1 Introduction

Network datasets arise naturally in a number of applications, such as online social networks, biological networks, communication networks, and transportation networks [1]. As a result, there is growing interest in developing models for such data, and in particular—as individual networks continue to grow in size—statistical models that accurately reflect the real-life scaling properties of such graph sequences. One important real-life scaling property we want to capture in a network model is sparsity (e.g., [2–8]), where the number of edges grows sub-quadratically in the number of vertices [9–11].

Many popular network models make the assumption of exchangeability in the vertices (see Lloyd et al. [12, Sec. 7.1] for examples); i.e., the order that the vertices appear in the graph sequence does not affect the distribution of the graph. The Aldous-Hoover theorem [13, 14] characterizes the distribution of such vertex-exchangeable graphs, by guaranteeing the existence of a function, often called a graphon, from which we can sample vertex-exchangeable graphs. This representation theorem allows us to evaluate all vertex-exchangeable graphs at once; in particular, a corollary of the Aldous-Hoover theorem is that any vertex-exchangeable graph is almost surely dense or empty (see Orbanz and Roy [15]). This is an undesirable scaling property for modeling real-world graphs, as it implies that the number of edges grows quadratically in the number of vertices.

Recently, the notion of edge exchangeability for graphs was introduced; here the order that edges appear in the graph sequence—as opposed to the vertices—does not affect the distribution of the graph, and it was proven that there exist sparse, edge-exchangeable graphs [16, 17]. Thus, edge exchangeability provides a promising alternative to vertex exchangeability for developing hierarchical models for network and relational data, as, crucially, it admits properties of sparsity and power law behavior observed in many real-world networks. As in the vertex-exchangeable case with the Aldous-Hoover theorem, it is desirable to characterize all edge-exchangeable graphs at once via a de-Finetti style representation.

In this paper, we provide a paintbox representation for edge-exchangeable graphs, which we call the graph paintbox, and show that it characterizes the distribution of edge-exchangeable graphs. The paintbox representation thus provides a way to analyze all edge-exchangeable graphs, and in particular, study desirable properties such as sparsity and power laws. In addition, we discuss a particular class of edge-exchangeable graphs examined by Cai, Campbell, and Broderick [16], called graph frequency models, and provide a characterization for an important class of graph frequency models via a function called the exchangeable vertex probability function (EVPF), which is reminiscent of the exchangeable partition probability function (EPPF) for random partitions [18]. In particular, the EVPF is convenient for practical inference in edge-exchangeable graph models, analogous to the role of the EPPF for performing practical inference Bayesian nonparametric models for clustering, such as with the Dirichlet process mixture [19] and more generally in other clustering models [20, 21].
Consider the random graph sequence \( (G_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} := G_1, G_2, \ldots \) be a sequence of graphs where each graph \( G_n = (V_n, E_n) \) consists of a (finite) set of vertices \( V_n \) and a (finite) multiset of edges \( E_n \). Each edge connects two distinct vertices in \( V_n \). We assume the sequence is both random and projective—or growing—so that \( V_n \subseteq V_{n+1} \) and \( E_n \subseteq E_{n+1} \) almost surely.

Figure 1 shows two different ways of representing such a graph sequence. The traditional approach is to label the vertices, and express each graph in the sequence as the collection of edges represented by pairs of vertices. For example, in the top row of Figure 1, the graph sequence is constructed by sequentially adding vertex 1 with no edge, then adding vertex 2 with the edge \( \{1, 2\} \), then vertex 3 with no edge, and finally vertex 4 with edges \( \{1, 4\}, \{2, 4\}, \{3, 4\} \). We can represent the final graph as its collection of edges: \( G_4 = \{\{1, 2\}, \{1, 4\}, \{2, 4\}, \{3, 4\}\} \). This representation allows us to specify vertex exchangeability as the invariance of the distribution of \( G_4 \) to permutations of the vertex labels. Hence, as shown in the upper right two graphs in Figure 1, the graphs \( G_4 \) and \( \tilde{G}_4 = \{\{3, 2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{1, 4\}\} \) have the same probability under a vertex-exchangeable distribution, as the vertex labels were reordered by the permutation \((134)(2)\) (in cycle notation).

An alternative approach, to which we adhere, is to label the edges, and express each graph in the sequence as the collection of vertices represented by the edge labels to which they connect. For example, in the bottom row of Figure 1, the graph sequence is constructed by the following sequential procedure. First, edge 1 is introduced between two new vertices, so \( G_1 = \{\{1\}, \{1\}\} \). Next, edge 2 connects to one old and one new vertex, so \( G_2 = \{\{1, 2\}, \{2\}, \{1\}\} \). Then edge 3 connects to different vertices as edge 1, so \( G_3 = \{\{1, 3, 2\}, \{2\}, \{1, 3\}\} \). Finally, edge 4 introduces one new vertex and connects to the vertex only connected to edge 2, so \( G_4 = \{\{1, 3, 2\}, \{2, 4\}, \{1, 3\}, \{4\}\} \). This representation—which we call a vertex allocation, as it allocates labeled edges amongst the vertices—allows us to specify edge exchangeability as the invariance of the distribution of \( G_4 \) to permutations of the edge labels. Hence, as shown in the lower right two graphs in Figure 1, the graphs \( G_4 \) and \( \tilde{G}_4 = \{\{2, 3, 4\}, \{3, 1\}, \{2, 4\}, \{1\}\} \) have the same probability under an edge-exchangeable distribution, as the edge labels were reordered by the permutation \((14)(23)\) (in cycle notation).

**Definition 2.1.** Consider the random graph sequence \( (G_n)_{n} \) represented by vertex allocations. The sequence \( (G_n)_{n} \) is infinitely edge-exchangeable if for every \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and for every permutation \( \pi \) of \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \), \( G_n \equiv \tilde{G}_n \), where \( \tilde{G}_n \) is the same vertex allocation as \( G_n \) with indices permuted by \( \pi \).
3 The graph paintbox

We now present the paintbox representation that characterizes the distribution of edge-exchangeable graphs, referred to as the graph paintbox. In particular, any edge-exchangeable graph has essentially the same representation of its distribution. We first generate a random collection of open subsets of \((0, 1), (C_k)_k, (C_1')_1, \text{ and } (C_2')_2\), and independently sample an i.i.d. sequence \((V_n)_n\) of uniform random variables on \((0, 1)\). Each \(V_n\) corresponds to an edge in the graph sequence, which connects to exactly two vertices determined by the subsets in which it falls. The subsets \((C_k)_k\) represent regular vertices, and \((C_1')_1, (C_2')_2\) represent dust vertices. Regular vertices can connect to any number of edges, whereas dust vertices can connect only to a single edge in the entire infinite graph sequence. If \(V_n \in C_k\) and \(V_n \in C_j\) for \(j \neq k\), then edge \(n\) is between two regular vertices. If \(V_n \in C_k\) and \(V_n \in C_1'\), then edge \(n\) is between a regular vertex and a dust vertex that only ever connects to edge \(n\). Finally, if \(V_n \in C_2'\), edge \(n\) connects to 2 dust vertices that both only ever connect to edge \(n\). We call an edge-exchangeable graph regular if there are no dust vertices, or equivalently, if \(C_1' = C_2' = \emptyset\).

Figure 2 illustrates an example graph paintbox, where the subsets \(C_1, C_2, C_3\) are given by the yellow, red, and blue subsets of \((0, 1)\), respectively, and the gray subsets \(C_1', C_2'\) represent dust vertices. On the right is the resulting edge-exchangeable graph after making 6 i.i.d. uniform draws of \(V_n\) given the paintbox. The resulting vertex allocation is \(G_6 = \{(3, 6), (1, 2, 5), (3, 6), (1), (2), (5), (4), (4)\}\). Here the gray vertices are the dust vertices, which only ever connect to a single edge in the infinite graph sequence, and the dust vertices allow for structure such as isolated edges and stars in the graph. Note that Definition 3.1 could be modified to allow for both loops (edges that connect to only one vertex) and empty edges (those that connect to no vertices), but for clarity we only present the case where edges must connect to exactly two vertices.

**Definition 3.1.** An infinitely edge-exchangeable graph sequence \((G_n)_n\) has a graph paintbox if there exists a random sequence \((C_k)_k\) and random sets \(C_1', C_2'\) that are all Lebesgue-measurable open subsets of \((0, 1)\) such that

- the sets \(C_2'\) and \(\bigcup_k C_k \cup C_1'\) are disjoint, and
- any \(V \in (0, 1)\) is an element of either \(C_2'\) or exactly two sets from \((C_k)_k\) and \(C_1'\),

where the sequence \((G_n)_n\) is constructed by

- sampling \((V_n)_n\) i.i.d. \(\text{Unif}(0, 1)\),
- setting \(I_k = \{n : V_n \in C_k\}\) for each \(k \in \mathbb{N}\),
- setting \(I_1' = \{n\} : V_n \in C_1'\) and \(I_2' = \{n\} : V_n \in C_2'\), and
- setting \(G_n\) for each \(n \in \mathbb{N}\) to the collection \((I_k)_k, I_1', I_2'\) with indices above \(n\) removed.

The graph paintbox described in Definition 3.1 can also be viewed as a special case of the feature paintbox [23], in which the number of subsets a point \(V_n \in (0, 1)\) can be an element of is constrained to be exactly 2; in this case, features correspond to vertices. Our treatment of the paintbox additionally includes the characterization of dust vertices.

**Theorem 3.2.** A random graph \((G_n)_n\) is infinitely edge-exchangeable iff it has a graph paintbox.
Note that the graph paintbox representation can be extended to more general hypergraphs, where edges connect a finite number of vertices (potentially with multiplicity) via recent work on the theory of trait allocations [22].

4 Frequency models and probability functions

In this section, we consider a particular construction of an edge-exchangeable graph, which is an important special case of the general class of graph frequency models considered by Cai, Campbell, and Broderick [16] (we refer to this special case with the same name for brevity). Graph frequency models are promising not only because they can produce sparse graphs [16], but also because they are particularly amenable to approximate posterior inference algorithms, such as variational inference, Hamiltonian Monte Carlo, and Gibbs sampling. We show the equivalence of random graph sequences having a frequency model with those having a marginal distribution that can be expressed as an exchangeable vertex probability function (EVPF), the graph analog of the exchangeable partition probability function (EPPF) [18] and the exchangeable feature probability function (EFPF) [23]. Similar to how the EPPF has led to practical inference algorithms for Bayesian clustering, and how the EFPF has done the same for Bayesian feature learning, the equivalent characterization of the EVPF with graph frequency models provided in Theorem 4.2 implies a class of edge-exchangeable graph models that have practical posterior inference algorithms.

The particular graph frequency model we consider is as follows. Suppose we have a countably infinite collection of weights \( (w_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \), with \( \sum_j w_j < \infty \) and \( w_j \in (0, 1) \), where each index \( i \in \mathbb{N} \) is a “popularity” associated with a potential vertex in the graph. To sample a sequence of graphs given these weights \( (w_i)_n \), at each step \( n \), edge \( n \) forms between vertex \( j \) and \( k, j \neq k \), with probability proportional to \( w_j w_k \).

Rather than specifying the distribution of a graph sequence conditioned on latent parameters (such as the weights \( (w_i)_n \)), we can specify its marginal distribution. Suppose at step \( n \), we let \( G_n \) be the multiset of degrees of the vertices in \( G_n \), i.e., a multiset containing the number of edges each vertex participates in. Using again the bottom row of Figure 1 as an example, since \( G_4 = \{\{1, 3, 2\}, \{2, 4\}, \{1, 3\}, \{4\}\} \), we have that \( G_n = \{3, 2, 2, 1\} \). We also let \( \kappa(G_n) \) be the number of unique orderings of the sets in \( G_n \) – in the previous example, \( \kappa(G_4) = 4! = 24 \) since there are 4 unique sets in the vertex allocation \( G_4 \). As another example, if \( G_n = \{\{1, 2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{3\}, \{3\}\} \), there are \( \kappa(G_n) = 4!/(2! \cdot 2!) = 6 \) unique orderings. If the distribution of \( G_n \) depends only on \( n \), \( G_n \), and \( \kappa(G_n) \), as specified in Definition 4.1, we say \( G_n \) has an exchangeable vertex probability function (EVPF).

**Definition 4.1.** A random graph \( G_n \) has an exchangeable vertex probability function if it admits the representation \( \Pr(G_n) = \kappa(G_n) p(n, G_n) \).

Intuitively, the EVPF says that the probability of the graph only depends on the degrees of the vertices. For an arbitrary edge-exchangeable graph, there may not exist an EVPF; however, any edge-exchangeable graph that has a graph frequency model also has an EVPF, and vice versa, as shown by Theorem 4.2.

**Theorem 4.2.** A regular graph sequence \( (G_n)_n \) has a frequency model iff it has an EVPF.

5 Conclusions and future directions

We have presented a paintbox representation for all edge-exchangeable graphs, and the correspondence between exchangeable vertex probability functions and graph frequency models. The paintbox is a powerful representation that can be directly analyzed to characterize properties of all edge-exchangeable graphs. We are currently investigating the use of these results to characterize edge-exchangeable graphs with sparse power laws, i.e., graphs in which the number of edges grows with the number of vertices with an exponent strictly between 1 and 2. We are also investigating other types of power laws involving, for example, the number of triangles or the degree distribution of the graph. Finally, we are further exploring the connection between the EVPF and efficient algorithms for posterior inference in edge-exchangeable graph frequency models.
References


