The sna Package

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Title Tools for Social Network Analysis

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Depends R (>= 1.2.0)

Suggests rgl

Description A range of tools for social network analysis, including node and graph-level indices, structural distance and covariance methods, structural equivalence detection, p* modeling, random graph generation, and 2D/3D network visualization.

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URL http://erzuli.ss.uci.edu/R.stuff

R **topics documented:**

4 add.isolates and \ddot{a} and \ddot{a}

add.isolates *Add Isolates to a Graph*

Description

Adds n isolates to the graph (or graphs) in dat.

Usage

add.isolates(dat, n)

Arguments

Details

If dat contains more than one graph, the n isolates are added to each member of dat.

Value

The updated graph(s).

Note

Isolate addition is particularly useful when computing structural distances between graphs of different orders; see the above reference for details.

Author(s)

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References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Inter-Structural Analysis." CASOS Working Paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

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See Also

[isolates](#page-93-1)

Examples

```
g<-rgraph(10,5) #Produce some random graphs
dim(q) #Get the dimensions of q
g<-add.isolates(g,2) #Add 2 isolates to each graph in g
dim(g) \#Now examine g
g
```


bbnam *Butts' (Hierarchical) Bayesian Network Accuracy Model*

Description

Takes posterior draws from Butts' bayesian network accuracy/estimation model for multiple participant/observers (conditional on observed data and priors), using a Gibbs sampler.

Usage

```
bbnam(dat, model="actor", ...)
bbnam.fixed(dat, nprior=matrix(rep(0.5,dim(dat)[2]^2),
    nrow=dim(dat)[2],ncol=dim(dat)[2]), em=0.25, ep=0.25, diag=FALSE,
    mode="digraph", draws=1500, outmode="draws", anames=paste("a",
    1:dim(dat)[2],sep=""), onames=paste("o",1:dim(dat)[1], sep=""))
bbnam.pooled(dat, nprior=matrix(rep(0.5,dim(dat)[2]*dim(dat)[3]),
    nrow=dim(data)[2],ncol=dim(data)[3]), emprior=c(1,1),
    epprior=c(1,1), diag=FALSE, mode="digraph", reps=5, draws=1500,
    burntime=500, quiet=TRUE, anames=paste("a",1:dim(dat)[2],sep=""),
    onames=paste("o",1:dim(dat)[1],sep=""), compute.sqrtrhat=TRUE)
bbnam.actor(dat, nprior=matrix(rep(0.5,dim(dat)[2]*dim(dat)[3]),
    nrow=dim(dat)[2],ncol=dim(dat)[3]),
    emprior=cbind(rep(1,dim(dat)[1]),rep(1,dim(dat)[1])),
    epprior=cbind(rep(1,dim(dat)[1]),rep(1,dim(dat)[1])), diag=FALSE,
    mode="digraph", reps=5, draws=1500, burntime=500, quiet=TRUE,
    anames=paste("a",1:dim(dat)[2],sep=""),
    onames=paste("o",1:dim(dat)[1],sep=""), compute.sqrtrhat=TRUE)
```
Arguments

dat Data array to be analyzed. This array must be of dimension n x n x n, where n is $|V(G)|$, the first dimension indexes the observer, the second indexes the sender of the relation, and the third dimension indexes the recipient of the relation. (E.g., dat $[i, j, k] == 1$ implies that i observed j sending the relation in question to k.) Note that only dichotomous data is supported at present, and missing values are permitted; the data collection pattern, however, is assumed to be ignorable,

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compute.sqrtrhat

A boolean indicating whether or not Gelman et al.'s potential scale reduction measure (an MCMC convergence diagnostic) should be computed (pooled and actor models only)

Details

The bbnam models a set of network data as reflecting a series of (noisy) observations by a set of participant/observers regarding an uncertain criterion structure. Each observer is assumed to send false positives (i.e., reporting a tie when none exists in the criterion structure) with probability e^+ , and false negatives (i.e., reporting that no tie exists when one does in fact exist in the criterion structure) with probability e^- . The criterion network itself is taken to be a Bernoulli (di)graph. Note that the present model includes three variants:

- 1. Fixed error probabilities: Each edge is associated with a known pair of false negative/false positive error probabilities (provided by the researcher). In this case, the posterior for the criterion graph takes the form of a matrix of Bernoulli parameters, with each edge being independent conditional on the parameter matrix.
- 2. Pooled error probabilities: One pair of (uncertain) false negative/false positive error probabilities is assumed to hold for all observations. Here, we assume that the researcher's prior information regarding these parameters can be expressed as a pair of Beta distributions, with the additional assumption of independence in the prior distribution. Note that error rates and edge probabilities are *not* independent in the joint posterior, but the posterior marginals take the form of Beta mixtures and Bernoulli parameters, respectively.
- 3. Per observer ("actor") error probabilities: One pair of (uncertain) false negative/false positive error probabilities is assumed to hold for each observation slice. Again, we assume that prior knowledge can be expressed in terms of independent Beta distributions (along with the Bernoulli prior for the criterion graph) and the resulting posterior marginals are Beta mixtures and a Bernoulli graph. (Again, it should be noted that independence in the priors does *not* imply independence in the joint posterior!)

By default, the bbnam routine returns (approximately) independent draws from the joint posterior distribution, each draw yielding one realization of the criterion network and one collection of accuracy parameters (i.e., probabilities of false positives/negatives). This is accomplished via a Gibbs sampler in the case of the pooled/actor model, and by direct sampling for the fixed probability model. In the special case of the fixed probability model, it is also possible to obtain directly the posterior for the criterion graph (expressed as a matrix of Bernoulli parameters); this can be controlled by the outmode parameter.

As noted, the taking of posterior draws in the nontrivial case is accomplished via a Markov Chain Monte Carlo method, in particular the Gibbs sampler; the high dimensionality of the problem $(O(n² + 2n))$ tends to preclude more direct approaches. At present, chain burn-in is determined ex ante on a more or less arbitrary basis by specification of the burntime parameter. Eventually, a more systematic approach will be utilized. Note that insufficient burn-in will result in inaccurate posterior sampling, so it's not wise to skimp on burn time where otherwise possible. Similarly, it is wise to employ more than one Markov Chain (set by reps), since it is possible for trajectories to become "trapped" in metastable regions of the state space. Number of draws per chain being equal, more replications are usually better than few; consult Gelman et al. for details. A useful measure of chain convergence, Gelman and Rubin's potential scale reduction ($\sqrt{\hat{R}}$), can be computed using the compute.sqrtrhat parameter. The potential scale reduction measure is an ANOVA-like comparison of within-chain versus between-chain variance; it approaches 1 (from above) as the chain converges, and longer burn-in times are strongly recommended for chains with scale reductions in excess of 1.1 or thereabouts.

Finally, a cautionary concerning prior distributions: it is important that the specified priors actually reflect the prior knowledge of the researcher; otherwise, the posterior will be inadequately informed. In particular, note that an uninformative prior on the accuracy probabilities implies that it is a priori equally probable that any given actor's observations will be informative or *negatively* informative (i.e., that i observing j sending a tie to k *reduces* p(j->k)). This is a highly unrealistic assumption, and it will tend to produce posteriors which are bimodal (one mode being related to the "informative" solution, the other to the "negatively informative" solution). A more plausible but still fairly diffuse prior would be Beta(3,5), which reduces the prior probability of an actor's being negatively informative to 0.16, and the prior probability of any given actor's being more than 50% likely to make a particular error (on average) to around 0.22. (This prior also puts substantial mass near the 0.5 point, which would seem consonant with the BKS studies.) Butts (2003) discusses a number of issues related to choice of priors for the bbnam, and users should consult this reference if matters are unclear before defaulting to the uninformative solution.

Value

An object of class bbnam, containing the posterior draws. The components of the output are as follows:

Note

As indicated, the posterior draws are conditional on the observed data, and hence on the data collection mechanism if the collection design is non-ignorable. Complete data (e.g., a CSS) and random tie samples are examples of ignorable designs; see Gelman et al. for more information concerning ignorability.

Author(s)

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References

Butts, C. T. (2003). "Network Inference, Error, and Informant (In)Accuracy: A Bayesian Approach." *Social Networks*, 25(2), 103-140.

Gelman, A.; Carlin, J.B.; Stern, H.S.; and Rubin, D.B. (1995). *Bayesian Data Analysis.* London: Chapman and Hall.

Gelman, A., and Rubin, D.B. (1992). "Inference from Iterative Simulation Using Multiple Sequences." *Statistical Science,* 7, 457-511.

Krackhardt, D. (1987). "Cognitive Social Structures." *Social Networks,* 9, 109-134.

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See Also

[npostpred](#page-111-1), [event2dichot](#page-41-1), [bbnam.bf](#page-8-1)

Examples

```
#Create some random data
g<-rgraph(5)
g.p<-0.8*g+0.2*(1-g)
dat<-rgraph(5,5,tprob=g.p)
#Define a network prior
pnet<-matrix(ncol=5,nrow=5)
pnet[,]<-0.5
#Define em and ep priors
pem<-matrix(nrow=5,ncol=2)
pem[,1]<-3
pem[,2]<-5
pep<-matrix(nrow=5,ncol=2)
pep[,1]<-3
pep[,2]<-5
#Draw from the posterior
b<-bbnam(dat,model="actor",nprior=pnet,emprior=pem,epprior=pep,
    burntime=100,draws=100)
#Print a summary of the posterior draws
summary(b)
```
bbnam.bf *Estimate Bayes Factors for the bbnam*

Description

This function uses monte carlo integration to estimate the BFs, and tests the fixed probability, pooled, and pooled by actor models. (See [bbnam](#page-4-1) for details.)

Usage

```
bbnam.bf(dat, nprior=matrix(rep(0.5, dim(dat)[1]^2),
    nrow = dim(data)[1], ncol = dim(data)[1]), em.fp=0.5, ep.fp=0.5,emprior.pooled=c(1, 1), epprior.pooled=c(1, 1),
    emprior.actor=cbind(rep(1, dim(dat)[1]), rep(1, dim(dat)[1])),
    epprior.actor=cbind(rep(1, dim(dat)[1]), rep(1, dim(dat)[1])),
    diag=FALSE, mode="digraph", reps=1000)
```
Arguments

dat Data array to be analyzed. This array must be of dimension m x n x n, where n is $|V(G)|$, the first dimension indexes the observer, the second indexes the sender of the relation, and the third dimension indexes the recipient of the relation. (E.g., dat $[i, j, k] == 1$ implies that i observed j sending the relation in question to k.) Note that only dichotomous data is supported at present, and missing values are permitted; the data collection pattern, however, is assumed to be ignorable, and hence the posterior inferences are implicitly conditional on the observation pattern.

Details

The bbnam model (detailed in the [bbnam](#page-4-1) function help) is a fairly simple model for integrating informant reports regarding social network data. bbnam.bf computes Bayes Factors (integrated likelihood ratios) for the three error submodels of the bbnam: fixed error probabilities, pooled error probabilities, and per observer/actor error probabilities.

Value

An object of class bayes.factor.

Note

It is important to be aware that the model parameter priors are essential components of the models to be compared; inappropriate parameter priors will result in misleading Bayes Factors.

Author(s)

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References

Butts, C. T. (2003). "Network Inference, Error, and Informant (In)Accuracy: A Bayesian Approach." *Social Networks*, 25(2), 103-140.

Robert, C. (1994). *The Bayesian Choice: A Decision-Theoretic Motivation.* Springer.

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See Also

[bbnam](#page-4-1)

Examples

betweenness *Compute the Betweenness Centrality Scores of Network Positions*

Description

betweenness takes one or more graphs (dat) and returns the betweenness centralities of positions (selected by nodes) within the graphs indicated by g. Depending on the specified mode, betweenness on directed or undirected geodesics will be returned; this function is compatible with [centralization](#page-20-1), and will return the theoretical maximum absolute deviation (from maximum) conditional on size (which is used by [centralization](#page-20-1) to normalize the observed centralization score).

Usage

```
betweenness(dat, g=1, nodes=NULL, gmode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
    tmaxdev=FALSE, cmode="directed", geodist.precomp=NULL,
    rescale=FALSE)
```
Arguments

Details

The betweenness of a vertex, v, is given by

$$
C_B(v) = \sum_{i,j:i \neq j, i \neq v, j \neq v} \frac{g_{ivj}}{g_{ij}}
$$

where g_{ijk} is the number of geodesics from i to k through j. Conceptually, high-betweenness vertices lie on a large number of non-redundant shortest paths between other vertices; they can thus be thought of as "bridges" or "boundary spanners."

Value

A vector, matrix, or list containing the betweenness scores (depending on the number and size of the input graphs).

Warning

Rescale may cause unexpected results if all actors have zero betweenness.

Note

Judicious use of geodist.precomp can save a great deal of time when computing multiple path-based indices on the same network.

Author(s)

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References

Freeman, L.C. (1979). "Centrality in Social Networks I: Conceptual Clarification." *Social Networks*, 1, 215-239.

See Also

[centralization](#page-20-1)

Examples

Description

Given a set of equivalence classes (in the form of an [equiv.clust](#page-36-1) object, [hclust](#page-0-0) object, or membership vector) and one or more graphs, blockmodel will form a blockmodel of the input graph(s) based on the classes in question, using the specified block content type.

Usage

```
blockmodel(dat, ec, k=NULL, h=NULL, block.content="density",
    plabels=NULL, glabels=NULL, rlabels=NULL, mode="digraph",
    diag=FALSE)
```
Arguments

Details

Unless a vector of classes is specified, blockmodel forms its eponymous models by using [cutree](#page-0-0) to cut an equivalence clustering in the fashion specified by k and h. After forming clusters (roles), the input graphs are reordered and blockmodel reduction is applied. Currently supported reductions are:

- 1. density: block density, computed as the mean value of the block
- 2. meanrowsum: mean row sums for the block
- 3. meancolsum: mean column sums for the block
- 4. sum: total block sum
- 5. median: median block value
- 6. min: minimum block value
- 7. max: maximum block value

8. types: semi-intelligent coding of blocks by "type." Currently recognized types are (in order of precedence) "NA" (i.e., blocks with no valid data), "null" (i.e., all values equal to zero), "complete" (i.e., all values equal to 1), "1 covered" (i.e., all rows/cols contain a 1), "1 rowcovered" (i.e., all rows contain a 1), "1 col-covered" (i.e., all cols contain a 1), and "other" (i.e., none of the above).

Density or median-based reductions are probably the most interpretable for most conventional analyses, though type-based reduction can be useful in examining certain equivalence class hypotheses (e.g., 1 covered and null blocks can be used to infer regular equivalence classes). Once a given reduction is performed, the model can be analyzed and/or expansion can be used to generate new graphs based on the inferred role structure.

Value

An object of class blockmodel.

Author(s)

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References

Doreian, P.; Batagelj, V.; and Ferligoj, A. (2005). *Generalized Blockmodeling.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

White, H.C.; Boorman, S.A.; and Breiger, R.L. (1976). "Social Structure from Multiple Networks I: Blockmodels of Roles and Positions." *American Journal of Sociology*, 81, 730-779.

See Also

[equiv.clust](#page-36-1), [blockmodel.expand](#page-14-1)

Examples

```
#Create a random graph with _some_ edge structure
g.p<-sapply(runif(20,0,1),rep,20) #Create a matrix of edge
                                #probabilities
g<-rgraph(20,tprob=g.p) #Draw from a Bernoulli graph
                               #distribution
#Cluster based on structural equivalence
eq<-equiv.clust(g)
#Form a blockmodel with distance relaxation of 10
b<-blockmodel(g,eq,h=10)
plot(b) \#Plot it
```
blockmodel.expand *Generate a Graph (or Stack) from a Given Blockmodel Using Particular Expansion Rules*

Description

blockmodel.expand takes a blockmodel and an expansion vector, and expands the former by making copies of the vertices.

Usage

```
blockmodel.expand(b, ev, mode="digraph", diag=FALSE)
```
Arguments

Details

The primary use of blockmodel expansion is in generating test data from a blockmodeling hypothesis. Expansion is performed depending on the content type of the blockmodel; at present, only density is supported. For the density content type, expansion is performed by interpreting the interclass density as an edge probability, and by drawing random graphs from the Bernoulli parameter matrix formed by expanding the density model. Thus, repeated calls to blockmodel.expand can be used to generate a sample for monte carlo null hypothesis tests under a Bernoulli graph model.

Value

An adjacency matrix, or stack thereof.

Note

Eventually, other content types will be supported.

Author(s)

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References

Doreian, P.; Batagelj, V.; and Ferligoj, A. (2005). *Generalized Blockmodeling.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

White, H.C.; Boorman, S.A.; and Breiger, R.L. (1976). "Social Structure from Multiple Networks I: Blockmodels of Roles and Positions." *American Journal of Sociology*, 81, 730-779.

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See Also

[blockmodel](#page-12-1)

Examples

```
#Create a random graph with _some_ edge structure
g.p<-sapply(runif(20,0,1),rep,20) #Create a matrix of edge
                                  #probabilities
g<-rgraph(20,tprob=g.p) #Draw from a Bernoulli graph
                                  #distribution
#Cluster based on structural equivalence
eq<-equiv.clust(g)
#Form a blockmodel with distance relaxation of 15
b<-blockmodel(g,eq,h=15)
#Draw from an expanded density blockmodel
g.e<-blockmodel.expand(b,rep(2,length(b$rlabels))) #Two of each class
g.e
```
bn *Fit a Biased Net Model*

Description

Fits a biased net model to an input graph, using moment-based or maximum pseudolikelihood techniques.

Usage

```
bn(dat, method = c("mple.triad", "mple.dyad", "mple.edge",
    "mtle"), param.seed = NULL, param.fixed = NULL,
    optim.method = "BFGS", optim.control = list(),
    epsilon = 1e-05)
```
Arguments

Details

The biased net model stems from early work by Rapoport, who attempted to model networks via a hypothetical "tracing" process. This process may be described loosely as follows. One begins with a small "seed" set of vertices, each member of which is assumed to nominate (generate ties to) other members of the population with some fixed probability. These members, in turn, may nominate new members of the population, as well as members who have already been reached. Such nominations may be "biased" in one fashion or another, leading to a non-uniform growth process. Specifically, let e_{ij} be the random event that vertex i nominates vertex j when reached. Then the conditional probability of e_{ij} is given by

$$
Pr(e_{ij}|T) = 1 - (1 - Pr(B_e)) \prod_k (1 - Pr(B_k|T))
$$

where T is the current state of the trace, B_e is the a Bernoulli event corresponding to the baseline probability of e_{ij} , and the B_k are "bias events." Bias events are taken to be independent Bernoulli trials, given T, such that e_{ij} is observed with certainty if any bias event occurs. The specification of a biased net model, then, involves defining the various bias events (which, in turn, influence the structure of the network).

Although other events have been proposed, the primary bias events employed in current biased net models are the "parent bias" (a tendency to return nominations); the "sibling bias" (a tendency to nominate alters who were nominated by the same third party); and the "double role bias" (a tendency to nominate alters who are both siblings and parents). These bias events, together with the baseline edge events, are used to form the standard biased net model. It is standard to assume homogeneity within bias class, leading to the four parameters π (probability of a parent bias event), σ (probability of a sibling bias event), ρ (probability of a double role bias event), and d (probability of a baseline event).

Unfortunately, there is no simple expression for the likelihood of a graph given these parameters (and hence, no basis for likelihood based inference). However, Skvoretz et al. have derived a class of maximum pseudo-likelihood estimators for the the biased net model, based on local approximations to the likelihood at the edge, dyad, or triad level. These estimators may be employed within bn by selecting the appropriate MPLE for the *method* argument. Alternately, it is also possible to derive expected triad census rates for the biased net model, allowing an estimator which maximizes the likelihood of the observed triad census (essentially, a method of moments procedure). This last may be selected via the argument mode="mtle". In addition to estimating model parameters, bn generates predicted edge, dyad, and triad census statistics, as well as structure statistics (using the Fararo-Sunshine recurrence). These can be used to evaluate goodness-of-fit.

print, summary, and plot methods are available for bn objects. See [rgbn](#page-144-1) for simulation from biased net models.

Value

An object of class bn.

Note

Asymptotic properties of the MPLE are not known for this model. Caution is strongly advised.

Author(s)

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References

Fararo, T.J. and Sunshine, M.H. (1964). "A study of a biased friendship net." Syracuse, NY: Youth Development Center.

Rapoport, A. (1957). "A contribution to the theory of random and biased nets." *Bulletin of Mathematical Biophysics,* 15, 523-533.

Skvoretz, J.; Fararo, T.J.; and Agneessens, F. (2004). "Advances in biased net theory: definitions, derivations, and estimations." *Social Networks,* 26, 113-139.

See Also

[rgbn](#page-144-1), [structure.statistics](#page-165-1)

Examples

```
#Generate a random graph
g<-rgraph(25)
#Fit a biased net model, using the triadic MPLE
gbn < -bn(g)#Examine the results
summary(gbn)
plot(gbn)
#Now, fit a model containing only a density parameter
gbn<-bn(g,param.fixed=list(pi=0,sigma=0,rho=0))
summary(gbn)
plot(gbn)
```
bonpow *Find Bonacich Power Centrality Scores of Network Positions*

Description

bonpow takes one or more graphs (dat) and returns the Boncich power centralities of positions (selected by nodes) within the graphs indicated by g. The decay rate for power contributions is specified by exponent (1 by default). This function is compatible with [centralization](#page-20-1), and will return the theoretical maximum absolute deviation (from maximum) conditional on size (which is used by [centralization](#page-20-1) to normalize the observed centralization score).

Usage

```
bonpow(dat, g=1, nodes=NULL, gmode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
    tmaxdev=FALSE, exponent=1, rescale=FALSE, tol=1e-07)
```
Arguments

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Details

Bonacich's power centrality measure is defined by $C_{BP}(\alpha, \beta) = \alpha (\mathbf{I} - \beta \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{1}$, where β is an attenuation parameter (set here by exponent) and A is the graph adjacency matrix. (The coefficient α acts as a scaling parameter, and is set here (following Bonacich (1987)) such that the sum of squared scores is equal to the number of vertices. This allows 1 to be used as a reference value for the "middle" of the centrality range.) When $\beta \to 1/\lambda_{A1}$ (the reciprocal of the largest eigenvalue of A), this is to within a constant multiple of the familiar eigenvector centrality score; for other values of β , the behavior of the measure is quite different. In particular, β gives positive and negative weight to even and odd walks, respectively, as can be seen from the series expansion $C_{BP}(\alpha, \beta) = \alpha \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \beta^k \mathbf{A}^{k+1} \mathbf{1}$ which converges so long as $|\beta| < 1/\lambda_{\mathbf{A}1}$. The magnitude of β controls the influence of distant actors on ego's centrality score, with larger magnitudes indicating slower rates of decay. (High rates, hence, imply a greater sensitivity to edge effects.)

Interpretively, the Bonacich power measure corresponds to the notion that the power of a vertex is recursively defined by the sum of the power of its alters. The nature of the recursion involved is then controlled by the power exponent: positive values imply that vertices become more powerful as their alters become more powerful (as occurs in cooperative relations), while negative values imply that vertices become more powerful only as their alters become *weaker* (as occurs in competitive or antagonistic relations). The magnitude of the exponent indicates the tendency of the effect to decay across long walks; higher magnitudes imply slower decay. One interesting feature of this measure is its relative instability to changes in exponent magnitude (particularly in the negative case). If your theory motivates use of this measure, you should be very careful to choose a decay parameter on a non-ad hoc basis.

Value

A vector, matrix, or list containing the centrality scores (depending on the number and size of the input graphs).

Warning

Singular adjacency matrices cause no end of headaches for this algorithm; thus, the routine may fail in certain cases. This will be fixed when I get a better algorithm. bonpow will not symmetrize your data before extracting eigenvectors; don't send this routine asymmetric matrices unless you really mean to do so.

The theoretical maximum deviation used here is not obtained with the star network, in general. For positive exponents, at least, the symmetric maximum occurs for an empty graph with one complete dyad (the asymmetric maximum is generated by the outstar). UCINET V seems not to adjust for this fact, which can cause some oddities in their centralization scores (thus, don't expect to get the same numbers with both packages).

Author(s)

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References

Bonacich, P. (1972). "Factoring and Weighting Approaches to Status Scores and Clique Identification." *Journal of Mathematical Sociology*, 2, 113-120.

Bonacich, P. (1987). "Power and Centrality: A Family of Measures." *American Journal of Sociology*, 92, 1170-1182.

See Also

[centralization](#page-20-1), [evcent](#page-39-1)

Examples

```
#Generate some test data
dat<-rgraph(10,mode="graph")
#Compute Bonpow scores
bonpow(dat,exponent=1,tol=1e-20)
bonpow(dat,exponent=-1,tol=1e-20)
```
centralgraph *Find the Central Graph of a Labeled Graph Stack*

Description

Returns the central graph of a set of labeled graphs, i.e. that graph in which i->j iff i->j in >=50% of the graphs within the set. If normalize==TRUE, then the value of the i,jth edge is given as the proportion of graphs in which i->j.

Usage

```
centralgraph(dat, normalize=FALSE)
```
Arguments

Note

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Details

The central graph of a set of graphs S is that graph C which minimizes the sum of Hamming distances between C and G in S. As such, it turns out (for the dichotomous case, at least), to be analogous to both the mean and median for sets of graphs. The central graph is useful in a variety of contexts; see the references below for more details.

Value

A matrix containing the central graph (or mean matrix)

Note

0.5 is used as the cutoff value regardless of whether or not the data is dichotomous (as is tacitly assumed). The routine is unaffected by data type when normalize==TRUE.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Banks, D.L., and Carley, K.M. (1994). "Metric Inference for Social Networks." *Journal of Classification*, 11(1), 121-49.

See Also

[hdist](#page-84-1)

Examples

```
#Generate some random graphs
dat<-rgraph(10,5)
#Find the central graph
cg<-centralgraph(dat)
#Plot the central graph
gplot(cg)
#Now, look at the mean matrix
cg<-centralgraph(dat,normalize=TRUE)
print(cg)
```
centralization *Find the Centralization of a Given Network, for Some Measure of Centrality*

Description

Centralization returns the centralization GLI (graph-level index) for a given graph in dat, given a (node) centrality measure FUN. Centralization follows Freeman's (1979) generalized definition of network centralization, and can be used with any properly defined centrality measure. This measure must be implemented separately; see the references below for examples.

Usage

```
centralization(dat, FUN, g=1, mode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
    normalize=TRUE, ...)
```
Arguments

Details

The centralization of a graph G for centrality measure $C(v)$ is defined (as per Freeman (1979)) to be:

$$
C^*(G) = \sum_{i \in V(G)} \left| \max_{v \in V(G)} (C(v)) - C(i) \right|
$$

Or, equivalently, the absolute deviation from the maximum of C on G. Generally, this value is normalized by the theoretical maximum centralization score, conditional on $|V(G)|$. (Here, this functionality is activated by normalize.) Centralization depends on the function specified by FUN to return the vector of nodal centralities when called with dat and g, and to return the theoretical maximum value when called with the above and tmaxdev==TRUE. For an example of such a centrality routine, see [degree](#page-32-1).

Value

The centralization of the specified graph.

Note

See [cugtest](#page-29-1) for null hypothesis tests involving centralization scores.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

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References

Freeman, L.C. (1979). "Centrality in Social Networks I: Conceptual Clarification." *Social Networks*, 1, 215-239.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[cugtest](#page-29-1)

Examples

```
#Generate some random graphs
dat<-rgraph(5,10)
#How centralized is the third one on indegree?
centralization(dat,g=3,degree,cmode="indegree")
#How about on total (Freeman) degree?
centralization(dat,g=3,degree)
```
closeness *Compute the Closeness Centrality Scores of Network Positions*

Description

closeness takes one or more graphs (dat) and returns the closeness centralities of positions (selected by nodes) within the graphs indicated by g. Depending on the specified mode, closeness on directed or undirected geodesics will be returned; this function is compatible with [centralization](#page-20-1), and will return the theoretical maximum absolute deviation (from maximum) conditional on size (which is used by [centralization](#page-20-1) to normalize the observed centralization score).

Usage

```
closeness(dat, g=1, nodes=NULL, gmode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
   tmaxdev=FALSE, cmode="directed", geodist.precomp=NULL,
   rescale=FALSE)
```
Arguments

Details

The closeness of a vertex v is defined as

$$
C_C(v) = \frac{|V(G)| - 1}{\sum_{i:i \neq v} d(v, i)}
$$

where $d(i, j)$ is the geodesic distance between i and j (where defined). Closeness is ill-defined on disconnected graphs; in such cases, this routine substitutes Inf. It should be understood that this modification is not canonical (though it is common), but can be avoided by not attempting to measure closeness on disconnected graphs in the first place! Intuitively, closeness provides an index of the extent to which a given vertex has short paths to all other vertices in the graph; this is one reasonable measure of the extent to which a vertex is in the "middle" of a given structure.

Value

A vector, matrix, or list containing the closeness scores (depending on the number and size of the input graphs).

Note

Judicious use of geodist.precomp can save a great deal of time when computing multiple path-based indices on the same network.

Author(s)

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References

Freeman, L.C. (1979). "Centrality in Social Networks I: Conceptual Clarification." *Social Networks*, 1, 215-239.

See Also

[centralization](#page-20-1)

Examples

component.dist *Calculate the Component Size Distribution of a Graph*

Description

component.dist returns a list containing a vector of length n such that the ith element contains the number of components of G having size i, and a vector of length n giving component membership. Component strength is determined by the connected parameter; see below for details.

Usage

```
component.dist(dat, connected=c("strong","weak","unilateral",
     "recursive"))
```
Arguments

Details

Components are maximal sets of mutually connected vertices; depending on the definition of "connected" one employs, one can arrive at several types of components. Those supported here are as follows (in increasing order of restrictiveness):

- 1. weak: v_1 is connected to v_2 iff there exists a semi-path from v_1 to v_2 (i.e., a path in the weakly symmetrized graph)
- 2. unilateral: v_1 is connected to v_2 iff there exists a directed path from v_1 to v_2 *or* a directed path from v_2 to v_1
- 3. strong: v_1 is connected to v_2 iff there exists a directed path from v_1 to v_2 *and* a directed path from v_2 to v_1
- 4. recursive: v_1 is connected to v_2 iff there exists a vertex sequence v_a, \ldots, v_z such that $v_1, v_a, \ldots, v_z, v_2$ and $v_2, v_z, \ldots, v_a, v_1$ are directed paths

Note that the above definitions are distinct for directed graphs only; if dat is symmetric, then the connected parameter has no effect.

Value

A list containing:

If multiple input graphs are given, the return value is a list of lists.

Unilaterally connected component partitions may not be well-defined, since it is possible for a given vertex to be unilaterally connected to two vertices which are not unilaterally connected with one another. Consider, for instance, the graph $a \to b \leftarrow c \to d$. In this case, the maximal unilateral components are ab and bcd , with vertex b properly belonging to both components. For such graphs, a unique partition of vertices by component does not exist, and we "solve" the problem by allocating each "problem vertex" to one of its components on an essentially arbitrary basis. (component.dist generates a warning when this occurs.) It is recommended that the unilateral option be avoided where possible.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

West, D.B. (1996). *Introduction to Graph Theory.* Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

See Also

[components](#page-25-1), [symmetrize](#page-173-1), [reachability](#page-141-1) [geodist](#page-53-1)

Examples

```
g<-rgraph(20,tprob=0.075) #Generate a sparse random graph
#Find weak components
cd<-component.dist(g,connected="weak")
cd$membership #Who's in what component?cd$csize #What are the component sizes?
                        #Plot the size distribution
plot(1:length(cd$cdist),cd$cdist/sum(cd$cdist),ylim=c(0,1),type="h")
#Find strong components
cd<-component.dist(g,connected="strong")
cd$membership #Who's in what component?cd$csize #What are the component sizes?
                        #Plot the size distribution
plot(1:length(cd$cdist),cd$cdist/sum(cd$cdist),ylim=c(0,1),type="h")
```
components *Find the Number of (Maximal) Components Within a Given Graph*

Description

Returns the number of components within dat, using the connectedness rule given in connected.

Usage

```
components(dat, connected="strong", comp.dist.precomp=NULL)
```


Note

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Arguments

Details

The connected parameter corresponds to the rule parameter of [component.dist](#page-24-1). By default, components returns the number of strong components, but weak components can be returned if so desired. For symmetric matrices, this is obviously a moot point.

Value

A vector containing the number of components for each graph in dat

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

West, D.B. (1996). *Introduction to Graph Theory*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

See Also

[component.dist](#page-24-1), [symmetrize](#page-173-1)

Examples

```
g<-rgraph(20,tprob=0.05) #Generate a sparse random graph
#Find weak components
components(g,connected="weak")
```

```
#Find strong components
components(g,connected="strong")
```
connectedness *Compute Graph Connectedness Scores*

Description

connectedness takes one or more graphs (dat) and returns the Krackhardt connectedness scores for the graphs selected by g.

Usage

```
connectedness(dat, g=NULL)
```
Arguments

Details

Krackhardt's connectedness for a digraph G is equal to the fraction of all dyads, $\{i, j\}$, such that there exists an undirected path from i to j in G . (This, in turn, is just the density of the weak [reachability](#page-141-1) graph of G .) Obviously, the connectedness score ranges from 0 (for the null graph) to 1 (for weakly connected graphs).

Connectedness is one of four measures ([connectedness](#page-26-1), [efficiency](#page-35-1), [hierarchy](#page-86-1), and [lubness](#page-101-1)) suggested by Krackhardt for summarizing hierarchical structures. Each corresponds to one of four axioms which are necessary and sufficient for the structure in question to be an outtree; thus, the measures will be equal to 1 for a given graph iff that graph is an outtree. Deviations from unity can be interpreted in terms of failure to satisfy one or more of the outtree conditions, information which may be useful in classifying its structural properties.

Value

A vector containing the connectedness scores

Note

The four Krackhardt indices are, in general, nondegenerate for a relatively narrow band of size/density combinations (efficiency being the sole exception). This is primarily due to their dependence on the reachability graph, which tends to become complete rapidly as size/density increase. See Krackhardt (1994) for a useful simulation study.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Krackhardt, David. (1994). "Graph Theoretical Dimensions of Informal Organizations." In K. M. Carley and M. J. Prietula (Eds.), *Computational Organization Theory*, 89-111. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum and Associates.

See Also

[connectedness](#page-26-1), [efficiency](#page-35-1), [hierarchy](#page-86-1), [lubness](#page-101-1), [reachability](#page-141-1)

Examples

```
#Get connectedness scores for graphs of varying densities
connectedness(rgraph(10,5,tprob=c(0.1,0.25,0.5,0.75,0.9)))
```


Description

consensus estimates a central or consensus structure given multiple observations, using one of several algorithms.

Usage

```
consensus(dat, mode="digraph", diag=FALSE, method="central.graph",
    tol = 1e-06)
```
Arguments

Details

The term "consensus structure" is used by a number of authors to reflect a notion of shared or common perceptions of social structure among a set of observers. As there are many interpretations of what is meant by "consensus" (and as to how best to estimate it), several algorithms are employed here:

- 1. central.graph: Estimate the consensus structure using the central graph. This correponds to a "median response" notion of consensus.
- 2. single.reweight: Estimate the consensus structure using subject responses, reweighted by mean graph correlation. This corresponds to an "expertise-weighted vote" notion of consensus.
- 3. iterative.reweight: Similar to single.reweight, but fits a Romney-Batchelder informant accuracy model using IPF. The implementation employed here uses both bias and competency parameters.
- 4. PCA.reweight: Estimate the consensus using the (scores on the) first component of a network PCA. This corresponds to a "shared theme" or "common element" notion of consensus.
- 5. LAS.intersection: Estimate the concensus structure using the locally aggregated structure (intersection rule). In this model, an i->j edge exists iff i *and* j agree that it exists.
- 6. LAS.union: Estimate the concensus structure using the locally aggregated structure (union rule). In this model, an i->j edge exists iff i *or* j agree that it exists.
- 7. OR.row: Estimate the consensus structure using own report. Here, we take each informant's outgoing tie reports to be correct.
- 8. OR.col: Estimate the consensus structure using own report. Here, we take each informant's incoming tie reports to be correct.

Note that the reweighted algorithms are not dichotomized by default; since some of these return valued graphs, dichotomization may be desirable prior to use.

It should be noted that a model for estimating an underlying criterion structure from multiple informant reports is provided in [bbnam](#page-4-1); if your goal is to reconstruct an "objective" network from informant reports, this (or the R-B model of iterative.reweight) may prove more useful than the ad-hoc solutions.

Value

An adjacency matrix representing the consensus structure

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Banks, D.L., and Carley, K.M. (1994). "Metric Inference for Social Networks." *Journal of Classification,* 11(1), 121-49.

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Inter-Structural Analysis." CASOS Working Paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

Krackhardt, D. (1987). "Cognitive Social Structures." *Social Networks,* 9, 109-134.

Romney, A.K.; Weller, S.C.; and Batchelder, W.H. (1986). "Culture as Consensus: A Theory of Culture and Informant Accuracy." *American Anthropologist,* 88(2), 313-38.

See Also

[bbnam](#page-4-1), [centralgraph](#page-19-1)

Examples

```
#Generate some test data
g<-rgraph(5)
g.pobs<-g*0.9+(1-g)*0.5
g.obs<-rgraph(5,5,tprob=g.pobs)
#Find some consensus structures
consensus(g.obs) #Central graph
consensus(g.obs,method="single.reweight") #Single reweighting
consensus(g.obs,method="PCA.reweight") #1st component in network PCA
```
cugtest *Perform Conditional Uniform Graph (CUG) Hypothesis Tests for Graph-Level Indices*

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Description

cugtest tests an arbitrary GLI (computed on dat by FUN) against a conditional uniform graph null hypothesis, via Monte Carlo simulation of likelihood quantiles. Some variation in the nature of the conditioning is available; currently, conditioning only on size, conditioning jointly on size and estimated tie probability (via density), and conditioning jointly on size and (bootstrapped) edge value distributions are implemented. Note that fair amount of flexibility is possible regarding CUG tests on functions of GLIs (Anderson et al., 1999). See below for more details.

Usage

```
cugtest(dat, FUN, reps=1000, gmode="digraph", cmode="density",
   diag=FALSE, g1=1, g2=2, ...)
```
Arguments

Details

The null hypothesis of the CUG test is that the observed GLI (or function thereof) was drawn from a distribution isomorphic to that of said GLI evaluated (uniformly) on the space of all graphs conditional on one or more features. The most common "features" used for conditioning purposes are order (size) and density, both of which are known to have strong and nontrivial effects on other GLIs (Anderson et al., 1999) and which are, in many cases, exogenously determined. Since theoretical results regarding functions of arbitrary GLIs on the space of graphs are not available, the standard approach to CUG testing is to approximate the quantiles of the likelihood associated with the null hypothesis using Monte Carlo methods. This is the technique utilized by cugtest, which takes appropriately conditioned draws from the set of graphs and computes on them the GLI specified in FUN, thereby accumulating an approximation to the true likelihood.

The cugtest procedure returns a cugtest object containing the estimated likelihood (distribution of the test GLI under the null hypothesis), the observed GLI value of the data, and the one-tailed p-values (estimated quantiles) associated with said observation. As usual, the (upper tail) null hypothesis is rejected for significance level alpha if p>=observation is less than alpha (or p<=observation, for the lower tail). Standard caveats regarding the use of null hypothesis testing procedures are relevant here: in particular, bear in mind that a significant result does not necessarily imply that the likelihood ratio of the null model and the alternative hypothesis favors the latter.

Informative and aesthetically pleasing portrayals of cugtest objects are available via the [print.cugtest](#page-126-1) and [summary.cugtest](#page-169-1) methods. The [plot.cugtest](#page-116-1) method displays the estimated distribution, with a reference line signifying the observed value.

Value

An object of class cugtest, containing

Author(s)

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References

Anderson, B.S.; Butts, C.T.; and Carley, K.M. (1999). "The Interaction of Size and Density with Graph-Level Indices." *Social Networks*, 21(3), 239-267.

See Also

[qaptest](#page-139-1), [gliop](#page-54-1)

Examples

```
#Draw two random graphs, with different tie probabilities
dat<-rgraph(20,2,tprob=c(0.2,0.8))
#Is their correlation higher than would be expected, conditioning
#only on size?
cug<-cugtest(dat,gcor,cmode="order")
summary(cug)
#Now, let's try conditioning on density as well.
cug<-cugtest(dat,gcor)
summary(cug)
```
Description

Degree takes one or more graphs (dat) and returns the degree centralities of positions (selected by nodes) within the graphs indicated by g. Depending on the specified mode, indegree, outdegree, or total (Freeman) degree will be returned; this function is compatible with [centralization](#page-20-1), and will return the theoretical maximum absolute deviation (from maximum) conditional on size (which is used by [centralization](#page-20-1) to normalize the observed centralization score).

Usage

```
degree(dat, g=1, nodes=NULL, gmode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
    tmaxdev=FALSE, cmode="freeman", rescale=FALSE)
```
Arguments

Details

Degree centrality is the social networker's term for various permutations of the graph theoretic notion of vertex degree: indegree of a vertex, v, corresponds to the cardinality of the vertex set $N^+(v) = \{i \in V(G) : (i, v) \in E(G)\}$; outdegree corresponds to the cardinality of the vertex set $N^-(v) = \{i \in V(G) : (v, i) \in E(G)\}$; and total (or "Freeman") degree corresponds to $|N^+(v)|+|N^-(v)|$. (Note that, for simple graphs, indegree=outdegree=total degree/2.) Obviously, degree centrality can be interpreted in terms of the sizes of actors' neighborhoods within the larger structure. See the references below for more details.

Value

A vector, matrix, or list containing the degree scores (depending on the number and size of the input graphs).

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Freeman, L.C. (1979). "Centrality in Social Networks I: Conceptual Clarification." *Social Networks*, 1, 215-239.

See Also

[centralization](#page-20-1)

Examples

```
#Create a random directed graph
dat<-rgraph(10)
#Find the indegrees, outdegrees, and total degrees
degree(dat,cmode="indegree")
degree(dat, cmode="outdegree")
degree(dat)
```
diag.remove *Remove the Diagonals of Adjacency Matrices in a Graph Stack*

Description

Returns the input graphs, with the diagonal entries removed/replaced as indicated.

Usage

```
diag.remove(dat, remove.val=NA)
```
Arguments

Details

diag.remove is simply a convenient way to apply [diag](#page-0-0) to an entire collection of adjacency matrices/network objects at once.

Value

The updated graphs.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[diag](#page-0-0), [upper.tri.remove](#page-177-1), [lower.tri.remove](#page-100-1)

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Examples

```
#Generate a random graph stack
g <-rgraph(3,5)#Remove the diagonals
g<-diag.remove(g)
```
dyad.census *Compute a Holland and Leinhardt MAN Dyad Census*

Description

dyad.census computes a Holland and Leinhardt dyad census on the graphs of dat selected by g.

Usage

```
dyad.census(dat, g=NULL)
```
Arguments

Details

Each dyad in a directed graph may be in one of four states: the null state $(a \leftrightarrow b)$, the complete or mutual state $(a \leftrightarrow b)$, and either of two asymmetric states $(a \leftarrow b$ or $a \rightarrow b)$. Holland and Leinhardt's dyad census classifies each dyad into the mutual, asymmetric, or null categories, counting the number of each within the digraph. These counts can be used as the basis for null hypothesis tests (since their distributions are known under assumptions such as constant edge probability), or for the generation of random graphs (e.g., via the U|MAN distribution, which conditions on the numbers of mutual, asymmetric, and null dyads in each graph).

Value

A matrix whose three columns contain the counts of mutual, asymmetric, and null dyads (respectively) for each graph

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Holland, P.W. and Leinhardt, S. (1970). "A Method for Detecting Structure in Sociometric Data." *American Journal of Sociology*, 70, 492-513.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). "Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications." Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

```
mutuality, grecip, rguman triad.census
```
Examples

```
#Generate a dyad census of random data with varying densities
dyad.census(rgraph(15,5,tprob=c(0.1,0.25,0.5,0.75,0.9)))
```
efficiency *Compute Graph Efficiency Scores*

Description

efficiency takes one or more graphs (dat) and returns the Krackhardt efficiency scores for the graphs selected by g.

Usage

efficiency(dat, g=NULL, diag=FALSE)

Arguments

Details

Let $G = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} G_i$ be a digraph with weak components G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_n . For convenience, we denote the cardinalities of these components' vertex sets by $|V(G)| = N$ and $|V(G_i)| = N_i$, $\forall i \in 1, \ldots, n$. Then the Krackhardt efficiency of G is given by

$$
1 - \frac{|E(G)| - \sum_{i=1}^{n} (N_i - 1)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (N_i (N_i - 1) - (N_i - 1))}
$$

which can be interpreted as 1 minus the proportion of possible "extra" edges (above those needed to weakly connect the existing components) actually present in the graph. A graph which an efficiency of 1 has precisely as many edges as are needed to connect its components; as additional edges are added, efficiency gradually falls towards 0.

Efficiency is one of four measures ([connectedness](#page-26-1), [efficiency](#page-35-1), [hierarchy](#page-86-1), and [lubness](#page-101-1)) suggested by Krackhardt for summarizing hierarchical structures. Each corresponds to one of four axioms which are necessary and sufficient for the structure in question to be an outtree; thus, the measures will be equal to 1 for a given graph iff that graph is an outtree. Deviations from unity can be interpreted in terms of failure to satisfy one or more of the outtree conditions, information which may be useful in classifying its structural properties.

Value

A vector of efficiency scores

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Note

The four Krackhardt indices are, in general, nondegenerate for a relatively narrow band of size/density combinations (efficiency being the sole exception). This is primarily due to their dependence on the reachability graph, which tends to become complete rapidly as size/density increase. See Krackhardt (1994) for a useful simulation study.

The violation normalization used before version 0.51 was $N(N-1)\sum_{i=1}^{n}(N_i-1)$, based on a somewhat different interpretation of the definition in Krackhardt (1994). The former version gave results which more closely matched those of the cited simulation study, but was less consistent with the textual definition.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Krackhardt, David. (1994). "Graph Theoretical Dimensions of Informal Organizations." In K. M. Carley and M. J. Prietula (Eds.), *Computational Organization Theory*, 89-111. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum and Associates.

See Also

[connectedness](#page-26-0), [efficiency](#page-35-0), [hierarchy](#page-86-0), [lubness](#page-101-0), [gden](#page-49-0)

Examples

```
#Get efficiency scores for graphs of varying densities
efficiency(rgraph(10,5,tprob=c(0.1,0.25,0.5,0.75,0.9)))
```
equiv.clust *Find Clusters of Positions Based on an Equivalence Relation*

Description

equiv.clust uses a definition of approximate equivalence (equiv.fun) to form a hierarchical clustering of network positions. Where dat consists of multiple relations, all specified relations are considered jointly in forming the equivalence clustering.

Usage

```
equiv.clust(dat, g=NULL, equiv.dist=NULL, equiv.fun="sedist",
  method="hamming", mode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
  cluster.method="complete", glabels=NULL, plabels=NULL, ...)
```


This routine is essentially a joint front-end to [hclust](#page-0-0) and various positional distance functions, though it defaults to structural equivalence in particular. Taking the specified graphs as input, equiv.clust computes the distances between all pairs of positions using equiv.fun (unless distances are supplied in equiv.dist), and then performs a cluster analysis of the result. The return value is an object of class equiv.clust, for which various secondary analysis methods exist.

Value

An object of class equiv.clust

Note

See [sedist](#page-155-0) for an example of a distance function compatible with equiv.clust.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Breiger, R.L.; Boorman, S.A.; and Arabie, P. (1975). "An Algorithm for Clustering Relational Data with Applications to Social Network Analysis and Comparison with Multidimensional Scaling." *Journal of Mathematical Psychology*, 12, 328-383.

Burt, R.S. (1976). "Positions in Networks." *Social Forces*, 55, 93-122.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[sedist](#page-155-0), [blockmodel](#page-12-0)

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Examples

```
#Create a random graph with _some_ edge structure
g.p<-sapply(runif(20,0,1),rep,20) #Create a matrix of edge
                                 #probabilities
g<-rgraph(20,tprob=g.p) #Draw from a Bernoulli graph
                                 #distribution
#Cluster based on structural equivalence
eq<-equiv.clust(g)
plot(eq)
```

```
eval.edgeperturbation
```
Compute the Effects of Single-Edge Perturbations on Structural Indices

Description

Evaluates a given function on an input graph with and without a specified edge, returning the difference between the results in each case.

Usage

eval.edgeperturbation(dat, i, j, FUN, ...)

Arguments

Details

Although primarily a back-end utility for [pstar](#page-136-0), eval.edgeperturbation may be useful in any circumstance in which one wishes to assess the stability of a given structural index with respect to single edge perturbations. The function to be evaluated is calculated first on the input graph with all marked edges set to present, and then on the same graph with said edges absent. (Obviously, this is sensible only for dichotomous data.) The difference is then returned.

In [pstar](#page-136-0), calls to eval.edgeperturbation are used to construct a perturbation effect matrix for the GLM.

Value

The difference in the values of FUN as computed on the perturbed graphs.

Note

length(i) and length(j) must be equal; where multiple edges are specified, the row and column listings are interpreted as pairs.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Anderson, C.; Wasserman, S.; and Crouch, B. (1999). "A p* Primer: Logit Models for Social Networks. *Social Networks,* 21,37-66.

See Also

[pstar](#page-136-0)

Examples

#Create a random graph g<-rgraph(5)

#How much does a one-edge change affect reciprocity? eval.edgeperturbation(g,1,2,grecip)

evcent *Find Eigenvector Centrality Scores of Network Positions*

Description

evcent takes one or more graphs (dat) and returns the eigenvector centralities of positions (selected by nodes) within the graphs indicated by g. This function is compatible with [centralization](#page-20-0), and will return the theoretical maximum absolute deviation (from maximum) conditional on size (which is used by [centralization](#page-20-0) to normalize the observed centralization score).

Usage

```
evcent(dat, g=1, nodes=NULL, gmode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
    tmaxdev=FALSE, rescale=FALSE)
```


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Details

Eigenvector centrality scores correspond to the values of the first eigenvector of the graph adjacency matrix; these scores may, in turn, be interpreted as arising from a reciprocal process in which the centrality of each actor is proportional to the sum of the centralities of those actors to whom he or she is connected. In general, vertices with high eigenvector centralities are those which are connected to many other vertices which are, in turn, connected to many others (and so on). (The perceptive may realize that this implies that the largest values will be obtained by individuals in large cliques (or high-density substructures). This is also intelligible from an algebraic point of view, with the first eigenvector being closely related to the best rank-1 approximation of the adjacency matrix (a relationship which is easy to see in the special case of a diagonalizable symmetric real matrix via the SAS^{-1} decomposition).)

The simple eigenvector centrality is generalized by the Bonacich power centrality measure; see [bonpow](#page-17-0) for more details.

Value

A vector, matrix, or list containing the centrality scores (depending on the number and size of the input graphs).

WARNING

evcent will not symmetrize your data before extracting eigenvectors; don't send this routine asymmetric matrices unless you really mean to do so.

Note

The theoretical maximum deviation used here is not obtained with the star network, in general. For symmetric data, the maximum occurs for an empty graph with one complete dyad; the maximum deviation for asymmetric data is generated by the outstar. UCINET V seems not to adjust for this fact, which can cause some oddities in their centralization scores (and results in a discrepancy in centralizations between the two packages).

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Bonacich, P. (1987). "Power and Centrality: A Family of Measures." *American Journal of Sociology*, 92, 1170-1182.

Katz, L. (1953). "A New Status Index Derived from Sociometric Analysis." *Psychometrika*, 18, 39-43.

See Also

[centralization](#page-20-0), [bonpow](#page-17-0)

Examples

```
#Generate some test data
dat<-rgraph(10,mode="graph")
#Compute eigenvector centrality scores
evcent(dat)
```
Description

Given one or more valued adjacency matrices (possibly derived from observed interaction "events"), event2dichot returns dichotomized equivalents.

Usage

```
event2dichot(m, method="quantile", thresh=0.5, leq=FALSE)
```
Arguments

Details

The methods used for choosing dichotomization thresholds are as follows:

- 1. quantile: specified quantile over the distribution of all edge values
- 2. rquantile: specified quantile by row
- 3. cquantile: specified quantile by column
- 4. mean: grand mean
- 5. rmean: row mean
- 6. cmean: column mean
- 7. absolute: the value of thresh itself
- 8. rank: specified rank over the distribution of all edge values
- 9. rrank: specified rank by row
- 10. crank: specified rank by column

Note that when a quantile, rank, or value is said to be "specified," this refers to the value of thresh.

Value

The dichotomized data matrix (or matrices)

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

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References

Wasserman, S. and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Examples

```
#Draw a matrix of normal values
n<-matrix(rnorm(25),nrow=5,ncol=5)
```

```
#Dichotomize by the mean value
event2dichot(n,"mean")
```

```
#Dichotomize by the 0.95 quantile
event2dichot(n,"quantile",0.95)
```
gapply *Apply Functions Over Vertex Neighborhoods*

Description

Returns a vector or array or list of values obtained by applying a function to vertex neighborhoods of a given order.

Usage

```
gapply(X, MARGIN, STATS, FUN, ..., mode = "digraph", diag = FALSE,
    distance = 1, thresh = 0, simplify = TRUE)
```


For each vertex in X, gapply first identifies all members of the relevant neighborhood (as determined by MARGIN and distance) and pulls the rows of STATS associated with each. FUN is then applied to this collection of values. This provides a very quick and easy way to answer questions like:

- How many persons are in each ego's 3rd-order neighborhood?
- What fraction of each ego's alters are female?
- What is the mean income for each ego's trading partners?
- etc.

With clever use of FUN and STATS, a wide range of functionality can be obtained.

Value

The result of the iterated application of FUN to each vertex neighborhood's STATS.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[apply](#page-0-0), [sapply](#page-0-0)

Examples

```
#Generate a random graph
g<-rgraph(6)
```

```
#Calculate the degree of g using gapply
all(gapply(g,1,rep(1,6),sum)=degree(g,cmode="outdegree"))all(gapply(g,2,rep(1,6),sum)==degree(g,cmode="degree"))
all(gapply(g,c(1,2),rep(1,6),sum)==degree(symmetrize(g),cmode="freeman")/2)
#Find first and second order neighborhood means on some variable
gapply(g,c(1,2),1:6,mean)gapply(g, c(1,2), 1:6, \text{mean}, \text{distance=2})
```
gclust.boxstats *Plot Statistics Associated with Graph Clusters*

Description

gclust.boxstats creates side-by-side boxplots of graph statistics based on a hierarchical clustering of networks (cut into k sets).

Usage

```
gclust.boxstats(h, k, meas, ...)
```
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Arguments

Details

gclust.boxstats simply takes the [hclust](#page-0-0) object in h, applies [cutree](#page-0-0) to form k groups, and then uses [boxplot](#page-0-0) on the distribution of meas by group. This can be quite handy for assessing graph clusters.

Value

None

Note

Actually, this function will work with any [hclust](#page-0-0) object and measure matrix; the data need not originate with social networks. For this reason, the clever may also employ this function in conjunction with [sedist](#page-155-0) or [equiv.clust](#page-36-0) to plot NLIs against clusters of positions within a graph.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS working paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[gclust.centralgraph](#page-45-0), [gdist.plotdiff](#page-50-0), [gdist.plotstats](#page-51-0)

Examples

#Create some random graphs g<-rgraph(10,20,tprob=c(rbeta(10,15,2),rbeta(10,2,15)))

```
#Find the Hamming distances between them
g.h<-hdist(g)
```

```
#Cluster the graphs via their Hamming distances
g.c<-hclust(as.dist(g.h))
```

```
#Now display boxplots of density by cluster for a two cluster solution
gclust.boxstats(g.c,2,gden(g))
```
gclust.centralgraph

Get Central Graphs Associated with Graph Clusters

Description

Calculates central graphs associated with particular graph clusters (as indicated by the k partition of h).

Usage

```
gclust.centralgraph(h, k, dat, ...)
```
Arguments

Details

gclust.centralgraph uses [cutree](#page-0-0) to cut the hierarchical clustering in h into k groups. [centralgraph](#page-19-0) is then called on each cluster, and the results are returned as a graph stack. This is a useful tool for interpreting clusters of (labeled) graphs, with the resulting central graphs being subsequently analyzed using standard SNA methods.

Value

An array containing the stack of central graph adjacency matrices

Note

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS working paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[hclust](#page-0-0), [centralgraph](#page-19-0), [gclust.boxstats](#page-43-0), [gdist.plotdiff](#page-50-0), [gdist.plotstats](#page-51-0)

 $\frac{1}{47}$ gcor $\frac{47}{47}$

Examples

```
#Create some random graphs
q < -rqraph(10,20,tprob=c(rbeta(10,15,2),rbeta(10,2,15)))
#Find the Hamming distances between them
g.h<-hdist(g)
#Cluster the graphs via their Hamming distances
g.c<-hclust(as.dist(g.h))
#Now find central graphs by cluster for a two cluster solution
g.cg<-gclust.centralgraph(g.c,2,g)
#Plot the central graphs
gplot(g.cg[1,,])
gplot(g.cg[2,,])
```
gcor *Find the (Product-Moment) Correlation Between Two or More Labeled Graphs*

Description

gcor finds the product-moment correlation between the adjacency matrices of graphs indicated by g1 and g2 in stack dat (or possibly dat2). Missing values are permitted.

Usage

gcor(dat, dat2=NULL, g1=NULL, g2=NULL, diag=FALSE, mode="digraph")

Arguments

Details

The (product moment) graph correlation between labeled graphs G and H is given by

$$
cor(G, H) = \frac{cov(G, H)}{\sqrt{cov(G, G)cov(H, H)}}
$$

where the graph covariance is defined as

$$
cov(G, H) = \frac{1}{\binom{|V|}{2}} \sum_{\{i,j\}} \left(A_{ij}^G - \mu_G \right) \left(A_{ij}^H - \mu_H \right)
$$

(with A^G being the adjacency matrix of G). The graph correlation/covariance is at the center of a number of graph comparison methods, including network variants of regression analysis, PCA, CCA, and the like.

Note that gcor computes only the correlation between *uniquely labeled* graphs. For the more general case, [gscor](#page-77-0) is recommended.

Value

A graph correlation matrix

Note

The g[cor](#page-0-0) routine is really just a front-end to the standard cor method; the primary value-added is the transparent vectorization of the input graphs (with intelligent handling of simple versus directed graphs, diagonals, etc.). As noted, the correlation coefficient returned is a standard Pearson's product-moment coefficient, and output should be interpreted accordingly. Classical null hypothesis testing procedures are not recommended for use with graph correlations; for nonparametric null hypothesis testing regarding graph correlations, see [cugtest](#page-29-0) and [qaptest](#page-139-0). For multivariate correlations among graph sets, try [netcancor](#page-104-0).

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS Working Paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

Krackhardt, D. (1987). "QAP Partialling as a Test of Spuriousness." *Social Networks*, 9, 171-86

See Also

[gscor](#page-77-0), [gcov](#page-48-0), [gscov](#page-80-0)

Examples

```
#Generate two random graphs each of low, medium, and high density
g<-rgraph(10,6,tprob=c(0.2,0.2,0.5,0.5,0.8,0.8))
```
#Examine the correlation matrix gcor(g)

Description

gcov finds the covariances between the adjacency matrices of graphs indicated by g1 and g2 in stack dat (or possibly dat2). Missing values are permitted.

Usage

gcov(dat, dat2=NULL, g1=NULL, g2=NULL, diag=FALSE, mode="digraph")

Arguments

Details

The graph covariance between two labeled graphs is defined as

$$
cov(G, H) = \frac{1}{\binom{|V|}{2}} \sum_{\{i,j\}} \left(A_{ij}^G - \mu_G \right) \left(A_{ij}^H - \mu_H \right)
$$

(with A^G being the adjacency matrix of G). The graph correlation/covariance is at the center of a number of graph comparison methods, including network variants of regression analysis, PCA, CCA, and the like.

Note that gcov computes only the covariance between *uniquely labeled* graphs. For the more general case, [gscov](#page-80-0) is recommended.

Value

A graph covariance matrix

Note

The g[cov](#page-0-0) routine is really just a front-end to the standard cov method; the primary value-added is the transparent vectorization of the input graphs (with intelligent handling of simple versus directed graphs, diagonals, etc.). Classical null hypothesis testing procedures are not recommended for use with graph covariance; for nonparametric null hypothesis testing regarding graph covariance, see [cugtest](#page-29-0) and [qaptest](#page-139-0).

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS Working Paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[gscov](#page-80-0), [gcor](#page-46-0), [gscor](#page-77-0)

Examples

```
#Generate two random graphs each of low, medium, and high density
g<-rgraph(10,6,tprob=c(0.2,0.2,0.5,0.5,0.8,0.8))
```
#Examine the covariance matrix gcov(g)

gden *Find the Density of a Graph*

Description

gden computes the density of the graphs indicated by g in collection dat, adjusting for the type of graph in question.

Usage

```
gden(dat, g=NULL, diag=FALSE, mode="digraph")
```
Arguments

Details

The density of a graph is here taken to be the sum of tie values divided by the number of possible ties (i.e., an unbiased estimator of the graph mean); hence, the result is interpretable for valued graphs as the mean tie value. The number of possible ties is determined by the graph type (and by diag) in the usual fashion.

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Value

The graph density

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Examples

```
#Draw three random graphs
dat < -rgraph(10,3)#Find their densities
gden(dat)
```


Description

For a given graph set, gdist.plotdiff plots the distances between graphs against their distances (or differences) on a set of graph-level measures.

Usage

```
gdist.plotdiff(d, meas, method="manhattan", jitter=TRUE,
    xlab="Inter-Graph Distance", ylab="Measure Distance",
    lm.line=FALSE, ...)
```


gdist.plotdiff works by taking the distances between all graphs on meas and then plotting these distances against d for all pairs of graphs (with, optionally, an added least-squares line for reference value). This can be a useful exploratory tool for relating inter-graph distances (e.g., Hamming distances) to differences on other attributes.

Value

None

Note

This function is actually quite generic, and can be used with node-level – or even non-network – data as well.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS working paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[gdist.plotstats](#page-51-0), [gclust.boxstats](#page-43-0), [gclust.centralgraph](#page-45-0)

Examples

#Generate some random graphs with varying densities g<-rgraph(10,20,tprob=runif(20,0,1))

```
#Find the Hamming distances between graphs
g.h<-hdist(g)
```
#Plot the relationship between distance and differences in density gdist.plotdiff(g.h,gden(g),lm.line=TRUE)

gdist.plotstats *Plot Various Graph Statistics Over a Network MDS*

Description

Plots a two-dimensional metric MDS of d, with the corresponding values of meas indicated at each point. Various options are available for controlling how meas is to be displayed.

Usage

```
gdist.plotstats(d, meas, siz.lim=c(0, 0.15), rescale="quantile",
   display.scale="radius", display.type="circleray", cex=0.5, pch=1,
    labels=NULL, pos=1, labels.cex=1, legend=NULL, legend.xy=NULL,
    legend.cex=1, ...)
```
Arguments

Details

gdist.plotstats works by performing an MDS (using [cmdscale](#page-0-0)) on d, and then using the values in meas to determine the shape of the points at each MDS coordinate. Typically, these shapes involve rays of varying color and length indicating meas magnitude, with circles and polygons of the appropriate radius and/or error being options as well. Various options are available (described above) to govern the details of the data display; some tinkering may be needed in order to produce an aesthetically pleasing visualization.

The primary use of gdist.plotstats is to explore broad relationships between graph properties and inter-graph distances. This routine complements others in the gdist and gclust family of interstructural visualization tools.

Value

None

Note

This routine does not actually depend on the data's being graphic in origin, and can be used with any distance matrix/measure matrix combination.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS working paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[gdist.plotdiff](#page-50-0), [gclust.boxstats](#page-43-0), [gclust.centralgraph](#page-45-0)

Examples

```
#Generate random graphs with varying density
g<-rgraph(10,20,tprob=runif(20,0,1))
```
#Get Hamming distances between graphs g.h<-hdist(g)

```
#Plot the association of distance, density, and reciprocity
gdist.plotstats(g.h,cbind(gden(g),grecip(g)))
```


geodist *Fund the Numbers and Lengths of Geodesics Among Nodes in a Graph*

Description

geodist uses a BFS to find the number and lengths of geodesics between all nodes of dat. Where geodesics do not exist, the value in inf . replace is substituted for the distance in question.

Usage

```
geodist(dat, inf.replace=Inf)
```
Arguments

Details

This routine is used by a variety of other functions; many of these will allow the user to provide manually precomputed geodist output so as to prevent expensive recomputation. Note that the choice of one greater than the maximum path length for disconnected vertex pairs is non-canonical (albeit common), and some may prefer to simply treat these as missing values. geodist (without loss of generality) treats all paths as directed, a fact which should be kept in mind when interpreting geodist output.

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Value

A list containing:

Note

Before sna version 0.5, inf.replace defaulted to NROW(dat).

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Brandes, U. (2000). "Faster Evaluation of Shortest-Path Based Centrality Indices." *Konstanzer Schriften in Mathematik und Informatik*, 120.

West, D.B. (1996). *Introduction to Graph Theory.* Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

See Also

[component.dist](#page-24-0), [components](#page-25-0)

Examples

#Find geodesics on a random graph gd<-geodist(rgraph(15))

```
#Examine the number of geodesics
gd$counts
```
#Examine the geodesic distances gd\$gdist

gliop *Return a Binary Operation on GLI Values Computed on Two Graphs*

Description

gliop is a wrapper which allows for an arbitrary binary operation on GLIs to be treated as a single call. This is particularly useful for test routines such as [cugtest](#page-29-0) and [qaptest](#page-139-0).

Usage

```
gliop(dat, GFUN, OP="-", g1=1, g2=2, ...)
```
Arguments

Details

gliop operates by evaluating GFUN on the graphs indexed by g1 and g2 and returning the result of OP as applied to the GFUN output.

Value

```
OP(GFUN(data[g1, 1,...),GFUN(data[g2, 1,...))
```
Note

If the output of GFUN is not sufficiently well-behaved, undefined behavior may occur. Common sense is advised.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Anderson, B.S.; Butts, C.T.; and Carley, K.M. (1999). "The Interaction of Size and Density with Graph-Level Indices." *Social Networks*, 21(3), 239-267.

See Also

[cugtest](#page-29-0), [qaptest](#page-139-0)

Examples

```
#Draw two random graphs
g<-rgraph(10,2,tprob=c(0.2,0.5))
#What is their difference in density?
gliop(g,gden,"-",1,2)
```


Description

gplot produces a two-dimensional plot of graph g in collection dat. A variety of options are available to control vertex placement, display details, color, etc.

Usage

```
gplot(data, g = 1, gmode = "digraph", diag = FALSE,label = c(1:dim(data)[2]), coord = NULL, jitter = TRUE, thresh = 0,
    usearrows = TRUE, mode = "fruchtermanreingold",
    displayisolates = TRUE, interactive = FALSE, xlab = NULL,
    ylab = NULL, xlim = NULL, ylim = NULL, pad = 0.2, labeli>pad = 0.5,
    displaylabels = FALSE, boxed.labels = TRUE, label.pos = 0,
    label.bg = "white", vertex.sides = 8, vertex.rot = 0,
    arrowhead.cex = 1, label.cex = 1, loop.cex = 1, verb.cex = 1,
    edge.col = 1, label.col = 1, vertex.col = 2, label.border = 1,
    vertex.border = 1, edge.lty = 1, label.lty = NULL, vertex.lty = 1,
    edge.lwd = 0, label.lwd = par("lwd"), edge.len = 0.5,
    edge.curve = 0.1, edge.steps = 50, loop.steps = 20,
    object.scale = 0.01, uselen = FALSE, usecurve = FALSE,
    suppress.axes = TRUE, vertices.last = TRUE, new = TRUE,
    layout.par = NULL, ...
```


gplot is the standard network visualization tool within the sna library. By means of clever selection of display parameters, a fair amount of display flexibility can be obtained. Graph layout – if not specified directly using coord – is determined via one of the various available algorithms. These should be specified via the mode argument; see [gplot.layout](#page-60-0) for a full list. Usersupplied layout functions are also possible – see the aforementioned man page for details.

Note that where gmode=="twomode", the supplied two-mode matrix is converted to bipartite adjacency form prior to computing coordinates. If interactive==TRUE, then the user may modify the initial graph layout by selecting an individual vertex and then clicking on the location to which this vertex is to be moved; this process may be repeated until the layout is satisfactory.

Value

A two-column matrix containing the vertex positions as x,y coordinates.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

Alex Montgomery $\langle \text{ahm}\mathcal{Q} \text{stanford.edu} \rangle$

References

Wasserman, S. and Faust, K. (1994) *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[plot](#page-0-0), [gplot.layout](#page-60-0)

Examples

```
gplot(rgraph(5)) #Plot a random graph
gplot(rgraph(5),usecurv=TRUE) #This time, use curved edges
gplot(rgraph(5),mode="mds") #Try an alternative layout scheme
#A colorful demonstration...
gplot(rgraph(5,diag=TRUE),diag=TRUE,vertex.cex=1:5,vertex.sides=3:8,
   vertex.col=1:5,vertex.border=2:6,vertex.rot=(0:4)*72,
   displaylabels=TRUE,label.bg="gray90")
```


gplot.arrow *Add Arrows or Segments to a Plot*

Description

gplot.arrow draws a segment or arrow between two pairs of points; unlike [arrows](#page-0-0) or [segments](#page-0-0), the new plot element is drawn as a polygon.

Usage

```
gplot.array(x0, y0, x1, y1, length = 0.1, angle = 20, width = 0.01,col = 1, border = 1, lty = 1, offset.head = 0, offset.tail = 0,
    arrowhead = TRUE, curve = 0, edge.steps = 50, ...)
```


gplot.arrow provides a useful extension of [segments](#page-0-0) and [arrows](#page-0-0) when fine control is needed over the resulting display. (The results also look better.) Note that edge curvature is quadratic, with curve providing the maximum horizontal deviation of the edge (left-handed). Head/tail offsets are used to adjust the end/start points of an edge, relative to the baseline coordinates; these are useful for functions like [gplot](#page-56-0), which need to draw edges incident to vertices of varying radii.

Value

None.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[gplot](#page-56-0), [gplot.loop](#page-64-0), [polygon](#page-0-0)

Examples

```
#Plot two points
plot(1:2,1:2)
#Add an edge
gplot.arrow(1,1,2,2,width=0.01,col="red",border="black")
```
gplot.layout *Vertex Layout Functions for gplot*

Description

Various functions which generate vertex layouts for the [gplot](#page-56-0) visualization routine.

Usage

```
gplot.layout.adj(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.circle(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.circrand(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.eigen(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.fruchtermanreingold(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.geodist(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.hall(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.kamadakawai(d, layout.par)
```

```
gplot.layout.mds(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.princoord(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.random(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.rmds(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.segeo(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.seham(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.spring(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.springrepulse(d, layout.par)
gplot.layout.target(d, layout.par)
```
Arguments

Details

Vertex layouts for network visualization pose a difficult problem – there is no single, "good" layout algorithm, and many different approaches may be valuable under different circumstances. With this in mind, $qplot$ allows for the use of arbitrary vertex layout algorithms via the $qplot$. layout. $*$ family of routines. When called, [gplot](#page-56-0) searches for a gplot.layout function whose third name matches its mode argument (see [gplot](#page-56-0) help for more information); this function is then used to generate the layout for the resulting plot. In addition to the routines documented here, users may add their own layout functions as needed. The requirements for a gplot.layout function are as follows:

- 1. the first argument, d, must be the (dichotomous) graph adjacency matrix;
- 2. the second argument, layout.par, must be a list of parameters (or NULL, if no parameters are specified); and
- 3. the return value must be a real matrix of dimension $c(2, NROW(d))$, whose rows contain the vertex coordinates.

Other than this, anything goes. (In particular, note that layout.par could be used to pass additional matrices, if needed.)

The graph. Layout functions currently supplied by default are as follows:

- **circle** This function places vertices uniformly in a circle; it takes no arguments.
- **eigen** This function places vertices based on the eigenstructure of the adjacency matrix. It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$var** This argument controls the matrix to be used for the eigenanalysis. "symupper", "symlower", "symstrong", "symweak" invoke [symmetrize](#page-173-0) on d with the respective symmetrizing rule. "user" indicates a user-supplied matrix (see below), while "raw" indicates that d should be used as-is. (Defaults to "raw".)
	- **layout.par\$evsel** If "first", the first two eigenvectors are used; if "size", the two eigenvectors whose eigenvalues have the largest magnitude are used instead. Note that only the real portion of the associated eigenvectors is used. (Defaults to "first".)
	- **layout.par\$mat** If layout.par\$var=="user", this matrix is used for the eigenanalysis. (No default.)
- **fruchtermanreingold** This function generates a layout using a variant of Fruchterman and Reingold's force-directed placement algorithm. It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$niter** This argument controls the number of iterations to be employed. (Defaults to 500.)

- **layout.par\$max.delta** Sets the maximum change in position for any given iteration. (Defaults to $NROW(d)$.)
- **layout.par\$area** Sets the "area" parameter for the F-R algorithm. (Defaults to NROW(d) ^2.) **layout.par\$cool.exp** Sets the cooling exponent for the annealer. (Defaults to 3.)
- **layout.par\$repulse.rad** Determines the radius at which vertex-vertex repulsion cancels out attraction of adjacent vertices. (Defaults to area*NROW(d).)
- **layout.par\$seed.coord** A two-column matrix of initial vertex coordinates. (Defaults to a random circular layout.)
- **hall** This function places vertices based on the last two eigenvectors of the Laplacian of the input matrix (Hall's algorithm). It takes no arguments.
- **kamadakawai** This function generates a vertex layout using a version of the Kamada-Kawai forcedirected placement algorithm. It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$niter** This argument controls the number of iterations to be employed. (Defaults to 1000.)
	- **layout.par\$sigma** Sets the base standard deviation of position change proposals. (Defaults to $NROW(d)/4.$)
	- **layout.par\$initemp** Sets the initial "temperature" for the annealing algorithm. (Defaults to 10.)
	- **layout.par\$cool.exp** Sets the cooling exponent for the annealer. (Defaults to 0.99.)

layout.par\$kkconst Sets the Kamada-Kawai vertex attraction constant. (Defaults to NROW(d) ^2.)

- **layout.par\$elen** Provides the matrix of interpoint distances to be approximated. (Defaults to the geodesic distances of d after symmetrizing, capped at $sqrt(MROW(d))$.
- **layout.par\$seed.coord** A two-column matrix of initial vertex coordinates. (Defaults to a gaussian layout.)
- **mds** This function places vertices based on a metric multidimensional scaling of a specified distance matrix. It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$var** This argument controls the raw variable matrix to be used for the subsequent distance calculation and scaling. "rowcol", "row", and "col" indicate that the rows and columns (concatenated), rows, or columns (respectively) of d should be used. "rcsum" and "rcdiff" result in the sum or difference of d and its transpose being employed. "invadj" indicates that $max{d} - d$ should be used, while "geodist" uses [geodist](#page-53-0) to generate a matrix of geodesic distances from d. Alternately, an arbitrary matrix can be provided using "user". (Defaults to "rowcol".)
	- **layout.par\$dist** The distance function to be calculated on the rows of the variable matrix. This must be one of the method parameters to $\list{\text{dist}}$ ("euclidean", "maximum", "manhattan", or "canberra"), or else "none". In the latter case, no distance function is calculated, and the matrix in question must be square (with dimension $dim(d)$) for the routine to work properly. (Defaults to "euclidean".)
	- **layout.par\$exp** The power to which distances should be raised prior to scaling. (Defaults to 2.)
	- **layout.par\$vm** If layout.par\$var=="user", this matrix is used for the distance calculation. (No default.)
	- Note: the following layout functions are based on mds:
	- **adj** scaling of the raw adjacency matrix, treated as similarities (using "invadj").
	- **geodist** scaling of the matrix of geodesic distances.
	- **rmds** euclidean scaling of the rows of d.
	- **segeo** scaling of the squared euclidean distances between row-wise geodesic distances (i.e., approximate structural equivalence).
- **seham** scaling of the Hamming distance between rows/columns of d (i.e., another approximate structural equivalence scaling).
- **princoord** This function places vertices based on the eigenstructure of a given correlation/covariance matrix. It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$var** The matrix of variables to be used for the correlation/covariance calculation. "rowcol", "col", and "row" indicate that the rows/cols, columns, or rows (respectively) of d should be employed. "rcsum" "rcdiff" result in the sum or difference of d and $t(d)$ being used. "user" allows for an arbitrary variable matrix to be supplied. (Defaults to "rowcol".)
	- **layout.par\$cor** Should the correlation matrix (rather than the covariance matrix) be used? (Defaults to TRUE.)
	- **layout.par\$vm** If layout.par\$var=="user", this matrix is used for the correlation/covariance calculation. (No default.)
- **random** This function places vertices randomly. It takes the following argument:
	- **layout.par\$dist** The distribution to be used for vertex placement. Currently, the options are "unif" (for uniform distribution on the square), "uniang" (for a "gaussian donut" configuration), and "normal" (for a straight Gaussian distribution). (Defaults to "unif".)

Note: circrand, which is a frontend to the "uniang" option, is based on this function.

- **spring** This function places vertices using a spring embedder. It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$mass** The vertex mass (in "quasi-kilograms"). (Defaults to 0.1.)
	- **layout.par\$equil** The equilibrium spring extension (in "quasi-meters"). (Defaults to 1.)
	- **layout.par\$k** The spring coefficient (in "quasi-Newtons per quasi-meter"). (Defaults to 0.001.)
	- **layout.par\$repeqdis** The point at which repulsion (if employed) balances out the spring extension force (in "quasi-meters"). (Defaults to 0.1.)
	- **layout.par\$kfr** The base coefficient of kinetic friction (in "quasi-Newton quasi-kilograms"). (Defaults to 0.01.)
	- **layout.par\$repulse** Should repulsion be used? (Defaults to FALSE.)

Note: springrepulse is a frontend to spring, with repulsion turned on.

- **target** This function produces a "target diagram" or "bullseye" layout, using a Brandes et al.'s forcedirected placement algorithm. (See also [gplot.target](#page-65-0).) It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$niter** This argument controls the number of iterations to be employed. (Defaults to 1000.)
	- **layout.par\$radii** This argument should be a vector of length NROW(d) containing vertex radii. Ideally, these should lie in the [0,1] interval (and odd behavior may otherwise result). (Defaults to the affine-transformed Freeman [degree](#page-32-0) centrality scores of d.)
	- **layout.par\$minlen** Sets the minimum edge length, below which edge lengths are to be adjusted upwards. (Defaults to 0.05.)
	- **layout.par\$area** Sets the initial "temperature" for the annealing algorithm. (Defaults to 10.) **layout.par\$cool.exp** Sets the cooling exponent for the annealer. (Defaults to 0.99.)
	- **layout.par\$maxdelta** Sets the maximum angular distance for vertex moves. (Defaults to pi.)
	- **layout.par\$periph.outside** Boolean; should "peripheral" vertices (in the Brandes et al. sense) be placed together outside the main target area? (Defaults to FALSE.)
	- **layout.par\$periph.outside.offset** Radius at which to place "peripheral" vertices if periph.outside==TRUE. (Defaults to 1.2.)
	- **layout.par\$disconst** Multiplier for the Kamada-Kawai-style distance potential. (Defaults to 1.)

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layout.par\$crossconst Multiplier for the edge crossing potential. (Defaults to 1.) **layout.par\$repconst** Multiplier for the vertex-edge repulsion potential. (Defaults to 1.) **layout.par\$minpdis** Sets the "minimum distance" parameter for vertex repulsion. (Defaults to 0.05.)

Value

A matrix whose rows contain the x,y coordinates of the vertices of d.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts \langle buttsc@uci.edu \rangle

References

Brandes, U.; Kenis, P.; and Wagner, D. (2003). "Communicating Centrality in Policy Network Drawings." *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics,* 9(2):241-253.

Fruchterman, T.M.J. and Reingold, E.M. (1991). "Graph Drawing by Force-directed Placement." *Software - Practice and Experience,* 21(11):1129-1164.

Kamada, T. and Kawai, S. (1989). "An Algorithm for Drawing General Undirected Graphs." *Information Processing Letters,* 31(1):7-15.

See Also

[gplot](#page-56-0), [gplot.target](#page-65-0), [gplot3d.layout](#page-71-0), [cmdscale](#page-0-0), [eigen](#page-0-0)

Description

gplot.loop draws a "loop" at a specified location; this is used to designate self-ties in [gplot](#page-56-0).

Usage

```
gplot.loop(x0, y0, length = 0.1, angle = 10, width = 0.01, col = 1,border = 1, lty = 1, offset = 0, edge.steps = 10, radius = 1,
   arrowhead = TRUE, xctr=0, yctr=0, ...
```


gplot.loop is the companion to [gplot.arrow](#page-59-0); like the latter, plot elements produced by gplot.loop are drawn using [polygon](#page-0-0), and as such are scaled based on the current plotting device. By default, loops are drawn so as to encompass a circular region of radius radius, whose center is offset units from $x0$, $y0$ and at maximum distance from $xctr$, $yctr$. This is useful for functions like [gplot](#page-56-0), which need to draw loops incident to vertices of varying radii.

Value

None.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[gplot.arrow](#page-59-0), [gplot](#page-56-0), [polygon](#page-0-0)

Examples

```
#Plot a few polygons with loops
plot(0,0,type="n", xlim=c(-2,2), ylim=c(-2,2), asp=1)gplot.loop(c(0,0),c(1,-1),col=c(3,2),width=0.05,length=0.4,
  offset=sqrt(2)/4,angle=20,radius=0.5,edge.steps=50,arrowhead=TRUE)
polygon(c(0.25,-0.25,-0.25,0.25,NA,0.25,-0.25,-0.25,0.25),
    c(1.25, 1.25, 0.75, 0.75, \text{NA}, -1.25, -1.25, -0.75, -0.75), col=c(2,3))
```
gplot.target *Display a Graph in Target Diagram Form*

Description

Displays an input graph (and associated vector) as a "target diagram," with vertices restricted to lie at fixed radii from the origin. Such displays are useful ways of representing vertex characteristics and/or local structural properties for graphs of small to medium size.

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Usage

```
gplot.target(dat, x, circ.rad = (1:10)/10, circ.col = "blue",
    circ.lwd = 1, circ.lty = 3, circ.lab = TRUE, circ.lab.cex = 0.75,
    circ.lab.theta = pi, circ.lab.col = 1, circ.lab.digits = 1,
    circ.lab.offset = 0.025, periph.outside = FALSE,
    periph.outside.offset = 1.2, ...)
```
Arguments

Details

[gplot.target](#page-65-0) is a front-end to [gplot](#page-56-0) which implements the target diagram layout of Brandes et al. (2003). This layout seeks to optimize various aesthetic criteria, given the constraint that all vertices lie at fixed radii from the origin (set by x). One important feature of this algorithm is that vertices which belong to mutual dyads (described by Brandes et al. as "core" vertices) are treated differently from vertices which do not ("peripheral" vertices). Layout is optimized for core vertices prior to placing peripheral vertices; thus, the result may be misleading if mutuality is not a salient characteristic of the data.

The layout for gplot.target is handled by [gplot.layout.target](#page-60-1); additional parameters are specied on the associated manual page. Standard arguments may be passed to [gplot](#page-56-0), as well.

Value

A two-column matrix of vertex positions (generated by [gplot.layout.target](#page-60-1))

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Brandes, U.; Kenis, P.; and Wagner, D. (2003). "Communicating Centrality in Policy Network Drawings." *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics,* 9(2):241-253.

See Also

[gplot.layout.target](#page-60-1), [gplot](#page-56-0)

Examples

```
#Generate a random graph
g<-rgraph(15)
#Produce a target diagram, centering by betweenness
gplot.target(g,betweenness(g))
```
gplot.vertex *Add Vertices to a Plot*

Description

gplot.vertex adds one or more vertices (drawn using [polygon](#page-0-0)) to a plot.

Usage

```
gplot.vertex(x, y, radius = 1, sides = 4, border = 1, col = 2,lty = NULL, rot = 0, ...
```
Arguments

Details

gplot.vertex draws regular polygons of specified radius and number of sides, at the given coordinates. This is useful for routines such as [gplot](#page-56-0), which use such shapes to depict vertices.

Value

None

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Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[gplot](#page-56-0), [polygon](#page-0-0)

Examples

```
#Open a plot window, and place some vertices
plot(0,0,type="n", xlim=c(-1.5,1.5), ylim=c(-1.5,1.5),asp=1)gplot.vertex(cos((1:10)/10*2*pi),sin((1:10)/10*2*pi),col=1:10,
   sides=3:12,radius=0.1)
```
gplot3d *Three-Dimensional Visualization of Graphs*

Description

gplot3d produces a three-dimensional plot of graph g in set dat. A variety of options are available to control vertex placement, display details, color, etc.

Usage

```
gplot3d(data, g = 1, gmode = "digraph", diag = FALSE,label = c(1:dim(data)[2]), coord = NULL, jitter = TRUE, thresh = 0,
    mode = "fruchtermanreingold", displayisolates = TRUE, displaylabels = FALSE,
    xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, zlab = NULL, vertex.radius = NULL,
    absolute.radius = FALSE, label.col = "gray50", edge.col = "black",
    vertex.col = "red", edge.alpha = 1, vertex.alpha = 1,
    edge.lwd = NULL, suppress.axes = TRUE, new = TRUE,
    bg.col = "white", layout.par = NULL)
```


gplot3d is the three-dimensional companion to gplot. As with the latter, clever manipulation of parameters can allow for a great deal of flexibility in the resulting display. (Displays produced by gplot3d are also interactive, to the extent supported by [rgl](#page-0-0).) If vertex positions are not specified directly using coord, vertex layout is determined via one of the various available algorithms. These should be specified via the mode argument; see [gplot3d.layout](#page-71-0) for a full list. User-supplied layout functions are also possible - see the aforementioned man page for details.

Note that where gmode=="twomode", the supplied two-mode matrix is converted to bipartite adjacency form prior to computing coordinates. It may be desirable to use parameters such as vertex.col to differentiate row and column vertices.

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Value

A three-column matrix containing vertex coordinates

Requires

[rgl](#page-0-0)

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Wasserman, S. and Faust, K. (1994) *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[gplot](#page-56-0), [gplot3d.layout](#page-71-0), [rgl](#page-0-0)

Examples

```
## Not run:
#A three-dimensional grid...
gplot3d(rgws(1,5,3,1,0))
#...rewired...
gplot3d(rgws(1,5,3,1,0.05))
#...some more!
gplot3d(rgws(1,5,3,1,0.2))
```
End(Not run)

gplot3d.arrow *Add Arrows a Three-Dimensional Plot*

Description

gplot3d.arrow draws an arrow between two pairs of points..

Usage

```
gplot3d.array(w(a, b, radius, color = "white", alpha = 1)
```


gplot3d.arrow draws one or more three-dimensional "arrows" from the points given in a to those given in b. Note that the "arrows" are really cones, narrowing in the direction of the destination point.

Value

None.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts \langle buttsc@uci.edu \rangle

See Also

[gplot3d](#page-68-0), [gplot3d.loop](#page-74-0), [rgl.primitive](#page-0-0)

gplot3d.layout *Vertex Layout Functions for gplot3d*

Description

Various functions which generate vertex layouts for the [gplot3d](#page-68-0) visualization routine.

Usage

```
gplot3d.layout.adj(d, layout.par)
gplot3d.layout.eigen(d, layout.par)
gplot3d.layout.fruchtermanreingold(d, layout.par)
gplot3d.layout.geodist(d, layout.par)
gplot3d.layout.hall(d, layout.par)
gplot3d.layout.kamadakawai(d, layout.par)
gplot3d.layout.mds(d, layout.par)
gplot3d.layout.princoord(d, layout.par)
gplot3d.layout.random(d, layout.par)
gplot3d.layout.rmds(d, layout.par)
gplot3d.layout.segeo(d, layout.par)
gplot3d.layout.seham(d, layout.par)
```
Arguments

Details

Like [gplot](#page-56-0), [gplot3d](#page-68-0) allows for the use of arbitrary vertex layout algorithms via the gplot3d.layout.* family of routines. When called, [gplot3d](#page-68-0) searches for a gplot3d.layout function whose third name matches its mode argument (see [gplot3d](#page-68-0) help for more information); this function is then used to generate the layout for the resulting plot. In addition to the routines documented here, users may add their own layout functions as needed. The requirements for a gplot3d.layout function are as follows:
- 1. the first argument, d, must be the (dichotomous) graph adjacency matrix;
- 2. the second argument, layout.par, must be a list of parameters (or NULL, if no parameters are specified); and
- 3. the return value must be a real matrix of dimension $c(3, NROW(d))$, whose rows contain the vertex coordinates.

Other than this, anything goes. (In particular, note that layout.par could be used to pass additional matrices, if needed.)

The qplot3d.layout functions currently supplied by default are as follows:

- **eigen** This function places vertices based on the eigenstructure of the adjacency matrix. It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$var** This argument controls the matrix to be used for the eigenanalysis. "symupper", "symlower", "symstrong", "symweak" invoke [symmetrize](#page-173-0) on d with the respective symmetrizing rule. "user" indicates a user-supplied matrix (see below), while "raw" indicates that d should be used as-is. (Defaults to "raw".)
	- **layout.par\$evsel** If "first", the first three eigenvectors are used; if "size", the three eigenvectors whose eigenvalues have the largest magnitude are used instead. Note that only the real portion of the associated eigenvectors is used. (Defaults to "first".)
	- **layout.par\$mat** If layout.par\$var=="user", this matrix is used for the eigenanalysis. (No default.)
- **fruchtermanreingold** This function generates a layout using a variant of Fruchterman and Reingold's force-directed placement algorithm. It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$niter** This argument controls the number of iterations to be employed. (Defaults to 300.)
	- **layout.par\$max.delta** Sets the maximum change in position for any given iteration. (Defaults to NROW(d).)
	- **layout.par\$volume** Sets the "volume" parameter for the F-R algorithm. (Defaults to NROW(d)^3.)
	- **layout.par\$cool.exp** Sets the cooling exponent for the annealer. (Defaults to 3.)
	- **layout.par\$repulse.rad** Determines the radius at which vertex-vertex repulsion cancels out attraction of adjacent vertices. (Defaults to volume*NROW(d).)
	- **layout.par\$seed.coord** A three-column matrix of initial vertex coordinates. (Defaults to a random spherical layout.)
- **hall** This function places vertices based on the last three eigenvectors of the Laplacian of the input matrix (Hall's algorithm). It takes no arguments.
- **kamadakawai** This function generates a vertex layout using a version of the Kamada-Kawai forcedirected placement algorithm. It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$niter** This argument controls the number of iterations to be employed. (Defaults to 1000.)
	- **layout.par\$sigma** Sets the base standard deviation of position change proposals. (Defaults to $NROW(d)/4.$)
	- **layout.par\$initemp** Sets the initial "temperature" for the annealing algorithm. (Defaults to 10.)
	- **layout.par\$cool.exp** Sets the cooling exponent for the annealer. (Defaults to 0.99.)

layout.par\$kkconst Sets the Kamada-Kawai vertex attraction constant. (Defaults to NROW(d) ^3.)

- **layout.par\$elen** Provides the matrix of interpoint distances to be approximated. (Defaults to the geodesic distances of d after symmetrizing, capped at $sqrt(d)$).
- **layout.par\$seed.coord** A three-column matrix of initial vertex coordinates. (Defaults to a gaussian layout.)
- **mds** This function places vertices based on a metric multidimensional scaling of a specified distance matrix. It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$var** This argument controls the raw variable matrix to be used for the subsequent distance calculation and scaling. "rowcol", "row", and "col" indicate that the rows and columns (concatenated), rows, or columns (respectively) of d should be used. "rcsum" and "rcdiff" result in the sum or difference of d and its transpose being employed. "invadj" indicates that $max\{d\}$ -d should be used, while "geodist" uses [geodist](#page-53-0) to generate a matrix of geodesic distances from d. Alternately, an arbitrary matrix can be provided using "user". (Defaults to "rowcol".)
	- **layout.par\$dist** The distance function to be calculated on the rows of the variable matrix. This must be one of the method parameters to $\left\{dist\right\}$ ("euclidean", "maximum", "manhattan", or "canberra"), or else "none". In the latter case, no distance function is calculated, and the matrix in question must be square (with dimension $dim(d)$) for the routine to work properly. (Defaults to "euclidean".)
	- **layout.par\$exp** The power to which distances should be raised prior to scaling. (Defaults to 2.)
	- **layout.par\$vm** If layout.par\$var=="user", this matrix is used for the distance calculation. (No default.)
	- Note: the following layout functions are based on mds:
	- **adj** scaling of the raw adjacency matrix, treated as similarities (using "invadj").
	- **geodist** scaling of the matrix of geodesic distances.
	- **rmds** euclidean scaling of the rows of d.
	- **segeo** scaling of the squared euclidean distances between row-wise geodesic distances (i.e., approximate structural equivalence).
	- **seham** scaling of the Hamming distance between rows/columns of d (i.e., another approximate structural equivalence scaling).
- **princoord** This function places vertices based on the eigenstructure of a given correlation/covariance matrix. It takes the following arguments:
	- **layout.par\$var** The matrix of variables to be used for the correlation/covariance calculation. "rowcol", "col", and "row" indicate that the rows/cols, columns, or rows (respectively) of d should be employed. "rcsum" "rcdiff" result in the sum or difference of d and $t(d)$ being used. "user" allows for an arbitrary variable matrix to be supplied. (Defaults to "rowcol".)
	- **layout.par\$cor** Should the correlation matrix (rather than the covariance matrix) be used? (Defaults to TRUE.)
	- **layout.par\$vm** If layout.par\$var=="user", this matrix is used for the correlation/covariance calculation. (No default.)
- **random** This function places vertices randomly. It takes the following argument:
	- **layout.par\$dist** The distribution to be used for vertex placement. Currently, the options are "unif" (for uniform distribution on the unit cube), "uniang" (for a "gaussian sphere" configuration), and "normal" (for a straight Gaussian distribution). (Defaults to "unif".)

Value

A matrix whose rows contain the x,y,z coordinates of the vertices of d.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

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References

Fruchterman, T.M.J. and Reingold, E.M. (1991). "Graph Drawing by Force-directed Placement." *Software - Practice and Experience,* 21(11):1129-1164.

Kamada, T. and Kawai, S. (1989). "An Algorithm for Drawing General Undirected Graphs." *Information Processing Letters,* 31(1):7-15.

See Also

[gplot3d](#page-68-0), [gplot](#page-56-0), [gplot.layout](#page-60-0), [cmdscale](#page-0-0), [eigen](#page-0-0)

gplot3d.loop *Add Loops to a Three-Dimensional Plot*

Description

gplot3d.loop draws a "loop" at a specified location; this is used to designate self-ties in [gplot3d](#page-68-0).

Usage

```
gplot3d.loop(a, radius, color = "white", alpha = 1)
```
Arguments

Details

gplot3d.loop is the companion to [gplot3d.arrow](#page-70-0). The "loops" produced by this routine currently look less like loops than like "hats" – they are noticable as spike-like structures which protrude from vertices. Eventually, something more attractice will be produced by this routine.

Value

None.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[gplot3d.arrow](#page-70-0), [gplot3d](#page-68-0), [rgl](#page-0-0)

Description

graphcent takes one or more graphs (dat) and returns the Harary graph centralities of positions (selected by nodes) within the graphs indicated by g. Depending on the specified mode, graph centrality on directed or undirected geodesics will be returned; this function is compatible with [centralization](#page-20-0), and will return the theoretical maximum absolute deviation (from maximum) conditional on size (which is used by [centralization](#page-20-0) to normalize the observed centralization score).

Usage

```
graphcent(dat, g=1, nodes=NULL, gmode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
    tmaxdev=FALSE, cmode="directed", geodist.precomp=NULL,
    rescale=FALSE)
```
Arguments

Details

The Harary graph centrality of a vertex v is equal to $\frac{1}{\max_u d(v,u)}$, where $d(v,u)$ is the geodesic distance from v to u. Vertices with low graph centrality scores are likely to be near the "edge" of a graph, while those with high scores are likely to be near the "middle." Compare this with [closeness](#page-22-0), which is based on the reciprocal of the sum of distances to all other vertices (rather than simply the maximum).

Value

A vector, matrix, or list containing the centrality scores (depending on the number and size of the input graphs).

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Note

Judicious use of geodist.precomp can save a great deal of time when computing multiple path-based indices on the same network.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Hage, P. and Harary, F. (1995). "Eccentricity and Centrality in Networks." *Social Networks*, 17:57- 63.

See Also

[centralization](#page-20-0)

Examples

```
g<-rgraph(10) #Draw a random graph with 10 members
graphcent(g) #Compute centrality scores
```


Description

grecip calculates the dyadic reciprocity of the elements of dat selected by g.

Usage

```
grecip(dat, g = NULL, measure = c("dyadic", "dyadic.nonnull",
    "edgewise"))
```
Arguments

Details

The dyadic reciprocity of a graph is the proportion of dyads which are symmetric; this is computed and returned by grecip for the graphs indicated. (dyadic.nonnull returns the ratio of mutuals to non-null dyads.) Note that the dyadic reciprocity is distinct from the *edgewise* or *tie reciprocity*, which is the proportion of *edges* which are reciprocated. This latter form may be obtained by setting measure="edgewise".

Value

The graph reciprocity value(s)

Author(s)

References

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[mutuality](#page-103-0), [symmetrize](#page-173-0)

Examples

#Calculate the dyadic reciprocity scores for some random graphs grecip(rgraph(10,5))

gscor *Find the Structural Correlations Between Two or More Graphs*

Description

gscor finds the product-moment structural correlation between the adjacency matrices of graphs indicated by $q1$ and $q2$ in stack dat (or possibly dat 2) given exchangeability list exchange. list. Missing values are permitted.

Usage

```
gscor(dat, dat2=NULL, g1=NULL, g2=NULL, diag=FALSE,
    mode="digraph", method="anneal", reps=1000, prob.init=0.9,
    prob.decay=0.85, freeze.time=25, full.neighborhood=TRUE,
    exchange.list=0)
```
Arguments

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Details

The structural correlation coefficient between two graphs G and H is defined as

$$
scor(G, H | L_G, L_H) = \max_{L_G, L_H} cor(\ell(G), \ell(H))
$$

where L_G is the set of accessible permutations/labelings of G, $\ell(G)$ is a permutation/relabeling of G, and $\ell(G) \in L_G$. The set of accessible permutations on a given graph is determined by the *theoretical exchangeability* of its vertices; in a nutshell, two vertices are considered to be theoretically exchangeable for a given problem if all predictions under the conditioning theory are invariant to a relabeling of the vertices in question (see Butts and Carley (2001) for a more formal exposition). Where no vertices are exchangeable, the structural correlation becomes the simple graph correlation. Where *all* vertices are exchangeable, the structural correlation reflects the correlation between unlabeled graphs; other cases correspond to correlation under partial labeling.

The accessible permutation set is determined by the exchange.list argument, which is dealt with in the following manner. First, exchange.list is expanded to fill an nx2 matrix. If exchange.list is a single number, this is trivially accomplished by replication; if exchange.list is a vector of length n, the matrix is formed by cbinding two copies together. If exchange. list is already an nx2 matrix, it is left as-is. Once the nx2 exchangeability matrix has been formed, it is interpreted as follows: columns refer to graphs 1 and 2, respectively; rows refer to their corresponding vertices in the original adjacency matrices; and vertices are taken to be theoretically exchangeable iff their corresponding exchangeability matrix values are identical. To obtain an unlabeled graph correlation (the default), then, one could simply let exchange. list equal any single number. To obtain the standard graph correlation, one would use the vector $1:n$.

Because the set of accessible permutations is, in general, very large $(o(n!))$, searching the set for the maximum correlation is a non-trivial affair. Currently supported methods for estimating the structural correlation are hill climbing, simulated annealing, blind monte carlo search, or exhaustive search (it is also possible to turn off searching entirely). Exhaustive search is not recommended for graphs larger than size 8 or so, and even this may take days; still, this is a valid alternative for small graphs. Blind monte carlo search and hill climbing tend to be suboptimal for this problem and are not, in general recommended, but they are available if desired. The preferred (and default) option for permutation search is simulated annealing, which seems to work well on this problem (though some tinkering with the annealing parameters may be needed in order to get optimal performance). See the help for [lab.optimize](#page-94-0) for more information regarding these options.

Structural correlation matrices are p.s.d., and are p.d. so long as no graph within the set is a linear combination of any other under any accessible permutation. Their eigendecompositions are meaningful and they may be used in linear subspace analyses, so long as the researcher is careful to interpret the results in terms of the appropriate set of accessible labelings. Classical null hypothesis tests should not be employed with structural correlations, and QAP tests are almost never appropriate (save in the uniquely labeled case). See [cugtest](#page-29-0) for a more reasonable alternative.

Value

An estimate of the structural correlation matrix

Warning

The search process can be *very slow*, particularly for large graphs. In particular, the *exhaustive* method is order factorial, and will take approximately forever for unlabeled graphs of size greater than about 7-9.

Note

Consult Butts and Carley (2001) for advice and examples on theoretical exchangeability.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS Working Paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[gscov](#page-80-0), [gcor](#page-46-0), [gcov](#page-48-0)

Examples

```
#Generate two random graphs
g.1 < - rgraph(5)g.2<-rgraph(5)
#Copy one of the graphs and permute it
perm<-sample(1:5)
g.3<-g.2[perm,perm]
#What are the structural correlations between the labeled graphs?
gscor(g.1,g.2,exchange.list=1:5)
gscor(g.1,g.3,exchange.list=1:5)
gscor(g.2,g.3,exchange.list=1:5)
#What are the structural correlations between the underlying
#unlabeled graphs?
gscor(g.1,g.2)
gscor(g.1,g.3)
gscor(g.2,g.3)
```


Description

gscov finds the structural covariance between the adjacency matrices of graphs indicated by g1 and g2 in stack dat (or possibly dat2) given exchangeability list exchange.list. Missing values are permitted.

Usage

```
gscov(dat, dat2=NULL, g1=NULL, g2=NULL, diag=FALSE, mode="digraph",
    method="anneal", reps=1000, prob.init=0.9, prob.decay=0.85,
    freeze.time=25, full.neighborhood=TRUE, exchange.list=0)
```
Arguments

Details

The structural covariance between two graphs G and H is defined as

 $scov(G, H | L_G, L_H) = \max_{L_G, L_H} cov(\ell(G), \ell(H))$

where L_G is the set of accessible permutations/labelings of G, $\ell(G)$ is a permutation/labeling of G, and $\ell(G) \in L_G$. The set of accessible permutations on a given graph is determined by the *theoretical exchangeability* of its vertices; in a nutshell, two vertices are considered to be theoretically exchangeable for a given problem if all predictions under the conditioning theory are invariant to a relabeling of the vertices in question (see Butts and Carley (2001) for a more formal exposition). Where no vertices are exchangeable, the structural covariance becomes the simple graph covariance. Where *all* vertices are exchangeable, the structural covariance reflects the covariance between unlabeled graphs; other cases correspond to covariance under partial labeling.

The accessible permutation set is determined by the exchange.list argument, which is dealt with in the following manner. First, exchange. list is expanded to fill an nx2 matrix. If exchange.list is a single number, this is trivially accomplished by replication; if exchange.list is a vector of length n, the matrix is formed by cbinding two copies together. If exchange. list is already an nx2 matrix, it is left as-is. Once the nx2 exchangeabiliy matrix has been formed, it is interpreted as follows: columns refer to graphs 1 and 2, respectively; rows refer to their corresponding vertices in the original adjacency matrices; and vertices are taken to be theoretically exchangeable iff their corresponding exchangeability matrix values are identical. To obtain an unlabeled graph covariance (the default), then, one could simply let ϵ xchange. list equal any single number. To obtain the standard graph covariance, one would use the vector $1:n$.

Because the set of accessible permutations is, in general, very large $(o(n!)$, searching the set for the maximum covariance is a non-trivial affair. Currently supported methods for estimating the structural covariance are hill climbing, simulated annealing, blind monte carlo search, or exhaustive search (it is also possible to turn off searching entirely). Exhaustive search is not recommended for graphs larger than size 8 or so, and even this may take days; still, this is a valid alternative for small graphs. Blind monte carlo search and hill climbing tend to be suboptimal for this problem and are not, in general recommended, but they are available if desired. The preferred (and default) option for permutation search is simulated annealing, which seems to work well on this problem (though some tinkering with the annealing parameters may be needed in order to get optimal performance). See the help for [lab.optimize](#page-94-0) for more information regarding these options.

Structural covariance matrices are p.s.d., and are p.d. so long as no graph within the set is a linear combination of any other under any accessible permutation. Their eigendecompositions are meaningful and they may be used in linear subspace analyses, so long as the researcher is careful to interpret the results in terms of the appropriate set of accessible labelings. Classical null hypothesis tests should not be employed with structural covariances, and QAP tests are almost never appropriate (save in the uniquely labeled case). See [cugtest](#page-29-0) for a more reasonable alternative.

Value

An estimate of the structural covariance matrix

Warning

The search process can be *very slow*, particularly for large graphs. In particular, the *exhaustive* method is order factorial, and will take approximately forever for unlabeled graphs of size greater than about 7-9.

Note

Consult Butts and Carley (2001) for advice and examples on theoretical exchangeability.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

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References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS Working Paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[gscor](#page-77-0), [gcov](#page-48-0), [gcor](#page-46-0)

Examples

```
#Generate two random graphs
q.1 < - rqraph(5)g.2 < -rgraph(5)#Copy one of the graphs and permute it
perm<-sample(1:5)
g.3<-g.2[perm,perm]
#What are the structural covariances between the labeled graphs?
gscov(g.1,g.2,exchange.list=1:5)
gscov(g.1,g.3,exchange.list=1:5)
gscov(g.2,g.3,exchange.list=1:5)
#What are the structural covariances between the underlying
#unlabeled graphs?
gscov(g.1,g.2)
gscov(g.1,g.3)
gscov(g.2,g.3)
```
gtrans *Compute the Transitivity of an Input Graph or Graph Stack*

Description

gtrans returns the transitivity of the elements of dat selected by g, using the definition of measure. Triads involving missing values are omitted from the analysis.

Usage

```
gtrans(dat, g=NULL, diag=FALSE, mode="digraph", measure = c("weak",
    "strong", "weakcensus", "strongcensus"))
```
Arguments

Details

Transitivity is a triadic, algebraic structural constraint. In its weak form, the transitive constraint corresponds to $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \Rightarrow a \rightarrow c$. In the corresponding strong form, the constraint is $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \Leftrightarrow a \rightarrow c$. (Note that the weak form is that most commonly employed.) Where measure=="weak", the fraction of potentially intransitive triads obeying the weak condition is returned. With the measure=="weakcensus" setting, by contrast, the total *number* of transitive triads is computed. The strong versions of the measures are similar to the above, save in that the set of all triads is considered (since all are "at risk" for intransitivity).

Value

A vector of transitivity scores

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Holland, P.W., and Leinhardt, S. (1972). "Some Evidence on the Transitivity of Positive Interpersonal Sentiment." *American Journal of Sociology,* 72, 1205-1209.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[triad.classify](#page-175-0), [cugtest](#page-29-0)

Examples

```
#Draw some random graphs
g<-rgraph(5,10)
```
#Find transitivity scores gtrans(g)

gvectorize *Vectorization of Adjacency Matrices*

Description

gvectorize takes an input graph set and converts it into a corresponding number of vectors by row concatenation.

Usage

```
gvectorize(mats, mode="digraph", diag=FALSE, censor.as.na=TRUE)
```
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Arguments

Details

The output of gvectorize is a matrix in which each column corresponds to an input graph, and each row corresponds to an edge. The columns of the output matrix are formed by simple row-concatenation of the original adjacency matrices, possibly after removing cells which are not meaningful (if censor.as.na==FALSE). This is useful when preprocessing edge sets for use with glm or the like.

Value

An nxk matrix, where n is the number of arcs and k is the number of graphs; if censor.as.na==FALSE, n will be reflect the relevant number of uncensored arcs.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

Examples

#Draw two random graphs q < - r q r aph $(10, 2)$

```
#Examine the vectorized form of the adjacency structure
gvectorize(g)
```
hdist *Find the Hamming Distances Between Two or More Graphs*

Description

hdist returns the Hamming distance between the labeled graphs g1 and g2 in set dat for dichotomous data, or else the absolute (manhattan) distance. If normalize is true, this distance is divided by its dichotomous theoretical maximum (conditional on $|V(G)|$).

Usage

```
hdist(dat, dat2=NULL, g1=NULL, g2=NULL, normalize=FALSE,
    diag=FALSE, mode="digraph")
```
Arguments

Details

The Hamming distance between two labeled graphs G_1 and G_2 is equal to $|\{e : (e \in E(G_1), e \notin G_1\}|)$ $E(G_2)$) \wedge (e $\notin E(G_1), e \in E(G_2)$). In more prosaic terms, this may be thought of as the number of addition/deletion operations required to turn the edge set of G_1 into that of G_2 . The Hamming distance is a highly general measure of structural similarity, and forms a metric on the space of graphs (simple or directed). Users should be reminded, however, that the Hamming distance is extremely sensitive to nodal labeling, and should not be employed directly when nodes are interchangeable. The structural distance (Butts and Carley (2001)), implemented in [structdist](#page-163-0), provides a natural generalization of the Hamming distance to the more general case of unlabeled graphs.

Null hypothesis testing for Hamming distances is available via [cugtest](#page-29-0), and [qaptest](#page-139-0); graphs which minimize the Hamming distances to all members of a graph set can be found by central graph. For an alternative means of comparing the similarity of graphs, consider $qcor$.

Value

A matrix of Hamming distances

Note

For non-dichotomous data, the distance which is returned is simply the sum of the absolute edgewise differences.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Banks, D., and Carley, K.M. (1994). "Metric Inference for Social Networks." *Journal of Classification*, 11(1), 121-49.

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS working paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

Hamming, R.W. (1950). "Error Detecting and Error Correcting Codes." *Bell System Technical Journal,* 29, 147-160.

hierarchy 87 and 87 and 87 and 887 and

See Also

[sdmat](#page-153-0), [structdist](#page-163-0)

Examples

```
#Get some random graphs
g <-rgraph(5,5,tprob=runif(5,0,1))
```
#Find the Hamming distances hdist(g)

hierarchy *Compute Graph Hierarchy Scores*

Description

hierarchy takes a graph set (dat) and returns reciprocity or Krackhardt hierarchy scores for the graphs selected by g.

Usage

hierarchy(dat, g=NULL, measure=c("reciprocity", "krackhardt"))

Arguments

Details

Hierarchy measures quantify the extent of asymmetry in a structure; the greater the extent of asymmetry, the more hierarchical the structure is said to be. (This should not be confused with how *centralized* the structure is, i.e., the extent to which centralities of vertex positions are highly concentrated.) hierarchy provides two measures (selected by the measure argument) as follows:

- 1. reciprocity: This setting returns one minus the dyadic reciprocity for each input graph (see [grecip](#page-76-0))
- 2. krackhardt: This setting returns the Krackhardt hierarchy score for each input graph. The Krackhardt hierarchy is defined as the fraction of non-null dyads in the [reachability](#page-141-0) graph which are asymmetric. Thus, when no directed paths are reciprocated (e.g., in an in/outtree), Krackhardt hierarchy is equal to 1; when all such paths are reciprocated, by contrast (e.g., in a cycle or clique), the measure falls to 0.

Hierarchy is one of four measures ([connectedness](#page-26-0), [efficiency](#page-35-0), [hierarchy](#page-86-0), and [lubness](#page-101-0)) suggested by Krackhardt for summarizing hierarchical structures. Each corresponds to one of four axioms which are necessary and sufficient for the structure in question to be an outtree; thus, the measures will be equal to 1 for a given graph iff that graph is an outtree. Deviations from unity can be interpreted in terms of failure to satisfy one or more of the outtree conditions, information which may be useful in classifying its structural properties.

Note that hierarchy is inherently density-constrained: as densities climb above 0.5, the proportion of mutual dyads must (by the pigeonhole principle) increase rapidly, thereby reducing possibilities for asymmetry. Thus, the interpretation of hierarchy scores should take density into account, particularly if density is artifactual (e.g., due to a particular dichotomization procedure).

Value

A vector of hierarchy scores

Note

The four Krackhardt indices are, in general, nondegenerate for a relatively narrow band of size/density combinations (efficiency being the sole exception). This is primarily due to their dependence on the reachability graph, which tends to become complete rapidly as size/density increase. See Krackhardt (1994) for a useful simulation study.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Krackhardt, David. (1994). "Graph Theoretical Dimensions of Informal Organizations." In K. M. Carley and M. J. Prietula (Eds.), *Computational Organization Theory*, 89-111. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum and Associates.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[connectedness](#page-26-0), [efficiency](#page-35-0), [hierarchy](#page-86-0), [lubness](#page-101-0), [grecip](#page-76-0), [mutuality](#page-103-0), [dyad.census](#page-34-0)

Examples

```
#Get hierarchy scores for graphs of varying densities
hierarchy(rgraph(10,5,tprob=c(0.1,0.25,0.5,0.75,0.9)),
   measure="reciprocity")
hierarchy(rgraph(10,5,tprob=c(0.1,0.25,0.5,0.75,0.9)),
   measure="krackhardt")
```
infocent *Find Information Centrality Scores of Network Positions*

Description

infocent takes one or more graphs (dat) and returns the information centralities of positions (selected by nodes) within the graphs indicated by g. This function is compatible with [centralization](#page-20-0), and will return the theoretical maximum absolute deviation (from maximum) conditional on size (which is used by [centralization](#page-20-0) to normalize the observed centralization score).

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Usage

```
infocent(dat, g=1, nodes=NULL, gmode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
    cmode="weak", tmaxdev=FALSE, rescale=FALSE, tol=1e-20)
```
Arguments

Details

Actor information centrality is a hybrid measure which relates to both path-length indices (e.g., closeness, graph centrality) and to walk-based eigenmeasures (e.g., eigenvector centrality, Bonacich power). In particular, the information centrality of a given actor can be understood to be the harmonic average of the "bandwidth" for all paths originating with said individual (where the bandwidth is taken to be inversely related to path length). Formally, the index is constructed as follows. First, we take G to be an undirected (but possibly valued) graph – symmetrizing if necessary – with (possibly valued) adjacency matrix A. From this, we remove all isolates (whose information centralities are zero in any event) and proceed to create the weighted connection matrix

$$
\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}
$$

where B is a pseudo-adjacency matrix formed by replacing the diagonal of 1−A with one plus each actor's degree. Given the above, let T be the trace of C with sum S_T , and let S_R be an arbitrary row sum (all rows of C have the same sum). The information centrality scores are then equal to

$$
C_I = \frac{1}{T + \frac{S_T - 2S_R}{|V(G)|}}
$$

(recalling that the scores for any omitted vertices are 0).

In general, actors with higher information centrality are predicted to have greater control over the flow of information within a network; highly information-central individuals tend to have a large number of short paths to many others within the social structure. Because the raw centrality values

can be difficult to interpret directly, rescaled values are sometimes preferred (see the rescale option). Though the use of path weights suggest information centrality as a possible replacement for closeness, the problem of inverting the B matrix poses problems of its own; as with all such measures, caution is advised on disconnected or degenerate structures.

Value

A vector, matrix, or list containing the centrality scores (depending on the number and size of the input graphs).

Note

The theoretical maximum deviation used here is not obtained with the star network; rather, the maximum occurs for an empty graph with one complete dyad, which is the model used here.

Author(s)

David Barron (david.barron@jesus.ox.ac.uk)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Stephenson, K., and Zelen, M. (1989). "Rethinking Centrality: Methods and Applications." *Social Networks*, 11, 1-37.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[evcent](#page-39-0), [bonpow](#page-17-0), [closeness](#page-22-0), [graphcent](#page-75-0), [centralization](#page-20-0)

Examples

```
#Generate some test data
dat<-rgraph(10,mode="graph")
#Compute information centrality scores
infocent(dat)
```
interval.graph *Convert Spell Data to Interval Graphs*

Description

Constructs one or more interval graphs (and exchangeability vectors) from a set of spells.

Usage

```
interval.graph(slist, type="simple", diag=FALSE)
```
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Arguments

Details

Given some ordering dimension T (usually time), a "spell" is defined as the interval between a specified onset and a specified termination (with onset preceding the termination). An interval graph, then, on spell set V, is $G = \{V, E\}$, where $\{i, j\} \in E$ iff there exists some point $t \in T$ such that $t \in i$ and $t \in j$. In more prosaic terms, an interval graph on a given spell set has each spell as a vertex, with vertices adjacent iff they overlap. Such structures are useful for quantifying life history data (where spells might represent marriages, periods of child custody/co-residence, periods of employment, etc.), organizational history data (where spells might reflect periods of strategic alliances, participation in a particular product market, etc.), task scheduling (with spells representing the dedication of a particular resource to a given task), etc. By giving complex historical data a graphic representation, it is possible to easily perform a range of analyses which would otherwise be difficult and/or impossible (see Butts and Pixley (2004) for examples).

In addition to the simple interval graph (described above), interval.graph can also generate valued interval graphs using a number of different edge definitions. This is controlled by the type argument, with edge values as follows:

- 1. simple: dichotomous coding based on simple overlap (i.e., $(x,y)=1$ iff x overlaps y)
- 2. overlap: edge value equals the total magnitude of the overlap between spells
- 3. fracxy: the (x,y) edge value equals the fraction of the duration of y which is covered by x
- 4. fracyx: the (x,y) edge value equals the fraction of the duration of x which is covered by y
- 5. jntfrac: edge value equals the total magnitude of the overlap between spells divided by the mean of the spells' lengths

Note that "simple," "overlap," and "jntfrac" are symmetric relations, while "fracxy" and "fracyx" are directed. As always, the specific edge type used should reflect the application to which the interval graph is being put.

Value

A data frame containing:

graph A graph stack containing the interval graphs exchange.list

Matrix containing the vector of spell types associated with each interval graph

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T. and Pixley, J.E. (2004). "A Structural Approach to the Representation of Life History Data." *Journal of Mathematical Sociology*, 28(2), 81-124.

West, D.B. (1996). *Introduction to Graph Theory*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Examples

is.connected *Is a Given Graph Connected?*

Description

Returns TRUE iff the specified graphs are connected.

Usage

```
is.connected(g, connected = "strong", comp.dist.precomp = NULL)
```
Arguments

Details

is.connected determines whether the elements of g are connected under the definition specified in connected. (See [component.dist](#page-24-0) for details.) Since is.connected is really just a wrapper for [component.dist](#page-24-0), an object created with the latter can be supplied (via comp.dist.precomp) to speed computation.

Value

TRUE iff g is connected, otherwise FALSE

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

West, D.B. (1996). *Introduction to Graph Theory.* Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

See Also

[component.dist](#page-24-0), [components](#page-25-0)

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Examples

```
#Generate two graphs:
g1<-rgraph(10,tp=0.1)
g2<-rgraph(10)
#Check for connectedness
is.connected(g1) #Probably not
is.connected(g2) #Probably so
```
is.isolate *Is Ego an Isolate?*

Description

Returns TRUE iff ego is an isolate in graph g of dat.

Usage

is.isolate(dat, ego, g=1, diag=FALSE)

Arguments

Details

In the valued case, any non-zero edge value is taken as sufficient to establish a tie.

Value

A boolean value (or vector thereof) indicating isolate status

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

West, D.B. (1996). *Introduction to Graph Theory*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

See Also

[isolates](#page-93-0), [add.isolates](#page-3-0)

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Examples

```
#Generate a test graph
g<-rgraph(20)
g[,4]<-0 #Create an isolate
g[4,] <-0
#Check for isolates
is.isolate(g,2) #2 is almost surely not an isolate
is.isolate(g,4) #4 is, by construction
```
isolates *List the Isolates in a Graph or Graph Stack*

Description

Returns a list of the isolates in the graph or graph set given by dat.

Usage

isolates(dat, diag=FALSE)

Arguments

Value

A vector containing the isolates, or a list of vectors if more than one graph was specified

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

West, D.B. (1996). *Introduction to Graph Theory*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

See Also

[is.isolate](#page-92-0), [add.isolates](#page-3-0)

Examples

```
#Generate a test graph
g<-rgraph(20)
g[,4]<-0 #Create an isolate
g[4,]-0#List the isolates
isolates(g)
```
lab.optimize *Optimize a Bivariate Graph Statistic Across a Set of Accessible Permutations*

Description

lab.optimize is the front-end to a series of heuristic optimization routines (see below), all of which seek to maximize/minimize some bivariate graph statistic (e.g., graph correlation) across a set of vertex relabelings.

Usage

```
lab.optimize(d1, d2, FUN, exchange.list=0, seek="min",
    opt.method=c("anneal", "exhaustive", "mc", "hillclimb",
    "gumbel"), \dots)
lab.optimize.anneal(d1, d2, FUN, exchange.list=0, seek="min",
   prob.init=1, prob.decay=0.99, freeze.time=1000,
    full.neighborhood=TRUE, ...)
lab.optimize.exhaustive(d1, d2, FUN, exchange.list=0, seek="min", ...)
lab.optimize.gumbel(d1, d2, FUN, exchange.list=0, seek="min",
   draws=500, tol=1e-5, estimator="median", ...)
lab.optimize.hillclimb(d1, d2, FUN, exchange.list=0, seek="min", ...)
lab.optimize.mc(d1, d2, FUN, exchange.list=0, seek="min",
   draws=1000, \ldots)
```
Arguments

Details

lab.optimize is the front-end to a family of routines for optimizing a bivariate graph statistic over a set of permissible relabelings (or equivalently, permutations). The accessible permutation set is determined by the exchange.list argument, which is dealt with in the following manner. First, exchange.list is expanded to fill an nx2 matrix. If exchange.list is a single number, this is trivially accomplished by replication; if exchange.list is a vector of length n, the matrix is formed by cbinding two copies together. If exchange.list is already an nx2 matrix, it is left as-is. Once the nx2 exchangeabiliy matrix has been formed, it is interpreted as follows: columns refer to graphs 1 and 2, respectively; rows refer to their corresponding vertices in the original adjacency matrices; and vertices are taken to be theoretically exchangeable iff their corresponding exchangeability matrix values are identical. To obtain an unlabeled graph statistic (the default), then, one could simply let exchange.list equal any single number. To obtain the labeled statistic, one would use the vector $1:n$.

Assuming a non-degenerate set of accessible permutations/relabelings, optimization proceeds via the algorithm specified in opt .method. The optimization routines which are currently implemented use a variety of different techniques, each with certain advantages and disadvantages. A brief summary of each is as follows:

1. exhaustive search ("exhaustive"): Under exhaustive search, the entire space of accessible permutations is combed for the global optimum. This guarantees a correct answer, but at a very high price: the set of all permutations grows with the factorial of the number of vertices, and even substantial exchangeability constraints are unlikely to keep the number of permutations from growing out of control. While exhaustive search *is* possible for small graphs, unlabeled structures of size approximately 10 or greater cannot be treated using this algorithm within a reasonable time frame.

Approximate complexity: on the order of $\prod_{i \in L} |V_i|!$, where L is the set of exchangeability classes.

2. hill climbing ("hillclimb"): The hill climbing algorithm employed here searches, at each iteration, the set of all permissible binary exchanges of vertices. If one or more exchanges are found which are superior to the current permutation, the best alternative is taken. If no superior alternative is found, then the algorithm terminates. As one would expect, this algorithm is guaranteed to terminate on a local optimum; unfortunately, however, it is quite prone to becoming "stuck" in suboptimal solutions. In general, hill climbing is not recommended for permutation search, but the method may prove useful in certain circumstances.

Approximate complexity: on the order of $|V(G)|^2$ per iteration, total complexity dependent on the number of iterations.

3. simulated annealing ("anneal"): The (fairly simple) annealing procedure here employed proceeds as follows. At each iteration, the set of all permissible binary exchanges (if $full$.neighborhood==TRUE or a random selection from this set is evaluated. If a superior option is identified, the best of these is chosen. If no superior options are found, then the algorithm chooses randomly from the set of alternatives with probability equal to the current temperature, otherwise retaining its prior solution. After each iteration, the current temperature is reduced by a factor equal to prob.decay; the initial temperature is set by prob.init. When a number of iterations equal to freeze.time have been completed, the algorithm "freezes." Once "frozen," the annealer hillclimbs from its present location until no improvement is found, and terminates.

At termination, the best permutation identified so far is utilized; this need not be the most recent position (though it sometimes is).

Simulated annealing is sometimes called "noisy hill climbing" because it uses the introduction of random variation to a hill climbing routine to avoid convergence to local optima; it works well on reasonably correlated search spaces with well-defined solution neighborhoods, and is far more robust than hill climbing algorithms. As a general rule, simulated annealing is recommended here for most graphs up to size approximately 50. At this point, computational complexity begins to become a serious barrier, and alternative methods may be more practical. Approximate complexity: on the order of $|V(G)|^2$ *freeze.time if full.neighborhood==TRUE, otherwise complexity scales approximately linearly with freeze.time. This can be misleading, however, since failing to search the full neighborhood generally requires that f reeze.time

4. blind monte carlo search ("mc"): Blind monte carlo search, as the name implies, consists of randomly drawing a sample of permutations from the accessible permutation set and selecting the best. Although this not such a bad option when A) a large fraction of points are optimal or nearly optimal and B) the search space is largely uncorrelated, these conditions do not seem to characterize most permutation search problems. Blind monte carlo search is not generally recommended, but it is provided as an option should it be desired (e.g., when it is absolutely necessary to control the number of permutations examined).

Approximate complexity: linear in draws.

be greatly increased.)

5. extreme value estimation ("gumbel"): Extreme value estimation attempts to estimate a global optimum via stochastic modeling of the distribution of the graph statistic over the space of accessible permutations. The algorithm currently proceeds as follows. First, a random sample is taken from the accessible permutation set (as with monte carlo search, above). Next, this sample is used to fit an extreme value (gumbel) model; the gumbel distribution is the limiting distribution of the extreme values from samples under a continuous, unbounded distribution, and we use it here as an approximation. Having fit the model, an associated statistic (the mean, median, or mode as determined by estimator) is then used as an estimator of the global optimum.

Obviously, this approach has certain drawbacks. First of all, our use of the gumbel model in particular assumes an unbounded, continuous underlying distribution, which may or may not be approximately true for any given problem. Secondly, the inherent non-robustness of extremal problems makes the fact that our prediction rests on a string of approximations rather worrisome: our idea of the shape of the underlying distribution could be distorted by a bad sample, our parameter estimation could be somewhat off, etc., any of which could have serious consequences for our extremal prediction. Finally, the prediction which is made by the extreme value model is *nonconstructive*, in the sense that *no permutation need have been found by the algorithm which induces the predicted value*. On the bright side, this *could* allow one to estimate the optimum without having to find it directly; on the dark side, this means that the reported optimum could be a numerical chimera.

At this time, extreme value estimation should be considered *experimental*, and *is not recommended for use on substantive problems.* lab.optimize.gumbel is not guaranteed to work properly, or to produce intelligible results; this may eventually change in future revisions, or the routine may be scrapped altogether.

Approximate complexity: linear in draws.

This list of algorithms is itself somewhat unstable: some additional techniques (canonical labeling and genetic algorithms, for instance) may be added, and some existing methods (e.g., extreme value estimation) may be modified or removed. Every attempt will be made to keep the command format as stable as possible for other routines (e.g., [gscov](#page-80-0), [structdist](#page-163-0)) which depend on lab.optimize to do their heavy-lifting. In general, it is not expected that the end-user will call

lab.optimize directly; instead, most end-user interaction with these routines will be via the structural distance/covariance functions which used them.

Value

The estimated global optimum of FUN over the set of relabelings permitted by exchange.list

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts \langle buttsc@uci.edu \rangle

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS Working Paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[gscov](#page-80-0), [gscor](#page-77-0), [structdist](#page-163-0), [sdmat](#page-153-0)

Examples

```
#Generate a random graph and copy it
g<-rgraph(10)
g2<-rmperm(g) #Permute the copy randomly
#Seek the maximum correlation
lab.optimize(g,g2,gcor,seek="max",opt.method="anneal",freeze.time=50,
   prob.decay=0.9)
#These two don't do so well...
lab.optimize(g,g2,gcor,seek="max",opt.method="hillclimb")
lab.optimize(g,g2,gcor,seek="max",opt.method="mc",draws=1000)
```
lnam *Fit a Linear Network Autocorrelation Model*

Description

lnam is used to fit linear network autocorrelation models. These include standard OLS as a special case, although [lm](#page-0-0) is to be preferred for such analyses.

Usage

```
lnam(y, x = NULL, W1 = NULL, W2 = NULL, theta.seed = NULL,null.model = c("meanstd", "mean", "std", "none"), method = "BFGS",
   control = list()
```
lnam **1999** September 1999 September 1999 September 1999 September 1999 September 1999 September 1999 September 1

Arguments

Details

lnam fits the linear network autocorrelation model given by

$$
y = \rho_1 W_1 y + X\beta + e, \quad e = \rho_2 W_2 e + \nu
$$

where y is a vector of responses, X is a covariate matrix, W_1 and W_2 are (possibly valued) adjacency matrices, and $\nu \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. Intuitively, ρ_1 is an "AR"-like parameter (parameterizing the autoregression of each y value on its neighbors in W_1) while ρ_2 is an "MA"-like parameter (parameterizing the autocorrelation of each *disturbance* in y on its neighbors in W_2). In general, the two models are distinct, and either or both effects may be selected by including the appropriate matrix arguments.

Model parameters are estimated by maximum likelihood, and asymptotic standard errors are provided as well; all of the above (and more) can be obtained by means of the appropriate print and summary methods. A plotting method is also provided, which supplies fit basic diagnostics for the estimated model. For purposes of comparison, fits may be evaluated against one of four null models:

- 1. meanstd: mean and standard deviation estimated (default).
- 2. mean: mean estimated; standard deviation assumed equal to 1.
- 3. std: standard deviation estimated; mean assumed equal to 0.
- 4. none: no parameters estimated; data assumed to be drawn from a standard normal density.

The default setting should be appropriate for the vast majority of cases, although the others may have use when fitting "pure" autoregressive models (e.g., without covariates). Although a major use of the lnam is in controlling for network autocorrelation within a regression context, the model is subtle and has a variety of uses. (See the references below for suggestions.)

Value

An object of class "lnam" containing the following elements:

Note

Actual optimization is performed by calls to [optim](#page-0-0). Information on algorithms and control parameters can be found via the appropriate man pages.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Leenders, T.Th.A.J. (2002) "Modeling Social Influence Through Network Autocorrelation: Constructing the Weight Matrix" *Social Networks*, 24(1), 21-47.

Anselin, L. (1988) *Spatial Econometrics: Methods and Models.* Norwell, MA: Kluwer.

See Also

[lm](#page-0-0), [optim](#page-0-0)

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Examples

```
#Construct a simple, random example:
w1<-rgraph(100) #Draw the AR matrix
w2<-rqraph(100) #Draw the MA matrix
x<-matrix(rnorm(100*5),100,5) #Draw some covariates
r1<-0.2 #Set the model parameters
r2 < -0.1sigma<-0.1
beta<-rnorm(5)
#Assemble y from its components:
nu<-rnorm(100,0,sigma) #Draw the disturbances
e<-qr.solve(diag(100)-r2*w2,nu) #Draw the effective errors
y<-qr.solve(diag(100)-r1*w1,x%*%beta+e) #Compute y
#Now, fit the autocorrelation model:
fit<-1nam(y, x, w1, w2)summary(fit)
plot(fit)
```
lower.tri.remove *Remove the Lower Triangles of Adjacency Matrices in a Graph Stack*

Description

Returns the input graph set, with the lower triangle entries removed/replaced as indicated.

Usage

lower.tri.remove(dat, remove.val=NA)

Arguments

Details

lower.tri.remove is simply a convenient way to apply g[lower.tri(g)]<-remove.val to an entire stack of adjacency matrices at once.

Value

The updated graph set.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

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See Also

[lower.tri](#page-0-0), [upper.tri.remove](#page-177-0), [diag.remove](#page-33-0)

Examples

```
#Generate a random graph stack
q < - r q r aph(3,5)#Remove the lower triangles
g<-lower.tri.remove(g)
```
lubness *Compute Graph LUBness Scores*

Description

lubness takes a graph set (dat) and returns the Krackhardt LUBness scores for the graphs selected by g.

Usage

```
lubness(dat, g=NULL)
```
Arguments

Details

In the context of a directed graph G, two actors i and j may be said to have an *upper bound* iff there exists some actor k such that directed ki and kj paths belong to G. An upper bound ℓ is known as a *least upper bound* for i and j iff it belongs to at least one ki and kj path (respectively) for all i, j upper bounds k; let $L(i, j)$ be an indicator which returns 1 iff such an ℓ exists, otherwise returning 0. Now, let G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_n represent the weak components of G. For convenience, we denote the cardinalities of these graphs' vertex sets by $|V(G)| = N$ and $|V(G_i)| = N_i$, $\forall i \in 1, ..., n$. Given this, the Krackhardt LUBness of G is given by

$$
1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{v_j, v_k \in V(G_i)} \left(1 - L(v_j, v_k)\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2}(N_i - 1)(N_i - 2)}
$$

Where all vertex pairs possess a least upper bound, Krackhardt's LUBness is equal to 1; in general, it approaches 0 as this condition is broached. (This convergence is problematic in certain cases due to the requirement that we sum violations across components; where a graph contains no components of size three or greater, Krackhardt's LUBness is not well-defined. lubness returns a NaN in these cases.)

LUBness is one of four measures ([connectedness](#page-26-0), [efficiency](#page-35-0), [hierarchy](#page-86-0), and [lubness](#page-101-0)) suggested by Krackhardt for summarizing hierarchical structures. Each corresponds to one of four axioms which are necessary and sufficient for the structure in question to be an outtree; thus, the measures will be equal to 1 for a given graph iff that graph is an outtree. Deviations from unity can be interpreted in terms of failure to satisfy one or more of the outtree conditions, information which may be useful in classifying its structural properties.

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Value

A vector of LUBness scores

Note

The four Krackhardt indices are, in general, nondegenerate for a relatively narrow band of size/density combinations (efficiency being the sole exception). This is primarily due to their dependence on the reachability graph, which tends to become complete rapidly as size/density increase. See Krackhardt (1994) for a useful simulation study.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Krackhardt, David. (1994). "Graph Theoretical Dimensions of Informal Organizations." In K. M. Carley and M. J. Prietula (Eds.), *Computational Organization Theory*, 89-111. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum and Associates.

See Also

[connectedness](#page-26-0), [efficiency](#page-35-0), [hierarchy](#page-86-0), [lubness](#page-101-0), [reachability](#page-141-0)

Examples

```
#Get LUBness scores for graphs of varying densities
lubness(rgraph(10,5,tprob=c(0.1,0.25,0.5,0.75,0.9)))
```
make.stochastic *Make a Graph Stack Row, Column, or Row-column Stochastic*

Description

Returns a graph stack in which each adjacency matrix in dat has been normalized to row stochastic, column stochastic, or row-column stochastic form, as specified by mode.

Usage

```
make.stochastic(dat, mode="rowcol", tol=0.005,
    maxiter=prod(dim(dat)) * 100, anneal.decay=0.01, errpow=1)
```
Arguments

Details

Row and column stochastic matrices are those whose rows and columns sum to 1 (respectively). These are quite straightforwardly produced here by dividing each row (or column) by its sum. Rowcolumn stochastic matrices, by contrast, are those in which each row *and* each column sums to 1. Here, we try to produce row-column stochastic matrices whose values are as close in proportion to the original data as possible by means of an annealing algorithm. This is probably not optimal in the long term, but the results seem to be consistent where row-column stochasticization of the original data is possible (which it is not in all cases).

Value

The stochasticized adjacency matrices

Warning

Rows or columns which sum to 0 in the original data will generate undefined results. This can happen if, for instance, your input graphs contain in- or out-isolates.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts \langle buttsc@uci.edu \rangle

References

Examples

```
#Generate a test matrix
g<-rgraph(15)
#Make it row stochastic
make.stochastic(g,mode="row")
#Make it column stochastic
make.stochastic(g,mode="col")
#(Try to) make it row-column stochastic
make.stochastic(g,mode="rowcol")
```
mutuality *Find the Mutuality of a Graph*

Description

Returns the mutuality scores of the graphs indicated by q in dat.

Usage

mutuality(dat, g=NULL)

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Arguments

Details

The mutuality of a digraph G is defined as the number of complete dyads (i.e., $i \lt -\gt i$) within G. (Compare this to dyadic reciprocity, the fraction of dyads within G which are symmetric.) Mutuality is commonly employed as a measure of reciprocal tendency within the p^* literature; although mutuality can be very hard to interpret in practice, it is much better behaved than many alternative measures.

Value

One or more mutuality scores

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Moreno, J.L., and Jennings, H.H. (1938). "Statistics of Social Configurations." *Sociometry*, 1, 342-374.

See Also

[grecip](#page-76-0)

Examples

```
#Create some random graphs
g <-rgraph(15,3)#Get mutuality and reciprocity scores
mutuality(g)
grecip(g) #Compare with mutuality
```
netcancor *Canonical Correlation for Labeled Graphs*

Description

netcancor finds the canonical correlation(s) between the graph sets x and y , testing the result using either conditional uniform graph (CUG) or quadratic assignment procedure (QAP) null hypotheses.

Usage

```
netcancor(y, x, mode="digraph", diag=FALSE, nullhyp="cugtie",
    reps=1000)
```
Arguments

Details

The netcancor routine is actually a front-end to the [cancor](#page-0-0) routine for computing canonical correlations between sets of vectors. netcancor itself vectorizes the network variables (as per its graph type) and manages the appropriate null hypothesis tests; the actual canonical correlation is handled by [cancor](#page-0-0).

Canonical correlation itself is a multivariate generalization of the product-moment correlation. Specifically, the analysis seeks linear combinations of the variables in y which are well-explained by linear combinations of the variables in x. The network version of this technique is performed elementwise on the adjacency matrices of the graphs in question; as usual, the result should be interpreted with an eye to the relationship between the type of data used and the assumptions of the underlying model.

Intelligent printing and summarizing of netcancor objects is provided by [print.netcancor](#page-128-0) and [summary.netcancor](#page-170-0).

Value

An object of class netcancor with the following properties:

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Note

This will eventually be replaced with a superior cancor procedure with more interpretable output; the new version will handle arbitrary labeling as well.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS working paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[gcor](#page-46-0), [cugtest](#page-29-0), [qaptest](#page-139-0), [cancor](#page-0-0)

Examples

```
#Generate a valued seed structure
cv<-matrix(rnorm(100),nrow=10,ncol=10)
#Produce two sets of valued graphs
x<-array(dim=c(3,10,10))
x[1,, ] < -3* cv + matrix (rnorm(100,0,0.1), nrow=10, ncol=10)
x[2,, ] < -1* cv + matrix(rnorm(100,0,0.1), nrow=10, ncol=10)
x[3,],\{-x[1,],\}+2*x[2,],\}+5*xv+matrix(rnorm(100,0,0.1),nrow=10,ncol=10)y<-array(dim=c(2,10,10))
y[1,,]<--5*cv+matrix(rnorm(100,0,0.1),nrow=10,ncol=10)
y[2,,]<--2*cv+matrix(rnorm(100,0,0.1),nrow=10,ncol=10)
#Perform a canonical correlation analysis
nc<-netcancor(y,x,reps=100)
summary(nc)
```
Description

netlm regresses the network variable in y on the network variables in stack x using ordinary least squares. The resulting fits (and coefficients) are then tested against the indicated null hypothesis.

Usage

```
netlm(y, x, intercept=TRUE, mode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
    nullhyp=c("qap", "qapspp", "qapy", "qapx", "qapallx",
    "cugtie", "cugden", "cuguman", "classical"), tol=1e-7,
    reps=1000)
```
Arguments

Details

netlm performs an OLS linear network regression of the graph y on the graphs in x. Network regression using OLS is directly analogous to standard OLS regression elementwise on the appropriately vectorized adjacency matrices of the networks involved. In particular, the network regression attempts to fit the model:

$$
\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{y}} = b_0 \mathbf{A}_1 + b_1 \mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{x}_1} + b_2 \mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{x}_2} + \ldots + \mathbf{Z}
$$

where A_y is the dependent adjacency matrix, A_{x_i} is the ith independent adjacency matrix, A_1 is an $n \times n$ matrix of 1's, and \bf{Z} is an $n \times n$ matrix of independent normal random variables with mean 0 and variance σ^2 . Clearly, this model is nonoptimal when A_y is dichotomous (or, for that matter, categorical in general); an alternative such as netlogit should be employed in such cases. (Note
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that netlm will still attempt to fit such data...the user should consider him or herself to have been warned.)

Because of the frequent presence of row/column/block autocorrelation in network data, classical hull hypothesis tests (and associated standard errors) are generally suspect. Further, it is sometimes of interest to compare fitted parameter values to those arising from various baseline models (e.g., uniform random graphs conditional on certain observed statistics). The tests supported by netlm are as follows:

classical tests based on classical asymptotics.

cug conditional uniform graph test (see [cugtest](#page-29-0)) controlling for order.

cugden conditional uniform graph test, controlling for order and density.

cugtie conditional uniform graph test, controlling for order and tie distribution.

qap QAP permutation test (see [qaptest](#page-139-0)); currently identical to qapspp.

qapallx QAP permutation test, using independent x-permutations.

qapspp QAP permutation test, using Dekker's "semi-partialling plus" procedure.

qapx QAP permutation test, using (single) x-permutations.

qapy QAP permutation test, using y-permutations.

Note that interpretation of quantiles for single coefficients can be complex in the presence of multicollinearity or third variable effects. qapspp is generally recommended for most multivariable analyses, as it is known to be robust to these conditions. Reasonable printing and summarizing of netlm objects is provided by [print.netlm](#page-128-0) and [summary.netlm](#page-171-0), respectively. No plot methods exist at this time, alas.

Value

An object of class netlm

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Dekker, D.; Krackhardt, D.; Snijders, T.A.B. (2003). "Mulicollinearity Robust QAP for Multiple Regression." CASOS Working Paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

Krackhardt, D. (1987). "QAP Partialling as a Test of Spuriousness." *Social Networks*, 9 171-186.

Krackhardt, D. (1988). "Predicting With Networks: Nonparametric Multiple Regression Analyses of Dyadic Data." *Social Networks*, 10, 359-382.

See Also

[lm](#page-0-0), [netlogit](#page-109-0)

Examples

```
#Create some input graphs
x<-rgraph(20,4)
#Create a response structure
y \leftarrow x[1,1+4*x[2,1+2*x[3,1]) #Note that the fourth graph is unrelated
#Fit a netlm model
nl<-netlm(y,x,reps=100)
#Examine the results
summary(nl)
```
netlogit *Logistic Regression for Network Data*

Description

netlogit performs a logistic regression of the network variable in y on the network variables in set x. The resulting fits (and coefficients) are then tested against the indicated null hypothesis.

Usage

```
netlogit(y, x, intercept=TRUE, mode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
     nullhyp=c("qap", "qapspp", "qapy", "qapx", "qapallx",
    "cugtie", "cugden", "cuguman", "classical"), tol=1e-7,
    reps=1000)
```
Arguments

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Details

netlogit is primarily a front-end to the built-in [glm.fit](#page-0-0) routine. netlogit handles vectorization, sets up glm options, and deals with null hypothesis testing; the actual fitting is taken care of by [glm.fit](#page-0-0).

Logistic network regression using is directly analogous to standard logistic regression elementwise on the appropriately vectorized adjacency matrices of the networks involved. As such, it is often a more appropriate model for fitting dichotomous response networks than is linear network regression.

Because of the frequent presence of row/column/block autocorrelation in network data, classical hull hypothesis tests (and associated standard errors) are generally suspect. Further, it is sometimes of interest to compare fitted parameter values to those arising from various baseline models (e.g., uniform random graphs conditional on certain observed statistics). The tests supported by netlogit are as follows:

classical tests based on classical asymptotics.

cug conditional uniform graph test (see [cugtest](#page-29-0)) controlling for order.

cugden conditional uniform graph test, controlling for order and density.

cugtie conditional uniform graph test, controlling for order and tie distribution.

qap QAP permutation test (see [qaptest](#page-139-0)); currently identical to qapspp.

qapallx QAP permutation test, using independent x-permutations.

qapspp QAP permutation test, using Dekker's "semi-partialling plus" procedure.

qapx QAP permutation test, using (single) x-permutations.

qapy QAP permutation test, using y-permutations.

Note that interpretation of quantiles for single coefficients can be complex in the presence of multicollinearity or third variable effects. Although qapspp is known to be robust to these conditions in the OLS case, there are no equivalent results for logistic regression. Caution is thus advised. Reasonable printing and summarizing of netlogit objects is provided by [print.netlogit](#page-129-0) and [summary.netlogit](#page-171-1), respectively. No plot methods exist at this time.

Value

An object of class netlogit

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS working paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[glm](#page-0-0), [netlm](#page-107-0)

Examples

```
#Create some input graphs
x < -rgraph(20, 4)#Create a response structure
y.l < -x[1,1] + 4*x[2,1] + 2*x[3,1] #Note that the fourth graph is
                                 #unrelated
y.p < -apply(y.l,c(1,2),function(a)\{1/(1+exp(-a))\})y<-rgraph(20,tprob=y.p)
#Fit a netlogit model
nl<-netlogit(y,x,reps=100)
#Examine the results
summary(nl)
```
npostpred *Take Posterior Predictive Draws for Functions of Networks*

Description

npostpred takes a list or data frame, b, and applies the function FUN to each element of b's net member.

Usage

npostpred(b, FUN, ...)

Arguments

Details

Although created to work with [bbnam](#page-4-0), npostpred is quite generic. The form of the posterior draws will vary with the output of FUN; since invocation is handled by [apply](#page-0-0), check there if unsure.

Value

A series of posterior predictive draws

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Gelman, A.; Carlin, J.B.; Stern, H.S.; and Rubin, D.B. (1995). *Bayesian Data Analysis.* London: Chapman and Hall.

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See Also

[bbnam](#page-4-0)

Examples

```
#Create some random data
g<-rgraph(5)
g.p<-0.8*g+0.2*(1-g)
dat<-rgraph(5,5,tprob=g.p)
#Define a network prior
pnet<-matrix(ncol=5,nrow=5)
pnet[,]<-0.5
#Define em and ep priors
pem<-matrix(nrow=5,ncol=2)
pem[,1]<-3
pem[,2]<-5
pep<-matrix(nrow=5,ncol=2)
pep[,1]<-3
pep[,2]<-5
#Draw from the posterior
b<-bbnam(dat,model="actor",nprior=pnet,emprior=pem,epprior=pep,
   burntime=100,draws=100)
#Plot a summary of the posterior predictive of reciprocity
hist(npostpred(b,grecip))
```
nties *Find the Number of Possible Ties in a Given Graph or Graph Stack*

Description

nties returns the number of possible edges in each element of dat, given mode and diag.

Usage

nties(dat, mode="digraph", diag=FALSE)

Arguments

Details

nties is used primarily to automate maximum edge counts for use with normalization routines.

Value

The number of possible edges, or a vector of the same

Note

For two-mode (hypergraphic) data, the value returned isn't technically the number of edges per se, but rather the number of edge memberships.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

Examples

```
#How many possible edges in a loopless digraph of order 15?
nties(rgraph(15),diag=FALSE)
```
numperm *Get the nth Permutation Vector by Periodic Placement*

Description

numperm implicitly numbers all permutations of length olength, returning the permnumth of these.

Usage

numperm(olength, permnum)

Arguments

Details

The n! permutations on n items can be deterministically ordered via a factorization process in which there are n slots for the first element, n-1 for the second, and n-i for the ith. This fact is quite handy if you want to visit each permutation in turn, or if you wish to sample without replacement from the set of permutations on some number of elements: one just enumerates or samples from the integers on [1,n!], and then find the associated permutation. numperm performs exactly this last operation, returning the permnumth permutation on olength items.

Value

A permutation vector

Note

Permutation search is central to the estimation of structural distances, correlations, and covariances on partially labeled graphs. numperm is hence used by [structdist](#page-163-0), [gscor](#page-77-0), [gscov](#page-80-0), etc.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

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See Also

[rperm](#page-152-0), [rmperm](#page-151-0)

Examples

```
#Draw a graph
g<-rgraph(5)
#Permute the rows and columns
p.1<-numperm(5,1)
p.2<-numperm(5,2)
p.3<-numperm(5,3)
g[p.1,p.1]
g[p.2,p.2]
g[p.3,p.3]
```
plot.bbnam *Plotting for bbnam Objects*

Description

Generates various plots of posterior draws from the [bbnam](#page-4-0) model.

Usage

```
plot.bbnam(x, mode="density", intlines=TRUE, ...)
```
Arguments

Details

plot.bbnam provides plots of the estimated posterior marginals for the criterion graph and error parameters (as appropriate). Plotting may run into difficulties when dealing with large graphs, due to the problem of getting all of the various plots on the page; the routine handles these issues reasonably intelligently, but there is doubtless room for improvement.

Value

None

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T. (1999). "Informant (In)Accuracy and Network Estimation: A Bayesian Approach." CASOS Working Paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[bbnam](#page-4-0)

Examples

```
#Create some random data
g<-rgraph(5)
g.p<-0.8*g+0.2*(1-g)dat<-rgraph(5,5,tprob=g.p)
#Define a network prior
pnet<-matrix(ncol=5,nrow=5)
pnet[,]<-0.5
#Define em and ep priors
pem<-matrix(nrow=5,ncol=2)
pem[,1]<-3
pem[,2]<-5
pep<-matrix(nrow=5,ncol=2)
pep[,1]<-3
pep[,2]<-5
#Draw from the posterior
b<-bbnam(dat,model="actor",nprior=pnet,emprior=pem,epprior=pep,
   burntime=100,draws=100)
#Print a summary of the posterior draws
summary(b)
#Plot the result
plot(b)
```
plot.blockmodel *Plotting for blockmodel Objects*

Description

Displays a plot of the blocked data matrix, given a blockmodel object.

Usage

```
plot.blockmodel(x, ...)
```
Arguments

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Details

Plots of the blocked data matrix (i.e., the data matrix with rows and columns permuted to match block membership) can be useful in assessing the strength of the block solution (particularly for clique detection and/or regular equivalence).

Value

None

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

White, H.C.; Boorman, S.A.; and Breiger, R.L. (1976). "Social Structure from Multiple Networks I: Blockmodels of Roles and Positions." *American Journal of Sociology*, 81, 730-779.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[blockmodel](#page-12-0), [plot.sociomatrix](#page-120-0)

Examples

```
#Create a random graph with _some_ edge structure
g.p<-sapply(runif(20,0,1),rep,20) #Create a matrix of edge
                               #probabilities
g<-rgraph(20,tprob=g.p) #Draw from a Bernoulli graph
                               #distribution
#Cluster based on structural equivalence
eq<-equiv.clust(g)
#Form a blockmodel with distance relaxation of 10
b<-blockmodel(g,eq,h=10)
plot(b) \#Plot it
```
plot.cugtest *Plotting for cugtest Objects*

Description

Plots the distribution of a CUG test statistic.

Usage

```
plot.cugtest(x, mode="density", ...)
```
Arguments

Details

In addition to the quantiles associated with a CUG test, it is often useful to examine the form of the distribution of the test statistic. plot.cugtest facilitates this.

Value

None

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Anderson, B.S.; Butts, C.T.; and Carley, K.M. (1999). "The Interaction of Size and Density with Graph-Level Indices." *Social Networks*, 21(3), 239-267.

See Also

[cugtest](#page-29-0)

Examples

```
#Draw two random graphs, with different tie probabilities
dat<-rgraph(20,2,tprob=c(0.2,0.8))
```

```
#Is their correlation higher than would be expected, conditioning
#only on size?
cug<-cugtest(dat,gcor,cmode="order")
summary(cug)
plot(cug)
#Now, let's try conditioning on density as well.
cug<-cugtest(dat,gcor)
plot(cug)
```
plot.equiv.clust *Plot an equiv.clust Object*

Description

Plots a hierarchical clustering of node positions as generated by [equiv.clust](#page-36-0).

Usage

```
plot.equiv.clust(x, labels=NULL, ...)
```
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Arguments

Details

plot.equiv.clust is actually a front-end to [plot.hclust](#page-0-0); see the latter for more additional documentation.

Value

None.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Breiger, R.L.; Boorman, S.A.; and Arabie, P. (1975). "An Algorithm for Clustering Relational Data with Applications to Social Network Analysis and Comparison with Multidimensional Scaling." *Journal of Mathematical Psychology*, 12, 328-383.

Burt, R.S. (1976). "Positions in Networks." *Social Forces*, 55, 93-122.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[equiv.clust](#page-36-0), [plot.hclust](#page-0-0)

Examples

```
#Create a random graph with _some_ edge structure
g.p<-sapply(runif(20,0,1),rep,20) #Create a matrix of edge
                                 #probabilities
g<-rgraph(20,tprob=g.p) #Draw from a Bernoulli graph
                                 #distribution
#Cluster based on structural equivalence
```

```
eq<-equiv.clust(g)
plot(eq)
```
Description

Generates various diagnostic plots for [lnam](#page-97-0) objects.

Usage

 $plot.lnam(x, \ldots)$

Arguments

Value

None

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts \langle buttsc@uci.edu \rangle

See Also

[lnam](#page-97-0)

plot.qaptest *Plotting for qaptest Objects*

Description

Plots the Distribution of a QAP Test Statistic.

Usage

```
plot.qaptest(x, mode="density", ...)
```
Arguments

Details

In addition to the quantiles associated with a QAP test, it is often useful to examine the form of the distribution of the test statistic. plot.qaptest facilitates this.

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Value

None

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Hubert, L.J., and Arabie, P. (1989). "Combinatorial Data Analysis: Confirmatory Comparisons Between Sets of Matrices." *Applied Stochastic Models and Data Analysis*, 5, 273-325.

Krackhardt, D. (1987). "QAP Partialling as a Test of Spuriousness." *Social Networks*, 9 171-186.

Krackhardt, D. (1988). "Predicting With Networks: Nonparametric Multiple Regression Analyses of Dyadic Data." *Social Networks*, 10, 359-382.

See Also

[qaptest](#page-139-0)

Examples

```
#Generate three graphs
g<-array(dim=c(3,10,10))
g[1,,]<-rgraph(10)
g[2,,]<-rgraph(10,tprob=g[1,,]*0.8)
g[3,,]<-1; g[3,1,2]<-0 #This is nearly a clique
#Perform qap tests of graph correlation
q.12<-qaptest(g,gcor,g1=1,g2=2)
q.13<-qaptest(g,gcor,g1=1,g2=3)
#Examine the results
summary(q.12)
plot(q.12)
summary(q.13)
plot(q.13)
```
plot.sociomatrix *Plot Matrices Using a Color/Intensity Grid*

Description

Plots a matrix, m, associating the magnitude of the i,jth cell of m with the color of the i,jth cell of an nrow(m) by ncol(m) grid.

Usage

```
plot.sociomatrix(x, labels=NULL, drawlab=TRUE, diaglab=TRUE,
    drawlines=TRUE, xlab=NULL, ylab=NULL, cex.lab=1, ...)
```
Arguments

Details

plot.sociomatrix is particularly valuable for examining large adjacency matrices, whose structure can be non-obvious otherwise.

Value

None

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[plot.blockmodel](#page-115-0)

Examples

```
#Plot a small adjacency matrix
plot.sociomatrix(rgraph(5))
#Plot a much larger one
```

```
plot.sociomatrix(rgraph(100),drawlab=FALSE,diaglab=FALSE)
```
potscalered.mcmc *Compute Gelman and Rubin's Potential Scale Reduction Measure for a Markov Chain Monte Carlo Simulation*

Description

Computes Gelman and Rubin's (simplified) measure of scale reduction for draws of a single scalar estimand from parallel MCMC chains.

Usage

```
potscalered.mcmc(psi)
```
Arguments

psi An nxm matrix, with columns corresponding to chains and rows corresponding to iterations.

Details

The Gelman and Rubin potential scale reduction ($\sqrt{\hat{R}}$) provides an ANOVA-like comparison of the between-chain to within-chain variance on a given scalar estimand; the disparity between these gives an indication of the extent to which the scale of the simulated distribution can be reduced via further sampling. As the parallel chains converge $\sqrt{\hat{R}}$ approaches 1 (from above), and it is generally recommended that values of 1.2 or less be obtained before a series of draws can be considered wellmixed. (Even so, one should ideally examine other indicators of chain mixing, and verify that the properties of the draws are as they should be. There is currently no fool-proof way to verify burn-in of an MCMC, but using multiple indicators should help one avoid falling prey to the idiosyncrasies of any one index.)

Note that the particular estimators used in the $\sqrt{\hat{R}}$ formulation are based on normal-theory results, and as such have been criticized vis a vis their behavior on other distributions. Where simulating distributions whose properties differ greatly from the normal, an alternative form of the measure using robust measures of scale (e.g., the IQR) may be preferable.

Value

The potential scale reduction measure

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Gelman, A.; Carlin, J.B.; Stern, H.S.; and Rubin, D.B. (1995). *Bayesian Data Analysis.* London: Chapman and Hall.

Gelman, A., and Rubin, D.B. (1992). "Inference from Iterative Simulation Using Multiple Sequences." *Statistical Science,* 7, 457-511.

See Also

[bbnam](#page-4-0)

Examples

Description

prestige takes one or more graphs (dat) and returns the prestige scores of positions (selected by nodes) within the graphs indicated by g. Depending on the specified mode, prestige based on any one of a number of different definitions will be returned. This function is compatible with [centralization](#page-20-0), and will return the theoretical maximum absolute deviation (from maximum) conditional on size (which is used by [centralization](#page-20-0) to normalize the observed centralization score).

Usage

```
prestige(dat, g=1, nodes=NULL, gmode="digraph", diag=FALSE,
    cmode="indegree", tmaxdev=FALSE, rescale=FALSE, tol=1e-07)
```
Arguments

Details

"Prestige" is the name collectively given to a range of centrality scores which focus on the extent to which one is nominated by others. The definitions supported here are as follows:

- 1. indegree: indegree centrality
- 2. indegree.rownorm: indegree within the row-normalized graph
- 3. indegree.rowcolnorm: indegree within the row-column normalized graph
- 4. eigenvector: eigenvector centrality within the transposed graph (i.e., incoming ties recursively determine prestige)
- 5. eigenvector.rownorm: eigenvector centrality within the transposed row-normalized graph
- 6. eigenvector.colnorm: eigenvector centrality within the transposed column-normalized graph
- 7. eigenvector.rowcolnorm: eigenvector centrality within the transposed row/column-normalized graph
- 8. domain: indegree within the reachability graph (Lin's unweighted measure)
- 9. domain.proximity: Lin's proximity-weighted domain prestige

Note that the centralization of prestige is simply the extent to which one actor has substantially greater prestige than others; the underlying definition is the same.

Value

A vector, matrix, or list containing the prestige scores (depending on the number and size of the input graphs).

Warning

Making adjacency matrices doubly stochastic (row-column normalization) is not guaranteed to work. In general, be wary of attempting to try normalizations on graphs with degenerate rows and columns.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Lin, N. (1976). *Foundations of Social Research*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[centralization](#page-20-0)

Examples

g<-rgraph(10) #Draw a random graph with 10 members prestige(g,cmode="domain") #Compute domain prestige scores

print.bayes.factor *Printing for Bayes Factor Objects*

Description

Prints a quick summary of a Bayes Factor object.

Usage

print.bayes.factor(x, ...)

Arguments

Value

None

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[bbnam.bf](#page-8-0)

Examples

print.bbnam *Printing for bbnam Objects*

Description

Prints a quick summary of posterior draws from [bbnam](#page-4-0).

Usage

print.bbnam(x, ...)

Arguments

Value

None

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[bbnam](#page-4-0)

Examples

print.blockmodel *Printing for blockmodel Objects*

Description

Prints a quick summary of a [blockmodel](#page-12-0) object.

Usage

```
print.blockmodel(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

None

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[blockmodel](#page-12-0)

Examples

print.cugtest *Printing for cugtest Objects*

Description

Prints a quick summary of objects produced by [cugtest](#page-29-0).

Usage

```
print.cugtest(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

None.

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Author(s)

Carter T. Butts \langle buttsc@uci.edu \rangle

See Also

[cugtest](#page-29-0)

Examples

print.lnam *Printing for lnam Objects*

Description

Prints an objsect of class lnam

Usage

```
print.lnam(x, digits = max(3, getOption("digits") - 3), ...)
```
Arguments

Value

None.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts \langle buttsc@uci.edu \rangle

See Also

[lnam](#page-97-0)

print.netcancor *Printing for netcancor Objects*

Description

Prints a quick summary of objects produced by [netcancor](#page-104-0).

Usage

```
print.netcancor(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[netcancor](#page-104-0)

Examples

print.netlm *Printing for netlm Objects*

Description

Prints a quick summary of objects produced by [netlm](#page-107-0).

Usage

print.netlm(x, ...)

Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[netlm](#page-107-0)

Examples

print.netlogit *Printing for netlogit Objects*

Description

Prints a quick summary of objects produced by [netlogit](#page-109-0).

Usage

```
print.netlogit(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[netlogit](#page-109-0)

Examples

print.qaptest *Printing for qaptest Objects*

Description

Prints a quick summary of objects produced by [qaptest](#page-139-0).

Usage

```
print.qaptest(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[qaptest](#page-139-0)

Examples

print.summary.bayes.factor

Printing for summary.bayes.factor Objects

Description

Prints an object of class summary.bayes.factor.

Usage

```
print.summary.bayes.factor(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[summary.bayes.factor](#page-167-0)

Examples

print.summary.bbnam

Printing for summary.bbnam Objects

Description

Prints an object of class summary.bbnam.

Usage

```
print.summary.bbnam(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts \langle buttsc@uci.edu \rangle

See Also

[bbnam](#page-4-0)

Examples

print.summary.blockmodel

Description

Prints an object of class summary.blockmodel.

Usage

```
print.summary.blockmodel(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[summary.blockmodel](#page-168-0)

Examples

print.summary.cugtest

Printing for summary.cugtest Objects

Description

Prints an object of class summary.cugtest.

Usage

```
print.summary.cugtest(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[summary.cugtest](#page-169-0)

Examples

print.summary.lnam *Printing for summary.lnam Objects*

Description

Prints an object of class summary.lnam.

Usage

```
print.summary.lnam(x, digits = max(3, getOption("digits") - 3),
    signif.stars = getOption("show.signif.stars"), ...)
```
Arguments

Value

None

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts \langle buttsc@uci.edu \rangle

See Also

[summary.lnam](#page-169-1), [lnam](#page-97-0)

print.summary.netcancor

Printing for summary.netcancor Objects

Description

Prints an object of class summary.netcancor.

Usage

```
print.summary.netcancor(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[summary.netcancor](#page-170-0)

Examples

print.summary.netlm

Printing for summary.netlm Objects

Description

Prints an object of class summary.netlm.

Usage

```
print.summary.netlm(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[summary.netlm](#page-171-0)

Examples

print.summary.netlogit *Printing for summary.netlogit Objects*

Description

Prints an object of class summary.netlogit.

Usage

```
print.summary.netlogit(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts \langle buttsc@uci.edu \rangle

See Also

[summary.netlogit](#page-171-1)

Examples

print.summary.qaptest

Printing for summary.qaptest Objects

Description

Prints an object of class summary.qaptest.

Usage

```
print.summary.qaptest(x, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[summary.qaptest](#page-172-0)

Examples

pstar *Fit a p*/ERG Model Using a Logistic Approximation*

Description

Fits a p*/ERG model to the graph in dat containing the effects listed in effects. The result is returned as a $q \ln b$ object.

Usage

```
pstar(dat, effects=c("choice", "mutuality", "density", "reciprocity",
    "stransitivity", "wtransitivity", "stranstri", "wtranstri",
    "outdegree", "indegree", "betweenness", "closeness",
    "degcentralization", "betcentralization", "clocentralization",
    "connectedness", "hierarchy", "lubness", "efficiency"),
    attr=NULL, memb=NULL, diag=FALSE, mode="digraph")
```
Arguments

Details

p* (also called the Exponential Random Graph (ERG) family) is an exponential family specification for network data. Under p*, it is assumed that

$$
p(G = g) \propto \exp(\beta_0 \gamma_0(g) + \beta_1 \gamma_1(g) + \ldots)
$$

for all g, where the betas represent real coefficients and the gammas represent functions of g. Unfortunately, the unknown normalizing factor in the above expression makes evaluation difficult in the general case. One solution to this problem is to operate instead on the edgewise log odds; in this case, the p* MLE can be approximated by a logistic regression of each edge on the *differences* in the gamma scores induced by the presence and absence of said edge in the graph (conditional on all other edges). It is this approximation (known as autologistic regression, or maximum pseudolikelihood estimation) which is employed here.

Using the effects argument, a range of different potential parameters can be estimated. The network measure associated with each is, in turn, the edge-perturbed difference in:

- 1. choice: the number of edges in the graph (acts as a constant)
- 2. mutuality: the number of reciprocated dyads in the graph
- 3. density: the density of the graph
- 4. reciprocity: the edgewise reciprocity of the graph
- 5. stransitivity: the strong transitivity of the graph
- 6. wtransitivity: the weak transitivity of the graph
- 7. stranstri: the number of strongly transitive triads in the graph
- 8. wtranstri: the number of weakly transitive triads in the graph
- 9. outdegree: the outdegree of each actor (|V| parameters)
- 10. indegree: the indegree of each actor (|V| parameters)
- 11. betweenness: the betweenness of each actor (|V| parameters)
- 12. closeness: the closeness of each actor (|V| parameters)
- 13. degcentralization: the Freeman degree centralization of the graph
- 14. betcentralization: the betweenness centralization of the graph
- 15. clocentralization: the closeness centralization of the graph
- 16. connectedness: the Krackhardt connectedness of the graph
- 17. hierarchy: the Krackhardt hierarchy of the graph
- 18. efficiency: the Krackhardt efficiency of the graph

pstar the contract of the cont

19. lubness: the Krackhardt LUBness of the graph

(Note that some of these do differ somewhat from the common p^* parameter formulation, e.g. quantities such as density and reciprocity are computed as per the [gden](#page-49-0) and [grecip](#page-76-0) functions rather than via the unnormalized "choice" and "mutual" quantities one often finds in the p* literature.) *Please do not attempt to use all effects simultaneously!!!* In addition to the above, the user may specify a matrix of individual attributes whose absolute dyadic differences are to be used as predictors, as well as a matrix of individual memberships whose dyadic categorical similarities (same/different) are used in the same manner.

Although the p^* framework is quite versatile in its ability to accommodate a range of structural predictors, it should be noted that the *substantial* collinearity of many of the standard p* predictors can lead to very unstable model fits. Measurement and specification errors compound this problem; thus, it is somewhat risky to use p^* in an exploratory capacity (i.e., when there is little prior knowledge to constrain choice of parameters). While raw instability due to multicollinearity should decline with graph size, improper specification will still result in biased coefficient estimates so long as an omitted predictor correlates with an included predictor. Caution is advised.

Value

A [glm](#page-0-0) object

WARNING

Estimation of p* models by maximum pseudo-likelihood is now known to be a dangerous practice. Use at your own risk.

Note

In the long run, support will be included for p^* models involving arbitrary functions (much like the system used with [cugtest](#page-29-0) and [qaptest](#page-139-0)).

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Anderson, C.; Wasserman, S.; and Crouch, B. (1999). "A p* Primer: Logit Models for Social Networks. *Social Networks,* 21,37-66.

Holland, P.W., and Leinhardt, S. (1981). "An Exponential Family of Probability Distributions for Directed Graphs." *Journal of the American statistical Association*, 81, 51-67.

Wasserman, S., and Pattison, P. (1996). "Logit Models and Logistic Regressions for Social Networks: I. An introduction to Markov Graphs and p*." *Psychometrika,* 60, 401-426.

See Also

[eval.edgeperturbation](#page-38-0)

Examples

```
#Create a graph with expansiveness and popularity effects
in.str<-rnorm(20,0,3)
out.str<-rnorm(20,0,3)
tie.str<-outer(out.str,in.str,"+")
tie.p <- apply(tie.str,c(1,2),function(a){1/(1+exp(-a))})
g<-rgraph(20,tprob=tie.p)
#Fit a model with expansiveness only
p1<-pstar(g,effects="outdegree")
#Fit a model with expansiveness and popularity
p2<-pstar(g,effects=c("outdegree","indegree"))
#Fit a model with expansiveness, popularity, and mutuality
p3<-pstar(g,effects=c("outdegree","indegree","mutuality"))
#Compare the model AICs -- use ONLY as heuristics!!!
extractAIC(p1)
extractAIC(p2)
extractAIC(p3)
```
qaptest *Perform Quadratic Assignment Procedure (QAP) Hypothesis Tests for Graph-Level Statistics*

Description

qaptest tests an arbitrary graph-level statistic (computed on dat by FUN) against a QAP null hypothesis, via Monte Carlo simulation of likelihood quantiles. Note that fair amount of flexibility is possible regarding QAP tests on functions of such statistics (see an equivalent discussion with respect to CUG null hypothesis tests in Anderson et al. (1999)). See below for more details.

Usage

```
qaptest(dat, FUN, reps=1000, ...)
```
Arguments

Details

The null hypothesis of the QAP test is that the observed graph-level statistic on graphs G_1, G_2, \ldots was drawn from the distribution of said statistic evaluated (uniformly) on the set of all relabelings of G_1, G_2, \ldots Pragmatically, this test is performed by repeatedly (randomly) relabeling the input

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graphs, recalculating the test statistic, and then evaluating the fraction of draws greater than or equal to (and less than or equal to) the observed value. This accumulated fraction approximates the integral of the distribution of the test statistic over the set of unlabeled input graphs.

The qaptest procedure returns a qaptest object containing the estimated likelihood (distribution of the test statistic under the null hypothesis), the observed value of the test statistic on the input data, and the one-tailed p-values (estimated quantiles) associated with said observation. As usual, the (upper tail) null hypothesis is rejected for significance level alpha if p>=observation is less than alpha (or p<=observation, for the lower tail); if the hypothesis is undirected, then one rejects if either p<=observation or p>=observation is less then alpha/2. Standard caveats regarding the use of null hypothesis testing procedures are relevant here: in particular, bear in mind that a significant result does not necessarily imply that the likelihood ratio of the null model and the alternative hypothesis favors the latter.

In interpreting a QAP test, it is important to bear in mind the nature of the QAP null hypothesis. The QAP test should *not* be interpreted as evaluating underlying structural differences; indeed, QAP is more accurately understood as testing differences induced by a particular vertex labeling *controlling for* underlying structure. Where there is substantial automorphism in the underling structures, OAP will tend to given non-significant results. (In fact, it is *impossible* to obtain a one-tailed significance level in excess of $\max_{g \in \{G,H\}} \frac{|Aut(g)|}{|Perm(g)|}$ when using a QAP test on a bivariate graph statistic $f(G, H)$, where Aut(g) and Perm(g) are the automorphism and permutation groups on g, respectively. This follows from the fact that all members of Aut(g) will induce the same values of $f(.)$. By turns, significance under QAP does not necessarily imply that the observed structural relationship is unusual relative to what one would expect from typical structures with (for instance) the sizes and densities of the graphs in question. In contexts in which one's research question implies a particular labeling of vertices (e.g., "within this group of individuals, do friends also tend to give advice to one another"), QAP can be a very useful way of ruling out spurious structural influences (e.g., some respondents tend to indiscriminately nominate many people (without regard to whom), resulting in a structural similarity which has nothing to do with the identities of those involved). Where one's question does not imply a labeled relationship (e.g., is the *shape* of this group's friendship network similar to that of its advice network), the QAP null hypothesis is inappropriate.

Value

An object of class qaptest, containing

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Anderson, B.S.; Butts, C.T.; and Carley, K.M. (1999). "The Interaction of Size and Density with Graph-Level Indices." *Social Networks*, 21(3), 239-267.

Hubert, L.J., and Arabie, P. (1989). "Combinatorial Data Analysis: Confirmatory Comparisons Between Sets of Matrices." *Applied Stochastic Models and Data Analysis*, 5, 273-325.

Krackhardt, D. (1987). "QAP Partialling as a Test of Spuriousness." *Social Networks*, 9 171-186.

Krackhardt, D. (1988). "Predicting With Networks: Nonparametric Multiple Regression Analyses of Dyadic Data." *Social Networks*, 10, 359-382.

See Also

[cugtest](#page-29-0)

Examples

```
#Generate three graphs
g<-array(dim=c(3,10,10))
g[1,, ]<-rgraph(10)g[2,,]<-rgraph(10,tprob=g[1,,]*0.8)
g[3,,]<-1; g[3,1,2]<-0 #This is nearly a clique
#Perform qap tests of graph correlation
q.12<-qaptest(g,gcor,g1=1,g2=2)
q.13<-qaptest(g,gcor,g1=1,g2=3)
#Examine the results
summary(q.12)
plot(q.12)
summary(q.13)
plot(q.13)
```
reachability *Find the Reachability Matrix of a Graph*

Description

reachability takes one or more (possibly directed) graphs as input, producing the associated reachability matrices.

Usage

reachability(dat, geodist.precomp=NULL)

Arguments

dat one or more graphs (directed or otherwise). geodist.precomp

optionally, a precomputed [geodist](#page-53-0) object.

Details

For a digraph $G = (V, E)$ with vertices i and j, let P_{ij} represent a directed ij path. Then the graph

$$
R = (V(G), \{(i, j) : i, j \in V(G), P_{ij} \in G\})
$$

is said to be the *reachability graph* of G, and the adjacency matrix of R is said to be G's *reachability matrix*. (Note that when G is undirected, we simply take each undirected edge to be bidirectional.) Vertices which are adjacent in the reachability graph are connected by one or more directed paths

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in the original graph; thus, structural equivalence classes in the reachability graph are synonymous with strongly connected components in the original structure.

Bear in mind that – as with all matters involving connectedness – reachability is strongly related to size and density. Since, for any given density, almost all structures of sufficiently large size are connected, reachability graphs associated with large structures will generally be complete. Measures based on the reachability graph, then, will tend to become degenerate in the large $|V(G)|$ limit (assuming constant positive density).

Value

A reachability matrix

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[geodist](#page-53-0)

Examples

```
#Find the reachability matrix for a sparse random graph
g<-rgraph(10,tprob=0.15)
rg<-reachability(g)
g #Compare the two structures
rg
#Compare to the output of geodist
all(rg==(geodist(g)$counts>0))
```
read.nos *Read (N)eo-(O)rg(S)tat Input Files*

Description

Reads an input file in NOS format, returning the result as a graph set.

Usage

read.nos(file)

Arguments

file The file to be imported

Details

NOS format consists of three header lines, followed by a whitespace delimited stack of raw adjacency matrices; the format is not particularly elegant, but turns up in certain legacy applications (mostly at CMU). read.nos provides a quick and dirty way of reading in these files, without the headache of messing with [read.table](#page-0-0) settings.

The content of the NOS format is as follows:

```
\langle m \rangle\langle n \rangle \langle 0 \rangle\langle kr1 \rangle \langle kr2 \rangle ... \langle krn \rangle \langle kcl \rangle \langle kc2 \rangle ... \langle kcn \rangle\langle a111 \rangle \langle a112 \rangle ... \langle a110 \rangle\langle a121 \rangle \langle a122 \rangle ... \langle a120 \rangle...
\langle \alpha 1n1 \rangle \langle \alpha 1n2 \rangle ... \langle \alpha 1n0 \rangle\langle a211 \rangle \langle a212 \rangle ... \langle a210 \rangle...
\langle a2n1 \rangle \langle a2n2 \rangle ... \langle a2n0 \rangle...
\langle \text{amn1} \rangle \langle \text{amn2} \rangle ... \langle \text{amno} \rangle
```
where $\langle \text{abcd} \rangle$ is understood to be the value of the c- $>$ d edge in the bth graph of the file. (As one might expect, m, n, and o are the numbers of graphs (matrices), rows, and columns for the data, respectively.) The "k" line contains a list of row and column "colors", categorical variables associated with each row and column, respectively. Although originally intended to communicate exchangability information, these can be used for other purposes (though there are easier ways to deal with attribute data these days).

Value

The imported graph set (in adjacency array form).

Note

read.nos currently ignores the coloring information.

Author(s)

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See Also

[write.nos](#page-179-0), [scan](#page-0-0), [read.table](#page-0-0)

Examples
Produces a series of draws from a Skvoretz-Fararo biased net process using a Gibbs sampler.

Usage

```
rabn(n, nv, param=list(pi=0, sigma=0, rho=0, d=0.5),
    burn=nv*nv*1000, thin=nv)
```
Arguments

Details

The biased net model stems from early work by Rapoport, who attempted to model networks via a hypothetical "tracing" process. This process may be described loosely as follows. One begins with a small "seed" set of vertices, each member of which is assumed to nominate (generate ties to) other members of the population with some fixed probability. These members, in turn, may nominate new members of the population, as well as members who have already been reached. Such nominations may be "biased" in one fashion or another, leading to a non-uniform growth process.

While the original biased net model depends upon the tracing process, a local interpretation has been put forward by Skvoretz and colleagues in recent years. Using the standard four-parameter process, the conditional probability of an (i, j) edge given all other edges in a random graph G can be written as

$$
Pr(i \to j) = 1 - (1 - \rho)^{z} (1 - \sigma)^{y} (1 - \pi)^{x} (1 - d)
$$

where $x = 1$ iff $j \rightarrow i$ (and 0 otherwise), y is the number of vertices $k \neq i, j$ such that $k \rightarrow i, k \rightarrow j$ j, and $z = 1$ iff $x = 1$ and $y > 0$ (and 0 otherwise). Thus, x is the number of "parent bias" events, y is the number of "sibling bias" events, and z is the number of "double role bias" events. d is the probability of the baseline edge event; note that an edge arises if the baseline event or any bias event occurs, and all events are assumed conditionally independent. Written in this way, it is clear that the edges of G are conditionally independent iff they share no endpoint. Thus, the above model is a subfamily of the Markov graphs.

It should be noted that the above process is not entirely consistent with the tracing-based model, which is itself not uniformly well-specified in the literature. For this reason, the local model is referred to here as a Skvoretz-Fararo graph process. One significant advantage of this process is that it is well-defined, and easily simulated: the above equation forms the basis of a Gibbs sampler, which is used by rgbn to take draws from the (local) biased net model. Burn-in and thinning are controlled by the corresponding arguments; since degeneracy is common with Markov graph models, it is advisable to check for adequate mixing.

Value

An adjacency array containing the simulated graphs.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Rapoport, A. (1957). "A contribution to the theory of random and biased nets." *Bulletin of Mathematical Biophysics,* 15, 523-533.

Skvoretz, J.; Fararo, T.J.; and Agneessens, F. (2004). "Advances in biased net theory: definitions, derivations, and estimations." *Social Networks,* 26, 113-139.

See Also

[bn](#page-15-0)

Examples

```
#Generate draws with low density and no biases
g1<-rgbn(50,10,param=list(pi=0, sigma=0, rho=0, d=0.17))
apply(dyad.census(g1),2,mean) #Examine the dyad census
#Add a reciprocity bias
g2<-rgbn(50,10,param=list(pi=0.5, sigma=0, rho=0, d=0.17))
apply(dyad.census(g2),2,mean) #Compare with g1
```

```
#Alternately, add a sibling bias
g3<-rgbn(50,10,param=list(pi=0.0, sigma=0.3, rho=0, d=0.17))<br>mean(qtrans(q3)) #Compare transitivity scores
                                        #Compare transitivity scores
mean(gtrans(g1))
```
rgnm *Draw Density-Conditioned Random Graphs*

Description

rgnm generates random draws from a density-conditioned uniform random graph distribution.

Usage

```
rqnm(n, nv, m, mode = "digraph", diag = FALSE)
```
Arguments

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Details

rgnm returns draws from the density-conditioned uniform random graph first popularized by the famous work of Erdös and Rényi (the $G(N, M)$ process). In particular, the pmf of a $G(N, M)$ process is given by

$$
p(G = g|N, M) = \binom{E_m}{M}^{-1}
$$

where E_m is the maximum number of edges in the graph. $(E_m$ is equal to nv*(nv-diag)/(1+(mode=="graph"). The $G(N, M)$ process is one of several process which are used as baseline models of social structure. Other well-known baseline models include the Bernoulli graph (the $G(N, p)$) model of Erdös and Rényi) and the U|MAN model of dyadic independence. These are implemented within sna as [rgraph](#page-146-0) and [rgnm](#page-145-0), respectively.

Value

A matrix or array containing the drawn adjacency matrices

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Erdös, P. and Rényi, A. (1960). "On the Evolution of Random Graphs." *Public Mathematical Institute of Hungary Academy of Sciences,* 5:17-61.

See Also

[rgraph](#page-146-0), [rguman](#page-148-0)

Examples

```
#Draw 5 random graphs of order 10
all(gden(rgnm(5,10,9,mode="graph"))==0.2) #Density 0.2
all(gden(rgnm(5,10,9))==0.1) #Density 0.1
#Plot a random graph
gplot(rgnm(1,10,20))
```
rgraph *Generate Bernoulli Random Graphs*

Description

rgraph generates random draws from a Bernoulli graph distribution, with various parameters for controlling the nature of the data so generated.

Usage

```
rgraph(n, m=1, tprob=0.5, mode="digraph", diag=FALSE, replace=FALSE,
    tielist=NULL)
```
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Arguments

Details

rgraph is a reasonably versatile routine for generating random network data. The graphs so generated are either Bernoulli graphs (graphs in which each edge is a Bernoulli trial, independent conditional on the Bernoulli parameters), or are bootstrapped from a user-provided edge distribution (very handy for CUG tests). In the latter case, edge data should be provided using the tielist argument; the exact form taken by the data is irrelevant, so long as it can be coerced to a vector. In the former case, Bernoulli graph probabilities are set by the tprob argument as follows:

- 1. If tprob contains a single number, this number is used as the probability of all edges.
- 2. If tprob contains a vector, each entry is assumed to correspond to a separate graph (in order). Thus, each entry is used as the probability of all edges within its corresponding graph.
- 3. If tprob contains a matrix, then each entry is assumed to correspond to a separate edge. Thus, each entry is used as the probability of its associated edge in each graph which is generated.
- 4. Finally, if tprob contains a three-dimensional array, then each entry is assumed to correspond to a particular edge in a particular graph, and is used as the associated probability parameter.

Finally, note that rgraph will symmetrize all generated networks if mode is set to "graph" by copying down the upper triangle. The lower half of tprob, where applicable, must still be specified, however.

Value

A graph stack

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Erdös, P. and Rényi, A. (1960). "On the Evolution of Random Graphs." *Public Mathematical Institute of Hungary Academy of Sciences,* 5:17-61.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[rmperm](#page-151-0), [rgnm](#page-145-0), [rguman](#page-148-0)

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Examples

```
#Generate three graphs with different densities
g<-rgraph(10,3,tprob=c(0.1,0.9,0.5))
#Generate from a matrix of Bernoulli parameters
g.p<-matrix(runif(25,0,1),nrow=5)
g<-rgraph(5,2,tprob=g.p)
```
rguman *Draw Dyad Census-Conditioned Random Graphs*

Description

rguman generates random draws from a dyad census-conditioned uniform random graph distribution.

Usage

```
rguman(n, nv, mut = 0.25, asym = 0.5, null = 0.25,
    method = c("probability", "exact"))
```
Arguments

Details

A simple generalization of the Erdös-Rényi family, the U|MAN distributions are uniform on the set of graphs, conditional on order (size) and the dyad census. As with the E-R case, there are two U|MAN variants. The first (corresponding to method=="probability") takes dyad states as independent multinomials with parameters m (for mutuals), a (for asymmetrics), and n (for nulls). The resulting pmf is then

$$
p(G = g|m, a, n) = \frac{(M + A + N)!}{M! A! N!} m^M a^A n^N,
$$

where M , A , and N are realized counts of mutual, asymmetric, and null dyads, respectively. (See [dyad.census](#page-34-0) for an explication of dyad types.)

The second U|MAN variant is selected by method=="exact", and places equal mass on all graphs having the specified (exact) dyad census. The corresponding pmf is

$$
p(G = g|M, A, N) = \frac{M!A!N!}{(M + A + N)!}.
$$

U|MAN graphs provide a natural baseline model for networks which are constrained by size, density, and reciprocity. In this way, they provide a bridge between edgewise models (e.g., the E-R family) and models with higher order dependence (e.g., the Markov graphs).

Value

A matrix or array containing the drawn adjacency matrices

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Holland, P.W. and Leinhardt, S. (1976). "Local Structure in Social Networks." In D. Heise (Ed.), *Sociological Methodology*, pp 1-45. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wasserman, S. and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[rgraph](#page-146-0), [rgnm](#page-145-0), [dyad.census](#page-34-0)

Examples

```
#Show some examples of extreme U|MAN graphs
gplot(rguman(1,10,mut=45,asym=0,null=0,method="exact")) #Clique
gplot(rguman(1,10,mut=0,asym=45,null=0,method="exact")) #Tournament
gplot(rguman(1,10,mut=0,asym=0,null=45,method="exact")) #Empty
#Draw a sample of multinomial U|MAN graphs
g<-rguman(5,10,mut=0.15,asym=0.05,null=0.8)
#Examine the dyad census
dyad.census(g)
```
rgws *Draw From the Watts-Strogatz Rewiring Model*

Description

rgws generates draws from the Watts-Strogatz rewired lattice model. Given a set of input graphs, rewire.ws performs a (dyadic) rewiring of those graphs.

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Usage

```
rgws(n, nv, d, z, p)
rewire.ud(g, p)
rewire.ws(g, p)
```
Arguments

Details

A Watts-Strogatz graph process generates a random graph via the following procedure. First, a ddimensional uniform lattice is generated, here with nv vertices per dimension (i.e., nv^d vertices total). Next, all z neighbors are connected, based on geodesics of the underlying lattice. Finally, each non-null dyad in the resulting augmented lattice is "rewired" with probability p, where the rewiring operation exchanges the initial dyad state with the state of a uniformly selected null dyad sharing exactly one endpoint with the original dyad. (In the standard case, this is equivalent to choosing an endpoint of the dyad at random, and then transferring the dyadic edges to/from that endpoint to another randomly chosen vertex. Hence the "rewiring" metaphor.) For $p == 0$, the W-S process generates (deterministic) uniform lattices, approximating a uniform G(N,M) process as p approaches 1. Thus, p can be used to tune overall entropy of the process. A well-known property of the W-S process is that (for large nv^d and small p) it generates draws with short expected mean geodesic distances (approaching those found in uniform graphs) while maintaining high levels of local "clustering" (i.e., transitivity). It has thus been proposed as one potential mechanism for obtaining "small world" structures.

rgws produces independent draws from the above process, returning them as an adjacency matrix (if $n = 1$) or array (otherwise). rewire, ws, on the other hand, applies the rewiring phase of the W-S process to one or more input graphs. This can be used to explore local perturbations of the original graphs, conditioning on the dyad census. rewire.ud is similar to rewire.ws, save in that all dyads are eligible for rewiring (not just non-null dyads), and exchanges with non-null dyads are permitted. This process may be easier to work with than standard W-S rewiring in some cases.

Value

A graph or graph stack containing draws from the appropriate W-S process.

Warning

Remember that the total number of vertices in the graph is nv^d. This can get out of hand *very* quickly.

Note

rgws generates non-toroidal lattices; some published work in this area utilizes underlying toroids, so users should check for this prior to comparing simulations against published results.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Watts, D. and Strogatz, S. (1998). "Collective Dynamics of Small-world Networks." *Nature,* 393:440-442.

See Also

[rgnm](#page-145-0), [rgraph](#page-146-0)

Examples

```
#Generate Watts-Strogatz graphs, w/increasing levels of rewiring
gplot(rgws(1,100,1,2,0)) #No rewiring
gplot(rgws(1,100,1,2,0.01)) #1
gplot(rgws(1,100,1,2,0.05)) #5
gplot(rgws(1,100,1,2,0.1)) #10
gplot(rgws(1,100,1,2,1)) #100
#Start with a simple graph, then rewire it
g<-matrix(0,50,50)
g[1,]<-1; g[,1]<-1 #Create a star
gplot(g)
gplot(rewire.ws(g,0.05)) #5
```
rmperm *Randomly Permute the Rows and Columns of an Input Matrix*

Description

Given an input matrix (or stack thereof), rmperm performs a (random) simultaneous row/column permutation of the input data.

Usage

rmperm(m)

Arguments

m a matrix, or stack thereof (or a graph set, for that matter).

Details

Random matrix permutations are the essence of the QAP test; see [qaptest](#page-139-0) for details.

Value

The permuted matrix (or matrices)

rperm and the state of the

Author(s)

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See Also

[rperm](#page-152-0)

Examples

```
#Generate an input matrix
g<-rgraph(5)
g #Examine it
#Examine a random permutation
rmperm(g)
```
rperm *Draw a Random Permutation Vector with Exchangeability Constraints*

Description

Draws a random permutation on $1:$ length (exchange.list) such that no two elements whose corresponding exchange.list values are different are interchanged.

Usage

```
rperm(exchange.list)
```
Arguments

exchange.list

A vector such that the permutation vector may exchange the ith and jth positions iff exchange.list[i]==exchange.list[j]

Details

rperm draws random permutation vectors given the constraints of exchangeability described above. Thus, $rperm(c(0,0,0,0))$ returns a random permutation of four elements in which all exchanges are allowed, while rperm(c(1,1,"a","a") (or similar) returns a random permutation of four elements in which only the first/second and third/fourth elements may be exchanged. This turns out to be quite useful for searching permutation spaces with exchangeability constraints (e.g., for structural distance estimation).

Value

A random permutation vector satisfying the given constraints

Author(s)

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See Also

[rmperm](#page-151-0)

Examples

```
rperm(c(0,0,0,0)) #All elements may be exchanged
rperm(c(0,0,0,1)) #Fix the fourth element
rperm(c(0,0,1,1)) #Allow \{1,2\} and \{3,4\} to be swapped
rperm(c("a",4,"x",2)) #Fix all elements (the identity permutation)
```
sdmat *Estimate the Structural Distance Matrix for a Graph Stack*

Description

Estimates the structural distances among all elements of dat using the method specified in method.

Usage

```
sdmat(dat, normalize=FALSE, diag=FALSE, mode="digraph",
   output="matrix", method="mc", exchange.list=NULL, ...)
```
Arguments

Details

The structural distance between two graphs G and H is defined as

$$
d_S(G, H | L_G, L_H) = \min_{L_G, L_H} d(\ell(G), \ell(H))
$$

where L_G is the set of accessible permutations/labelings of G, and $\ell(G)$ is a permuation/relabeling of the vertices of G ($\ell(G) \in L_G$). The set of accessible permutations on a given graph is determined by the *theoretical exchangeability* of its vertices; in a nutshell, two vertices are considered to be theoretically exchangeable for a given problem if all predictions under the conditioning theory

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are invariant to a relabeling of the vertices in question (see Butts and Carley (2001) for a more formal exposition). Where no vertices are exchangeable, the structural distance becomes the its labeled counterpart (here, the Hamming distance). Where *all* vertices are exchangeable, the structural distance reflects the distance between unlabeled graphs; other cases correspond to distance under partial labeling.

The accessible permutation set is determined by the exchange.list argument, which is dealt with in the following manner. First, exchange, list is expanded to fill an nx2 matrix. If exchange. list is a single number, this is trivially accomplished by replication; if exchange. list is a vector of length n, the matrix is formed by cbinding two copies together. If $exchange$. list is already an nx2 matrix, it is left as-is. Once the nx2 exchangeabiliy matrix has been formed, it is interpreted as follows: columns refer to graphs 1 and 2, respectively; rows refer to their corresponding vertices in the original adjacency matrices; and vertices are taken to be theoretically exchangeable iff their corresponding exchangeability matrix values are identical. To obtain an unlabeled distance (the default), then, one could simply let exchange. list equal any single number. To obtain the Hamming distance, one would use the vector $1:n$.

Because the set of accessible permutations is, in general, very large $(o(n!)$, searching the set for the minimum distance is a non-trivial affair. Currently supported methods for estimating the structural distance are hill climbing, simulated annealing, blind monte carlo search, or exhaustive search (it is also possible to turn off searching entirely). Exhaustive search is not recommended for graphs larger than size 8 or so, and even this may take days; still, this is a valid alternative for small graphs. Blind monte carlo search and hill climbing tend to be suboptimal for this problem and are not, in general recommended, but they are available if desired. The preferred (and default) option for permutation search is simulated annealing, which seems to work well on this problem (though some tinkering with the annealing parameters may be needed in order to get optimal performance). See the help for [lab.optimize](#page-94-0) for more information regarding these options.

Structural distance matrices may be used in the same manner as any other distance matrices (e.g., with multidimensional scaling, cluster analysis, etc.) Classical null hypothesis tests should not be employed with structural distances, and QAP tests are almost never appropriate (save in the uniquely labeled case). See [cugtest](#page-29-0) for a more reasonable alternative.

Value

A matrix of distances (or an object of class dist)

Warning

The search process can be *very slow*, particularly for large graphs. In particular, the *exhaustive* method is order factorial, and will take approximately forever for unlabeled graphs of size greater than about 7-9.

Note

For most applications, sdmat is dominated by [structdist](#page-163-0); the former is retained largely for reasons of compatibility.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS Working Paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

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See Also

[hdist](#page-84-0), [structdist](#page-163-0)

Examples

```
#Generate two random graphs
g<-array(dim=c(3,5,5))
g[1,,]<-rgraph(5)
g[2,,]<-rgraph(5)
#Copy one of the graphs and permute it
g[3,,]<-rmperm(g[2,,])
#What are the structural distances between the labeled graphs?
sdmat(g,exchange.list=1:5)
#What are the structural distances between the underlying unlabeled
#graphs?
sdmat(g,method="anneal", prob.init=0.9, prob.decay=0.85,
    freeze.time=50, full.neighborhood=TRUE)
```
sedist *Find a Matrix of Distances Between Positions Based on Structural Equivalence*

Description

sedist uses the graphs indicated by g in dat to assess the extent to which each vertex is structurally equivalent; joint.analysis determines whether this analysis is simultaneous, and method determines the measure of approximate equivalence which is used.

Usage

```
sedist(dat, g=c(1:dim(dat)[1]), method="hamming",
    joint.analysis=FALSE, mode="digraph", diag=FALSE, code.diss=FALSE)
```
Arguments

sedist the set of the se

Details

sedist provides a basic tool for assessing the (approximate) structural equivalence of actors. (Two vertices i and j are said to be structurally equivalent if i->k iff j->k for all k.) SE similarity/difference scores are computed by comparing vertex rows and columns using the measure indicated by method:

- 1. correlation: the product-moment correlation
- 2. euclidean: the euclidean distance
- 3. hamming: the Hamming distance
- 4. gamma: the gamma correlation

Once these similarities/differences are calculated, the results can be used with a clustering routine (such as [equiv.clust](#page-36-0)) or an MDS (such as [cmdscale](#page-0-0)).

Value

A matrix of similarity/difference scores

Note

Be careful to verify that you have computed what you meant to compute, with respect to similarities/differences. Also, note that (despite its popularity) the product-moment correlation can give rather strange results in some cases.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Breiger, R.L.; Boorman, S.A.; and Arabie, P. (1975). "An Algorithm for Clustering Relational Data with Applications to Social Network Analysis and Comparison with Multidimensional Scaling." *Journal of Mathematical Psychology*, 12, 328-383.

Burt, R.S. (1976). "Positions in Networks." *Social Forces*, 55, 93-122.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[equiv.clust](#page-36-0), [blockmodel](#page-12-0)

```
#Create a random graph with _some_ edge structure
g.p<-sapply(runif(20,0,1),rep,20) #Create a matrix of edge
                                  #probabilities
g<-rgraph(20,tprob=g.p) #Draw from a Bernoulli graph
                                  #distribution
#Get SE distances
g.se<-sedist(g)
#Plot a metric MDS of vertex positions in two dimensions
plot(cmdscale(as.dist(g.se)))
```
These objects have been removed from sna, and should no longer be used.

Usage

```
addisolates(dat, n)
```
Arguments

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

sna-deprecated *Deprecated Functions in sna Package*

Description

These functions are provided for compatibility with older versions of sna only, and may be defunct as soon as the next release.

Details

The following sna functions are currently deprecated:

None.

The original help pages for these functions can be found at help("oldName-deprecated"). Please avoid using them, since they will disappear....

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[Deprecated](#page-0-0)

sna-internal *Internal sna Functions*

Description

Internal sna functions.

Usage

```
as.sociomatrix.sna(x, attrname=NULL, simplify=TRUE)
bbnam.jntlik(dat, log=FALSE, ...)
bbnam.jntlik.slice(s, dat, a, em, ep, log=FALSE)
bbnam.probtie(dat, i, j, npriorij, em, ep)
```
Details

These are not to be called by the end user.

sna *Tools for Social Network Analysis*

Description

sna is a package containing a range of tools for social network analysis. Supported functionality includes node and graph-level indices, structural distance and covariance methods, structural equivalence detection, p* modeling, random graph generation, and 2D/3D network visualization (among other things).

Details

Network data for sna routines can (except as noted otherwise) appear in any of the following forms:

- adjacency matrices (dimension N x N);
- arrays of adjacency matrices, aka "graph stacks" (dimension m x N x N);
- network objects; or
- lists of adjacency matrices/arrays and/or network objects.

Within the package documentation, the term "graph" is used generically to refer to any or all of the above (with multiple graphs being referred to as a "graph stack"). Note that usage of network objects requires that the [network](#page-0-0) package be installed. (No additional packages are required for use of adjacency matrices/arrays or lists thereof.) In general, sna routines attempt to make intelligent decisions regarding the processing of multiple graphs, but common sense is always advised; certain functions, in particular, have more specific data requirements. Calling sna functions with inappropriate input data can produce "interesting" results.

To get started with sna, try obtaining viewing the list of available functions. This can be accomplished via the command library(help=sna).

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

sna.operators *Graphical Operators*

Description

These operators allow for algebraic manupulation of graph adjacency matrices.

Usage

x %c% y

Arguments

Details

Currently, only one operator is supported. $x \text{ } *c * y$ returns the adjacency matrix of the composition of graphs with adjacency matrices x and y (respectively). (Note that this may contain loops.)

Value

The resulting adjacency matrix.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Wasserman, S. and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: University of Cambridge Press.

```
#Create an in-star
g <- matrix(0, 6, 6)
g[2:6,1]<-1gplot(g)
#Compose g with its transpose
gcgt<-g%c%t(g)
gplot(gcgt,diag=TRUE)
gcgt
```
Given a matrix in which the ith row corresponds to i's reported relations, sr2css creates a graph stack in which each element represents a CSS slice with missing observations.

Usage

```
sr2css(net)
```
Arguments

net an adjacency matrix.

Details

A cognitive social structure (CSS) is an nxnxn array in which the ith matrix corresponds to the ith actor's perception of the entire network. Here, we take a conventional self-report data structure and put it in CSS format for routines (such as [bbnam](#page-4-0)) which require this.

Value

An array (graph stack) containing the CSS

Note

A row-wise self-report matrix doesn't contain a great deal of data, and the data in question is certainly not an ignorable sample of the individual's CSS for most purposes. The provision of this routine should not be perceived as license to substitute SR for CSS data at will.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Krackhardt, D. (1987). *Cognitive Social Structures*, 9, 109-134.

```
#Start with some random reports
g<-rgraph(10)
#Transform to CSS format
c<-sr2css(g)
```
Returns the number of graphs in the stack provided by d.

Usage

```
stackcount(d)
```
Arguments

d a graph or graph stack.

Details

Value

The number of graphs in d

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[nties](#page-112-0)

Examples

```
stackcount(rgraph(4,8)) ==8
```
stresscent *Compute the Stress Centrality Scores of Network Positions*

Description

stresscent takes one or more graphs (dat) and returns the stress centralities of positions (selected by nodes) within the graphs indicated by g. Depending on the specified mode, stress on directed or undirected geodesics will be returned; this function is compatible with [centralization](#page-20-0), and will return the theoretical maximum absolute deviation (from maximum) conditional on size (which is used by [centralization](#page-20-0) to normalize the observed centralization score).

Usage

```
stresscent(dat, g=1, nodes=c(1:dim(dat)[2]), gmode="digraph",
   diag=FALSE, tmaxdev=FALSE, cmode="directed",
   geodist.precomp=NULL, rescale=FALSE)
```
stresscent 163

Arguments

Details

The stress of a vertex, v, is given by

$$
C_S(v) = \sum_{i,j: i \neq j, i \neq v, j \neq v} g_{ivj}
$$

where g_{ijk} is the number of geodesics from i to k through j. Conceptually, high-stress vertices lie on a large number of shortest paths between other vertices; they can thus be thought of as "bridges" or "boundary spanners." Compare this with [betweenness](#page-10-0), which weights shortest paths by the inverse of their redundancy.

Value

A vector, matrix, or list containing the centrality scores (depending on the number and size of the input graphs).

Note

Judicious use of geodist.precomp can save a great deal of time when computing multiple path-based indices on the same network.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Shimbel, A. (1953). "Structural Parameters of Communication Networks." *Bulletin of Mathematical Biophysics,* 15:501-507.

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See Also

[centralization](#page-20-0)

Examples

```
g<-rgraph(10) #Draw a random graph with 10 members
stresscent(g) #Compute stress scores
```
structdist *Find the Structural Distances Between Two or More Graphs*

Description

structdist returns the structural distance between the labeled graphs g1 and g2 in stack dat based on Hamming distance for dichotomous data, or else the absolute (manhattan) distance. If normalize is true, this distance is divided by its dichotomous theoretical maximum (conditional on $|V(G)|$).

Usage

```
structdist(dat, g1=NULL, g2=NULL, normalize=FALSE, diag=FALSE,
   mode="digraph", method="anneal", reps=1000, prob.init=0.9,
   prob.decay=0.85, freeze.time=25, full.neighborhood=TRUE,
   mut=0.05, pop=20, trials=5, exchange.list=NULL)
```
Arguments

Details

The structural distance between two graphs G and H is defined as

$$
d_S(G, H | L_G, L_H) = \min_{L_G, L_H} d(\ell(G), \ell(H))
$$

where L_G is the set of accessible permutations/labelings of G, and $\ell(G)$ is a permuation/relabeling of the vertices of $G(\ell(G) \in L_G)$. The set of accessible permutations on a given graph is determined by the *theoretical exchangeability* of its vertices; in a nutshell, two vertices are considered to be theoretically exchangeable for a given problem if all predictions under the conditioning theory are invariant to a relabeling of the vertices in question (see Butts and Carley (2001) for a more formal exposition). Where no vertices are exchangeable, the structural distance becomes the its labeled counterpart (here, the Hamming distance). Where *all* vertices are exchangeable, the structural distance reflects the distance between unlabeled graphs; other cases correspond to distance under partial labeling.

The accessible permutation set is determined by the exchange.list argument, which is dealt with in the following manner. First, exchange. list is expanded to fill an nx2 matrix. If exchange.list is a single number, this is trivially accomplished by replication; if exchange.list is a vector of length n, the matrix is formed by cbinding two copies together. If exchange.list is already an nx2 matrix, it is left as-is. Once the nx2 exchangeabiliy matrix has been formed, it is interpreted as follows: columns refer to graphs 1 and 2, respectively; rows refer to their corresponding vertices in the original adjacency matrices; and vertices are taken to be theoretically exchangeable iff their corresponding exchangeability matrix values are identical. To obtain an unlabeled distance (the default), then, one could simply let exchange. list equal any single number. To obtain the Hamming distance, one would use the vector $1:n$.

Because the set of accessible permutations is, in general, very large $(o(n!)$, searching the set for the minimum distance is a non-trivial affair. Currently supported methods for estimating the structural distance are hill climbing, simulated annealing, blind monte carlo search, or exhaustive search (it is also possible to turn off searching entirely). Exhaustive search is not recommended for graphs larger than size 8 or so, and even this may take days; still, this is a valid alternative for small graphs. Blind monte carlo search and hill climbing tend to be suboptimal for this problem and are not, in general recommended, but they are available if desired. The preferred (and default) option for permutation search is simulated annealing, which seems to work well on this problem (though some tinkering with the annealing parameters may be needed in order to get optimal performance). See the help for [lab.optimize](#page-94-0) for more information regarding these options.

Structural distance matrices may be used in the same manner as any other distance matrices (e.g., with multidimensional scaling, cluster analysis, etc.) Classical null hypothesis tests should not be employed with structural distances, and QAP tests are almost never appropriate (save in the uniquely labeled case). See [cugtest](#page-29-0) for a more reasonable alternative.

Value

A structural distance matrix

Warning

The search process can be *very slow*, particularly for large graphs. In particular, the *exhaustive* method is order factorial, and will take approximately forever for unlabeled graphs of size greater than about 7-9.

Note

Consult Butts and Carley (2001) for advice and examples on theoretical exchangeability.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Butts, C.T., and Carley, K.M. (2001). "Multivariate Methods for Interstructural Analysis." CASOS Working Paper, Carnegie Mellon University.

See Also

[hdist](#page-84-0), [sdmat](#page-153-0)

Examples

```
#Generate two random graphs
g<-array(dim=c(3,5,5))
g[1,, ]<-rgraph(5)g[2,, ]<-rgraph(5)#Copy one of the graphs and permute it
g[3,, ] <-rmperm(g[2,, ])
#What are the structural distances between the labeled graphs?
structdist(g,exchange.list=1:5)
#What are the structural distances between the underlying unlabeled
#graphs?
structdist(g,method="anneal", prob.init=0.9, prob.decay=0.85,
    freeze.time=50, full.neighborhood=TRUE)
```
structure.statistics

Compute Network Structure Statistics

Description

Computes the structure statistics for the graph(s) in dat.

Usage

```
structure.statistics(dat, geodist.precomp = NULL)
```
Arguments

dat one or more input graphs. geodist.precomp

a [geodist](#page-53-0) object (optional).

Details

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph of order N, and let $d(i, j)$ be the geodesic distance from vertex i to vertex j in G. The "structure statistics" of G are then given by the series s_0, \ldots, s_{N-1} , where $s_i = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{j \in V} \sum_{k \in V} I(d(j, k) \leq i)$ and I is the standard indicator function. Intuitively, s_i is the expected fraction of G which lies within distance \pm of a randomly chosen vertex. As such, the structure statistics provide an index of global connectivity.

Structure statistics have been of particular importance to biased net theorists, because of the link with Rapoport's original tracing model. They may also be used along with component distributions or connectedness scores as descriptive indices of connectivity at the graph-level.

Value

A vector, matrix, or list (depending on dat) containing the structure statistics.

Note

The term "structure statistics" has been used somewhat loosely in the literature, a trend which seems to be accelerating. Users should carefully check references before comparing results generated by this routine with those appearing in published work.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Fararo, T.J. (1981). "Biased networks and social structure theorems. Part I." *Social Networks,* 3, 137-159.

Fararo, T.J. (1984). "Biased networks and social structure theorems. Part II." *Social Networks,* 6, 223-258.

Fararo, T.J. and Sunshine, M.H. (1964). "A study of a biased friendship net." Syracuse, NY: Youth Development Center.

See Also

[geodist](#page-53-0), [component.dist](#page-24-0), [connectedness](#page-26-0), [bn](#page-15-0)

```
#Generate a moderately sparse Bernoulli graph
g<-rgraph(100,tp=1.5/99)
#Compute the structure statistics for g
ss<-structure.statistics(g)
plot(0:99,ss,xlab="Mean Coverage",ylab="Distance")
```

```
summary.bayes.factor
```
Returns a bayes.factor summary object.

Usage

```
summary.bayes.factor(object, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

An object of class summary.bayes.factor

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[bbnam.bf](#page-8-0)

Examples

summary.bbnam *Detailed Summaries of bbnam Objects*

Description

Returns a bbnam summary object

Usage

```
summary.bbnam(object, ...)
```
Arguments

summary.blockmodel 169

Value

An object of class summary.bbnam

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[bbnam](#page-4-0)

Examples

summary.blockmodel *Detailed Summaries of blockmodel Objects*

Description

Returns a blockmodel summary object.

Usage

```
summary.blockmodel(object, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

An object of class summary.blockmodel

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[blockmodel](#page-12-0)

summary.cugtest *Detailed Summaries of cugtest Objects*

Description

Returns a cugtest summary object

Usage

```
summary.cugtest(object, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

An object of class summary.cugtest

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[cugtest](#page-29-0)

Examples

summary.lnam *Detailed Summaries of lnam Objects*

Description

Returns a lnam summary object.

Usage

```
summary.lnam(object, ...)
```
Arguments

summary.netcancor 171

Value

An object of class summary.lnam.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[lnam](#page-97-0)

summary.netcancor *Detailed Summaries of netcancor Objects*

Description

Returns a netcancor summary object

Usage

summary.netcancor(object, ...)

Arguments

Value

An object of class summary.netcancor

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[netcancor](#page-104-0)

Returns a netlm summary object

Usage

```
summary.netlm(object, ...)
```
Arguments

Value

An object of class summary.netlm

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[netlm](#page-107-0)

Examples

summary.netlogit *Detailed Summaries of netlogit Objects*

Description

Returns a netlogit summary object

Usage

```
summary.netlogit(object, ...)
```
Arguments

summary.qaptest 173

Value

An object of class summary.netlogit

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[netlogit](#page-109-0)

Examples

summary.qaptest *Detailed Summaries of qaptest Objects*

Description

Returns a qaptest summary object

Usage

summary.qaptest(object, ...)

Arguments

Value

An object of class summary.qaptest

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[qaptest](#page-139-0)

Symmetrizes the elements of mats according to the rule in rule.

Usage

```
symmetrize(mats, rule="weak")
```
Arguments

Details

The rules used by symmetrize are as follows:

- 1. upper: Copy the upper triangle over the lower triangle
- 2. lower: Copy the lower triangle over the upper triangle
- 3. strong: $i \leq -i$ iff $i \leq j$ and $i \leq -j$ (AND rule)
- 4. weak: $i \leq -i$ iff $i \leq j$ or $i \leq j$ (OR rule)

Value

The symmetrized graph stack

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

```
#Generate a graph
g<-rgraph(5)
#Weak symmetrization
symmetrize(g)
#Strong symmetrization
symmetrize(g,rule="strong")
```
triad.census *Compute the Davis and Leinhardt Triad Census*

Description

triad.census returns the Davis and Leinhardt triad census of the elements of dat indicated by g.

Usage

```
triad.census(dat, g=NULL, mode = c("digraph", "graph"))
```
Arguments

Details

The Davis and Leinhardt triad census consists of a classification of all directed triads into one of 16 different categories; the resulting distribution can be compared against various null models to test for the presence of configural biases (e.g., transitivity bias). triad.census is a front end for the [triad.classify](#page-175-0) routine, performing the classification for all triads within the selected graphs. The results are placed in the order indicated by the column names; this is the same order as presented in the [triad.classify](#page-175-0) documentation, to which the reader is referred for additional details.

In the undirected case, the triad census reduces to four states (based on the number of edges in each triad. Where mode=="graph", this is returned instead.

Compare [triad.census](#page-174-0) to [dyad.census](#page-34-0), the dyadic equivalent.

Value

A matrix whose 16 columns contain the counts of triads by class for each graph, in the directed case. In the undirected case, only 4 columns are used.

Warning

Valued data may cause strange behavior with this routine. Dichotomize the data first.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Davis, J.A. and Leinhardt, S. (1972). "The Structure of Positive Interpersonal Relations in Small Groups." In J. Berger (Ed.), *Sociological Theories in Progress, Volume 2*, 218-251. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). "Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications." Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[triad.classify](#page-175-0), [dyad.census](#page-34-0), [gtrans](#page-82-0)

Examples

```
#Generate a triad census of random data with varying densities
triad.census(rgraph(15,5,tprob=c(0.1,0.25,0.5,0.75,0.9)))
```
triad.classify *Compute the Davis and Leinhardt Classification of a Given Triad*

Description

triad.classify returns the Davis and Leinhardt classification of the triad indicated by tri in the gth graph of stack dat.

Usage

```
triad.classify(dat, g=1, tri=c(1, 2, 3), mode=c("digraph",
    "graph"))
```
Arguments

Details

Every unoriented directed triad may occupy one of 16 distinct states. These states were used by Davis and Leinhardt as a basis for classifying triads within a larger structure; the distribution of triads within a graph (see [triad.census](#page-174-0)), for instance, is linked to a range of substantive hypotheses (e.g., concerning structural balance). The Davis and Leinhardt classification scheme describes each triad by a string of four elements: the number of mutual (complete) dyads within the triad; the number of asymmetric dyads within the triad; the number of null (empty) dyads within the triad; and a configuration code for the triads which are not uniquely distinguished by the first three distinctions. The complete list of classes is as follows.

```
003 a \nleftrightarrow b \nleftrightarrow c, a \nleftrightarrow c012 a \rightarrow b \nleftrightarrow c, a \nleftrightarrow c102 a \leftrightarrow b \nleftrightarrow c, a \nleftrightarrow c021D a \leftarrow b \rightarrow c, a \nleftrightarrow c021U a \rightarrow b \leftarrow c, a \nleftrightarrow c021C a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c, a \nleftrightarrow c111D a \leftrightarrow b \rightarrow c, a \leftrightarrow c111U a \nleftrightarrow b \leftarrow c, a \leftrightarrow c
```
triad.classify 177

030T $a \rightarrow b \leftarrow c, a \rightarrow c$ **030C** $a \leftarrow b \leftarrow c, a \rightarrow c$ **201** $a \leftrightarrow b \nleftrightarrow c, a \leftrightarrow c$ **120D** $a \leftarrow b \rightarrow c, a \leftrightarrow c$ **120U** $a \rightarrow b \leftarrow c, a \leftrightarrow c$ **120C** $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c, a \leftrightarrow c$ **210** $a \rightarrow b \leftrightarrow c, a \leftrightarrow c$ **300** $a \leftrightarrow b \leftrightarrow c, a \leftrightarrow c$

These codes are returned by triad.classify as strings. In the undirected case, only four triad states are possible (corresponding to the number of edges in the triad). These are evaluated for mode=="graph", with the return value being the number of edges.

Value

A string containing the triad classification, or NA if one or more edges were missing

Warning

Valued data and/or loops may cause strange behavior with this routine. Dichotomize/remove loops first.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

References

Davis, J.A. and Leinhardt, S. (1972). "The Structure of Positive Interpersonal Relations in Small Groups." In J. Berger (Ed.), *Sociological Theories in Progress, Volume 2*, 218-251. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Wasserman, S., and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

See Also

[triad.census](#page-174-0), [gtrans](#page-82-0)

```
#Generate a random graph
g<-rgraph(10)
```

```
#Classify the triads (1,2,3) and (2,3,4)triad.classify(q,tri=c(1,2,3))triad.classify(g,tri=c(1,2,3))
```

```
#Plot the triads in question
gplot(g[1:3,1:3])
qplot(q[2:4,2:4])
```
upper.tri.remove *Remove the Upper Triangles of Adjacency Matrices in a Graph Stack*

Description

Returns the input graph stack, with the upper triangle entries removed/replaced as indicated.

Usage

```
upper.tri.remove(dat, remove.val=NA)
```
Arguments

Details

upper.tri.remove is simply a convenient way to apply g[upper.tri(g)]<-remove.val to an entire stack of adjacency matrices at once.

Value

The updated graph stack.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[upper.tri](#page-0-0), [lower.tri.remove](#page-100-0), [diag.remove](#page-33-0)

```
#Generate a random graph stack
q < - r qr aph(3,5)#Remove the upper triangles
g<-upper.tri.remove(g)
```
Writes a graph stack to an output file in DL format.

Usage

write.dl(x, file, vertex.lab = NULL, matrix.lab = NULL)

Arguments

Details

DL format is used by a number of software packages (including UCINET and Pajek) to store network data. write.dl saves one or more (possibly valued) graphs in DL edgelist format, along with vertex and graph labels (if desired). These files can, in turn, be used to import data into other software packages.

Value

None.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts (buttsc@uci.edu)

See Also

[write.nos](#page-179-0)

```
## Not run:
#Generate a random graph stack
g<-rgraph(5,10)
#This would save the graphs in DL format
write.dl(g,file="testfile.dl")
## End(Not run)
```


Writes a graph stack to an output file in NOS format.

Usage

write.nos(x, file, row.col = NULL, $col.col = NULL$)

Arguments

Details

NOS format consists of three header lines, followed by a whitespace delimited stack of raw adjacency matrices; the format is not particularly elegant, but turns up in certain legacy applications (mostly at CMU). write.nos provides a quick and dirty way of writing files NOS, which can later be retrieved using [read.nos](#page-142-0).

The content of the NOS format is as follows:

```
\langle m \rangle\langle n \rangle \langle 0 \rangle\langle kr1 \rangle \langle kr2 \rangle ... \langle krn \rangle \langle kc1 \rangle \langle kc2 \rangle ... \langle kcn \rangle\langle a111 \rangle \langle a112 \rangle ... \langle a110 \rangle\langle a121 \rangle \langle a122 \rangle ... \langle a120 \rangle...
\langle \alpha 1n1 \rangle \langle \alpha 1n2 \rangle ... \langle \alpha 1n0 \rangle\langle a211 \rangle \langle a212 \rangle ... \langle a210 \rangle...
\langle a2n1 \rangle \langle a2n2 \rangle ... \langle a2n0 \rangle...
```
 $\langle \text{amm1} \rangle \langle \text{amm2} \rangle$... $\langle \text{amm0} \rangle$

where $\langle \text{abcd} \rangle$ is understood to be the value of the c- \rangle d edge in the bth graph of the file. (As one might expect, m, n, and o are the numbers of graphs (matrices), rows, and columns for the data, respectively.) The "k" line contains a list of row and column "colors", categorical variables associated with each row and column, respectively. Although originally intended to communicate exchangability information, these can be used for other purposes (though there are easier ways to deal with attribute data these days).

Note that NOS format only supports graph stacks of common order; graphs of different sizes cannot be stored within the same file.
write.nos and the set of the set of

Value

None.

Author(s)

Carter T. Butts \langle buttsc@uci.edu \rangle

See Also

[read.nos](#page-142-0), [write.dl](#page-178-0), [write.table](#page-0-0)

Examples

```
## Not run:
#Generate a random graph stack
g<-rgraph(5,10)
```
#This would save the graphs in NOS format write.nos(g,file="testfile.nos")

```
#We can also read them back, like so:
g2<-read.nos("testfile.nos")
## End(Not run)
```
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