Structural Equation Models: Some Selected Examples

James H. Steiger

Department of Psychology and Human Development Vanderbilt University

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Structural Equation Models: Some Selected Examples

Introduction

- 2 The Lawley-Maxwell Confirmatory Factor Analysis
- Model Invariance Properties
- Testing for Scale Invariance
- Constraint Interaction
- OLI Constraints and Identification
 - Characteristics of Properly Deployed ULI Constraints
 - Invariance of Hypotheses under Choice of Constraints
 - Some Questions to Ask
- When Constraints Interact
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 - A Challenging Example
 - An Unnecessary Constraint
 - A Damaging Side-Effect
 - Some Implications
- (a) A Simple Numerical Approach To Detecting Constraint Interaction
- Investigating Constraint Interaction in the General Model

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Introduction

- In this module and several that follow, we examine a selection of classic examples of structural equation models with continuous variables.
- These models illustrate a number of core techniques and problem issues in structural equation modeling.

- In the early days of structural equation modeling, LISREL was the only available program for doing structural equation modeling.
- A number of the examples in the LISREL manual used data from publications which included only information on the correlation matrix.
- Moreover, in the case of factor analysis, the typical procedure was to factor analyze the correlation matrix rather than the covariance matrix.
- The problem was that the distribution theory LISREL was using assumed that the data matrix being analyzed was a covariance matrix.

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• Recall that the ML discrepancy function is

$$\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{ML}}(\mathbf{S}, \mathbf{M}(\theta)) = \log |\mathbf{M}(\theta)| - \log |\mathbf{S}| + \operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{SM}(\theta)^{-1}) - p$$
 (1)

with p is the number of manifest variables.

- This function tests the fit of a model **M** to a population covariance matrix Σ , based on the multivariate distribution of the elements of **S**.
- If a correlation matrix is all that is available, what can you do?
- Early users of LISREL did what the LISREL manual did simply input the correlation matrix and tell the program it was a covariance matrix.

- Consider the sample correlation matrix \mathbf{R} computed from a sample covariance matrix \mathbf{S} .
- We can get **R** from **S**, but we can't get **S** from **R** unless we have standard deviations available.
- This means, pretty obviously, that there is more information in **S** than in **R**, and so although **R** looks like a covariance matrix (because it is!), its non-redundant elements are different in number, and have a different multivariate distribution, than those of **S**.

- Consider the simple case of a 2×2 sample covariance matrix **S**.
- It has 3 non-redundant elements in it.
- Now suppose I were to transform S into its corresponding correlation matrix \mathbf{R} .
- \bullet How many non-redundant elements would ${\bf R}$ have in it? Just one.
- Clearly, the tri-variate distribution of the non-redundant elements of **S** in this case cannot be the same as the univariate distribution of the single random element of **R**.

- The LISREL manual detailed several examples in which a correlation matrix was incorrectly analyzed as a covariance matrix.
- It was easy to get LISREL (or any other program) to do this. Simply input the correlation matrix and tell the program it is a covariance matrix!
- There were occasional statements that one shouldn't analyze correlations, but these were never rendered in a clear style that would lead one to conclude that LISREL output was incorrect.
- Many LISREL users came away with the mistaken notion that correlations should never be analyzed on statistical grounds, rather than the more reasonable conclusion that correlations couldn't be analyzed correctly by LISREL.

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- By the early 1990's, several computer programs *could* correctly analyze correlations, but LISREL still could not.
- What was particularly intriguing about the situation was that the classic textbook *Factor Analysis as a Statistical Method*, by Lawley and Maxwell (1971), actually devoted a chapter explaining why a confirmatory factor analysis that treated a correlation matrix as if it were a covariance matrix would often generate correct parameter estimates, but wrong standard errors.
- The Lawley-Maxwell chapter contained a fully worked numerical example.

- Lawley and Maxwell(1971) gave formulae for computing standard errors when a covariance matrix is analyzed, and provided an alternative method for computing standard errors when the sample correlation matrix is analyzed.
- The formulae are illustrated with a numerical example, the results of which are presented in their Tables 7.9 (page 99) and 7.10 (page 102).
- The Lawley-Maxwell example was based on an analysis in a paper by Jöreskog and Lawley (1968), which used data from Holzinger and Swineford (1939). Nine psychological tests were administered to 72 seventh and eighth grade students.
- The path diagram is on the next slide.
- Lawley and Maxwell did not use ULI (Unit Loading Identification) constraints in their model. Rather, in keeping with standard practice in factor analysis, they parameterized their model to have unit variances.

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- On the next few slides, I give the factor loadings and standard errors (incorrect version in parentheses) tables from Lawley, followed by output from my own program SEPATH that correctly analyzes correlation matrices directly.
- As you can see (keeping in mind that variables are presented in different order by Lawley), the results agree with his.
- SEPATH has the ability to override the correct analysis and analyze the correlation matrix incorrectly as if it were a covariance matrix, so we can also reproduce the incorrect version of standard errors given by Lawley.

Variate	Â,	Â,	Â,	Ŷ
	0.60			
2	0.68	0	0	0.54
2	0.34	0	0	0.88
	0.00	0	0	0.57
4	0	0.91	0	0.18
5	0	0.87	0	0.25
6	0 .	0.82	0	0-32
7	. 0	0	0.65	0.58
8	. 0	.0	0.92	0.15
9	0.67	0	0.19	0.39
1 K. 19 K.	Factor c	orrelation m	atrix 🛱	
	* * 6 5 2	9 C		• 1
a 21	1.00	0.55	0.47	· ·
1. A. 1. 2. 1.	1-00	1.00	0.00	
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James H. Steiger (Vanderbilt University)

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Variate	Â,	Â2	.λ ₃	Ŷ
I	0.09(0.12)	0	.0	0.12(0.12)
2	0.12(0.13)	0	0	0.08(0.15)
· · 3	0.09(0.12)	0	0.	0.12(0.12)
4	0	0.04(0.10)	0	0.06(0.06)
.5	. 0	0.04(0.10)	0	0.07(0.06)
6	0	0.05(0.10)	0	0.08(0.07)
7	. 0	0	0.10(0.13)	. 0.13(0.14)
8	0	0	0.11(0.14)	0.21(0.20)
9	0.11(0.13)	0	0.13(0.13)	0.11(0.10)

Table 7.10 STANDARD ERRORS FOR ESTIMATES OF Table 7.9 .

	Model Estimates (Lawley)			
	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	T Statistic	Prob. Level
(VERBAL)-1->[PAR_COMP]	0.908	0.036	25.519	0.000
-2->[SEN COMP]	0.867	0.041	21.414	0.000
-3->[WRD MNG]	0.824	0.047	17.656	0.000
(VISUAL)-4->[VIS PERC]	0.679	0.086	7.869	0.000
-5->[CUBES]	0.341	0.121	2.827	0.005
-6->[LOZENGES]	0.659	0.089	7.441	0.000
-7->[ST CURVE]	0.670	0.113	5.956	0.000
(SPEED) -8->[ST CURVE]	0.192	0.129	1.483	0.138
-9->[CNT DOT]	0.924	0.111	8.296	0.000
-10->[ADDITION]	0.651	0.103	6.291	0.000
(U1)>[PAR COMP]				
(U2)>[SEN COMP]				
(U3)>[WRD MNG]				
(U4)>[VIS PERC]				
(U5)>[CUBES]				
(U6)>[LOZENGES]				
(U7)>[ST CURVE]				
(U8)>[CNT DOT]				
(U9)>[ADDITION]				
(U1)-11-(U1)	0.175	0.065	2.715	0.007
(U2)-12-(U2)	0.248	0.070	3.525	0.000
(U3)-13-(U3)	0.321	0.077	4.170	0.000
(U4)-14-(U4)	0.538	0.117	4.587	0.000
(U5)-15-(U5)	0.884	0.082	10.740	0.000
(U6)-16-(U6)	0.566	0.117	4.855	0.000
(U7)-17-(U7)	0.392	0.107	3.655	0.000
(U8)-18-(U8)	0.146	0.206	0.708	0.479
(U9)-19-(U9)	0.577	0.135	4.285	0.000
(VERBAL)-20-(VISUAL)	0.552	0.111	4.974	0.000
(VISUAL)-21-(SPEED)	0.474	0.143	3.324	0.001
(VERBAL)-22-(SPEED)	0.088	0.133	0.661	0.509

James H. Steiger (Vanderbilt University)

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	Model Estimates (Lawley)			
	Parameter	Standard	Т	Prob.
	Estimate	Error	Statistic	Level
(VERBAL)-1->[PAR COMP]	0.908	0.095	9.513	0.000
-2->[SEN COMP]	0.867	0.098	8.870	0.000
-3->[WRD MNG]	0.824	0.100	8.229	0.000
(VISUAL)-4->[VIS PERC]	0.680	0.119	5.701	0.000
-5->[CUBES]	0.341	0.130	2.630	0.009
-6->[LOZENGES]	0.659	0.120	5.499	0.000
-7->[ST CURVE]	0.670	0.135	4.978	0.000
(SPEED) -8->[ST CURVE]	0.192	0.130	1.471	0.141
-9->[CNT DOT]	0.924	0.142	6.506	0.000
-10->[ADDITION]	0.651	0.131	4.974	0.000
(U1)>[PAR COMP]				
(U2)>[SEN COMP]				
(U3)>[WRD_MNG]				
(U4)>[VIS PERC]				
(U5)>[CUBE S]			2	
(U6)>[LOZENGES]				
(U7)>[ST CURVE]				
(U8)>[CNT DOT]				
(U9)>[ADDITION]				
(U1)-11-(U1)	0.175	0.060	2.919	0.004
(U2)-12-(U2)	0.248	0.064	3.884	0.000
(U3)-13-(U3)	0.321	0.070	4.592	0.000
(U4)-14-(U4)	0.538	0.120	4.486	0.000
(U5)-15-(U5)	0.884	0.154	5.746	0.000
(U6)-16-(U6)	0.566	0.122	4.655	0.000
(U7)-17-(U7)	0.392	0.103	3.813	0.000
(U8)-18-(U8)	0.146	0.205	0.712	0.477
(U9)-19-(U9)	0.577	0.140	4.125	0.000
(VERBAL)-20-(VISUAL)	0.552	0.111	4.974	0.000
(VISUAL)-21-(SPEED)	0.474	0.143	3.324	0.001
(VERBAL)-22-(SPEED)	0.088	0.133	0.661	0.509

James H. Steiger (Vanderbilt University)

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- As we have already pointed out, there is an alternative parameterization of the Lawley-Maxwell confirmatory analysis, in which the factor variances are estimated and a ULI (Unit Loading Identification) constraint is employed.
- It should be emphasized that the parameter estimates for this model will generally be different from those in the standardized factor model, and the standard errors will also be different.
- Such a model can be analyzed correctly with a correlation matrix, and in general the standard errors obtained with this parameterization will (like the parameter estimates themselves) be different *both from the alternative parameterization and from the incorrect processing of a correlation matrix as if it were a covariance matrix.*

- In general, if a correlation matrix is processed incorrectly as if it were a covariance matrix in a *scale-invariant* factor model, the parameter estimates will be correct. However, the standard errors will not be correct.
- In other words, if we contemplate the Lawley-Maxwell model, and restrict ourselves to just the 4 loadings on the *Visual* factor, there are (at least) 4 possible versions of these loadings when a correlation matrix is all that is available:
 - Unit Variance Correct (UVC). The factor has unit variance, and the standard errors for 4 loadings are correctly estimated.
 - Onit Variance Incorrect (UVI). The factor has unit variance, but the correlation matrix is treated incorrectly as a covariance matrix, and the standard errors are incorrectly estimated.
 - ULI Correct (ULIC). The factor variance is a free parameter. Instead, a Unit Loading Identification (ULI) constraint is used on the first variable. The 3 other loadings have standard errors that are correctly estimated.
 - ULI Incorrect (ULII). The factor variance is a free parameter. Instead, a Unit Loading Identification (ULI) constraint is used on the first variable. The 3 other loadings have standard errors that are incorrectly estimated by treating the correlation matrix as a covariance matrix.
- SEPATH can generate all 4 kinds of estimates, and here they are, together with the standard errors.

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Loading	Condition			
	UVC	UVI	ULIC	ULII
VIS_PERC	0.680 (0.086)	0.680 (0.119)	1	1
CUBES	0.341 (0.121)	0.341 (0.130)	0.502 (0.185)	0.502 (0.202)
LOZENGES	0.659 (0.089)	0.659 (0.120)	0.970 (0.172)	0.969 (0.219)
ST_CURVE	0.670 (0.113)	0.670 (0.135)	0.987 (0.217)	0.987 (0.250)

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- Let's analyze these data with Mplus.
- The default parameterization in Mplus uses ULI constraints.
- In the input below, we set sample size at 71, so that Mplus standard errors, computed with a denominator of n, will match those of other programs that use n 1.

TITLE: LAWLEY-MAXWELL CONFIRMATORY MODEL DATA: FILE is lawley.dat; TYPE IS CORRELATION: NOBSERVATIONS=71: VARIABLE: NAMES ARE VIS_PERC CUBES LOZENGES PAR_COMP SEN COMP WRD MNG ADDITION CNT DOT ST CURVE: MODEL: VERBAL BY PAR COMP SEN COMP WRD MNG: VISUAL BY VIS PERC CUBES LOZENGES ST CURVE: SPEED BY ST_CURVE CNT_DOT ADDITION: OUTPUT: STANDARDIZED:

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The basic loading output, shown below, has the incorrect standard errors.

MODEL RESULTS

Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.	Two-Tailed P-Value
1.000	0.000	999.000	999.000
0.955	0.099	9.638	0.000
0.908	0.101	8.950	0.000
1.000	0.000	999.000	999.000
0.502	0.202	2.483	0.013
0.970	0.220	4.416	0.000
0.987	0.250	3.947	0.000
1.000	0.000	999.000	999.000
4.825	3.423	1.410	0.159
3.396	2.307	1.472	0.141
	Estimate 1.000 0.955 0.908 1.000 0.502 0.970 0.987 1.000 4.825 3.396	Estimate S.E. 1.000 0.000 0.955 0.099 0.908 0.101 1.000 0.000 0.502 0.202 0.970 0.220 0.987 0.250 1.000 0.000 4.825 3.423 3.396 2.307	Estimate S.E. Est./S.E. 1.000 0.000 999.000 0.955 0.099 9.638 0.908 0.101 8.950 1.000 0.000 999.000 0.502 0.202 2.483 0.970 0.220 4.416 0.987 0.250 3.947 1.000 0.000 999.000 4.825 3.423 1.410 3.396 2.307 1.472

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However, the standardized output (STDXY Standardization), transformed to unit variance factors, matches the correct loading obtained with a unit variance factor parameterization in SEPATH.

STANDARDIZED MODEL RESULTS

STDYX Standardization

				Two-Tailed
	Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.	P-Value
VERBAL BY				
PAR_COMP	0.908	0.036	25.520	0.000
SEN_COMP	0.867	0.041	21.413	0.000
WRD_MNG	0.824	0.047	17.656	0.000
VISUAL BY				
VIS_PERC	0.679	0.086	7.868	0.000
CUBES	0.341	0.121	2.827	0.005
LOZENGES	0.659	0.089	7.442	0.000
ST_CURVE	0.670	0.113	5.957	0.000
SPEED BY				
ST_CURVE	0.192	0.129	1.483	0.138
CNT_DOT	0.924	0.111	8.296	0.000
ADDITION	0.651	0.103	6.290	0.000

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Structural Equation Models: Some Selected Examples

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- Mplus evidently obtains its standardized solution by taking the unstandardized solution obtained with the ULI parameterization, transforming it to a standardized solution, and then revising the standard errors.
- Let's see what happens when we directly program the standardized solution by demanding unit variances for our factors.

DATA: FILE is lawley.dat; TYPE IS CORRELATION: NOBSERVATIONS=71: VARIABLE: NAMES ARE VIS_PERC CUBES LOZENGES PAR_COMP SEN_COMP WRD_MNG ADDITION CNT_DOT ST_CURVE; MODEL: VERBAL BY PAR_COMP*; VERBAL BY SEN_COMP*; VERBAL BY WRD MNG*: VISUAL BY VIS_PERC*: VISUAL BY CUBES*: VISUAL BY LOZENGES*: VISUAL BY ST_CURVE*: SPEED BY ST CURVE*: SPEED BY CNT DOT*: SPEED BY ADDITION*: VISUAL@1: VISUAL WITH VERBAL*; VISUAL WITH SPEED*: VERBAL@1: VERBAL WITH SPEED*: SPEED@1: OUTPUT: STANDARDIZED:

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TITLE: LAWLEY-MAXWELL CONFIRMATORY MODEL

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MODEL RESULTS

	Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.	Two-Tailed P-Value
VERBAL BY				
PAR COMP	0.902	0.095	9.513	0.000
SEN_COMP	0.861	0.097	8.870	0.000
WRD_MNG	0.818	0.099	8.229	0.000
VISUAL BY				
VIS_PERC	0.675	0.118	5.700	0.000
CUBES	0.339	0.129	2.630	0.009
LOZENGES	0.654	0.119	5.499	0.000
ST_CURVE	0.666	0.134	4.979	0.000
SPEED BY				
ST_CURVE	0.190	0.129	1.471	0.141
CNT_DOT	0.918	0.141	6.506	0.000
ADDITION	0.646	0.130	4.973	0.000
VISUAL WITH	0.550	0.444	4 070	0.000
ODDED	0.552	0.111	4.973	0.000
SPEED	0.474	0.143	3.324	0.001
VERBAL WITH				
SPEED	0.088	0.133	0.661	0.509
Variances				
VERBAL	1.000	0.000	999.000	999.000
VISUAL	1.000	0.000	999.000	999.000
SPEED	1.000	0.000	999.000	999,000

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- Although the solution clearly is standardized, and shows the factor variances fixed at one, the estimates are different from those obtained by other software *and by Mplus in its standardized solution*.
- There is a reason for this, but it is sufficiently obscure that very few users would be capable of understanding its genesis.
- The standard errors are incorrect. They appear to be obtained by analyzing the correlation matrix as if it were a covariance matrix.
- However, the standardized solution printed after the direct unit variance model has both the correct loadings and standard errors for a proper estimation from a correlation matrix!

• To summarize:

- Although the DATA section of the Mplus input clearly labels the correlation matrix to be a correlation matrix, the base Mplus output processes it as if it were a covariance matrix. Incorrect standard errors are printed with both the unit variance and ULI parameterizations.
- The MODEL RESULTS loadings are incorrect when the unit variance paramaterization is selected to produce a standardized factor analysis solution directly. They disagree with those printed by Mplus with the standardized solution, and with the results from other programs.
- When a standardized solution is requested, *and the base parameterization is employed*, Mplus returns correct loadings and standard errors with unit variance factors.

- In his classic paper on the proper processing of correlation matrices, Cudeck (1989) discussed *model invariance* properties and how they related to what would happen when a correlation matrix was treated improperly as a covariance matrix.
- Subsequently, Browne and Shapiro (1991) presented methods that can be used to detect whether a model fails to meet certain invariance properties.
- Understanding model invariance can help explain some (but not all) of the phenomena we just witnessed in connection with the Lawley example, and I've assigned the Cudeck paper for reading.
- Keep in mind, however, that Cudeck uses the somewhat confusing notation $\Sigma = \Sigma(\theta)$ to stand for a covariance structure model, rather than $\Sigma = M(\theta)$ which many more recent authors prefer.

- We begin with some definitions.
- A covariance structure for a p × p covariance matrix Σ is a symmetric, matrix valued function M(γ) of a q × 1 parameter vector γ.
- The null hypothesis in covariance structure modeling is thus

$$\Sigma = \mathsf{M}(\gamma)$$
 (2)

• A correlation structure is a symmetric, matrix-valued function $\mathbf{R}(\theta)$ of a $q \times 1$ parameter vector θ with the restriction that $diag(\mathbf{R}(\theta)) = diag(\mathbf{I})$. The null hypothesis for a correlation structure model is that, for a population correlation matrix \mathbf{P} ,

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$
 (3)

 A covariance structure model M(γ) is scale-invariant or invariant under changes of scale if for any diagonal matrix D_α = {α_j} with no zero entries, there exists another parameter vector γ^{*}, such that

$$\mathsf{M}(\gamma^*) = \mathsf{D}_{lpha} \mathsf{M}(\gamma) \mathsf{D}_{lpha}$$
 (4)

• In other words, scale invariance implies that if a model fits a covariance matrix, it will fit any rescaling of that covariance matrix for some parameter vector.

- A weaker form of invariance is invariance under a constant scaling factor.
- Most covariance structures of any practical interest are at least invariant under a constant scaling factor.
- Some of the non-centrality based fit indices developed by Steiger (1989, 1990) require that the model fitted be invariant under a constant scaling factor (ICSF).
- A covariance structure model $\mathbf{M}(\gamma)$ is invariant under a constant scaling factor (ICSF) if, for any positive constant τ , there exists another parameter vector γ^* , such that $\mathbf{M}(\gamma^*) = \tau \mathbf{M}(\gamma)$.

- Consider a covariance structure model $\Sigma = \mathsf{M}(\gamma)$. A parameter $\gamma_i \in \gamma$ is scale-free if
 - The model is scale-invariant, and
 - **2** for choices of \mathbf{D}_{α} in Equation 4, $\gamma_i^* = \gamma_i$.
- Cudeck (1989, p. 318-319) gives examples of
 - A confirmatory factor model that is scale-invariant,
 - A scale-free parameter in such a model, and
 - Output: A confirmatory factor model that is not scale-invariant.

- Suppose a covariance structure factor model $\mathsf{M}(\gamma) = \Lambda \Phi \Lambda' + \Psi$ is scale-invariant.
- Then the model can be re-expressed as

$$\mathbf{M}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \mathbf{D}_{\sigma} \mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mathbf{D}_{\sigma}$$
 (5)

$$= \mathsf{D}_{\sigma}(\Lambda^* \Phi^* \Lambda^{*\prime} + \Psi^*) \mathsf{D}_{\sigma}$$
 (6)

where $\mathbf{R}(\theta)$ is a standardized common factor model, and the elements of \mathbf{D}_{σ} are population standard deviations.

- If this model $R(\theta)$ fits the correlation matrix, then if the model is scale-invariant, one must be able to find D_{σ} such that $M(\gamma)$ fits the population covariance matrix.
- If one's main interest is testing a correlation structure model, then the values in D_{α} are "nuisance parameters". If the correlation structure fits, the covariance structure can automatically be made to fit by setting D_{α} to the value required to match the diagonal of the input covariance matrix.
- The key aspect of this latter fact is that this will be true even if the input matrix is actually a correlation matrix. The fact that the estimates in D_α will not actually be estimates of the population standard deviations will be unimportant.

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• Consequently, correlation structure models can be fit as covariance structure models of the form

$$\mathbf{M}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \mathbf{D}_{\sigma} \mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mathbf{D}_{\sigma} \tag{7}$$

with

$$\boldsymbol{\gamma}' = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \boldsymbol{\theta}' & \boldsymbol{\sigma}' \end{array} \right] \tag{8}$$

and σ containing the diagonal elements of D_{σ} .

• The vector θ contains the parameters of the correlation structure, while σ contains the nuisance parameters.
Model Invariance Properties

- Cudeck pointed out that if a covariance structure model is scale-invariant, the chi-square test statistic will be the same regardless of whether the model is fit to the actual covariance matrix or the correlation matrix.
- If the model is not scale-invariant, then different scales will result in different fit values. Consequently, the advice proffered in numerous books and computer manuals about casually rescaling a variable in order to improve iteration should be accompanied by a caveat. If the model is not scale-invariant, then the fit indices and statistical test results will generally differ after rescaling.
- The standard errors will generally be incorrect if methods based on an analysis of a covariance matrix are applied incorrectly directly to a correlation matrix.

Testing for Scale Invariance

- Browne and Shapiro (1991) defined a reflector matrix corresponding to each of the typical discrepancy functions for continuous variables.
- They then showed how this reflector matrix could be analyzed to shed light on the invariance properties of a particular model when fitted with a particular discrepancy function.
- We will begin by defining the reflector matrix corresponding to each type of discrepancy function.

Testing for Scale Invariance

- Let **S** stand for the sample covariance matrix and $\hat{\Sigma}$ stand for the reproduced matrix, i.e., $M(\gamma)$ at the minimum point for that discrepancy function.
- Furthermore, define $\hat{\mathbf{E}} = \mathbf{S} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}$. Then the following reflector matrices (among others) can be defined.

$$\hat{\Omega}_{ML} = -\hat{\Sigma}^{-1}\hat{\mathsf{E}}$$
 (9)

$$\hat{\Omega}_{LS} = -\hat{\mathsf{E}}\hat{\Sigma}$$
 (10)

$$\hat{\Omega}_{GLS} = (\mathbf{S}^{-1}\hat{\Sigma} - \mathbf{I})\mathbf{S}^{-1}\hat{\Sigma}$$
(11)

• In the next slide, we examine how the reflector matrices can be used to test invariance properties.

Testing for Scale Invariance

- Browne and Shapiro (1991) give several corollaries which establish properties of reflector matrices implied by various types of scale invariances. Their results include the following corollaries:
 - Let $M(\gamma)$ be invariant under a constant scaling factor. Then the sum of the diagonal elements of $\hat{\Omega}$ is zero.
 - 2 Let $\mathsf{M}(\gamma)$ be scale-invariant. Then all diagonal elements of $\hat{\Omega}$ are zero.
- We can assess invariance under a constant scaling factor by examining the trace of the reflector matrix, and we can assess scale invariance by examining the maximum diagonal element.
- Of course, in some cases lack of invariance is obvious from the model itself. If the model-fitting software does not provide the reflector matrices or related indices, one may simply try rescaling the input matrix by a constant or by a set of scale factors.

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Constraint Interaction

- In an earlier lecture, I alluded briefly to the options one has in standard SEM software to parameterize the factors in a factor model as having either unit variance, or a fixed loading on one variable (but not both).
- One can also parameterize the "unique factors" as having unit variance, and have their loading on their observed variable be a free parameter, or have the loading be 1 and estimate the unique variance.
- When the factor model is analyzed in isolation, either option is available.
- As I mentioned before, there are good *practical and theoretical* reasons for fixing the variance of exogenous latent variables (be they common or unique factors) at unity:
 - On the practical side, it is no longer possible to iterate to a solution that estimates negative factor variances, and,
 - On the theoretical side, if (and it is a very big "if") the software can correctly analyze correlations (or, equivalently, correctly standardize the manifest variables), then a fully standardized factor solution can be obtained, comparable with what the originators of factor analysis did.

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Constraint Interaction

- The Unit Loading Identification (ULI) constraints are intended to be employed solely to establish identification.
- The standard dictum is that each common factor in the factor model should have one ULI constraint to establish identification of that factor's variance.
- We have already seen that, even with standard software, this restriction is generally not necessary if the confirmatory common factor model is in isolation, or if the common factors are exogenous. ULI constraints can be replaced by fixed unit variances for the common factors in such cases.

Constraint Interaction

- Things are much more problematic if the CFA model is embedded in a structural equation model in which its factors are endogenous.
- Standard SEM software does not input variance parameters for endogenous variables. Rather, the variances of endogenous variables are established as a consequence of the variances and covariances of the exogenous variables in the model,m and the structural paths leading from them to the endogenous variables (possibly indirectly through other endogenous variables).

• Let's look at a simple CFA model, analyze its behavior in isolation, and then embed it in a larger, very familiar structural equation model.



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- Examining these models, we note first that latent variable η_1 is never observed, and so its variability may only be inferred from two sources:
 - **(**) the variances and covariances of the variables with paths leading to η_1 ,
 - 2 the values of the path coefficients leading to η_1 .

- The variances of η_1 and η_2 are not uniquely defined, and are free to vary unless some constraints are imposed on the free parameters in our confirmatory model.
- To see why, suppose that the ULI constraints were removed from $\lambda_{1,1}$ and $\lambda_{2,1}$, and that, by some combination of circumstances, the paths leading to η_1 and η_2 had values that caused η_1 to have a variance of 1.
- Suppose further that under these circumstances, the values .6, .3, .6, and .3 for parameters $\lambda_{1,1}, \lambda_{2,1}, \lambda_{3,2}$, and $\lambda_{4,2}$ lead to an optimal fit of the model to the data.
- The upper diagram in the figure on the next slide shows this situation.



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- Next, imagine we wished the variance of η_1 to be some value other than 1, say, 4.
- Quadrupling a variable's variance can be accomplished by doubling its standard deviation, or doubling every value of the variable.
- To achieve this, while maintaining the identical numbers arriving at Y_1 , Y_2 and η_2 from η_1 , we need only double all values on paths leading to η_1 , while simultaneously halving all values ($\lambda_{1,1}$, $\lambda_{2,1}$, and $\beta_{2,1}$) on paths leading away from η_1 .

- Every number emerging from η_1 is doubled, but is "passed through" coefficients that are now exactly half what they were. So the numbers emerging at Y_1 , Y_2 , and η_2 are the same as they were.
- Because $\psi_{1,1}$ and $\gamma_{1,1}$ are free parameters that are attached to unidirectional paths, we can alter them (to halve the values of all numbers arriving at η_1) without affecting anything in the paths leading into our measurement model when it is embedded in a larger model, as shown on the next slide.



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- The pipeline metaphor has helped us to see why ULI constraints are necessary to identify the coefficients in a path model. Without the application of such a constraint, we can see that the variances of our latent variables could be any positive value.
- Now, the choice of a constraint to apply is, in a sense, arbitrary. Why do you think the "powers that be" chose to set one loading to 1, rather than to, say, 2? Is there some *other*, more natural constraint that people might have chosen?

• How about constraining the endogenous latent variables to have variances of 1?

• When we change the particular constraint we employ to achieve identification, what things (if any) remain constant?

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Characteristics of Properly Deployed ULI Constraints

- By using the pipeline metaphor, we've deduced some things.
 - When a ULI constraint is applied to a parameter, the primary goal is simply to establish identification, and the precise value that the parameter is fixed to will not affect the fit of the model. Specifically, one could use the value 2.0 instead of 1.0, and the test statistic for the model would remain the same, because the fit of the model is *invariant under change of scale of its latent variables*.
 - The particular manifest variable chosen for the ULI constraint for any latent variable should not affect model fit. In the present example, fit will be the same if we constrain either λ_{1,1} or λ_{2,1} (but not both).
 - Path coefficients leading from a latent variable have the same relative magnitude regardless of the fixed value used in a ULI. Their absolute magnitude will go up or down depending on the fixed value used in the ULI. So, for example, if one changes the 1.0 to a fixed value of 2.0, all path coefficients leading from the latent variable will double.
 - Any multiplicative change in the ULI constraint applied to a path coefficient will be mirrored by a corresponding division of the standard deviation of the latent variable the path leads from, and a corresponding division of path coefficients leading to the latent variable.

Characteristics of Properly Deployed ULI Constraints

- The above properties reflect the way ULI constraints are supposed to work in practice. The constraints are intended to be essentially arbitrary values imposed solely to achieve identification, and are not intended to have any substantive impact on model fit or model interpretation.
- There seems to be some confusion in the literature about the latter point.
- Some sources make a statement to the effect that a ULI constraint for the loading of a particular manifest variable fixes the scale of the latent variable to be "the same as the manifest variable."

Characteristics of Properly Deployed ULI Constraints

- This misconception has led to the use of the term *reference variable* to refer to the manifest variable with the ULI attached.
- This view not quite right if a value of unity is employed, the variance of the latent variable is fixed to the variance of the *common part* of the manifest variable which has the ULI constraint.
- Moreover, as we have already seen, all other loadings emanating from the latent variable move up or down in concert with the value selected for the ULI constraint, and the variance of the common part is itself determined by the choice of variables in the measurement model.
- The key issue here is that residual variance includes error variance and unique variance, so fixing the metric of the latent variable to an observed variable's common variance has dubious value.

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- With these goals in mind, it seems reasonable to ask *which hypotheses are invariant* under choice of ULI constraints (or equivalently, under a choice of the scale of the latent variable), and *which are not*.
- Unless a particular choice of constraint (or latent variable variance) has a specific substantive meaning, a hypothesis that is not invariant under a choice of constraints will be difficult if not impossible to interpret.
- For example, is the hypothesis that λ_{1,1} equals λ_{2,1} in the the general model invariant under a change of scale of the latent variables? (C.P.)

- From the preceding analysis, it would seem that the answer is yes, since any change in the ULI constraint would be reflected proportionally in coefficients $\lambda_{1,1}$ and $\lambda_{2,1}$.
- The choice of the particular value employed in the identifying constraint has no effect on this hypothesis.
- Another way of putting it is that the particular value of the variance of η₁ has no effect on the truth or falsity of the hypothesis.

Invariance of Hypotheses under Choice of Constraints

• Similarly, the hypothesis that $\lambda_{3,2}$ and $\lambda_{4,2}$ are equal is invariant under choice of the fixed value employed in an identifying constraint on the variance of η_2 .

- We have established there are hypotheses about the model coefficients that are invariant under the choice of value we fix latent variable variances to, so long as the constraints are only to achieve identification.
- It seems reasonable to suggest that, if a hypothesis is invariant under the choice of the fixed value used in the identifying constraint, then the hypothesis might be considered meaningful when the value of 1.0 typically used in the ULI is used.

Invariance of Hypotheses under Choice of Constraints

• Consider the hypothesis

$$H_0:\lambda_{2,1}=\lambda_{4,2}$$

Is the truth status of this hypothesis invariant under a choice of identification constraint?

- The answer is "no." This hypothesis is not invariant under the choice of fixed value employed in the identifying constraint on $\lambda_{1,1}$.
- Doubling the fixed value of λ_{1,1} doubles the value of λ_{2,1} while leaving λ_{4,2} unchanged. In this case, the hypothesis is not *invariant under change of scale of the latent variables*.
- This has an important implication: When ULI constraints are used, the variances of factors are fixed at a value that is essentially an accident. The factors will almost never have a variance of 1.
- Consequently, the model that includes the restriction $\lambda_{2,1} = \lambda_{4,2}$ will not be the same model when unit variances are imposed as when ULI constraints are imposed.

- On the next slide, we have a table from Steiger(2002) listing the Σ -constraints for the two models.
- You can see that the two models have identical constraints except for one.
- Note that the model using ULI constraints has a more restrictive final Σ -constraint than the model using unit variances. Some covariance matrices that satisfy the constraint on the far right will not satisfy the constraint that $\sigma_{4,1} = \sigma_{3,2}$.

- So we see that some hypotheses might make sense when ULI constraints (or other arbitrary identification constraints) are employed, while others might not make sense.
- The impression given by many textbooks is that ULI constraints are automatic and, in a sense, arbitrary. They might be within the simple context of a few textbook examples, but in the larger framework of structural equation modeling in full generality, they might not be.

Some Questions to Ask

- In analyzing whether a ULI constraint (or set of constraints) is truly arbitrary, we should ask questions like these:
 - Obes the goodness-of-fit statistic remain invariant under the choice of fixed value employed in the identifying constraint? That is, if we change the 1.0 to some other number, does the value remain constant?
 - Ooes the goodness-of-fit statistic remain invariant under the choice of which manifest variable is the reference variable?
 - O the relative sizes of path coefficients leading to the latent variable remain invariant under the choice of the fixed value employed in the identifying constraint?
 - O the relative sizes of path coefficients leading from the latent variable remain invariant under the choice of the reference variable?

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Problems with the Chi-Square Difference Test

- In structural equation modeling, a hypothesis of equality of path coefficients is usually tested with a chi-square difference test.
- Unfortunately, some chi-square difference tests do not perform in the intended manner—they are compromised by a phenomenon I call constraint interaction.

Problems with the Chi-Square Difference Test

• To examine constraint interaction in a simple context, suppose one wished to test the hypothesis that $\lambda_{2,1}$ and $\lambda_{4,2}$ are equal (perhaps in an effort to convince people that they are *not* equal) in the simple factor model on the next slide.

Problems with the Chi-Square Difference Test



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Problems with the Chi-Square Difference Test

- The difference test would normally proceed as follows:
 - **(1)** First fit a version of this model with the two loadings constrained to be equal.
 - Then fit the model without the single equality constraint.
 - **)** The difference between the two χ^2 statistics is a χ^2 with 1 degree of freedom.
- However, what seems to be straightforward turns out not to be.

A Challenging Example

• Consider the following matrix:

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \left[\begin{array}{ccccc} 3.490 & 0.420 & 0.112 & 0.168 \\ 0.420 & 3.360 & 0.096 & 0.144 \\ 0.112 & 0.096 & 1.160 & 0.240 \\ 0.168 & 0.144 & 0.240 & 1.360 \end{array} \right]$$

• As you could quickly verify by loading MPLUS or LISREL, this matrix perfectly fits the factor model where, instead of ULI constraints, the factors are constrained to have unit variances and $\lambda_{2,1} = \lambda_{4,2}$. The model equations are shown in the following slide.

(12)
A Challenging Example

• The model can be written as:

$$\Lambda_{\mathbf{y}} = \begin{bmatrix}
\lambda_{1,1} & 0 \\
\lambda_{2,1} & 0 \\
0 & \lambda_{3,2} \\
0 & \lambda_{2,1}
\end{bmatrix}$$
(13)
$$\Omega = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & \omega_{2,1} \\
\omega_{2,1} & 1
\end{bmatrix}$$
(14)
$$\Theta_{\epsilon} = \begin{bmatrix}
\theta_{1,1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \theta_{2,2} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \theta_{3,3} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \theta_{4,4}
\end{bmatrix}$$
(15)

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A Challenging Example

• We can verify that the following numerical values perfectly reproduce the Σ of Equation 12 via the confirmatory factor analysis formula $\Sigma = \Lambda_y \Omega \Lambda'_y + \Theta_{\epsilon}$.

$$\Lambda_{\mathbf{y}} = \begin{bmatrix}
.7 & 0 \\
.6 & 0 \\
0 & .4 \\
0 & .6
\end{bmatrix}$$
(16)
$$\Omega = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & .4 \\
.4 & 1
\end{bmatrix}$$
(17)
$$\Theta_{\epsilon} = \begin{bmatrix}
3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}$$
(18)

A Challenging Example

Here are the calculations in R > Lambda.y <- matrix(c(.7,.6,0,0,0,0,.4,.6),4,2)</pre> > Omega <- matrix(c(1..4..4.1),2.2)> Theta.epsilon <- diag(c(3,3,1,1)) > Lambda.v [,1] [,2] [1.] 0.7 0.0 [2.] 0.6 0.0 [3.] 0.0 0.4 [4.] 0.0 0.6 > Omega [.1] [.2] [1.] 1.0 0.4 [2.] 0.4 1.0 > Theta.epsilon [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [1.] 3 0 0 0 [2,] 0 3 0 0 [3.] 0 0 1 0 [4.] 0 0 0 1 > Sigma <- Lambda.v %*% Omega %*% t(Lambda.v) + Theta.epsilon</pre> > Sigma [.1] [.2] [.3] [.4] [1,] 3,490 0,420 0,112 0,168 [2,] 0,420 3,360 0,096 0,144 [3,] 0,112 0,096 1,160 0,240 [4,] 0,168 0,144 0,240 1,360

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A Challenging Example

- So we see that a CFA model with two loadings constrained to be equal and the factors constrained to have unit variances fits perfectly.
- However, an alternative way of parameterizing such a model might *seem* to be to use two ULI constraints, as in the equations on the next slide.

A Challenging Example

$$\Lambda_{\mathbf{y}} = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 \\
\lambda_{2,1} & 0 \\
0 & 1 \\
0 & \lambda_{2,1}
\end{bmatrix}$$
(19)
$$\Omega = \begin{bmatrix}
\omega_{1,1} & \omega_{2,1} \\
\omega_{2,1} & \omega_{2,2}
\end{bmatrix}$$
(20)
$$\Theta_{\epsilon} = \begin{bmatrix}
\theta_{1,1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \theta_{2,2} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \theta_{3,3} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \theta_{4,4}
\end{bmatrix}$$
(21)

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A Challenging Example

- Surprise!
- When you fit the model using ULI constraints and the equality constraint with Mplus, the model does not fit the Σ of Equation 12 perfectly!
- It is not the same model.

A Challenging Example

- Looking carefully at the model diagram, we can see that, when implemented with ULI constraints, it not only forces $\lambda_{2,1}$ and $\lambda_{4,2}$ to be equal, it also requires that $\lambda_{1,1}$ and $\lambda_{3,2}$ also be equal, since they are both constrained to be equal to 1.
- However, Σ was not generated by a Λ_y with $\lambda_{1,1}$ and $\lambda_{3,2}$ equal (their values were .70 and .40), and so the model fails to fit perfectly.



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A Challenging Example

- We have seen that two seemingly equivalent methods for identifying factor variances are not always equivalent.
- Without the equality constraint $\lambda_{2,1} = \lambda_{4,2}$ the two methods for fixing variances are equivalent.
- \bullet When this equal loadings constraint is added, the two methods yield models that are not $\Sigma\text{-}\mathsf{equivalent.}$
- What this means, in turn, is that a χ^2 difference test of the hypothesis that $\lambda_{2,1} = \lambda_{4,2}$ will produce different results, depending on whether the model is parameterized with ULI constraints or with standardized (unit variance) latent variables.

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A Challenging Example

 On the next slides, we will examine Mplus output for several conditions, with and without the use of ULI constraints, and with and without the restriction that λ_{2,1} = λ_{4,2}.

INPUT INSTRUCTIONS

TITLE: Simple Confirmatory Steiger(2002)

DATA: 1 VARIABI MODEL:	FILE is 4 FYPE IS C IOBSERVAT E: NAMES ETA1 BY ETA2 BY ETA1 WIT	x2.dat; OVARIANCE; IONS=101; ARE Y1-Y4; Y1 Y2; Y3 Y4; H ETA2;			
Chi-Squar	re Test o	f Model Fit			
	Value			0.000	
	Degrees	of Freedom		1	
	P-Value			1.0000	
MODEL RES	BULTS				
					Two-Tailed
		Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.	P-Value
ETA1	BY				
¥1		1.000	0.000	999.000	999.000
¥2		0.857	1.386	0.618	0.536
ETA2	BY				
¥3		1.000	0.000	999.000	999.000
¥4		1.500	2.386	0.629	0.530
ETA1	WITH				
ETA2		0.111	0.176	0.631	0.528
Variance					
ETA1		0.485	0.873	0.556	0.578
ETA2		0.158	0.269	0.589	0.556
Residual	l Varianc	es			
¥1		2.970	0.936	3.175	0.001
¥2		2.970	0.744	3.994	0.000
¥3 ¥4		0.990	0.292	3.396	0.001
14		0.550	0.095	2.070	0.090

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INPUT INSTRUCTIONS

TITLE: Simple Confirmatory Steiger(2002)

DATA: FILE is 4x2N10.dat: TYPE IS FULLCOV: NORSERVATIONS=10: VARIABLE: NAMES ARE Y1-Y4: MODEL: ETA1 BY Y1 Y2: ETA2 BY Y3 Y4; ETA1 WITH ETA2: Chi-Square Test of Model Fit Value 0.000 Degrees of Freedon P-Value 1.0000 MODEL RESULTS Two-Tailed Estimate S.E. Est./S.E. P-Value ETA1 BY Y1 1.000 0.000 999.000 999.000 ¥2 0.857 4.404 0.195 0.846 ETA2 BY 1 000 000 000 0.000 999 000 ¥4 1.500 7.582 0.198 0.843 ETA1 WITH ETA2 0.101 0.508 0.199 0.843 Variances ETA1 0.441 2.523 0.175 0.861 ETA2 0.144 0.777 0.185 0.853 Residual Variances ¥1 2.700 2.703 0.999 0.318 ¥2 2,700 2.148 1.257 0.209 YЗ 0.285 0,900 0.842 1.069 ¥4 0.900 1.712 0.526 0.599

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A Challenging Example

- Most structural equation modeling programs will return the same model estimates for a given input covariance matrix, regardless of the sample size.
- Mplus, on the other hand, gives estimates that can vary as a function of sample size.
- Why is this so?

A Challenging Example

```
> S <- matrix(c(3.490, 0.420, 0.112, 0.168,
+ 0.420, 3.360, 0.096, 0.144,
+ 0.112, 0.096, 1.160, 0.240,
+ 0.168, 0.144, 0.240, 1.360),4,4,byrow=TRUE)
> fixS <- function(S,n){
+ return(S*n/(n-1))
+ }
> fixS(S,10)
```

[,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [1,] 3.8777778 0.4666667 0.1244444 0.1866667 [2,] 0.4666667 3.7333333 0.1066667 0.1600000 [3,] 0.1244444 0.1066667 1.2888889 0.2666667 [4,] 0.1866667 0.1600000 0.2666667 1.5111111

INPUT INSTRUCTIONS

TITLE: Simple Confirmatory Steiger(2002)

DATA: FILE is 4x2N10.dat: TYPE IS FULLCOV: NORSERVATIONS=10: VARIABLE: NAMES ARE Y1-Y4: MODEL: ETA1 BY Y1 Y2: ETA2 BY Y3 Y4; ETA1 WITH ETA2: Chi-Square Test of Model Fit Value 0.000 Degrees of Freedon P-Value 1.0000 MODEL RESULTS Two-Tailed Estimate S.E. Est./S.E. P-Value ETA1 BY Y1 1.000 0.000 999.000 999.000 ¥2 0.857 4.405 0.195 0.846 ETA2 BY 1 000 0.000 000 000 999 000 ¥4 1.500 7.580 0.198 0.843 ETA1 WITH ETA2 0.112 0.564 0.199 0.843 Variances ETA1 0.490 2.802 0.175 0.861 ETA2 0.160 0.863 0.185 0.853 Residual Variances ¥1 3.000 3.003 0.999 0.318 ¥2 3,000 2.387 1.257 0.209 YЗ 0.936 0.285 1.000 1.069 ¥4 1.000 1.902 0.526 0.599

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INPUT INSTRUCTIONS						
<pre>TITLE: 4x2 Squal Loadings and ULI Steiger(2002) DATE: FILE is 4x2.det; NUMESEVATIONE-10.1; NUMESEVATIONE-10.1; VARIABLE: NAMES ARE Y1-Y1; NOCL. FTA1 BY Y1; ETA1 BY Y1; ETA1 BY Y1; FTA1 VITH FTA2; OUTVYT: STAIABADIZED;</pre>						
Chi-Squar	e Test of	Model Fit				
MODEL RES	Value Degrees c P-Value ULTS	f Freedom		0.062 2 0.9694		
		Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.	Two-Tailed P-Value	
ETA1 Y1 Y2	ВҮ	1.000 1.154	0.000	999.000 0.886	999.000 0.376	
ETA2 ¥3 ¥4	ВҮ	1.000 1.154	0.000	999.000 0.886	999.000 0.376	
ETA1 ETA2	WITH	0.109	0.173	0.632	0.527	
Variance ETA1 ETA2	5	0.359	0.504 0.258	0.713	0.476 0.424	
Residual Y1 Y2 Y3	Variances	3.089 2.854 0.944	0.648 0.756 0.281	4.767 3.777 3.362	0.000 0.000 0.001	
¥4		1.070	0.362	2.952	0.003	

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INPUT INSTRUCTIONS TITLE: 4x2 Equal Loadings and Unit Variances Steiger(2002) DATA: FILE is 4x2 dat: TYPE IS COVARIANCE. NORSERVATIONS=101: VARTABLE: NAMES ARE VI-VA-MODEL: ETAL BY Y18 : ETA1 BY Y2*(1): ETA2 BY Y3*: ETA2 BY Y4*(1); ETA1 WITH ETA2: ETA101: ETA201 OUTPUT STANDARDIZED Chi-Square Test of Model Fit Value 0.000 Degrees of Freedom P-Value 1.0000 MODEL RESULTS Two-Tailed Estimate S.E. Est./S.E. P-Value ETA1 BY 0.697 0 563 1.238 0.216 ۲2 0.597 0.366 1,630 0.103 ETA2 TW. ra. 0.398 0.284 1.399 0.162 Υ4 0.597 0.366 1.630 0.103 ETA1 WITH ETA2 0.400 0.396 1.009 0.313 Variances ETA1 1.000 0.000 999.000 999.000 ETA2 1.000 0.000 999.000 999.000 Residual Variances Υ1 2,970 0.852 3,486 0.000 Υ2 2.970 0.606 4,901 0.000 ¥3 0.990 0.252 3,923 0.000 ¥4 0.990 0.457 2 168 0.030

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Structural Equation Models: Some Selected Examples

3

An Unnecessary Constraint

- Before discussing this phenomenon in more detail, we should digress briefly to note an important, and apparently unnoticed fact that helps explain the source of the nonequivalency.
- When the model includes the constraint that $\lambda_{2,1} = \lambda_{4,2}$, only one ULI constraint (or, alternatively, unit variance constraint) is necessary to establish identification. For example, consider again the model of Equation 19.

An Unnecessary Constraint

- Although the frequently cited "rule" for identifying variables might lead one to believe that two ULI constraints are necessary to identify this model, it actually will remain identified if one of the ULI constraints is relaxed.
- Suppose we relax the constraint on $\lambda_{1,1}$, and allow it to be a free parameter.

An Unnecessary Constraint

• The model equations become

$$\Lambda_{\mathbf{y}} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{1,1} & 0 \\ \lambda_{2,1} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda_{2,1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Omega = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_{1,1} & \omega_{2,1} \\ \omega_{2,1} & \omega_{2,2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Theta_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_{1,1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \theta_{2,2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \theta_{3,3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \theta_{4,4} \end{bmatrix}$$
(22)

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An Unnecessary Constraint

 Let's look at the path diagram and use the pipeline metaphor to see why the variances of the common factors are still identified despite the removal of one of the ULI constraints. Who can explain it? (C.P.)



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An Unnecessary Constraint

- Imagine that the variances of η_1 and η_2 are identified at some value, and that the model fits perfectly.
- Now ask the question, can we vary the variance of either η₁ or η₂ and compensate for it by adjusting other model coefficients?
- First imagine that we double the standard deviation of η₁. We could try to compensate for this by halving all coefficients attached to η₁ (i.e., λ_{1,1}, λ_{2,1}, and ω_{1,2}).
- Note however that halving the value of $\lambda_{2,1}$ would require halving the value of $\lambda_{4,2}$ because of the equality constraint. However, this cannot be done without changing the fit of the model.

An Unnecessary Constraint

• We have discovered a surprising fact. The equality constraint on the λ 's not only constrains them to be equal, it also fixes the variance of η_1 to a particular value. What value? The value is essentially arbitrary, i.e., it might be described as "whatever value occurs when $\lambda_{3,2}$ is fixed at 1, and $\lambda_{2,1}$ and $\lambda_{4,2}$ are constrained to be the same free parameter."

An Unnecessary Constraint

- Consequently, once the equality constraint on the λ's is in place, the unnecessary second ULI (or unit variance) constraint actually overconstrains the model beyond what is necessary for identification.
- The effect of the unnecessary additional constraint depends on its type adding the second ULI constraint forces parallel λ 's to be equal, while adding a second unit variance constraint forces the factor variances to be standardized.

When Constraints Interact An Unnecessary Constraint

INPUT INSTRUCTIONS						
TITLE: 4.2 Equal Loadings and ULI Stoiger(2002) DATE: FIE is 402.4m; MORESWY (IDM:-01) VARIALE: EANER ARE 17-40; MORE. FIA: BY 71; FIA: BY 72(1); FIA: BY 72(1); FIA: BY 72(1); FIA: WY 74(1); FIA: WY 74						
Chi-Squar	e Test of Mo	del Fit				
Value Degrees of Freedom P-Value				0.000 1 0.9993		
STD Stand	ardization					
	E	stimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.	Two-Tailed P-Value	
ETA1 Y1 Y2	ВҮ	0.696 0.597	0.626 0.545	1.111 1.097	0.266 0.273	
ETA2 ¥3 ¥4	ВҮ	0.398	0.338 0.494	1.178 1.208	0.239	
ETA1 ETA2	WITH	0.400	0.404	0.990	0.322	
Variance ETA1 ETA2	s	1.000	0.000	999.000 999.000	999.000 999.000	
Residual Y1 Y2 Y3	Variances	2.971 2.970 0.990	0.935 0.744 0.291	3.179 3.992 3.397	0.001 0.000 0.001	

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Structural Equation Models: Some Selected Examples

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A Damaging Side-Effect

• Unfortunately, the χ^2 difference test for equal λ 's cannot be performed unless the identification constraints are kept constant for the two tests, because if the unnecessary identification constraint is removed, the two models will have the same degrees of freedom, and will not be nested.

Some Implications

- The results discussed in this section have several important implications:
 - A χ^2 difference test for equal factor loadings on different factors is not "scale-free," i.e., it depends upon the scaling of the factors involved.
 - If loadings on different factors are constrained to be equal, then the factor variances may be identified without a ULI constraint being employed on every factor.
 - Onditions (1) and (2) may generalize to many situations other than the simple one discussed here. They will certainly generalize to any situation that can be conceptualized as a factor model.
 - When the χ^2 difference test is not scale-invariant, choice of a particular scale might be based on substantive grounds. If no reasonable substantive grounds exist, then such a test may not be meaningful.

(I) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1)) < ((1))

Some Implications

• The lessons learned in the context of a simple confirmatory factor analysis model generalize to more complex structural equation models. In my 2002 article, "When Constraints Interact," I demonstrate how some classic models, including a well-known example from the early LISREL manuals, falls prey to this problem.

A Simple Numerical Approach To Detecting Constraint Interaction

- Constraint interaction, when it occurs, has an important implication equality of two coefficients will not be invariant under changes of scale of the latent variables.
- Whether a hypothesis test "makes sense" under such circumstances is an issue to be addressed in a subsequent section.
- Here, we concentrate on a simple approach to detecting constraint interaction in practice.

A Simple Numerical Approach To Detecting Constraint Interaction

- Recall that, when constraints interact, a model that fits perfectly under one parameterization will not fit perfectly under another.
- This is because the model itself is not invariant under changes of scale of the latent variables.
- One way of testing whether a model is sensitive to the scale of the latent variables is to test whether the fit of the model is sensitive to the value used in the ULI constraint.
- Generally, of course, this value is set equal to 1.
- For models that are invariant under changes of scale of the latent variables, the magnitude of this value may be varied to any nonzero number without affecting model fit. However, for models that are not invariant under changes of scale, varying the magnitude of the value will affect model fit.

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A Simple Numerical Approach To Detecting Constraint Interaction

- Consequently, a simple way of detecting constraint interaction is the following:
 - For the model with equality constraints, compute a χ^2 fit statistic with the standard ULI constraints in place;
 - Then, alter the model so that one of these constraints is altered, say, to a value of 2 instead of 1;
 - **③** Recompute the χ^2 statistic;
 - If the two χ^2 statistics are not identical within rounding error, and convergence has occurred in each case, then the model is not invariant under changes of scale of the latent variables.

- One of the lessons learned in the preceding discussion is that equality constraints that hold for one scaling of a set of variables need not hold for another scaling.
- One "natural" scaling that is sometimes considered is a *completely standardized* model, in which all variables, both manifest and latent, have unit variances.
- Consider again the general model shown on next slide.
- There were several barriers to obtaining a correct completely standardized solution with correct standard errors.
 - Most programs couldn't analyze correlations successfully.
 - Although it was straightforward to fix exogenous factor variances at 1 (and remove the ULI constraint), it was not possible to control the variance of the endogenous latent variables. Their variances were simply a consequence of other model coefficients, variances, and covariances.
- The typical way most structural equation modeling programs achieved a fully standardized solution was as follows:
 - If the model using ULI constraints.
 - 2 Use standard regression algebra to convert the model to standarized form.
 - On not report standard errors.

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- Unfortunately, this approach can fail with certain models and data sets.
- Suppose that we wish to fit a completely standardized version of the model on the preceding slide, while incorporating the restriction that $\gamma_{1,1} = \gamma_{2,1}$.
- If the standard approach is taken (ULI constraints on both factors, followed by post-hoc computation of the model coefficients), the model will not be assessed properly, because two ULI constraints are not necessary to identify the variances of the endogenous latent variables.
- Let's examine how this plays out in a numerical example from Steiger(2002).

- Steiger(2002, Equation 13) gave the covariance matrix shown below as input to the General Model.
- He asserted that a completely standardized model fit this matrix with all ULI constraints replaced by unit variance constraints on the factors, and with $\gamma_{1,1} = \gamma_{2,1}$.

	Y_1	Y_2	Y_3	Y_4	X_1	X_2
	0.400000					
	0.090000	0.400000				
Σ =	0.050000	0.060000	0.400000			
	0.060000	0.072000	0.124026	0.400000		
	0.058333	0.070000	0.077778	0.093333	0.400000	
	0.050000	0.060000	0.066667	0.080000	0.090000	0.400000

- The SEPATH prgram uses a constrained estimation procedure that automatically iterates to a solution with unit variances, automatically analyzes correlations correctly, and, in this case of artificial data, finds perfect fit a χ^2 value of 0.
- Here are the results.

	Model Estimates (GeneralModelTestSetV			
	Parameter	Standard	Т	Prob.
	Estimate	Error	Statistic	Level
(XII)-1->[XI]	0.512	0.046	11.030	0.000
(XII)-2->[X2]	0.439	0.044	10.007	0.000
(<1)-(1)-(01)				
(DELTA1)>[X1]				
(DELTA2)>[X2]				
(DELTA1)-3-(DELTA1)	0.737	0.048	15.495	0.000
(DELTA2)-4-(DELTA2)	0.807	0.039	20.941	0.000
(ETA1)-98->[Y1]	0.433	0.049	8.848	0.000
(ETA1)-5->[Y2]	0.520	0.053	9.782	0.000
(ETA2)-99->[Y3]	0.508	0.042	12.002	0.000
(ETA2)-6->[Y4]	0.610	0.046	13.231	0.000
(EPSILON1)>[Y1]				
(EPSILON2)>[Y2]				
(EPSILON3)>[Y3]		-		
(EPSILON4)>[Y4]				
(EPSILON1)-7-(EPSILON1)	0.813	0.042	19.171	0.000
(EPSILON2)-8-(EPSILON2)	0.730	0.055	13.224	0.000
(EPSILON3)-9-(EPSILON3)	0.742	0.043	17.223	0.000
(EPSILON4)-10-(EPSILON4)	0.628	0.056	11.164	0.000
(ZETA1)>(ETA1)				
(ZETA2)>(ETA2)				
(ZETA1)-11-(ZETA1)	0.568	0.117	4.873	0.000
(ZETA2)-12-(ZETA2)	0.432	0.081	5.352	0.000
(XI1)-13->(ETA1)	0.657	0.089	7.416	0.000
(XI1)-13->(ETA2)	0.657	0.089	7.416	0.000
(ETA1)-15->(ETA2)	0.136	0.120	1.132	0.258

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Structural Equation Models: Some Selected Examples

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• If we do a standard setup in MPLUS, using ULI constraints on all variables, and calling for a standardized solution, with $\gamma_{1,1} = \gamma_{1,2}$, we get the following.

• The perfect fit is not found. INPUT INSTRUCTIONS

> TITLE: TEST DATA FROM STELGER(2002) DATA: FILE IS Steiger02Test.dat; TYPE IS COVARIANCE; NOBSERVATIONS = 932; VARIABLE: NAMES ARE X1 X2 Y1 Y2 Y3 Y4; MODEL: X11 BY X1 X2; ETA1 BY Y1 Y2; ETA2 BY Y3 Y4; ETA1 ON X11 (1); ETA2 ON X11 (1); ETA2 ON ETA1; OUTPUT: STANDARDIZED;

Chi-Square Test of Model Fit

Value			1.924
Degrees	of	Freedom	7
P-Value			0.9639

 As we see on the next slide, the estimates are also wrong. In particular, the loadings of ETA1 and ETA2 on XI1 are not the same, and neither is equal to the correct value of 0.657.

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STDYX Standardization

					Two-Tailed
		Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.	P-Value
XI1	BY				
X1		0.430	0.049	8.827	0.000
X2		0.512	0.054	9.484	0.000
FTA1	RV				
V1	51	0 489	0.041	11 796	0.000
VO.		0.403	0.047	12 250	0.000
12		0.033	0.047	13.300	0.000
ETA2	BY				
¥3		0.523	0.048	10.971	0.000
¥4		0.434	0.044	9.934	0.000
ETA1	ON				
XI1		0.520	0.069	7.493	0.000
ETA2	ON				
XI1		0,483	0.080	6.024	0,000
ETA1		0.451	0.094	4.819	0,000
Variance	8				
XI1		1.000	0.000	999.000	999.000
Residual	Variances				
X1		0.815	0.042	19.440	0.000
X2		0.738	0.055	13.360	0.000
¥1		0.761	0.041	18.742	0.000
¥2		0.599	0.060	9.989	0.000
¥3		0.727	0.050	14.576	0.000
¥4		0.812	0.038	21.415	0.000
ETA1		0.729	0.072	10.082	0.000
ETA2		0.336	0.116	2.901	0.004

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Structural Equation Models: Some Selected Examples

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• If we remove one of the ULI constraints and re-run, we get almost the same results as SEPATH. Because fit is perfect, MPLUS recovers the correct estimates and standard errors, except for one anomaly.

INPUT INSTRUCTIONS

TITLE: TEST DATA FROM STEIGER(2002) DATA: FILE IS Steiger02Test.dat; TYPE IS COVARIANCE: NOBSERVATIONS = 931: VARIABLE: NAMES ARE Y1 Y2 Y3 Y4 X1 X2: MODEL : XI1 BY X1*; XI1 BY X2*; XI1@1; ETA1 BY Y1*: ETA1 BY Y2*: ETA2 BY Y3@1: ETA2 BY Y4*: ETA1 ON XI1 (1); ETA2 ON XI1 (1); ETA2 ON ETA1: OUTPUT: STANDARDIZED:

Chi-Square Test of Model Fit

Value		0.000
Degrees of	Freedom	6
P-Value		1.0000

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STANDARDIZED MODEL RESULTS

STDYX Standardization

					Two-Tailed
		Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.	P-Value
XI1	BY				
X1		0.512	0.048	10.631	0.000
X2		0.439	0.044	9.877	0.000
ETA1	BY				
Y1		0.433	0.049	8.812	0.000
Y2		0.520	0.055	9.442	0.000
-	D.M.				
ETAZ	BT	0 500	0.040	11 000	0.000
13		0.508	0.042	11.998	0.000
¥4		0.610	0.046	13.133	0.000
ETA1	ON				
XT1	UN	0.657	0.091	7.209	0.000
A11		0.007	0.001	1.208	0.000
ETA2	ON				
XI1		0.657	0.160	4.107	0.000
ETA1		0.136	0.165	0.824	0.410
Variance	18				
XI1		1.000	0.000	999.000	999.000
B / d 3	V				
vi	. variances	0.912	0.042	10,002	0.000
¥2		0.312	0.043	10 766	0.000
12		0.730	0.007	12.700	0.000
13		0.742	0.043	17.220	0.000
14		0.628	0.057	11.082	0.000
X1		0.738	0.049	14.936	0.000
X2		U.807	U.039	20.668	U.000
ETA1		0.568	0.120	4.737	0.000
ET42		0 432	0 105	4 126	0.000

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- Notice that, although the estimates for the two gammas are equal, the standard errors are not.
- The constrained estimation procedure has a standard error of 0.089 on each coefficient, because with the constrained estimation procedure, the estimates are always the same (when they are specified to be the same).
- On the other hand, the method with one ULI constraint will generally not find the same solution if fit is not perfect.
- For example the raw test data in TestDataNonPerfectFit.txt generates a standardized solution shown on the next slide with a χ^2 of 10.33 with constrained estimation, while the same data produce a standardized solution in Mplus that does not have equal gammas after transformation to standardized form. The χ^2 of 7.56 obtained by Mplus is the same as the value obtained by SEPATH using the unconstrained estimation approach.

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	Model Estimates (Spreadsheet11)				
	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	T Statistic	Prob. Level	
(XI1)-1->[X1]	0.572	0.045	12.614	0.000	
(XI1)-2->[X2]	0.408	0.041	9.890	0.000	
(XI1)-{1}-(XI1)					
(DELTA1)>[X1]					
(DELTA2)>[X2]	1.11.1				
(DELTA1)-3-(DELTA1)	0.673	0.052	12.986	0.000	
(DELTA2)-4-(DELTA2)	0.833	0.034	24.695	0.000	
(ETA1)-98->[Y1]	0.410	0.047	8.781	0.000	
(ETA1)-5->[Y2]	0.538	0.053	10.142	0.000	
(ETA2)-99->[Y3]	0.490	0.041	11.848	0.000	
(ETA2)-6->[Y4]	0.617	0.046	13.442	0.000	
(EPSILON1)>[Y1]					
(EPSILON2)>[Y2]					
(EPSILON3)>[Y3]					
(EPSILON4)>[Y4]					
(EPSILON1)-7-(EPSILON1)	0.832	0.038	21.721	0.000	
(EPSILON2)-8-(EPSILON2)	0.710	0.057	12.435	0.000	
(EPSILON3)-9-(EPSILON3)	0.759	0.041	18.704	0.000	
(EPSILON4)-10-(EPSILON4)	0.619	0.057	10.931	0.000	
(ZETA1)>(ETA1)	2012/05				
(ZETA2)>(ETA2)					
(ZETA1)-11-(ZETA1)	0.506	0.126	4.020	0.000	
(ZETA2)-12-(ZETA2)	0.418	0.079	5.290	0.000	
(XI1)-13->(ETA1)	0.703	0.090	7.845	0.000	
(XI1)-13->(ETA2)	0.703	0.090	7.845	0.000	
(ETA1)-15->(ETA2)	0.083	0.120	0.688	0 491	

James H. Steiger (Vanderbilt University)

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INPUT INSTRUCTIONS

TITLE: TEST DATA FROM STEIGER(2002) DATA: FILE IS TestDataNonPerfectFit.txt; TYPE IS INDIVIDUAL: VARIABLE: NAMES ARE Y1 Y2 Y3 Y4 X1 X2: MODEL: XI1 BY X1*: XI1 BY X2*; XI1@1: ETA1 BY Y1*: ETA1 BY Y2*: ETA2 BY Y3@1: ETA2 BY Y4*: ETA1 ON XI1 (1): ETA2 ON XI1 (1): ETA2 ON ETA1: OUTPUT: STANDARDIZED: Chi-Square Test of Model Fit

Value		7.569
Degrees of	${\tt Freedom}$	6
P-Value		0.2714

James H. Steiger (Vanderbilt University)

Structural Equation Models: Some Selected Examples

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STDYX Standardization

			Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.	Two-Tailed P-Value
XI1		вү				
X1			0.605	0.052	11.694	0.000
X2			0.414	0.042	9.795	0.000
ETA1		вү				
¥1			0.405	0.046	8.812	0.000
¥2			0.514	0.053	9.757	0.000
ETA2		BY				
¥3			0.490	0.042	11.687	0.000
¥4			0.629	0.048	13.203	0.000
ETA1		ON				
XI	1		0.715	0.088	8.098	0.000
ETA2		ON				
XI	1		0.425	0.172	2.477	0.013
ET	'A1		0.340	0.176	1.925	0.054
Inter	cept	5				
¥1			-0.014	0.033	-0.415	0.678
¥2			0.011	0.033	0.330	0.741
¥3			-0.010	0.033	-0.298	0.766
¥4			0.023	0.033	0.709	0.478
X1			-0.070	0.033	-2.133	0.033
X2			-0.037	0.033	-1.141	0.254
Varia	nces					
XI	1		1.000	0.000	999.000	999.000
Resid	ual	Variances				
¥1			0.836	0.037	22.476	0.000
¥2			0.736	0.054	13.596	0.000
¥3			0.760	0.041	18.476	0.000
¥4			0.605	0.060	10.092	0.000
X1			0.633	0.063	10.105	0.000
X2			0.828	0.035	23.615	0.000
ET	A1		0.489	0.126	3.874	0.000
ET	'A2		0.497	0.085	6.852	0.000

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