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A Stochastic Model for the Evolution of the Web Allowing Link Deletion

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Abstract

Recently several authors have proposed stochastic evolutionary models for the growth of the web graph and other networks that give rise to power-law distributions. These models are based on the notion of preferential attachment leading to the “rich get richer” phenomenon. We present a generalisation of the basic model by allowing deletion of individual links and show that it also gives rise to a power-law distribution. We derive the mean-field equations for this stochastic model and show that, by examining a snapshot of the distribution at the steady state of the model, we are able to tell whether any link deletion has taken place and estimate the probability of deleting a link. Applying our model to actual web graph data gives some insight into the distribution of inlinks in the web graph and provides evidence of link deletion and the extent to which this has occurred. Our analysis of the data also suggests a power-law exponent of approximately 2.15 rather than the widely published value of 2.1.

1 Introduction

Power-law distributions taking the form

$$f(i) = C i^{-\tau}, \quad (1)$$

where C and τ are positive constants, are abundant in nature [Sch91]. The constant τ is called the *exponent* of the distribution. Examples of such distributions are: *Zipf’s law*, which states that the relative frequency of words in a text is inversely proportional to their rank, *Pareto’s law*, which states that the number of people whose personal income is above a certain level follows a power-law distribution with an exponent between 1.5 and 2, *Lotka’s law*, which states that the number of authors publishing a prescribed number of papers is inversely proportional to the square of the number of publications, and *Gutenberg-Richter’s law*, which states that the number of earthquakes over a period of time having a certain magnitude is roughly inversely proportional to the magnitude.

Recently several researchers have detected asymptotic power-law distributions in the topology of the World-Wide-Web [BKM⁺00, DKM⁺02] and, in parallel, researchers from a variety of fields are trying to explain the emergence of these power laws in terms of the evolution of complex networks. See [AB02, DM02, New03] for comprehensive surveys of recent work in this area, detailing various stochastic models that can explain the evolution of

the web and other networks such as the internet, citation networks, collaboration networks and biological networks. A common theme in these models is that of *preferential attachment*, which results in the “rich get richer” phenomenon, for example, when new links to web pages are added in proportion to the number of currently existing links to these pages. Related approaches are the general theoretical model covering both directed and undirected web graphs [CF03], the stochastic multiplicative process in which nodes appear at different times and the rate of addition of links varies between nodes [AH01], and the statistical physics approach that uses the rate equation technique [KR02].

To explain situations where pure preferential attachment models fail, we [LFLW02] and others [PFL⁺02] have previously proposed extensions of the stochastic model for the web’s evolution in which the addition of links is prescribed by a mixture of preferential and non-preferential mechanisms. In [LFLW02], we devised a general stochastic model involving the transfer of balls between urns; this also naturally models quantities such as the numbers of web pages in and visitors to a web site, which are not naturally described in graph-theoretic terms. We note that our urn model is an extension of the stochastic model proposed by Simon in his visionary paper published in 1955 [Sim55], which was couched in terms of word frequencies in a text. We also considered an alternative extension of Simon’s model in [FLL02] by adding a preferential mechanism for discarding balls from urns (corresponding to deleting web pages); this results in an exponential cutoff in the power-law distribution.

Our urn transfer model is a stochastic process, in which at each step with probability p a new ball (which might represent a web page) is added to the first urn and with probability $1 - p$ a ball in some urn is moved along to the next urn. We assume that a ball in the i th urn has i pins attached to it (which might represent web links). It is known that the steady-state distribution of this model is a power law, with exponent $\tau = 1 + 1/(1 - p)$ [Sim55, LFLW02]. As mentioned above, the power-law distribution breaks down when balls may be discarded, resulting in a power-law distribution with an exponential cutoff. So the question arises as to whether it also breaks down when removal of pins is allowed. We answer this question here by showing that the power-law distribution does not break down, under the constraint that more balls are added to the system than are removed. (When the only remaining pin is removed from a ball in the first urn that ball is removed from the system.) This model gives a more realistic explanation for the emergence of power laws in complex networks than the basic model without link deletion (i.e. pin removal). Considering, for example, the web graph, the modification we make to the basic model is that after a web page is chosen preferentially, say according to the number of its inlinks, there is a small probability that some link to this page will be deleted. (This is equivalent to deleting a link chosen uniformly at random.) A possible reason for this may be that popular web pages compete for inlinks, so that the number of inlinks a page has acquired will fluctuate with its popularity. This is evident, for example, in the rise and fall in the popularity of several search engines. Link deletion has also been considered by Dorogovtsev and Mendes [DM01] in the context of a different model in which, at each time step, a new node is added with just one link, which preferentially attaches itself to an existing node. In addition, at each time step m links between existing nodes are added to preferentially chosen nodes and c links between existing nodes are deleted, again preferentially. Their conclusion that link deletion increases the power-law exponent is also obtained here for our stochastic model.

Consider a power law such as Lotka’s law [Nic89]. If this holds, then a plot on a log-log scale of the number of authors (the *frequency*) against the number of publications (the *value*)

should reveal a straight line with a negative slope of around -2 . There is an obvious problem with a log-log transformation if any of the frequencies are zero; that is to say, when there are values v_1 and v_2 , with $v_1 < v_2$, for which *no* author published v_1 papers but at least one author published v_2 papers (i.e. there is a *gap* in the values for the number of publications).

In general, we expect such gaps to occur in any data set, mainly for large values. (This is due to the stochastic variation and the fact that the frequencies have to be integral.) This observation is consistent with the finding that Lotka’s law does not fit well for large values (i.e. authors who published a large number of papers) and this tail region is characterised by the presence of gaps [Nic89].

One way of dealing with the problem of gaps is simply to ignore all value-frequency pairs where the frequency is zero. However, ignoring gaps in this way seems questionable, since the zero frequency values do give relevant information about the data set and should not be treated as missing values. Our unease with this approach is reinforced by the fact that computing the exponent in this way results in a much lower value; for example, for the web inlink data [BKM⁺00], it gives a value around 1.5, rather than the generally accepted figure of 2.1.

An alternative approach is to squash the non-zero frequencies up towards the y-axis (i.e. the frequency axis), after ignoring the zero frequency values. This is equivalent to omitting from the data set those values for which there are no authors having that number of publications and then ranking the remaining values in increasing order, i.e. renumbering the values starting from one. This method also seems somewhat dubious, since the power-law relationship should really involve the actual values rather than their ranks.

The standard technique for fitting a power-law distribution uses linear regression on log-log transformed data, which is not possible if gaps are present. Another approach for handling gaps is to consider only the values up until the first gap; this approach is only reasonable if the first gap does not occur at too low a value. We call this the *unranked* approach, and note that this approach ignores the large values in the tail of the distribution. The unranked approach suggests one possible solution, but other approaches, such as smoothing or using the *Hill plot* [DdR00], are possible. Ad-hoc approaches have the disadvantage that they are hard to justify, and the Hill plot, as originally defined, is only applicable after the data has been sorted, and this also seems difficult to justify.

Another solution for handling gaps is the second method described above of ranking the values with non-zero frequencies and squashing up; we call this the *ranked* approach. In general, we should not expect the ranked and unranked approaches to yield the same power-law exponent. We would expect the exponent computed by linear regression on the log-log transformed data from the unranked approach to be somewhat higher. One of the findings of this paper is that for inlinks in the web graph the ranked and unranked approaches lead to a small but noticeable difference between the exponents. (Our previous comments indicate why we have misgivings with the ranked approach.)

The rest of the paper is organised as follows. In Section 2 we present an urn transfer model that extends Simon’s model by allowing a pin, chosen uniformly at random, to be discarded with some specified probability. In Section 3 we derive the steady state distribution of the model, which, as stated, follows an asymptotic power law like (1). In Section 4 we show that, by examining a snapshot of the distribution of balls in urns at the steady state, we are able to tell whether removal of pins has taken place and estimate the pin removal

probability. In Section 5 we utilise our urn model to describe a discrete stochastic process that simulates the evolution of the degree distribution of inlinks in the web graph. As a proof of concept, we analyse the May 1999 data set for inlinks presented in [BKM⁺00], which we obtained from Ravi Kumar at IBM. We are able to show that our model is consistent with the data and determine the extent to which link deletion has occurred. We also investigate the discrepancy between the ranked and unranked approaches. With the ranked approach, using linear regression on the log-log transformed data, an exponent of 2.1 is obtained, as in [BKM⁺00]. However, the unranked approach results in an exponent of 2.15, which is shown to be consistent with our stochastic model. Although the difference between 2.1 and 2.15 may not seem significant, it has been remarked in [BKM⁺00] that “2.1 is in remarkable agreement with earlier studies” and in [DKM⁺02] that the exponent is “reliably around 2.1 (with little variation)”, which justifies us in making a distinction between the exponents obtained using the ranked and unranked approaches. Finally, in Section 6 we give our concluding remarks.

2 An Urn Transfer Model

We now present an *urn transfer model* for a stochastic process with urns containing balls (which might represent web pages) that have pins (which might represent either inlinks or outlinks) attached to them. Our model allows for pins to be discarded with a small probability. This model can be viewed as an extension of Simon’s model [Sim55]. We note that there is a correspondence between the Barabási and Albert model [BA99], defined in terms of nodes and links, and Simon’s model, defined in terms of balls and pins, as was established in [BE01]. Essentially, the correspondence is obtained by noting that the balls in an urn can be viewed as an equivalence class of nodes all having the same indegree (or outdegree).

We assume a countable number of urns, $urn_1, urn_2, urn_3, \dots$, where each ball in urn_i is assumed to have i pins attached to it. Initially all the urns are empty except urn_1 , which has one ball in it. Let $F_i(k)$ be the number of balls in urn_i at stage k of the stochastic process, so $F_1(1) = 1$. Then, for $k \geq 1$, at stage $k + 1$ of the stochastic process one of two things may occur:

- (i) with probability p , $0 < p < 1$, a new ball is inserted into urn_1 , or
- (ii) with probability $1 - p$ an urn is selected, with urn_i being selected with probability proportional to $iF_i(k)$, and a ball is chosen from urn_i ; then,
 - (a) with probability r , $0 < r \leq 1$, the chosen ball is transferred to urn_{i+1} , (this is equivalent to attaching an additional pin to the ball chosen from urn_i), or
 - (b) with probability $1 - r$, the ball is transferred to urn_{i-1} if $i > 1$, otherwise, if $i = 1$, the ball is discarded (this is equivalent to removing and discarding a pin from the ball chosen from urn_i).

In the special case when $r = 1$, the process reduces to Simon’s original model.

We note that choosing a ball preferentially (in proportion to the number of pins) is equivalent to selecting a pin uniformly at random and choosing the ball it is attached to. Thus, with probability $(1 - p)(1 - r)$, a pin chosen uniformly at random is discarded.

Since $iF_i(k)$ is the total number of pins attached to balls in urn_i , the expected total number of pins in the urns at stage k is given by

$$\begin{aligned} E\left(\sum_{i=1}^k iF_i(k)\right) &= 1 + (k-1)(p + (1-p)r - (1-p)(1-r)) \\ &= 1 + (k-1)(1 - 2(1-p)(1-r)). \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Correspondingly, the expected total number of balls in the urns is given by

$$E\left(\sum_{i=1}^k F_i(k)\right) = 1 + (k-1)p - (1-p)(1-r) \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \phi_j, \quad (3)$$

where ϕ_j , $1 \leq j \leq k-1$, is the expected probability of choosing urn_1 at step (ii) of stage $j+1$, i.e.

$$\phi_j = E\left(\frac{F_1(j)}{\sum_{i=1}^j iF_i(j)}\right). \quad (4)$$

Now let

$$\phi^{(k)} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^k \phi_j. \quad (5)$$

In order to ensure that there are at least as many pins in the system as there are balls and that, on average, more balls are added to the system than are removed, we require the following constraint, derived from (2) and (3),

$$\frac{1-2r}{1-r} \leq \phi^{(k)} \leq \frac{p}{(1-p)(1-r)}. \quad (6)$$

This implies

$$2(1-p)(1-r) \leq 1, \quad (7)$$

which obviously holds for $r \geq 1/2$. Inequality (7) expresses the fact that the expected number of pins should not be negative, and follows from (2).

We note that we could modify the initial conditions so that, for example, urn_1 initially contained δ balls, $\delta > 1$, instead of just one ball. It can be shown, from the development of the model below, that any change in the initial conditions will have no effect on the asymptotic distribution of the balls in the urns as k tends to infinity, provided the process does not terminate with all of the urns empty. More specifically, the probability that the process will not terminate with all the urns empty is given by

$$1 - \left(\frac{(1-p)(1-r)}{1 - (1-p)(1-r)}\right)^\delta. \quad (8)$$

This is exactly the probability that the gambler's fortune will increase forever [Ros83]. (We note that (8) only makes sense if (7) holds.) Since, in practice, r will be quite close to one, once the process has survived for a few steps the probability that it will subsequently terminate is small. From now on we will therefore assume that the process does not terminate.

3 Derivation of the Steady State Distribution

Following Simon [Sim55], we now state the mean-field equations for the urn transfer model. For $i > 1$ the expected number of balls in urn_i is given by

$$E_k(F_i(k+1)) = F_i(k) + \beta_k \left(r(i-1)F_{i-1}(k) + (1-r)(i+1)F_{i+1}(k) - iF_i(k) \right), \quad (9)$$

where $E_k(F_i(k+1))$ is the expected value of $F_i(k+1)$, given the state of the model at stage k , and

$$\beta_k = \frac{1-p}{\sum_{i=1}^k iF_i(k)} \quad (10)$$

is the required normalising factor.

In the boundary case, when $i = 1$, we have

$$E_k(F_1(k+1)) = F_1(k) + p + \beta_k \left((1-r) 2F_2(k) - F_1(k) \right), \quad (11)$$

for the expected number of balls in urn_1 , given the state at stage k .

In order to obtain a solution for the model, we assume that, for large k , the random variable β_k can be approximated by a constant value $\hat{\beta}_k$ depending only on k . This is defined by

$$\hat{\beta}_k = \frac{1-p}{k(1-2(1-p)(1-r))}.$$

The motivation for this approximation is that the denominator in the definition of β_k , the total number of pins, has been replaced by its expectation given in (2). This is a reasonable assumption since the number of pins is the difference between two binomial random variables, and with high probability this will be close to its expected value. We observe that using $\hat{\beta}_k$ as the normalising factor instead of β_k results in an approximation similar to that of the “ p_k model” in [LFLW02].

Replacing β_k by $\hat{\beta}_k$ and taking the expectations of (9) and (11), we obtain

$$E(F_i(k+1)) = E(F_i(k)) + \hat{\beta}_k \left(r(i-1)E(F_{i-1}(k)) + (1-r)(i+1)E(F_{i+1}(k)) - iE(F_i(k)) \right) \quad (12)$$

and

$$E(F_1(k+1)) = E(F_1(k)) + p + \hat{\beta}_k \left((1-r) 2E(F_2(k)) - E(F_1(k)) \right), \quad (13)$$

respectively.

In order to solve (12) and (13), we would like to show that $E(F_i(k))/k$ tends to a limit f_i as k tends to infinity. Suppose for the moment that this is the case, then, provided the convergence is fast enough, $E(F_i(k+1)) - E(F_i(k))$ tends to f_i . By “fast enough” we mean that $\epsilon_{i,k+1} - \epsilon_{i,k}$ is $o(1/k)$ for large k , where

$$E(F_i(k)) = k(f_i + \epsilon_{i,k}).$$

Now, letting

$$\beta = k\hat{\beta}_k = \frac{1-p}{1-2(1-p)(1-r)}, \quad (14)$$

we see that $\hat{\beta}_k E(F_i(k))$ tends to βf_i as k tends to infinity. Thus, letting k tend to infinity in (12) and (13), these yield

$$f_i = \beta \left(r(i-1)f_{i-1} + (1-r)(i+1)f_{i+1} - if_i \right), \quad (15)$$

and

$$f_1 = p + \beta \left((1-r)2f_2 - f_1 \right), \quad (16)$$

respectively.

We now investigate the asymptotic behaviour of f_i for large i . If we define g_i to be if_i , we can rewrite (15) and (16) as

$$\frac{rg_{i-1}}{g_i} + \frac{(1-r)g_{i+1}}{g_i} = 1 + \frac{1}{i\beta} \quad (17)$$

and

$$\frac{p}{\beta g_1} + \frac{(1-r)g_2}{g_1} = 1 + \frac{1}{\beta}. \quad (18)$$

Suppose we can write g_i as

$$g_i = \frac{C \Gamma(i + \alpha + 1)}{\Gamma(i + \alpha + 1 + \rho)} \left(1 + \frac{\eta}{i^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{i^3}\right) \right), \quad (19)$$

where α, η, ρ and C are constants.

Using the binomial theorem and the fact that $\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{g_{i-1}}{g_i} &\approx \frac{i + \alpha + \rho}{i + \alpha} \left(1 + \frac{\eta}{i^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{i^3}\right) \right) \left(1 - \frac{\eta}{i^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{i^3}\right) \right) \\ &= \frac{i + \alpha + \rho}{i + \alpha} \left(1 + O\left(\frac{1}{i^3}\right) \right) \\ &= 1 + \frac{\rho}{i} - \frac{\rho\alpha}{i^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{i^3}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{g_{i+1}}{g_i} &\approx \frac{i + \alpha + 1}{i + \alpha + \rho + 1} \left(1 + O\left(\frac{1}{i^3}\right) \right) \\ &= 1 - \frac{\rho}{i} + \frac{\rho(\alpha + \rho + 1)}{i^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{i^3}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

Substituting (20) and (21) into the left-hand side of (17), we obtain

$$r \left(1 + \frac{\rho}{i} - \frac{\rho\alpha}{i^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{i^3}\right) \right) + (1-r) \left(1 - \frac{\rho}{i} + \frac{\rho(\alpha + \rho + 1)}{i^2} + O\left(\frac{1}{i^3}\right) \right) = 1 + \frac{1}{i\beta},$$

which simplifies to

$$1 + \frac{\rho}{i}(2r - 1) + \frac{\rho}{i^2}((1 - r)(\rho + 1) - (2r - 1)\alpha) + O\left(\frac{1}{i^3}\right) = 1 + \frac{1}{i\beta}. \quad (22)$$

For this to hold for all large enough values of i , we require

$$\rho = \frac{1}{\beta(2r - 1)}, \quad (23)$$

and

$$\alpha = \frac{(1 - r)(\rho + 1)}{2r - 1}. \quad (24)$$

It is straightforward to obtain more terms in the expansion of (19) by a more detailed analysis, for example

$$\eta = \frac{\rho((1 - r)(\alpha + \rho + 1)^2 - r\alpha^2)}{2(2r - 1)}.$$

So, with ρ and α as in (23) and (24), for large i , (19) gives an approximate solution to the recurrence defined by (15) and (16). Thus,

$$f_i \sim C i^{-(1+\rho)}, \quad (25)$$

where C is independent of i and \sim means *is asymptotic to*.

From (23) and (14),

$$\rho = 1 + \left(\frac{p}{1 - p}\right) \left(\frac{1}{2r - 1}\right). \quad (26)$$

If, as is usually the case, we assume that ρ is positive, then $r > 1/2$, and it follows that increasing p increases ρ , whereas increasing r decreases ρ . In particular, we observe from (26) that with pin removal, i.e. for $r < 1$, the exponent of the power law is greater than it would be for $r = 1$, i.e.

$$\rho \geq \frac{1}{1 - p}. \quad (27)$$

4 Recognising Pin Removal

In this section we show that, using the mean-field equations derived in Section 3, we are able to detect whether pin removal has taken place by inspecting a static snapshot of the system at the steady state.

Based on (2) and (3) we have

$$\frac{\textit{pins}}{k} \approx 1 - 2(1 - p)(1 - r), \quad (28)$$

$$\frac{\text{balls}}{k} \approx p - (1-p)(1-r)\phi, \quad (29)$$

where *pins* and *balls* stand for the expected numbers of pins and balls at stage k , and ϕ is the asymptotic value of $\phi^{(k)}$, defined by (5), i.e. the expected proportion of pins in the first urn, $|\text{urn}_1|/\text{pins}$. The right-hand sides of (28) and (29) give asymptotic values of *pins* and *balls* as k tends to infinity. It follows that the asymptotic value of the ratio *balls/pins*, which we denote by Δ , is given by

$$\Delta = \frac{p - (1-p)(1-r)\phi}{1 - 2(1-p)(1-r)}. \quad (30)$$

From this and the fact that $\Delta \geq \phi$, it follows that

$$\phi \leq \frac{p}{1 - (1-p)(1-r)} \leq \Delta \leq \frac{p}{1 - 2(1-p)(1-r)}. \quad (31)$$

Using (7) and (26), this implies

$$\frac{\phi}{2} \leq p \leq \Delta \leq \frac{\rho - 1}{\rho}. \quad (32)$$

Now suppose we are given ρ , Δ and ϕ . Then from (26) and (30) we can derive the following equations:

$$p = \frac{\phi(\rho - 1)}{2\rho(1 - \Delta) - 2 + \rho\phi}, \quad (33)$$

$$r = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{\phi}{2\rho(1 - \Delta) - 2 + \phi} \right). \quad (34)$$

Now suppose we observe an urn process with $1/2 < r \leq 1$ and $0 < p < 1$, and we take a snapshot of the system at the steady state, obtaining empirical estimates for ρ , Δ and ϕ from the distribution of the balls in the urns. We would like to check whether it is possible that these values could have arisen from Simon's process, i.e. with $r = 1$, with the probability of inserting a ball into the first urn equal to, say, p' . So from (26) and (30) we would require $\rho = 1/(1 - p')$ and $\Delta = p'$. Thus, from (26), we would obtain

$$p' = \frac{\rho - 1}{\rho} = \frac{p}{1 - 2(1-p)(1-r)}, \quad (35)$$

and, from (30),

$$p' = \Delta = \frac{p - (1-p)(1-r)\phi}{1 - 2(1-p)(1-r)}. \quad (36)$$

It is evident that (35) and (36) can only be consistent if $r \approx 1$. Thus, simulating the urn process with $p' = (\rho - 1)/\rho$ and $r = 1$ would result in the same value for ρ as that obtained from p and the original value of r . However, in the presence of pin removal, the value of Δ (i.e. the asymptotic value of *balls/pins*) would be less than p' , the probability of inserting a new ball into the first urn. This provides a discriminator between the two processes. As a result, by examining the said snapshot we are able to ascertain whether the process is consistent with the urn model in which pins may be discarded, i.e. with $r < 1$. We apply this analysis in the next section to the degree distribution of inlinks in the web graph.

5 A Model for the Evolution of the Web Graph

We now describe a discrete stochastic process for simulating the evolution of the degree distribution of inlinks in the web graph. In this model, balls correspond to web pages and pins correspond to inlinks. At each time step the state of the web graph is a directed graph $G = (N, E)$, where N is its node set and E is its arc set. In this scenario $F_i(k)$, $i \geq 1$, is the number of pages (nodes) in the web graph having i inlinks. We note that, although we have chosen i to denote the number of inlinks, i could alternatively denote the number of outlinks, the number of pages in a web site, or any other reasonable parameter we would like to investigate; see [LFLW02] for further details.

Consider the evolution of the web graph with respect to the number of pages having i inlinks at the k th step of the process. Initially G contains just a single page. At each step one of three things can happen. First, with probability p a new page having one incoming link is added to G ; this is equivalent to placing a new ball in urn_1 . Alternatively, with probability $1 - p$ a page is chosen, the probability of choosing a given page being proportional to i , the number of inlinks the page currently has; this is equivalent to preferentially choosing a ball from urn_i . Then, with probability r the chosen page receives a new inlink; this is equivalent to transferring the chosen ball from urn_i to urn_{i+1} . Alternatively, with probability $1 - r$ an inlink to the page is removed, and if the page has no inlinks remaining it is removed from the graph; this is equivalent to transferring the ball to urn_{i-1} when $i > 1$, and discarding the ball from the system if $i = 1$.

As a proof of concept, we use the inlinks data from a large crawl of the web performed during May 1999 [BKM⁺00]; the data set we used in this analysis was obtained from Ravi Kumar at IBM. After removing web pages with zero inlinks from the data set, there remain approximately 177 million pages with a total of 1.466 billion inlinks. Using the ranked approach, linear regression on the log-log transformed data gives an exponent of 2.1052, which is consistent with the value of 2.1 reported in [BKM⁺00] and confirmed subsequently in [AB02]; see also [DKM⁺02].

As discussed in the introduction, we have some reservations about the use of the ranked approach, as it uses ranks rather than values, thereby ignoring the gaps. In Broder et al.'s May 1999 data set, the first gap appears at 3121, i.e. there were no pages found with 3121 inlinks. Two possible reasons for such a gap are: (i) there were no pages in the web having 3121 inlinks, or (ii) there were one or more such pages but the crawl did not cover these pages. In any case, there is no reason to believe that the web will not contain such a page in the future. Moreover, such gaps, which are inherent in preferential attachment models, change over time due to the growth of the web graph and the stochastic nature of the evolutionary process.

One way to avoid this issue is to use the unranked approach and carry out the regression only on the data values preceding the first gap. Using the first 3120 data values of the inlinks data set, the regression yields an exponent of 2.1535. In Figure 1 we show the two regression lines, which have negative slopes of -2.1052 , when using the ranked approach, and -2.1535 , when using the unranked approach. (Recall that the exponent of the power law is $1 + \rho$.)

From the inlinks data we then estimated Δ and ϕ , obtaining $\Delta \approx \text{balls/pins} = 0.1205$ and $\phi \approx |urn_1|/\text{pins} = 0.0553$. Using these estimates for Δ and ϕ , and $\rho = 1.1535$, we computed p and r from (33) and (34), respectively, obtaining $p = 0.0915$ and $r = 0.8280$. From the

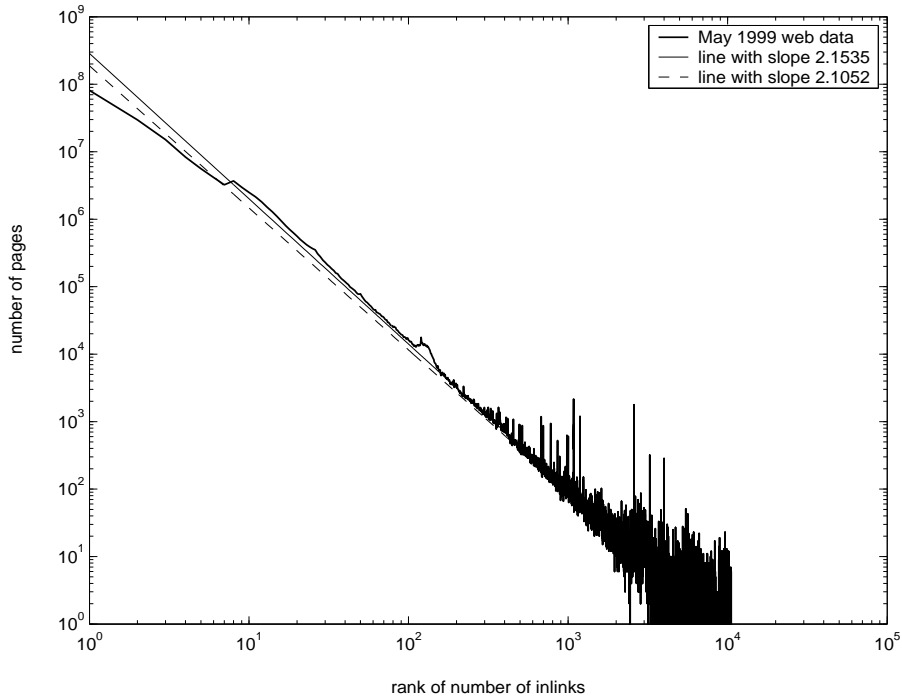


Figure 1: Broder et al. May 1999 inlink data

analysis in Section 4, it is evident that link deletion is taking place in the web graph, since $r < 1$. The extent of link deletion indicated as a proportion of insertions and deletions is $(1 - p)(1 - r) = 0.156$. It would be interesting to check this value empirically by looking at sequential snapshots of the web.

To validate our mean-field analysis we conducted 10 simulation runs each for $k = 10^7$ steps with the above values of p and r . Over the 10 runs, the mean for Δ was 0.1197 with standard deviation 1.1×10^{-4} , and computing ϕ as $|urn_1|/pins$ gave a mean of 0.0617 with standard deviation 9.2×10^{-5} . However, if we compute ϕ from (29) the mean is 0.0589 with standard deviation 4.9×10^{-4} , which is closer to the empirical value of 0.0553. We suggest that the difference between the two estimates for ϕ is mainly due to the slow convergence of $|urn_1|/pins$.

Lastly, we computed ρ from the simulation results as

$$\frac{pins}{pins - kp},$$

which follows from (26) and (28). This gave a mean value for ρ of 1.1534, with standard deviation 5.6×10^{-5} , compared to the value of 1.1535 computed from the mean-field equation (26).

For regression purposes 10 million simulation steps are insufficient to get close to the asymptotic value of ρ , so we ran two additional simulations of 1 billion steps to compare the exponents obtained using the ranked and unranked approaches. For efficiency reasons, we modified the simulation by only considering the first 7000 urns, approximating the effect at the upper boundary. The simulation was implemented in Matlab, running on a desktop PC

with a 1485Mhz Intel Pentium 4 processor and 500MB of RAM, on a Windows 2000 platform. These 1 billion step simulations, with 7000 urns, each took over 300 hours. (We conducted several more runs of 1 billion steps, varying the numbers of urns, to validate the robustness of the approximation; a single run of 2 billion steps with 15000 urns gave similar results to those we report below.)

For the first (second) run with 7000 urns, we found that the first empty urn was urn number 2403 (2395) and that overall there were 5859 (5914) non-empty urns. For the unranked approach, linear regression on the log-log transformed data for the first 2402 (2394) urns gave an exponent of 2.1603 (2.1558). On the other hand, for the ranked approach, regression on all the non-empty urns gave an exponent of 2.1199 (2.1095). In summary, the simulations of our stochastic model are consistent with the inlinks data set, highlighting a small but noticeable difference in the exponent depending on whether the ranked or unranked approach is used. In fact, with our evolutionary model of the web graph, in common with all others, there is no easy way of handling the gaps and, moreover, the concept of gaps has no meaning in the context of an asymptotic mean field analysis.

6 Concluding Remarks

We have presented an extension of Simon's classical stochastic process that allows for pins (which might represent web links) to be discarded, and have shown that asymptotically it still follows a power-law distribution. Given a snapshot of a system, the mean-field equations that we have derived give estimates of the parameters p and r , which can then be input to our stochastic process simulating the evolution of the system. We applied our analysis to the May 1999 web crawl data [BKM⁺00] to detect the extent to which link deletion had taken place. The values of p and r that we have obtained indicate that approximately 15% of all link operations are deletions. We also ran a number of simulations to validate the mean-field analysis.

An interesting finding that came to light when analysing the data was that there is good evidence that the exponent of the power law for inlinks is in fact close to 2.15 rather than to the widely published value of 2.1. Although the difference between these exponents is small, we consider it to be significant because it suggests a more justifiable way to use linear regression to obtain exponents from power law data.

It would be interesting to study link deletion through historical data, such as that provided by the *wayback machine* [Not02] (<http://www.waybackmachine.org>), in order to gain more insight into the dynamic aspects of the evolution of the web graph. In particular, it would be desirable to determine whether and how the exponent, and the parameters p and r , are changing over time.

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