

# 000 001 002 003 004 005 006 007 008 009 010 011 012 013 014 015 016 017 018 019 020 021 022 023 024 025 026 027 028 029 030 031 032 033 034 035 036 037 038 039 040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 048 049 050 051 052 053 ON DIFFUSION-BASED MULTIPLEX DYNAMIC AT- TRIBUTED NETWORK GENERATOR

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## ABSTRACT

Multiplex dynamic attributed networks are essential for modeling complex systems, such as social platforms and telecommunication networks, where each layer represents distinct interaction types and attribute dynamics. However, existing generative models fall short in capturing their structural-semantic coupling, temporal evolution, and inter-layer dependencies, failing to reproduce network-level emergent behaviors like explosive synchronization and hysteresis. We introduce MulDyDiff, a diffusion-based generative framework that incorporates attribute-aware dynamic transition-based denoising, cross-layer correlation-aware denoising, and behavior-aware guidance. These components are unified through a novel Behavioral-guided Attributed Cross-layer Temporal (BACT) loss. Evaluations of three real-world datasets demonstrate that MulDyDiff consistently outperforms state-of-the-art dynamic graph generators, achieving 6%-9% improvement in terms of temporal metrics, offering a comprehensive solution for realistic multiplex dynamic attributed network synthesis.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Modeling multiplex dynamic attributed networks (Liu et al., 2020) has gained increasing attention for applications ranging from influence analysis in social platforms (Li et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2022a) to telecommunication and transportation systems (Wan et al., 2020; Tudisco et al., 2018). Unlike single-layer views that collapse heterogeneous interactions, multiplex dynamic attributed networks preserve semantic distinctions across layers and time, revealing phenomena such as **explosive synchronization** (a sudden collective behavior after small perturbations (De Domenico, 2023), exemplified by the 2021 GameStop short squeeze (Bursztynsky, 2021)) and **hysteresis** (where systems resist reverting to prior states (Danziger et al., 2019), as seen in the persistence of remote work post-COVID-19 (Brynjolfsson et al., 2020)). These dynamics arise only in multiplex settings, since the evolution of one layer depends not only on itself but also on other layers across timestamps (see Figure 1 for an example; details in Appendix A).

Despite their importance, multiplex dynamic attributed networks are difficult to model due to data scarcity, privacy constraints (Li et al., 2023; He et al., 2025), and limited public benchmarks (Yang & Leskovec, 2012). Consequently, synthesizing realistic multiplex dynamics has become essential. However, existing generative models (Samanta et al., 2020; Chenthamarakshan et al., 2020; Martinkus et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2022; Vignac et al., 2023; Li et al., 2025) remain inadequate: they fail to jointly capture structural and attributive information, overlook temporal and cross-layer dependencies, and cannot reproduce emergent behaviors such as explosive synchronization and hysteresis. The key challenges are as follows. 1) *Node and edge attributes* are essential for capturing semantics (e.g., user interests) in profiling and classification (Chen et al., 2019; Jin et al., 2021), yet most models focus only on static structures (Jo et al., 2022; Tseng et al., 2023) or intra-layer structural evolution (Zhang et al., 2021a;b; Luo et al., 2021; Hosseini et al., 2025; Zheng et al., 2024), neglecting attribute modeling and even attribute dynamics where a node’s state may depend on the structure and attributes of neighbors in the same layer or other layers. 2) *Dependencies across time and layers* are often ignored or oversimplified, even though real-world interactions frequently propagate across platforms and time (Starnini et al., 2017; Fan & Huang, 2020; Zhang et al., 2020b; Wu et al., 2022b; He et al., 2025); existing methods either focus on single-layer graphs (Fan & Huang, 2020) or treat them as static input (Zhang et al., 2020b), failing to jointly capture long-term structural evolution and attribute dynamics. 3) *Emergent behaviors* unique to multiplex dynamics, such as explosive synchronization

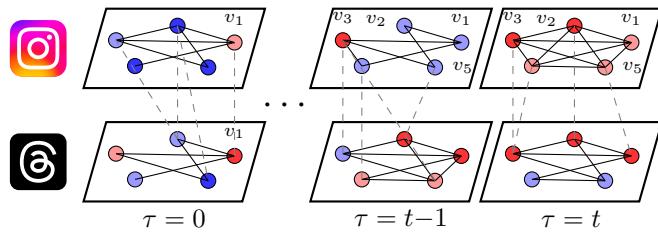


Figure 1: An illustrative example of a multiplex dynamic attributed network. Each layer represents a social media platform (e.g., Instagram, Threads). Nodes denote users with color-coded attributes, intra-layer edges (black solid lines) capture platform-specific interactions, and inter-layer edges (gray dashed lines) represent cross-platform links. The network evolves over time, reflecting both structural and attribute dynamics.

and hysteresis (De Domenico, 2023; Danziger et al., 2019), remain unmodeled in current generative frameworks, leaving a gap in reproducing realistic system-level phenomena.

To address these challenges, we propose *MulDyDiff* (*Multiplex Dynamic Diffusion Generator*), a framework to synthesize multiplex dynamic attributed networks with realistic structural, temporal, and semantic characteristics, while preserving emergent behaviors.<sup>1</sup> *MulDyDiff* consists of: (i) *Attribute-aware dynamic transition-based denoising*, which couples structure and attributes over time; (ii) *Cross-layer correlation-aware denoising*, which reconstructs intra- and inter-layer links in order to capture the evolution between distinct layers; and (iii) *Behavior-aware guidance*, which aligns generated graphs with descriptors of explosive synchronization or hysteresis derived from the Kuramoto model (De Domenico, 2023; Danziger et al., 2019). These components are unified in the *Behavior-guided Attributed Cross-layer Temporal (BACT) loss*, ensuring semantic, temporal, and behavioral fidelity. Our contributions are:

- We propose the first generative framework, *MulDyDiff*, for synthesizing multiplex dynamic attributed networks while preserving network-level behaviors.
- We design a unified denoising framework with *attribute-aware*, *cross-layer correlation-aware*, and *behavior-aware* components, jointly optimized via the *BACT loss*.
- Extensive experiments show that *MulDyDiff* significantly outperforms dynamic graph generative models by 6%-9% improvement in the KS test of temporal metrics (Longa et al., 2024; Zeno et al., 2021).

## 2 RELATED WORKS

In this section, we compare our study with the related studies, with summarization tables in Appendix B.1 and more related works on static graph generation introduced in Appendix B.2.

**Dynamic Graph Generation.** The existing dynamic graph generators include statistical models and deep generative models. The statistical models mainly consider transitions of structural information between different timestamps (Liu & Sarıyüce, 2023; Zeno et al., 2021), but do not consider multiplex structures and changes of node/edge attribute information. The deep generative models consist of auto-regressive approaches (Clarkson et al., 2022; Gupta et al., 2022; Fan & Huang, 2020), variational autoencoder-based approaches (Samanta et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021b), GAN-based approaches (He et al., 2025), and streaming-based models (Wang et al., 2022). DBGDGM (Campbell et al., 2024) works on multi-aspect dynamic brain graphs, considering the evolution of embeddings of nodes and clusters, as well as edge generation in each aspect independently at different timestamps, with a hierarchical deep generative model. However, these generators capture structural evolution without explicitly modeling attribute changes, leading to weakened long-term consistency and loss of historical information. They also overlook the joint modeling of temporal dynamics and intra-/inter-layer correlations. While DBGDGM captures embedding evolution, it lacks mechanisms for edge

<sup>1</sup>Diffusion models are well-suited for this task: their denoising process supports likelihood-based training to enhance attribute fidelity (Challenge 1), flexible conditioning for temporal and cross-layer dynamics (Challenge 2), and behavior-aware guidance for emergent phenomena (Challenge 3). Moreover, they naturally support permutation-invariant architectures, making them robust for graph generation.

108 dependencies across time and subjects, and its design is limited to brain graphs, without addressing  
 109 emergent network-level behaviors in multiplex dynamic attribute networks.  
 110

111 **Diffusion Models.** Compared to statistical and deep generative models, diffusion models directly  
 112 optimize likelihood and avoid common issues such as mode collapse in GANs or blurry outputs in  
 113 VAEs, thus preserving structural fidelity. They also flexibly incorporate conditions to model desired  
 114 structures and capture network-level emergent behaviors. Recently, diffusion models have also been  
 115 applied to generate multimedia content (Adiya et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024; Bar-Tal et al., 2024;  
 116 Guo et al., 2025), spatial-temporal data(Hu et al., 2024; Liu & Zhang, 2024), or graph data (Niu et al.,  
 117 2020; Huang et al., 2022; Vignac et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024; Bian et al., 2024; Li  
 118 et al., 2025; Minello et al., 2025). In particular, DiGress (Vignac et al., 2023) synthesizes molecular  
 119 graphs, exploiting regression guidance to lead the denoising process to generate graphs to meet the  
 120 structural property. EDGE (Chen et al., 2023) is a discrete diffusion model that exploits graph sparsity  
 121 to generate graphs while accounting for the change in node degree as a condition. (Xu et al., 2024)  
 122 proposes a generative diffusion model based on a discrete-state continuous-time setting. Recently,  
 123 (Bergmeister et al., 2024) develops a scalable graph generative model with progressive expansion  
 124 techniques. However, the above studies mainly target denoising with the structural information of  
 125 static graphs, and their denoising networks consider neither correlations between different layers nor  
 126 emergent network dynamics. Furthermore, most existing diffusion models primarily focus on static  
 127 graphs or multimedia content with moving objects, without modeling the evolution of structural and  
 128 attributive information.  
 129

### 3 PROBLEM DEFINITION

130 In this section, we begin by introducing the definition of *multiplex dynamic attribute graphs* and  
 131 formulating the problem of *multiplex dynamic attribute graph generation* accordingly. The table of  
 132 notions mentioned in this section is presented in Appendix C.

133 **Definition 3.1** (Multiplex Dynamic Attributed Network). Given a multiplex dynamic attribute  
 134 network sequence  $\Gamma = \{\mathbb{G}_0, \mathbb{G}_1, \dots, \mathbb{G}_T\}$  of  $T$   $L$ -layer graphs, each  $L$ -layer snapshot  $\mathbb{G}_t =$   
 135  $(G_t^{(I)}, G_t^{(B)})$  consists of  $L$  *intra-layer graphs*  $G_t^{(I)} = \{(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}, \mathbf{E}_{l,t})\}_{l=1}^L$ , and *inter-layer bipartite graphs*  
 136  $G_t^{(B)} = (\{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}, \mathbf{X}_{m,t}\}, \{\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}\}_{l \neq m})$ , where  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t} \in \mathbb{R}^{a \times N}$  is the node representation  
 137 (in which there are  $N$  nodes with  $a$  attributes) of layer  $l$  at timestamp  $t$ ;  $\mathbf{E}_{l,t} \in \mathbb{R}^{b \times N \times N}$  is the edge  
 138 representation (in which there are  $N \times N$  possible edges with  $b$  attributes) of layer  $l$  at timestamp  $t$ ;  
 139  $\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times N \times N}$  is the edge representation representing the existence of inter-layer connections  
 140 between distinct layers  $l$  and  $m$ .  
 141

142 Note that Definition 3.1 provides a general definition, where dynamic graphs ( $L = 1, T \geq 2$ ) and  
 143 multiplex graphs ( $T = 1, L \geq 2$ ) are both special cases.  
 144

145 *Example 3.2.* Figure 1 illustrates a toy example of a two-layer dynamic graph capturing user  
 146 interactions across Instagram and Threads from timestamps  $\tau \in \{0, t-1, t\}$ , comprising intra-  
 147 layer graphs (framed in parallelograms),  $G_\tau^{(I)} = \{G_\tau^{Insta}, G_\tau^{Threads}\}$  (with  $G_\tau^{Insta}$  and  $G_\tau^{Threads}$   
 148 illustrated in the upper and lower parts, respectively), and inter-layer bipartite graphs,  $G_\tau^{(B)}$ , with  
 149 bipartite edges represented by gray dashed lines. The intra-layer graphs represent intra-platform  
 150 interactions, such as commenting on posts in Instagram or Threads, while the inter-layer bipartite  
 151 graphs capture cross-layer relationships, such as shared accounts associated with the same user across  
 152 different platforms or forwarding their posts on one platform to their friends on another platform.  
 153

154 **Definition 3.3** (Multiplex Dynamic Attributed Network Generation). Given an observed historical  
 155 sequence  $\Gamma_{past} = \{\mathbb{G}_0, \mathbb{G}_1, \dots, \mathbb{G}_{t-1}\}$  of  $L$ -layer graphs in  $t$  timestamps, the aim of this problem is  
 156 to generate a  $L$ -layer future graph sequence  $\Gamma_{future} = \{\mathbb{G}_t, \mathbb{G}_{t+1}, \dots, \mathbb{G}_T\}$  with a parameterized  
 157 model  $p_\theta$  such that  $p_\theta(\Gamma_{future} | \Gamma_{past})$  is approximated to the true conditional data distribution  
 158  $p_{data}(\Gamma_{future} | \Gamma_{past})$  by minimizing the discrepancy (e.g., KL divergence) between the learned  
 159 distribution  $p_\theta$  and  $p_{data}$ , which is equivalent to minimizing the following negative log-likelihood.<sup>2</sup>  
 160

$$\min_\theta -\mathbb{E}_{\Gamma \sim p_{data}} \log p_\theta(\Gamma_{future} | \Gamma_{past}).$$

<sup>2</sup>The objective of graph generation and forecasting are intrinsically different. The former aims to reproducing data distribution; the latter aims to predict future values (more details are discussed in Appendix ??).

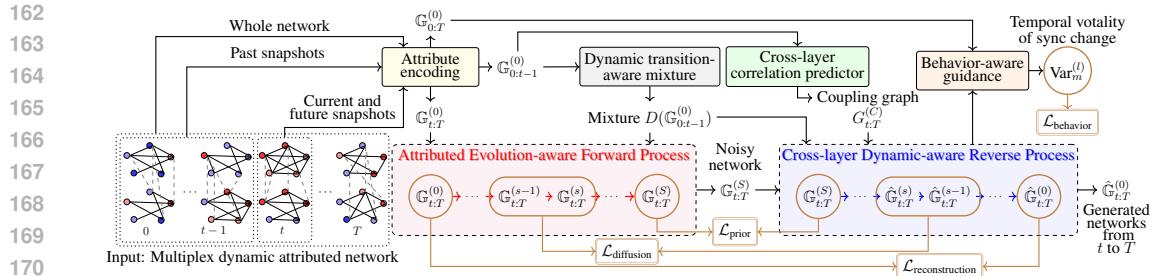


Figure 2: Workflow of MulDyDiff. The red arrows represent the forward diffusion, while the blue arrows denote the reverse denoising (including attribute-aware dynamic transition-based denoising and cross-layer correlation-aware denoising). The regions enclosed in brown rounded boxes are involved in the computation of the BACT loss.

To enable multiplex dynamic attributed network generation, a naïve approach is to independently generate each layer at each timestamp according to existing approaches (Hosseini et al., 2025; Zheng et al., 2024; Luo et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021b;a) and fuse them based on predefined cross-layer correlations. However, this approach fails to capture i) the coupling between structure and attributes, ii) the intertwined temporal and cross-layer dependencies, and iii) emergent behaviors such as explosive synchronization. Thus, we propose the framework MulDyDiff for multiplex dynamic graph synthesis based on diffusion models in Sec. 4.

#### 4 MULTIPLEX DYNAMIC ATTRIBUTED NETWORK GENERATION

Built upon a discrete denoising diffusion probabilistic model (DDPM), MulDyDiff consists of (1) *attribute-aware dynamic transition-based denoising*, (2) *cross-layer correlation-aware denoising* to jointly capture structural-semantic coupling, temporal, and inter-layer dependencies, and (3) *behavior-aware guidance* to capture emergent behaviors. The workflow is shown in Figure 2, with more details, such as notations, in Appendix C, the background of DDPM in Appendix D, and detailed derivations (including proofs of theorems) in Appendices E and F. For brevity, we show only the node representations  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}$ ; edge-level formulations  $\mathbf{E}_{l,t}$  and  $\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}$  are defined analogously.

First, *attribute-aware dynamic transition-based denoising* models node/edge attributes and their temporal evolution by embedding both semantics and structure directly into the generative process. A temporal-transition mixture progressively blends past snapshots into each diffusion step, allowing attributes to evolve with neighboring contexts. In contrast, prior models (Clarkson et al., 2022; Gupta et al., 2022; Fan & Huang, 2020; Zhang et al., 2021a;b) either ignore attributes or only add them post hoc, making them unable to capture structure–semantics co-evolution in multiplex settings.

Second, *cross-layer correlation-aware denoising* embeds inter-layer interactions into denoising and leverages observed structural correlations for joint refinement across layers. This enables coherent temporal continuity and realistic intra- and inter-layer dynamics. Existing approaches (Zhang et al., 2021b; 2020a; Shiao et al., 2023; Hosseini et al., 2025; Zheng et al., 2024; Luo et al., 2021) instead treat history as static inputs and process layers in isolation, thus failing to capture coupled temporal and cross-layer evolution.

Third, we introduce *behavior-aware guidance*, incorporating global descriptors (derived from the Kuramoto model) into the denoising objective to encourage phenomena such as *explosive synchronization* and *hysteresis*. Unlike prior works (Campbell et al., 2024; Liu & Sariyüce, 2023; Clarkson et al., 2022; Gupta et al., 2022; Zeno et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021a;b) that optimize only for structural fidelity, our approach enforces the reproduction of higher-order dynamics.

Finally, we define the *Behavior-guided Attributed Cross-layer Temporal (BACT) loss*, which combines the three aforementioned notions. By jointly aligning structural, semantic, and behavioral properties, BACT ensures that the generated networks are both statistically faithful and behaviorally plausible.

**Figure 2 provides an intuitive view of what the diffusion process captures. The forward process derived in Eqs. (4) to (7) in Sec. 4.2.1 (red arrows) gradually adds noise while continually mixing in clean historical snapshots through the dynamic transition-aware mixture. As a result, each timestamp reflects the accumulated temporal context rather than depending only on  $t - 1$ , enabling the reverse process derived in Eq. (10) in Sec. 4.2.1 (blue arrows) to denoise with a history-aware prior and recover long-range temporal patterns that simple one-step models miss. In addition, the cross-**

layer correlation predictor ( $p_\theta(G_t^{(C)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)})$ ) in Eq. (14) in Sec. 4.2.2) provides time-varying weights indicating how strongly different layers should influence one another during denoising, allowing the model to exploit implicit cross-layer co-evolution even when no explicit inter-layer edges exist. Moreover, the behavior guidance (Eq. (20) in Sec. 4.2.3) examines the graph-level behavior of the generated graph with Kuramoto model-based synchronization degree to regularize graph-level behavior of generated graphs to be similar to input graphs.

#### 4.1 ATTRIBUTED EVOLUTION-AWARE FORWARD PROCESS

Existing approaches that rely solely on historical conditioning often fail to capture multiplex temporal structures (Cachay et al., 2023). We introduce an *attribute-aware dynamic transition mixture* by incorporating the historical snapshots into the diffusion process to jointly diffuse intra- and inter-layer sequences, preserving temporal continuity.

To encode temporal dependency for each layer  $l$ , we define a recursive mixture  $D$ , which encodes the dependency between a snapshot at timestamp  $t$  and those during previous timestamps 0 to  $t-1$ :

$$D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s) = \begin{cases} \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} + (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s), & t \geq 1, \\ \mathbf{X}_{l,0}^{(0)}, & t = 0. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Starting from the standard categorical distribution-based forward process  $\mathbf{Y}_{l,t}^{(s)} = \bar{\alpha}_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a$ , we define the  $s$ -th step in the dynamic transition-aware forward process of  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}$  by combining the diffused information at the previous timestamp  $t-1$  with the standard categorical forward process at the current timestamp  $t$ :

$$\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} = \bar{\gamma}_s (\bar{\alpha}_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a) + (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) \mathbf{X}_{l,t-1}^{(s)}, \quad \forall s, t \geq 1, \quad (2)$$

with  $\bar{\alpha}_s$  controlling noise strength and  $\bar{\gamma}_s$  controlling the dependence on previous snapshots. Since  $t=0$  is the starting point, we initialize its forward diffusion to be the same as the traditional diffusion process in Eq. (3).

$$\mathbf{X}_{l,0}^{(s)} = \mathbf{Y}_{l,0}^{(s)} = \bar{\alpha}_s \mathbf{X}_{l,0}^{(0)} + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a, \quad (3)$$

where  $\bar{\mathbf{1}}_a \in \mathbb{R}^{a \times N}$  denotes an all-one matrix. The weight  $\bar{\alpha}_s$  determines how much of the original structure is retained.

With Eqs. (1) and (2), the closed-form of the forward process is derived as follows (see Appendix E for details).

$$q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \text{Cat}(\bar{\alpha}_s D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s) + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a), \quad (4)$$

which can be rewritten using the Markov transition matrix  $\bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} = \bar{\alpha}_s \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{I} + \bar{\alpha}_s (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) \mathbf{1}_a D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s)^\top + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \mathbf{1}_a \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a^\top$  (see Appendix E for details):

$$q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \text{Cat}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}; \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}) = \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} \top \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}. \quad (5)$$

By subtracting  $\bar{\alpha}_s \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}$  from  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}$  (using Eq. (4) to cancel out  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}$ ), we derive the single-step time-aware stepwise transition process as follows (see Appendix E for details).

$$q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \text{Cat}(\bar{\alpha}_s \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} + \bar{\alpha}_s [(1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s) - (\bar{\gamma}_s - \bar{\gamma}_{s-1}) D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_{s-1})] + [1 - \bar{\alpha}_s \bar{\gamma}_s - \bar{\alpha}_s (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s)] \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a), \quad (6)$$

which can be rewritten using  $\bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} = \bar{\alpha}_s \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{I} + \bar{\alpha}_s (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) \mathbf{1}_a D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s)^\top + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \mathbf{1}_a \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a^\top$ :

$$q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \text{Cat}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}; \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}) = \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} \top \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \quad (7)$$

and the following theorem shows that Eq. (4) is the marginal distribution of Eq. (6) (see Appendix E for details).

**Theorem 4.1.** *Eq. (4) gives the marginal distribution of Eq. (6), i.e.,*

$$q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}} q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}), \forall s = 1, \dots, S.$$

*Proof.* See Appendix E for details.  $\square$

270 From Eq. (4), we derive the prior loss as follows.  
 271

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{prior}} = D_{KL}[q(\mathbb{G}_0^{(S)} | \mathbb{G}_0^{(0)}) \| p_{\theta}(\mathbb{G}_0^{(S)})] + \sum_{t=1}^T D_{KL}[q(\mathbb{G}_t^{(S)} | \mathbb{G}_{0:t}^{(0)}) \| p_{\theta}(\mathbb{G}_t^{(S)})], \quad (8)$$

273 where  $D_{KL}$  represents the Kullback–Leibler (KL) divergence between the prior  $p_{\theta}(\mathbb{G}_t^{(S)})$  and the  
 274 diffusion process  $q(\mathbb{G}_t^{(S)} | \mathbb{G}_{0:t}^{(0)})$  for  $t \geq 0$ .  
 275

276 **Remark.** Unlike prior temporal graph generators (Campbell et al., 2024; Liu & Sariyüce, 2023; Wang  
 277 et al., 2022; Gupta et al., 2022; Zeno et al., 2021), our forward process explicitly encodes temporal  
 278 dependencies between the current and previous timestamps, enabling history-guided denoising and  
 279 naturally supporting forecasting via conditional generation. **The differences between MulDyDiff and**  
 280 **prior temporal graph generators are presented in Appendix B.3.**

## 281 4.2 CROSS-LAYER DYNAMIC-AWARE REVERSE PROCESS

283 In the *cross-layer dynamic-aware reverse process*, we extend the forward process in Sec. 4.1 to an  
 284 *attribute-aware transition-based denoising process*, further incorporating cross-layer correlations into  
 285 a *correlation-aware denoising process* to model critical cross-layer transitions. Finally, we introduce  
 286 *behavior-aware guidance* to steer generation such that explosive synchronization of node attributes  
 287 emerges at specific timestamps.

### 288 4.2.1 ATTRIBUTE-AWARE DYNAMIC TRANSITION-BASED DENOISING

290 To reverse the diffusion, we use Bayes’ theorem to compute the posterior distribution over the  
 291 previous noisy state given the current noisy state and the clean history. From Eqs. (5) and (7), we  
 292 derive the posterior of the forward process  $q$  as stated in the following theorem:

293 **Theorem 4.2.**

$$294 q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1) \top} \frac{\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} \odot \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s-1)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}}{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s) \top} \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}}. \quad (9)$$

297 *Proof.* See Appendix E for details. □

300 With Eq. (9), we approximate the denoising process by conditioning on past snapshots  $\mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}$   
 301 to generate the current snapshot  $\hat{\mathbb{G}}_t$  via a dynamic transition-aware denoising network (Eq. (10)).  
 302 Specifically, at each timestamp  $t$ , we denoise from a noisy graph  $\mathbb{G}_t^{(S)}$  to a denoised graph  $\hat{\mathbb{G}}_t$  while  
 303 incorporating historical context  $\mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}$ .

305 The reverse denoising process for node attributes is formulated as follows:

$$306 p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}) = \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}} q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}) \hat{p}_{l,t}^{(X)}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}), \quad (10)$$

308 where the first term in the summation is the posterior of the forward process, and the second term  
 309 in the summation is the probability distribution learned via a dynamic transition-aware denoising  
 310 network.

### 312 4.2.2 CROSS-LAYER CORRELATION-AWARE DENOISING

314 To facilitate denoising with cross-layer states for accurate multiplex dynamic attributed network  
 315 generation, we further extend the denoising process in Sec. 4.2.1 by incorporating cross-layer  
 316 correlations. To accurately capture cross-layer correlations, we first define the *cross-layer coupling*  
 317 *graph*, which serves as a structural guide, identifying the relevant layers to incorporate during  
 318 denoising.

319 **Definition 4.3** (Cross-layer Coupling Graph). A cross-layer coupling graph  $G_t^{(C)} = (V_t^{(C)}, E_t^{(C)})$   
 320 is defined at timestamp  $t$  to represent the structural dependencies between layers in a multiplex  
 321 dynamic attributed network. The node set  $V_t^{(C)} = \{1, \dots, L\}$  corresponds to the  $L$  layers in the  
 322 graph. The edge set  $E_t^{(C)}$  encodes the existence of inter-layer connections, i.e.,  $E_t^{(C)} = \{(l, m) |$   
 323  $l, m \in V_t^{(C)}, \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t} \neq 0\}$ , where  $\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}$  represents the edges between the nodes in the  $l$ -th and

324  $m$ -th layers. An edge  $(l, m) \in E_t^{(C)}$  indicates at least one cross-layer connection between the nodes  
 325 in the  $l$ -th and  $m$ -th layers.  
 326

327 We first assume that the forward noising processes in layers  $l = 1, \dots, L$  are independent. Then  
 328 the forward process of node representations in layers  $l = 1, \dots, L$  of a multi-layer temporal graph  
 329 sequence is extended from Eqs. (5) and (7) as follows:  
 330

$$331 \quad q(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L),t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \prod_{l=1}^L q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}); \\ 332 \\ 333 \quad q(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L),t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \prod_{l=1}^L q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}). \quad (11) \\ 334 \\ 335$$

336 Thus, the posterior of the forward process of a multi-layer temporal graph sequence is extended from  
 337 Eq. (9) as follows (see Appendix F for details):  
 338

$$339 \quad q(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L),t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \prod_{l=1}^L q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}). \quad (12) \\ 340 \\ 341$$

342 Formally, layers in a multi-layer temporal graph sequence exhibit interdependencies and implicit  
 343 co-evolution, which can be modeled by the denoising distribution expressed as the product of the  
 344 distributions of all layers conditioned on  $\mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}$  as follows (see Appendix F for details):  
 345

$$346 \quad p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L),t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}) = \prod_{l=1}^L p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}), \quad (13) \\ 347$$

348 where  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)})$  is learned by a denoising network with a cross-layer attention  
 349 mechanism, with weights determined by the cross-layer coupling graph  $G_t^{(C)}$  predicted by a learnable  
 350 prior over cross-layer dependencies  $p_{\theta}(G_t^{(C)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)})$  (see Appendix F for details).  
 351

$$352 \quad p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}) = \sum_{G_t^{(C)}} p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, G_t^{(C)}) p_{\theta}(G_t^{(C)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}). \quad (14) \\ 353 \\ 354$$

355 The reverse process of a multi-layer graph sequence conditioning on the clean snapshots  $\mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}$   
 356 is the product of the reverse processes of all layers  $l$  as follows:  
 357

$$358 \quad p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L),t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}) = \prod_{l=1}^L p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}), \quad (15) \\ 359$$

360 where the reverse process of each layer  $l$  can be derived by approximation using the posterior  
 361 (Eq. (12)) and denoiser (Eq. (14)) of each layer  $l$  (see Appendix F for details),  
 362

$$363 \quad p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}) = \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}} q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}). \quad (16) \\ 364$$

365 The architectures of the denoising network with a cross-layer correlation predictor are presented in  
 366 Appendix G.  
 367

368 From the above denoising process, we derive the reconstruction loss and diffusion loss as follows.  
 369

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{reconstruction}} = -\log p_{\theta}(\mathbb{G}_0^{(0)} | \mathbb{G}_0^{(1)}) - \sum_{t=1}^T -\log p_{\theta}(\mathbb{G}_t^{(0)} | \mathbb{G}_t^{(1)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)}), \quad (17)$$

$$370 \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{diffusion}} = \sum_{s=2}^{S-1} \left[ D_{KL}[q(\mathbb{G}_0^{(s-1)} | \mathbb{G}_0^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_0^{(0)}) \| p_{\theta}(\mathbb{G}_0^{(s-1)} | \mathbb{G}_0^{(s)})] \right. \\ 371 \quad \left. + \sum_{t=1}^T D_{KL}[q(\mathbb{G}_t^{(s-1)} | \mathbb{G}_t^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t}^{(0)}) \| p_{\theta}(\mathbb{G}_t^{(s-1)} | \mathbb{G}_t^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)})] \right], \quad (18) \\ 372 \\ 373 \\ 374$$

375 which calculates the KL divergence between the true posterior  $q(\mathbb{G}_t^{(s-1)} | \mathbb{G}_t^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t}^{(0)})$  in Eq. (18) and  
 376 the reverse denoising process  $p_{\theta}(\mathbb{G}_t^{(s-1)} | \mathbb{G}_t^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)})$  in Eq. (18). The former is the product of  
 377 the dynamic transition-aware posterior of nodes (derived in Eq. (12); similarly for intra-/inter-layer

edges); the latter is the product of the denoising processes of nodes and intra-/inter-layer edges (derived in Eq. (15)).

#### 4.2.3 BEHAVIOR-AWARE GUIDANCE

To softly steer the generative process toward realistic global dynamics, we introduce *behavior-aware guidance* based on external descriptors. Specifically, for explosive synchronization, we compute layer-wise synchronization via the Kuramoto order parameter (De Domenico, 2023; Danziger et al., 2019) and track its temporal volatility to detect abrupt alignment shifts, forming a descriptor that guides generation toward emergent behaviors. The motivation for behavior-aware guidance (with an illustrative example), as well as the description of hysteresis, is presented in Appendix H.

**Temporal Vitality of synchronization.** To characterize emergent dynamics, we use the Kuramoto-based synchronization measure  $R_m^{(l)}(t)$ , which quantifies the degree of phase coherence (detailed in Appendix H) to compute the variance of synchronization change as a descriptor, quantifying the volatility of temporal alignment across nodes. For the  $m$ -th attribute in layer  $l$ , we define the first-order difference by  $\Delta R_m^{(l)}(t) = R_m^{(l)}(t+1) - R_m^{(l)}(t)$  for  $t = 1, \dots, T-1$  and calculate its variance as

$$\text{Var}_m^{(l)} = \frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \left( \Delta R_m^{(l)}(t) - \overline{\Delta R}_m^{(l)} \right)^2, \quad (19)$$

where  $\overline{\Delta R}_m^{(l)} = \frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \Delta R_m^{(l)}(t)$ . Larger variance values indicate abrupt synchronization changes, which are key markers of explosive dynamics.

To encourage the emergence of realistic dynamic phenomena, we incorporate a behavioral loss based on the Kuramoto-based descriptor  $\text{Var}_m^{(l)}$ . To ensure training stability and gradient flow, we adopt a smooth surrogate using softmax aggregation:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{behavior}} = -\log \left( \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{l=1}^L \exp(\lambda \cdot \text{Var}_m^{(l)}) \right), \quad (20)$$

where  $\lambda > 0$  controls the sharpness of aggregation.<sup>3</sup>

**Remark.** 1) Eq. (10) denoises  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}$  based on past snapshots using  $\hat{p}_{l,t}^{(X)}$  learned from the denoising network, overcoming the limits of temporal graph generative models (Starnini et al., 2017; Fan & Huang, 2020; Zhang et al., 2020b; Wu et al., 2022b; He et al., 2025). 2) The cross-layer correlation-aware network learns the conditional distribution of clean intra- and inter-layer graphs from the given past snapshots with the assistance of  $G_t^{(C)}$ , addressing the limitations of prior multiplex and diffusion-based generators (Zhang et al., 2020a; Shiao et al., 2023; Niu et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2022; Vignac et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024). 3) The variance  $\text{Var}_m^{(l)}$  serves as a proxy for detecting sudden shifts or persistent irregularities in synchronization, which are indicative of higher-order network behaviors. By simply adding Eq. (20) as the behavior loss, this steers the generative process toward reproducing the global behaviors observed in multiplex systems.

Building on the preceding designs, we propose the *Behavior-guided Attributed Cross-layer Temporal (BACT) loss*, which jointly accounts for attribute consistency in reconstruction loss (Eq. (17)), cross-layer correlation-aware temporal dependencies in prior and diffusion loss (Eq. (8) and Eq. (18)), and emergent behavioral signals (Eq. (20)) in multiplex dynamic attributed networks.

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{BACT}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{reconstruction}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{prior}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{diffusion}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{behavior}}.$$

## 5 EXPERIMENTS

**Datasets.** The experiments are conducted on three real-world multiplex temporal networks: 1) Wiki-vote (Leskovec et al., 2010), 2) Twitter (De Domenico et al., 2013), and 3) Superuser (Paranjape et al., 2017). The statistics and descriptions of the datasets are presented in Appendix J.

**Baselines.** We compare the proposed models with the following baseline temporal graph generators: (1) AGE Fan & Huang (2020): an attention-based graph evolution model that considers the transformation between graphs in different states; (2) DAMNETS Clarkson et al. (2022): a deep generative

<sup>3</sup>We can add losses of all behaviors if the guidance of multiple behaviors is needed.

Table 1: Comparative study results on KS metrics.

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Wiki-vote	AGE	0.8052	0.0766	0.9991
	DAMNETS	0.6853	0.1805	0.7152
	TagGen	0.9500	0.1400	0.8750
	DYMOND	0.8256	0.2111	0.8398
	MoDiff	1.0000	0.4000	0.9474
	MulDyDiff	0.5430	0.2219	0.8281
Twitter	AGE	0.7122	0.2086	0.9257
	DAMNETS	0.6325	0.0851	0.8133
	TagGen	0.9000	0.2600	0.6750
	DYMOND	0.6791	0.0602	0.6631
	MoDiff	1.0000	0.3000	1.0000
	MulDyDiff	0.5957	0.1172	0.6489
Superuser	AGE	0.8988	0.2286	0.9870
	DAMNETS	0.6000	0.1544	0.8156
	TagGen	0.7000	0.1800	0.5250
	DYMOND	0.6937	0.0470	0.6326
	MoDiff	1.0000	0.0500	1.0000
	MulDyDiff	0.5484	0.1684	0.6411

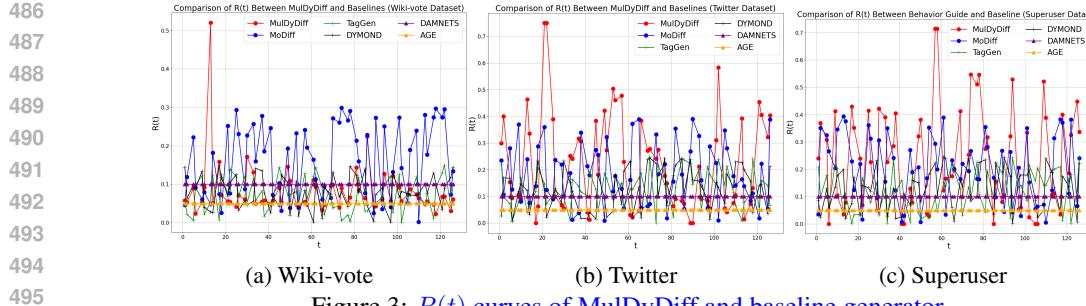
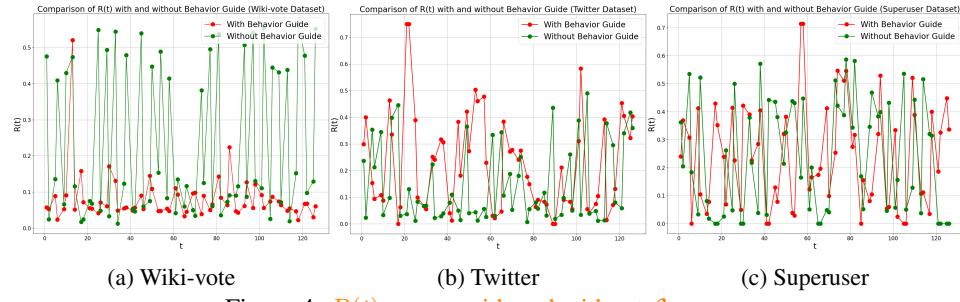
model that generates temporal graph sequences in an autoregressive manner with a GAT-based encoder-decoder architecture; (3) TagGen (Zhou et al., 2020): a generative model based on temporal random walks; (4) DYMOND (Zeno et al., 2021): a generative model that captures dynamic changes with temporal motif activities; (5) MoDiff (Xu & Ma, 2025): a diffusion model that considers the spectral properties of motifs. The comparison between the time complexities of MulDyDiff and the baselines is presented in Appendix I.

**Metrics.** The performance metrics include: 1) Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) distance (Zeno et al., 2021; Longa et al., 2024), which evaluates temporal fidelity by comparing the distributions of structural metrics (node behavior, random walk (RW), degree centrality, and betweenness centrality) between real and generated graphs at each timestamp using the KS statistic; 2) explosive synchronization degree  $R(t)$ ; 3) Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD) of degree distributions and spectral values, etc. Clarkson et al. (2022); Martinkus et al. (2022); Chen et al. (2023); Vignac et al. (2023); and 4) training and sampling time. Due to space constraints, we present the results of the KS distance and explosive synchronization degree in this section, with more details of the experimental setup and more results are reported in Appendices J and K, respectively.<sup>4</sup>.

## 5.1 KS EVALUATION

Table 1 presents the evaluation results in KS metrics of MulDyDiff compared with baselines on Wiki-vote, Twitter, and Superuser, as KS metrics are more suitable than MMD metrics for (multi-layer) temporal graphs (Longa et al., 2024; Zeno et al., 2021) (with a detailed explanation in Appendix J and MMD results in Appendix K). On the Wiki-vote dataset, MulDyDiff outperforms the baselines in almost all metrics listed in the table, as it captures structural and attributive evolution simultaneously. Some baselines perform slightly better in the KS of random walk on the Wiki-vote dataset. Nevertheless, MulDyDiff overall outperforms these baselines since they only perform well in one or two KS metrics. This is insufficient to demonstrate the effectiveness of the baselines in multi-layer temporal graph generation, as the effectiveness needs to be assessed comprehensively by various metrics. On the Twitter and Superuser datasets, MulDyDiff outperforms almost all other methods in terms of the KS of node behaviors, with a 6%-9% improvement (compared with the second-best competitor, DAMNETS) because the metric can effectively examine whether a generative model captures both intra- and inter-layer relationships during generation. MulDyDiff also shows stable performance on other metrics. In contrast, TagGen performs better in the KS of degree centrality on the Superuser dataset, but it performs worse in terms of the KS of node behavior and random walk. DAMNETS performs second-best in terms of the KS of node behavior and random walk on the Twitter dataset, but it performs worse regarding other metrics. Although DYMOND takes motif sampling into consideration, it achieves performance comparable to that of MulDyDiff on the Twitter dataset. However, since it is unable to deal with the multi-layer structure, it performs 9% worse than MulDyDiff in terms of the KS of node behavior.

<sup>4</sup>The source code is published in the anonymous repository: <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/MulDyDiff-8815>

Figure 3:  $R(t)$  curves of MulDyDiff and baseline generator.Figure 4:  $R(t)$  curves with and without  $\mathcal{L}_{behavior}$ .

## 5.2 BEHAVIOR GUIDANCE EVALUATION

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**Comparisons with baselines.** We conduct the evaluations using the synchronization degree  $R(t)$  to assess explosive synchronization in graph sequences generated by MulDyDiff and the baselines in Figs. 3a to 3c. Across the three datasets, MulDyDiff (red) exhibits clear and sharp peaks corresponding to explosive increases of  $R(t)$ , indicating that MulDyDiff can generate node attributes that faithfully reflect emergent synchronization when trained with  $\mathcal{L}_{behavior}$ . In contrast, methods with node attributes that do not change over time, such as AGE (orange) and DAMNETS (purple), produce flat curves with constant values of  $R(t)$ , showing that static attributes cannot trigger emergent synchronization. Methods with time-varying node attributes, such as MoDiff (blue), yield strongly oscillatory  $R(t)$  curves but without clear explosive peaks, suggesting that simply perturbing node attributes over time is insufficient to capture emergent behaviors. Finally, TagGen (green) and DYMOND (black), which do not model node attributes and instead assign them randomly in post-processing, only display random fluctuations in  $R(t)$  without any pronounced bursts.

**Ablation study with and without  $\mathcal{L}_{behavior}$ .** Figs. 4a to 4c present the results of  $R(t)$  curves on the Wiki-vote, Twitter, and Superuser datasets with  $\mathcal{L}_{behavior}$  (red) and without  $\mathcal{L}_{behavior}$  (green). On the Wiki-vote dataset, MulDyDiff is able to capture the abrupt increase in  $R(t)$  at  $t = 13$  of the attribute "receive" in the layer "support" on Wiki-vote dataset. In contrast, the curve of  $R(t)$  obtained without  $\mathcal{L}_{behavior}$  indicates unstable and over-reactive updates of  $R(t)$ . This manifests the contribution of  $\mathcal{L}_{behavior}$  to capturing emergent behaviors. On the Superuser and Twitter datasets, the red curves exhibit sharper peaks coinciding with the timestamps where emergent behaviors occur. In contrast, the green curves remain relatively bounded and fail to reflect these sudden changes.

## 6 CONCLUSION

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To address the structural-semantic complexity, temporal dynamics, inter-layer dependencies, and emergent behavioral phenomena inherent in real-world systems, this paper presents MulDyDiff, the first diffusion-based framework for synthesizing multiplex dynamic attributed networks. MulDyDiff introduces a unified denoising architecture that consists of attribute-aware dynamic transition-based denoising, cross-layer correlation-aware denoising, and behavior-aware guidance. These components capture not only local structural and attribute fidelity but also network-level phenomena such as explosive synchronization and hysteresis, jointly optimized through the proposed BACT loss. Experimental results demonstrate that MulDyDiff consistently surpasses state-of-the-art dynamic graph generators, achieving a 6%-9% improvement over the second-best competitor in terms of dynamic evaluation metrics.

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## 834 A EXPLANATION OF THE ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE

835 Figure 1 illustrates an example of a multiplex dynamic attributed network, where the two layers  
 836 represent Instagram and Threads, respectively. The network exhibits both *structural and attribute*  
 837 *dynamics*, with different node colors indicating user engagement levels (blue for low, red for high).  
 838 At  $\tau = 0$ ,  $v_1$  maintains moderate engagement on Instagram despite being surrounded by inactive  
 839 peers on the same platform. This deviation from traditional peer influence is attributed to *cross-layer*  
 840 *influence* from Threads, where both  $v_1$  and its neighbors are more active, offering additional social  
 841 reinforcement. At  $\tau = t$ , a new link forms between  $v_2$  and  $v_3$  on Instagram, driven by shared  
 842 followees  $v_1$  and  $v_5$  at  $\tau = t - 1$ , exemplifying *temporal dependency*. Furthermore, at  $\tau = t - 1$ ,  
 843 most users on Instagram exhibit low engagement. However, due to frequent interactions with highly  
 844 engaged users on Threads, these cross-layer influences collectively trigger a sudden shift (similar  
 845 to the behavioral transition from passive observation to aggressive buying exhibited by Robinhood  
 846 users during the GameStop short squeeze). At  $\tau = t$ , Instagram users abruptly increase their  
 847 engagement, demonstrating a *network-level phenomenon of explosive synchronization* unique to  
 848 multiplex networks.

## 849 B MORE RELATED WORK COMPARISONS

### 850 B.1 RELATED WORK COMPARISON TABLE

851 In this section, we compare our study with the related studies to indicate their differences, which are  
 852 also summarized in Tables 2 and 3. The former summarizes their application scenarios; the latter  
 853 compares whether they consider the factors such as structural/attribute changes, temporal dependency  
 854 and cross-layer dependency or not (O: yes; X: no).

### 855 B.2 STATIC GRAPH GENERATION

856 Static graph generation methods are mainly statistical or deep generative. Statistical models rely  
 857 on network statistics (Schweimer et al., 2022), correlations (Erling et al., 2015), community struc-  
 858 tures (Luo et al., 2020), or degree distributions (Wang et al., 2021), and are often extended for  
 859 tasks such as frequent pattern mining (Shuai et al., 2013), cross-platform similarity (Shuai et al.,  
 860 2018), privacy preservation (Ying & Wu, 2009), and scalability (Edunov et al., 2018). Deep models

Table 2: Related work comparison table (part 1).

Models	Scenario	Architecture
Ours	Multi-layer temporal graph generation (w/ cross-layer links)	Diffusion and GraphTransformer
DAMNETS	Temporal graph generation	GAT
TIGGER	Temporal graph generation	GCN and GraphSAGE
SGNN-GR (Wang et al., 2022)	Temporal graph generation	GAN and GraphSAGE
DYMOND	Temporal graph generation	Algorithm-based
AGE (Fan & Huang, 2020)	Temporal graph generation	Self-attention
NetTrans (Zhang et al., 2020a)	Network alignment	GCN and encoder-decoder
TenGAN (Shiao et al., 2023)	Multi-layer graph generation	GAN and GCN
DBGDGM (Campbell et al., 2024)	Multi-layer temporal graph generation (w/o cross-layer links)	Diffusion and GNN

Table 3: Related work comparison table (part 2).

Models	Structural change	Attribute change	Temporal dependency	Cross-layer dependency
Ours	O	O	O	O
DAMNETS	O	X	O	X
TIGGER	O	X	O	X
SGNN-GR (Wang et al., 2022)	O	X	O	X
DYMOND	O	X	O	X
AGE (Fan & Huang, 2020)	O	X	O	X
NetTrans (Zhang et al., 2020a)	By generalization	O	O	O
TenGAN (Shiao et al., 2023)	X	X	X	O
DBGDGM (Campbell et al., 2024)	O	X	O	O

adopt auto-regression (Liao et al., 2019; Shi et al., 2020), variational autoencoders (Guo et al., 2021; Samanta et al., 2020), or GANs (Martinkus et al., 2022), e.g., SPECTRE (Martinkus et al., 2022), which conditions on Laplacian eigenvectors. A few works also study static multiplex graphs (Zhang et al., 2020a; Shiao et al., 2023). However, both statistical and deep models mainly focus on structural information of static single-layer graphs or generate layers independently, neglecting cross-layer correlations and dynamic behaviors such as structural evolution and emergent patterns.

### B.3 MORE COMPARISONS WITH PRIOR TEMPORAL GRAPH GENERATORS

The gap between our work and prior temporal graph generators from the aspects of (1) temporal dependency, (2) multi-layer structure, (3) inductivity, (4) graph-level behavior guidance, (5) global and local evolution. The differences are summarized in Table 4.

1. **Temporal dependency:** While several existing models indeed condition on only a single snapshot (the immediately preceding snapshot  $G_{t-1}$  Campbell et al. (2024); Wang et al. (2022) or  $G_{t-\Delta t}$  Gupta et al. (2022)) or merely local motif transition statistics Liu & Sariyüce (2023); Zeno et al. (2021), our contribution is not the mere use of temporal conditioning but the design of an explicitly history-mixing forward diffusion that recursively aggregates all past snapshots  $G_{0:t-1}$  when defining the distribution at time  $t$ . This formulation provides long-range temporal coupling and continuity that extend beyond the typical one-step conditioning scheme. Specifically, Sec. 4.1 introduces an attribute-aware dynamic transition mixture  $D$  (Eq. (1)). For  $t \geq 1$ , the forward process combines the current snapshot with the recursively accumulated context from all previous timestamps, so that the marginal  $q(\mathbf{X}_{t,t}^{(s)} \mid \mathbf{X}_{t,0:t}^{(0)})$  (Eq. (4)) depends on the entire trajectory up to  $t$ . This enables the generation of future

918 snapshots to exploit long-range temporal signals. In contrast, many existing temporal graph  
 919 generators specify their forward or conditional distributions using only  $G_{t-1}$ , and therefore  
 920 do not couple multiple past snapshots within the forward process.  
 921

922 2. **Multi-layer structure:** Among the compared methods, most of the compared studies only  
 923 consider single-layer structure; only DBGDGM in Campbell et al. (2024) handles multiple  
 924 aspects. In contrast, MulDyDiff models cross-layer correlation during generation, supported  
 925 by a learned cross-layer coupling graph. MulDyDiff not only captures temporal evolution in  
 926 a single layer but also co-evolution of each layer influenced by other layers.  
 927

928 3. **Inductivity:** Most previous works are transductive since they do not consider unseen nodes.  
 929 MulDyDiff (ours) and TIGGER-I in Gupta et al. (2022) are inductive since the former adopts  
 930 a permutation-invariant temporal graph transformer architecture, which does not rely on  
 931 node ID information; the latter builds a multi-mode decoder to learn distributions of node  
 932 embeddings; and the others are not inductive since they tend to use fixed nodes and cannot  
 933 generalize to unseen nodes.  
 934

935 4. **Graph-level behavior guidance:** None of the prior temporal or multiplex generators model  
 936 system-level phenomena such as explosive synchronization or hysteresis. In contrast,  
 937 MulDyDiff is the first to introduce behavior-aware guidance to reproduce these global  
 938 dynamics, enabling to regularize graph-level behavior of generated graphs to be similar to  
 939 input graphs.  
 940

941 5. **Global and local evolution:** In contrast to previous works focusing on generating the current  
 942 snapshot conditioning on only a single snapshot (or merely local motif transition statistics)  
 943 with only local evolution taken into account, our model enables future snapshot generation  
 944 considering both local and global evolution from given historical snapshots.  
 945

946 **Table 4: Comparison table between MulDyDiff and prior temporal graph generators.**

947 Models	948 Temporal dependency	949 Multi-layer structure	950 Inductive	951 Graph-level behavior guidance	952 Global evolution	953 Local evolution
949 <b>MulDyDiff (ours)</b>	950 $p(G_t   G_{0:t-1})$	951 O (with cross-layer dependency)	952 O	953 O	954 O	955 O
951 <b>DBGDGM</b> 952 Campbell et al. (2024)	953 $p(G_t   G_{t-1})$	954 O (without cross-layer dependency)	955 X	956 X	957 X	958 O
954 <b>MTM</b> 955 Liu & Sariyüce (2023)	956 local motif transition statistics	957 X	958 X	959 X	960 X	961 O
956 <b>SGNN</b> 957 Wang et al. (2022)	958 $p(G_t   G_{t-1})$	959 X	960 X	961 X	962 X	963 O
958 <b>TIGGER</b> 959 Gupta et al. (2022)	960 $p(G_t   G_{t-\Delta t})$	961 X	962 O	963 X	964 X	965 O
960 <b>DYMOND</b> 961 Zeno et al. (2021)	962 local motif transition statistics	963 X	964 X	965 X	966 X	967 O

## 963 C NOTATION TABLE

964 The notations in this paper are listed in Table 5.

## 965 D PRELIMINARY: DISCRETE DENOISING DIFFUSION PROBABILISTIC MODEL

966 We introduce the background of denoising diffusion probabilistic models (DDPM). Typically, a  
 967 DDPM consists of two components: the forward noising process and the reverse denoising process.  
 968 For the diffusion step  $s \geq 1$ , the forward noising process of a DDPM for a graph  $G^{(0)}$  is defined by  
 969  $q(G^{(s)}|G^{(s-1)})$  and  $q(G^{(S)}|G^{(0)}) = \prod_{s=1}^S q(G^{(s)}|G^{(s-1)})$ , where  $S$  is the maximum diffusion step.  
 970

Table 5: Notation table

Notation	Description
$s = 0, 1, \dots, S$	diffusion steps
$t = 0, 1, \dots, T$	timestamps
$l = 1, \dots, L$	layers
$\Gamma$	Multi-layer graph sequence $\{\mathbb{G}_0, \dots, \mathbb{G}_T\}$
$\mathbb{G}_t$	$L$ -layer graph at timestamp $t$
$G_t^{(I)}$	Intra-layer graph $(\{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}, \mathbf{E}_{l,t}\}_{l=1}^L)$
$\mathbb{G}_{0:t}$	$L$ -layer graph sequence from timestamp 0 to $t$
$\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} \in \mathbb{R}^{a \times N}, \mathbf{E}_{l,t} \in \mathbb{R}^{b \times N \times N}$	Diffused node/edge representation of $N$ nodes at step $s$ with $a$ node types and $b$ edge types of layer $l$ in $\mathbb{G}_t$
$G_{l,(0:T)}$	intra-layer graph sequence $\{G_{l,t} = (\mathbf{X}_{l,t}, \mathbf{E}_{l,t})\}_{t=0}^T$ for layer $l$
$G_t^{(B)}$	inter-layer bipartite graph $(\{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}, \mathbf{X}_{t,m}\}, \{\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}\}_{l \neq m})$
$\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}$	inter-layer edge representation between layers $l$ and $m$ in $\mathbb{G}_t$
$G_{(l,m),(0:T)}$	intra-layer graph sequence $(\{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}, \mathbf{X}_{m,t}\}_{t=0}^T, \{\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}\}_{t=0}^T)$ for layers $l$ and $m$
$\bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(s)}$	multi-step Markov transition matrix that transits $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}$ to $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}$
$\mathbf{Q}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(s)}$	single-step Markov transition matrix that transits $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}$ to $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}$
$G_t^{(C)}$	cross-layer coupling graph $(V_t^{(C)}, E_t^{(C)})$
$V_t^{(C)}$	nodes representing layer IDs $\{1, \dots, L\}$
$E_t^{(C)}$	edges representing link existence between distinct layers $\{(l, m)   l, m \in V_t^{(C)}, \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t} \neq \mathbf{0}\}$
$\alpha_s$	a parameter that controls noise strength, defining how fast information is washed out by noise along the diffusion axis $s$ ; $\bar{\alpha}_s = \prod_{i=1}^s \alpha_i$
$\gamma_s$	a parameter that controls the dependence on previous snapshots, specifying how strong the temporal smoothing is along the time axis $t$ ; $\bar{\gamma}_s = \prod_{i=1}^s \gamma_i$
$D(\cdot, \bar{\gamma}_s)$	temporal transition-aware mixture with hyper-parameter $\bar{\gamma}_s$
$q$	diffusion process
$p_\theta$	reverse denoising process
$\phi_\theta$	dynamic transition denoising network
$\hat{p}_{l,t}^{(X)}, \hat{p}_{l,t}^{(E)}, \hat{p}_{(l,m),t}^{(B)}$	denoising distributions learned from dynamic transition denoising network $\phi_\theta$
$\phi_\theta^{(C)}$	cross-layer correlation-aware dynamic transition denoising network
$\hat{p}_{C,(l,t)}^{(X)}, \hat{p}_{C,(l,t)}^{(E)}, \hat{p}_{C,(l,t)}^{(B)}$	denoising distributions learned from cross-layer correlation-aware dynamic transition denoising network $\phi_\theta^{(C)}$
$p_t^{(C)}$	distribution learned to predict cross-layer correlations at $t$ in $G_t^{(C)}$ according to $\mathbb{G}_{0:t}$
$p_t^{(I)}$	distribution learned to predict intra-layer structure at $t$ according to $\mathbb{G}_{0:t}$

Given  $G^{(0)} = (\mathbf{X}^{(0)}, \mathbf{E}^{(0)})$ , the standard categorical forward process of a node attribute representation is:

$$\mathbf{X}^{(s)} = \bar{\alpha}_s \mathbf{X}^{(0)} + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \frac{\bar{1}_a}{a}, \mathbf{E}^{(s)} = \bar{\alpha}_s \mathbf{E}^{(0)} + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \frac{\bar{1}_a}{a}, \quad (21)$$

with  $\bar{\alpha}_s$  controlling noise strength.

1026 For the reverse denoising process, given  $G^{(s)}$ , a denoising neural network  $\phi_\theta$  (parameterized by  $\theta$ ) is  
 1027 designed to predict the denoised graph  $G^{(s-1)}$ , deriving the reverse denoising process  $p_\theta$  as follows:  
 1028

$$\begin{aligned} p_\theta(G^{(s-1)}|G^{(s)}) &= q(G^{(s-1)}|G^{(s)}, G^{(0)})p_\theta(G^{(0)}|G^{(s)}); \\ q(G^{(s-1)}|G^{(s)}) &\propto q(G^{(s)}|G^{(s-1)}, G^{(0)})q(G^{(s-1)}|G^{(0)}) \\ &= q(G^{(s)}|G^{(s-1)})q(G^{(s-1)}|G^{(0)}), \end{aligned}$$

1032 where  $q(G^{(s-1)}|G^{(s)})$  can be approximated by the noising process.  
 1033

## 1034 E DETAILED DERIVATIONS AND PROOFS OF ATTRIBUTE-AWARE DYNAMIC 1035 TRANSLATION-BASED DENOISING

### 1037 E.1 INTUITION OF CAPTURING LONG-RANGE TEMPORAL COUPLING AND CONTINUITY.

1039 Unlike standard temporal models that rely on one-step Markov dependencies (conditioning only  
 1040 on  $G_{t-1}$ ), our forward process explicitly incorporates the entire history  $G_{0:t-1}$  when defining the  
 1041 distribution at time  $t$ . This is achieved through the attribute-aware dynamic transition mixture  $D$  in  
 1042 Eq. (1):

$$1043 D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s) = \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} + (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s),$$

1044 which recursively accumulates clean snapshots from all previous timestamps. As a result, the forward  
 1045 prior for  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}$  is not a local variation of  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t-1}^{(0)}$  but rather a history-mixed representation that embeds  
 1046 long-range temporal signals. This design has two key benefits: i) it enables the reverse denoising  
 1047 network to perform history-guided denoising, capturing persistent temporal structures and long-range  
 1048 dependencies that one-step models miss; and ii) since the mixture is formed from clean states  $\mathbf{X}^{(0)}$ , it  
 1049 mitigates the error propagation issue of autoregressive temporal generators that repeatedly condition  
 1050 on noisy predictions.  
 1051

### 1052 E.2 DERIVATION LOGIC OF CAPTURING LONG-RANGE TEMPORAL COUPLING AND 1053 CONTINUITY.

1054 We aim to capture long-range temporal coupling and continuity in temporal graph sequences, which  
 1055 is achieved by deriving the temporal-aware diffusion model with the following logic flow:  
 1056

- 1057 (1) We first define a temporal aggregation function (Eq. (1)) that summarizes all past clean snap-  
 1058 shots using an exponentially weighted mixture. This establishes how temporal information  
 1059 from earlier timestamps is incorporated into the model.  
 1060
- 1061 (2) We then inject noise in a temporally consistent way (Eqs. (2) and (3)) by blending local  
 1062 diffusion at time  $t$  with the diffused representation at time  $t-1$ . This step defines how  
 1063 attribute noise interacts with temporal smoothness.  
 1064
- 1065 (3) We show that this forward process admits a closed-form expression (Eq. (4)), which explicitly  
 1066 reveals the influence of the entire history.  
 1067
- 1068 (4) We reinterpret the closed form of the forward process as a Markov transition (Eq. (5)),  
 1069 clarifying how each diffusion step decomposes into self-preservation, history-driven drift,  
 1070 and uniform noise injection.  
 1071
- 1072 (5) We decompose the multi-step transition into single-step transitions (Eqs. (6) and (7)) to  
 1073 make posterior inference tractable.  
 1074
- 1075 (6) We derive the exact posterior for reverse diffusion (Eq. (9)), enabling us to compute the  
 1076 probability of the previous noisy state conditioned on the current one.  
 1077
- 1078 (7) Finally, we approximate the reverse process with a learned denoiser (Eq. (10)), which maps  
 1079 noisy states back to clean states in a history-aware manner.

1078 Together, these steps establish a temporally coherent forward diffusion process, whose reverse process  
 1079 can reconstruct each snapshot using the entire clean history, enabling the model to capture long-range  
 1080 temporal dependencies rather than purely local transitions.

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## E.3 DETAILED DERIVATION OF THE TEMPORAL DIFFUSION PROCESS

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## E.3.1 Recursive Expansion Along the Temporal Dimension

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To incorporate information from all historical snapshots up to time  $t$ , we define a recursive temporal aggregation function. The idea is to let the most recent snapshot contribute most strongly, while earlier snapshots contribute with exponentially decaying weights. Given historical snapshots  $\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}$  and the current snapshot  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}$ , we define the dynamic transition in Eq. (1) by combining the current snapshot at timestamp  $t$  and the dynamic transition over past snapshots from timestamp 0 to  $t-1$  as follows:

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$$D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s) = \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} + (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s),$$

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with the initial condition  $D(\mathbf{X}_{l,0}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s) = \mathbf{X}_{l,0}^{(0)}$ . This recursion  $D$  means that each historical snapshot influences the aggregated representation, but with strength controlled by  $\bar{\gamma}_s$ . A larger  $\bar{\gamma}_s$  prioritizes the current snapshot, while a smaller one increases the influence of earlier snapshots.

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## E.3.2 Extension to Temporal Diffusion Process

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In the traditional diffusion process, the diffused snapshot  $\mathbf{Y}_{l,t}^{(s)}$  in the  $s$ -th step of the snapshot  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}$  is  $\mathbf{Y}_{l,t}^{(s)} = \bar{\alpha}_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a$  at timestamp  $t$ . To generate temporally consistent noisy representations  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}$ , we blend the locally diffused state  $\mathbf{Y}_{l,t}^{(s)}$  at time  $t$  with the diffused state  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t-1}^{(s)}$  from the previous timestamp  $t-1$ , which ensures smoothness across time. Thus, we define the dynamic transition-aware forward process in Eq. (2):

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$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} &= \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{Y}_{l,t}^{(s)} + (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) \mathbf{X}_{l,t-1}^{(s)} \\ &= \bar{\gamma}_s (\bar{\alpha}_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a) + (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) \mathbf{X}_{l,t-1}^{(s)}, \forall s, t \geq 1, \end{aligned}$$

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where the first term in Eq. (2) adds noise to the current snapshot, while the second term propagates temporal influence forward from  $t-1$ . The parameter  $\bar{\gamma}_s$  adjusts the balance: larger values emphasize the current snapshot; smaller values enforce stronger temporal continuity. Since  $t=0$  is the starting point, we initialize its forward diffusion to be the same as the traditional diffusion process in Eq. (3).

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## E.3.3 Closed-Form Expression of the Forward Process

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By expanding the recursive temporal-aware forward equations (Eq. (2) with induction on  $t$ ), we obtain a direct relationship between the  $s$ -step noisy snapshot and all historical clean snapshots, explicitly incorporating the entire history  $\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}$  in Eq. (4) as follows:

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$$\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} = \bar{\alpha}_s D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s) + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a.$$

Thus, the noisy snapshot is a mixture of a history-aggregated signal and a uniform noise baseline. As  $\bar{\alpha}_s$  decreases, the influence of the uniform noise grows, gradually removing temporal structure.

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## E.3.4 Multi-Step Markov Transition

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We express Eq. (4) as a Markov transition that changes the state of  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}$ , through Eq. (1)

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$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} &= \bar{\alpha}_s \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} + \bar{\alpha}_s (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s) + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a \quad (\text{By Eq. (1)}), \\ &= (\bar{\alpha}_s \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{I} + \bar{\alpha}_s (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a^\top + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a^\top) \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} \\ &(\because \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a^\top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} = \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a, D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a^\top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} = D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s)) \\ &= (\bar{\alpha}_s \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{I} + \bar{\alpha}_s (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a D(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s)^\top + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a \bar{\mathbf{1}}_a^\top)^\top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} \quad (\text{Transpose}) \\ &= \bar{\mathbf{Q}} \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}, \end{aligned}$$

1134 where  $\bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} = \bar{\alpha}_s \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{I} + \bar{\alpha}_s (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) \mathbf{1}_a \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s)^\top + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \mathbf{1}_a \frac{\bar{\mathbf{1}}_a^\top}{a}$  is a Markov transition  
 1135 matrix decomposing the diffusion into three intuitive effects: (1) self-preservation (i.e., staying in the  
 1136 same state), (2) drifting toward the aggregated history  $D(\cdot)$ , and (3) injecting uniform noise.  
 1137

1138 Thus, we rewrite Eq. (4) using the Markov transition matrix  $\bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)}$  as in Eq. (5):  
 1139

$$1140 q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \text{Cat}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}; \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)}^\top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}) = \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)\top} \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}. \\ 1141$$

1142  
 1143 **E.3.5 SINGLE-STEP MARKOV TRANSITION**

1144 To derive the posterior and the reverse process, we rewrite the multi-step update as a single-step  
 1145 Markov transition. By subtracting  $\alpha_s \gamma_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}$  from  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}$  (using Eq. (4) to cancel out  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}$ ), we  
 1146 obtain the single-step forward process in Eq. (6):  
 1147

$$1148 \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} = \alpha_s \gamma_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} + \bar{\alpha}_s [(1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s) \\ 1149 - (\gamma_s - \bar{\gamma}_s) \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_{s-1})] + [1 - \alpha_s \gamma_s - \bar{\alpha}_s (1 - \gamma_s)] \frac{\bar{\mathbf{1}}_a}{a}, \\ 1150$$

1151 in which the three parts correspond to: (1) keeping part of the previous noisy state via  $\alpha_s \gamma_s \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}$ ,  
 1152 (2) adjusting toward the history-consistent direction implied by the multi-step dynamics (the two  $\mathbf{D}(\cdot)$  terms ensure that the single-step behavior matches the  $s$ -step closed form), and (3) injecting uniform  
 1153 noise to maintain stochasticity and preserve a valid categorical distribution. This decomposition  
 1154 reveals how the model preserves previous noise, incorporates temporal structure, and adds randomness.  
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1156 Similar to Eq. (5), we have Eq. (7) as follows:  
 1157

$$1158 q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \text{Cat}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}; \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}) = \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)\top} \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \\ 1159$$

1160 where  $\bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} = \bar{\alpha}_s \bar{\gamma}_s \mathbf{I} + \bar{\alpha}_s (1 - \bar{\gamma}_s) \mathbf{1}_a \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \bar{\gamma}_s)^\top + (1 - \bar{\alpha}_s) \mathbf{1}_a \frac{\bar{\mathbf{1}}_a^\top}{a}$  is a Markov transition  
 1161 matrix encoding: (1) self-preservation, (2) a shift toward the aggregated history  $D(\cdot)$ , and (3)  
 1162 movement toward the uniform noise baseline.  
 1163

1164 It is worth noting that  $\bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)}$  is a transition matrix satisfying the property of a Markov chain, i.e.,  
 1165  $\bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s-1)} \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} = \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)}$ . Thus, the distribution  $q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)})$  can be marginalized by  
 1166  $q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)})$  and  $q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)})$  as follows:  
 1167

$$1168 q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) \\ 1169 = \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}} q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) \quad (\text{Marginalization}) \\ 1170 = \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}} q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) \quad (\text{By Bayesian formula}) \\ 1171 = \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}} (\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)\top} \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}) (\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)\top} \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s-1)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}) \quad (\text{By Eqs. (5) and (7)}) \\ 1172 = \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)\top} \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}} (\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)\top} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}) \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s-1)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} \\ 1173 = \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)\top} \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s-1)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} \quad (\because \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}} (\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)\top} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}) = \mathbf{I}) \\ 1174 = \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)\top} \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} \quad (\because \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s-1)} \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} = \bar{\mathbf{Q}}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)}), \\ 1175$$

1176 which proves Theorem 4.1.  
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 1179 **E.3.6 POSTERIOR DISTRIBUTION**

1180 To reverse the diffusion, we use Bayes' theorem to compute the posterior distribution over the  
 1181 previous noisy state given the current noisy state and the clean history. From Eqs. (5) and (7), we  
 1182

1188 derive the posterior of the forward process  $q$  in Eq. (9) as follows:  
1189  
1190 
$$q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) = \frac{q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)})}{q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)})} \quad (\text{By Bayesian formula})$$
  
1191  
1192 
$$= \frac{(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} \top \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)}) \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} \top \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s-1)} \top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}}{(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} \top \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)}) \top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}} \quad (\text{By Eqs. (5) and (7)})$$
  
1193  
1194 
$$= \frac{(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} \top \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)}) \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} \top \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s-1)} \top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}}{(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} \top \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)}) \top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}}$$
  
1195  
1196  
1197 (Transpose the first term in the numerator)  
1198  
1199 
$$= \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} \top \frac{\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} \top \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s-1)} \top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}}{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} \top \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}}^{(s)} \top \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}},$$
  
1200

1201 which proves Theorem 4.2 (the closed form of the posterior). The numerator multiplies: (a) how  
1202 likely each prior state leads to  $\mathbf{X}^{(s)}$ , and (b) how likely it is under the multi-step history-informed  
1203 prior. The denominator normalizes these weights into a valid categorical distribution.

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### 1208 E.3.7 REVERSE PROCESS

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1212 Since the true clean snapshot is unknown, we approximate the reverse transition by combining the  
1213 exact posterior with a learned clean-state predictor. The reverse denoising process is approximated  
1214 by the posterior (Eq. (9)) in Eq. (10) through marginalization as follows:

1215 
$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)})$$
  
1216 
$$= \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}} p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}) \quad (\text{Marginalization})$$
  
1217 
$$= \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}} p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}) \quad (\text{By Bayesian formula})$$
  
1218 
$$\approx \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}} q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}) \hat{p}_{l,t}^{(X)}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}),$$
  
1220

1221 where  $\hat{p}_{l,t}^{(X)}$  is learned by a denoising network (parameterized with  $\theta$ ) that denoises  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}$  to the  
1222 clean representation  $\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}$  conditioned on the given historical information  $\mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}$ , which captures  
1223 long-range temporal coupling and coherence. The denoiser predicts plausible clean states, and the  
1224 model averages the exact backward transitions over those predictions, yielding an effective reverse  
1225 diffusion step.

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## 1227 F DETAILED DERIVATIONS AND PROOFS OF CROSS-LAYER 1228 CORRELATION-AWARE DENOISING

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### F.1 INTUITION OF CAPTURING IMPLICIT CO-EVOLUTION VIA ATTENTION

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Our model captures both explicit structural coupling and implicit co-evolution. We do not rely solely on static, observed inter-layer edges; instead, we leverage attention to capture latent correlations where layers evolve in synchrony without direct connections. This is achieved in the cross-layer correlation-aware denoising module (Eqs. (15) and (16)), specifically through the predicted coupling graph  $\hat{G}_t^{(C)}$ , which dynamically estimates cross-layer correlation strengths at each timestamp. The denoising network then uses these correlations through a cross-attention mechanism, assigning weights to other layers based on their state similarity and temporal co-evolution—even when no explicit inter-layer edge  $B_{(l,m)}$  exists (detailed in Appendix G). For example, if nodes in layer  $A$  and nodes in layer  $B$  repeatedly undergo similar attribute transitions or community-level changes at the same times (a ‘‘shared temporal shock’’), the attention mechanism can learn this pattern and allow layer  $A$  to guide the reconstruction of layer  $B$ , and vice versa, despite the absence of direct inter-layer links between specific node pairs.

1242 F.2 DERIVATION LOGIC OF CAPTURING IMPLICIT CO-EVOLUTION VIA ATTENTION  
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1244 We aim to capture explicit structural coupling and implicit co-evolution in multi-layer temporal graph  
1245 sequences, which is achieved by multiplying the temporal-aware forward and reverse processes of all  
1246 layers with the following logic flow:

- 1247 (1) The multi-step (single-step) forward process of a multi-layer temporal graph sequence is  
1248 extended to Eq. (11) from Eq. (5) (Eq. (7)) by multiplying the multi-step (single-step)  
1249 forward processes of all layers, which are assumed to be independent of one another.
- 1250 (2) The posterior of the forward process of a multi-layer temporal graph sequence is extended to  
1251 Eq. (12) from Eq. (9) by multiplying the posteriors of all layers with the Bayesian formula  
1252 using Eq. (11).
- 1253 (3) The denoising distribution is derived in Eq. (13). It is the product of the denoising distribu-  
1254 tions of all layers, as shown in Eq. (14). These layer-wise distributions are learned separately  
1255 and are conditionally independent given the clean snapshots from timestamps 0 to  $t - 1$ .  
1256 Each layer's distribution is learned through a cross-layer attention mechanism. The attention  
1257 weights are learned from the cross-layer coupling graph predicted by a cross-layer predictor.
- 1258 (4) The reverse process of a multi-layer temporal graph sequence is extended to Eq. (15) by mul-  
1259 tiplying the reverse processes of all layers (Eq. (16)), which are conditionally independent  
1260 given the clean snapshots  $\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}$  during the preceding timestamps 0 to  $t - 1$ .

1263 F.3 DERIVATION DETAILS OF CAPTURING IMPLICIT CO-EVOLUTION VIA ATTENTION  
1264

## 1265 F.3.1 FORWARD DIFFUSION PROCESS

1266 We assume that the noise-injection process at diffusion step  $s$  is independent across layers. Intuitively,  
1267 each layer is corrupted by noise separately, while the reverse denoising process later leverages cross-  
1268 layer attention to reintroduce interdependencies. The multi-step and single-step forward processes of  
1269 a multi-layer temporal graph sequence are extended from Eqs. (5) and (7) to Eq. (11) as follows:

$$1270 q(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t)}^{(0)}) = \prod_{l=1}^L q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)});$$

$$1273 q(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t)}^{(0)}) = \prod_{l=1}^L q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}).$$

## 1276 F.3.2 POSTERIOR

1277 Due to the independence of the forward processes of all layers, the posterior of the forward process  
1278 of a multi-layer temporal graph sequence is extended from Eq. (9) to Eq. (12) as follows:

$$1279 q(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t)}^{(0)}) = \frac{q(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t)}^{(0)}) q(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t)}^{(0)})}{q(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t)}^{(0)})} \quad (\text{By Bayesian formula})$$

$$1280 = \frac{\prod_{l=1}^L q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) \prod_{l=1}^L q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)})}{\prod_{l=1}^L q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)})} \quad (\text{By Eq. (11)})$$

$$1281 = \prod_{l=1}^L \frac{q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)})}{q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)})}$$

$$1282 = \prod_{l=1}^L q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}).$$

## 1283 F.3.3 DENOISING DISTRIBUTION

1284 Formally, layers exhibit interdependencies and implicit co-evolution in a multi-layer temporal graph  
1285 sequence. To model such co-evolution, since layers are conditionally independent given the clean  
1286 snapshots  $\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}$ , the denoising distribution is the product of the distributions of all layers

1296 conditioned on  $\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}$  in Eq. (13) as follows:

$$1298 \quad p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}) = \prod_{l=1}^L p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}),$$

1300 where  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)})$  is learned by a denoising network with a cross-layer attention  
1301 mechanism, with weights determined by the predicted cross-layer coupling graph  $G_t^{(C)}$ , enabling it  
1302 to capture implicit co-evolution through cross-layer attention in Eq. (14) as follows.

$$1304 \quad p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}) = \sum_{G_t^{(C)}} p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}, G_t^{(C)}) p_{\theta}(G_t^{(C)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}),$$

1307 where  $p_{\theta}(G_t^{(C)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)})$  serves as a learnable prior over cross-layer dependencies. It maps  
1308 the clean historical snapshots into a latent adjacency-like structure that reflects the current degree of  
1309 coupling across layers at timestamp  $t$ . This latent graph then parameterizes the cross-layer attention  
1310 mechanism in  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}, G_t^{(C)})$ , meaning that the denoiser's parameters are mod-  
1311 ulated by the inferred strength of cross-layer correlations. As a result, cross-layer dependencies are  
1312 injected before factorization, ensuring that the final product form in Eq. (13) still embeds inter-layer  
1313 influence. This mechanism allows the model to capture both edge-level cross layer correlations (when  
1314 explicit inter-layer edges exist) and higher-order co-evolution patterns (when groups of nodes across  
1315 layers move together in time, even without explicit inter-layer links).

### 1317 F.3.4 REVERSE DENOISING PROCESS

1319 The reverse process of a multi-layer graph sequence conditioning on the clean snapshots  $\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}$   
1320 is the product of the reverse processes of all layers in Eq. (15) as follows:

$$1322 \quad p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}) = \prod_{l=1}^L p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}),$$

1324 where the reverse process of each layer  $l$  can be derived by approximation using the posterior  
1325 (Eq. (12)) and denoiser (Eq. (14)) of each layer  $l$  as in Eq. (16),

$$1326 \quad p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}) = \sum_{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)}} q(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t)}^{(0)}) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{(1:L), (0:t-1)}^{(0)}).$$

1329 The reverse process factorizes across layers because each layer produces its own categorical transition  
1330 from step  $s$  to  $s-1$ . However, the transition probabilities themselves are not independent: they  
1331 depend on the shared cross-layer attention weights computed from the predicted coupling graph  $G_t^{(C)}$ .  
1332 Thus, each layer's reverse update incorporates information from all other layers before generating its  
1333 own transition. This design cleanly separates (1) how information flows across layers (attention) and  
1334 (2) how categorical diffusion is applied per layer (reverse transition), making the derivation tractable  
1335 while still capturing rich cross layer co-evolution.

## 1336 G DENOISING NETWORK ARCHITECTURE

1338 By exploiting the cross-layer coupling graph  $G_t^{(C)}$ , we simultaneously introduce the notion of **intra-**  
1339 **layer** denoising and **inter-layer** denoising. The former reconstructs the intra-layer structure by  
1340 learning its distribution via a denoising network with  $G_t^{(C)}$  learned from a cross-layer correlation  
1341 predictor as a condition (detailed later). The latter models the relationships between distinct layers  
1342 by considering the correlations between different layers in  $G_t^{(C)}$ . Specifically, to generate  $\hat{G}$ , it  
1343 is necessary to consider their intra-layer graph ( $G_l, G_m$ ) and cross-layer coupling graph ( $G_t^{(C)}$ )  
1344 as conditions in the reverse denoising process so that  $\hat{G}_{(l,m),t}$  can be generated by considering  
1345  $G_{l,t}, G_{m,t}$  and the correlation between them through the cross-layer correlation predictor.

1347 As illustrated in Figure 5, we extract the encoded embeddings from  $\mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}$  to capture the dynamics  
1348 from  $\mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}$  via the encoder (detailed in Figure 6a) equipped with a self-attention mechanism  
1349 (detailed in Figure 7a). Then we follow (Vignac et al., 2023) to build the decoder (detailed in  
Figure 6b) with a cross-attention mechanism (detailed in Figure 7b) by extracting structural and

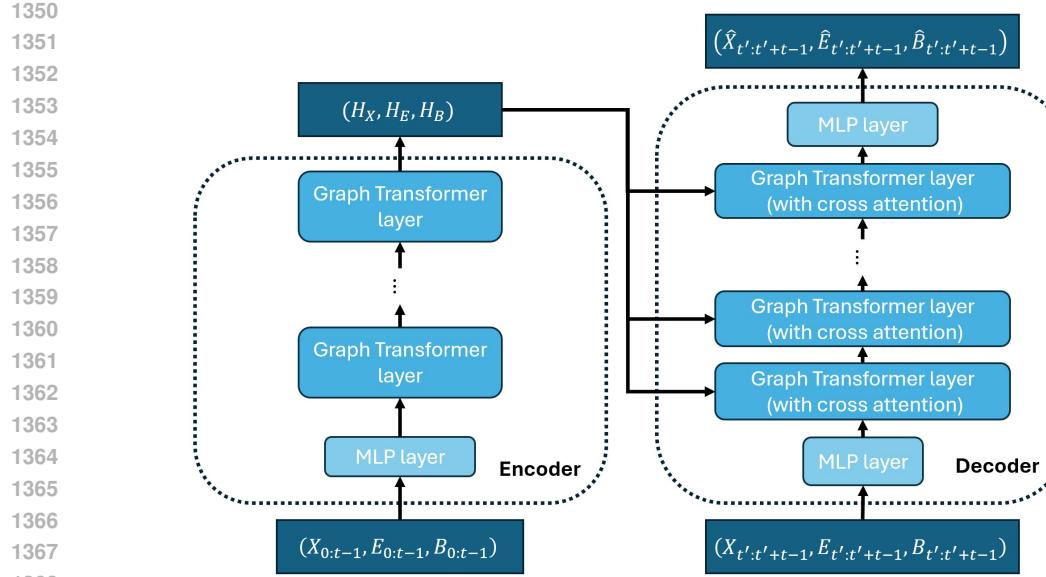


Figure 5: Denoising network architecture.

spectral features of noisy graphs  $\mathbb{G}_{t:T}^{(s)} = (\{\mathbf{X}_{l,(t:T)}^{(s)}, \mathbf{E}_{l,(t:T)}^{(s)}\}_{l=1}^L, \{\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),(t:T)}^{(s)}\}_{l \neq m})$  at diffusion step  $s$  during timestamps  $t$  to  $T$ , which are then processed by an MLP layer and graph transformer layers with cross attention (detailed in Figure 7b). Then the denoised graph can be derived by exploiting the following prediction results from the noisy graphs  $\mathbb{G}_{t:T}^{(s)}$  and embeddings  $\mathbf{X}_{l,(t:T)}^{(0)}$ ,  $\mathbf{E}_{l,(t:T)}^{(0)}$ , and  $\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),(t:T)}^{(0)}$ , of snapshots from timestamp  $t$  to  $T$  by the denoising network into the result derived from Theorem 4.2

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}}_{l,t}^{(0)} = \phi_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{X}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, s), \hat{\mathbf{E}}_{l,t}^{(0)} = \phi_{\theta}(\mathbf{E}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{E}_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, s), \hat{\mathbf{B}}_{(l,m),t}^{(0)} = \phi_{\theta}(\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, s),$$

which are plugged into Eq. (10) to denoise noisy graphs.

**Intra-layer denoising.** By extending Eq. (10), the intra-layer denoising process for each layer  $l$  can be derived from the following marginalization.

$$p_{\theta}(G_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | G_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)}) = \sum_{G_{l,t}^{(0)}} q(G_{l,t}^{(s-1)} | G_{l,t}^{(s)}, G_{l,(0:t-1)}^{(0)}) p_I(G_{l,t}^{(0)} | G_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)}), \quad (22)$$

where  $p_I$  can be learned by training a denoising network to predict  $G_{l,t}^{(0)}$  from  $G_{l,t}^{(s)}$ ,  $\mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)}$  with the assistance of a cross-layer coupling graph  $G_t^{(C)}$  by marginalization over the edges  $(l, m)$  incident to node  $l$  in the cross-layer coupling graph (i.e., layers connecting to  $l$ )

$$p_I(G_{l,t}^{(0)} | G_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)}) = \sum_{(l,m) \in E(G_t^{(C)})} \hat{p}_I(G_{l,t}^{(0)} | G_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)}, G_t^{(C)}) \hat{p}_C(G_t^{(C)} | G_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)})$$

with  $\hat{p}_I$  learned by training a denoising network to predict  $G_{l,t}^{(0)}$  from  $G_{l,t}^{(s)}$ ,  $\mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)}$  and  $G_t^{(C)}$ , and  $\hat{p}_C$  learned by training a neural network-based cross-layer correlation predictor to predict the link in  $G_t^{(C)}$  from  $G_{l,t}^{(s)}$ ,  $\mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)}$ , addressing the need for cross-layer correlation that is not supported in existing static and dynamic graph generators.

**Inter-layer denoising.** The reverse denoising process of inter-layer edges  $\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}$  can be derived through marginalization (extended from Eq. (10)):

$$p(\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)}) = \sum_{\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(0)}} q(\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s-1)} | \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}) p_B(\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{0:t-1}^{(0)}), \quad (23)$$

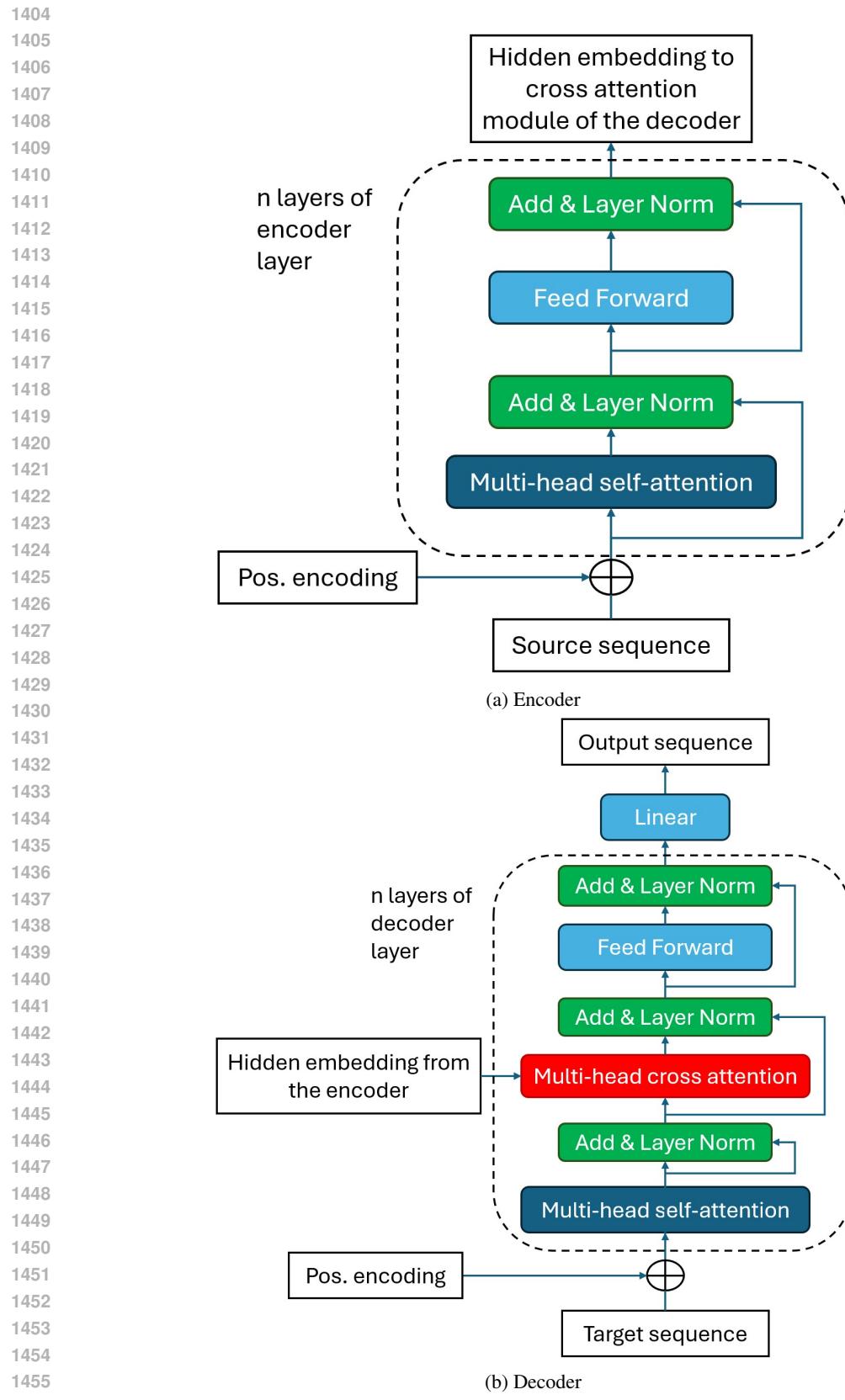


Figure 6: Detailed architectures of the encoder and decoder.

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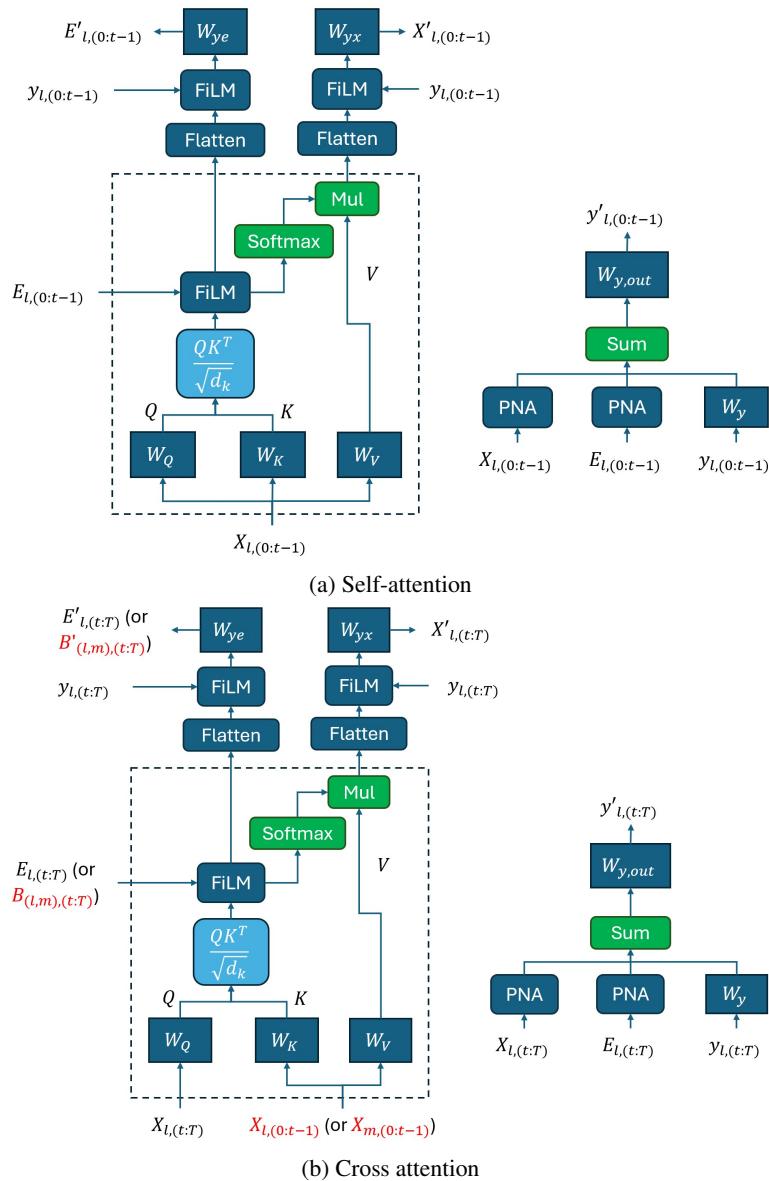


Figure 7: Detailed architectures of each module.

1512 where  $p_B$  can be learned by training a denoising network, considering  $\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}$ ,  $\mathbb{G}_{(0:t-1)}^{(0)}$ , and the  
 1513 cross-layer coupling graph  $G_t^{(C)}$  as conditions to predict  $\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(0)}$  by the following marginalization:  
 1514  
 1515  $p_B(\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{(0:t-1)}^{(0)})$   
 1516  $= \sum_{(G_{l,t}^{(0)}, G_{m,t}^{(0)})} \left[ \hat{p}_B(\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(0)} | \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, (G_{l,t}^{(0)}, G_{m,t}^{(0)})) \cdot \hat{p}_I((G_{l,t}^{(0)}, G_{m,t}^{(0)}) | \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{(0:t-1)}^{(0)}) \right],$   
 1517  
 1518  $\hat{p}_I((G_{l,t}^{(0)}, G_{m,t}^{(0)}) | \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{(0:t-1)}^{(0)})$   
 1519  $= \tilde{p}_I((G_{l,t}^{(0)}, G_{m,t}^{(0)}) | \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, (l, m) \in E(G_t^{(C)})) \cdot \tilde{p}_C((l, m) \in E(G_t^{(C)}) | \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{(0:t-1)}^{(0)})$   
 1520  
 1521  $+ \tilde{p}_I((G_{l,t}^{(0)}, G_{m,t}^{(0)}) | \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{(0:t-1)}^{(0)}, (l, m) \notin E(G_t^{(C)})) \cdot \tilde{p}_C((l, m) \notin E(G_t^{(C)}) | \mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{(0:t-1)}^{(0)}),$   
 1522  
 1523 with  $\tilde{p}_I$  learned by a denoising network to predict the structure of layers  $l$  and  $m$  from  
 1524  $\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{(0:t-1)}^{(0)}$  and  $\tilde{p}_C$  learned by the cross-layer predictor to predict whether there is any corre-  
 1525 lation between layers  $l$  and  $m$  at timestamp  $t$  from  $\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}, \mathbb{G}_{(0:t-1)}^{(0)}$ .  
 1526  
 1527

1528 As illustrated in Figure 5, the cross-layer correlation-aware denoising network  $\phi_\theta^{(C)}$  is con-  
 1529 structed by dividing a noisy multiplex graph  $\mathbb{G}_t^{(s)}$  into intra-layer ( $\{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}^{(s)}, \mathbf{E}_{l,t}^{(s)}\}_{l=1}^L$ ) and inter-layer  
 1530 ( $\{\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),t}^{(s)}\}_{l \neq m}$ ) parts. The encoder part remains the same with using only temporal information. As  
 1531 for the decoder, we process the intra-layer part with the cross-attention layer using the output of the  
 1532 encoder from each layer  $l$  in previous snapshots  $G_{l,(0:t-1)}$  as the input of keys and values, and the  
 1533 target sequence  $G_{l,(t:T)}$  for the corresponding layer  $l$  as the query. The inter-layer part is processed  
 1534 by using the output of the encoder from different layers  $m \neq l$  in previous snapshots  $G_{m,(0:t-1)}$  as  
 1535 the input of keys and values, and the target sequence  $G_{l,(t:T)}$  for the corresponding layer  $l$  as the  
 1536 query, to predict the inter-layer links  $\mathbf{B}_{(l,m),(t:T)}$  from the intra-layer graph and cross-layer coupling  
 1537 graph.  
 1538

## H DETAILS OF BEHAVIOR-AWARE GUIDANCE

### H.1 KURAMOTO-BASED SYNCHRONIZATION MEASURE

1542 To quantify the synchronization level of a node attribute associated with a user  $i$  at a specific time  
 1543 and layer, we adopt the *Kuramoto order parameter* (De Domenico, 2023; Danziger et al., 2019) as a  
 1544 continuous-phase descriptor, measured by the degree of phase coherence among nodes with the  $m$ -th  
 1545 attribute in layer  $l$  at time  $t$ :

$$1546 \quad 1547 \quad R_m^{(l)}(t) = \left| \frac{1}{N_t^{(l)}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_t^{(l)}} e^{j \cdot \theta_{i,m}^{(l)}} \right|, \quad (24)$$

1548 where  $j$  is the imaginary unit and  $N_t^{(l)}$  is the number of nodes in layer  $l$  at time  $t$ .

1549 Since this measure operates in the angular domain, we first normalize and project the  $m$ -th raw  
 1550 attribute value  $a_m = \mathbf{x}_{l,t}^{(0)}[i, m], \forall m = 1, \dots, M$  of node  $i$  in layer  $l$  at timestamp  $t$  onto the unit  
 1551 circle:  
 1552

$$1553 \quad 1554 \quad \theta_{i,m}^{(l)}(t) = \pi \cdot \frac{(\mathbf{x}_{l,t}^{(0)}[i, m] - \min_j \mathbf{x}_{l,t}^{(0)}[j, m])}{(\max_j \mathbf{x}_{l,t}^{(0)}[j, m] - \min_j \mathbf{x}_{l,t}^{(0)}[j, m])}. \quad (25)$$

1556 To clarify the motivation for behavior-aware guidance, we provide an illustrative example in Figure 8  
 1557 inspired by the dynamics of real social platforms such as Instagram or X. These platforms support  
 1558 multiple interaction types—most notably repost/share and reply/comment—and each interaction  
 1559 has a directional nature. When user  $A$  reposts user  $B$ ’s post,  $A$ ’s active repost count increases, and  
 1560  $B$ ’s passive repost count increases. The same active/passive semantics apply to replies. Such data  
 1561 naturally form a temporal multiplex network, where

- 1562 • each layer corresponds to an interaction type (e.g., repost vs. reply).
- 1563 • each attribute corresponds to the direction of participation (active vs. passive activity).

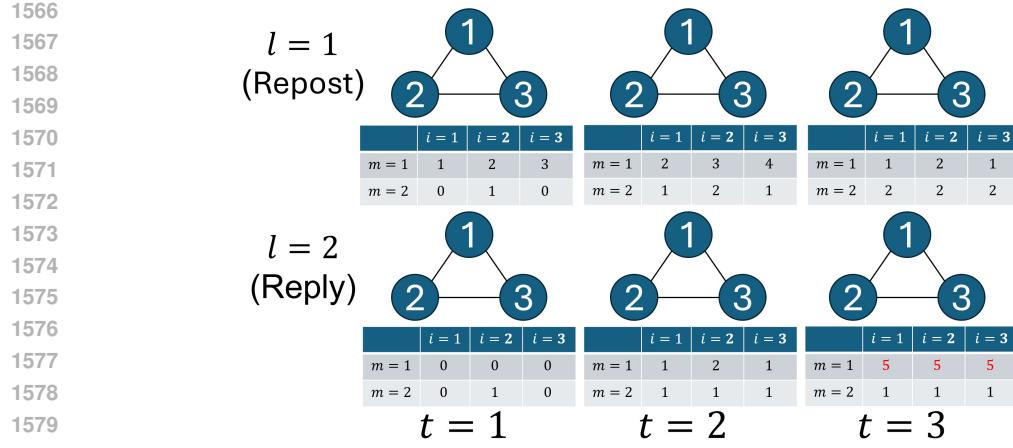


Figure 8: Illustrative example of behavior-aware guidance.

This representation reflects the fact that user behavior is usually not uniform across interactions: frequent reposters may rarely reply, and vice versa.

Consider a common scenario on Instagram. A brand plans a giveaway and instructs its followers: Before the giveaway opens ( $t = 1, 2$ ), followers are encouraged to repost the promotional poster to inform their friends. This produces moderately elevated repost activity across the network—users amplify the message but not explosively. At the giveaway time ( $t = 3$ ): The brand announces, “Leave a comment on our post now for a chance to win!” Suddenly, a large number of users reply at exactly the same moment, producing a sharp, collective surge—an explosive synchronization event—in the reply layer. Importantly, the reply activity at earlier times does not show strong pre-burst signs, even though the repost layer has already become active due to brand promotion. This pattern—one interaction channel warming up while another exhibits a sudden synchronized burst—is extremely common across real social platforms.

To make this concrete, we consider three nodes  $i = 1, 2, 3$  connecting with one another, two layers: repost ( $l = 1$ ) and reply ( $l = 2$ ), and two directional activity attributes: active ( $m = 1$ ) and passive ( $m = 2$ ). We construct a minimal temporal sequence of interaction records  $\mathbf{x}_{l,t}[i, m]$  (e.g.,  $\mathbf{x}_{1,2}[3, 1] = 5$  is the frequency of active ( $m = 1$ ) repost ( $l = 1$ ) at  $t = 2$ ) that is consistent with the above scenario:

$$\mathbf{x}_{1,1}[i, 1] = [1, 2, 3]; \mathbf{x}_{1,2}[i, 1] = [2, 3, 4]; \mathbf{x}_{1,3}[i, 1] = [1, 2, 1],$$

representing moderately elevated active reposts during brand promotion.

Passive reposts are also moderately elevated:

$$\mathbf{x}_{1,1}[i, 2] = [0, 1, 0]; \mathbf{x}_{1,2}[i, 2] = [1, 2, 1]; \mathbf{x}_{1,3}[i, 2] = [2, 2, 2].$$

For the reply layer, the pre-event active reply activity is low:

$$\mathbf{x}_{2,1}[i, 1] = [0, 0, 0]; \mathbf{x}_{2,2}[i, 1] = [1, 2, 1],$$

but when the giveaway opens at  $t = 3$ , users synchronously comment:  $\mathbf{x}_{2,3}[i, 1] = [5, 5, 5]$ .

Passive replies are similarly stable:

$$\mathbf{x}_{2,1}[i, 2] = [0, 1, 0]; \mathbf{x}_{2,2}[i, 2] = [1, 1, 1]; \mathbf{x}_{2,3}[i, 2] = [1, 1, 1].$$

Thus, the repost layer shows early promotional activity at  $t = 2$ , while the reply layer exhibits a sudden burst at  $t = 3$ , mimicking the real behavior observed on social platforms during time-sensitive events. This example highlights that collective temporal behavior, such as event-driven synchronous reply bursts, cannot be captured by structure-only generators. Traditional models replicate edges, degrees, and multiplex topology but fail to reproduce: 1) burst intensity and 2) cross-interaction causal influence (repost  $\rightarrow$  reply burst).

1620 Thus, behavior-aware guidance is essential for generating temporal multiplex networks that faithfully  
 1621 preserve how users behave over time—not just their connections with one another.  
 1622

## 1623 H.2 HYSTERESIS

1624 In dynamic social networks, hysteresis refers to the phenomenon where a system’s state evolution  
 1625 is path-dependent (De Domenico, 2023; Danziger et al., 2019), which implies that the current state  
 1626 of a network does not immediately return to its original state even after external driving factors  
 1627 (e.g., attention and engagement stimuli) are removed or after a phenomenon of state change (such as  
 1628 explosive synchronization) ends. Such a phenomenon particularly plays a crucial role in the dynamics  
 1629 of temporal attributes, in which the lagging inertia of user behaviors or sentiments is revealed after  
 1630 explosive changes. For instance, even when the initial stimuli subside, there still exists a sustained  
 1631 high activity following a viral trend.

1632 To capture such a behavioral effect in generated networks, we design a hysteresis-aware regularization  
 1633 based on global synchronization descriptors derived from the Kuramoto-based synchronization  
 1634 measure. Specifically, the Kuramoto-based synchronization measure quantifies synchronization  
 1635 among node attributes (e.g., engagement levels) as a function of  $\theta_{i,m}^{(l)}$  in Eq. (25). During hysteresis,  
 1636 the Kuramoto order parameter in Eq. (24) exhibits a bistable loop—the trajectory during increasing  
 1637  $\theta_{i,m}^{(l)}(t)$  (forward) diverges from the trajectory during decreasing  $\theta_{i,m}^{(l)}(t)$  (backward). To this end, we  
 1638 formulate the hysteresis-aware regularization term as follows:

$$1639 \mathcal{L}_{\text{hyst}} = -|R_{m,f} - R_{m,b}|, \quad (26)$$

1640 where  $R_{m,f}(t)$  and  $R_{m,b}(t)$  exhibit the trajectories of increasing and decreasing values of  $\theta_{i,m}^{(l)}(t)$ ,  
 1641 respectively:

$$1643 R_{m,f}(t) = \sum_{t: \Delta R_m^{(l)}(t) > 0} R_m^{(l)}(t); R_{m,b}(t) = \sum_{t: \Delta R_m^{(l)}(t) < 0} R_m^{(l)}(t).$$

1644 This loss encourages the generated graph sequences to exhibit non-reversible dynamics consistent  
 1645 with real-world social hysteresis.

## 1646 H.3 ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE SHOWING BEHAVIOR-AWARE GUIDANCE

1647 Motivated by the above observation from Figure 8, we follow the Kuramoto model to define the  
 1648 phase angle of the  $m$ -th attribute of each node  $i$  in layer  $l$  at timestamp  $t$  by using the attribute value  
 1649  $\mathbf{x}_{l,t}^{(0)}[i, m]$  of the  $m$ -th attribute (e.g., the frequency of delivering reposts) of each node  $i$  in layer  $l$  at  
 1650 timestamp  $t$  in Eq. (25).

1651 We map these activity levels of active ( $m = 1$ ) reply ( $l = 2$ ) to Kuramoto phases as follows:

$$1652 \theta_{1,1}^{(2)}(1) = \theta_{2,1}^{(2)}(1) = \theta_{3,1}^{(2)}(1) = 0; \\ 1653 \theta_{1,1}^{(2)}(2) = \pi \cdot \frac{1-1}{2-1} = 0; \theta_{2,1}^{(2)}(2) = \pi \cdot \frac{2-1}{2-1} = \pi; \theta_{3,1}^{(2)}(2) = \pi \cdot \frac{1-1}{2-1} = 0; \\ 1654 \theta_{1,1}^{(2)}(3) = \theta_{2,1}^{(2)}(3) = \theta_{3,1}^{(2)}(3) = 0,$$

1655 which yields dispersed phases at  $t = 1$ , perfectly aligned phases at the burst time  $t = 2$ , and dispersed  
 1656 phases again at  $t = 3$ .

1657 Then we denote the synchronization degree  $R_m^{(l)}(t)$  of the  $m$ -th attribute in interaction layer  $l$  at  
 1658 timestamp  $t$  by following Kuramoto model  $R_m^{(l)}(t) = \left| \frac{1}{N_t^{(l)}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_t^{(l)}} e^{j \cdot \theta_{i,m}^{(l)}(t)} \right|$  (Eq. (24)), which  
 1659 quantifies collective phase coherence: values near 1 indicate that many nodes occupy nearly the same  
 1660 behavioral stage, whereas values near 0 reflect dispersed or uncoordinated behavior. To observe  
 1661 the explosive synchronization, we calculate the corresponding variance with Eq. (19) in Sec. 4.2.3  
 1662 accordingly to obtain

$$1663 R_1^{(2)}(1) = |\frac{1}{3}(1+1+1)| = 1, R_1^{(2)}(2) = |\frac{1}{3}(1-1+1)| = 1/3, R_1^{(2)}(3) = |\frac{1}{3}(1+1+1)| = 1,$$

1664 whose first-order differences  $\Delta R_1^{(2)}(1) = 1/3 - 1 = -2/3$ ,  $\Delta R_1^{(2)}(2) = 1 - 1/3 = 2/3$ , and  
 1665  $\Delta R_1^{(2)}(3) = 0$  produce a large variance  $\text{Var}_1^{(2)} = \frac{1}{3-1} [(-2/3)^2 + (2/3)^2] = 4/9$  by Eq. (19) in  
 1666 Sec. 4.2.3, capturing a strong explosive-synchronization phenomenon of active reply.

1667 The calculation results of the variances in all layers and attributes are listed in Table 6. From the  
 1668

1674 Table 6: Variance calculation in the illustrative example.  
1675

Layer $l$	Attribute $m$	$R_m^{(l)}(t)$ ( $t = 1, 2, 3$ )	$\Delta R_m^{(l)}(t)$ ( $t = 1, 2$ )	$Var_m^{(l)}$
1	1	{1/3, 1/3, 1/3}	{0, 0}	0
1	2	{1/3, 1/3, 1}	{0, +2/3}	1/9
2	1	{1, 1/3, 1}	{-2/3, +2/3}	4/9
2	2	{1/3, 1, 1}	{+2/3, 0}	1/9

1681 above results, since the variance  $Var_1^{(2)}$  in active reply behaviors is the largest among all behavior  
1682 types, we observe that the explosive synchronization phenomenon of active reply behaviors is strong.  
1683

1684 To observe the hysteresis phenomenon, we follow the above example and observe that the rising and  
1685 falling trajectories of active ( $m = 1$ ) reply ( $l = 2$ ) differ ( $R_{1,f} = R_1^{(2)}(2) = 1/3, R_{1,b} = R_1^{(2)}(3) =$   
1686  $1 \Rightarrow |R_{m,f} - R_{b,f}| = 1 - 1/3 = 2/3$ ), indicating a clear hysteresis gap. The values of  $|R_{m,f} - R_{b,f}|$   
1687 in all layers and attributes are calculated in the following Table 7.

1688 Table 7: Hysteresis calculation in the illustrative example.  
1689

Layer $l$	Attribute $m$	$R_m^{(l)}(t)$ ( $t = 1, 2, 3$ )	$\Delta R_m^{(l)}(t)$ ( $t = 1, 2$ )	$ R_{m,f} - R_{m,b} $
1	1	{1/3, 1/3, 1/3}	{0, 0}	0
1	2	{1/3, 1/3, 1}	{0, +2/3}	1
2	1	{1, 1/3, 1}	{-2/3, +2/3}	2/3
2	2	{1/3, 1, 1}	{+2/3, 0}	1

## 1695 H.4 MORE DISCUSSIONS

1696 **Rationale for using a temporal multiplex representation.** We clarify that multiplexity is not re-  
1697 quired, but is a natural and effective modeling choice when the underlying system involves interacting  
1698 contexts. While explosive synchronization and hysteresis can arise on non-multiplex graphs, our  
1699 motivation for adopting temporal multiplex graphs follows (De Domenico, 2023; Danziger et al.,  
1700 2019), which emphasize that many real systems exhibiting such behaviors unfold across multiple  
1701 interacting contexts (e.g., different social platforms). In such settings, single-layer representations  
1702 often collapse cross-context dependencies that critically shape the resulting dynamics, making it  
1703 difficult for a generative model to preserve behavior. Temporal multiplex graphs, by contrast, offer an  
1704 explicit structure for representing interdependence, competition, and asymmetry across layers, which  
1705 better preserves the mechanisms driving explosive synchronization and hysteresis.  
1706

1707 **Clarification that no alignment is required.** We clarify that we use the Kuramoto order parameter  
1708 purely as a phase-coherence descriptor without simulating continuous-time Kuramoto dynamics;  
1709 therefore, no alignment between oscillator time and graph timestamps is required. To make behavior  
1710 guidance computationally feasible inside the diffusion steps, we compute the Kuramoto order  
1711 parameter snapshot-wise by projecting node attributes to phases, rather than simulating continuous-  
1712 time Kuramoto dynamics. This avoids the substantial computational and implementation complexity  
1713 that full Kuramoto ODE simulation would require, and keeps the guidance practical for long temporal  
1714 sequences. In addition, our formulation avoids any assumptions about timescales. Since the order  
1715 parameter is computed independently for each snapshot, there is no continuous oscillator time variable  
1716 that must be aligned with the discrete timestamps of the temporal graph.  
1717

1718 **Spectral properties for behavior guidance.** We also discuss the usage of spectral properties for  
1719 behavior guidance, following the multiplex-spectral framework (Berner et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2024).  
1720 The idea is fully compatible with our formulation, and the spectral quantities such as grounded  
1721 supra-Laplacian eigenvalues (Liu et al., 2024) in and spectral heterogeneity in (Berner et al., 2021)  
1722 can naturally serve as behavior descriptors within our behavior-aware guidance mechanism.  
1723

- 1724 • Pinning-control spectral theory in (Liu et al., 2024) provides grounded supra-Laplacian  
1725 eigenvalues such as  $\lambda_1(\tilde{L})$  which quantify the structural tendency of a multiplex network to  
1726 sustain or resist coherent states. A derived index such as  $1/\lambda_1(\tilde{L})$  can be directly inserted  
1727 into the behavior-aware loss as a structural guidance signal.  
1728
- 1729 • Multiplex decomposition and generalized master stability analysis in (Berner et al., 2021)  
1730 offer mode-wise stability parameters  $\psi_i$  derived from the supra-Laplacian spectrum. Their  
1731

1728 Table 8: Complexity comparison between MulDyDiff and baselines.  
1729

Model/Algorithm	Parameter count
MulDyDiff (Ours)	$O(Sl(nd_x + n^2d_e))$
MoDiff (Xu & Ma, 2025)	$O(kn^2 + Sln^2d)$
DAMNETS (Clarkson et al., 2022)	$O(Tnd)$
DYMOND (Zeno et al., 2021)	$O(n^3T)$
TagGen (Zhou et al., 2020)	$O(n^2T^2)$
AGE (Fan & Huang, 2020)	$O(n^2dl)$

1737 Table 9: Multi-layer temporal social network dataset statistics.  
1738

Dataset	# layers	# nodes	# edges
Wiki-vote	4	7.1K	103K
Twitter	3	456K	14M
Superuser	3	194K	1.44M

1743 distribution (e.g.,  $\text{Var}_i(\psi_i)$ ) characterizes spectral heterogeneity across modes and can  
1744 likewise be integrated as a structural behavior descriptor.  
1745

1746 These spectral quantities serve as structural indicators that enrich the behavioral information available  
1747 to the diffusion process. Our formulation of behavior guidance does not require any modifications to  
1748 accommodate these spectral terms, and their inclusion naturally broadens the range of behaviors that  
1749 can be captured.

## I COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS

1752 The parameter counts of MulDyDiff and the baselines are presented in Table 8. MulDyDiff requires  
1753  $O(Sl(nd_x + n^2d_e))$  to process graph snapshots (in parallel with the graph transformer architecture),  
1754 where  $S$  denotes the number of diffusion steps;  $l$  denotes the number of (graph) transformer layers;  
1755  $n$  denotes the number of nodes;  $d_x$  denotes the number of node attributes;  $d_e$  denotes the number  
1756 of edge attributes. MoDiff (Xu & Ma, 2025) requires  $O(n^2)$  for Hermitian encoding,  $O(kn^2)$  to  
1757 perform spectral decomposition with  $k$  eigenvalues selected, and  $O(Sln^2d)$  for a  $l$ -layer GCN model  
1758 denoising a  $d$ -dimensional features of  $n$  nodes with  $S$  diffusion steps. DAMNETS (Clarkson et al.,  
1759 2022) requires  $O(n)$  to process an adjacency row for each of  $T$  snapshots, and each node has a  
1760  $d$ -dimensional embedding. DYMOND (Zeno et al., 2021) requires  $O(n^3T)$  to scan 3-node motifs  
1761 in each of  $T$  snapshots. TagGen (Zhou et al., 2020) requires  $O(n^2T^2)$  to process random-walk  
1762 sequences of length  $T$  with bi-level self-attention. AGE (Fan & Huang, 2020) requires  $O(n^2dl)$  for  $l$   
1763 self-attention layers in the encoder. Although DAMNETS has lower complexity than MulDyDiff,  
1764 DAMNETS is insufficient to capture cross-layer dependency and graph-level behaviors.

1765 The complexity of processing a graph snapshot is  $O(Sl(nd_x + n^2d_e))$ , where  $S$  denotes the number  
1766 of diffusion steps;  $l$  denotes the number of (graph) transformer layers;  $n$  denotes the number of nodes;  
1767  $d_x$  denotes the number of node attributes;  $d_e$  denotes the number of edge attributes. To reduce the  
1768 overhead for scaling to very large network datasets, we process the layers in parallel with cross-layer  
1769 attention mechanism according to the weights determined by cross-layer predictor. In order to achieve  
1770 efficiency and avoid error propagation, we aggregate the past snapshots with dynamic transition  
1771 function to generate future snapshots according to clean previous snapshots instead of noisy ones  
1772 with a graph transformer architecture in parallel.

1773 Furthermore, the cross-layer attention mechanism in MulDyDiff can adopt sparse attention in con-  
1774 volutional transformer layers and message-passing with a random attention mechanism in (Qin et al.,  
1775 2025) to restrict attention to existing edges, reducing the time complexity of processing edges from  
1776  $O(ln^2d_e)$  to  $O(lmd_e)$ , where  $l$  denotes the number of (graph) transformer layers;  $n$  denotes the  
1777 number of nodes;  $m$  denotes the number of edges;  $d_e$  denotes the number of edge attributes.

## J EXPERIMENT SETTINGS

1780 **Details of the datasets.** The experiments are conducted on three real-world multiplex temporal  
1781 networks: 1) The Wiki-vote dataset (Leskovec et al., 2010) has 4 layers containing nominations and  
voting with 3 types of opinions (support/neutral/oppose). 2) The Twitter dataset (De Domenico et al.,

1782 Table 10: Hyperparameter settings.  
1783

1784 Hyperparameter	1785 Value
1785 Graph transformer layers	1786 6
1786 Batch size	1787 64
1787 Epochs	1788 50
1788 Learning rate	1789 0.2
1789 Weight decay	1790 $10^{-12}$
1790 Diffusion steps ( $S$ )	1791 1000
1791 $\bar{\alpha}_s$	1792 $\cos^2 [0.5\pi(\frac{s/S+p}{1+p})], p = 0.008$
1792 $\bar{\gamma}_s$	1793 $\eta\bar{\alpha}_s + (1 - \eta), \eta = 0.5$

1794 2013) has 3 layers, with each layer representing relationships of retweets, mentions, and sending  
1795 messages to others. 3) The Superuser dataset (Paranjape et al., 2017) also has 3 layers, with each  
1796 layer consisting of answering questions, commenting on questions, and commenting on answers. The  
1797 statistics of the datasets are presented in Table 9.

1798 **Input data preparation.** For each dataset, we sample 20% of the input dataset as the testing set, and  
1799 then we sample 80% of the remaining data as the training set and 20% of the remaining data as the  
1800 validation set. The batch size is 16 graphs per batch. Since the memory of a GPU card has a capacity  
1801 of around 1000 nodes, we sample 100 subgraphs with an average of 50 nodes for each layer in each  
1802 of the datasets.

1803 **Computing resources.** The experiments are conducted on a server equipped with 2 Intel(R) Xeon(R)  
1804 Gold 6154 @ 3.00 GHz CPUs, 8 NVIDIA Tesla V100 GPUs, and 720 GB RAM.

1805 **Metrics.** The usage of KS metrics is explained as follows.

1806 **KS metrics:** We choose KS metrics since it better captures local and global property changes of graph  
1807 sequences than MMD. According to Zeno et al. (2021), the importance of KS metrics for significant  
1808 graph property change detection lies in 1) assessing the discrepancy of the distributions between input  
1809 and generated graph sequences, 2) capturing individual behavior of each node and joint behavior of  
1810 all nodes in a graph snapshots, and 3) benefits in capturing variability or dispersion with KS tests on  
1811 inter-quartile range, in which the latter two cannot be achieved by MMD.

1812 **Per-layer degree/betweenness centrality distributions:** This metric measures the distributional fidelity  
1813 of degree and betweenness centrality via the KS distance. Matching these distributions verifies  
1814 whether the generator preserves the heterogeneity of roles within each layer (i.e., the relative proportions  
1815 of hubs, bridges, and peripheral nodes), which strongly influences temporal dynamics.

1816 **Cross-layer node-behavior distribution:** It is defined as the number of unique neighbors a node has  
1817 across all layers. This metric assesses whether the model accurately reproduces the heterogeneity of  
1818 cross-layer engagement, thereby complementing the per-layer centrality metrics.

1819 **Cross-layer random-walk reachability distribution:** This metric evaluates cross-layer, multi-hop  
1820 accessibility by the number of distinct nodes reachable within a fixed-length random walk. It tests  
1821 whether the generator preserves higher-order structural connectivity beyond direct neighbors.

1822 **Parameter settings.** The hyperparameter settings used to derive the main results are listed in Table 10.  
1823 We train the denoising network, which consists of 6 graph transformer layers, for 50 epochs with the  
1824 Adam optimizer, in which the learning rate is set to 0.2, and the weight decay is set to  $10^{-12}$ . The  
1825 number of steps in the proposed models is set to 1000.

## 1826 K ADDITIONAL EXPERIMENT RESULTS

### 1827 K.1 MMD RESULTS

1828 Table 11 presents the evaluation results of MulDyDiff compared with the baselines on Wiki-vote,  
1829 Twitter and Superuser. On the Wiki-vote dataset, MulDyDiff outperforms most baselines including  
1830 MoDiff in almost all metrics since MulDyDiff jointly considers structural and attribute changes. In  
1831 contrast, since MoDiff primarily focuses on analyzing motif structure changes with spectral values, it  
1832 does not perform well in most cases. However, there is no model with consistent outperformance in  
1833 1834 1835

1836 Table 11: Comparative study results on MMD metrics.  
1837

	Data/Model	degree ( $\downarrow$ )	spectral ( $\downarrow$ )
Wiki-vote	AGE	0.5145	0.3395
	DAMNET	0.3904	0.6162
	TagGen	0.6365	0.4231
	DYMOND	0.5384	0.3069
	MoDiff	0.9919	0.4127
	MulDyDiff	0.3676	0.3214
	AGE	0.2000	0.1607
Twitter	DAMNET	0.3123	0.1895
	TagGen	0.5624	0.2702
	DYMOND	0.3132	0.1536
	MoDiff	1.0128	0.6621
	MulDyDiff	0.4062	0.3402
	AGE	0.3670	0.1345
	DAMNET	0.2919	0.1729
Superuser	TagGen	0.4420	0.1965
	DYMOND	0.2461	0.1040
	MoDiff	0.9396	0.2255
	MulDyDiff	0.3389	0.3023
	AGE	0.3670	0.1345
	DAMNET	0.2919	0.1729
	TagGen	0.4420	0.1965

1855 Table 12: Ablation study results on Wiki-vote.  
1856

Component	KS-node behavior ( $\downarrow$ )	KS-RW ( $\downarrow$ )
Plain	1.0000	1.0000
Temporal	0.6953	0.2563
Cross-layer	0.8038	0.6000
Both	0.5430	0.2219

1861 the evaluated MMD metrics on all datasets, demonstrating that only using MMD is insufficient to  
1862 assess the effectiveness of multiplex dynamic graph generation.  
18631864 

## K.2 ABLATION STUDY

1865 To examine the model’s capability in handling multiplex dynamic networks, we compare the full  
1866 version of MulDyDiff with three variants: 1) *Plain*, which corresponds to static single-layer genera-  
1867 tion, omitting both temporal and cross-layer denoising; 2) *Temporal*, supporting dynamic single-layer  
1868 networks; 3) *Cross-layer*, capturing static multiplex structures.  
18691870 Table 12 demonstrates the results evaluated on Wiki-vote. MulDyDiff generally outperforms the  
1871 variants that consider only cross-layer correlations or temporal dynamics in terms of KS metrics  
1872 because it effectively addresses the joint considerations in both dimensions. Furthermore, on the Wiki-  
1873 vote dataset, temporal dynamics perform better than the plain ones, and considering both mechanisms  
1874 is superior to denoising with solely cross-layer correlation because attribute-aware and dynamic  
1875 transition-aware denoising effectively capture the evolution in structural and attribute information.  
1876 Without considering layer correlations and temporal dynamics, the plain variant performs the worst  
1877 in terms of almost all metrics.  
18781879 

## K.3 SENSITIVITY TESTS

1880 We conduct the sensitivity tests on Wiki-vote to evaluate the performance under various numbers  
1881 of model parameters, which are determined by the number of graph transformer layers, in Tables 13  
1882 and 14. From the results, we observe that the performance obtained with 2 to 6 graph transformer  
1883 layers is comparable, but an excessive number of graph transformer layers may deteriorate the  
1884 performance due to overfitting (Zhao et al., 2023). The advantages of MulDyDiff lie on the capability  
1885 of capturing cross-layer dependencies cross-layer coupling with graph-level behaviors with behavioral-  
1886 aware guidance instead of massive parameters.  
18871888 We conduct sensitivity tests on Wiki-vote dataset with various diffusion steps and present the execution  
1889 time of various diffusion steps in Table 15. From the above results, we observe that the training time  
1890 does not vary significantly since we adopt multi-step Markov transition matrices with a sampled  
1891 number  $s$  of diffusion steps in each iteration of the training phase. Since the denoising process  
1892 iterates in all steps, the sampling time slightly increases as the number of diffusion steps increases.  
1893

1890 Table 13: Sensitivity test with various numbers of graph transformer layers (part 1).  
1891

#GT-layers	MMD-degree	MMD-clustering	MMD-spectral	KS-node behavior	KS-random walk
2	0.3897	0.9233	0.3768	0.9140	0.6937
4	0.3764	1.0734	0.3721	0.9296	0.6843
6	0.3923	0.8955	0.3818	0.9218	0.6968
8	0.4166	1.1583	0.4117	0.9765	0.7281

1897 Table 14: Sensitivity test with various numbers of graph transformer layers (part 2).  
1898

#GT-layers	KS-page rank	KS-degree centrality	KS-betweenness centrality	KS-closeness centrality
2	0.5859	0.8281	0.6562	0.9140
4	0.5742	0.8710	0.6523	0.9335
6	0.5820	0.8398	0.6523	0.9218
8	0.5937	0.9609	0.6640	0.9765

1904 Nevertheless, since we generate a batch of graph sequences, processing each snapshot requires only a  
1905 few seconds, which is within the acceptable range.  
1906

1907 To examine the sensitivity of parameter  $\gamma_0$  in MulDyDiff, we conduct tests on Wiki-vote, Twitter,  
1908 and Superuser, and report the results in Table 16. In all three datasets, the KS metrics perform better  
1909 as  $\gamma_0$  increases, showing the importance of temporal transition dynamics in the diffusion process of  
1910 MulDyDiff.

1911 To examine the sensitivity of MulDyDiff to sequence length, we conduct tests on dynamic attributed  
1912 multiplex networks of varying lengths. We compare the training and sampling time of attribute-  
1913 aware dynamic transition-aware denoising, with and without cross-layer correlation-aware denoising,  
1914 to assess whether modeling inter-layer dependencies incurs additional time costs as sequences  
1915 grow longer. Table 17 presents the results on the Twitter dataset. The results manifest that jointly  
1916 considering temporal dynamics and cross-layer correlations is more scalable than using solely  
1917 dynamic transition-aware denoising when dealing with temporal sequences of multiplex graphs,  
1918 thanks to the parallel processing of the multiplex structure with the entire size distributed to each  
1919 of the layers. Table 18 reports the MMD metrics of MulDyDiff as the number of diffusion steps  
1920 increases on the Wiki-vote dataset. Table 19 presents the execution times of MulDyDiff in each  
1921 phase with various batch sizes on Wiki-vote and Twitter. Table 20 measures the memory usage of  
1922 MulDyDiff with various batch sizes on Wiki-vote and Twitter.

#### 1922 K.4 TRAINING SCALABILITY AND SAMPLING TIME

1924 To demonstrate the scalability of MulDyDiff, the results of the scalability tests on the Wiki-vote  
1925 dataset (with 4 layers) are presented in Table 21. From the results, we observe that MulDyDiff is able  
1926 to process graphs with 300 nodes per layer.

1927 Besides, Table 22 presents (1) the training time under various amounts of graph sequences with  
1928 different lengths extracted from the Wiki-vote, Twitter, and Superuser datasets over 50 training  
1929 epochs, and (2) the elapsed time for sampling approximately 1000 multiplex graph sequences of  
1930 various lengths. The results manifest that MulDyDiff scales well on both datasets since it processes  
1931 the intra-layer and inter-layer parts in parallel. Wiki-vote requires less time for training and sampling  
1932 than Twitter and Superuser, as graphs sampled from Twitter and Superuser instances have greater  
1933 density than those sampled from Wiki-vote.

#### 1934 L LLM USAGE

1936 We use ChatGPT to aid or polish writing, and debugging in our implementation.  
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1945

Table 15: Number of diffusion steps vs. training/sampling time on Wiki-vote.

#Diffusion steps	Training time (min.)	Sampling time (min./per batch)
250	79.118	18.406
500	75.787	18.251
750	77.665	21.021
1000	76.051	23.318

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Table 16: Sensitivity tests varying  $\gamma_0$ .

	Data/ $\gamma_0$	MMD-degree ( $\downarrow$ )	MMD-clustering ( $\downarrow$ )	MMD-spectral ( $\downarrow$ )	KS-node behavior ( $\downarrow$ )	KS-RW ( $\downarrow$ )
Wiki-vote	0.25	0.3644	1.2376	0.3407	0.7930	0.3375
	0.5	0.3954	1.2396	0.3312	0.7422	0.3344
	0.75	0.2209	0.2171	0.2860	0.8038	0.6000
	1.0	0.3689	1.1393	0.3321	0.6523	0.2469
Twitter	0.25	0.4073	0.9589	0.3361	0.7637	0.2734
	0.5	0.3867	1.1729	0.3104	0.5931	0.1979
	0.75	0.4222	0.7639	0.3233	0.6143	0.1493
	1.0	0.4062	0.9875	0.3402	0.5957	0.1172
Superuser	0.25	0.3630	1.1751	0.3266	0.6836	0.3016
	0.5	0.3577	1.3202	0.3155	0.6426	0.3125
	0.75	0.3323	1.1665	0.3067	0.5664	0.1750
	1.0	0.3389	1.0552	0.3023	0.5484	0.1684

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Table 17: Seq. length vs training/sampling time on Twitter.

Variation	Seq. length	Training (hr.)	Sampling (hr.)
with cross-layer	3	1.0184	0.9803
	4	1.4317	1.2201
	5	1.8044	1.5471
w/o cross-layer	3	1.3799	1.1472
	4	1.3355	1.5701
	5	1.6341	1.3075

1971

1972

Table 18: MMD vs. number of diffusion steps on Wiki-vote.

#steps	250	500	750	1000
Degree dist.	0.1713	0.2788	0.2627	0.2412
Clustering Coeff.	0.6319	0.7967	0.6443	0.8450
Spectral	0.1199	0.2030	0.1687	0.2001

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Table 19: Execution time (sec.) vs. batch size in different phases.

Data/Phase	32	64	128	256	
Wiki-vote	Training (per epoch)	88.7	44.4	25	14.2
	Validation (per epoch)	14.9	7.8	4.6	2.8
	Inference (per epoch)	26.6	19.6	13.1	13.2
	Sampling (per batch)	22.88	91.53	139.95	227.13
Twitter	Training (per epoch)	996.8	624.9	443.8	107.4
	Validation (per epoch)	113.6	58.9	34.5	19.6
	Inference (per epoch)	153	82.8	49.9	34
	Sampling (per batch)	132.88	231.55	410.96	761.73

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1995

Table 20: Memory usage (MiB) vs. batch size in different phases.

Dataset	32	64	128	256
Wiki-vote	476.19	720.49	1183	2116
Twitter	357.43	480.38	744	1209

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Table 21: Scalability test on Wiki-vote.

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2010

	Snapshot size (per layer)	Training time (hr.)
	50	1.0114
	70	1.5179
	100	5.7083
	300	5.9675

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Table 22: Training scalability and sampling time.

2035

Data/length		Training (min.)	Sampling (min.)
Wiki-vote	2	23.5871	26.9479
	4	34.9766	64.2513
	6	39.7568	108.4987
Twitter	2	54.8505	41.0588
	4	68.7585	55.0928
	6	79.9298	75.3005
Superuser	2	90.2640	63.2339
	4	104.6353	74.6572
	6	128.2297	99.5931

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