
Inference and Generating Method for Extremely Sparse Networks

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Abstract

1 Generative models for real-world networks face a fundamental challenge in re-
2 conciling the desirable property of exchangeability with the empirical observation
3 of sparsity. The Caron-Fox framework, which leverages Kallenberg exchangeabil-
4 ity and Completely Random Measures (CRMs), provides a principled approach
5 to this problem. However, existing models within this class typically generate
6 graphs where the number of edges scales super-linearly with the number of nodes
7 ($E \propto N^{1+\epsilon}$). In this work, we present a novel CRM with rapid variation that, when
8 integrated into the Caron-Fox model, generates graph sequences in an extremely
9 sparse regime. We also derive a posterior inference method to fit our model to an
10 observed graph. This workshop paper summarizes the key results of our recent
11 publication, introducing the model, outlining its theoretical underpinnings, and
12 presenting the inference procedure.

13 1 Introduction

14 The proliferation of large-scale, graph-structured data across diverse scientific fields, from microbiol-
15 ogy to the social sciences, has revealed a fascinating truth: despite their varied origins, real-world
16 networks consistently exhibit a set of common structural properties. A key characteristic is *sparsity*,
17 where the number of existing edges is a mere fraction of the $\binom{N}{2}$ potential connections in a graph
18 with N nodes. Another is the *scale-free phenomenon*, in which the network’s degree distribution
19 presents a heavy tail, signifying the presence of a few highly connected “hub” nodes alongside a
20 vast majority of nodes with very few links. Additional defining features include the *small-world*
21 *phenomenon*¹ and the formation of distinct *community structures*.

22 Developing generative models that can faithfully reproduce these characteristics, especially sparsity,
23 presents a fundamental statistical dilemma. An intuitive and mathematically convenient property
24 for such a model is *node-exchangeability*, which dictates that the graph’s probability distribution
25 should remain *invariant* regardless of how its nodes are labeled. However, this very property is
26 fundamentally at odds with sparsity. The well-known Aldous-Hoover theorem [1, 2] formalizes
27 this conflict, demonstrating that any node-exchangeable graph must fall into one of two extremes:
28 it is either dense (almost all possible edges exist) or empty, failing to capture the sparse nature of
29 real-world networks.

30 To navigate this challenge, the research community has pursued several ideas. One popular approach,
31 exemplified by preferential attachment models [3, 4], resolves the issue by completely forgoing any
32 form of exchangeability. A more recent and powerful line of inquiry, initiated by Caron and Fox [5],
33 circumvents the limitation in a more nuanced way. Instead of abandoning exchangeability altogether,
34 this framework adopts a weaker, more flexible notion known as *Kallenberg exchangeability* (see also

¹The small-world phenomenon is the observation that, in many real-world networks, any two nodes can be connected through a short chain of intermediary links.

[6, 7, 8]). This principled relaxation successfully reconciles the model with sparsity and has spurred a rich body of work, leading to new models that incorporate other complex features like overlapping communities [9], clustering [10], dynamic evolution [11], and core-periphery organization [12].

Our work is situated within this latter framework, leveraging Bayesian nonparametric methods, specifically Completely Random Measures (CRMs). Existing models in this class have successfully generated sparse graph sequences where the number of edges, E , scales as $N^{1+\epsilon}$ for a given number of nodes N (where $0 < \epsilon < 1$). In our recent publication [13], we introduced a novel CRM that achieves a significantly sparser regime. Our model generates graphs where the edge count scales as $E = \Theta(N\ell(N))$, with ℓ being a slowly varying function. We term graph sequences exhibiting this near-linear scaling *extremely sparse*.

The statistical properties of our model make it possible to derive a posterior inference method that can be used to fit our model to an observed graph. The performance of this hierarchical HMC method is illustrated with experiments on both synthetic and large-scale real datasets.

The purpose of this workshop paper is to present the main results and implications of this new model as detailed in [13]. The remainder is structured as follows. In Section 2, we introduce necessary preliminaries on the Caron-Fox model. In Section 3, we present the main contribution of [13]—a novel CRM with rapid variation that generates extremely sparse sequences of networks within the Caron-Fox model, and explain how to sample from them. In Section 4, we outline the inference procedure. The results are illustrated with experiments throughout the paper, which can be reproduced using the code available at https://anonymous.4open.science/r/rapidly_varying_crm-7C0B/README.md. Detailed proofs and additional details can be found in the main article [13].

2 The Caron-Fox model

The Caron-Fox model [5, 7, 8] provides a powerful framework for overcoming the limitations of the Aldous-Hoover theorem [1, 2]. Instead of representing graphs with exchangeable arrays, this model uses **exchangeable measures**. In this representation, nodes are embedded at locations $\theta_i \in \mathbb{R}$, and the set of edges is described by a random measure on the plane:

$$Z = \sum_{i,j} Z_{i,j} \delta_{(\theta_i, \theta_j)},$$

where $Z_{i,j} = Z_{j,i}$ is a binary variable indicating the presence or absence of an edge between nodes θ_i and θ_j . A sequence of finite graphs $(\mathcal{G}_t)_{t>0}$ is derived by restricting the point process Z to the squares $[0, t]^2$ and retaining only the points that have at least one edge. In the following, we denote N_t as the number of nodes in \mathcal{G}_t and $N_t^{(e)}$ as the number of edges in \mathcal{G}_t .

This model was introduced in [5], where it was shown that sparse exchangeable graphs can be obtained in this framework by treating Z as an exchangeable random measure. In [7], the authors introduced the term *graphex processes*, which we use here. Simultaneously, [7] and [8] analysed properties of graphex processes, explaining how graphex processes serve as a good notion of limit for sequences of sparse graphs, analogous to how graphons serve as a limit for dense graphs. Further properties, including convergence results for sparse graph sequences and sampling methods, were derived by [14, 15, 16] and [8]. In [10], the asymptotic properties of graphex processes were investigated.

Following the notation of [10] (which aligns with that of [7], excluding terms corresponding to stars and isolated edges), we can parameterize the graph with a symmetric measurable function $W : \mathbb{R}_+^2 \rightarrow [0, 1]$ that dictates how the edges are formed. For each $i < j$:

$$Z_{i,j} \mid (\theta_k, \vartheta_k)_{k=1,2,\dots} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(W(\vartheta_i, \vartheta_j)),$$

where $(\theta_k, \vartheta_k)_{k=1,2,\dots}$ is a unit-rate Poisson process on \mathbb{R}_+^2 .

In this framework, the **Caron-Fox model** is defined by:

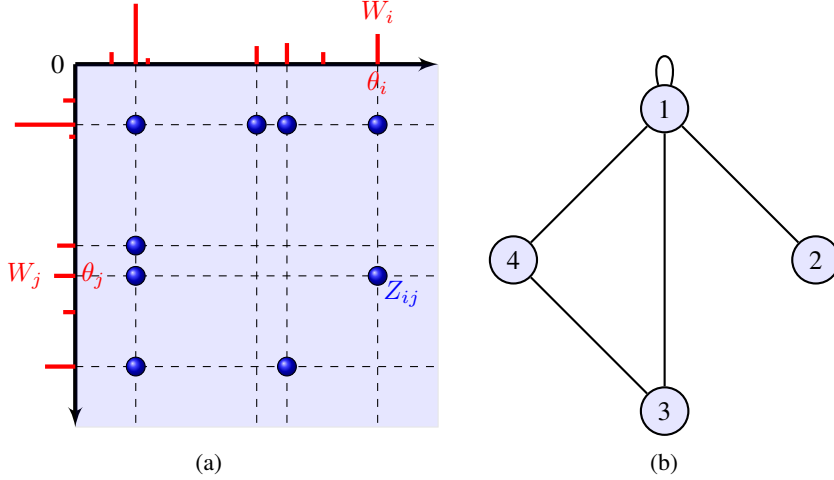


Figure 1: Point process representation of a random graph. Each node i is embedded in \mathbb{R}_+ at some location θ_i and is associated with a sociability parameter W_i . An edge between nodes θ_i and θ_j is represented by a point at locations (θ_i, θ_j) and (θ_j, θ_i) in \mathbb{R}_+^2 (Figure 1, 5). The corresponding graph is plotted in (b).

$$W(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-2\bar{\rho}^{-1}(x)\bar{\rho}^{-1}(y)} & \text{if } x \neq y, \\ 1 - e^{-(\bar{\rho}^{-1}(x))^2} & \text{if } x = y, \end{cases}$$

where ρ is a **Lévy measure** such that $\int_0^\infty \min(1, x)\nu(dx) < \infty$ and $\bar{\rho}(x) := \int_x^\infty \rho(w) dw$ is the corresponding tail Lévy intensity. The Lévy measure ρ controls the properties of the produced network.

To demonstrate that a sparse regime is achievable within this framework, [5] use a Generalized Gamma measure (GG):

$$\rho(dw) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(1-\sigma)} w^{-1-\sigma} e^{-\beta w} dw.$$

They prove that if $\sigma < 0$, an increasing sequence of graphs sampled from this model is dense, while if $\sigma \geq 0$ and $\beta > 0$, such a sequence is sparse. They also provide a posterior inference algorithm for fitting the GG-Caron-Fox model to real data, demonstrating that this model is highly effective. In [10], further exploration of the graphex model revealed four asymptotic regimes: a dense regime, a sparse almost-dense regime, a sparse regime exhibiting power-law behaviour, and an almost extremely sparse regime.

The parameters of the graphex model are easily interpretable. In the Caron-Fox framework, the quantity $W_i = \rho^{-1}(\vartheta_i)$ is often interpreted as a measure of sociability. This interpretation arises from viewing the model as a scenario where potential node i enters a room at time θ_i and attempts to link with the nodes already present. The greater the sociability of both individuals, the more likely they are to establish a connection.

3 Mixture of Generalized Gamma Process and extremely sparse graphs

In [13], we define a Lévy intensity that realizes the extremely sparse regime in the Caron-Fox class and propose a corresponding approximate sampling method. We achieve this regime using a mixture of Generalized Gamma (GG) processes with the following Lévy intensity:

$$\rho_{\text{mGG}}(w; \beta, c, \eta) = \eta \int_0^1 \frac{sc^s}{\Gamma(1-s)} w^{-1-s} e^{-\beta w/c} ds, \quad (1)$$

98 The model parameters have the following interpretations:

- 99 • β is the exponential tilting parameter; if $\beta > 0$, it tunes the exponential decay of large
100 weights.
- 101 • c is a scaling parameter: if $G \sim \text{CRM}(\rho_{\text{mGG}}(\cdot; \beta, 1, \eta), H)$, then $cG \sim$
102 $\text{CRM}(\rho_{\text{mGG}}(\cdot; \beta, c, \eta), H)$.
- 103 • η is a rate parameter: if $G_1 \sim \text{CRM}(\rho_{\text{mGG}}(\cdot; \beta, c, \eta_1), H)$ and $G_2 \sim$
104 $\text{CRM}(\rho_{\text{mGG}}(\cdot; \beta, c, \eta_2), H)$, then $G_1 + G_2 \sim \text{CRM}(\rho_{\text{mGG}}(\cdot; \beta, c, \eta_1 + \eta_2), H)$.

105 A key advantage of this Lévy measure is that its Laplace exponent admits an analytic expression:

$$\psi_{\text{mGG}}(t; \beta, c, \eta) := \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-tw}) \rho_{\text{mGG}}(w) dw = \eta (\psi(\beta + ct) - \psi(\beta)), \quad (2)$$

106 where $\psi(t) = \frac{t-1}{\log t}$ for $0 < t < 1$, with $\psi(0) = 0$ and $\psi(1) = 1$.

107 As shown in [13, Corollary 7], graphs generated using this Lévy intensity, ρ_{mGG} , are extremely
108 sparse:

Theorem 1. [13, Corollary 7] *Almost surely as t goes to infinity*

$$N_t^{(e)} = \Theta(N_t \log(N_t)).$$

109 We also obtain an interesting result for the degree distribution of these graphs. For $j \in \mathbb{N}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$,
110 let $N_{t,j}$ denote the number of nodes with degree j in \mathcal{G}_t . In the following theorem, C represents a
111 positive constant.

Theorem 2. [13, Proposition 8] *Almost surely as t goes to infinity*

$$N_{t,j} \sim E(N_{t,j}) \sim \begin{cases} t^2 \frac{C}{\log(t)} & j = 1 \\ \frac{t^2}{j(j-1)} \frac{C}{\log^2(t)} & j \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

Let $\tilde{N}_{t,2} = \sum_{k \geq 2} N_{t,k}$ denote the number of nodes with a degree of at least 2. Then, for all $j \geq 2$,
we have

$$\frac{N_{t,j}}{\tilde{N}_{t,2}} \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{j(j-1)}.$$

112 This result implies that the degree distribution for nodes with a degree of at least 2 follows a power
113 law with an exponent of 2.

114 A key property expected of a tractable statistical model is the ability to sample from it. However,
115 since CRMs are infinite-dimensional objects that cannot be fully represented on a computer, only
116 approximate sampling is possible. Several approximation schemes for CRM sampling exist. In [13],
117 we propose a size-biased method, which is advantageous due to its straightforward implementation:

118 **Proposition 1.** [13, Proposition 3] *Let ξ_1, ξ_2, \dots be the ordered points of a unit-rate Poisson process*
119 *on $(0, \infty)$; that is, $\xi_1, \xi_2 - \xi_1, \xi_3 - \xi_2, \dots$ are iid unit-rate exponential random variable. We have*
120 *the following size-biased construction for $G \sim \text{CRM}(\rho_{\text{mGG}}(\cdot; \beta, c, \eta), H)$. For $j \geq 1$,*

$$\begin{aligned} T_j &= \psi^{-1} \left(\frac{\xi_j}{\eta} + \psi(\beta) \right) - \beta, \\ S_j \mid \{T_j = t\} &\sim p(s|t) \propto s(t + \beta)^s \mathbf{1}_{\{s \in (0,1)\}}, \\ W'_j \mid \{T_j = t, S_j = s\} &\sim \text{Gamma}(1 - s, t + \beta), \\ W_j &= cW'_j, \end{aligned}$$

121 Each step in this sampling procedure can be performed using only standard functions. The asymptotic
122 L_1 error of this size-biased approximation is explored in [13, Proposition 4]. With the result from
123 Proposition 1, we can generate graphs. In Figure 2, we compare our method to the non-mixture
124 Generalized Gamma model of Caron and Fox [5] and the Barabási–Albert model [3]. All three
125 models are known to produce sparse graph sequences that exhibit power-law degree distributions. The
126 expected asymptotic behavior of our model is given in Theorem 1 and Theorem 2. For the Generalized

127 Gamma model (here with $\alpha = 0.5$), the number of edges scales asymptotically as $N_t^{(e)} \sim N_t^{\frac{4}{3}}$, and
 128 its degree distribution follows a power law with an exponent of 1.5. For the Barabási–Albert model,
 129 the number of edges is linear in the number of nodes, and its asymptotic degree distribution follows a
 130 power law with an exponent of 3.

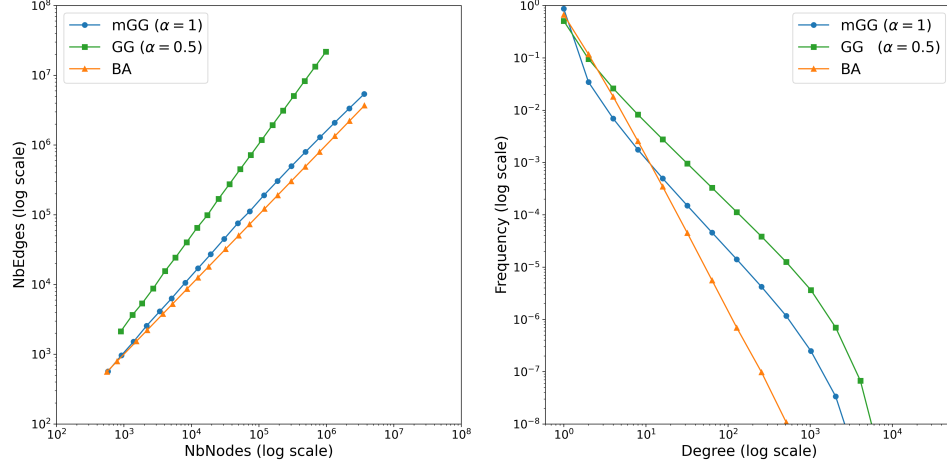


Figure 2: Examination of the mGG graph properties (●) with parameters $\alpha = 1$, $\tau = 0$, $c = 1$, and $\beta = 1$ for various values of η ranging from 50 to 6000, resulting in graphs of different sizes. Comparison with the Generalized Gamma CRM (■) with parameters $\tau = 1$ and $\sigma = 0.5$, and with the Barabási–Albert model (▲). For every configuration we simulate 20 graph samples and plot the mean of the quantity of interest.

131 4 Inference Algorithm

132 Posterior inference is a crucial property of a statistical model, as it allows the model to be fit to
 133 observational data. Here, we briefly describe the MCMC algorithm introduced in [13] to approximate
 134 the posterior density over the model parameters. Assume we have observed a graph \mathcal{G} sampled from
 135 our mGG graph model. We aim to infer the sociability parameter W_i for each node and the model
 136 parameters $\phi = (\beta, c, \eta)$. We consider the following improper priors:

$$p(\beta) \propto \frac{1}{\beta}, \quad p(c) \propto \frac{1}{c}, \quad p(\eta) \propto \frac{1}{\eta}. \quad (3)$$

137 We introduce two sets of auxiliary variables. First, as in [5], we introduce latent count variables \tilde{q}_{ij}
 138 with the conditional distribution, for $i < j$,

$$\tilde{q}_{ij} \mid Z, W \sim \begin{cases} \delta_0 & \text{if } Z_{ij} = 0, \\ \text{tPoisson}(2W_i W_j) & \text{if } Z_{ij} = 1, i \neq j, \\ \text{tPoisson}(W_i^2) & \text{if } Z_{ij} = 1, i = j, \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

139 where $\text{tPoisson}(\lambda)$ is the zero-truncated Poisson distribution, and with $\tilde{q}_{ji} = \tilde{q}_{ij}$. Second, to take
 140 advantage of the mixture representation of the Lévy intensity, we introduce local indices of variations
 141 $S_i \in (0, 1)$ for each node i , as in the size-biased algorithm. In the following, we also write w_* for the
 142 sum of the sociabilities of nodes with no connections in \mathcal{G} . The algorithm is presented in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Posterior inference [13, Algorithm 1]

Step 1: Update the weights w_i and the latent space variables s_i given the other variables, using a Hamiltonian Monte Carlo step.

Step 2: Update (ϕ, w_*) given the other variables, using a Gibbs sampler update.

Step 3: Update the latent counts (\tilde{q}_{ij}) given the other variables using (4).

143 To illustrate the performance of the inference algorithm, [13] proposes different experiments on both
 144 synthetic and real data. We present the results on one of the real datasets here. We consider the **Flickr**

dataset, a crawl of the Flickr social network, a photo and video sharing platform. The dataset contains all links between users (<https://socialnetworks.mpi-sws.org/data-imc2007.html>, 17). This dataset consists of a network with 1,861,232 nodes and 15,555,041 edges; the mean degree is 33.4, while the maximum degree is 54,472.

To train our model, we extracted a subgraph containing approximately 5% of the nodes from the network using p -sampling [16]. For Flickr, we used $p = 0.14$, resulting in a random subgraph with 85,613 nodes and 299,358 edges, with a mean degree of 13.9 and a maximum degree of 2890.

To assess model fit, we apply p -sampling to split the dataset into a training set (approximately 5% of the nodes) and a test set (the remaining nodes). We then compare the empirical degree distribution of the test set with the predictive degree distribution generated by our model, using hyperparameters inferred from the training data. Specifically, we simulate 200 graphs from the posterior predictive distribution. Parameters are drawn from the post-burn-in MCMC samples, and we scale $\hat{\eta}$ by $(1-p)/p$ to match the expected size of the target graph.

Figure 3 shows the comparison between the empirical and predictive degree distributions. Overall, the model provides a good fit for this dataset, successfully capturing the heavy-tailed behavior characteristic of real-world networks.

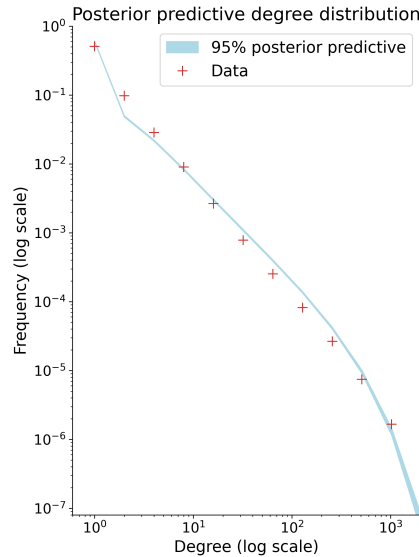


Figure 3: Posterior predictive degree distribution for the Flickr dataset. The predictive distribution is shown in blue, and the empirical distribution of the test set is shown in red.

5 Conclusion

We have seen that [13] has introduced a novel generative model for the difficult problem of generating extremely sparse sequences of graphs with good statistical properties. The model presents theoretical guarantees, a simple size-biased sampling procedure, and an efficient inference algorithm. The new CRM introduced to produce this model has a wider range of applications and could also be used in clustering or partition models. For a more detailed discussion, we refer the reader to the final section of [13].

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