prediction and semi-supervised node classification tasks on OGB-Collab and OGB-Arxiv datasets, respectively. On both datasets, Laplacian smoothing outperforms the other two noise sources. It achieves a score of 52.30 on the OGB-Collab dataset and 57.02 on the OGB-Arxiv dataset. Compared to random Gaussian noise and anisotropic Gaussian noise, Laplacian smoothing shows a clear advantage. For instance, it exceeds random Gaussian Noise by nearly 5 percentage points and exceeds anisotropic Gaussian noise by over 3 percentage points on OGB-Collab dataset. These results strongly support our central hypothesis: the Laplacian smoothing, by selectively preserving low-frequency structural signals (as analyzed in Sec 3.1.1), provides a far more informative gradient for the denoising network than isotropic noise, which destroys all signal components uniformly. These results indicate that utilizing Laplacian smoothing as a noise source is not only effective but also consistent, offering a significant improvement over other random noise. It provides strong empirical evidence of the efficacy of Laplacian smoothing as a noise source in a diffusion model for graph representation learning tasks, specifically for large graph data.

#### 4.4 Underlying Distribution of Graph

The goal of LapDiff is to learn universal and generalizable representations that are aligned with the underlying distribution of large graph data. To validate the capability to learn priors of network graphs and implicitly aligned with inherent priors, Fig 2 provides the visualization of the reconstruction of a graph on PubMed dataset at each even number of states. As shown in Fig 2, the trajectory of reconstruction is directed toward the input state, eventually, showing a similar structure at  $t = 2$  compared to the input graph  $t = 0$ .

## 5 Conclusion

We introduced LapDiff, a framework that instantiates an adaptive inductive bias. We operationalize this by training a denoising network to invert two complementary processes: a deterministic feature smoothing via the graph Laplacian and a stochastic structural perturbation. LAPDIFF learns a graph-specific prior instead of relying on hand-crafted assumptions. Across diverse benchmarks, it delivers strong performance and provides evidence toward more universal graph learners. LapDiff shows the largest improvements on datasets where fixed biases fail. On simpler tasks like small citation networks, the performance gain is smaller because even fixed-bias GNNs work well. LapDiff requires more computation than standard GNNs due to the iterative denoising process (see Appendix D.1 for complexity analysis). For extremely large graphs, the computation may become a bottleneck, thus, future work could explore mini-batch Laplacian approximations or localized smoothing operators. Also, future work includes directed Laplacians, schedule learning, standardized diagnostics, exploring richer structure-aware noise processes and theoretically analyzing the properties of the learned graph

priors. Our work encourages further research on adaptive inductive bias universal representation in graph machine learning.

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## A Derivation of Loss function of LapDiff

This section provides a derivation of the variational lower bound (ELBO) and the loss function of our proposed model, LapDiff.

### A.1 Derivation of Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO)

Let  $G_0$  represent a given observed graph data consisting of  $X$  and  $A$ , denoting node feature matrix and adjacency matrix, respectively. Taking the log-likelihood  $\log p(G_0) = \log p(X_0, A_0)$ , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
\log p_\theta(X_0, A_0) &= \log \int p_\theta(X_{0:T}, A_{0:T}) dX_{1:T} dA_{1:T} \\
&\geq \int q(X_{1:T}, A_{1:T} | X_0, A_0) \log \frac{p_\theta(X_{0:T}, A_{0:T})}{q(X_{1:T}, A_{1:T} | X_0, A_0)} dG_{1:T} \\
&\quad \text{(by variational posterior and Jensen's inequality)} \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{q(X_{1:T}, A_{1:T} | X_0, A_0)} \left[ \log \frac{p_\theta(X_{0:T}, A_{0:T})}{q(X_{1:T}, A_{1:T} | X_0, A_0)} \right]
\end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

For simplifying the notation,  $dG_{1:T} = dX_{1:T} dA_{1:T}$  and  $\mathbb{E}_q = \mathbb{E}_{q(X_{1:T}, A_{1:T} | X_0, A_0)}$ . The variational lower bound (ELBO) is obtained as follows:

$$\text{ELBO} = \mathbb{E}_q \left[ \log \frac{p_\theta(X_{0:T}, A_{0:T})}{q(X_{1:T}, A_{1:T} | X_0, A_0)} \right] \tag{10}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_q \left[ \log \frac{p_\theta(X_T, A_T) \prod_{t=1}^T p_\theta(X_{t-1} | X_t, A_t) \cdot p_\theta(A_{t-1} | X_t, A_t)}{\prod_{t=1}^T q(X_t | X_{t-1}) \cdot q(A_t | A_{t-1})} \right] \tag{11}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \mathbb{E}_q \left[ \log p_\theta(X_T, A_T) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \sum_{t=1}^T \log \frac{p_\theta(X_{t-1} | X_t, A_t) \cdot p_\theta(A_{t-1} | X_t, A_t)}{q(X_t | X_{t-1}) \cdot q(A_t | A_{t-1})} \right]
\end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

Then, we could separate  $t = 1$  and  $t \geq 2$  because  $t = 1$  indicates the reconstruction to the given data  $G_0 = (X_0, A_0)$ . Next, we flip latent variables in the variational posterior  $q$ . We reparametrize  $q(X_t|X_{t-1})$ ,  $q(A_t|A_{t-1})$  to  $q(X_{t-1}|X_t, X_0)$ ,  $q(A_{t-1}|A_t, A_0)$ , respectively. Specifically, Markov chain properties formalize  $q(X_t|X_{t-1}) = q(X_{t-1}|X_t, X_0) \frac{q(X_t|X_0)}{q(X_{t-1}|X_0)}$  and this holds in  $A$  as well. The second term can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{t=2}^T \log \frac{p_\theta(X_{t-1}|X_t, A_t) \cdot p_\theta(A_{t-1}|X_t, A_t)}{q(X_{t-1}|X_t, X_0) \cdot q(A_{t-1}|A_t, A_0)} \\ & + \sum_{t=2}^T \log \frac{q(X_{t-1}|X_0) \cdot q(A_{t-1}|A_0)}{q(X_t|X_0) \cdot q(A_t|A_0)} \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & = \sum_{t=2}^T \left[ \log \frac{p_\theta(X_{t-1}|X_t, A_t) \cdot p_\theta(A_{t-1}|X_t, A_t)}{q(X_{t-1}|X_t, X_0) \cdot q(A_{t-1}|A_t, A_0)} \right. \\ & + \log \frac{q(X_1|X_0)}{q(X_2|X_0)} \cdot \frac{q(X_2|X_0)}{q(X_3|X_0)} \cdots \frac{q(X_{T-2}|X_0)}{q(X_{T-1}|X_0)} \cdot \frac{q(X_{T-1}|X_0)}{q(X_T|X_0)} \\ & \left. + \log \frac{q(A_1|A_0)}{q(A_2|A_0)} \cdot \frac{q(A_2|A_0)}{q(A_3|A_0)} \cdots \frac{q(A_{T-2}|A_0)}{q(A_{T-1}|A_0)} \cdot \frac{q(A_{T-1}|A_0)}{q(A_T|A_0)} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

Then, the ELBO is derived as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ELBO} & = \mathbb{E}_q \left[ \log p_\theta(X_T, A_T) \right. \\ & + \sum_{t=2}^T \log \frac{p_\theta(X_{t-1}|X_t, A_t) \cdot p_\theta(A_{t-1}|X_t, A_t)}{q(X_{t-1}|X_t, X_0) \cdot q(A_{t-1}|A_t, A_0)} \\ & \left. + \log \frac{q(X_1|X_0) \cdot q(A_1|A_0)}{q(X_T|X_0) \cdot q(A_T|A_0)} + \log \frac{p_\theta(X_0|X_1, A_1) \cdot p_\theta(A_0|X_1, A_1)}{q(X_1|X_0) \cdot q(A_1|A_0)} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & = \mathbb{E}_q \left[ \log \frac{\text{constant}}{q(X_T|X_0) \cdot q(A_T|A_0)} \right. \\ & + \sum_{t=2}^T \log \frac{p_\theta(X_{t-1}|X_t, A_t) \cdot p_\theta(A_{t-1}|X_t, A_t)}{q(X_{t-1}|X_t, X_0) \cdot q(A_{t-1}|A_t, A_0)} \\ & \left. + \log p_\theta(X_0|X_1, A_1) \cdot p_\theta(A_0|X_1, A_1) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

The first term is not trainable. Since the degree of noise injection in the forward process is fixed and not optimized during training, it can be treated as a constant. The second term is equivalent to the definition of KL divergence, thus the final form of the ELBO of the model is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ELBO} & = \mathbb{E}_q \left[ \log p_\theta(X_0|X_1, A_1) + \log p_\theta(A_0|X_1, A_1) \right. \\ & - \sum_{t \geq 2} \text{KL} [q(X_{t-1}|X_t, X_0) \| p_\theta(X_{t-1}|X_t, A_t)] \\ & \left. - \sum_{t \geq 2} \text{KL} [q(A_{t-1}|A_t, A_0) \| p_\theta(A_{t-1}|X_t, A_t)] \right] \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

## A.2 Variational Posterior

In our proposed model, the feature-level and structural diffusion processes are designed to be Markov chains, meaning the noisy data at each timestep  $t$  depends only on the state at  $t - 1$ . In the context of

the forward diffusion processes implies:

$$q(X_t|X_0, X_1, \dots, X_{t-1}, A_0) = q(X_t|X_{t-1}, \overset{\text{Fixed}}{\cancel{A_0}}) \quad (18)$$

$$q(A_t|A_0, A_1, \dots, A_{t-1}) = q(A_t|A_{t-1}), \quad (19)$$

where the noise source, Laplacian smoothing, is fixed with  $A_0$ . By the definition of Markov chains, we can remove  $A_0$ , which serves the role of a fixed noise schedule. Also, recall that we defined noise in the feature-level diffusion process as

$$\begin{aligned} q(X_t|X_{t-1}) &:= (I - D^{-1}L)^t X_0 = (I - D^{-1}L)X_{t-1} \\ q(X_{1:T}|X_0) &= \prod_{t=1}^T q(X_t|X_0) = \prod_{t=1}^T q(X_t|X_{t-1}). \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

Start from the joint conditional distribution of all  $X_t$  and  $A_t$ , given  $X_0, A_0$ :

$$\begin{aligned} q(X_{1:T}, A_{1:T}|X_0, A_0) \\ = q(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_T, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_T|X_0, A_0). \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

By the chain rule, Eq (21) equals

$$\begin{aligned} q(X_1|X_0)q(A_1|A_0) \cdot q(X_2|X_0, X_1)q(A_2|A_0, A_1) \\ \dots q(X_T|X_0, \dots, X_{T-1})q(A_T|A_0, \dots, A_{T-1}). \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

By applying the Markov chain property that each  $X_t, A_t$  only depends on  $X_{t-1}, A_{t-1}$ :

$$q(X_{1:T}, A_{1:T}|X_0, A_0) = \prod_{t=1}^T q(X_t|X_{t-1}) \cdot q(A_t|A_{t-1}) \quad (23)$$

### A.3 Approximation to Laplacian Difference Prediction

For one undirected edges  $(i, j)$ , let the one-edge KL be

$$p_{ij} = q(A_{t-1,ij} = 1 | A_t, A_0), \hat{p}_{ij} = p_\theta(A_{t-1,ij} = 1 | G_t). \quad (24)$$

The Bernoulli Kullback–Leibler term that appears in the ELBO can be rewritten as

$$D_{KL}(p_{ij} \| \hat{p}_{ij}) = p_{ij} \log \frac{p_{ij}}{\hat{p}_{ij}} + (1 - p_{ij}) \log \frac{1 - p_{ij}}{1 - \hat{p}_{ij}}. \quad (25)$$

Fix the *target* probability  $p_{ij} \in (0, 1)$  and leverage Taylor expansion,  $\varepsilon := \hat{p}_{ij} - p_{ij}$ . Because the first derivative vanishes at  $\varepsilon = 0$  and the second derivative equals  $\frac{1}{p_{ij}(1-p_{ij})}$ ,

$$D_{KL}(p_{ij} \| p_{ij} + \varepsilon) = \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2p_{ij}(1-p_{ij})} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^3) \quad (26)$$

whenever  $|\varepsilon| < \min\{p_{ij}, 1 - p_{ij}\}$ . Thus to second order the KL is proportional to the squared error  $(p_{ij} - \hat{p}_{ij})^2$ .

For a random adjacency matrix  $A$  with edge-existence probabilities  $q$  the expected combinatorial Laplacian is

$$\bar{L}(q) = \text{diag}\left(\sum_k q_{1k}, \dots\right) - q. \quad (27)$$

For off-diagonal entries  $(i \neq j)$ :  $\bar{L}(q)_{ij} = -q_{ij}$ . Therefore, we can obtain

$$p_{ij} - \hat{p}_{ij} = -(\bar{L}(p)_{ij} - \bar{L}(\hat{p})_{ij}). \quad (28)$$

Then all edges can be summed over:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i < j} D_{KL}(p_{ij} \| \hat{p}_{ij}) &\stackrel{(2)}{=} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i < j} \frac{(\bar{L}(p)_{ij} - \bar{L}(\hat{p})_{ij})^2}{p_{ij}(1-p_{ij})} \\ &\quad + \mathcal{O}(\|\bar{L}(p) - \bar{L}(\hat{p})\|_F^3). \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

Assume every posterior edge probability is clipped away from 0, 1:  $p_{ij} \in [\varepsilon, 1 - \varepsilon]$  for some fixed  $0 < \varepsilon < \frac{1}{2}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} p_{ij}(1 - p_{ij}) &\geq \varepsilon(1 - \varepsilon) \\ \implies D_{KL}(p_{ij} \parallel \hat{p}_{ij}) &\leq c_\varepsilon (\bar{L}(p)_{ij} - \bar{L}(\hat{p})_{ij})^2, \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

with  $c_\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2\varepsilon(1-\varepsilon)}$ . Using the Frobenius norm of a symmetric matrix and (non-overlapping) edges:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{edge\_KL}} := \sum_{i < j} D_{KL}(p_{ij} \parallel \hat{p}_{ij}) \leq c_\varepsilon \|\bar{L}(p) - \bar{L}(\hat{p})\|_F^2 \quad (31)$$

Hence, minimizing the Laplacian MSE upper-bounds the exact edge-wise KL.

At training time we see a *single* Laplacian  $L_{t-1} = D(A_{t-1}) - A_{t-1}$  drawn from the posterior  $q(A_{t-1} \mid A_t, A_0)$ . Its expectation is  $\bar{L}(p)$  and its entry-wise variance is  $\mathcal{O}(\beta_t)$ , the forward step size. For small  $\beta_t$  we can drop that noise and use

$$\bar{L}(p) \approx L_0 - L_{t-1},$$

because the forward diffusion from  $A_{t-1}$  to  $A_t$  removes each edge with probability  $\beta_t$ , so the **expected** difference to the clean graph is  $L_0 - L_{t-1}$ .

*Step 6: Define the practical surrogate loss*

Let  $f_\theta(X_t, A_t)$  be the GNN output that tries to recover  $(L_0 - L_{t-1})$ . Combining (5) and (6):

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{Lap}} := \lambda \|f_\theta(X_t, A_t) - (L_0 - L_{t-1})\|_2^2, \quad \lambda \geq c_\varepsilon.$$

Because it is an **upper bound** of the true KL term in the ELBO, driving  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Lap}}$  to zero also drives the Bernoulli KL towards zero. Empirically the continuous, degree-coupled signal contained in the Laplacian makes gradients less noisy and optimisation easier than edge-wise cross-entropy.

Therefore the Laplacian-MSE loss you observe to work well is mathematically a second-order surrogate—and an upper bound—for the exact ELBO term that compares adjacency posteriors. Minimising it is guaranteed to minimise, up to a bounded factor, the information-theoretic quantity we truly care about.

#### A.4 Training of LapDiff with denoising network

The training procedure of LapDiff is described as Algorithm 1.

---

##### Algorithm 1 Training LapDiff

---

**Input:** Large graph  $G=(X,A)$

- 1: **for**  $k = 1$  **to**  $T$  **do**
  - 2:    $X_{k-1} \leftarrow (I - D^{-1}L)^{k-1}X$
  - 3:    $X_k \leftarrow (I - D^{-1}L)^kX$
  - 4:    $A_k \sim \mathcal{B}(A_{k-1}; p_{k-1})$
  - 5:    $\theta_{k-1} \leftarrow \theta_k - \eta \nabla_\theta [\mathcal{L}_{\text{feat}}(f_{\theta_k}(X_k, A_k), X_{k-1}) + \mathcal{L}_{\text{struct}}(f_{\theta_k}(X_k, A_k), A_{k-1})]$
  - 6: **end for**
  - 7:  $\theta \leftarrow \eta \nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}_{\text{task}}(f_{\theta_0}(X, A), Y_{\text{task}})$
- 

## B Hyperparameter Sensitivity Analysis

We analyze LapDiff to demonstrate how hyperparameters affect the performance of LapDiff. We conduct experiments with 4 hyperparameters in LapDiff loss function,  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{LapDiff}}$ .  $\beta_t, \beta_1, \gamma$  and  $\lambda$  is weighting hyperparameters for  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{feat}}$ ,  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{feat-recon}}$ ,  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Lap}}$ , and  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{recon}}$ , respectively. We measure Hits@50 by changing one hyperparameter while the rest of the hyperparameters are fixed to the best value. The result (Figure. 3) demonstrates that LapDiff is fairly robust to hyperparameters that weight the components of LapDiff loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{LapDiff}}$ . Accordingly, hyperparameters affect the performance of LapDiff slightly. Consequently, we can conclude that the performances of LapDiff are fairly consistent under various hyperparameter sets.

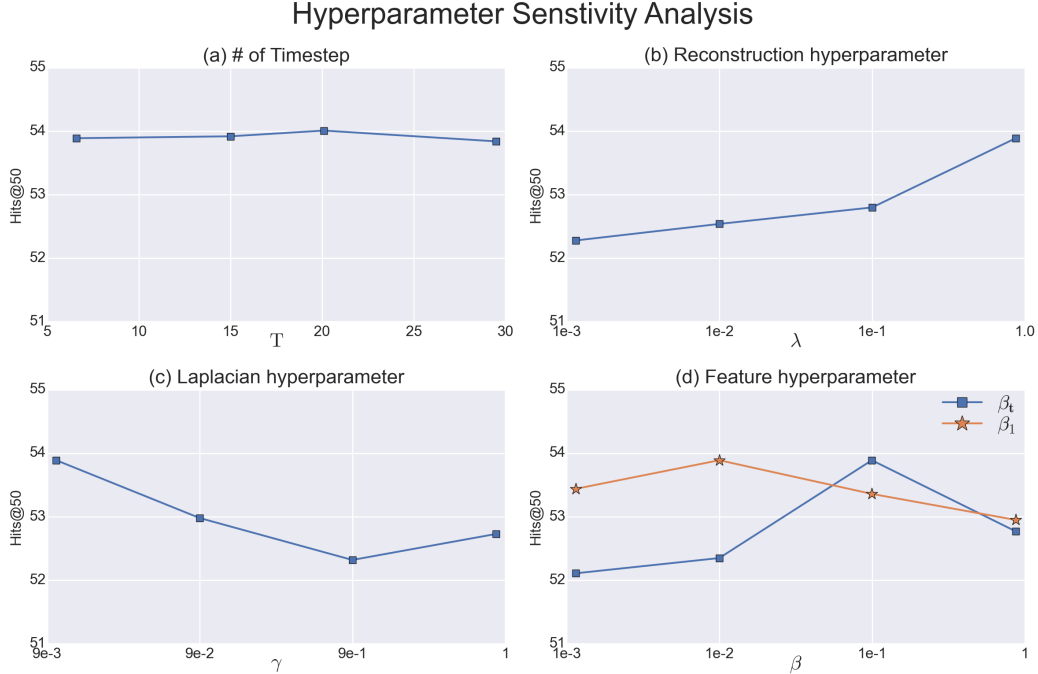


Figure 3: Visualization of hyperparameter sensitivity analysis on OGB-Collab.

## C Experimental Setting Details

**Datasets.** To validate our models, we utilize Open Graph Benchmark (OGB) dataset for link prediction tasks and node classification tasks [8]. We use four OGB link property datasets for link prediction tasks: OGB-PPA, OGB-Collab, OGB-DDI, and OGB-Citation2. OGB-PPA is an undirected and unweighted graph representing protein association. Nodes are proteins from different species and edges mean biological associations. Each node feature is a one-hot vector indicating the species to which the protein belongs. OGB-Collab is an undirected graph, which represents a collaboration network where edges denote collaborations between authors. OGB-DDI is an undirected, unweighted graph that contains drug-drug interactions, with edges indicating interactions such as combined effects. Note that this dataset lacks node features. OGB-Citation2 is a citation network graph with direction. Each node in the graph corresponds to a paper, and a directed edge indicates that one paper cites another. Both OGB-Citation2 and OGB-Collab include node features obtained from embedding models. For node classification tasks, we use three benchmark datasets: OGB-Arxiv, OGB-Products, and PubMed.

**Evaluation.** According to the evaluation protocol of OGB, we evaluate our model with Hits@K metric and Mean reciprocal rank (MRR) in link prediction. Hits@K is based on ranking positive test edges against randomly sampled negative edges. The ranking performance is measured by the ratio of positive test edges ranked at or above the K-th position. In OGB-PPA, the K-th position is set to 100, while for OGB-Collab and OGB-DDI, it is set to 50 and 20, respectively. The evaluation metric for OGB-Citation2 is MRR. It calculates the reciprocal rank of the true edges within the pool of negative candidates for each source node and then averages these values across all source nodes. To further demonstrate the ability to learn compendious underlying structures in node classification, we constrain a fixed  $k$ -nodes setting by vastly reducing the number of nodes per label in train sets. Under this setting, accuracy measures the performance on OGB-Arxiv, OGB-Products, and PubMed.

**Baselines.** For baselines on link prediction, we include prevalent GNN-based models: GCN [13], GAT [14], GraphSAGE [27], JKNet [28], Variational Graph Autoencoder [29], SEAL [5], Neo-GNNs [6], and DDM. Note that SEAL extract enclosing subgraph to utilize in link prediction. Additionally, three link prediction heuristics [30–32], Matrix factorization [33], and Multi-layer perceptron [34]

are included in baselines. Baseline models for semi-supervised node classification include GCN, GAT, APPNP [35], GCNII [36], and Correct&Smooth (C&S) [37]. We also compare LapDiff with self-supervised graph learning methods, CCA-SSG [38], and generative method GraphMAE2 [39].

**Implementation Details.** We implemented link prediction heuristics, such as Common Neighbor(CN), Adamic Adar(AA), and Resource Allocation(RA), based on the paper [30–32]. For GCN, GraphSAGE, GAT, JKNet, APPNP, GCNII, and MLP we used the implementation in PyTorch Geometric [40], and for SEAL and C&S, we used the implementation from the official repository. We trained LapDiff with a 2-layer LapDiff encoder with latent Laplacian parameters and 3-layer MLP decoder for OGB-Collab, OGB-DDI, OGB-PPA, and OGB-Citation2. For OGB-Arxiv, OGB-Products, and PubMed, we used 3-layer LapDiff encoder and 3-layer MLP decoder. For the link prediction task, we shared the last layer of the decoder as a predictor, and for the node classification task, we utilized 1 layer MLP as a classifier. Also, we set the diffusion state to 10 for OGB-Collab, OGB-DDI, and OGB-PPA, and 3 for OGB-Citation2 due to the dataset’s memory issue. For a fair comparison, we reported performances of all baselines and LapDiff as the mean and the standard deviation obtained from 10 independent runs with fixed random seed  $0, \dots, 9$ . To simulate a real-world scenario, we did not use validation edges as input in OGB-Collab. The experiments are conducted on A100(40GB) and A40(48GB).

## D Computational Complexity

### Notation

- $N = |V|$  : number of nodes ;  $E = |\mathcal{E}|$  : number of edges.
- $d$  : input feature dimension ;  $h$  : hidden dimension of the denoiser  $f_\theta$ .
- $T$  : number of diffusion steps ( $T \ll N$  in practice).

**Diffusion Process** Each Laplacian-smoothing step multiplies  $X_{t-1}$  by  $(I - D^{-1}L)$ . For a sparse adjacency ( $E = O(N)$  in large graphs), this costs

$$\mathcal{O}(E d) \text{ per step} \implies \mathcal{O}(T E d) \text{ overall.} \quad (32)$$

Sampling edges (edge removal) is  $\mathcal{O}(E)$  per step; overall  $\mathcal{O}(T E)$ . No matrix materialization beyond the original sparse  $A$  is required. **Total (forward).**

$$\mathcal{O}(T E (d + 1)) \approx \mathcal{O}(T E d)$$

**Reverse (Denoising) Process** The denoiser  $f_\theta$  is a 2-layer MLP encoder + 3-layer MLP decoder. Given sparse adjacency, each call costs  $\mathcal{O}(E h + N h^2)$ . Invoked once per diffusion step, the reverse chain costs

$$\mathcal{O}(T (E h + N h^2)).$$

### D.1 Overall Time Complexity

Combining forward and reverse,

$$\mathcal{O}\left(T [E (d + h) + N h^2]\right)$$

With typical settings ( $h \approx d$ ,  $E \gg N$ ,  $T \leq 10$ ), the leading term is  $T E d$ , comparable to a *single* pass of a conventional  $L$ -layer GNN when  $L \approx T$ .

### D.2 Memory Complexity

- **Parameters.** Two MLPs of width  $h$ :  $\mathcal{O}(h^2)$ , independent of  $T$ .
- **Activations.** We store  $X_t$  and (sparse)  $A_t$  for the current step only, so in-memory activations scale as:

$$\mathcal{O}(N d + E) + \mathcal{O}(N h) = \mathcal{O}(N(d + h) + E).$$

- **Comparison to  $L$ -layer GNN.** A standard  $L$ -layer message-passing GNN stores  $L$  intermediate node embeddings, yielding  $\mathcal{O}(L N h)$  memory. LapDiff keeps a single embedding per step and can recompute forward activations (checkpointing), requiring at most  $\mathcal{O}(N h)$ —often smaller than a deep GNN when  $L > T$ .

**Scalability.** With  $T$  chosen  $\leq 10$ , LapDiff’s runtime is on par with—or lower than—deep GNNs that rely on  $L \geq 10$  layers. The memory footprint remains modest due to sparse storage and step-wise recomputation.

## E License of the assets

Our source code is based on PyTorch which was released under Berkeley Software Distribution (BSD) License. We implement GNN-based baselines using PyTorch Geometric, a deep learning framework licensed under MIT. Additionally, we implement SEAL<sup>1</sup> and GraphMAE<sup>2</sup> from the official GitHub repository under MIT License. Both BSD license and MIT license can be used or redistributed under stipulated conditions. Moreover, we conduct experiments on four benchmark datasets from Open Graph Benchmark (OGB). OGB is released under MIT License. We visualize significant results by using Matplotlib where the license is based on Python Software Foundation (PSF) license.

## F Broader Impact

LapDiff aims to capture latent factors for graph representation learning. It provides a strong foundation for future models that aim to understand the rich information of relational data in graphs. Our model would not only be capable of discerning the latent structures within graph data but also adept at applying this knowledge across a broad spectrum of applications. With its Laplacian smoothing noise which is structure-aware, LapDiff contributes to the ongoing discourse on data privacy. By generating representations that respect the underlying structure of data without compromising individual privacy, LapDiff aligns with the ethical use of data in AI. Also, our model’s versatility suggests broad applicability beyond traditional domains, offering potential breakthroughs in any field that benefits from understanding complex networks, including neuroscience, epidemiology, and environmental studies. However, LapDiff needs to be used carefully for graph representation learning tasks such as link prediction or node classification in social networks where privacy and anonymity are important.

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<sup>1</sup>[https://github.com/facebookresearch/SEAL\\_OGB](https://github.com/facebookresearch/SEAL_OGB)

<sup>2</sup><https://github.com/THUDM/GraphMAE2>



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