6.268 Lecture 8, Technical Notes

Inference and Model Selection for Power Law Tails

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Suppose we observe a network G and measure the degrees $\{k_i\}$ of each of its n nodes. How can we use these data to understand whether G is a scale-free network? As we saw in the slides, just observing a linear fit on log-log axes is not reliable. A more formal, statistical approach is required. In these notes, we outline the methodology introduced by Clauset et al. (2009) and employed in Broido and Clauset (2018) for evaluating power law fits in network data.

Typically, we are interested only in the tail of the degree distribution of G: that is, $\mathbb{P}(K_i = k)$ for $k \geq k_{\min}$. The cutoff k_{\min} is the lowest value of k at which we expect the power law behavior to hold. In this case, the power-law degree distribution is, for any $k \geq k_{\min}$,

$$p_K(k; \gamma, k_{\min}) \triangleq \mathbb{P}(K_i = k; \gamma, k_{\min}) = \frac{k^{-\gamma}}{\zeta(\gamma, k_{\min})}.$$
 (1)

In this expression, the normalizing constant $\zeta(\gamma, k_{\min})$ is the Hurwitz zeta function

$$\zeta(\gamma, k_{\min}) \triangleq \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(j + k_{\min})^{\gamma}} . \tag{2}$$

Given our data $\{k_i\}$, we need to perform the following two tasks:

- 1. **Inference**: Sometimes also called "model fitting." In the inference stage, we need to determine "optimal" values of k_{\min} and γ from the data. Note that, in order to do this, we need to define what we mean by "optimal."
- 2. **Model Evaluation**: We then need to check whether the "best" model with optimal parameters is a *plausible* model of the data. This isn't guaranteed. For example, think of a curved data set. You can do linear regression and obtain a "best" linear model, but it still won't make sense for your data. We therefore need methodology to evaluate whether even the most likely power law fit is "likely enough" to accept the hypothesis that G is scale-free.

Inference

We will first construct a method for choosing $\hat{\gamma}$, our estimate for the power law exponent γ . We assume for now that we already know k_{\min} ; we'll estimate that parameter soon.

We employ the method of maximum likelihood. Remember that we need the "best" $\hat{\gamma}$ from the data. The method of maximum likelihood says that the "best" estimate is the one that maximizes the probability of observing the data under the model. Formally,

$$\hat{\gamma} = \underset{\gamma}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i} p_K(k_i); \gamma, k_{\min}) . \tag{3}$$

Taking logs and letting $\mathbf{k} = (k_1, \dots, k_n)$, we define

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{k};\gamma) \triangleq \sum_{i} \log p_K(k_i;\gamma,k_{\min}) \tag{4}$$

$$= -n\log\zeta(\gamma, k_{\min}) - \gamma \sum_{i} \log k_{i} . \tag{5}$$

In this notation, $\hat{\gamma} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\gamma} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{k}; \gamma)$. It turns out that this is a relatively easy optimization – we can solve $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \gamma}(\mathbf{k}; \hat{\gamma}) = 0$. Doing so, we compute

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \gamma}(\mathbf{k}; \hat{\gamma}) = \frac{-n\zeta'(\hat{\gamma}, k_{\min})}{\zeta(\hat{\gamma}, k_{\min})} - \sum_{i} \log x_{i}$$
 (6)

$$=0. (7)$$

We can rewrite this as

$$\frac{\zeta'(\hat{\gamma}, k_{\min})}{\zeta(\hat{\gamma}, k_{\min})} = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} \log x_i , \qquad (8)$$

obtaining a nonlinear equation for $\hat{\gamma}$ that can be efficiently solved, for example via the bisection method.

There is an explicit, interpretable formula for $\hat{\gamma}$ for *continuous* power laws, which you will derive as an exercise.

We are now ready to choose k_{\min} . Maximum-likelihood estimation is not longer tractable for this problem, and we instead use a different approach. Define

$$D(k_{\min}) = \max_{k \ge k_{\min}} \left| \hat{P}(k; k_{\min}) - P_K(k; \hat{\gamma}, k_{\min}) \right| . \tag{9}$$

In this expression, $\hat{P}(k; k_{\min})$ is the *empirical CDF* among all data points with degree greater than k_{\min} . On the other hand, $P_K(k; \hat{\gamma}, k_{\min})$ is the *theoretical CDF* corresponding to the fitted $\hat{\gamma}$ from above, with the given value of k_{\min} . Its formula is

$$P_K(k; \hat{\gamma}, k_{\min}) = \sum_{j=k_{\min}}^{k} p_K(j) = \frac{1}{\zeta(\hat{\gamma}, k_{\min})} \sum_{j=k_{\min}}^{k} k^{-\hat{\gamma}}.$$
 (10)

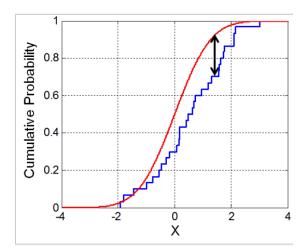


Figure 1: Illustration of the KS statistic. The red curve is a theoretical CDF; the blue curve is an empirical CDF. The KS statistic is the size of the largest vertical distance between the two. Image source: Wikipedia.

The KS statistic D measures the largest discrepancy between the theoretical and observed CDFs. A visual illustration of D is given in Figure 1.

Our method to pick k_{\min} is simple – we just choose \hat{k}_{\min} = argmin $D(k_{\min}$; that is, the cutoff is chosen to minimize the KS statistic. In practice, this involves calculating $\hat{\gamma}$ for each possible value of k_{\min} . Fortunately, Equation (8) can be solved efficiently, so this process is computationally tractable.

Model Evaluation

We now have optimal values of $\hat{\gamma}$ and \hat{k}_{\min} – we have "fit" a power law to the data. But is our best power law model really a plausible explanation of the data? If the data is really exponential or log-normal, for example, even our best model will provide a poor explanation. How can we evaluate whether the power law fits?

For this task, we return to the KS statistic D. Recall that D measures the largest discrepancy between the empirical CDF and theoretical CDF. Intuitively, if D is large, then even our best model is "not very good." But how large is large? What we need is an *null distribution* on D that tells us how *likely* it is that D would take a given value. To obtain this null distribution, we use bootstrapping:

- 1. We draw n samples from our theoretical distribution $p_K(k; \hat{\gamma}, \hat{k}_{\min})$, and compute \tilde{D} for this synthetic data set.
- 2. We repeat Step 1 many times, obtaining an bootstrap distribution for D.
- 3. We compare our empirical D to the bootstrap distribution. Using the distribution, we can compute $p = \mathbb{P}(\tilde{D} \geq D)$; i.e. the probability that the data would have KS

statistic greater than or equal to what we observed, if it "really" came from our theoretical model.

We've labeled it p for a reason – this is a p-value. Unlike in many other contexts, note that large values of p are "good," in the sense that they better support the power law hypothesis. In practice, it is common to take p < 0.1 to be evidence against the hypothesis, and $p \ge 0.1$ to indicate that the data is consistent with the hypothesis.

References

Broido, A. and Clauset, A. (2018). Scale-free networks are rare. arXiv:1801.03400, pages 1–14.

Clauset, A., Shalizi, C. R., and Newman, M. E. J. (2009). Power-law distributions in empirical data. SIAM Review, 51(4):661–703.