



ergm 4: New Features for Analyzing Exponential-Family Random Graph Models

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Abstract

The **ergm** package supports the statistical analysis and simulation of network data. It anchors the **statnet** suite of packages for network analysis in R introduced in a special issue in *Journal of Statistical Software* in 2008. This article provides an overview of the new functionality in the 2021 release of **ergm** version 4. These include more flexible handling of nodal covariates, term operators that extend and simplify model specification, new models for networks with valued edges, improved handling of constraints on the sample space of networks, and estimation with missing edge data. We also identify the new packages in the **statnet** suite that extend **ergm**'s functionality to other network data types and structural features and the robust set of online resources that support the **statnet** development process and applications.

Keywords: **statnet**, ERGM, exponential-family random graph models, valued networks.

1. Introduction

The **statnet** suite of packages for R (R Core Team 2022) was first introduced in 2008, in volume 24 of *Journal of Statistical Software*, a special issue devoted to **statnet**. Together, these packages, which had already gone through the maturing process of multiple releases, provided an integrated framework for the statistical analysis of network data: from data storage and manipulation, to visualization, estimation and simulation. Since that time the existing packages have undergone continual updates to improve and add capabilities, and many new packages have been added to extend the range of network data that can be modeled (e.g., dynamic, valued, sampled, multilevel). It is the **ergm** package, however, that provides

the statistical foundation for all of the other modeling packages in the **statnet** suite. Version 4 of **ergm**, released in 2021, is a major upgrade, representing more than a decade of changes and improvements since [Hunter, Handcock, Butts, Goodreau, and Morris \(2008b\)](#). This article describes many of the myriad new features available in **ergm** for more flexibly describing and analyzing exponential-family random graph models. It is a companion to [Krivitsky, Hunter, Morris, and Klumb \(2022\)](#), which discusses additional features and computational improvements in **ergm** version 4.

The exponential-family random graph model (ERGM) is a general statistical framework for modeling the probability of a link (or tie) between nodes in a network. It is implemented by the **ergm** package and most of its related packages in the **statnet** suite. We consider networks over a set of nodes $N = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. If $\mathbb{Y} \subseteq N \times N$ denotes a set of potential pairwise relationships among them, in the case of a binary network the sample space \mathcal{Y} of all allowable networks can be regarded as a subset of the power set $2^{\mathbb{Y}}$ of potential relationships. More generally, if \mathbb{S} is a (possibly multivariate) set of possible relationship values, the sample space $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{S}^{\mathbb{Y}}$ is a set whose elements are of the form $\{Y_{i,j} : (i, j) \in \mathbb{Y}\}$, where each $Y_{i,j}$, which we will call a dyad, maps the node pair $(i, j) \in \mathbb{Y}$ into \mathbb{S} and denotes the value of the relationship of $(i, j) \in \mathbb{Y}$.

We begin by briefly presenting the fully general ERGM framework, referring interested readers to [Schweinberger, Krivitsky, Butts, and Stewart \(2020\)](#) for additional technical details. A random network \mathbf{Y} is distributed according to an ERGM, written $\mathbf{Y} \sim \text{ERGM}_{\mathcal{Y}, h, \eta, \mathbf{g}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, if

$$P_{\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{Y}, h, \eta, \mathbf{g}}(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}) = \frac{h(\mathbf{y}) \exp\{\boldsymbol{\eta}(\boldsymbol{\theta})^\top \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y})\}}{\kappa_{h, \eta, \mathbf{g}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{Y})}, \quad \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}. \quad (1)$$

In (1), $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is a q -dimensional parameter vector and $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ is a mapping from $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ to the p -vector of canonical parameters. In many cases we simply have $\boldsymbol{\eta}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \boldsymbol{\theta}$, an exception being when our model is curved ([Hunter and Handcock 2006](#)). The factor $h(\mathbf{y})$ is a reference measure, which is typically a constant and thus ignorable in the case of binary ERGMs. The value $\kappa_{h, \eta, \mathbf{g}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{Y})$ ensures that (1) defines a legitimate probability mass function, which implies $\sum_{\mathbf{y}' \in \mathcal{Y}} h(\mathbf{y}') \exp\{\boldsymbol{\eta}(\boldsymbol{\theta})^\top \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}')\}$.

Many of the features of **ergm** and the related packages that comprise the **statnet** suite address the statistical complications that arise from modeling network data using special cases of the ERGM in (1). For instance, the statistical framework implemented in **ergm** is computationally intensive for models that specify dyadic dependence, when $P_{\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{Y}, h, \eta, \mathbf{g}}(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y})$ cannot be decomposed into a product of simple functions of $y_{i,j}$. In this case, the package relies on a central Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm for estimation and simulation, along with maximum pseudo-likelihood estimation, contrastive divergence, and simulated annealing (SAN) in some contexts. Substantial improvements have been made to all of these algorithms, producing efficiency and speed gains of up to several orders of magnitude ([Krivitsky et al. 2022](#)). This article describes the most important new capabilities that have been added to **ergm** and its related packages since volume 24 of *Journal of Statistical Software* appeared in 2008. This includes both the capabilities introduced in the version 4 release itself and in releases 2.2.0–3.10.4, which postdate the *Journal of Statistical Software* volume. Versions in which each new capability was introduced can be obtained by running `news(package = "ergm")`.

In the examples throughout the article, we assume the reader is familiar with the basic syntax and features of **ergm** included in the 2008 *Journal of Statistical Software* volume. In some

cases we demonstrate new, more general, functionality by comparison, using the old syntax and the new to produce the same result, then moving on with the new syntax to demonstrate the additional utilities.

The source code for the latest version of the **ergm** package (Handcock, Hunter, Butts, Goodreau, Krivitsky, and Morris 2023), along with the LICENSE information under GPL-3, is available at <https://github.com/statnet/ergm>. The package is also available from the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN) at <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=ergm>. We have included **ergm** 4.4.0 with this manuscript, which uses **Sweave** along with the **knitr** package (Xie 2022).

2. Extension packages in the statnet suite

The statistical models supported by the **statnet** suite have been extended by a growing number of new packages that provide additional functionality in the general ERGM framework. While the focus of this article is the base **ergm** package, in this section we provide a brief overview of the extension packages and their specific applications. Open source package development is on GitHub, accessible at <https://statnet.org/>. Online tutorials, found at <https://statnet.org/workshops/>, exist for **ergm** and many of these extension packages, and most packages also include extended vignettes. Some of the key extension packages, and the resources that support them, include:

Building custom terms for models: One of the unique aspects of this modeling framework is that each network statistic in an ERGM requires a specialized algorithm for computing the value of the statistic from the data. The **ergm** package has over 150 of the most common terms encoded – see `vignette("ergm-term-crossRef")` or `help("ergmTerm")` for the full list – but the existing terms are a small subset of the possible terms one can use in an ERGM. For those who need a custom term, the package **ergm.userterms** (Hunter, Goodreau, and Handcock 2013) is designed to simplify the process of coding up new terms for use in ERG model specification. Online workshop materials provide an overview of the process, and demonstrate the use of this package (Hunter and Goodreau 2019).

Modeling temporal (dynamic) network data: The **statnet** suite (Handcock, Hunter, Butts, Goodreau, and Morris 2008) contains several packages that provide a robust framework for storing, visualizing, describing and modeling temporal network data: The **networkDynamic** (Butts, Leslie-Cook, Krivitsky, and Bender-deMoll 2022) package extends **network** (Butts 2008a) to provide data storage and management utilities, the **tsna** package (Bender-deMoll and Morris 2021) extends **sna** (Butts 2008b) to provide descriptive statistics for network objects that change over time, the **ndtv** package (Bender-deMoll 2022) provides a wide range of utilities for visualizing dynamic networks and saving both static and animated output in standard formats, and **tergm** (Krivitsky and Handcock 2022b) extends **ergm** to fit the class of separable temporal ERGMs, from both sampled and fully observed network data (Krivitsky and Handcock 2014). There are two online workshops that demonstrate these tools: one that demonstrates a typical workflow from data inspection to temporal modeling (Morris and Krivitsky 2015), and another that focuses on descriptive analyses and visualization (Bender-deMoll 2016).

Modeling valued edges: The **ergm** package itself contains a framework for modeling real-valued edges (see Section 6 and Section 4). Other packages provide specialized components for specific types of valued edges: **ergm.count** for counts (Krivitsky 2022a) and **ergm.rank** for ordered categories (Krivitsky 2022d). The relevant theory supporting these packages may be found in Krivitsky (2012) and Krivitsky and Butts (2017), respectively. **latentnet** for latent space models (Krivitsky and Handcock 2022a) also supports non-binary responses, although in a somewhat different manner (Krivitsky and Handcock 2008; Krivitsky, Handcock, Raftery, and Hoff 2009). Package vignettes and online workshop materials provide an overview of the theory, and demonstrate the use of these packages (Krivitsky and Butts 2019).

Working with egocentrically sampled network data: In the social and health sciences, egocentrically sampled network data is the most common form of data available, because it can be collected using standard sample survey methods. The **ergm.ego** package (Krivitsky 2022b) provides methods for estimating ERGMs from egocentrically sampled network data, with a principled framework for statistical inference. The theory and an application of these methods may be found in Krivitsky and Morris (2017). Online workshop materials provide an overview of the framework and demonstrate the use of the package (Morris and Krivitsky 2019).

Multimode, multilayer, and multilevel networks: In the social sciences, it is increasingly common to collect and fit ERGMs on data on multiple relationship types (Wang 2012; Krivitsky, Koehly, and Marcum 2020) and ensembles of networks (Slaughter and Koehly 2016). These capabilities are implemented in an extension package **ergm.multi** (Krivitsky 2022c).

Modeling diffusion and epidemics on networks: One of the most active application areas for ERGMs and TERGMs (temporal exponential-family random graph models) is in the field of epidemic modeling. The **EpiModel** package (Jenness, Goodreau, and Morris 2018) is built on the **statnet** platform, and provides a unique set of tools for statistically principled modeling of epidemics on networks. A robust set of online training materials is available at the **EpiModel** website (<https://www.epimodel.org/>).

3. Enhanced handling of nodal covariates

Version 4 of **ergm** standardizes and provides greater flexibility for handling covariates used by terms in an ERGM. In particular, these covariates can be modified “on-the-fly” during model specification. A vignette called **nodal_attributes** is included in the package and illustrates some of the new capabilities.

Here, we describe some of these enhancements using **ergm**’s **faux.mesa.high** dataset, a simulated in-school friendship network based on data collected on 205 students. We will focus on the **Grade** attribute, an ordinal categorical variable with values 7 through 12 that can be accessed via the **%v%** operator:

```
R> data("faux.mesa.high", package = "ergm")
R> (faux.mesa.high %v% "Grade")[1:20]
```

```
[1] 7 7 11 8 10 10 8 11 9 9 9 11 9 11 8 10 10 7 10 7
```

Grade level is typical of the kind of covariate used to model selective mixing in social networks: different hypotheses lead to different model specifications. **ergm** 4 provides greater flexibility than earlier versions of **ergm** to easily define and explore different specifications.

We will sometimes call `summary()` and other times call `ergm()` to demonstrate the functionality and output below.

3.1. Transformations of covariates

It is sometimes desirable to specify a transformation of a nodal attribute as a covariate in a model term. Most **ergm** terms now support a new user interface, inspired by **purrr** (Henry and Wickham 2020), to specify transformations on one or more nodal attributes. Terms typically use this new interface via arguments called `attr`, `attrs`, `by`, or `on`; the interpretation of the argument depends on its type:

Character string: Extract the vertex attribute with this name.

Character vector of length greater than 1: Extract the vertex attributes and paste them together, separated by dots if the term expects categorical attributes and (typically) combine into a covariate matrix if it expects quantitative attributes.

Function: The function is called on the network on the left-hand side of the main **ergm** formula and is expected to return a vector or matrix of appropriate dimension. Shorter vectors and matrix columns will be recycled as needed.

Formula: Borrowing the interface from **tidyverse** (Wickham *et al.* 2019), the expression on the right hand side of the formula is evaluated in an environment of the vertex attributes of the network, expected to return a vector or matrix of appropriate dimension. Shorter vectors and matrix columns will be recycled as needed. Within this expression, the network itself is accessible as either `.` or `.nw`.

'AsIs' object created by I(): Use as is, checking only for correct length and type, with optional attribute `"name"` providing the predictor's name.

For instance, here are three ways – as a string, formula, and function, respectively – to compute the value of

$$g(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} y_{i,j} (\text{Grade}_i + \text{Grade}_j),$$

which in an ERGM may be interpreted as the linear effect of grade on overall activity of an actor:

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodecov("Grade") + nodecov(~Grade) +
+   nodecov(function(nw) nw %v% "Grade"))
```

```
nodecov.Grade      nodecov.Grade nodecov.nw%v%"Grade"
      3491              3491              3491
```

Here is a more complicated formula-based use of `nodecov` that defines the statistic to be

$$g(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} y_{i,j} \left(\frac{|\text{Grade}_i - \overline{\text{Grade}}|}{n} + \frac{|\text{Grade}_j - \overline{\text{Grade}}|}{n} \right), \quad (2)$$

where n is the number of nodes, i.e., the `network.size`, of the network:

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodecov(~ abs(Grade - mean(Grade)) /
+   network.size(.)))
```

```
nodecov.abs(Grade-mean(Grade))/network.size(.)
                2.856514
```

Removing the absolute values from (2) gives a different result:

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodecov(~ (Grade - mean(Grade)) /
+   network.size(.)))
```

```
nodecov.(Grade-mean(Grade))/network.size(.)
                -0.2637716
```

The non-zero output of the statistic above may be counterintuitive at first. The value of `mean(Grade)` is indeed equal to the mean of the `faux.mesa.high %v% "Grade"` vector, or 8.7317073, as we might expect. Yet for a given node i , the network statistic sums the value of $(\text{Grade}_i - \overline{\text{Grade}})$ not once, but rather $\text{degree}(i)$, times, giving in a non-zero result.

Taking advantage of `nodecov`'s new ability to take matrix-valued arguments, we might also evaluate a polynomial effect of `Grade`, as in the following quadratic example:¹

```
R> coef(summary(ergm(faux.mesa.high ~ edges +
+   nodecov(~ cbind(Grade, Grade2 = Grade^2))))))
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	z value	Pr(> z)
edges	8.7297963	3.52880543	0	2.473867	0.0133659343
nodecov.Grade	-1.4597723	0.39614405	0	-3.684953	0.0002287445
nodecov.Grade2	0.0768836	0.02154632	0	3.568294	0.0003593133

In the code above, the column for `Grade^2` is explicitly named `Grade2` whereas the row for `Grade` is named implicitly by R itself. Omitting the name for a row not otherwise named by R would result in a warning, as it is good practice to name all variables in the model.

Alternatively, we can use `stats::poly` for orthogonal polynomials. Here, the test for significance of the quadratic term is identical to the non-orthogonal example, up to rounding error (though the estimate is different given the orthogonal specification):

```
R> coef(summary(ergm(faux.mesa.high ~ edges + nodecov(~ poly(Grade, 2))))))
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	z value	Pr(> z)
edges	-4.662459	0.07309281	0	-63.788207	0.0000000000
nodecov.poly(Grade,2).1	-1.207241	0.68018706	0	-1.774866	0.0759199607
nodecov.poly(Grade,2).2	2.512615	0.70416949	0	3.568196	0.0003594477

¹For this and other summaries, we omit the call information, deviances, and significance stars in the interests of space. The full summary information can be obtained by omitting `coef()` around the `summary()` call.

We can even pass a nodal covariate that is not already contained in the network object. This example randomly generates a binary-valued nodal covariate and sets its `name` attribute to be used as a label:

```
R> set.seed(123)
R> randomcov <- structure(rbinom(network.size(faux.mesa.high), 1, 0.5),
+   name = "random")
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodefactor(I(randomcov)))
```

```
nodefactor.random.1
      199
```

This syntax therefore allows for simulation or estimation of models with inputs taken from arbitrary R functions or data sources, facilitating the incorporation of ERGMs into more general tool chains.

3.2. Coding categorical attributes

For model terms that use categorical attributes, **ergm** 4 has extended the methods for selecting and/or transforming levels via the use of the argument `levels`. Some terms, such as the `sender` and `receiver` statistics of the p_1 model (Holland and Leinhardt 1981) and the corresponding `sociality` statistics for undirected networks, treat the node labels themselves as a categorical attribute. These terms use the `nodes` argument, rather than the `levels` argument, to select a subset of the nodes.

Typically, `levels` or `nodes` has a default that is sensible for the term in question. (Information about the defaults of a term `[name]` may be obtained by typing `help("[name]-ergmTerm")` or `ergmTerm?[name]`.) Interpretation of the possible values of the `levels` and `nodes` arguments is available by typing `help(nodal_attributes)`. This interpretation is summarized as follows:

'AsIs' object created by `I()`: Use the given level, list of levels, or vector of levels as is.

Numeric or logical vector: Used for indexing of a list of all possible levels (typically, unique values of the attribute) in default order (typically lexicographic). Logical values are recycled to the length of the vector indexed. In particular, `levels = TRUE` retains all levels. Negative values exclude. To specify numeric or logical levels literally, wrap them in `I()`.

`NULL`: Retain all possible levels; usually equivalent to passing `TRUE`.

Character vector: Use the given level(s) as is.

Function: The function is called in an environment in which the network itself is accessible as `.nw`, the list of unique values of the attribute as `.` or as `.levels`, and the attribute vector itself as `.attr`. Its return value is interpreted as above.

Formula: The expression on the right hand side of the formula is evaluated in an environment in which the network itself is accessible as `.nw`, the list of unique values of the attribute as `.` or as `.levels`, and the attribute vector itself as `.attr`. Its return value is interpreted as above.

Predefined function: For convenience, a number of useful functions have been predefined. `LARGEST`, which refers to the most frequent category, so, say, to set such a category as the baseline, pass `levels = -LARGEST`. `LARGEST(n)` will refer to the `n` largest categories. `SMALLEST` works analogously, and ties in frequencies are broken arbitrarily.

Returning to the `faux.mesa.high` example, we may treat `Grade` as a categorical variable even though its values are numeric. We see that `Grade` has six levels, numbered from 7 to 12:

```
R> table(faux.mesa.high %v% "Grade")
```

```
 7  8  9 10 11 12
62 40 42 25 24 12
```

We may exclude the three smallest levels or, equivalently, include levels 7, 8, and 9. Below are five of the myriad ways to do this in the context of computing basic categorical effects on node activity, implemented by `nodefactor`. In the second expression, `I()` is necessary so that `7:9` is not treated as a vector of indices.

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodefactor(~ Grade, levels = -SMALLEST(3)))
```

```
nodefactor.Grade.7 nodefactor.Grade.8 nodefactor.Grade.9
                153                 75                 65
```

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodefactor(~ Grade, levels = I(7:9)))
```

```
nodefactor.Grade.7 nodefactor.Grade.8 nodefactor.Grade.9
                153                 75                 65
```

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodefactor(~ Grade,
+   levels = c("7", "8", "9")))

```

```
nodefactor.Grade.7 nodefactor.Grade.8 nodefactor.Grade.9
                153                 75                 65
```

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodefactor("Grade",
+   levels = function(a) a %in% 7:9))

```

```
nodefactor.Grade.7 nodefactor.Grade.8 nodefactor.Grade.9
                153                 75                 65
```

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodefactor("Grade", levels = ~. %in% 7:9))

```

```
nodefactor.Grade.7 nodefactor.Grade.8 nodefactor.Grade.9
                153                 75                 65
```

Any of the arguments of Section 3.1 may also be wrapped in `COLLAPSE_SMALLEST(attr, n, into)`, a convenience function that will transform the attribute by collapsing the `n` least frequent categories into one, naming it according to the `into` argument where `into` must be of the same type (numeric, character, etc.) as the vertex attribute in question. Consider the `Race` factor of the `faux.mesa.high` network, where we use `levels = TRUE` to display all levels since the default is `levels = -1`:

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodefactor("Race", levels = TRUE))

nodefactor.Race.Black  nodefactor.Race.Hisp  nodefactor.Race.NatAm
                        26                    178                    156
nodefactor.Race.Other  nodefactor.Race.White
                        1                      45
```

Because the `Hisp` and `NatAm` categories are so much larger than the other three categories in this network, we may wish to combine the `Black`, `White`, and `Other` categories. The code below accomplishes this using `COLLAPSE_SMALLEST` while also demonstrating how to use the pipe function, `%>%`, from the `magrittr` package (Bache and Wickham 2022) for improved readability:

```
R> library("magrittr")
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodefactor((~ Race) %>%
+   COLLAPSE_SMALLEST(3, "BWO"), levels = TRUE))

nodefactor.Race.BWO  nodefactor.Race.Hisp  nodefactor.Race.NatAm
                      72                    178                    156
```

3.3. Mixing matrices

Mixing matrices, which refer to the cross-tabulation of all edges by the categorical attributes of the two nodes, are a common feature in models that seek to represent selective mixing. The `mm` model term, which stands for “mixing matrix”, generalizes the familiar `nodemix` term from the original `ergm` implementation for this purpose. Like `nodemix`, `mm` creates statistics consisting of the cells of a matrix of counts in which the columns and rows correspond to the levels of two categorical nodal covariates. For `mm`, however, these covariates may or may not be the same, making it more general. We use it here to demonstrate the `levels2` argument. Typing `help("mm-ergmTerm")` or, equivalently, `ergmTerm?mm`, shows that the binary-network version of the term takes the form `mm(attrs, levels = NULL, levels2 = -1)`. The `attrs` argument is a two-sided formula where the left and right sides are the rows and columns, respectively, of the mixing matrix; if only a one-sided formula or attribute name is given then the rows and columns are taken to be the same. The optional `levels` argument can similarly be a one- or two-sided formula, and it specifies the levels of the row and column variables to keep. Finally, the optional `levels2` argument may be used to select only a subset of the matrix of statistics resulting from `attrs` and `levels`.

Using this functionality, we may specify custom mixing patterns that depend upon attribute values. For instance, if we believe that the break between junior high school (grades 7–9) and

high school (grades 10–12) creates a barrier to friendships across the boundary, we can create an indicator variable `Grade ≥ 10`, then compute a mixing matrix on that variable using `mm` using a single call

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ mm(~ Grade >= 10))
```

```
mm[Grade>=10=FALSE,Grade>=10=TRUE] mm[Grade>=10=TRUE,Grade>=10=TRUE]
                                27                                43
```

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ mm(~ Grade >= 10, levels2 = NULL))
```

```
mm[Grade>=10=FALSE,Grade>=10=FALSE] mm[Grade>=10=FALSE,Grade>=10=TRUE]
                                133                                27
mm[Grade>=10=TRUE,Grade>=10=TRUE]
                                43
```

The `Grade >= 10` indicator variable is `FALSE` (for junior high school) and `TRUE` (for high school), and with the undirected friendships, this produces three possible combinations of the grade indicator – `FALSE/FALSE`, `FALSE/TRUE`, and `TRUE/TRUE`. For the default specification, `levels = NULL` keeps all levels of the `Grade >= 10` indicator variable and `levels2 = -1` eliminates the first statistic (`FALSE/FALSE`) in the set of 3. For the modified specification, the `levels2 = NULL` argument keeps all of the statistics.

We can also use the `mm` formula interface to filter out certain statistics from the full set of potential comparisons. An example from the `nodal_attributes` vignette within the **ergm** package using the unmodified `Grade` attribute defines `levels2` as a one-sided formula whose right side is a function that returns `TRUE` or `FALSE`, depending on whether both elements of `.levels` – the list of values taken by a pair of nodes – are in the set `c(7, 8)`. The example therefore captures mixing statistics only involving students in grades 7 or 8:

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ mm("Grade", levels2 = ~ sapply(.levels,
+   function(pair) pair[[1]] %in% c(7, 8) && pair[[2]] %in% c(7, 8))))
```

```
mm[Grade=7,Grade=7] mm[Grade=7,Grade=8] mm[Grade=8,Grade=8]
                    75                    0                    33
```

Here is an equivalent formulation using both `levels` and `levels2` in concert:

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ mm(~ Grade, levels = TRUE ~ c("7","8"),
+   levels2 = NULL))
```

```
mm[Grade=7,Grade=7] mm[Grade=7,Grade=8] mm[Grade=8,Grade=8]
                    75                    0                    33
```

Finally, we give an example using two covariates, allowing us to capture the tendency of sets of individuals defined by values of `Grade` to mix with sets of individuals defined by values of `Race`:

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ mm(Grade >= 10 ~ Race,
+   levels = TRUE ~ c("Hispanic", "NatAm", "White")))

mm[Grade>=10=TRUE,Race=Hispanic] mm[Grade>=10=FALSE,Race=NatAm]
                                43                                115
mm[Grade>=10=TRUE,Race=NatAm] mm[Grade>=10=FALSE,Race=White]
                                41                                30
mm[Grade>=10=TRUE,Race=White]
                                15
```

With all values of `Grade >= 10` (i.e., `FALSE` and `TRUE`) and three values of `Race` allowed according to the `levels` argument, the full mixing matrix here would include 2×3 statistics, though the default `levels2 = -1` omits the first of these so there is no `Grade>=10=FALSE,Race=Hispanic` statistic. When interpreting mixing matrix effects of this type, bear in mind that two covariates need not partition the vertex set in the same ways. Here, for instance, there can be students both above and below grade 10 with each race/ethnicity.

The `nodemix` term can do many of the same things that `mm` can do. For both terms, `levels2` can take a matrix as input; in particular, for `nodemix` this argument can take character matrices to map multiple cells to the same statistic. For instance, in the `faux.mesa.high` dataset, if we want to group all sex-homophilous (male-male or female-female) ties together in the same statistic while keeping the heterophilous (male-female) ties separate, we can pass to `levels2` a 2×2 matrix with matching non-blank entries along the diagonal and blanks off the diagonal:

```
R> m <- matrix(c("homophilous", "", "", "homophilous"), 2, 2)
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodemix("Sex", levels2 = m))

mix.Sex.homophilous      mix.Sex.F.M
                        132                71
```

4. Term operators

`ergm` 4 introduces a new way to augment an `ergm` function call that we call a *term operator*, or simply *operator*. In mathematics, an operator is a function, like differentiation, that takes functions as its inputs; analogously, a term operator takes one or more ERGM formulas as input and transforms them by modifying their inputs and/or outputs. Most operators therefore have a general form `X(formula, ...)` where `X` is the name of the operator, typically capitalized, `formula` is a one-sided formula specifying the network statistics to be evaluated, and the remaining arguments control the transformation applied to the network before `formula` is evaluated and/or to the transformation applied to the network statistics obtained by evaluating `formula`. Operators are documented alongside other terms, accessible as `help("[name]-ergmTerm")` or `ergmTerm?[name]`, and we describe some frequently used operators below.

4.1. Network filters

Several operators allow the user to evaluate model terms on filtered versions of the network, i.e., on particular subsets of the existing nodes and/or edges.

Filtering edges

The operator `F(formula, filter)` evaluates the terms in `formula` on a filtered network, with filtering specified by `filter`. Here, `filter` is the right-hand side of a formula that must contain one binary dyad-independent *ergm* term, having exactly one statistic with a dyadwise contribution of 0 for a 0-valued dyad. That is, the term must be expressible as

$$g(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} f_{i,j}(y_{i,j}), \quad (3)$$

where for all possible (i, j) , $f_{i,j}(0) = 0$. One may verify that condition (3) implies that an ERGM containing the single term $g(\mathbf{y})$ has the property that the dyads $Y_{i,j}$ are jointly independent, which is why such a term is called “dyad-independent”. Examples of such terms include `nodemix`, `nodematch`, `nodefactor`, `nodecov`, and `edgescov`. Then, `formula` will be evaluated on a network constructed by taking \mathbf{y} and keeping only those edges for which $f_{i,j}(y_{i,j}) \neq 0$. This predicate can be modified slightly by very simple comparison or logical expressions in the `filter` formula. In particular, placing `!` in front of the term negates it (i.e., keep (i, j) only if $f_{i,j}(y_{i,j}) = 0$) and comparison operators (`==`, `<`, etc.) allow comparing $f_{i,j}(y_{i,j})$ to values other than 0.

Sampson’s Monks (Sampson 1968) can provide illustrative examples. *ergm* includes a version of these data reporting cumulative liking nominations over the three time periods Sampson asked a group of monks to identify those they liked. This directed, 18-node network is depicted in Figure 1.

```
R> set.seed(2345)
R> data("sampson", package = "ergm")
R> lab <- paste0(1:18, " ", substr(samplike %v% "group", 1, 1), ": ",
+   samplike %v% "vertex.names")
R> plot(samplike, displaylabels = TRUE, label = lab)
```

As an example of the `F` operator, the code below uses four different methods to summarize the number of ties between pairs of nodes in the `Turks` group in the `samplike` dataset:

```
R> summary(samplike ~ nodematch("group", diff = TRUE, levels = "Turks") +
+   F(~ nodematch("group"), ~ nodefactor("group", levels = "Turks"))
+   F(~ edges, ~ nodefactor("group", levels = "Turks") == 2)
+   F(~ edges, ~ !nodefactor(~ group != "Turks")))

      nodematch.group.Turks
      30
F(nodefactor("group", levels="Turks"))~nodematch.group
      30
      F(nodefactor("group", levels="Turks")==2)~edges
      30
      F(!nodefactor(~group!="Turks"))~edges
      30
```

Here, the third method works because this particular $f_{i,j}(y_{i,j})$ counts how many of the two nodes i and j are `Turks`, and so equals 2 if and only if both are; and the fourth method works because the new $f_{i,j}(y_{i,j})$ is 0 only if neither i nor j is a non-`Turks` node.

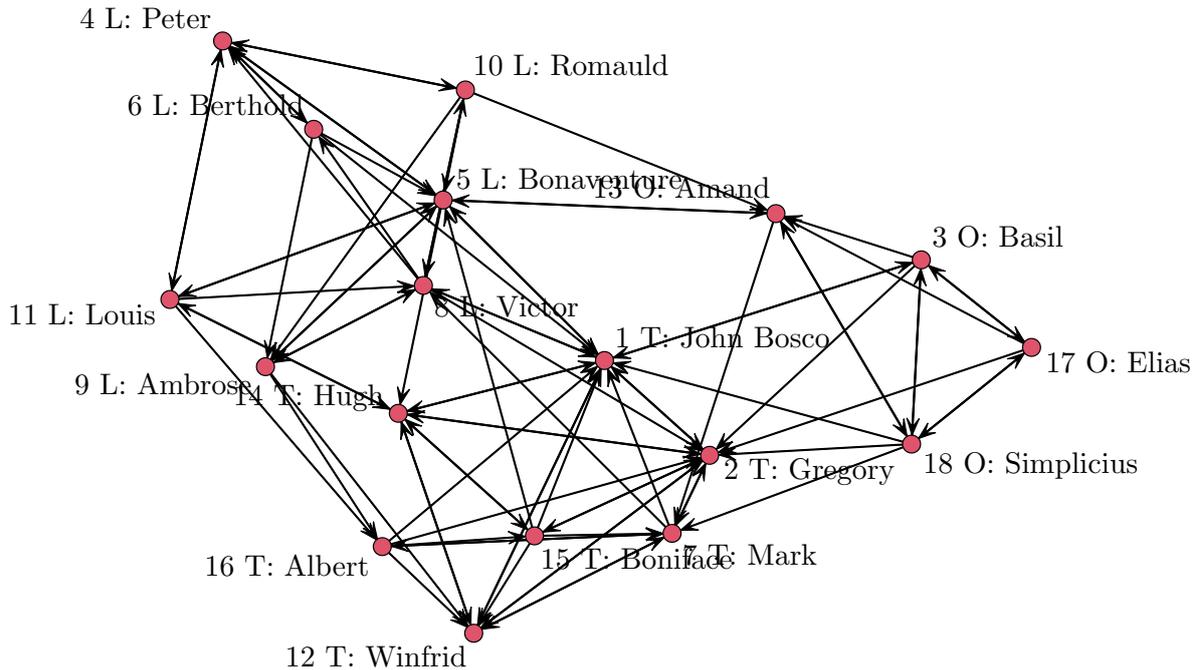


Figure 1: The monks dataset, with edges indicating directed liking relationships at any of three time points and nodes numbered from 1 to 18 and with group membership as assigned by Sampson indicated by L for “Loyalists”, O for “Outcasts”, and T for “Young Turks”.

It is also possible to filter on a quantitative variable. For instance, an alternative way to count the number of edges in `faux.mesa.high` that match on “Grade” is to report total edges after filtering by node pairs whose absolute difference on the “Grade” variable is less than 1:

```
R> cbind(summary(faux.mesa.high ~ nodematch("Grade") ),
+        summary(faux.mesa.high ~ F(~ edges, ~ absdiff("Grade") < 1)))

          [,1] [,2]
nodematch.Grade 163 163
```

While `filter` must be dyad-independent, `formula` can have dyad-dependent terms as well. For instance, we may count the transitive triples – i.e., triples (i, j, k) where $y_{i,j} = y_{j,k} = y_{i,k} = 1$ – in the `samplike` network, then perform the same count on the subnetwork consisting only of those edges connecting two monks not in attendance in the minor seminary of Cloisterville before coming to the monastery:

```
R> summary(samplike ~ ttriple +
+        F(~ ttriple, ~ nodefactor("cloisterville") == 0))

          ttriple
          154
F(nodefactor("cloisterville")==0)~ttriple
          12
```

Treating directed networks as undirected

The operator `Symmetrize(formula, rule)` evaluates the terms in `formula` on an undirected network constructed by symmetrizing the underlying directed network according to `rule`. The possible values of `rule`, which match the terminology of the `symmetrize` function of the `sna` package, are (a) “weak”, (b) “strong”, (c) “upper”, and (d) “lower”; for any $i < j$, these four values result in an undirected tie between i and j if and only if (a) either $y_{i,j}$ or $y_{j,i}$ equals 1, (b) both $y_{i,j}$ and $y_{j,i}$ equal 1, (c) $y_{i,j} = 1$, and (d) $y_{j,i} = 1$. For example, the four possible symmetrized values of the `samplike ~ edges` statistic are as follows:

```
R> cbind(summary(samplike ~ Symmetrize(~ edges, "weak") +
+   Symmetrize(~ edges, "strong") + Symmetrize(~ edges, "upper") +
+   Symmetrize(~ edges, "lower")))
      [,1]
Symmetrize(weak)~edges      60
Symmetrize(strong)~edges   28
Symmetrize(upper)~edges    36
Symmetrize(lower)~edges    52
```

We may verify that both “weak” plus “strong” and “upper” plus “lower” yield the total number of directed edges, which in this case equals 88.

Extracting subgraphs

The operator `S(formula, attrs)` evaluates the terms in `formula` on an induced subgraph constructed from vertices identified by `attrs`. The `attrs` argument either takes a value as explained in Section 3.2 for the `nodes` argument or, to obtain a bipartite network, a two-sided formula with the left-hand side specifying the tails and the right-hand side specifying the heads. For instance, suppose that we wish to model the density and mutuality dynamics within the group “Young Turks” as different from those of the rest of the network:

```
R> coef(summary(ergm(samplike ~ edges + mutual +
+   S(~ edges + mutual, ~ (group == "Turks")),
+   control = snctrl(seed = 123))))
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	z value	Pr(> z)
edges	-2.007074	0.2377493	0	-8.441979	3.120095e-17
mutual	2.351613	0.4996500	0	4.706519	2.519819e-06
S((group=="Turks"))~edges	2.812378	0.8650057	0	3.251282	1.148857e-03
S((group=="Turks"))~mutual	-2.165222	1.1965294	0	-1.809585	7.036009e-02

Thus, the density within the group is statistically significantly higher, whereas the reciprocity within the group is lower, though not statistically significantly at the 5% level.

As another example, illustrated in Figure 2, consider the directed edges from “non-Young Turks” to “Young Turks”. Creating the induced subgraph from these edges results in a bipartite network – which is always taken to be undirected even though the edges were originally directed – we may count the number of four-cycles:

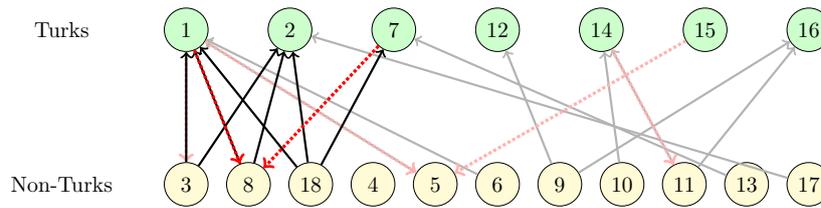


Figure 2: A bipartite induced subgraph between Turks (green) and Non-Turks (yellow). Edges involved in at least one undirected 4-cycle are emphasized. When directed edges from “Non-Turks” to “Turks” (black) are viewed as bipartite (undirected) edges, we obtain 4-cycles (3, 1, 18, 2), (3, 1, 8, 2), and (8, 1, 18, 2). When directed edges from “Turks” to “Non-Turks” (dotted red) are also included, we obtain the additional 4-cycles (8, 1, 18, 7) and (8, 2, 18, 7).

```
R> summary(samplike ~ S(~ cycle(4), (group != "Turks") ~ (group == "Turks")))
```

```
S((group!="Turks"),(group=="Turks"))~cycle4
3
```

On the other hand, if we treat the original network as undirected using `Symmetrize` before creating the induced bipartite subgraph, we see additional four-cycles. This example also illustrates that term operators may be nested arbitrarily:

```
R> summary(samplike ~ Symmetrize(~S(~cycle(4), (group != "Turks") ~
+ (group == "Turks")), "weak"))
```

```
Symmetrize(weak)~S((group!="Turks"),(group=="Turks"))~cycle4
5
```

Finally, we illustrate a common use case in which `Symmetrize` is used to analyze mutuality in a directed network as a function of a predictor. The `faux.dixon.high` dataset is a directed friendship network of seventh through twelfth graders. Suppose we wish to check how strongly the tendency toward mutuality in friendships is affected by students’ closeness in grade level.

```
R> data("faux.dixon.high", package = "ergm")
R> FDHfit <- ergm(faux.dixon.high ~ edges + mutual + absdiff("grade") +
+ Symmetrize(~ absdiff("grade"), "strong"), control = snctrl(seed = 321))
R> coef(summary(FDHfit))
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	z value
edges	-3.2468082	0.05110162	0	-63.536313
mutual	3.2407587	0.12095858	0	26.792301
absdiff.grade	-0.9145735	0.04309196	0	-21.223763
Symmetrize(strong)~absdiff.grade	-0.4237874	0.18035755	0	-2.349707
	Pr(> z)			
edges	0.000000e+00			
mutual	3.972740e-158			
absdiff.grade	5.762326e-100			
Symmetrize(strong)~absdiff.grade	1.878819e-02			

After correcting for the overall network density, the propensity for friendships to be reciprocated, and the predictive effect of grade difference on friendship formation, the difference in grade level has a statistically significant negative effect on the tendency to form mutual friendships (p value = 0.019).

4.2. Interaction effects

For binary ERGMs, interactions between dyad-independent *ergm* terms can be specified in a manner similar to *lm* and *glm* via the `:` and `*` operators. (See Section 4.1 for a definition of dyad-independent.)

Let us first consider the colon (`:`) operator. Generally, if term **A** creates p_A statistics and term **B** creates p_B statistics, then **A:B** will create $p_A \times p_B$ new statistics. If **A** and **B** are dyad-independent terms, expressed for $a = 1, \dots, p_A$ and $b = 1, \dots, p_B$ as

$$g_A(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} x_{i,j}^A y_{i,j} \quad \text{and} \quad g_B(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} x_{i,j}^B y_{i,j}$$

for appropriate covariate matrices X^A and X^B , then the corresponding interaction term is

$$g_{A:B}(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} x_{i,j}^A x_{i,j}^B y_{i,j}. \quad (4)$$

As an example, consider the **Grade** and **Sex** effects, expressed as model terms via `nodefactor`, in the `faux.mesa.high` dataset:

```
R> summary(faux.mesa.high ~
+   nodefactor("Grade"):nodefactor("Sex", levels = TRUE))

nodefactor.Grade.8:nodefactor.Sex.F   nodefactor.Grade.9:nodefactor.Sex.F
                                     51                                     67
nodefactor.Grade.10:nodefactor.Sex.F  nodefactor.Grade.11:nodefactor.Sex.F
                                     26                                     60
nodefactor.Grade.12:nodefactor.Sex.F  nodefactor.Grade.8:nodefactor.Sex.M
                                     30                                     99
nodefactor.Grade.9:nodefactor.Sex.M   nodefactor.Grade.10:nodefactor.Sex.M
                                     63                                     46
nodefactor.Grade.11:nodefactor.Sex.M  nodefactor.Grade.12:nodefactor.Sex.M
                                     38                                     26
```

In the call above, we deliberately include both **Sex**-factor levels via `levels = TRUE`, whereas we employ the default behavior of `nodefactor` for the **Grade** factor, which leaves out one level. Thus, the 6-level **Grade** factor and the 2-level **Sex** factor, with one level of the former omitted, produce 5×2 interaction terms in this example.

The `*` operator, by contrast, produces all interactions in addition to the main effects or statistics. Therefore, in the scenario described above, **A * B** will add $p_A + p_B + p_A \times p_B$ statistics to the model. Below, we use the default behavior of `nodefactor` on both the 6-level **Grade** factor and the 2-level **Sex** factor, together with an additional `edges` term, to produce a model with $1 + 5 + 1 + 5 \times 1$ terms:

```
R> m <- ergm(faux.mesa.high ~ edges + nodefactor("Grade") * nodefactor("Sex"))
R> print(summary(m), digits = 3)
```

Call:

```
ergm(formula = faux.mesa.high ~ edges + nodefactor("Grade") *
      nodefactor("Sex"))
```

Maximum Likelihood Results:

	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	z value
edges	-3.028	0.173	0	-17.53
nodefactor.Grade.8	-1.424	0.263	0	-5.41
nodefactor.Grade.9	-1.166	0.229	0	-5.10
nodefactor.Grade.10	-1.633	0.357	0	-4.58
nodefactor.Grade.11	-0.328	0.237	0	-1.38
nodefactor.Grade.12	-0.794	0.324	0	-2.45
nodefactor.Sex.M	-1.764	0.240	0	-7.36
nodefactor.Grade.8:nodefactor.Sex.M	1.386	0.202	0	6.86
nodefactor.Grade.9:nodefactor.Sex.M	1.012	0.211	0	4.79
nodefactor.Grade.10:nodefactor.Sex.M	1.347	0.264	0	5.11
nodefactor.Grade.11:nodefactor.Sex.M	0.419	0.240	0	1.75
nodefactor.Grade.12:nodefactor.Sex.M	1.059	0.290	0	3.65

	Pr(> z)
edges	< 1e-04 ***
nodefactor.Grade.8	< 1e-04 ***
nodefactor.Grade.9	< 1e-04 ***
nodefactor.Grade.10	< 1e-04 ***
nodefactor.Grade.11	0.16714
nodefactor.Grade.12	0.01429 *
nodefactor.Sex.M	< 1e-04 ***
nodefactor.Grade.8:nodefactor.Sex.M	< 1e-04 ***
nodefactor.Grade.9:nodefactor.Sex.M	< 1e-04 ***
nodefactor.Grade.10:nodefactor.Sex.M	< 1e-04 ***
nodefactor.Grade.11:nodefactor.Sex.M	0.08074 .
nodefactor.Grade.12:nodefactor.Sex.M	0.00026 ***

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Null Deviance: 28987 on 20910 degrees of freedom
Residual Deviance: 2189 on 20898 degrees of freedom

AIC: 2213 BIC: 2308 (Smaller is better. MC Std. Err. = 0)

Equation 4 implies that the change statistic corresponding to dyad (i, j) is given by $x_{i,j}^A x_{i,j}^B$; that is, the change statistic for the interaction is the product of the change statistics. One may define interaction change statistics for arbitrary pairs of terms similarly – that is, by taking the interaction change statistic as the product of the corresponding change statistics

– though in the case of dyad-dependent terms it is unclear that a change statistic obtained as the product of change statistics corresponds to any ERGM sufficient statistic in the sense of (1). Therefore, attempting to create interactions involving dyad-dependent terms will create an error by default in **ergm**. If one wishes to create such interactions anyway, the default behavior may be changed using the `interact.dependent` term option as described in Section 8.6. Interactions involving curved ERGM terms are not supported in **ergm 4**.

Since interaction terms are defined by multiplying change statistics dyadwise and then (for dyad-independent terms) summing over all dyads, interactions of terms are not the same as products of those terms. For instance, given a nodal covariate "a", the interaction of `nodecov("a")` with itself is different than the effect of the square of the covariate, as we observe in the case of the `wealth` covariate of the (undirected) Florentine marriage dataset:

```
R> data("florentine", package = "ergm")
R> summary(flomarriage ~ nodecov("wealth"):nodecov("wealth") +
+   nodecov(~ wealth^2))

nodecov.wealth:nodecov.wealth          nodecov.wealth^2
                        284058                    187814
```

4.3. Reparametrizing the model

The term operator `Sum(formulas, label)` allows arbitrary linear combinations of existing statistics to be added to the model. Suppose $\mathbf{g}_1(\mathbf{y}), \dots, \mathbf{g}_K(\mathbf{y})$ is a set of K vector-valued network statistics, each corresponding to one or more **ergm** terms and of arbitrary dimension. Also suppose that A_1, \dots, A_K is a set of known constant matrices, all having the same number of rows, such that each matrix multiplication $A_k \mathbf{g}_k(\mathbf{y})$ is well-defined. Then we may define the statistic

$$\mathbf{g}_{\text{Sum}}(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^K A_k \mathbf{g}_k(\mathbf{y}).$$

The first argument to `Sum` is a formula or a list of K formulas, each representing a vector statistic. If a formula has a left-hand side, the left-hand side will be used to define the corresponding A_k matrix: If it is a scalar or a vector, A_k will be a diagonal matrix thus multiplying each element by its corresponding element; and if it is a matrix, A_k will be used directly. When no left-hand side is given, A_k defaults to the identity matrix. To simplify this function for some common cases, if the left-hand side is "sum" or "mean", the sum (or mean) of the statistics in the formula is calculated.

As an example, consider a vector of statistics consisting of the numbers of friendship ties received by each subgroup of Sampson's monks:

```
R> summary(samplike ~ nodeifactor("group", levels = TRUE))

nodeifactor.group.Loyal nodeifactor.group.Outcasts
                        29                          13
nodeifactor.group.Turks
                        46
```

We may create a single statistic equal to the friendship ties received by both groups of “non-Outcasts” by adding the first and third components of the `nodefactor` vector, either by left-multiplying by $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ or by deselecting the second component at the `nodefactor` level and summing the remaining two:

```
R> summary(samplike ~
+   Sum(cbind(1, 0, 1) ~ nodefactor("group", levels = TRUE), "nf.L_T") +
+   Sum("sum" ~ nodefactor("group", levels = -2), "nf.L_T"))

Sum~nf.L_T Sum~nf.L_T
      75      75
```

Whereas the `Sum` operator operates on network statistics, `Parametrize(formula, params, map, gradient = NULL, minpar = -Inf, maxpar = +Inf, cov = NULL)` operates on the parameters. The `formula` argument specifies a vector statistic $\mathbf{g}_k(\mathbf{y})$ involving one or more terms and, if curved terms are specified, a mapping $\boldsymbol{\eta}_k(\boldsymbol{\theta})$. The remaining arguments follow the curved ERGM template: The `params` argument is a vector of names whose length determines the dimension of the parameter vector. The function `map` must take arguments `x`, `n`, and `...` and map the parameter vector into the domain of $\boldsymbol{\eta}_k$, transforming an ERGM term $\boldsymbol{\eta}_k(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)^\top \mathbf{g}_k(\mathbf{y})$ to $\boldsymbol{\eta}_k(\boldsymbol{\eta}_*(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k))^\top \mathbf{g}_k(\mathbf{y})$, where $\boldsymbol{\eta}_*$ is the function specified by `map`. The function `gradient` must take the same arguments as `map` and return the gradient matrix, `minpar` and `maxpar` specify the boundaries of the domain of `map`, and `cov` provides an optional argument to `map`. If `formula` is not curved, $\boldsymbol{\eta}_k(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is simply the identity function.

To simplify this function for some common special cases, if `map = "rep"`, the parameter vector will simply be replicated to make it as long as required by $\boldsymbol{\eta}_k(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, and the gradient will be evaluated automatically. Similarly, if the user is certain that `map` is linear or affine, the gradient will be calculated automatically if `gradient = "linear"` is specified.

To illustrate this, consider a simple model with the baseline edge effect and a single attractiveness effect for monks who are not “Outcasts”. Following are four different ways to parameterize this model when calling the `ergm` function. The first two examples use the default parameterization while producing the two model statistics using different syntax:

```
R> f1 <- samplike ~ edges + nodefactor(~ group != "Outcasts")
R> summary(f1)

edges nodefactor.group!="Outcasts".TRUE
      88                                75

R> f2 <- samplike ~ edges +
+   Sum(cbind(1, 0, 1) ~ nodefactor("group", levels = TRUE), "nf.L_T")
R> summary(f2)

edges Sum~nf.L_T
      88      75
```

The next two examples each define a single vector of statistics $\mathbf{g}_1(\mathbf{y})$, which we can see with the `summary` function. In the first example, we use `Parametrize` with a 3-dimensional vector

of statistics, where we specify that the new parameter will be one-dimensional (by setting `params` to be a single parameter name) and then define a map specifying that our single parameter should multiply both the first and third statistics:

```
R> f3 <- samplike ~ edges + Parametrize(~ nodeifactor("group", levels = TRUE),
+   "nf.L_T", function(x, n, ...) c(x, 0, x), gradient = "linear")
R> summary(f3)
```

	edges	nodeifactor.group.Loyal
	88	29
nodeifactor.group.Outcasts	nodeifactor.group.Turks	
13	46	

Finally, the last example defines a 2-dimensional vector of statistics and then specifies (via `"rep"`) that the new single parameter should multiply each of these statistics:

```
R> f4 <- samplike ~ edges + Parametrize(~ nodeifactor("group", levels = -2),
+   "nf.L_T", "rep")
R> summary(f4)
```

edges	nodeifactor.group.Loyal	nodeifactor.group.Turks
88	29	46

All four fitted models return the same parameter estimates. Here, to save space we check only the second parameter estimates in each model, which also reveals how each example assigns parameter names:

```
R> cbind(c(coef(ergm(f1))[2], coef(ergm(f2))[2], coef(ergm(f3))[2],
+   coef(ergm(f4))[2]))
```

	[,1]
nodeifactor.group!="Outcasts".TRUE	0.6661217
Sum~nf.L_T	0.6661217
nf.L_T	0.6661217
nf.L_T	0.6661217

Whereas the `Sum` operator calculates linear combinations of network statistics, the `Prod` operator calculates the products of their powers. As of this writing, it is implemented for positive statistics only, by first applying the `Log` operator (which returns the natural logarithm, `log` in R, of the statistics passed to it), then the `Sum` operator, and finally the `Exp` operator (which returns the exponential function, `exp` in R). As a simple illustration, we may verify that the `Sum` and `Prod` operators do in fact produce network statistics as expected if we simply use each with a list of formulas having no left hand side:

```
R> summary(faux.dixon.high ~ edges + mutual +
+   Sum(list(~ edges, ~ mutual), "EdgesAndMutual")
+   Prod(list(~ edges, ~ mutual), "EdgesAndMutual"))
```

	<code>edges</code>	<code>mutual</code>	<code>Sum-EdgesAndMutual</code>
	1197	219	1416
<code>Exp-Sum-EdgesAndMutual</code>	262143		

5. Sample space constraints

In Section 1, we saw that the sample space \mathcal{Y} is a subset of the power set $2^{\mathbb{Y}}$, where \mathbb{Y} is itself a subset of all potential relationships. Many applications in fact take \mathbb{Y} to be the set of all relationships and $\mathcal{Y} = 2^{\mathbb{Y}}$, but it is sometimes desirable to restrict the sample space by placing constraints on which relationships (i, j) are allowed in \mathbb{Y} and further which networks $\mathbf{y} \in 2^{\mathbb{Y}}$ are allowed in \mathcal{Y} . As a simple example, a bipartite network allows only edges connecting nodes from one subset, or mode, to nodes from its complement. This particular constraint is so commonly used that it is hard-coded into `network` and `ergm`. As another example, consider the inverse of a bipartite setting, in which edges are only allowed *within* subsets of the node set, a situation often called a block-diagonal constraint. As still another, some applications impose a cap on the degree of any node, which constrains the sample space to include only those networks in which every node has a permitted degree.

In all of the cases above, correct statistical inference for ERGMs depends on correctly incorporating constraints into the fitting process. They are specified using the `constraints` argument, a one-sided formula whose terms specify the constraints on the sample space. For example, `constraints = ~ edges` specifies $\mathcal{Y}^{\text{edges}} = \{\mathbf{y}' \in \mathcal{Y} : |\mathbf{y}'| = |\mathbf{y}|\}$, where \mathbf{y} is the observed network, specified on the left-hand side. Some constraints, such as `fixedas(y1, y0)` focus on constraining \mathbb{Y} – in this case, as $\mathbb{Y}^{\text{fixedas}(y1, y0)} = \{(i, j) \in \mathbb{Y} : (i, j) \in \mathbf{y}^1 \wedge (i, j) \notin \mathbf{y}^0\}$ – with $\mathcal{Y} \equiv 2^{\mathbb{Y}}$.

Multiple constraints can be specified on a formula, separated by `+` to impose a new constraint in addition to prior or (in some instances) `-` to relax preceding constraints. Earlier versions of the `ergm` package implemented a number of constraints, as described for example in Section 3 of Morris, Handcock, and Hunter (2008). Since that time, many additional types of constraints and methods for imposing them have been added, some of which we describe in this section. A full list of currently implemented constraints is obtained via `?ergmConstraint`, and a specific constraint `[name]` can be looked up with `help("[name]-ergmConstraint")` or `ergmConstraint?[name]`.

5.1. Arbitrary combinations of dyad-independent constraints

In general, every combination of constraints requires a somewhat different Metropolis–Hastings proposal algorithm for efficient sampling, and so it may be impractical to support every possible combination of constraints. *Dyad-independent* constraints, which affect \mathcal{Y} only through \mathbb{Y} , and do not induce stochastic dependencies among the dyad states, are an exception. These include constraining specific dyads (such as the above-mentioned `observed` and `fixedas` constraints), dyads incident on specific actors (such as the `egocentric` constraint), and block-diagonal structure; and *any* combination of dyad-independent constraints is a dyad-independent constraint. For some such combinations, `ergm` and other packages provide optimized implementations. For the rest, `ergm` falls back to a general but efficient implementation

that uses run-length encoding tools provided by package **rle** (Krivitsky 2020) to efficiently store sets of non-constrained dyads and rejection sampling to efficiently select a dyad for the proposal.

Here, we illustrate some of **ergm**'s capabilities using a dataset due to Coleman (1964) that is small enough that computational inefficiency will not present problems. These data are self-reported friendship ties among 73 boys measured at two time points during the 1957–1958 academic year and they are included as a $2 \times 73 \times 73$ array and documented in the **sna** package. We use the Coleman data to create a **network** object with 2×73 nodes:

```
R> library("sna")
R> data("coleman", package = "sna")
R> cole <- matrix(0, 2 * 73, 2 * 73)
R> cole[1:73, 1:73] <- coleman[1,,]
R> cole[73 + (1:73), 73 + (1:73)] <- coleman[2,,]
R> diag(cole[1:73, 73 + (1:73)]) <- diag(cole[73 + (1:73), 1:73]) <- 1
R> ncole <- network(cole)
R> ncole %v% "Semester" <- rep(c("Fall", "Spring"), each = 73)
R> ncole
```

Network attributes:

```
vertices = 146
directed = TRUE
hyper = FALSE
loops = FALSE
multiple = FALSE
bipartite = FALSE
total edges= 652
  missing edges= 0
  non-missing edges= 652
```

Vertex attribute names:

```
Semester vertex.names
```

No edge attributes

By construction, the **ncole** network includes the Fall 1957 semester data and the Spring 1958 data as the upper left 73×73 and lower right 73×73 blocks, respectively. In addition, the upper right and lower left blocks indicate which nodes are the same person; that is, $y_{i,j} = 1$ whenever i and j are the same boy measured at two different times. This latter information is redundant because the ordering of the 73 boys is the same in both fall and spring, yet we include it to illustrate some techniques using entries that are not on the main block diagonal and because in principle it might not always be the case that the same individuals are observed at both time points.

5.2. Constraints via the Dyads operator

The **Dyads**(**fix** = NULL, **vary** = NULL) operator takes one or two **ergm** formulas that may contain only dyad-independent terms. For the terms in the **fix** formula, dyads that affect the

network statistic (i.e., have nonzero change statistic) for *any* the terms will be fixed at their current values. For the terms in the `vary` formula, only those that change *at least one* of the terms will be allowed to vary, and all others will be fixed. If both formulas are given, the dyads that vary either for one or for the other will be allowed to vary. A formula passed without an argument name will default to `fix`, for consistency with other constraints' semantics.

The key to our treatment of the `ncole` network using the `Dyads` operator is the `Semester` vertex attribute:

```
R> table(ncole %v% "Semester")
```

```
Fall Spring
 73      73
```

In particular, the `nodematch("Semester")` term has a change statistic equal to one for exactly those dyads representing boys measured during the same semester, and this change statistic is zero otherwise. Therefore, in our 146-node directed network there are 146×145 , or 21,170, total dyads, of which $2 \times 73 \times 72$, or 10,512, have nonzero change statistics for `nodematch("Semester")`. We can easily see exactly how many total edges there are and how many of these are in the upper left or lower right blocks:

```
R> summary(ncole ~ edges + nodematch("Semester"))
```

```
edges nodematch.Semester
 652                506
```

We can now calculate directly the log-odds, or logit, for both the block diagonal and the off-block diagonal subnetworks, then verify that the `Dyads` operator can accomplish these same calculations using a constrained ERGM. First, we `fix` dyads with nonzero change statistics, which yields the coefficient for block off-diagonal (non-matching) entries:

```
R> logit <- function(p) log(p / (1 - p))
R> cbind(logit((652 - 506) / (21170 - 10512)), coef(ergm(ncole ~ edges,
+ constraints = ~ Dyads(fix = ~ nodematch("Semester")))))
```

```
      [,1]      [,2]
edges -4.276666 -4.276666
```

Next, we allow dyads with nonzero change statistics to `vary`, which yields the coefficient for block diagonal entries:

```
R> cbind(logit(506 / 10512), coef(ergm(ncole ~ edges,
+ constraints = ~ Dyads(vary = ~ nodematch("Semester")))))
```

```
      [,1]      [,2]
edges -2.984404 -2.984404
```

If we remove the constraints entirely, `ncole` has 652 edges out of a possible 21,170:

```
R> cbind(logit(652/21170), coef(ergm(ncole ~ edges)))
```

```
      [,1]      [,2]
edges -3.449013 -3.449013
```

A significant limitation of this specific constraint is that its initialization requires testing every possible dyad and therefore takes up time and memory in proportion to the square of the number of nodes.

5.3. Constraints via blocks

The `blocks` operator constrains changes to any dyads that involve certain pairs of categories defined by a particular nodal covariate. We may reproduce the examples of Section 5.2 using `blocks`. First, consider the full complement of statistics produced by the `nodemix` model term:

```
R> summary(ncole ~ nodemix("Semester", levels = TRUE, levels2 = TRUE))
```

```
      mix.Semester.Fall.Fall  mix.Semester.Spring.Fall
                        243                        73
mix.Semester.Fall.Spring  mix.Semester.Spring.Spring
                        73                        263
```

The `levels = TRUE` argument ensures that `nodemix` considers every value of "group" in constructing a mixing matrix of possible dyad combinations. The `levels2 = TRUE` argument ensures that, from the full complement of such possible combinations, every one is included as a statistic. By default, `levels = TRUE` whereas `levels2 = -1`, since we frequently want to exclude at least one possible mixing combination to avoid collinearity in a model that also includes the `edges` term.

We may now use `levels2` in conjunction with `blocks` to select exactly which of the `nodemix` combinations should be constrained as fixed to reproduce the examples of Section 5.2. First, we fix all dyads where the `group` values match:

```
R> coef(ergm(ncole ~ edges,
+ constraints = ~ blocks("Semester", levels2 = c(1, 4))))
```

```
edges
-4.276666
```

Second, we fix the dyads where `group` values do not match:

```
R> coef(ergm(ncole ~ edges,
+ constraints = ~ blocks("Semester", levels2 = c(2, 3))))
```

```
edges
-2.984404
```

Additional examples using `levels2`, among other nodal attribute features, are contained in the `nodal_attributes` vignette within the `ergm` package.

5.4. Additional constraints

Multiple different constraints on the sample space of possible networks, as defined by the values of certain network statistics, may be implemented beyond those discussed already in this section. The `bd` constraint, for instance, may be used to enforce a maximum allowable degree for any node, via the `maxout` argument. A comprehensive list of available constraints is available via `?ergmConstraint`. The handling of various constraints by MCMC proposals in the `ergm` package is addressed in Krivitsky *et al.* (2022).

6. Modeling networks with valued edges

Starting with version 3.1, the `ergm` package can handle some types of networks whose ties are not merely binary, indicating presence or absence, but may have nonzero values other than unity. For example, the value of a tie might represent a count, such as the number of times a particular relationship has occurred; or it might represent an ordinal variable, if node i ranks a subset of its neighbors. Valued ties can increase complexity relative to binary ties in, for example, specifying the model and ensuring that the chosen statistics are meaningful for the types of edge values being modeled. Whether the scale of measurement of tie values is ordinal, interval, or ratio, it becomes necessary to specify the distribution of these values and to create functions to aggregate these values into ERGM statistics.

In the `ergm()`, `simulate()`, and `summary()` functions, the valued mode is typically activated by passing a `response` argument, giving the name of the edge attribute containing the value of the response. Non-edges are assumed to have value 0. The argument may also be a formula whose right-hand side is an expression in terms of the edge attributes that evaluates to the response value and whose left-hand side, if present, gives the name to be used. If it evaluates to a logical (TRUE/FALSE) value (e.g., `response = threeContacts ~ (contacts >= 3)`), a binary ERGM is used.

6.1. Reference specification

Krivitsky (2012) pointed out that sufficient statistics alone do not suffice to specify an ERGM on a network whose relations are valued. Consider a simple ERGM of the form

$$P(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}; \theta) \propto h(\mathbf{y}) \exp \left(\theta \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} y_{i,j} \right),$$

where $y_{i,j} \in \{0, 1, \dots\}$ is an unbounded count. If $h(\mathbf{y})$ is any constant, then $Y_{i,j} \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \text{Geometric}[p = 1 - \exp(\theta)]$. On the other hand, if $h(\mathbf{y}) = 1 / \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} y_{i,j}!$, then $Y_{i,j} \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \text{Poisson}[\mu = \exp(\theta_k)]$. For this reason, Krivitsky (2012) called a distribution with $h(\mathbf{y}) = 1$ and a sample space of nonnegative integers a *Geometric-reference ERGM* and one with $h(\mathbf{y}) = 1 / \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} y_{i,j}!$ a *Poisson-reference ERGM*.

For `ergm()`, `simulate()`, and other functions, reference distributions are specified with a `reference` argument, which is a one-sided formula with one term. The `ergm` package allows

`Unif(a, b)` and `DiscUnif(a, b)` references, specifying $h(\mathbf{y}) = 1$, the former on a dyad space $y_{i,j} \in [a, b]$, the latter on $y_{i,j} \in \{a, a+1, \dots, b\}$. A companion package, `ergm.count`, allows the additional references `Poisson` and `Geometric`, described above, as well as `Binomial(trials)` for $h(\mathbf{y}) = \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} \binom{n_{\text{trials}}}{y_{i,j}}$ in the case $y_{i,j} \in \{0, \dots, n_{\text{trials}}\}$. For rank-order relational data, a `CompleteOrder` reference distribution is implemented in the `ergm.rank` package for situations where rankings are complete. Where ties are permitted, `DiscUnif()` can be used as a reference. See [Krivitsky and Butts \(2019\)](#) for further details on both the `ergm.count` and `ergm.rank` packages, and their vignettes.

Reference distributions are explained in more detail in Section 3 of [Krivitsky and Butts \(2019\)](#). This reference also illustrates how the `network` package may be used to visualize some kinds of valued networks (Section 2) and even how the `latentnet` package can handle latent-space models with valued ties (Section 4). Online help on the reference distributions that are implemented by all packages currently loaded in an R session can be obtained by typing `help("ergm-references")`.

6.2. Dyad-independent statistics

As in Section 4.1, a component of the vector $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y})$ is called a dyad-independent statistic if, when one builds an ERGM using it as the *only* model statistic, the joint distribution (1) of the network factors into the product of its marginal dyad distributions. That is, the univariate version of (1) may be written

$$P(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}; \theta) = \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} P(Y_{i,j} = y_{i,j}) = \frac{h(\mathbf{y})}{\kappa_{h,\eta,g}(\theta, \mathcal{Y})} \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} \exp\{\eta(\theta)g_{i,j}(\mathbf{y})\}$$

for $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}$ and for some appropriately chosen $g_{i,j}(\mathbf{y})$. Equation 6.1 shows that the sum of the values $y_{i,j}$, which implies $g_{i,j}(\mathbf{y}) = y_{i,j}$, is one such example. Another example is the sum of the nonzero indicators that arises if we define $g_{i,j}(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbb{I}\{y_{i,j} > 0\}$. Each of these basic dyad-independent statistics is implemented in `ergm`:

`sum(pow = 1)` *Sum of edge values*: This is simply the summation of edge values. For most valued ERGMs, this is the natural intercept term. In particular, for reference distributions such as `Poisson` and `Binomial`, using this term produces intercept effects of Poisson log-linear and binomial logistic regressions, respectively. Optionally, the dyad values can be raised to a power before being summed.

`nonzero` *Number of nonzero edge values*: This term counts nonzero edge values. It can be used to model zero-inflation that is common in networks: It is often the case that a network is sparse but has edges with relatively high weights when they are present.

Binary ERGM statistics cannot be used directly for valued networks nor vice versa, but most dyad-independent binary ERGM statistics have been generalized by imposing a covariate on one of the two above forms. They have the same arguments as their binary ERGM counterparts, with an additional argument: `form`, which has two possible values: `"sum"` (the default) and `"nonzero"`. The former creates a statistic of the form $\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} x_{i,j}y_{i,j}$, where $y_{i,j}$ is the value of dyad (i, j) and $x_{i,j}$ is the term's covariate associated with it. The latter computes a sum of indicator variables, one for each dyad, indicating whether the corresponding edge has a nonzero value. When `form = "sum"` is used, typically a GLM-like effect results, whereas

`form = "nonzero"` can be used to model sparsity effects (Krivitsky 2012). Krivitsky and Butts (2019) gives an example of the `form` argument with the `nodematch` term.

Other terms that control a dyad's distribution are `atleast(threshold = 0)`, `atmost(threshold = 0)`, `equalto(value = 0, tolerance = 0)`, `greaterthan(threshold = 0)`, `ininterval(lower = -Inf, upper = +Inf, open = c(TRUE, TRUE))`, and `smallerthan(threshold = 0)`. Each of these terms counts the dyad values that satisfy the criterion identified by its name.

6.3. Mutuality

The binary `mutual` term in `ergm` counts the number of pairs of mutual ties. Its valued counterpart is `mutual(form)`, which permits the following values of `form`. For each of these, a higher coefficient will tend to increase the similarity of reciprocating dyad values.

"`product`" *Sum of products of reciprocating edge values*: This is the most direct generalization. However, for a Poisson-reference ERGM in particular, a positive coefficient on this term produces an infinite normalizing constant and therefore lies outside the parameter space.

"`geometric`" *Sum of geometric mean of reciprocating edge values*: This form solves the `product` form's problem by taking a square root of the product. It can be viewed as the uncentered covariance of variance-stabilized counts.

"`min`" *Minimum of reciprocating edge values*: This effect is, perhaps, the easiest to interpret, at the cost of statistical power.

"`nabsdiff`" *Absolute difference of reciprocating edge values*: This effect is more symmetrical than `min`.

We refer the reader to Krivitsky (2012) for a further discussion of the effects.

6.4. Actor heterogeneity

Different actors may have different overall propensities to interact. This has been modeled using random effects, as in the p_2 model, and using degeneracy-prone terms like k -star counts. For valued ERGMs, the following term, also introduced by Krivitsky (2012) and discussed in more detail there, models actor heterogeneity:

`nodesqrtcovar(center, transform)` *Covariance between $y_{i,j}$ incident on same actor*: The default `transform = "sqrt"` will take a square root of dyad values before calculating, and the default `center = TRUE` will center the transformed values around their global mean, gaining stability at the cost of locality.

6.5. Triadic effects

To generalize the notion of triadic closure, `ergm` implements very flexible `transitiveweights(twopath, combine, affect)` and similar `cyclicalweights` statistics.

The transitive weight statistic has the general form

$$g_v(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} v_{\text{affect}} \left(y_{i,j}, v_{\text{combine}} \left(v_{2\text{-path}}(\mathbf{y}_{i,k}, \mathbf{y}_{k,j})_{k \in N \setminus \{i,j\}} \right) \right),$$

which can be customized by varying three functions:

$v_{2\text{-path}}$: Given $\mathbf{y}_{i,k}$ and $\mathbf{y}_{k,j}$, what is the strength of the two-path they form? The options are "min", to take the minimum of the two-path's constituent values, and "geomean", to take their geometric mean, gaining statistical power at a greater risk of model instability.

v_{combine} : Given the strengths of the two-paths $\mathbf{y}_{i \rightarrow k \rightarrow j}$ for all $k \neq i, j$, what is the combined strength of these two-paths between i and j ? The choices are "max", for the strength of the strongest of the two-paths – analogous to `transitivities` or `gvesp(0)` binary ERGM effects – and "sum", the sum of the path strengths. The latter choice is better able to detect effects but is more subject to degeneracy; it is analogous to `triangles`.

v_{affect} : Given the combined strength of the two-paths between i and j , how should they affect $Y_{i,j}$? The choices are "min", the minimum of the combined strength and the focus two-path, and "geomean", again more able to detect effects but more likely to cause degeneracy.

Usage of the `transitiveweights` and `cyclicalweights` terms is illustrated in Section 3.1 of [Krivitsky and Butts \(2019\)](#).

6.6. Using binary ERGM terms in valued ERGMs

`ergm` also allows general binary terms to be passed to valued models. The mechanism that allows this is the term operator `B(formula, form)`, which is further described in the `ergm` online help under `help("B-ergmTerm")` or the shorthand `ergmTerm?B`. Here, `formula` is a one-sided formula whose right hand side contains the binary `ergm` terms to be used. Allowable values of the `form` argument are `form = "sum"` and `form = "nonzero"`, which have the effects described in Section 6.2, with `form = "sum"` only valid for dyad-independent `formula` terms; or a one-sided formula may be passed to `form`, containing one *valued* `ergm` term, with the following properties:

- dyadic independence;
- dyadwise contribution of either 0 or 1;
- dyadwise contribution of 0 for a 0-valued dyad.

That is, it must be expressible as

$$g(y) = \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{Y}} g_{i,j}(y_{i,j}),$$

where for all i, j , and \mathbf{y} , $g_{i,j}(y_{i,j}) \in \{0, 1\}$ and $g_{i,j}(0) \equiv 0$. Such terms include `nonzero`, `ininterval()`, `atleast()`, `atmost()`, `greaterthan()`, `lessthan()`, and `equalto()`. The operator will then construct a binary network \mathbf{y}^B such that $y_{i,j}^B = 1$ if and only if $g_{i,j}(y_{i,j}) = 1$, and evaluate the binary terms in `formula` on it.

6.7. Modeling ordinal values using binary term operators

To illustrate the use of binary ergm terms on a valued network as described above, we construct an example that uses the `B` (for “binary”) operator. The code snippet below gives an example of a valued ergm that uses the `DiscUnif`, or discrete uniform, reference distribution, which is included in the `ergm` package itself; that is, there is no need to load the `ergm.count` or `ergm.rank` packages to run the following example. The example fits a multinomial logistic regression model that assumes that the edge values are independent of one another and take ordinal values that have the same interpretation for each dyad. (In general, rating and ranking data may not allow edge values to be compared across egos (Krivitsky and Butts 2017); the `ergm.rank` package contains terms that remain valid in this more complex setting.) Models for independently observed ordinal random variables have a long history in the statistical literature; relevant references specific to network models include Robins, Pattison, and Wasserman (1999) and, in a Bayesian framework, Caimo and Gollini (2020).

First, we build a valued network by pooling the three binary friendship nomination networks due to Sampson (1968), exactly as in Section 2.1 of Krivitsky and Butts (2019).

```
R> data("samplk", package = "ergm")
R> samplk.tot.m <- as.matrix(samplk1) + as.matrix(samplk2) +
+   as.matrix(samplk3)
R> samplk.tot <- as.network(samplk.tot.m, directed = TRUE,
+   matrix.type = "a", ignore.eval = FALSE, names.eval = "nominations")
```

We will use the `B` operator to construct new statistics consisting of the number of edges with value k or higher, where k is 1, 2, or 3.

```
R> summary(samplk.tot ~ B(~ edges, ~ atleast(1)) +
+   B(~ edges, ~ atleast(2)) +
+   B(~ edges, ~ atleast(3)), response = "nominations")
```

```
B(atleast(1))~edges B(atleast(2))~edges B(atleast(3))~edges
           88                50                30
```

Since there are 18×17 , or 306, possible edges, the summary statistics above tell us that the valued network we have constructed has 30 edges with value 3, $50 - 30 = 20$ edges with value 2, $88 - 50 = 38$ edges with value 1, and the remaining 218 edges with value 0. The ERGM with these statistics has independent edges, where the probabilities an edge takes the values 0, 1, 2, or 3 are given by $1/D$, $\exp\{\theta_1\}/D$, $\exp\{\theta_1 + \theta_2\}/D$, and $\exp\{\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \theta_3\}/D$, respectively, where

$$D = 1 + \exp\{\theta_1\} + \exp\{\theta_1 + \theta_2\} + \exp\{\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \theta_3\}.$$

We may verify that `ergm`'s stochastic fitting algorithm obtains maximum likelihood estimates (MLEs) very close to the exact values:

```
R> mod <- ergm(samplk.tot ~ B(~ edges, ~ atleast(1)) +
+   B(~ edges, ~ atleast(2)) +
+   B(~ edges, ~ atleast(3)), response = "nominations",
+   reference = ~ DiscUnif(0, 3), control = snctrl(seed = 123))
R> coef(mod)
```

```
B(atleast(1))~edges B(atleast(2))~edges B(atleast(3))~edges
      -1.7481166          -0.6365629          0.4054433
```

```
R> true <- c(EdgeVal0 = 218, EdgeVal1 = 38, EdgeVal2 = 20, EdgeVal3 = 30)
R> est <- c(1, exp(cumsum(coef(mod))), use.names = FALSE)
R> rbind(True_Proportions = true / sum(true),
+       Estimated_Proportions = est / sum(est))
```

```
              EdgeVal0  EdgeVal1  EdgeVal2  EdgeVal3
True_Proportions    0.7124183 0.1241830 0.06535948 0.09803922
Estimated_Proportions 0.7120505 0.1239691 0.06559302 0.09838739
```

This example could have used the `equalto` terms in place of all the `atleast` terms above. Then, the estimated proportions would have been proportional to 1 , $\exp\{\theta_1\}$, $\exp\{\theta_2\}$, and $\exp\{\theta_3\}$ instead of 1 , $\exp\{\theta_1\}$, $\exp\{\theta_1 + \theta_2\}$, and $\exp\{\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \theta_3\}$. Such a model does not assume ordinality of the edge values, so it could be used for a multinomial logit model in which the edges take categorical non-ordered values.

7. Estimation in the presence of missing edge data

It is quite common that network data are incomplete in various ways. The `ergm` package includes the capability to handle missing edge data, whereas other types of missingness such as missing nodal information are not addressed. Early versions of `ergm` allowed the R object `NA` to be treated as though it were a regular value of a nodal covariate; however, since this behavior can lead to misleading results, more recent `ergm` packages return an error when a nodal covariate with missing values is used in an `ergm` term.

[Handcock and Gile \(2010\)](#) formulated a framework for modeling networks with missing edges and expressed the log-likelihood as

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log P(\mathbf{Y} \in \mathcal{Y}(\mathbf{y}^{\text{obs}}); \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log \sum_{\mathbf{y}' \in \mathcal{Y}(\mathbf{y}^{\text{obs}})} P(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}'; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \quad (5)$$

where $\mathcal{Y}(\mathbf{y}^{\text{obs}})$ is defined as the set of networks whose partial observation could have produced \mathbf{y}^{obs} : essentially, all of the ways to impute the missing ties in \mathbf{y}^{obs} . (When there are no missing ties in \mathbf{y}^{obs} , $\mathcal{Y}(\mathbf{y}^{\text{obs}})$ contains only \mathbf{y}^{obs} .) They then proposed to maximize this likelihood by taking advantage of the fact that, if

$$\kappa_{\mathcal{Y}'}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{\mathbf{y}' \in \mathcal{Y}'} h(\mathbf{y}') \exp\{\boldsymbol{\eta}(\boldsymbol{\theta})^\top \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}')\},$$

the log-likelihood can be expressed as $\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log \kappa_{\mathcal{Y}(\mathbf{y}^{\text{obs}})}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \log \kappa_{\mathcal{Y}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, resulting in the score equation

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \ell(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) = \boldsymbol{\eta}'(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})^\top [E_{\mathcal{Y}(\mathbf{y}^{\text{obs}})}\{\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{Y}); \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\} - E_{\mathcal{Y}}\{\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{Y}); \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\}] = \mathbf{0},$$

with MCMLE (Markov chain maximum likelihood estimate) approximation also possible for the first term by fixing a particular $\boldsymbol{\theta}^t$ and drawing a sample from $\text{ERGM}_{\mathcal{Y}(\mathbf{y}^{\text{obs}})}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^t)$ as explained in Section 3 of [Krivitsky et al. \(2022\)](#).

The **ergm** package invokes the above approach automatically when a network has missing edge variables. The simplest way to encode a missing edge is to set its value to **NA**. The **network** package natively supports missing edge variables coded in this way, and **network** objects with missingness are thus handled without additional intervention. **ergm**'s methods for assessing goodness of fit of a model by comparing observed values of certain network statistics to the distribution of their simulated values under the model (Hunter, Goodreau, and Handcock 2008a, Hunter *et al.* (2008b)) have also been adapted to missing edge data: the (unavailable) observed values of the statistics of interest $t(\mathbf{y})$ are replaced by their conditional expectations $E_{\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{y}^{\text{obs}})}\{t(\mathbf{Y}); \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\}$.

Here we fit a simple model with edges, mutuality (reciprocated dyads), transitive ties, and cyclical ties to the Sampson Monks dataset depicted in Figure 1. For the sake of comparison, we first fit the model assuming no missing edge data, which may be quickly verified using the output of the `print(samplike)` command:

```
R> print(samplike)
```

```
Network attributes:
```

```
vertices = 18
directed = TRUE
hyper = FALSE
loops = FALSE
multiple = FALSE
total edges= 88
  missing edges= 0
  non-missing edges= 88
```

```
Vertex attribute names:
```

```
  cloisterville group vertex.names
```

```
Edge attribute names:
```

```
  nominations
```

```
R> summary(full.fit <- ergm(samplike ~ edges + mutual + transitiveties +
+   cyclicalities, eval.loglik = TRUE), control = snctrl(seed = 321))
```

```
Call:
```

```
ergm(formula = samplike ~ edges + mutual + transitiveties + cyclicalities,
      eval.loglik = TRUE)
```

```
Monte Carlo Maximum Likelihood Results:
```

	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	z value	Pr(> z)	
edges	-1.9372	0.3745	0	-5.172	<1e-04	***
mutual	2.4684	0.4467	0	5.525	<1e-04	***
transitiveties	0.5387	0.3063	0	1.759	0.0786	.
cyclicalities	-0.4543	0.2522	0	-1.802	0.0716	.

```
---
```

```
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

```
Null Deviance: 424.2 on 306 degrees of freedom
Residual Deviance: 329.0 on 302 degrees of freedom
```

```
AIC: 337 BIC: 351.9 (Smaller is better. MC Std. Err. = 0.624)
```

Now, suppose that Monk #1 (John Bosco) refused to respond during all three waves, rendering his replies missing:

```
R> samplike1 <- samplike
R> samplike1[1, ] <- NA
R> print(samplike1)
```

Network attributes:

```
vertices = 18
directed = TRUE
hyper = FALSE
loops = FALSE
multiple = FALSE
total edges= 99
  missing edges= 17
  non-missing edges= 82
```

Vertex attribute names:

```
cloisterville group vertex.names
```

Edge attribute names:

```
nominations
```

If we pass this modified object to `ergm`, it will automatically calculate the MLE under the assumption that the monk's refusal is unrelated to his choice of relations, i.e., that the data are ignorably missing with respect to the specified model:

```
R> summary(m1.fit <- ergm(samplike1 ~ edges + mutual + transitiveties +
+   cyclicalities, eval.loglik = TRUE), control = snctrl(seed = 321))
```

Call:

```
ergm(formula = samplike1 ~ edges + mutual + transitiveties +
      cyclicalities, eval.loglik = TRUE)
```

Monte Carlo Maximum Likelihood Results:

	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	z value	Pr(> z)	
edges	-2.0324	0.3847	0	-5.283	<1e-04	***
mutual	2.4025	0.4672	0	5.143	<1e-04	***
transitiveties	0.4631	0.4190	0	1.105	0.269	
cyclicalities	-0.2741	0.3806	0	-0.720	0.471	

```
---
```

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Null Deviance: 400.6 on 289 degrees of freedom
Residual Deviance: 313.4 on 285 degrees of freedom

AIC: 321.4 BIC: 336 (Smaller is better. MC Std. Err. = 0.5569)

The degrees of freedom associated with the missing data fit have decreased because unobserved dyads do not carry information. For details regarding the ignorability assumption for edge variables, see [Handcock and Gile \(2010\)](#).

The estimation approach above can be extended to other types of incomplete network observation. [Karwa, Krivitsky, and Slavković \(2017\)](#) applied it to fit arbitrary ERGMs to networks whose dyad values had been stochastically perturbed – ties added and removed at random, with known probabilities – in order to preserve privacy. Another use case is multiple imputation for networks with missing data, in which multiple random versions of the full network are constructed by randomly inserting values for unobserved dyads according to probabilities that are determined based on, say, some type of logistic regression model. These mechanisms may be invoked by passing an `obs.constraints` formula, specifying how the network of interest was observed. Of particular interest are the following constraints:

`observed`: Restricts the proposal to changing only those dyads that are recorded as missing.

`egocentric(attr = NULL, direction = c("both", "out", "in"))`: Restricts the proposal to changing only those dyads that would not be observed in an egocentric sample. That is, dyads cannot be modified that are incident on vertices for which attribute specification `attr` has value `TRUE` or, if `attr` is `NULL`, the vertex attribute `"na"` has value `FALSE`. For directed networks, `direction == "out"` only preserves the out-dyads of those actors, and `direction == "in"` preserves their in-dyads.

`dyadnoise(p01, p10)`: Unlike the others, this is a soft constraint to adjust the sampled distribution for dyad-level noise with known perturbation probabilities, which can arise in a variety of contexts ([Karwa et al. 2017](#)). It is assumed that the observed LHS (left-hand side) network is a noisy observation of some unobserved true network, with `p01` giving the dyadwise probability of erroneously observing a tie where the true network had a non-tie and `p10` giving the dyadwise probability of erroneously observing a nontie where the true network had a tie. `p01` and `p10` can be either both be scalars or both be adjacency matrices of the same dimension as that of the LHS network giving these probabilities.

We may use the `obs.constraints` argument to re-fit the model above:

```
R> samplike2 <- samplike
R> samplike2[1,] <- 0
R> samplike2 %v% "responded" <- rep(c(FALSE, TRUE), c(1, 17))
R> print(samplike2)
```

Network attributes:
vertices = 18

```

directed = TRUE
hyper = FALSE
loops = FALSE
multiple = FALSE
total edges= 82
  missing edges= 0
  non-missing edges= 82

Vertex attribute names:
  cloisterville group responded vertex.names

Edge attribute names:
  nominations

R> summary(m2.fit <- ergm(samplike2 ~ edges + mutual + transitiveties +
+   cyclicalities, obs.constraints = ~ egocentric(~ responded, "out"),
+   control = snctrl(seed = 123))

Call:
ergm(formula = samplike2 ~ edges + mutual + transitiveties +
      cyclicalities, obs.constraints = ~egocentric(~responded, "out"),
      control = snctrl(seed = 123))

Monte Carlo Maximum Likelihood Results:

              Estimate Std. Error MCMC % z value Pr(>|z|)
edges          -2.0090    0.3867    0  -5.196  <1e-04 ***
mutual           2.3890    0.4764    0   5.015  <1e-04 ***
transitiveties   0.4401    0.4353    0   1.011   0.312
cyclicalities  -0.2660    0.3918    0  -0.679   0.497
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

      Null Deviance: 400.6  on 289  degrees of freedom
Residual Deviance: 313.9  on 285  degrees of freedom

AIC: 321.9  BIC: 336.6  (Smaller is better. MC Std. Err. = 0.4579)

```

Finally, since the observational process can be viewed as a part of the network dataset, we may specify it using the `%ergmlhs%` operation, giving a third way to fit the model above:

```

R> samplike2 %ergmlhs% "obs.constraints" <- ~ egocentric(~ responded, "out")
R> summary(m3.fit <- ergm(samplike2 ~ edges + mutual + transitiveties +
+   cyclicalities), control = snctrl(seed = 231) )

Call:
ergm(formula = samplike2 ~ edges + mutual + transitiveties +
      cyclicalities)

```

Monte Carlo Maximum Likelihood Results:

	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	z value	Pr(> z)	
edges	-2.0288	0.3945	0	-5.142	<1e-04	***
mutual	2.4047	0.4694	0	5.123	<1e-04	***
transitivities	0.4685	0.4034	0	1.161	0.246	
cyclicalities	-0.2844	0.3660	0	-0.777	0.437	

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Null Deviance: 400.6 on 289 degrees of freedom

Residual Deviance: 313.1 on 285 degrees of freedom

AIC: 321.1 BIC: 335.8 (Smaller is better. MC Std. Err. = 0.4385)

8. Other enhancements

We close this paper by highlighting a number of miscellaneous enhancements to the **ergm** package since the [Hunter *et al.* \(2008b\)](#) article.

8.1. Exact calculations for small networks

For small networks, it is possible to obtain full enumeration of all possible network statistic vectors over the entire sample space of possible networks. This enumeration enables exact calculations of such quantities as the log-likelihood function, the MLE, or the normalizing constant. If we consider only binary networks on an unconstrained sample space, the total number of networks is $2^{n(n-1)/2}$ for undirected networks and $2^{n(n-1)}$ for directed networks, which imposes a practical limit of $n = 8$ nodes in the undirected case or $n = 6$ in the directed case unless the user wants to compute for a long time, and the functions described in this section return an error for larger networks than these unless the `force = TRUE` option is invoked.

The `ergm.allstats` function, added to the **ergm** more than a decade ago in version 2.4, performs an efficient, “brute-force” tabulation of all possible network statistic vectors for an arbitrary ERGM by visiting every possible network. The `ergm.exact` function uses `ergm.allstats` to calculate exact likelihood values. Due to the computationally intractable normalizing constant $\kappa_{h,\eta,\mathbf{g}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{Y})$ of (1), except in the case of dyadic independence models, `ergm.exact` and `ergm.allstats` may only be used for small networks. In a test, the code below took about 254 times as long on a 9-node network as it did on an 8-node network, which is not surprising because the 9-node sample space has 2^{36-28} , or 256, times as many networks.

```
R> system.time({
+   EmptyNW <- network.initialize(8, directed = FALSE)
+   a <- ergm.allstats(EmptyNW ~ edges + triangle + isolates + degree(4),
+     force = TRUE)
+ })
```

```

user   system elapsed
46.288  0.061  46.391

```

Naturally, many networks of interest are too large to utilize `ergm.allstats` and `ergm.exact`. Yet calculations on small networks can still provide useful test cases; for instance, see [Schmid and Hunter \(2020\)](#) or [Vega Yon, Slaughter, and de la Haye \(2021\)](#).

8.2. Estimation based only on sufficient statistics

In exponential family parlance, $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}^{\text{obs}})$ is often called the vector of sufficient statistics. Since the likelihood function of (5) depends on \mathbf{y}^{obs} only via these sufficient statistics, it is not actually necessary to observe \mathbf{y}^{obs} in order to calculate an MLE. The MLE-finding algorithm in `ergm` exploits this fact by implementing the idea of [Hummel, Hunter, and Handcock \(2012\)](#) to replace $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}^{\text{obs}})$ by a vector of statistics that is closer to the sample mean generated by a current fixed, known parameter value. Maximizing the resulting version of the loglikelihood function yields a parameter value which may then be used to generate a new random sample of networks, and the process is repeated to give a sequence of parameter values approaching the desired MLE.

In some applications, such as when data are egocentrically sampled, it is possible to observe or estimate the vector $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}^{\text{obs}})$ of statistics that would in principle have been observed in the network, even if other information about the network itself is absent. Estimation may still proceed by passing a `target.stats` argument containing a vector of network statistics. For example, we may reproduce (up to the stochasticity of the fitting algorithm) the analysis of the `full.fit` example in Section 7 by passing the vector of statistics on the `samplike` network via `target.stats` even though the network used in the `ergm` function call has no edges at all:

```

R> ts <- summary(samplike ~ edges + mutual + transitiveties + cyclicalities)
R> emptynw <- network.initialize(network.size(samplike), directed = TRUE)
R> ts.fit <- ergm(emptynw ~ edges + mutual + transitiveties + cyclicalities,
+   target.stats = ts, control = snctrl(seed = 123))
R> rbind(coef(full.fit), coef(ts.fit))

```

```

      edges  mutual transitiveties cyclicalities
[1,] -1.937163 2.468433      0.5387231    -0.4542983
[2,] -1.911295 2.459711      0.5375529    -0.4642011

```

8.3. Predicting individual edge probabilities

The `predict` method, which may be called on either `formula` or `ergm` objects, calculates model-predicted conditional or unconditional edge probabilities for dyads in a binary network. In the conditional case, we require not only a fitted ERGM but also a full network. For every possible i and j , the model-based conditional probability that $Y_{ij} = 1$, given the status of all other edges in the full network, is easily calculated based on (1). Indeed, this is exactly what the `ergmMPLE` function does in order to calculate an MPLE (maximum pseudo-likelihood estimator) (see [Krivitsky et al. 2022](#), Section 3.1). Thus, when `conditional = TRUE`, the `predict` method produces exact calculations for any model.

By contrast, setting `conditional = FALSE` always results in simulation-based estimates of the edge probabilities – despite the fact that for any dyad-independent model, edges are independent of one another. This independence means that conditional and unconditional probabilities coincide, so exact unconditional probability calculations are possible as explained in the previous paragraph. On the other hand, for dyad-dependent models, it is generally computationally intractable to calculate exact unconditional edge probabilities, so only simulation-based estimates are possible.

The difference between `conditional = TRUE` and `conditional = FALSE` is best illustrated by a very simple dyad-independent model. Here, we consider `ergm`'s `g4` network with 4 nodes and 5 directed ties. We add a simple nodal covariate that indicates the first node, then fit a two-term dyad-independence model:

```
R> data("g4", package = "ergm")
R> g4 %v% "First" <- c(TRUE, FALSE, FALSE, FALSE)
R> SimpleERGMM <- ergm(g4 ~ edges + nodecov("First"))
R> as.matrix(g4)
```

```
      V1 V2 V3 V4
V1  0  1  1  1
V2  0  0  0  0
V3  1  0  0  0
V4  0  0  1  0
```

Our model estimates one edge probability for node 1 and a second edge probability for all other nodes. The adjacency matrix above makes clear that 4 of the 6 possible edges incident on node 1 are present, while only 1 of the remaining 6 possible edges is present. This makes the exact edge probabilities according to this maximum likelihood-fitted model easy to calculate, and they coincide with those obtained using `predict` with `conditional = TRUE`:

```
R> predict(SimpleERGMM, conditional = TRUE, output = "matrix")

      V1      V2      V3      V4
V1 0.000000 0.6666667 0.6666667 0.6666667
V2 0.6666667 0.0000000 0.1666667 0.1666667
V3 0.6666667 0.1666667 0.0000000 0.1666667
V4 0.6666667 0.1666667 0.1666667 0.0000000
```

On the other hand, `conditional = FALSE` forces a simulation-based estimate of the unconditional probabilities:

```
R> set.seed(123)
R> predict(SimpleERGMM, conditional = FALSE, output = "matrix", nsim = 1000)

      V1      V2      V3      V4
V1 0.000 0.673 0.649 0.677
V2 0.662 0.000 0.178 0.154
V3 0.683 0.165 0.000 0.185
V4 0.641 0.173 0.173 0.000
```

8.4. Flattened control arguments via a single list

Many of the core functions of **ergm** and related packages have `control` arguments that control various aspects of their working. Within just **ergm**, for instance, the functions `ergm`, `simulate` (for simulating a random network from a Markov chain with a specified ERGM as its stationary distribution), and `san` (for creating a network whose statistics match a given set of values) all require various control parameters. Packages such as **ergm.ego** include additional core functions like `ergm.ego` requiring control parameters. Moreover, it is not unusual that, say, a call to `ergm` will invoke `simulate` and possibly `san` implicitly. This means that a single `ergm` (or `ergm.ego`) call could have multiple lists of control parameters, sometimes passed as nested lists. **ergm 4** implements a method that flattens these nested lists, allowing users to enter all control parameters in a single list. Furthermore, this method allows for the usual tab-completion of available arguments when using most R environments.

The key to entering control arguments for all of the various functions requiring them is the single function `snctrl()`, which is shorthand for “StatNet ConTRoL”. The `snctrl()` function is used as the single value of the `control` argument in a function such as `ergm`. For instance, if we wish to force Monte-Carlo-based estimation in a simple ERGM that could be estimated exactly – because it is a dyadic independence model in which the pseudo-likelihood is the same as the likelihood – we might type

```
R> coef(ergm(g4 ~ edges, control = snctrl(force.main = TRUE, seed = 321)))
      edges
-0.349256
```

If the code above is entered in RStudio, then pressing the tab key after typing `...control = snctrl(` will reveal the various possible control parameters, including `force.main`. Additional illustrations of this method of entering control parameters are in [Krivitsky *et al.* \(2022\)](#).

ergm 4 is backwards-compatible with the previous method of passing control parameters via `control.ergm`, `control.simulate`, `control.san`, and others.

8.5. Improved help for model terms, constraints, and reference measures

As alluded to at several points earlier in this article, online help for model terms, which include term operators, may be obtained by typing either `help("[name]-ergmTerm")` or the shorthand version `ergmTerm?[name]`, where `[name]` is the name of the term or operator. A full list of terms is available via `?ergmTerm`, indexed by type and keywords. This list is updated dynamically as extension packages are loaded and unloaded. Similarly, help on sample space constraints or reference measures may be obtained by typing `?ergmConstraint` or `?ergmReference`, respectively. Available keywords and their meanings can be obtained by typing `?ergmKeywords`. When using RStudio, it is possible to press the tab key after starting a line with `?ergm` to view the wide range of possible help options beginning with the letters `ergm`.

8.6. Setting package options

ergm 4 has a number of options that affect ERGM estimation as well as the behavior of some terms, explained below as global options and term options, respectively. A current list of available options may be obtained via `help("ergm-options")` or the shorthand `options?ergm`.

Global options

A number of **ergm** behaviors can be set globally using the familiar `options()` command. For example, whether `ergm()` and similar functions evaluate the likelihood of the fitted model – a very computationally intensive process, particularly for valued networks – by default is controlled by option `ergm.eval.loglik`, which itself defaults to `TRUE`. Running

```
R> options(ergm.eval.loglik = FALSE)
```

instructs `ergm()` to skip likelihood calculation unless overridden in the call via `ergm(..., eval.loglik = TRUE)`.

Other global options currently implemented are

`ergm.loglik.warn_dyads`: Whether log-likelihood evaluation should issue a warning when the effective number of dyads that can vary in the sample space is poorly defined, such as if the degree sequence is constrained.

`ergm.cluster.retries`: **ergm**'s parallel routines implement rudimentary fault-tolerance. This option controls the number of retries for a cluster call before giving up.

`ergm.term`: This allows the default term options list, described below, to be set globally.

Term options

ergm 4 implements an interface for setting certain options for ERGM term behavior. The global setting is controlled via `options(ergm.term = list(...))` where `...` are key-value pairs specifying the options. Individual options can be overwritten on an ad hoc basis within a function call. For functions that have a `control` argument, such as `ergm()` and `simulate()`, this is done via a `term.options` control parameter, and for those that do not, such as `summary()`, it is done by passing the options directly or by passing a `term.options` argument with the list.

Options used as of this writing include:

`version`: A string that can be interpreted as an R package version. If set, the term will attempt to emulate its behavior as it was that version of **ergm**. Not all past version behaviors are available.

`gw.cutoff`: In geometrically weighted terms (`gwesp`, `gwdegree`, etc.) the highest number of shared partners, degrees, etc. for which to compute the statistic. This usually defaults to 30.

`cache.sp`: Whether the `gwesp`, `dgwesp`, and similar terms should use a cache for the dyad-wise number of shared partners. This usually improves performance significantly and therefore defaults to `TRUE`, but it can be disabled.

`interact.dependent`: How to handle attempts to use interaction terms : and * with dyad-dependent terms. Possible values are "error" (the default), "message", "warning", and "silent". Each of the last three will allow such terms, defined as described in Section 4.2 via their change statistics.

9. Discussion

Since version 2.1 of the **ergm** package was released concurrently with Hunter *et al.* (2008b), the package has undergone substantial changes. This paper describes the changes that are most likely to be of general interest, including – but not limited to – those that are new with the release of major version 4 (Handcock *et al.* 2023). Development of **ergm** and the growing list of related packages, many of which are described in Section 2 of this article, is ongoing. Thus, while this article describes many new features, it represents a snapshot of the evolving code comprising the **statnet** suite of packages for R (R Core Team 2022).

Acknowledgments

Many individuals have contributed code for version 4 of **ergm**, particularly Mark Handcock, who wrote most of the code upon which missing data inference and diagnostics are based, and Michał Bojanowski, who produced the **predict** method, among many other contributions by both of them. Carter Butts is the main developer of the **network** package, upon which **ergm** depends; in addition, he provided numerous suggestions for computational improvements and new terms, and provided numerous helpful comments about this manuscript. Skye Bender-deMoll wrote a vignette that automatically cross-references **ergm** model terms, Joyce Cheng wrote the dynamic documentation system and miscellaneous enhancements, and Christian Schmid contributed code improving MPLE standard error estimation. Other important contributors are Steven Goodreau, Ayn Leslie-Cook, Li Wang, and Kirk Li. We are grateful to all these individuals as well as the many users of **ergm** who have aided the package’s development through the many questions and suggestions they have posed over the years.

This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health under Grant R01-AI138783. Partial support for this research came from a Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development research infrastructure Grant, P2C HD042828, to the Center for Studies in Demography and Ecology at the University of Washington; and from the US Army Research Office W911NF-21-1-0335 (79034-NS).

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