



Alternative estimation methods for identifying contagion effects in dynamic social networks: A latent-space adjusted approach

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ABSTRACT

Contagion effects, also known as peer effects or social influence process, have become more and more central to social science, especially with the availability of longitudinal social network data. However, contagion effects are usually difficult to identify, as they are often entangled with other factors, such as homophily in the selection process, the individual's preference for the same social settings, etc. Methods currently available either do not solve these problems or require strong assumptions. Following Shalizi and Thomas (2011), I frame this difficulty as an omitted variable bias problem, and I propose several alternative estimation methods that have potentials to correctly identify contagion effects when there is an unobserved trait that co-determines the influence and the selection. The Monte-Carlo simulation results suggest that a latent-space adjusted estimator is especially promising. It outperforms other estimators that are traditionally used to deal with the unobserved variables, including a structural equation based estimator and an instrumental variable estimator.

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1. Introduction

Endogenous social effects, which have long been central to the field of social science (Asch, 1952; Merton, 1957; Erbring and Young, 1979; Bandura, 1986), are defined as the propensity for the behavior of an individual to vary along with the prevalence of that behavior in some reference group containing the individual (Manski, 1993). Within the framework of social network analysis, the endogenous social effects are also known as "contagion" or "social influence", and the reference group can be one's network neighborhood. Contagion effects have also received much attention and have been widely studied (Kandel, 1978; Marsden and Friedkin, 1993; Doreian, 2001; An, 2011) as they have various implications for issues such as health behavior (e.g. obesity and smoking), information diffusion, or change in teacher practices, among others (Christakis and Fowler, 2007, 2008; Valente, 1995, 1996; Frank et al., 2004).

However, these types of contagion effects are usually difficult to identify, as it is difficult to separate such influences from other processes when there is network autocorrelation in the data, i.e. when we observe that people who are closely related to each other tend to be similar in some salient individual behavior and attitude dimensions, it is difficult to tell which is the underlying

mechanism that generates these patterns. It could be influence and contagion (Friedkin and Johnsen, 1999; Friedkin, 2001; Oetting and Donnermeyer, 1998) whereby actors assimilate the behavior of their network members; or selection mechanisms, more specifically homophily (Lazarsfeld and Merton, 1954; McPherson and Smith-Lovin, 1987; McPherson et al., 2001), where actors seek to interact with similar others; or it could be due to different social contexts where people with previous similarities can select themselves into the same social setting, and actual friendship formation just reflects the opportunities of meeting in this social setting (Feld, 1981, 1982; Kalmijn and Flap, 2001).¹ Several notable attempts that try to identify contagion effects include modeling the co-evolution of selection and influence (Snijders et al., 2007; Steglich et al., 2010), using indirect ties from third parties as instrumental variables (Bramoullé et al., 2009; An, 2011), or Propensity Score Matching (Aral et al., 2009). But there is still considerable misconception about when it is problematic to identify contagion effects, and why these methods would need to be applied. Furthermore, all the methods mentioned above require some form of strong

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¹ There are also structural constraints such as transitivity, preferential attachment etc. which could cause people to become friends. However these mechanisms in themselves do not entangle with influence (e.g. one befriends with another having high popularity but different behavior). In these cases another mechanism must be present to induce similarity between these friends (e.g. selection of common friends based on similarity in attributes), and thus the entanglement goes back to the original three mechanisms, namely influence, selection based on homophily, and social-environmental factors.

assumptions such as the exponential-family parametric assumption, the standard IV assumption, the assumption that all of the dependence is captured by observable covariates, and so on, each of which imposes substantial limits on the forms of data where these methods can actually be applied.

The difficulty of identification caused by entanglement between contagion effects and other confounding variables (social-environmental factors, or the attributes of egos and alters, for example) can be easily framed as an omitted variable bias problem. What is less obvious is that the dilemma caused by co-evolution of the influence and selection processes can essentially be framed as an omitted variable bias problem as well. As pointed out by Steglich et al. (2010), one of the important concerns is the “possibility that there may be non-observed variables co-determining the probabilities of change in network and/or behavior”. Shalizi and Thomas (2011) have shown that when there is a latent trait that co-determines both influence and selection in network data, contagion effects are generally unidentifiable, mainly due to the fact that contagion and homophily (selection) are generically confounded through this latent trait.

In this paper, first I will clarify why contagion effects are difficult to identify; specifically, I will frame identification as an omitted variable bias problem. Then I will give some simulation examples exploring the magnitude of bias of the estimates for the contagion effects when there is an unobserved variable that codetermines influence and selection. Next, I will propose several estimation methods that have potentials to correctly identify contagion effects, and the focus of which is a latent-space based estimation method. Finally I will carry out simulation studies to examine the performance of these estimation methods.

2. Theoretical framework

2.1. Identifying contagion effects: where does the bias come from?

To understand where the bias comes from when identifying contagion effects, first we need to specify our “causal” models in terms of influence and selection. After specifying our model we then show how the estimation of contagion effects can suffer from bias.

A network behavioral (influence) model can be represented as

$$Y_{it} = f(Z_{ij}, Y_j, X_i, c_i) \quad (1)$$

where the behavior of node i at time t is a function of the behavior of network members Y_j , other variables X specific to node i , network relations Z and unobserved effects c_i . For example, adolescents' alcohol use (Y_{it}) can be a function of their previous alcohol use (Y_{it-1}), their close friends' alcohol use (Y_{jt-1}), their own cigarette use (X_{it-1}) and some latent disposition for substance abuse (c_i). Specifically, one form of such behavior models can be in a dynamic linear form (Friedkin and Johnsen, 1990)²:

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{it-1} + \beta_2 \frac{\sum Z_{ijt-1} Y_{jt-1}}{\sum Z_{ijt-1}} + \beta_3 X_{it-1} + c_i + e_{it} \quad (2)$$

where Y_{it-1} is the previous behavior of i , Z_{ijt-1} is a dummy variable indicating if there is a link from i to j at time $t-1$, i.e. 1 if yes and 0 otherwise, and $\frac{\sum Z_{ijt-1} Y_{jt-1}}{\sum Z_{ijt-1}}$ represents the weighted average behavior among the network neighbors of i , which is the exposure term (contagion) of interest,³ and X_{it-1} represents other

² Note that although we choose a linear form of the model with mean exposure term, these assumptions can be easily relaxed and our arguments can be applied to other types of models.

³ From now on I will use the term “contagion effects” to represent β_2 , “network exposure term” to represent $\frac{\sum Z_{ijt-1} Y_{jt-1}}{\sum Z_{ijt-1}}$.

variables that might affect the behavioral outcome Y . We choose this form of behavioral model for several reasons: (1) we choose linear models as they have greater flexibility when compared with models like SIENA (Steglich et al., 2010), and because of the availability of methods that they may produce to deal with unobserved time-constant actor differences (Steglich et al., 2010; Mouw, 2006); (2) we only use lagged endogenous variables (if X is exogenous, i.e. if X is not “caused” by Y then X can be contemporaneous), which to us is a more realistic assumption that there is some lag in the transmission of social effects. In addition, such formulations require less strict conditions for identification of social effects (Manski, 1993). One might argue that there are also contemporaneous social effects that should be included, which constitute the true “structural model” (Sims, 1980; Bramoullé et al., 2009). Even if this is true, however, the identification of contemporaneous effects often requires strong structural restrictions or valid instrumental variables (Sims, 1980; Manski, 1993; Wooldridge, 2010), and including both contemporaneous and lagged effects when identifying contagion effects can cause problems both in estimation and interpretation (Lyons, 2011; VanderWeele and An, 2013; VanderWeele et al., 2012). As Sims (1980) has argued for vector-autoregressive models, the type of “reduced form” models in model 2 do not require “too many incredible restrictions” for identification, and are still very useful in forecasting and analysis.

For the selection process, let $Z_{ijt} = 1$ if there is a connection from node i to node j at time t , and let Z_{ijt}^* be a latent variable defined as

$$Z_{ijt}^* = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 Z_{ijt-1} + \alpha_2 |c_i - c_j| + \alpha_3 |Y_{it-1} - Y_{jt-1}| + \alpha_4 |X_{it-1} - X_{jt-1}| + \varepsilon_{ijt} \quad (3)$$

where c represents a time invariant unobserved trait for i and j , Y represents the behavior of interest, X represents the observed variables and $\varepsilon_{ijt} \sim N(0, 1)$. By defining Z_{ijt} as

$$Z_{ijt} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Z_{ijt}^* > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

we know that Z_{ijt} follows a standard probit model (Wooldridge, 2010) where

$$P(Z_{ijt} = 1) = \Phi(\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 Z_{ijt-1} + \alpha_2 |c_i - c_j| + \alpha_3 |Y_{it-1} - Y_{jt-1}| + \alpha_4 |X_{it-1} - X_{jt-1}| + \varepsilon_{ijt}) \quad (5)$$

The models described in Eqs. (2) and (5) are now called simply models 2 and 5. Model 5 represents the selection model. Through models 2 and 5 we now have described the co-evolution of the influence and selection processes, which operate through the same sets of observed and unobserved variables. And the magnitude of contagion effects is represented by the parameter β_2 in model 2.

To understand where any bias comes from, we need to know that in order to get consistent estimates in model 2 using conventional approaches such as OLS, one key assumption is that unobserved errors have to be uncorrelated with observed variables. In this case, if either the idiosyncratic error e_{it} or a latent trait c_i is correlated with observed variables, we will have biased estimates. For now we only focus on the latent trait c_i and assume that e_{it} does not correlate with observed variables in model 2. (Different exogeneity assumptions must hold for different estimation methods, for more details see Wooldridge (2010)). We already know that c_i correlates with Y_{it-1} , and if $\alpha_2 < 0$ in model 5, such that there is a homophily based selection which operates through an unobserved trait, we know (i) person i will select person j with a similar latent trait, and

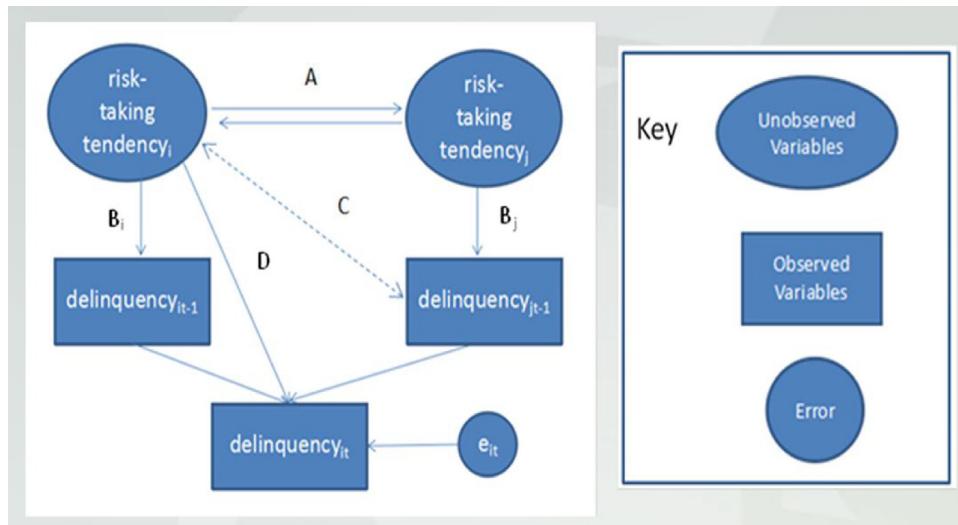


Fig. 1. Omitted variable bias.

(ii) person j's behavior is a function of person j's latent trait c_j , which is similar to c_i through selection; and (iii) together c_i will be correlated with person j's behavior, which is analogous to the exposure term in model 2. As c is unobserved, this violates the key assumption of OLS (as well as many other methods), so that estimates in model 2 will be inconsistent, and the contagion (exposure) effect is unidentifiable.

To give an example, assuming that delinquency is a function of an unobserved risk-taking tendency (arrow B_i in the Fig. 1), and when there is homophily based selection which operates through this unobserved variable, (i) person i will select person j who is similar on the unobserved risk-taking tendency (arrow A in the figure); (ii) person j 's delinquency behavior is a function of person j 's risk-taking tendency (arrow B_j), which is similar to person i 's risk-taking tendency through selection; and (iii) because of (i) and (ii) the risk-taking tendency for person i will be correlated with person j 's delinquency behavior (arrow C in the figure). As the risk-taking tendency is unobserved, this violates the key assumption of OLS, so that estimates may be inconsistent, and the contagion (exposure) effect is unidentifiable. For an analogous algebraic argument see Appendix c in Supplementary material.

Hence through a regression framework we have explained how selection (homophily) is confounded with influence, and as we can see, this can directly translate into an “omitted variable bias” problem, under which there are some omitted variables that we do not control for, but which affect both selection and behavioral outcomes.⁴ So instead of stating that contagion effects are unidentifiable because selection operates at the same time, a more meaningful question to ask might be “what factors in the selection process might also affect behavioral outcomes?” And as long as we have that variable controlled in the influence model, we should not be worried about selection (homophily) being confounded with influence any more.

2.2. Magnitude of bias when the unobserved trait is ignored

In an ideal world we would correctly measure all variables that can affect influence, selection, and social context, so that there will be no remaining omitted variable problem, and conventional

approaches such as OLS can be applied.⁵ But given the limited richness of the data, an omitted variable problem is almost inevitable in any empirical study, in which we know OLS estimates for contagion effects will be biased. Furthermore, most methods that are currently widely used also suffer from this omitted variable bias problem. For example, one might attempt to use models that can model influence and selection at the same time (SIENA for example) to separate influence from selection, however as Steglich et al. (2010) pointed out, such models still will not work when “non-observed variables co-determine the probabilities of change in network and/or behavior”. One might borrow from the causal inference literature (Rosenbaum and Rubin, 1983) and use methods such as propensity matching (Aral et al., 2009), but that still does not deal with unobserved variable problems as strong ignorability assumes observed variables carry all the dependency between outcomes and treatment assignments (contagion or network exposure).

To better understand how estimates of the contagion effects will be biased when selection is confounded with influence, we provide some intuitions of the magnitude of the bias through some simulation examples. Specifically, we are interested in the magnitude of bias of the estimates of the contagion effects when we ignore the unobserved trait that codetermines influence and selection. For simplicity we do not include other observed variable Xs, and we let the “true” influence model be:

$$Y_{it} = \beta_1 Y_{it-1} + \beta_2 \frac{\sum Z_{ijt-1} Y_{jt-1}}{\sum Z_{ijt-1}} + \beta_3 c_i + e_{it} \quad (6)$$

And correspondingly, the “true” selection model can be represented as

$$P(Z_{ijt} = 1) = \Phi(\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 |c_i - c_j|) \quad (7)$$

where c is an individual specific time-invariant unobserved trait that is present in both the influence and the selection process.

In the simulations we start from a random network and simulate a network data based on models in (6) and (7), and estimate the influence model while ignoring the unobserved trait:

$$Y_{it} = \beta_1 Y_{it-1} + \beta_2 \frac{\sum Z_{ijt-1} Y_{jt-1}}{\sum Z_{ijt-1}} + e_{it} \quad (8)$$

⁴ Note that unobserved variables, that only affect behavioral outcomes but not selection, may cause estimation problems as well, but that is not the focus here.

⁵ Note that in this case a reflection problem still exists if contagion effect is contemporaneous. For a formal derivation of the problem see Appendix b in Supplementary material.

Table 1

OLS estimates of the influence model when unobserved trait is ignored.

	True Coefficient	Lagged Dependent Variable		Network Exposure	
		Mean Bias	SD	Mean Bias	SD
High Homophily	0	0.176	0.048	0.062	0.032
	0.1	0.184	0.046	0.082	0.046
	0.2	0.185	0.042	0.121	0.059
	0.3	0.185	0.039	0.161	0.071
	0.4	0.183	0.036	0.195	0.078
	0.5	0.173	0.031	0.227	0.089
	0.6	0.156	0.028	0.255	0.097
	0.7	0.136	0.022	0.276	0.103
	0.8	0.112	0.018	0.282	0.106
	0.9	0.076	0.013	0.293	0.113
Low Homophily	0	0.180	0.052	0.018	0.032
	0.1	0.197	0.051	0.027	0.050
	0.2	0.204	0.051	0.043	0.067
	0.3	0.211	0.046	0.059	0.082
	0.4	0.209	0.042	0.061	0.092
	0.5	0.203	0.036	0.073	0.108
	0.6	0.190	0.029	0.074	0.114
	0.7	0.167	0.023	0.077	0.117
	0.8	0.133	0.017	0.068	0.128
	0.9	0.089	0.011	0.068	0.134
No Homophily	0	0.172	0.054	-0.003	0.029
	0.1	0.185	0.053	-0.059	0.045
	0.2	0.198	0.051	-0.094	0.062
	0.3	0.203	0.047	-0.116	0.078
	0.4	0.207	0.043	-0.116	0.096
	0.5	0.200	0.039	-0.114	0.107
	0.6	0.191	0.031	-0.113	0.115
	0.7	0.169	0.025	-0.097	0.126
	0.8	0.137	0.016	-0.083	0.119
	0.9	0.090	0.011	-0.068	0.131

and find OLS estimates for β_1 and β_2 .

Simulation configuration. While there are many factors that could affect the magnitude of the bias, such as density, the magnitude of the latent trait (β_3), variance of idiosyncratic error, etc, we focus on the following:

- (1) level of homophily. As homophily operates through the unobserved trait in our simulated data, higher homophily means higher correlation between network exposure and the unobserved trait (also higher correlation between network exposure and lagged dependent variable). We are interested in how homophily affects the magnitude of bias.
- (2) magnitude of true coefficients for lagged dependent variable and network exposure, as different levels of influence might affect the magnitude of bias in estimation.

Specifically, let a simulation configuration be as follows: (1) we fix the number of nodes as 80 and the number of time points to be 5; (2) we vary the homophily level to be (i) no homophily, where we start the simulation from a random network that does not change over time, (ii) low homophily ($\alpha_0 = -0.75$, $\alpha_1 = -0.1$). Note that α_1 affects the level of homophily based on the unobserved trait and α_0 affects the overall density of the network); (iii) high homophily ($\alpha_0 = -0.55$, $\alpha_1 = -0.3$); and (3) we vary both β_1 and β_2 from 0.1 to 0.9, while keeping $\beta_1 + \beta_2 = 0.9$. And we set $\beta_3 = 0.1$. This only changes the dynamics of the relationship, and keeps the consensus within the initial range for c_i (Friedkin and Johnsen, 1999). Other model configurations include $e_{it} \sim N(0, 0.2^2)$, initial density of the network is 0.2. And in all three configurations α_0 and α_1 are chosen to deliver the overall density similar to that of the initial network.

The Mean biases for the lagged dependent variable and the network exposure term under various conditions are shown in Table 1. There are several things to note concerning the lagged dependent variable term: (1) the bias for lagged dependent variable is generally smaller when the true coefficient is larger; and (2) the OLS

estimates for the lagged dependent variable term are consistently upwardly biased, and the magnitude of bias does not change much with different homophilous selection processes.

The bias for network exposure presents a more interesting pattern: (1) contrary to estimates of the lagged dependent variable term, the bias for network exposure is generally smaller when the true coefficient is smaller; (2) when homophily is present in the selection process, the network exposure is upwardly biased, and the magnitude of bias is much smaller for lower levels of homophily; (3) when there is no homophily in the selection process and the network is static, estimates for network exposure are downwardly biased. Note that as true coefficient of network exposure increases, standard error of the estimate also increases. This is because as influence becomes stronger in the network, nodes' behaviors converge and exhibit smaller variance, resulting in larger standard error.

One possible reason for the lagged dependent variable term to be consistently upwardly biased is that it has a consistently high correlation with the unobserved trait (>0.6). The direction of bias for the contagion effects shows an interesting pattern: it is upward when there is latent homophily in the selection process, but downward when the network is static. We provide some explanations in the technical Appendix a in Supplementary material.

From the results above we can see that an uncontrolled unobserved trait that either only affects influence or codetermines selection and influence will indeed create biased OLS estimates (as well as many other methods) for the contagion effects, possibly leading to invalid inference.⁶ And given the limited richness of the data, an omitted variable problem is almost inevitable in any empirical study. So in the next section, we turn to some alternative estimation methods that have the potential to correctly identify

⁶ We did not fully explore the magnitude of bias under various scenarios. And simulation examples here merely show the existence of the bias.

contagion effects, assuming that there are unobserved variables that co-determine the influence and the selection.

3. Alternative estimation methods

In this section we will propose three estimation methods that have potentials to correctly identify contagion effects when there are unobserved variables which co-determine influence and selection. We will introduce each, and explain how they can be applied in a social network context to identify contagion effects under weaker assumptions. After that we will perform Monte-Carlo simulations to test the performance of each estimator we propose. The main method that we will focus on is what we called a “latent-space adjusted” approach, which utilize the latent social positions from the latent space models (Hoff et al., 2002). And we will compare this new method with two existing methods which are traditionally used to deal with omitted variable bias problem, yet less commonly used by social network researchers. One of them is Structural-equation model (SEM) based and the other is a variation of the instrumental variable (IV) methods.

3.1. Latent-space adjusted approach

In a case where there is an unobserved trait that co-determines the influence and the selection process (homophily based on the unobserved trait), in theory if there is any information about this unobserved trait from the selection process, it can be borrowed and used in the estimation of the influence model, and this will reduce the bias in estimating the contagion effects. However, most selection models (e.g. SIENA) will likely not contribute to the influence estimation in this case, as their estimations are based on observed variables and thus do not attend to those variables that are not observed. And here we will propose an estimation procedure that borrows information beyond what is observed from the selection process, and use that to help estimating the contagion effects in the influence model.

Our approach builds on the theoretical logic of latent space models as applied to social-network data (Hoff et al., 2002). Latent space models assume that each individual has a “latent position” that lies in an unobserved n-dimensional social space, and the probability of interaction between any two actors depends on the latent positions of these two actors. Specifically, they take a logistic form and specify the selection model as

$$\log \text{ odds} (Z_{ij} = 1 | c_i, c_j, x_{ij}, \alpha, \beta) = \alpha + \beta' x_{ij} - |c_i - c_j| \quad (9)$$

Here, Z_{ij} indicates whether there is an interaction from i to j , x_{ij} is a vector of observed covariates (at dyadic level or node level), c indicates the latent social position of i and j , and $|c_i - c_j|$ represents the Euclidean distance between i and j 's latent position. A smaller distance between i and j 's latent position indicates a larger probability of having a tie. And these latent social positions can be regarded as determinants of interactions that have not been accounted for by the observed variables in the selection process. The parameters α and β are estimated using either Maximum-Likelihood Estimation (MLE) or Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods, and the latent position c can be estimated by Minimum Kullback-Leibler (MKL) estimates (Shortreed et al., 2006). Note that if there are no covariates in model 9, this model is similar in principle to multidimensional scaling (Kruskal, 1964), which put nodes at positions in n -dimensional space based on their network relations. As described in Hoff et al. (2002), crude estimates of individual positions from multidimensional scaling are actually used as starting values in their estimation procedure.

It is not difficult to see that the latent space model described as model 9 is very similar to the selection process as we defined in model 3, except that c represents latent position in the latent

space model, while c represents individual's unobserved trait in model 3.⁷ Therefore, if two individuals are close to each other in terms of the latent social positions, they should also be close to each other in terms of the unobserved trait. And if these latent positions are estimated accurately enough, the estimates of these latent positions can be used as proxies for the unobserved trait that determines the homophily in the selection process. Furthermore, if these unobserved traits are also present in the influence process, the estimated latent social positions from the latent space model can also be included when estimating an influence model such as in model 2, and this will in-principle reduce the bias in estimation of contagion effects that are due to the omitted variable problem (Wooldridge, 2010).⁸ For example, to model adolescents' delinquency behavior, we can first use a latent space model to model the friendship network of adolescents and acquire an estimated “latent social position” for each individual, and then use these estimates as proxies for the unobserved risk-taking tendency in the influence model, and thus achieve a better estimation of the true contagion effects.

There are two things to note here: (1) in principle this method can apply to any functional form of the selection model, because it accounts for the homophily determinants that are unobserved in the selection process, which are also present in the influence process. This is different from many traditional methods that only depend on the observed variables; (2) as the scale and the actual position of the estimated latent social positions are essentially arbitrary (Hoff et al., 2002), the actual value of the latent social position might be very different from the actual value of the unobserved trait that codetermines influence and selection. However, as long as the estimated latent social positions are highly correlated with the unobserved trait (actors who are close to each other on the latent social positions are also close to each other in terms of the unobserved trait), the contagion effects can still be consistently estimated.

However, if the social network data is longitudinal, the latent space model as described in model 9 cannot produce consistent latent position estimates across different time points, as it is static in nature. Extensions of latent space models that apply to dynamic social network data have been proposed (Sarkar and Moore, 2005), but they do not assume constant latent positions across time, which violates one of our key assumptions, that individuals possess time-invariant latent-trait. In addition, there is the difficulty of implementation in software. So instead we propose a two-step estimator for contagion effects: (1) we estimate a latent space model and acquire the latent position estimates for each time point, and (2) we include estimated values of latent positions for all available time points as proxies for the unobserved trait, and estimate the influence model using OLS. Specifically, let c be the unobserved trait that codetermines influence and selection, q_t be the latent position estimates for time t , assume that

$$c = \gamma_0 + \sum_1^T \gamma_t q_t + r \quad (10)$$

Under the assumption that $E(y|x,c,q) = E(y|x,c)$ and $Cov(x,r) = 0$ (X represents all independent variables in the influence model), q can be valid proxies for the unobserved trait c and thus the con-

⁷ Here we only choose one-dimensional latent social positions to mimic the unobserved trait that drives the homophily in the selection process. The arguments can easily be extended to multi-dimensional latent positions.

⁸ In principle this approach is similar to Heckman's control function approach to deal with selection bias. However, one important difference is that Heckman's selection model requires instrumental variables to be uncorrelated with unobserved variables, while in our approach latent social positions should be proxies for the unobserved variables.

tagion effect is identified. Essentially we assume that each q is an imperfect measure of c , and by including all q 's we will have a better approximation to c , and thus better estimation of contagion effects.⁹

3.2. Instrumental variable methods

Instrumental variable (IV) methods are often used in situations where explanatory variables are correlated with the error terms, which can be caused by simultaneity, omitted variables, measurement error, etc. These type of methods work through identifying a set of new variables that only correlate with endogenous explanatory variables, but not with the unobserved error terms, and thus achieve consistent estimation by “blocking out” the correlation between the endogenous variable and unobserved errors (An, 2011; Wooldridge, 2010). There have been a few studies that used IV methods to identify contagion effects. For example Duncan et al. (1968) used a friend's intelligence as an IV for the friend's occupational and educational aspirations. Angrist and Lang (2004) used the predicted number of transferred-in disadvantaged students to study their effects on the academic performance of students in the receiving schools. O'Malley et al. (2014) used genetic alleles as IVs to estimate peer effects on weight status. An (2015) used friends' family smoking status to estimate peer effects on smoking. However, all these IV methods require a strong theoretical argument of validity for the instrumental variables, which thus are essentially untestable. And we will also encounter inconsistency problems and large standard error of estimates when we have weak instruments or data with small sample sizes (Bound et al., 1995; Wooldridge, 2010).

There are also studies exploiting structural properties of networks to identify instrumental variables. For example, Bramoullé et al. (2009) argued that if there are intransitive triads, for example $i \rightarrow j \rightarrow k$ but i and k are not connected, then i 's outcome can be used as instruments for j to estimate contagion effects for k 's outcome, since k is not directly influenced by i . However, the identification of the model would require the validity of the instrument such that i does not influence k through any alternative path, and simulations by Bramoullé et al. (2009) have shown that the quality of IV estimates depend on specific network structural properties as well (precision decreases with denser networks and complex functions of intransitivity).

Given the strong assumptions required by various instrumental variables above, alternatively we propose to exploit the dynamic nature of our data and our model. Specifically, as pointed out by Anderson and Hsiao (1982), under specific assumptions, past values of one's own outcomes can be used as instruments for endogenous variables in a dynamic model. To see this, we first-difference our original influence model to remove the time invariant unobserved trait c_i (we exclude X in model for simplicity):

$$\text{Original influence model : } Y_{it} = \beta_1 Y_{it-1} + \beta_2 \tilde{Y}_{it-1} + c_i + e_{it} \quad (11)$$

$$\text{After first-difference : } \Delta Y_{it} = \beta_1 \Delta Y_{it-1} + \beta_2 \Delta \tilde{Y}_{it-1} + \Delta e_{it}$$

Where \tilde{Y} represents the original network exposure term, and $\Delta Y_{it} = Y_{it} - Y_{it-1}$, $\Delta Y_{it-1} = Y_{it-1} - Y_{it-2}$, $\Delta \tilde{Y}_{it-1} = \tilde{Y}_{it-1} - \tilde{Y}_{it-2}$ etc. As in the fixed effects approach, this transformation will induce a correlation between ΔY_{it} and Δe_{it} , thus biasing the estimates (Nickell, 1981). However, under a sequential exogeneity assumption, which states that errors (shocks) in the future are independent of past values of y (which seems to be a very reasonable assumption if errors do not contain omitted variables and are structural/idiographic), plus an assumption that errors are serial-independent, a natural instrument would be the past values of Y for each time period, which will correlate with ΔY_{it-1} but not with Δe_{it} , and hence satisfy the IV assumption. For example, in a panel data with 3 time points, for $Y_{i2} - Y_{i1}$ the instrumental variable can be Y_{i1} , as it does not correlate with $e_{i3} - e_{i2}$, and this will generate consistent estimates of β_1 . To be more concrete, using the delinquency example, to model the change score of delinquency from time 2 to time 3, we can use adolescents' delinquency score at time 1 as an instrumental variable for the change score of delinquency from time 1 to time 2. Note that in our setup the transformed network exposure (contagion) term does not correlate with the transformed error term, as the effect of network exposure on outcomes in the influence model is not simultaneous, but lagged. To see this more clearly write $\Delta \tilde{Y}_{it-1} = \tilde{Y}_{it-1} - \tilde{Y}_{it-2}$ and $\Delta e_{it} = e_{it} - e_{it-1}$, showing that these two terms are independent, since any change in e_{it-1} will be reflected in \tilde{Y}_{it} but not in \tilde{Y}_{it-1} or \tilde{Y}_{it-2} . In this sense, the exposure term is “exogenous”, so that it can be identified without extra instrumental variables.¹⁰

However, since all past values of Y can potentially be instruments, Arellano and Bond (1991) proposed using the entire set of instruments in a generalized method of moments (GMM) procedure to improve efficiency. Specifically, let the matrix of instrumental variables for individual i to be Z_i , as follows¹¹:

$$Z_i = \begin{bmatrix} Y_{i1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \Delta \tilde{Y}_{i2} \\ 0 & Y_{i1} & Y_{i2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \Delta \tilde{Y}_{i3} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & Y_{i1} & Y_{i2} & Y_{i3} & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \Delta \tilde{Y}_{i4} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & Y_{i1} & Y_{i2} & \dots & Y_{iT-2} & \Delta \tilde{Y}_{iT-1} \end{bmatrix} \quad (12)$$

Each column in Z represents an instrumental variable z . As we can see, each variable z is uncorrelated with the error term in the model in (11), such that $E[z'e] = 0$. Writing the model in (11) as $Y = XB + E$, we can use 2-stage least squares (2SLS) estimation to achieve consistent estimates: in the first stage regress X on Z ; in the second stage regress Y on the predicted value of X from the first stage regression. Together 2SLS can be written as

$$\hat{B}_{2SLS} = \left(\left(\sum_i^N X_i' Z_i \right) \left(\sum_i^N Z_i' Z_i \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_i^N Z_i' X_i \right) \right)^{-1} \left(\left(\sum_i^N X_i' Z_i \right) \left(\sum_i^N Z_i' Z_i \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_i^N Z_i' Y_i \right) \right)$$

Alternatively, we can use a GMM-IV estimator, which can be represented as $\hat{B}_{GMM} = \left((\Sigma^N X_i' Z_i) \hat{W} (\Sigma^N Z_i' X_i) \right)^{-1} \left((\Sigma^N X_i' Z_i) (\hat{W}) (\Sigma^N Z_i' Y_i) \right)$, where \hat{W} is a weighting matrix which is the inverse of the variance-covariance matrix of $Z_i'E_i$. And as we can see, the only difference between the 2SLS and GMM-IV estimators is that they use a different weighting matrix.

⁹ As all q 's are probably highly correlated, this will possibly create a multicollinearity issue when estimating the influence model. But this will not affect estimation of lagged dependent variable and contagion effects, as all these q 's are explaining unique variances represented by c under the assumption $E(y|x,c,q) = E(y|x,c)$

¹⁰ Note that if influence is contemporaneous instead of lagged, it is also possible to use past values of exposure terms as instrumental variables and thus achieve identification.

¹¹ The instrumental variable matrix was constructed this way to create as many moment condition as possible, zeroes were added instead of missing values, and thus still keeping orthogonality.

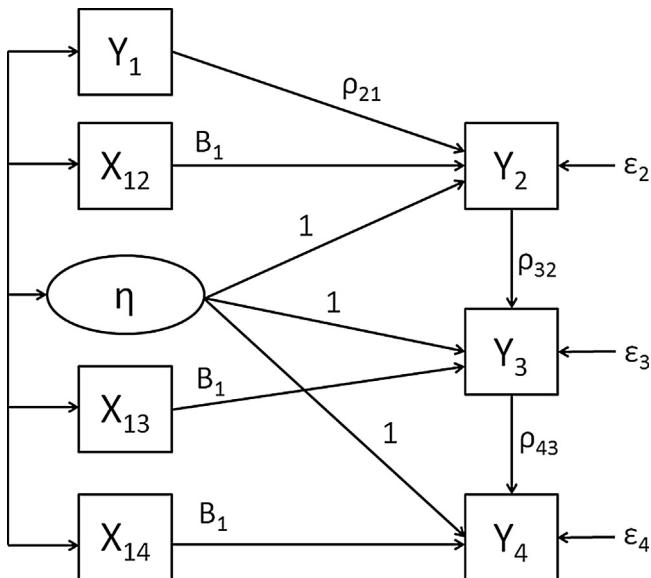


Fig. 2. Dynamic model with unobserved term.

This GMM IV approach is shown to be generally consistent and efficient as $N \rightarrow \infty$, but in empirical work the optimal number of moment conditions that should be used for estimation is not that clear (Judson and Owen, 1999; Kiviet, 1995; and Wansbeek and Bekker, 1996). And simulation by Ziliak (1997) also has shown that there could be a downward bias in GMM estimates as the number of moment conditions expands. Furthermore, it is shown that this method will also suffer from the weak-instrument problem when β_1 approaches 1 (Wooldridge 2010).¹² As none of these similar methods have been applied to social network data, the performance of such estimators remains largely unknown. So here we incorporate this estimator of contagion effects and examine how well it performs.

3.3. Structural equation modeling approach

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is also known as an alternative approach to deal with latent variables (Kaplan, 2007; Kline, 2011). SEM is widely used in the social sciences mainly due to its ability to isolate observational error from measurement using latent constructs (Hancock, 2003). But it can also be used to model unobserved variables in the estimation procedure. For example Barnes et al. (2000) use latent growth modeling to study the alcohol use of adolescents, with latent variables representing adolescents' initial drinking behavior and rates of increase in alcohol use. In a social network context, as described above, if we treat an unobserved trait that codetermines influence and selection as a latent variable, borrowing from the SEM framework we can estimate the unobserved trait as a latent variable, and thus correctly identify the contagion effects.

In a paper by Bollen and Brand (2010), a structural equation modeling based approach is discussed to estimate parameters in dynamic models with unobserved heterogeneity. Fig. 3 provides a graphic depiction of their model, where Y represents the outcome of interest and X is the contemporaneous exogenous variable (subscripts indicate different time points). As can be seen in Fig. 2, error variances and the coefficients for the time-varying variables

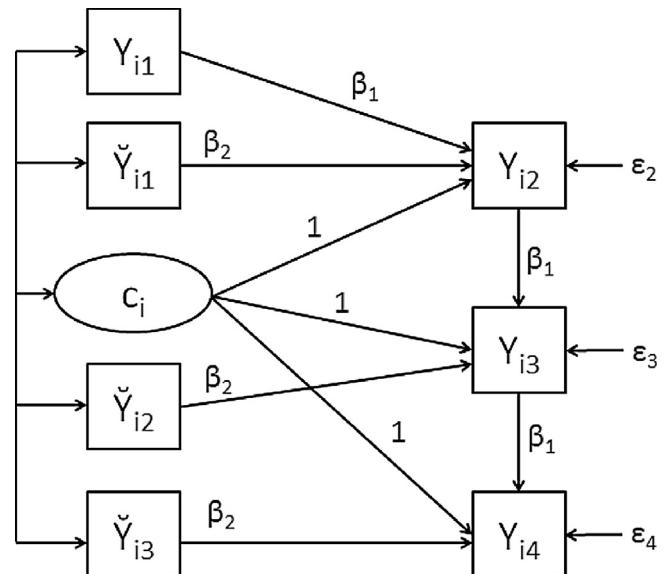


Fig. 3. Influence model in structural equation model.

across different time points are set to be equal. The latent time-invariant variables, η_i , representing unobserved heterogeneity, are allowed to correlate with both the exogenous variables and the lagged values of the outcome variable, Y . In principle, the Bollen and Brand (2010) model should provide accurate estimates of the ARDL(auto-regressive distributed lag) model with unobserved heterogeneity, since it models the unobserved heterogeneity without running into any incidental parameter problem (Lancaster, 2000). It allows correlations between unobserved effects and exogenous variables and a lagged dependent variable. Further, it models a dependent variable conditioned on an initial observation, y_{i1} , thereby avoiding the initial condition problem (Anderson and Hsiao, 1981; Wooldridge, 2005). Unfortunately, few simulation studies have been performed to evaluate the performance of this SEM approach. Therefore, we will incorporate this method with our influence model, and use simulation to examine the performance of this method. Specifically, we represent the influence model as in Fig. 3.

Here, Y represents a behavioral outcome, \tilde{Y} represents network exposure, and c represents the latent trait that codetermines influence and selection. For example, Y can represent the delinquency behavior of a focal adolescent, and \tilde{Y} can represent the delinquency behavior of his/her friends, while c represents the unobserved risk-taking tendency. By setting up as in Fig. 3, we follow Bollen and Brand's (2010) framework and allow c to be estimated as a latent variable, which at the same time correlates with a lagged dependent variable as well as the network exposure term. We will obtain model estimates by maximum likelihood estimation.

After the description of all the proposed methods, our main research question is whether estimation methods proposed above can correctly identify contagion effects when there are unobserved traits that co-determine the influence and selection. So in the next section we perform Monte-Carlo simulation to test how well these methods can recover the true contagion effects.

4. Monte-Carlo simulation

In this section, we use Monte-Carlo simulations to examine the performance of each estimator for contagion effects proposed above: the latent space adjusted estimator, the GMM-IV estimator,

¹² Note empirically that an important diagnostic test uses auto-correlation of the error terms in model 11. By construction, errors should exhibit AR(1) behavior but not AR(2).

tifying contagion effects, and thus beyond the scope of this paper; (4) the choice of dimensions of latent social space in latent space model is not clear. In our simulation we choose latent social position to be one-dimensional, however, this need not to be the case and there is no clear rule deciding how many dimensions users should use; (5) as our approaches assume time is a discrete variable, the interpretation of the parameters and the validity of some model assumptions (e.g. conditional independence) are critically dependent on the length of the time interval between observations (Lerner et al., 2013). While continuous-time based approaches and process-based models such as SIENA are not constrained by these limitations (Voelkle et al., 2012; Block et al., 2017); (6) finally, the computation of latent social position is very time consuming, and the computation time increases significantly with the increase of data or the number of dimensions in latent social position.

There are also some immediate extensions of the model. Although we choose a specific form of influence model (dynamic model with mean influence), the formulas of our methods can be easily changed and adapt to other forms of influence models. Similarly, the network variable is binary in the current model setup, but the model proposed can also be adapted and applied to data with continuous network variables.

Another possible extension of the proposed latent space adjusted approach is to apply it to multilevel data. For example, if we have students nested within classrooms, most of the networks we observe will be within classrooms and there will be few ties between classrooms. And to identify contagion/peer effects across classrooms, we need to adjust our approach to reflect the network structure in the latent space. If we estimate the latent social position using all networks as one global network, and estimate the influence model using all available data, the estimated latent social positions will not reflect the difference in actors' unobserved trait, because people holding similar unobserved traits might not be aware of the existence of each other due to the structural constraint. For example, if node A from organization 1 hold a similar unobserved trait to node B from organization 2, when we estimate networks from organizations 1 and 2 as a whole, the latent space estimates of persons A and B will deviate greatly from each other as they do not have a tie, even though they are similar in terms of the unobserved trait. And this will give biased results in the subsequent estimation of influence. Note that their lack of relationship is due to structural constraint rather than dissimilarity in the unobserved trait, and by not accounting for the structural constraints in the latent space model the estimated social position will be a poor proxy for the actual unobserved trait. And for the multilevel network, we propose to estimate the contagion effect in each sub graph/network using latent space adjusted approach as proposed. Then we can use a meta-analysis method to estimate overall contagion/peer effects.¹⁶

Although the methods we proposed in this paper still have considerable limitations, and none of these methods can 100% eliminate the bias in the estimation of contagion effects when influence is confounded with selection, we do believe that the methods proposed in this paper are still useful in many scenarios, especially the latent space adjusted approach. Furthermore, they have laid foundations and pointed directions for future work developing unique estimation methods to deal with omitted variable bias in the context of social network analysis. As we conclude, we have no intention in stating that we have found the cure for identifying contagion effects, since there is no universal cure, and an estimation method is only part of the solution. Nonetheless, we believe that with plausible alternative explanations that come from good

theory, carefully measured covariates from longitudinal data, and a set of appropriate estimation models, we can effectively inform the debate about the contagion effects, and move forward scientifically.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socnet.2018.01.002>.

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¹⁶ For the same reason, a large network should also be divided into smaller sub-graphs before applying the latent space model to acquire the latent social positions.

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