Maximum value and null moments of the degree variance

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0. Introduction

This is companion paper to Snijders (1981), which will henceforth be indicated by DV. It contains proofs of some statements and formulas which were left unproven in DV.

Section 1 introduces the concept of a monotone graph, which is used in Section 2. In Section 2, the maximum value of the degree variance is computed for undirected graphs with a given number of points and a given density. In Section 3, this maximum is computed without restrictions on the density.

Section 4 is independent of the other sections. In this section, the mean and variance of the degree variance are computed under some simple stochastic null models.

All notation and terminology of DV is used without introducing it again.

1. Monotone graphs

The concept of a monotone graph plays an essential role in Section 2.

1.1. Monozone graphs: introduction

Consider an undirected graph G with incidence matrix (x_{ij}) . Suppose that there exists points i,j,k with i \neq k and

$$x_{j} \le x_{k}, \quad x_{ij} = 1, \quad x_{ik} = 0.$$

Construct the graph G' from G by switching the line i-j to i-k (i.e., $x'_{ij} = 0$ and $x'_{ik} = 1$, while $x'_{st} = x_{st}$ for all other (s,t)). Then

$$x'_{j} = x_{j}-1$$
 $x'_{k} = x_{k}+1$
 $x'_{t} = x_{t}$ for $t \neq j, k$
 $x! = x$. , $d' = d$,

and hence for every convex function $\phi:\,{\rm I\!N}_{_{\textstyle \mbox{\scriptsize O}}}\,\to\,{\rm I\!R}$ we have

$$\begin{split} \Sigma_{t}^{\phi(\mathbf{x}_{t}')} &- \Sigma_{t}^{\phi(\mathbf{x}_{t})} &= \\ &= \phi(\mathbf{x}_{j}^{-1}) + \phi(\mathbf{x}_{k}^{+1}) - \phi(\mathbf{x}_{j}) - \phi(\mathbf{x}_{k}) & \geq 0 \,, \end{split}$$

 $V_{\phi}(G) \leq V_{\phi}(G')$. The set of graphs which do not have three points i,j,k satisfying (1.1.1) will be defined as the set of monotone graphs.

Definition. A monotone graph is an undirected graph which satisfies

$$(x_{ij} = 1, x_{j} \le x_{k'}, i \ne k) \Rightarrow x_{ik} = 1.$$

The discussion above implies that in order to find the maximum of $V_{\phi}(G)$ for undirected graphs G with fixed g and d, one may restrict attention to monotone graphs.

Let G be a monotone graph; in the sequel it will always be assumed that $x_1 \ge x_2 \ge \cdots \ge x_q$. Then

$$x_{ij} = 1 \quad \text{for } \begin{cases} 1 \le j \le x_i & \text{if } x_i \le i-1 \\ 1 \le j \le x_{i+1} & \text{if } (x_i \ge i \text{ and } j \ne i) \end{cases}$$

$$x_{ij} = 0$$
 for all other (i,j).

It follows that every monotone graph is determined by its vector of degrees (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_q) . Define

$$I = \min\{i | x_i \le i-1\}.$$

Then a monotone graph is already determined by the degrees x_i for $1 \le i \le g$. To see this, note that

(1.1.3)
$$x_{ij} = 1 \quad \text{for } 1 \le j < i \le I-1$$
$$x_{ij} = 1 \quad \text{for } 1 \le j \le x_i, i \ge I$$
$$x_{ij} = 0 \quad \text{for } x_i < j \le g, i \ge I$$

and that the whole incidence matrix (\mathbf{x}_{ij}) is determined by (1.1.3) together with the restrictions

$$x_{ij} = x_{ji}, x_{ii} = 0.$$

A graphical representation of monotone graphs can be given in the following way. A grid of $g \times g$ squares, both dimensions having coordinate values 1,2,...,g, will be called the (i,j) grid. In square (i,j) put the number x_{ij} . Then the highest 1 in column i is situated at $j = x_i^*$ where

$$x_{i}^{*} = \begin{cases} x_{i}^{+1} & 1 \leq i \leq I-1 \\ x_{i} & I \leq i \leq g \end{cases}$$

The borderline between the regions $\{x_{ij} = 1\}$ and $\{x_{ij} = 0\}$, not taking into account the main diagonal, is called the "incidence borderline". Figure 1 gives the incidence borderline for the monotone graph with g = 11 and

$$x_1 = x_2 = 8$$
, $x_3 = 7$, $x_4 = x_5 = 4$
 $x_6 = x_7 = x_8 = 3$, $x_9 = 2$, $x_{10} = x_{11} = 0$.

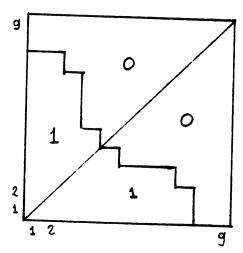
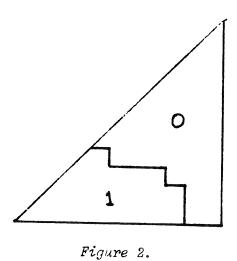


Figure 1.

The incidence borderline completely characterizes the monotone graph. A less redundant characterization is given by the "half incidence borderline", which is the part of the incidence borderline below the main diagonal, i.e. for $i \geq I$ only; see Figure 2.



1.2. Monotone graphs and majorization

(This section will not be used in the sequel and may be skipped). For two vectors $\mathbf{x}=(\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_g)$ and $\mathbf{y}=(\mathbf{y}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{y}_g)$, \mathbf{x} is said to majorize \mathbf{y} if

$$\Sigma_{i=1}^{g} x_{i} = \Sigma_{i=1}^{g} y_{i}$$

$$\Sigma_{i=1}^{k} x_{[i]} \ge \Sigma_{i=1}^{k} y_{[i]} \text{ for } k = 1, ..., g-1$$

where $x_{[1]}, x_{[g]}$ are the x_{i} 's arranged in descending order. See Marshall and Olkin (1979). This is equivalent to

$$\Sigma_{i=1}^{g} \phi(x_i) \ge \Sigma_{i=1}^{g} \phi(y_i)$$
 for all convex ϕ ,

and it is denoted by $x \succ y$. In the discussions at the start of Section 1.1 we have

$$(\mathbf{x}_1', \mathbf{x}_2', \dots, \mathbf{x}_g') \succ (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_g).$$

The ordering of majorization is a partial ordering, which reflects the dispersion of the components of the vectors.

Denote

$$\mathbb{D} = \{(x_1, \dots, x_g) \mid \text{ there is an undirected graph with} \\ \text{degrees } x_1, x_2, \dots, x_g\}.$$

Then the result of the previous section can be formulated by saying that the class of maximal elements of $\mathbb D$ with respect to majorization is a subset of the class of vectors of degrees of monotone graphs. Corollary 6.18 of Chen (1971) states that if $\mathbf x=(\mathbf x_1,\dots,\mathbf x_g)$ is a vector of integers with $g{-}1\geq \mathbf x_1\geq \mathbf x_2\geq \mathbf x_3\geq \dots \geq \mathbf x_g\geq 0$, then $\mathbf x{\in}\mathbb D$ if and only if

(1.2.1)
$$\sum_{i=1}^{J} x_i \text{ is even}$$

$$\approx \sum_{i=1}^{J} x_i$$

where
$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_1, \dots, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_g)$$
 is defined by
$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i = \left| \{ j \neq i \mid \mathbf{x}_j \geq i \} \right| \quad \text{if } 1 \leq i \leq i_o$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i = \left| \{ j \leq i_o \mid \mathbf{x}_j + 1 \geq i \} \right| \quad \text{if } i_o + 1 \leq i \leq g,$$

where

$$i_0 = \max\{i | x_i \ge i\} = I-1.$$

For monotone graphs (with degrees arranged in non-decreasing order) we precisely have $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}$. On the other hand it is not hard to see that if $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}$, then a (symmetric) incidence matrix of a monotone graph can be constructed with vector of degrees x (compare the construction mentioned by Chen (1971) on page 411). So x is the vector of degrees of a monotone graph if and only if $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}$.

It can be proved that

(Compare 7.B.5 in Marshall and Olkin (1979), where the analogous result is proved for directed graphs.) With (1.2.1) this implies that if x is the vector of degrees of a monotone graph, then x is a maximal element of ${\bf ID}$ with respect to majorization. Summarizing, we have obtained the following result.

Theorem. The maximal elements of DD with respect to majorization are exactly the vectors of degrees of monotone graphs.

2. The maximum value of the degree variance for a given density

2.1. Statement of the result

In this section, the maximum value of \boldsymbol{V} for undirected graphs with \boldsymbol{g} points and degree sum

$$s = \sum_{i=1}^{g} x_i$$

will be obtained. The condition of a given degree \sup is of course equivalent to the condition of a given density.

The monotone graph with

(2.1.1)
$$x_{i} = \begin{cases} I & 1 \leq i \leq k \\ I-1 & k+1 \leq i \leq I \\ k & i = I+1 \\ 0 & I+2 \leq i \leq g \end{cases}$$

or, equivalently,

where $0 \le k \le I-1$ and $1 \le I \le g-1$ or (I,k) = (g,0), is denoted by G(I,k). The incidence borderline of this graph is represented in Figure 3. The degree sum of G(I,k) is

$$S(I,k) = kI + (I-k)(I-1) + k$$

= $I(I-1) + 2k$.

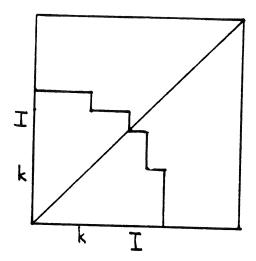


Figure 3.

For the mentioned values of (I,k), s(I,k) assumes all even integers from 0 to g(g-1), which are all possible values for s for undirected graphs with g points. The definition of G(I,k) can also be used for k=I, in which case one gets G(I,I)=G(I+1,0). The degree sum of squares of G(I,k) is

$$kI^2 + (I-k)(I-1)^2 + k^2 = I(I-1)^2 + k(2I+k-1)$$

whence the degree variance of G(I,k) is

$$(2.1.2) V(I,k) = \frac{1}{3} \{I(I-1)^2 + k(2I+k-1)\} - \{\frac{I(I-1) + 2k}{3}\}^2.$$

It will be proved that

(2.1.3)
$$V_{max}(g,d) = max V(I_d,k_d), V(I_d^c,k_d^c)$$

where (I_d, k_d) and (I_d^c, k_d^c) are the unique solutions of

$$I_{d}(I_{d}^{-1}) + 2k_{d} = g(g-1)d$$
(2.1.4)

(2.1.4)
$$I_{d}^{c}(I_{d}^{c}-1) + 2k_{d}^{c} = g(g-1)(1-d)$$

when (I_d, k_d) and (I_d^c, k_d^c) are restricted to

$$(2.1.5) J = \{(I,k) \mid 0 \le k \le I-1, 1 \le I \le g-1\} \cup \{(g,0)\}.$$

It may be noted that the complement of $G(I_d^e, k_d^e)$ is a graph with degree sum s and variance equal to $V(I_d^c, k_d^e)$.

This result will be proved in the following way. Denote by $G(\mathtt{d})$ the set of all monotone graphs with g points and density d, and define

$$G_1(d) = \{G \in G(d) \mid G \text{ has no isolated points}\}$$

 $G_{O}(d) = \{G \in G(d) \mid G \text{ has at least one isolated point}\}.$

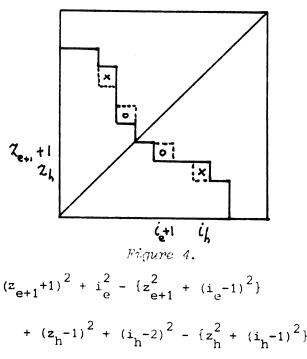
For every $G \in G_O(d)$, its complement is an element of $G_1(1-d)$ and has the same degree variance as G, and vice versa. It well be demonstrated that for every $G \in G_O(d)$, either the variance of G is equal to $V(I_d, k_d)$, or there exists a graph in G(d) with a greater degree variance than G. This implies (2.1.3).

2.2. Changing a monotone graph.

Let G be a monotone graph.

Define z_1 , z_2 ,..., z_f as the different values assumed by the degrees x_i for $i \ge I$, ordered so that $z_1 > z_2 > ... > z_f \ge 0$.

Define i_h as the largest i with $x_i = z_h$. Then $I \le i_1 < \ldots < i_f = g$, and (i_h, z_h) are the coordinates of the right-upper angles in the half incidence borderline. Now change G into G' by disconnecting the points i_h and z_h , while connecting the points $i_e + 1$ and $z_{e+1} + 1$. Then G' is again a monotone graph with the same density as G; the degree sum of squares of G' minus that of G is (see Figure 4)



$$(2.2.1) = 2(z_{e+1}^{+1} + i_{e}^{+1}) - 2(i_{h}^{+2} + i_{h}^{-1}).$$

In the graphical representation, (2.2.1) is the sum of the coordinates of the squares in the (i,j) grid where 0 is replaced by 1, minus the coordinate sum of the squares where 1 is replaced by 0. Because of the symmetry with respect to the main diagonal we only need to consider the part of the (i,j) grid below the main diagonal.

In the following subsections, we consider changes of monotone graphs consisting of a succession of changes of the type above. In the (i,j) grid, disconnected pairs are marked by \mathbf{x} and connected pairs by \mathbf{o} . It can be easily verified graphically, that the proposed change of G leaves the degree variance unaffected or increases it. If the \mathbf{o} and \mathbf{x} signs can be so paired that in each pair (consisting of an \mathbf{o} and an \mathbf{x}), both squares have the same coordinate sum $\mathbf{i}+\mathbf{j}$, then the degree variance is unaffected. If in each pair the coordinate sum of \mathbf{o} is not less than the coordinate sum of \mathbf{x} , while it is greater in some pairs, then the degree variance is increased. For example, in Figure 4 the degree variance is decreased.

The cases $f \ge 4$, f = 3, f = 2 and f = 1 will be studied successively. We denote the subclass of $G_O(d)$ with a given value of f by $G_O(d,f)$ and

Then $y_h \ge 1$, $d_h \ge 1$ for $1 \le h \le f-1$ and $y_0 \ge 0$. For G with at least one isolated point, we have $x_q = z_f = 0$.

2.3. The case f > 4

It will be proved in this subsection that for every graph in $G_{O}(d,f)$ with $f \geq 4$, there exists a graph in G(d) with a larger degree variance. Consider a graph in $G_{O}(d,f)$ with $f \geq 4$. For h = 1,2, consider the following set of changes.

A. Suppose $d_{h+1} \leq d_h \leq y_h$. Disconnect $j - i_h$ for $z_h - d_{h+1} + 1 \leq j \leq z_h$ and connect $j - (i_{h+1} + 1)$ for $z_{h+2} + 1 \leq j \leq z_{h+1}$. (Figure 5). This increases the degree variance.

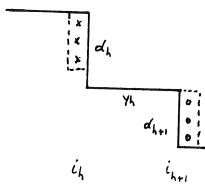


Figure 5.

B. Suppose $d_h \leq d_{h+1} \leq y_h$. Disconnect $j - i_h$ for $z_{h+1}^{++1} \leq j \leq z_h$ and connect $j - (i_{h+1}^{++1})$ for $z_{h+2}^{++1} \leq j \leq z_{h+2}^{++1}$. (Figure 6). This increases the degree variance.

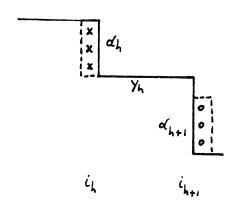


Figure ℓ .

C. Suppose $\mathbf{d}_{h+1} \geq 2$ and $2 \leq \mathbf{y}_h \leq \mathbf{d}_h$. Disconnect $\mathbf{z}_{h+1} - \mathbf{i} \text{ for } \mathbf{i}_h + 2 \leq \mathbf{i} \leq \mathbf{i}_{h+1}, \text{ disconnect}$ $(\mathbf{z}_{h+1}^{-1}) - \mathbf{i}_{h+1} \text{ and connect } \mathbf{j} - (\mathbf{i}_h^{+1}) \text{ for }$ $\mathbf{z}_{h+1}^{-1} \leq \mathbf{j} \leq \mathbf{z}_{h+1}^{-1} + \mathbf{y}_h. \text{ (Figure 7). This increases the degree variance.}$

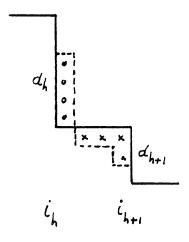


Figure 7.

D. Suppose $d_h \ge 2$ and $2 \le y_h \le d_{h+1}$. Disconnect $j - i_{h+1}$ for $z_{h+1} - y_h + 1 \le j \le z_{h+1}$, connect $(z_{h+1} + 1) - i$ for $i_h + 1 \le i \le i_{h+1} - 1$ and connect $(z_{h+1} + 2) - (i_h + 1)$. (Figure 8). This increases the degree variance.

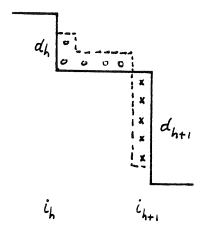


Figure 8.

If none of the conditions for changes ${\tt A}$, ${\tt B}$, ${\tt C}$ or ${\tt D}$ is satisfied, then necessarily

(2.3.1)
$$y_h = 1 \text{ or } (d_h = 1 \text{ and } y_h < d_{h+1}) \text{ or } (d_{h+1} = 1 \text{ and } y_h < d_h).$$

By applying this for h=1, it is seen that a necessary condition for a graph in $G_{O}(d,f)$ to have the maximum degree variance is

$$y_1 = 1 \text{ or } (d_1 = 1 \text{ and } y_1 < d_2) \text{ or } (d_2 = 1 \text{ and } y_1 < d_1).$$

If $d_1 = 1$ and $y_1 < d_2$, then disconnecting $j - i_2$ for $z_2 - y_1 + 2 \le j \le z_2$ and connecting $z_1 - i$ for $i_1 + 1 \le i \le i_2 - 1$ yields a graph in $G_0(d,f)$ with the same degree variance and $y_1 = 1$. (Figure 9).

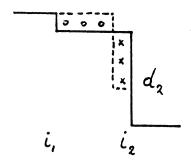


Figure 9.

If $d_2 = 1$ and $y_1 < d_1$, then disconnecting z_2 — i for $i_1 + 2 \le i \le i_2$ and connecting j — (i_1+1) for $z_2+1 \le j \le z_2+y_1-1$ yields a graph in $G_O(d,f)$ with the same degree variance and $y_1 = 1$. (Figure 10).

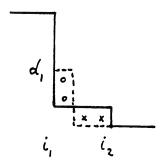


Figure 10.

This implies that in order to achieve the aim of this subsection it is sufficient to show that for every graph in $\mathcal{G}_{0}(d,f)$ with $f\geq 4$ and $y_{1}=1$, there exists a graph in $\mathcal{G}(d)$ with a greater degree variance. By considering the changes A, B, C and D for h=2, it is seen that all these graphs which cannot be changed (with increasing degree variance) in one of these ways satisfy (cf. 2.3.1) $y_{1}=1$ and

$$y_2 = 1 \text{ or } (d_2 = 1 \text{ and } y_2 < d_3) \text{ or } (d_3 = 1 \text{ and } y_2 < d_2),$$

which implies

(2.3.2)
$$y_1 = 1$$
 and $(y_2 \le d_2 \text{ or } (d_2 = 1 \text{ and } y_2 < d_3))$.

If $y_1 = 1$ and $y_2 \le d_2$, then disconnecting $z_3 - i_3$ and connecting $(z_2+1) - i_2$ increases the degree variance. (Figure 11).

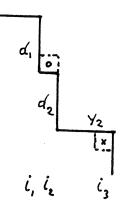


Figure 11.

If $y_1 = d_2 = 1$ and $y_2 \le d_3$, then disconnecting $j - i_3$ for $z_3 - y_2 + 1 \le j \le z_3$, connecting $z_2 - i$ for $i_2 + 1 \le i \le i_3 - 1$ and connecting $(z_2 + 1) - i_2$ increases the degree variance. (Figure 12).

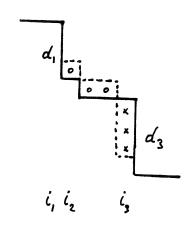


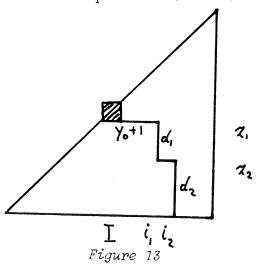
Figure 12.

This completes the demonstration that if $f \geq 4$, then the degree variance cannot be maximal.

2.4. The case f = 3.

It will be demonstrated in this subsection that if $1 \le k_d \le I-2$, then $G(I_d,k_d)$ has in $G_O(d,3)$ the maximal degree variance; while if $k_d=0$ or I-1, then for every graph in $G_O(d,3)$ there is another graph in $G_O(d)$ with a greater degree variance.

All changes mentioned in Subsection 2.3, until and including the change represented by Figure 10, can also be applied if f=3. This implies that the maximum degree variance for graphs in $G_{O}(d)$ with f=3 is assumed by a graph satisfying $Y_{1}=1$. (Figure 13).



Consider a graph in $G_0(d)$ with f = 3 and $y_1 = 1$. If $1 \le y_0 \le d_2$, then disconnecting j — i_2 for z_2 - y_0 + 1 \leq j \leq z_2 and connecting (z_1+1) — i for I + 1 \leq i \leq i₁ increases the degree variance. (Figure 14).

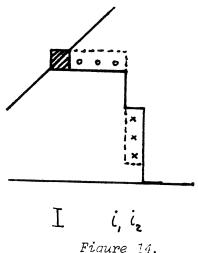


Figure 14.

If $d_2 \le y_0 \le d_1 + d_2 -1$, then disconnecting j — i_2 for $1 \le j \le z_2$ and connecting (z_1+1) — i for I + 1 \leq i \leq I + z_2 increases the degree variance (Figure 15).

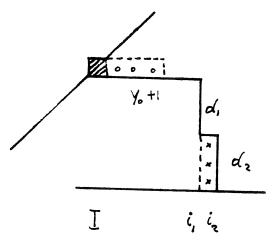
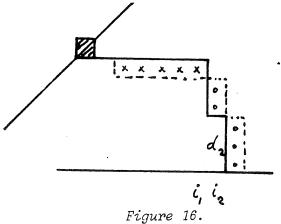


Figure 15.

If $y_0 \ge d_1 + d_2$, then disconnecting $z_1 - i$ for $i_1 - d_1 - d_2 + 2 \le i \le i_1$, connecting j — i_2 for $z_2 + 1 \le j \le z_1 - 1$ and connecting j — (i_2+1) for $1 \le j \le z_2$ increases the degree variance. (Figure 16).



The only case remaining of f = 3 is $y_0 = 0$, $y_1 = 1$. This is just the graph $G(I_d, k_d)$, if $1 \le k_d \le I-2$; if $k_d = 0$ or I-1, then there is no graph in $G_0(d)$ with $y_0 = 0$, $y_1 = 1$.

2.5. The case f = 2.

It will be demonstrated in this subsection that for every graph in $G_{\rm O}({\rm d},2)$, either there is a graph in $G({\rm d})$ with a greater degree variance, or the degree variance is equal to $V({\rm I}_{\rm d}^{},\,\,k_{\rm d}^{})$ or $V({\rm I}_{\rm d}^{},\,\,k_{\rm d}^{})$.

For $z_1=g-2$, we encounter G(g-1,0); for $z_1=g-3$ and f=2, we encounter G(g-2,0) or G(g-2,g-3). Now consider a graph in $G_0(d,2)$ with $z_1\leq g-4$. If $3\leq y_0\leq d_1$, then disconnecting j — i_1 for $z_1-y_0+1\leq j\leq z_1$, connecting (z_1+1) — i for $I+1\leq i\leq i_1-1$ and connecting (z_1+2) — (I+2) increases the degree variance. (Figure 17).

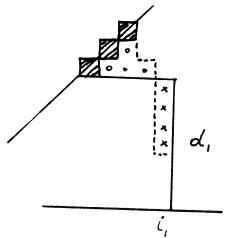


Figure 17.

If $y_1 \ge 2$, $d_1 \le y_0$, then disconnecting z_1 — i for $i_1 - d_1 + 1 \le i \le i_1$, connecting j — (i_1+1) for $1 \le j \le z_1 - 1$ and connecting 1 — (i_1+2) increases the degree variance (Figure 18).

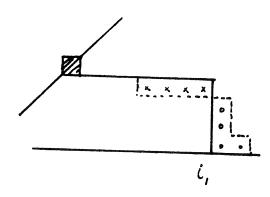


Figure 18.

If $y_1 = 1$, $d_1 \le y_0$, then disconnecting z_1 — i for $i_1 - d_1 + 2 \le i \le i_1$ and connecting (i_1+1) — j for $1 \le j \le z_1 - 1$ (note that $i_1 = g-1$) yields a graph with the same degree variance. This graph is just the complement of $G(I_d^C, k_d^C)$, and hence its degree variance is $V(I_d^C, k_d^C)$. (Figure 19).

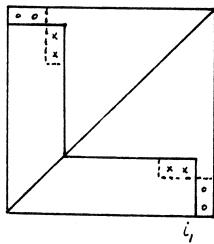


Figure 19.

If $y_0 = 2$, then disconnecting $z_1 - i_1$ and connecting $(z_1+1) - (i_1+1)$ does not affect the degree variance and yields the graph $V(I_d, k_d)$. (Figure 20).

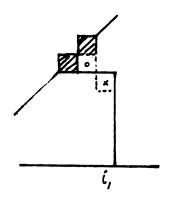


Figure 20.

For $y_0 = 1$, we encounter $G(I_d, I_{d-1})$. For $y_0 = 0$, we encounter $G(I_d, 0)$.

2.6. The case f = 1.

If f=1 for a graph with at least one isolated point, we have $x_I=x_g=0$, which implies that the graph is completely disconnected and is equal to G(0,0).

3. The maximum value of the degree variance.

It follows from Section 2 (cf.(2.1.3)) that

$$V_{\text{max}}(g) = \max_{0 \le s \le g(g-1)} V(I_d, k_d)$$

with (I_d, k_d) determined by (2.1.4), (2.1.5). Formula (2.1.2) shows that, for fixed I, V(I,k) is a quadratic function of k with a nonnegative coefficient of k^2 whenever $g \ge 4$. As G(I,I) = G(I+1,0), this implies that

$$\max_{0 \le k \le I-1} V(I,k) \le \max\{V(I,0), V(I+1,0)\}$$

and hence

$$V_{\text{max}}(g) = \max_{0 \le 1 \le g-1} V(I,0).$$

Define

$$v(I) = g^2 V(I,0) = I(I-1)^2 (g-I).$$

Then

$$v(I-1) - v(I) = (I-1)(4I^2 - (3g+8)I+4g).$$

This expression is 0 for I = 1 and

$$I = \frac{3g + 8 \pm \sqrt{9g^2 - 16g + 64}}{8}$$

For $g \ge 5$ we have $3g - 8 < \sqrt{9g^2 - 16g + 64} < 3g$, so there is a $y \in (0,1)$ with

$$2 \le I \le \frac{3}{4}g + y \Rightarrow v(I-1) < v(I)$$

$$\frac{3}{4}g + y \le I \le g \Rightarrow v(I-1) > v(I).$$

This shows that for integer I, v(I) is maximal for $I = I^*$ with $\frac{3}{4}g-1 < I^* < \frac{3}{4}g+1$. Considering each of the cases g = 4h + t for integers hand t with $0 \le t \le 3$ shows that in all these cases, I^* can be represented by

(3.1)
$$I^* = \left[\frac{3}{4}g + \frac{1}{2}\right].$$

For g=3,4 the number of possibilities is very small and it is easily seen that here; too, $V_{\text{max}}(g)=V(I^*,0)$ with I^* as in (3.1). So we have obtained the result

(3.2)
$$V_{\text{max}}(g) = V(I^*, 0) = \frac{I^*(g-I^*)(I^*-1)^2}{g^2}$$
.

It is straightforward to see that $g^{-2}V_{max}(g)$ is an increasing function of g which converges to

$$\lim_{g\to\infty} V_{\max}(g) = \frac{27}{256} .$$

4. Expectation and variance of the degree variance under some simple stochastic models.

This section contains the computations for EV and var V under the null models of DV (Section 3).

4.1. A **si**mple general formula.

In all models considered, the restriction

$$\Sigma_{i=1}^{g} x_{i} = s$$

is made, while x_1 , x_2 ..., x_g are permutation invariant. This yields

$$V = g^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{g} (x_i - \frac{s}{g})^2 = g^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{g} x_i^2 - (\frac{s}{g})^2$$

(4.1.1) EV = var
$$x_1$$

var $V = g^{-1} \text{ var } x_1^2 + g^{-1}(g-1) \text{ cov } (x_1^2, x_2^2)$.

4.2. A general formula for directed and undirected graphs.

For directed and undirected graphs, we have

$$\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}} = \mathbf{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{j}=1}^{\mathbf{g}} \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{j}}.$$

Define

$$\pi_{1} = P\{X_{12} = 1\}$$

$$\pi_{2} = P\{X_{12} = X_{13} = 1\}$$

$$\pi_{3} = P\{X_{12} = X_{13} = X_{14} = 1\}$$

$$\pi_{4} = P\{X_{12} = X_{13} = X_{14} = X_{15} = 1\}.$$

The permutation invariance of X_{12} , X_{13} , ..., X_{17} yields

$$var X_{1} = (g-1) var X_{12} + (g-1)(g-2) cov (X_{12}, X_{13})$$

$$= (g-1)\pi_{1}(1-\pi_{1}) + (g-1)(g-2)(\pi_{2}-\pi_{1}^{2})$$

$$EX_{1}^{2} = var X_{1} + (EX_{1})^{2} = (g-1)\pi_{1} + (g-1)(g-2)\pi_{2}$$

$$EX_{1}^{4} = E(\Sigma_{j=2}^{g}X_{1j})^{4} = (g-1)EX_{12}^{2} + 4(g-1)(g-2)EX_{12}^{3}X_{13} + 4(g-1)(g-2)EX_{12}^{3}X_{13}$$

+
$$(g-1)(g-2)(g-3)(g-4)EX_{12}X_{13}X_{14}X_{15}$$

= $(g-1)\pi_1 + 7(g-1)(g-2)\pi_2 + 6(g-1)(g-2)(g-3)\pi_3$
+ $(g-1)(g-2)(g-3)(g-4)\pi_4$.

 $\mathbf{W}_{\mathtt{ith}}$

$$\rho_2 = P\{X_{12} = X_{21} = 1\}$$

$$\rho_3 = P\{X_{12} = X_{21} = X_{13} = 1\}$$

$$\rho_4 = P\{X_{12} = X_{21} = X_{13} = X_{23} = 1\},$$

the permutation invariance of x_{13} , x_{14} , ..., x_{1g} , x_{23} , x_{24} , ..., x_{2g} yields

$$\begin{split} & \text{EX}_{1}^{2} \text{X}_{2}^{2} = \text{E}(\text{X}_{12} + \Sigma_{j=3}^{g} \text{X}_{1j})^{2} (\text{X}_{21} + \Sigma_{j=3}^{g} \text{X}_{2j})^{2} \\ & = \text{EX}_{12}^{2} \text{X}_{21}^{2} + 4(g-2) \text{EX}_{12}^{2} \text{X}_{21} \text{X}_{23} \\ & + 2 \text{EX}_{12}^{2} (\Sigma_{j=3}^{g} \text{X}_{2j})^{2} + 4(g-2)^{2} \text{EX}_{12} \text{X}_{13} \text{X}_{21} \text{X}_{23} \\ & + 4(g-2) \text{EX}_{12} \text{X}_{13} (\Sigma_{j=3}^{g} \text{X}_{2j})^{2} + \text{E}(\Sigma_{j=3}^{g} \text{X}_{1j})^{2} (\Sigma_{j=3}^{g} \text{X}_{2j})^{2} \\ & = \rho_{2} + 4(g-2)\rho_{3} + 4(g-2)^{2}\rho_{4} + g(g-2)\pi_{2} \\ & + 2(g-2)(g^{2} - 2g-1)\pi_{3} + (g+1)(g-2)^{2}(g-3)\pi_{4}. \end{split}$$

Hence, with (4.1.1),

$$var \ V = g^{-1}Ex_1^4 + g^{-1}(g-1)Ex_1^2x_2^2 - (Ex_1^2)^2$$

$$= g^{-1}(g-1)\{\rho_2 + 4(g-2)\rho_3 + 4(g-2)^2\rho_4\}$$

$$+ g^{-1}(g-1)\{\pi_1 + (g+7)(g-2)\pi_2 + 2(g-2)(g^2 + g-10)\pi_3 + (g-2)(g-3)(g^2 - 6)\pi_4\}$$

$$- \{(g-1)\pi_1 + (g-1)(g-2)\pi_2\}^2.$$

4.3. A general formula for bipartite graphs.

For bipartite graphs, we have

$$x_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{h} x_{ij}.$$

A comparison with Section 4.2 shows that

(4.3.1)
$$\begin{aligned} \text{var } \mathbf{x}_1 &= \mathbf{h} \pi_1 (1 - \pi_1) + \mathbf{h} (\mathbf{h} - 1) (\pi_2 - \pi_1^2) \\ \mathbf{E} \mathbf{x}_1^2 &= \mathbf{h} \pi_1 + \mathbf{h} (\mathbf{h} - 1) \pi_2 \\ \mathbf{E} \mathbf{x}_1^4 &= \mathbf{h} \pi_1 + 7\mathbf{h} (\mathbf{h} - 1) \pi_2 + 6\mathbf{h} (\mathbf{h} - 1) (\mathbf{h} - 2) \pi_3 + \mathbf{h} (\mathbf{h} - 1) (\mathbf{h} - 2) (\mathbf{h} - 3) \pi_4 \\ \mathbf{E} \mathbf{x}_1^2 \mathbf{x}_2^2 &= \mathbf{h}^2 \pi_2 + 2\mathbf{h}^2 (\mathbf{h} - 1) \pi_3 + \mathbf{h}^2 (\mathbf{h} - 1)^2 \pi_4, \end{aligned}$$

where $\pi_1^{}$ to $\pi_4^{}$ are as in (4.2.1). Hence, with (4.1.1) again,

$$var V = g^{-1}EX_{1}^{4} + g^{-1}(g-1)EX_{1}^{2}X_{2}^{2} - (EX_{1}^{2})^{2}$$

$$= g^{-1}\{h\pi_{1} + h(gh+6h-7)\pi_{2} + 2h(h-1)(gh+2h-6)\pi_{3}$$

$$+ h(h-1)(gh(h-1)-4h+6)\pi_{4}\}$$

$$- \{h\pi_{1} + h(h-1)\pi_{2}\}^{2}.$$

4.4. Undirected graph.

For undirected graphs we have $X_{ij} = X_{ji}$, and hence $\rho_i = \pi_{i-1}$. Further,

$$\begin{split} \pi_1 &= \frac{s}{g(g-1)} \\ \pi_2 &= \frac{s(s-2)}{(g+1)g(g-1)(g-2)} \\ \pi_3 &= \frac{s(s-2)(s-4)}{(g+1)g(g-1)(g-2)(g^2-g-4)} \\ \pi_4 &= \frac{s(s-2)(s-4)(s-6)}{(g+1)g(g-1)(g-2)(g-3)(g+2)(g^2-g-4)} \end{split} .$$

With (4.2.2) and (4.2.3), lengthy computations yield

$$E\{V|s\} = \frac{s(g^2-g-s)}{g^2(g+1)}$$

$$var\{v|s\} = \frac{2s(s-2)(g^2-g-s)(g^2-g-s-2)}{g^2(g+1)^2(g+2)(g^2-g-4)}.$$

4.5. Directed graph: U | man distribution

For directed graphs with the U | man distribution, we have

$$\pi_{1} = \frac{2m + a}{g(g-1)}$$

$$\pi_{2} = \frac{4m(m-1) + 4ma + a(a-1)}{(g+1)g(g-1)(g-2)}$$

$$\pi_{3} = \frac{8m(m-1)(m-2) + 12m(m-1)a + 6ma(a-1) + a(a-1)(a-2)}{(g+1)g(g-2)(g^{2}-g-4)}$$

$$16m(m-1)(m-2)(m-3) + 32m(m-1)(m-2)a + 24m(m-1)a(a-1) + 8ma(a-1)(a-2) + a(a-1)(a-2)(a-3)$$

$$(g+2)(g+1)g(g-1)(g-2)(g-3)(g^{2}-g-4)$$

$$\rho_{2} = \frac{2m}{g(g-1)}$$

$$\rho_{3} = \frac{4m(m-1) + 2ma}{(g+1)g(g-1)(g-2)}$$

$$\rho_{4} = \frac{8m(m-1)(m-2) + 8m(m-1)a + 2ma(a-1)}{(g+1)g(g-1)(g-2)(g^{2}-g-4)}$$
With $(4,2,2)$ and $(4,2,3)$ beautive to the second state of the second state of

With (4.2.2) and (4.2.3), lengthy computations yield

$$E\{ V \mid man \} = \frac{(2m+a)(2n+a) + ga}{2g^2(g+1)}$$

$$var\{ V \mid man \} = \frac{numerator}{g^2(g+1)^2(g+2)(g^2-g-4)}$$

numerator =
$$2\{4m(m-1) + 4am + a(a-1)\}\{4n(n-1) + 4an + a(a-1)\}$$

+ $8(g+1) a\{4mn-a(a-1)\}$
+ $2a(a-1)(g+1)(3g^2-4g-2)$.

It may be noted that the symmetry considerations for complementary graphs (DV, beginning of Section 2) imply that the formulas for $E\{V \mid m \text{ an}\}$ and $var\{V \mid m \text{ an}\}$ must be symmetric in m and n.

It can be easily verified that for $m=\frac{1}{2}s$, a=0, $n=\frac{1}{2}g(g-1)-m$, the formulas above are identical to those for undirected graphs with the $U\mid s$ distribution.

The identity

$$m + a + n = \frac{1}{2}q(q-1)$$

implies that the formulas above can be given many different expressions. I doubt whether other expressions are possible which are considerably simpler than those given here.

4.6. Bipartite graph and directed graph with U|s distribution.

For bipartite graphs and directed graphs with the $U \mid s$ distribution, we have $\rho_i = \pi_i$; taking h = g-1 in (4.3.1) and (4.3.2) yields, in this case, formulas (4.2.2) and (4.2.3). Hence it is sufficient to consider only the case of bipartite graphs. We have

$$\pi_{1} = \frac{s}{gh}$$

$$\pi_{2} = \frac{s(s-1)}{gh(gh-1)}$$

$$\pi_{3} = \frac{s(s-1)(s-2)}{gh(gh-1)(gh-2)}$$

$$\pi_{4} = \frac{s(s-1)(s-2)(s-3)}{gh(gh-1)(gh-2)(gh-3)}$$

With (4.3.1) and (4.3.2), lengthy computations yield

$$E\{V | s\} = \frac{s(gh-s)(g-1)}{g^2(gh-1)}$$

$$var\{V | s\} = \frac{2(g-1)h(h-1)s(s-1)(gh-s)(gh-s-1)}{g^2(gh-1)^2(gh-2)(gh-3)}$$

4.7. Come general comments.

- * In the formulas for the means and variances of V, all factors in the numerator can be easily interpreted: if one of them is equal to zero, it is (by direct arguments, not from the formula) easy to see that the distribution of V is degenerated (in 0 if EV = 0, in one point if var V = 0).
- In the U s distribution, the marginal distribution of X_i is hypergeometric; for the bipartite and directed cases, the simultaneous distribution of (X_1, \ldots, X_g) is then even multivariate hypergeometric. The formulas for $E\{V \mid s\}$ are equal to the well-known formula for the variance of the hypergeometric distribution (with the correct parameter values).
- Those of Section 4.5 can be obtained from the theorems in Holland and Leinhard (1975), but with at least as much computational effort as was needed in our approach. Those from Section 4.6 can be obtained from the moments of the (multivariate) hypergeometric distribution, but, again, wit no less computational effort than was needed here. The approach followed was chosen because it admits a unified treatment for all cases considered in DV. I wonder whether, for the U s case, the simple (after all the

intermediate results) formulas for var $\{V \mid s\}$ can be obtained by simpler methods than those used here.

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 To be published in Social Networks.