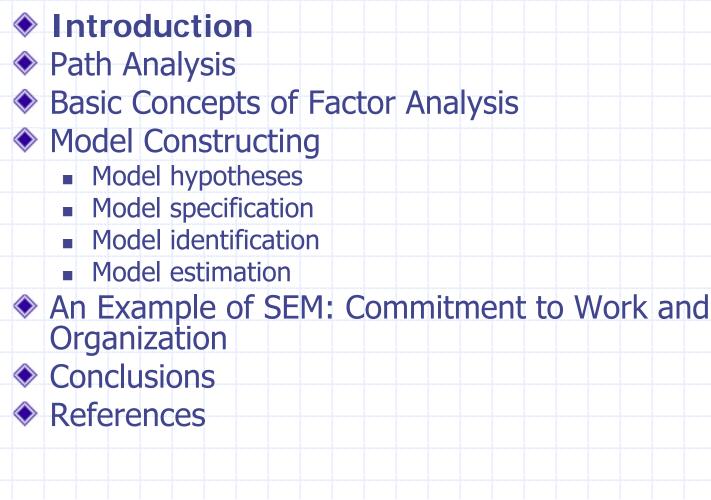
Structural Equation Modeling

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Development of Western science is based on two great achievements: the invention of the formal logical system (in Euclidean geometry) by the Greek philosophers, and the possibility to find out causal relationships by systematic experiment (during the Renaissance).

> Albert Einstein (in Pearl, 2000)

v2.2

Structural equation modeling (SEM), as a concept, is a combination of statistical techniques such as exploratory factor analysis and multiple regression.

The purpose of SEM is to examine a set of relationships between one or more Independent Variables (IV) and one or more Dependent Variables (DV).

v2.2

- Soth IV's and DV's can be continuous or discrete.
- Independent variables are usually considered either predictor or causal variables because they predict or cause the dependent variables (the response or outcome variables).

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Structural equation modeling is also known as 'causal modeling' or 'analysis of covariance structures'.

Path analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) are special types of SEM. (Figure 1.)

Senetics S. Wright (1921): "Prior knowledge of the causal relations is assumed as prerequisite ... [in linear structural modeling]".

 $y = \beta x + \varepsilon$

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"In an ideal experiment where we control X to x and any other set Z of variables (not containing X or Y) to z, the value of Y is given by $\beta x + \varepsilon$, where ε is not a function of the settings x and z." (Pearl, 2000)

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According to Judea Pearl (2000), modern SEM is a far cry from the original causality modeling theme, mainly for the following two reasons:

 Researchers have tried to build scientific 'credibility' of SEM by isolating (or removing) references to causality.

 Causal relationships do not have commonly accepted mathematical notation.

v2.2



 CFA operates with observed and latent variables, path analysis operates only with observed variables.

Figure 1. Components of Structural Equation Modeling

STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING (SEM) COVARIANCE STRUCTURE MODELING

CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (CFA)

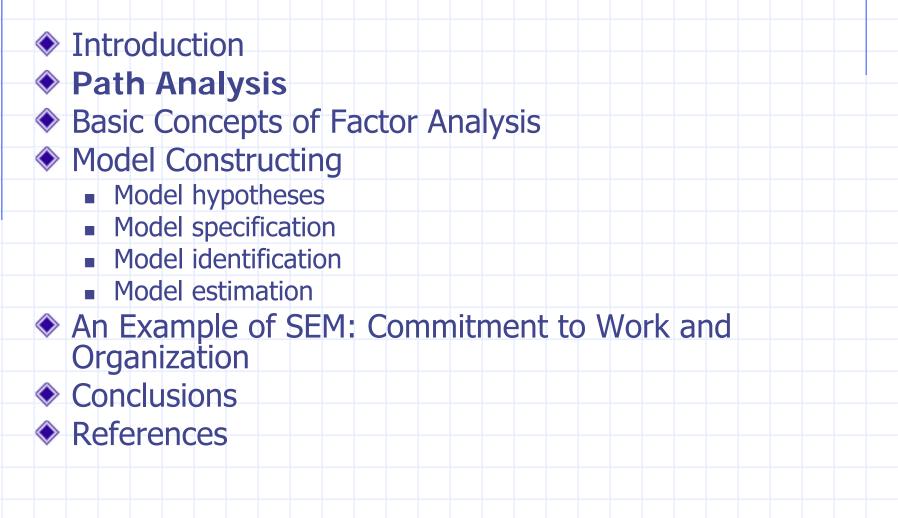
PATH ANALYSIS

(Nokelainen, 1999.)

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- Examines how *n* independent (x, IV, Xi, ξ) variables are statistically related to a dependent (y, DV, Eta, η) variable.
- Applies the techniques of regression analysis, aiming at more detailed resolution of the phenomena under investigation.

Allows

v2.2

- Causal interpretation of statistical dependencies
- Examination of how data fits to a theoretical model

v2.2

Once the data is available, conduction of path analysis is straightforward:

1. Draw a path diagram according to the theory.

2. Conduct one or more regression analyses.

3. Compare the regression estimates (B) to the theoretical assumptions or (Beta) other studies.

 If needed, modify the model by removing or adding connecting paths between the variables and redo stages 2 and 3.

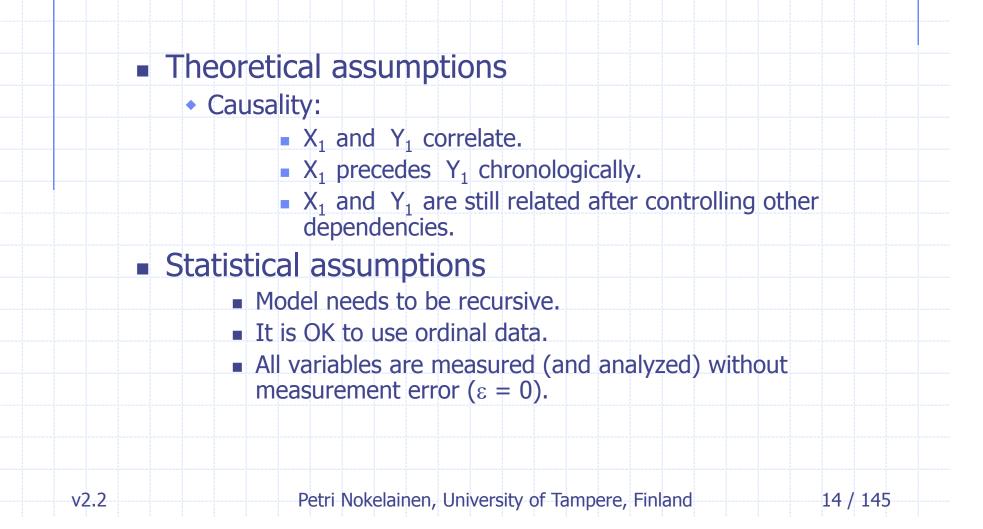
Data assumptions:

DV:

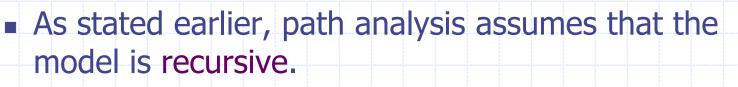
- Continuous, normally distributed (univariate normality assumption)
- IV:
 - Continuous (no dichotomy or categorical variables)
- N:

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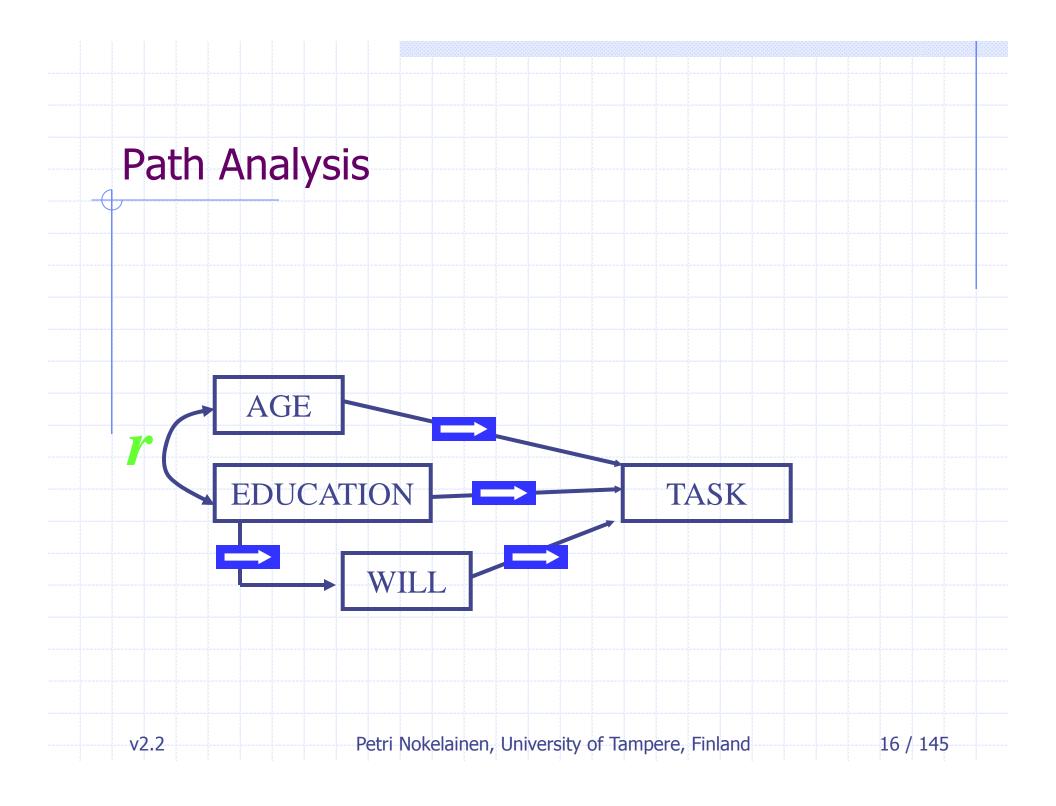
About 30 observations for each IV

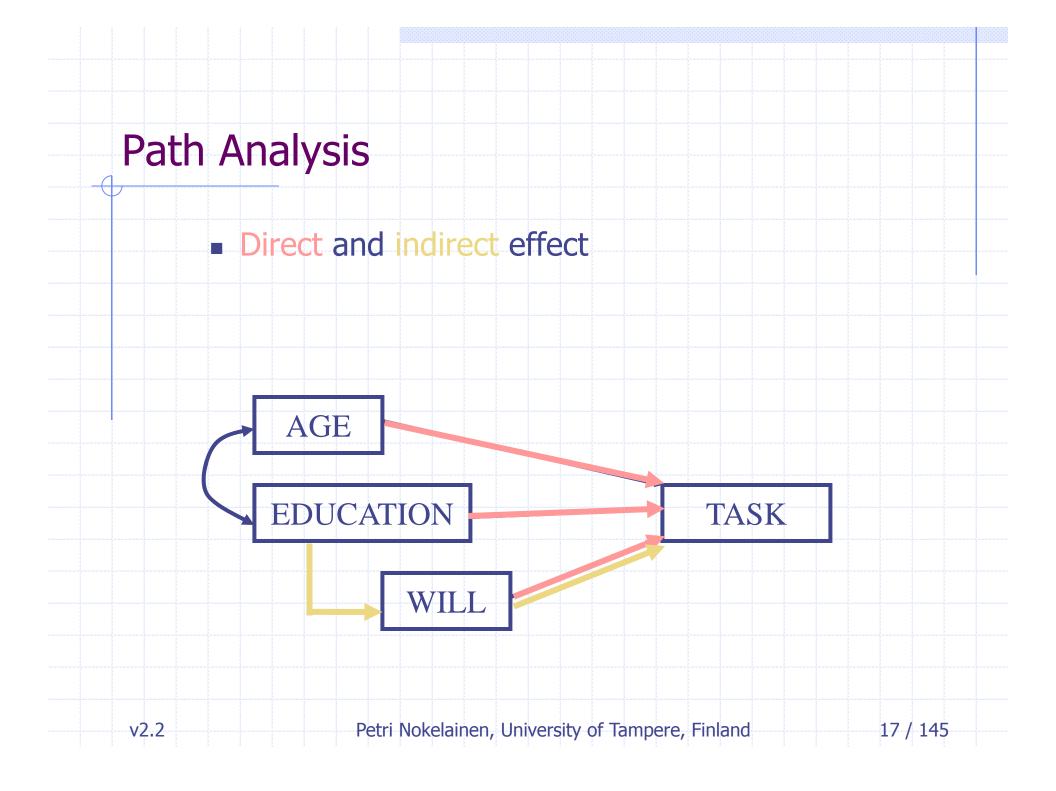


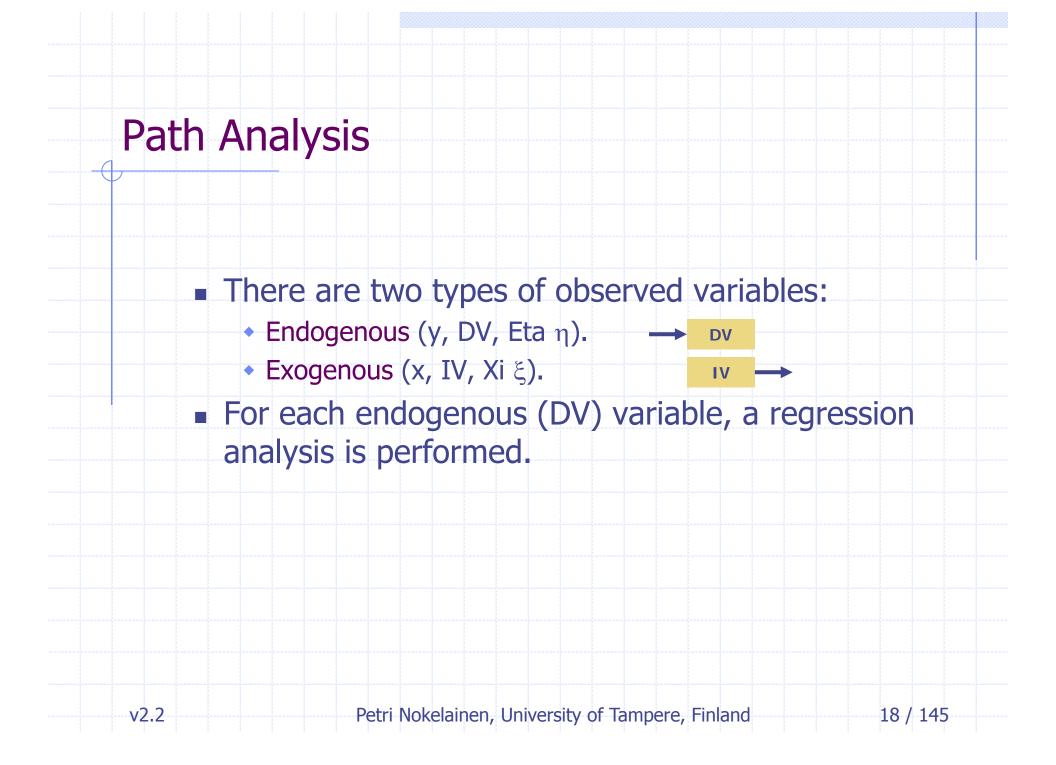
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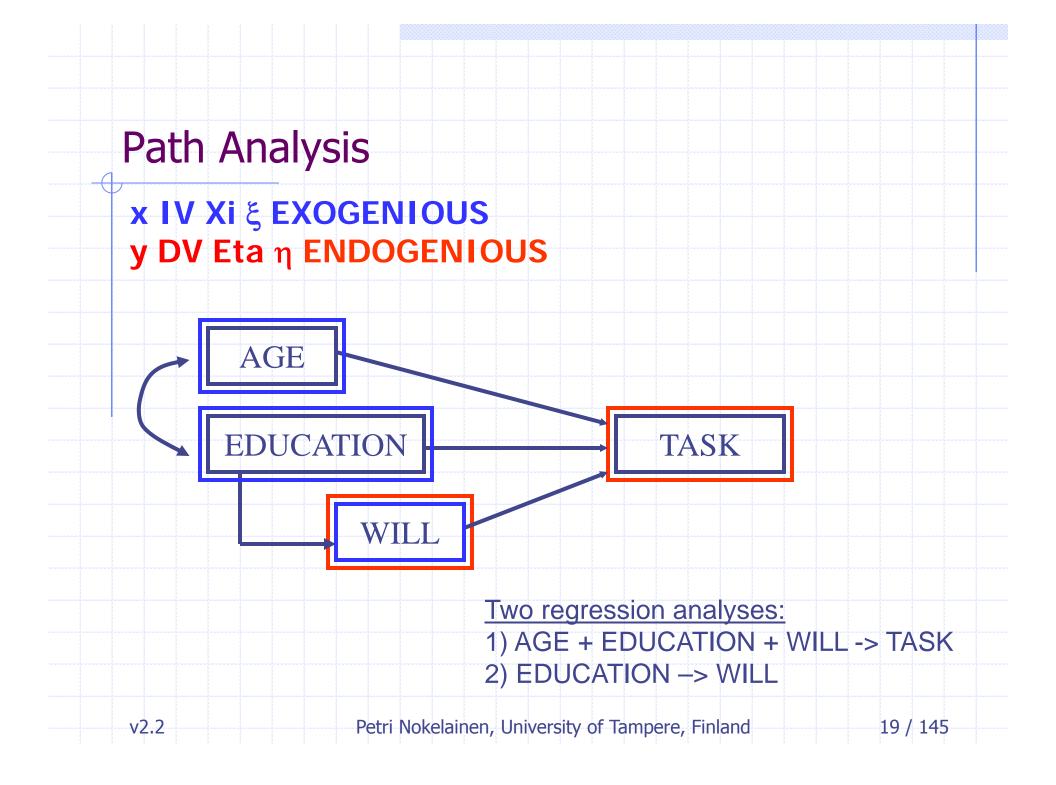


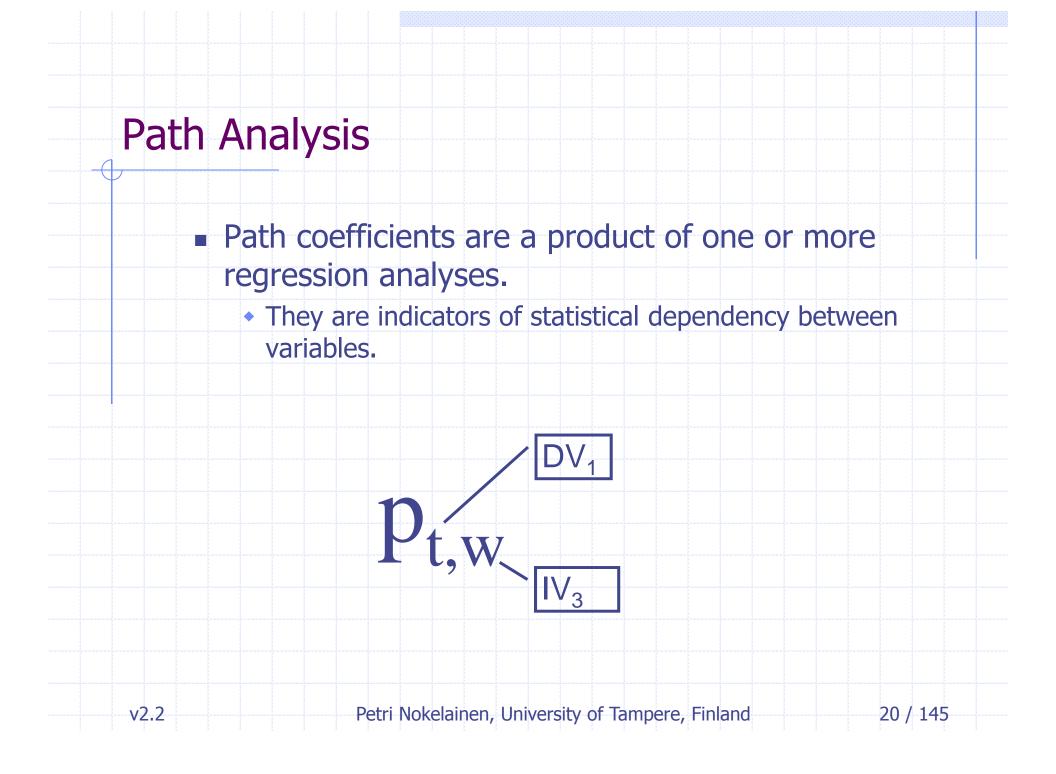
- Nature of causal dependency is unidirectional, like a 'one way road' (arc with one head ->).
- If there is no a priori information available about the
- direction of causal dependency, it is assumed to be correlational (arc with two heads).

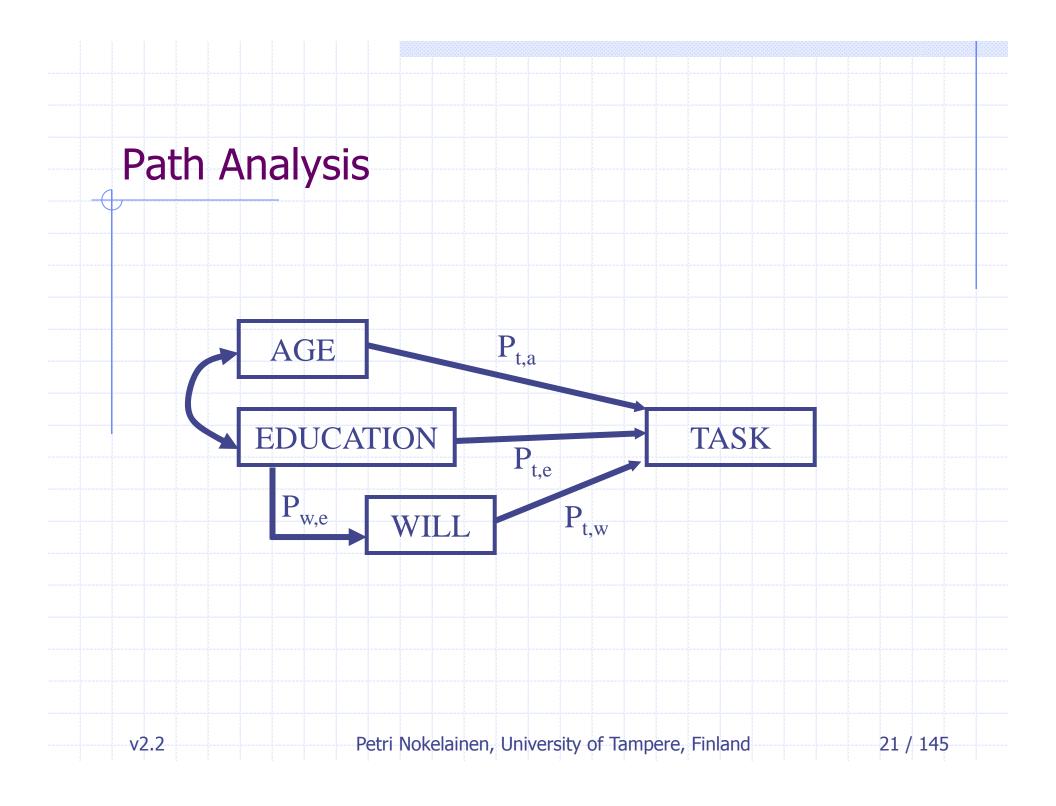








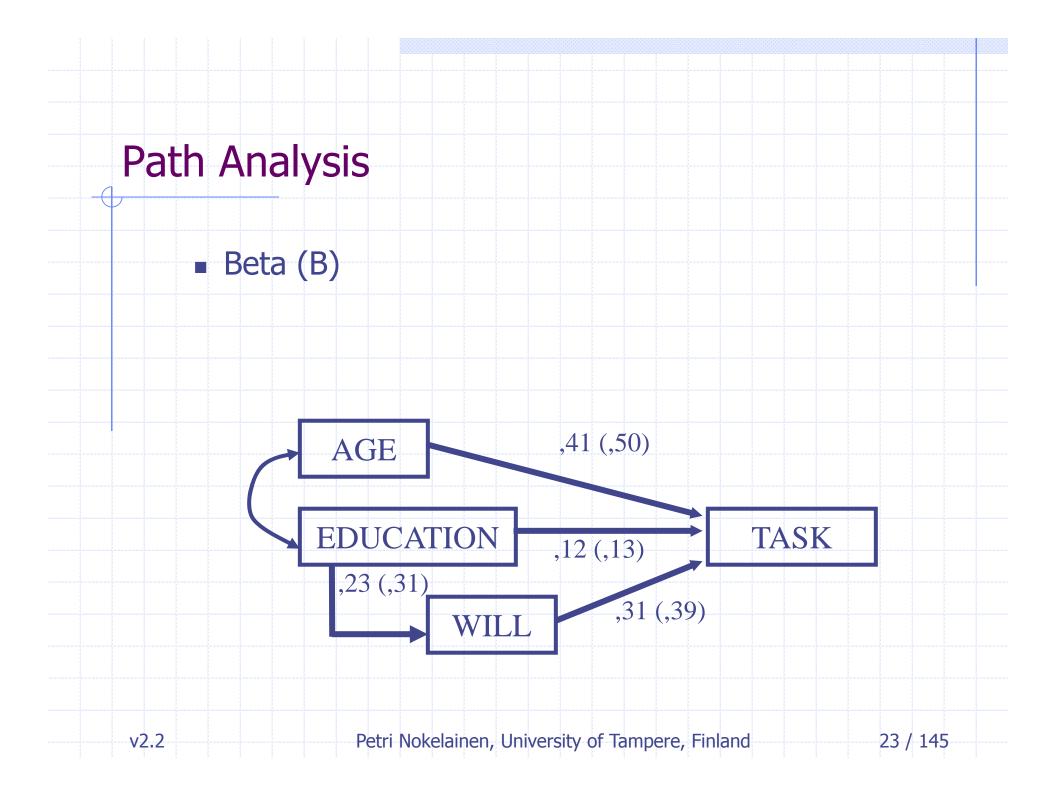




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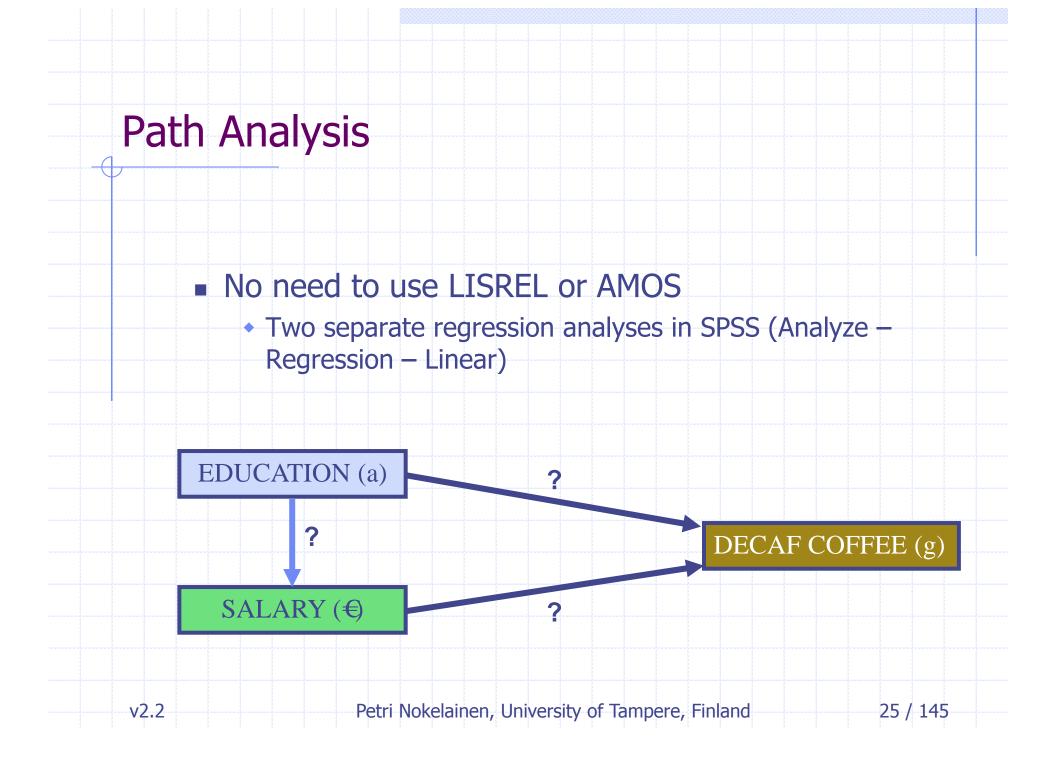
- Path coefficients are standardized ('Beta') or unstandardized ('B') regression coefficients.
 - Strength of inter-variable dependencies are comparable to other studies when standardized values (*z*, where *M* = 0 and *SD* = 1) are used.
 - Unstandardized values allow the original measurement scale examination of inter-variable dependencies.

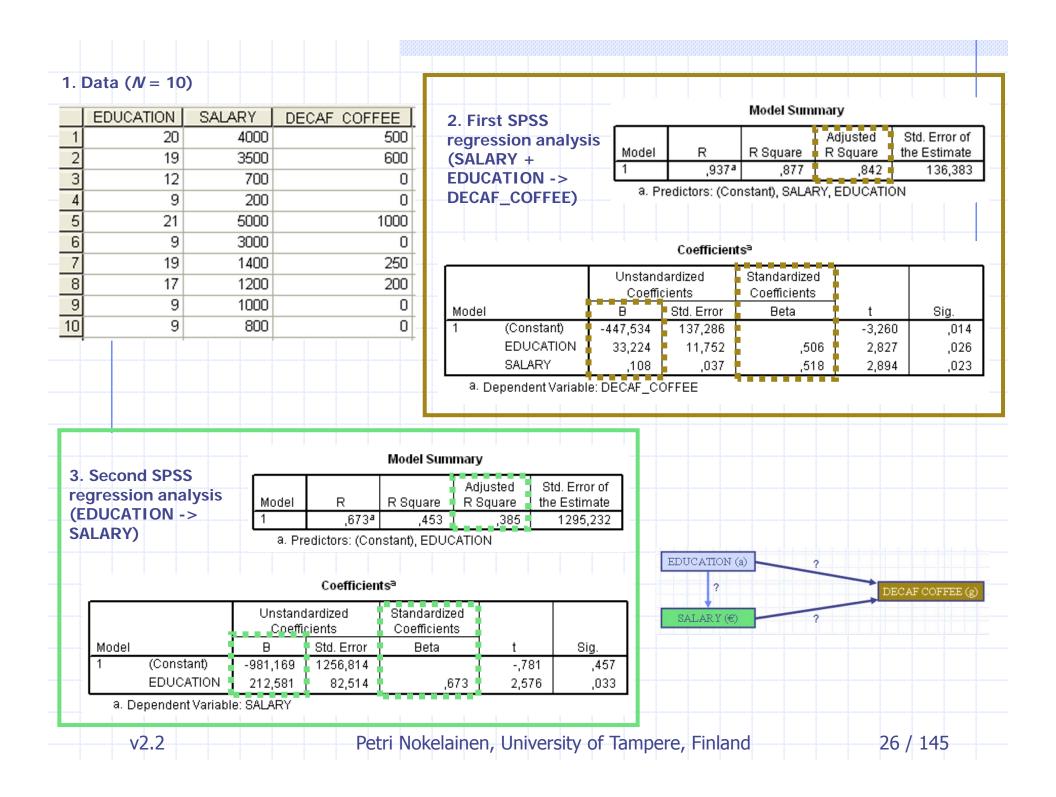
$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x - \overline{x})^2}{N - 1}} \qquad z = \frac{(x - \overline{x})}{SD}$$

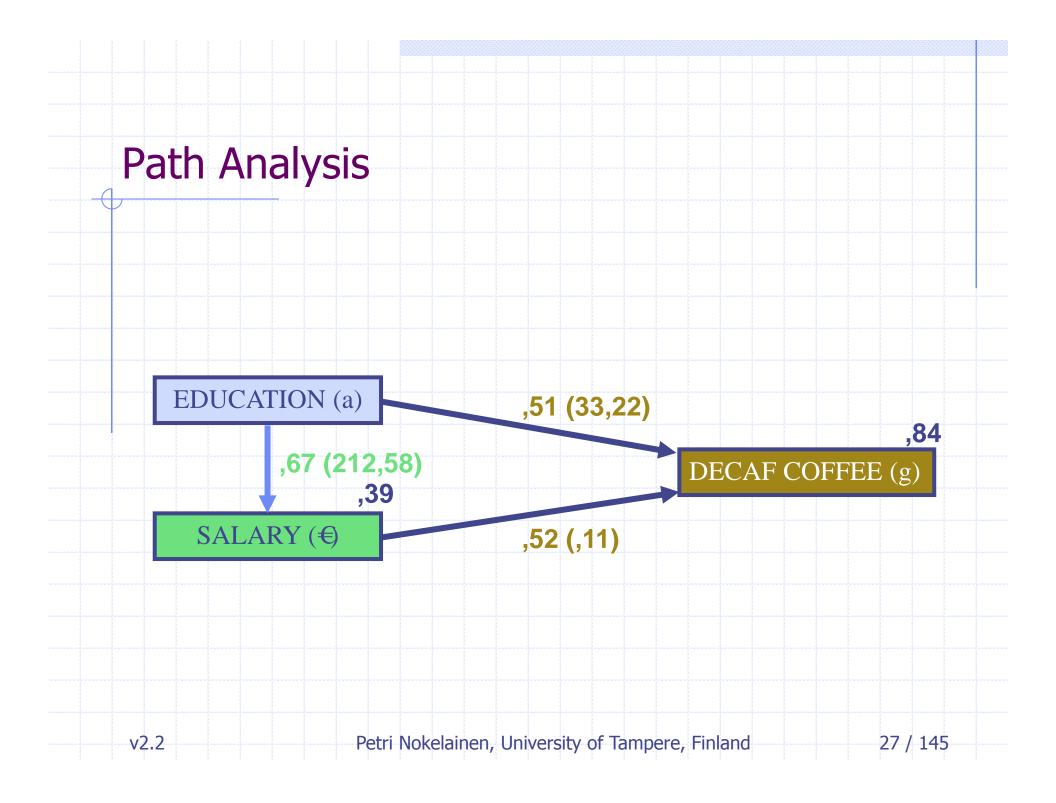


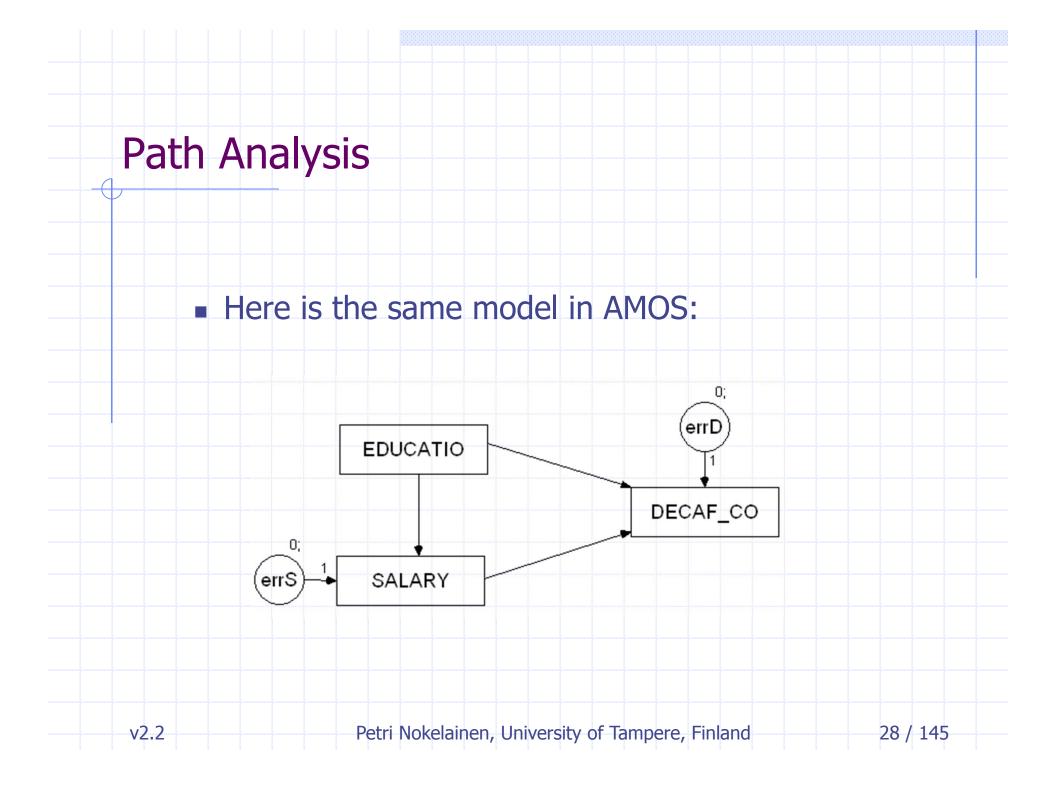
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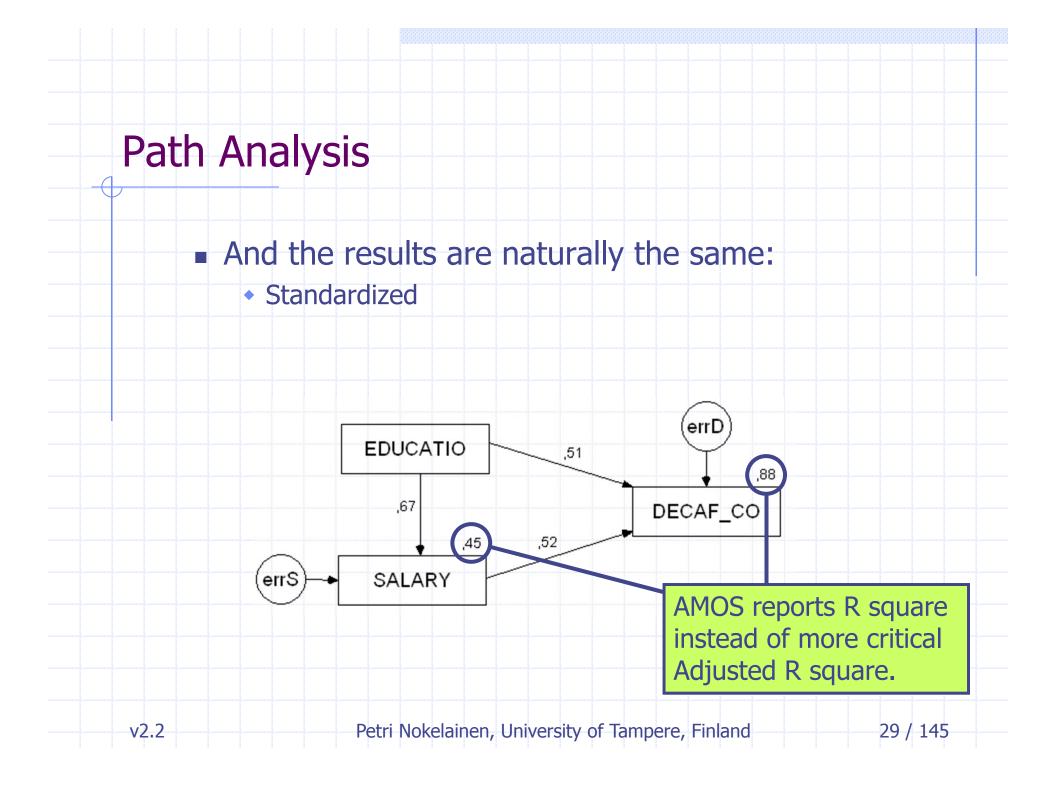
- Path coefficient (p_{DV,IV}) indicates the direct effect of IV to DV.
- If the model contains only one IV and DV variable, the path coefficient equals to correlation coefficient.
 - In those models that have more than two variables (one IV and one DV), the path coefficients equal to partial correlation coefficients.
 - The other path coefficients are controlled while each individual path coefficient is calculated.

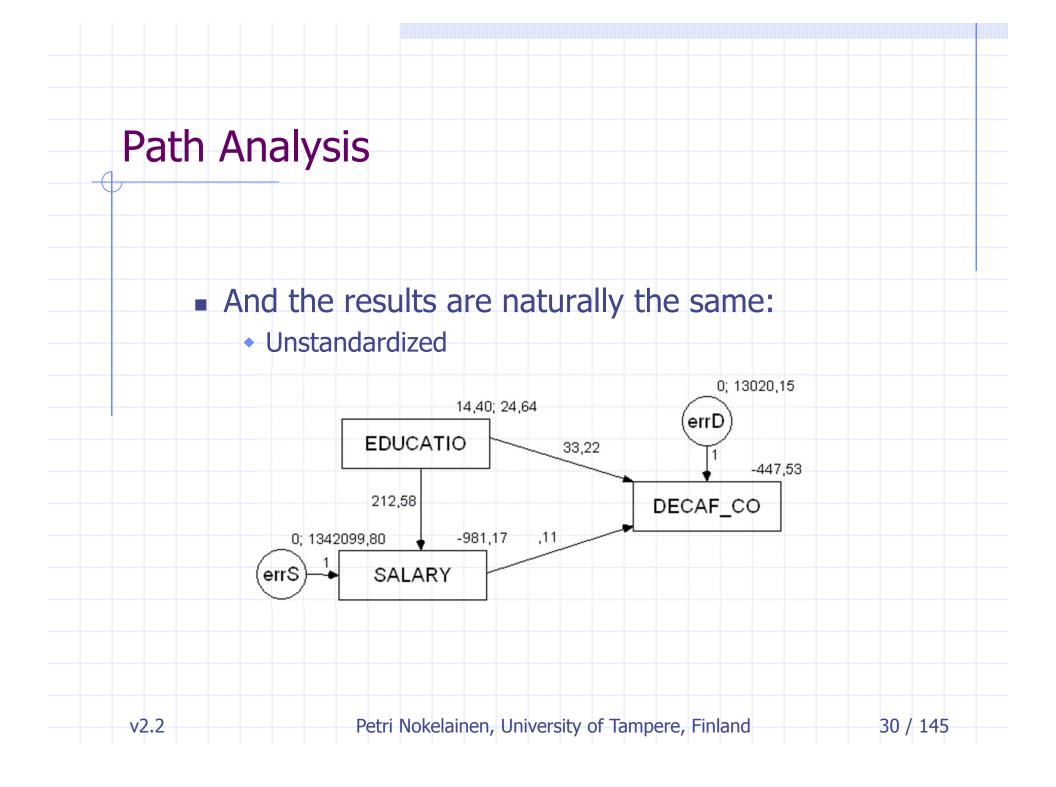






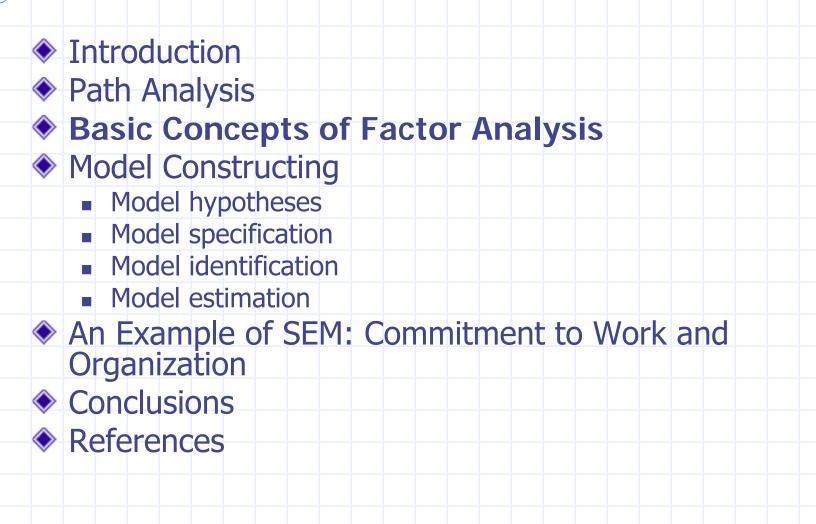






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- The fundamental idea underlying the factor analysis is that some but not all variables can be directly observed.
- Those unobserved variables are referred to as either latent variables or factors.
- Information about latent variables can be gained by observing their influence on observed variables.
- Factor analysis examines covariation among a set of observed variables trying to generate a smaller number of latent variables.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

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 In exploratory factor analysis (EFA), observed variables are represented by squares and circles represent latent variables.

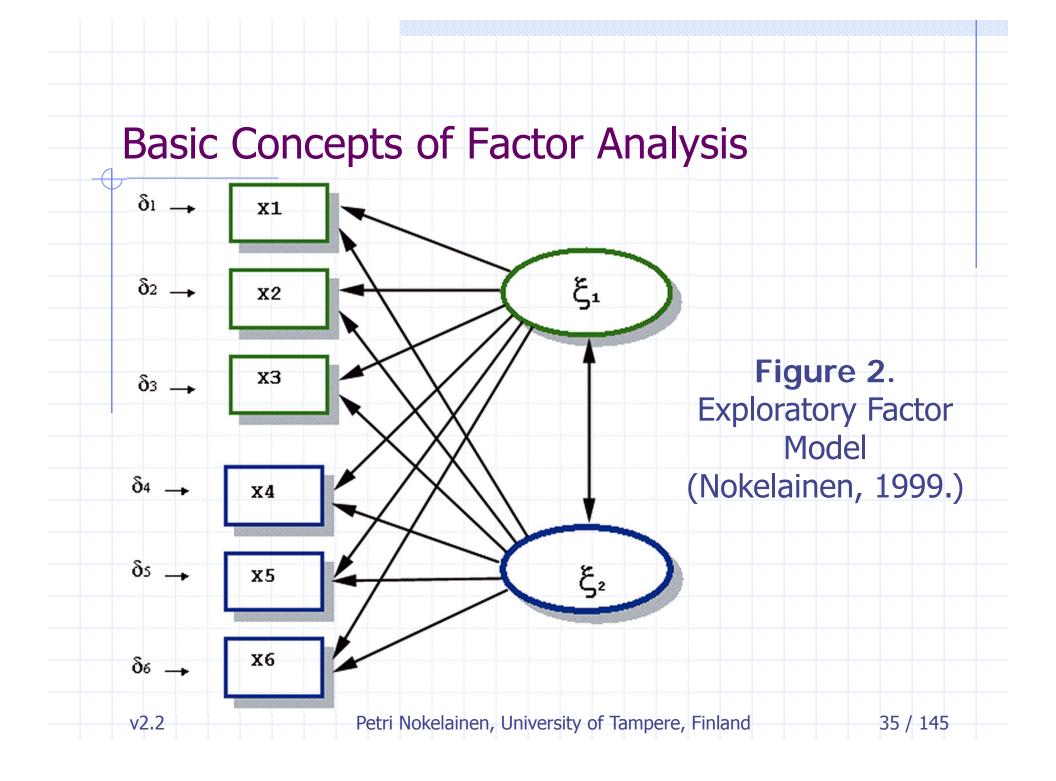
 Causal effect of the latent variable on the observed variable is presented with straight line with arrowhead.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

v2.2

The latent factors (ellipses) labeled with ξ's (Xi) are called common factors and the δ's (delta) (usually in circles) are called errors in variables or *residual variables*.

 Errors in variables have unique effects to one and only one observed variable - unlike the common factors that share their effects in common with more than one of the observed variables.



Exploratory Factor Analysis

v2.2

- The EFA model in Figure 2 reflects the fact that researcher does not specify the structure of the relationships among the variables in the model.
- When carrying out EFA, researcher must assume that
 - all common factors are correlated,
 - all observed variables are directly affected by all common factors,

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- errors in variables are uncorrelated with one another,
- all observed variables are affected by a unique factor and

• all ξ 's are uncorrelated with all δ 's. (Long, 1983.)

Basic Concepts of Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

v2.2

- One of the biggest problems in EFA is its inability to incorporate substantively meaningful constraints.
- That is due to fact that algebraic mathematical solution to solve estimates is not trivial, instead one has to seek for other solutions.
- That problem was partly solved by the development of the confirmatory factor model, which was based on an iterative algorithm (Jöreskog, 1969).

Basic Concepts of Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

v2.2

 In confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which is a special case of SEM, the correlations between the factors are an explicit part of the analysis because they are collected in a matrix of factor correlations.

 With CFA, researcher is able to decide *a priori* whether the factors would correlate or not. (Tacq, 1997.)

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Basic Concepts of Factor Analysis

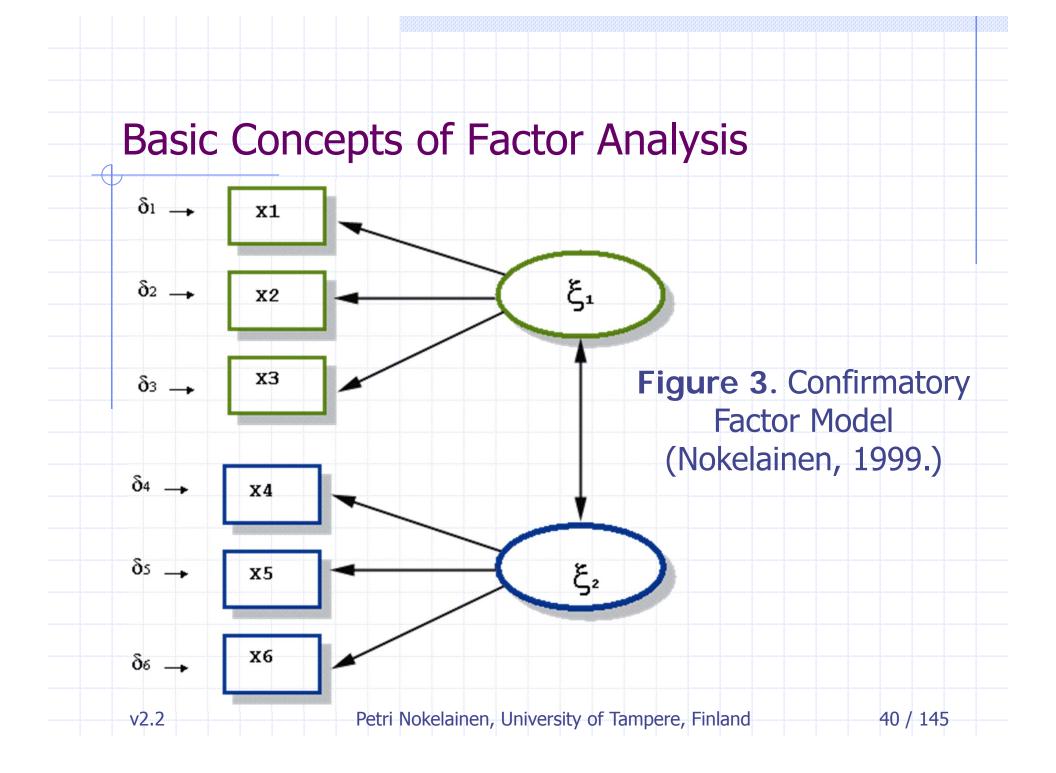
Confirmatory Factor Analysis

v2.2

- Moreover, researcher is able to impose substantively motivated constraints,
 - which common factor pairs that are correlated,
 - which observed variables are affected by which common factors,
 - which observed variables are affected by a unique factor and
 - which pairs of unique factors are correlated. (Long, 1983.)

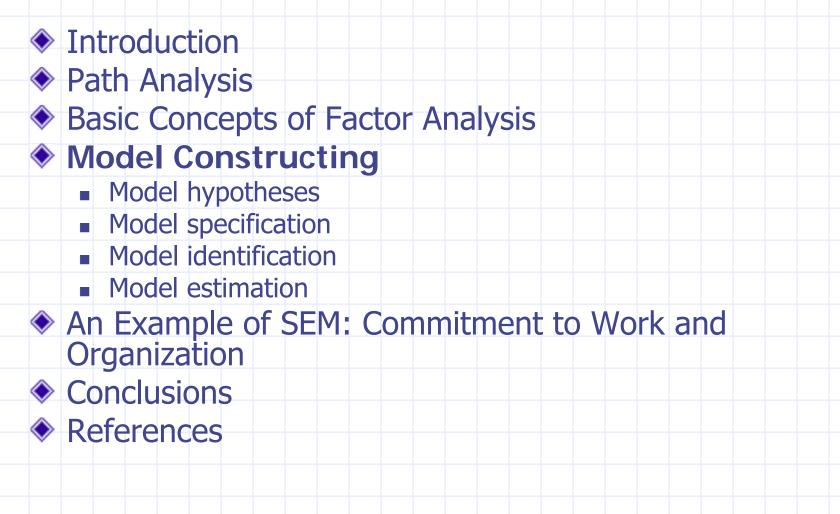
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v2.2



Model Constructing

v2.2

One of the most well known covariance structure models is called LISREL (LI near Structural RELationships) or Jöreskog-Keesling-Wiley –model.

- LISREL is also a name of the software (Jöreskog et al., 1979), which is later demonstrated in this presentation to analyze a latent variable model.
- The other approach in this study field is Bentler-Weeks -model (Bentler et al., 1980) and EQS – software (Bentler, 1995).

Model Constructing

v2.2

- The latest software release attempting to implement SEM is graphical and intuitive AMOS (Arbuckle, 1997).
- AMOS has since 2000 taken LISREL's place as a module of a well-known statistical software package SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences).
- Also other high quality SEM programs exist, such as Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2000).
 - MPlus is targeted for professional users, it has only text input mode.

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Model Constructing

- In this presentation, I will use both the LISREL 8 software and AMOS 5 for SEM analysis and PRELIS 2 –software (Jöreskog et al., 1985) for preliminary data analysis.
- All the previously mentioned approaches to SEM use the same pattern for constructing the model:
 - 1. model hypotheses,
 - 2. model specification,
 - 3. model identification and
 - 4. model estimation.

v2.2

v2.2

Next, we will perform a CFA model constructing process for a part of a "Commitment to Work and Organization" model.

This is quite technical approach but unavoidable in order to understand the underlying concepts and a way of statistical thinking.

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v2.2

- Next we study briefly basic concepts of factor analysis in order to understand the path which leads to structural equation modeling.
- To demonstrate the process, we study the theoretical model of 'growth-oriented atmosphere' (Ruohotie, 1996, 1999) to analyze organizational commitment.
- The data (N = 319), collected from Finnish polytechnic institute for higher education staff in 1998, contains six *continuous* summary variables (Table 1).

By stating 'continuous', we assume here that mean of *n* Likert scale items with frequency of more than 100 observations produce **a summary item** (component or factor) that **behaves**, according to central limit theorem, **like a continuous variable with normal distribution**.

+

Table 1. Variable Description

	Item	Summary variable	Sample statement
S M U A P N	X1	Participative Leadership	It is easy to be touch with the leader of the training programme.
P A O G R E T M	X2	Elaborative Leadership	This organization improves it's members professional development.
IE VN ET	X3	Encouraging Leadership	My superior appreciates my work.
FGURNO	X4	Collaborative Activities	My teacher colleagues give me help when I need it.
CU TP I O	X5	Teacher – Student Connections	Athmosphere on my lectures is pleasant and spontaneous.
N A L	X6	Group Spirit	The whole working community co- operates effectively.
	v2.2	Petri Nokelainen, Universi	ty of Tampere, Finland 47 / 145

v2.2

♦ A sample of the data is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. A Sample of the Raw Data Set

	Supportive Management			Functional Group		
Teachers	Participative Leadership	Elaborative Leadership	Encouraging Leadership	Collaborative Activities	Teacher- student Connections	Grouț Spirit
	(x1)	(x2)	(x3)	(x4)	(x5)	(x6)
1.	2.75	3.25	4.00	2.60	3.00	2.00
2.	3.25	3.75	5.00	3.40	4.00	3.00
3.	3.50	3.75	4.00	3.60	4.75	3.00
 319	5.00	1.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	5.00

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♦ The covariance matrix is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. The Covariance Matrix

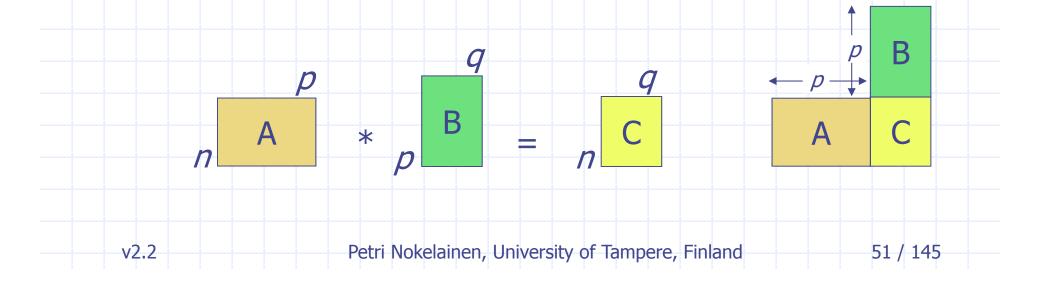
	Supportive Management			Functional Group		
	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	Xe
X1	.734	.343	.438	.220	.104	.275
X2	.343	.668	.467	.234	.037	.307
Х3	.438	.467	.938	.306	.165	.391
X4	.220	.234	.306	.459	.182	.308
X5	.104	.037	.165	.182	.387	.114
X6	.275	.307	.391	.308	.114	.552

What is covariance matrix?

- Scatter, covariance, and correlation matrix form the basis of a multivariate method.
- The correlation and the covariance matrix are also often used for a first inspection of relationships among the variables of a multivariate data set.
- All of these matrices are calculated using the matrix multiplication (A · B).
- The only difference between them is how the data is scaled before the matrix multiplication is executed:
 - scatter: no scaling
 - covariance: mean of each variable is subtracted before multiplication
 - correlation: each variable is standardized (mean subtracted, then divided by standard deviation)

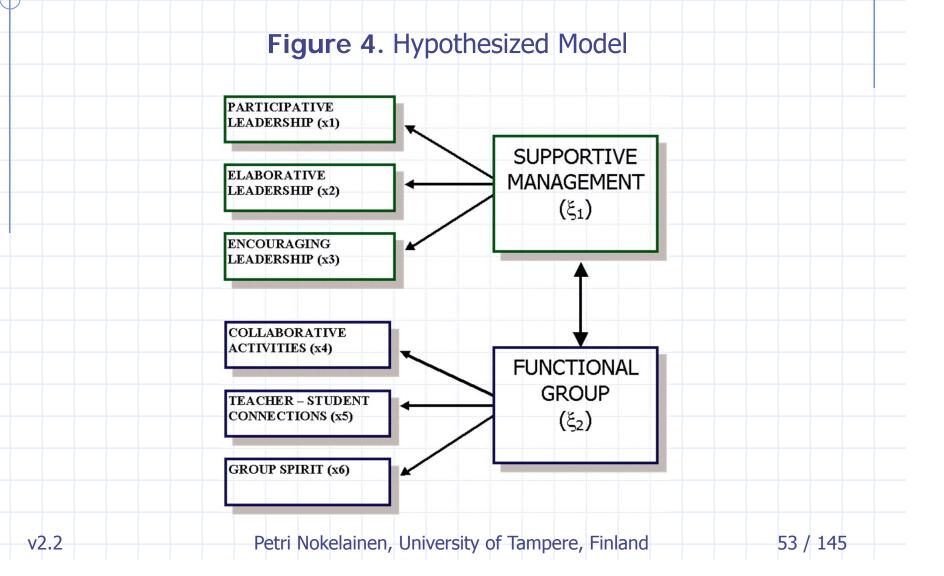
What is matrix multiplication?

 Let (a_{rs}), (b_{rs}), and (c_{rs}) be three matrices of order m_xn n_xp and p_xq respectively. Each element c_{rs} of the matrix C, the result of the matrix product
 A•B, is then calculated by the inner product of the s th row of A with the r th column of B.



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The basic components of the confirmatory factor model are illustrated in Figure 4.
 Hypothesized model is sometimes called a structural model.



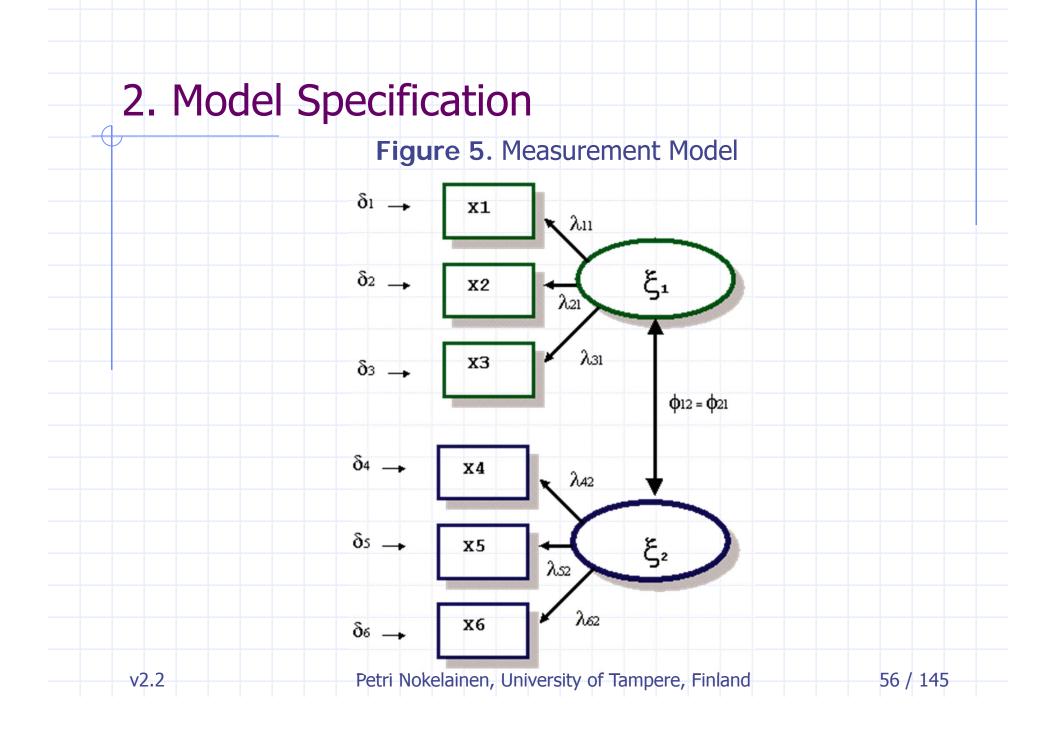
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Two main hypotheses of interest are:

- Does a two-factor model fit the data?
- Is there a significant covariance between the supportive and functional factors?

v2.2

Secause of confirmatory nature of SEM, we continue our model constructing with the model specification to the stage, which is referred as *measurement model* (Figure 5).



v2.2

 One can specify a model with different methods, e.g., Bentler-Weeks or LISREL.
 In Bentler-Weeks method every variable in the model is either an IV or a DV.
 The parameters to be estimated are

- the regression coefficients and
- the variances and the covariances of the independent variables in the model. (Bentler, 1995.)

v2.2

Specification of the confirmatory factor model requires making formal and explicit statements about

- the number of common factors,
- the number of observed variables,
- the variances and covariances among the common factors,
- the relationships among observed variables and latent factors,
- the relationships among residual variables and
- the variances and covariances among the residual variables.
 (Jöreskog et al., 1989.)

v2.2

♦ We start model specification by describing factor equations in a two-factor model: a Supportive Management factor (x1 – x3) and a Functional Group factor (x4 – x6), see Figure 5.

 Note that the observed variables do not have direct links to all latent factors.

v2.2

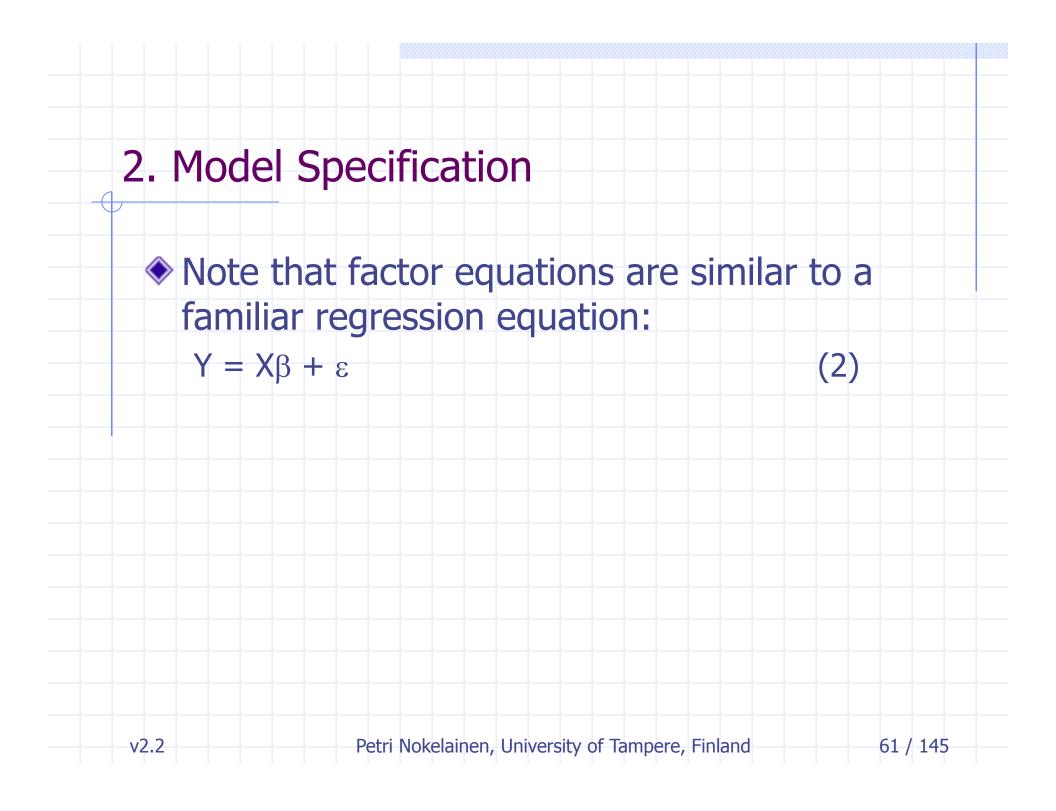
The relationships for this part of the measurement model can now be specified in a set of *factor equations* in a scalar form:

$$x_1 = \lambda_{11}\xi_1 + \delta_1$$
 $x_2 = \lambda_{21}\xi_1 + \delta_2$ $x_3 = \lambda_{31}\xi_1 + \delta_3$ $x_4 = \lambda_{42}\xi_2 + \delta_4$ $x_5 = \lambda_{52}\xi_2 + \delta_5$ $x_6 = \lambda_{62}\xi_2 + \delta_6$

• δ_i is the residual variable (error) which is the unique factor affecting x_i . λ_{ij} is the loading of the observed variables x_i on the common factor ξ_i .

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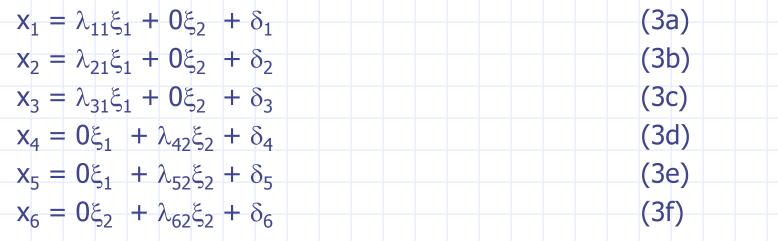
(1)



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Most of the calculations are performed as matrix computations because SEM is based on covariance matrices.

 To translate equation (1) into a more matrix friendly form, we write:



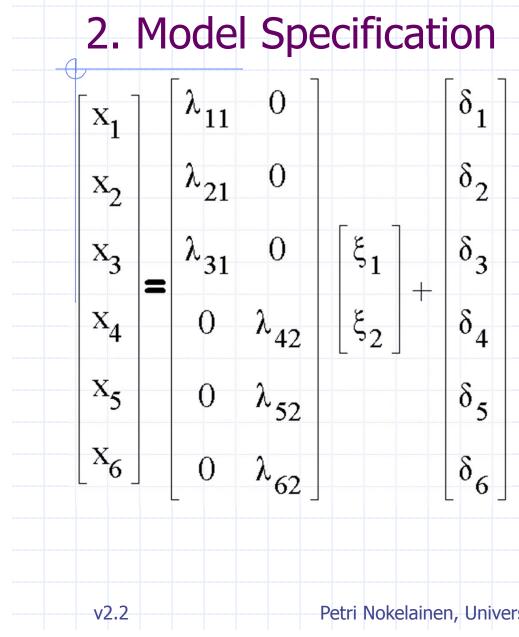
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Mathematically, the relationship between the observed variables and the factors is expressed as matrix equation (4)

 $\mathbf{x} = \Lambda_{\mathbf{x}} \boldsymbol{\xi} + \boldsymbol{\delta}$

v2.2

and the matrix form for the measurement model is now written in a matrix form:



 x_1 is defined as a linear combination of the latent variables ξ_1 ξ_2 and δ_1 .

The coefficient for x_1 is λ_{11} indicating that a unit change in a latent variable ξ_1 results in an average change in x_1 of λ_{11} units.

The coefficient for ξ_2 is fixed to zero.

Each observed variable x_i has also residual factor δ_i which is the error of measurement in the x_i 's on the assumption that the factors do not fully account for the indicators.

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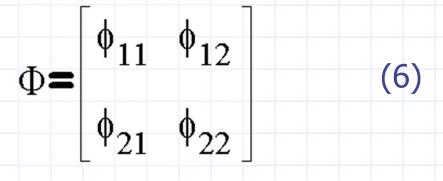
(5)

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• The covariances between factors in Figure 5 are represented with arrows connecting ξ_1 and ξ_2 .

• This covariance is labeled $\phi_{12} = \phi_{21}$ in Φ .



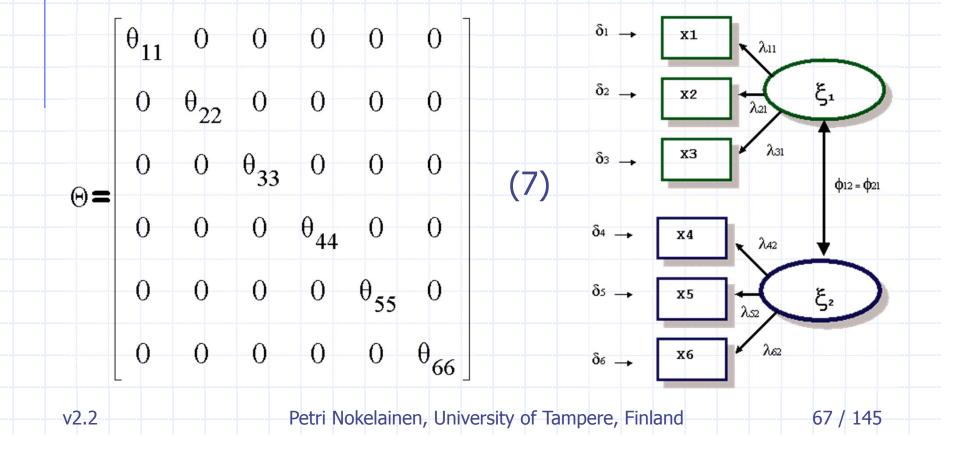
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v2.2

The diagonal elements of Φ are the variances of the common factors.

 Variances and covariances among the error variances are contained in Θ.

In this model (see Figure 5), error variances are assumed to be uncorrelated:



Secause the factor equation (4) cannot be directly estimated, the covariance structure of the model is examined.

Matrix Σ contains the structure of covariances among the observed variables after multiplying equation (4) by its transpose
 Σ = E(xx') (8)

and taking expectations $\Sigma = E[(\Lambda \xi + \delta) (\Lambda \xi + \delta)']$

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(9)

v2.2

Next we apply the matrix algebral information that the transpose of a sum matrices is equal to the sum of the transpose of the matrices, and the transpose of a product of matrices is the product of the transposes in reverse order (see Backhouse et al., 1989):

 $\Sigma = \mathsf{E}[(\Lambda\xi + \delta) (\xi'\Lambda' + \delta')]$ (10)

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Applying the distributive property for matrices we get

 $\Sigma = \mathsf{E}[\Lambda\xi\xi'\Lambda' + \Lambda\xi\delta' + \delta\xi'\Lambda' + \delta\delta'] \quad (11)$

♦ Next we take expectations Σ = E[Λξξ'Λ'] + E[Λξδ'] + E[δξ'Λ'] + E[δδ'] (12)

v2.2

♦ Since the values of the parameters in matrix Λ are constant, we can write

 $\Sigma = \Lambda \mathsf{E}[\xi\xi'] \Lambda' + \Lambda \mathsf{E}[\xi\delta'] + \mathsf{E}[\delta\xi'] \Lambda' + \mathsf{E}[\delta\delta']$ (13)

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Since $E[\xi\xi'] = \Phi$, $E[\delta\delta'] = \Theta$, and δ and ξ are uncorrelated, previous equation can be simplified to *covariance equation*:

 $\Sigma = \Lambda \Phi \Lambda' + \Theta$

- The left side of the equation contains the number of unique elements q(q+1)/2 in matrix Σ .
- The right side contains qs + s(s+1)/2 + q(q+1)/2unknown parameters from the matrices Λ , Φ , and Θ .
- Unknown parameters have been tied to the population variances and covariances among the observed variables which can be directly estimated with sample data.

(14)

v2.2

Identification is a theoretical property of a model, which depends neither on data or estimation.

 When our model is identified we obtain unique estimates of the parameters.

* Attempts to estimate models that are not identified result in arbitrary estimates of the parameters." (Long, 1983, p. 35.)

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v2.2

♦ A model is identified if it is possible to solve the covariance equation $\Sigma = \Lambda \Phi \Lambda' + \Theta$ for the parameters in Λ, Φ and Θ.

Estimation assumes that model is identified.

- There are three conditions for identification:
 - necessary conditions, which are essential but not sufficient,

 sufficient conditions, which if met imply that model is identified but if not met do not imply opposite (unidentified),

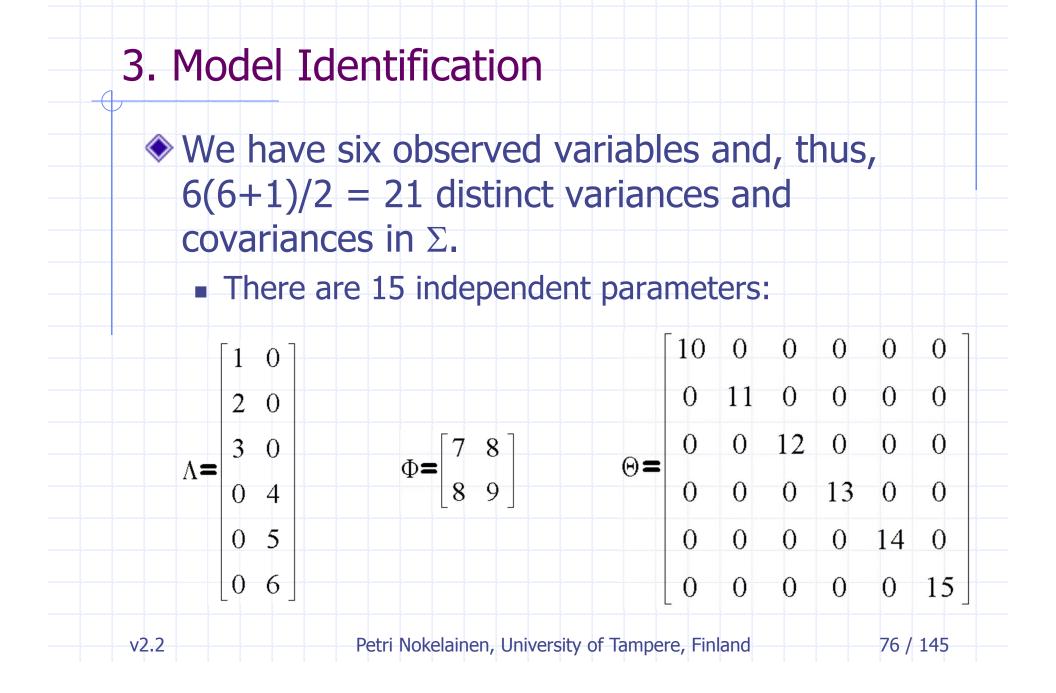
necessary and sufficient conditions.

v2.2

Necessary condition is simple to test since it relates the number of independent covariance equations to the number of independent parameters.

 Covariance equation (14) contains q(q+1)/2 independent equations and qs + s(s+1)/2 + q(q+1)/2 possible independent parameters in Λ, Φ and Θ.

 Number of independent, unconstrained parameters of the model must be less than or equal to q(q+1)/2.



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Since the number of independent parameters is smaller than the independent covariance equations (15<21), the necessary condition for identification is satisfied.

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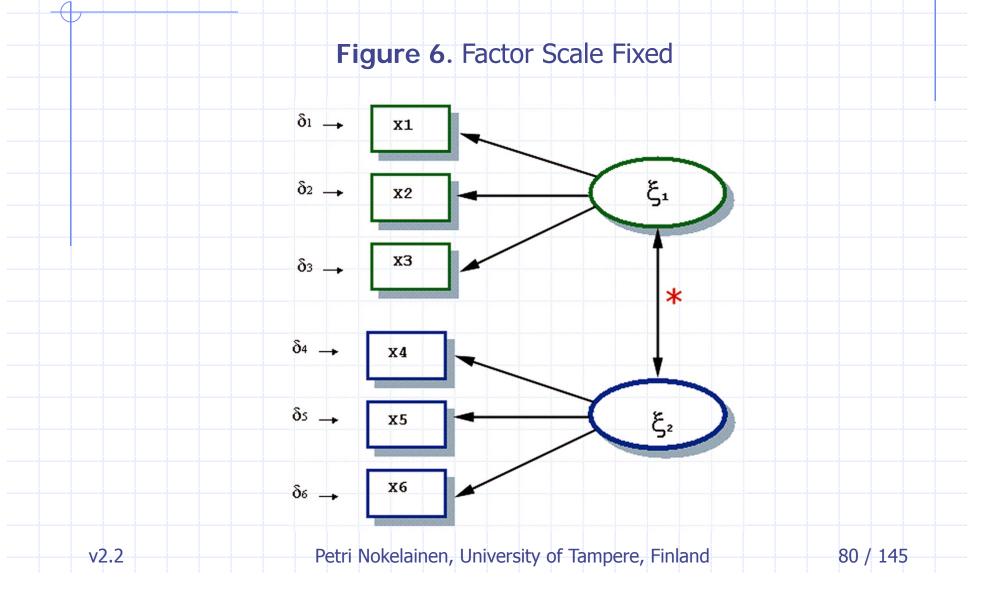
The most effective way to demonstrate that a model is identified is to show that each of the parameters can be solved in terms of the population variances and covariances of the observed variables.

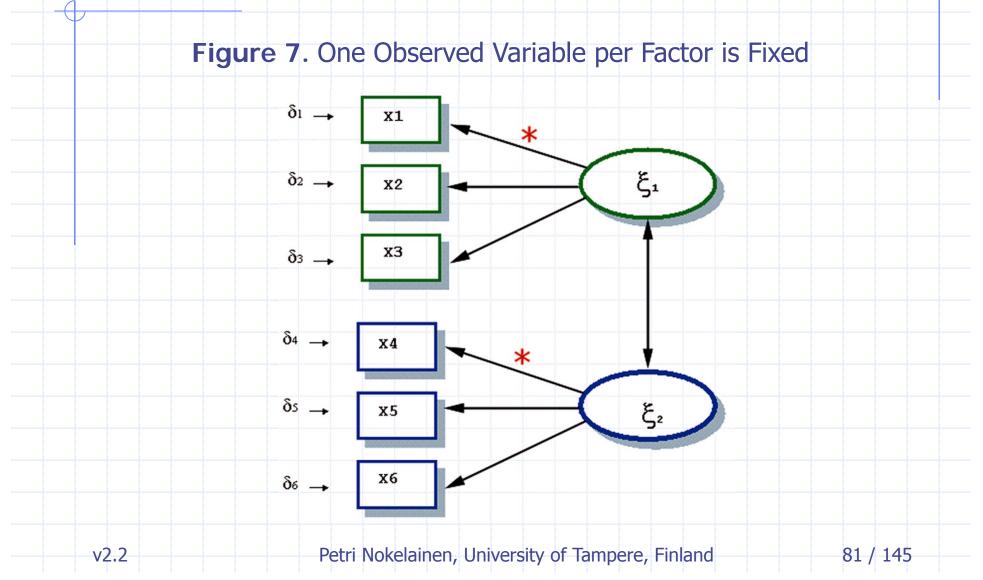
 Solving covariance equations is time-consuming and there are other 'recipe-like' solutions.

v2.2

We gain constantly an identified model if

 each observed variable in the model measures only one latent factor and
 factor scale is fixed (Figure 6) or one observed variable per factor is fixed (Figure 7). (Jöreskog et al., 1979, pp. 196-197; 1984.)





4. Model Estimation

v2.2

When identification is approved, estimation can proceed.

 If the observed variables are normal and linear and there are more than 100 observations (319 in our example), Maximum Likelihood estimation is applicable.

4. Model Estimation

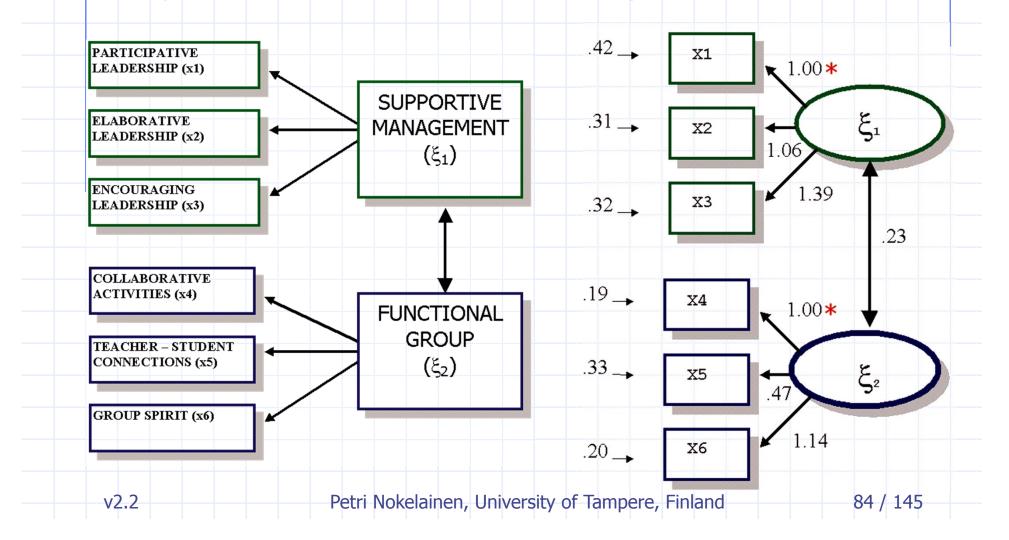
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Figure 8. LISREL 8 Input File NONE - HAMKK part 01 - LISREL - pn1999 OBSERVED VARIABLES x1 - x6 COVARIANCE MATRIX FROM FILE ha_01_x6.cov SAMPLE SIZE 319 LATENT VARIABLES SUP FUN RELATIONSHIPS COM = STI $x1 = 1 \times SUP$ x2 x3 = SUP $x4 = 1 \pm FUN$ x5 x6 = FUNLISREL OUTPUT ALL PATH DIAGRAM END OF PROBLEM

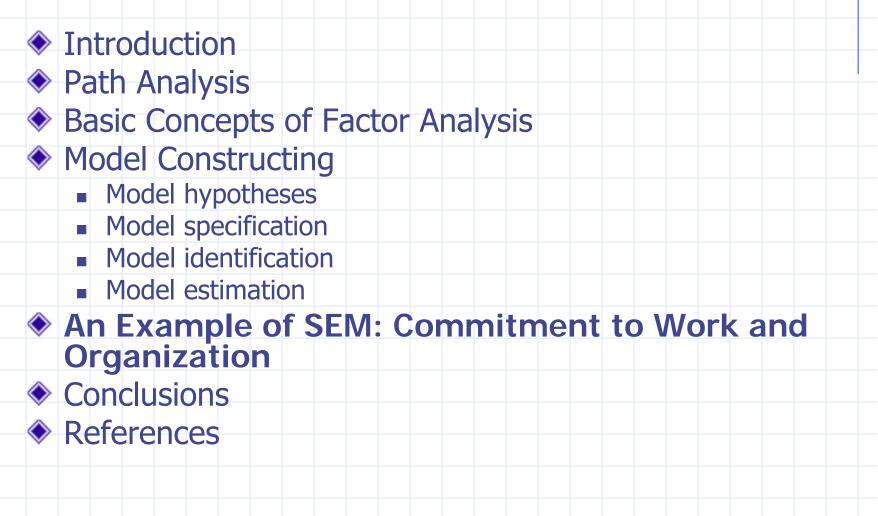
4. Model Estimation

Figure 4. Hypothesized Model

Figure 9. Parameter Estimates



Contents



Background

v2.2

- In 1998 RCVE undertook a growth-oriented atmosphere study in a Finnish polytechnic institute for higher education (later referred as 'organization').
- The organization is a training and development centre in the field of vocational education.

Background

v2.2

- In addition to teacher education, this organization promotes vocational education in Finland through developing vocational institutions and by offering their personnel a variety of training programmes which are tailored to their individual needs.
- The objective of the study was to obtain information regarding the current attitudes of teachers of the organization to their commitment to working environment (e.g., O'Neill et al., 1998).

 Table 6. Dimensions of the Commitment to Work and Organization Model

$DV (Eta_1 \eta_1)$	Commitment to Work and Organization	СОМ	Commitment to work and organization	СО
$IV_1 (Xi_1 \xi_1)$	Supportive Management	SUP	Participative Leadership	PAR
			Elaborative Leadership	ELA
			Encouraging Leadership	ENC
$IV_2 (Xi_2 \xi_2)$	Functional Group	FUN	Collaborative Activities	COL
			Teacher – Student Connections	CON
			Group Spirit	SPI
IV ₃ (Xi ₃ ξ ₃)	Stimulating Job	STI	Inciting Values	INC
			Job Value	VAL
			Influence on Job	INF

Sample

v2.2

- A drop-off and mail-back methodology was used with a paper and pencil test.
- Total of 319 questionnaires out of 500 (63.8%) was returned.
- The sample contained 145 male (46%) and 147 female (46%) participants (n = 27, 8% missing data).
- Participants most common age category was 40-49 years (n = 120, 37%).
- Participants were asked to report their opinions on a 'Likert scale' from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

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All the statements were in positive wording.

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Model hypotheses

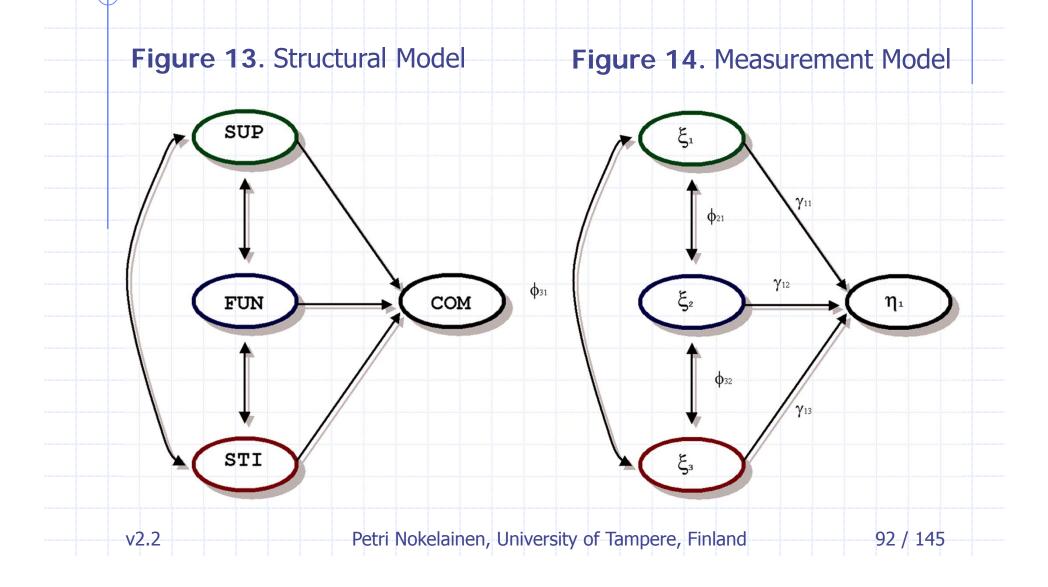
v2.2

- The following hypotheses were formulated:
 - Hypothesis 1. Supportive management (SUP), functional group (FUN) and stimulating job (STI) will be positively associated with commitment towards work and organization (COM).
 - Hypothesis 2. Significant covariance exists between the supportive (SUP), functional (FUN) and stimulating (STI) factors.

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Model Specification

- The hypothesized model includes both
 - the structural model presenting the theoretical relationships among a set of latent variables, and
 - the *measurement model* presenting the latent variables as a linear combinations of the observed indicator variables.
- The structural model (Figure 13) and measurement model (Figure 14) are built on the basis of the two hypotheses:



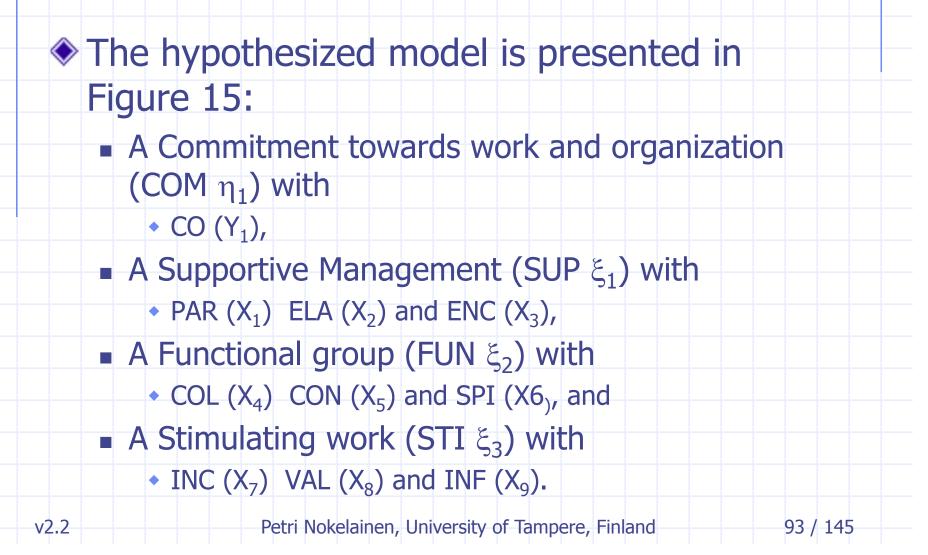


Figure 15. Hypothesized Structural Model

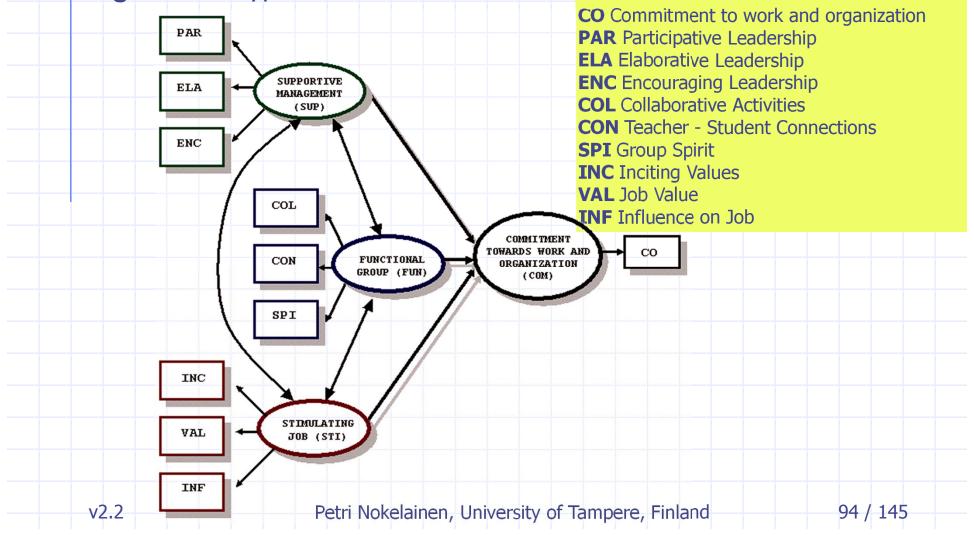
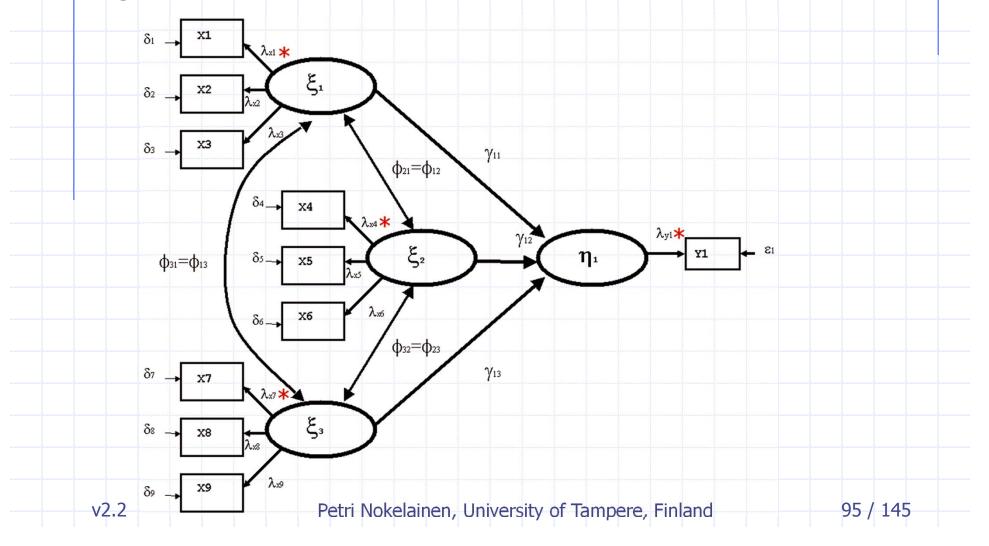
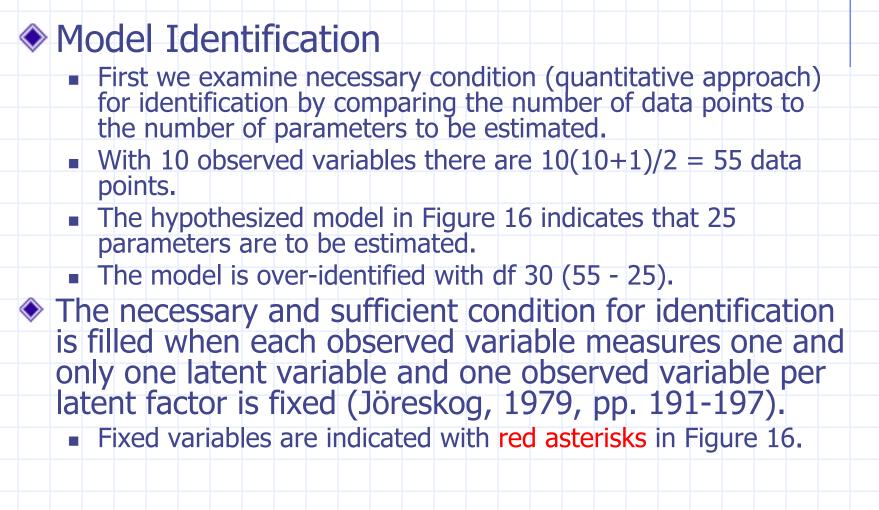


Figure 16. Hypothesized Measurement Model





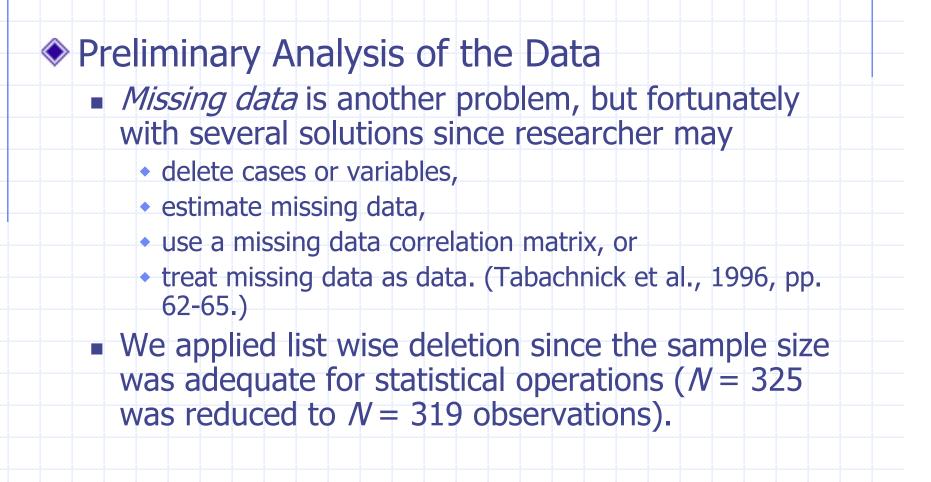
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v2.2

Preliminary Analysis of the Data

v2.2

- Sample size should be at least 100 units, preferably more than 200.
- This demand is due to the fact that parameter estimates (ML) and chi-square tests of fit are sensitive to sample size.
- One should notice that with smaller sample sizes the generalized least-squares method (GLS) is still applicable.
- Our data has 319 observations, so we may continue with standard settings.



Preliminary Analysis of the Data Outliers are cases with out-of-range values due to incorrect data entry (researcher's mistake or misunderstanding) false answer (respondent's mistake or misunderstanding), failure to specify missing value codes in a statistical software (researcher's mistake). One can detect the most obvious univariate outliers by observing min./max. values of summary statistics (Table 7).

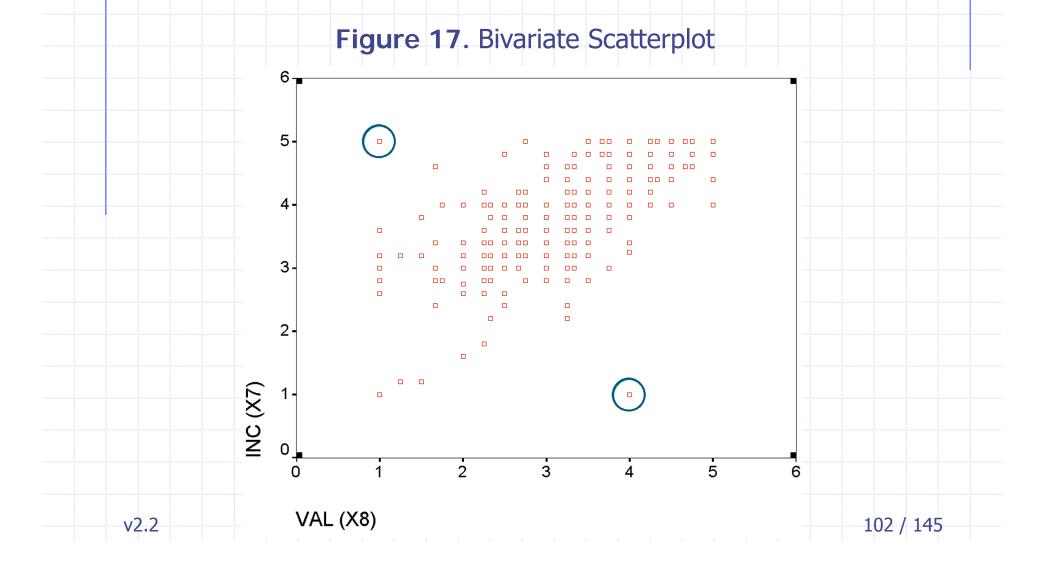
Table 7. Univariate Summary Statistics for Continuous Variables

VARIA	BLE	MEAN	ST. DEV.	SKEWNESS	KURTOSIS	MIN.	FREQ.	MAX.	FREQ.
СО	Y1	3.693	.770	353	263	1.250	1	5.000	18
PAR	X1	3.485	.856	499	.188	1.000	5	5.000	14
ELA	X2	3.184	.817	213	.092	1.000	5	5.000	9
ENC	X3	3.284	.968	224	299	1.000	8	5.000	24
COL	X4	3.426	.678	.064	.021	1.000	1	5.000	4
CON	X5	3.487	.622	.312	.121	1.000	1	5.000	9
SPI	X6	3.280	.743	259	.546	1.000	5	5.000	7
INC	X7	3.827	.775	651	.725	1.000	2	5.000	27
VAL	X8	3.223	.866	247	105	1.000	7	5.000	9
INF	X9	3.633	.848	521	.285	1.000	4	5.000	24

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Preliminary Analysis of the Data

- A more exact (but tedious!) way to identify possible *bivariate outliers* is to produce scatter plots.
 - Figure 17 is produced with SPSS (Graphs Interactive Dot).



Preliminary Analysis of the Data

v2.2

- Multivariate normality is the assumption that each variable and all linear combinations of the variables are normally distributed.
- When previously described assumption is met, the residuals are also normally distributed and independent.
- This is important when carrying out SEM analysis.
- Histograms provide a good graphical look into data (Table 8) to seek for skewness.

 Table 8. Histograms for Continuous Variables

FRQ	PER	LOW. CLASS LIMIT		FRQ	PER	LOW. CLASS LIMIT	
Y1				X5			
2	.6	1250	•	1	.3	1.000	
7	22	1.625		0	.0	1.400	
3	.9	2,000	•	1	.3	1.800	
26	82	2375		8	25	2.200	
38	11.9	2.750		132	41.4	2.600	
43	13.5	3.125		21	6.6	3.000	
65	20.4	3 <i>5</i> 00		55	17.2	3.400	
64	20.1	3.875		52	16.3	3,800	
37	11.6	4.250		36	11.3	4 200	
34	10.7	4.625		13	4.1	4.600	•••
X1				X6			
7	22	1,000		5	1.6	1.000	•
7	22	1.400	"	5	1.6	1.400	•
11	3.4	1,800		12	3.8	1.800	
17	53	2.200		29	9.1	2,200	
9	2.8	2,600	•••	101	31.7	2.600	••••••
91	28.5	3,000		25	78	3,000	
50	15.7	3.400		72	22.6	3.400	
54	16.9	3,800		35	11.0	3,800	
44	13.8	4.200		26	82	4.200	
29	9.1	4,600		9	2.8	4,600	

Preliminary Analysis of the Data

- By examining the Table 9 we notice that distribution of variables X₁ and X₉ is negatively skewed.
- Furthermore, observing skewness values (Table 9) we see that bias is statistically significant ($X_1 = -$ 2.610, p = .005; $X_9 = -2.657$, p=.004 and $X_7 = -$ 2.900, p = .002).

Table 9. Test of Univariate Normality for Continuous Variables

		SKEWNESS		KUR	TOSIS	SKEWNESS AND KURTOSIS		
VARIABLE		Z-SCORE	P-VALUE	Z-SCORE	P-VALUE	CHI-SQUARE	P-VALUE	
CO	Y1	-2.237	.013	926	.177	5.860	.053	
PAR	X1	-2.610	.005	.840	.200	7.517	.023	
ELA	X2	-1.712	.043	.525	.300	3.205	.201	
ENC	X3	-1.761	.039	-1.105	.135	4.322	.115	
COL	X4	.698	.242	.273	.393	.562	.755	
CON	X5	2.103	.018	.624	.266	4.814	.090	
SPI	X6	-1.909	.028	1.833	.033	7.004	.030	
INC	X7	-2.900	.002	2.244	.012	13.444	.001	
VAL	X8	-1.862	.031	215	.415	3.513	.173	
INF	X9	-2.657	.004	1.138	.128	8.352	.015	

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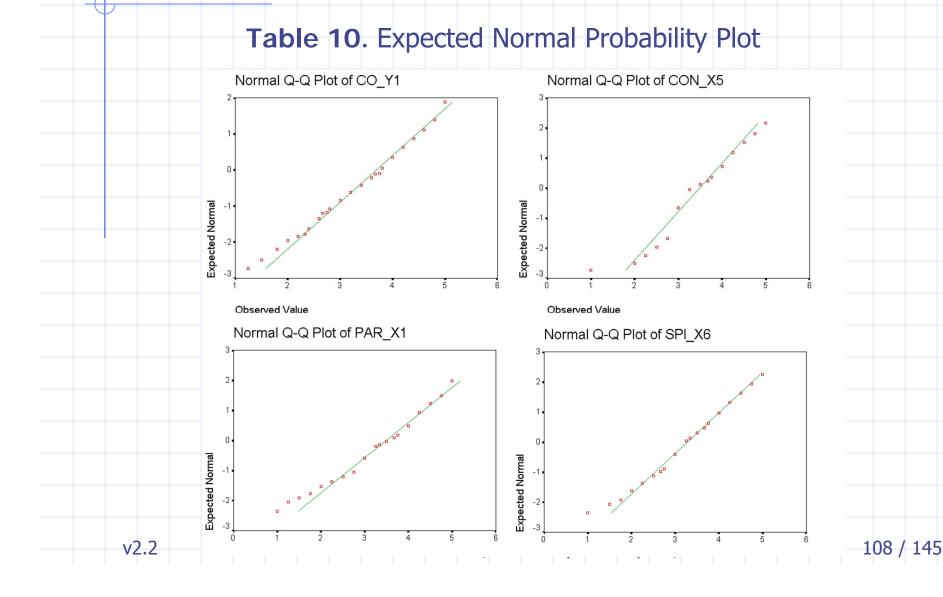
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Preliminary Analysis of the Data

v2.2

- In large samples (>200), significance level (alpha) is not as important as its actual size and the visual appearance of the distribution (Table 10).
- Perhaps the most essential thing in this case is that now we *know* the bias and instead of excluding those variables immediately we can monitor them more accurately.
- Table 10 is produced with SPSS (Analyze Descriptive Statistics – Q-Q Plots).

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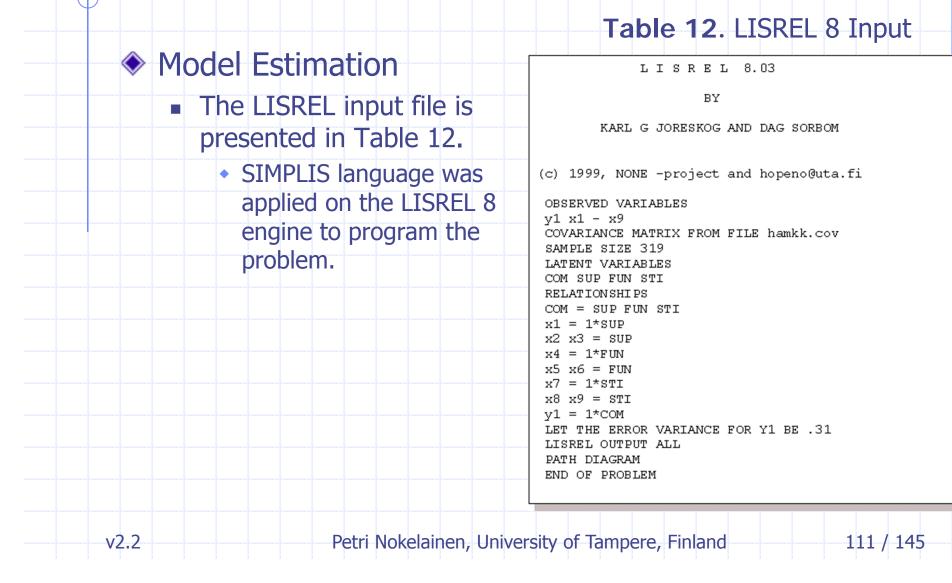
	exar (Tab	final p nine th ole 11) PSS: An	ne <i>cov</i>	variand	<i>ce</i> (or	correla	ation)	matrix	
	ומ	roduct d	devianc	es and	covaria	nces).			
				1. Cova	nance	Matrix			
.593									
.205	.734								
.320	.343	.668							
.324	.438	.467	.938						
.222	.220	.234	.306	.459					
.098	.104	.037	.165	.182	.387				
.262	.275	.307	.391	.308	.114	.552			
.350	.170	.262	.381	.239	.213	.259	.601		
.358	.264	.327	.505	.333	.230	.361	.421	.750	
.337	.275	.338	.443	.298	.182	.345	.434	.496	.719

Model Estimation

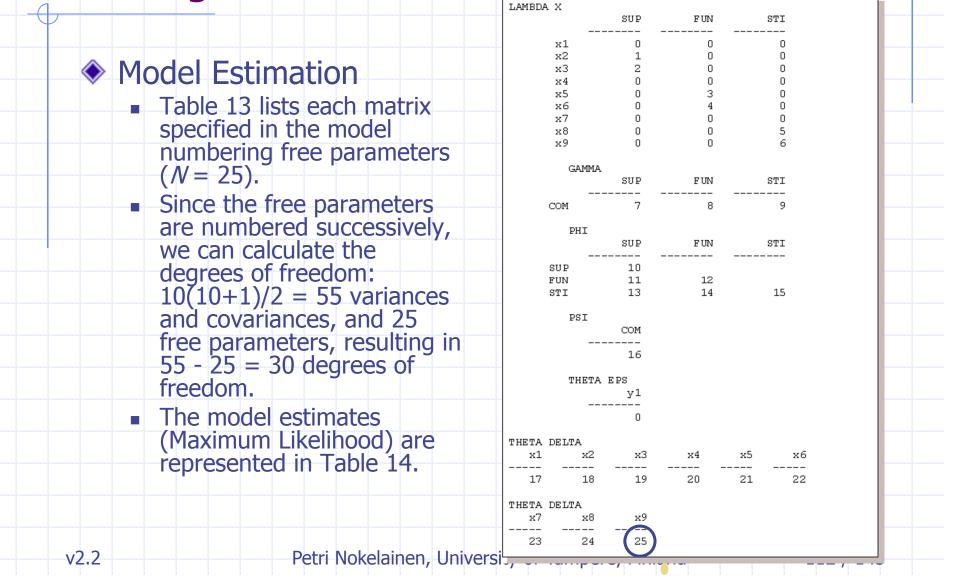
v2.2

 The model is estimated here by using LISREL 8 to demonstrate textual programming, in the computer exercises, we use AMOS 5 to demonstrate graphical programming.

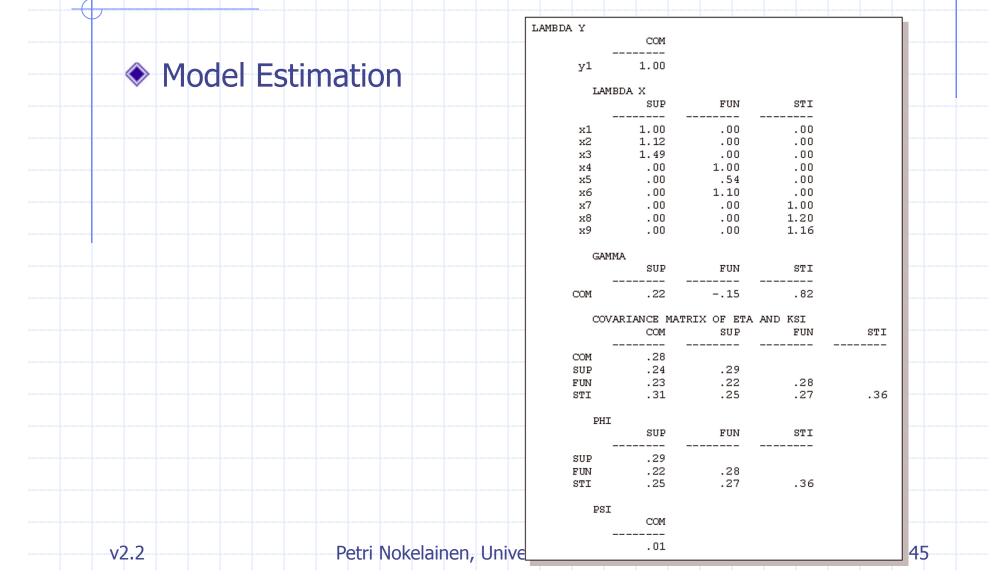
Naturally, both programs lead to similar results.



An Example of SEM: Commitment to Work and Organization Table 13. Parameter Specifications



An Example of SEM: Commitment to Work and Organization Table 14. Model Estimates



Model Estimation

v2.2

- Table 15 contains measures of fit of the model.
 - The chi-square (χ^2) tests the hypothesis that the factor model is adequate for the data.
 - Non-significant χ^2 is desired which is true in this case (p > .05) as it implies that the model and the data are *not* statistically significantly different.
 - Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) is good for the model with the value of .92 (should be >.90).
 - However, the *adjusted* GFI goes below the .90 level indicating the model is not perfect.
 - The value of Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR) should be as small as possible, the value of .03 indicates good-fitting model.



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 Table 15. Goodness of Fit Statistics

CHI-SQUARE WITH 30 DEGREES OF FREEDOM = 43.31 (P = 0.055) GOODNESS OF FIT INDEX = 0.92 ADJUSTED GOODNESS OF FIT INDEX = 0.854 ROOT MEAN SQUARE RESIDUAL = 0.0299 CROSS-VALIDATION INDEX = 87.653

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Model Estimation

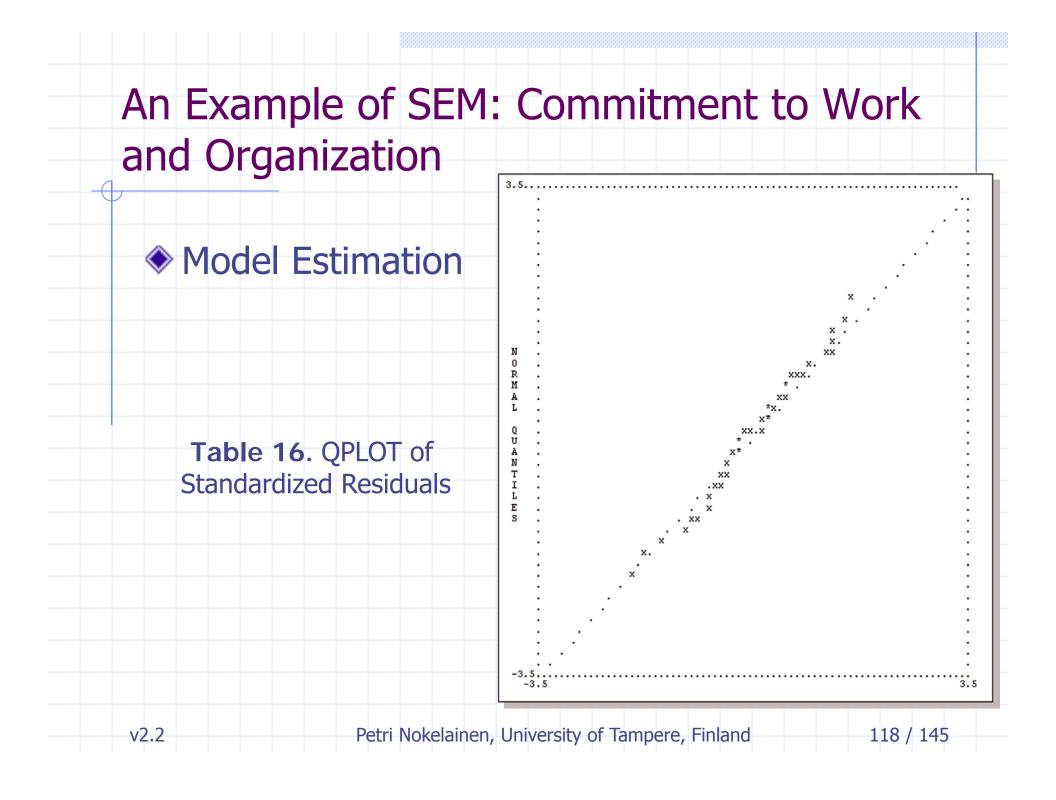
v2.2

- Standardized residuals are residuals divided by their standard errors (Jöreskog, 1989, p. 103).
- All residuals have moderate values (min. -2.81, max. 2.28), which means that the model estimates adequately relationships between variables.
- QPLOT of standardized residuals is presented in Table 16 where a x represents a single point, and an * multiple points.

Model Estimation

v2.2

- The plot provides visual way of examining residuals; steeper plot (than diagonal line) means good fit and shallower means opposite.
- If residuals are normally distributed the x's are around the diagonal.
- Non-linearities are indicators of specification errors in the model or of unnormal distributions.
 - We can see from the Table 16 that plotted points follow the diagonal and there are neither outliers nor nonlinearity.



Model Estimation

v2.2

 The standard errors show how accurately the values of the free parameters have been estimated (Jöreskog, 1989, p. 105) in the model.

 Standard errors should be small, as seen in Table 17 (min. .05, max. .35).

An Example of SEM: Commitment to Work and Organization LAMBDA X SUP FUN STI .00 .00 .00 х1 .28 x2 .00 .00 xЗ .35 .00 .00 Model Estimation x4 .00 .00 .00 x5 .00 .18 .00 .00 .21 .00 x6 .00 .00 .00 x7 x8.00 .00 .20 x9 .00 .00 .19 GAMMA SUP FUN STI COM .40 .56 . 47 PHI Table 17. Standard Errors SUP FUN STI .13 SUP FUN .08 .09 .09 .08 .12 STI PSI COM ____ .07 THETA DELTA x2 xЗ x1 x4x5 x6 ____ .08 .10 .10 .05 .06 .06 THETA DELTA x7 x8 x9 ____ .06 .07 .06 Petri Nokelainen, Un v2.2

Model Estimation

- A T-value is produced for each free parameter in the model by dividing its parameter estimate by its standard error.
 - T-values between -1.96 and 1.96 are not statistically significant.
- Table 18 proves our second hypothesis about significant covariances between latent Xi variables (IV's in the model) since T-values indicate that the covariances are significantly different from zero.

THE

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Model Estimation

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IBDA	λX									
		-		SUP		E1	UN		STI	
	x			.00			00		.00	
	x2			1.03					.00	
	ХĴ			1.29					.00	
	X4			.00					.00	
	X			.00		3.			.00	
	X			.00		5.			.00	
	x			.00		•			.00	
	x8 x9			.00 .00		•			6.02	
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				SUP		E	UN		STI	
	CON	- ฯ		.54		:	 26		1.74	
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	SUI	- -	2	2.26						
	FUN			2.90		2.	97			
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		PSI								
				COM						
		_		.17						
	DEI	LTA								
x1		X2	2	x3		x4		x5		хб
	-				-					
35		3.82	2	2.89		3.44	4	4.70	З	.45
TA	DEI	LTA								
x7		x	3	x9						
	-									
03		3.50	5	3.68						

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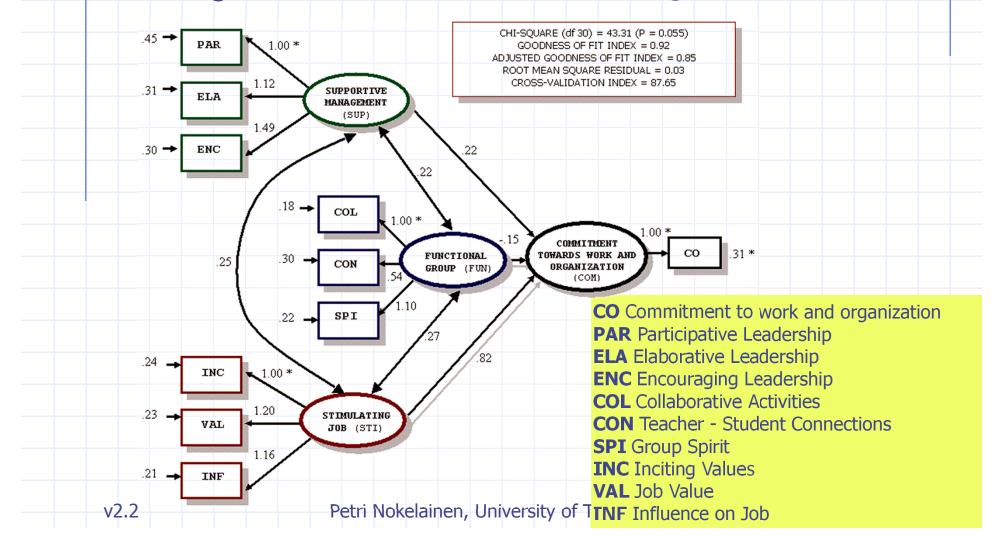
v2.2

Model Estimation

v2.2

- Figure 18 represents estimated "Commitment to Work and Organization" model.
 - Unstandardized coefficients are reported here.
 - Stimulating job increases commitment to work (.82) more than superior's encouragement (.22) or community spirit (-.15).

Figure 18. Commitment to Work and Organization Model

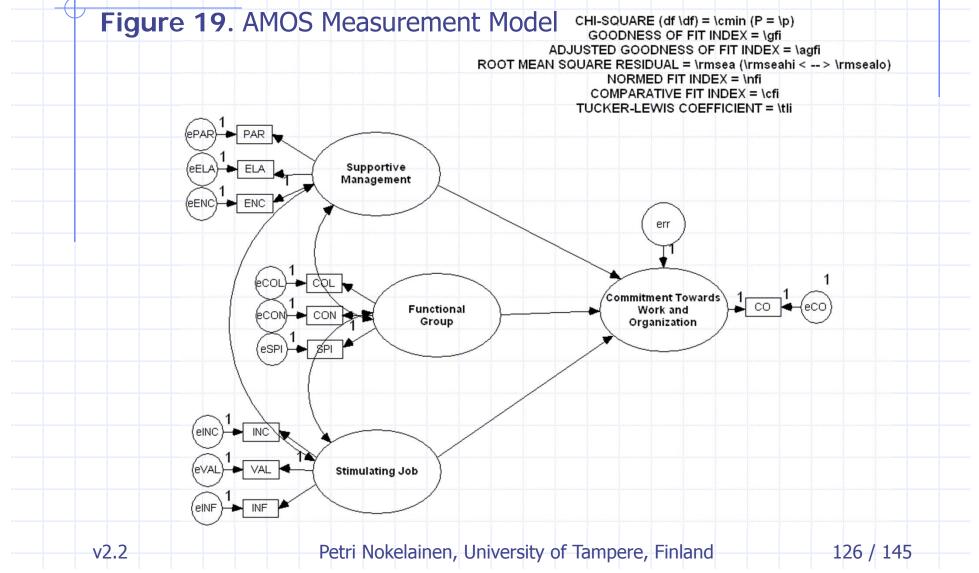


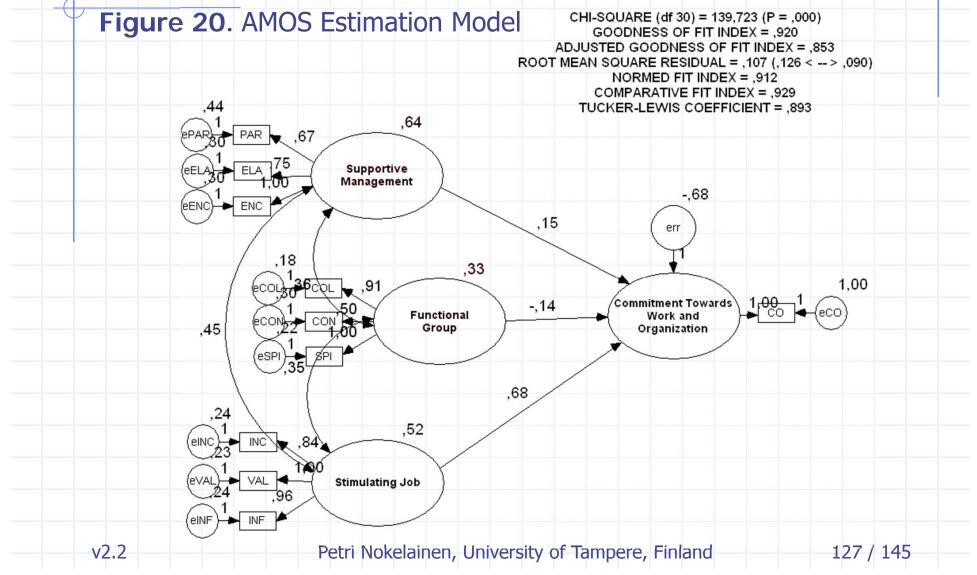
Model Estimation

v2.2

- Figures 19 and 20 represent the same model before and after AMOS 5 analysis.
 - AMOS uses SPSS data matrix as an input file.

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Model Estimation

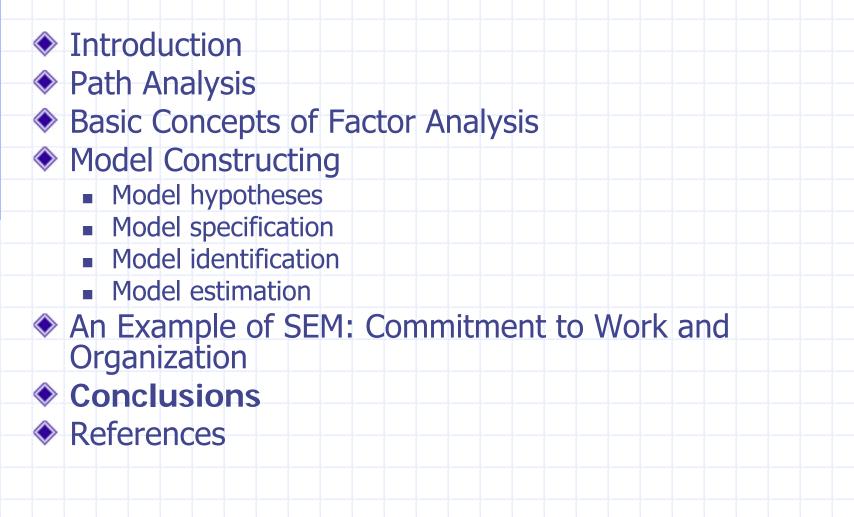
v2.2

Naturally, both LISREL and AMOS produce similar results:

- Unstandardized coefficients are reported here.
- Stimulating job increases in both models commitment to work (.82/.68) more than superior's encouragement (.22/.15) or community spirit (-.15/-.14).

Contents

v2.2



- SEM has proven to be a very versatile statistical toolbox for educational researchers when used to confirm theoretical structures.
- Perhaps the greatest strength of SEM is the requirement of a prior knowledge of the phenomena under examination.
 - In practice, this means that the researcher is testing a theory which is based on an exact and explicit plan or design.
 - One may also notice that relationships among factors examined are free of measurement error because it has been estimated and removed, leaving only common variance.
 - Very complex and multidimensional structures can be measured with SEM; in that case SEM is the only *linear* analysis method that allows complete and simultaneous tests of all relationships.

v2.2

Disadvantages of SEM are also simple to point out.

- Researcher must be very careful with the study design when using SEM for *exploratory* work.
- As mentioned earlier, the use of the term 'causal modeling' referring to SEM is misleading because there is nothing causal, in the sense of inferring causality, about the use of SEM.
- SEM's ability to analyze more complex relationships produces more complex models: Statistical language has turned into jargon due to vast supply of analytic software (LISREL, EQS, AMOS).
 - When analyzing scientific reports methodologically based on SEM, usually a LISREL model, one notices that they lack far too often decent identification inspection which is a prerequisite to parameter estimation.

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 Overgeneralization is always a problem – but specifically with SEM one must pay extra attention when interpreting causal relationships since *multivariate normality* of the data is assumed.

 This is a severe limitation of linear analysis in general because the reality is seldom linear.

 We must also point out that SEM is based on covariances that are not stable when estimated from small (<200 observation) samples.

On the other hand, too large (>200 observations) sample size is also a reported problem (e.g., Bentler et al., 1983) of the significance of χ².

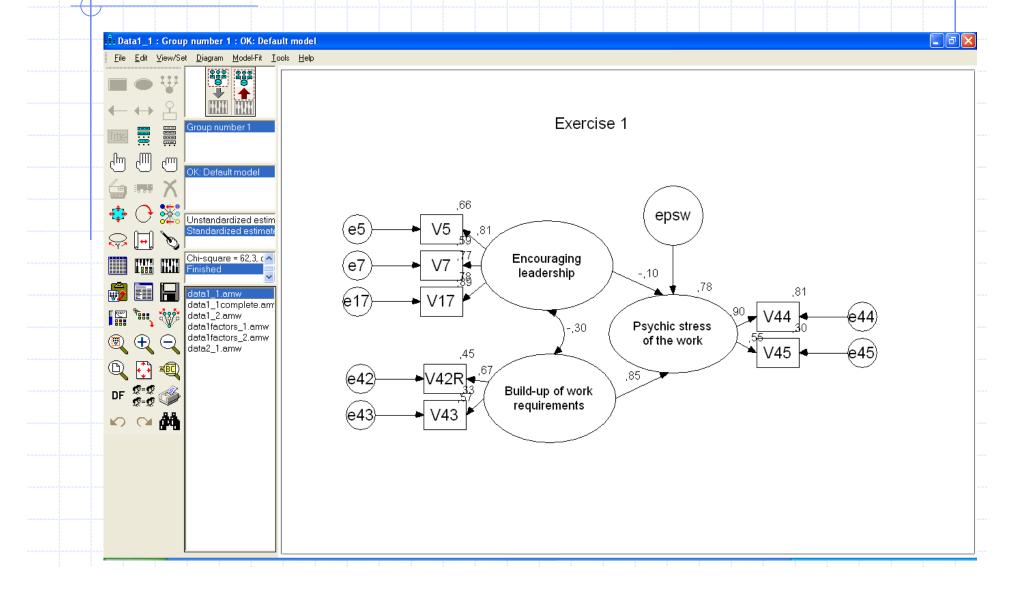
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v2.2

- SEM programs allow calculation of modification indices which help researcher to fit the model to the data.
 - Added or removed dependencies must be based on theory!
 - Overfitting model to the data reduces generalizability!
- Following slides demonstrate the effect of sample size and model modification (according to modification indices).
 - Example 2 in the course exercise booklet.

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Data1_1.amw (Exercise 2)



Data1_1.amw (Exercise 2)

v2.2

♦ Large sample (n=447) produces biased χ^2/df and *p* values (both too large).

Model fit indices are satisfactory at best (RMSEA > .10, TLI <.90).</p>

 As there are missing values in the data, calculation of modification indices is not allowed (in AMOS).

CMIN							
Model	NPAR	CM	N DF		PC	MIN/DF	
Default model	24	62,2:	50 11	,00	0	5,659	
Saturated model	35	,0	00 00				
Independence model	7	1129,1	89 28	,00	0	40,328	
Baseline Comparisons							
Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CI	I	
Default model	,945	,860	,954	,882	,95	3	
Saturated model	1,000		1,000		1,00	0	
Independence model	,000	,000	,000,	,000	,00	0	
RMSEA							
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCL	OSE		
Default model	,102	,078	,128		,000,		
Independence model	,297	,282	,312		,000,		

Smaller randomized sample with no missing values, modified model

- Replace missing values with series mean:
 - SPSS: Transform Replace missing values Series mean.
- Produce a smaller (n=108) randomized subsample:
 - SPSS: Data Select cases Random sample of cases
 Approximately 20% of cases.

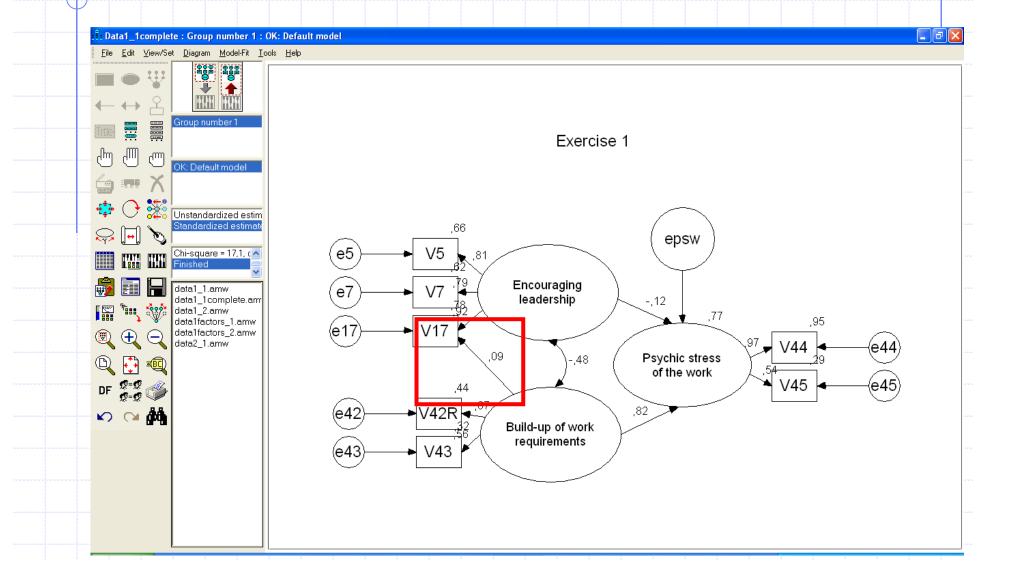
Produce modification indices analysis:

v2.2

AMOS: View/set – Analysis properties – Modification indices.

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data1_1.amw ⊯ Analysis Summary - Notes for Group ⊯ Variable Summary	3 7 0 •									
Parameter summary Assessment of normality		M.I. P	ar Change							
 Observations farthest from th ■ Sample Moments 	e45 <> Encouraging_leadership	21,150	251							
Notes for Model	e44 <> Encouraging leadership	5,575	,112							
	e42 <> Encouraging leadership	5,704	-,120							
 Modification Indices Minimization History 	e43 <> Encouraging leadership	8,949	.148							
Pairwise Parameter Comparis	e43 <> e45	9,722	- 144							
⊞ Model Fit Execution Time	e43 <> e44	5,604	,092							
Execution Line	e7 <> Build-up of work_requirements	7,317	-,084							
<	e7 <> e45	5,921	-,090							
	e7 <> e42	5,474	-,081							
Default model	e17 <> Build-up of work_requirements	5,458	,072							
	e17 <> e43	7,604	,093							
	Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model) M.I. Par Change Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default mo	odel)								
		M.I.	Par Change							
	V45 < Encouraging_leadership	17,248	-,203							
	V44 < Encouraging_leadership	4,583	,092							
	V42R < Encouraging_leadership	5,000	-,101							
	V43 < Encouraging_leadership	7,819	,124	A new path is added to						
	V7 < Build-up of work requirements	6.347	134							
	V17 < Build-up of work requirements	4,773	.116	the model.						

Modified model



Model Fit Summary

CMIN NEW MODEL

OLD MODEL

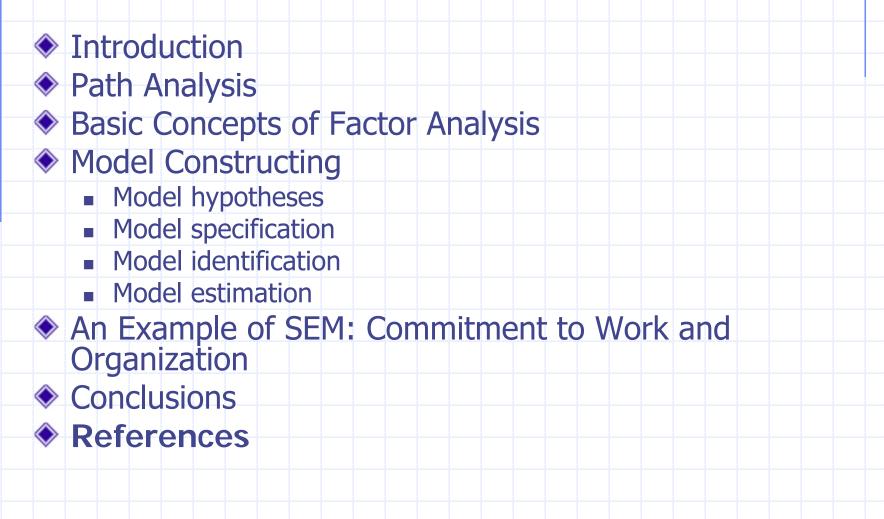
Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P C	MIN/DF	NPAR	CM	IIN D	F P	CMIN/	DF
Default model	25	17,148	10	,071	1,715	24	62,2	250 1	1 ,000	5,0	559
Saturated model	35	,000	0			35	,	000	0		
Independence model	14	301,823	21	,000,	14,373	7	1129,	189 2	,000	40,3	328
aseline Comparisons											
Model	NF1 Delta1		IF Delta2		CFI	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI	
Default model	,943	,881	,976	,947	,975	,945	,860	,954	,882	,953	
Saturated model	1,000)	1,000		1,000	1,000		1,000		1,000	
Independence model	,000	000, (,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	
MSEA											

RI	45	SE.	А

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE	RN	ISEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	,082	,000	,146	,193		,102	,078	,128	,000
Independence model	,354	,319	,389	,000	'	,297	,282	,312	,000
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