

DNKGAT: Dynamic Neighbor-enhanced Knowledge Graph Attention Network for Rumor Detection

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Abstract

Detecting rumors on social media is critical due to their rapid spread and harmful effects, yet existing models often overlook integrating spatial and temporal neighboring information of message propagation, as well as the dynamics of background knowledge in user comments. To address this gap, we present a principled *Dynamic Neighbor-enhanced Knowledge Graph Attention Network* (DNKGAT), which unifies the dynamics of message propagation and evolving background knowledge from knowledge graphs. Specifically, the proposed method employs a multi-hop knowledge graph attention mechanism to incorporate extensive neighboring information from knowledge graphs, a feature previously underexplored. The framework includes a post-enhancement unit and a rumor classification module, enhancing detection capabilities by learning dynamic event representations and aggregating them progressively to capture cascading effects for more effective rumor identification. Extensive experiments on two real-world datasets demonstrate significant improvements over strong baselines, particularly in early-stage rumor detection. Our implementation available at <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/DNKGAT-FC6C>.

1 Introduction

The Internet and social media platforms like Twitter and Facebook have become essential ways for people to access news in their daily lives. These platforms enable the rapid and free dissemination of news, allowing the public to express opinions and communicate freely. However, the lack of effective censorship results in lower-quality news compared to traditional methods, leading to a noisy information ecosystem plagued with disinformation and rumors. Therefore, it is of prominent importance to detect rumors on social media. Currently, three prominent methods are utilized for rumor detection:

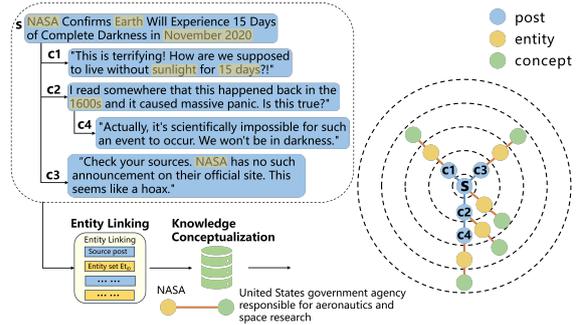


Figure 1: The introduction of the proposed method.

those based on spatial structure, temporal structure, and knowledge graph.

Rumor detection aims to identify rumors automatically. Recent studies focus on the dissemination process of news articles, where users engage by posting, reposting, or responding to specific articles. These interactions create tree-based (Ma et al., 2018a; Ma and Gao, 2020; Bian et al., 2020) or graph-based (Huang et al., 2019; He et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2022b) structures. By analyzing the structure of news propagation and assessing user trustworthiness, it is possible to deduce the likely veracity of the news. Some studies emphasize the importance of temporal structure, enabling the modeling of fine-grained dynamic features and enhancing early detection performance (Ma et al., 2015; Choi et al., 2021; Song et al., 2021b). Considering both spatial and temporal structures in message propagation is crucial. Several studies incorporate external knowledge to improve rumor detection (Zhang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2021), with their effectiveness analyzed in (Hinkelmann et al., 2022). However, such extensive spatial and temporal neighboring information of message propagation from knowledge graph is not exploited by existing models.

This paper aims to model the spatial-temporal structure of messages and associated background

071 knowledge within a unified framework for timely
072 rumor detection. Traditional methods, relying on
073 graph neural networks (GNNs) and graph convo-
074 lutional networks (GCNs) with a message-passing
075 framework, learn spatial features of rumors but
076 struggle to aggregate high-order neighboring node
077 information without stacking multiple layers when
078 dealing with deeper node relationships. To this
079 end, we introduce the Dynamic Neighbor-enhanced
080 Knowledge Graph Attention Network (DNKGAT),
081 featuring a dynamic multi-hop knowledge graph at-
082 tention mechanism that captures spatial, temporal,
083 and knowledge information through evolving mes-
084 sages and knowledge graphs. In Figure 1, source
085 post and comments (blue nodes) are linked to en-
086 tities (yellow nodes) and concepts (green nodes)
087 via entity linking and knowledge conceptualization.
088 One entity (**c2**) can be involved in multiple triplets,
089 serving as the contributor enriching entities’ feature
090 and propagation information. This mechanism en-
091 ables source posts to aggregate high-order neighbor
092 information, like **c4**’s entity and concept. We also
093 propose a fusing method to enhance these represen-
094 tations with the message, using post-enhancement
095 to concatenate dynamic neighbor-enhanced knowl-
096 edge graph attention network representations with
097 initial message representations, allowing for incre-
098 mental learning of better event representations prior
099 to rumor classification. The main contributions are
100 summarized as follows:

- 101 • We propose DNKGAT, a pioneering approach
102 that captures spatial-temporal rumor character-
103 istics through an incremental learning process
104 and a post-enhancement unit for improved de-
105 tection accuracy.
- 106 • Leveraging a multi-hop knowledge graph at-
107 tention mechanism, DNKGAT aggregates ex-
108 tensive neighboring information to capture
109 message propagation dynamics and integrate
110 background knowledge for comprehensive
111 contextual understanding in rumor detection.
- 112 • DNKGAT introduces the first post-
113 enhancement unit, which learns feature
114 interactions between posts and knowledge
115 through a cross-information sharing layer to
116 enrich information and improve detection.
- 117 • Experiment results show that the proposed
118 method outperforms the strong baselines on
119 two real-world datasets and can effectively
120 detect rumors at an early stage.

2 Related Work 121

2.1 Spatial Structure Based Rumor Detection 122

123 Spatial structure-based methods in rumor detection
124 model news propagation paths to differentiate real
125 and fake news dissemination patterns on social net-
126 works. [Ma et al. \(2018a\)](#) uses a tree-based recursive
127 neural network for content semantics and propaga-
128 tion cues, while [Huang et al. \(2019\)](#) employs GCNs
129 for spatial structure capture. [Bian et al. \(2020\)](#) en-
130 hances rumor dissemination understanding with Bi-
131 GCNs, and [Guo et al. \(2023\)](#) integrates GNNs with
132 convolutional and recurrent neural networks for se-
133 mantic capture. [Liu et al. \(2024\)](#) combines GCN
134 and attention mechanisms for influence and prop-
135 agation structure relations. Despite effectiveness,
136 these methods often overlook temporal dynamics
137 of message propagation, missing critical patterns
138 for rumor identification.

2.2 Temporal Structure Based Rumor Detection 139

140 Temporal structure-based methods in rumor de-
141 tection model the temporal information of news
142 propagation to differentiate real and fake news dis-
143 semination patterns. [Ma et al. \(2016\)](#) uses a re-
144 current neural network-based model for semantic
145 variations, while [Liu and fang Brook Wu \(2018\)](#)
146 combines recurrent and convolutional networks for
147 temporal structure. [Song et al. \(2021a\)](#) models
148 real-world news evolution under continuous-time
149 dynamic diffusion networks, and [Sun et al. \(2022a\)](#)
150 unifies message propagation dynamics with back-
151 ground knowledge from knowledge graphs. [Gong
152 et al. \(2023\)](#) integrates a neural Hawkes process for
153 self-exciting patterns of true and fake news. De-
154 spite their effectiveness, most methods overlook
155 integrating external knowledge, which could sig-
156 nificantly improve rumor detection. 157

2.3 Knowledge Based Rumor Detection 158

159 Knowledge-based methods in rumor detection ex-
160 ploit external knowledge to supplement post con-
161 tent for identification. [Zhang et al. \(2019\)](#) com-
162 plements short texts with external knowledge for
163 improved rumor detection, while [Cui et al. \(2020\)](#)
164 uses an article-entity bipartite graph and a medi-
165 cal knowledge graph for better news embeddings.
166 KMGCN ([Wang et al., 2020](#)) models global struc-
167 tures among texts, images, and knowledge concepts
168 for comprehensive semantic representations. KAN
169 ([Dun et al., 2021](#)) validates knowledge attention

effectiveness for rumor detection. Despite their benefits, these methods often overlook the contradiction between rumor content and external knowledge, and the importance of high-order neighboring knowledge, which this study addresses. CompareNet (Hu et al., 2021) compares news articles to a knowledge base through entities for detection. However, these methods overlook the importance of high-order neighboring knowledge, which this study fully leverages to improve its effectiveness.

3 Methodology

3.1 Problem Definition

The task of rumor detection can be defined as a binary classification problem aimed at detecting rumor items, e.g. Twitter posts. Let $\mathcal{O} = \{o_1, \dots, o_n\}$ be a set of events, where each event o_i consists of a sequence of posts and comments. We denote the set of post and comment contents for each event as $o_i^c = \{c_{i0}, c_{i1}, \dots, c_{im_i-1}\}$, where c_{i0} is the source post s_i , and c_{ij} is the j -th comment. m_i represents the number of posts and comments in o_i . Additionally, we define the relative release time sequence $o_i^t = \{t_{i0}, t_{i1}, \dots, t_{im_i-1}\}$, where $t_{i0} = 0$ and t_{ij} denotes the release time of the j -th comment. The combined representation of each event is $o_i = \{(c_{i0}, t_{i0}), (c_{i1}, t_{i1}), \dots, (c_{im_i-1}, t_{im_i-1})\}$.

Each event o_i is segmented into γ stages based on its duration, where γ is a hyperparameter. Each stage r has an equal time interval $\Delta t_i = \frac{t_{im_i-1}}{\gamma}$. The r -th sub-event of o_i is defined as $o_{ir} = \{(c_{i\pi}, t_{i\pi}) \mid t_{i\pi} \leq r\Delta t_i\}$.

The goal is to learn a model $f : \mathcal{O} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ to classify each event o_i into predefined categories $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$, where 0 denotes non-rumor and 1 denotes rumor.

For ease of understanding, the important mathematical notations used throughout the paper are listed in Table 1.

Notations	Descriptions
o_i	the i -th event
o_i^c	post sequence of the i -th event
o_i^t	release time sequence of the i -th event
γ	the number of time stages
Δt_i	equal time interval of event o_i
o_{ir}	the r -th stage subset of o_i
$E_{i\pi}$	the entity set of o_i
$C_{i\pi}$	the concept set of o_i
$G_{ir}^k = \langle V_{ir}^k, E_{ir}^k \rangle$	knowledge graph at stage r

Table 1: Important notations and descriptions

3.2 Overview

The overall architecture of our rumor detection approach is presented in Figure 2. It consists of four modules: (1) **dynamic knowledge graph construction**: constructs a dynamic post-entity-concept tripartite knowledge graph by integrating post-related external knowledge; (2) **dynamic neighbor-enhanced knowledge graph attention network**: generates node representations that integrate spatial, temporal, and knowledge information through a multi-hop attention mechanism, capturing the evolving relationships and context essential for accurate rumor detection; (3) **post-enhancement unit**: enriches the knowledge information by learning the feature interactions between the post and knowledge; (4) **rumor classifier**: aggregates the final knowledge and source post textual information to determine whether the event is a rumor or not.

3.3 Dynamic Knowledge Graph Construction Module

This module constructs a dynamic post-entity-concept tripartite knowledge graph to capture the evolving relationships between posts, entities, and concepts, thereby enriching the semantic understanding necessary for accurate rumor detection.

Posts often contain condensed content with numerous entity mentions, which can be ambiguous due to aliases, abbreviations, and alternative spellings. For example, in the post "*Exciting updates from @Tesla about their new Model S enhancements. Can't wait for the test drive!*", it is crucial to discern that "*Tesla*" refers to an "*electric vehicle manufacturer*" and "*Model S*" is a "*specific model of electric car*". To address this, we integrate external knowledge from both source posts and their comments, which evolves as the event progresses.

Entity linking and conceptualization extract rich semantic information from the posts. Using the NLTK for entity linking, we connect entity mentions to corresponding entities in a knowledge graph like YAGO. We derive conceptual information from YAGO based on the "isA" relationship, which defines the connection between entities and their concepts. For instance, for the entities identified in the example post, we obtain $Concept_{Tesla} = \{\text{Vehicle Manufacturer, Technology Company}\}$ $Concept_{Model S} = \{\text{Electric Car, Automobile}\}$.

For each time stage o_r , we construct a dynamic

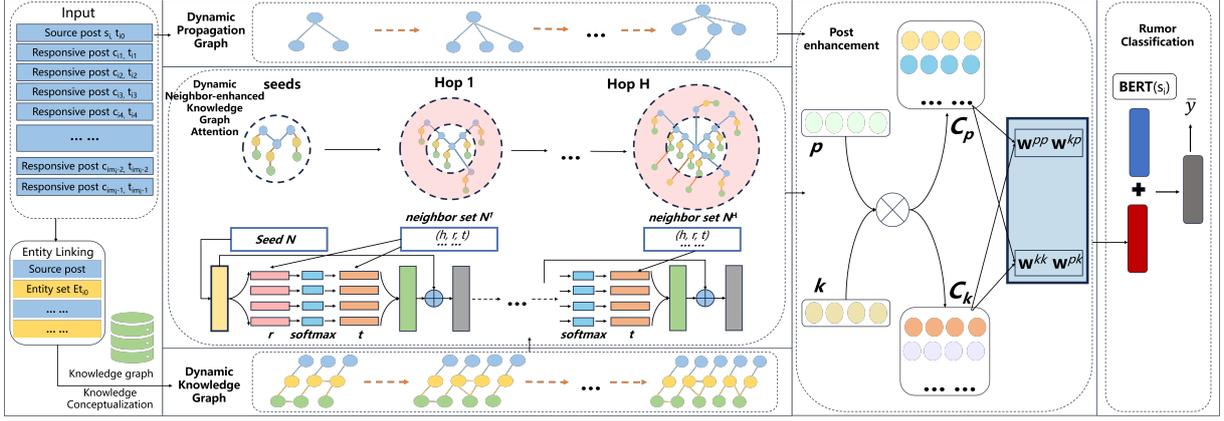


Figure 2: The framework of the proposed method. It consists of four components: (1) the leftest block: the input of the model; (2) the lefter block: dynamic neighbor-enhanced knowledge graph attention network; (3) the righter block: the post-enhancement module to enrich representations with initial feature; (4) the rightest block: a rumor classification module after post enhancement.

knowledge graph $\{G_{i1}^k, \dots, G_{i\gamma}^k\}$, where $G_{ir}^k = \langle V_{ir}^k, E_{ir}^k \rangle$ includes vertices from posts, comments, entities, and concepts. Edges are established based on:

- **Post-entity edges:** These are formed between a post and an entity if the post contains a mention of the entity. The edge weight is determined by the term frequency-inverse document frequency (TF-IDF) of the entity within the post.
- **Entity and concept edges:** The relationships between entities, and between entities and concepts, are quantified using Pointwise Mutual Information (PMI), calculated over a fixed-size sliding window from a global corpus.

The adjacency matrix A_{ir}^k of the dynamic knowledge graph G_{ir}^k retains only those edges with significant TF-IDF or positive PMI scores. Each node v in the graph is initialized with its word embedding vector $k \in \mathbb{R}^F$, facilitating the propagation of semantic information through the graph.

3.4 Dynamic Neighbor-enhanced Knowledge Graph Attention Network

This module generates node representations incorporating spatial, temporal, and knowledge information. By exploiting the idea of graph attention network (Velickovic et al., 2017), we generate attentive weights of cascaded propagations to reveal the importance of connectivity. Here we start by describing a single layer, which consists of information propagation and aggregation, and then discuss how to generalize it to multiple layers.

Information Propagation: One entity can be involved in multiple triplets, serving as the contributor enriching entities' feature and propagation information. Taking $p_1 - e_1 - c_1$ and $p_1 - e_1 - c_2$ as an example, entity e_1 can take attributes c_1 and c_2 to enrich its features and then contribute post p_1 's features, which can be simulated by propagating information from c_1 and c_2 to p_1 . To characterize nodes' hierarchically extended propagation in terms of KG, in our methods, we recursively define the set of k -hop relevant entities for r -th time stage knowledge graph as follows:

Definition 1 (Relevant Entity) Given the knowledge graph \mathcal{G}_i in i -th time stage, the set of k -hop relevant entities for graph \mathcal{G}_i is defined as:

$$\mathcal{E}_i^k = \{t \mid (h, r, t) \in \mathcal{G}_i \text{ and } h \in \mathcal{E}_i^{k-1}\} \quad (1)$$

$k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, H.$

where $\mathcal{E}_i^0 = V_i$ is the set of vertex at the beginning of i -th stage, which can be seen as the seed set of the knowledge graph.

Relevant entities can be regarded as natural extensions of the knowledge graph. Given the definition of relevant entities, we then define the k -hop neighbor set of knowledge graph as follows:

Definition 2 (Neighbor Set) The k -hop neighbor set of knowledge graph \mathcal{G}_i is defined as the set of knowledge triples starting from \mathcal{E}_i^{k-1} :

$$\mathcal{N}_i^k = \{(h, r, t) \mid (h, r, t) \in \mathcal{G}_i \text{ and } h \in \mathcal{E}_i^{k-1}\} \quad (2)$$

$k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, H.$

One concern about neighbor sets is their sizes may get too large with the increase of hop number k . The number of maximal hop H is usually not too large in practice, since nodes that are too distant from i -th KG may bring more noise than positive signals. We will discuss the size of neighbor set \mathcal{S} in the experiments part. In our method, we can sample a fixed-size set of neighbors instead of using a full neighbor set to further reduce the computation overhead.

Given the i -th time stage node embedding h_i and the 1-hop neighbor set \mathcal{N}_i^1 , each triple (h_i, r_i, t_i) is assigned a relevance probability by comparing i -th KG node embedding k_i to the i -th stage node h_i in \mathcal{N}_i^1 and the corresponding relation r_i in this triple:

$$p_i = \text{softmax}(k_i^T r_i h_i) = \frac{\exp(k_i^T r_i h_i)}{\sum_{(h,r,t) \in \mathcal{N}_i^1} \exp(k_i^T r h)} \quad (3)$$

where $r_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $h_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are the embeddings of the relation r_i and head h_i , respectively. The relevance probability p_i controls the decay factor on each propagation on edge (h_i, r_i, t_i) , indicating how much information being propagated from t_i to h_i conditioned to relation r_i , regarded as the similarity of node k_i and the entity h_i measured in the space of relation r_i . Furthermore, when performing propagation forward, the p_i suggests parts of the data to focus on, which can be treated as explanations behind the propagation.

After obtaining the relevance probabilities, we take the sum of tails in \mathcal{N}_i^1 weighted by the corresponding relevance probabilities, and the vector $k_{\mathcal{N}_i^1}$ is returned:

$$k_{\mathcal{N}_i^1} = \sum_{(h_i, r_i, t_i) \in \mathcal{N}_i^1} p_i t_i, \quad (4)$$

where $t_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the embedding of tail t_i .

Distinct from the information propagation in GCN (Kipf and Welling, 2016) and GraphSage (Hamilton et al., 2017) which set the discount factor between two nodes as a fixed number, our model not only exploits the proximity structure graph but also specifies varying importance of neighbors. Moreover, distinct from the graph attention network which only takes node representations as inputs, we model the relation r between h and t , encoding more information during propagation.

Information Aggregation: This phase is to aggregate the node representation k_i and its 1-hop neighbor set representations $k_{\mathcal{N}_i^1}$ - more formally, $k_i^{(1)} = f(k_i, k_{\mathcal{N}_i^1})$. We implement $f(\cdot)$ using the Bi-Interaction Aggregator (Wang et al., 2019b) to consider two kinds of feature interactions between k_i and $k_{\mathcal{N}_i^1}$, as follows:

$$f_{\text{Bi-Interaction}} = \text{LeakyReLU}(W_1(k_i + k_{\mathcal{N}_i^1})) + \text{LeakyReLU}(W_2(k_i \odot k_{\mathcal{N}_i^1})), \quad (5)$$

where $W_1, W_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{d' \times d}$ are trainable weight matrices, and \odot denotes the element-wise product. Distinct from GCN and GraphSage aggregators, we additionally encode the feature interaction between k_i and $k_{\mathcal{N}_i^1}$. This term makes the information being propagated sensitive to the affinity between k_i and $k_{\mathcal{N}_i^1}$, e.g., passing more messages from similar entities.

We further stack more propagation layers to explore the high-order connectivity information, gathering the information propagated from the high-hop neighbors. More formally, in the l -th steps, we recursively formulate the representation of KG as:

$$k_i^{(l)} = f(k_i^{(l-1)}, k_{\mathcal{N}_i^{(l-1)}}) \quad (6)$$

3.5 Post-Enhancement Unit

Enlightened by the idea of root feature enhancement in (Bian et al., 2020), the source post of an event is pivotal in rumor detection. Inspired by the (Wang et al., 2019a) and (Guo et al., 2020) methods, we have designed the cross-information sharing layer, aiming to combine the strengths of both approaches, which can concatenate the latent feature vector of each node learned from the last dynamic neighbor-enhanced knowledge graph attention network with the initial feature vector of each post p in o_i^c learned from the word embedding.

For a knowledge node k and its corresponding post node p , we first construct $d \times d$ pairwise interactions of their latent feature $k \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $p \in \mathbb{R}^d$:

$$C_k = kp^T = \begin{bmatrix} k^{(1)}p^{(1)} & \dots & k^{(1)}p^{(d)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k^{(d)}p^{(1)} & \dots & k^{(d)}p^{(d)} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (7)$$

$$C_p = pk^T = \begin{bmatrix} p^{(1)}k^{(1)} & \dots & p^{(1)}k^{(d)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p^{(d)}k^{(1)} & \dots & p^{(d)}k^{(d)} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (8)$$

where $C_k \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ represents the cross feature matrix from knowledge to post, $C_p \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ represents the cross feature matrix from post to knowledge and d is the dimension of hidden layers.

We then output the feature vectors of knowledge and post for the classification by projecting the cross feature matrix into their latent representation spaces:

$$\begin{aligned} k &= C_k w_1 + b_1 \\ &= k p^T w_1 + b_1, \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

$$\begin{aligned} p &= C_p w_2 + b_2 \\ &= p k^T w_2 + b_2, \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

where w and b are trainable weight and bias vectors. The weight vectors project the cross feature matrix from $\mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ space back to the feature spaces \mathbb{R}^d . Through post-enhancement units, our method can enhance the post feature after dynamic knowledge graph operation.

3.6 Rumor Classification Module

In this module, we introduce the rumor classification module. It deploys a series of fully connected layers followed by sigmoid activation to predict whether the posts are fake or real. The module is built on top of the post-enhancement unit, thus taking the node feature representation as input. We leverage mean pooling to distill node representations $H_{i\gamma}$ from the post-enhancement module into a single vector H_i for each post:

$$H_i = \text{MEAN}(H_{i\gamma}) \quad (11)$$

Then, we merge this with the BERT-extracted features (Devlin et al., 2019) of the source post s_i into a unified representation \tilde{S} :

$$\tilde{S} = \text{LeakyReLU}(\text{linear}(H_i || \text{BERT}(s_i))) \quad (12)$$

A series of fully connected layers, followed by a sigmoid activation, is applied to \tilde{S} to predict the rumor label \hat{y}_i :

$$\hat{y}_i = \sigma(w_f \tilde{S} + b_f) \quad (13)$$

where w_f and b_f are the weight and bias parameters. We then use cross entropy loss as the rumor classification loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_c = - \sum_i y_i \log \hat{y}_i \quad (14)$$

where y_i is the ground truth label of the i -th instance.

4 Experiments

4.1 Datasets

We experiment with two public Twitter datasets, PHEME5 and PHEME9, where each event is labeled as rumor or non-rumor. PHEME5 includes rumor tweets from five major events: Charliehebd, Ferguson, Germanwings-crash, Otawashooting, and Sydney-siege, each with numerous sub-events containing source posts, responsive posts, propagation structures, and posting times. PHEME9 adds four events maintaining the same structure. Dataset statistics are detailed in Table 2.

Statistics	PHEME5	PHEME9
# of Posts	103,212	105,354
# of events	5,802	6,425
# of Non-rumors	3,830	4,023
# of Rumor	1,972	2,402
# of classes	2	2
Avg. # of words/ post	13.6	13.6
Avg. # of posts/ event	17.8	16.3
Max # of posts/ event	346	246
Min # of posts/ event	1	1

Table 2: Statistics of Datasets

4.2 Comparison Methods

We compare with the following baselines:

SVM-BOW (Ma et al., 2018b): employs a bag-of-words model for feature representation and utilizes a Support Vector Machine (SVM) as the classification algorithm.

CNN (Chen et al., 2017): employs a convolutional neural network for feature extraction from posts and applies a softmax function as the classification layer.

BiLSTM (Augenstein et al., 2016): leverages a bidirectional long short-term memory (Bi-LSTM) network to capture the contextual information within posts.

BERT (Devlin et al., 2019): is a pre-trained language model that utilizes bidirectional transformers. We use it to obtain the representation of the source post for classification.

CSI (Ruchansky et al., 2017): is composed of three modules: Capture, Score, and Integrate, and incorporates the behavior of both parties, users and articles, and the group behavior of users who propagate fake news.

DEFEND (Shu et al., 2019): uses a sentence-comment co-attention sub-network to exploit both news contents and user comments to jointly capture

Method	PHEME5				PHEME9			
	Acc	Prec	Rec	F1	Acc	Prec	Rec	F1
SVM-BOW	0.669	0.535	0.524	0.529	0.688	0.518	0.512	0.515
CNN	0.787	0.737	0.702	0.719	0.795	0.731	0.673	0.701
BiLSTM	0.795	0.763	0.691	0.725	0.794	0.727	0.677	0.701
BERT	0.865	0.859	0.851	0.855	0.844	0.834	0.835	0.835
CSI	0.857	0.843	0.859	0.851	0.851	0.836	0.855	0.845
DEFEND	0.868	0.867	0.859	0.863	0.863	0.857	0.859	0.858
RDM	0.873	0.817	0.823	0.820	0.858	0.847	0.859	0.852
DDGCN	0.846	0.844	0.817	0.823	0.855	0.846	0.841	0.843
DNKGAT	0.892	0.882	0.877	0.879	0.894	0.889	0.887	0.888

Table 3: Results of comparison among different models on PHEME5 and PHEME9 Datasets. We run the models five times, and report average results here.

explainable top-k check-worthy sentences and user comments for fake news detection.

RDM (Zhou et al., 2019): uses reinforcement learning to detect rumors early, determining the minimum posts needed for classification.

DDGCN (Sun et al., 2022a): is a dual dynamic graph convolutional network. It can learn the dynamics of messages in propagation and the dynamics of background knowledge from Knowledge graphs simultaneously.

4.3 Experiment Setup

We adopt the default optimization settings reported in corresponding papers for all comparison methods. We implement our method with Pytorch framework (Paszke et al., 2019). We set the number of time stages $\gamma = 3$. The number of epochs is 5. The parameters are optimized using the Adam algorithm. BERT-base (Devlin et al., 2019) is used as the encoder for the source post and pre-trained on the datasets. We split the PHEME5 dataset and PHEME9 dataset into training, validation, and testing sets with a split ratio of 7:1:2 without overlapping. We select the best parameter settings based on the performance of the validation set. We employ Accuracy, Precision, Recall, and F1 as evaluation metrics. We randomly split the datasets into five parts, and conduct 5-fold cross-validation to obtain the final results.

4.4 Performance Analysis

Table 3 shows the performance of the compared models. On both datasets, our model significantly outperforms all the other approaches in all the metrics, which confirms that considering the dynamic neighboring information would benefit the rumor detection task.

SVM-BOW underperforms due to its reliance on coarse, handcrafted features, lacking the nu-

Method	PHEME5		PHEME9	
	Acc	F1	Acc	F1
-w/o Neighbor	0.864	0.853	0.848	0.841
-w/o Attention	0.869	0.851	0.837	0.825
-w/o PE	0.851	0.833	0.848	0.841
-w/o Dynamic	0.858	0.845	0.853	0.850
DNKGAT	0.892	0.879	0.894	0.888

Table 4: Results of comparison among different variants on PHEME5 and PHEME9 Datasets.

anced capture required for broad generalization. In contrast, deep learning models, such as CNN, BiLSTM, and BERT, excel in automatically extracting effective features, with BERT particularly demonstrating superior semantic capture for rumor detection. DDGCN further outperforms most text and spatial models, suggesting that knowledge features offer complementary benefits. Our approach, compared to baselines, integrates temporal and spatial structures with external knowledge from source posts and comments, adaptively adjusting node influence in propagation structures to focus on key information, and emphasizing the importance of initial embeddings in the post-enhancement unit for optimal performance in rumor detection.

4.5 Ablation Study

We investigate the effects of our proposed components by defining the following variations: (1)w/o neighbor: removing neighbor set between adjacent graphs; (2)w/o attention: removing adaptively adjust the weights of information with fixed weights; (3)w/o PE: replacing the post-enhancement unit with the concatenate operation; (4)w/o dynamic: utilizing static KGATs instead of dynamic KGATs. Specifically, we only use the knowledge graph representations in the final time stage as input, and the model only contains one DNKGAT unit.

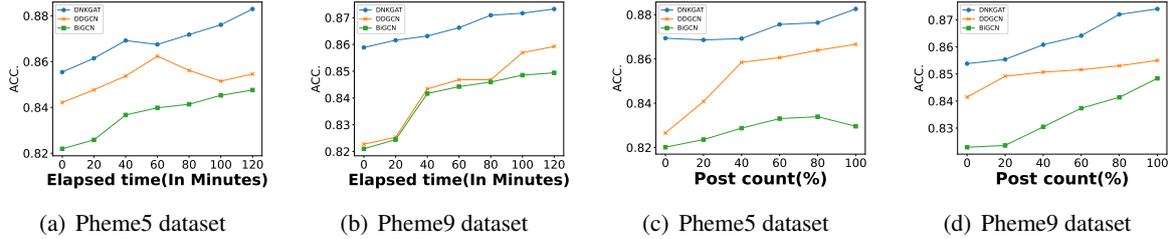


Figure 3: Early rumor detection accuracy with the increase of observation time or percentage of the number of comments.

From Table 4, it is evident that all ablation variants underperform compared to the complete model, with accuracy drops of 2.8% on PHEME5 and 4.6% on PHEME9 when the neighbor relevant set is removed, indicating the importance of neighboring information. Removing attention results in a 2.3% decrease on PHEME5 and a 5.7% decrease on PHEME9. Replacing the post-enhancement unit degrades accuracy by 4.1% on PHEME5 and 4.6% on PHEME9, while replacing the dynamic graph leads to a 3.4% decrease on PHEME5 and a 4.1% decrease on PHEME9. These results demonstrate the necessity of temporal neighboring information for better performance.

4.6 Early Rumor Detection Performance

Early rumor detection prevents widespread dissemination. We evaluate our method using two delay types: time since source post release and comment count. We compare against DDGCN and BiGCN, a Graph Convolutional Network (GCN) approach for rumor detection leveraging bidirectional propagation mechanisms—both propagation and diffusion structures—along with the textual content of posts. Figure 3 reveals that models struggle with few responsive posts due to lacking spatial and temporal structure. Our method, however, achieves high accuracy early on and consistently outperforms others, demonstrating the effectiveness of aggregating neighboring and knowledge information for early detection.

4.7 Case Study

To intuitively demonstrate the propagation in DNKGAT, we randomly sample source news and its comments, offering explanations. Figure 4 shows the visualization of adjacent nodes' connectivity. The propagation paths can be viewed as the evidence why the news is fake. As we can see, the connectivity $s - c2 - TheScene(miniseries)$ has

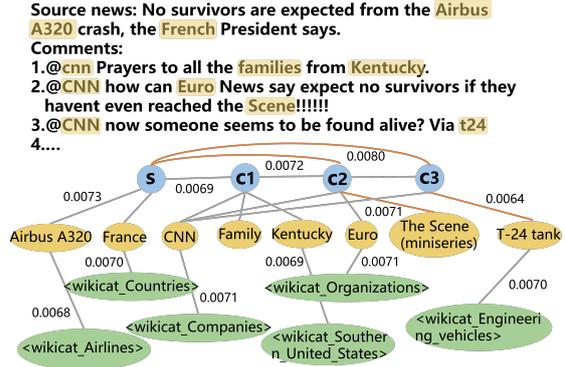


Figure 4: Real Example from PHEME9 dataset.

a higher attention score, labeled with the orange line. Hence, we can generate the explanation as *Euro News haven't reached the Scene, so they can't say "no survivors" which means the news is fake.* And the connectivity $s - c3 - T24Tank$ shows via t24, someone seems to be found alive which contradicts to "no survivors" in the source news. Based on the above analysis, we can conclude that the source news is fake.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a dynamic neighbor-enhanced knowledge graph attention network (DNKGAT) to model the neighboring spatial structure, neighboring temporal structure, external knowledge and text information in one unified framework. DNKGAT concludes dynamic KGATs to capture dynamic neighboring knowledge information in propagation. Furthermore, we propose the post-enhancement unit to enhance the knowledge information in the end, in order to aggregate the source post information for classification incrementally. Experiments on two public datasets show that DNKGAT performs better than a set of strong baselines and supports rumor early detection.

6 Limitations

In this study, although the proposed DNKGAT method shows good performance in rumor detection, it still has some limitations. Firstly, the construction of the dynamic knowledge graph depends on external knowledge sources such as YAGO. The quality and comprehensiveness of these knowledge sources may affect the performance of the model. If there are errors or omissions in the knowledge graph, it may lead to inaccurate rumor detection results. Secondly, when dealing with the neighbor set in the dynamic neighbor-enhanced knowledge graph attention network, although sampling a fixed-size set of neighbors can reduce the computation overhead, it may also lose some useful information. In addition, the current model does not fully consider the potential influence of the interaction between different events on rumor detection. Each event is processed relatively independently, and the possible connections and mutual influences between events are not deeply explored. Finally, similar to some other studies, the evaluation of our method is mainly based on the existing public datasets PHEME5 and PHEME9. These datasets may have certain limitations in representing the real and complex social media environment, which may affect the generalization ability of the model to some extent.

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