# The Degree Distribution of Human Brain Functional Connectivity is Generalized Pareto: A Multi-Scale Analysis

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## ABSTRACT

Are degree distributions of human brain functional connectivity networks heavy-tailed? Initial claims based on least-square fitting suggested that brain functional connectivity networks obey power law scaling in their degree distributions. This interpretation has been challenged on methodological grounds. Subsequently, estimators based on maximum-likelihood and non-parametric tests involving surrogate data have been proposed. No clear consensus has emerged as results especially depended on data resolution. To identify the underlying topological distribution of brain functional connectivity calls for a closer examination of the relationship between resolution and statistics of model fitting. In this study, we analyze high-resolution functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) data from the Human Connectome Project to assess its degree distribution across resolutions. We consider resolutions from one thousand to eighty thousand regions of interest (ROIs) and test whether they follow a heavy or short-tailed distribution. We analyze power law, exponential, truncated power law, log-normal, Weibull and generalized Pareto probability distributions. Notably, the Generalized Pareto distribution is of particular interest since it interpolates between heavy-tailed and short-tailed distributions, and it provides a handle on estimating the tail's heaviness or shortness directly from the data. Our results show that the statistics support the short-tailed limit of the generalized Pareto distribution, rather than a power law or any other heavy-tailed distribution. Working across resolutions of the data and performing cross-model comparisons, we further establish the overall robustness of the generalized Pareto model in explaining the data. Moreover, we account for earlier ambiguities by showing that down-sampling the data systematically affects statistical results. At lower resolutions models cannot easily be differentiated on statistical grounds while their plausibility consistently increases up to an upper bound. Indeed, more power law distributions are reported at low resolutions (5K) than at higher ones (50K or 80K). However, we show that these positive identifications at low resolutions fail cross-model comparisons and that down-sampling data introduces the risk of detecting spurious heavy-tailed distributions. This dependence of the statistics of degree distributions on sampling resolution has broader implications for neuroinformatic methodology, especially, when several analyses rely on down-sampled data, for instance, due to a choice of anatomical parcellations or measurement technique. Our findings that node degrees of human brain functional networks follow a short-tailed distribution have important implications for claims of brain organization and function. Our findings do not support common simplistic representations of the brain as a generic complex system with optimally efficient architecture and function, modeled with simple growth mechanisms. Instead these findings reflect a more nuanced picture of a biological system that has been shaped by longstanding and pervasive developmental and architectural constraints, including wiring-cost constraints on the centrality architecture of individual nodes.

## Introduction

The idea that the topology of brain networks may follow power law or heavy-tailed characteristics has received a lot of attention starting with the initial discovery that some real-world networks, including social, genetic and technological networks such as the internet show power law degree distribution in scale-free networks as opposed to Poisson degree distributions in 4 Erdos-Renyi networks<sup>1</sup>. Since then, power law distributions have been reported in many more instances of social, cellular and technological networks (see<sup>2–5</sup> for an overview). These observations have led to the idea that most complex real-world networks may be structured, and that this structure may have arisen from simple growth mechanisms, such as preferential attachment<sup>1</sup>.

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It has also been suggested that the so-called *scale-free* property facilitates efficient communication via a small number of 8 designated central nodes acting as hubs of information flow, as in the case of airline or transportation networks<sup>2</sup>. However, this 9 interpretation has not been without controversy, and recently, it has been claimed that these cases of power law scaling might 10 not be as prevalent as initially thought<sup>6</sup> (see also<sup>7</sup> for a commentary and<sup>8</sup> for a counter-claim arguing that real-world scale-free 11 networks are highly prevalent). In earlier work, challenges to the omnipresence of power laws and heavy tails have been made, 12 but only within specific domains<sup>9,10</sup>. In contrast,<sup>6</sup> have analyzed power law distributions across domains taking a data-centric 13 approach. Considering over a thousand networks from various disciplines, they conclude that scale-free networks (typically 14 those following a power law with scaling factor close to 2) are rare in real-world data. The reason why this has only recently 15 been realized is that confirming the existence of a statistically significant power law is a lot more demanding than previously 16 employed heuristics of fitting data with linear least-squares on a log-log scale. As an alternative, the statistical bootstrapping 17 method, initially developed for power law testing, was first introduced by Clauset et al. in<sup>11</sup>. This has since then been extended 18 to test for other distributions and has subsequently been implemented in several studies 12-14. However, challenges remain, 19 both, for statistical analyses involving large data-sets (incurring a high computational cost for very large networks) and for 20 issues concerning robustness and interpretability of results (i.e., different parcellation schemes or network representations 21 lead to different interpretations of plausible distributions<sup>12, 15, 16</sup>). In this study, we address these open issues systematically, 22 investigating the reproducibility of power laws and other heavy-tailed distributions within the specific domain of human brain 23 functional connectivity networks constructed from resting-state functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (rs-fMRI). 24

Alongside the advancement of computational and machine learning tools in data science, the neuroscience community itself 25 has greatly benefited from adopting a network science approach. Some of the big questions in network neuroscience involve 26 mechanisms and scaling properties of large-scale structural and functional brain networks. As in other domains of network 27 science, there have been suggestions that the degree distribution of voxels in brain functional networks may also be scale-free 28 or at least heavy-tailed<sup>17–21</sup>. These studies point to the presence of a small number of hub nodes that connect widely across the 29 network. Other studies have suggested that functional brain networks are not scale-free, but instead are characterized by an 30 exponentially truncated distribution<sup>10, 22, 23</sup>. The scaling characteristics of brain networks reflect the organization of the brain's 31 architecture and are therefore essential for understanding how the brain operates<sup>24-31</sup> and how it responds to injury<sup>10, 32, 33</sup>. 32

The initial excitement in looking for scale-free and other heavy-tailed distributions in brain networks was due to the proposal 33 that the dynamics of the brain might be operating at criticality<sup>17,18</sup>. In this critical regime the network dynamics are scale 34 invariant and that has been touted as a plausible mechanism for near-optimal information processing<sup>17</sup>. On the other hand, a 35 definitive absence of heavy-tailed distributions in brain network topology would put this evidence for criticality at odds (see 36 also<sup>34</sup> for a critical discussion on criticality). Hence, given the current debate on power law scaling in real-world networks, a 37 rigorous statistical analysis is required to estimate the underlying degree distribution of brain networks. Indeed, these may well 38 not be scale-free, power law or even heavy-tailed. For these reasons, in this work, we revisit the issue of the scaling properties 39 of human brain functional connectivity with a more detailed and specific analysis. We focus on the specific domain of brain 40 functional networks and perform detailed checks over plausible model distributions. 41

The earliest studies testing for power law distributions used least-squares fitting method on log-log plots of frequency 42 distributions of node degrees<sup>19,20</sup>. This methodology, although seemingly straightforward, is statistically flawed<sup>11</sup>. Least-43 squares fitting on log-log plots gives systematically biased estimates of scaling parameters as regression lines are not valid 44 probability distributions and do not respect normalization constraints of the associated cumulative distribution. Moreover, 45 in addition to model testing, one also requires a statistical measure to estimate the goodness-of-fit of prospective degree 46 distributions. Approaches using least-squares fitting do not consider this aspect. An alternative framework<sup>11</sup> has advocated for 47 a Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) of scaling parameters and subsequent model comparisons to other distributions 48 using samples of both, real and synthetic data. These authors have derived an analytic measure for power law models that has 49 subsequently been extended to other distributions as well, albeit, for most of these, the derivation has to be carried through 50 numerically. 51

In spite of these developments, it has been observed that distribution estimates are still dependent on a number of factors such 52 as the way data is pre-processed (e.g. confound regression or Independent Component Analysis based de-noising procedures), 53 how the network is constructed (e.g. using either correlations for edge weights or alternative measures of causality), how 54 network thresholds have been set, the spatial resolution or scale of the data, and also on whether one uses region-based or 55 voxel-based node specifications<sup>12, 16, 23</sup>. For instance, Hayasaka et al.<sup>23</sup> have found that although degree distributions of many 56 analyzed functional networks followed an exponentially truncated model, the higher the resolution (of the order of 15 thousand 57 voxels), the more the distribution trends towards a power law. Hence, in response, in our data we will reanalyze degree 58 distributions near this voxel resolution as well as those at much higher ones. 59

In this work, we advance an analysis which addresses the aforementioned issues. We analyze resting-state fMRI data of 10 subjects obtained from the Human Connectome Project<sup>35</sup>. Using maximum likelihood methods for parameter extraction, we first estimate scaling parameters for the best possible fit among all possible model distributions. Subsequently, we check the

goodness-of-fit for each distribution by comparing to synthetically generated data (based on the same MLE parameters). We 63 consider six different model distributions to cover a wide range of heavy and short-tailed distributions: power law, exponential, 64 power law with exponential cut-off, log-normal, Weibull and generalized Pareto. In particular, the generalized Pareto distribution 65 will be important for this study. This distribution was first introduced in  $^{36}$ . Its applications include use in the analysis of 66 extreme events, as a failure-time distribution in reliability studies<sup>37</sup>. In particular, it has often been employed in meteorological 67 and geophysical studies<sup>38–41</sup>. What is interesting, is that this distribution interpolates between heavy-tailed and short-tailed 68 distributions, with the power law and exponential distributions being special cases of it. This interpolation depends on a 69 tail-parameter, which will give us a handle on estimating the tail's heaviness or shortness directly from the data. We will 70 consider weighted functional networks and will analyze statistics for 18 different thresholds (separately for positive as well as 71 negative correlations) for each data-set. Furthermore, instead of choosing a fixed resolution of the data, we analyze the same 72 data at six different voxel resolutions: 1,000, 5,000, 10,000, 20,000, 50,000 and 80,000 voxels. These resolutions are obtained 73 by down-sampling the original data at  $\sim$ 80K voxels to lower resolutions. 74

Importantly, our results show that the topology of human brain functional connectivity networks follow a short-tailed distribution. Additionally, we demonstrate that down-sampling data introduces the risk of detecting spurious heavy-tailed distributions that fail cross-model comparisons. This dependence of statistics on data resolution has broader implications for romeuroinformatic methodologies and analyses, especially, when these analyses rely on down-sampled data (for instance, into reatomical parcellations). Our findings that node degrees of brain functional networks follow a short-tailed distribution have resolution for prospective brain architectures, including realistic biological constraints such as wiring cost and aging of nodes.

### **Methods**

#### Participants, Imaging Data and Network Extraction

We analyzed high-quality, high-resolution resting-state fMRI scans of 10 subjects (age range: 26 to 35, 16.7% male) obtained from the Human Connectome Project (HCP, Q1 data-set, released by the WU-Minn HCP consortium in March 2013<sup>35</sup>). Individual rs-fMRI data were acquired for ~15 minutes providing a total of ~80,000 gray-ordinates time-series of 1,200 time points each (min-max range 67,709 - 86,332). Before analyzing it, each data-set has been transformed into a series of graphs. Data preprocessing involved ICA de-noising of the time-series in order to remove artefacts. A schematic illustration of the overall procedure used to build each of the networks is provided in Fig. 1A. Building and visualizing functional networks was performed using the BrainX<sup>3</sup> platform<sup>33,42–44</sup>.

For all the subjects, we consider six different network resolutions where the original data-set of  $\sim$ 80,000 regions of interest (ROIs) is further down-sampled at five different resolutions  $\sim$ 1,000,  $\sim$ 5,000,  $\sim$ 10,000,  $\sim$ 20,000 and  $\sim$ 50,000 regions of interest by averaging the time-series of neighbouring gray-ordinates within a cube of 13, 7, 5, 4, 2.5 mm<sup>3</sup>, respectively (see supplementary table 4 for the exact number of ROIs for each data-set).

We build a  $N \times N$  functional connectivity matrix for each data-set by calculating the Pearson's correlation coefficient 95 between each possible pair of ROIs<sup>45</sup>, where N corresponds to the number of nodes in the network, which is symmetric by 96 construction and with self-connections set to zero. Our analysis took into account the weighted degree distributions of the data. 97 We examined the full range of positive as well as negative correlation thresholds. To obtain weighted un-directed adjacency 98 matrices, we threshold each functional matrix at 18 different levels (R) in the range -0.7 to 0.8, at intervals of 0.1. Outside 99 this range, the functional matrices become too sparse for meaningful statistics. For positive thresholds (r > 0), the weighted 100 adjacency matrix is obtained by keeping all the values above threshold while all entries below threshold are set to zero. For 101 negative correlations, a threshold sets an upper bound. All correlation strengths more negative than the threshold are maintained 102 in the adjacency matrix, whereas correlations above the threshold are set to zero. In a weighted network, the weighted degree 103 of a node corresponds to the sum of all weighted edges connected to that node. Figure 1B depicts the degree distributions of 104 extracted networks across three different thresholds (r > 0.2, 0.3 and 0.4) for a representative subject and the averaged degree 105 distributions over all ten data-sets. The region-wise group average for the original dataset of the top twenty leading degree 106 nodes mapped on the Automated Anatomical Labeling (AAL) volume atlas<sup>46</sup> is illustrated in Figure 1C. 107

#### Fitting Parametric Models to Weighted Degree Networks

For every generated network, the vector of degrees  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_n]$  is sorted in ascending order for each correlation threshold. Fitting parametric models to these degree distributions follows the statistical bootstrapping approach outlined in<sup>11</sup>. This method uses *Maximum Likelihood Estimation* (MLE) to determine model parameters, followed by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) statistic to estimate the tail of the distribution corresponding to that model. For example, in the case of power law models, MLE is used to estimate the scaling parameter  $\alpha$  providing the best possible fit for a hypothetical power law distribution  $P(x) \sim Cx^{-\alpha}$ for the tail of the observed data in the range  $x_i$  to  $x_n$ . Next, we determine the KS statistic for this power law distribution with respect to  $x_i$ . Out of all possible  $x_i$  from the data, the one with the smallest KS statistic corresponds to the lower bound  $x_{min}$  for

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**Figure 1. A.** Overview of the processing steps used to generate graph-based brain connectivity functional networks. Five different parcellation schemes were generated which divided the original  $\sim 80$ K brain data into 1K, 5K, 10K, 20K, 50K regions-of-interest (ROIs). For each node pair, temporal correlation was calculated from the fMRI signals to generate a Functional Connectivity (FC) matrix for each subject. The edges' distribution of the resulting individual weighted functional networks is then examined for a range of different thresholds (examples are given for thresholds equal to 0.1, 0.2 and 0.3) from which distinct graph structures can be defined. **B.** An example of degree distributions for three different values of the FC threshold for a representative data-set (top) and the average over the 10 data-sets included in the study (bottom). **C.** Region-wise group average for the 80K resolution of the top twenty hubs mapped on the Automated Anatomical Labeling (AAL) volume atlas<sup>46</sup>. Across subjects the highest degree connectivity is observed across the fronto-parietal-occipital areas. Darker colors denote regions belonging to a larger number of subject data-sets.

Distribution model	Probability density function (PDF)
Power law	$x^{-\alpha}$
Exponential	$e^{-\lambda x}$
Power law with exponential cutoff	$x^{\alpha}e^{\beta x}$
Weibull	$x^{(eta-1)}e^{-\lambda x^{eta}}$
Log-Normal	$\frac{1}{x}e^{-\frac{(\log(x)-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$
Generalized Pareto	$(1+k\frac{x-x_{min}}{\sigma})^{-1-\frac{1}{k}}$
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Table 1.	The	six m	odels	used	for	the	analy	vsis	of t	the	degree	distri	bution.

power law behavior in the data. For other models (listed in table 1), the same procedure is repeated to estimate their respective 116 parameters. 117

To verify whether the observed KS statistic indeed provides a good fit for the data, we then generate and fit 1000 synthetic 118 data-sets from a true model distribution using the parameters determined from MLE and the bound  $x_{min}$  as the one estimated 119 for the best fit of the empirical data. We then fit each synthetic data-set by calculating the KS statistic relative to its original 120 model. From that, we calculate an empirical *p*-value as the fraction of the times the empirical distribution shows a smaller value 121 of the KS statistic as compared to the synthetically generated ones. If the obtained *p*-value is below a significant threshold, 122  $p \leq 0.1^{11}$ , the model hypothesis can be ruled out as a non-plausible explanation of the data. Furthermore, we impose an 123 additional constraint that the tail size of a plausible distribution contains at least fifty nodes, to avoid those cases where the 124 p-value may be high, but the tail is extremely sparse. Note, however, that large p-values by themselves do not guarantee that the 125 given model is the best. One still has to perform cross-model comparisons with other plausible distributions (listed in table 1). 126

All the analyses were performed in Matlab (Mathworks Inc., USA) using the methods from<sup>11</sup>. Further, for testing the 127 alternative models, we adapted the framework provided  $in^{11}$  to include the competing hypothesis. For each subject, we analyzed 128 thresholds in the range -0.7 to 0.8, with 0.1 increments. The parametric goodness-of-fit test was conducted over 1,000 129 repetitions, ensuring precision of p-value up to two decimal digits. Fittings to power law distribution for the 10K resolution 130 were also computed using the *Powerlaw* Python package from<sup>14</sup> to verify the consistency of the procedure used here. 131

#### Results

In order to estimate degree distributions of human brain functional networks, we analyzed high-resolution fMRI data from the 133 Human Connectome Project at varying resolutions from one thousand to 80 thousand regions of interest (ROIs) and tested 134 whether they follow heavy or short-tailed distributions considering the power law, exponential, power law with an exponential 135 cutoff, log-normal, Weibull and generalized Pareto distributions. We tested each of the above-mentioned statistical models for 136 18 different functional connectivity thresholds in each of the ten subjects and across all resolutions of the data (1K, 5K, 10K, 20K, 50K and 80K).

Table 2. Proportion of fitted distributions that are a statistically plausible explanation of the data with the goodness-of-fit test larger or equal to 0.1. Legend: PL: power law, Exp: exponential, LNOrm: log-normal, Wei: Weibull, GP: Generalized Pareto, PLexp: Power law with exponential cutoff, na: numerical analysis did not converge to a stable solution.

	PL (%)	Exp (%)	PLexp (%)	LNorm (%)	Wei (%)	GP (%)
80K	16.7	21.7	na	na	13.3	44.4
50K	13.3	29.4	na	32.2	12.2	43.3
20K	19.4	32.2	41.7	41.7	15.0	52.2
10K	24.4	34.4	40.6	47.2	18.9	54.4
5K	32.2	40.6	39.4	50.0	12.2	52.8
1K	34.4	33.3	45.0	48.9	6.1	52.8

Our analysis revealed that across all resolutions of the data the statistical plausibility of the power law model is consistently 139 weaker than other models (with the exception of the Weibull distribution; Figure 2 left panel and Table 2). Indeed, it is the 140 generalized Pareto model that consistently dominates the statistics at every resolution (mean proportion of statistically plausible 141 fits across resolutions: 49.98  $\pm$ 4.81). Another trend we observe is the increase in the proportion of plausible model fits as the 142 data is down-sampled (Figure 2B). In particular, this increase is strictly monotonous for all models from a resolution of 50K 143

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**Figure 2.** Overall results of model fitting. Left: Proportion of fitted distributions that are statistically significant. Across resolutions, the generalized Pareto model is consistently outperforming the other candidate models. Right. Proportion of models that are a plausible explanation of the data across resolutions. For lower resolutions, multiple models become simultaneously plausible. A fit is considered plausible if its p-value is equal or larger than 0.1 and the tail of the distribution contains more than 50 nodes.

 Table 3. Overall Likelihood ratio test results of comparing the alternative distributions at the different resolutions.

 The data express the number of times a model is a plausible explanation of the data. In parenthesis the proportion with respect to the total number of comparisons made.

Distribution	1K	5K	10K	20K	50K	80K
Power law	141 (11.6)	148 (11.3)	114 (8.9)	100 (8.6)	56 (7.4)	61 (13.9)
Exponential	162 (13.3)	189 (14.4)	167 (13.1)	164 (14.2)	140 (18.6)	80 (18.3)
Truncated PL	85 (7.0)	112 (6.6)	136 (10.6)	115 (9.9)	- (-)	- (-)
Log normal	230 (18.9)	229 (17.5)	219 (17.1)	198 (17.1)	141 (18.7)	- (-)
Weibull	20 (1.6)	54 (4.1)	99 (7.7)	89 (7.7)	62 (8.2)	53 (12.1)
Gen Pareto	265 (21.8)	260 (19.9)	276 (21.6)	282 (24.4)	231 (30.7)	191 (43.6)
Inconclusive	312 (25.7)	316 (24.1)	267 (20.9)	207 (17.9)	122 (16.2)	53 (12.1)
Comparisons	1215	1308	1278	1155	752	438

to 10K. As we shall see, this is because at lower resolutions multiple models become simultaneously statistically significant (Figure 2B).

After model fitting, when multiple models became simultaneously plausible, we performed log-likelihood ratio (LLR) tests tests between pairs of models to determine the most plausible one. The log-likelihood tests have been done at each FC threshold, for each subject, and each resolution.

Once again, percentages of the number of times a given model outperforms a competing model in pair-wise comparisons 149 indicates a clear dominance of the generalized Pareto model compared to all other distributions and this superiority is consistent 150 across all resolutions (Figure 3, Table 3 and supplementary Tables 38 to 43). In contrast, the power law distribution turns out to 151 be the weakest (statistically) model in log-likelihood ratio tests, at every resolution. The percentages of log-likelihood ratio 152 outcomes are fairly robust across resolutions with the exception of the highest resolution, where, as noted earlier, there is a lower 153 number of multiple comparisons. What is also noteworthy is the number of 'inconclusive' cases (Table 3 and Figure 3). These 154 indicate instances when it was statistically impossible to discern between multiple models. These occurrences are the lowest at 155 the highest resolution and rise systematically with every decreasing data resolution. What we find is that coarse-graining the 156 original data by half already leads to a threefold increase in the number of inconclusive statistical tests as compared to the 157 highest resolution. 158

Our analysis also reveals the shape of the tail of degree distributions of functional networks allowing to answer the question <sup>159</sup> whether they are heavy-tailed or short-tailed. This question can be addressed by looking at the most plausible statistical model <sup>160</sup> at each threshold and examining the values of the tail parameters of the model – when such parameters explicitly exist. The <sup>161</sup>



**Figure 3.** Log-likelihood ratio test results from comparing the best fit for alternative distributions with the best fit power law distribution. We show the percentage of times a power law model (PL), the alternative model (Alternative) or neither (Inconclusive) was favored.

power law model, by definition, is heavy-tailed, whereas the exponential is short-tailed. The generalized Pareto, log-normal and 162 Weibull all have parameters that explicitly determine the shape of the tail ( $k, \sigma$  and  $\beta$  respectively). The generalized Pareto 163 model is of particular interest here as it interpolates between heavy-tailed and short-tailed distributions. A large positive k value 164 indicates the presence of a fat-tail, whereas a small or negative value points to the opposite. Given that the generalized Pareto 165 model statistically outperforms all other models in our analysis, across thresholds and resolutions, we examined the values of 166 its k parameter for those instances where the p-value of the model is greater than 0.1 and tail size is higher than 50 (Figure 4A). 167 Overall, including both positive and negative thresholds, we find that k is close to zero, approaching an exponential distribution. 168 When considered separately, for positive thresholds k assumes negative values, implying a short tail (Figure 5B), whereas it 169 becomes positive for negative thresholds. Moreover, these observations hold across all resolutions (Figure 5C). 170



**Figure 4.** Statistics of the generalized Pareto model across resolutions and thresholds. Left: population averaged goodness-of-fit tests. Center: percentage of the tail of the distribution explained by the model across different thresholds. Horizontal dashed lines in the box-plots indicate the acceptance criteria for a model to be considered plausible (p-value > 10). The central mark is the median, the edges of the boxes are the  $25^{th}$  and  $75^{th}$  percentiles. Right: Estimated *k* parameter as a function of threshold.

Taken together, the main conclusions of our analysis is that:

(i) Degree distributions of brain functional connectivity networks obtained from fMRI recordings rarely follow a power law scaling. Instead, the generalized Pareto distribution provides the best statistical explanation of the graph of the functional connectivity network of the human brain.

(ii) The results pertaining to model comparisons remain robust at all resolutions of the data from the very high resolution of 80K voxels up to the low resolution of 1K.

(iii) The degree distributions of these networks are rarely heavy-tailed. Instead, the trend is towards short-tailed distributions. We see this from values of the shape parameter k of the generalized Pareto distribution as well as  $\sigma$  of the log-normal distribution.

(iv) Data down-sampling systematically affects all statistical tests. Namely, the statistical plausibility of every model increases upon down-sampling. Lowering the resolution of the data makes it harder to statistically discern between models, even though the actual tail lengths only decrease moderately as we lower resolutions as seen in figure 4). Multiple models become simultaneously plausible at low resolutions.

#### Discussion

We have examined degree distributions of human brain functional networks constructed from high-resolution resting-state fMRI 188 data to clarify contrasting claims made in the literature concerning the nature of their underlying graph. The main conclusion of 189 our analysis is that these networks are short-tailed, following the generalized Pareto distribution. While several alternatives to 190 the power law and other heavy-tailed models have been extensively discussed, the generalized Pareto model has surprisingly 191 received little attention outside of meteorology and geophysics<sup>38-41</sup>. What is remarkable, is that this distribution interpolates 192 between heavy-tailed and short-tailed distributions, with the power law and exponential distributions being special cases of it. 193 This interpolation depends on a tail-parameter, which gives one a handle on estimating the tail's heaviness or shortness directly 194 from the data. Here, we have found that the generalized Pareto distribution happens to outperform all other distributions, at 195 least, within the domain of human brain functional networks. 196

Overall, our results indicate that the statistics do not support a heavy-tailed network topology for node degree distributions 197 of human brain functional networks. The heavy-tail hypothesis, including the power law is firmly rejected in the majority of the 198 thresholds we examined. Instead, it is the generalized Pareto distribution that is consistently preferable to competing models for 199 most of the examined thresholds. We also tested for other models commonly discussed in the literature, such as the exponential, 200 log-normal, Weibull and power law with exponential cut-off (truncated power law). Overall, we find that the generalized Pareto 201 model outperforms all others across resolutions. These results suggest that after taking into account continuously weighted 202 networks at each threshold (rather than binary networks), the dynamics of brain functional networks might not be governed by 203 as many ultra-high degree hubs as a typical heavy-tailed network. 204

For completeness, let us also mention how our results are affected by specific parameter settings. Note that the generalized Pareto, Weibull as well as the exponentially truncated power law are all defined by three parameters (scale or normalization factor, shape factor, and tail parameter), whereas the power law, exponential and log-normal are defined using only two parameters (scale/normalization factor and tail parameter). One may ask whether the improved statistical significance is merely the result of adding an extra parameter to the model. One can see that this is not the case as the Weibull and the truncated power law do not systematically outperform any of the two-parameter distributions. It is only the generalized Pareto within its short-tail limit that best characterizes the shape of the tail in the data.

What does the above observation mean for the heavy-tailed hypothesis (sometimes also referred to as the fat-tailed 212 hypothesis) in relation to brain functional networks? Our results on model tail parameters suggest that human brain functional 213 networks have a short tail, rather than a heavy or fat tail as observed in the estimated k parameter values of the generalized 214 Pareto model. Since this model interpolates between heavy-tailed and short-tailed distributions it includes both power law and 215 exponential distributions as special cases. Most k values (considering only models passing plausibility criteria) of networks 216 studied here point to a short tail, in many instances, even shorter than the exponential. In other words, these models have 217 even fewer ultra high degree nodes than what would be expected for a random graph. In terms of the implications that this 218 might have, let us make the following remarks. Firstly, this network design could be explained as an outcome of pervasive 219 developmental and architectural constraints, including wiring-cost constraints, which prevent the emergence of long-range 220 hubs, under the assumption that long-distance functional connectivity connections correspond to long-distance anatomical 221 connections (a hypothesis that can be experimentally tested in future studies). Secondly, in a modeling study carried out in<sup>47</sup>, 222 the authors showed how constraints to a preferential attachment growth model limit the shape of the resulting tail. More 223 specifically, this study showed that when either the cost of adding new edges to existing vertices increases sufficiently, or 224

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**Figure 5.** The degree distributions of functional connectivity networks tend towards the shorter limit of the generalized Pareto distribution. A: Overall distribution of the generalized Pareto estimated k parameter values for those distributions that are a statistically plausible fit of the data (p-value>0.1 with a minimum tail length of 50 nodes). Large positive k values indicate the presence of a heavy-tail, whereas small or negative values point to a suppressed tail. B: Example of short- and heavy-tailed generalized Pareto distributions as a function of the scaling parameter k. C. Distributions of the generalized Pareto estimated k parameter values for the positive thresholds across resolutions. Gray bars corresponds to all possible fits whereas blue bars corresponds to statistically plausible fits that (p-value>0.1 with a minimum tail length of 50 nodes)

that a significant number of vertices become inactive due to aging processes, then the network topology inevitably settles 225 to a short-tailed distribution, in spite of a preferential attachment growth model. Given that such constraints on edge costs 226 and vertex aging are reasonable for brain networks, this study lends credence to our conclusion that the analyzed functional 227 connectivity networks may be short-tailed. And more generally, our findings do not support common simplistic representations 228 of the brain as a generic complex system with optimally efficient architecture and function, modeled with simple growth 229 mechanisms. Instead these findings reflect a more nuanced picture of a biological system that has been shaped by longstanding 230 and pervasive developmental and architectural constraints, including wiring-cost constraints on the centrality architecture of 231 individual nodes<sup>48–50</sup>. 232

An important observation emerging from our study concerns the effect that down-sampling of data has on statistical models. 233 We found that down-sampling systematically affects all statistical tests. One might think that down-sampling smooths out 234 variations in the data leading to more robust statistics. The opposite turns out to be the case. Intrinsic variability present in 235 data at higher resolutions helps differentiate between competing models, enabling greater interpretability of observed results. 236 On the other hand, we found that down-sampling the original data by half already leads to an increase in inconclusive model 237 comparisons by more than three times the original. This is because the statistical plausibility of every model systematically 238 increases, even though the actual tail lengths only decrease moderately as we lower resolutions. The result is that multiple 239 models simultaneously pass plausibility criteria, making it harder to discern between them. Similar to data over-fitting, there are 240 not sufficient features in the down-sampled data to distinguish between models. Of course, at very low resolutions, this effect 241 breaks down as the tail of the degree distributions in the data by necessity begins to get sparse. Note that even if the data at each 242 resolution were to be explained by a different model, the point here is that unless cross-model comparisons show statistical 243 discernibility, those results have to be interpreted with caution. Thus, at low resolutions of the data, one does see more power 244 laws than at higher resolutions, but those fail cross-model comparisons. This point is particularly relevant for studies where 245 one routinely down-samples functional data into anatomical parcellations, for instance, when comparing fMRI data to various 246 neuro-computational models<sup>51,52</sup>. Even though the focus of our work here concerned the identification of the underlying 247 topological distribution of human functional connectivity and the reproducibility of power laws in human fMRI data, the 248 down-sampling effects we have reported bear significance for the broader discussion of reproducibility of scientific results<sup>53,54</sup>. 249 Many of the problems associated with reproducibility have been attributed to flawed methodology<sup>54</sup>. Within the narrow domain 250 of the problem we have addressed here, methodological rigour turns out to be extremely important to verify robustness and 251 interpretability of results. Statistical significance is a necessary condition, but, by itself, is not sufficient. Goodness-of-fit tests 252 and discernibility in cross-model comparisons turn out to be methodologically crucial for reproducible science. 253

Finally, how does our study address the on-going debate on the abundance (or universality) of power law networks?<sup>6,7</sup> 254 As proposed in<sup>55</sup>, "knowledge of whether or not a distribution is heavy-tailed is far more important than whether it can be fit 255 using a power law". Extending this philosophy, an empirical detection of a statistical distribution can be insightful either when 256 it brings us closer to understanding underlying organizational principles or results from one. In the current study, evidence 257 favoring a short-tailed, rather than a heavy-tailed degree distribution suggests constraints on the topological organization of 258 brain networks. There have also been criticisms against the conclusions of statistical tests applied to real-world data, claiming 259 that such tests will always discriminate against power laws because strictly speaking, power laws are only to be found in the 260 infinite size limit of growth models as preferential attachment. To counter this claim, we point to studies where the same 261 statistical methods used here have also been able to rigorously establish power law behaviors in temporal dynamics of localized 262 fMRI signals as well as brain electric field potentials, without having to resort to asymptotic limits<sup>56,57</sup>. In those studies, power 263 law scaling underlies heavy-range temporal correlations. Besides that, as pointed out in<sup>55</sup>, under certain conditions, power laws 264 also arise from mixing multiple heavy-tailed distributions (as a special case of the central limit theorem). Hence, the infinite 265 limit argument cannot be used every time a statistical test fails to show a power law in the data. In systems where such a limit is 266 physically meaningful and can be justified using a growth model, this argument would have been plausible. However, brain 267 functional networks are finite-sized and follow more complicated growth patterns. Nonetheless, the network sizes we have 268 examined here are much larger than those considered in previous studies of functional networks. At the highest resolution, 269 there is no trend towards a power law, quite the opposite. At higher resolutions of the data, the trend moves away from a power 270 law, and the data shows evidence for short tails. In this case, we would conclude that observed finite size effects provide useful 271 indicators to probe underlying informational and organizational principles of brain function. Another suggestion, made recently 272  $in^8$ , is to test for "noisy power laws", that are modulated by slowly varying functions which approach a constant in the large size 273 limit. This point is well taken. However, in our analysis, we have considered distributions that interpolate between heavy-tailed 274 and short-tailed distributions, including possible modulations of power laws. Once again, we find that the data points in the 275 direction of short-tails. Even more recently,<sup>58</sup> have suggested that power law tests can be affected by correlations present in the 276 data, which may lead to their false rejections. To resolve this, they proposed a method based on shuffling and under-sampling 277 the data to account for correlations. We have addressed this issue in our analysis by way of down-sampling across resolutions. 278 It has been noted in<sup>12</sup> that down-sampling is yet another way to control for the effects of local correlations. Indeed, at lower 279

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## Supplementary material

**Table 4. List of datasets used for the analysis.** Each column indicates the number of nodes at the six different resolutions. Data belong to the Q1 data released by the WU-Minn Human Connectome Project consortium in March 2013<sup>35</sup>

ID	1K	5K	10K	20K	50K	80K
100307	1012	5026	10070	20151	50005	79547
103414	1006	5012	10072	20003	50089	82503
105115	1006	5009	10041	20086	50127	84857
110411	1006	5041	10039	20027	50376	67709
111312	1011	5000	10021	20115	50015	72671
113619	1009	5062	10017	20081	50006	76703
115320	1002	5004	10074	20104	50111	76802
117122	1097	5000	10020	20064	50157	76460
118730	1004	5010	10024	20079	50241	86332
118932	993	5030	10008	20040	50114	85292



**Figure 6.** Overall distribution of the plausible fits (p>0.1 and tail > 50) for the different examined thresholds and resolutions.



**Figure 7.** 1K data set. Left: population averaged goodness-of-fit tests. Center: percentage of the tail of the distribution explained by the model (center) across different thresholds for each of the six distributions. Horizontal dashed lines in the box-plots indicate the acceptance criteria for a model to be considered plausible (p-value> 10). The central mark is the median, the edges of the boxes are the  $25^{th}$  and  $75^{th}$  percentiles. Cross marks correspond to outliers. Right: Estimated scaling parameters for the different candidate distributions as a function of threshold.



**Figure 8.** 5K data set. Left: population averaged goodness-of-fit tests. Center: percentage of the tail of the distribution explained by the model (center) across different thresholds for each of the six distributions. Horizontal dashed lines in the box-plots indicate the acceptance criteria for a model to be considered plausible (p-value> 10). The central mark is the median, the edges of the boxes are the  $25^{th}$  and  $75^{th}$  percentiles. Cross marks correspond to outliers. Right: Estimated scaling parameters for the different candidate distributions as a function of threshold.



**Figure 9.** 10K data set. Left: population averaged goodness-of-fit tests. Center: percentage of the tail of the distribution explained by the model (center) across different thresholds for each of the six distributions. Horizontal dashed lines in the box-plots indicate the acceptance criteria for a model to be considered plausible (p-value> 10). The central mark is the median, the edges of the boxes are the  $25^{th}$  and  $75^{th}$  percentiles. Cross marks correspond to outliers. Right: Estimated scaling parameters for the different candidate distributions as a function of threshold.



**Figure 10.** 20K data set. Left: population averaged goodness-of-fit tests. Center: percentage of the tail of the distribution explained by the model (center) across different thresholds for each of the six distributions. Horizontal dashed lines in the box-plots indicate the acceptance criteria for a model to be considered plausible (p-value> 10). The central mark is the median, the edges of the boxes are the  $25^{th}$  and  $75^{th}$  percentiles. Cross marks correspond to outliers. Right: Estimated scaling parameters for the different candidate distributions as a function of threshold.



**Figure 11.** 50K data set. Left: population averaged goodness-of-fit tests. Center: percentage of the tail of the distribution explained by the model (center) across different thresholds for each of the five distributions. Horizontal dashed lines in the box-plots indicate the acceptance criteria for a model to be considered plausible (p-value> 10). The central mark is the median, the edges of the boxes are the  $25^{th}$  and  $75^{th}$  percentiles. Cross marks correspond to outliers. Right: Estimated scaling parameters for the different candidate distributions as a function of threshold.



**Figure 12.** 80K data set. Left: population averaged goodness-of-fit tests. Center: percentage of the tail of the distribution explained by the model (center) across different thresholds for each of the four distributions. Horizontal dashed lines in the box-plots indicate the acceptance criteria for a model to be considered plausible (p-value> 10). The central mark is the median, the edges of the boxes are the  $25^{th}$  and  $75^{th}$  percentiles. Cross marks correspond to outliers. Right: Estimated scaling parameters for the different candidate distributions as a function of threshold.

Thr	λ	<i>x<sub>min</sub></i>	TL	KS	p-value	TL <sub>r</sub>
+0.8	0.068	0.404	25.500	0.029	0.000	0.747
+0.7	0.065	1.093	54.500	0.063	0.009	0.695
+0.6	0.110	2.221	161.500	0.063	0.176	0.650
+0.5	0.060	2.180	187.000	0.061	0.068	0.667
+0.4	0.053	24.811	255.000	0.061	0.205	0.541
+0.3	0.047	43.658	356.500	0.071	0.035	0.490
+0.2	0.041	103.496	163.000	0.069	0.122	0.199
+0.1	0.063	172.515	113.500	0.071	0.444	0.116
+0.0	0.108	5.186	234.500	0.062	0.508	0.233
-0.0	0.108	5.186	234.500	0.062	0.520	0.233
-0.1	0.224	1.395	267.500	0.116	0.042	0.383
-0.2	0.555	0.383	71.500	0.202	0.000	0.396
-0.3	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.898
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

 Table 5. Fit results of the exponential distribution for the 1K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold;  $\lambda$  model parameter;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; *p*-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>*r*</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

Thr	α	<i>x<sub>min</sub></i>	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.950	0.404	25.500	0.053	0.000	0.795
+0.7	1.718	1.055	55.000	0.104	0.001	0.783
+0.6	2.641	7.416	92.000	0.126	0.024	0.427
+0.5	3.754	18.093	104.000	0.113	0.051	0.268
+0.4	4.977	59.781	76.000	0.103	0.156	0.145
+0.3	7.982	105.467	74.500	0.104	0.117	0.106
+0.2	9.926	154.151	88.500	0.097	0.107	0.101
+0.1	12.110	172.515	93.500	0.079	0.195	0.095
+0.0	3.012	12.589	118.500	0.058	0.662	0.118
-0.0	3.012	12.589	118.500	0.058	0.664	0.118
-0.1	2.588	2.091	145.000	0.083	0.342	0.185
-0.2	2.588	0.447	123.000	0.122	0.064	0.497
-0.3	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.650
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 6. Fit results of the power law distribution for the 1K resolution dataset.

Thr	k	σ	<i>x<sub>min</sub></i>	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.000	0.696	0.403	25.500	0.029	0.000	0.831
+0.7	-0.072	5.662	1.847	53.500	0.051	0.122	0.568
+0.6	-0.230	12.132	7.004	100.500	0.058	0.722	0.493
+0.5	-0.211	22.787	9.726	147.500	0.035	0.868	0.404
+0.4	-0.340	30.337	13.315	229.500	0.031	0.889	0.453
+0.3	-0.440	36.590	53.520	211.500	0.030	0.910	0.314
+0.2	-0.399	39.570	84.198	226.500	0.031	0.830	0.274
+0.1	-0.420	51.221	107.558	354.000	0.033	0.784	0.357
+0.0	0.405	3.788	2.983	540.500	0.022	0.615	0.539
-0.0	0.405	3.788	2.983	540.500	0.022	0.610	0.539
-0.1	0.469	2.028	1.061	344.000	0.036	0.599	0.463
-0.2	0.521	0.827	0.551	88.500	0.070	0.292	0.401
-0.3	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.686
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

 Table 7. Fit results of the generalized Pareto distribution for the 1K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold; k,  $\sigma$  model parameters;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; *p*-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>*r*</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

Thr	μ	σ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.000	0.383	0.404	25.500	0.028	0.000	0.786
+0.7	1.025	0.466	0.718	53.000	0.051	0.002	0.465
+0.6	1.919	0.678	1.928	138.000	0.058	0.228	0.599
+0.5	3.189	0.476	14.200	157.500	0.043	0.642	0.394
+0.4	4.112	0.281	42.950	149.500	0.037	0.903	0.279
+0.3	4.603	0.200	79.863	145.000	0.036	0.695	0.233
+0.2	4.981	0.162	124.291	152.000	0.036	0.862	0.196
+0.1	5.061	0.145	132.611	192.000	0.036	0.835	0.194
+0.0	1.746	1.153	4.474	540.500	0.028	0.390	0.539
-0.0	1.746	1.153	4.474	540.500	0.028	0.392	0.539
-0.1	0.132	1.190	0.896	364.500	0.035	0.782	0.490
-0.2	-0.238	1.072	0.567	69.000	0.059	0.307	0.382
-0.3	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.823
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 8. Fit results of the log-normal distribution for the 1K resolution dataset.

Thr	b	а	<i>x<sub>min</sub></i>	TL	KS	p-value	TL <sub>r</sub>
+0.8	0.595	1.194	0.404	25.500	0.038	0.000	0.775
+0.7	1.175	6.292	0.723	61.500	0.062	0.000	0.843
+0.6	1.358	16.338	0.951	166.500	0.061	0.000	0.862
+0.5	1.337	25.943	2.938	326.000	0.051	0.000	0.857
+0.4	1.332	48.639	3.155	484.500	0.046	0.000	0.898
+0.3	2.173	83.217	21.348	527.000	0.041	0.000	0.731
+0.2	2.581	110.484	24.139	639.500	0.043	0.000	0.743
+0.2	3.026	145.226	44.496	736.000	0.040	0.000	0.745
+0.0	1.385	10.267	1.406	1002.000	0.109	0.000	1.000
-0.0	1.385	10.267	1.406	1002.000	0.109	0.000	1.000
-0.1	0.783	2.090	0.120	693.000	0.120	0.895	0.883
-0.2	0.942	1.505	0.249	125.000	0.184	0.000	0.659
-0.3	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.730
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 9. Fit results of the Weibull distribution for the 1K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold; b, a model parameters;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; p-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>r</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

Thr	α	λ	r ·	ТІ	KS	n-value	TI
	0.000	0.040	$-\lambda min$	25.500	0.020		$\frac{1L_r}{0.064}$
+0.8	0.000	0.049	0.404	25.500	0.030	0.000	0.864
+0.7	0.076	0.051	0.715	57.500	0.060	0.000	0.841
+0.6	0.398	0.072	1.602	241.500	0.060	0.105	0.805
+0.5	0.141	0.047	0.819	288.500	0.051	0.390	0.867
+0.4	0.006	0.026	0.484	525.000	0.068	0.225	0.938
+0.3	0.000	0.016	0.343	704.500	0.101	0.270	0.975
+0.2	0.000	0.013	0.360	836.500	0.140	0.330	0.965
+0.1	0.000	0.010	0.124	977.500	0.159	0.350	0.988
+0.0	1.048	0.044	3.174	645.000	0.025	0.605	0.646
-0.0	1.048	0.044	3.174	645.000	0.025	0.615	0.646
-0.1	1.548	0.051	0.834	399.000	0.041	0.485	0.475
-0.2	1.883	0.060	0.639	108.500	0.077	0.335	0.372
-0.3	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.500
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 10. Fit results of the power law with exponential cutoff distribution for the 1K resolution dataset.

Thr	λ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.665
+0.7	0.055	1.877	56.000	0.042	0.254	0.436
+0.6	0.085	4.515	134.500	0.078	0.194	0.403
+0.5	0.042	10.185	303.000	0.046	0.533	0.374
+0.4	0.023	12.670	597.000	0.043	0.167	0.392
+0.3	0.016	26.930	455.500	0.034	0.414	0.229
+0.2	0.014	56.294	949.000	0.032	0.116	0.258
+0.1	0.010	103.691	1866.500	0.047	0.001	0.374
+0.0	0.038	58.758	1190.500	0.023	0.429	0.238
-0.0	0.038	58.758	1190.500	0.023	0.425	0.238
-0.1	0.056	14.940	368.500	0.048	0.233	0.080
-0.2	0.206	1.418	227.500	0.137	0.000	0.274
-0.3	0.556	0.317	106.000	0.235	0.000	0.789
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.754
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.892
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 11. Fit results of the exponential distribution for the 5K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold;  $\lambda$  model parameter;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; *p*-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>*r*</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

Thr	α	<i>x<sub>min</sub></i>	TL	KS	p-value	TL <sub>r</sub>
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.760
+0.7	1.705	1.414	59.000	0.084	0.001	0.310
+0.6	2.511	2.750	81.000	0.115	0.038	0.370
+0.5	2.819	19.770	132.500	0.094	0.025	0.192
+0.4	3.783	93.027	141.500	0.086	0.087	0.109
+0.3	6.883	170.489	113.500	0.077	0.270	0.042
+0.2	9.258	284.261	125.000	0.077	0.229	0.031
+0.1	12.458	517.130	155.000	0.074	0.108	0.031
+0.0	4.907	76.779	384.500	0.033	0.599	0.077
-0.0	4.907	76.779	384.500	0.033	0.607	0.077
-0.1	2.537	9.146	592.500	0.065	0.114	0.125
-0.2	2.558	2.109	611.500	0.069	0.004	0.353
-0.3	2.411	0.802	83.000	0.112	0.001	0.407
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.473
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.938
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 12. Fit results of the power law distribution for the 5K resolution dataset.

Thr	k	σ	<i>x<sub>min</sub></i>	TL	KS	p-value	TL <sub>r</sub>
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.635
+0.7	0.000	4.044	1.485	68.500	0.037	0.102	0.412
+0.6	0.038	11.339	4.468	123.000	0.049	0.414	0.408
+0.5	0.011	23.610	6.611	341.500	0.031	0.649	0.390
+0.4	-0.146	59.947	34.465	497.500	0.026	0.671	0.350
+0.3	-0.231	93.821	45.148	588.000	0.025	0.573	0.231
+0.2	-0.251	140.834	50.755	1017.500	0.016	0.618	0.296
+0.1	-0.307	144.573	102.543	1583.000	0.014	0.653	0.316
+0.0	0.081	21.723	45.926	1561.500	0.014	0.805	0.312
-0.0	0.081	21.723	45.926	1561.500	0.014	0.787	0.312
-0.1	0.196	11.532	9.101	643.500	0.018	0.883	0.133
-0.2	0.376	1.841	0.894	355.000	0.036	0.568	0.430
-0.3	0.664	0.586	0.942	67.500	0.098	0.005	0.399
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.280
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.825
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 13. Fit results of the generalized Pareto distribution for the 5K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold;  $k, \sigma$  model parameters;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; p-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>r</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

Thr	μ	σ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.581
+0.7	1.154	0.484	1.484	57.000	0.043	0.178	0.396
+0.6	1.840	0.940	1.967	161.500	0.043	0.268	0.430
+0.5	3.065	0.762	7.883	228.500	0.032	0.842	0.289
+0.4	3.501	0.575	27.431	547.000	0.031	0.462	0.273
+0.3	4.234	0.539	47.040	617.000	0.026	0.477	0.238
+0.2	5.526	0.302	197.403	641.000	0.024	0.628	0.172
+0.1	5.854	0.226	258.005	442.500	0.021	0.660	0.089
+0.0	3.774	0.530	29.803	2801.000	0.011	0.838	0.556
-0.0	3.774	0.530	29.803	2801.000	0.011	0.808	0.556
-0.1	2.074	0.948	6.704	634.500	0.026	0.710	0.139
-0.2	0.469	1.080	0.934	615.000	0.041	0.298	0.487
-0.3	-1.652	1.487	0.350	115.000	0.123	0.002	0.657
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.518
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.010
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 14. Fit results of the log-normal distribution for the 5K resolution dataset.

Thr	b	а	<i>x<sub>min</sub></i>	TL	KS	p-value	TL <sub>r</sub>
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.773
+0.7	0.926	4.464	0.712	85.000	0.068	0.000	0.788
+0.6	1.085	8.981	0.646	244.000	0.084	0.000	0.693
+0.5	0.926	16.819	0.563	554.000	0.074	0.000	0.769
+0.4	0.835	34.284	0.656	1071.000	0.064	0.026	0.823
+0.3	0.818	50.100	0.782	1746.000	0.052	0.000	0.763
+0.2	1.062	117.434	5.490	2610.000	0.043	0.000	0.698
+0.1	1.526	216.007	21.726	3822.000	0.038	0.000	0.763
+0.0	1.974	56.210	14.462	5009.500	0.107	0.000	1.000
-0.0	1.974	56.210	14.462	5009.500	0.107	0.000	1.000
-0.1	0.700	5.459	0.110	4193.000	0.094	1.000	0.915
-0.2	0.782	2.817	0.230	680.500	0.141	0.997	0.781
-0.3	0.824	1.666	0.338	104.500	0.203	0.004	0.718
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.550
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.492
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 15. Fit results of the Weibull distribution for the 5K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold; b, a model parameters;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; p-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>r</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

		2			TTO	1	-
Thr	α	λ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.673
+0.7	0.100	0.046	1.122	60.500	0.040	0.155	0.466
+0.6	0.583	0.065	1.883	193.000	0.056	0.300	0.621
+0.5	0.484	0.037	3.328	541.500	0.030	0.590	0.551
+0.4	0.592	0.016	1.898	1117.000	0.022	0.390	0.671
+0.3	0.314	0.010	3.231	1833.500	0.024	0.120	0.704
+0.2	0.188	0.007	3.829	2778.000	0.035	0.015	0.722
+0.1	0.016	0.006	3.789	4263.500	0.067	0.015	0.853
+0.0	0.748	0.026	23.766	3764.500	0.041	0.185	0.748
-0.0	0.748	0.026	23.766	3764.500	0.041	0.185	0.748
-0.1	1.475	0.026	4.251	1593.000	0.019	0.470	0.340
-0.2	1.837	0.029	1.810	517.000	0.043	0.070	0.272
-0.3	2.022	0.000	0.836	80.000	0.098	0.000	0.353
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.473
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.946
0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 16. Fit results of the power law with exponential cutoff distribution for the 5K resolution dataset.

Thr	λ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.714
+0.7	0.162	1.186	83.5	0.056	0.3125	0.500
+0.6	0.089	3.887	130.5	0.058	0.4840	0.306
+0.5	0.038	15.544	175.5	0.050	0.6170	0.187
+0.4	0.020	23.051	440.5	0.037	0.7305	0.160
+0.3	0.012	44.067	805.0	0.030	0.3305	0.167
+0.2	0.008	44.049	1552.5	0.024	0.0895	0.205
+0.1	0.006	25.520	4350.5	0.031	0.0015	0.433
+0.0	0.007	545.110	1597.0	0.037	0.0290	0.159
-0.0	0.021	123.255	1678.0	0.021	0.0485	0.168
-0.1	0.023	53.151	141.0	0.072	0.1835	0.014
-0.2	0.095	7.104	123.0	0.170	0.0170	0.105
-0.3	0.348	0.330	95.5	0.224	0.0000	0.534
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.876
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.881
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.510

 Table 17. Fit results of the exponential distribution for the 10K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold;  $\lambda$  model parameter;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; *p*-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>*r*</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

Thr	α	<i>x<sub>min</sub></i>	TL	KS	p-value	TL <sub>r</sub>
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.655
+0.7	2.257	1.427	83.0	0.120	0.0005	0.437
+0.6	2.324	4.387	94.5	0.099	0.0070	0.336
+0.5	2.765	21.077	201.0	0.085	0.0275	0.141
+0.4	2.946	48.800	300.0	0.079	0.0020	0.099
+0.3	3.711	180.624	224.0	0.079	0.0650	0.045
+0.2	5.541	360.395	281.5	0.079	0.0060	0.036
+0.1	8.615	745.120	208.0	0.0666	0.1490	0.021
+0.0	12.594	931.660	246.5	0.059	0.1810	0.025
-0.0	5.303	142.645	1249.0	0.021	0.5085	0.124
-0.1	2.402	11.896	2352.5	0.044	0.0000	0.236
-0.2	2.417	3.349	521.5	0.052	0.0030	0.277
-0.3	2.367	1.089	118.5	0.088	0.0105	0.319
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.332
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.399
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.510

Table 18. Fit results of the power law distribution for the 10K resolution dataset.

Thr	k	σ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	TL <sub>r</sub>
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.696
+0.7	0.000	3.663	1.539	58.5	0.049	0.1315	0.531
+0.6	0.118	11.094	2.943	172.5	0.048	0.3305	0.440
+0.5	0.031	28.656	20.072	338.5	0.034	0.7380	0.229
+0.4	0.001	62.035	34.191	372.5	0.027	0.6155	0.174
+0.3	-0.128	102.619	85.215	638.5	0.021	0.7975	0.176
+0.2	-0.178	152.365	136.945	938.5	0.014	0.8275	0.135
+0.1	-0.226	241.640	201.475	2387.0	0.010	0.7555	0.238
+0.0	-0.224	218.500	380.050	4681.5	0.009	0.6750	0.467
-0.0	0.182	32.619	127.480	1195.5	0.012	0.8425	0.119
-0.1	0.426	12.883	9.690	1469.0	0.020	0.1725	0.149
-0.2	0.439	2.549	0.763	820.5	0.030	0.1890	0.457
-0.3	0.433	0.996	0.649	101.5	0.062	0.0105	0.405
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.253
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	1.000
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	1.000

Table 19. Fit results of the generalized Pareto distribution for the 10K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold;  $k, \sigma$  model parameters;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; p-value, plausibility of the model; TL $_{\tau}$ , proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

Thr	μ	σ	<i>x<sub>min</sub></i>	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.639
+0.7	0.618	0.599	1.141	58.000	0.039	0.103	0.466
+0.6	1.804	0.958	2.589	110.500	0.040	0.187	0.381
+0.5	3.363	0.794	15.168	246.500	0.033	0.702	0.223
+0.4	3.452	0.799	24.044	543.500	0.027	0.488	0.186
+0.3	4.809	0.535	72.627	525.000	0.023	0.463	0.114
+0.2	5.754	0.434	209.015	759.500	0.023	0.395	0.100
+0.1	6.143	0.299	418.120	852.000	0.019	0.645	0.085
+0.0	6.299	0.236	472.295	1684.500	0.015	0.315	0.168
-0.0	4.298	0.588	81.662	4837.000	0.010	0.350	0.482
-0.1	2.176	1.198	7.106	1764.000	0.019	0.360	0.180
-0.2	0.486	1.317	0.610	879.000	0.034	0.017	0.599
-0.3	-0.243	1.237	0.543	106.000	0.072	0.005	0.592
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.825
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.607
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 20. Fit results of the log-normal distribution for the 10K resolution dataset.

Thr	b	а	<i>x<sub>min</sub></i>	TL	KS	p-value	TL <sub>r</sub>
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.732
+0.7	1.130	4.758	0.746	100.500	0.095	0.000	0.759
+0.6	1.088	8.477	0.698	296.500	0.091	0.000	0.556
+0.5	0.874	14.914	0.654	794.000	0.087	0.000	0.611
+0.4	0.822	41.623	1.122	1480.000	0.082	0.001	0.608
+0.3	0.810	57.835	1.388	2546.500	0.071	0.000	0.536
+0.2	0.795	74.564	1.683	4226.000	0.055	0.000	0.555
+0.1	1.020	202.123	7.832	7336.000	0.045	0.000	0.731
+0.0	2.058	425.071	40.358	10022.500	0.032	0.000	1.000
-0.0	2.022	111.971	35.387	10022.500	0.133	0.000	1.000
-0.1	0.640	4.837	0.100	9843.500	0.102	1.000	1.000
-0.2	0.726	3.937	0.228	1396.500	0.131	1.000	0.781
-0.3	0.801	2.341	0.331	140.500	0.194	0.612	0.703
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.685
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.619
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.510

Table 21. Fit results of the Weibull distribution for the 10K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold; b, a model parameters;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; p-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>r</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

Thr	α	λ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.714
+0.7	0.520	0.039	1.125	77.000	0.048	0.160	0.597
+0.6	0.719	0.070	1.927	184.500	0.037	0.360	0.421
+0.5	0.747	0.028	2.208	302.000	0.029	0.795	0.358
+0.4	0.805	0.013	1.940	1098.500	0.019	0.590	0.421
+0.3	0.595	0.008	4.171	1933.000	0.017	0.155	0.429
+0.2	0.003	0.005	40.707	2980.500	0.018	0.035	0.374
+0.1	0.003	0.007	35.191	4913.000	0.029	0.000	0.488
+0.0	0.001	0.007	541.945	1388.000	0.034	0.065	0.138
-0.0	1.822	0.002	98.425	2461.000	0.012	0.690	0.245
-0.1	1.255	0.013	9.618	2055.500	0.016	0.350	0.207
-0.2	1.404	0.013	1.445	520.000	0.034	0.530	0.329
-0.3	2.203	0.000	1.300	92.000	0.074	0.000	0.319
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.332
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.590
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.510

Table 22. Fit results of the power law with exponential cutoff distribution for the 10K resolution dataset.

Thr	λ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.067	0.402	25.500	0.043	0.000	0.537
+0.7	0.320	1.181	109.000	0.089	0.066	0.330
+0.6	0.091	4.105	113.500	0.062	0.312	0.216
+0.5	0.037	15.185	239.500	0.048	0.471	0.101
+0.4	0.021	54.464	327.500	0.045	0.418	0.070
+0.3	0.010	70.877	898.500	0.032	0.294	0.090
+0.2	0.006	93.748	1778.000	0.020	0.298	0.109
+0.1	0.004	115.855	4516.500	0.020	0.020	0.225
+0.0	0.004	518.180	8893.500	0.028	0.003	0.443
-0.0	0.014	228.770	6877.500	0.019	0.001	0.343
-0.1	0.021	52.362	333.000	0.093	0.000	0.017
-0.2	0.052	14.021	92.000	0.141	0.026	0.038
-0.3	0.261	1.009	61.500	0.266	0.000	0.396
-0.4	0.144	0.200	27.500	0.142	0.000	0.739
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.738
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.653

Table 23. Fit results of the exponential distribution for the 20K resolution dataset.

Table 24. Fit results of the power law distribution for the 20K resolution dataset.

Thr	α	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.927	0.402	25.500	0.056	0.000	0.568
+0.7	2.875	2.463	71.000	0.136	0.009	0.325
+0.6	2.712	10.254	90.500	0.093	0.104	0.126
+0.5	2.133	1.637	272.000	0.073	0.010	0.199
+0.4	2.318	46.160	833.000	0.062	0.000	0.156
+0.3	3.359	170.924	392.000	0.070	0.000	0.037
+0.2	4.275	439.870	432.500	0.062	0.001	0.025
+0.1	6.308	908.020	467.000	0.066	0.013	0.023
+0.0	9.823	1170.700	492.000	0.057	0.005	0.025
-0.0	6.299	300.355	1437.500	0.016	0.798	0.072
-0.1	2.344	19.710	4518.000	0.032	0.000	0.226
-0.2	2.226	3.464	1502.500	0.056	0.000	0.239
-0.3	2.313	1.026	199.500	0.079	0.001	0.357
-0.4	1.141	0.200	74.500	0.020	0.000	0.315
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.482
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.672

Thr	k	σ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	TL <sub>r</sub>
+0.8	0.000	0.023	0.400	25.500	0.027	0.000	0.448
+0.7	0.589	1.285	1.839	136.500	0.072	0.208	0.693
+0.6	0.002	11.055	4.328	180.500	0.042	0.634	0.182
+0.5	0.051	24.567	17.856	268.000	0.036	0.647	0.103
+0.4	0.121	60.904	29.183	519.500	0.026	0.439	0.123
+0.3	-0.106	130.720	161.190	692.000	0.023	0.650	0.066
+0.2	-0.109	212.785	231.480	1216.000	0.015	0.764	0.079
+0.1	-0.171	316.070	303.185	2260.500	0.011	0.784	0.113
+0.0	-0.167	317.320	557.405	5312.000	0.008	0.572	0.265
-0.0	0.125	55.521	270.430	3026.500	0.010	0.560	0.151
-0.1	0.527	12.322	3.984	6471.500	0.017	0.176	0.322
-0.2	0.525	3.316	0.785	1180.500	0.028	0.126	0.356
-0.3	0.580	1.452	0.880	162.000	0.056	0.010	0.491
-0.4	0.333	0.013	0.201	45.000	0.019	0.000	0.126
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.293
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.992

Table 25. Fit results of generalized Pareto distribution for the 20K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold; k,  $\sigma$ ,  $\mu$  model parameters;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; *p*-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>r</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

Thr	μ	σ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.327
+0.7	0.474	0.988	1.172	64.000	0.040	0.088	0.240
+0.6	2.321	0.855	6.410	102.000	0.045	0.752	0.127
+0.5	3.049	0.922	10.177	249.500	0.037	0.573	0.102
+0.4	4.115	0.799	38.797	556.500	0.024	0.513	0.111
+0.3	4.091	0.711	43.011	545.000	0.025	0.668	0.062
+0.2	5.272	0.609	175.675	1064.000	0.021	0.315	0.067
+0.1	6.281	0.401	469.260	1470.500	0.017	0.283	0.073
+0.0	6.297	0.425	365.665	14367.500	0.011	0.018	0.714
-0.0	4.486	0.672	235.485	6114.000	0.010	0.383	0.305
-0.1	2.024	1.318	5.743	5080.000	0.017	0.312	0.254
-0.2	1.066	1.331	0.802	906.000	0.030	0.528	0.330
-0.3	-0.599	1.394	0.867	131.000	0.059	0.000	0.499
-0.4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.424
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.556
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-

Table 26. Fit results of the log-normal distribution for the 20K resolution dataset.

Thr	β	λ	<i>x<sub>min</sub></i>	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.567	0.938	0.402	25.500	0.036	0.000	0.648
+0.7	1.335	4.353	0.803	123.000	0.133	0.000	0.500
+0.6	1.258	13.004	1.439	183.000	0.110	0.000	0.247
+0.5	1.175	29.107	2.448	713.500	0.090	0.000	0.271
+0.4	0.993	58.500	2.273	1442.500	0.085	0.000	0.272
+0.3	0.878	86.394	2.574	2813.000	0.090	0.000	0.285
+0.2	0.768	69.888	2.397	6495.000	0.076	0.000	0.391
+0.1	0.697	145.778	2.101	18273.000	0.059	0.500	0.912
+0.0	2.049	631.567	100.867	20080.000	0.050	0.000	1.000
-0.0	2.824	241.419	101.626	20041.000	0.138	0.000	1.000
-0.1	0.657	6.909	0.100	20054.500	0.128	1.000	1.000
-0.2	0.925	5.265	0.687	683.000	0.131	0.004	0.342
-0.3	0.927	5.048	1.197	60.000	0.163	0.000	0.254
-0.4	0.360	0.602	0.217	25.500	0.107	0.000	0.638
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.471
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.622

Table 27. Fit results of the Weibull distribution for the 20K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold;  $\lambda$ ,  $\alpha$  model parameters;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; *p*-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>r</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

- TT1		1		TT	IZO	1	TI
Ihr	α	λ	$x_{min}$	IL	KS	p-value	$IL_r$
+0.8	0.150	0.046	0.402	25.500	0.039	0.000	0.489
+0.7	1.767	0.058	1.481	98.500	0.128	0.130	0.443
+0.6	0.719	0.052	2.239	181.000	0.045	0.365	0.274
+0.5	0.836	0.024	2.505	612.000	0.035	0.450	0.358
+0.4	0.887	0.009	1.848	2509.000	0.019	0.190	0.331
+0.3	0.807	0.005	3.518	2792.000	0.015	0.060	0.293
+0.2	0.673	0.003	5.534	4697.000	0.013	0.020	0.295
+0.1	0.105	0.003	76.096	8323.000	0.013	0.020	0.415
+0.0	0.001	0.004	624.430	9088.000	0.021	0.005	0.452
-0.0	2.487	0.002	223.250	5195.000	0.010	0.590	0.259
-0.1	1.275	0.013	4.567	4362.500	0.012	0.720	0.218
-0.2	1.780	0.008	3.296	701.000	0.032	0.475	0.236
-0.3	2.198	0.000	1.139	164.500	0.073	0.000	0.375
-0.4	1.141	0.000	0.200	72.500	0.020	0.000	0.315
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.482
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.672

Table 28. Fit results of the power law with exponential cutoff distribution for the 20K resolution dataset.

Thr	λ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	1.315	1.688	73.000	0.138	0.018	0.130
+0.7	0.286	3.456	144.000	0.087	0.227	0.052
+0.6	0.083	9.730	216.500	0.047	0.508	0.030
+0.5	0.031	26.037	272.000	0.046	0.289	0.015
+0.4	0.014	49.906	485.500	0.042	0.036	0.015
+0.3	0.007	116.039	1000.000	0.029	0.303	0.025
+0.2	0.004	240.325	2055.500	0.019	0.152	0.043
+0.1	0.002	378.170	6877.500	0.017	0.065	0.137
+0.0	0.002	1094.400	22287.500	0.012	0.007	0.445
-0.0	0.007	584.605	11996.000	0.017	0.001	0.240
-0.1	0.010	125.965	512.000	0.104	0.000	0.010
-0.2	0.027	32.981	118.000	0.112	0.003	0.012
-0.3	0.136	3.263	67.500	0.195	0.001	0.091
-0.4	0.218	0.416	51.000	0.261	0.000	0.702
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.700
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.516

Table 29. Fit results of the exponential distribution for the 50K resolution dataset.

Table 30. Fit results of the power law distribution for the 50K resolution dataset.

Thr	α	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	4.878	1.662	100.000	0.143	0.002	0.141
+0.7	3.455	1.608	265.500	0.089	0.002	0.153
+0.6	2.340	1.832	732.000	0.066	0.024	0.080
+0.5	2.888	2.623	516.500	0.066	0.001	0.038
+0.4	2.649	2.156	4458.500	0.068	0.000	0.140
+0.3	2.287	0.706	24476.500	0.063	0.000	0.594
+0.2	1.636	1.643	23799.000	0.063	0.000	0.496
+0.1	5.519	1340.500	959.000	0.069	0.000	0.019
+0.0	5.926	1649.000	8378.500	0.052	0.000	0.168
-0.0	7.738	851.895	3342.000	0.012	0.797	0.067
-0.1	2.382	25.005	12457.000	0.024	0.000	0.248
-0.2	2.259	8.079	2045.500	0.041	0.000	0.157
-0.3	2.306	1.322	470.000	0.057	0.018	0.218
-0.4	2.446	0.697	59.500	0.082	0.001	0.345
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.307
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.344

Thr	k	σ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	TL <sub>r</sub>
+0.8	0.472	0.084	1.691	84.000	0.089	0.066	0.131
+0.7	0.311	2.282	3.004	279.000	0.057	0.147	0.106
+0.6	0.146	8.489	6.110	279.000	0.033	0.571	0.049
+0.5	0.270	29.789	15.580	726.000	0.026	0.614	0.039
+0.4	0.513	35.703	23.940	2313.500	0.020	0.191	0.074
+0.3	-0.010	128.614	117.816	1102.500	0.022	0.347	0.028
+0.2	-0.093	308.690	336.890	1845.500	0.019	0.347	0.039
+0.1	-0.168	536.680	884.885	2566.500	0.014	0.512	0.051
+0.0	-0.059	515.560	845.705	26921.000	0.008	0.001	0.537
-0.0	0.159	133.645	684.440	6367.000	0.007	0.378	0.127
-0.1	0.594	26.092	12.098	19056.000	0.012	0.000	0.380
-0.2	0.634	4.589	1.430	2449.000	0.019	0.224	0.295
-0.3	0.596	2.443	0.935	434.000	0.033	0.011	0.328
-0.4	0.692	0.091	0.410	137.500	0.066	0.000	0.718
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.243
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.000	0.0000	0.637

Table 31. Fit results of the generalized Pareto distribution for the 50K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold; k,  $\sigma$ ,  $\mu$  model parameters;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; *p*-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>r</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

Thr	μ	σ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.589	0.626	1.701	75.000	0.169	0.007	0.126
+0.7	1.242	1.169	2.679	161.500	0.067	0.112	0.061
+0.6	2.418	0.926	7.344	262.000	0.038	0.400	0.035
+0.5	2.886	0.849	6.419	329.500	0.032	0.510	0.019
+0.4	3.655	0.900	25.373	827.500	0.026	0.342	0.026
+0.3	4.561	0.843	72.916	1370.500	0.022	0.050	0.034
+0.2	5.570	0.586	229.450	1828.000	0.019	0.030	0.039
+0.1	6.854	0.405	957.705	2240.500	0.016	0.147	0.045
+0.0	6.768	0.493	729.410	28046.000	0.007	0.003	0.559
-0.0	6.027	0.418	456.595	34350.000	0.008	0.007	0.687
-0.1	2.334	1.345	12.872	5050.500	0.012	0.112	0.101
-0.2	1.050	1.538	1.103	2108.500	0.021	0.250	0.260
-0.3	-0.458	1.478	0.741	413.500	0.042	0.012	0.416
-0.4	0.000	0.561	0.220	96.000	0.024	0.000	0.368
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.625
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.559

Table 32. Fit results of the log-normal distribution for the 50K resolution dataset.

Thr	b	а	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	2.545	2.808	1.340	94.500	0.182	0.000	0.195
+0.7	2.102	6.799	3.095	163.000	0.118	0.000	0.086
+0.6	1.443	20.377	5.479	754.000	0.133	0.000	0.082
+0.5	1.599	42.253	5.893	233.000	0.112	0.000	0.015
+0.4	1.066	64.165	6.527	1801.500	0.110	0.000	0.056
+0.3	0.869	91.490	6.296	4791.000	0.109	0.000	0.116
+0.2	0.780	143.668	6.806	11589.500	0.107	0.000	0.240
+0.1	0.780	158.921	16.408	34078.000	0.095	0.000	0.679
+0.0	2.362	1185.807	301.736	50112.500	0.082	0.000	1.000
-0.0	3.281	596.815	298.105	50052.000	0.149	0.000	1.000
-0.1	0.722	12.127	0.324	50100.000	0.173	1.000	1.000
-0.2	1.006	20.542	4.651	641.000	0.141	0.000	0.118
-0.3	0.973	17.591	3.652	73.500	0.158	0.000	0.058
-0.4	0.812	1.596	0.444	51.000	0.210	0.000	0.569
-0.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.559
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.518

Table 33. Fit results of the Weibull distribution for the 50K resolution dataset.

Thr	λ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	0.723	2.424	80.500	0.149	0.034	0.052
+0.7	0.225	4.907	192.500	0.065	0.269	0.038
+0.6	0.079	10.428	436.000	0.038	0.338	0.029
+0.5	0.033	28.607	909.000	0.060	0.021	0.022
+0.4	0.013	65.146	804.500	0.047	0.007	0.016
+0.3	0.006	134.157	1262.500	0.031	0.034	0.018
+0.2	0.003	345.358	2190.500	0.019	0.150	0.029
+0.1	0.002	513.945	7653.000	0.017	0.017	0.092
+0.0	0.005	933.312	19524.500	0.015	0.000	0.256
-0.0	0.005	933.312	19524.500	0.015	0.000	0.256
-0.1	0.009	139.661	902.500	0.099	0.000	0.011
-0.2	0.024	29.743	269.500	0.159	0.000	0.017
-0.3	0.071	7.720	81.500	0.153	0.009	0.051
-0.4	0.346	0.472	55.000	0.270	0.000	0.569
-0.5	0.024	0.259	25.500	0.107	0.000	0.630
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.505

 Table 34. Fit results of the exponential distribution for the 80K resolution dataset.

Thr	α	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	3.867	2.464	72.500	0.149	0.003	0.053
+0.7	2.838	2.187	345.000	0.067	0.010	0.058
+0.6	3.056	2.143	1244.000	0.056	0.002	0.075
+0.5	2.413	2.441	3677.000	0.065	0.000	0.102
+0.4	2.741	2.134	12172.000	0.056	0.000	0.190
+0.3	2.525	2.746	21472.000	0.063	0.000	0.292
+0.2	1.717	4.314	11952.500	0.065	0.000	0.151
+0.1	2.707	694.927	37578.500	0.059	0.000	0.468
+0.0	8.273	1258.367	5745.500	0.011	0.362	0.075
-0.0	8.273	1258.367	5745.500	0.011	0.354	0.075
-0.1	2.312	19.290	13168.500	0.023	0.000	0.170
-0.2	2.237	11.680	2844.000	0.035	0.000	0.132
-0.3	2.240	2.666	681.000	0.054	0.042	0.223
-0.4	2.375	1.107	111.000	0.107	0.000	0.315
-0.5	1.068	0.266	25.500	0.019	0.000	0.293
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.410

Table 35. Fit results of the power law distribution for the 80K resolution dataset.

All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold;  $\lambda$ ,  $\alpha$  model parameters;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; *p*-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>r</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

Thr	k	σ	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	TL <sub>r</sub>
+0.8	0.698	0.163	2.107	130.000	0.096	0.004	0.118
+0.7	0.297	2.578	3.675	190.500	0.044	0.185	0.042
+0.6	0.119	7.267	6.109	570.000	0.025	0.532	0.031
+0.5	0.306	18.800	14.445	961.000	0.019	0.335	0.030
+0.4	0.303	48.210	33.473	1800.000	0.021	0.120	0.034
+0.3	0.154	106.347	60.200	2383.500	0.022	0.195	0.035
+0.2	-0.075	363.671	468.904	1734.500	0.018	0.400	0.022
+0.1	-0.144	655.662	1432.557	2416.500	0.010	0.767	0.031
+0.0	0.187	179.022	1139.975	5933.000	0.009	0.147	0.080
-0.0	0.187	179.022	1139.975	5933.000	0.009	0.140	0.080
-0.1	0.590	39.240	23.752	23584.000	0.011	0.000	0.289
-0.2	0.664	6.544	3.499	2992.500	0.016	0.253	0.211
-0.3	0.663	2.680	1.164	389.000	0.030	0.292	0.312
-0.4	0.707	0.747	0.858	86.500	0.059	0.003	0.464
-0.5	0.232	0.025	0.250	33.000	0.018	0.000	0.257
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.564
-0.7	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.773

Table 36. Fit results of the generalized Pareto distribution for the 80K resolution dataset.

Thr	b	а	$x_{min}$	TL	KS	p-value	$TL_r$
+0.8	2.354	3.535	1.841	100.000	0.168	0.000	0.087
+0.7	1.950	9.263	3.790	204.000	0.142	0.000	0.047
+0.6	1.396	20.110	5.254	653.500	0.139	0.000	0.044
+0.5	1.125	36.690	6.423	2215.500	0.140	0.000	0.056
+0.4	1.050	86.351	7.985	2232.000	0.122	0.000	0.042
+0.3	0.930	137.916	10.353	5415.500	0.116	0.000	0.077
+0.2	0.808	191.619	9.965	14371.500	0.117	0.000	0.186
+0.1	0.781	322.665	27.748	46635.000	0.118	0.000	0.645
+0.0	3.715	960.365	529.864	76752.500	0.153	0.000	1.000
-0.0	3.715	960.365	529.864	76752.500	0.153	0.000	1.000
-0.1	0.885	35.413	1.006	70190.000	0.187	0.396	1.000
-0.2	0.704	9.017	0.579	6616.500	0.150	0.801	0.447
-0.3	0.982	17.408	5.343	98.000	0.151	0.000	0.051
-0.4	0.909	2.253	0.455	51.500	0.205	0.000	0.479
-0.5	0.357	0.797	0.258	25.500	0.087	0.001	0.562
-0.6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.550

Гab	le	37.	Fit	results	of	the	Weibull	distribution	for	the	80K	resolution	dataset.
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All data are expressed as median values. Legend: Thr, R threshold;  $\lambda$ ,  $\alpha$  model parameters;  $x_{min}$ , lower bound for model distribution; TL, length of the tail; KS, Kolgomorov-Smirnov statistic; *p*-value, plausibility of the model; TL<sub>r</sub>, proportion of non-zero nodes in the tail.

**Table 38.** Likelihood ratio test results from comparing the best fit for alternative distributions with the best fit power law distribution for the 1K dataset. We show the percentage of times a power law model ( $M_{PL}$ ), the alternative model ( $M_{Alt}$ ) or neither was favored.

Alternative	$M_{PL}$	M <sub>Alt</sub>	Inconclusive
Exponential	22.078 (17/77)	40.260 (31/77)	37.662 (29/77)
Truncated PL	83.333 (55/66)	6.061 (4/66)	10.606 (7/66)
Log normal	3.261 (3/92)	41.304 (38/92)	55.435 (51/92)
Weibull	93.939 (62/66)	6.061 (4/66)	0.000 (0/66)
Generalized Pareto	4.040 (4/99)	45.455 (45/99)	50.505 (50/99)

Table 39. Likelihood ratio test results from comparing the best fit for alternative distributions with the best fit power law distribution for the 5K dataset. We show the percentage of times a power law model ( $M_{PL}$ ), the alternative model ( $M_{Alt}$ ) or neither was favored.

Alternative	$M_{PL}$	$\mathbf{M}_{Alt}$	Inconclusive
Exponential	25.806 (24/93)	51.613 (48/93)	22.581 (21/93)
Truncated PL	69.014 (49/71)	19.718 (14/71)	11.268 (8/71)
Log normal	9.091 (9/99)	50.505 (50/99)	40.404 (40/99)
Weibull	81.690 (58/71)	18.310 (13/71)	0.000 (0/71)
Generalized Pareto	7.767 (8/103)	51.456 (53/103)	40.777 (42/103)

Table 40. Likelihood ratio test results from comparing the best fit for alternative distributions with the best fit power law distribution for the 10K dataset. We show the percentage of times a power law model ( $M_{PL}$ ), the alternative model ( $M_{Alt}$ ) or neither was favored.

Alternative	M <sub>PL</sub>	M <sub>Alt</sub>	Inconclusive
Exponential	29.070 (25/86)	58.140 (50/86)	12.791 (11/86)
Truncated PL	49.254 (33/67)	34.328 (23/67)	16.418 (11/67)
Log normal	9.574 (9/94)	61.702 (58/94)	28.723 (27/94)
Weibull	52.239 (35/67)	34.328 (23/67)	13.433 (9/67)
Generalized Pareto	2.970 (3/101)	64.356 (65/101)	32.673 (33/101)

Table 41. Likelihood ratio test results from comparing the best fit for alternative distributions with the best fit power law distribution for the 20K dataset. We show the percentage of times a power law model ( $M_{PL}$ ), the alternative model ( $M_{Alt}$ ) or neither was favored.

Alternative	$M_{PL}$	$\mathbf{M}_{Alt}$	Inconclusive
Exponential	30.000 (24/80)	61.250 (49/80)	8.750 (7/80)
Truncated PL	50.000 (27/54)	35.185 (19/54)	14.815 (8/54)
Log normal	9.639 (8/83)	62.651 (52/83)	27.711 (23/83)
Weibull	57.407 (31/54)	35.185 (19/54)	7.407 (4/54)
Generalized Pareto	6.0 (6/100)	72.0 (72/100)	22.0 (22/100)

Table 42. Likelihood ratio test results from comparing the best fit for alternative distributions with the best fit power law distribution for the 50K dataset. We show the percentage of times a power law model ( $M_{PL}$ ), the alternative model ( $M_{Alt}$ ) or neither was favored.

Alternative	$M_{PL}$	$M_{Alt}$	Inconclusive
Exponential	25.714 (18/70)	68.571 (48/70)	5.714 (4/70)
Log normal	13.235 (9/68)	67.647 (46/68)	19.188 (13/68)
Weibull	51.163 (22/43)	44.186 (19/43)	4.651 (2/43)
Generalized Pareto	6.024 (5/83)	72.289 (60/83)	21.687 (18/83)

Table 43. Likelihood ratio test results from comparing the best fit for alternative distributions with the best fit power law distribution for the 80K dataset. We show the percentage of times a power law model ( $M_{PL}$ ), the alternative model ( $M_{Alt}$ ) or neither was favored.

Alternative	$M_{PL}$	M <sub>Alt</sub>	Inconclusive
Exponential	39.062 (25/64)	54.688 (35/64)	6.250 (4/64)
Weibull	62.500 (30/48)	37.500 (18/48)	0.000 (0/48)
Generalized Pareto	6.977 (6/86)	68.605 (59/86)	24.419 (21/86)