

Random Acyclic Networks

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Directed acyclic graphs make up a fundamental class of networks that includes citation networks, food webs, and family trees, among others. Here we define a random graph model for directed acyclic graphs and give solutions for a number of the model's properties, including connection probabilities and component sizes, as well as a fast algorithm for simulating the model on a computer. We compare the predictions of the model to a real-world network of citations between physics papers and find surprisingly good agreement, suggesting that the structure of the real network may be quite well described by the random graph.

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Many networks of scientific interest take the form of directed acyclic graphs—directed networks containing no closed cycles, i.e., paths that start and end at the same vertex and follow edges only in the forward direction [1]. The best known examples are citation networks [2], but there are many others as well, such as family trees, phylogenetic networks, food webs, and feed-forward neural networks. (Some of these are only approximately acyclic, but the approximation is typically good enough that acyclic graphs still provide a useful starting point for theories of network structure.)

One of the most fundamental and important of theoretical models in the study of networks is the random graph. In its most general form, a random graph is a model network of a given number of vertices in which certain topological features are fixed but in all other respects edges are placed at random [3–7]. Random graphs have significant advantages as models of networks, allowing one to isolate the effects of particular structural parameters and being exactly solvable for many of their topological properties, both local and global. They have played a central role in the development of network theory, proving useful as a guide to both the qualitative and the quantitative properties of networks of many kinds.

In this Letter, we present a random graph model for directed acyclic graphs. Despite the name “acyclic graph,” the lack of cycles is in fact not the defining feature of most real-world acyclic graphs. The defining feature is that the vertices have a natural ordering. In a citation network of scientific papers, for instance, the papers are time ordered by publication date, and the network is acyclic because papers can only cite those that came before them, meaning that all edges point backward in time. (Note that self-edges are not allowed in acyclic graphs.) It is clear that all networks ordered in this way are acyclic, and it can be proved that for all acyclic networks at least one appropriate ordering of the vertices exists. In practical situations, however, the ordering is normally the crucial property, and it will be the defining feature for the models described in this Letter.

Suppose then that we are given an ordered set of n vertices denoted by $i = 1 \dots n$ and a corresponding degree sequence, i.e., a complete set of in- and out-degrees k_i^{in} and k_i^{out} for all vertices. In our representation all edges will point from “later” vertices (higher i) to “earlier” ones (lower i) as in a citation network. (Although we use the language of time in this Letter, the ordering does not have to be a time ordering. In a food web, for example, the ordering represents trophic level.)

It is not possible to construct an acyclic network on every degree sequence. Degree sequences, for instance, in which the first vertex has any outgoing edges ($k_1^{\text{out}} > 0$) will not work because there are no earlier vertices for those edges to attach to. More generally, all edges outgoing from vertices 1 to i must attach at their other end to vertices in the range 1 to $i - 1$, and hence a necessary condition on the degree sequence is $\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} k_j^{\text{in}} \geq \sum_{j=1}^i k_j^{\text{out}}$ for all i , with the inequality becoming an equality for $i = 1$ and $i = n$. Defining the useful quantity

$$\lambda_i = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} k_j^{\text{in}} - \sum_{j=1}^i k_j^{\text{out}}, \quad (1)$$

this condition can also be written as $\lambda_i \geq 0$ for $i = 2 \dots n - 1$ and $\lambda_1 = \lambda_n = 0$. It is straightforward to prove that this is also a sufficient condition for a degree sequence to be realizable as a network. Physically, λ_i represents the number of edges that go around vertex i , meaning the number that connects vertices later than i to vertices earlier than i .

We can visualize the degree sequence as a set of edge “stubs,” outgoing and ingoing, attached in the appropriate numbers to each vertex. Our job is to match these stubs in pairs to create directed edges. Our definition of a random graph for directed acyclic networks is analogous to that of the standard “configuration model” for undirected networks [5–7]: it is the graph generated by drawing uniformly at random from all allowed matchings of the stubs, where “allowed” in this case means matchings

that respect the ordering of the vertices. More correctly it is the *ensemble* of such matchings in which each matching appears with equal probability. Note that, as in other random graph models, multiedges are allowed, although in general they constitute a fraction only $O(1/n)$ of all edges and hence are usually negligible.

An attractive feature of this model is that there turns out to be a simple and efficient algorithm for generating the networks. Previous numerical schemes for generating acyclic graphs have relied on Monte Carlo techniques [8,9], which are effective but slow. Our model, by contrast, allows a simple constructive algorithm: starting with no edges in our network, we go through each vertex in time order and attach each outgoing stub to an ingoing stub at an earlier vertex, chosen uniformly at random from the set of such stubs that are currently unattached. With a suitable choice of data structures this algorithm runs in time of order the number of edges in the network. In practice, we can easily generate networks of up to a few billion vertices in reasonable running times.

It may not be immediately clear that this algorithm generates networks with the same probabilities as the model defined above, but it is easily proved. Consider the step of the algorithm in which we choose the destinations of the k_i^{out} outgoing stubs at vertex i . At the start of this step, the number of unused ingoing stubs at earlier vertices is $\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} k_j^{\text{in}} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} k_j^{\text{out}} = \lambda_i + k_i^{\text{out}}$, and the number of distinct matchings of i 's outgoing stubs to these ingoing ones is $N_i = (\lambda_i + k_i^{\text{out}})!/\lambda_i!$, each of which has the same probability $1/N_i$ of being chosen. Thus the total probability of generating a specific matching for the whole network is $\prod_{i=2}^n (1/N_i)$, which is clearly uniform over all matchings, as required, since it depends only on the degree sequence and not on the matching itself.

Having defined our model and a method for drawing from its ensemble, we turn to the calculation of its properties. Our first goal is to find one of the most fundamental of network quantities, the probability of connection between a given pair of vertices, or more correctly the expected number of edges between them. Let us define f_{ij} to be the probability of connection between a given in-stub at vertex i and a given out-stub at vertex j , multiplied by the total number m of edges in the network. The stub connection probability is equal to the number of complete matchings in which these particular stubs are connected divided by the total number of matchings. Assuming $i < j$, this gives

$$f_{ij} = m \frac{\prod_{l=i+1}^{j-1} \lambda_l}{\prod_{l=i+1}^j (\lambda_l + k_l^{\text{out}})}. \quad (2)$$

Then the expected number P_{ij} of edges between i and j is

$$P_{ij} = \frac{k_i^{\text{in}} k_j^{\text{out}}}{m} f_{ij}. \quad (3)$$

Note that in an ordinary (cyclic) directed random graph the

expected number of edges between two vertices is $k_i^{\text{in}} k_j^{\text{out}}/m$ and hence f_{ij} is the factor by which that number is modified in our acyclic model.

By suitable manipulation, Eq. (2) can be rewritten as a product of independent functions of i and j : $f_{ij} = f_{1n} a_i b_j$, with $a_1 = b_n = 1$ and

$$a_i = \prod_{l=2}^i \left[1 + \frac{k_l^{\text{out}}}{\lambda_l} \right], \quad b_j = \prod_{l=j}^{n-1} \left[1 + \frac{k_l^{\text{in}}}{\lambda_l} \right] \quad (4)$$

for all other i, j . This reduces the calculation of P_{ij} to the calculation of just $O(n)$ quantities, and for numerical purposes this is the quickest way to evaluate P_{ij} . Equation (4) also has the virtue of being manifestly symmetric with respect to in- and out-degrees [by contrast with Eq. (2)].

As a demonstration of the application of the model, we show in Fig. 1 a comparison of our theoretical predictions for f_{ij} with measured values for a citation network consisting of $n = 27\,221$ physics papers on high-energy theory posted on the physics e-print archive at arxiv.org between 1992 and 2003. We study f_{ij} rather than P_{ij} since the latter is strongly dependent on the degrees of individual vertices, via Eq. (3), making it a noisy function of its indices. By contrast, f_{ij} has only a weak dependence on individual degrees and is relatively smooth. We estimate f_{ij} for the observed network by counting the number of edges running between two windows of width 200 vertices centered on i and j , dividing by the number of in-stubs in the first window and out-stubs in the second, and multiplying by m .

As the figure shows, theory and observation are in remarkably good agreement in this case, indicating that the edge probabilities are, at least on average, not far from those of the random graph. A normal (not acyclic) random directed graph [7], sometimes used as a crude model for acyclic networks, would have $f_{ij} = 1$ for all i, j —a per-

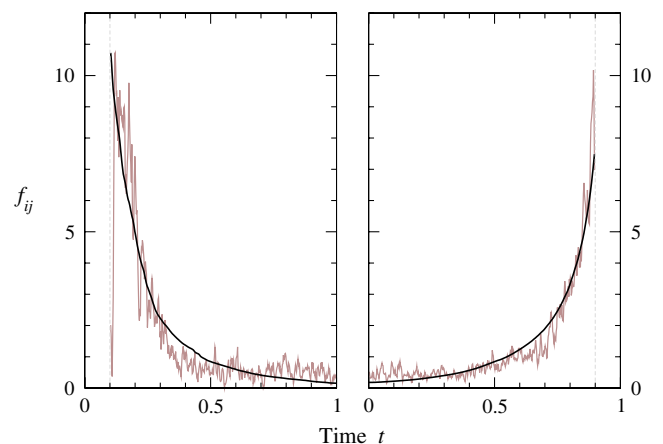


FIG. 1 (color online). Comparison of empirical measurements (jagged lines) and analytic predictions (curves) of f_{ij} for the citation network described in the text. The “time” of paper i is defined to be $t = i/n$. Left: f_{ij} for citations to papers at time 0.1 (dotted line) from later times t . Right: f_{ij} for citations from papers at time 0.9 to earlier times t .

fectly horizontal line in the figure—which would be entirely incompatible with the observations. (Other models, particularly preferential attachment models [10,11], make quite good models of citation networks, but our model is more general, being applicable also to many other acyclic networks for which preferential attachment is not a good match.)

To make further progress it is convenient to consider, as with other random graph models, the behavior of the model in the limit of large network size. Let us define a “time” variable $t \in (0, 1]$ such that the time of vertex i is $t = i/n$, and let $\kappa^{\text{in}}(t)$ and $\kappa^{\text{out}}(t)$ be the densities of ingoing and outgoing edges over time, meaning that $\kappa^{\text{in}}(t)dt$ is the fraction of ingoing edges in the interval t to $t + dt$, and similarly for $\kappa^{\text{out}}(t)$. By analogy with earlier developments we also define

$$\lambda(t) = \int_0^t [\kappa^{\text{in}}(t') - \kappa^{\text{out}}(t')] dt', \quad (5)$$

and we define $f(t, u)$ to be m times the probability that an in-stub at time t is connected to an out-stub at time u . Then, taking $n \rightarrow \infty$ in Eq. (4) and assuming that λ_i is large compared to individual degrees, we find that $f(t, u) = f(0, 1)a(t)b(u)$, where

$$a(t) = \exp\left[\int_0^t \frac{\kappa^{\text{out}}(t')}{\lambda(t')} dt'\right], \quad b(u) = \exp\left[\int_u^1 \frac{\kappa^{\text{in}}(u')}{\lambda(u')} du'\right]. \quad (6)$$

Since every out-stub must connect to *some* in-stub, $f(t, u)$ must also satisfy the normalization condition $\int_0^u \kappa^{\text{in}}(t)f(t, u)dt = 1$. Substituting for $f(t, u)$ from above and setting $u = 1$ then gives

$$f(0, 1) = \left[\int_0^1 \kappa^{\text{in}}(t)a(t)dt\right]^{-1}, \quad (7)$$

which allows us to determine the overall normalization of $f(t, u)$. If we wish we can also translate these results back into the language of individual vertices and write the probability of connection between vertices i and j as $P_{ij} = k_i^{\text{in}}k_j^{\text{out}}f(i/n, j/n)/m$.

As an example, consider a random acyclic graph with

$$\kappa^{\text{in}}(t) = 2(1 - t), \quad \kappa^{\text{out}}(u) = 2u. \quad (8)$$

Using the formulas above, we then find that

$$f(t, u) = \frac{1}{2(1 - t)u}. \quad (9)$$

Note that this diverges at $t = 1$ and $u = 0$, as it should: the probability of connection between an out-stub at time u and an earlier in-stub becomes large when u approaches zero because the number of earlier in-stubs is small (and similarly when t is large).

The probability of connection between *vertices* on the other hand does not diverge. Multiplying (9) by $k_i^{\text{in}}k_j^{\text{out}}/m$ with $i = nt, j = nu$, averaging over the distributions of the

degrees, and noting that the average in- and out-degrees at time t are $c\kappa^{\text{in}}(t)$ and $c\kappa^{\text{out}}(t)$ where $c = m/n$ is the average degree (in or out) of the network as a whole, we get

$$P_{ij} = \frac{c\kappa^{\text{in}}(t)c\kappa^{\text{out}}(u)}{m}f(t, u) = \frac{2c(1 - t) \times 2cu}{2m(1 - t)u} = \frac{2c}{n}, \quad (10)$$

which is constant. Thus all pairs of vertices are equally likely to be connected. In fact, this case is closely related to the so-called cascade model, an acyclic graph model used in the study of food webs [12]. The cascade model also has constant probabilities of connection between vertices, and moreover it can be shown that all networks with a given degree sequence appear with the same probability in the cascade model, so that the set of such networks is a random acyclic graph in our sense [13].

As another example consider the widely studied class of networks generated by linear preferential attachment processes [10,11,14,15]. Because of the inherent time ordering of their vertices, these processes generate directed acyclic graphs and are commonly used as a simple model for citation networks among other things [11].

For a preferential attachment model in which each vertex created has out-degree c and attachment is proportional to $k_i^{\text{in}} + r$ with c and r constant, the mean in-degree as a function of time is $r(t^{-c/(c+r)} - 1)$ [14,15]. Consider a random acyclic graph with the same in- and out-degrees. Using the formulas above, we find that

$$f(t, u) = \frac{1}{(1 + r/c)(1 - t^{c/(c+r)})u^{r/(c+r)}}, \quad (11)$$

which again diverges at $t = 1$ and $u = 0$. The average probability of connection between vertices i and j is then

$$P_{ij} = \frac{cr}{c+r} i^{-c/(c+r)} j^{-r/(c+r)}. \quad (12)$$

Remarkably, this is precisely the connection probability for the original preferential attachment model itself [15]. Indeed it can be shown, as with the cascade model, that networks with a given degree sequence occur with uniform probability in the preferential attachment model, and hence form a random acyclic graph according to our definition of the term. It is sometimes claimed that graphs generated by the preferential attachment process are not truly random, since they contain correlations of various kinds [14]. Our results indicate, however, that, when one correctly accounts for the time ordering of the vertices, the preferential attachment model is in fact simply a random graph.

There are many other properties that can be computed for our model. Consider, for example, the number of paths between vertices in the network. Let D_{ij} be the expected number of directed paths from j to i . Since every such path consists either of just a single edge from j to i or of a path from j to some intermediate vertex v and then an edge from v to i , we can write

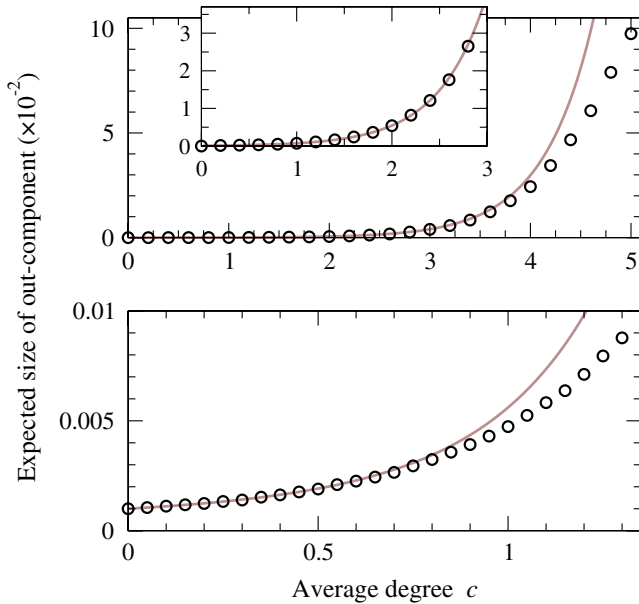


FIG. 2 (color online). Expected size of the out-component for the last ($t = 1$) vertex in a graph, measured as a fraction of system size. Solid lines represent the theoretical predictions. Points represent numerical results, averaged over 8000 graphs. Top: networks with the degree distribution of the cascade model. Inset: an enlargement of the leftmost portion of the curve, showing the agreement between theory and simulation in this region. Bottom: networks with the degree distribution of the preferential attachment model with $r = \frac{1}{2}c$.

$$D_{ij} = P_{ij} + \sum_{v=i+1}^{j-1} P_{iv}D_{vj}. \quad (13)$$

After some computation, we then find that

$$D_{ij} = P_{ij} \prod_{v=i+1}^{j-1} \left[1 + \frac{k_v^{\text{in}} k_v^{\text{out}}}{\lambda_v} \right]. \quad (14)$$

When D_{ij} is small, so that the probability of having more than one path is negligible, D_{ij} can be treated as the probability that a path exists. Within this “treelike” regime, we can compute various quantities of interest starting from the expression for D_{ij} . For instance, let s_j be the average size of the out-component reachable from vertex j —the total number of papers cited directly or indirectly by j in the language of citation networks. Then $s_j = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} D_{ij}$, which can be evaluated explicitly in the large graph size limit. For the case of a cascade-type model obeying Eq. (8), for example, this expression gives $s(t) = e^{2ct}$, increasing exponentially with time and largest for the last vertex in the network. The treelike assumption breaks down if $D_{ij} > O(1/n)$ or equivalently if the sizes of out-components approach the size of the entire network. For the cascade model this happens if $e^{2c} \sim n$, or equivalently $c \sim \frac{1}{2} \ln n$. Hence this breakdown is effectively a finite-size effect—in the limit of large n it is never observed. For other

choices of degrees, however, the assumption of treelike components can break down even in the large n limit. The preferential-attachment-type network is an example of this; here the assumption breaks down at $c = 1$. Figure 2 shows a comparison of simulations and theory for both cases as a function of c . Agreement is excellent until we approach the expected breakdown point, at which simulation and theory diverge significantly.

In conclusion, we have proposed a random graph model for directed acyclic graphs, a large and important class that describes many real-world networks. We have defined the model for arbitrary degree sequences, given a fast algorithm for generating networks drawn from the model, and shown that a variety of the model’s properties can be calculated exactly, both at finite sizes and in the limit of large network size. Just as ordinary undirected and directed random graphs have played many roles in the development of network theory, so the acyclic equivalent should prove useful in the study of acyclic networks, providing an analytically tractable model for structural network properties, a starting point for more complex analytic or numerical models, a null model for statistical comparisons, and, we hope, other applications not yet envisioned.

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