

Annual Progress Review

Thomas William Boughen



Newcastle University

School of Mathematics, Statistics and Physics

1 Intuition

2 Extremes

Since the aim is to gain understanding about the behaviour of the degree distribution of networks at the right tail, it seems natural to look to using methods from extreme value theory. However, networks by their nature are discrete and so it may not be best to be using methods that are usually used in relation to continuous random variables. For this reason, this section starts with a review of what theory exists for modelling the extreme values of continuous random variables before moving to details what can be used when instead considering discrete random variables as is the case for the degree distributions of random networks.

2.1 Continuous Extremes

Studying the properties of the right tail of the distribution of a continuous random variable, means that the focus is on the largest values that the random variable can take. So, a natural place to start is to consider the distribution of the block maxima of such a random variable. That is, for a set of iid random variables $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ with common cumulative density function (cdf) F what is the distribution of $M_n = \max\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$? This question is answered by the Fisher–Tippett–Gnedenko theorem [REF](#).

Theorem 2.1.1 (Extreme Value Theorem). *Let X_1, \dots, X_n be a sample of iid random variables with common cdf F with block maxima $M_n = \max\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ and suppose that there exists $a_n > 0, b_n \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\frac{1}{a_n}[M_n - b_n]) = G(x)$, then F is said to be in the domain of attraction of G , denoted $F \in \mathcal{D}(G)$, and G is of one of three types:*

- *Gumbel:* $\Lambda(x) = \exp\{-\exp(-x)\}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$
- *Fréchet:* $\Phi_\alpha(x) = \exp\{-x^{-\alpha}\}$, $x \geq 0, \alpha > 0$
- *Weibull:* $\Psi_\alpha(x) = \exp\{-x^{-\alpha}\}$, $x < 0, \alpha > 0$

While this is a useful result, it may prove difficult to find the sequences a_n, b_n in practice, so a simpler method to establish what domain of attraction a distribution belongs to would be nice. Luckily, this can be done through the concept of regular variation and is what will be used to define the domains of attraction and tail-heaviness through the rest of this report.

Definition 2.1.1 (Domains of Attraction). The distribution F belongs to the Fréchet domain of attraction $\mathcal{D}(\Phi_\alpha)$ if and only if its complement (the survival function) \bar{F} is regularly varying with index $-\alpha$ i.e.:

$$\bar{F}(x) = x^{-\alpha}L(x), \quad \text{for } L \text{ slowly varying}$$

A similar condition applies to the Weibull domain of attraction $\mathcal{D}(\Psi_\alpha)$ in that a distribution F belongs to the Weibull domain of attraction if and only if:

$$\bar{F}(x_F - x^{-1}) = x^{-\alpha}L(x), \quad \text{for } L \text{ slowly varying}$$

where x_F is the finite right endpoint of the support of F .

The condition for the Gumbel domain of attraction is not as simple, a distribution F belongs to the Gumbel domain if and only if there exists a positive function $a : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ and a $t \in \mathbb{R}$ such that:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_F} \frac{\bar{F}(x + ta(x))}{\bar{F}(x)} = e^{-t}$$

Throughout this report the term “heavy tailed” distribution will be used to describe any distribution in the Fréchet domain of attraction, although some of the literature refers to “heavy tailed” distributions as being the distributions that decay slower than the exponential.

At this point it will also be useful to introduce the concept of distributions that have super-heavy tails.

Definition 2.1.2 (Super Heavy Tails). [FIND SUPER HEAVY TAILS DEFINITION]

Additionally, if the survival function \bar{F} is slowly varying itself then F has super heavy tails i.e.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\bar{F}(tx)}{\bar{F}(x)} = 1, \forall t \in \mathbb{R}^+ \implies \text{super heavy tails}$$

It is possible to gather the main three types of extremal distributions into what is called the Generalised Extreme Value (GEV) distribution [REF].

Definition 2.1.3 (Generalised Extreme Value Distribution). Denoted by $\text{GEV}(\mu, \sigma, \xi)$ the distribution is characterised by three parameters $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ the location, $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}^+$ the scale, and the shape $\xi \in \mathbb{R}$. It has support on $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : 1 + \xi(x - \mu)/\sigma > 0\}$ and has cdf given by:

$$G(x) = \begin{cases} \exp \left\{ - \left(1 + \frac{\xi(x-\mu)}{\sigma} \right)^{-1/\xi} \right\}, & \xi \neq 0 \\ \exp \{ - \exp(-\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}) \}, & \xi = 0 \end{cases}$$

The three types of extremal distribution are obtained from changing the shape parameter ξ , which corresponds to $1/\alpha$ in the definition of the domains of attraction. This change is generally made so that increasing ξ corresponds to increasing how heavy the tails of the distribution are. So, $\xi < 0$ corresponds to the Weibull, $\xi > 0$ the Fréchet, and $\xi = 0$ the Gumbel.

While this is useful for modelling the distribution of block maxima of iid random variables, as seen in Section 1, the data in question appears to follow power law like behaviour for the bulk of the data and then changes to various different shapes above a certain threshold. For this reason, it is perhaps more appropriate to consider the distribution of threshold exceedances.

Definition 2.1.4 (Generalised Pareto Distribution). The Generalised Pareto (GP) distribution can be obtained by using the GEV distribution and conditional probability such that for large enough threshold the GP distribution approximately describes the conditional distribution of threshold exceedances. More precisely, for large enough threshold u and the change of variable to $Y = X - u$:

$$\Pr(Y \leq y | Y > 0) = H(y) = \begin{cases} 1 - \left(1 + \frac{\xi y}{\sigma} \right)^{-1/\xi}, & y > 0, \xi \neq 0 \\ 1 - \exp(-\frac{y}{\sigma}), & y > 0, \xi = 0 \end{cases}$$

Since this distribution was obtained using a $\text{GEV}(\mu, \sigma^*, \xi)$ the shape parameter ξ is identical in both distributions and the shape parameter σ is defined such that $\sigma = \sigma^* + \xi(u - \mu)$.

The vast majority of this theory is appropriate only for continuous data, and since the data being focused on is discrete, some results for discrete extremes should be introduced.

2.2 Discrete Extremes

Moving to modelling extremes in a discrete has the potential to cause some issues when describing how heavy the tails of a distribution are and what domain of attraction belongs to. For example, the exponential distribution belongs to the Gumbel domain $\mathcal{D}(\Lambda)$ but its discrete counterpart (the geometric distribution) does not belong to the Gumbel domain. So, care needs to be taken when attempting to discretise the results from Section 2.1.

Shimura (2012) provides conditions for a discrete distribution to belong to the domain of attraction. In particular the following theorem which corresponds to Theorem 1 in Shimura (2012).

Theorem 2.2.1 (Discrete Domains of Attraction).

- (a) Every discretisation of distribution in $\mathcal{D}(\Phi_\alpha)$ remains in $\mathcal{D}(\Phi_\alpha)$.
- (b) The discretisation of a distribution remains in $\mathcal{D}(\Lambda)$ if and only if the original is in $\mathcal{D}(\Lambda) \cap \mathcal{L}$.

Where \mathcal{L} is the set of long-tailed distributions that have the property:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\bar{F}(x+1)}{\bar{F}(x)} = 1$$

In addition to this theorem, Shimura also introduces a quantity that will become useful when deciding what domain of attraction a discrete distribution belongs to. In this report we will simply refer to it as the Omega function and is defined below:

Definition 2.2.1 (Omega Function). For a distribution F with survival function \bar{F} and some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ let:

$$\Omega(F, n) = \left(\log \frac{\bar{F}(n+1)}{\bar{F}(n+2)} \right)^{-1} - \left(\log \frac{\bar{F}(n)}{\bar{F}(n+1)} \right)^{-1}$$

This quantity will play an important role in Section 4 when determining what kinds of degree distributions different network generative models are expected to lead to.

Applying ideas from Section 2.1 to modelling discrete random variables has been approached from many different directions. What follows is an overview of some of the approaches that have been taken but will see use in this report.

One of the main issues when it comes to applying results from Section 2.1 to discrete data, is the discretisation of the GP distribution and making sure that it still maintains most of the same properties.

[AHMAD] introduces several ways to discretise the GP distribution including mixing the geometric distribution with a Gamma distribution, they also introduce an extended GP distribution (and its discretisation) which is obtained from a probability integral transform (PIT) of a distribution with support on $(0, 1)$. This is a modification of how the regular GP is obtained, which is from a PIT uniform distribution on $(0, 1)$.

Also considering mixtures, [VALIQUETTE] investigated the tail properties of Poisson mixtures and found that changing the mixing distribution changes the tail heaviness of the mixed distribution. They divided the domain of attraction of the mixing distribution into various subsets that lead to different tail behaviours, through the limit of the ratio of consecutive values of the survival function. These limits do help describe the tail behaviour of the resulting mixture but do not quite correspond to different domains of attraction.

The approach used in Section 4 will be very similar to the one taken in [ROHRBECK] with a minor change to the derivation, this will be explained in detail in Section 4.

3 Networks

Networks are the structures that will be the source of data that the results from Section 2 will be used to analyse. Networks appear across a wide range of fields when attempting to represent complex systems and the relationships between the components within, showing up in anything from micro-biology (e.g. protein interactions in cells) to sociology (e.g. the social network of Harvard graduates).

This makes networks a valuable source of data and understanding the mechanics of the network generation process can provide insights to the components themselves and into the networks future.

3.1 Mathematical Definitions

Networks on the face of it are fairly simple objects, nothing more than a collection of objects with connections between each other. Here, graphs constructed from vertices and edges will be used as an analogue for these networks.

Definition 3.1.1 (Graph/Network). A graph $G = (V, E)$ is constructed from a vertex set $V \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and an edge set E . The edge set can take on one of two forms depending on if the graph is directed or un-directed. If the graph is directed then $E \subseteq V^2$ i.e the edge set is contained within the set of ordered pairs of vertices, whereas if the graph is **un-directed** then $E \subseteq [V]^2$ i.e. the edge set is contained within the set of un-ordered pairs of vertices. The focus from now on will be on un-directed networks and graphs.

Throughout this section and the next the concept of a vertices “degree” will come up, and in fact the main focus of Section 4 is the degree distribution of networks.

Definition 3.1.2 (Degree). For an un-directed graph a vertex’s degree denoted $d(v)$ or k_v for $v \in V$ is the number of edges that are connected to vertex v :

$$d(v) = |\{e \in E : v \in e\}|$$

Directed graphs have something analogous, called the in-degree d_{in} , out-degree d_{out} and total degree d_{tot} . The in-degree of a vertex v is the number edges with endpoint at v , whereas the out-degree is the number of edges with start point at v and the total degree is the sum of these i.e.:

$$\begin{aligned} d_{in}(v) &= |\{(w_1, w_2) \in E : w_2 = v\}| \\ d_{out}(v) &= |\{(w_1, w_2) \in E : w_1 = v\}| \\ d_{tot}(v) &= d_{in}(v) + d_{out}(v) \end{aligned}$$

There are many reasons to analyse network like data, one of which is to gain an insight into the mechanics that governed the growth of the network. The next sub-section is focused on presenting several network generative models increasing in generality.

3.2 Network Generative Models

The models in this section are nested within one another, they all follow the same regiment that at each time-step a vertex is added to the network along with one or more edges that connect the new vertex to those already in the network.

Uniform Attachment (UA)

The first model dubbed the “uniform attachment model” is a simple model first presented in [UA REF] and is defined as follows:

Definition 3.2.1 (Uniform Attachment Model). Start with a graph $G_1 = (V_1, E_1) = (\{1, \dots, m_0\}, \emptyset)$, at each time step $t > 1$ the graph is denoted by $G_t = (V_t, E_t)$ and generated by repeating the following two steps:

1. **Growth:** Add a new vertex to the vertex set i.e.

$$V_t = V_{t-1} \cup \{t\}$$

2. **Attachment:** Add $m \leq m_0$ random edges between the new vertex and those already in the graph i.e.

$$E_t = E_{t-1} \cup \tilde{E}$$

where $\tilde{E} = \{\tilde{e}_1, \dots, \tilde{e}_m\}$ and $\tilde{e}_i = \{t, \tilde{v}_i\}$ and $\tilde{v}_i \sim U(V_{t-1})$.

Expected Degree Distribution

As showing in [REF] the expected degree distribution of this model for large values of t is:

$$f(k) = \frac{e}{m} \exp\left(-\frac{k}{m}\right), \quad k \geq m$$

Since this distribution has exponential form, it is in the Gumbel domain of attraction.

Barabási-Albert (BA)

This model defined in Barabási and Albert (1999) and also very closely related to the Yule-Simon process from [YS REF] changes the attachment mechanism from being purely uniform on the vertices already in the network to being random with a probability proportional to the degrees of the vertices in the network.

Definition 3.2.2 (Barabási-Albert Model). Starting with a graph $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ where $V_1 = \{1, \dots, m_0\}$ and $E_1 = \{\{v\} : v \in V_1\}$ i.e a graph with m_0 vertices with one self-loop each. At each time step $t > 1$ the graph denoted by $G_t = (V_t, E_t)$ is generated by repeating the following:

1. **Growth:** Add a new vertex to the vertex set i.e.

$$V_t = V_{t-1} \cup \{t\}$$

2. **Preferential Attachment:** Add $m \leq m_0$ edges between the new vertex and those already in the graph with probability proportional to each vertices degree i.e:

$$E_t = E_{t-1} \cup \tilde{E}$$

where $\tilde{E} = \{\tilde{e}_1, \dots, \tilde{e}_m\}$ and $\tilde{e}_i = \{t, \tilde{v}_i\}$ for $\tilde{v}_i \sim \text{Cat}(V_{t-1}, P)$

$$P = \left\{ \frac{d(v)}{\sum_{w \in V_{t-1}} d(w)} : v \in V_{t-1} \right\}$$

Expected Degree Distriubtion

In the same paper (Barabási and Albert (1999)) it was shown that for large values of t the expected degree distribution for this model is approximately:

$$f(k) = \frac{2m^2t}{m_0 + t} k^{-3} \approx 2m^2 k^{-3}, \quad k \geq m$$

This is clearly a regularly varying function and therefore in in the Fréchet domain of attraction $\mathcal{D}(\Phi_2)$.

General Preferential Attachment (GPA)

This model generalises the BA model by instead of attaching the new edges with a probability proportional to vertices' degrees, the new edges are attached with probability proportional to some function of the vertices' degrees.

Definition 3.2.3 (General Preferential Attachment Model). Starting with a graph $G_1 = (V_1, E_1) = (\{1, \dots, m_0\}, \emptyset)$, at each following time step $t > 1$ the graph is denoted by $G_t = (V_t, E_t)$ and is generated by repeating:

1. **Growth:** Add a new vertex to the vertex set i.e.

$$V_t = V_{t-1} \cup \{t\}$$

2. **Preferential Attachment:** Add $m \leq m_0$ edges connecting the new vertex to those already in the graph selected at random proportional to a function of their degree(minus one)¹ i.e.:

$$E_t = E_{t-1} \cup \tilde{E}$$

where $\tilde{E} = \{\tilde{e}_1, \dots, \tilde{e}_m\}$ and $\tilde{e}_i = \{t, \tilde{v}_i\}$ for $\tilde{v}_i \sim \text{Cat}(V_{t-1}, P)$

$$P = \left\{ \frac{g(k_v - 1)}{\sum_{w \in V_{t-1}} g(k_w - 1)} : v \in V_{t-1} \right\}$$

for some function $g : \mathbb{Z} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^+ \setminus \{0\}$, which will be referred to as the preferential attachment function

Expected Degree Distribution

In [GPA REF] the expected degree distribution for $m = 1$ was calculated in terms of the preferential attachment function does not have a general explicit form. It is defined as follows, let λ^* be the solution, if it exists, to:

$$1 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{g(i)}{g(i) + \lambda}$$

then the expected degree distribution resulting from the GPA model has pmf:

$$f(k) = \frac{\lambda^*}{g(k) + \lambda^*} \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} \frac{g(i)}{g(i) + \lambda^*}$$

It is hard to see how this may behave in the tails for different preferential attachment functions, this will be one of the main focuses of the next section.

¹The probabilities are proportional to the degree minus one to align with the results from [GPA REF]

4 Methods

4.1 Integral Generalised Pareto Distribution

4.2 Mixture Model

Threshold Selection

4.3 Fitting model to simulated data

UA model

BA model

4.4 Fitting model to real data

4.5 GPA analyses

4.6 Conclusion and a Conjecture

5 Next Steps

References

- Barabási, Albert-László, and Réka Albert. 1999. “Emergence of Scaling in Random Networks.” *Science* 286 (5439): 509–12. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.286.5439.509>.
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