

MUTUAL INFLUENCE REGRESSION MODEL

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Abstract: In this article, we propose the mutual influence regression (MIR) model to establish the relationship between the mutual influence matrix of actors and a set of similarity matrices induced by their associated attributes. This model is able to explain the heterogeneous structure of the mutual influence matrix by extending the commonly used spatial autoregressive model, while allowing it to change with time. To facilitate inferences using the MIR, we establish parameter estimation, weight matrices selection, and model testing. Specifically, we employ the quasi-maximum likelihood estimation method to estimate the unknown regression coefficients. Then, we demonstrate that the resulting estimator is asymptotically normal, without imposing the normality assumption and while allowing the number of similarity matrices to diverge. In addition, we introduce an extended BIC-type criterion for selecting relevant matrices from the divergent number of similarity matrices. To assess the adequacy of the proposed model, we propose an influence matrix test, and develop a novel approach to obtain the limiting distribution of the test. The results of our simulation studies support our theoretical findings, and a real example is presented to illustrate the usefulness of the proposed MIR model.

Key words and phrases: Extended Bayesian information criterion, mutual influence matrix, similarity matrices, spatial autoregressive model.

1. Introduction

The possibility of relationships between subjects (such as network connections or spatial interactions) means that the traditional data assumption of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) observations is no longer valid, and there can be a complex structure of mutual influence between subjects. Accordingly, understanding such mutual influence has become an important topic in fields such as business, biology, economics, medicine, sociology, political science, psychology, engineering, and science. For example, studying the mutual influence between actors can help to identify influential users within a network (see Trusov, Bodapati and Bucklin (2010)). In addition, investigating the mutual influence between geographic regions is essential for exploring spillover effects in spatial data (see Golgher and Voss (2016); Zhang and Yu (2018)). For example, this type of analysis is important to our understanding of how COVID-19 spreads

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between countries and cities (see Han et al. (2021)). Moreover, quantifying the mutual influence in mobile social networks can provide important insights related to the design of social platforms and applications (see Peng et al. (2017)). These examples motivate us to introduce the mutual influence regression (MIR) model, with which we can effectively and systematically study mutual influence.

Let Y_{1t}, \dots, Y_{nt} be the responses of n actors observed at time t , for $t = 1, \dots, T$. To characterize the mutual influence among the n actors, the following regression model can be considered for each actor $i = 1, \dots, n$ at $t = 1, \dots, T$:

$$Y_{it} = b_{i1t}Y_{1t} + \dots + b_{i(i-1)t}Y_{(i-1)t} + b_{i(i+1)t}Y_{(i+1)t} + \dots + b_{int}Y_{nt} + \epsilon_{it}, \quad (1.1)$$

where b_{ijt} is the effect of Y_{jt} on Y_{it} , and ϵ_{it} is random noise. Define $Y_t = (Y_{1t}, \dots, Y_{nt})^\top \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\epsilon_t = (\epsilon_{1t}, \dots, \epsilon_{nt})^\top \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $B_t = (b_{ijt}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, with $b_{iit} = 0$. Then, we have the matrix form of (1.1),

$$Y_t = B_t Y_t + \epsilon_t, \quad (1.2)$$

where B_t is called the mutual influence matrix, which characterizes the degree of mutual influence among the n actors at time t .

Estimating model (1.2) is a challenging task because it involves a large number of parameters, specifically, $n(n-1)$ for each t . The regularization-type methods studied by Manresa (2013), de Paula, Rasul and Souza (2019), and Kwok (2020) are not applicable when n is large. To avoid the problem of high dimensionality, a common approach uses the spatial autoregressive (SAR) model, which parameterizes the mutual influence matrix B_t by $B_t = \rho W^{(t)}$, where $W^{(t)}$ is the adjacency matrix of a known network, or a spatial weight matrix with elements that are a function of geographic or economic distances. In addition, ρ is the single influence parameter that characterizes the influence power among the n actors; see, for example, Lee (2004), Zou et al. (2017), and Huang et al. (2019), and the references therein, for detailed discussions and the references therein. Accordingly, model (1.2) becomes estimable, because the number of parameters is greatly reduced from $n(n-1)$ to one.

Because the SAR model involves only a single influence parameter ρ , it may not fully capture the influential information of B_t . Hence, Lee and Liu (2010), Elhorst, Lacombe and Piras (2012), Lee and Yu (2014), Kwok (2019), and Lam and Souza (2020) consider higher-order SAR models that include multiple weight matrices (i.e., $W^{(t)}$ s), along with their associated parameters. Gupta and Robinson (2015, 2018) extend these models further by allowing the number of weight matrices to diverge. In general, the elements of the weight matrix $W^{(t)}$ are functions of the geographic or economic distances between the n actors. For example, a typical choice of distance measure for spatial data is geographic distance (Dou, Parrella and Yao (2016); Zhang and Yu (2018); Gao et al. (2019)). In addition, a natural choice of distance measure for network

data is whether there exists a link between actors using the adjacency matrix (Zhou et al. (2017); Zhu et al. (2017); Huang et al. (2019)). However, the above weight settings cannot be applied directly to the higher-order SAR model for non-geographic or non-network data, because these distance measures are not well defined for other types of data. Accordingly, how to parameterize the mutual influence matrix for non-geographic and non-network data is an unsolved problem that needs further investigation. This motivates us to study the following two important and challenging subjects: (i) how to define weight matrices for general non-geographic and non-network data; and (ii) how to assess the adequacy of the selected weight matrices.

To resolve challenge (i), we propose using similarity matrices induced from the attributes (e.g., gender or income) as our weight matrices to accommodate non-geographic and non-network data. Specifically, let $\mathbf{Z}^{(t)} = (z_1^{(t)}, \dots, z_n^{(t)})^\top \in \mathbb{R}^n$ denote the vector of values obtained from the n actors for a given attribute. Then, for any two actors j_1 and j_2 , the squared distance between j_1 and j_2 can be defined as the distance between $z_{j_1}^{(t)}$ and $z_{j_2}^{(t)}$, for example, $(z_{j_1}^{(t)} - z_{j_2}^{(t)})^2$. Following the suggestion of Jenish and Prucha (2012), we consider the similarity matrix as a nonincreasing function of the squared distance between actors j_1 and j_2 , that is, $A^{(t)} = (a\{-(z_{j_1}^{(t)} - z_{j_2}^{(t)})^2\})_{n \times n}$, for some bounded and nondecreasing function $a(\cdot)$. Furthermore, we can employ the same procedure to create a set of similarity matrices $A^{(t)}$ from the actors' attributes. In practice, these similarity matrices change with time t . To this end, we introduce time heterogeneous matrices, $A^{(t)}$, which link naturally to the mutual influence matrix B_t . To overcome challenge (ii), we introduce an influence matrix test to examine the adequacy of the selected similarity matrices (i.e., weight matrices) for the high-dimensional and time-varying mutual influence matrix.

This study makes two main contributions to the literature. The first is to propose the MIR model, which establishes the relationship between the mutual influence matrix and a set of similarity matrices induced by the actors' attributes. The proposed model not only increases the usefulness of the traditional SAR model, but also captures the heterogeneous structure of the mutual influence matrix by allowing it to change with time. Accordingly, we study the parameter space of the model, and then employ the quasi-maximum likelihood estimation method (see, e.g., Wooldridge (2002)) to estimate the unknown regression coefficients. By thoroughly studying the convergence of the Hessian matrix in the Frobenius norm, we show that the resulting estimator is asymptotically normal under some mild conditions, without imposing the normality assumption, while allowing the number of similarity matrices to diverge. Because the number of similarity matrices is diverging, we use an extended BIC-type criterion motivated from Chen and Chen (2008) to select the relevant matrices. We show that this extended BIC-type criterion is consistent, based on a novel result of the exponential tail probability for the general form of quadratic functions.

The second is to introduce an influence matrix test for assessing whether the mutual influence matrix B_t satisfies a linear structure of the time-varying weight matrices. Based on this setting, $\text{cov}(Y_t)$ is a nonlinear function of the time-varying weight matrices. Thus, our test differs from the common hypothesis test for testing whether $\text{cov}(Y_t)$ is a linear structure of the weight matrices (e.g., see Zheng et al. (2019)). However, under a nonlinear structure for the mutual influence matrix B_t , however, the quasi-maximum likelihood estimators (QMLEs) of the regression coefficients can result in a larger variance in the test statistic. As a result, obtaining the asymptotic distribution of the test statistic becomes a challenging task, especially when the number of similarity matrices is diverging. To overcome such difficulties, we develop a novel approach to show the asymptotic normality of a summation of the product of quadratic forms with a diverging number of similarity matrices.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the MIR model, studies the parameter space, and obtains QMLEs of the regression coefficients, which are asymptotically normal. Section 3 presents the extended BIC-type selection criterion, as well as its consistency property. In addition, we provide a high-dimensional covariance test to examine the model adequacy, and theoretical properties of this test. Simulation studies and an empirical example are presented in Sections 4 and 5, respectively. Section 6 concludes the paper. All theoretical proofs are relegated to the Supplementary Material.

2. MIR Model and Estimation

2.1. Model and notation

We first construct similarity matrices, before modeling the mutual influence matrix B_t as a regression function of them. Let $Z_k^{(t)}$ be the k th $n \times 1$ continuous attribute vector collected at the t th time, for $k = 1, \dots, d$. Adapting the approach of Jenish and Prucha (2012) to incorporate the time effect t , we then obtain the following heterogeneous similarity matrices: $A_k^{(t)} = A_k^{(t)}(Z_k^{(t)}) = (a\{-(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)} - Z_{kj_2}^{(t)})^2\})_{n \times n}$, for $j_1 = 1, \dots, n$ and $j_2 = 1, \dots, n$, where $a(\cdot)$ is a bounded and nondecreasing function, and $Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}$ and $Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}$ are the j_1 th and j_2 th elements, respectively, of $Z_k^{(t)}$. For continuous attributes, we consider $a(\cdot)$ equal to the exponential function, with $a\{-(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)} - Z_{kj_2}^{(t)})^2\} = \exp\{-(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)} - Z_{kj_2}^{(t)})^2\}$ when $|Z_{kj_1}^{(t)} - Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}| < \phi_k^{(t)}$, for some prespecified positive constant $\phi_k^{(t)}$, and $a\{-(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)} - Z_{kj_2}^{(t)})^2\} = 0$ otherwise. That is, once the distance between any two actors, measured using their associated attributes in $Z_k^{(t)}$, exceeds a threshold, the two actors are not mutually influenced. For discrete attributes $Z_k^{(t)}$, we define $a(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}) = 1$ if $Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}$ and $Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}$ belong to the same class, and $a(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}) = 0$ otherwise. In this case, $A_k^{(t)}$ can be regarded as the adjacency matrix of the network induced by the attributes $Z_k^{(t)}$.

To establish the relationship between the mutual influence matrix and a set of similarity matrices, following Anderson (1973), Qu, Lindsay and Li (2000), and Zheng et al. (2019), we parameterize the mutual influence matrix B_t as a function of attributes $Z_k^{(t)}$ ($k = 1, \dots, d$):

$$B_t(\lambda) \triangleq B_t(Z_1^{(t)}, \dots, Z_d^{(t)}, \lambda) = \lambda_1 W_1^{(t)} + \dots + \lambda_d W_d^{(t)}, \quad (2.1)$$

where $w(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}) = a(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}) / \sum_{j_2} a(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)})$ and $W_k^{(t)} = (w(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}))_{n \times n}$ is the row-normalized version of $A_k^{(t)}$. We call $W_k^{(t)}$, for $k = 1, \dots, d$, the weight matrix or the similarity matrix. The reason for adopting the row-normalization method is primarily its wide applicability (see, e.g., Lee (2004)). In practice, several alternative normalization methods can be considered, such as column normalization and the normalization based on the maximum absolute row (or column) sum norm; see Kelejian and Prucha (2010) for detailed discussions.

Substituting (2.1) into (1.2), we introduce the following MIR model:

$$Y_t = B_t(Z_1^{(t)}, \dots, Z_d^{(t)}, \lambda) Y_t + \epsilon_t = (\lambda_1 W_1^{(t)} + \dots + \lambda_d W_d^{(t)}) Y_t + \epsilon_t, \quad (2.2)$$

where $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d$ are unknown regression coefficients. This model explains the structure of the mutual influence matrix B_t at each time t using a set of similarity matrices $W_k^{(t)}$, induced by the covariates $Z_k^{(t)}$ and their associated influence parameter λ_k . For ease of notation, we use B_t rather than $B_t(\lambda)$ in the rest of paper. Define $\Delta_t(\lambda) = I_n - B_t = I_n - (\lambda_1 W_1^{(t)} + \dots + \lambda_d W_d^{(t)})$, where I_n is the identity matrix of dimension n . Then, model (2.2) leads to $\Delta_t(\lambda) Y_t = \epsilon_t$. To ensure that (2.2) is identifiable, we require that $\Delta_t(\lambda)$ be invertible.

Note that, for $d = 1$ and $W_1^{(t)} = W$ constructed from network or spatial data, the MIR model is the classical SAR model of LeSage and Pace (2009). Furthermore, by model (2.1), we have $b_{j_1 j_2 t} = \lambda_1 w(Z_{1j_1}^{(t)}, Z_{1j_2}^{(t)}) + \dots + \lambda_d w(Z_{dj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{dj_2}^{(t)})$. Accordingly, the influence effect of node j_2 on j_1 , $b_{j_1 j_2 t}$, is the linear combination of the similarity matrices at time t . Specifically, for $k = 1, \dots, d$, the similarity matrix $w(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)})$ measures the distance between nodes j_1 and j_2 , and its effect is determined by the influence parameter λ_k . Suppose $\lambda_k > 0$. Based on the MIR model (2.2), for any two actors j_1 and j_2 , the smaller the distance between $Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}$ and $Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}$, the larger the influence effect between $Y_{j_1 t}$ and $Y_{j_2 t}$. Therefore, the covariate $Z_k^{(t)}$ yields a positive effect on the mutual influence between the responses of the n actors. In summary, models (2.1) and (2.2) link the mutual influence matrix with many exogenous attributes to responses, which can lead to insightful findings and provide practical interpretations.

Remark 1. Our concept is similar to the covariance tapering of Furrer, Genton and Nychka (2006). For any given $t = 1, \dots, T$, we follow Furrer, Genton and Nychka (2006) in assuming that Y_{it} , the response of node i , can be affected by the responses of nearby nodes. However, our method differs from theirs in two respects. First, for the geographic data considered in Furrer, Genton and Nychka (2006), the distance between nodes is well defined. However, for general non-geographic and non-network data, the “distance” measure is not clearly defined. Motivated by the concept of the near-epoch dependent (NED) process of Jenish and Prucha (2012), we define the similarity matrices induced by the distances between the attributes of actors. Second, the goals of the two methods are different. The goal of our proposed model is to establish the relationship between the mutual influence matrix of actors and a set of similarity matrices induced by their associated attributes, whereas Furrer, Genton and Nychka (2006) focus on the interpolation of large spatial data sets.

2.2. Parameter estimation

We assume that ϵ_t are i.i.d. random variables with mean zero and covariance matrix $\sigma^2 I_n$, for $t = 1, \dots, T$, where σ^2 is a scaled parameter. By (2.2), we have $Y_t = \Delta_t^{-1}(\lambda)\epsilon_t$. Then, $E(Y_t) = 0$ and $\text{Var}(Y_t) \triangleq \Sigma_t = \sigma^2 \Delta_t^{-1}(\lambda) \{\Delta_t^\top(\lambda)\}^{-1}$, and we obtain the quasi-log-likelihood function, following Lee (2004),

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\theta) = & -\frac{nT}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{nT}{2} \log(\sigma^2) + \sum_{t=1}^T \log |\det(\Delta_t(\lambda))| \\ & - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^T Y_t^\top \Delta_t^\top(\lambda) \Delta_t(\lambda) Y_t, \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

where $\theta = (\lambda^\top, \sigma^2)^\top$.

We next employ the concentrated quasi-likelihood approach to estimate θ . Specifically, given λ , one can estimate σ^2 using

$$\hat{\sigma}^2(\lambda) = (nT)^{-1} \sum_t Y_t^\top \Delta_t^\top(\lambda) \Delta_t(\lambda) Y_t.$$

Plugging this into (2.3), the resulting quasi-concentrated log-likelihood function is

$$\ell_c(\lambda) = -\frac{nT}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{nT}{2} - \frac{nT}{2} \log \{\hat{\sigma}^2(\lambda)\} + \sum_{t=1}^T \log |\det(\Delta_t(\lambda))|. \quad (2.4)$$

Accordingly, we obtain the QMLE of λ , which is $\hat{\lambda} = \arg\max_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \ell_c(\lambda)$, and Λ is the parameter space. To make $\hat{\lambda}$ estimable, it is necessary to specify the parameter space Λ . From model (2.2) and the definition of $\Delta_t(\lambda)$, we require that, for any $\lambda \in \Lambda$, $\Delta_t(\lambda)$ is invertible. Note that a sufficient condition for

the invertibility of $\Delta_t(\lambda)$ is $\|\sum_{k=1}^d \lambda_k W_k^{(t)}\| < 1$, where $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the L_2 (i.e., spectral) norm. Using the fact that $W_k^{(t)}$ is row-normalized, we have that $\|\sum_{k=1}^d \lambda_k W_k^{(t)}\| \leq \max_k \|W_k^{(t)}\| \sum_{k=1}^d |\lambda_k| \leq \sum_{k=1}^d |\lambda_k|$. Accordingly, a sufficient condition for the invertibility of $\Delta_t(\lambda)$ is $\sum_{k=1}^d |\lambda_k| < 1$. This leads us to define the parameter space of λ as follows:

$$\Lambda = \left\{ \lambda : \sum_{k=1}^d |\lambda_k| < 1 - \varsigma \right\},$$

where ς is some sufficiently small positive number. The reason for introducing ς is to ensure that $\sum_{k=1}^d |\lambda_k|$ is away from one. In practice, we can set ς to be a small positive number, such as 0.01. This specification does not affect the parameter estimation, as long as $\sum_{k=1}^d |\lambda_k|$ is smaller than one.

Using the assumption of $\sigma^2 > 0$, the parameter space of θ is

$$\Theta = \{\theta = (\lambda^\top, \sigma^2)^\top : \lambda \in \Lambda \text{ and } \sigma^2 > 0\}.$$

In addition, σ^2 can be estimated using $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \hat{\sigma}^2(\hat{\lambda})$, which leads to the QMLE, $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{\lambda}^\top, \hat{\sigma}^2)^\top$.

Denote by $\theta_0 = (\lambda_0^\top, \sigma_0^2)^\top$ the unknown true parameter vector, where $\lambda_0 = (\lambda_{01}, \dots, \lambda_{0d})^\top \in \Lambda$ and $\sigma_0^2 > 0$. By Lemma 3 and Condition (C4) in Section S1 of the Supplementary Material, the second-order derivative matrix of $\ell(\theta)$ is negative definite for sufficiently large nT in a small neighborhood of θ_0 . Accordingly, the parameter estimator $\hat{\theta}$ exists and lies in Θ . To avoid the problem of local optima when computing the QMLE, we recommend using a random initialization method (see, e.g., Wang et al. (2022)). Specifically, we generate many randomized initial values, and find the solution that yields the maximum value of the objective function. Our simulation results in Section 5 indicate that this algorithm works satisfactorily in various settings. The asymptotic property of $\hat{\theta}$ is given in the following theorem.

Theorem 1. *Under Conditions (C1)–(C5) in Section S1 of the Supplementary Material, as $nT \rightarrow \infty$, $(nT/d)^{1/2} D\mathcal{I}(\theta_0)(\hat{\theta} - \theta_0)$ is asymptotically normal with mean zero and covariance matrix $G(\theta_0)$, where D is an arbitrary $M \times (d+1)$ matrix, with $M < \infty$ satisfying $\|D\| < \infty$ and $d^{-1} D\mathcal{J}(\theta_0)D^\top \rightarrow G(\theta_0)$, and $\mathcal{I}(\theta_0)$ and $\mathcal{J}(\theta_0)$ defined in Condition (C4).*

Note that $nT \rightarrow \infty$ in Theorem 1 means that either n or T go to infinity. To make this theorem practically useful, we need to estimate $\mathcal{I}(\theta_0)$ and $\mathcal{J}(\theta_0)$ consistently. For $k = 1, \dots, d+1$ and $l = 1, \dots, d+1$, define $\mathcal{I}_{nT}(\theta_0) = -(nT)^{-1} E\{\partial^2 \ell(\theta_0)/(\partial \theta \partial \theta^\top)\} \triangleq (\mathcal{I}_{nT,kl}) \in \mathbb{R}^{(d+1) \times (d+1)}$ and $\mathcal{J}_{nT}(\theta_0) = (nT)^{-1} \text{Var}(\partial \ell(\theta_0)/\partial \theta) \triangleq (\mathcal{J}_{nT,kl}) \in \mathbb{R}^{(d+1) \times (d+1)}$. By Condition (C4), it suffices to show that the plug-in estimators $\mathcal{I}_{nT}(\hat{\theta})$ and $\mathcal{J}_{nT}(\hat{\theta})$ are consistent with $\mathcal{I}(\theta_0)$ and $\mathcal{J}(\theta_0)$, respectively.

After a simple calculation, we have that, for any $k = 1, \dots, d$ and $l = 1, \dots, d$,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{I}_{nT, k(d+1)} &\triangleq -(nT)^{-1} E \left\{ \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\theta_0)}{\partial \lambda_k \partial \sigma^2} \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{nT\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^T \text{tr}(W_k^{(t)} \Delta_t^{-1}(\lambda_0)) = \frac{1}{nT\sigma^2} \text{tr}(U_k), \\ \mathcal{I}_{nT, kl} &\triangleq -(nT)^{-1} E \left\{ \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\theta_0)}{\partial \lambda_k \partial \lambda_l} \right\} = (nT)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \text{tr} \{ \Delta_t^{-1\top}(\lambda_0) W_k^{(t)\top} W_l^{(t)} \Delta_t^{-1}(\lambda_0) \} \\ &\quad + (nT)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \text{tr} \{ W_k^{(t)} \Delta_t^{-1}(\lambda_0) W_l^{(t)} \Delta_t^{-1}(\lambda_0) \} = \frac{2}{nT} \text{tr}(U_k U_l),\end{aligned}$$

where $U_k = \text{diag}\{s(W_k^{(1)} \Delta_1^{-1}(\lambda_0)), \dots, s(W_k^{(T)} \Delta_T^{-1}(\lambda_0))\} \in \mathbb{R}^{(nT) \times (nT)}$ and $s(A) = (A + A^\top)/2$, for any arbitrary matrix A . In addition,

$$\mathcal{I}_{nT, (d+1)(d+1)} \triangleq -(nT)^{-1} E \left\{ \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\theta_0)}{\partial^2 \sigma^2} \right\} = \frac{1}{2\sigma_0^4}.$$

Using the result $\hat{\theta} \rightarrow_p \theta_0$ in Theorem 1, we have $\mathcal{I}_{nT}(\hat{\theta}) \rightarrow_p \mathcal{I}_{nT}(\theta_0)$. This, together with Condition (C4), implies that $\mathcal{I}_{nT}(\hat{\theta}) \rightarrow_p \mathcal{I}(\theta_0)$.

After algebraic calculation, we next obtain that, for any $k = 1, \dots, d$ and $l = 1, \dots, d$,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{J}_{nT, k(d+1)} &\triangleq (nT)^{-1} \text{cov} \left\{ \frac{\partial \ell(\theta_0)}{\partial \lambda_k}, \frac{\partial \ell(\theta_0)}{\partial \sigma^2} \right\} = \frac{1}{2nT\sigma_0^2} \{(\mu^{(4)} - 1) \text{tr}(U_k)\} \quad \text{and} \\ \mathcal{J}_{nT, kl} &\triangleq (nT)^{-1} \text{cov} \left\{ \frac{\partial \ell(\theta_0)}{\partial \lambda_k}, \frac{\partial \ell(\theta_0)}{\partial \lambda_l} \right\} = \frac{2}{nT} \text{tr}(U_k U_l) + \frac{\mu^{(4)} - 3}{nT} \text{tr}(U_k \otimes U_l),\end{aligned}$$

where $\mu^{(4)} = E(\epsilon_{it}^4)/\sigma_0^4$ can be estimated as $\hat{\mu}^{(4)} = (nT)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{t=1}^T \hat{\epsilon}_{it}^4 / \hat{\sigma}^4$, with $\hat{\epsilon}_t = \Delta_t^{-1}(\hat{\lambda}) Y_t$ and $\hat{\epsilon}_t = (\hat{\epsilon}_{1t}, \dots, \hat{\epsilon}_{nt})^\top$. Furthermore,

$$\mathcal{J}_{nT, (d+1)(d+1)} \triangleq (nT)^{-1} \text{Var} \left\{ \frac{\partial \ell(\theta_0)}{\partial \sigma^2} \right\} = \frac{1}{4\sigma_0^4} \{2 + (\mu^{(4)} - 3)\}.$$

As a result, $\mathcal{J}(\theta_0)$ can be consistently estimated using $\mathcal{J}_{nT}(\hat{\theta})$. In summary, we can practically apply Theorem 1 by replacing $\mathcal{I}(\theta_0)$ and $\mathcal{J}(\theta_0)$ with their corresponding estimators $\mathcal{I}_{nT}(\hat{\theta})$ and $\mathcal{J}_{nT}(\hat{\theta})$, respectively.

According to Theorem 1, we can assess the significance of λ_{0k} , which allows us to determine the influential similarity matrices, $W_k^{(t)}$, induced by their associated covariates $Z_k^{(t)}$, for $k = 1, \dots, d$. In addition, based on the estimated $\hat{\lambda}$, the mutual influence matrix B_t can be estimated using $\hat{B}_t = \hat{\lambda}_1 W_1^{(t)} + \dots + \hat{\lambda}_d W_d^{(t)}$, the asymptotic property of which is given in the following theorem.

Theorem 2. *Under Conditions (C1)–(C5) in Section S1 of the Supplementary Material, as $nT \rightarrow \infty$, $\sup_{t \leq T} \|\hat{B}_t - B_t\| = O_p\{d(nT)^{-1/2}\}$.*

Theorem 2 indicates that the estimated mutual influence matrix \hat{B}_t is consistent uniformly for any t under the L_2 norm, as either n or T goes to infinity, and $d = o\{(nT)^{1/4}\}$ is from Condition (C5). Hence, \hat{B}_t can be a consistent estimator of B_t , even for finite T . After estimating the mutual influence matrix, we next examine how to select the similarity matrices and test the fitness of B_t .

3. Similarity Matrix Selection and Influence Matrix Test

3.1. Selection consistency

In the MIR model, the number of similarity matrices is diverging, which motivates us to consider the similarity matrix selection. Note that assessing the significance of λ_{0k} separately for $k = 1, \dots, d$ using Theorem 1 can result in multiple testing problems (see, e.g., Storey, Taylor and Siegmund (2004) and Fan, Han and Gu (2012)). In addition, the traditional BIC becomes overly liberal when d is diverging, as demonstrated by Chen and Chen (2008). Hence, we modify the extended Bayesian information criterion (EBIC) to select the similarity matrices. To this end, we define the true model $\mathcal{S}_T = \{k : \lambda_{0k} \neq 0\}$, which consists of all relevant $W_k^{(t)}$. In addition, let $\mathcal{S}_F = \{1, \dots, d\}$ denote the full model, and \mathcal{S} represent an arbitrary candidate model, such that $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{S}_F$. Moreover, let $\hat{\theta}_{\mathcal{S}} = (\hat{\theta}_{k,\mathcal{S}} : k \in \mathcal{S})$ be the maximum likelihood estimator of $\theta_{0\mathcal{S}} = (\theta_{0k} : k \in \mathcal{S}) \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{S}|}$. In practice, the true model \mathcal{S}_T is unknown. Following Chen and Chen (2008), we propose the following information criterion for selecting the similarity matrices:

$$\text{EBIC}_{\gamma}(\mathcal{S}) = -2\ell(\hat{\theta}_{\mathcal{S}}) + |\mathcal{S}|\log(nT) + \gamma|\mathcal{S}|\log(d),$$

for some $\gamma > 0$. Based on this criterion, we can select the optimal model, which is $\hat{\mathcal{S}} = \text{argmin}_{\mathcal{S}} \text{EBIC}_{\gamma}(\mathcal{S})$. Note that the third term in $\text{EBIC}_{\gamma}(\mathcal{S})$ (i.e., $\gamma|\mathcal{S}|\log(d)$) represents the effect of assigning different prior probabilities to candidate models with different numbers of weight matrices, and the tuning parameter γ characterizes this strength; refer to Chen and Chen (2008) for a more detailed discussion.

Define $\mathbb{A}_0 = \{\mathcal{S} : \mathcal{S}_T \subset \mathcal{S}, |\mathcal{S}| \leq q\}$ and $\mathbb{A}_1 = \{\mathcal{S} : \mathcal{S}_T \not\subset \mathcal{S}, |\mathcal{S}| \leq q\}$ as the sets of overfitted and underfitted models, respectively, where the size of any candidate model is no larger than the positive constant q defined in Condition (C7) in Section S1 of the Supplementary Material. Then, we obtain the theoretical properties of EBIC_{γ} , as follows.

Theorem 3. *Under Conditions (C1)–(C7) in Section S1 of the Supplementary Material, as $nT \rightarrow \infty$, we have*

$$P\left\{\min_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathbb{A}_1} \text{EBIC}_\gamma(\mathcal{S}) \leq \text{EBIC}_\gamma(\mathcal{S}_T)\right\} \rightarrow 0,$$

for any $\gamma > 0$, and

$$P\left\{\min_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathbb{A}_0, \mathcal{S} \neq \mathcal{S}_T} \text{EBIC}_\gamma(\mathcal{S}) \leq \text{EBIC}_\gamma(\mathcal{S}_T)\right\} \rightarrow 0,$$

for $\gamma > q^2 C_w^2 / \tau_2 c_{\min,3} \sigma_0^4 - 4$, where C_w , $c_{\min,3}$, and τ_2 are finite positive constants defined in Conditions (C3) and (C7) and Lemma 3 (ii), respectively, in Section S1 of the Supplementary Material.

The above theorem holds as long as either n or T go to infinity. Note that the assumption $\min_{k \in \mathcal{S}_T} |\lambda_{0k}| \{nT / \log(nT)\}^{1/2} \rightarrow \infty$ given in Condition (C6) is modified from Chen and Chen (2008). This assumption is essential for showing the selection consistency of the EBIC. Specifically, we demonstrate that $\hat{\lambda}_k$ for $k \notin \mathcal{S}_T$ converges to zero of order $(nT)^{-1/2}$. Under some mild conditions, we can further show that $\max_{k \notin \mathcal{S}_T} |\hat{\lambda}_k| = O_p(\sqrt{\log(d)/nT}) = O_p(\sqrt{\log(nT)/nT})$. Thus, Condition (C6) indicates that $\min_{k \in \mathcal{S}_T} |\lambda_{0k}|$ is larger than $\max_{k \notin \mathcal{S}_T} |\hat{\lambda}_k|$ asymptotically, even with the diverging number of similarity matrices. Our simulation results indicate that $\gamma = 2$ performs satisfactorily under various settings. Note that we employ the popular backward elimination method to implement the EBIC (see, e.g., Zhang and Wang (2011) and Schelldorfer, Meier and Bühlmann (2014)). This approach reduces the computational complexity from 2^d to $O(d^2)$. Thus, the EBIC is computable when d is large.

3.2. Influence matrix test

To examine the adequacy of model (2.1) for modeling the mutual influence matrix B_t as a linear combination of weight matrices $W_k^{(t)}$ ($k = 1, \dots, d$), we consider the following hypotheses:

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 : B_t &= \lambda_{01} W_1^{(t)} + \dots + \lambda_{0d} W_d^{(t)}, \text{ for all } t = 1, \dots, T, \text{ vs.} \\ H_1 : B_t &\neq \lambda_{01} W_1^{(t)} + \dots + \lambda_{0d} W_d^{(t)}, \text{ for some } t = 1, \dots, T. \end{aligned} \quad (3.1)$$

Note that, under H_0 , we have $\Sigma_t = \sigma_0^2 (I_n - B_t)^{-1} (I_n - B_t^\top)^{-1}$, which is a nonlinear function of the weight matrices $W_k^{(t)}$. This differs from the covariance structure considered in Qu, Lindsay and Li (2000) and Zheng et al. (2019), which assumes that Σ_t is a linear function of the weight matrices.

To test (3.1), we compare the estimates of B_t calculated under the null and alternative hypotheses. Then, we reject the null hypothesis of (3.1) if their difference is relatively large. However, the computation of B_t under the alternative hypothesis is infeasible because it involves $n(n-1)T$ unknown parameters. Hence, we propose testing (3.1) by comparing the covariance matrix of Y_t under the null and alternative hypotheses. Under H_0 , we have $\text{cov}(Y_t) = \Sigma_t = \sigma_0^2 (I_n - B_t)^{-1} (I_n - B_t^\top)^{-1}$. Based on Theorem 2, B_t can be

consistently estimated as $\widehat{B}_t = B_t(\widehat{\lambda})$. Accordingly, we can approximate $\text{cov}(Y_t)$ using $\widehat{\Sigma}_t = \widehat{\sigma}^2(I_n - \widehat{B}_t)^{-1}(I_n - \widehat{B}_t^\top)^{-1}$, where $\widehat{\sigma}^2 = (nT)^{-1} \sum_t Y_t^\top \Delta_t^\top(\widehat{\lambda}) \Delta_t(\widehat{\lambda}) Y_t$. On the other hand, $\text{cov}(Y_t)$ can be approximated by its sample version under the alternative, and we expect that $E(Y_t Y_t^\top) \approx \widehat{\Sigma}_t$ under the null hypothesis. Thus, we use the quadratic loss function $\text{tr}(Y_t Y_t^\top \widehat{\Sigma}_t^{-1} - I_n)^2$ to measure the difference between $Y_t Y_t^\top$ and $\widehat{\Sigma}_t$. It is expected that, under H_0 , the difference should be small across $t = 1, \dots, T$. Hence, we propose the following test statistic:

$$T_{ql} = (nT)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \text{tr}(Y_t Y_t^\top \widehat{\Sigma}_t^{-1} - I_n)^2,$$

to assess the adequacy of (2.1).

To show the asymptotic distribution of T_{ql} , let $\mu_{ql} = n + \mu^{(4)} - 2$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{ql}^2 = & (4\mu^{(4)} - 4) \frac{n}{T} + 4n^{-2} T^{-4} \sigma_0^4 \sum_{t_1 \neq t_2 \neq t_3} \sum_{k_1, l_1} \sum_{k_2, l_2} [\mathcal{I}_{k_1 l_1}^{-1}(\theta_0) \mathcal{I}_{k_2 l_2}^{-1}(\theta_0) \\ & \times \{ \text{tr}(U_{t_1 k_1} U_{t_1 k_2}) + (\mu^{(4)} - 3) \text{tr}(U_{t_1 k_1} \otimes U_{t_1 k_2}) \} \text{tr}(V_{t_2 l_1}) \text{tr}(V_{t_3 l_2})] \\ & + (8\mu^{(4)} - 8) n^{-1} T^{-3} \sigma_0^4 \sum_{t_1 \neq t_2} \sum_{k, l} \mathcal{I}_{kl}^{-1}(\theta_0) \text{tr}(U_{t_1 k}) \text{tr}(V_{t_2 l}), \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

where $\mathcal{I}_{kl}^{-1}(\theta_0)$ is the kl th element of $\mathcal{I}^{-1}(\theta_0)$, $U_{tk} = s\{W_k^{(t)} \Delta_t^{-1}(\lambda_0)\}$, $V_{tk} = \{\Delta_t^{-1}(\lambda_0)\}^\top \widetilde{\Lambda}_{tk} \Delta_t^{-1}(\lambda_0)$, and $\widetilde{\Lambda}_{tk}$ is the matrix form of $\partial \text{vec}\{\Sigma_t^{-1}(\theta_0)\} / \partial \theta_k$, for $t_1, t_2, t_3, t = 1, \dots, T$, $k_1, k_2, k = 1, \dots, d$, and $l_1, l_2, l = 1, \dots, d$. Then, the next theorem presents the asymptotic property of T_{ql} .

Theorem 4. *Under the null hypothesis of H_0 , Conditions (C1)–(C5) in Section S1 of the Supplementary Material and assuming that $n/T \rightarrow c$ and $\sigma_{ql}^2 > c_\sigma$ for some finite positive constants c and c_σ , we have*

$$\frac{T_{ql} - \mu_{ql}}{\sigma_{ql}} \rightarrow_d N(0, 1),$$

as $nT \rightarrow \infty$.

Unlike Theorems 1–3, the above result requires that both n and T tend to infinity with $n/T \rightarrow c$, for some finite positive constant c . This condition is reasonable, because we need the replications of the similarity matrices to test the adequacy of the MIR model. Note that this condition is commonly used to test high-dimensional covariance structures (see, e.g., Ledoit and Wolf (2002) and Zheng et al. (2019)). The above theorem indicates that the asymptotic variance of T_{ql} is σ_{ql}^2 , which is given in (3.2), and it includes three components. The first component, $(4\mu^{(4)} - 4)c$, is the leading term of the variance of $(nT)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T \text{tr}(Y_t Y_t^\top \Sigma_t^{-1} - I_n)^2$, obtained by assuming that λ_0 is known. The final two components are of orders $O(d^2)$ and $O(d)$, respectively, and cannot be ignored. These two nonnegligible components are mainly induced by the

estimator $\hat{\lambda}$, which makes the proof of Theorem 4 more complicated. Thus, we develop Lemma 4 in Section S1 of the Supplementary Material to resolve this challenging task.

To make the above theorem practically useful, one needs to estimate the two unknown terms μ_{ql} and σ_{ql} . Note that $\mu^{(4)}$ in μ_{ql} can be consistently estimated using $\hat{\mu}^{(4)}$, which is defined in the explanation of Theorem 1. As a result, $\hat{\mu}_{ql} = n + \hat{\mu}^{(4)} - 2$ is a consistent estimator of μ_{ql} . Furthermore, U_{tk} , V_{tk} , and $\mathcal{I}_{kl}^{-1}(\theta_0)$ can be consistently estimated using $\hat{U}_{tk} = s(W_k^{(t)} \Delta_t^{-1}(\hat{\lambda}))$, $\hat{V}_{tk} = \{\Delta_t^{-1}(\hat{\lambda})\}^\top \hat{\Lambda}_{tk} \Delta_t^{-1}(\hat{\lambda})$, and $\mathcal{I}_{kl}^{-1}(\hat{\theta})$, respectively, for $t = 1, \dots, T$ and $k, l = 1, \dots, d$, where $\hat{\Lambda}_{tk}$ is the matrix form of $\partial \text{vec}\{\Sigma_t^{-1}(\hat{\theta})\} / \partial \theta_k$, and $s(A) = (A + A^\top)/2$ for any arbitrary matrix A , defined in Section 2.2. Accordingly, $\hat{\sigma}_{ql}$, obtained by replacing the unknown parameters with their corresponding estimators, is a consistent estimator of σ_{ql} . Consequently, for a given significance level α , we are able to reject the null hypothesis of H_0 if $|T_{ql} - \hat{\mu}_{ql}| > \hat{\sigma}_{ql} z_{1-\alpha/2}$, where z_α stands for the α th quantile of the standard normal distribution.

4. Simulation Studies

To demonstrate the finite-sample performance of our proposed MIR model, we conduct the following simulation studies. The similarity matrices $A_k^{(t)} = (a(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)})) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with zero diagonal elements, and $a(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}) = \exp\{-(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)} - Z_{kj_2}^{(t)})^2\}$ if $|Z_{kj_1}^{(t)} - Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}| < \phi_k^{(t)}$, and is zero otherwise, where j_1 and j_2 range from one to n , and $Z_k^{(t)} = (Z_{k1}^{(t)}, \dots, Z_{kn}^{(t)})^\top$ are i.i.d. according to a multivariate normal distribution with mean zero and covariance matrix I_n , for $k = 1, \dots, d$ and $t = 1, \dots, T$, and $\phi_k^{(t)}$ is selected to control the density of $A_k^{(t)}$ (i.e., the proportion of nonzero elements), defined as $10/n$ for any k and t (see, e.g., Zou et al. (2017)). Accordingly, we obtain $W_k^{(t)} = (w(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}))_{n \times n}$, with $w(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}) = a(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)}) / \sum_{j_2} a(Z_{kj_1}^{(t)}, Z_{kj_2}^{(t)})$. The random errors ϵ_{it} are i.i.d. and simulated from three distributions: (i) the standard normal distribution $N(0, 1)$; (ii) the standardized exponential distribution; and (iii) the mixture distribution $0.9N(0, 5/9) + 0.1N(0, 5)$. The latter two distributions allow us to examine the robustness of the parameter estimates to other distributions. Finally, the response vectors Y_t are generated using $Y_t = (I_n - \lambda_1 W_1^{(t)} - \dots - \lambda_d W_d^{(t)})^{-1} \epsilon_t$, for $t = 1, \dots, T$. Note that the random error ϵ_t is independent of $Z_k^{(t)}$, for any $k = 1, \dots, d$ and $t = 1, \dots, T$.

For each of the random error distributions, we consider three numbers of observations, $T = 25, 50$, and 100 , three numbers of actors $n = 25, 50$, and 100 , and all of the results are generated with 500 realizations. Because the results for all three error distributions are qualitatively similar, we present only those for the standard normal distribution; the results for the mixture normal and standardized exponential distributions are relegated to the Supplementary Material.

To assess the performance of the parameter estimators, we consider three numbers of covariates, $d = 2, 6$, and 12 , where $d = 2$ is borrowed from Zou et al. (2017)), $d = 6$ is used in our real-data analysis, and $d = 12$ is an exploration of larger similarity matrices. Because the simulation results for $d = 12$ are qualitatively similar to those for $d = 2$ and 6 , we report them in the Supplementary Material. The regression coefficients are $\lambda_k = 0.1$, for $k = 1, \dots, d$. In addition, let $\hat{\lambda}^{(m)} = (\hat{\lambda}_1^{(m)}, \dots, \hat{\lambda}_d^{(m)})^\top \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be the parameter estimate in the m th realization, obtained using the proposed QMLE. For each $k = 1, \dots, d$, we evaluate the average bias of $\hat{\lambda}_k^{(m)}$ as $\text{BIAS} = 500^{-1} \sum_m (\hat{\lambda}_k^{(m)} - \lambda_k)$. Using the results of Theorem 1, we compute the standard error of $\hat{\lambda}_k^{(m)}$ using its asymptotic distribution, and denote it as $\text{SE}^{(m)}$. Then, the average of the estimated standard errors is $\text{SE} = 500^{-1} \sum_m \text{SE}^{(m)}$. To assess the validity of the estimated standard errors, we also calculate the true standard error using the 500 realizations, and denote it as $\text{SE}^* = 500^{-1} \sum_m (\hat{\lambda}_k^{(m)} - \bar{\lambda}_k)^2$, where $\bar{\lambda}_k = 500^{-1} \sum_m \hat{\lambda}_k^{(m)}$.

Table 1 presents the results for BIAS, SE, and SE^* over 500 realizations for $k = 1, \dots, d$ and $d = 2$ and 6 . The results show that the biases of the parameter estimates are close to zero for any n and T , and they become smaller as either n or T increases. In addition, the variation of the parameter estimate, SD, shows similar findings to those of BIAS. Moreover, the difference between SD and SD^* is quite small when either n or T is large. In summary, Table 1 demonstrates that the asymptotic results obtained in Theorem 1 are reliable and satisfactory.

We next assess the performance of the proposed EBIC by considering three sizes of the full model, $d = 6, 8$, and 12 , with the size of the true model $|\mathcal{S}_T| = 3$. We set $\lambda_k = 0.2$, for any $k \in \mathcal{S}_T$, and $\lambda_k = 0$ otherwise. To implement the EBIC, we set $\gamma = 2$ in this simulation study. Four performance measures are used: (i) the average size (AS) of the selected model $|\hat{\mathcal{S}}|$; (ii) the average percentage of the correct fit (CT), $I(\hat{\mathcal{S}} = \mathcal{S}_T)$; (iii) the average true positive rate (TPR), $|\hat{\mathcal{S}} \cap \mathcal{S}_T|/|\mathcal{S}_T|$; and (iv) the average false positive rate (FPR), $|\hat{\mathcal{S}} \cap \mathcal{S}_T^c|/|\mathcal{S}_T^c|$. Because the results for all three values of d exhibit a quantitatively similar pattern, we present only the results for $d = 8$.

Table 2 shows that the average percentage of correct fit, CT, increases toward 100% when either n or T becomes large. Note that the CTs are larger than 70%, even when both n and T are small, that is, $n = 25$ and $T = 25$. Furthermore, the average TPR is 100%, which indicates that the EBIC is unlikely to select an underfitted model, even when both n and T are small. In contrast, the average FPR decreases toward zero when either n or T becomes large. Moreover, the AS of the selected model, $|\hat{\mathcal{S}}|$, approaches the true model size. These results indicate that the EBIC performs satisfactorily in finite samples.

Lastly, we examine the performance of the proposed goodness of fit test. We consider a generative model $B_t = \lambda_1 W_1^{(t)} + \dots + \lambda_d W_d^{(t)} + \kappa E E^\top$, where $E \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a random normal vector of dimension n , with elements that are i.i.d. and are

Table 1. The bias and standard error of the parameter estimates when the true parameters are $\lambda_k = 0.1$, for $k = 1, \dots, d$, and the random errors follow a normal distribution. BIAS: the average bias; SE: the average of the estimated standard errors from Theorem 1; SE*: the standard error of the parameter estimates calculated from 500 realizations.

n	T		$d = 2$		$d = 6$					
			λ_1	λ_2	λ_1	λ_2	λ_3	λ_4	λ_5	λ_6
25	25	BIAS	-0.009	0.006	-0.001	-0.004	0.001	0.000	-0.002	-0.006
		SE	0.054	0.054	0.055	0.055	0.055	0.055	0.055	0.055
		SE*	0.058	0.055	0.056	0.055	0.054	0.056	0.052	0.052
	50	BIAS	-0.002	-0.004	0.001	-0.006	0.001	-0.002	0.001	-0.001
		SE	0.038	0.038	0.039	0.039	0.039	0.039	0.039	0.039
		SE*	0.039	0.041	0.039	0.042	0.042	0.039	0.038	0.039
	100	BIAS	-0.001	-0.002	0.002	-0.002	-0.000	-0.002	-0.000	0.001
		SE	0.027	0.027	0.027	0.027	0.027	0.027	0.027	0.027
		SE*	0.027	0.029	0.028	0.027	0.024	0.026	0.027	0.027
50	25	BIAS	-0.002	-0.003	-0.003	-0.003	-0.001	-0.000	0.001	-0.000
		SE	0.038	0.038	0.037	0.037	0.037	0.037	0.037	0.037
		SE*	0.038	0.037	0.035	0.034	0.038	0.037	0.033	0.036
	50	BIAS	-0.001	0.000	0.000	-0.000	-0.001	0.001	0.001	-0.005
		SE	0.027	0.027	0.026	0.026	0.026	0.026	0.026	0.026
		SE*	0.025	0.028	0.026	0.028	0.028	0.027	0.027	0.028
	100	BIAS	-0.001	-0.002	-0.001	-0.001	-0.000	-0.000	0.001	0.001
		SE	0.019	0.019	0.018	0.018	0.018	0.018	0.018	0.018
		SE*	0.019	0.019	0.018	0.020	0.019	0.018	0.017	0.019
100	25	BIAS	0.000	-0.001	-0.001	-0.000	-0.003	0.000	0.001	-0.002
		SE	0.026	0.027	0.026	0.026	0.026	0.026	0.026	0.026
		SE*	0.026	0.028	0.026	0.026	0.028	0.026	0.028	0.026
	50	BIAS	-0.001	0.001	0.000	-0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000
		SE	0.019	0.019	0.018	0.018	0.018	0.018	0.018	0.018
		SE*	0.019	0.018	0.017	0.016	0.018	0.019	0.016	0.018
	100	BIAS	-0.001	-0.001	-0.000	-0.001	0.001	0.002	-0.000	0.001
		SE	0.013	0.013	0.013	0.013	0.013	0.013	0.013	0.013
		SE*	0.013	0.013	0.012	0.013	0.014	0.012	0.013	0.013

simulated from a standard normal distribution. The parameter κ is a measure of departure from the null model of H_0 . Specifically, $\kappa = 0$ corresponds to the null model, and $\kappa > 0$ represents alternative models. Accordingly, the results for $\kappa = 0$ represent empirical sizes, whereas the results for $\kappa > 0$ denote empirical powers.

Table 3 indicates that the empirical sizes are slightly conservative when both n and T are small. However, they approach the significance level of 5% when either n or T becomes large. Furthermore, the empirical powers increase as either n or T becomes larger. Moreover, they become stronger when κ increases; in particular the empirical power approaches one when either n or T is equal to 100 and $\kappa = 0.2$. The above findings are robust to nonnormal error distributions; see

Table 2. Model selection using the EBIC when $d = 8$ and the random errors are normally distributed. AS: the average size of the selected model; CT: the average percentage of the correct fit; TPR: the average true positive rate; FPR: the average false positive rate.

n	T	AS	CT	TPR	FPR
25	25	3.3	72.6	91.8	9.8
	50	3.2	77.1	95.7	8.5
	100	3.1	81.2	100.0	5.9
50	25	3.2	78.2	94.0	7.9
	50	3.1	80.8	97.2	5.8
	100	3.1	84.7	100.0	5.1
100	25	3.1	82.3	100.0	6.7
	50	3.1	83.8	100.0	5.1
	100	3.0	87.7	100.0	4.2

Table 3. The empirical sizes and powers of the goodness-of-fit test. Here, $\kappa = 0$ corresponds to the null model, and $\kappa > 0$ represents alternative models. The random errors are normally distributed, and the full model sizes are $d = 2$ and 6.

n	T	$d=2$			$d=6$		
		$\kappa=0$	$\kappa=0.1$	$\kappa=0.2$	$\kappa=0$	$\kappa=0.1$	$\kappa=0.2$
25	25	0.030	0.296	0.664	0.024	0.242	0.584
	50	0.034	0.528	0.838	0.030	0.424	0.748
	100	0.042	0.660	0.910	0.042	0.560	0.822
50	25	0.028	0.434	0.772	0.022	0.342	0.654
	50	0.037	0.582	0.878	0.036	0.476	0.786
	100	0.044	0.706	0.974	0.048	0.654	0.954
100	25	0.034	0.510	0.976	0.030	0.452	0.964
	50	0.040	0.738	1.000	0.034	0.588	0.996
	100	0.048	0.910	1.000	0.046	0.830	1.000

Tables S.4 and S.7 in the Supplementary Material. Consequently, our proposed goodness-of-fit test not only controls the size well, but is also consistent. Note that the above estimation, selection, and test findings are also robust to nonnormal error distributions; see Tables S.2 to S.7 in the Supplementary Material.

5. Real-Data Analysis

5.1. Background and data

To demonstrate the practical use of our proposed MIR model, we present an empirical example in which we explore the mechanism of spillover effects in Chinese mutual funds. The income and profit of a mutual fund are largely compensated by management fees, which are charged as a fixed proportion of the total net assets under management. As a result, the variation in cash flow

over time is one of the most influential indices, and is closely monitored by fund managers. Thus, exploring the cash flow mechanism is essential (see, e.g., Spitz (1970); Nanda, Wang and Zheng (2004); Brown and Wu (2016)). However, past studies have focused mainly on the characteristics of mutual funds that affect their cash flow from a cross-sectional prospective (see, e.g., Brown and Wu (2016)). In this study, we employ our proposed MIR model to identify mutual fund characteristics that yield a mutual influence on fund cash flows (i.e., a spillover effect), from a network perspective.

To proceed with our study, we collect quarterly data from 2010–2017 on actively managed open-ended mutual funds from the WIND financial database, one of the most authoritative databases on the Chinese financial market. After removing funds with missing observations or that had existed for less than one year, we have $n = 90$ mutual funds in this empirical study, with $T = 32$. The response variable, namely, the cash flow rate of fund i at time t , is calculated as follows (Nanda, Wang and Zheng (2004)):

$$C_{it} = \frac{TA_{it} - TA_{i,t-1}(1 + r_{it})}{TA_{it}},$$

where TA_{it} and r_{it} are the total net assets and the return of fund i at time t , respectively.

We next generate the similarity matrices to explore the mechanism of spillover effects among mutual funds. To this end, we consider the following five covariates, following Spitz (1970): (i) Size, the logarithm of the total net assets of fund i at time $t - 1$; (ii) Age, the logarithm of the age of fund i at time $t - 1$; (iii) Return, the return of fund i at time $t - 1$; (iv) Alpha, the risk-adjusted return of fund i at time $t - 1$, measured by the intercept of the Carhart (1997) four-factor model; and (v) Volatility, the standard deviation of the weekly return of fund i and time $t - 1$. We next generate the similarity matrices. For the Size covariate, we standardize the data to have zero mean and unit variance, and denote it as $SIZE_{it}$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $t = 1, \dots, T$. Then, the similarity matrix induced by Size is $A_1^{(t)} = (a(Z_{1j_1}^{(t)}, Z_{1j_2}^{(t)}))$, with zero diagonal elements, and $a(Z_{1j_1}^{(t)}, Z_{1j_2}^{(t)}) = \exp\{-(Z_{1j_1}^{(t)} - Z_{1j_2}^{(t)})^2\}$ when $|Z_{1j_1}^{(t)} - Z_{1j_2}^{(t)}| < \phi_1^{(t)}$ for a prespecified finite positive constant $\phi_1^{(t)}$, and $a(Z_{1j_1}^{(t)}, Z_{1j_2}^{(t)}) = 0$ otherwise. As in the simulation studies, $\phi_1^{(t)}$ is selected so that the proportion of nonzero elements of $A_1^{(t)}$ is $10/n$. Subsequently, we obtain $W_1^{(t)} = (w(Z_{1j_1}^{(t)}, Z_{1j_2}^{(t)}))_{n \times n}$ and $w(Z_{1j_1}^{(t)}, Z_{1j_2}^{(t)}) = a(Z_{1j_1}^{(t)}, Z_{1j_2}^{(t)}) / \sum_{j_2} a(Z_{1j_1}^{(t)}, Z_{1j_2}^{(t)})$, which is the row-normalized version of $A_1^{(t)}$. Analogously, we can construct the similarity matrices $W_2^{(t)}, \dots, W_5^{(t)}$ associated with the remaining four covariates.

Table 4. The QMLE parameter estimates and associated standard errors and p -values for the five covariates.

	Estimate	Standard-Error	p -Value
Alpha	0.005	0.027	0.853
Return	0.569	0.019	0.000
Size	0.330	0.014	0.000
Age	0.036	0.018	0.046
Volatility	0.209	0.020	0.000

5.2. Empirical results

We first use the adequacy test to assess whether the five covariates are sufficient to explain the mutual influence matrix. The resulting p -value for testing the null hypothesis of H_0 in (3.1) is 0.660, which is not statistically significant under the significance level of 5%. This indicates that one or more of the five covariates in the MIR model provide a good fit to the data.

We next use the proposed QMLE method to estimate the model. Table 5 presents the parameter estimates, standard errors, and their associated p -values. The results show that the covariates Return, Age, and Volatility are statistically significant and positive. Note that these three covariates are all related to the funds' performance and operating capacity. Hence, we conclude that the funds' cash flows are influenced by other funds with similar performance and operating capacity. Furthermore, the estimate of Size is positive and statistically significant, which implies that the funds' cash flows are influenced by other funds of similar size. In other words, investors tend to invest in larger mutual funds. Moreover, the estimate of Alpha is positive, but not statistically significant. Hence, investors pay more attention to raw returns than they do to risk-adjusted returns when judging the performance of a fund. This may be because raw returns are easier to observe.

Subsequently, we use the EBIC to determine the most relevant covariates related to the cash flow, with $\gamma = 2$, as in the simulation studies. The resulting model consists of the covariates Return and Size. This implies that fund managers tend to learn relevant information from other funds with a large size and good performance. This finding is consistent with those of existing studies (see, e.g., Brown, Harlow and Starks (1996)). To check the robustness of our results against the selection of $\phi_k^{(t)}$, we also consider $\phi_k^{(t)}$, so that the proportion of nonzero elements of the weight matrices are $5/n$ and $20/n$. The results yield similar findings to those for $10/n$. Moreover, we consider the two alternative nondecreasing functions of $a(\cdot)$, namely, $a(x) = 1/(1+x^2)$ and $a(x) = 1/(1+x^2)^2$. The estimation results (not reported here) are almost identical to those in Table 4. Hence, our results are not affected by these two alternatives. In summary, the MIR model can provide valuable insight into the mechanism of mutual influence

among mutual funds.

6. Conclusion

We have proposed the MIR model to explore the mechanism of mutual influence by establishing a relationship between the mutual influence matrix and a set of similarity matrices induced by their associated attributes among the actors. In addition, we allow the number of similarity matrices to diverge, and establish the theoretical properties of the MIR model's estimations, selections, and assessments. The results of our Monte Carlo studies support our theoretical findings, and we use an empirical example to show how to use the proposed model in practice.

To broaden the usefulness of the MIR model, we identify six possible avenues for future research. The first is to allow the regression coefficients to change with t in order to increase the model flexibility. The second is to generalize the model by accommodating discrete responses. The third is to extend the linear regression structure of the MIR model to nonparametric or semiparametric settings by changing $\lambda_k W_k^{(t)}$ to $g(\lambda_k, W_k^{(t)})$, for some unknown smooth function $g(\cdot)$. The fourth is to develop a fast algorithm with a theoretical justification for implementing the MIR model when n or d is large, such as the one-step estimate proposed by Gupta (2021). The fifth is to develop a criterion to obtain the optimal γ for the EBIC. Finally, we would like to introduce a method for choosing the thresholds or cut-off points of the weight matrices. We believe that these efforts would further increase the applicability of the MIR model.

Supplementary Material

The online Supplementary Material contains the conditions and proofs of the theorems, as well as additional simulation settings and results.

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