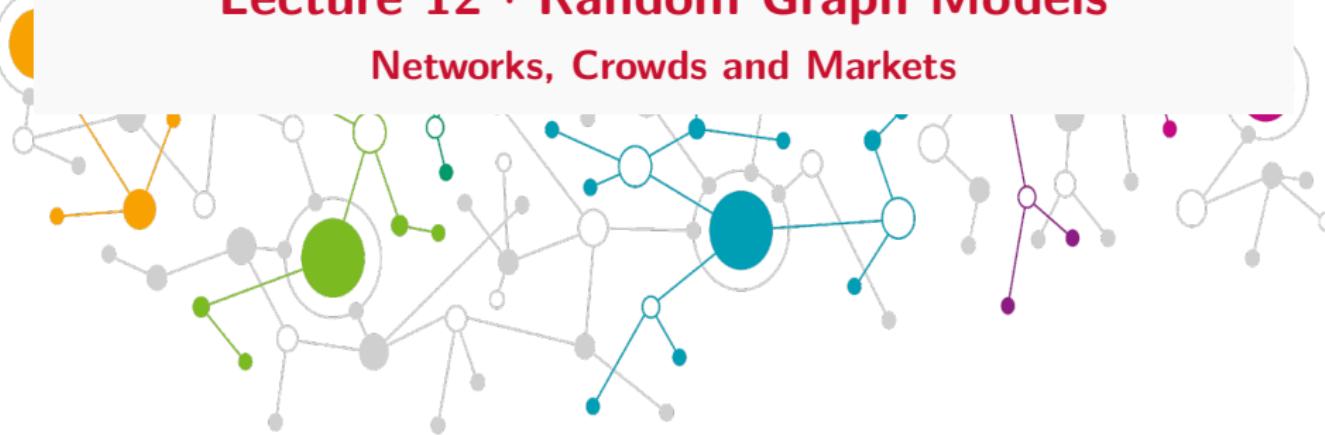




## Lecture 12 · Random Graph Models

Networks, Crowds and Markets



# Summary

The goal of the lecture today is to give an overview of some approaches to model random networks.

# Static random graph models

## Graphs as random objects

Consider an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$ .

Order all pairs of elements in  $V$ :  $\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \dots, \{N - 1, N\}$ .

Each graph is uniquely identified by a vector  $\mathbf{y} = (y_{ij}) \in \{0, 1\}^{\binom{N}{2}}$ :

- $y_{ij} = 1$  if and only if  $ij \in E$ .

## Graphs as random objects

Consider an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$ .

Order all pairs of elements in  $V$ :  $\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \dots, \{N-1, N\}$ .

Each graph is uniquely identified by a vector  $\mathbf{y} = (y_{ij}) \in \{0, 1\}^{\binom{N}{2}}$ :

- $y_{ij} = 1$  if and only if  $ij \in E$ .

In this sense, every **distribution** for a random binary vector in  $\{0, 1\}^{\binom{N}{2}}$  gives a distribution of a random graph with  $N$  nodes.

e.g.  $(p_{000}, p_{001}, p_{010}, p_{011}, p_{100}, p_{101}, p_{110}, p_{111}) = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14})$  gives a distribution over 3-node graphs.

## Graphs as random objects

Consider an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$ .

Order all pairs of elements in  $V$ :  $\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \dots, \{N-1, N\}$ .

Each graph is uniquely identified by a vector  $\mathbf{y} = (y_{ij}) \in \{0, 1\}^{\binom{N}{2}}$ :

- $y_{ij} = 1$  if and only if  $ij \in E$ .

In this sense, every **distribution** for a random binary vector in  $\{0, 1\}^{\binom{N}{2}}$  gives a distribution of a random graph with  $N$  nodes.

e.g.  $(p_{000}, p_{001}, p_{010}, p_{011}, p_{100}, p_{101}, p_{110}, p_{111}) = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14}, \frac{1}{14})$  gives a distribution over 3-node graphs.

Every family of distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^{\binom{N}{2}}$  gives a statistical model for random graphs with  $N$  nodes.

Replacing with  $\{0, 1\}^{N(N-1)}$  gives models for directed graphs.

## Erdős–Rényi model as an example

Recall: Every family of distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^{\binom{N}{2}}$  gives a statistical model for random graphs with  $N$  nodes.

Erdős–Rényi model: for  $\mathbf{y} = (y_{ij}) \in \{0, 1\}^{\binom{N}{2}}$  consider distribution

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \prod_{i < j} (1 - p)^{1 - y_{ij}} p^{y_{ij}}.$$

Denote  $s = \sum_{i < j} y_{ij}$  (the number of edges) then

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = (1 - p)^{\binom{N}{2} - s} p^s = (1 - p)^{\binom{N}{2}} \left( \frac{p}{1 - p} \right)^s.$$

## Quick recall: exponential families

Let  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

### Definition (Exponential family)

A family of probability distributions on  $\mathcal{X}$  is an *exponential family* if the probability mass functions (densities) take the form

$$p_\theta(\mathbf{x}) = h(\mathbf{x}) \exp(\theta^T T(\mathbf{x}) - \psi(\theta)).$$

- $T(\mathbf{x})$  = **sufficient statistics** (counts of edges, triangles, . . . ).
- $\theta$  = natural parameter.
- $\psi(\theta)$  = log-partition function (ensures normalization).

Bernoulli, binomial, Poisson, Ising models, multivariate Gaussian, and many other popular statistical models are exponential families.

# Exponential Random Graph Models

Definition ( Exponential Random Graph Models (ERGMs): )

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = \mathbf{y}) \propto \exp\{\theta_1 \cdot \#\text{edges}(\mathbf{y}) + \theta_2 \cdot \#\text{triangles}(\mathbf{y}) + \dots\}.$$

- The parameters:  $\theta_1$  tunes density,  $\theta_2$  tunes clustering, etc.

Erdős-Rényi model is a special case of ERGM:

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = \mathbf{y}) = (1 - p)^{\binom{N}{2}} \left( \frac{p}{1 - p} \right)^s \propto \exp(\theta \cdot s),$$

where  $s = \sum_{i < j} y_{ij}$  and  $\theta = \log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)$

## Example: the $p_2$ model for undirected networks

Extension of Erdős–Rényi that introduces *node-specific propensities* to form ties.

**Model:** All edges are independent with

$$\Pr(Y_{ij} = 1 \mid \alpha_i, \alpha_j) = \frac{\exp(\mu + \alpha_i + \alpha_j)}{1 + \exp(\mu + \alpha_i + \alpha_j)}.$$

**Interpretation:**

- $\mu$  — overall network density.
- $\alpha_i$  — sociability of node  $i$  (a random effect).

## Example: the $p_2$ model for undirected networks

Extension of Erdős–Rényi that introduces *node-specific propensities* to form ties.

**Model:** All edges are independent with

$$\Pr(Y_{ij} = 1 \mid \alpha_i, \alpha_j) = \frac{\exp(\mu + \alpha_i + \alpha_j)}{1 + \exp(\mu + \alpha_i + \alpha_j)}.$$

**Interpretation:**

- $\mu$  — overall network density.
- $\alpha_i$  — sociability of node  $i$  (a random effect).

**Remarks:**

- Reduces to Erdős–Rényi when  $\alpha_i \equiv 0$ .
- Adds degree heterogeneity while preserving tractability.
- Foundation for later hierarchical and latent-space models.

Why is it an ERGM? What are the sufficient statistics?

# Latent space random graphs

## Definition

Each node  $i$  has a position  $z_i$  in a latent feature space (e.g.  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ). The probability of an edge depends on distance:

$$\mathbb{P}(i \sim j) = f(\|z_i - z_j\|), \quad f \text{ decreasing.}$$

As an example, imagine an interaction network in a big company. Apart from the usual topology that follows the company's structure, unexpected links may occur (e.g. among smokers etc).

## Example: latent space in economic networks

- Think of banks, firms, or households as nodes.
- Each actor has a position in a **latent space**:
  - ▶ Geography (local vs. international).
  - ▶ Sector (energy, tech, manufacturing).
  - ▶ Risk profile or credit rating.
- Links (e.g. loans, partnerships, trade) are more likely between nearby nodes in this space.
- A few “long-distance” links (large international banks, global supply chains) can connect distant clusters and reduce path lengths.

### Takeaway

Latent space models explain why real networks show both clustering (local ties) and small-world shortcuts (rare global ties).

# Dynamic random graph models

## From Static to Growing Models

All previous models assumed a fixed number of nodes and edges.

But real networks *grow* over time: new users, new webpages, new firms.

Let's study a simple dynamic rule that explains why hubs emerge:  
**preferential attachment.**

## Recursive growth: preferential attachment

**Preferential attachment:** New node attaches to existing node  $v$  with probability proportional to  $\deg(v)$ .

- “Rich get richer”  $\rightarrow$  hubs emerge.

## Recursive growth: preferential attachment

**Preferential attachment:** New node attaches to existing node  $v$  with probability proportional to  $\deg(v)$ .

- “Rich get richer”  $\rightarrow$  hubs emerge.

**Result:** degree distribution follows a *power law*.

- Few very large hubs.
- Many low-degree nodes.
- Matches data: web, citation networks, finance.

## Preferential Attachment: Formal Definition

We construct a growing sequence of graphs  $G_m, G_{m+1}, G_{m+2}, \dots$

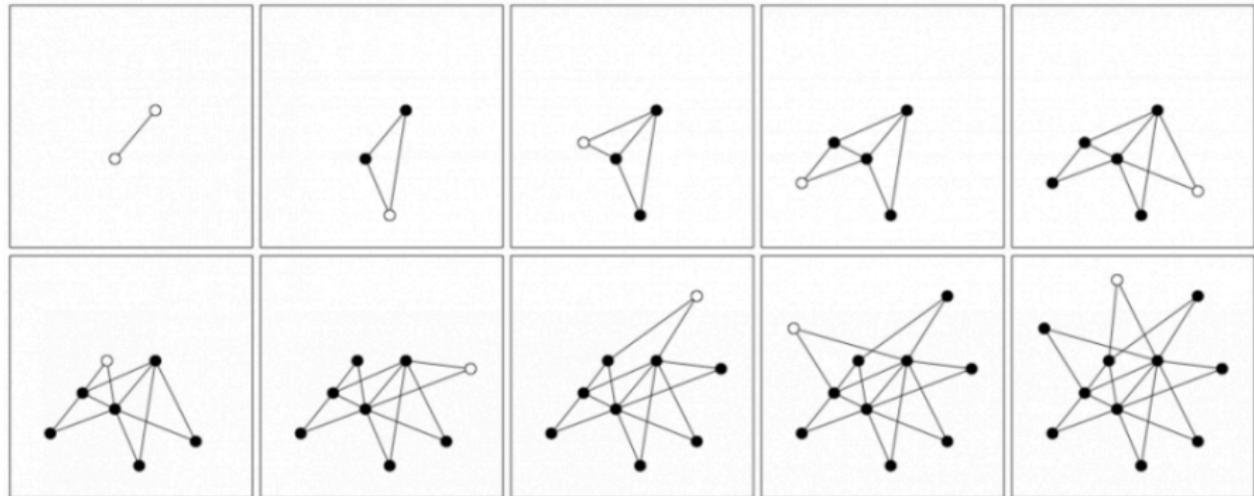
1. **Initialization:** Start from a complete graph  $G_m$  on  $m$  nodes (so each node initially has degree  $m-1$ ).
2. **Growth rule:** For each step  $t = m+1, m+2, \dots$ :
  - ▶ Add a new node  $v_t$  and  $m$  edges sticking out of it.
  - ▶ Connect each edge to a node  $u$  with probability

$$\mathbb{P}(v_t \rightarrow u) = \frac{\deg(u, t-1)}{\sum_w \deg(w, t-1)}.$$

Thus, high-degree nodes are more likely to receive new links.

This process defines the **Barabási–Albert (BA) model**.

# Evolution of the Barabási-Albert model



## Expected degree growth in the BA model

At time  $t \geq m$ , the network has  $L_t = \binom{m}{2} + m(t - m)$  edges. Up to constants depending only on  $m$ , we may write  $2L_t \approx 2mt$ .

Fix a node  $u$  with current degree  $d_t = \deg(u, t)$ . When a new node arrives at step  $t+1$ , it creates  $m$  new edges, each connecting to an existing node  $v$  with probability proportional to its degree:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{edge connects to } u) \approx \frac{d_t}{2mt}.$$

## Expected degree growth in the BA model

At time  $t \geq m$ , the network has  $L_t = \binom{m}{2} + m(t-m)$  edges. Up to constants depending only on  $m$ , we may write  $2L_t \approx 2mt$ .

Fix a node  $u$  with current degree  $d_t = \deg(u, t)$ . When a new node arrives at step  $t+1$ , it creates  $m$  new edges, each connecting to an existing node  $v$  with probability proportional to its degree:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{edge connects to } u) \approx \frac{d_t}{2mt}.$$

**Expected increment:**

$$\mathbb{E}[d_{t+1} - d_t \mid d_t] \approx m \cdot \frac{d_t}{2mt} = \frac{d_t}{2t}.$$

## Expected degree growth in the BA model

At time  $t \geq m$ , the network has  $L_t = \binom{m}{2} + m(t-m)$  edges. Up to constants depending only on  $m$ , we may write  $2L_t \approx 2mt$ .

Fix a node  $u$  with current degree  $d_t = \deg(u, t)$ . When a new node arrives at step  $t+1$ , it creates  $m$  new edges, each connecting to an existing node  $v$  with probability proportional to its degree:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{edge connects to } u) \approx \frac{d_t}{2mt}.$$

**Expected increment:**

$$\mathbb{E}[d_{t+1} - d_t \mid d_t] \approx m \cdot \frac{d_t}{2mt} = \frac{d_t}{2t}.$$

**Recursion for the expected degree:**

$$\mathbb{E}[d_{t+1}] \approx \mathbb{E}[d_t] \left(1 + \frac{1}{2t}\right), \quad t \geq m.$$

## Expected degree growth in the BA model

At time  $t \geq m$ , the network has  $L_t = \binom{m}{2} + m(t-m)$  edges. Up to constants depending only on  $m$ , we may write  $2L_t \approx 2mt$ .

Fix a node  $u$  with current degree  $d_t = \deg(u, t)$ . When a new node arrives at step  $t+1$ , it creates  $m$  new edges, each connecting to an existing node  $v$  with probability proportional to its degree:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{edge connects to } u) \approx \frac{d_t}{2mt}.$$

**Expected increment:**

$$\mathbb{E}[d_{t+1} - d_t \mid d_t] \approx m \cdot \frac{d_t}{2mt} = \frac{d_t}{2t}.$$

**Recursion for the expected degree:**

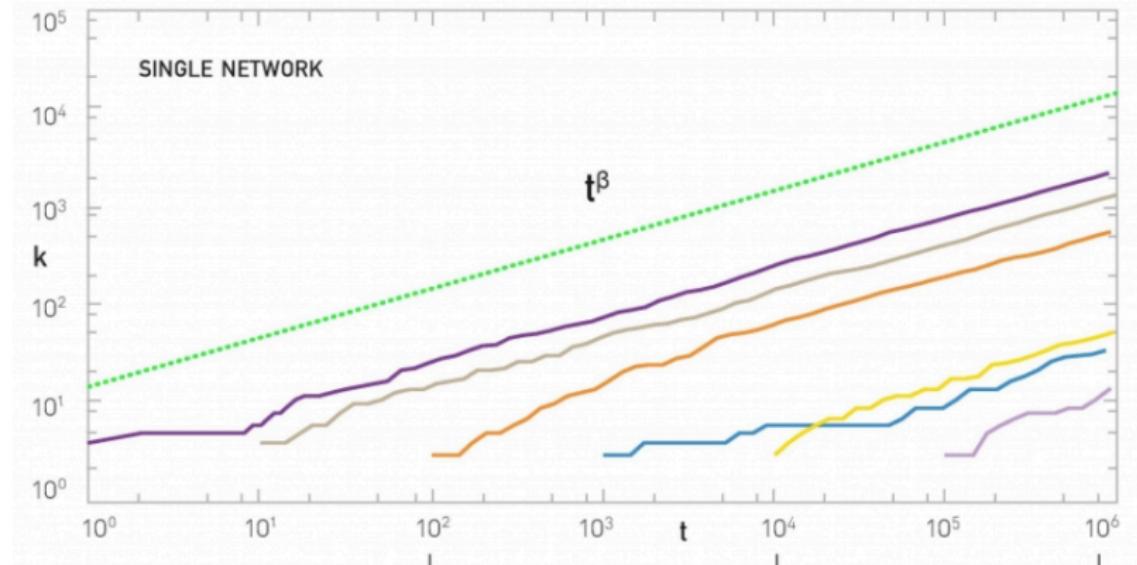
$$\mathbb{E}[d_{t+1}] \approx \mathbb{E}[d_t] \left(1 + \frac{1}{2t}\right), \quad t \geq m.$$

**Solution:** If  $t_u$  is the time when  $u$  appears, we can show

$$\boxed{\mathbb{E}[d_t] \approx m \sqrt{\frac{t}{t_u}}}.$$

# Evolution of the degree

In the log – log scale:



## Quick comparison (who becomes a hub?)

Two nodes joined at  $t_u = 10$  and  $t_v = 100$ . After  $t = 1000$  with  $m = 3$ :

$$\frac{\deg(u, 1000)}{\deg(v, 1000)} = \sqrt{\frac{1000/10}{1000/100}} = \sqrt{10} \approx 3.16,$$

$$\deg(u, 1000) = 3\sqrt{100} = 30, \quad \deg(v, 1000) = 3\sqrt{10} \approx 9.48.$$

Earlier arrival systematically advantages degree.

## Heuristic derivation of the degree distribution

From the recursion we found:

$$\mathbb{E}[\deg(u, t)] \approx m \left( \frac{t}{t_u} \right)^{1/2}.$$

Hence, older nodes (small  $t_u$ ) have larger expected degree.

To find the degree distribution at time  $t$ , note that

$$\deg(u, t) \approx m \left( \frac{t}{t_u} \right)^{1/2} \iff t_u \approx t \frac{m^2}{\deg(u, t)^2}.$$

## Heuristic derivation of the degree distribution

From the recursion we found:

$$\mathbb{E}[\deg(u, t)] \approx m \left( \frac{t}{t_u} \right)^{1/2}.$$

Hence, older nodes (small  $t_u$ ) have larger expected degree.

To find the degree distribution at time  $t$ , note that

$$\deg(u, t) \approx m \left( \frac{t}{t_u} \right)^{1/2} \iff t_u \approx t \frac{m^2}{\deg(u, t)^2}.$$

Since arrival times  $t_u$  are roughly *uniform* on  $\{1, 2, \dots, t\}$ , we can compute

$$\mathbb{P}(\deg(u, t) \geq k) \approx \mathbb{P}\left(t_u \leq t \frac{m^2}{k^2}\right) = \frac{m^2}{k^2}.$$

## Discrete exact formula and asymptotic tail

The prob. that a node has degree  $\geq k$  decreases quadratically in  $k$ :

$$\mathbb{P}(\deg \geq k) \propto k^{-2} \implies p_k = \mathbb{P}(\deg = k) \propto k^{-3}.$$

(at least for large  $k$ )

**Hence:** the Barabási–Albert model produces a *power-law* degree distribution with

$$\gamma = 3.$$

## Discrete exact formula and asymptotic tail

The prob. that a node has degree  $\geq k$  decreases quadratically in  $k$ :

$$\mathbb{P}(\deg \geq k) \propto k^{-2} \implies p_k = \mathbb{P}(\deg = k) \propto k^{-3}.$$

(at least for large  $k$ )

**Hence:** the Barabási–Albert model produces a *power-law* degree distribution with

$$\gamma = 3.$$

### Takeaways

- The tail exponent  $\gamma = 3$  is universal for the BA model (all  $m$ ).
- The discrete formula matches simulations closely.

## Exercise (preferential attachment probabilities)

Consider the preferential attachment model with  $m = 1$ . Given the degree multiset  $\{1, 1, 1, 1, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4, 5, 5, 8\}$ , let a new node add *one* link using BA attachment  $\Pr\{u\} = \deg(u)/(2L)$ .

a) Probability it attaches to the highest-degree node:

$$\Pr\{\text{choose } k = 8\} = \frac{8}{\sum \deg} = \frac{8}{38}.$$

b) Probability it attaches to a node of degree 1: there are four such nodes, each with probability  $1/38$ :  $4 \times \frac{1}{38} = \frac{4}{38}$ .

(Here  $2L = \sum \deg = 38$ .)