STATA STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING REFERENCE MANUAL RELEASE 13



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Cross-referencing the documentation

When reading this manual, you will find references to other Stata manuals. For example,

- [U] 26 Overview of Stata estimation commands
- [XT] xtabond
- [D] reshape

The first example is a reference to chapter 26, Overview of Stata estimation commands, in the User's Guide; the second is a reference to the xtabond entry in the Longitudinal-Data/Panel-Data Reference Manual; and the third is a reference to the reshape entry in the Data Management Reference Manual.

All the manuals in the Stata Documentation have a shorthand notation:

[GSM]	Getting Started with Stata for Mac
[GSU]	Getting Started with Stata for Unix
[GSW]	Getting Started with Stata for Windows
[U]	Stata User's Guide
[R]	Stata Base Reference Manual
[D]	Stata Data Management Reference Manual
[G]	Stata Graphics Reference Manual
[XT]	Stata Longitudinal-Data/Panel-Data Reference Manual
[ME]	Stata Multilevel Mixed-Effects Reference Manual
[MI]	Stata Multiple-Imputation Reference Manual
[MV]	Stata Multivariate Statistics Reference Manual
[PSS]	Stata Power and Sample-Size Reference Manual
[P]	Stata Programming Reference Manual
[SEM]	Stata Structural Equation Modeling Reference Manual
[SVY]	Stata Survey Data Reference Manual
[ST]	Stata Survival Analysis and Epidemiological Tables Reference Manual
[TS]	Stata Time-Series Reference Manual
[TE]	Stata Treatment-Effects Reference Manual: Potential Outcomes/Counterfactual Outcomes
[I]	Stata Glossary and Index
[M]	Mata Reference Manual

Acknowledgments

sem and gsem were developed by StataCorp.

Neither command would exist without the help of two people outside of StataCorp. We must thank these two people profusely. They are

Jeroen Weesie, Department of Sociology at Utrecht University, The Netherlands Sophia Rabe-Hesketh, University of California, Berkeley

Jeroen Weesie is responsible for the existence of the SEM project at StataCorp. While spending his sabbatical with us, Jeroen expressed—repeatedly—the importance of SEM, and that enthusiasm for SEM was disregarded—repeatedly. Not until after his sabbatical did StataCorp see the light. At that point, we had him back, and back, and back, so that he could inspire us, guide us, tell us what we had right, and, often, tell us what we had wrong.

Jeroen helped us with the math, the syntax, and system design, and, when we were too thick-headed, he even wrote code. By the date of first shipment, all code had been rewritten by us, but design and syntax for SEM still now and forever will show Jeroen's influence.

Thank you, Jeroen Weesie, for teaching us SEM.

Sophia Rabe-Hesketh contributed a bit later, after the second project, GSEM, was well underway. GSEM stands for generalized SEM. Sophia is the coauthor of gllamm and knows as much about multilevel and structural equation modeling as anybody, and probably more. She helped us a lot through her prolific published works; we did have her visit a few times, though, mainly because we knew that features in GSEM would overlap with features in GLLAMM, and we wanted to straighten out any difficulties that competing features might cause.

About the competing features, Sophia cared nothing. About the GSEM project, she was excited. About syntax and computational methods—well, she straightened us out the first day, even on things we thought we had settled. Today, enough of the underlying workings of GSEM are based on Sophia's and her coauthors' publications that anyone who uses gsem should cite Rabe-Hesketh, Skrondal, and Pickles (2004).

We are indebted to the works of Sophia Rabe-Hesketh, Anders Skrondal of the University of Oslo and the Norwegian Institute of Public Health, and Andrew Pickles of the University of Manchester.

Reference

Rabe-Hesketh, S., A. Skrondal, and A. Pickles. 2004. Generalized multilevel structural equation modeling. Psychometrika 69: 167–190.

Also see

[R] **gllamm** — Generalized linear and latent mixed models

intro 1 — Introduction

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

SEM stands for structural equation model. Structural equation modeling is

- 1. A notation for specifying SEMs.
- 2. A way of thinking about SEMs.
- 3. Methods for estimating the parameters of SEMs.

Stata's sem and gsem commands fit these models: sem fits standard linear SEMs, and gsem fits generalized SEMs.

In sem, responses are continuous and models are linear regression.

In gsem, responses are continuous or binary, ordinal, count, or multinomial. Models are linear regression, gamma regression, logit, probit, ordinal logit, ordinal probit, Poisson, negative binomial, multinomial logit, and more.

sem fits models to single-level data.

gsem fits models to single-level or multilevel data. Latent variables can be included at any level. gsem can fit models with mixed effects, including random effects such as unobserved effects within patient, nested effects such as unobserved effects within patient within doctor, and crossed effects such as unobserved effects within occupation and country.

Meanwhile, sem provides features not provided by gsem: standard errors adjusted for survey sampling strategies and weights; easy testing for whether groups such as males and females differ; estimation using observations with missing values under the assumption of joint normality; goodness-of-fit statistics, modification indices, tests of indirect effects, and more; and models fit using summary-statistic data.

There is obviously overlap between the capabilities of sem and gsem. In such cases, results will be nearly equal. Results should be exactly equal because both commands are producing estimates of the same mathematical model, but sem and gsem use different numerical machinery. sem's machinery requires less calculation and fewer approximations and so is faster and slightly more accurate.

Remarks and examples

Structural equation modeling encompasses a broad array of models from linear regression to measurement models to simultaneous equations, including along the way confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), correlated uniqueness models, latent growth models, multiple indicators and multiple causes (MIMIC) models, and item-response theory (IRT) models.

Structural equation modeling is not just an estimation method for a particular model in the way that Stata's regress and probit commands are, or even in the way that stcox and mixed are. Structural equation modeling is a way of thinking, a way of writing, and a way of estimating.

If you read the introductory manual pages in the front of this manual—[SEM] intro 2, [SEM] intro 3, and so on—we will do our best to familiarize you with SEM and our implementation of it.

Beginning with [SEM] intro 2, entitled Learning the language: Path diagrams and command language, you will learn that

- 1. A particular SEM is usually described using a path diagram.
- 2. The sem and gsem commands allow you to use path diagrams to input models. In fact, the sem and gsem share the same GUI, called the SEM Builder.
- 3. sem and gsem alternatively allow you to use a command language to input models. The command language is similar to the path diagrams.

[SEM] intro 3, entitled Learning the language: Factor-variable notation (gsem only), amounts to a continuation of [SEM] intro 2.

4. We teach you Stata's factor-variable notation, a wonderfully convenient shorthand for including categorical variables in models.

In [SEM] intro 4, entitled Substantive concepts, you will learn that

- 5. sem provides four different estimation methods; you need to specify the method appropriate for the assumptions you are willing to make. For gsem, there are two estimation methods.
- 6. There are four types of variables in SEMs: A variable is observed or latent, and simultaneously it is endogenous or exogenous. To this, sem and gsem add another type of variable, the error variable. Error variables are latent exogenous variables with a fixed-unit path coefficient, and they are associated with a single endogenous variable. Error variables are denoted with an e. prefix, so if y1 is an endogenous variable, then e.y1 is the associated error variable.
- 7. It is easy to specify path constraints in SEMs—you just draw them, or omit drawing them, on the diagram. It is similarly easy with the SEM Builder as well as with sem's and gsem's command language.
- 8. Determining whether an SEM is identified can be difficult. We show you how to let the software check for you.
- 9. Identification also includes normalization constraints. sem and gsem apply normalization constraints automatically, but you can control that if you wish. Sometimes you might even need to control it.

In [SEM] intro 5, entitled Tour of models,

10. We take you on a whirlwind tour of some of the models that sem and gsem can fit. This is a fun and useful section because we give you an overview without getting lost in the details.

Then in [SEM] intro 6, entitled Comparing groups (sem only),

11. We show you a highlight of sem: its ability to take an SEM and data consisting of groups sexes, age categories, and the like—and fit the model in an interacted way that makes it easy for you to test whether and how the groups differ.

In [SEM] intro 7, entitled Postestimation tests and predictions,

- 12. We show you how to redisplay results (sem and gsem), how to obtain exponentiated coefficients (gsem only), and how to obtain standardized results (sem only).
- 13. We show you how to obtain goodness-of-fit statistics (sem only).
- 14. We show you how to perform hypothesis tests, including tests for omitted paths, tests for relaxing constraints, and tests for model simplification.
- 15. We show you how to display other results, statistics, and tests.

- 16. We show you how to obtain predictions of observed response variables and predictions of latent variables. With gsem, you can obtain predicted means, probabilities, or counts that take into account the predictions of the latent variables, or you can set the latent variables to 0.
- 17. We show you how to access stored results.

In [SEM] intro 8, entitled Robust and clustered standard errors,

18. We mention that sem and gsem optionally provide robust standard errors and provide clustered standard errors, which relaxes the assumption of independence of observations (or subjects) to independence within clusters of observations (subjects).

In [SEM] intro 9, entitled Standard errors, the full story,

19. We provide lots of technical detail expanding on item 18.

In [SEM] intro 10, entitled Fitting models with survey data (sem only),

20. We explain how sem can be used with Stata's svy: prefix to obtain results adjusted for complex survey designs, including clustered sampling and stratification.

In [SEM] intro 11, entitled Fitting models with summary statistics data (sem only),

21. We show you how to use sem with summary statistics data such as the correlation or covariance matrix rather than the raw data. Many sources, especially textbooks, publish data in summary statistics form.

Finally, in [SEM] intro 12, entitled Convergence problems and how to solve them,

22. We regretfully inform you that some SEMs have difficulty converging. We figure 5% to 15% of complicated models will cause difficulty. We show you what to do and it is not difficult.

In the meantime,

- 23. There are many examples that we have collected for you in [SEM] example 1, [SEM] example 2, and so on. It is entertaining and informative simply to read the examples in order.
- 24. There is an alphabetical glossary in [SEM] Glossary, located at the end of the manual.

If you prefer, you can skip all this introductory material and go for the details. For the full experience, go directly to [SEM] **sem** and [SEM] **gsem**. You will have no idea what we are talking about—we promise.

The technical sections, in logical order, are

```
Estimation
    [SEM] sem
    [SEM] gsem
    [SEM] sem and gsem path notation
    [SEM] sem path notation extensions
    [SEM] gsem path notation extensions
    [SEM] Builder
    [SEM] Builder, generalized
    [SEM] sem model description options
    [SEM] gsem model description options
    [SEM] sem group options
    [SEM] sem ssd options
    [SEM] sem estimation options
    [SEM] gsem estimation options
    [SEM] sem reporting options
    [SEM] gsem reporting options
    [SEM] sem and gsem syntax options
    [SEM] sem option noxconditional
    [SEM] sem option select()
    [SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure()
    [SEM] sem option method()
    [SEM] sem and gsem option reliability()
    [SEM] sem and gsem option from()
    [SEM] sem and gsem option constraints()
    [SEM] gsem family-and-link options
    [SEM] ssd (sem only)
Postestimation, summary of
    [SEM] sem postestimation
    [SEM] gsem postestimation
Reporting results
    [R] estat
    [SEM] estat eform (gsem only)
    [SEM] estat teffects (sem only)
    [SEM] estat residuals (sem only)
    [SEM] estat framework (sem only)
Goodness-of-fit tests
    [SEM] estat gof (sem only)
    [SEM] estat eggof (sem only)
    [SEM] estat ggof (sem only)
    [R] estat
```

```
Hypotheses tests
    [SEM] estat mindices (sem only)
    [SEM] estat eqtest (sem only)
    [SEM] estat scoretests (sem only)
    [SEM] estat ginvariant (sem only)
    [SEM] estat stable (sem only)
    [SEM] test
    [SEM] Irtest
    [SEM] testnl
    [SEM] estat stdize (sem only)
Linear and nonlinear combinations of results
    [SEM] lincom
    [SEM] nlcom
Predicted values
    [SEM] predict after sem
    [SEM] predict after gsem
Methods and formulas
    [SEM] methods and formulas for sem
    [SEM] methods and formulas for gsem
```

Many of these sections are technical, but mostly in the computer sense of the word. We suggest that when you read the technical sections, you skip to *Remarks and examples*. If you read the introductory sections, you will already know how to use the commands, so there is little reason to confuse yourself with syntax diagrams that are more precise than they are enlightening. However, the syntax diagrams do serve as useful reminders.

Also see

```
    [SEM] intro 2 — Learning the language: Path diagrams and command language
    [SEM] example 1 — Single-factor measurement model
    [SEM] Acknowledgments
```

Title

intro 2 — Learning the language: Path diagrams and command language

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

Individual structural equation models are usually described using path diagrams. Path diagrams are described here.

Path diagrams can be used in sem's (gsem's) GUI, known as the SEM Builder or simply the Builder, as the input to describe the model to be fit. Path diagrams differ a little from author to author, and sem's and gsem's path diagrams differ a little, too. For instance, we omit drawing the variances and covariances between observed exogenous variables by default.

sem and gsem also provide a command-language interface. This interface is similar to path diagrams but is typable.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Using path diagrams to specify standard linear SEMs

Specifying correlation

Using the command language to specify standard linear SEMs

Specifying generalized SEMs: Family and link

Specifying generalized SEMs: Family and link, multinomial logistic regression Specifying generalized SEMs: Family and link, paths from response variables

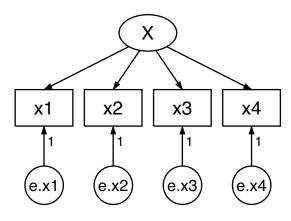
Specifying generalized SEMs: Multilevel mixed effects (2 levels) Specifying generalized SEMs: Multilevel mixed effects (3 levels) Specifying generalized SEMs: Multilevel mixed effects (4+ levels)

Specifying generalized SEMs: Multilevel mixed effects with random intercepts

Specifying generalized SEMs: Multilevel mixed effects with random slopes

Using path diagrams to specify standard linear SEMs

In structural equation modeling, models are often illustrated in a path diagram such as this one:



Ω

This diagram is composed of the following:

- 1. Boxes and circles with variable names written inside them.
 - a. Boxes contain variables that are observed in the data.
 - b. Circles contain variables that are unobserved, known as latent variables.
- 2. Arrows, called paths, that connect some of the boxes and circles.
 - a. When a path points from one variable to another, it means that the first variable affects the second.
 - b. More precisely, if $s \to d$, it means to add $\beta_k s$ to the linear equation for d. β_k is called the path coefficient.
 - c. Sometimes small numbers are written along the arrow connecting two variables. This means that β_k is constrained to be the value specified. (Some authors use the term "path coefficient" to mean standardized path coefficient. We do not.)
 - d. When no number is written along the arrow, the corresponding coefficient is to be estimated from the data. Sometimes symbols are written along the path arrow to emphasize this and sometimes not.
 - e. The same path diagram used to describe the model can be used to display the results of estimation. In that case, estimated coefficients appear along the paths.
- 3. There are other elements that may appear on the diagram to indicate variances and betweenvariable correlations. We will get to them later.

Thus the above figure corresponds to the equations

$$x_{1} = \alpha_{1} + \beta_{1}X + e.x_{1}$$

$$x_{2} = \alpha_{2} + \beta_{2}X + e.x_{2}$$

$$x_{3} = \alpha_{3} + \beta_{3}X + e.x_{3}$$

$$x_{4} = \alpha_{4} + \beta_{4}X + e.x_{4}$$

There's a third way of writing this model, namely,

$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(x4<-X)$

This is the way we would write the model if we wanted to use sem's or gsem's command syntax rather than drawing the model in the Builder. The full command we would type is

. sem
$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(x4<-X)$

We will get to that later.

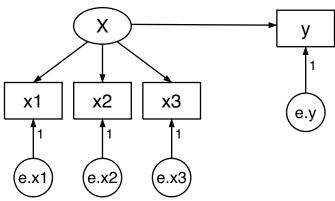
By the way, the above model is a linear single-level model. Linear single-level models can be fit by sem or by gsem. sem is the preferred way to fit linear single-level models because it has added features for these models that you might find useful later. Nonetheless, if you want to fit the model with gsem, you would type

. gsem
$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(x4<-X)$

Whether we use sem or gsem, we obtain the same results.

However we write this model, what is it? It is a measurement model, a term loaded with meaning for some researchers. X might be mathematical ability. x_1 , x_2 , x_3 , and x_4 might be scores from tests designed to measure mathematical ability. x_1 might be the score based on your answers to a series of questions after reading this section.

The model we have just drawn, or written in mathematical notation, or written in Stata command notation, can be interpreted in other ways, too. Look at this diagram:



Despite appearances, this diagram is identical to the previous diagram except that we have renamed x_4 to be y. The fact that we changed a name obviously does not matter substantively. The fact that we have rearranged the boxes in the diagram is irrelevant, too; paths connect the same variables in the same directions. The equations for the above diagrams are the same as the previous equations with the substitution of y for x_4 :

$$x_{1} = \alpha_{1} + X\beta_{1} + e.x_{1}$$

$$x_{2} = \alpha_{2} + X\beta_{2} + e.x_{2}$$

$$x_{3} = \alpha_{3} + X\beta_{3} + e.x_{3}$$

$$y = \alpha_{4} + X\beta_{4} + e.y$$

The Stata command notation changes similarly:

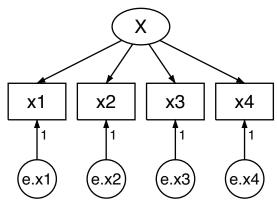
$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(y<-X)$

Many people looking at the model written this way might decide that it is not a measurement model but a measurement-error model. y depends on X but we do not observe X. We do observe x_1 , x_2 , and x_3 , each a measurement of X, but with error. Our interest is in knowing β_4 , the effect of true X on y.

A few others might disagree and instead see a model for interrater agreement. Obviously, we have three or four raters who each make a judgment, and we want to know how well the judgment process works and how well each of these raters performs.

Specifying correlation

One of the key features of SEM is the ease with which you can allow correlation between latent variables to adjust for the reality of the situation. In the measurement model in the previous section, we drew the following path diagram:



which corresponded to the equations

$$x_1 = \alpha_1 + X\beta_1 + e.x_1$$

$$x_2 = \alpha_2 + X\beta_2 + e.x_2$$

$$x_3 = \alpha_3 + X\beta_3 + e.x_3$$

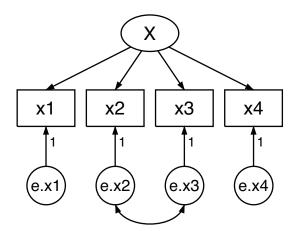
$$x_4 = \alpha_4 + X\beta_4 + e.x_4$$

 $(X, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, e.x_1, e.x_2, e.x_3, e.x_4) \sim \text{i.i.d.}$ with mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$

where i.i.d. means that observations are independent and identically distributed.

We must appreciate that μ and Σ are estimated, just as are α_1 , β_1 , ..., α_4 , β_4 . Some of the elements of Σ , however, are constrained to be 0; which elements are constrained is determined by how we specify the model. In the above diagram, we drew the model in such a way that we assumed that error variables were uncorrelated with each other. We could have drawn the diagram differently.

If we wish to allow for a correlation between $e.x_2$ and $e.x_3$, we add a curved path between the variables:



The curved path states that there is a correlation to be estimated between the variables it connects. The absence of a curved path—say, between $e.x_1$ and $e.x_4$ —means that the variables are constrained to be uncorrelated. That is not to say that x_1 and x_4 are uncorrelated; obviously, they are correlated because both are functions of the same X. Their corresponding error variables, however, are uncorrelated. The equations for this model, in their full detail, are

$$x_{1} = \alpha_{1} + X\beta_{1} + e.x_{1}$$

$$x_{2} = \alpha_{2} + X\beta_{2} + e.x_{2}$$

$$x_{3} = \alpha_{3} + X\beta_{3} + e.x_{3}$$

$$x_{4} = \alpha_{4} + X\beta_{4} + e.x_{4}$$

 $(X, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, e.x_1, e.x_2, e.x_3, e.x_4) \sim \text{i.i.d.}$ with mean μ and variance Σ

 Σ is constrained such that

$$\sigma_{e.x_1,e.x_2} = \sigma_{e.x_2,e.x_1} = 0$$

$$\sigma_{e.x_1,e.x_3} = \sigma_{e.x_3,e.x_1} = 0$$

$$\sigma_{e.x_1,e.x_4} = \sigma_{e.x_4,e.x_1} = 0$$

$$\sigma_{e.x_2,e.x_4} = \sigma_{e.x_4,e.x_2} = 0$$

$$\sigma_{e.x_3,e.x_4} = \sigma_{e.x_4,e.x_3} = 0$$

$$\sigma_{X,e.x_1} = \sigma_{e.x_1,X} = 0$$

$$\sigma_{X,e.x_2} = \sigma_{e.x_2,X} = 0$$

$$\sigma_{X,e.x_3} = \sigma_{e.x_3,X} = 0$$

$$\sigma_{X,e.x_4} = \sigma_{e.x_4,X} = 0$$

 μ is constrained such that

$$\mu_X = 0$$
 $\mu_{e.x_1} = 0$
 $\mu_{e.x_2} = 0$
 $\mu_{e.x_3} = 0$
 $\mu_{e.x_4} = 0$

The parameters to be estimated are

$$\alpha_1, \beta_1, \dots, \alpha_4, \beta_4,$$
 μ
 Σ

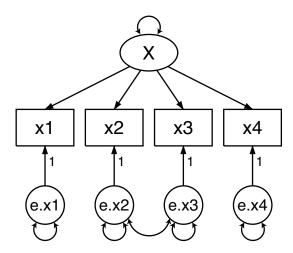
Look carefully at the above list. You will not find a line reading

$$\sigma_{e.x_2,e.x_3} = \sigma_{e.x_3,e.x_2} = 0$$

although you will find lines constraining the other covariances between error terms to be 0. The line is missing because we drew a curved path between $e.x_2$ and $e.x_3$.

There are lots of other curved arrows we could have drawn. By not drawing them, we are asserting that the corresponding covariance is 0.

Some authors would draw the above model as



A curved path from a variable to itself indicates a variance. All covariances could be shown, including those between latent variables and between observed exogenous variables.

When we draw diagrams, however, we will assume variance paths and omit drawing them, and we will similarly assume but omit drawing covariances between observed exogenous variables (there are no observed exogenous variables in this model). The Builder in sem mode has an option concerning the latter. Like everyone else, we will not assume correlations between latent variables unless they are shown.

In sem's (gsem's) command-language notation, curved paths between variables are indicated via an option:

$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(x4<-X)$, $cov(e.x2*e.x3)$

Using the command language to specify standard linear SEMs

You can describe your model to sem by using path diagrams with the Builder, or you can describe your model by using sem's command language. Here are the trade-offs:

- 1. If you use path diagrams, you can see the results of your estimation as path diagrams or as standard computer output.
- 2. If you use the command language, only standard computer output is available.
- 3. Typing models in the command language is usually quicker than drawing them in the Builder.
- 4. You can type models in the command language and store them in do-files. By doing so, you can more easily correct the errors you make.

Translating from path diagrams to command language is easy.

1. Path diagrams have squares and circles to distinguish observed from latent variables.

In the command language, variables are assumed to be observed if they are typed in lowercase and are assumed to be latent if the first letter is capitalized. Variable educ is observed, while variable Knowledge or KNOWLEDGE is latent.

If the observed variables in your dataset have uppercase names, type rename _all, lower to covert them to lowercase; see [D] rename group.

2. When typing path diagrams in the command language, remember the /// continuation line indicator. You may type

. sem
$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(y<-X)$

or you may type

. sem
$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ /// $(x3<-X)$ $(y<-X)$

or you may type

3. In path diagrams, you draw arrows connecting variables to indicate paths. In the command language, you type variable names and arrows. So long as your arrow points the correct way, it does not matter which variable comes first. The following mean the same thing:

$$(x1 <- X)$$

 $(X -> x1)$

4. In the command language, you may type multiple variables on either side of the arrow:

$$(X -> x1 x2 x3 x4)$$

The above means the same as

$$(X \rightarrow x1) (X \rightarrow x2) (X \rightarrow x3) (X \rightarrow x4)$$

which means the same as

$$(x1 \leftarrow X) (x2 \leftarrow X) (x3 \leftarrow X) (x4 \leftarrow X)$$

which means the same as

$$(x1 \ x2 \ x3 \ x4 < - \ X)$$

In a more complicated measurement model, we might have

$$(X Y \rightarrow x1 x2 x3) (X \rightarrow x4 x5) (Y \rightarrow x6 x7)$$

The above means the same as

which means

$$(X \rightarrow x1)$$
 $(X \rightarrow x2)$ $(X \rightarrow x3)$ $(X \rightarrow x4)$ $(X \rightarrow x5)$ /// $(Y \rightarrow x1)$ $(Y \rightarrow x2)$ $(Y \rightarrow x3)$ $(Y \rightarrow x6)$ $(Y \rightarrow x7)$

5. In path diagrams, you are required to show the error variables. In the command language, you may omit the error variables. sem knows that each endogenous variable needs an error variable. You can type

$$(x1 \leftarrow X) (x2 \leftarrow X) (x3 \leftarrow X) (x4 \leftarrow X)$$

and that means the same thing as

except that we have lost the small numeric 1s we had next to the arrows from e.x1 to x1, e.x2 to x2, and so on. To constrain the path coefficient, you type

It is easier to simply type

$$(x1 \leftarrow X) (x2 \leftarrow X) (x3 \leftarrow X) (x4 \leftarrow X)$$

but now you know that if you wanted to constrain the path coefficient x2<-X to be 2, you could type

$$(x1 \leftarrow X) (x2 \leftarrow X02) (x3 \leftarrow X) (x4 \leftarrow X)$$

If you wanted to constrain the path coefficients x2<-X and x3<-X to be equal, you could type

$$(x1 \leftarrow X) (x2 \leftarrow X0b) (x3 \leftarrow X0b) (x4 \leftarrow X)$$

We have not covered symbolic constraints with path diagrams yet, but typing symbolic names along the paths in either the Builder or the command language is how you constrain coefficients to be equal.

6. Curved paths are specified with the cov() option after you have specified your model:

$$(x1 x2 x3 x4 <- X), cov(e.x2*e.x3)$$

If you wanted to allow for correlation of e.x2*e.x3 and e.x3*e.x4, you can specify that in a single cov() option,

$$(x1 x2 x3 x4 \leftarrow X)$$
, $cov(e.x2*e.x3 e.x3*e.x4)$

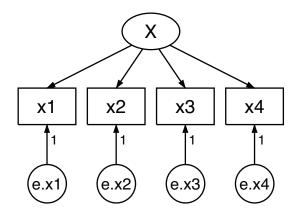
or in separate cov() options:

$$(x1 x2 x3 x4 \leftarrow X)$$
, $cov(e.x2*e.x3) cov(e.x3*e.x4)$

7. Nearly all the above applies equally to gsem. We have to say "nearly" because sometimes, in some models, some concepts simply vanish. For instance, in a logistic model, there are no error terms. For generalized responses with family Gaussian, link log, there are error terms, but they cannot be correlated. Also, for responses with family Gaussian, link identity, and censoring, there are error terms, but they cannot be correlated. gsem also takes observed exogenous variables as given and so cannot estimate the covariances between them.

Specifying generalized SEMs: Family and link

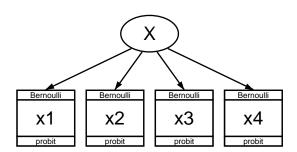
We began this discussion by showing you a linear measurement model:



In this model, we observe continuous measurements $x1, \ldots, x4$. What if $x1, \ldots, x4$ were instead binary outcomes such as success and failure or passed and failed? That is, what if $x1, \ldots, x4$ took on values of only 1 and 0?

In that case, we would want to fit a model appropriate to binary outcomes. Perhaps we want to fit a logistic regression model or a probit model. To do either one, we will have to use gsem rather than sem. We will use a probit model.

The path diagram for the measurement model with binary outcomes is



What were plain boxes for $x1, \ldots, x4$ now say "Bernoulli" and "probit" at the top and bottom, meaning that the variable is from the Bernoulli family and is using the probit link. In addition, e.x1, ..., e.x4 (the error terms for $x1, \ldots, x4$) have disappeared. In the generalized linear framework, there are error terms only for the Gaussian family.

Perhaps some math will clear up the issue. The generalized linear model is

$$g\{E(y \mid X)\} = \mathbf{x}\beta$$

and in the case of probit, $g\{E(y|X)\} = \Phi^{-1}\{E(y|X)\}$, where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the cumulative normal distribution. Thus the equations are

$$\Phi^{-1}\{E(x_1 \mid X)\} = \alpha_1 + X\beta_1$$

$$\Phi^{-1}\{E(x_2 \mid X)\} = \alpha_2 + X\beta_2$$

$$\Phi^{-1}\{E(x_3 \mid X)\} = \alpha_3 + X\beta_3$$

$$\Phi^{-1}\{E(x_4 \mid X)\} = \alpha_4 + X\beta_4$$

Note that there are no error terms. Equivalently, the above can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr(x_1 = 1 \,|\, X) = \Phi(\alpha_1 + X\beta_1) \\ & \Pr(x_2 = 1 \,|\, X) = \Phi(\alpha_2 + X\beta_2) \\ & \Pr(x_3 = 1 \,|\, X) = \Phi(\alpha_3 + X\beta_3) \\ & \Pr(x_4 = 1 \,|\, X) = \Phi(\alpha_4 + X\beta_4) \end{aligned}$$

In gsem's command language, we write this model as

or as

```
(x1<-X, family(bernoulli) link(probit))
(x2<-X, family(bernoulli) link(probit))</pre>
(x3<-X, family(bernoulli) link(probit))
(x4<-X, family(bernoulli) link(probit))
```

In the command language, you can simply type probit to mean family (bernoulli) link (probit), so the model could also be typed as

$$(x1 x2 x3 x4 < -X, probit)$$

or even as

$$(x1<-X, probit)$$
 $(x2<-X, probit)$ $(x3<-X, probit)$ $(x4<-X, probit)$

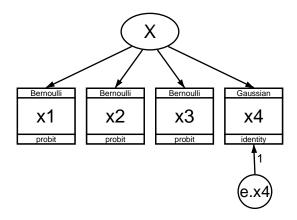
Whether you type family(bernoulli) link(probit) or type probit, when all the response variables are probit, you can type

$$(x1 x2 x3 x4 < -X)$$
, probit

or

$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(x4<-X)$, probit

The response variables do not have to be all from the same family and link. Perhaps x1, x2, and x3 are pass/fail variables but x4 is a continuous variable. Then the model would be diagrammed as



The words "Gaussian" and "identity" now appear for variable x4 and e.x4 is back! Just as previously, the generalized linear model is

$$g\{E(y \mid X)\} = \mathbf{x}\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

and in the case of linear regression, $g(\mu) = \mu$, so our fourth equation becomes

$$E(x_4 \mid X) = X\beta_4$$

or

$$x_4 = \alpha + X\beta_4 + e.x_4$$

and the entire set of equations to be estimated is

$$\Pr(x_1 = 1 \mid X) = \Phi(\alpha_1 + X\beta_1)$$

$$\Pr(x_2 = 1 \mid X) = \Phi(\alpha_2 + X\beta_2)$$

$$\Pr(x_3 = 1 \mid X) = \Phi(\alpha_3 + X\beta_3)$$

$$x_4 = \alpha_4 + X\beta_4 + e.x_4$$

This can be written in the command language as

or as

regress is a synonym for family(gaussian) link(identity). Because family(gaussian) link(identity) is the default, we can omit the option altogether:

$$(x1 x2 x3 < -X, probit) (x4 < -X)$$

We demonstrated generalized linear models above by using probit (family Bernoulli, link probit), but we could just as well have used logit (family Bernoulli, link logit). Nothing changes except that in the path diagrams, where you see probit, logit would now appear. Likewise, in the command, where you see probit, logit would appear.

The same is true with almost all the other possible generalized linear models. What they all have in common is

- 1. There are no e. error terms, except for family Gaussian.
- 2. Response variables appear the ordinary way except that the family is listed at the top of the box and the link is listed at the bottom of the box, except for family multinomial, link logit (also known as multinomial logistic regression or mlogit).

Concerning item 1, we just showed you a combined probit and linear regression with its e.x4term. Linear regression is family Gaussian.

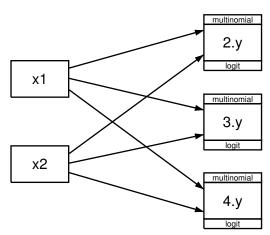
Concerning item 2, multinomial logistic regression is different enough that we need to show it to you.

Specifying generalized SEMs: Family and link, multinomial logistic regression

Let's consider a multinomial logistic model in which y takes on one of four possible outcomes and is determined by x_1 and x_2 . Such a model could be fit by Stata's mlogit command:

. mlogit y x1 x2

The model could also be fit by gsem. The path diagram would be



Note that there are three boxes for y, boxes containing 2.y, 3.y, and 4.y. When specifying a multinomial logistic regression model in which the dependent variables can take one of k different values, you draw k-1 boxes. Names like $1,y,2,y,\ldots$, mean y=1,y=2, and so on. Logically speaking, you have to omit one of them. Which you omit is irrelevant and is known as the base outcome. Estimated coefficients in the model relevant to the other outcomes will be measured as a difference from the base outcome. We said which you choose is irrelevant, but it might be easier for you to interpret your model if you chose a meaningful base outcome, such as the most frequent outcome. In fact, that is just what Stata's mlogit command does by default when you do not specify otherwise.

In path diagrams, you may implicitly or explicitly specify the base outcome. We implicitly specified the base by omitting 1.y from the diagram. We could have included it by drawing a box for 1.y and labeling it 1b.y. Stata understands the b to mean base category. See [SEM] **example 37g** for an example.

Once you have handled specification of the base category, you draw path arrows from the predictors to the remaining outcome boxes. We drew paths from x_1 and x_2 to all of the outcome boxes, but if we wanted to omit x_1 to 3.y and 4.y, we could have omitted those paths.

Our example is simple in that y is the final outcome. If we had a more complex model where y's outcome affected another response variable, arrows would connect all or some of 2.y, 3.y, and 4.y to the other response variable.

The command syntax for our simple example is

$$(2.y 3.y 4.y < -x1 x2)$$
, mlogit

2.y, 3.y, and 4.y are examples of Stata's factor-variable syntax. The factor-variable syntax has some other features that can save typing in command syntax. i.y, for instance, means 1b.y, 2.y, 3.y, and 4.y. It is especially useful because if we had more levels, say, 10, it would mean 1b.y, 2.y, ..., 10.y. To fit the model we diagrammed, we could type

If we wanted to include some paths and not others, we need to use the more verbose syntax. For instance, to omit paths from x_1 to 3.y and 4.y, we would type

$$(2.y < -x1 x2) (3.y 4.y < -x2)$$
, mlogit

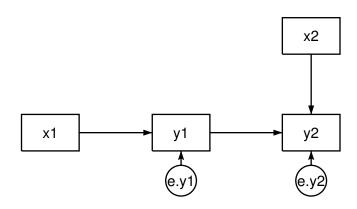
or

$$(i.y<-x2)$$
 $(2.y<-x1)$, mlogit

For more information on specifying mlogit paths, see [SEM] intro 3, [SEM] example 37g, and [SEM] example 41g.

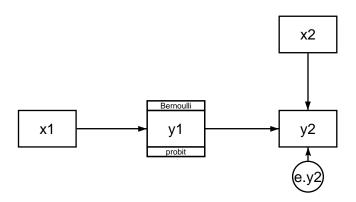
Specifying generalized SEMs: Family and link, paths from response variables

When we draw a path from one response variable to another, we are stating that the first endogenous variable is a predictor of the other endogenous variable. The diagram might look like this:



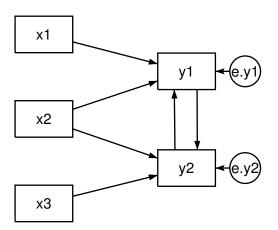
The command syntax might look like (y1<-x1) (y2<-y1 x2).

The response variables in the model are linear, and note that there is a path from y_1 to y_2 . Could we change y_1 to be a member of the generalized linear family, such as probit, logit, and so on? It turns out that we can:



In the command syntax, we could write this model as (y1 < -x1, probit) (y2 < -y1 x2). (In this case, the observed values and not the expectations are used to fit the y1->y2 coefficient. In general, this is true for all generalized responses that are not family Gaussian, link identity.)

We can make the substitution from linear to generalized linear if the path from y_1 appears in a recursive part of the model. We will define recursive shortly, but trust us that the above model is recursive all the way through. The substitution would not have been okay if the path had been in a nonrecursive portion of the model. The following is a through-and-through nonrecursive model:



It could be written in command syntax as (y1<-y1 x1 x2) (y2<-y2 x2 x3).

In this model, we could not change y_1 to be family Bernoulli and link probit or any other generalized linear response variable. If we tried to fit the model with such a change, we would get an error message:

```
invalid path specification;
a loop among the paths between 'y1' and 'y2' is not allowed
r(198);
```

The software will spot the problem, but you can spot it for yourself.

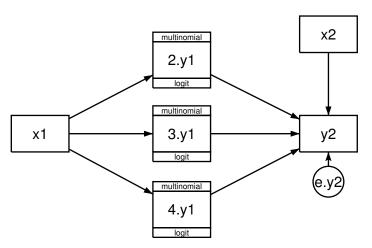
Nonrecursive models have loops. Do you see the loop in the above model? You will if you work out the total effect of a change in y_2 from a change in y_1 . Assume a change in y_1 . Then that change directly affects y_2 , the new value of y_2 affects y_1 , which in turn indirectly affects y_2 again, which affects y_1 , and on and on.

Now follow the same logic with either the probit or the continuous recursive models above. The change in y_1 affects y_2 and it stops right there.

We sympathize if you think that we have interchanged the terms recursive and nonrecursive. Remember it this way: total effects in recursive models can be calculated nonrecursively because the model itself is recursive, and total effects in nonrecursive models must be calculated recursively because the model itself is nonrecursive.

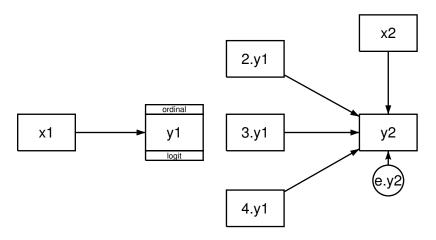
Anyway, you may draw paths from generalized linear response variables to other response variables, whether linear or generalized linear, as long as no loops are formed.

We gave special mention to multinomial logistic regression in the previous section because those models look different from the other generalized linear models. Multinomial logistic regression has a plethora of response variables. In the case of multinomial logistic regression, a recursive model with a path from the multinomial logistic outcome y_1 to (linear) y_2 would look like this:



In the command syntax, the model could be written as

In multinomial logistic regression models, outcomes are numbered 1, 2, \dots , k. The outcomes might correspond to walk, take public transportation, drive a car, and fly. In ordered probit and logistic models, outcomes are also numbered $1, 2, \ldots, k$, and the outcomes are otherwise similar to multinomial logistic models except that the outcomes are also naturally ordered. The outcomes might be did poorly, did okay, did fairly well, and did well. After taking account of the ordering, you would probably want to model your remaining response variables in the same way you did for multinomial logistic regression. In that case, you would diagram the model like this:

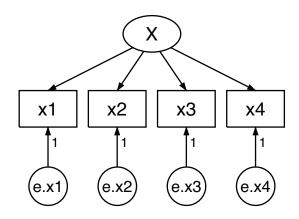


In the command syntax, the model could be written as

Unlike multinomial logistic regression, in which the k outcomes result in the estimation of k-1 equations, in ordered probit and logistic models, only one equation is estimated, and thus the response variable is specified simply as y_1 rather than $2.y_1$, $3.y_1$, and $4.y_1$. Even so, you probably will want the different outcomes to have separate coefficients in the y_2 equation so that the effects of being in groups 1, 2, 3, and 4 are β_0 , $\beta_0 + \beta_1$, $\beta_0 + \beta_2$, and $\beta_0 + \beta_3$, respectively. If you drew the diagram with a single path from y_1 to y_2 , the effects of being in the groups would be $\beta_0 + 1\beta_1$, $\beta_0 + 2\beta_1$, $\beta_0 + 3\beta_1$, and $\beta_0 + 4\beta_1$, respectively.

Specifying generalized SEMs: Multilevel mixed effects (2 levels)

The models above are all single-level models or, equivalently, observational-level models. Let's reconsider our original measurement model:



The data for this model would look something like this:

. list in 1/5

	x1	x2	х3	x4
1.	76	76	63	490
2.	106	110	114	778
3.	99	106	104	757
4.	101	85	77	637
5.	104	82	108	654

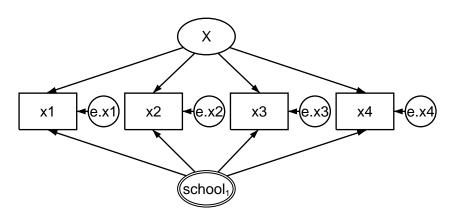
Let's pretend that the observations are students and that $x1, \ldots, x4$ are four test scores.

Now let's pretend that we have new data with students from different schools. A part of our data might look like this:

. list in 1/10

	school	x1	x2	x3	x4
1.	1	99	91	94	92
2.	1	70	62	65	63
3.	1	75	67	70	68
4.	1	96	88	91	89
5.	1	80	72	75	73
6.	2	113	119	118	119
7.	2	112	118	117	118
8.	2	97	103	102	103
9.	2	84	90	89	90
10.	2	89	95	94	95

We have four test scores from various students in various schools. Our corresponding model might be



The school1 inside double circles in the figure tells us, "I am a latent variable at the school level—meaning that I am constant within school and vary across schools—and I correspond to the latent variable named M1." That is, double circles denote a latent variable named M#, where # is the subscript of the variable name inside the double circles. Meanwhile, the variable name inside the double circles specifies the level of the M# variable.

The equivalent command-language form for this model is

The M1 part of M1[school] is the latent variable's name, while the [school] part means "at the school level". Thus M1[school] denotes latent variable M1, which varies at the school level or, equivalently, which is constant within school.

By the way, we gave the latent variable the name M1 just to match what the Builder does by default. In real life, we would probably give it a different name, such as S.

The mathematical way of writing this model is

$$x_1 = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 X + \gamma_1 M_{1,S} + e.x_1$$

$$x_2 = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 X + \gamma_2 M_{1,S} + e.x_2$$

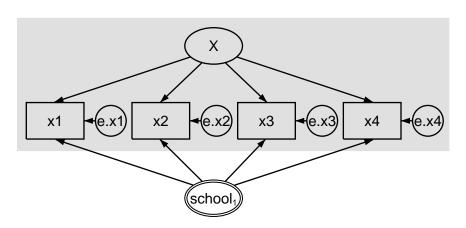
$$x_3 = \alpha_3 + \beta_3 X + \gamma_3 M_{1,S} + e.x_3$$

$$x_4 = \alpha_4 + \beta_4 X + \gamma_4 M_{1,S} + e.x_4$$

where S = school number.

Thus we have three different ways of referring to the same thing: school1 inside double circles in the path diagram corresponds to M1[school] in the command language, which in turn corresponds to $M_{1.S}$ in the mathematical notation.

Rabe-Hesketh, Skrondal, and Pickles (2004) use boxes to identify different levels of the model. Our path diagrams are similar to theirs, but they do not use double circles for multilevel latent variables. We can put a box around the individual-level part of the model, producing something that looks like this:



You can do that in the Builder, but the box has no special meaning to gsem; however, adding the box does make the diagram easier to understand in presentations.

However you diagram the model, this model is known as a two-level model. The first level is the student or observational level, and the second level is the school level.

Specifying generalized SEMs: Multilevel mixed effects (3 levels)

A three-level model adds another latent variable at yet another level. For instance, perhaps we have data on four test scores for individual students, who are nested within school, which are nested within counties. The beginning of our data might look like this:

. list in 1/10

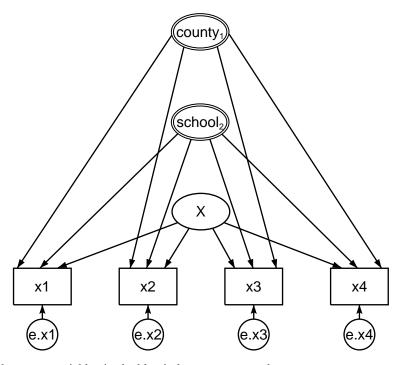
	county	school	x1	x2	x3	x4
1. 2. 3. 4.	1 1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1	105 115 90 124 114	115 125 100 134 124	113 123 98 132 122	114 124 99 133 123
6. 7. 8. 9.	1 1 1 1	2 2 2 2 2 2	115 112 116 102 109	128 125 129 115 122	125 122 126 112 119	127 124 128 114 121

Further down, the data might look like this:

. list in 991/1

	county	school	x1	x2	x3	x4
991. 992. 993. 994. 995.	2 2 2 2 2 2	1 1 1 1	106 72 60 107 125	111 77 65 112 130	110 76 64 111 129	111 77 65 112 130
996. 997. 998. 999.	2 2 2 2 2 2	2 2 2 2 2	79 84 90 96 104	72 77 83 89 97	74 79 85 91 99	73 78 84 90 98

We might diagram the student-within-school-within-county model as



Now we have two variables in double circles: county1 and school2.

county1 tells us, "I am a latent variable at the county level-meaning that I am constant within county and vary across counties—and I correspond to the latent variable named M1."

school2 tells us, "I am a latent variable at the school level-meaning that I am constant within school and vary across schools—and I correspond to the latent variable named M2."

Do not read anything into the fact that the latent variables are named M1 and M2 rather than M2 and M1. When we diagrammed the figure in the Builder, we diagrammed county first and then we added school. Had we diagrammed them the other way around, the latent variable names would have been reversed. We can edit the names after the fact, but we seldom bother.

The equivalent command-language form for this three-level model is

or

The [school<county] part is usually spoken aloud as "school within county", [county>school] is spoken aloud as "county containing school". When we write [county>school] or [school<county], we are saying that the counties contain schools or, equivalently, that school is nested within county. Thus the model we are specifying is in fact a three-level nested model.

The order in which we specify the level effects is irrelevant; we could just as well type

```
(x1 x2 x3 x4<-X M2[county>school] M1[county])
```

or

The mathematical way of writing this model is

$$x_{1} = \alpha_{1} + \beta_{1}X + \gamma_{1}M_{1,C} + \delta_{1}M_{2,S} + e.x_{1}$$

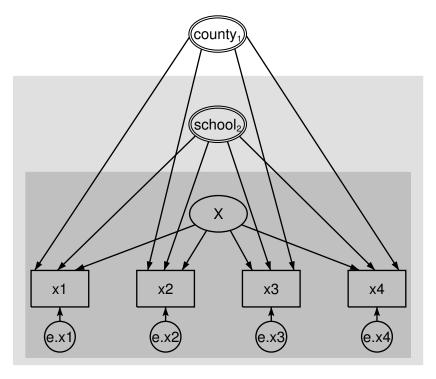
$$x_{2} = \alpha_{2} + \beta_{2}X + \gamma_{2}M_{1,C} + \delta_{2}M_{2,S} + e.x_{2}$$

$$x_{3} = \alpha_{3} + \beta_{3}X + \gamma_{3}M_{1,C} + \delta_{3}M_{2,S} + e.x_{3}$$

$$x_{4} = \alpha_{4} + \beta_{4}X + \gamma_{4}M_{1,C} + \delta_{4}M_{2,S} + e.x_{4}$$

where C = county number and S = school number.

Three-level nested models are often double-boxed (or double-shaded) in presentation:



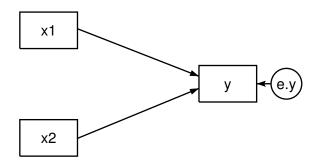
The darker box highlights the first level (student, in our case), and the lighter box highlights the second level (school, in our case). As we previously mentioned, you can add these boxes using the Builder, but they are purely aesthetic and have no meaning to gsem.

Specifying generalized SEMs: Multilevel mixed effects (4+ levels)

We have now diagrammed one-, two-, and three-level nested models. You can draw with the Builder and fit with gsem higher-level models, but you will usually need lots of data to be successful in fitting those models and, even so, you may run into other estimation problems.

Specifying generalized SEMs: Multilevel mixed effects with random intercepts

Let's change gears and consider with the following simple model a linear regression of y on x_1 and x_2 :



In the command language, this model is specified as

$$(x1 \ x2->y)$$

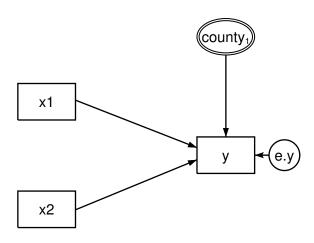
or

$$(y < -x1 x2)$$

and the mathematical representation is

$$y = \alpha + \beta x_1 + \gamma x_2 + e.y$$

Now assume that we have data not just on y, x_1 , and x_2 , but also on county of residence. If we wanted to add a random intercept—a random effect—for county, the diagram becomes



The command-language equivalent is

or

and the mathematical representation is

$$y = \alpha + \beta x_1 + \gamma x_2 + M_{1,C} + e.y$$

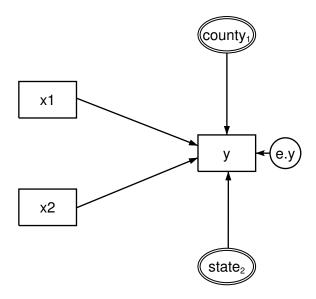
where C = county number. Actually, the model is

$$y = \alpha + \beta x_1 + \gamma x_2 + \delta M_{1,C} + e.y$$

but δ is automatically constrained to be 1 by gsem. The software is not reading our mind; consider a solution for $M_{1,C}$ with $\delta=0.5$. Then another equivalent solution is $M_{1,C}/2$ with $\delta=1$, and another is $M_{1,C}/4$ with $\delta=2$, and on and on, because in all cases, $\delta M_{1,C}$ will equal the same value. The fact is that δ is unidentified. Whenever a latent variable is unidentified because of such scaling considerations, gsem (and sem) automatically set the coefficient to 1 and thus set the scale.

This is a two-level model: the first level is the observational level and the second level is county.

Just as we demonstrated previously with the measurement model, we could have a three-level nested model. We could imagine the observational level nested within the county level nested within the state level. The path diagram would be



The command-language equivalent is

and the mathematical representation is

$$y = \alpha + \beta x_1 + \gamma x_2 + M_{1,C} + M_{2,S} + e.y$$

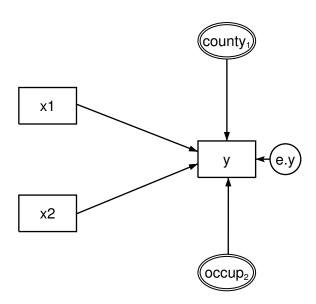
where $C={\rm county}$ number and $S={\rm state}$ number. Just as previously, the actual form of the equation is

$$y = \alpha + \beta x_1 + \gamma x_2 + \delta M_{1,C} + \zeta M_{2,S} + e.y$$

but the constraints $\delta = \zeta = 1$ are automatically applied by the software.

You can specify higher-level models, but just as we mentioned when discussing the higher-level measurement models, you will need lots of data to fit them successfully and you still may run into other estimation problems.

You can also fit crossed models, such as county and occupation. Unlike county and state, where a particular county appears only in one state, the same occupation will appear in more than one county, which is to say, occupation and county are crossed, not nested. Except for a change in the names of the variables, the path diagram for this model looks identical to the diagram for the state and county-within-state model:



When we enter the model into the Builder, however, we will specify that the two effects are crossed rather than nested.

The command-language way of expressing this crossed model is

and the mathematical representation is

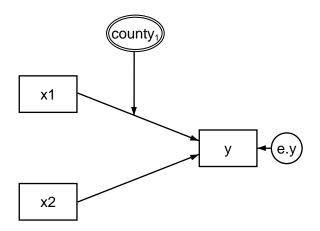
$$y = \alpha + \beta x_1 + \gamma x_2 + M_{1,C} + M_{2,O} + e.y$$

where C = county number and O = occupation number.

Higher-order crossed models are theoretically possible, and you will find gsem game to try to fit them. However, you are unlikely to be successful unless you have lots of data so that all the effects can be identified. In fact, you can specify crossed models anywhere you can specify nested models, but the same comment applies.

Specifying generalized SEMs: Multilevel mixed effects with random slopes

Perhaps we feel that county does not affect the intercept, but it affects the slope of x1. In that case, we just shift the path from county 1 to instead point to the path between y and x_1 .



The command-language equivalent for this model is

$$(y < -x1 c.x1 # M1 [county]) (y < -x2)$$

or

To include a random slope (coefficient) on a variable in the command language, include the variable on which you want the random slope just as you ordinarily would:

$$(y < -x1)$$

Then, before closing the parenthesis, type

In our case, the variable on which we want the random coefficient is x1, the latent_variable we want to create is named M1, and the grouping_variable within which the latent variable will be constant is county, so we type

Finally, finish off the command by typing the rest of the model:

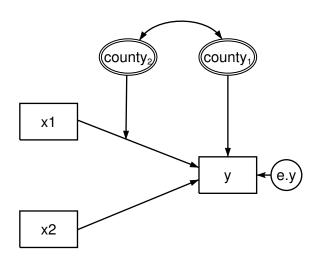
This is another example of Stata's factor-variable notation.

The mathematical representation of the random-slope model is

$$y = \alpha + \beta x_1 + \gamma x_2 + \delta M_{1,C} x_1 + e.y$$

where $C = \text{county number and } \delta = 1$.

You can simultaneously specify both random slope and random intercept by putting together what we have already done. The first time you see the combined path diagram, you may think there is a mistake:



County appears twice in two different double circles, once with a subscript of 1 and the other with a subscript of 2! We would gamble at favorable odds that you would have included county in double circles once and then would have drawn two paths from it, one to the path between x1 and y, and the other to y itself. That model, however, would make an extreme assumption.

Consider what you would be saying. There is one latent variable M1. The random intercepts would be equal to M1. The random slopes would be equal to γ M1, a scalar replica of the random intercepts! You would be constraining the random slopes and intercepts to be correlated 1.

What you usually want, however, is one latent variable for the random slopes and another for the random intercepts. They might be correlated, but they are not related by a multiplicative constant. Thus we also included a covariance between the two random effects.

The command-language equivalent of the correct path diagram (the one shown above) is

You will learn later that the command language assumes covariances exist between latent exogenous variables unless an option is specified. Meanwhile, the Builder assumes those same covariances are 0 unless a curved covariance path is drawn.

The mathematical representation of the model is

$$y = \alpha + \beta x_1 + \gamma x_2 + \delta M_{2,C} x_1 + \zeta M_{1,C} + e.y$$

where $C = \text{county number and } \delta = \zeta = 1$.

And now you, too, are an expert on path diagrams.

Reference

Rabe-Hesketh, S., A. Skrondal, and A. Pickles. 2004. Generalized multilevel structural equation modeling. Psychometrika 69: 167–190.

Also see

```
    [SEM] intro 1 — Introduction
    [SEM] intro 3 — Learning the language: Factor-variable notation (gsem only)
    [SEM] Builder — SEM Builder
    [SEM] Builder, generalized — SEM Builder for generalized models
    [SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams
```

```
intro 3 — Learning the language: Factor-variable notation (gsem only)
```

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

This entry concerns gsem only; sem does not allow the use of factor variables.

gsem allows you to use Stata's factor-variable notation in path diagrams (in the SEM Builder) and in the command language. Use of the notation, though always optional, is sometimes useful:

1. Use of factor variables sometimes saves effort. For instance, rather than typing

```
. generate femXage = female * age
```

and including femXage in your model, you can directly include 1.female#c.age. You can type 1.female#c.age with the gsem command or type it into an exogenous-variable box in a path diagram.

- 2. Use of factor variables can save even more effort in command syntax. You can type things like i.female i.skill i.female#i.skill to include main effects and interaction effects of female interacted with indicators for all the different levels of skill.
- 3. Use of factor variables causes the postestimation commands margins, contrast, and pwcompare to produce more useful output. For instance, they will show the effect of the discrete change between female = 0 and female = 1 rather than the infinitesimal change (slope) of female.

In the examples in the rest of this manual, we sometimes use factor-variable notation and, at other times, ignore it. We might have variable smokes recording whether a person smokes. In one example, you might see smokes directly included in the model and yet, in another example, we might have the odd-looking 1.smokes, which is factor-variable notation for emphasizing that smokes is a 0/1 variable. We probably used 1.smokes for reason 3, although we might have done it just to emphasize that variable smokes is indeed 0/1.

In other examples, we will use more complicated factor-variable notation, such as 1.female#c.age, because it is more convenient.

You should follow the same rules. Use factor-variable notation when convenient or when you plan subsequently to use postestimation commands margins, contrast, or pwcompare. If neither reason applies, use factor-variable notation or not. There is no benefit from consistency in this case.

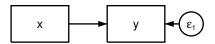
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Specifying indicator variables
Specifying interactions with indicator variables
Specifying categorical variables
Specifying interactions with categorical variables
Specifying endogenous variables
Inconsistency between gsem and other estimation commands

Specifying indicator variables

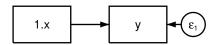
We wish to fit the following model:



This model corresponds to the equation $y_i = \beta x_i + \epsilon_i$. It can be fit using the Builder with the path diagram above or using the command syntax by typing

Say we now tell you that x is a 0/1 (binary) variable. Perhaps x indicates male/female. That changes nothing mathematically. The way we drew the path diagram and specified the command syntax are as valid when x is an indicator variable as they were when x was continuous.

Specifying 1.x is a way you can emphasize that x is 0/1:



That model will produce the same results as the first model. In command syntax, we can type

. gsem
$$(y < -1.x)$$

The only real advantage of 1.x over x arises when we plan to use the postestimation command margins, contrast, or pwcompare, as we mentioned above. If we fit the model using 1.x, those commands will know x is 0/1 and will exploit that knowledge to produce more useful output.

In other cases, the #.varname notation can sometimes save us effort. #.varname means a variable equal to 1 if varname = #. It is not required that varname itself be an indicator variable.

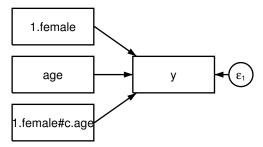
Let's say variable skill takes on the values 1, 2, and 3 meaning unskilled, skilled, and highly skilled. Then 3.skill is an indicator variable for skill = 3. We could use 3.skill in path diagrams or in the command language just as we previously used 1.x.

Specifying interactions with indicator variables

We can specify interactions with #. Say we wish to fit the model

$$\mathbf{y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \; \mathtt{female}_i + \beta_2 \mathtt{age}_i + \beta_3 \, \mathtt{female}_i \times \mathtt{age}_i + \epsilon_i$$

We could do that by specifying 1.female, age, and 1.female#c.age in a path diagram:



We can use 1.female, age, and 1.female#c.age in command syntax, too:

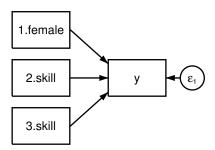
. gsem (y<-1.female age 1.female#c.age)

The c in c.age specifies that age is a continuous variable.

We can just as easily create interactions of indicator variables with other indicator variables. If variable employed is a 0/1 variable, then 1.female#1.employed creates an indicator for employed female.

Specifying categorical variables

We use the same #.varname notation to handle categorical variables as we did for indicator variables. Consider the following model:



The same model would be specified in command syntax as

. gsem (y<-1.female 2.skill 3.skill)

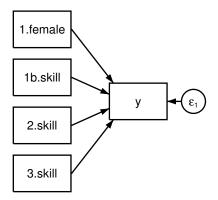
The equation for the model is

$$\mathbf{y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \, \texttt{1.female}_i + \beta_2 \, \texttt{2.skill}_i + \beta_3 \, \texttt{3.skill}_i + \epsilon_i$$

However we express the model, we are including indicator variables for skill level 2 and for skill level 3. We intentionally omit skill level 1.

Categorical variables require a base level, a level against which the other effects will be measured. We omitted 1.skill to cause 1.skill to become the base level. This results in β_2 measuring the difference in y between skill levels 2 and 1, and β_3 measuring the difference in y between skill levels 3 and 1.

Omission is one way to specify the base level. The other way is to include all the skill levels and indicate which one we want to be used as the base:



In command syntax, we type

```
. gsem (y<-1.female 1b.skill 2.skill 3.skill)
```

b specifies the base level. Specifying 1b.skill makes skill level 1 the base. Had we wanted skill level 2 to be the base, we would have specified 2b.skill.

Specification by omission is usually easier for simple models. For more complicated models, which might have paths from different skill levels going to different variables, it is usually better to specify all the skill levels and all the relevant paths, mark one of the skill levels as the base, and let gsem figure out the correct reduced-form model.

By the way, indicator variables are just a special case of categorical variables. Indicator variables are categorical variables with two levels. Everything just said about categorical variable skill applies equally to indicator variable female. We can specify 1.female by itself, and thus implicitly specify that female $\neq 1$ is the base, or we can explicitly specify both 0b.female and 1.female.

The command language has a neat syntax for specifying all the indicator variables that can be manufactured from a categorical variable. When you type i.skill, it is the same as typing 1b.skill 2.skill 3.skill. You can use the i. shorthand in the command language by typing

```
. gsem (y<-1.female i.skill)
```

or even by typing

```
. gsem (y<-i.female i.skill)
```

Most experienced Stata command-line users would type the model the second way, putting i. in front of both skill and female. They would not bother to think whether variables are indicator or categorical, nor would they concern themselves with remembering how the indicator and categorical variables are coded.

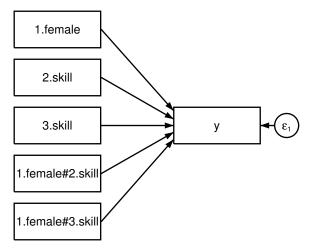
You cannot use the i. notation in path diagrams, however. Path diagrams allow only one variable per box. The i. notation produces at least two variables, and it usually produces a lot more.

Specifying interactions with categorical variables

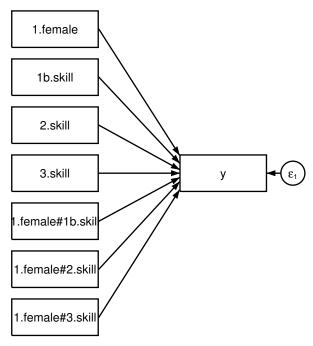
We just discussed the model (y<-i.female i.skill). Obviously, the next step is to include an interaction between female and skill level. To write such a model, we use the same # interaction indicator that we have already discussed in the context of indicator variables: (y<-i.femalei.skill i.female#i.skill). We use the same notation because there is really no distinction between factor variables and indicator variables. We can specify the model exactly as shown by using the command syntax:

```
. gsem (y<-i.female i.skill i.female#i.skill)
```

In the Builder, we could diagram this model by specifying all the individual interactions but omitting the base levels,



or by including them,



In the second diagram, we did not bother to include the base levels for the indicator variable female, but we could have included them.

We can type the model in command syntax just as we have drawn it, either as

But in command syntax, it is easiest to type

. gsem (y<-i.female i.skill i.female#i.skill)</pre>

Specifying endogenous variables

or as

You may not use factor variables to specify endogenous variables except for the multinomial logistic regression model. Multinomial logistic regression is also known as mlogit and as being family multinomial, link logit.

In the mlogit case, you must specify a base level, which you can do implicitly by omission or explicitly by including a b on one of the levels. See [SEM] **example 37g** and [SEM] **example 41g** for examples.

Inconsistency between gsem and other estimation commands

gsem treats factor variables slightly differently than do all the other Stata estimation commands. The differences are

- 1. When the #.varname notation is used, gsem will choose a base level from among the unspecified levels. All other commands will pick one of the specified levels as a base. One implication of this is that if all levels are specified using #.varname, gsem will not pick a base whereas other commands will.
- 2. gsem will ignore unspecified elements of interactions that otherwise would be added when explicit levels of factor variables are used.

There is an argument to be made that the other estimation commands ought to work like gsem. The differences, however, do not affect the i. varname notation, which is how most users use factor variables. The differences were introduced to deal with the Builder's one-box-per-variable restriction, which results in more frequent use of #.varname, which caused Stata's developers to rethink defaults.

In the command language, you can ask gsem to use the same behavior as the other estimation commands by specifying option fvstandard.

Also see

[SEM] intro 2 — Learning the language: Path diagrams and command language

[SEM] intro 4 — Substantive concepts

[SEM] **Builder** — SEM Builder

[SEM] **Builder**, **generalized** — SEM Builder for generalized models

[SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams

Title

intro 4 — Substantive concepts

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

The structural equation modeling way of describing models is deceptively simple. It is deceptive because the machinery underlying structural equation modeling is sophisticated, complex, and sometimes temperamental, and it can be temperamental both in substantive statistical ways and in practical computer ways.

Professional researchers need to understand these issues.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Differences in assumptions between sem and gsem sem: Choice of estimation method gsem: Choice of estimation method

Treatment of missing values

Variable types: Observed, latent, endogenous, exogenous, and error

Constraining parameters

Constraining path coefficients to specific values

Constraining intercepts to specific values (suppressing the intercept)

Constraining path coefficients or intercepts to be equal

Constraining covariances to be equal (or to specific values)

Constraining variances to specific values (or to be equal)

Identification 1: Substantive issues

Not all models are identified

How to count parameters

What happens when models are unidentified

How to diagnose and fix the problem

Identification 2: Normalization constraints (anchoring)

Why the problem arises

How the problem would manifest itself

How sem (gsem) solves the problem for you

Overriding sem's (gsem's) solution

Differences in assumptions between sem and gsem

sem fits standard linear SEMs.

gsem fits generalized SEMs, by which we mean

- 1. gsem fits not just linear but generalized linear models,
- 2. gsem fits multilevel mixed models, and
- 3. gsem fits items 1 and 2 combined.

There is a difference in assumptions between standard linear SEMs and generalized SEMs.

Standard linear SEMs generally assume that the observed endogenous variables, the observed exogenous variables, the latent endogenous variables, and the latent exogenous variables are jointly distributed normally with mean μ and variance matrix Σ . In this formulation, we include the e error variables among the latent exogenous variables.

Generalized SEMs drop the observed variables from the joint-normality assumption. Instead, generalized SEMs treat the observed exogenous variables as given and produce estimates conditional on their values. This seems a minor difference, but for some researchers it has important implications.

Consider a researcher wishing to include a subject's age and age-squared among the observed exogenous variables of a model. Variables age and age-squared simply cannot be jointly normally distributed. Including age and age-squared violates the assumptions of standard linear SEMs, at least officially. You may now suspect that such researchers—perhaps including yourself—should use gsem and not sem. Because standard linear SEMs are a subset of generalized SEMs, that should not be much of an inconvenience.

It is interesting to note, however, that sem and gsem produce the same numeric solutions for the parameters and the standard errors when both can fit the same model.

All of which is to say that although it is typical to assume joint normality of all variables when deriving the standard linear SEM, joint normality is not strictly necessary. The lesser assumption of joint normality conditional on the observed exogenous variables is sufficient. Even the normality assumption can be relaxed and replaced with i.i.d., and even the i.i.d. assumption can be relaxed.

We will discuss these issues below.

Even so, some structural equation modeling statistics are dependent on the full joint normality assumption. Many goodness-of-fit tests fall into that category. Throughout this manual, we will be explicit about when the full joint-normality assumption is required.

gsem never requires the full joint-normality assumption. Standard linear SEMs have a history that includes the full joint-normality assumption; generalized SEMs have no such history. At the end of the day, both can be considered M estimation.

sem: Choice of estimation method

sem provides four estimation methods: maximum likelihood (ML; the default), quasimaximum likelihood (QML), asymptotic distribution free (ADF), and maximum likelihood with missing values (MLMV).

Strictly speaking, the assumptions one must make to establish the consistency of the estimates and their asymptotic normality is determined by the method used to estimate them. We want to give you advice on when to use each.

1. ML is the method that sem uses by default. In sem, the function being maximized formally assumes the full joint normality of all the variables, including the observed variables. But

the full joint-normality assumption can be relaxed, and the substitute conditional-on-the-observed-exogenous-variables is sufficient to justify all reported estimates and statistics except the log-likelihood value and the model-versus-saturated χ^2 test.

Relaxing the constraint that latent variables outside of the error variables are not normally distributed is more questionable. In the measurement model (X->x1 x2 x3 x4), simulations with the violently nonnormal $X \sim \chi^2(2)$ produced good results except for the standard error of the estimated variance of X. Note that it was not the coefficient on X that was estimated poorly, it was not the coefficient's standard error, and it was not even the variance of X that was estimated poorly. It was the standard error of the variance of X. Even so, there are no guarantees.

sem uses method ML when you specify method(ml) or when you omit the method() option altogether.

2. QML uses ML to fit the model parameters but relaxes the normality assumptions when estimating the standard errors. QML handles nonnormality by adjusting standard errors.

Concerning the parameter estimates, everything just said about ML applies to QML because those estimates are produced by ML.

Concerning standard errors, we theoretically expect consistent standard errors, and we practically observe that in our simulations. In the measurement model with $X \sim \chi^2(2)$, we even obtained good standard errors of the estimated variance of X. QML does not really fix the problem of nonnormality of latent variables, but it does tend to do a better job.

sem uses method QML when you specify method(ml) vce(robust) or, because method(ml) is the default, when you specify just vce(robust).

 ADF makes no assumption of joint normality or even symmetry, whether for observed or latent variables. Whereas QML handles nonnormality by adjusting standard errors and not point estimates, ADF produces justifiable point estimates and standard errors under nonnormality.

For many researchers, this is most important for relaxing the assumption of normality of the errors, and because of that, ADF is sometimes described that way. ADF in fact relaxes the normality assumption for all latent variables.

Along the same lines, it is sometimes difficult to be certain exactly which normality assumptions are being relaxed when reading other sources. It sometimes seems that ADF uniquely relaxes the assumption of the normality of the observed variables, but that is not true. Other methods, even ML, can handle that problem.

ADF is a form of weighted least squares (WLS). ADF is also a generalized method of moments (GMM) estimator. In simulations of the measurement model with $X \sim \chi^2(2)$, ADF produces excellent results, even for the standard error of the variance of X. Be aware, however, that ADF is less efficient than ML when latent variables can be assumed to be normally distributed. If latent variables (including errors) are not normally distributed, on the other hand, ADF will produce more efficient estimates than ML or QML.

sem uses method ADF when you specify method(adf).

 MLMV aims to retrieve as much information as possible from observations containing missing values.

In this regard, sem methods ML, QML, and ADF do a poor job. They are known as listwise deleters. If variable x1 appears someplace in the model and if x1 contains a missing value in observation 10, then observation 10 simply will not be used. This is true whether x1 is endogenous or exogenous and even if x1 appears in some equations but not in others.

Method MLMV, on the other hand, is not a deleter at all. Observation 10 will be used in making all calculations.

For method MLMV to perform what might seem like magic, joint normality of all variables is assumed and missing values are assumed to be missing at random (MAR). MAR means either that the missing values are scattered completely at random throughout the data or that values more likely to be missing than others can be predicted by the variables in the model.

Method MLMV formally requires the assumption of joint normality of all variables, both observed and latent. If your observed variables do not follow a joint normal distribution, you may be better off using ML, QML, or ADF and simply omitting observations with missing values.

sem uses method MLMV when you specify method(mlmv). See [SEM] example 26.

gsem: Choice of estimation method

gsem provides only two estimation methods: maximum likelihood (ML; the default) and quasi-maximum likelihood (OML).

1. ML is the method that gsem uses by default. This is the same ML used by sem but applied to a different likelihood function. The sem likelihood function assumes and includes joint normality of all variables. The gsem likelihood function assumes only conditional normality.

Because likelihood functions are different, the likelihood values reported by sem and gsem are not comparable except in the case where there are no observed exogenous variables.

ML formally assumes conditional normality, and thus latent variables are still assumed to be normally distributed. What we said in the sem case about relaxing the assumption of normality of the latent variables applies equally in the gsem case.

gsem uses method ML when you specify method(ml) or when you omit the method() option altogether.

2. QML uses ML to fit the model but relaxes the conditional normality assumptions when estimating the standard errors. QML handles nonnormality by adjusting standard errors.

Everything said about sem's QML applies equally to gsem's QML.

gsem uses method QML when you specify vce(robust).

Because the choice of method often affects convergence with sem, in the gsem case there is a tendency to confuse choice of integration method with maximization method. However, there are no issues related to assumptions about integration method; choice of integration method is purely a mechanical issue. This is discussed in [SEM] intro 12.

Treatment of missing values

sem, sem with method MLMV, and gsem treat missing values differently.

1. sem by default is a listwise deleter.

If variable x1 appears in the model and if x1 contains missing in observation 10, then observation 10 will not be used. This is true whether x1 is endogenous or exogenous and even if x1 appears in some equations but not in others.

2. sem with method MLMV is not a deleter at all: it uses all observations.

If variable x1 appears in the model and if x1 contains missing in observation 10, then observation 10 will still be used. Doing this formally requires assuming the joint normality of all observed variables and was discussed in item 4 of sem: Choice of estimation method.

3. gsem by default is an equationwise deleter.

The abridged meaning is that gsem will often be able to use more observations from the data than sem will, assuming you do not use sem with method MLMV.

The full meaning requires some setup. Consider a model of at least five equations. Assume that observed exogenous variable x1 appears in the first equation but not in equations 2-4; that equation 1 predicts y1; that y1 appears as a predictor in equations 2-4; and that x1 contains missing in observation 10.

If endogenous variable y1 is latent or observed and of family Gaussian, link identity, but without censoring, then

- 3.1 Observation 10 will be ignored in making calculations related to equation 1.
- 3.2 Observation 10 will also be ignored in making calculations related to equations 2-4 because y1, a function of x1, appears in them.
- 3.3 The calculations for the other equation(s) will include observation 10.

Alternatively, if y1 is observed and not family Gaussian, link identity, or has censoring, then item 3.2 changes:

3.2 Observation 10 will be used in making calculations related to equations 2-4 even though y1, a function of x1, appears in them.

As we said at the outset, the result of all of this is that gsem often uses more observations than does sem (excluding method MLMV).

4. gsem has an option, listwise, that duplicates the sem rules. This is used in testing of Stata. There is no reason you would want to specify the option.

Variable types: Observed, latent, endogenous, exogenous, and error

Structural equation models can contain four different types of variables:

- 1. observed exogenous
- 2. latent exogenous
- 3. observed endogenous
- 4. latent endogenous

As a software matter, it is useful to think as though there is a fifth type, too:

5. error

Errors are in fact a special case of latent exogenous variables, but there will be good reason to consider them separately.

As a language matter, it is sometimes useful to think of there being yet another type of variable, namely,

6. measure or measurement

Measurement variables are a special case of observed endogenous variables.

Let us explain:

Observed.

A variable is observed if it is a variable in your dataset. In this documentation, we often refer to observed variables with x1, x2, ..., y1, y2, and so on, but in reality observed variables have names such as mpg, weight, testscore, and so on.

Latent.

A variable is latent if it is not observed. A variable is latent if it is not in your dataset but you wish it were. You wish you had a variable recording the propensity to commit violent crime, or socioeconomic status, or happiness, or true ability, or even income. Sometimes, latent variables are imagined variants of real variables, variables that are somehow better, such as being measured without error. At the other end of the spectrum are latent variables that are not even conceptually measurable.

In this documentation, latent variables usually have names such as L1, L2, F1, ..., but in real life the names are more descriptive such as VerbalAbility, SES, and so on. The sem and gsem commands assume that variables are latent if the first letter of the name is capitalized, so we will always capitalize our latent variable names.

Endogenous.

A variable is endogenous (determined within the system) if any path points to it.

Exogenous.

A variable is exogenous (determined outside the system) if paths only originate from it or, equivalently, no path points to it.

Now that we have the above definitions, we can better understand the five types of variables:

1. Observed exogenous.

A variable in your dataset that is treated as exogenous in your model.

2. Latent exogenous.

An unobserved variable that is treated as exogenous in your model.

3. Observed endogenous.

A variable in your dataset that is treated as endogenous in your model.

4. Latent endogenous.

An unobserved variable that is treated as endogenous in your model.

5. Error.

Mathematically, error variables are just latent exogenous variables. In sem and gsem, however, errors are different in that they have defaults different from the other latent exogenous variables.

Errors are named e. So, for example, the error variable associated with observed endogenous variable y1 has the full name e.y1; the error variable associated with latent endogenous variable L1 has the full name e.L1.

In sem, each endogenous variable has a corresponding e. variable.

In gsem, observed endogenous variables associated with family Gaussian have corresponding e. variables, but other observed endogenous variables do not. All latent endogenous variables have an associated e. variable, but that is not a special case because all latent endogenous variables are assumed to be family Gaussian.

In the Builder, when you create an endogenous variable, the variable's corresponding error variable instantly springs into existence. The same happens in the command language, you just do not see it. In addition, error variables automatically and inalterably have their path coefficient constrained to be 1.

The covariances between the different variable types are given in the table below. In the table,

- 1. **0** means 0 and there are no options or secret tricks to change the value from 0.
- 2. i means as implied by your model and beyond your control.
- 3. (#) means to see the numbered note below the table.

If an entry in the matrix below is $\mathbf{0}$ or \mathbf{i} , then you may not draw curved paths between variables of the specified types.

	Observed exogenous	Latent exogenous	Observed endogenous	Latent endogenous	Error
Observed exogenous	(1) & (2)				
Latent exogenous	(3)	(4) & (5)			
Observed endogenous	i	i	i		
Latent endogenous	i	i	i	i	
Error	0	0	i	i	(6) & (7)

- 1. Variances of observed exogenous variables:
 - 1.1 Builder, sem mode: Taken as given, assuming not using method MLMV. Can be estimated or constrained; if so, you are assuming normality of the observed exogenous variables unless using method ADF.
 - 1.2 sem command: Same as item 1.1. Use var() option to estimate or constrain.
 - 1.3 Builder, gsem mode: Taken as given. Cannot be estimated or constrained.
 - 1.4 gsem command: Same as item 1.3.
- 2. Covariances between observed exogenous variables:
 - 2.1 Builder, sem mode: Taken as given, assuming not using method MLMV. Can be estimated or constrained by drawing curved paths between variables; if so, you are assuming normality of the observed exogenous variables unless using method ADF.
 - 2.2 sem command: Same as item 2.1. Use cov() option to estimate or constrain.
 - 2.3 Builder, gsem mode: Taken as given. Cannot be estimated or constrained. Path may not be drawn.
 - 2.4 gsem command: Same as item 2.3.
- 3. Covariances between latent exogenous and observed exogenous variables:
 - 3.1 Builder, sem mode: Constrained to be 0 unless a curved path is drawn between variables, in which case it is estimated. Can be constrained.
 - 3.2 sem command: Assumed to be nonzero and therefore estimated by default. Can be constrained (even to 0) using cov() option.
 - 3.3 Builder, gsem mode: Assumed to be nonzero. Cannot be estimated or constrained because this covariance is not among the identified parameters of the generalized SEM.
 - 3.4 gsem command: Same as item 3.3.
- 4. Variances of latent exogenous variables:
 - 4.1 Builder, sem mode: Variances are estimated and can be constrained.
 - 4.2 sem command: Variances are estimated and can be constrained using var() option.

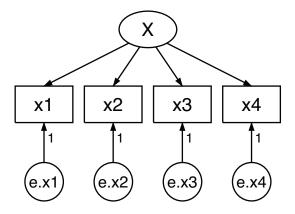
- 4.3 Builder, gsem mode: Almost the same as item 4.1 except variances cannot be constrained to 0.
- 4.4 gsem command: Almost the same as item 4.2 except variances cannot be constrained to 0.
- 5. Covariances between latent exogenous variables:
 - 5.1 Builder, sem mode: Assumed to be 0 unless a curved path is drawn between variables. Path may include constraints.
 - 5.2 sem command: Assumed to be nonzero and estimated, the same as if a curved path without a constraint were drawn in the Builder. Can be constrained (even to 0) using cov() option.
 - 5.3 Builder, gsem mode: Same as item 5.1.
 - 5.4 gsem command: Same as item 5.2.
- 6. Variances of errors:
 - 6.1 Builder, sem mode: Estimated. Can be constrained.
 - 6.2 sem command: Estimated. Can be constrained using var() option.
 - 6.3 Builder, gsem mode: Almost the same as item 6.1 except variances cannot be constrained to 0.
 - 6.4 gsem command: Almost the same as item 6.2 except variances cannot be constrained to 0.
- 7. Covariances between errors:
 - 7.1 Builder, sem mode: Assumed to be 0. Can be estimated by drawing curved paths between variables. Can be constrained.
 - 7.2 sem command: Assumed to be 0. Can be estimated or constrained using cov() option.
 - 7.3 Builder, gsem mode: Almost the same as item 7.1 except covariances between errors cannot be estimated or constrained if one or both of the error terms correspond to a generalized response with family Gaussian, link log, or link identity with censoring.
 - 7.4 gsem command: Almost the same as item 7.2 except covariances between errors cannot be estimated or constrained if one or both of the error terms correspond to a generalized response with family Gaussian, link log, or link identity with censoring.

Finally, there is a sixth variable type that we sometimes find convenient to talk about:

Measure or measurement.

A measure variable is an observed endogenous variable with a path from a latent variable. We introduce the word "measure" not as a computer term or even a formal modeling term but as a convenience for communication. It is a lot easier to say that x1 is a measure of X than to say that x1 is an observed endogenous variable with a path from latent variable X and so, in a real sense, x1 is a measurement of X.

In our measurement model,



the variables are

latent exogenous:

error: e.x1, e.x2, e.x3, e.x4

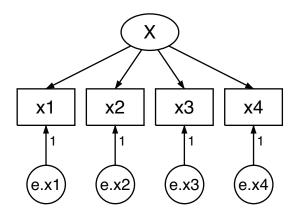
observed endogenous: x1, x2, x3, x4

All the observed endogenous variables in this model are measures of X.

Constraining parameters

Constraining path coefficients to specific values

If you wish to constrain a path coefficient to a specific value, you just write the value next to the path. In our measurement model without correlation of the residuals,



we indicate that the coefficients e.x1, ..., e.x4 are constrained to be 1 by placing a small 1 along the path. We can similarly constrain any path in the model.

If we wanted to constrain $\beta_2 = 1$ in the equation

$$x_2 = \alpha_2 + X\beta_2 + e.x_2$$

we would write a 1 along the path between X and x_2 . If we were instead using sem's or gsem's command language, we would write

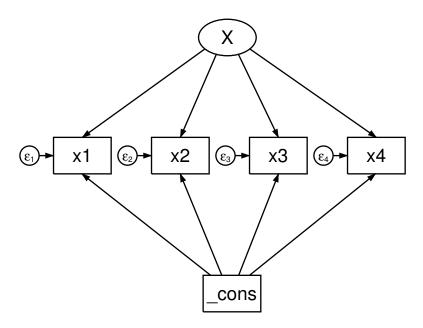
$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X01)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(x4<-X)$

That is, you type an @ symbol immediately after the variable whose coefficient is being constrained, and then you type the value.

Constraining intercepts to specific values (suppressing the intercept)

Constraining path coefficients is common. Constraining intercepts is less so, and usually when the situation arises, you wish to constrain the intercept to 0, which is often called "suppressing the intercept".

Although it is unusual to draw the paths corresponding to intercepts in path diagrams, they are assumed, and you could draw them if you wish. A more explicit version of our path diagram for the measurement model is



The path coefficient of $_cons$ to x1 corresponds to α_1 in

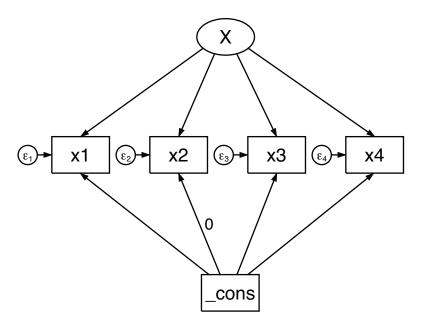
$$x_1 = \alpha_1 + X\beta_1 + e.x_1$$

and the path coefficient of $_cons$ to x2 corresponds to α_2 in

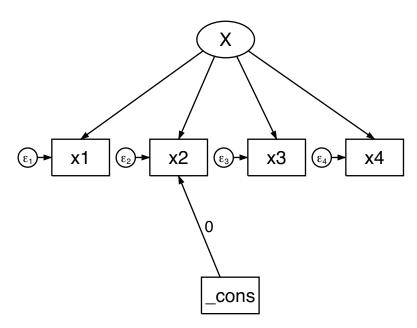
$$x_2 = \alpha_2 + X\beta_2 + e.x_2$$

and so on.

Obviously, if you wanted to constrain a particular intercept to a particular value, you would write the value along the path. To constrain $\alpha_2 = 0$, you could draw



Because intercepts are assumed, you could omit drawing the paths from _cons to x1, _cons to x3, and _cons to x4:



Just as with the Builder, the command language assumes paths from _cons to all endogenous variables, but you could type them if you wished:

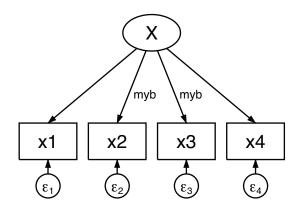
If you wanted to constrain $\alpha_2 = 0$, you could type

$$(x1<-X _cons)$$
 $(x2<-X _cons@0)$ $(x3<-X _cons)$ $(x4<-X _cons)$

or you could type

$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X _cons@0)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(x4<-X)$

If you wish to constrain two or more path coefficients to be equal, place a symbolic name along the relevant paths:



In the diagram above, we constrain $\beta_2 = \beta_3$ because we stated that $\beta_2 = \text{myb}$ and $\beta_3 = \text{myb}$.

You follow the same approach in the command language:

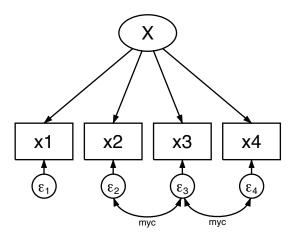
$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X@myb)$ $(x3<-X@myb)$ $(x4<-X)$

This works the same way with intercepts. Intercepts are just paths from $_cons$, so to constrain intercepts to be equal, you add symbolic names to their paths. In the command language, you constrain $\alpha_1=\alpha_2$ by typing

See [SEM] example 8.

Constraining covariances to be equal (or to specific values)

If you wish to constrain covariances, usually you will want to constrain them to be equal instead of to a specific value. If we wanted to fit our measurement model and allow correlation between e.x2 and e.x3 and between e.x3 and e.x4, and we wanted to constrain the covariances to be equal, we could draw



If you instead wanted to constrain the covariances to specific values, you would place the value along the paths in place of the symbolic names.

In the command language, covariances (curved paths) are specified using the cov() option. To allow covariances between e.x2 and e.x3 and between e.x3 and e.x4, you would type

$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(x4<-X)$, $cov(e.x2*e.x3)$ $cov(e.x3*e.x4)$

To constrain the covariances to be equal, you would type

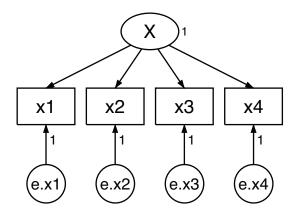
$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(x4<-X)$, $cov(e.x2*e.x3@myc)$ $cov(e.x3*e.x4@myc)$

Constraining variances to specific values (or to be equal)

Variances are like covariances except that in path diagrams drawn by some authors, variances curve back on themselves. In the Builder, variances appear inside or beside the box or circle. Regardless of how they appear, variances may be constrained to normalize latent variables, although normalization is handled by sem and gsem automatically (something we will explain in *How sem (gsem) solves the problem for you* under *Identification 2: Normalization constraints (anchoring)* below).

In the Builder, you constrain variances by clicking on the variable and using the lock box to specify the value, which can be a number or a symbol. In the command language, variances are specified using the var() option as we will explain below.

Let's assume that you want to normalize the latent variable X by constraining its variances to be 1. You do that by drawing



In the command language, we specify this model as

$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(x4<-X)$, $var(X01)$

Constraining latent exogenous variables to have unit variance as an identifying restriction may be desirable when you wish simultaneously to constrain their correlations with other latent exogenous variables. sem and gsem allow you to constrain covariances, not correlations. Covariances are equal to correlations when variances are 1.

In more complicated models, you may wish to constrain variances of latent exogenous variables to be equal. You can do that by specifying a symbolic name.

Identification 1: Substantive issues

Not all models are identified

Just because you can draw the path diagram for a model, write its equations, or write it in Stata's command syntax, does not mean the model is identified. Identification refers to the conceptual constraints on parameters of a model that are required for the model's remaining parameters to have a unique solution. A model is said to be unidentified if these constraints are not supplied. These constraints are of two types: substantive constraints and normalization constraints. We will begin by discussing substantive constraints because that is your responsibility; the software provides normalization constraints automatically.

How to count parameters

If your model has K observed variables, then your data contain K(K+1)/2 second-order moments, and thus p, the number of parameters based on second-order moments that can be estimated, cannot exceed K(K+1)/2.

Every path in your model contributes 1 to p unless the parameter is constrained to a specific value, and then it does not contribute at all. If two parameters are constrained to be equal, the two parameters count as one. In counting p, you must remember to count the curved paths from latent variables back to themselves, which is to say, the variances. Just counting the number of parameters can be challenging. And even if $p \le K(K+1)/2$, your model may not be identified. Identification depends not only on the number of paths but also on their locations.

Counting parameters can be even more difficult in the case of certain generalized linear (gsem) models. For a discussion of this, see Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2004, chap. 5).

Even in the non-gsem case, books have been written on this subject, and we will refer you to them. A few are Bollen (1989), Brown (2006), Kline (2011), and Kenny (1979). We will refer you to them, but do not be surprised if they refer you back to us. Brown (2006, 202) writes, "Because latent variable software programs are capable of evaluating whether a given model is identified, it is often most practical to simply try to estimate the solution and let the computer determine the model's identification status." That is not bad advice.

What happens when models are unidentified

or

So what happens when you attempt to fit an unidentified model? In some cases, sem (gsem) will tell you that your model is unidentified. If your model is unidentified for subtle substantive reasons, however, you will see

```
initial values not feasible
r(1400);

Iteration 50: log likelihood = -337504.44 (not concave)
Iteration 51: log likelihood = -337504.44 (not concave)
Iteration 52: log likelihood = -337504.44 (not concave)
.
.
.
.
Iteration 101: log likelihood = -337504.44 (not concave)
.
```

In the latter case, sem (gsem) will iterate forever, reporting the same criterion value (such as log likelihood) and saying "not concave" over and over again.

Observing periods of the "not concave" message is not concerning, so do not overreact at the first occurrence. Become concerned when you see "not concave" and the criterion value is not changing, and even then, stay calm for a short time because the value might be changing in digits you are not seeing. If the iteration log continues to report the same value several times, however, press *Break*. Your model is probably not identified.

How to diagnose and fix the problem

You must find and fix the problem.

If you get the "initial values not feasible" message, your goal is to find feasible initial values and thereby either solve the problem or convert it into the infinitely long iteration log problem; see [SEM] intro 12.

If you get the infinitely long log, rerun the model specifying sem's (gsem's) iterate(#) option, where # is large enough to reach the "not concave" messages with constant criterion value. sem (gsem) will iterate that many times and then report the results it has at that point. Look at the output for missing standard errors. Those parameters are unidentified, and you need to think about either changing your model so that they become identified or placing constraints on them.

Identification 2: Normalization constraints (anchoring)

Normalization constraints (anchoring) are provided automatically by sem and gsem. It is rare indeed that the automatically provided constraints will be the source of convergence problems.

Models with latent variables require normalization constraints because latent variables have no natural scale. If constraints were not provided, the model would appear to the software the same as a model with a substantive lack of identification; the estimation routine would iterate forever and never arrive at a solution.

The sem and gsem commands automatically provide normalization constraints to prevent that from happening.

Below we explain why the normalization constraints are required, which normalization constraints sem and gsem automatically supply, how to override those automatic choices, and how to substitute your own constraints should you desire.

Why the problem arises

Imagine a latent variable for propensity to be violent. Your imagination might supply a scale that ranges from 0 to 1 or 1 to 100 or over other values, but regardless, the scale you imagine is arbitrary in that one scale works as well as another.

Scales have two components: mean and variance. If you imagine a latent variable with mean 0 and your colleague imagines the same variable with mean 100, the difference can be accommodated in the parameter estimates by an intercept changing by 100. If you imagine a standard deviation of 1 (variance $1^2 = 1$) and your colleague imagines a standard deviation of 10 (variance $10^2 = 100$), the difference can be accommodated by a path coefficient differing by a multiplicative factor of 10. You might measure an effect as being 1.1 and then your colleague would measure the same effect as being 0.11, but either way you both will come to the same substantive conclusions.

How the problem would manifest itself

The problem is that different scales all work equally well, and the software will iterate forever, jumping from one scale to another.

Another way of saying that the means and variances of latent variables are arbitrary is to say that they are unidentified. That's important because if you do not specify the scale you have in mind, results of estimation will look just like substantive lack of identification.

sem (gsem) will iterate forever and never arrive at a solution.

How sem (gsem) solves the problem for you

You usually do not need to worry about this problem because sem (gsem) solves it for you. sem (gsem) solves the unidentified scale problem by

- 1. Assuming that all latent exogenous variables have mean 0.
- 2. Assuming that all latent endogenous variables have intercept 0.
- 3. Setting the coefficients on paths from latent variables to the first observed endogenous variable to be 1.
- 4. Setting the coefficients on paths from latent variables to the first latent endogenous variable to be 1 if rule 3 does not apply—if the latent variable is measured by other latent variables only.

Rules 3 and 4 are also known as the unit-loading rules. The variable to which the path coefficient is set to 1 is said to be the anchor for the latent variable.

Applying those rules to our measurement model, when we type

$$(X->x1)$$
 $(X->x2)$ $(X->x3)$ $(X->x4)$

sem (gsem) acts as if we typed

$$(X@1->x1)$$
 $(X->x2)$ $(X->x3)$ $(X->x4)$, means $(X@0)$

The above four rules are sufficient to provide a scale for latent variables for all models.

Overriding sem's (gsem's) solution

sem (gsem) automatically applies rules 1 through 4 to produce normalization constraints. There are, however, other normalization constraints that would work as well. In what follows, we will assume that you are well versed in deriving normalization constraints and just want to know how to bend sem (gsem) to your will.

Before you do this, however, let us warn you that substituting your normalization rules for the defaults can result in more iterations being required to fit your model. Yes, one set of normalization constraints are as good as the next, but sem's (gsem)'s starting values are based on its default normalization rules, which means that when you substitute your rules for the defaults, the required number of iterations sometimes increases.

Let's return to the measurement model:

$$(X->x1)$$
 $(X->x2)$ $(X->x3)$ $(X->x4)$

As we said previously, type the above and sem (gsem) acts as if you typed

$$(X@1->x1)$$
 $(X->x2)$ $(X->x3)$ $(X->x4)$, means $(X@0)$

If you wanted to assume instead that the mean of X is 100, you could type

$$(X->x1)$$
 $(X->x2)$ $(X->x3)$ $(X->x4)$, means(X0100)

The means() option allows you to specify mean constraints, and you may do so for latent or observed variables.

Let's leave the mean at 0 and specify that we instead want to constrain the second path coefficient to be 1:

$$(X->x1)$$
 $(X01->x2)$ $(X->x3)$ $(X->x4)$

We did not have to tell sem (gsem) not to constrain X->x1 to have coefficient 1. We just specified that we wanted to constrain X->x2 to have coefficient 1. sem (gsem) takes all the constraints that you specify and then adds whatever normalization constraints are needed to identify the model. If what you have specified is sufficient, sem (gsem) does not add its constraints to yours.

Obviously, if we wanted to constrain the mean to be 100 and the second rather than the first path coefficient to be 1, we would type

$$(X->x1)$$
 $(X@1->x2)$ $(X->x3)$ $(X->x4)$, means $(X@100)$

If we wanted to constrain the standard deviation of X to be 10 instead of constraining a path coefficient to be 1, we would type

$$(X->x1)$$
 $(X->x2)$ $(X->x3)$ $(X->x4)$, means(X0100) var(X0100)

Standard deviations are specified in variance units when you use the var() option.

References

Acock, A. C. 2013. Discovering Structural Equation Modeling Using Stata. Rev. ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press.

Bollen, K. A. 1989. Structural Equations with Latent Variables. New York: Wiley.

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Kline, R. B. 2011. Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling. 3rd ed. New York: Guilford Press.

Skrondal, A., and S. Rabe-Hesketh. 2004. Generalized Latent Variable Modeling: Multilevel, Longitudinal, and Structural Equation Models. Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall/CRC.

Also see

[SEM] **intro 3** — Learning the language: Factor-variable notation (gsem only)

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

[SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams

[SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure() — Specifying covariance restrictions

Title

intro 5 — Tour of models

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

Below is a sampling of SEMs that can be fit by sem or gsem.

Remarks and examples

If you have not read [SEM] intro 2, please do so. You need to speak the language. We also recommend reading [SEM] intro 4, but that is not required.

Now that you speak the language, we can start all over again and take a look at some of the classic models that sem and gsem can fit.

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Single-factor measurement models

Item-response theory (IRT) models

Multiple-factor measurement models

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) models

Structural models 1: Linear regression

Structural models 2: Gamma regression

Structural models 3: Binary-outcome models

Structural models 4: Count models

Structural models 5: Ordinal models

Structural models 6: Multinomial logistic regression

Structural models 7: Dependencies between response variables

Structural models 8: Unobserved inputs, outputs, or both

Structural models 9: MIMIC models

Structural models 10: Seemingly unrelated regression (SUR)

Structural models 11: Multivariate regression

Structural models 12: Mediation models

Correlations

Higher-order CFA models

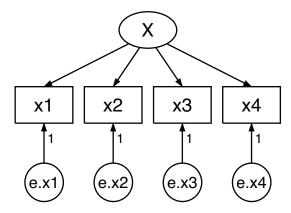
Correlated uniqueness model

Latent growth models

Models with reliability

Multilevel mixed-effects models

A single-factor measurement model is



The model can be written in Stata command language as

$$(x1<-X)$$
 $(x2<-X)$ $(x3<-X)$ $(x4<-X)$

or as

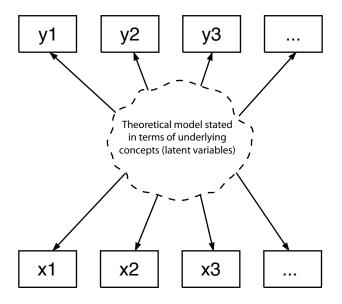
$$(x1 \ x2 \ x3 \ x4 < -X)$$

or as

$$(X->x1 x2 x3 x4)$$

or in other ways. All the equivalent ways really are equivalent; no subtle differences will subsequently arise according to your choice.

The measurement model plays an important role in many other SEMs dealing with the observed inputs and the observed outputs:



Because the measurement model is so often joined with other models, it is common to refer to the coefficients on the paths from latent variables to observable endogenous variables as the measurement coefficients and to refer to their intercepts as the measurement intercepts. The intercepts are usually not shown in path diagrams. The other coefficients and intercepts are those not related to the measurement issue.

The measurement coefficients are often referred to as loadings.

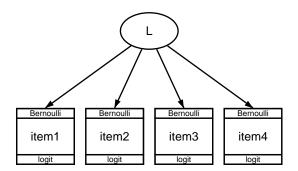
This model can be fit by sem or gsem. Use sem for standard linear models (standard means single level); use gsem when you are fitting a multilevel model or when the response variables are generalized linear such as probit, logit, multinomial logit, Poisson, and so on.

See the following examples:

- 1. [SEM] example 1. Single-factor measurement model.
- 2. [SEM] example 27g. Single-factor measurement model (generalized response).
- 3. [SEM] example 30g. Two-level measurement model (multilevel, generalized response).
- 4. [SEM] example 35g. Ordered probit and ordered logit.

Item-response theory (IRT) models

Item-response theory (IRT) models look like the following:



The items are the observed variables, and each has a 0/1 outcome measuring a latent variable. Often, the latent variable represents ability. These days, it is traditional to fit IRT models using logistic regression, but in the past, probit was used and they were called normal ogive models.

In one-parameter logistic models, also known as 1-PL models and Rasch models, constraints are placed on the paths and perhaps the variance of the latent variable. Either path coefficients are constrained to 1 or path coefficients are constrained to be equal and the variance of the latent variable is constrained to be 1. Either way, this results in the negative of the intercepts of the fitted model being a measure of difficulty.

1-PL and Rasch models can be fit treating the latent variable—ability—as either fixed or random. Abilities are treated as random with gsem.

In two-parameter logistic models (2-PL), no constraints are imposed beyond the one required to identify the latent variable, which is usually done by constraining the variance to 1. This results in path coefficients measuring discriminating ability of the items, and difficulty is measured by the negative of the intercepts divided by the corresponding (slope) coefficient.

IRT has been extended beyond 1-PL and 2-PL models, including extension to other types of generalized responses.

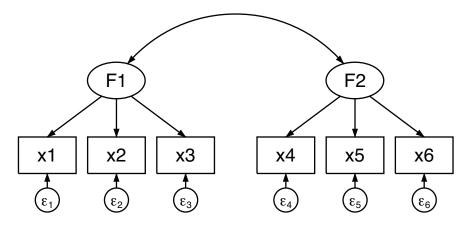
IRT models, including the extensions, can be fit by gsem.

See the following examples:

- 1. [SEM] example 28g. One-parameter logistic IRT (Rasch) model.
- 2. [SEM] example 29g. Two-parameter logistic IRT model.

Multiple-factor measurement models

A two-factor measurement model is two one-factor measurement models with possible correlation between the factors:



To obtain a correlation between F1 and F2, we drew a curved path.

The model can be written in Stata command language as

$$(F1->x1)$$
 $(F1->x2)$ $(F1->x3)$ $(F2->x4)$ $(F2->x5)$ $(F2->x6)$

In the command language, we do not have to include the cov(F1*F2) option because, by default, sem assumes that exogenous latent variables are correlated with each other. This model can also be written in any of the following ways:

$$(F1->x1 x2 x3) (F2->x4 x5 x6)$$

or

or

$$(x1<-F1)$$
 $(x2<-F1)$ $(x3<-F1)$ $(x4<-F2)$ $(x5<-F2)$ $(x6<-F2)$

Two-factor measurement models can be fit by sem and gsem.

See the following examples:

- 1. [SEM] example 3. Two-factor measurement model.
- 2. [SEM] example 31g. Two-factor measurement model (generalized response).

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) models

The measurement models just shown are also known as confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) models because they can be analyzed using CFA.

In the single-factor model, after estimation, you might want to test that all the indicators have significant loadings by using test; see [SEM] test. You might also want to test whether the correlations between the errors should have been included in the model by using estat mindices; see [SEM] estat mindices.

In the multiple-factor measurement model, you might want to test that any of the omitted paths should in fact be included in the model. The omitted paths in the two-factor measurement model above were F1 \rightarrow x4, F1 \rightarrow x5, F1 \rightarrow x6, and F2 \rightarrow x1, F2 \rightarrow x2, F2 \rightarrow x3. estat mindices will perform these tests.

These tests are available after sem only. CFA is just a measurement model and can be fit by both sem and gsem.

We show other types of CFA models below.

See the following example:

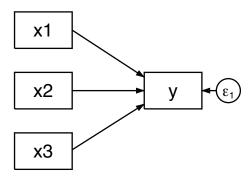
1. [SEM] example 5. Modification indices.

Structural models 1: Linear regression

Different authors define the meaning of structural models in different ways. Bollen (1989, 4) defines a structural model as the parameters being not of a descriptive nature of association but instead of a causal nature. By that definition, the measurement models above could be structural models, and so could the linear regression below.

Others define structural models as models having paths reflecting causal dependencies between endogenous variables, which would thus exclude the measurement model and linear regression. We will show you a "true" structural model in the next example.

An example of a linear regression is



This model can be written in Stata command language as

$$(y < -x1 x2 x3)$$

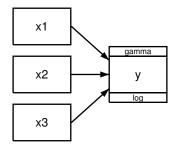
When you estimate a linear regression by using sem, you obtain the same point estimates as you would with regress and the same standard errors up to a degree-of-freedom adjustment applied by regress.

Linear regression models can be fit by sem and gsem. gsem also has options for censoring. See the following examples:

- 1. [SEM] example 6. Linear regression.
- 2. [SEM] example 38g. Random-intercept and random-slope models (multilevel).
- 3. [SEM] example 40g. Crossed models (multilevel).
- 4. [SEM] example 43g. Tobit regression.
- 5. [SEM] example 44g. Interval regression.

Structural models 2: Gamma regression

Gamma regression, also known as log-Gamma regression, is used when a continuous outcome is nonnegative, when it ranges from zero to infinity, and often with positively skewed data. It is appropriate when the error variance can be assumed to increase with the mean. Gamma regression gives similar results to linear regression with a logged dependent variable.



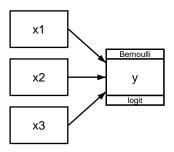
Gamma regression is fit by gsem; specify shorthand gamma or specify family (gamma) link(log).

You can fit exponential regressions using Gamma regression if you constrain the log of the scale parameter to be 0; see [SEM] gsem family-and-link options.

Structural models 3: Binary-outcome models

Binary-outcome models have 0/1 response variables. These models include logistic regression (also known as logit), probit, and complementary log-log (also known as cloglog) models.

A simple logistic regression model is



which in command syntax can be written as

For the other binary-outcome models, all that changes in the diagram is the names of the family and link; in the command language, the option name changes; see [SEM] gsem family-and-link options.

Usually, the observations in binary-outcome data record whether the event occurred, but the data can instead record the number of events and the number of trials by changing the family from Bernoulli to binomial; see [SEM] gsem family-and-link options.

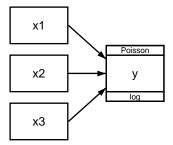
Binary-outcome models can be fit by gsem.

See the following examples:

- 1. [SEM] example 33g. Logistic regression.
- 2. [SEM] example 27g. Single-factor measurement model (generalized response).
- 3. [SEM] example 34g. Combined models (generalized responses).

Structural models 4: Count models

Count models have response variables that are counts of things or events. These models include Poisson and negative binomial models. A simple example of a Poisson model is



which in command syntax can be written as

$$(y < -x1 x2 x3, poisson)$$

For negative binomial models, in path diagrams, the family changes to nbreg and, in the command syntax, the option changes to nbreg.

In Poisson models, both the mean and the variance are determined by a single parameter: the rate at which the event occurs. One use of negative binomial models is to handle overdispersion, which is when the variance is greater than the variance that would be predicted by a Poisson model.

The way we have diagrammed the model and written the command, we are assuming that each observation was at risk for the same length of time. If observations varied in this, the command would be

where variable etime records each observation's exposure time. The diagram would not change, but we would nonetheless enter the exposure time into the Builder. See [SEM] gsem family-and-link options.

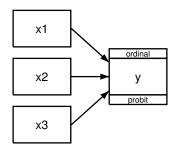
Count models are fit by gsem.

See the following examples:

- 1. [SEM] example 34g. Combined models (generalized responses).
- 2. [SEM] example 39g. Three-level model (multilevel, generalized response).

Structural models 5: Ordinal models

Ordinal models have two or more possible outcomes that are ordered, such as responses of the form "a little", "average", and "a lot"; or "strongly disagree", "disagree", ..., "strongly agree". The outcomes are usually numbered $1, 2, \ldots, k$. These models include ordered probit, ordered logit, and ordered complementary log-log (also known as ordered cloglog). A simple example of an ordered probit model is



which in command syntax can be written as

$$(y < -x1 x2 x3, oprobit)$$

All that changes for the other models is the link name that appears in the path diagram or the option that appears in the command language.

Ordinal models are fit by gsem.

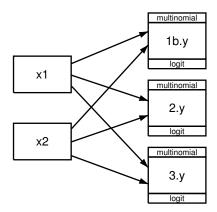
See the following examples:

- 1. [SEM] example 35g. Ordered probit and ordered logit.
- 2. [SEM] example 31g. Two-factor measurement model (generalized response).
- 3. [SEM] example 32g. Full structural equation model (generalized response).
- 4. [SEM] example 36g. MIMIC model (generalized response).

Structural models 6: Multinomial logistic regression

Multinomial logistic regression, also known as multinomial logit, is similar to ordinal models in that it, too, deals with multiple responses; however, in multinomial logistic regression, the responses cannot be ordered. Examples of multinomial logit response include method of transportation (car, public transportation, etc.) or ice-cream flavor (vanilla, chocolate, etc.).

Just as with ordinal models, the outcome is usually recorded as a single variable containing 1, 2, \ldots , k, but in path diagrams, factor-variable notation is used to identify the outcomes:



In command syntax, this can be written as

$$(i.y < -x1 x2, mlogit)$$

In the example above, we have paths from all predictor variables to all outcomes. That is common but not required.

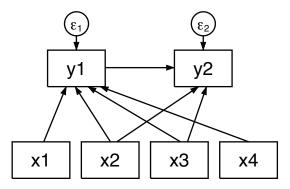
The multinomial logistic regression model is fit by gsem.

See the following examples:

- 1. [SEM] example 37g. Multinomial logistic regression.
- 2. [SEM] example 41g. Two-level multinomial logistic regression (multilevel).

Structural models 7: Dependencies between response variables

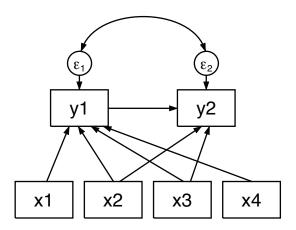
An example of a structural model having paths between response (endogenous) variables is



This model can be written in Stata command language as

$$(y1 < -x1 x2 x3 x4) (y2 < -y1 x2 x3)$$

In this example, all inputs and outputs are observed and the errors are assumed to be uncorrelated. In these kinds of models, it is common to allow correlation between errors:



The model above can be written in Stata command language as

$$(y1 < -x1 x2 x3 x4) (y2 < -y1 x2 x3), cov(e.y1 *e.y2)$$

This structural model is said to be overidentified. If we omitted $y1 \leftarrow x4$, the model would be just-identified. If we also omitted $y1 \leftarrow x1$, the model would be unidentified.

When you fit the above model using sem, you obtain slightly different results from those you would obtain with ivregress liml. This is because sem with default method (ml) produces full-information maximum likelihood rather than limited-information maximum likelihood results.

Analysis of models for observed variables that include dependencies between endogenous variables may also be referred to as path analysis. Acock (2013, chap. 2) discusses path analysis with sem in more detail.

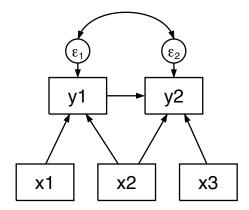
These models can be fit by sem or gsem. When using gsem to fit models with generalized response variables, non-Gaussian responses and Gaussian responses with the log link, or censoring, can only be included in recursive portions of models.

See the following examples:

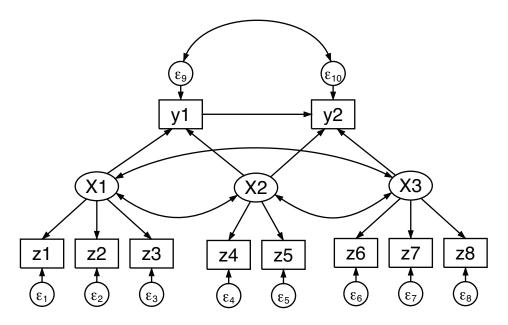
- 1. [SEM] **example 7**. Nonrecursive structural model.
- 2. [SEM] example 34g. Combined models (generalized responses).
- 3. [SEM] example 42g. One- and two-level mediation models (multilevel).
- 4. [SEM] example 43g. Tobit regression.
- 5. [SEM] example 44g. Interval regression.
- 6. [SEM] example 45g. Heckman selection model.
- 7. [SEM] example 46g. Endogenous treatment-effects model.

Structural models 8: Unobserved inputs, outputs, or both

Perhaps in a structural model such as



the inputs x1, x2, and x3 are concepts and thus are not observed. Assume that we have measurements for them. We can join this structural model example with a three-factor measurement model:



Note the curved arrows denoting correlation between the pairs of X1, X2, and X3. In the previous path diagram, we had no such arrows between the variables, yet we were still assuming that they were there. In sem's path diagrams, correlation between exogenous observed variables is assumed and need not be explicitly shown. When we changed observed variables x1, x2, and x3 to be the latent variables X1, X2, and X3, we needed to show explicitly the correlations we were allowing. Correlation between latent variables is not assumed and must be shown.

This model can be written in Stata command syntax as follows:

```
(y1 < -X1 X2) (y2 < -y1 X2 X3)
                                 ///
(X1->z1 z2 z3)
                                 ///
                                 ///
(X2->z4 z5)
(X3->z6\ z7\ z8),
                                 111
            cov(e.y1*e.y2)
```

We did not include the cov(X1*X2 X1*X3 X2*X3) option, although we could have. In the command language, exogenous latent variables are assumed to be correlated with each other. If we did not want X2 and X3 to be correlated, we would need to include the cov(X2*X3@0) option.

We changed x1, x2, and x3 to be X1, X2, and X3. In command syntax, variables beginning with a capital letter are assumed to be latent. Alternatively, we could have left the names in lowercase and specified the identities of the latent variables:

```
(y1 < -x1 x2) (y2 < -y1 x2 x3)
                                 ///
(x1->z1 z2 z3)
                                 111
(x2->z4\ z5)
                                 111
(x3->z6\ z7\ z8),
                                 ///
            cov(e.y1*e.y2)
                                 111
            latent(x1 x2 x3)
```

Just as we have joined an observed structural model to a measurement model to handle unobserved inputs, we could join the above model to a measurement model to handle unobserved y1 and y2.

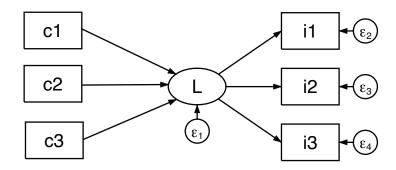
Models with unobserved inputs, outputs, or both can be fit by sem and gsem.

See the following examples:

- 1. [SEM] example 9. Structural model with measurement component.
- 2. [SEM] example 32g. Full structural equation model (generalized response).
- 4. [SEM] example 45g. Heckman selection model.
- 5. [SEM] example 46g. Endogenous treatment-effects model.

Structural models 9: MIMIC models

MIMIC stands for multiple indicators and multiple causes. An example of a MIMIC model is



In this model, the observed causes c1, c2, and c3 determine latent variable L, and L in turn determines the observed indicators i1. i2. and i3.

This model can be written in Stata command syntax as

MIMIC models can be fit by sem and gsem.

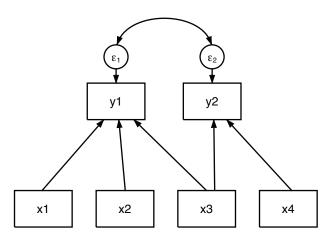
See the following examples:

- 1. [SEM] example 10. MIMIC model.
- 2. [SEM] example 36g. MIMIC model (generalized response).

Structural models 10: Seemingly unrelated regression (SUR)

Seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) is like having two or more separate linear regressions but allowing the errors to be correlated.

An example of an SUR model is



The model above can be written in Stata command syntax as

$$(y1 < -x1 x2 x3) (y2 < -x3 x4), cov(e.y1 *e.y2)$$

In this example, the two regressions share a common exogenous variable, x3. They do not have to share a common variable, or they could share more variables. If they shared all variables, results would be the same as estimating multivariate regression, shown in the next example.

When you estimate an SUR with sem, you obtain the same point estimates as you would with sureg if you specify sureg's isure option, which causes sureg to iterate until it obtains the maximum likelihood result. Standard errors will be different. If the model has exogenous variables only on the right-hand side, then standard errors will be asymptotically identical and, although the standard errors are different in finite samples, there is no reason to prefer one set over the other. If the model being fit is recursive, standard errors produced by sem are better than those from sureg, both asymptotically and in finite samples.

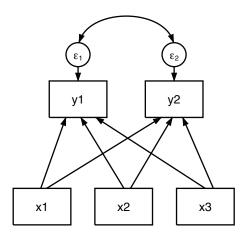
SUR models can be fit by sem and gsem. gsem will allow you to generalize the model to multilevel. In cases other than family Gaussian, link identity, you can sometimes introduce latent variables to create a similar effect.

See the following example:

1. [SEM] example 12. Seemingly unrelated regression.

Structural models 11: Multivariate regression

A multivariate regression is just an SUR where the different dependent variables share the same exogenous variables:



The model above can be written in Stata command syntax as

$$(y1 \ y2 < -x1 \ x2 \ x3), \ cov(e.y1 * e.y2)$$

When you estimate a multivariate regression with sem, you obtain the same point estimates as you would with mvreg and the same standard errors up to a multiplicative $\sqrt{(N-p-1)/N}$ degree-of-freedom adjustment applied by mvreg.

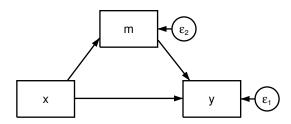
Multivariate regression can be fit by sem and gsem. gsem will allow you to generalize the model to multilevel. In cases other than family Gaussian, link identity, you can sometimes introduce latent variables to create a similar effect.

See the following example:

1. [SEM] example 12. Seemingly unrelated regression.

Structural models 12: Mediation models

Mediation models concern effects that pass through (are mediated by) other variables. Consider response variable y affected by x mediated through m:



This can also be specified in command syntax as

$$(y < -m x) (m < -x)$$

In this simple model, x has a direct effect on y and an indirect (mediated through m) effect. The direct effect may be reasonable given the situation, or it may be included just so one can test whether the direct effect is present. If both the direct and indirect effects are significant, the effect of x is said to be partially mediated through m.

There are one-level mediation models and various two-level models, and lots of other variations, too.

sem and gsem can both fit one-level linear models, but you will be better off using sem. gsem can fit one-level generalized linear models and fit two-level (and higher) models, generalized linear or not.

See the following example:

1. [SEM] example 42g. One- and two-level mediation models (multilevel).

Correlations

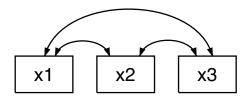
We are all familiar with correlation matrices of observed variables, such as

	x1	x2	x3
x1	1.0000		
x2	0.7700	1.0000	
xЗ	-0.0177	-0.2229	1.0000

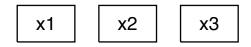
or covariances matrices, such as

	x1	x2	x3
x1	662.172		
x2	62.5157	9.95558	
xЗ	-0.769312	-1.19118	2.86775

These results can be obtained from sem. The path diagram for the model is



We could just as well leave off the curved paths because sem assumes them among observed exogenous variables:



Either way, this model can be written in Stata command syntax as

$$(<- x1 x2 x3)$$

That is, we simply omit specifying the target of the path, the endogenous variable.

If we fit the model, we will obtain the covariance matrix by default correlate with the covariance option produces covariances that are divided by N-1 rather than by N. To match this covariance exactly, you need to specify the nm1 option, which we can do in the command language by typing

$$(<-x1 x2 x3), nm1$$

If we want correlations rather than covariances, we ask for them by specifying the standardized option:

An advantage of obtaining correlation matrices from sem rather than from correlate is that you can perform statistical tests on the results, such as that the correlation of x1 and x3 is equal to the correlation of x2 and x3.

If you are willing to assume joint normality of the variables, you can obtain more efficient estimates of the correlations in the presence of missing-at-random data by specifying the method(mlmv) option.

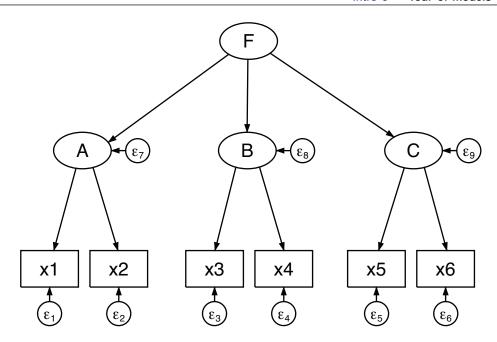
Correlations are fit using sem.

See the following example:

1. [SEM] example 16. Correlation.

Higher-order CFA models

Observed values sometimes measure traits or other aspects of latent variables, so we insert a new layer of latent variables to reflect those traits or aspects. We have measurements—say, x1, ..., x6—all reflecting underlying factor F, but x1 and x2 measure one trait of F, x3 and x4 measure another trait, and x5 and x6 measure yet another trait. This model can be drawn as



The model can be written in command syntax as

$$(A \rightarrow x1 x2) (B \rightarrow x3 x4) (C \rightarrow x5 x6) (A B C \leftarrow F)$$

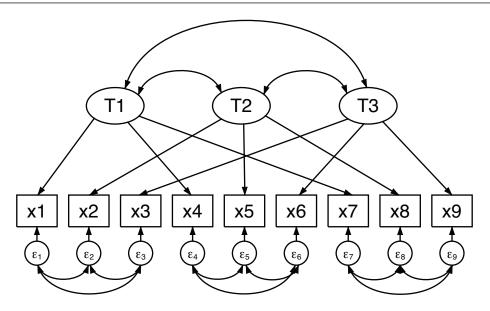
Higher-order CFA models can be fit using sem or gsem.

See the following example:

1. [SEM] example 15. Higher-order CFA.

Correlated uniqueness model

Observed values sometimes are correlated just because of how the data are collected. Imagine we have factor T1 representing a trait with measurements x1 and x4. Perhaps T1 is aggression, and then x1 is self reported and x4 is reported by the spouse. Imagine we also have factor T2 with measurements x2 and x5. Again, x2 is self reported and x5 is reported by the spouse. It would not be unlikely that x1 and x2 are correlated and that x4 and x5 are correlated. That is exactly what the correlated uniqueness model assumes:



Data that exhibit this kind of pattern are known as multitrait—multimethod (MTMM) data. Researchers historically looked at the correlations, but structural equation modeling allows us to fit a model that incorporates the correlations.

The above model can be written in Stata command syntax as

```
(T1->x1 x4 x7) ///
(T2->x2 x5 x8) ///
(T3->x3 x6 x9), ///

cov(e.x1*e.x2 e.x1*e.x3 e.x2*e.x3) ///

cov(e.x4*e.x5 e.x4*e.x6 e.x5*e.x6) ///

cov(e.x7*e*x8 e.x7*e.x9 e.x8*e.x9)
```

An alternative way to type the above is to use the covstructure() option, which we can abbreviate as covstruct():

Unstructured means that the listed variables have covariances. Specifying blocks of errors as unstructured would save typing if there were more variables in each block.

The correlated uniqueness model can be fit by sem or gsem, although we recommend use of sem in this case. Gaussian responses with the identity link are allowed to have correlated uniqueness (error) but only in the absence of censoring, gsem still provides the theoretical ability to fit these models in multilevel contexts, but convergence may be difficult to achieve.

See the following example:

1. [SEM] example 17. Correlated uniqueness model.

Latent growth models

A latent growth model is a variation on the measurement model. In our measurement model examples, we have assumed four observed measurements of underlying factor X: x1, x2, x3, and x4. In the command language, we can write this as

$$(X->x1)$$
 $(X->x2)$ $(X->x3)$ $(X->x4)$

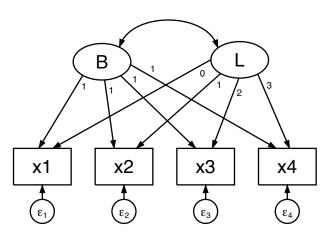
Let's assume that the observed values are collected over time. x1 is observed at time 0, x2 at time 1, and so on. It thus may be more reasonable to assume that the observed values represent a base value and a growth modeled with a linear trend. Thus we might write the model as

The equations for this model are

$$x_1 = B + 0L + e.x_1$$

 $x_2 = B + 1L + e.x_2$
 $x_3 = B + 2L + e.x_3$
 $x_4 = B + 3L + e.x_4$

and the path diagram is



In evaluating this model, it is useful to review the means of the latent exogenous variables. In most models, latent exogenous variables have mean 0, and the means are thus uninteresting. sem usually constrains latent exogenous variables to have mean 0 and does not report that fact.

In this case, however, we ourselves have placed constraints, and thus the means are identified and in fact are an important point of the exercise. We must tell sem not to constrain the means of the two latent exogenous variables B and L, which we do with the means() option:

```
(B@1 L@0->x1) ///
(B@1 L@1->x2) ///
(B@1 L@2->x3) ///
(B@1 L@3->x4), ///
noconstant means(B L)
```

We must similarly specify the means () option when using the Builder.

Latent growth models can be fit with sem or gsem.

See the following example:

1. [SEM] example 18. Latent growth model.

Models with reliability

A typical solution for dealing with variables measured with error is to find multiple measurements and use those measurements to develop a latent variable. See, for example, *Single-factor measurement models* and *Multiple-factor measurement models* above.

When the reliability of the variables is known—reliability is measured as the fraction of variances that is not due to measurement error—another approach is available. This approach can be used in place of or in addition to the use of multiple measurements. See [SEM] **sem and gsem option reliability()**.

Models with reliability can be fit with sem or gsem, although option reliability() is available only when responses are Gaussian with the identity link and only in the absence of censoring.

See the following example:

1. [SEM] example 24. Reliability.

Multilevel mixed-effects models

Multilevel modeling concerns the inclusion of common, random effects across groups of the data, which are known as levels. You have observations on students. Students attend schools. Or you have observations on patients. Patients are served by hospitals. In either case, there may be an unmeasured effect of the institution. Some schools are better than others while some schools are worse. The same applies to hospitals. These unmeasured effects can be parameterized as a latent variable that is constant within institution and varies across institution.

What we have just described is a two-level nested model. The first level, the lowest, is the observational level. The second level is school or hospital.

In a three-level nested model, students are served by schools which are served by counties, or patients are served by hospitals which are served by states. Whatever the example, there can be unmeasured effects of each of those higher levels contributing to the effect observed at the observational level.

An alternative to nested models is crossed models. People with jobs work in an industry and in a state. The same industries are found across states and the same states are found across industries, yet both may have an effect on some aspect of the lives of their workers.

Multilevel models are fit by gsem.

See the following examples:

- 1. [SEM] example 30g. Two-level measurement model (multilevel, generalized response).
- 2. [SEM] example 38g. Random-intercept and random-slope models (multilevel).
- 3. [SEM] example 39g. Three-level model (multilevel, generalized response).
- 4. [SEM] example 40g. Crossed models (multilevel).
- 5. [SEM] example 41g. Two-level multinomial logistic regression (multilevel).
- 6. [SEM] example 42g. One- and two-level mediation models (multilevel).

References

Acock, A. C. 2013. Discovering Structural Equation Modeling Using Stata. Rev. ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press. Bollen, K. A. 1989. Structural Equations with Latent Variables. New York: Wiley.

Also see

```
    [SEM] intro 4 — Substantive concepts
    [SEM] intro 6 — Comparing groups (sem only)
    [SEM] example 1 — Single-factor measurement model
```

Title

intro 6 — Comparing groups (sem only)

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

sem has a unique feature not shared by gsem. You can easily compare groups—compare males with females, compare age group 1 with age group 2 with age group 3, and so on—with respect to any SEM. Said more technically, any model fit by sem can be simultaneously estimated for different groups with some parameters constrained to be equal across groups and others allowed to vary, and those estimates can be used to perform statistical tests for comparing the groups.

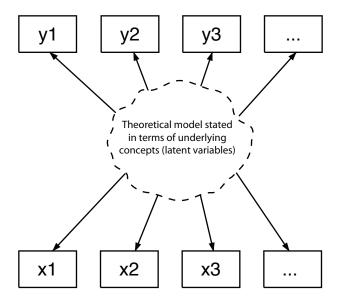
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

The generic SEM model
Fitting the model for different groups of the data
Which parameters vary by default, and which do not
Specifying which parameters are allowed to vary in broad, sweeping terms
Adding constraints for path coefficients across groups
Adding constraints for means, variances, or covariances across groups
Adding constraints for some groups but not others
Adding paths for some groups but not others
Relaxing constraints

The generic SEM model

In [SEM] intro 5, we noted that measurement models are often joined with other SEMs to produce



This can be written in the command syntax as

```
(Y1->...) (Y2->...) ///
(...) /// theoretical model stated in terms of
(...) /// underlying concepts (latent variables)
(...) ///
(X1->...) (X2->...)
```

where the middle part is the theoretical model stated in terms of underlying concepts Y1, Y2, X1, and X2.

However we write the model, we are assuming the following:

- 1. The unobserved X1 and X2 are measured by the observed $x1, x2, \ldots$
- 2. The middle part is stated in terms of the underlying concepts X1, X2, Y1, and Y2.
- 3. The unobserved Y1 and Y2 are measured by the observed y1, y2,

Fitting the model for different groups of the data

We can fit this model for different groups (say, age groups) by specifying the group(varname) option:

```
      (Y1->...)
      /// part 3

      (...)
      /// part 2

      (...)
      /// part 1

      (X1->...)
      (X2->...)
      /// part 1
```

where agegrp is a variable in our dataset, perhaps taking on values 1, 2, 3, We can specify the model by using the command language or by drawing the model in the Builder and then choosing and filling in the group() option.

After estimation, you can use estat ginvariant (see [SEM] estat ginvariant) to obtain Wald tests of whether constraints should be added and score tests of whether constraints should be relaxed.

Which parameters vary by default, and which do not

When we specify group(groupvar), the measurement parts of the model (parts 1 and 3) are constrained by default to be the same across the groups, whereas the middle part (part 2) will have separate parameters for each group. More specifically, parts 1 and 3 are constrained to be equal across groups except that the variances of the errors will be estimated separately for each group.

If there is no measurement component to the model—if there are no latent variables—then by default all parameters are estimated separately for each group.

Specifying which parameters are allowed to vary in broad, sweeping terms

You can control which parameters are constrained to be equal across groups by specifying the ginvariant() option:

```
(Y1->...) (Y2->...) /// part 3
(...) ///
(...) /// part 2
(...) ///
(X1->...) (X2->...), /// part 1
group(agegrp) ginvariant(classes)
```

The classes are as follows:

Class description	Class nar	ne
1. structural coefficients	scoef	
2. structural intercepts	scons	
3. measurement coefficients	mcoef	
4. measurement intercepts	mcons	
5. covariances of structural errors	serrvar	
6. covariances of measurement errors	merrvar	
7. covariances between structural and measurement errors	smerrco	v
8. means of exogenous variables	meanex	(*)
9. covariances of exogenous variables	covex	(*)
10. all the above	all	(*)
11. none of the above	none	

(*) Be aware that 8, 9, and 10 (meanex, covex, and all) exclude the observed exogenous variables—that is, they include only the latent exogenous variables—unless you specify the noxconditional option or the noxconditional option is otherwise implied; see [SEM] sem option noxconditional. This is what you would desire in most cases.

The default when ginvariant() is not specified is ginvariant(mcoef mcons):

If you also wanted covariances of errors associated with measurement to be constrained across groups, you could type

Adding constraints for path coefficients across groups

The ginvariant() option allows you to state in sweeping terms which parameters vary and which are invariant across groups. You can also constrain individual parameters to be equal across groups.

Pretend that in the substantive part of the generic model, we have Y1<-Y2. Assume that we fit the model and allow the structural part to vary across groups:

```
      (Y1->...)
      /// part 3, measurement

      (...)
      ///

      (Y1<-Y2)</td>
      /// part 2, structural

      (...)
      ///

      (X1->...)
      (X2->...)
      /// part 1, measurement

      group(agegrp)
```

In this model, the Y1<-Y2 path coefficient is allowed to vary across groups by default. We could constrain the coefficient to be equal across groups by typing

```
      (Y1->...)
      /// part 3, measurement

      (...)
      ///

      (Y1<-Y2@b)</td>
      /// part 2, structural

      (...)
      ///

      (X1->...)
      (X2->...)
      /// part 1, measurement

      group(agegrp)
```

Note the @b in (Y1<-Y2@b) where we previously typed Y1<-Y2.

Constraining a coefficient to equal a symbolic name such as b is how we usually constrain equality, but in the usual case, the symbolic name appears at least twice in our model. For instance, we might have (Y1<-Y2@b) and (Y1<-Y3@b) and thus constrain path coefficients to be equal.

In the case above, however, @b appears only once. Because we specified group(agegrp), results are as if we specified this model separately for each age group, and in each group, we are specifying @b. Thus we are constraining the path coefficient to be equal across all groups.

Adding constraints for means, variances, or covariances across groups

You use the same technique for adding constraints to means, variances, and covariances as you would for adding constraints to path coefficients. Remember that means are specified by the means() option, variances by the variance() option, and covariances by the covariance() option. The variance() and covariance() options are abbreviated var() and cov(), respectively.

You can specify, for instance,

```
(Y1->...) (Y2->...)
                                           ///
                                                 part 3, measurement
(\ldots)
                                           ///
(Y1 < -Y2)
                                           ///
                                                 part 2, structural
(...)
                                           111
(X1->...) (X2->...),
                                           ///
                                                 part 1, measurement
                  group(agegrp)
                                           ///
                  means(X1@M)
```

to constrain the mean of X1 to be the same across groups. The means would have been different across groups by default.

You can specify

```
(Y1->...) (Y2->...)
                                           111
                                                  part 3, measurement
(\ldots)
                                           ///
(Y1 < -Y2)
                                           ///
                                                  part 2, structural
(...)
                                           ///
(X1->...) (X2->...),
                                           ///
                                                  part 1, measurement
                  group(agegrp)
                                           111
                  var(e.Y1@V)
```

to constrain the variance of the error of Y1 to be the same across groups.

If we wanted to allow the errors of Y1 and Y2 to be correlated (by default, errors are uncorrelated), we could add the cov() option:

```
(Y1->...) (Y2->...)
                                            ///
                                                   part 3, measurement
(\ldots)
                                            111
(\ldots)
                                            ///
                                                   part 2, structural
(\ldots)
                                            ///
(X1->...)(X2->...),
                                            ///
                                                   part 1, measurement
                                            111
                  group(agegrp)
                  var(e.Y1@V)
                                            ///
                  cov(e.Y1*e.Y2)
```

If we then wanted to constrain the covariance to be the same across groups, we would type

```
(Y1->...) (Y2->...)
                                            111
                                                  part 3, measurement
(\ldots)
                                            ///
(\ldots)
                                            ///
                                                  part 2, structural
(\ldots)
                                            ///
(X1->...)(X2->...),
                                            ///
                                                  part 1, measurement
                  group(agegrp)
                                            111
                  var(e.Y1@V)
                                            ///
                  cov(e.Y1*e.Y2@C)
```

Adding constraints for some groups but not others

Consider the following model:

```
... (Y1<-Y2) ..., group(agegrp)
```

Above we saw how to constrain the Y1<-Y2 path coefficient to be the same across groups:

```
... (Y1<-Y2@b) ..., group(agegrp)
```

To constrain the path coefficients Y1<-Y2 to be equal for groups 1 and 2 but leave the Y1<-Y2 path coefficients unconstrained for the remaining groups, we would type

```
... (Y1<-Y2) (1: Y1<-Y2@b) (2: Y1<-Y2@b) ..., group(agegrp)
```

Think of this as follows:

- 1. (Y1<-Y2): We set a path for all the groups.
- 2. (1: Y1<-Y2@b): We modify the path for agegrp = 1.
- 3. (2: Y1<-Y2@b): We modify the path for agegrp = 2.
- 4. We do not modify the path for any other agegrp value.

The result is that we constrain age groups 1 and 2 to have the same value of the path, and we do not constrain the path for the other age groups.

You can constrain variance and covariance estimates to be the same across some groups but not others in the same way. You can specify, for instance,

```
..., group(agegrp) var(1: e.Y1@V) var(2: e.Y1@V)
..., group(agegrp) cov(e.Y1*e.Y2) cov(1: e.Y1*e.Y2@C) ///
                                        cov(2: e.Y1*e.Y2@C)
```

Similarly, you can constrain means for some groups but not others, although this is rarely done:

```
..., group(agegrp) means(1: X10b) means(2: X10b)
```

Adding paths for some groups but not others

In the same way that you can constrain coefficients for some groups but not others, you can add paths for some groups but not others. Consider the following model:

```
... (Y1<-Y2) ..., group(agegrp)
You can add the path Y1<-Y3 for groups 1 and 2 by typing
  ... (Y1<-Y2) (1: Y1<-Y3) (2: Y1<-Y3) ..., group(agegrp)
```

You can add covariances for some groups but not others in the same way. For instance, to allow the errors of Y1 and Y2 to be correlated in groups 1 and 2 only, you can specify

```
..., group(agegrp) cov(1: e.Y1*e.Y2) cov(2: e.Y1*e.Y2)
```

Relaxing constraints

or

```
Just as you can specify
     ..., group(agegrp) ginvariant(classes)
and then add constraints, you can also specify
     ..., group(agegrp) ginvariant(classes)
```

and then relax constraints that the classes impose.

For instance, if we specified ginvariant(scoef), then we would be constraining (Y1<-Y2) to be invariant across groups. We could then relax that constraint by typing

```
... (Y1<-Y2) (1: Y1<-Y2@b1) (2: Y1<-Y2@b2) ..., ///
                                 group(agegrp) ginvariant(scoef)
```

The path coefficients would be free in groups 1 and 2 and constrained in the remaining groups, if there are any. The path coefficient is free in group 1 because we specified symbolic name b1, and b1 appears nowhere else in the model. The path coefficient is free in group 2 because symbolic name b2 appears nowhere else in the model. If there are remaining groups and we want to relax the constraint on them, too, we would need to add (3: Y1<-Y2@b3), and so on.

The same technique can be used to relax constraints on means, variances, and covariances:

Reference

Acock, A. C. 2013. Discovering Structural Equation Modeling Using Stata. Rev. ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press.

Also see

```
    [SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models
    [SEM] intro 7 — Postestimation tests and predictions
    [SEM] sem group options — Fitting models on different groups
    [SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure() — Specifying covariance restrictions
```

Title

intro 7 — Postestimation tests and predictions

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

After fitting a model with sem or gsem, you can perform statistical tests, obtain predicted values, and more. Everything you can do is listed below.

sem and gsem vary in the tests and features available after estimation, and we mark whether each test and feature is available after sem, gsem, or both.

Some tests and features after sem depend on the assumption of joint normality of the observed variables and others do not. Whenever the joint-normality assumption is the required, we mention it explicitly. If you do not believe your data meets the joint-normality assumption, you will want to avoid those tests and features.

Some tests and features that are available after sem are not available after gsem because of the joint-normality assumption. Others are not available for other reasons. If we do not mention the joint-normality assumption, then that is not the cause. We usually leave unexplained the other reasons that a test or feature might be inappropriate after gsem, because those reasons are not our focus here.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Replaying the model (sem and gsem)
Displaying odds ratios, incidence-rate ratios, etc. (gsem only)
Obtaining goodness-of-fit statistics (sem and gsem)
Performing tests for including omitted paths and relaxing constraints (sem only)
Performing tests of model simplification (sem and gsem)
Displaying other results, statistics, and tests (sem and gsem)
Obtaining predicted values (sem)
Using contrast, pwcompare, and margins (sem and gsem)
Accessing stored results

Replaying the model (sem and gsem)

After estimation, you can type sem or gsem without arguments to display the estimation output:

. sem (original output reappears)

If you wish to see results in the Bentler-Weeks formulation, after sem estimation type

. estat framework
 (output omitted)

See [SEM] example 11.

In many of the postestimation commands listed below for use after sem and gsem, you will need to refer symbolically to particular coefficients. For instance, in the model

```
. sem ... (Y<-x1) ..., ... cov(e.Y1*e.Y2)
```

the symbolic name of the coefficient corresponding to the path $Y \le x1$ is b[Y1:x1], and the symbolic name of the coefficient corresponding to the covariance of e.Y1 and e.Y2 is $b[cov(e.Y1,e.Y2):_cons]$.

Figuring out what the names are can be difficult, so instead, type

. sem, coeflegend

or

. gsem, coeflegend

With this command, sem (gsem) will produce a table looking very much like the estimation output that lists the _b[] notation for the estimated parameters in the model; see [SEM] example 8.

Displaying odds ratios, incidence-rate ratios, etc. (gsem only)

In some generalized linear response functions, exponentiated coefficients have a special meaning. Those special meanings are

Common name	Family	Link	Meaning of exp(coef)
logit	Bernoulli	logit	odds ratio
ologit	ordinal	logit	odds ratio
mlogit	multinomial	logit	relative-risk ratio
Poisson	Poisson	log	incidence-rate ratio
nbreg	nbreg	log	incidence-rate ratio

gsem reports coefficients, not exponentiated coefficients. You can obtain exponentiated coefficients and their standard errors by using estat eform after estimation. Using estat eform is no different from redisplaying results. The syntax is

```
estat eform equationname
```

After gsem, equations are named after the dependent variable, so if you want to see the equation for cases in exponentiated form, you can type estat eform cases.

See [SEM] example 33g, [SEM] example 34g, and [SEM] estat eform.

Obtaining goodness-of-fit statistics (sem and gsem)

One goodness-of-fit statistic and test is reported at the bottom of the sem output:

Be warned, this test is based on the assumption of joint normality of the observed variables, so you may want to ignore it. The test is a goodness-of-fit test in badness-of-fit units; a significant result implies that there may be missing paths in the model's specification. More mathematically, the null hypothesis of this test is that the fitted covariance matrix and mean vector of the observed variables are equal to the matrix and vector observed in the population as measured by the sample. Remember, however, the goal is not to maximize the goodness of fit. One must not add paths that are not theoretically meaningful.

In addition, other goodness-of-fit statistics are available:

- 1. (sem only.) Command estat gof reports a variety of goodness-of-fit statistics; see [SEM] example 4. Many but not all depend on the joint-normality assumption; see [SEM] estat gof.
- 2. (sem only.) Command estat eggof reports \mathbb{R}^2 -like goodness-of-fit statistics for each equation separately; see [SEM] example 3.
- 3. (sem only.) Command estat ggof reports goodness-of-fit statistics by group when you have estimated using sem's group() option; see [SEM] example 21.
- 4. (sem only.) Command estat residuals reports the element-by-element differences between the observed and fitted covariance matrix, and the observed and fitted mean vector, optionally in standardized or in normalized units; see [SEM] example 10.
- (sem and gsem.) Command estat ic reports the Akaike and Bayesian information criteria;
 see [R] estat ic.

Performing tests for including omitted paths and relaxing constraints (sem only)

- 1. (sem only.) Command estat mindices reports χ^2 modification indices and significance values for each omitted path in the model, along with the expected parameter change; see [SEM] example 5 and [SEM] example 9.
- (sem only.) Command estat scoretests performs score tests on each of the linear constraints placed on the paths and covariances; see [SEM] example 8.
- 3. (sem only.) Command estat ginvariant is for use when you have estimated using sem's group() option; see [SEM] intro 6. This command tests whether you can relax constraints that parameters are equal across groups; see [SEM] example 22.

Performing tests of model simplification (sem and gsem)

- (sem and gsem.) Command test reports Wald tests of single or multiple linear constraints.
 See [SEM] example 8 and [SEM] test.
- (sem and gsem.) Command 1rtest reports likelihood-ratio tests of single or multiple linear constraints. See [SEM] example 10, [SEM] lrtest, and [SEM] example 39g.
- (sem only.) Command estat eqtest reports an overall Wald test for each equation in the model, the test corresponding to all coefficients in the equation except the intercept being simultaneously 0; see [SEM] example 13.
- 4. (sem only.) Command estat ginvariant is for use when you have estimated using sem's group() option; see [SEM] intro 6. This command tests whether parameters allowed to vary across groups could be constrained; see [SEM] example 22.

Displaying other results, statistics, and tests (sem and gsem)

- (sem only.) The estat stdize: command prefix—used in front of test, testnl, lincom, and nlcom—allows you to perform tests on standardized coefficients. See [SEM] example 16 and [SEM] estat stdize.
- 2. (sem only.) Command estat teffects reports total effects of one variable on another and decomposes the total effect into direct and indirect effects. Results can be reported in standardized or unstandardized form. See [SEM] example 7 and [SEM] estat teffects.

- 3. (sem only.) Command estat stable assesses the stability of nonrecursive structural equation systems; see [SEM] example 7 and [SEM] estat stable.
- 4. (sem and gsem.) Command estat summarize reports summary statistics for the observed variables used in the model; see [SEM] estat summarize.
- 5. (sem and gsem.) Command lincom reports the value, standard error, significance, and confidence interval for linear combinations of estimated parameters; see [SEM] lincom.
- 6. (sem and gsem.) Command nlcom reports the value, standard error, significance, and confidence interval for nonlinear (and linear) combinations of estimated parameters; see [SEM] nlcom and [SEM] example 42g.
- 7. (sem and gsem.) Command estat vce reports the variance-covariance matrix of the estimated parameters; see [R] estat vce.

Obtaining predicted values (sem)

You obtain predicted values with the predict command. Below we will write that predictions are the expected values, but be aware that when there are latent variables in your model, predictions are based on predicted scores; the scores can be inconsistent, and thus any prediction based on them can be inconsistent.

Available are the following:

- 1. predict newvar, xb(odepvarname) creates new variable newvar containing the predicted values for observed endogenous variable odepvarname.
 - predict stub*, xb creates new variables stub1, stub2, ... containing the predicted values for all the observed endogenous variables in the model.
 - These predicted values are the expected value of the xb given the values of the observed exogenous variables.
- 2. predict newvar, latent(Lname) creates new variable newvar containing the predicted values of the latent variable *Lname*, whether endogenous or exogenous.
 - predict stub*, latent creates new variables stub1, stub2, ... containing the predicted values for all the latent variables in the model.
 - Predicted values of latent variables, also known as predicted factor scores, are the expected values of the variables given the values of the observed variables.
- 3. predict newvar, xblatent (Lname) creates new variable newvar containing the predicted values for latent endogenous variable *Lname*.
 - predict stub*, xblatent creates new variables stub1, stub2, ... containing the predicted values for all the latent endogenous variables in the model.
 - predict with xblatent(Lname) differs from latent(Lname) in that the factor scores predicted by latent() are then used with the linear equation for Lname to make the prediction.
- 4. predict stub*, scores will create a slew of variables, one for each estimated parameter, containing the observation-by-observation values of the first derivative, also known as scores. This command is intended for use by programmers and may only be used after estimation using method(ml) or method(mlmv).

See [SEM] example 14 and [SEM] predict after sem.

Obtaining predicted values (gsem)

predict after gsem is more complicated than predict after sem because generalized SEMs are more complicated. Two new issues arise: the prediction of generalized linear response variables as opposed to linear response variables, and the optional multilevel nature of the model.

Let's start with the response functions of the observed endogenous variables. Corresponding to predict, xb after sem are the following:

- 1. predict newvar, mu outcome (depvar) predicts mean responses in natural units—linear, probability, counts, and so on. Think $g^{-1}(x_ib)$ in the generalized linear model notation. Calculations are made using the empirical Bayes predictions of latent variables, which can be computationally intensive.
- 2. predict newvar, mu outcome (depvar) fixedonly also predicts mean responses in natural units, and again it is appropriate to think $g^{-1}(x_ib)$. fixedonly includes only the fixed part of the model and is equivalent to setting all latent variables to 0, their mean value.
- 3. Option pr is a synonym for mu when using family-and-link combinations that produce probabilities, such as logit, probit, etc.
- 4. predict newvar, eta outcome (depvar) calculates the linear prediction x_ib . Calculations are made using the empirical Bayes predictions of latent variables, which can be numerically intensive.
- 5. predict newvar, eta outcome (depvar) fixedonly also calculates the linear prediction x_ib , but includes only the fixed part of the model and is equivalent to setting all latent variables to 0, their mean value.
- 6. Option outcome() varies to accommodate the multiple predictions produced by multinomial logit, ordinal probit, ordinal logit, and ordinal clogclog.
 - a. outcome (depvar #) specifies that you want the prediction for depvar = #.
 - b. outcome(#.depvar) is another way of specifying that you want the prediction for depvar = #.
 - c. outcome (depvar ##) specifies that you want the prediction for the #th category.

For multinomial logit, you use the above form of outcome() when requesting mu or eta predictions.

For ordered outcomes, you use the above form of outcome() when requesting mu predictions. For eta predictions, there is only one linear equation, and you use the usual outcome(depvar) form.

- 7. Some GLM families, such as Poisson, allow specification of an offset or exposure. If you use one of those families and you specify an offset or exposure with gsem when you fit the model and now want predictions with offset = 0 (exposure = 1), you can specify option nooffset.
- 8. To obtain predicted values for all observed endogenous variables, you can omit the outcome() option and replace *newvar* with *stub**—that is, a piece of a new variable name followed by *. This is not just convenient; it can also save computer time because some parts of the calculation can be shared.

For example, you can change

predict newvar, mu outcome(depvar)

to be

predict new*, mu

So much for the observed endogenous variables. Moving on to latent variables, whether endogenous or exogenous:

- 9. predict newvar, latent(Lname) predicts the value of the specified latent variable by using empirical Bayes means. You can specify that empirical Bayes modes be used by specifying option mode; see item 12a below.
- 10. predict newvar, latent (Lname) se (another_newvar) will predict both the latent variable and its standard error.
- 11. You can use the same *stub** trick mentioned for predicting observed endogenous variables to obtain all the latent variables. Replace *newvar* with *stub** and omit *Lname* to produce

```
predict stub*, latent
```

You can do this with the se() option, too:

predict stub*, latent se(another_stub*)

- 12. There are four options having to do with the iterative procedure for obtaining the predicted values:
 - a. mode specifies that empirical Bayes modes rather than means be predicted. Because latent variables are assumed to be normally distributed, means and modes are usually similar. They are, however, calculated differently. The predictions are the means or modes of the empirical posterior distributions of the latent variables, which are not necessarily normal. Therefore, the means can differ from the modes. Both are computationally intensive.

The default empirical Bayes means calculation uses adaptive quadrature, which is to say, numerical integration. All three of the options listed below apply to this calculation.

The alternative empirical Bayes mode calculation uses an optimization method that does not require adaptive quadrature. For small datasets, modes can usually be calculated more quickly than means. For large datasets, however, predicting modes can actually take longer. If you specify mode, of the three options listed below, only tolerance() and iterate() are relevant.

- b. intpoints(#) specifies the number of quadrature (numerical integration) points to be used to compute the empirical Bayes means. The default is the value used in estimation, which in turn defaults to 7.
- c. tolerance(#) specifies the convergence tolerance in computing empirical Bayes means and modes and defaults to the value used in estimation, which in turn defaults to 1.0e-8
- d. iterate(#) specifies the maximum number of iterations in computing empirical Bayes means and modes and defaults to the value used in estimation, which in turn defaults to 1,001.

That leaves us with only multilevel issues to discuss, and there is only one issue, and it is easy. If you have a multilevel latent variable such as M1[school], you can predict it just as you would any other latent variable:

```
predict newvar, latent(M1[school])
```

If you predict all the latent variables with the *stub** trick, any multilevel latent variables will be automatically included among the new variables.

See [SEM] example 28g, [SEM] example 29g, and [SEM] predict after gsem.

Using contrast, pwcompare, and margins (sem and gsem)

constrast, pwcompare, and margins are postestimation commands of Stata. All three can be used after gsem, and margins can be used after sem as well. Even so, these commands work best when you specify your model with Stata's factor-variable notation; see [SEM] intro 3. sem does not allow that notation, and so obtaining desired results is a little more work.

- 1. Command contrast can be used after gsem to test linear hypotheses and make comparisons involving factor variables and their interactions. contrast allows for performing ANOVA-style tests of main effects, simple effects, or interaction effects. In addition, effects can be decomposed into specific types of contrasts such as comparison against the grand mean, orthogonal polynomial contrasts, and more. See [R] contrast.
- 2. Command pwcompare can be used after gsem to obtain all pairwise comparisons of marginal linear predictions, including cell means, marginal means, etc. See [R] pwcompare.
- 3. Command margins is used after sem or gsem to obtain margins, meaning estimated marginal means, predictive margins, adjusted predictions, and marginal effects. margins also allows for computing contrasts and pairwise comparisons of both linear and nonlinear predictions. See [R] margins, [R] margins, contrast, and [R] margins, pwcompare.

Accessing stored results

sem and gsem store all results in e(); see *Stored results* in [SEM] **gsem**. To get some idea of what is stored in e() after sem or gsem estimation, type

```
. ereturn list
  (output omitted)
```

You can save estimation results in files or temporarily in memory and do other useful things with them; see [R] estimates.

Not stored by sem in e() are the Bentler-Weeks matrices, but they can be obtained from the r() stored results of estat framework. (The Bentler-Weeks matrices are not relevant in the case of gsem.)

See [SEM] sem and [SEM] estat framework.

Also see

```
[SEM] intro 6 — Comparing groups (sem only)[SEM] intro 8 — Robust and clustered standard errors
```

```
intro 8 — Robust and clustered standard errors
```

Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Description

sem and gsem provide two options to modify how standard-error calculations are made: vce(robust) and vce(cluster *clustvar*). These standard errors are less efficient than the default standard errors, but they are valid under less restrictive assumptions.

These options are allowed only when default estimation method(ml) is used or when option method(mlmv) is used. ml stands for maximum likelihood, and mlmv stands for maximum likelihood with missing values; see [SEM] intro 4, [SEM] sem, and [SEM] gsem.

Also see [SEM] intro 9, entitled Standard errors, the full story.

Options

vce(vcetype) specifies how the VCE, and thus the standard errors, is calculated. VCE stands for variance—covariance matrix of the estimators. The standard errors that sem and gsem report are the square roots of the diagonal elements of the VCE.

vce(oim) is the default. oim stands for observed information matrix (OIM). The information matrix is the matrix of second derivatives, usually of the log-likelihood function. The OIM estimator of the VCE is based on asymptotic maximum-likelihood theory. The VCE obtained in this way is valid if the errors are independent and identically distributed normal, although the estimated VCE is known to be reasonably robust to violations of the normality assumption, at least as long as the distribution is symmetric and normal-like.

vce(robust) specifies an alternative calculation for the VCE, called robust because the VCE calculated in this way is valid under relaxed assumptions. The method is formally known as the Huber/White/sandwich estimator. The VCE obtained in this way is valid if the errors are independently distributed. It is not required that the errors follow a normal distribution, nor is it required that they be identically distributed from one observation to the next. Thus the vce(robust) VCE is robust to heteroskedasticity of the errors.

vce(cluster *clustvar*) is a generalization of the vce(robust) calculation that relaxes the assumption of independence of the errors and replaces it with the assumption of independence between clusters. Thus the errors are allowed to be correlated within clusters.

Remarks and examples

The vce() option is allowed by sem and gsem. In the rest of this entry, we will use sem in illustrations, but everything we say applies equally to gsem.

```
The vce(robust) option,
```

```
. sem ..., ... vce(robust)
```

and the vce(cluster clustvar) option,

```
. sem ..., ... vce(cluster clustvar)
```

relax assumptions that are sometimes unreasonable for a given dataset and thus produce more accurate standard errors in those cases. Those assumptions are homoskedasticity of the variances of the errors—vce(robust)—and independence of the observations—vce(cluster clustvar). vce(cluster clustvar) relaxes both assumptions.

Homoskedasticity means that the variances of the errors are the same from observation to observation. Homoskedasticity can be unreasonable if, for instance, the error corresponds to a dependent variable of income or socioeconomic status. It would not be unreasonable to instead assume that, in the data, the variance of income or socioeconomic status increases as the mean increases. In such cases, rather than typing

. sem
$$(y < -...)$$
 $(... < -x1)$ $(... < -x2)$

you would type

Independence implies that the observations are uncorrelated. If you have observations on people, some of whom live in the same neighborhoods, it would not be unreasonable to assume instead that the error of one person is correlated with those of others who live in the same neighborhood because neighborhoods tend to be homogeneous. In such cases, if you knew the neighborhood, rather than typing

you would type

Understand that if the assumptions of independent and identically distributed normal errors are met, the vce(robust) and vce(cluster clustvar) standard errors are less efficient than the standard vce(oim) standard errors. Less efficient means that for a given sample size, the standard errors jump around more from sample to sample than would the vce(oim) standard errors. vce(oim) standard errors are unambiguously best when the standard assumptions of homoskedasticity and independence are met.

Also see

```
[SEM] intro 7 — Postestimation tests and predictions
```

[SEM] intro 9 — Standard errors, the full story

[SEM] sem option method() — Specifying method and calculation of VCE

[SEM] gsem estimation options — Options affecting estimation

Title

intro 9 — Standard errors, the full story

Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Description

In [SEM] **intro 8**, we told you part of the story of the calculation of the VCE, the part we wanted to emphasize. In this section, we tell you the full story.

We at Stata try to draw a clear distinction between method and technique. The method is the process used to obtain the parameter estimates. The technique is the process used to obtain the variance—covariance matrix of the parameter estimates, which is to say, the standard errors.

The literature does not always draw such clear distinctions.

sem and gsem provide the following methods and techniques:

Methods

ML maximum likelihood QML quasimaximum likelihood

MLMV maximum likelihood with missing values

ADF asymptotic distribution free

Techniques

OIM observed information matrix
EIM expected information matrix
OPG outer product of the gradients
robust Huber/White/sandwich estimator

clustered generalized Huber/White/sandwich estimator

bootstrap nonparametric bootstrap jackknife delete-one jackknife They are allowed in the following combinations:

Command/ Method	Allowed techniques	Comment
sem		
ML	OIM	default
	EIM	
	OPG	
	robust	a.k.a. QML
	clustered	
	bootstrap	
	jackknife	
MLMV	OIM	default
	EIM	
	OPG	
	robust	a.k.a. QML
	clustered	
	bootstrap	
	jackknife	
ADF	OIM	default; robust-like
	EIM	,
	bootstrap	
	jackknife	
gsem		
ML	OIM	default
	OPG	
	robust	a.k.a. QML
	clustered	
	bootstrap	
	jackknife	

Options

The corresponding options for sem and gsem to obtain each allowed method-and-technique combination are

method()	vce()	Comment
sem		
method(ml)	<pre>vce(oim) vce(eim) vce(opg) vce(robust) vce(cluster clustvar) vce(bootstrap) vce(jackknife)</pre>	default a.k.a. QML
method(mlmv)	<pre>vce(oim) vce(eim) vce(opg) vce(robust) vce(cluster clustvar) vce(bootstrap) vce(jackknife)</pre>	default a.k.a. QML
method(adf)	<pre>vce(oim) vce(eim) vce(bootstrap) vce(jackknife)</pre>	default; vce(robust)-like
gsem		
method(ml)	<pre>vce(oim) vce(opg) vce(robust) vce(cluster clustvar)</pre>	default a.k.a. QML
	bootstrap jackknife	no option; use bootstrap: prefix no option; use jackknife: prefix

method(*emethod*) specifies the estimation method sem (gsem) is to use. If method() is not specified, then method(ml) is assumed.

vce(vcetype) specifies the technique to be used to obtain the VCE. When vce() is not specified,
then vce(oim) is assumed.

In the case of gsem, vce(bootstrap) and vce(jackknife) are not allowed, although you can obtain the bootstrap or jackknife results by prefixing the gsem command with the bootstrap: or jackknife: prefix.

- . bootstrap: gsem ...
- . jackknife: gsem ...

See [R] **bootstrap** and [R] **jackknife**. If you are fitting a multilevel model, be sure to use bootstrap's and jackknife's cluster() and idcluster() options to obtain a correct resampling. If you have a crossed model, you cannot resample in both dimensions; there is no solution to that problem, and therefore you cannot use the bootstrap: or jackknife: prefix.

Remarks and examples

In [SEM] **intro 4**, we gave reasons for why you might want to choose one method/technique over another. In that section, we did not draw the clear distinction between method and technique that we draw here.

The technique everyone is familiar with is OIM, although they might not know it by that name. OIM is the inverse of the negative matrix of second derivatives. Note that it is also the default for both sem and gsem.

The most common alternative technique chosen are robust and cluster—options vce(robust) and vce(cluster *clustvar*). That is because they relax assumptions; see [SEM] **intro 8**.

Aside: Robust and cluster are not allowed with method(adf). Nonetheless, the default OIM technique is more robust when combined with method(adf) than OIM usually is. OIM can be used even when errors are heteroskedastic. That is, the assumptions justifying the OIM calculation when combined with method(adf) are they same as those justifying vce(robust)—the errors are merely assumed to be independent.

Technique EIM—available with sem but not gsem—has similar properties to OIM. It is used in performing score tests. The sem command secretly calculates the EIM when necessary so that you can use postestimation score-test commands even if you estimate using a technique other than EIM. EIM is available to you because the sem command needs EIM for its own hidden purposes.

Technique OPG is not used so much anymore, although historically it was popular because it took less computer time to calculate than OIM.

For a discussion of bootstrap and jackknife variance estimation, see [R] bootstrap and [R] jackknife.

Also see

```
    [SEM] intro 8 — Robust and clustered standard errors
    [SEM] intro 10 — Fitting models with survey data (sem only)
    [SEM] sem option method() — Specifying method and calculation of VCE
    [SEM] gsem estimation options — Options affecting estimation
```

```
intro 10 — Fitting models with survey data (sem only)
```

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

Sometimes the data are not a simple random sample from the underlying population but instead are based on a complex survey design that can include stages of clustered sampling and stratification. Estimates produced by sem can be adjusted for these issues.

Adjustments for survey data are provided by sem but not gsem.

Remarks and examples

Data obtained from surveys, properly treated, produce different point estimates because some observations represent a greater proportion of the underlying population than others. They also produce different standard errors because the observation-to-observation (sample-to-sample) variation is a function of the survey's design.

To obtain survey-corrected results, you first describe the characteristics of the survey with svyset:

In the above, we are telling Stata that our data are from a three-stage sampling design. The first stage samples without replacement counties within state; the second, schools within each sampled county; and the third, students within schools.

Once we have done that, we can tell Stata to make the survey adjustment by prefixing statistical commands with the svy: prefix:

```
. svy: regress test_result teachers_per_student sex ...
```

Point estimates and standard errors will be adjusted.

```
You can use the svy: prefix with sem:
```

```
. svy: sem (test_result<-...) ... (teachers_per_student->...) ...
```

See the *Stata Survey Data Reference Manual* for more information on this. From a survey perspective, sem is not different from any other statistical command of Stata.

Once results are estimated, you do not include the svy: prefix in front of the postestimation commands. You type, for instance,

```
. estat eqtest ...
```

You do not type svy: estat eqtest

Some postestimation procedures you might ordinarily perform can be inappropriate with survey estimation results. This is because you no longer have a sample likelihood value. The postestimation command lrtest is an example. If you attempt to use an inappropriate postestimation command, you will be warned.

```
. Irtest ... lrtest is not appropriate with survey estimation results r(322);
```

Also see

```
[SEM] intro 9 — Standard errors, the full story
[SEM] intro 11 — Fitting models with summary statistics data (sem only)
[SVY] Stata Survey Data Reference Manual
```

intro 11 — Fitting models with summary statistics data (sem only)

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

In textbooks and research papers, the data used are often printed in summary statistic form. These summary statistics include means, standard deviations or variances, and correlations or covariances. These summary statistics can be used in place of the underlying raw data to fit models with sem.

Summary statistics data (SSD) are convenient for publication because of their terseness. By not revealing individual responses, they do not violate participant confidentiality, which is sometimes important.

Support for SSD is provided by sem but not by gsem.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Background
How to use sem with SSD
What you cannot do with SSD
Entering SSD
Entering SSD for multiple groups
What happens when you do not set all the summary statistics
Labeling SSD
Making summary statistics from data for use by others

Background

The structural equation modeling estimator is a function of the first and second moments—the means and covariances—of the data. Thus it is possible to obtain estimates of the parameters of an SEM by using means and covariances. One does not need the original dataset.

In terms of sem, one can create a dataset containing these summary statistics and then use that dataset to obtain fitted models. The sem command is used just as one would use it with the original, raw data.

How to use sem with SSD

To use sem with SSD,

- 1. Enter the summary statistics by using the ssd command. How you do that is the topic of an upcoming section.
- 2. Save the data just as you would any dataset, namely, with the save command.
- 3. Use the sem command just as you would ordinarily. You use the SSD if they are not already in memory, and no special syntax or options are required by sem, except

- a. Do not use sem's if *exp* or in *range* modifiers. You do not have the raw data in memory and so you cannot select subsets of the data.
- b. If you have entered summary statistics for groups of observations (for example, males and, separately, females), use sem's select() option if you want to fit the model with a subset of the groups. That is, where you would ordinarily type

```
. sem ... if sex==1, ...
you instead type
. sem ..., ... select(1)
Where you would ordinarily type
. sem ... if region==1 | region==3, ...
you instead type
. sem ..., ... select(1 3)
```

See [SEM] example 3.

What you cannot do with SSD

With SSD in memory,

- 1. You cannot obtain robust standard errors, which you would normally do by specifying sem option vce(robust).
- 2. You cannot obtain clustered standard errors, which you would normally do by specifying sem option vce(cluster *clustvar*).
- 3. You cannot obtain survey-adjusted results, which you would normally do by specifying the svy: prefix in front of the sem command.
- 4. You cannot obtain bootstrap or jackknife standard errors, which you would normally do by specifying sem option vce(bootstrap) or vce(jackknife).
- 5. You cannot obtain VCE estimates from the observation-level outer product of the gradients, which you would normally do by specifying vce(opg).
- 6. You cannot use weights, which you would normally do by specifying, for instance, [fw=varname].
- 7. You cannot restrict the estimation sample with if exp or in range.
- 8. You cannot fit the model by using maximum likelihood with missing values or by using the asymptotic distribution free method, which you would normally do by specifying method(mlmv) or method(adf).

Entering SSD

Entering SSD is easy. You need to see an example of how easy it is before continuing: see [SEM] example 2.

What follows is an outline of the procedure. Let us begin with the data you need to have. You have

- 1. The names of the variables. We will just call them x1, x2, and x3.
- 2. The number of observations, say, 74.

3. The correlations, say,

1 -0.8072 1 0.3934 -0.5928 1

or you may have the covariances,

4. The variances: 33.4722, 0.6043, and 0.2118.

Or the standard deviations: 5.6855, 0.7774, and 0.4602.

Or neither.

If you have the covariances in step 3, you in fact have the variances—they are just the diagonal elements of the covariance matrix—but the software will not make you enter the values twice.

5. The means: 21.2973, 3.0195, and 0.2973.

Or not.

With that information at hand, do the following:

- 1. Start with no data in memory:
 - . clear all
- 2. Initialize the SSD by stating the names of the variables:
 - . ssd init x1 x2 x3

The remaining steps can be done in any order.

- 3. Set the number of observations:
 - . ssd set obs 74
- 4. Set the covariances:
 - . ssd set cov 33.4722 $\ -3.6294 \ .6043 \ \ 1.0374 \ -.2120 \ .2118$

Or the correlations:

- . ssd set cor $\ 1 \ \backslash \ -.8072 \ 1 \ \backslash \ .3934 \ -.5928 \ 1$
- 5. If you set covariances in step 4, skip to step 6. Otherwise, if you have them, set the variances:
 - . ssd set var 33.4722 .6043 .2118

Or set the standard deviations:

- . ssd set sd 5.6855 .7774 .4602
- 6. Set the means if you have them:
 - . ssd set means 21.2973 3.0195 .2973
- 7. If at any point you become confused as to what you have set and what remains to be set, type
 - . ssd status

- 8. If you want to review what you have set, type
 - . ssd list
- 9. If you make a mistake, you can repeat any ssd set command by adding the replace option to the end. For instance, you could reenter the means by typing
 - . ssd set means 21.2973 3.0195 .2973, replace
- 10. Save the dataset just as you would with any dataset:
 - . save mydata

You are now ready to use sem with the SSD. With the SSD in memory, you issue the sem command just as you would if you had the raw data:

. sem ...

Entering SSD for multiple groups

You can enter summary statistics for groups of the data. Perhaps you have summary statistics not for the data as a whole, but for males and for females, or for the young, for the middle-aged, and for the old.

Let's pretend you have the following data:

The young:

The young.			
observations:	74		
correlations:	1		
	-0.8072	1	
	0.3934	-0.5928	1
standard deviations:	5.6855	0.7774	0.4602
means:	21.2973	3.0195	0.2973
The middle-aged:			
observations:	141		
correlations:	1		
	-0.5721	1	
	0.3843	-0.4848	1
standard deviations:	4.9112	0.7010	0.5420
means:	38.1512	5.2210	0.2282
The old:			
observations:	36		
correlations:	1		
	-0.8222	1	
	0.3712	-0.3113	1
standard deviations:	6.7827	0.7221	0.4305
means:	58.7171	2.1511	0.1623

The commands for entering these summary statistics are

```
. ssd init x1 x2 x3
```

[.] ssd set obs 74

[.] ssd set cor 1 \ -.8072 1 \ .3934 -.5928 1

[.] ssd set sd 5.6855 .7774 .4602

```
. ssd set means 21.2973 3.0195
                                .2973
. ssd addgroup agecategory
. ssd set obs 141
. ssd set cor
                     \ -.5721
                                     \ .3843 -.4848 1
                1
                                1
                       .7010
               4.9112
                                .5420
. ssd set sd
. ssd set means 38.1512 5.2210
                                .2282
. ssd addgroup
. ssd set obs
                      -.8222 1
                                   \ .3712 -.3113 1
. ssd set cor
                1
                6.7827
                               .4305
                        .7221
. ssd set sd
. ssd set means 58.7171 2.1511
                               .1623
. save mygroupdata
```

The general procedure is as follows:

- 1. Enter the summary statistics for the first group just as outlined in the previous section.
- 2. Next add a group by typing
 - . ssd addgroup newgroupvar

In that one command, you are telling ssd that the summary statistics you entered in step 1 were for a group you are now calling *newgroupvar*, and in particular they were for *newgroupvar* = 1. You are also telling ssd that you now want to enter the summary statistics for the next group, namely, newgroupvar = 2.

- 3. Enter the summary statistics for the second group in the same way you entered them for the first group, just as outlined in the previous section.
- 4. If you have a third group, add it by typing
 - . ssd addgroup

In this case, you are telling ssd only one thing: that you now want to enter data for the next group, namely, newgroupvar = 3.

- 5. Enter the summary statistics for the third group in the same way you entered them for the second group, and just as outlined in the previous section.
- 6. If you want to add more groups, continue in the same way. Declare the next group of data by typing
 - . ssd addgroup

and then enter the data by using the ssd set command.

- 7. If you mistakenly add a group and wish to rescind that, type
 - . ssd unaddgroup
- 8. If you wish to go back and modify the values entered for a previous group, put the group number between ssd set and what is being set-for instance, type ssd set 2 observations ... -and specify the replace option. For instance, to reenter the correlations for group 1, type
 - . ssd set 1 correlations values, replace

What happens when you do not set all the summary statistics

You are required to set the number of observations and to set the covariances or the correlations. Setting the variances (standard deviations) and setting the means are optional.

- 1. If you set correlations only, then
 - Means are assumed to be 0.
 - b. Standard deviations are assumed to be 1.
 - c. You will not be able to pool across groups if you have group data.

As a result of (a) and (b), the parameters sem estimates will be standardized even when you do not specify sem's standardized reporting option. Estimated means and intercepts will be 0.

Concerning (c), we need to explain. This concerns group data. If you type

. sem ...

then sem fits a model with all the data. sem does that whether you have raw data or SSD in memory. If you have SSD with groups—say, males and females or age groups 1, 2, and 3—sem combines the summary statistics to obtain the summary statistics for the overall data. It is only possible to do this when covariances and means are known for each group. If you set correlations without variances or standard deviations and without means, the necessary statistics are not known and the groups cannot be combined. Thus if you type

. sem ...

you will get an error message. You can still estimate using sem; you just have to specify on which group you wish to run sem, and you do that with the select() option:

- . sem ..., select(#)
- 2. If you set correlations and means,
 - a. Standard deviations are assumed to be 1.
 - b. You will not be able to pool across groups if you have group data.

This situation is nearly identical to situation 1. The only difference is that estimated means and intercepts will be nonzero.

- 3. If you set correlations and standard deviations or variances, or if you set covariances only,
 - a. Means are assumed to be 0.
 - b. You will not be able to pool across groups if you have group data.

This situation is a little better than situation 1. Estimated intercepts will be 0, but the remaining estimated coefficients will not be standardized unless you specify sem's standardized reporting option.

Labeling SSD

You may use the following commands on SSD, and you use them in the same way you would with an ordinary dataset:

- 1. rename oldvarname newvarname
 You may rename the variables; see [D] rename.
- label data "dataset label"
 You may label the dataset; see [D] label.

- 3. label variable *varname* "variable label" You may label variables; see [D] label.
- 4. label values *groupvarname valuelabelname*You may place a value label on the group variable; see [D] **label**. The group variable always takes on the values 1, 2,
- 5. note: my note

note varname: my note

You may places notes on the dataset or on its variables; see [D] **notes**.

Do not modify the SSD except by using the ssd command. Most importantly, do not drop variables or observations.

Making summary statistics from data for use by others

If you have raw data and wish to make the summary statistics available for subsequent publication, type

. ssd build varlist

where varlist lists the variables you wish to include in the dataset. The SSD will replace the raw data you had in memory. The full syntax is

. ssd build varlist if exp in range

so you may specify if and in to restrict the observations that are included.

For instance, to build an SSD for variables occ_prestige, income, and social_status, type

. ssd build occ_prestige income social_status

If you wish to build the dataset to include separate groups for males and females, type

. ssd build occ_prestige income social_status, group(sex)

However the sex variable was coded in your original data, the two sexes will be now be coded 1 and 2 in the resulting SSD. Which sex is 1 and which is 2 will correspond to however sort would have ordered sex in its original coding. For instance, if variable sex took on values "male" and "female", the resulting variable sex would take on values 1 corresponding to female and 2 corresponding to male.

Once you have built the SSD, you can describe it and list it:

- . ssd describe
- . ssd list

See [SEM] example 25.

Reference

Acock, A. C. 2013. Discovering Structural Equation Modeling Using Stata. Rev. ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press.

Also see

```
[SEM] intro 10 — Fitting models with survey data (sem only)
[SEM] intro 12 — Convergence problems and how to solve them
[SEM] ssd — Making summary statistics data (sem only)
[SEM] sem option select() — Using sem with summary statistics data
[SEM] example 2 — Creating a dataset from published covariances
[SEM] example 3 — Two-factor measurement model
[SEM] example 19 — Creating multiple-group summary statistics data
```

[SEM] example 25 — Creating summary statistics data from raw data

```
intro 12 — Convergence problems and how to solve them
```

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

It can be devilishly difficult for software to obtain results for SEMs. Here is what can happen:

```
Variables in structural equation model
       (output omitted)
     Fitting target model:
     initial values not feasible
     r(1400);
or,
      . gsem ...
     Fitting fixed-effects model:
     Iteration 0: log likelihood = -914.65237
     Iteration 1: log likelihood = -661.32533
     Iteration 2: log likelihood = -657.18568
       (output omitted)
     Refining starting values:
     Grid node 0: log likelihood = .
     Grid node 1: log likelihood = .
     Grid node 2: log likelihood = .
     Grid node 3: log likelihood = .
     Fitting full model:
     initial values not feasible
     r(1400);
or.
     . sem ...
     Endogenous variables
       (output omitted)
     Fitting target model:
     Iteration 1: log likelihood = ...
     Iteration 50: log likelihood = -337504.44 (not concave)
     Iteration 51: log likelihood = -337503.52 (not concave)
     Iteration 52: log likelihood = -337502.13 (not concave)
     Iteration 101: log likelihood = -337400.69 (not concave)
     -Break-
     r(1);
```

In the first two cases, sem and gsem gave up. The error message is perhaps informative if not helpful. In the last case, sem (it could just as well have been gsem) iterated and iterated while producing little improvement in the log-likelihood value. We eventually tired of watching a process that was going nowhere slowly and pressed *Break*.

Now what?

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

```
Is your model identified?
Convergence solutions generically described
Temporarily eliminate option reliability()
Use default normalization constraints
Temporarily eliminate feedback loops
Temporarily simplify the model
Try other numerical integration methods (gsem only)
Get better starting values (sem and gsem)
Get better starting values (gsem)
```

Is your model identified?

You may not know whether your model is identified. Infinite iteration logs are an indication of lack of identification or of poor starting values:

```
. sem ...
Endogenous variables
 (output omitted)
Fitting target model:
Iteration 1: log likelihood = ...
Iteration 50: log likelihood = -337504.44 (not concave)
Iteration 51: log likelihood = -337503.52 (not concave)
Iteration 52: log likelihood = -337502.13 (not concave)
Iteration 101: log likelihood = -337400.69 (not concave)
-Break-
r(1):
```

If the problem is lack of identification, the criterion function being optimized (the log likelihood in this case) will eventually stop improving at all and yet sem or gsem will continue iterating.

If the problem is poor starting values, the criterion function will continue to increase slowly.

So if your model might not be identified, do not press *Break* too soon.

There is another way to distinguish between identification problems and poor starting values. If starting values are to blame, it is likely that a variance estimate will be heading toward 0. If the problem is lack of identification, you are more likely to see an absurd path coefficient.

To distinguish between those two alternatives, you will need to rerun the model and specify the iterate() option:

```
. sem ..., ... iterate(100)
 (output omitted)
```

We omitted the output, but specifying iterate(100) allowed us to see the current parameter values at the point. We chose to specify iterate(100) because we knew that the likelihood function was changing slowly by that point.

If you are worried about model identification, you have a choice: Sit it out and do not press Break too soon, or press Break and rerun.

If you discover that your model is not identified, see *Identification 1: Substantive issues* in [SEM] **intro 4**.

Convergence solutions generically described

There are three generic solutions to convergence problems that we will use:

- G1. The improved-starting-values procedure:
 - Obtain the current parameter values from a failed attempt, modify those lousy values to make them better, use the improved values as starting values to try to fit the model again, and repeat as necessary.
- G2. The alternative-starting-values procedure:
 Simplify the model to produce an easier-to-fit model, fit the simplified model, use the simplified model's solution as starting values to fit the original, more complicated model, and repeat as necessary.
- G3. The alternative-software-logic procedure:

Specify strange options that make the software behave differently in hopes that a different approach will produce a solution. sem does not have any such strange options, but gsem does. In following this approach, it does not matter whether we in fact understand what we are doing because, once we find a solution, we can obtain the parameter values from the successful model and use those values as starting values to fit the model without the strange and confusing options.

Sometimes we will use all three of these procedures. We will talk about convergence and these procedures substantively below, but before we do that, we want to show you how to use a tool that you will need.

The generic solutions share a mechanical step in common, namely, obtaining parameter values from one attempt at fitting the model to use as starting values in a subsequent attempt. Here is how you do that:

```
. sem ..., ...  // fit one model
. matrix b = e(b)  // save parameter estimates in b
. ...  // optionally modify b
. sem ..., ... from(b)  // fit same model or different model
```

If the first sem or gsem command fails because you pressed *Break* or if the command issued an error message, you must reissue the command adding option noestimate or iterate(#). Specify noestimate if the failure came early before the iteration log started, and otherwise specify iterate(#), making # the iteration number close to but before the failure occurred:

```
. sem ..., ... noestimate
or
. sem ..., ... iterate(50)
```

Once you have obtained the parameter values in b, you can list b,

```
. matrix b = e(b)
      . matrix list b
     b[1,10]
                  x1:
                               x1:
                                            x2:
                                                         x2:
                                                                      x3:
                                                                                   x3:
                            _cons
                   L
                                             L
                                                      cons
                                                                      L
                                                                                cons
                       96.284553
                                    1.0971753
                                                 97.284553
                                                              1.0814186
                                                                           97.097561
     y1
                   1
           var(e.x1):
                       var(e.x2): var(e.x3):
                                                     var(L):
               _cons
                            _cons
                                         _cons
                                                      _cons
            78.54289
                       113.62044
                                     85.34721
                                                 120.45744
     v1
and you can modify it:
      . matrix b[1, 10] = 500
      . matrix list b
     b[1,10]
                  x1:
                               x1:
                                            x2:
                                                         x2:
                                                                      x3:
                                                                                   x3:
                   T.
                            _cons
                                            T.
                                                      _cons
                                                                      T.
                                                                                _cons
                        96.284553
                   1
                                    1.0971753
                                                 97.284553
                                                              1.0814186
                                                                           97.097561
     y1
           var(e.x1):
                        var(e.x2):
                                    var(e.x3):
                                                     var(L):
               _cons
                            _cons
                                         _cons
                                                      _cons
```

85.34721

And, whether you modify it or not, you can use b as the starting values for another attempt of the same model or for an attempt of a different model:

500

```
. sem ..., ... from(b)
```

78.54289

113.62044

Temporarily eliminate option reliability()

If you specified sem's or gsem's reliability() option, remove it and try fitting the model again. If the model converges, then your estimate of the reliability is too low; see *What can go wrong* in [SEM] sem and gsem option reliability().

Use default normalization constraints

Let sem and gsem provide their default normalization constraints. By default, sem and gsem constrain all latent exogenous variables to have mean 0; constrain all latent endogenous variables to have intercept 0; and constrain the paths from latent variables to the first observed endogenous variable to have coefficient 1.

Replacing any of the above defaults can cause problems, but problems are most likely to arise if you replace the last listed default. Do not constrain path coefficients merely to obtain model identification. Let sem choose those constraints. It is possible that the default-coefficient-1 constraint is inappropriate for how you want to interpret your model. Relax it anyway and reimpose it later.

If default constraints solve the problem, you are done unless you want to reimpose your original, alternative constraints. That you do by typing

```
. sem ..., ... // model with default constraints . matrix b = e(b) . sem ..., ... from(b) // model with desired constraints
```

If you have multiple constraints that you want to reimpose, you may need to do them in sets.

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Temporarily eliminate feedback loops

Check whether your model has any feedback loops, such as

```
. sem ... (y1<-y2 x2) (y2<-y1 x3) ...
```

In this example, variable y1 affects y2 affects y1. Models with such feedback loops are said to be nonrecursive. Assume you had a solution to the above model. The results might be unstable in a substantive sense; see *nonrecursive* (*structural*) *model* (*system*) in [SEM] **Glossary**. The problem is that finding such truly unstable solutions is often difficult and the stability problem manifests itself as a convergence problem.

If you have convergence problems and you have feedback loops, that is not proof that the underlying values are unstable.

Regardless, temporarily remove the feedback loop,

```
. sem ... (y1 < -y2 x2) (y2 < -x3) ...
```

and see whether the model converges. If it does, save the parameter estimates and refit the original model with the feedback, but using the saved parameter estimates as starting values.

```
. matrix b = e(b)
. sem ... (y1<-y2 x2) (y2<-y1 x3) ..., ... from(b)</pre>
```

If the model converges, the feedback loop is probably stable. If you are using sem, you can check for stability with estat stable. If the model does not converge, you now must find which other variables need to have starting values modified.

Temporarily simplify the model

At this point, it is difficult to know whether you should temporarily simplify your model or simply proceed with the subsequent steps and come back to simplification later should it be necessary. So proceed in whatever order seems best to you.

The idea of temporarily simplifying the model is to simplify the model, get that model to converge, and use the simplified model's solution as starting values for the more complicated model.

The more orthogonal and independent you can make the pieces of the model, the better. Remove covariances. If you have measurement, fit it separately. Basically, remove whatever you hold most dear, because you are probably looking for subtle and correlated effects.

Once you find a simplified model that converges, do the following:

```
. sem ..., ... // fit simplified model
. matrix b = e(b)
. sem ..., ... from(b) // fit original model
```

Try other numerical integration methods (gsem only)

gsem provides four numerical integration methods just so you can try them. The intmethod() option specifies the integration method.

- intmethod(mvaghermite) is the default and performs mean-and-variance adaptive Gauss— Hermite quadrature. It is fast and accurate.
- 2. intmethod(mcaghermite) performs mode-and-curvature adaptive Gauss—Hermite quadrature. It is accurate but not as fast. If you are fitting a multilevel model, there are cases where method 1 will not work but this method will work.

- intmethod(ghermite) performs nonadaptive Gauss—Hermite quadrature. It is less accurate
 but quicker, and the calculation it makes converges more readily than either of the above
 methods.
- intmethod(laplace) performs the Laplacian approximation instead of quadrature. It is
 the least accurate, sometimes the fastest, and the calculation it makes has no convergence
 issues whatsoever.

Try all of them. We view methods 1 and 2 as completely trustworthy. If your model will only converge with method 3 or 4, we recommend using the result as starting values for method 1 or 2. Thus you might type

```
. gsem ..., ... intmethod(ghermite)
. matrix b = e(b)
. gsem ..., ... from(b)
```

There is another option we should mention, namely, intpoints (#). Methods 1, 2, and 3 default to using seven integration points. You can change that. A larger number of integration points produces more accurate results but does not improve model convergence. You might reduce the number of integration points to, say, 3. A lower number of integration points slightly improves convergence of the model, and it certainly makes model fitting much quicker. Obviously, model results are less accurate. We have been known to use fewer integration points, but mainly because of the speed issue. We can experiment more quickly. At the end, we always return to the default number of integration points.

Get better starting values (sem and gsem)

```
. sem ..., ...
Variables in structural equation model
  (output omitted)
Fitting target model:
```

initial values not feasible r(1400);

If you observe,

and you are using sem, we direct you back to *Temporarily simplify the model*. The problem that we discuss here seldom reveals itself as "initial values not feasible" with sem. If you are using gsem, we direct you to the next section, *Get better starting values (gsem)*. It is not impossible that what we discuss here is the solution to your problem, but it is unlikely.

We discuss here problems that usually reveal themselves by producing an infinite iteration log:

```
. sem ..., ...
Endogenous variables
  (output omitted)
Fitting target model:
Iteration 1: log likelihood = ...
.
.
.
.
Iteration 50: log likelihood = -337504.44 (not concave)
Iteration 51: log likelihood = -337503.52 (not concave)
Iteration 52: log likelihood = -337502.13 (not concave)
.
.
.
Iteration 101: log likelihood = -337400.69 (not concave)
—Break—
r(1);
```

The first thing to do is look at the parameter values. To do that, type

```
. sem ..., ... iterate(100)
```

We specified 100; you should specify an iteration value based on your log.

In most cases, you will discover that you have a variance of a latent exogenous variable going to 0, or you have a variance of an error (e.) variable going to 0.

Based on what you see, say that you suspect the problem is with the variance of the error of a latent endogenous variable F going to 0, namely, e.F. You need to give that variance a larger starting value, which you can do by typing

```
. sem ..., ... var(e.F, init(1))
or
. sem ..., ... var(e.F, init(2))
or
. sem ..., ... var(e.F, init(10))
```

We recommend choosing a value for the variance that is larger than you believe is necessary.

To obtain that value,

- 1. If the variable is observed, use summarize to obtain the summary statistics for the variable, square the reported standard deviation, and then increase that by, say, 20%.
- 2. If the variable is latent, use summarize to obtain a summary of the latent variable's anchor variable and then follow the same rule: use summarize, square the reported standard deviation, and then increase that by 20%. (The anchor variable is the variable whose path is constrained to have coefficient 1.)
- 3. If the variable is latent and has paths only to other latent variables so that its anchor variable is itself latent, follow the anchor's paths to an observed variable and follow the same rule: use summarize, square the reported standard deviation, and then increase that by 20%.
- 4. If you are using gsem to fit a multilevel model and the latent variable is at the observational level, follow advice 2 above. If the latent variable is at a higher level—say school—and its anchor is x, a Gaussian response with the identity link, type

```
. sort school
. by school: egen avg = mean(x)
. by school: gen touse = _n==1 if school<.
. summarize avg if touse==1
```

Square the reported standard deviation and add 20%.

5. If you are using gsem and the anchor of the latent variable is not Gaussian with the identity link, see the next section.

Do not dismiss the possibility that the bad starting values concern estimated parameters other than variances of latent exogenous or error variables, although variances of those kinds of variables is the usual case. Covariances are rarely the problem because covariances can take on any value and, whether too small or too large, usually get themselves back on track as the iterative process proceeds. If you need to specify an initial value for a covariance, the syntax is

```
. sem ..., ... cov(e.F*e.G, init(-25))
```

Substitute for -25 the value you consider reasonable.

The other possibility is that a path coefficient needs a better starting value, which is as unlikely as a covariance being the problem, and for the same reasons. To set the initial value of a path coefficient, add the init() option where the path is specified. Say the original sem command included y<-x1:

```
. sem ... (y<-x1 x2) ...
```

If you wanted to set the initial value of the path from x1 to 3, modify the command to read

```
. sem ... (y<-(x1, init(3)) x2) ...
```

Get better starting values (gsem)

What we say below applies regardless of how the convergence problem revealed itself. You might have seen the error message "initial values not feasible", or some other error message, or you might have an infinite iteration log.

gsem provides two options to help you obtain better starting values: startvalues() and startgrid().

startvalues(symethod) allows you to specify one of five starting-value-calculation methods: zero, constantonly, fixedonly, ivloadings, and iv. By default, gsem uses ivloadings. Evidently, that did not work for you. Try the others, starting with iv:

```
. gsem ..., ... startvalues(iv)
```

If that does not solve the problem, proceed through the others in the following order: fixedonly, constantonly, and zero.

By the way, if you have starting values for some parameters but not others—perhaps you fit a simplified model to get them—you can combine the options startvalues() and from():

```
// simplified model
. gsem ..., ...
. matrix b = e(b)
. gsem ..., ... from(b) startvalues(iv) // full model
```

You can combine startvalues() with the init() option, too. We described init() in the previous section.

The other special option gsem provides is startgrid(). startgrid() can be used with or without startvalues(), startgrid() is a brute-force approach that tries various values for variances and covariances and chooses the ones that work best.

1. You may already be using a default form of startgrid() without knowing it. If you see gsem displaying Grid node 1, Grid node 2, ... following Grid node 0 in the iteration log, that is gsem doing a default search because the original starting values were not feasible.

The default form tries 0.1, 1, and 10 for all variances of all latent variables, by which we mean the variances of latent exogenous variables and the variances of errors of latent endogenous variables.

- 2. startgrid(numlist) specifies values to try for variances of latent variables.
- 3. startgrid(covspec) specifies the particular variances and covariances in which grid searches are to be performed. Variances and covariances are specified in the usual way. start-grid(e.F e.F*e.L M1[school] G*H e.y e.y1*e.y2) specifies that 0.1, 1, and 10 be tried for each member of the list.
- startgrid(numlist covspec) allows you to combine the two syntaxes, and you can specify
 multiple startgrid() options so that you can search the different ranges for different
 variances and covariances.

Our advice to you is this:

1. If you got an iteration log and it did not contain Grid node 1, Grid node 2, ..., then specify startgrid(.1 1 10). Do that whether the iteration log was infinite or ended with some other error. In this case, we know that gsem did not run startgrid() on its own because it did not report Grid node 1, Grid node 2, etc. Your problem is poor starting values, not infeasible ones.

A synonym for startgrid(.1 1 10) is just startgrid without parentheses.

Be careful, however, if you have a large number of latent variables. startgrid could run a long time because it runs all possible combinations. If you have 10 latent variables, that means $10^3 = 1,000$ likelihood evaluations.

If you have a large number of latent variables, rerun your difficult gsem command including option iterate(#) and look at the results. Identify the problematic variances and search across them only. Do not just look for variances going to 0. Variances getting really big can be a problem, too, and even reasonable values can be a problem. Use your knowledge and intuition about the model.

Perhaps you will try to fit your model by specifying startgrid(.1 1 10 e.F L e.X). Because values 0.1, 1, and 10 are the default, you could equivalently specify startgrid(e.F L e.X).

Look at covariances as well as variances. If you expect a covariance to be negative and it is positive, try negative starting values for the covariance by specifying startgrid(-.1 -1 -10 G*H).

Remember that you can have multiple startgrid() options, and thus you could specify startgrid(e.F L e.X) startgrid(-.1 -1 -10 G*H).

2. If you got "initial values not feasible", you know that gsem already tried the default startgrid.

The default startgrid only tried the values 0.1, 1, and 10, and only tried them on the variances of latent variables. You may need to try different values or try the same values on covariances or variances of errors of observed endogenous variables.

We suggest you first rerun the model causing difficulty including the noestimate option. We also direct you back to the idea of first simplifying the model; see *Temporarily simplify the model*.

If, looking at the results, you have an idea of which variance or covariance is a problem, or if you have few variances and covariances, we would recommend running startgrid() first. On the other hand, if you have no idea as to which variance or covariance is the problem and you have a large number of them, you will be better off if you first simplify the model. If, after doing that, your simplified model does not include all the variances and covariances, you can specify a combination of from() and startgrid().

Also see

[SEM] intro 11 — Fitting models with summary statistics data (sem only)

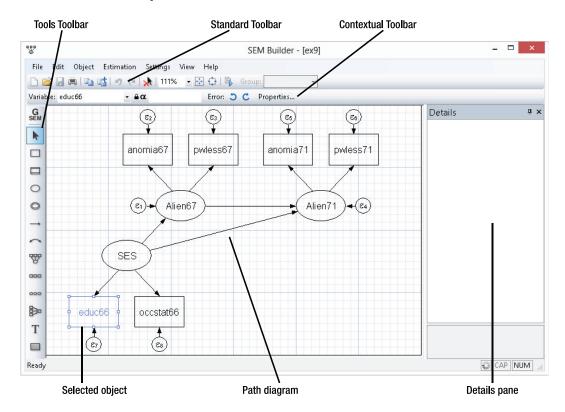
Builder — SEM Builder

Description Remarks and examples Reference

Description

The SEM Builder lets you create path diagrams for SEMs, fit those models, and show results on the path diagram. Here we discuss standard linear SEMs; see [SEM] **Builder**, **generalized** for information on using the Builder to create models with generalized responses and multilevel structure.

Remarks and examples



Launch the SEM Builder by selecting the menu item **Statistics** > **SEM** (**structural equation modeling**) > **Model building and estimation**. You can also type sembuilder in the Command window.

Select the Add Observed Variable tool, \square , and click within the diagram to add an observed variable. Type a name in the *Name* control of the Contextual Toolbar to name the variable. If the variable is not placed exactly where you want it, simply select the Select tool and drag the variable to your preferred location.

After adding the variable, use the *Variable* control in the Contextual Toolbar to select a variable from your dataset or type a variable name into the edit field.

Add latent variables to the model by using the otool.

Clicking within the diagram with either the or or tool places a variable of the default size and shape. If you instead wish to create a variable of custom size and shape, click and hold the mouse button and drag until the variable is your preferred size. Select the **Properties** button in the Contextual Toolbar or double-click on a variable to launch a dialog box where you can change even more properties of the variable. You can customize the size, shape, label font, and other appearance characteristics of the variable from the **Appearance** tab of the dialog, but you will rarely do that.

More often, you will want to change the appearance of all variables or a class of variables from the **Settings** menu. From the **Settings** menu, you can change any aspect of the appearance of variables. The **Settings** > **Variables** menu lets you change the appearance of **All** variables, **Latent** variables, **Observed** variables, **Latent Exogenous** variables, **Latent Endogenous** variables, **Observed Exogenous** variables, **Cobserved Endogenous** variables, **Error** variables, **Latent Error** variables, and **Observed Error** variables.

Draw paths between variables with the — tool. Simply click in the source variable's box or oval and drag to the target variable's box or oval. The new path can connect variables either along the line between their center points or at the edge nearest where you click and release. This connection behavior is set in the **Settings > Automation...** dialog.

Whenever a path is connected to an exogenous variable, that variable becomes endogenous and an error variable is created. If you do not like the direction of the error variable relative to the new endogenous variable, first use the tool to select the endogenous variable and then use the buttons in the Contextual Toolbar to rotate the error variable.

Draw covariances between variables with the tool. If you drag to the right, the curve of the covariance will bend up. If you drag to the left, the curve will bend down. If you drag down, the curve will bend right, and if you drag up, it will bend left. That does not matter greatly; if the curve bends the opposite of what you want, simply click the **Mirror** button in the Contextual Toolbar.

As with variables, you can change more properties of a path or covariance (connection) by double-clicking on it or by selecting Properties from the Contextual Toolbar. You can also change the appearance of all connections from the **Settings > Connections** menu. From **Settings > Connections**, you can change the appearance of **All** connections, all **Paths**, all **Covariances**, or all **Error Paths**.

Manage variables and connections on the diagram with the Select tool, As you select an object, its Contextual Toolbar will appear. You can change the name and other properties of selected variables or the properties of selected connections. You can also drag-select or hold the *Shift* key and click to select multiple objects. Changing a property from the Contextual Toolbar or **Properties** dialog will affect all the selected objects. You can also drag selected variables as a group to other locations on the diagram.

You can place a measurement model (or measurement component of a larger model) on the diagram with the tool. Clicking on the diagram with this tool launches a dialog box where you can name the latent variable, select or type the names of the measurement variables, and specify the direction of the measurements relative to the latent variable. You can even set the spacing between the measurement variables and the distance from the latent variable to the measurements. The tool creates measurement components quickly and with even spacing. Similarly, neatly organized sets of observed variables can be placed with the tool; sets of latent variables, with the tool; and regression components, with the tool.

Place annotations and other text by using the T tool.

We have ignored the locks, $\[\]^{\]}$, in the Contextual Toolbars. These locks apply constraints to the parameters of the SEM. You can constrain variances, $\[\]^{\]}$ means, $\[\]^{\]}$ intercepts, $\[\]^{\]}$ and path coefficients and covariances, $\[\]^{\]}$ For example, select an exogenous variable or an error variable and type a number in $\[\]^{\]}$ to constrain that variance to a fixed value. Or, select three path variables and type a name (a placeholder) in $\[\]^{\]}$ to constrain all the path coefficients to be equal. You can type numbers, names, or linear expressions in the $\[\]^{\]}$ controls. The linear expressions can involve only numbers and names that are used in other $\[\]^{\]}$ controls.

Do not be afraid to try things. If you do not know what a tool, control, or dialog item does, try it. If you do not like the result, click on the **Undo** button, in the Standard Toolbar.

Click on in the Standard Toolbar to fit the model. A dialog is launched that allows you to set all the estimation options that are not defined by the path diagram. After estimation, some of the estimation results are displayed on the path diagram. Use the **Results** tab of the **Settings > Variables** and **Settings > Connections** dialogs to change what results are shown and how they appear (font sizes, locations, etc.). Also, as you click on connections or variables, the Details pane displays all the estimation results for the selected object.

If you wish to create another model derived from the current model, click in the Standard Toolbar.

Video example

SEM Builder in Stata

Visit the Stata YouTube channel for more videos.

Reference

Huber, C. 2012. Using Stata's SEM features to model the Beck Depression Inventory. The Stata Blog: Not Elsewhere Classified. http://blog.stata.com/2012/10/17/using-statas-sem-features-to-model-the-beck-depression-inventory/.

Builder, **generalized** — SEM Builder for generalized models

Description Remarks and examples Reference

Description

The SEM Builder allows you to create path diagrams of generalized SEMs, fit those models, and show the results on the path diagram. Here we extend the discussion from [SEM] **Builder**. Read that manual entry first.

Remarks and examples

Launch the SEM Builder by selecting the menu item **Statistics** > **SEM** (structural equation modeling) > **Model building and estimation**. You can also type sembuilder in the Command window. Switch the Builder into generalized SEM mode by clicking on the **Change to Generalized SEM** button, ^G_{sem}. The generalized SEM mode allows you to add generalized responses and multilevel latent variables to your path diagram. This mode also disallows constraints on the means or variances of observed exogenous variables and on the variances of errors. In technical terms, the generalized mode draws and fits gsem models rather than sem models; see [SEM] intro 1 for a discussion.

Aside from activating tools to add generalized responses and multilevel latent variables, everything about the Builder works the same in generalized SEM mode as it did in standard SEM mode. You can still add observed variables (\square) and latent variables (\square) and create connections using paths (\square) and covariances (\square).

You can now add to your diagram a special kind of observed variable called a generalized response variable by using the tool. A generalized response is a dependent variable that may be continuous, count, binary, ordinal, or multinomial, and whose statistical properties are described by its family and link; see [SEM] intro 2 for a discussion. Simply click on the tool and then click in the diagram to add a generalized response variable. After adding the generalized response, use the Contextual Toolbar to do the following: 1) select its Family/Link and 2) select its variable from the Variable control. You may also type a variable name into the Variable control.

You can also add multilevel latent variables—random effects assumed to have a Gaussian distribution whose realizations are at the level of a grouping variable or variables. See [SEM] intro 2 for a discussion. Click on the otol and then click on the diagram to add a multilevel latent variable. After adding the variable, click on the object of the Name/Level control in the Contextual Toolbar. In the resulting dialog box, choose the nesting depth of your latent variable, and then choose the variables that define the nesting. For example, for a three-level model of doctors nesting patients nesting observations, you would select 3 in the Nesting depth control, select doctor in the first variable control, and select patient in the second variable control, leaving > Observations, which is fixed. You do not need to change the default Base name, but you may type a different name of your choice. Do read the note on the dialog carefully because it provides guidance on successfully creating multilevel models. Also see [SEM] example 39g for an example that demonstrates creating a nested model in the Builder.

As with standard observed and latent variables, you can also click and drag as you add generalized responses and multilevel latent variables to control the size of the resulting variables. You can also select the **Properties** button from the Contextual Toolbar or double-click on a variable to change even more properties of the variable. As with standard variables, you can control their appearance from the **Appearance** tab of the resulting dialog box or, more likely, control the appearance of all variables of a given type from the **Settings > Variables** menu.

As with standard models, you create the structure of your model by connecting the variables with the tool. You may also specify covariances among variables with the tool.

There is one other construct available in generalized mode that is not available in standard mode—paths to other paths. In addition to creating paths from a latent variable to an observed variable or to another latent variable at the same nesting level, you can connect a standard or multilevel latent variable to a path from one observed variable to another observed variable. This makes that path a random path, or a random slope. As with other path connections, think of the path as adding the source variable to the target. So we are adding a random variable to a path (or slope), making it a random path. See [SEM] example 38g for an example of creating a random path in the Builder.

In generalized mode, the Add Measurement Component tool, \mathfrak{T} , allows the measurements to be created as generalized responses. Simply click on the *Make measurements generalized* box on the dialog box and select a *Family/Link*. It also allows the latent variable to be either standard observation-level or multilevel with the radio control at the top of the dialog box.

The Add Observed Variables Set tool, also allows you to create multiple generalized responses. Click on the Make variables generalized responses box on the dialog box and select a Family/Link.

Creating multinomial logit responses can be tricky. You must create a generalized response for each level of your outcome and use factor-variable notation to designate the levels of the outcome. The tool is the safest way to create a multinomial logit response. With your dataset in memory, select the tool and then click on the diagram. Click on the Make variables generalized responses box on the dialog box, and then select Multinomial, Logit in the Family/Link control. Select your multinomial response variable from the Variable control, and the levels for your multinomial response will be automatically populated. The level designated with a b will be the base level. You can type the b on another level to make it the base. When you click **OK**, multinomial generalized responses will be created for each level of your variable. See [SEM] example 37g for an example of creating multinomial logit responses in the Builder.

The Add Regression Component tool, \triangleright , also allows the dependent variable to be specified as a generalized response.

Place shaded boxes on the diagram with the tool. This tool can be used in both standard and generalized mode. It is most useful in the generalized mode, where we can shade different nesting levels of multilevel models.

As in standard mode, constraints are specified with lock controls \triangle , and you fit the model by using the \square button on the Standard Toolbar.

Video example

SEM Builder in Stata

Visit the Stata YouTube channel for more videos.

Reference

Huber, C. 2012. Using Stata's SEM features to model the Beck Depression Inventory. The Stata Blog: Not Elsewhere Classified. http://blog.stata.com/2012/10/17/using-statas-sem-features-to-model-the-beck-depression-inventory/.

estat eform — Display exponentiated coefficients

Syntax Menu Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
estat eform [eqnamelist] [, level(#) display_options]
```

where *eqnamelist* is a list of equation names. In gsem, equation names correspond to the names of the response variables. If no *eqnamelist* is specified, exponentiated results for the first equation are shown.

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Other > Display exponentiated coefficients

Description

estat eform is for use after gsem but not sem.

gsem reports coefficients. You can obtain exponentiated coefficients and their standard errors by using estat eform after estimation to redisplay results.

Options

level(#); see [R] estimation options; default is level(95).

display_options control the display of factor variables and more. Allowed display_options are noomitted, vsquish, noemptycells, baselevels, allbaselevels, nofvlabel, fvwrap(#), fvwrapon(style), cformat(%fint), pformat(%fint), sformat(%fint), and nolstretch. See [R] estimation options.

Remarks and examples

In some generalized linear response functions, exponentiated coefficients have a special meaning. Those special meanings are as follows:

Common name	Family	Link	Meaning of exp(coef)
logit	Bernoulli	logit	odds ratio
ologit	ordinal	logit	odds ratio
mlogit	multinomial	logit	relative-risk ratio
Poisson	Poisson	log	incidence-rate ratio
nbreg	nbreg	log	incidence-rate ratio

See [SEM] example 33g and [SEM] example 34g.

Also see

```
[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
[SEM] gsem postestimation — Postestimation tools for gsem
[SEM] intro 7 — Postestimation tests and predictions
[SEM] example 33g — Logistic regression
[SEM] example 34g — Combined models (generalized responses)
```

```
estat eqgof — Equation-level goodness-of-fit statistics
```

Syntax	Menu	Description	Option
Remarks and examples	Stored results	Reference	Also see

Syntax

```
estat eqgof [, format(%fmt)]
```

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Goodness of fit > Equation-level goodness of fit

Description

estat eggof is for use after sem but not gsem.

estat eggof displays equation-by-equation goodness-of-fit statistics. Displayed are R^2 and the Bentler-Raykov squared multiple-correlation coefficient (Bentler and Raykov 2000).

These two concepts of fit are equivalent for recursive SEMs and univariate linear regression. For nonrecursive SEMs, these measures are distinct.

Equation-level variance decomposition is also reported, along with the overall model coefficient of determination.

Option

format (% fmt) specifies the display format. The default is format (%9.0f).

Remarks and examples

```
See [SEM] example 3.
```

In rare circumstances, these equation-level goodness-of-fit measures in nonrecursive structural equations have unexpected values. It is possible to obtain negative \mathbb{R}^2 and multiple-correlation values.

It is recommended to use the Bentler–Raykov squared multiple correlations as a measure of explained variance for nonrecursive systems that involve endogenous variables with reciprocal causations.

Stored results

```
estat eggof stores the following in r():
```

Reference

Bentler, P. M., and T. Raykov. 2000. On measures of explained variance in nonrecursive structural equation models. Journal of Applied Psychology 85: 125-131.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 3 — Two-factor measurement model
```

[SEM] **estat gof** — Goodness-of-fit statistics

[SEM] **estat ggof** — Group-level goodness-of-fit statistics

[SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem

[SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem

estat eqtest — Equation-level test that all coefficients are zero

Syntax Menu Description Option Remarks and examples Stored results Also see

Syntax

```
estat eqtest [, total nosvyadjust]
```

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Testing and CIs > Equation-level Wald tests

Description

estat eqtest is for use after sem but not gsem.

estat eqtest displays Wald tests that all coefficients excluding the intercept are 0 for each equation in the model.

Option

total is for use when estimation was with sem, group(). It specifies that the tests be aggregated across the groups.

nosvyadjust is for use with svy estimation commands. It specifies that the Wald test be carried out without the default adjustment for the design degrees of freedom. That is to say the test is carried out as $W/k \sim F(k,d)$ rather than as $(d-k+1)W/(kd) \sim F(k,d-k+1)$, where k is the dimension of the test and d is the total number of sampled PSUs minus the total number of strata.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 13.

Stored results

```
estat eqtest stores the following in r():
```

```
Scalars
r(N_groups)
number of groups

Matrices
r(nobs)
sample size for each group
r(test[_#])
test statistics (for group #)
r(test_total)
aggregated test statistics (total only)
```

Also see

```
[SEM] example 13 — Equation-level Wald test
```

[SEM] test — Wald test of linear hypotheses

[SEM] **Irtest** — Likelihood-ratio test of linear hypothesis

[SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem

[SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem

estat framework — Display estimation results in modeling framework

Syntax	Menu	Description	Options
Remarks and examples	Stored results	Reference	Also see

Syntax

estat $\underline{\mathtt{fra}}\mathtt{mework}$ [, options]

options	Description
standardized	report standardized results
<u>com</u> pact	display matrices in compact form
<u>fit</u> ted	include fitted means, variances, and covariances
<pre>format(%fmt)</pre>	display format to use

Menu

 ${\sf Statistics} > {\sf SEM}$ (structural equation modeling) $> {\sf Other} > {\sf Report}$ model framework

Description

estat framework is a postestimation command for use after sem but not gsem.

estat framework displays the estimation results as a series of matrices derived from the Bentler-Weeks form; see Bentler and Weeks (1980).

Options

standardized reports results in standardized form.

compact displays matrices in compact form. Zero matrices are displayed as a description. Diagonal matrices are shown as a row vector.

fitted displays the fitted mean and covariance values.

format(%fmt) specifies the display format to be used. The default is format(%9.0g).

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 11.

□ Technical note

If sem's nm1 option was specified when the model was fit, all covariance matrices are calculated using N-1 in the denominator instead of N.

Stored results

```
estat framework stores the following in r():
```

```
Scalars
    r(N_groups)
                           number of groups
    r(standardized)
                           indicator of standardized results (+)
Matrices
    r(nobs)
                           sample size for each group
    r(Beta[_#])
                           coefficients of endogenous variables on endogenous variables (for group #)
    r(Gamma _#])
                           coefficients of endogenous variables on exogenous variables (for group #)
    r(alpha[_#])
                           intercepts (for group #) (*)
    r(Psi [_#])
                           covariances of errors (for group #)
    r(Phi [ _#])
                           covariances of exogenous variables (for group #)
    r(kappa [_#])
                           means of exogenous variables (for group #) (*)
    r(Sigma[_#])
                           fitted covariances (for group #)
    r(mu[_#])
                           fitted means (for group #) (*)
```

- (+) If r(standardized)=1, the returned matrices contain standardized values.
- (*) If there are no estimated means or intercepts in the sem model, these matrices are not returned.

Reference

Bentler, P. M., and D. G. Weeks. 1980. Linear structural equations with latent variables. Psychometrika 45: 289-308.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 11 — estat framework

[SEM] intro 7 — Postestimation tests and predictions (Replaying the model (sem and gsem))

[SEM] intro 7 — Postestimation tests and predictions (Accessing stored results)

[SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem

[SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem
```

estat ggof — Group-level goodness-of-fit statistics

Syntax Menu Description Option Remarks and examples Stored results Also see

Syntax

```
estat ggof [, \underline{for} mat(\%fmt)]
```

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Group statistics > Group-level goodness of fit

Description

estat ggof is for use after estimation with sem, group().

estat ggof displays, by group, the standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR), the coefficient of determination (CD), and the model versus saturated χ^2 along with its associated degrees of freedom and p-value.

Option

format(% fmt) specifies the display format. The default is format(%9.3f).

Remarks and examples

```
See [SEM] example 21.
```

estat ggof provides group-level goodness-of-fit statistics after estimation by sem, group(); see [SEM] sem group options.

Stored results

```
estat ggof stores the following in r():
Scalars
    r(N_groups)    number of groups
Matrices
    r(gfit)    fit statistics
```

Also see

```
[SEM] example 21 — Group-level goodness of fit
```

[SEM] sem group options — Fitting models on different groups

[SEM] estat gof — Goodness-of-fit statistics

[SEM] estat eggof — Equation-level goodness-of-fit statistics

[SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem

[SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem

estat ginvariant — Tests for invariance of parameters across groups

Syntax Menu Description Options
Remarks and examples Stored results References Also see

Syntax

estat ginvariant [, options]

options	Description
showpclass(classname) class legend	restrict output to parameters in the specified parameter class include joint tests for parameter classes include legend describing parameter classes
classname	Description
<u>scoe</u> f	structural coefficients
<u>scon</u> s	structural intercepts
<u>mcoe</u> f	measurement coefficients
<u>mcon</u> s	measurement intercepts
<u>serr</u> var	covariances of structural errors
<u>merr</u> var	covariances of measurement errors
<u>smer</u> rcov	covariances between structural and measurement errors
<u>mean</u> ex	means of exogenous variables
<u>cov</u> ex	covariances of exogenous variables
all	all the above
none	none of the above

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Group statistics > Test invariance of parameters across groups

Description

estat ginvariant is for use after estimation with sem, group(); see [SEM] sem group options.

estat ginvariant performs score tests (Lagrange multiplier tests) and Wald tests of whether parameters constrained to be equal across groups should be relaxed and whether parameters allowed to vary across groups could be constrained.

See Sörbom (1989) and Wooldridge (2010, 421–428).

Options

showpclass(classname) displays tests for the classes specified. showpclass(all) is the default. class displays a table with joint tests for group invariance for each of the nine parameter classes. legend displays a legend describing the parameter classes. This option may only be used with the class option.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 22.

Stored results

References

```
Sörbom, D. 1989. Model modification. Psychometrika 54: 371–384. Wooldridge, J. M. 2010. Econometric Analysis of Cross Section and Panel Data. 2nd ed. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
```

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 22 — Testing parameter equality across groups
    [SEM] estat mindices — Modification indices
    [SEM] estat scoretests — Score tests
    [SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem
    [SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem
```

estat qof — Goodness-of-fit statisti

Syntax	Menu	Description	Options
Remarks and examples	Stored results	References	Also see

Syntax

```
estat gof [, options]
```

options	Description	
<pre>stats(statlist) nodescribe</pre>	statistics to be displayed suppress descriptions of statistics	
statlist	Description	
chi2	χ^2 tests; the default	
<u>rms</u> ea	root mean squared error of approximation	
ic	information indices	
<u>ind</u> ices	indices for comparison against baseline	
<u>res</u> iduals	measures based on residuals	
all	all the above	

Note: The statistics reported by chi2, rmsea, and indices are dependent on the assumption of joint normality of the observed variables.

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Goodness of fit > Overall goodness of fit

Description

estat gof is for use after sem but not gsem.

estat gof displays a variety of overall goodness-of-fit statistics.

Options

stats(statlist) specifies the statistics to be displayed. The default is stats(chi2).

stats(chi2) reports the model versus saturated test and the baseline versus saturated test. The saturated model is the model that fits the covariances perfectly.

The model versus saturated test is a repeat of the test reported at the bottom of the sem output.

In the baseline versus saturated test, the baseline model includes the means and variances of all observed variables plus the covariances of all observed exogenous variables. For a covariance model (a model with no endogenous variables), the baseline includes only the means and variances of observed variables. Be aware that different authors define the baseline model differently.

- stats(rmsea) reports the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) and its 90% confidence interval, and pclose, the p-value for a test of close fit, namely, RMSEA < 0.05. Most interpreters of this test label the fit close if the lower bound of the 90% CI is below 0.05 and label the fit poor if the upper bound is above 0.10. See Browne and Cudeck (1993).
- stats(ic) reports the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and Bayesian (or Schwarz) information criterion (BIC). These statistics are available only after estimation with sem method(ml) or method(mlmv). These statistics are used not to judge fit in absolute terms but instead to compare the fit of different models. Smaller values indicate a better fit. Be aware that there are many variations (minor adjustments) to statistics labeled AIC and BIC. Reported here are statistics that match estat ic; see [R] estat ic.

To compare models that use statistics based on likelihoods, such as AIC and BIC, models should include the same variables; see [SEM] Irtest. See Akaike (1987), Schwarz (1978), and Raftery (1993).

stats(indices) reports CFI and TLI, two indices such that a value close to 1 indicates a good fit. CFI stands for comparative fit index. TLI stands for Tucker-Lewis index and is also known as the nonnormed fit index. See Bentler (1990).

stats (residuals) reports the standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR) and the coefficient of determination (CD).

A perfect fit corresponds to an SRMR of 0. A good fit is a small value, considered by some to be limited to 0.08. SRMR is calculated using the first and second moments unless sem option nomeans was specified or implied, in which case SRMR is calculated based on second moments only. Some software packages ignore the first moments even when available. See Hancock and Mueller (2006, 157).

Concerning CD, a perfect fit corresponds to a CD of 1. CD is like \mathbb{R}^2 for the whole model.

stats(all) reports all the statistics. You can also specify just the statistics you wish reported, such as

. estat gof, stats(indices residuals)

nodescribe suppresses the descriptions of the goodness-of-fit measures.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 4.

Stored results

estat gof stores the following in r():

```
Scalars
    r(chi2_ms)
                          test of target model against saturated model
    r(df_ms)
                          degrees of freedom for r(chi2_ms)
    r(p_ms)
                          p-value for r(chi2_ms)
    r(chi2_bs)
                          test of baseline model against saturated model
    r(df_bs)
                          degrees of freedom for r(chi2_bs)
    r(p_bs)
                          p-value for r(chi2_bs)
                          root mean squared error of approximation
    r(rmsea)
    r(lb90_rmsea)
                          lower bound of 90% CI for RMSEA
    r(ub90_rmsea)
                          upper bound of 90% CI for RMSEA
                          p-value for test of close fit: RMSEA < 0.05
    r(pclose)
    r(aic)
                          Akaike information criterion
    r(bic)
                          Bayesian information criterion
    r(cfi)
                          comparative fit index
    r(tli)
                          Tucker-Lewis fit index
                          coefficient of determination
    r(cd)
                          standardized root mean squared residual
    r(srmr)
                          number of groups
    r(N_groups)
Matrices
    r(nobs)
                          sample size for each group
```

References

Akaike, H. 1987. Factor analysis and AIC. Psychometrika 52: 317-332.

Bentler, P. M. 1990. Comparative fit indexes in structural models. Psychological Bulletin 107: 238-246.

Browne, M. W., and R. Cudeck. 1993. Alternative ways of assessing model fit. Reprinted in *Testing Structural Equation Models*, ed. K. A. Bollen and J. S. Long, pp. 136–162. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Hancock, G. R., and R. O. Mueller, ed. 2006. Structural Equation Modeling: A Second Course. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Raftery, A. E. 1993. Bayesian model selection in structural equation models. Reprinted in *Testing Structural Equation Models*, ed. K. A. Bollen and J. S. Long, pp. 163–180. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Schwarz, G. 1978. Estimating the dimension of a model. Annals of Statistics 6: 461-464.

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 4 — Goodness-of-fit statistics
    [SEM] estat ggof — Group-level goodness-of-fit statistics
    [SEM] estat eqgof — Equation-level goodness-of-fit statistics
    [SEM] estat residuals — Display mean and covariance residuals
    [R] estat ic — Display information criteria
    [SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem
    [SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem
```

estat mindices — Modification indices

Syntax	Menu	Description	Options
Remarks and examples	Stored results	References	Also see

Syntax

estat <u>mi</u>ndices [, options]

options	Description
showpclass(classname)	restrict output to parameters in the specified parameter classes
<pre>minchi2(#)</pre>	display only tests with modification index (MI) \geq #
classname	Description
scoef	structural coefficients
<u>scon</u> s	structural intercepts
<u>mcoe</u> f	measurement coefficients
<u>mcon</u> s	measurement intercepts
<u>serr</u> var	covariances of structural errors
<u>merr</u> var	covariances of measurement errors
<u>smer</u> rcov	covariances between structural and measurement errors
<u>mean</u> ex	means of exogenous variables
<u>cov</u> ex	covariances of exogenous variables
all	all the above
none	none of the above

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Testing and CIs > Modification indices

Description

estat mindices is for use after sem but not gsem.

estat mindices reports modification indices for omitted paths in the fitted model. Modification indices are score tests (Lagrange multiplier tests) for the statistical significance of the omitted paths. See Sörbom (1989) and Wooldridge (2010, 421–428).

Options

showpclass(classname) specifies that results be limited to parameters that belong to the specified parameter classes. The default is showpclass(all).

minchi2(#) suppresses listing paths with modification indices (MIs) less than #. By default, estat mindices lists values significant at the 0.05 level, corresponding to $\chi^2(1)$ value minchi2(3.8414588). Specify minchi2(0) if you wish to see all tests.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 5.

Stored results

estat mindices stores the following in r():

Scalars

r(N_groups) number of groups

Matrices

r(nobs) sample size for each group

r(mindices_pclass) parameter class of modification indices r(mindices) parameter class of modification indices matrix containing the displayed table values

References

Sörbom, D. 1989. Model modification. Psychometrika 54: 371-384.

Wooldridge, J. M. 2010. Econometric Analysis of Cross Section and Panel Data. 2nd ed. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 5 — Modification indices
```

[SEM] estat scoretests — Score tests

[SEM] **estat ginvariant** — Tests for invariance of parameters across groups

[SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem

[SEM] **sem postestimation** — Postestimation tools for sem

estat residuals — Display mean and covariance residuals

Syntax Menu Description Options
Remarks and examples Stored results References Also see

Syntax

estat \underline{res} iduals [, options]

options	Description
<u>norm</u> alized	report normalized residuals
<u>stand</u> ardized	report standardized residuals
<u>sam</u> ple	use sample covariances in residual variance calculations
nm1	use adjustment $N-1$ in residual variance calculations
$\underline{\mathtt{zero}}\mathtt{tolerance}(\mathit{tol})$	apply tolerance to treat residuals as 0
<pre>format(%fmt)</pre>	display format

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Goodness of fit > Matrices of residuals

Description

estat residuals is for use after sem but not gsem.

estat residuals displays the mean and covariance residuals. Normalized and standardized residuals are available.

Both mean and covariance residuals are reported unless sem's option nomeans was specified or implied at the time the model was fit, in which case mean residuals are not reported.

estat residuals usually does not work following sem models fit with method(mlmv). It also does not work if there are any missing values, which after all is the whole point of using method(mlmv).

Options

normalized and standardized are alternatives. If neither is specified, raw residuals are reported.

Normalized residuals and standardized residuals attempt to adjust the residuals in the same way, but they go about it differently. The normalized residuals are always valid, but they do not follow a standard normal distribution. The standardized residuals do follow a standard normal distribution but only if they can be calculated; otherwise, they will equal missing values. When both can be calculated (equivalent to both being appropriate), the normalized residuals will be a little smaller than the standardized residuals. See Jöreskog and Sörbom (1986).

sample specifies that the sample variance and covariances be used in variance formulas to compute normalized and standardized residuals. The default uses fitted variance and covariance values as described by Bollen (1989).

nm1 specifies that the variances be computed using N-1 in the denominator rather than using sample size N.

zerotolerance(tol) treats residuals within tol of 0 as if they were 0. tol must be a numeric value less than 1. The default is zerotolerance(0), meaning that no tolerance is applied. When standardized residuals cannot be calculated, it is because a variance calculated by the Hausman (1978) theorem turns negative. Applying a tolerance to the residuals turns some residuals into 0 and then division by the negative variance becomes irrelevant, and that may be enough to solve the calculation problem.

format(% fmt) specifies the display format. The default is format(%9.3f).

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 10.

Stored results

```
estat residuals stores the following in r():
```

```
Scalars
                           number of groups
    r(N_groups)
Macros
    r(sample)
                           empty or sample, if sample was specified
    r(nm1)
                           empty or nm1, if nm1 was specified
Matrices
    r(nobs)
                           sample size for each group
    r(res_mean | _# ])
                           raw mean residuals (for group #) (*)
    r(res_cov | _# |)
                           raw covariance residuals (for group #)
    r(nres_mean | _# |)
                           normalized mean residuals (for group #) (*)
    r(nres_cov | _# |)
                           normalized covariance residuals (for group #)
    r(sres_mean | _# |)
                           standardized mean residuals (for group #) (*)
    r(sres_cov | _# |)
                           standardized covariance residuals (for group #)
```

(*) If there are no estimated means or intercepts in the sem model, these matrices are not returned.

References

Bollen, K. A. 1989. Structural Equations with Latent Variables. New York: Wiley.

Hausman, J. A. 1978. Specification tests in econometrics. Econometrica 46: 1251-1271.

Jöreskog, K. G., and D. Sörbom. 1986. Lisrel VI: Analysis of linear structural relationships by the method of maximum likelihood. Mooresville. IN: Scientific Software.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 10 — MIMIC model
```

[SEM] **estat gof** — Goodness-of-fit statistics

[SEM] **estat ggof** — Group-level goodness-of-fit statistics

[SEM] estat eggof — Equation-level goodness-of-fit statistics

[SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem

[SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem

estat scoretests — Score tests

Syntax Menu Description Option
Remarks and examples Stored results References Also see

Syntax

```
estat <u>score</u>tests [, <u>min</u>chi2(#)]
```

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Testing and CIs > Score tests of linear constraints

Description

estat scoretests is for use after sem but not gsem.

estat scoretests displays score tests (Lagrange multiplier tests) for each of the user-specified linear constraints imposed on the model when it was fit. See Sörbom (1989) and Wooldridge (2010, 421–428).

Option

minchi2(#) suppresses output of tests with $\chi^2(1) <$ #. By default, estat mindices lists values significant at the 0.05 level, corresponding to $\chi^2(1)$ value minchi2(3.8414588). Specify minchi2(0) if you wish to see all tests.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 8.

Stored results

estat scoretests stores the following in r():

Scalars

r(N_groups) number of groups

Matrices

r(nobs) sample size for each group

r(Cns_sctest) matrix containing the displayed table values

References

Sörbom, D. 1989. Model modification. Psychometrika 54: 371-384.

Wooldridge, J. M. 2010. Econometric Analysis of Cross Section and Panel Data. 2nd ed. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Also see

[SEM] example 8 — Testing that coefficients are equal, and constraining them

[SEM] estat mindices — Modification indices

[SEM] **estat ginvariant** — Tests for invariance of parameters across groups

[SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem

[SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem

estat stable — Check stability of nonrecursive system

Syntax Menu Description Option
Remarks and examples Stored results Reference Also see

Syntax

```
estat <u>sta</u>ble [, <u>d</u>etail]
```

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Other > Assess stability of nonrecursive systems

Description

estat stable is for use after sem but not gsem.

estat stable reports the eigenvalue stability index for nonrecursive models. The stability index is computed as the maximum modulus of the eigenvalues for the matrix of coefficients on endogenous variables predicting other endogenous variables. If the model was fit by sem with the group() option, estat stable reports the index for each group separately.

There are two formulas commonly used to calculate the index. estat stable uses the formulation of Bentler and Freeman (1983).

Option

detail displays the matrix of coefficients on endogenous variables predicting other endogenous variables, also known as the β matrix.

Remarks and examples

See nonrecursive (structural) model (system) in [SEM] Glossary. The issue of stability is described there. Also see Remarks and examples of [SEM] estat teffects.

Stored results

```
estat stable stores the following in r():
```

```
Scalars
    r(N_groups)
                          number of groups
    r(stindex [_#])
                          stability index (for group #)
Matrices
    r(nobs)
                          sample size for each group
    r(Beta[_#])
                          coefficients of endogenous variables on endogenous variables (for group #)
    r(Re[_#])
                          real parts of the eigenvalues of A (for group #)
    r(Im[_#])
                          imaginary parts of the eigenvalues of A (for group #)
    r(Modulus [_#])
                          modulus of the eigenvalues of A (for group #)
```

Reference

Bentler, P. M., and E. H. Freeman. 1983. Tests for stability in linear structural equation systems. *Psychometrika* 48: 143–145.

Also see

```
[SEM] estat teffects — Decomposition of effects into total, direct, and indirect [SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem [SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem
```

```
estat stdize — Test standardized parameters
```

Syntax Menu Description Remarks and examples Stored results Also see

Syntax

```
estat stdize: test ...
estat stdize: lincom ...
estat stdize: testnl ...
estat stdize: nlcom ...
```

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Testing and CIs > Testing standardized parameters

Description

```
estat stdize: is for use after sem but not gsem.
```

estat stdize: can be used to prefix test, lincom, testnl, and nlcom; see [SEM] test, [SEM] lincom, [SEM] testnl, and [SEM] nlcom.

These commands without a prefix work in the underlying metric of SEM, which is to say path coefficients, variances, and covariances. If the commands are prefixed with estat stdize:, they will work in the metric of standardized coefficients and correlation coefficients. There is no counterpart to variances in the standardized metric because variances are standardized to be 1.

Remarks and examples

```
See [SEM] example 16.
```

Exercise caution when using the estat stdize: prefix to perform tests on estimated second moments (correlations). Do not test that correlations are 0. Instead, omit the estat stdize: prefix and test that covariances are 0. Covariances are more likely to be normally distributed than are correlations.

Stored results

Stored results are the results stored by the command being used with the estat stdize: prefix.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 16 — Correlation
```

- [SEM] **test** Wald test of linear hypotheses
- [SEM] lincom Linear combinations of parameters
- [SEM] **testnl** Wald test of nonlinear hypotheses
- [SEM] **nlcom** Nonlinear combinations of parameters
- [SEM] sem postestimation Postestimation tools for sem
- [SEM] methods and formulas for sem Methods and formulas for sem

estat summarize — Report summary statistics for estimation sample

Syntax Menu for estat Description Options Stored results Also see

Syntax

```
estat <u>summarize</u> [eqlist] [, group estat_summ_options]
```

Menu for estat

Statistics > Postestimation > Reports and statistics

Description

estat summarize is a standard postestimation command of Stata. This entry concerns use of estat summarize after sem or gsem.

estat summarize reports the summary statistics in the estimation sample for the observed variables in the model. estat summarize is mentioned here because

- estat summarize cannot be used if sem was run on summary statistics data; see [SEM] intro 11.
- 2. estat summarize allows the additional option group after estimation by sem.

If you fit your model with gsem instead of sem, see [R] estat summarize.

Options

group may be specified if group(varname) was specified with sem at the time the model was fit. It requests that summary statistics be reported by group.

estat_summ_options are the standard options allowed by estat summarize and are outlined in Options of [R] estat summarize.

Stored results

See Stored results of [R] estat summarize.

Also see

```
    [R] estat summarize — Summarize estimation sample
    [SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem
    [SEM] gsem postestimation — Postestimation tools for gsem
```

estat teffects — Decomposition of effects into total, direct, and indirect

Syntax	Menu	Description	Options
Remarks and examples	Stored results	References	Also see

Syntax

estat teffects [, options]

options	Description
compact	do not display effects with no path
<u>stand</u> ardized	report standardized effects
<u>nolab</u> el	display group values, not labels
<u>nodir</u> ect	do not display direct effects
<u>noindir</u> ect	do not display indirect effects
<u>notot</u> al	do not display total effects
display_options	control column formats, row spacing, and display of omitted paths

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Testing and CIs > Direct and indirect effects

Description

estat teffects is for use after sem but not gsem.

estat teffects reports direct, indirect, and total effects for each path (Sobel 1987), along with standard errors obtained by the delta method.

Options

compact is a popular option. Consider the following model:

```
. sem (y1 < -y2 x1) (y2 < -x2)
```

x2 has no direct effect on y1 but does have an indirect effect. estat teffects formats all its effects tables the same way by default, so there will be a row for the direct effect of x2 on y1 just because there is a row for the indirect effect of x2 on y1. The value reported for the direct effect, of course, will be 0. compact says to omit these unnecessary rows.

standardized reports effects in standardized form, but standard errors of the standardized effects are not reported.

nolabel is relevant only if estimation was with sem's group() option and the group variable has a value label. Groups are identified by group value rather than label.

nodirect, noindirect, and nototal suppress the display of the indicated effect. The default is to display all effects.

display_options: noomitted, vsquish, cformat(%fmt), pformat(%fmt), sformat(%fmt), and nolstretch; see [R] estimation options. Although estat teffects is not an estimation command, it allows these options.

Remarks and examples

```
See [SEM] example 7.
```

Direct effects are the path coefficients in the model.

Indirect effects are all mediating effects. For instance, consider

```
. sem ... (y1 < -y2) (y1 < -x2) (y2 < -x3) ..., ...
```

The direct effect of y2 on y1 is the path coefficient (y1<-y2).

In this example, changes in x3 affect y1, too. That is called the indirect effect and is the product of the path coefficients (y2<-x3) and (y1<-y2). If there were other paths in the model such that y1 changed when x3 changed, those effects would be added to the indirect effect as well. estat teffects reports total indirect effects.

The total effect is the sum of the direct and indirect effects.

When feedback loops are present in the model, such as

```
. sem ... (y1 < -y2) (y1 < -x2) (y2 < -x3 y1) ..., ...
```

care must be taken when interpreting indirect effects. The feedback loop is when a variable indirectly affects itself, as y1 does in the example; y1 affects y2 and y2 affects y1. Thus in calculating the indirect effect, the sum has an infinite number of terms although the term values get smaller and smaller and thus usually converge to a finite result. It is important that you check nonrecursive models for stability; see Bollen (1989, 397) and see [SEM] estat stable. Caution: if the model is unstable, the calculation of the indirect effect can sometimes still converge to a finite result.

Stored results

estat teffects stores the following in r():

```
Scalars
r(1
```

r(N_groups) number of groups

Matrices

r(nobs) sample size for each group

r(direct) direct effects
r(indirect) indirect effects
r(total) total effects

r(V_direct) covariance matrix of the direct effects r(V_indirect) covariance matrix of the indirect effects r(V_total) covariance matrix of the total effects

estat teffects with the standardized option additionally stores the following in r():

Matrices

```
r(direct_std) standardized direct effects
r(indirect_std) standardized indirect effects
r(total_std) standardized total effects
```

References

Bollen, K. A. 1989. Structural Equations with Latent Variables. New York: Wiley.

Sobel, M. E. 1987. Direct and indirect effects in linear structural equation models. Sociological Methods and Research 16: 155-176.

Also see

[SEM] estat stable — Check stability of nonrecursive system

[SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem

[SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem

example 1 — Single-factor measurement model

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

The single-factor measurement model is demonstrated using the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_1fmm
 (single-factor measurement model)
- . summarize

0bs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
123	96.28455	14.16444	54	131
123	97.28455	16.14764	64	135
123	97.09756	15.10207	62	138
123	690.9837	77.50737	481	885
	123 123 123	123 96.28455 123 97.28455 123 97.09756	123 96.28455 14.16444 123 97.28455 16.14764 123 97.09756 15.10207	123 96.28455 14.16444 54 123 97.28455 16.14764 64 123 97.09756 15.10207 62

. notes

_dta:

- 1. fictional data
- 2. Variables x1, x2, and x3 each contain a test score designed to measure X. The test is scored to have mean 100.
- 3. Variable x4 is also designed to measure X, but designed to have mean 700.

See Single-factor measurement models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

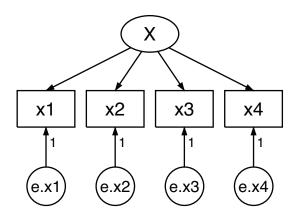
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Single-factor measurement model Fitting the same model with gsem Fitting the same model with the Builder The measurement-error model interpretation

Single-factor measurement model

Below we fit the following model:



. sem $(x1 x2 x3 x4 \leftarrow X)$

Endogenous variables

Measurement: x1 x2 x3 x4

Exogenous variables

Latent: X

Fitting target model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -2081.0258
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -2080.986
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -2080.9859

Structural equation model Number of obs = 123

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -2080.9859

(1) [x1]X = 1

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measurement x1 <-						
_cons	96.28455	(constraine 1.271963	ed) 75.70	0.000	93.79155	98.77755
x2 <- X _cons	1.172364 97.28455	.1231777 1.450053	9.52 67.09	0.000	.9309398 94.4425	1.413788 100.1266
x3 <- X _cons	1.034523 97.09756	.1160558 1.356161	8.91 71.60	0.000	.8070579 94.43953	1.261988 99.75559
x4 <- X _cons	6.886044 690.9837	.6030898 6.960137	11.42 99.28	0.000	5.704009 677.3421	8.068078 704.6254
var(e.x1) var(e.x2) var(e.x3) var(e.x4) var(X)	80.79361 96.15861 99.70874 353.4711 118.2068	11.66414 13.93945 14.33299 236.6847 23.82631			60.88206 72.37612 75.22708 95.14548 79.62878	107.2172 127.7559 132.1576 1313.166 175.4747

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(2)

1.78, Prob > chi2 = 0.4111

The equations for this model are

$$x_{1} = \alpha_{1} + X\beta_{1} + e.x_{1}$$

$$x_{2} = \alpha_{2} + X\beta_{2} + e.x_{2}$$

$$x_{3} = \alpha_{3} + X\beta_{3} + e.x_{3}$$

$$x_{4} = \alpha_{4} + X\beta_{4} + e.x_{4}$$

Notes:

1. Variable X is latent exogenous and thus needs a normalizing constraint. The variable is anchored to the first observed variable, x1, and thus the path coefficient is constrained to be 1. See *Identification 2: Normalization constraints (anchoring)* in [SEM] intro 4.

- 2. The path coefficients for X->x1, X->x2, and X->x3 are 1 (constrained), 1.17, and 1.03. Meanwhile, the path coefficient for X->x4 is 6.89. This is not unexpected; we at StataCorp generated this data, and the true coefficients are 1, 1, 1, and 7.
- 3. A test for "model versus saturated" is reported at the bottom of the output; the $\chi^2(2)$ statistic is 1.78 and its significance level is 0.4111. We cannot reject the null hypothesis of this test.

This test is a goodness-of-fit test in badness-of-fit units; a significant result implies that there may be missing paths in the model's specification.

More mathematically, the null hypothesis of the test is that the fitted covariance matrix and mean vector of the observed variables are equal to the matrix and vector observed in the population.

Fitting the same model with gsem

sem and gsem produce the same results for standard linear SEMs. We are going to demonstrate that just this once.

. gsem (x1 x2 x3 x4 <- X)

Fitting fixed-effects model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -2233.3283
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -2233.3283

Refining starting values:

Grid node 0: $\log likelihood = -2081.0303$

Fitting full model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -2081.0303
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -2080.9861
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -2080.9859

Generalized structural equation model Number of obs = 123

Log likelihood = -2080.9859

(1) [x1]X = 1

		Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
x1 <-							
	Х	1	(constraine	d)			
	_cons	96.28455	1.271962	75.70	0.000	93.79155	98.77755
x2 <-							
	Х	1.172365	.1231778	9.52	0.000	.9309411	1.413789
	_cons	97.28455	1.450052	67.09	0.000	94.4425	100.1266
x3 <-							
	Х	1.034524	.1160559	8.91	0.000	.8070585	1.261989
	_cons	97.09756	1.35616	71.60	0.000	94.43954	99.75559
x4 <-							
	Х	6.886053	.6030902	11.42	0.000	5.704018	8.068088
	_cons	690.9837	6.96013	99.28	0.000	677.3421	704.6253
	var(X)	118.2064	23.8262			79.62858	175.474
va	r(e.x1)	80.79381	11.66416			60.88222	107.2175
va	r(e.x2)	96.15857	13.93942			72.37613	127.7558
va	r(e.x3)	99.70883	14.33298			75.22718	132.1577
va	ar(e.x4)	353.4614	236.6835			95.14011	1313.168

Notes:

1. Results are virtually the same. Coefficients differ in the last digit; for instance, x2<-X was 1.172364 and now it is 1.172365. The same is true of standard errors, etc. Meanwhile, variance estimates are usually differing in the next-to-last digit; for instance, var(e.x2) was 96.15861 and is now 96.15857.

These are the kind of differences we would expect to see. gsem follows a different approach for obtaining results that involves far more numeric machinery, which correspondingly results in slightly less accuracy.

- 2. The log-likelihood values reported are the same. This model is one of the few models we could have chosen where sem and gsem would produce the same log-likelihood values. In general, gsem log likelihoods are on different metrics from those of sem. In the case where the model does not include observed exogenous variables, however, they share the same metric.
- 3. There is no reason to use gsem over sem when both can fit the same model. sem is slightly more accurate, is quicker, and has more postestimation features.

Fitting the same model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_1fmm
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Create the measurement component for X.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, \(^{\mathbb{Y}}\), and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way down from the top and slightly left of the center.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to X;
- b. select x1, x2, x3, and x4 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. select Down in the Measurement direction control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

Notice that the constraints of 1 on the paths from the error terms to the observed measures are implied, so we do not need to add these to our diagram.

4. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, , in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *SEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_1fmm

The measurement-error model interpretation

As we pointed out in *Using path diagrams to specify standard linear SEMs* in [SEM] **intro 2**, if we rename variable x4 to be y, we can reinterpret this measurement model as a measurement-error model. In this interpretation, X is the unobserved true value. x1, x2, and x3 are each measurements of X, but with error. Meanwhile, y (x4) is really something else entirely. Perhaps y is earnings, and we believe

$$y = \alpha_4 + \beta_4 X + e.y$$

We are interested in β_4 , the effect of true X on y.

If we were to go back to the data and type regress y x1, we would obtain an estimate of β_4 , but we would expect that estimate to be biased toward 0 because of the errors-in-variable problem. The same applies for y on x2 and y on x3. If we do that, we obtain

```
\beta_4 based on regress y x1 4.09 \beta_4 based on regress y x2 3.71 \beta_4 based on regress y x3 3.70
```

In the sem output above, we have an estimate of β_4 with the bias washed away:

$$\beta_4$$
 based on sem (y<-X) 6.89

The number 6.89 is the value reported for (x4<-X) in the sem output.

That β_4 might be 6.89 seems plausible because we expect that the estimate should be larger than the estimates we obtain using the variables measured with error. In fact, we can tell you that the 6.89 estimate is quite good because we at StataCorp know that the true value of β_4 is 7. Here is how we manufactured this fictional dataset:

```
set seed 12347
set obs 123
gen X = round(rnormal(0,10))
gen x1 = round(100 + X + rnormal(0, 10))
gen x2 = round(100 + X + rnormal(0, 10))
gen x3 = round(100 + X + rnormal(0, 10))
gen x4 = round(700 + 7*X + rnormal(0, 10))
```

The data recorded in sem_1fmm.dta were obviously generated using normality, the same assumption that is most often used to justify the SEM maximum likelihood estimator. In [SEM] intro 4, we explained that the normality assumption can be relaxed and conditional normality can usually be substituted in its place.

So let's consider nonnormal data. Let's make X be $\chi^2(2)$, a violently nonnormal distribution, resulting in the data-manufacturing code

```
set seed 12347
set obs 123
gen X = (rchi2(2)-2)*(10/2)
gen x1 = round(100 + X + rnormal(0, 10))
gen x2 = round(100 + X + rnormal(0, 10))
gen x3 = round(100 + X + rnormal(0, 10))
gen x4 = round(700 + 7*X + rnormal(0, 10))
```

All the rnormal() functions remaining in our code have to do with the assumed normality of the errors. The multiplicative and additive constants in the generation of X simply rescale the $\chi^2(2)$ variable to have mean 100 and standard deviation 10, which would not be important except for the subsequent round() functions, which themselves were unnecessary except that we wanted to produce a pretty dataset when we created the original sem_1fmm.dta.

In any case, if we rerun the commands with these data, we obtain

```
eta_4 based on regress y x1 3.93 eta_4 based on regress y x2 4.44 eta_4 based on regress y x3 3.77 eta_4 based on sem (y<-X) 6.70
```

We will not burden you with the details of running simulations to assess coverage; we will just tell you that coverage is excellent: reported test statistics and significance levels can be trusted.

By the way, errors in the variables is something that does not go away with progressively larger sample sizes. Change the code above to produce a 100,000-observation dataset instead of a 123-observation one, and you will obtain

```
\beta_4 based on regress y x1 3.51 \beta_4 based on regress y x2 3.51 \beta_4 based on regress y x3 3.48 \beta_4 based on sem (y<-X) 7.00
```

Reference

Acock, A. C. 2013. Discovering Structural Equation Modeling Using Stata. Rev. ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press.

Also see

```
    [SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models
    [SEM] example 3 — Two-factor measurement model
    [SEM] example 24 — Reliability
    [SEM] example 27g — Single-factor measurement model (generalized response)
```

example 2 — Creating a dataset from published covariances

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

Williams, Eaves, and Cox (2002) publish covariances from their data. We will use those published covariances in [SEM] **example 3** to fit an SEM.

In this example, we show how to create the summary statistics dataset (SSD) that we will analyze in that example.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Background Creating the SSD At this point, we could save the dataset and stop Labeling the SSD Listing the SSD

For more explanation, also see [SEM] intro 11.

Background

In Williams, Eaves, and Cox (2002), the authors report a covariance matrix in a table that looks something like this:

	Affective	Miniscale		Cognitive	e Mini	Miniscale	
	1	2		5	1	2	
Affective							
1	2038.035	1631.766		1721.830	659.795	779.519	
2		1932.163		1688.292	702.969	790.448	
•							
5				2061.875	775.118	871.211	
Cognitive							
1					630.518	500.128	
<u> </u>							

Creating the SSD

```
. clear all
. ssd init a1 a2 a3 a4 a5 c1 c2 c3 c4 c5
Summary statistics data initialized. Next use, in any order,
    ssd set observations (required)
        It is best to do this first.
    ssd set means (optional)
        Default setting is 0.
    ssd set variances or ssd set sd (optional)
        Use this only if you have set or will set correlations and, even
        then, this is optional but highly recommended. Default setting is 1.
    ssd set covariances or ssd set correlations (required)
. ssd set obs 216
  (value set)
    Status:
                       observations:
                                       set
                             means: unset
                    variances or sd: unset
        covariances or correlations: unset (required to be set)
. #delimit ;
delimiter now;
. ssd set cov 2038.035 \
             1631.766 1932.163 \
             1393.567 1336.871 1313.809 \
              1657.299 1647.164 1273.261 2034.216 \
>
              1721.830 1688.292 1498.401 1677.767 2061.875 \
>
               659.795 702.969 585.019 656.527 775.118 630.518 \
>
               779.519 790.448 653.734 764.755 871.211 500.128 741.767 \
>
               899.912 879.179 750.037 897.441 1008.287 648.935 679.970
              1087.409 \
               775.235 739.157 659.867 751.860 895.616 550.476 603.950
               677.865 855.272 \
               821.170 785.419 669.951 802.825 877.681 491.042 574.775
               686.391 622.830 728.674 ;
  (values set)
    Status:
                       observations:
                                      set
                             means: unset
                    variances or sd:
                                      set
        covariances or correlations:
                                        set.
. #delimit cr
delimiter now cr
```

Notes:

- We used #delimit to temporarily set the end-of-line character to semicolon. That was not necessary, but it made it easier to enter the data in a way that would be subsequently more readable. You can use #delimit only in do-files; see [P] #delimit.
- 2. We recommend entering SSD by using do-files. That way, you can edit the file and get it right.
- 3. We did not have to reset the delimiter. We could have entered the numbers on one (long) line. That works well when there are only a few summary statistics.

At this point, we could save the dataset and stop

We could save the dataset and stop right now if we wished:

```
. save sem_2fmm
file sem_2fmm.dta saved
```

Obviously, we can save the dataset anytime we wish. We know we could stop because ssd status tells us whether there is anything more that we need to define:

. ssd status Status:

> observations: set means: unset

variances or sd: set covariances or correlations: set

Notes:

- 1. The means have not been set. The authors did not provide the means.
- 2. ssd status would mention if anything that was not set was required to be set.

Labeling the SSD

If we were to use ssd describe to describe these data, the output would look like this:

. ssd describe

Summary statistics data obs: 216 vars: 10

variable name	variable label	
a1		
a2		
a3		
a4		
a5		
c1 c2 c3 c4 c5		
c2		
c3		
c4		
c5		

We can add labels and notes to our dataset:

- . label data "Affective and cognitive arousal"
- . label var a1 "affective arousal 1"
- . label var a2 "affective arousal 2"
- . label var a3 "affective arousal 3"
- . label var a4 "affective arousal 4"
- . label var a5 "affective arousal 5"
- . label var c1 "cognitive arousal 1"
- . label var c2 "cognitive arousal 2"
- . label var c3 "cognitive arousal 3"
- . label var c4 "cognitive arousal 4"

```
. #delimit ;
delimiter now;
. notes: Summary statistics data containing published covariances
         from Thomas O. Williams, Ronald C. Eaves, and Cynthia Cox,
         2 Apr 2002, "Confirmatory factor analysis of an instrument
         designed to measure affective and cognitive arousal",
         _Educational and Psychological Measurement_,
         vol. 62 no. 2, 264-283.;
. notes: a1-a5 report scores from 5 miniscales designed to measure
         affective arousal.;
. notes: c1-c5 report scores from 5 miniscales designed to measure
         cognitive arousal.;
. notes: The series of tests, known as the VST II
         (Visual Similes Test II) were administered to 216 children
>
         ages 10 to 12. The miniscales are sums of scores of
         5 to 6 items in VST II.;
. #delimit cr
delimiter now cr
. ssd describe
  Summary statistics data
    obs:
                     216
                                          Affective and cognitive arousal
   vars:
                      10
                                          (_dta has notes)
                                 variable label
  variable name
                                  affective arousal 1
  a1
  a2
                                 affective arousal 2
  a3
                                 affective arousal 3
  a4
                                 affective arousal 4
  a5
                                  affective arousal 5
  c1
                                  cognitive arousal 1
```

. save sem_2fmm, replace file sem_2fmm.dta saved

. label var c5 "cognitive arousal 5"

Notes:

c2

с3

c4

c5

1. You can label the variables and the data, and you can add notes just as you would to any dataset.

cognitive arousal 2

cognitive arousal 3

cognitive arousal 4

cognitive arousal 5

2. You save and use SSD just as you save and use any dataset.

Listing the SSD

. ssd list

Observations = 216

Means undefined; assumed to be 0

Variances implicitly defined; they are the diagonal of the covariance matrix.

matrix.							
Covariances:							
a1	a2	a3	a4	a 5	c1	c2	
2038.035							
1631.766	1932.163						
1393.567	1336.871	1313.809					
1657.299	1647.164	1273.261	2034.216				
1721.83	1688.292	1498.401	1677.767	2061.875			
659.795	702.969	585.019	656.527	775.118	630.518		
779.519	790.448	653.734	764.755	871.211	500.128	741.767	
899.912	879.179	750.037	897.441	1008.287	648.935	679.97	
775.235	739.157	659.867	751.86	895.616	550.476	603.95	
821.17	785.419	669.951	802.825	877.681	491.042	574.775	
с3	c4	с5					
1087.409							
677.865	855.272						

Reference

686.391

Williams, T. O., Jr., R. C. Eaves, and C. Cox. 2002. Confirmatory factor analysis of an instrument designed to measure affective and cognitive arousal. *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 62: 264–283.

Also see

[SEM] example 3 — Two-factor measurement model

622.83

728.674

[SEM] ssd — Making summary statistics data (sem only)

example 3 — Two-factor measurement model

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

The multiple-factor measurement model is demonstrated using summary statistics dataset (SSD) sem_2fmm.dta:

. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_2fmm
(Affective and cognitive arousal)

. ssd describe

Summary statistics data from

http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_2fmm.dta

obs: 216 Affective and cognitive arousal vars: 10 25 May 2013 10:11

25 May 2013 10:11 (_dta has notes)

variable name	variable label	
a1	affective arousal 1	
a2	affective arousal 2	
a3	affective arousal 3	
a4	affective arousal 4	
a 5	affective arousal 5	
c1	cognitive arousal 1	
c2	cognitive arousal 2	
c3	cognitive arousal 3	
c4	cognitive arousal 4	
c5	cognitive arousal 5	

. notes

_dta:

- Summary statistics data containing published covariances from Thomas O. Williams, Ronald C. Eaves, and Cynthia Cox, 2 Apr 2002, "Confirmatory factor analysis of an instrument designed to measure affective and cognitive arousal", _Educational and Psychological Measurement_, vol. 62 no. 2, 264-283.
- a1-a5 report scores from 5 miniscales designed to measure affective arousal.
- c1-c5 report scores from 5 miniscales designed to measure cognitive arousal
- 4. The series of tests, known as the VST II (Visual Similes Test II) were administered to 216 children ages 10 to 12. The miniscales are sums of scores of 5 to 6 items in VST II.

See [SEM] example 2 to learn how we created this SSD.

Remarks and examples

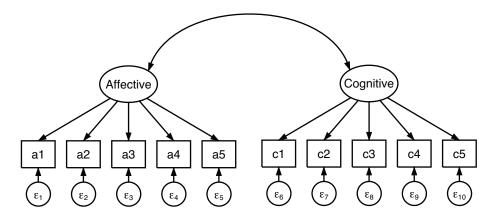
Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting multiple-factor measurement models Displaying standardized results Fitting the model with the Builder Obtaining equation-level goodness of fit by using estat eggof

See Multiple-factor measurement models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Fitting multiple-factor measurement models

Below we fit the model shown by Kline (2005, 70–74, 184), namely,



. sem (Affective -> a1 a2 a3 a4 a5) (Cognitive -> c1 c2 c3 c4 c5)

Endogenous variables

Measurement: a1 a2 a3 a4 a5 c1 c2 c3 c4 c5

Exogenous variables

Latent: Affective Cognitive

Fitting target model:

 $log\ likelihood = -9542.8803$ Iteration 0: Iteration 1: $log\ likelihood = -9539.5505$ Iteration 2: log likelihood = -9539.3856Iteration 3: log likelihood = -9539.3851

Number of obs

216

Structural equation model Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -9539.3851

- (1) [a1] Affective = 1
- (2) [c1]Cognitive = 1

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measurement a1 <-						
Affective	1	(constrained)				
a2 <- Affective	.9758098	.0460752	21.18	0.000	.885504	1.066116
	.9730090	.0400752				
a3 <- Affective	.8372599	.0355086	23.58	0.000	.7676643	.9068556
a4 <- Affective	.9640461	.0499203	19.31	0.000	.866204	1.061888
a5 <- Affective	1.063701	.0435751	24.41	0.000	.9782951	1.149107
c1 <- Cognitive	1	(constraine	d)			
c2 <- Cognitive	1.114702	.0655687	17.00	0.000	.9861901	1.243215
c3 <- Cognitive	1.329882	.0791968	16.79	0.000	1.174659	1.485105
c4 <- Cognitive	1.172792	.0711692	16.48	0.000	1.033303	1.312281
c5 <- Cognitive	1.126356	.0644475	17.48	0.000	1.000041	1.252671
<pre>var(e.a1) var(e.a2)</pre>	384.1359 357.3524	43.79119 41.00499			307.2194 285.3805	480.3095 447.4755
<pre>var(e.a3) var(e.a4)</pre>	154.9507 496.4594	20.09026 54.16323			120.1795 400.8838	199.7822 614.8214
var(e.a5)	191.6857	28.07212			143.8574	255.4154
var(e.c1)	171.6638 171.8055	19.82327 20.53479			136.894	215.2649
<pre>var(e.c2) var(e.c3)</pre>	276.0144	32.33535			135.9247 219.3879	217.1579 347.2569
var(e.c3)	224.1994	25.93412			178.7197	281.2527
var(e.c5)	146.8655	18.5756			114.6198	188.1829
var(Affect~e)	1644.463	193.1032			1306.383	2070.034
var(Cognit~e)	455.9349	59.11245			353.6255	587.8439
cov(Affec~e, Cognitive)	702.0736	85.72272	8.19	0.000	534.0601	870.087

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(34) = 88.88, Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Notes:

- 1. In [SEM] example 1, we ran sem on raw data. In this example, we run sem on SSD. There are no special sem options that we need to specify because of this.
- 2. The estimated coefficients reported above are unstandardized coefficients or, if you prefer, factor loadings.
- 3. The coefficients listed at the bottom of the coefficient table that start with e. are the estimated error variances. They represent the variance of the indicated measurement that is not measured by the respective latent variables.
- 4. The above results do not match exactly (Kline 2005, 184). If we specified sem option nm1, results are more likely to match to 3 or 4 digits. The nm1 option says to divide by N-1 rather than by N in producing variances and covariances.

Displaying standardized results

The output will be easier to interpret if we display standardized values for paths rather than path coefficients. A standardized value is in standard deviation units. It is the change in one variable given a change in another, both measured in standard deviation units. We can obtain standardized values by specifying sem's standardized option, which we can do when we fit the model or when we replay results:

Number of obs

216

. sem, standardized

Structural equation model Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -9539.3851

- (1) [a1] Affective = 1
- (2) [c1]Cognitive = 1

Standardized	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measurement						
a1 <-						
Affective	.9003553	.0143988	62.53	0.000	.8721342	.9285765
a2 <-						
Affective	.9023249	.0141867	63.60	0.000	.8745195	.9301304
a3 <-						
Affective	.9388883	.0097501	96.29	0.000	.9197784	.9579983
a4 <-						
Affective	.8687982	.0181922	47.76	0.000	.8331421	.9044543
a5 <-						
Affective	.9521559	.0083489	114.05	0.000	.9357923	.9685195
c1 <-						
Cognitive	.8523351	.0212439	40.12	0.000	.8106978	.8939725
c2 <-						
Cognitive	.8759601	.0184216	47.55	0.000	.8398544	.9120658
c3 <-						
Cognitive	.863129	.0199624	43.24	0.000	.8240033	.9022547
c4 <-						
Cognitive	.8582786	.0204477	41.97	0.000	.8182018	.8983554
c5 <-						
Cognitive	.8930346	.0166261	53.71	0.000	.8604479	.9256212
var(e.a1)	.1893602	.0259281			.1447899	.2476506
var(e.a2)	.1858097	.0256021			.1418353	. 2434179
var(e.a3)	.1184887	.0183086			.0875289	.1603993
var(e.a4)	.2451896	.0316107			.1904417	.3156764
var(e.a5)	.0933991	.015899			.0669031	.1303885
var(e.c1)	.2735248	.0362139			.2110086	.354563
var(e.c2)	. 2326939	.0322732			.1773081	.3053806
var(e.c3)	.2550083	.0344603			.1956717	.3323385
var(e.c4)	.2633578	.0350997			.2028151	.3419733
var(e.c5)	.2024893	.0296954			.1519049	.2699183
var(Affect~e)	1				•	
var(Cognit~e)	1				·	•
cov(Affec~e,						
Cognitive)	.8108102	.0268853	30.16	0.000	.758116	.8635045

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(34) = 88.88, Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Notes:

- 1. In addition to obtaining standardized coefficients, the standardized option reports estimated error variances as the fraction of the variance that is unexplained. Error variances were previously unintelligible numbers such as 384.136 and 357.352. Now they are 0.189 and 0.186.
- 2. Also listed in the sem output are variances of latent variables. In the previous output, latent variable Affective had variance 1,644.46 with standard error 193. In the standardized output, it has variance 1 with standard error missing. The variances of the latent variables are standardized to 1, and obviously, being a normalization, there is no corresponding standard error.
- 3. We can now see at the bottom of the coefficient table that affective and cognitive arousal are correlated 0.81 because standardized covariances are correlation coefficients.
- 4. The standardized coefficients for this model can be interpreted as the correlation coefficients between the indicator and the latent variable because each indicator measures only one factor. For instance, the standardized path coefficient a1<-Affective is 0.90, meaning the correlation between a1 and Affective is 0.90.</p>

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_2fmm
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Change the size of the observed variables' rectangles.

From the SEM Builder menu, select Settings > Variables > All Observed....

In the resulting dialog box, change the first size to .38 and click on OK.

4. Create the measurement component for affective arousal.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, \(^{\mathbb{Y}}\), and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way down from the top and one-fourth of the way in from the left.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to Affective;
- b. select a1, a2, a3, a4, and a5 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. select Down in the Measurement direction control:
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move this component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

5. Create the measurement component for cognitive arousal.

Repeat the process from item 4, but place the measurement component about one-third of the way down from the top and three-fourths of the way in from the left. Label the latent variable Cognitive, and select measurement variables c1, c2, c3, c4, and c5. Drag to reposition if desired.

- 6. Correlate the latent factors.
 - a. Select the Add Covariance tool, ...
 - b. Click in the upper-right quadrant of the Affective oval (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a covariance to the upper-left quadrant of the Cognitive oval (it will highlight when you can release to connect the covariance).

7. Clean up.

If you do not like where a covariance has been connected to its variable, use the Select tool, to click on the covariance, and then simply click on where it connects to an oval and drag the endpoint. You can also change the bow of the covariance by dragging the control point that extends from one end of the selected covariance.

8. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, **\overline{\mathbb{E}}**, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting SEM estimation options dialog box.

9. Show standardized estimates.

From the SEM Builder menu, select View > Standardized Estimates.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_2fmm

Obtaining equation-level goodness of fit by using estat eqgof

That the correlation between a1 and Affective is 0.90 implies that the fraction of the variance of a1 explained by Affective is $0.90^2 = 0.81$, and left unexplained is 1 - 0.81 = 0.19. Instead of manually calculating the proportion of variance explained by indicators, we can use the estat eggof command:

. estat eqgof Equation-level goodness of fit

depvars	fitted	Variance predicted	residual	R-squared	mc	mc2
observed						
a1	2028.598	1644.463	384.1359	.8106398	.9003553	.8106398
a2	1923.217	1565.865	357.3524	.8141903	.9023249	.8141903
a3	1307.726	1152.775	154.9507	.8815113	.9388883	.8815113
a4	2024.798	1528.339	496.4594	.7548104	.8687982	.7548104
a 5	2052.328	1860.643	191.6857	.9066009	.9521559	.9066009
c1	627.5987	455.9349	171.6638	.7264752	.8523351	.7264752
c2	738.3325	566.527	171.8055	.7673061	.8759601	.7673061
c3	1082.374	806.3598	276.0144	.7449917	.863129	.7449917
c4	851.311	627.1116	224.1994	.7366422	.8582786	.7366422
c5	725.3002	578.4346	146.8655	.7975107	.8930346	.7975107
overall				.9949997		

mc = correlation between depvar and its prediction

mc2 = mc^2 is the Bentler-Raykov squared multiple correlation coefficient

Notes:

- 1. fitted reports the fitted variance of each of the endogenous variables, whether observed or latent. In this case, we have observed endogenous variables.
- 2. predicted reports the variance of the predicted value of each endogenous variable.
- 3. residual reports the leftover residual variance.
- 4. R-squared reports R^2 , the fraction of variance explained by each indicator. The fraction of the variance of Affective explained by a1 is 0.81, just as we calculated by hand at the beginning of this section. The overall R^2 is also called the coefficient of determination.
- 5. mc stands for multiple correlation, and mc2 stands for multiple-correlation squared. R-squared, mc, and mc2 all report the relatedness of the indicated dependent variable with the model's linear prediction. In recursive models, all three statistics are really the same number. mc is equal to the square root of R-squared, and mc2 is equal to R-squared.

In nonrecursive models, these three statistics are different and each can have problems. R-squared and mc can actually become negative! That does not mean the model has negative predictive power or that it might not even have reasonable predictive power. $mc2 = mc^2$ is recommended by Bentler and Raykov (2000) to be used instead of R-squared for nonrecursive systems.

In [SEM] example 4, we examine the goodness-of-fit statistics for this model.

In [SEM] example 5, we examine modification indices for this model.

References

Acock, A. C. 2013. Discovering Structural Equation Modeling Using Stata. Rev. ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press.

Bentler, P. M., and T. Raykov. 2000. On measures of explained variance in nonrecursive structural equation models. Journal of Applied Psychology 85: 125–131.

Kline, R. B. 2005. Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling. 2nd ed. New York: Guilford Press.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 1 — Single-factor measurement model
```

[SEM] example 2 — Creating a dataset from published covariances

[SEM] example 20 — Two-factor measurement model by group

[SEM] example 26 — Fitting a model with data missing at random

[SEM] example 31g — Two-factor measurement model (generalized response)

[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] **estat eggof** — Equation-level goodness-of-fit statistics

Title

```
example 4 — Goodness-of-fit statistics
```

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

Here we demonstrate estat gof. See [SEM] intro 7 and [SEM] estat gof.

This example picks up where [SEM] example 3 left off:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_2fmm
- . sem (Affective -> a1 a2 a3 a4 a5) (Cognitive -> c1 c2 c3 c4 c5)

Remarks and examples

When we fit this model in [SEM] **example 3**, at the bottom of the output, we saw

```
. sem (Affective -> a1 a2 a3 a4 a5) (Cognitive -> c1 c2 c3 c4 c5)
  (output omitted)
LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(34) = 88.88, Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
```

Most texts refer to this test against the saturated model as the "model χ^2 test".

These results indicate poor goodness of fit; see [SEM] **example 1**. The default goodness-of-fit statistic reported by sem, however, can be overly influenced by sample size, correlations, variance unrelated to the model, and multivariate nonnormality (Kline 2011, 201).

Goodness of fit in cases of sem is a measure of how well you fit the observed moments, which in this case are the covariances between all pairs of a1, ..., a5, c1, ..., c5. In a measurement model, the assumed underlying causes are unobserved, and in this example, those unobserved causes are the latent variables Affective and Cognitive. It may be reasonable to assume that the observed a1, ..., a5, c1, ..., c5 can be filtered through imagined variables Affective and Cognitive, but that can be reasonable only if not too much information contained in the original variables is lost. Thus goodness-of-fit statistics are of great interest to those fitting measurement models. Goodness-of-fit statistics are of far less interest when all variables in the model are observed.

Other goodness-of-fit statistics are available.

. estat gof, stats(all)

Fit statistic	Value	Description
Likelihood ratio		
chi2_ms(34)	88.879	model vs. saturated
p > chi2	0.000	
chi2_bs(45)	2467.161	baseline vs. saturated
p > chi2	0.000	
Population error		
RMSEA	0.086	Root mean squared error of approximation
90% CI, lower bound	0.065	
upper bound	0.109	
pclose	0.004	Probability RMSEA <= 0.05
Information criteria		
AIC	19120.770	Akaike's information criterion
BIC	19191.651	Bayesian information criterion
Baseline comparison		
CFI	0.977	Comparative fit index
TLI	0.970	Tucker-Lewis index
Size of residuals		
SRMR	0.022	Standardized root mean squared residual
CD	0.995	Coefficient of determination

Notes:

- 1. Desirable values vary from test to test.
- 2. We asked for all the goodness-of-fit tests. We could have obtained specific tests from the above output by specifying the appropriate option; see [SEM] estat gof.
- 3. Under likelihood ratio, estat gof reports two tests. The first is a repeat of the model χ^2 test reported at the bottom of the sem output. The saturated model is the model that fits the covariances perfectly. We can reject at the 5% level (or any other level) that the model fits as well as the saturated model.

The second test is a baseline versus saturated comparison. The baseline model includes the mean and variances of all observed variables plus the covariances of all observed exogenous variables. Different authors define the baseline differently. We can reject at the 5% level (or any other level) that the baseline model fits as well as the saturated model.

4. Under population error, the RMSEA value is reported along with the lower and upper bounds of its 90% confidence interval. Most interpreters of this test check whether the lower bound is below 0.05 or the upper bound is above 0.10. If the lower bound is below 0.05, then they would not reject the hypothesis that the fit is close. If the upper bound is above 0.10, they would not reject the hypothesis that the fit is poor. The logic is to perform one test on each end of the 90% confidence interval and thus have 95% confidence in the result. This model's fit is not close, and its upper limit is just over the bounds of being considered poor.

Pclose, a commonly used word in reference to this test, is the probability that the RMSEA value is less than 0.05, interpreted as the probability that the predicted moments are close to the moments in the population. This model's fit is not close.

- 5. Under information criteria are reported AIC and BIC, which contain little information by themselves but are often used to compare models. Smaller values are considered better.
- 6. Under baseline comparison are reported CFI and TLI, two indices such that a value close to 1 indicates a good fit. TLI is also known as the nonnormed fit index.
- 7. Under size of residuals is reported the standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR) and the coefficient of determination (CD).

A perfect fit corresponds to an SRMR of 0, and a good fit corresponds to a "small" value, considered by some to be limited at 0.08. The model fits well by this standard.

The CD is like an \mathbb{R}^2 for the whole model. A value close to 1 indicates a good fit.

estat gof provides multiple goodness-of-fit statistics because, across fields, different researchers use different statistics. You should not print them all and look for the one reporting the result you seek.

Reference

Kline, R. B. 2011. Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling. 3rd ed. New York: Guilford Press.

Also see

[SEM] example 3 — Two-factor measurement model

[SEM] example 21 — Group-level goodness of fit

[SEM] **estat gof** — Goodness-of-fit statistics

Title

```
example 5 — Modification indices
```

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

Here we demonstrate the use of estat mindices; see [SEM] intro 7 and [SEM] estat mindices.

This example picks up where [SEM] example 3 left off:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_2fmm
- . sem (Affective \rightarrow a1 a2 a3 a4 a5) (Cognitive \rightarrow c1 c2 c3 c4 c5)

Remarks and examples

When we fit this model in [SEM] **example 4**, we allowed the latent variables to be correlated. We typed

```
. sem (Affective -> a1 a2 a3 a4 a5) (Cognitive -> c1 c2 c3 c4 c5)
```

and by default in the command language, latent exogenous variables are assumed to be correlated unless we specify otherwise. Had we used the Builder, the latent exogenous variables would have been assumed to be uncorrelated unless we had drawn the curved path between them.

The original authors who collected these data analyzed them assuming no covariance, which we could obtain by typing

```
. sem (Affective -> a1 a2 a3 a4 a5) (Cognitive -> c1 c2 c3 c4 c5), /// cov(Affective*Cognitive@0)
```

It was Kline (2005, 70–74, 184) who allowed the covariance. Possibly he did that after looking at the modification indices.

The modification indices report statistics on all omitted paths. Let's begin with the model without the covariance:

		MI	df	P>MI	EPC	Standard EPC
Measurem	ent					
a5 <-						
	Cognitive	8.059	1	0.00	.1604476	.075774
c5 <-						
	Affective	5.885	1	0.02	.0580897	.087733
	cov(e.a1,e.a4)	5.767	1	0.02	84.81133	.1972802
	cov(e.a1,e.a5)	7.597	1	0.01	-81.82092	2938627
	cov(e.a2,e.a4)	14.300	1	0.00	129.761	.3110565
	cov(e.a2,e.c4)	4.071	1	0.04	-45.44807	1641344
	cov(e.a3,e.a4)	21.183	1	0.00	-116.8181	4267012
	cov(e.a3,e.a5)	25.232	1	0.00	118.4674	.6681337
	cov(e.a5,e.c4)	4.209	1	0.04	39.07999	. 184049
	cov(e.c1,e.c3)	11.326	1	0.00	66.3965	.3098331
	cov(e.c1,e.c5)	8.984	1	0.00	-47.31483	2931597
	cov(e.c3,e.c4)	12.668	1	0.00	-80.98353	333871
	cov(e.c4,e.c5)	4.483	1	0.03	38.6556	.2116015
cov(Affe	ctive, Cognitive)	128.482	1	0.00	704.4469	.8094959

EPC = expected parameter change

Modification indices

Notes:

- 1. Four columns of results are reported.
 - a. MI stands for modification index and is an approximation to the change in the model's goodness-of-fit χ^2 if the path were added.
 - b. df stands for degrees of freedom and is the number that would be added to d of the $\chi^2(d)$.
 - c. P>MI is the value of the significance of $\chi^2(df)$.
 - d. EPC stands for expected parameter change and is an approximation to the value of the parameter if it were not constrained to 0. It is reported in unstandardized (column 3) and standardized (column 4) units.
- 2. There are lots of significant omitted paths in the above output.
- 3. Paths are listed only if the modification index is significant at the 0.05 level, corresponding to $\chi^2(1)$ value 3.8414588. You may specify the minchi2() option to use different $\chi^2(1)$ values. Specify minchi2(0) if you wish to see all tests.
- 4. The omitted path between Affective and Cognitive has the largest change in χ^2 observed. Perhaps this is why Kline (2005, 70–74, 184) allowed a covariance between the two latent variables. The standardized EPC reports the relaxed-constraint correlation value, which is the value reported for the unconstrained correlation path in [SEM] example 3.

Another way of dealing with this significant result would be to add a direct path between the variables, but that perhaps would have invalidated the theory being proposed. The original authors instead proposed a second-order model postulating that Affective and Cognitive are themselves measurements of another latent variable that might be called Arousal.

Reference

Kline, R. B. 2005. Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling. 2nd ed. New York: Guilford Press.

Also see

[SEM] example 3 — Two-factor measurement model[SEM] estat mindices — Modification indices

Title

example 6 — Linear regression

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

Linear regression is demonstrated using auto.dta:

. sysuse auto (1978 Automobile Data)

See Structural models 1: Linear regression in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

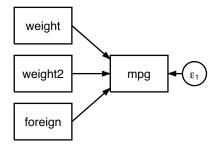
Fitting linear regression models Displaying standardized results Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting linear regression models

The first two examples in [R] regress are

- . regress mpg weight c.weight#c.weight foreign
- . regress, beta

This model corresponds to



To fit this model with sem, we type

. generate weight2 = weight^2

. sem (mpg <- weight weight2 foreign)

Endogenous variables

Observed: mpg

Exogenous variables

Observed: weight weight2 foreign

Fitting target model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -1909.8206
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -1909.8206

Structural equation model Number of obs = 74

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -1909.8206

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf	. Interval]
Structural mpg <- weight weight2 foreign _cons	0165729 1.59e-06 -2.2035 56.53884	.0038604 6.08e-07 1.03022 6.027559	-4.29 2.62 -2.14 9.38	0.000 0.009 0.032 0.000	0241392 4.00e-07 -4.222695 44.72504	0090067 2.78e-06 1843056 68.35264
var(e.mpg)	10.19332	1.675772			7.385485	14.06865

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(1) = 0.00, Prob > chi2 = 1.0000

Notes:

- 1. We wished to include variable weight² in our model. Because sem does not allow Stata's factor-variable notation, we first had to generate new variable weight2.
- 2. Reported coefficients match those reported by regress.
- 3. Reported standard errors (SEs) differ slightly from those reported by regress. For instance, the SE for foreign is reported here as 1.03, whereas regress reported 1.06. SEM is an asymptotic estimator, and sem divides variances and covariances by N=74, the number of observations. regress provides unbiased finite-sample estimates and divides by N-k-1=74-3-1=70. Note that $1.03\sqrt{74/70}=1.06$.
- 4. sem reports z statistics whereas regress reports t statistics.
- 5. Reported confidence intervals differ slightly between sem and regress because of the (N-k-1)/N issue.
- 6. sem reports the point estimate of e.mpg as 10.19332. regress reports the root MSE as 3.2827. And $\sqrt{10.19332 \times 74/70} = 3.2827$.

Displaying standardized results

To obtain standardized coefficients from regress, you specify the beta option. To obtain standardized coefficients from sem, you specify the standardized option.

. sem, standardized

Structural equation model Number of obs = 74
Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -1909.8206

Standardized	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf	. Interval]
Structural mpg <- weight weight2 foreign _cons	-2.226321 1.32654 17527 9.839209	.4950378 .498261 .0810378 .9686872	-4.50 2.66 -2.16 10.16	0.000 0.008 0.031 0.000	-3.196577 .3499662 3341011 7.940617	-1.256064 2.303113 0164389 11.7378
var(e.mpg)	.308704	.0482719			.2272168	.4194152

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(1) = 0.00, Prob > chi2 = 1.0000

regress simply reports standardized coefficients in an extra column. All other results are reported in unstandardized form. sem updates the entire output with the standardized values.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

1. Open the dataset and create the additional variable weight2.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/auto
- . generate weight2 = weight^2
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Create the regression component for the mpg outcome.

Select the Add Regression Component tool, $\stackrel{\triangleright}{\triangleright}$, and then click in the center of the diagram. In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select mpg in the Dependent variable control;
- b. select weight, weight2, and foreign by using the Independent variables control;
- c. select Left in the Independent variables' direction control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move this component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

4. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, **\overline{\mathbb{E}}**, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *SEM* estimation options dialog box.

5. Show standardized estimates.

From the SEM Builder menu, select View > Standardized Estimates.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_regress

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 12 — Seemingly unrelated regression
    [SEM] example 38g — Random-intercept and random-slope models (multilevel)
    [SEM] example 43g — Tobit regression
    [SEM] example 44g — Interval regression
    [SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
```

Title

```
example 7 — Nonrecursive structural model
```

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

To demonstrate a nonrecursive structural model with all variables observed, we use data from Duncan, Haller, and Portes (1968):

```
. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_sm1
(Structural model with all observed values)
. ssd describe
Summary statistics data from
http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_sm1.dta
   obs: 329 Structural model with all obse..
```

vars: 10 25 May 2013 10:13 (_dta has notes)

variable name	variable label
r_intel	respondent's intelligence
r_parasp	respondent's parental aspiration
r_ses	respondent's family socioeconomic status
r_occasp	respondent's occupational aspiration
r_educasp	respondent's educational aspiration
f_intel	friend's intelligence
f_parasp	friend's parental aspiration
f_ses	friend's family socioeconomic status
f_occasp	friend's occupational aspiration
f_educasp	friend's educational aspiration

. notes

_dta:

- Summary statistics data from Duncan, O.D., Haller, A.O., and Portes, A., 1968, "Peer Influences on Aspirations: A Reinterpretation", _American Journal of Sociology_ 74, 119-137.
- The data contain 329 boys with information on five variables and the same information for each boy's best friend.

If you typed ssd status, you would learn that this dataset contains the correlation matrix only. Variances (standard deviations) and means are undefined. Thus we need to use this dataset cautiously. It is always better if you enter the variances and means if you have them.

That these data are the correlations only will not matter for how we will use them.

Remarks and examples

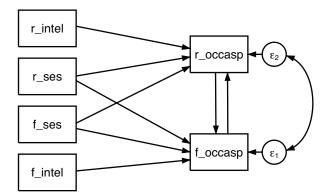
See Structural models 7: Dependencies between response variables in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the model
Fitting the model with the Builder
Checking stability with estat stable
Reporting total, direct, and indirect effects with estat teffects

Fitting the model

In the referenced paper above, the authors fit the following model:



Iteration 0: log likelihood = -2617.0489
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -2617.0489

Structural equation model Number of obs = 329

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -2617.0489

Standardized	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural						
r_occ~p <-						
f_occasp	.2773441	.1281904	2.16	0.031	.0260956	.5285926
r_{intel}	.2854766	.05	5.71	0.000	.1874783	.3834748
r_ses	.1570082	.0520841	3.01	0.003	.0549252	.2590912
f_ses	.0973327	.060153	1.62	0.106	020565	.2152304
f_occ~p <-						
r_occasp	.2118102	.156297	1.36	0.175	0945264	.5181467
r_ses	.0794194	.0587732	1.35	0.177	0357739	.1946127
f_ses	.1681772	.0537199	3.13	0.002	.062888	.2734663
f_intel	.3693682	.0525924	7.02	0.000	. 2662891	.4724474
var(e.r_oc~p)	.6889244	.0399973			.6148268	.7719519
var(e.f_oc~p)	.6378539	.039965			.5641425	.7211964
cov(e.r_oc~p,						
e.f_occasp)	2325666	.2180087	-1.07	0.286	6598558	.1947227

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(0) = 0.00, Prob > chi2 =

Notes:

- 1. We specified the standardized option, but in this case that did not matter much because these data are based on the correlation coefficients only, so standardized values are equal to unstandardized values. The exception is the correlation between the latent endogenous variables, as reflected in the correlation of their errors, and we wanted to show that results match those in the original paper.
- 2. Nearly all results match those in the original paper. The authors normalized the errors to have a variance of 1; sem normalizes the paths from the errors to have coefficient 1. While you can apply most normalizing constraints any way you wish, sem restricts errors to have path coefficients of 1 and this cannot be modified. You could, however, prove to yourself that sem would produce the same variances as the authors produced by typing

```
. sem, coeflegend
. display sqrt(_b[var(e.r_occasp):_cons])
. display sqrt(_b[var(e.f_occasp):_cons])
```

because the coefficients would be the standard deviations of the errors estimated without the variance-1 constraint. Thus all results match. We replayed results by using the coeflegend option so that we would know what to type to refer to the two error variances, namely, _b[var(e.r_occasp):_cons] and _b[var(e.f_occasp):_cons].

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_sm1
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Create the four independent variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the left and one-fourth of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. use the Variables control to select the four variables in this order: r_intel, r_ses, f_ses, and f intel:
- c. select Vertical in the Orientation control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

4. Create the two dependent variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, ", and then click in the diagram about two-thirds of the way in from the left, vertically aligned with the top of the f_intel rectangle.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. use the Variables control to select the two variable names r_occasp and f_occasp;
- c. select Vertical in the Orientation control:
- d. select the Distances tab:
- e. select .5 (inch) from the Distance between variables control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 5. Create paths from the independent variables to the dependent variables.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, -.
 - b. Click in the right side of the r_intel rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the r_occasp rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).

c. Continuing with the tool, create the following paths by first clicking in the right side of the rectangle for the independent variable and dragging it to the left side of the rectangle for the dependent variable.

```
r_ses -> r_occasp
r_ses -> f_occasp
f_ses -> r_occasp
f_ses -> f_occasp
f_intel -> f_occasp
```

- 6. Create paths for the feedback loop between endogenous variables.
 - a. Continue with the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the bottom of the r_occasp rectangle, slightly to the left of the center, and drag a path to the f_occasp rectangle.
 - c. Click in the top of the f_occasp rectangle, slightly to the right of the center, and drag a path to the r_occasp rectangle.
- 7. Correlate the error terms.
 - a. Select the Add Covariance tool, ...
 - b. Click in the error term for r_occasp (the circle labeled ϵ_1), and drag a covariance to the error term for f_occasp (the circle labeled ϵ_2).
- 8. Clean up.

If you do not like where a path has been connected to its variable, use the Select tool, to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle and drag the endpoint. Similarly, you can change where the covariance connects to the error terms by clicking on the covariance and dragging the endpoint. You can also change the bow of the covariance by clicking on the covariance and dragging the control point that extends from one end of the selected covariance.

9. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *SEM estimation options* dialog box.

10. Show standardized estimates.

From the SEM Builder menu, select View > Standardized Estimates.

Tips: When you draw paths that should be exactly horizontal or vertical, such as the two between r_occasp and f_occasp, holding the *Shift* key as you drag the path will guarantee that the line is perfectly vertical. Also, when drawing paths from the independent variables to the dependent variables, you may find it more convenient to change the automation settings as described in the tips of [SEM] example 9. However, this does not work for the feedback loop between the dependent variables.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_sm1

Checking stability with estat stable

. estat stable

Stability analysis of simultaneous equation systems

Eigenvalue stability condition

Eigenvalue	Modulus
2423722	.242372
.2423722	.242372

stability index = .2423722

All the eigenvalues lie inside the unit circle.

SEM satisfies stability condition.

Notes:

- 1. estat stable is for use on nonrecursive models. Recursive models are, by design, stable.
- 2. Stability concerns whether the parameters of the model are such that the model would blow up if it were operated over and over again. If the results are found not to be stable, then that casts questions about the validity of the model.
- 3. The stability is the maximum of the moduli, and the moduli are the absolute values of the eigenvalues. Usually, the two eigenvalues are not identical, but it is a property of this model that they are.
- 4. If the stability index is less than 1, then the reported estimates yield a stable model.

In the next section, we use estat teffects to estimate total effects. That is appropriate only if the model is stable, as we find that it is.

Reporting total, direct, and indirect effects with estat teffects

. estat teffects

Direct effects

	S					
	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural						
r_occ~p <-						
r_occasp	0	(no path)				
f_occasp	.2773441	.1287622	2.15	0.031	.0249748	.5297134
r_{intel}	.2854766	.0522001	5.47	0.000	.1831662	.3877869
r_ses	.1570082	.052733	2.98	0.003	.0536534	.260363
f_ses	.0973327	.0603699	1.61	0.107	0209901	.2156555
f_intel	0	(no path)				
f_occ~p <-						
r_occasp	.2118102	.1563958	1.35	0.176	09472	.5183404
f_occasp	0	(no path)				
r_intel	0	(no path)				
r_ses	.0794194	.0589095	1.35	0.178	0360411	. 1948799
f_ses	.1681772	.0543854	3.09	0.002	.0615838	.2747705
f_{intel}	.3693682	.0557939	6.62	0.000	.2600142	.4787223
Indirect effe	cts	OTM				
	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	_	P> z	[95% Conf.	Tn+ on
	Coel.	Std. Eff.	z	F/ Z		
Structural						
r_occ~p <-						
r_occasp	.0624106	.0460825	1.35	0.176	0279096	.1527307
f_occasp	.0173092	.0080361	2.15	0.031	.0015587	.0330597
r_{intel}	.0178168	.0159383	1.12	0.264	0134217	.0490552
r_ses	.0332001	.0204531	1.62	0.105	0068872	.0732875
f_ses	.0556285	.0292043	1.90	0.057	0016109	.112868
f_intel	.1088356	.052243	2.08	0.037	.0064411	.21123
f_occ~p <-						
r_occasp	.0132192	.0097608	1.35	0.176	0059115	.0323499
f_occasp	.0624106	.0289753	2.15	0.031	.0056201	.1192011
r_{intel}	.0642406	.0490164	1.31	0.190	0318298	.160311
r_ses	.0402881	.0315496	1.28	0.202	021548	.1021242
f_ses	.0323987	.0262124	1.24	0.216	0189765	.083774
f_{intel}	.0230525	.0202112	1.14	0.254	0165607	.0626657
	1					

Total effects

		OIM				
	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural						
r_occ~p <-						
r_occasp	.0624106	.0460825	1.35	0.176	0279096	.1527307
f_occasp	. 2946533	.1367983	2.15	0.031	.0265335	.5627731
r_intel	.3032933	.0509684	5.95	0.000	.2033971	.4031896
r_ses	.1902083	.050319	3.78	0.000	.091585	.2888317
f_ses	.1529612	.050844	3.01	0.003	.0533089	.2526136
$f_{ ext{intel}}$.1088356	.052243	2.08	0.037	.0064411	.21123
f_occ~p <-						
r_occasp	.2250294	.1661566	1.35	0.176	1006315	.5506903
f_occasp	.0624106	.0289753	2.15	0.031	.0056201	.1192011
r_{intel}	.0642406	.0490164	1.31	0.190	0318298	.160311
r_ses	.1197074	.0483919	2.47	0.013	.0248611	.2145537
f_ses	.2005759	.0488967	4.10	0.000	.10474	.2964118
f_intel	.3924207	.0502422	7.81	0.000	. 2939478	.4908936

Note:

1. In the path diagram we drew for this model, you can see that the intelligence of the respondent, r_intel, has both direct and indirect effects on the occupational aspiration of the respondent, r_occasp. The tables above reveal that

$$0.3033 = 0.2855 + 0.0178$$

where 0.2855 is the direct effect and 0.0178 is the indirect effect.

References

Acock, A. C. 2013. Discovering Structural Equation Modeling Using Stata. Rev. ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press. Duncan, O. D., A. O. Haller, and A. Portes. 1968. Peer influences on aspirations: A reinterpretation. American Journal of Sociology 74: 119-137.

Also see

[SEM] example 8 — Testing that coefficients are equal, and constraining them

[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] estat stable — Check stability of nonrecursive system

[SEM] estat teffects — Decomposition of effects into total, direct, and indirect

```
example 8 — Testing that coefficients are equal, and constraining them
```

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

This example continues where [SEM] example 7 left off, where we typed

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

```
Using test to evaluate adding constraints
Refitting the model with added constraints
Using estat scoretests to test whether constraints can be relaxed
```

We want to show you how to evaluate potential constraints after estimation, how to fit a model with constraints, and how to evaluate enforced constraints after estimation.

Obviously, in a real analysis, if you evaluated potential constraints after estimation, there would be no reason to evaluate enforced constraints after estimation, and vice versa.

Using test to evaluate adding constraints

In this model of respondents and corresponding friends, it would be surprising if the coefficients relating friends' characteristics to respondents' occupational aspirations and vice versa were not equal. It would also be surprising if coefficients relating a respondent's characteristics to his occupational aspirations were not equal to those of his friends' characteristics to his occupational aspirations. The paths that we suspect should be equal are

```
r\_intel -> r\_occasp f_intel -> f_occasp

r\_ses -> r\_occasp f_ses -> f_occasp

f_ses -> r\_occasp r_ses -> f_occasp

f_occasp -> r\_occasp r_occasp -> f_occasp
```

You are about to learn that to test whether those paths have equal coefficients, you type

In Stata, _b[] is how one accesses the estimated parameters. It is difficult to remember what the names are. To determine the names of the parameters, replay the sem results with the coeflegend option:

```
. sem, coeflegend
Structural equation model
                                                 Number of obs
                                                                             329
Estimation method = ml
Log likelihood
                   = -2617.0489
                    Coef.
                          Legend
Structural
  r_occ~p <-
                 .2773441
                            _b[r_occasp:f_occasp]
    f_occasp
     r_intel
                 .2854766
                            _b[r_occasp:r_intel]
       r_ses
                 .1570082
                           _b[r_occasp:r_ses]
                 .0973327
                           _b[r_occasp:f_ses]
       f_ses
  f_occ~p <-
                 .2118102
                            _b[f_occasp:r_occasp]
    r_occasp
       r_ses
                 .0794194
                            _b[f_occasp:r_ses]
                            _b[f_occasp:f_ses]
       f_ses
                 .1681772
     f_intel
                 .3693682
                            _b[f_occasp:f_intel]
                            _b[var(e.r_occasp):_cons]
var(e.r_oc~p)
                 .6868304
var(e.f_oc~p)
                           _b[var(e.f_occasp):_cons]
                 .6359151
cov(e.r_oc~p,
  e.f_occasp)
                -.1536992
                           _b[cov(e.r_occasp,e.f_occasp):_cons]
```

0.00. Prob > chi2 =

With the parameter names at hand, to perform the test, we can type

```
. test (_b[r_occasp:r_intel ]==_b[f_occasp:f_intel ])
>
       (_b[r_occasp:r_ses ] == _b[f_occasp:f_ses
>
       (_b[r_occasp:f_ses
                            ]==_b[f_occasp:r_ses
                                                    1)
       (_b[r_occasp:f_occasp] == _b[f_occasp:r_occasp])
       [r_occasp]r_intel - [f_occasp]f_intel = 0
 (1)
       [r_occasp]r_ses - [f_occasp]f_ses = 0
 (2)
 (3)
       [r_occasp]f_ses - [f_occasp]r_ses = 0
 (4)
       [r_occasp]f_occasp - [f_occasp]r_occasp = 0
           chi2(4) =
         Prob > chi2 =
                          0.8062
```

We cannot reject the constraint, just as we expected.

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(0)

Refitting the model with added constraints

We could refit the model with these constraints by typing

```
. sem (r_occasp <- f_occasp@b1 r_intel@b2 r_ses@b3 f_ses@b4)</pre>
      (f_occasp <- r_occasp@b1 f_intel@b2 f_ses@b3 r_ses@b4),
                               cov(e.r_occasp*e.f_occasp)
Endogenous variables
Observed: r_occasp f_occasp
Exogenous variables
Observed: r_intel r_ses f_ses f_intel
Fitting target model:
Iteration 0:
              log\ likelihood = -2617.8735
Iteration 1:
              log\ likelihood = -2617.8705
Iteration 2:
              log\ likelihood = -2617.8705
Structural equation model
                                                Number of obs
                                                                           329
Estimation method = ml
                  = -2617.8705
Log likelihood
       [r_occasp]f_occasp - [f_occasp]r_occasp = 0
 (2) [r_occasp]r_intel - [f_occasp]f_intel = 0
 (3) [r_occasp]r_ses - [f_occasp]f_ses = 0
 (4) [r_occasp]f_ses - [f_occasp]r_ses = 0
```

		OIM				
	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural						
r_occ~p <-						
f_occasp	. 2471578	.1024504	2.41	0.016	.0463588	.4479568
r_{intel}	.3271847	.0407973	8.02	0.000	.2472234	.4071459
r_ses	.1635056	.0380582	4.30	0.000	.0889129	.2380984
f_ses	.088364	.0427106	2.07	0.039	.0046529	.1720752
f_occ~p <-						
r_occasp	. 2471578	.1024504	2.41	0.016	.0463588	.4479568
r_ses	.088364	.0427106	2.07	0.039	.0046529	.1720752
f_ses	.1635056	.0380582	4.30	0.000	.0889129	.2380984
f_intel	.3271847	.0407973	8.02	0.000	. 2472234	.4071459
var(e.r_oc~p)	.6884513	.0538641			.5905757	.8025477
var(e.f_oc~p)	.6364713	.0496867			.5461715	.7417005
cov(e.r_oc~p,						
e.f_occasp)	1582175	.1410111	-1.12	0.262	4345942	.1181592

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(4) = 1.64, Prob > chi2 = 0.8010

Using estat scoretests to test whether constraints can be relaxed

```
. estat scoretests
(no score tests to report; all chi2 values less than 3.841458820694123)
```

No tests were reported because no tests were individually significant at the 5% level. We can obtain all the individual tests by adding the minchi2(0) option, which we can abbreviate to min(0):

. estat scoretests, min(0)

Score tests for linear constraints

- (1) [r_occasp]f_occasp [f_occasp]r_occasp = 0
- (2) [r_occasp]r_intel [f_occasp]f_intel = 0
- (3) $[r_{occasp}]r_{ses} [f_{occasp}]f_{ses} = 0$
- (4) $[r_{occasp}]f_{ses} [f_{occasp}]r_{ses} = 0$

	chi2	df	P>chi2
(1) (2) (3) (4)	0.014 1.225 0.055 0.136	1 1 1	0.91 0.27 0.81 0.71

Notes:

- 1. When we began this example, we used test to evaluate potential constraints that we were considering. We obtained an overall $\chi^2(4)$ statistic of 1.61 and thus could not reject the constraints at any reasonable level.
- 2. We then refit the model with those constraints.
- 3. For pedantic reasons, now we use estat scoretests to evaluate relaxing constraints included in the model. estat scoretests does not report a joint test. You cannot sum the χ^2 values to obtain a joint test statistic. Thus we learn only that the individual constraints should not be relaxed at reasonable confidence levels.
- 4. Thus when evaluating multiple constraints, it is better to fit the model without the constraints and use test to evaluate them jointly.

Also see

[SEM] example 7 — Nonrecursive structural model

[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams

[SEM] **test** — Wald test of linear hypotheses

[SEM] estat scoretests — Score tests

example 9 — Structural model with measurement component

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

To demonstrate a structural model with a measurement component, we use data from Wheaton et al. (1977):

. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_sm2
(Structural model with measurement component)

. ssd describe

Summary statistics data from

http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_sm2.dta

obs: 932 Structural model with measurem.. vars: 13 25 May 2013 11:45

(_dta has notes)

variable name variable label		
educ66	Education, 1966	
occstat66	Occupational status, 1966	
anomia66	Anomia, 1966	
pwless66	Powerlessness, 1966	
socdist66	Latin American social distance, 1966	
occstat67	Occupational status, 1967	
anomia67	Anomia, 1967	
pwless67	Powerlessness, 1967	
socdist67	Latin American social distance, 1967	
occstat71	Occupational status, 1971	
anomia71	Anomia, 1971	
pwless71	Powerlessness, 1971	
socdist71	Latin American social distance, 1971	

. notes

_dta:

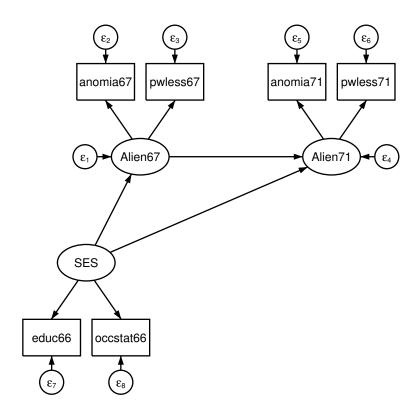
- Summary statistics data from Wheaton, B., Muthen B., Alwin, D., & Summers, G., 1977, "Assessing reliability and stability in panel models", in D. R. Heise (Ed.), _Sociological Methodology 1977_ (pp. 84-136), San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc.
- Four indicators each measured in 1966, 1967, and 1981, plus another indicator (educ66) measured only in 1966.
- Intended use: Create structural model relating Alienation in 1971, Alienation in 1967, and SES in 1966.

See Structural models 8: Unobserved inputs, outputs, or both in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the model Fitting the model with the Builder Evaluating omitted paths with estat mindices Refitting the model Simplified versions of the model fit by the authors of the referenced paper appear in many SEM software manuals. A simplified model is



```
///
. sem
      (anomia67 pwless67 <- Alien67)
                                          /// measurement piece
>
      (anomia71 pwless71 <- Alien71)
                                          /// measurement piece
      (Alien67 <- SES)
                                          /// structural piece
      (Alien71 <- Alien67 SES)
                                          /// structural piece
           SES -> educ66 occstat66)
                                          // measurement piece
Endogenous variables
              anomia67 pwless67 anomia71 pwless71 educ66 occstat66
Measurement:
              Alien67 Alien71
Latent:
Exogenous variables
Latent:
              SES
Fitting target model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -15249.988
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -15246.584
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood = -15246.469
Iteration 3:
               log likelihood = -15246.469
```

932

Structural equation model

Number of obs =

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -15246.469

- (1) [anomia67] Alien67 = 1
- (2) [anomia71]Alien71 = 1
- (3) [educ66]SES = 1

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural Alien67 <-						
SES	6140404	.0562407	-10.92	0.000	7242701	5038107
Alien71 <- Alien67 SES	.7046342 1744153	.0533512	13.21 -3.22	0.000 0.001	.6000678 2807413	.8092007 0680894
Measurement anom~67 <- Alien67	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	13.61	.1126205	120.85	0.000	13.38927	13.83073
pwle~67 <- Alien67 _cons	.8884887 14.67	.0431565	20.59 146.44	0.000	.8039034 14.47365	.9730739 14.86635
anom~71 <- Alien71 _cons	1 14.13	(constraine	ed) 121.92	0.000	13.90285	14.35715
pwle~71 <- Alien71 _cons	.8486022 14.9	.0415205 .1034537	20.44 144.03	0.000	.7672235 14.69723	.9299808 15.10277
educ66 <- SES _cons	1 10.9	(constraine	ed) 107.40	0.000	10.70108	11.09892
occs~66 <- SES _cons	5.331259 37.49	.4307503 .6947112	12.38 53.96	0.000	4.487004 36.12839	6.175514 38.85161
var(e.ano~67) var(e.pwl~67) var(e.pwl~71) var(e.pwl~71) var(e.educ66) var(e.occ~66) var(e.Ali~67) var(e.Ali~71) var(SES)	4.009921 3.187468 3.695593 3.621531 2.943819 260.63 5.301416 3.737286 6.65587	.3582978 .283374 .3911512 .3037908 .5002527 18.24572 .483144 .3881546 .6409484			3.365724 2.677762 3.003245 3.072483 2.109908 227.2139 4.434225 3.048951 5.511067	4.777416 3.794197 4.54755 4.268693 4.107319 298.9605 6.338201 4.581019 8.038482

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(6) = 71.62, Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Notes:

1. Measurement component: In both 1967 and 1971, anomia and powerlessness are used to measure endogenous latent variables representing alienation for the same two years. Education and occupational status are used to measure the exogenous latent variable SES.

- 2. Structural component: SES->Alien67 and SES->Alien71, and Alien67->Alien71.
- 3. The model versus saturated χ^2 test indicates that the model is a poor fit.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_sm2
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Create the measurement component for alienation in 1967.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, $\overline{\Psi}$, and then click in the diagram about halfway down from the top and one-third of the way in from the left.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to Alien67;
- b. select anomia67 and pwless67 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. select Up in the Measurement direction control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

4. Create the measurement component for alienation in 1971.

Repeat the process from item 3, but place the measurement component about halfway down from the top and two-thirds of the way in from the left. Label the latent variable Alien71, and select measurement variables anomia71 and pwless71. Again drag to reposition if desired.

5. Create the measurement component for socioeconomic status.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, $\overline{\mathbf{w}}$, and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way up from the bottom and one-fourth of the way in from the left.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to SES;
- b. select educ66 and occstat66 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. select Down in the Measurement direction control;
- d. click on OK.
- 6. Create a path from Alien67 to Alien71.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the right half of the Alien67 oval (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left half of the Alien71 oval (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).

7. Create a path from SES to Alien67.

Continuing with the tool, click in the upper portion of the SES oval, and drag a path to the lower-left quadrant of the Alien67 oval.

8. Create a path from SES to Alien71.

Continuing with the tool, click in the upper-right quadrant of the SES oval, and drag a path to the lower-left quadrant of the Alien71 oval.

9. Clean up the direction of the errors.

The error on Alien67 may have been created under the path from Alien67 to Alien71. If so, choose the Select tool, , and then click in the Alien67 oval. Click on one of the Error Rotation buttons, c, in the Contextual Toolbar until the error is where you want it.

10. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, [18], in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *SEM estimation options* dialog box.

Tips: We took some care above to click in specific quadrants of the ovals when creating paths. This is because, by default, the Builder places the ends of paths on the boundary of the ovals and rectangles closest to where we click. When you create paths, it is often convenient to change the automation settings (Settings > Automation...) so that Connection attachment points is Attach based on position of variables rather than Attach nearest to drop point. With the Connection attachment points setting, the paths connect nicely regardless of where we click or drop in the variables' ovals and rectangles.

Note that when you create covariances with the Covariances tool, , Attach nearest to drop point is sometimes preferred.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_sm2

Evaluating omitted paths with estat mindices

That the model is a poor fit leads us to look at the modification indices:

. estat mindices

Modification indices

Stand MI df P>MI EPC	P>MI	df	MI		
				Measurement anomia67 <-	
51.977 1 0.00 .3906425 .4019	0 00	4	E1 077	anomia67 <- anomia71	
32.517 1 0.0029692972727		_			
		_		pwless71	
5.627 1 0.02 .0935048 .0842	0.02	1	5.627	educ66	
				pwless67 <-	
41.618 1 0.0031069953594	0.00	1	41.618	anomia71	
23.622 1 0.00 .2249714 .2323	0.00	1	23.622	pwless71	
6.441 1 0.0108890420900	0.01	1	6.441	educ66	
				anomia71 <-	
58.768 1 0.00 .429437 .4173	0.00	1	58.768	anomia67	
38.142 1 0.0038730663347	0.00	1	38.142	pwless67	
				pwless71 <-	
46.188 1 0.0033084843601	0.00	1	46.188	anomia67	
27.760 1 0.00 .2871709 .2780	0.00	1	27.760	pwless67	
				educ66 <-	
4.415 1 0.04 .1055965 .1171	0.04	1	4.415	anomia67	
6.816 1 0.0114693711450	0.01	1	6.816	pwless67	
63.786 1 0.00 1.951578 .5069	0.00	1	63.786	cov(e.anomia67,e.anomia71)	
49.892 1 0.00 -1.5067043953				cov(e.anomia67,e.pwless71)	
6.063 1 0.01 .5527612 .1608		_		cov(e.anomia67,e.educ66)	
49.876 1 0.00 -1.5341994470		1		cov(e.pwless67,e.anomia71)	
37.357 1 0.00 1.159123 .341		_		cov(e.pwless67,e.pwless71)	
7.752 1 0.0155578021814		_		cov(e.pwless67,e.educ66)	

EPC = expected parameter change

Notes:

- 1. There are lots of statistically significant paths we could add to the model.
- 2. Some of those statistically significant paths also make theoretical sense.
- 3. Two in particular that make theoretical sense are the covariances between e.anomia67 and e.anomia71 and between e.pwless67 and e.pwless71.

Refitting the model

Let's refit the model and include those two previously excluded covariances:

```
///
>
      (anomia67 pwless67 <- Alien67)
                                                      /// measurement piece
      (anomia71 pwless71 <- Alien71)</pre>
                                                      /// measurement piece
>
      (Alien67 <- SES)
                                                      /// structural piece
>
      (Alien71 <- Alien67 SES)
                                                      /// structural piece
           SES -> educ66 occstat66)
                                                      /// measurement piece
                       , cov(e.anomia67*e.anomia71) ///
                         cov(e.pwless67*e.pwless71)
Endogenous variables
Measurement: anomia67 pwless67 anomia71 pwless71 educ66 occstat66
               Alien67 Alien71
Exogenous variables
Latent:
               SES
Fitting target model:
Iteration 0:
                log likelihood = -15249.988
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -15217.95
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -15213.126
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -15213.046
Iteration 4: log likelihood = -15213.046
```

Number of obs

4.78, Prob > chi2 = 0.3111

932

Structural equation model Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -15213.046

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(4)

- (1) [anomia67]Alien67 = 1
- (2) [anomia71]Alien71 = 1
- (3) [educ66]SES = 1

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural						
Alien67 <-						
SES	5752228	.057961	-9.92	0.000	6888244	4616213
Alien71 <-						
Alien67	.606954	.0512305	11.85	0.000	.5065439	.707364
SES	2270301	.0530773	-4.28	0.000	3310596	1230006
Measurement						
anom~67 <-						
Alien67	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	13.61	.1126143	120.85	0.000	13.38928	13.83072
pwle~67 <-						
Alien67	.9785952	.0619825	15.79	0.000	.8571117	1.100079
_cons	14.67	.1001814	146.43	0.000	14.47365	14.86635
anom~71 <-						
Alien71	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	14.13	.1159036	121.91	0.000	13.90283	14.35717
pwle~71 <-						
Alien71	.9217508	.0597225	15.43	0.000	.8046968	1.038805
_cons	14.9	.1034517	144.03	0.000	14.69724	15.10276
educ66 <-						
SES	1	(constraine	-			
_cons	10.9	.1014894	107.40	0.000	10.70108	11.09892
occs~66 <-						
SES	5.22132	.425595	12.27	0.000	4.387169	6.055471
_cons	37.49	.6947112	53.96	0.000	36.12839	38.85161
var(e.ano~67)	4.728874	.456299			3.914024	5.713365
var(e.pwl~67)	2.563413	.4060733			1.879225	3.4967
var(e.ano~71)	4.396081	.5171156			3.490904	5.535966
var(e.pwl~71)	3.072085	.4360333			2.326049	4.057398
var(e.educ66)	2.803674	.5115854			1.960691	4.009091
var(e.occ~66)	264.5311	18.22483			231.1177	302.7751
var(e.Ali~67)	4.842059	.4622537			4.015771	5.838364
<pre>var(e.Ali~71) var(SES)</pre>	4.084249 6.796014	.4038995 .6524866			3.364613 5.630283	4.957802 8.203105
cov(e.ano~67, e.anomia71)	1.622024	.3154267	5.14	0.000	1.003799	2.240249
cov(e.pwl~67,	1.022024	.3134207	5.14	0.000	1.003799	2.240249
e.pwless71)	.3399961	.2627541	1.29	0.196	1749925	.8549847
	L					

Notes:

- 1. We find the covariance between e.anomia67 and e.anomia71 to be significant (Z=5.14).
- 2. We find the covariance between e.pwless67 and e.pwless71 to be insignificant at the 5% level (Z=1.29).
- 3. The model versus saturated χ^2 test indicates that the model is a good fit.

References

Acock, A. C. 2013. Discovering Structural Equation Modeling Using Stata. Rev. ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press.

Wheaton, B., B. Muthén, D. F. Alwin, and G. F. Summers. 1977. Assessing reliability and stability in panel models. In *Sociological Methodology* 1977, ed. D. R. Heise, 84–136. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 32g — Full structural equation model (generalized response)
```

[SEM] estat mindices — Modification indices

[SEM] **test** — Wald test of linear hypotheses

example 10 — MIMIC model

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

To demonstrate a MIMIC model, we use the following summary statistics data:

```
. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_mimic1
(Multiple indicators and multiple causes)
```

. ssd describe

Summary statistics data from

http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_mimic1.dta

obs: 432 Multiple indicators and multip.. vars: 5 25 May 2013 10:13 (dta has notes)

variable name	variable label
occpres	occupational prestige, two-digit Dunca
income	total family income in units of \$2000,
s_occpres	subjective occupational prestige
s_income	subjective income
s_socstat	subjective overall social status

. notes

_dta:

- Summary statistics data from Kluegel, J. R., R. Singleton, Jr., and C. E. Starnes, 1977, "Subjective class identification: A multiple indicator approach", _American Sociological Review_, 42: 599-611.
- Data is also analyzed in Bollen, K. A. 1989, _Structural Equations with Latent Variables_, New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- The summary statistics represent 432 white adults included in the sample for the 1969 Gary Area Project for the Institute of Social Research at Indiana University.
- 4. The three subjective variables are measures of socioeconomic status based on an individuals perception of their own income, occupational prestige, and social status.
- 5. The income and occpres variables are objective measures of income and occupational prestige, respectively.

See Structural models 9: MIMIC models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

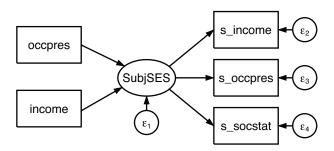
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the MIMIC model Fitting the MIMIC model with the Builder Evaluating the residuals with estat residuals Performing likelihood-ratio tests with Irtest

Fitting the MIMIC model

Based on the data referenced above, Bollen (1989, 397-399) fits a MIMIC model, the path diagram of which is



Bollen includes paths that he constrains and we do not show. Our model is nonetheless equivalent to the one he shows. In his textbook, Bollen illustrates various ways the same model can be written.

. sem (SubjSES -> s_income s_occpres s_socstat) (SubjSES <- income occpres)

Endogenous variables

Measurement: s_income s_occpres s_socstat

Latent: SubjSES Exogenous variables

Observed: income occpres

Fitting target model:

Iteration 0: (not concave) log likelihood = -4252.1834Iteration 1: $log\ likelihood = -4022.8854$ (not concave)

Iteration 2: log likelihood = -3994.3867

Iteration 3: $log\ likelihood = -3978.7751$ (not concave)

log likelihood = -3974.6636Iteration 4: log likelihood = -3972.0269Iteration 5: Iteration 6: $log\ likelihood = -3971.9238$ Iteration 7: log likelihood = -3971.9236

Structural equation model Number of obs 432

Estimation method = ml Log likelihood = -3971.9236

(1) [s_income]SubjSES = 1

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural						
SubjSES <-						
income	.082732	.0138498	5.97	0.000	.0555869	.1098772
occpres	.0046275	.0012464	3.71	0.000	.0021847	.0070704
Measurement						
s_inc~e <-						
SubjSES	1	(constraine	d)			
_cons	.9612091	.0794151	12.10	0.000	.8055583	1.11686
s_occ~s <-						
SubjSES	.7301352	.0832915	8.77	0.000	.5668869	.8933835
_cons	1.114563	.0656195	16.99	0.000	.9859512	1.243175
s_soc~t <-						
SubjSES	.9405161	.0934855	10.06	0.000	.7572878	1.123744
_cons	1.002113	.0706576	14.18	0.000	.863627	1.1406
var(e.s_in~e)	.2087546	.0254098			.1644474	.2649996
var(e.s_oc~s)	.2811852	.0228914			.2397153	.3298291
var(e.s_so~t)	.1807129	.0218405			.1425987	.2290146
var(e.Subj~S)	.1860097	.0270476			.1398822	.2473481

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(4) 26.65, Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Notes:

- 1. In this model, there are three observed variables that record the respondents' ideas of their perceived socioeconomic status (SES). One is the respondent's general idea of his or her SES (s_socstat); another is based on the respondent's income (s_income); and the last is based on the respondent's occupational prestige (s_occpres). Those three variables form the latent variable SubjSES.
- 2. The other two observed variables are the respondent's income (income) and occupation, the latter measured by the two-digit Duncan SEI scores for occupations (occpres). These two variables are treated as predictors of SubjSES.

- 3. In the model, item 1 is viewed as subjective and item 2 is viewed as objective.
- 4. All variables are statistically significant at the 5% level, but the model versus saturated test suggests that we are not modeling the covariances well.

Fitting the MIMIC model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_mimic1
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Create the measurement component for subject socioeconomic status.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, $\overline{\Psi}$, and then click near the center of the diagram. In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to SubjSES;
- b. select s_income, s_occpress, and s_socstat by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. select Right in the Measurement direction control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move this component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 4. Create the two variables for the formative indicators of socioeconomic status.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, , and then click in the diagram to add the new variable slightly above and to the left of SubjSES. After adding it, you can click inside the rectangle and move the variable if you wish.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, select occpress by using the Variable control.
 - c. Continuing with the tool, click in the diagram to add another new variable below the occpress variable.
 - d. In the Contextual Toolbar, select income by using the Variable control.
- 5. Create the paths for the formative indicators of socioeconomic status.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the lower-right quadrant of the occpress rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the upper-left quadrant of the SubjSES oval (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the → tool, click in the upper-right quadrant of the income rectangle, and drag a path to the lower-left quadrant of the SubjSES oval.

6. Clean up the direction of the errors.

The error on SubjSES is likely to have been created atop one of the existing paths. Choose the Select tool, , and then click in the SubjSES oval. Click on one of the **Error Rotation** buttons, in the Contextual Toolbar until the error is where you want it.

7. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, **\overline{\mathbb{E}}**, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *SEM estimation options* dialog box.

Tip: See the tips of [SEM] example 9 to make creating paths somewhat easier than described above.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_mimic1

Evaluating the residuals with estat residuals

Remember that SEM fits covariances and means. Residuals in the SEM sense thus refer to covariances and means. If we are not fitting well, we can examine the residuals.

. estat residuals, normalized

Residuals of observed variables

Mean residuals

	s_income	s_occpres	s_socstat	income	occpres
raw normalized	0.000 0.000	0.000	0.000 0.000	0.000 0.000	0.000

Covariance residuals

		s_income	s_occpres	s_socstat	income	occpres
Ī	s_income	0.000				
	s_occpres	-0.009	0.000			
	s_socstat	0.000	0.008	0.000		
	income	0.101	-0.079	-0.053	0.000	
	occpres	-0.856	1.482	0.049	0.000	0.000

Normalized covariance residuals

	s_income	s_occpres	s_socstat	income	occpres
s_income s_occpres s_socstat income occpres	0.000 -0.425 0.008 1.362 -1.221	0.000 0.401 -1.137 2.234	0.000 -0.771 0.074	0.000	0.000

Notes:

- 1. The residuals can be partitioned into two subsets: mean residuals and covariance residuals.
- 2. The normalized option caused the normalized residuals to be displayed.
- 3. Concerning mean residuals, the raw residuals and the normalized residuals are shown on a separate line of the first table.

- 4. Concerning covariance residuals, the raw residuals and the normalized residuals are shown in separate tables.
- 5. Distinguish between normalized residuals and standardized residuals. Both are available from estat residuals; if we wanted standardized residuals, we would have specified the standardized option instead of or along with normalized.
- 6. Both normalized and standardized residuals attempt to adjust the residuals in the same way. The normalized residuals are always valid, but they do not follow a standard normal distribution. The standardized residuals do follow a standard normal distribution if they can be calculated; otherwise, they will equal missing values. When both can be calculated (equivalent to both being appropriate), the normalized residuals will be a little smaller than the standardized residuals.
- 7. The normalized covariance residuals between income and s_income and between occpres and s_occpres are large.

Performing likelihood-ratio tests with Irtest

Thus Bollen (1989, 397–399) suggests adding a direct path from the objective measures to the corresponding subjective measures. We are about to fit the model

For no other reason than we want to demonstrate the likelihood-ratio test, we will then use lrtest rather than test to test the joint significance of the new paths. lrtest compares the likelihood values of two fitted models. Thus we will use lrtest to compare this new model with the one above. To do that, we must plan ahead and store in memory the currently fit model:

```
. estimates store mimic1
```

Alternatively, we could skip that and calculate the joint significance of the two new paths by using a Wald test and the test command.

In any case, having stored the current estimates under the name mimic1, we can now fit our new model:

```
. sem (SubjSES -> s_income s_occpres s_socstat)
      (SubjSES <- income occpres)
>
>
      (s_income <- income)
      (s_occpres <- occpres)
Endogenous variables
Observed:
             s_income s_occpres
Measurement: s_socstat
Latent:
             SubjSES
Exogenous variables
Observed:
             income occpres
Fitting target model:
Iteration 0:
              log likelihood = -4267.0974 (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -4022.6745 (not concave)
Iteration 2:
              log likelihood = -3977.0648
              log likelihood = -3962.9229
Iteration 3:
Iteration 4:
              log likelihood = -3962.1604
Iteration 5:
              log likelihood = -3960.8404
Iteration 6:
              log\ likelihood = -3960.7133
Iteration 7:
              log likelihood = -3960.7111
Iteration 8:
              log likelihood = -3960.7111
```

Structural equation model
Estimation method = ml
Log likelihood = -3960.7111
(1) [s_income]SubjSES = 1

Number of obs = 432

		OIM				
	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural						
s_inc~e <-						
SubjSES	1	(constraine	d)			
income	.0532425	.0142862	3.73	0.000	.025242	.081243
_cons	.8825314	.0781685	11.29	0.000	.7293239	1.035739
s_occ~s <-						
SubjSES	.783781	.1011457	7.75	0.000	.585539	.982023
occpres	.0045201	.0013552	3.34	0.001	.0018641	.0071762
_cons	1.06586	.0696058	15.31	0.000	.9294353	1.202285
SubjSES <-						
income	.0538025	.0129158	4.17	0.000	.028488	.0791171
occpres	.0034324	.0011217	3.06	0.002	.0012339	.0056309
Measurement						
s_soc~t <-						
SubjSES	1.195539	.1582735	7.55	0.000	.8853282	1.505749
_cons	1.07922	.078323	13.78	0.000	.9257097	1.23273
var(e.s_in~e)	.2292697	.0248905			.1853261	. 2836329
var(e.s_oc~s)	.2773786	.0223972			.2367783	.3249407
var(e.s_so~t)	.1459009	.028228			.0998556	.2131785
var(e.Subj~S)	.1480275	.0278381			.1023918	.2140029

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(2) = 4.22, Prob > chi2 = 0.1211

Now we can perform the likelihood-ratio test:

Likelihood-ratio test
(Assumption: mimic1 nested in .)

. lrtest mimic1 .

LR chi2(2) = 22.42 Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Notes:

- 1. The syntax of lrtest is lrtest modelname1 modelname2. We specified the first model name as mimic1, the model we previously stored. We specified the second model name as period (.), meaning the model most recently fit. The order in which we specify the names is irrelevant.
- 2. We find the two added paths to be extremely significant.

Reference

Bollen, K. A. 1989. Structural Equations with Latent Variables. New York: Wiley.

Also see

[SEM] example 36g — MIMIC model (generalized response)

[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] estat residuals — Display mean and covariance residuals

[SEM] **lrtest** — Likelihood-ratio test of linear hypothesis

```
example 11 — estat framework
```

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

To demonstrate estat framework, which displays results in Bentler-Weeks form, we continue where [SEM] example 10 left off:

```
. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_mimic1
. ssd describe
. notes
. sem (SubjSES -> s_income s_occpres s_socstat)
                                                   ///
      (SubjSES <- income occpres)
. estat residuals, normalized
. estimates store mimic1
. sem (SubjSES -> s_income s_occpres s_socstat)
                                                   ///
      (SubjSES <- income occpres)
                                                   111
      (s_income <- income)
                                                   111
      (s_occpres <- occpres)
. lrtest mimic1 .
```

See Structural models 9: MIMIC models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

If you prefer to see SEM results reported in Bentler-Weeks form, type estat framework after estimating with sem. Many people find Bentler-Weeks form helpful in understanding how the model is fit.

[SEM] example 10 ended by fitting

In Bentler-Weeks form, the output appears as

```
. estat framework, fitted
```

Endogenous variables on endogenous variables

Beta	observed s_income	s_occpres	s_socstat	latent SubjSES
observed				
s_income	0	0	0	1
s_occpres	0	0	0	.783781
s_socstat	0	0	0	1.195539
latent SubjSES	0	0	0	0

Exogenous variables on endogenous variables

Gamma	observed income	occpres
observed s_income s_occpres s_socstat	.0532425 0 0	0 .0045201 0
latent SubjSES	.0538025	.0034324

Covariances of error variables

Psi	observed e.s_inc~e	e.s_occ~s	e.s_soc~t	latent e.SubjSES
observed e.s_income e.s_occpres e.s_socstat	.2292697 0 0	. 2773786	.1459009	
latent e.SubjSES	0	0	0	.1480275

Intercepts of endogenous variables

alpha	observed s_income	s_occpres	s_socstat	latent SubjSES
_cons	.8825314	1.06586	1.07922	0

Covariances of exogenous variables

Phi	observed income	occpres
observed income occpres	4.820021 13.62431	451.6628

Means of exogenous variables

kappa	observed income	occpres
mean	5.04	36.698

Fitted covariances of observed and latent variables

	observed			latent	observed
Sigma	s_income	s_occpres	s_socstat	SubjSES	income
observed					
s_income	.4478609				
s_occpres	.1614446	.4086519			
s_socstat	.225515	.1738222	.392219		
latent					
SubjSES	.1886304	.1453924	.2060311	.1723333	
observed					
income	.5627232	.3014937	.3659463	.3060932	4.820021
occpres	3.008694	3.831184	2.729776	2.283302	13.62431
	observed				
Sigma	occpres				
	оссрісь				
observed					
occpres	451.6628				

Fitted means of observed and latent variables

mu	observed s_income	s_occpres	s_socstat	latent SubjSES	observed income
mu	1.548	1.543	1.554	.3971264	5.04
mu	observed occpres				
mu	36.698				

Notes:

- 1. Bentler-Weeks form is a vector and matrix notation for the estimated parameters of the model. The matrices are known as β , Γ , Ψ , α , Φ , and κ . Those Greek names are spelled out in the labels, along with a header stating what each contains.
- 2. We specified estat framework option fitted. That caused estat framework to list one more matrix and one more vector at the end: Σ and μ . These two results are especially interesting to those wishing to see the ingredients of the residuals reported by estat residuals.
- 3. One of the more useful results reported by estat framework, fitted is the Σ matrix, which reports all estimated covariances in a readable format and includes the model-implied covariances that do not appear in sem's ordinary output.
- 4. estat framework also allows the standardized option if you want standardized output.

Also see

[SEM] example 10 — MIMIC model

[SEM] **estat framework** — Display estimation results in modeling framework

```
example 12 — Seemingly unrelated regression
```

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

sem can be used to estimate seemingly unrelated regression. We will use auto.dta, which surely needs no introduction:

```
. sysuse auto (1978 Automobile Data)
```

See Structural models 10: Seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) in [SEM] intro 5.

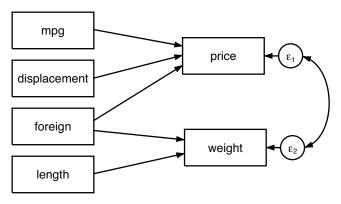
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the seemingly unrelated regression model Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting the seemingly unrelated regression model

We fit the following model:



```
(price <- foreign mpg displacement)</pre>
 sem
>
       (weight <- foreign length),
                                  cov(e.price*e.weight)
Endogenous variables
Observed: price weight
Exogenous variables
Observed: foreign mpg displacement length
Fitting target model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -2150.9983
               log likelihood = -2138.5739
Iteration 1:
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood = -2133.3461
             log likelihood = -2133.1979
Iteration 3:
Iteration 4: log likelihood = -2133.1956
Iteration 5: log likelihood = -2133.1956
```

Structural equation model
Estimation method = ml
Log likelihood = -2133.1956

Number of obs = 74

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural						
price <-						
foreign	2940.929	724.7311	4.06	0.000	1520.482	4361.376
mpg	-105.0163	57.93461	-1.81	0.070	-218.566	8.53347
displace~t	17.22083	4.5941	3.75	0.000	8.216558	26.2251
_cons	4129.866	1984.253	2.08	0.037	240.8022	8018.931
weight <-						
foreign	-153.2515	76.21732	-2.01	0.044	-302.6347	-3.868275
length	30.73507	1.584743	19.39	0.000	27.62903	33.84111
_cons	-2711.096	312.6813	-8.67	0.000	-3323.94	-2098.252
var(e.price)	4732491	801783.1			3395302	6596312
<pre>var(e.weight)</pre>	60253.09	9933.316			43616.45	83235.44
cov(e.price, e.weight)	209268	73909.54	2.83	0.005	64407.92	354128
	l					

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(3) = 38.86, Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Notes:

- 1. Point estimates are the same as reported by
 - . sureg (price foreign mpg displ) (weight foreign length), isure

sureg's isure option is required to make sureg iterate to the maximum likelihood estimate.

- 2. If you wish to compare the estimated variances and covariances after estimation by sureg, type
 - . matrix list e(Sigma)

sureg does not estimate standard errors on variances and covariances.

- 3. Standard errors will be different between sem and sureg. In this case, there is no reason to prefer one set of standard errors over the other, and standard errors are asymptotically equivalent. This is a case of exogenous variables only on the right-hand side. When the model being fit is recursive, standard errors produced by sem are better than those from sureg, both asymptotically and in finite samples.
- 4. One reason you might want to use sem is that sem will provide robust standard errors whereas sureg does not.
- 5. Multivariate regression can be viewed as seemingly unrelated regression. You just need to specify the same regressors for each equation. In that case, standard errors reported by sem will be the same as those reported by mvreg if one applies the multiplicative $\sqrt{(N-p-1)/N}$ degree-of-freedom adjustment.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/auto
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Change the size of the observed variables' rectangles.

From the SEM Builder menu, select Settings > Variables > All Observed....

In the resulting dialog box, change the first size to .85 and click on OK.

4. Create the four independent variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click in the diagram about one-fourth of the way in from the left and one-fourth of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. use the *Variables* control to select the four variables in this order: mpg, displacement, foreign, and length;
- c. select Vertical in the Orientation control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

5. Create the two dependent variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, ", and then click about two-thirds of the way in from the left and vertically aligned with the top of the length rectangle.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. use the *Variables* control to select the variables price and weight;
- c. select Vertical in the Orientation control;
- d. select the *Distances* tab;
- e. select .5 (inch) from the Distance between variables control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 6. Create paths from the independent variables to the dependent variables.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the right side of the mpg rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the price rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).

c. Continuing with the - tool, create the following paths by clicking first in the right side of the rectangle for the independent variable and dragging it to the left side of the rectangle for the dependent variable:

> displacement -> price foreign -> price foreign -> weight length -> weight

- 7. Correlate the error terms.
 - a. Select the Add Covariance tool, \square.
 - b. Click in the ϵ_1 circle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a covariance to the ϵ_2 circle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the covariance).
- 8. Clean up.

If you do not like where a path has been connected to its variables, use the Select tool, , to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle and drag the endpoint. Similarly, you can change where the covariance connects to the error terms by clicking on the covariance and dragging the endpoint. You can also change the bow of the covariance by clicking on the covariance and dragging the control point that extends from one end of the selected covariance.

9. Estimate.

Click on the Estimate button, , in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on OK in the resulting SEM estimation options dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_sureg

Also see

[SEM] example 13 — Equation-level Wald test [SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command

Title

```
example 13 — Equation-level Wald test
```

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

We demonstrate estat eqtest. See [SEM] intro 7 and [SEM] estat eqtest.

This example picks up where [SEM] example 12 left off:

Remarks and examples

We have fit a two-equation model with equations for endogenous variables price and weight. There happen to be two equations, the model happens to be a seemingly unrelated regression, and the endogenous variables happen to be observed, but none of that is important right now.

 ${\tt estat}$ eqtest displays equation-by-equation Wald tests that all coefficients excluding the intercepts are 0.

. estat eqtest

Wald tests for equations

	chi2	df	p
observed price weight	36.43 633.34	3 2	0.0000 0.0000

Note:

1. The null hypothesis for this test is that the coefficients other than the intercepts are 0. We can reject that null hypothesis for each equation.

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 12 — Seemingly unrelated regression
    [SEM] intro 7 — Postestimation tests and predictions
    [SEM] estat eqtest — Equation-level test that all coefficients are zero
```

example 14 — Predicted values

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

We demonstrate the use of predict. See [SEM] intro 7 and [SEM] predict after sem.

This example picks up where the first part of [SEM] example 1 left off:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_1fmm
- . sem $(x1 x2 x3 x4 \leftarrow X)$

Remarks and examples

predict can create new variables containing predicted values of 1) observed endogenous variables, 2) latent variables, whether endogenous or exogenous, and 3) latent endogenous variables. In the case of latent variables, item 2 corresponds to the factor score and item 3 is the linear prediction.

Below we demonstrate 1 and 2:

- . predict x1hat x2hat, xb(x1 x2)
- . predict Xhat, latent(X)

You specify options on predict to specify what you want predicted and how. Because of the differing options, the two commands could not have been combined into one command.

Our dataset now contains three new variables. Below we compare the three variables with the original x1 and x2 by using first summarize and then correlate:

. summarize x1 x1hat x2 x2hat Xhat

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
x1	123	96.28455	14.16444	54	131
x1hat	123	96.28455	10.65716	68.42469	122.9454
x2	123	97.28455	16.14764	64	135
x2hat	123	97.28455	12.49406	64.62267	128.5408
Xhat	123	-1.66e-08	10.65716	-27.85986	26.66084

Notes:

- 1. Means of x1hat and x1 are identical; means of x2hat and x2 are identical.
- 2. The standard deviation of x1hat is less than that of x1; the standard deviation of x2hat is less than that of x2. Some of the variation in x1 and x2 is not explained by the model.
- 3. Standard deviations of x1hat and Xhat are equal. This is because in

$$x_1 = b_0 + b_1 X + e_1$$

coefficient b_1 was constrained to be equal to 1 because of the anchoring normalization constraint; see *Identification 2: Normalization constraints (anchoring)* in [SEM] **intro 4**.

The mean of Xhat in the model above is -1.66e-08 rather than 0. Had we typed

. predict double Xhat, latent(X)

the mean would have been -1.61e-15.

. correlate x1 x1hat x2 x2hat Xhat (obs=123)

	x1	x1hat	x2	x2hat	Xhat
x1	1.0000				
x1hat	0.7895	1.0000			
x2	0.5826	0.8119	1.0000		
x2hat	0.7895	1.0000	0.8119	1.0000	
Xhat	0.7895	1.0000	0.8119	1.0000	1.0000

Notes:

- Both x1hat and x2hat correlate 1 with Xhat. That is because both are linear functions of Xhat alone.
- 2. That x1hat and x2hat correlate 1 is implied by item 1, directly above.
- 3. That Xhat, x1hat, and x2hat all have the same correlation with x1 and with x2 is also implied by item 1, directly above.

Also see

[SEM] example 1 — Single-factor measurement model

[SEM] intro 7 — Postestimation tests and predictions

[SEM] predict after sem — Factor scores, linear predictions, etc.

example 15 — Higher-order CFA

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

sem can be used to estimate higher-order confirmatory factor analysis models.

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_hcfa1
 (Higher-order CFA)
- . ssd describe

Summary statistics data from
http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_hcfa1.dta
obs: 251 Higher-order CFA
vars: 16 25 May 2013 11:26
(dta has notes)

variable name	variable label
phyab1	Physical ability 1
phyab2	Physical ability 2
phyab3	Physical ability 3
phyab4	Physical ability 4
appear1	Appearance 1
appear2	Appearance 2
appear3	Appearance 3
appear4	Appearance 4
peerrel1	Relationship w/ peers 1
peerrel2	Relationship w/ peers 2
peerrel3	Relationship w/ peers 3
peerrel4	Relationship w/ peers 4
parrel1	Relationship w/ parent 1
parrel2	Relationship w/ parent 2
parrel3	Relationship w/ parent 3
parrel4	Relationship w/ parent 4

. notes

_dta:

- Summary statistics data from Marsh, H. W. and Hocevar, D., 1985,
 "Application of confirmatory factor analysis to the study of
 self-concept: First- and higher order factor models and their invariance
 across groups", _Psychological Bulletin_, 97: 562-582.
- Summary statistics based on 251 students from Sydney, Australia in Grade
 5.
- 3. Data collected using the Self-Description Questionnaire and includes sixteen subscales designed to measure nonacademic traits: four intended to measure physical ability, four intended to measure physical appearance, four intended to measure relations with peers, and four intended to measure relations with parents.

See Higher-order CFA models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

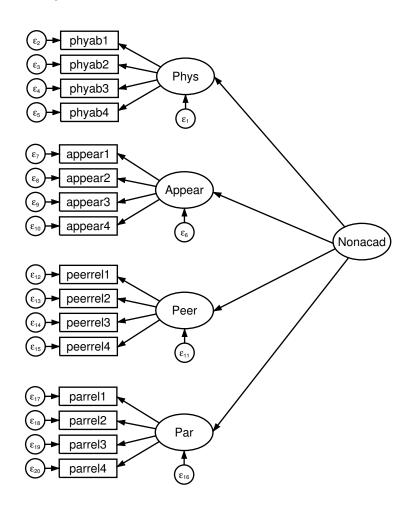
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the model Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting the model

We fit the following model:



```
. sem (Phys -> phyab1 phyab2 phyab3 phyab4)
```

- > (Appear -> appear1 appear2 appear3 appear4)
- (Peer -> peerrel1 peerrel2 peerrel3 peerrel4) >
- (Par -> parrel1 parrel2 parrel3 parrel4)
- (Nonacad -> Phys Appear Peer Par)

Endogenous variables

Measurement: phyab1 phyab2 phyab3 phyab4 appear1 appear2 appear3 appear4

peerrel1 peerrel2 peerrel3 peerrel4 parrel1 parrel2 parrel3

parrel4

Latent: Phys Appear Peer Par

Exogenous variables Latent: Nonacad

Fitting target model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -7686.6699 (not concave) Iteration 1: log likelihood = -7643.7387 (not concave) Iteration 2: log likelihood = -7616.2966(not concave)

Iteration 3: $log\ likelihood = -7597.6133$ Iteration 4: log likelihood = -7588.9515 Iteration 5: log likelihood = -7585.3162 Iteration 6: log likelihood = -7584.8125 Iteration 7: log likelihood = -7584.7885Iteration 8: log likelihood = -7584.7881

251 Structural equation model Number of obs =

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -7584.7881

- (1) [phyab1]Phys = 1
- (2) [appear1] Appear = 1
- (3) [peerrel1]Peer = 1
- (4) [parrel1]Par = 1
- (5) [Phys]Nonacad = 1

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural Phys <- Nonacad	1	(constraine	d)			
Appear <- Nonacad	2.202491	.3975476	5.54	0.000	1.423312	2.98167
Peer <- Nonacad	1.448035	.2921383	4.96	0.000	.8754549	2.020616
Par <- Nonacad	. 569956	.1382741	4.12	0.000	. 2989437	.8409683
Measurement phyab1 <-						
Phys _cons	1 8.2	(constraine	d) 70.75	0.000	7.972827	8.427173
phyab2 <-						
Phys _cons	.9332477 8.23	.1285726 .122207	7.26 67.34	0.000	.68125 7.990479	1.185245 8.469521

phyab3 <-						
Phys	1.529936	.1573845	9.72	0.000	1.221468	1.838404
_cons	8.17	.1303953	62.66	0.000	7.91443	8.42557
phyab4 <-						
Phys	1.325641	. 1338053	9.91	0.000	1.063387	1.587894
_cons	8.56	.1146471	74.66	0.000	8.335296	8.784704
appear1 <-						
Appear	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	7.41	.1474041	50.27	0.000	7.121093	7.698907
appear2 <-						
Appear	1.0719	.0821893	13.04	0.000	.9108121	1.232988
_cons	7	.1644123	42.58	0.000	6.677758	7.322242
appear3 <-						
Appear	1.035198	.0893075	11.59	0.000	.8601581	1.210237
_cons	7.17	.1562231	45.90	0.000	6.863808	7.476192
appear4 <-						
Appear	.9424492	.0860848	10.95	0.000	.7737262	1.111172
_cons	7.4	.1474041	50.20	0.000	7.111093	7.688907
peerr~1 <- Peer	1	(constraine	·d)			
_cons	8.81	.1077186	81.79	0.000	8.598875	9.021125
eerr~2 <-	4 044070	4550054	7 00	0 000	0000000	4 54000
Peer	1.214379	.1556051	7.80	0.000	.9093989	1.51936
_cons	7.94	.1215769	65.31	0.000	7.701714	8.178286
eerr~3 <-	4 667000	100701	0.74	0.000	4 002044	0 044744
Peer	1.667829	.190761	8.74	0.000	1.293944	2.041714
_cons	7.52	.1373248	54.76	0.000	7.250848	7.789152
peerr~4 <-						
Peer	1.363627	.159982	8.52	0.000	1.050068	1.677186
_cons	8.29	.1222066	67.84	0.000	8.050479	8.529521
oarrel1 <-						
Par	1	(constraine				
_cons	9.35	.0825215	113.30	0.000	9.188261	9.511739
parrel2 <-						
Par	1.159754	.184581	6.28	0.000	.7979822	1.521527
_cons	9.13	.0988998	92.32	0.000	8.93616	9.32384
parrel3 <-						
Par	2.035143	.2623826	7.76	0.000	1.520882	2.549403
_cons	8.67	.1114983	77.76	0.000	8.451467	8.888533
parrel4 <-						
Par	1.651802	.2116151	7.81	0.000	1.237044	2.06656
_cons	9	.0926003	97.19	0.000	8.818507	9.181493
	0.07466	.2075636			1.705244	2.524103
	2.07466					
	2.618638	.252693			2.167386	3.163841
r(e.phyab2) r(e.phyab3)					2.167386 .8864333	3.163841 1.70954
r(e.phyab1) r(e.phyab2) r(e.phyab3) r(e.phyab4) r(e.appe~1)	2.618638	. 252693				

var(e.appe~2)	2.801673	.3526427	2.189162	3.585561
var(e.appe~3)	2.41072	.300262	1.888545	3.077276
var(e.appe~4)	2.374508	.2872554	1.873267	3.009868
<pre>var(e.peer~1)</pre>	1.866632	.18965	1.529595	2.277933
<pre>var(e.peer~2)</pre>	2.167766	.2288099	1.762654	2.665984
<pre>var(e.peer~3)</pre>	1.824346	.2516762	1.392131	2.390749
<pre>var(e.peer~4)</pre>	1.803918	.212599	1.431856	2.272659
<pre>var(e.parr~1)</pre>	1.214141	.1195921	1.000982	1.472692
<pre>var(e.parr~2)</pre>	1.789125	.1748043	1.477322	2.166738
<pre>var(e.parr~3)</pre>	1.069717	.1767086	.7738511	1.478702
var(e.parr~4)	.8013735	.121231	.5957527	1.077963
var(e.Phys)	.911538	.1933432	.6014913	1.381403
<pre>var(e.Appear)</pre>	1.59518	.3704939	1.011838	2.514828
<pre>var(e.Peer)</pre>	.2368108	.1193956	.0881539	.6361528
<pre>var(e.Par)</pre>	.3697854	.0915049	.2276755	.600597
var(Nonacad)	.3858166	.1237638	. 2057449	.7234903

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(100) = 219.48, Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Notes:

- 1. The idea behind this model is that physical ability, appearance, and relationships with peers and parents may be determined by a latent variable containing nonacademic traits. This model was suggested by Bollen (1989, 315).
- 2. sem automatically provided normalization constraints for the first-order factors Phys, Appear, Peer, and Par. Their path coefficients were set to 1.
- 3. sem automatically provided a normalization constraint for the second-order factor Nonacad. Its path coefficient was set to 1.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_hcfa1
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Enlarge the size of the canvas to accommodate the length of the diagram.

Click on the **Adjust Canvas Size** button, \Box , in the Standard Toolbar, change the second size to 7 (inches), and then click on **OK**.

- 4. Change the size of the observed variables' rectangles.
 - a. In the SEM Builder menu, select Settings > Variables > All Observed....
 - b. In the resulting dialog box, change the second size to .25 and click on OK.
- 5. Create the measurement component for physical ability.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, Then using the darker one-inch grid lines in the background as a guide, click in the diagram about two inches in from the left and one inch down from the top.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to Phys;
- b. select phyab1, phyab2, phyab3, and phyab4 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. select Left in the Measurement direction control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 6. Create the remaining first-order measurement components.
 - a. Repeat the process from item 5, but place the measurement component on the grid line two inches in from the left and about two and one-half inches down from the top. Label the latent variable Appear, and select measurement variables appear1, appear2, appear3, and appear4.
 - b. Repeat the process from item 5, but place the measurement component on the grid line two inches in from the left and about four inches down from the top. Label the latent variable Peer, and select measurement variables peerrel1, peerrel2, peerrel3, and peerrel4.
 - c. Repeat the process from item 5, but place the measurement component on the grid line two inches in from the left and about five and one-half inches down from the top. Label the latent variable Par, and select measurement variables parrel1, parrel2, parrel3, and parrel4.
- 7. Create the second-order latent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Latent Variable tool, , and then click in the diagram about two inches in from the right and vertically centered between the Appear and Peer latent variables.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, type Nonacad in the Name control and press Enter.
- 8. Create paths from Nonacad to each of the first-order latent variables.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →
 - b. Click in the upper-left quadrant of the Nonacad oval (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the lower-left quadrant of the Phys oval (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, create the following paths by clicking first on the left side of the Nonacad variable and dragging to the right side of the first-order latent variable.

Nonacad -> Appear Nonacad -> Peer Nonacad -> Par

9. Clean up the direction of the errors.

We want the errors for each of the latent variables to be below the latent variable. The errors for Phys, Appear, and Peer are likely to have been created in other directions.

- a. Choose the Select tool, .
- b. Click in the Phys oval.
- c. Click on one of the **Error Rotation** buttons, \circ c, in the Contextual Toolbar until the error is below the latent variable.

Repeat this for all errors on latent variables that are not below the latent variable.

10. Clean up the paths.

If you do not like where a path has been connected to its variable, use the Select tool, , to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to an oval and drag the endpoint.

11. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, **1**, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting SEM estimation options dialog box.

Tip: See the tips of [SEM] example 9 to make creating paths somewhat easier than described above.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_hcfa1

Reference

Bollen, K. A. 1989. Structural Equations with Latent Variables. New York: Wiley.

Also see

[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command

Title

e 16 — Correlation	exar
--------------------	------

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

sem can be used to produce correlations or covariances between exogenous variables. The advantages of using sem over Stata's correlate command are that you can perform statistical tests on the results and that you can handle missing values in a more elegant way.

To demonstrate these features, we use

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/census13
 (1980 Census data by state)
- . describe

Contains data from http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/census13.dta
obs: 50 1980 Census data by state
vars: 9 9 Apr 2013 10:09
size: 1.600

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
state	long	%13.0g	state1	State
brate	long	%10.0g		Birth rate
pop	long	%12.0gc		Population
medage	float	%9.2f		Median age
division	int	%8.0g	division	Census Division
region	int	%-8.0g	cenreg	Census region
mrgrate	float	%9.0g		
dvcrate	float	%9.0g		
medagesq	float	%9.0g		

Sorted by:

See Correlations in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

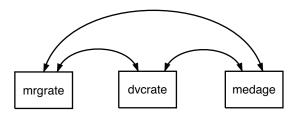
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Using sem to obtain correlation matrices Fitting the model with the Builder Testing correlations with estat stdize and test

Using sem to obtain correlation matrices

We fit the following model:



This model does nothing more than estimate the covariances (correlations), something we could obtain from the correlate command by typing

. correlate mrgrate dvcrate medage (obs=50)

	mrgrate	dvcrate	medage
mrgrate dvcrate medage	1.0000 0.7700 -0.0177	1.0000 -0.2229	1.0000

. correlate mrgrate dvcrate medage, covariance

	mrgrate	dvcrate	medage
mrgrate	.000662		-
dvcrate	.000063	1.0e-05	
medage	000769	001191	2.86775

As explained in Correlations in [SEM] intro 5, to see results presented as correlations rather than as covariances, we specify sem's standardized option:

. sem (<- mrgrate dvcrate medage), standardized

Exogenous variables

Observed: mrgrate dvcrate medage

Fitting target model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = 258.58985 Iteration 1: log likelihood = 258.58985

Structural equation model Number of obs 50

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = 258.58985

Standardized	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
mean(mrgrate) mean(dvcrate) mean(medage)	.7332509 2.553791 17.62083	.1593002 .291922 1.767749	4.60 8.75 9.97	0.000 0.000 0.000	.4210282 1.981634 14.15611	1.045474 3.125947 21.08556
var(mrgrate) var(dvcrate) var(medage)	1 1 1	:			:	
<pre>cov(mrgrate,</pre>	.7699637	.0575805	13.37	0.000	.6571079	.8828195
medage) cov(dvcrate, medage)	0176541 222932	.1413773	-0.12 -1.66	0.901	2947485 4863373	.0404732

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(0) = 0.00, Prob > chi2 =

Note:

1. The correlations reported are

	sem	correlate
mrgrate and dvcrate	0.7699637	0.7700
mrgrate and medage	-0.0176541	-0.0177
dvcrate and medage	-0.222932	-0.2229

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/census13
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Create the set of observed variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click in the diagram about halfway down from the top and a quarter of the way in from the left.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. use the Variables control to select the variables in this order: mrgrate, dvcrate, and medage;
- c. select Horizontal in the Orientation control;
- d. select the *Distances* tab:
- e. select .5 (inch) in the Distance between variables control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

Be sure you select the observed variables in the order indicated above; otherwise, the instructions below for creating covariances will not be correct.

- 4. Correlate each pair of variables.
 - a. Select the Add Covariance tool, \square.
 - b. Click in the top of the mrgrate rectangle, slightly to the right of the center (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the top of the dvcrate rectangle, slightly to the left of the center (it will highlight when you can release to connect the covariance).
 - c. Click in the top of the dvcrate rectangle, slightly to the right of the center, and drag a path to the top of the medage rectangle, slightly to the left of the center.
 - d. Click in the top of the mrgrate rectangle, slightly to the left of the center, and drag a path to the top of the medage rectangle, slightly to the right of the center.

5. Clean up.

If you do not like where a covariance has been connected to its variable, use the Select tool, to click on the covariance, and then simply click on where it connects to an oval and drag the endpoint. You can also change the bow of the covariance by dragging the control point that extends from one end of the selected covariance.

6. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *SEM estimation options* dialog box.

7. Show standardized estimates.

From the SEM Builder menu, select View > Standardized Estimates.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_corr

Testing correlations with estat stdize and test

We can test whether the correlations between median age and marriage and divorce rates are equal with test by typing

```
. estat stdize: ///
     test _b[cov(medage,mrgrate):_cons] = _b[cov(medage,dvcrate):_cons]
```

We must prefix test with estat stdize because otherwise we would be testing equality of covariances; see *Displaying other results*, *statistics*, *and tests* (sem and gsem) in [SEM] **intro 7** and see [SEM] **estat stdize**.

That we refer to the two correlations (covariances) by typing _b[cov(medage,mrgrate):_cons] and _b[cov(medage,dvcrate):_cons] is something nobody remembers and that we remind ourselves of by redisplaying sem results with the coeflegend option:

	Coef.	Legend
mean(mrgrate) mean(dvcrate) mean(medage)	.0186789 .0079769 29.54	_b[mean(dvcrate):_cons]
var(mrgrate) var(dvcrate) var(medage)		_b[var(mrgrate):_cons] _b[var(dvcrate):_cons] _b[var(medage):_cons]
cov(mrgrate, dvcrate) cov(mrgrate, medage) cov(dvcrate, medage)	0007539	_b[cov(mrgrate,dvcrate):_cons] _b[cov(mrgrate,medage):_cons] _b[cov(dvcrate,medage):_cons]

```
LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(0) = 0.00, Prob > chi2 =
```

We can now obtain the test:

Note:

1. We can reject the test at the 5% level.

Also see

```
    [SEM] test — Wald test of linear hypotheses
    [SEM] estat stdize — Test standardized parameters
    [R] correlate — Correlations (covariances) of variables or coefficients
```

Title

example 17 — Correlated uniqueness model

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

To demonstrate a correlated uniqueness model, we use the following summary statistics data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_cu1
 (Correlated uniqueness)
- . ssd describe

Summary statistics data from

http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_cu1.dta

obs: 500 Correlated uniqueness vars: 9 25 May 2013 10:12 (dta has notes)

variable name	variable label				
par_i	self-report inventory for paranoid				
szt_i	self-report inventory for schizotypal				
szd_i	self-report inventory for schizoid				
par_c	clinical interview rating for paranoid				
szt_c	clinical interview rating for schizoty				
szd_c	clinical interview rating for schizoid				
par_o	observer rating for paranoid				
szt_o	observer rating for schizotypal				
szd_o	observer rating for schizoid				

. notes

_dta:

- Summary statistics data for Multitrait-Multimethod matrix (a specific kind of correlation matrix) and standard deviations from Brown, Timothy A., 2006, _Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Applied Research_, New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- 2. Summary statistics represent a sample of 500 patients who were evaluated for three personality disorders using three different methods.
- 3. The personality disorders include paranoid, schizotypal, and schizoid.
- The methods of evaluation include a self-report inventory, ratings from a clinical interview, and observational ratings.

See Correlated uniqueness model in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

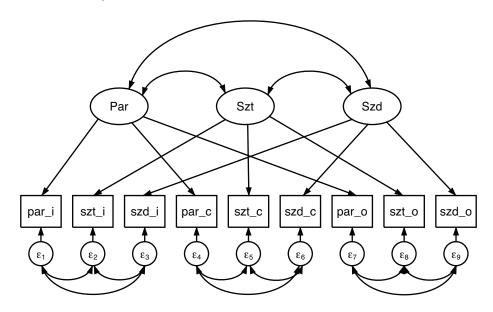
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the model Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting the model

We fit the following model:



```
. sem (Par -> par_i par_c par_o)
      (Szt -> szt_i szt_c szt_o)
      (Szd -> szd_i szd_c szd_o),
                 covstr(e.par_i e.szt_i e.szd_i, unstructured)
                 covstr(e.par_c e.szt_c e.szd_c, unstructured)
                 covstr(e.par_o e.szt_o e.szd_o, unstructured)
                 standardized
Endogenous variables
              par_i par_c par_o szt_i szt_c szt_o szd_i szd_c szd_o
Measurement:
Exogenous variables
Latent:
              Par Szt Szd
Fitting target model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -10210.31
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -10040.188
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -9971.4015
               log likelihood = -9918.0037
Iteration 3:
Iteration 4:
               log\ likelihood = -9883.6368
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -9880.0242
Iteration 6:
               log likelihood = -9879.9961
Iteration 7:
               log likelihood = -9879.9961
```

500

Structural equation model

Number of obs

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -9879.9961

- (1) [par_i]Par = 1
- (2) [szt_i]Szt = 1
- (3) [szd_i]Szd = 1

Standardized	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measurement						
par_i <-						
Par	.7119709	.0261858	27.19	0.000	.6606476	.7632941
par_c <-						
Par	.8410183	.0242205	34.72	0.000	.7935469	.8884897
par_o <-						
Par	.7876062	.0237685	33.14	0.000	.7410209	.8341916
szt_i <-						
Szt	.7880887	.0202704	38.88	0.000	.7483594	.8278179
szt_c <-						
Szt	.7675732	.0244004	31.46	0.000	.7197493	.8153972
szt_o <-						
Szt	.8431662	.0181632	46.42	0.000	.807567	.8787653
szd_i <-						
Szd	.7692321	.0196626	39.12	0.000	.7306942	.80777
szd_c <-						
Szd	.8604596	.0179455	47.95	0.000	.8252871	.8956321
szd_o <-						
Szd	.8715597	.0155875	55.91	0.000	.8410086	.9021107
var(e.par_i)	.4930975	.0372871			.4251739	.5718722
<pre>var(e.par_c)</pre>	.2926882	.0407398			.2228049	.3844905
<pre>var(e.par_o)</pre>	.3796764	.0374404			.3129503	.4606295
var(e.szt_i)	.3789163	.0319498			.3211966	.4470082
var(e.szt_c)	.4108313	.0374582			.3436006	.4912169
var(e.szt_o)	.2890708	.0306291			. 2348623	.3557912
var(e.szd_i)	.408282	.0302501			.3530966	.4720922
var(e.szd_c)	.2596093	.0308827			.2056187	.3277766
var(e.szd_o)	.2403837	.027171			.192616	.2999976
var(Par)	1	•			•	•
var(Szt)	1	•			•	•
var(Szd)	1	•			•	

cov(e.par_i,						
e.szt_i)	.2166732	.0535966	4.04	0.000	.1116258	.3217207
cov(e.par_i, e.szd_i)	.4411039	.0451782	9.76	0.000	.3525563	.5296515
cov(e.par_c,		70101.02	01.0	0.000	7002000	10200010
e.szt_c)	1074802	.0691107	-1.56	0.120	2429348	.0279743
cov(e.par_c,	0040405	0000005	0.46	0.000	4000546	1005705
e.szd_c) cov(e.par_o,	2646125	.0836965	-3.16	0.002	4286546	1005705
e.szt_o)	.4132457	.0571588	7.23	0.000	.3012165	.5252749
cov(e.par_o,						
e.szd_o) cov(e.szt_i,	.3684402	.0587572	6.27	0.000	. 2532781	.4836022
e.szd_i)	.7456394	.0351079	21.24	0.000	.6768292	.8144496
cov(e.szt_c,						
e.szd_c)	3296552	.0720069	-4.58	0.000	4707861	1885244
cov(e.szt_o,	4504050					
e.szd_o)	.4781276	.0588923	8.12	0.000	.3627009	.5935544
cov(Par,Szt)	.3806759	.045698	8.33	0.000	.2911095	.4702422
cov(Par,Szd)	.3590146	.0456235	7.87	0.000	.2695941	.4484351
cov(Szt,Szd)	.3103837	.0466126	6.66	0.000	.2190246	.4017428

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(15) = 14.37, Prob > chi2 = 0.4976

Notes:

1. We use the correlated uniqueness model fit above to analyze a multitrait–multimethod (MTMM) matrix. The MTMM matrix was developed by Campbell and Fiske (1959) to evaluate construct validity of measures. Each trait is measured using different methods, and the correlation matrix produced is used to evaluate whether measures that are related in theory are related in fact (convergent validity) and whether measures that are not intended to be related are not related in fact (discriminant validity).

In this example, the traits are the latent variables Par, Szt, and Szd.

The observed variables are the method-trait combinations.

The observed traits are the personality disorders paranoid (par), schotypal (szt), and schizoid (szd). The methods used to measure them are self-report (_i), clinical interview (_c), and observer rating (_o). Thus variable par_i is paranoid (par) measured by self-report (_i).

- 2. Note our use of the covstructure() option, which we abbreviated to covstr(). We used this option instead of cov() to save typing; see *Correlated uniqueness model* in [SEM] intro 5.
- 3. Large values of the factor loadings (path coefficients) indicate convergent validity.
- 4. Small correlations between latent variables indicate discriminant validity.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

There are many ways to draw this diagram. This one produces the cleanest diagram most easily.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_cu1

2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Change the size of the observed variables' rectangles.
 - a. In the SEM Builder menu, select Settings > Variables > All Observed....
 - b. In the resulting dialog box, change the first size to .44 and click on OK.
- 4. Create the nine measurement variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click in the far left of the diagram, about one-third of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. use the *Variables* control to select the nine variables in this order: par_i, szt_i, szd_i, par_c, szt_c, szd_c, par_o, szt_o, and szd_o;
- c. select Horizontal in the Orientation control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

Be sure you select the observed variables in the order indicated above; otherwise, the instructions below for creating covariances among the errors will not be correct.

5. Create the set of three latent variables.

Select the Add Latent Variables Set tool, , and then click above the szt_i rectangle, about one-third of the way down from the top of the diagram.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. type the three latent variable names Par, Szt, and Szd into the Variables control;
- c. select Horizontal in the Orientation control;
- d. select the Distances tab:
- e. select 1 (inch) from the Distance between variables control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

We could have forgone specifying the distances between variables and simply dragged each variable where we wished after it was created.

- 6. Create the factor-loading paths.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, -.
 - b. Click in the bottom of the Par oval (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the top of the par_i rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).

c. Continuing with the tool, create the following paths by clicking first in the bottom of the latent variable and dragging it to the top of the observed (measurement) variable:

Szt -> szt_i
Szd -> szd_i
Par -> par_c
Szt -> szt_c
Szd -> szd_c
Par -> par_o
Szt -> szt_o
Szd -> szt_o
Szd -> szd_o

7. Clean up the direction of the errors.

We want all the errors to be below the measurement variables.

- a. Choose the Select tool, .
- b. Click on the rectangle of any measurement variable whose associated error is not below it.
- c. Click on one of the **Error Rotation** buttons, on the Contextual Toolbar until the error is below the measurement variable.

Repeat this for all errors that are not below the measurement variables.

- 8. Correlate the errors within the self-report, clinical interview, and observer rating groups.
 - a. Select the Add Covariance tool, ...
 - b. Click in the ϵ_2 circle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a covariance to the ϵ_1 circle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the covariance).
 - c. Continue with the Add Covariance tool, , to create eight more covariances by clicking the first-listed error and dragging it to the second-listed error.

 $\begin{array}{l} \epsilon_3 \rightarrow \epsilon_2 \\ \epsilon_3 \rightarrow \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_5 \rightarrow \epsilon_4 \\ \epsilon_6 \rightarrow \epsilon_5 \\ \epsilon_6 \rightarrow \epsilon_4 \\ \epsilon_8 \rightarrow \epsilon_7 \\ \epsilon_9 \rightarrow \epsilon_8 \\ \epsilon_9 \rightarrow \epsilon_7 \end{array}$

The order in which we create the covariances is unimportant. We dragged each covariance from right to left because the bow of the covariance is outward when we drag in a clockwise direction and inward when we drag in a counterclockwise direction. Had we connected the opposite way, we would have needed to use the Contextual Toolbar to mirror the bow of the covariances.

- 9. Correlate the latent factors.
 - a. Select the Add Covariance tool, \square.
 - b. Click in the Par oval and drag a covariance to the Szt oval.
 - c. Click in the Szt oval and drag a covariance to the Szd oval.
 - d. Click in the Par oval and drag a covariance to the Szd oval.

10. Clean up.

If you do not like where a covariance has been connected to its variable, use the Select tool, to click on the covariance, and then simply click on where it connects to an oval and drag the endpoint. You can also change the bow of the covariance by dragging the control point that extends from one end of the selected covariance.

11. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting SEM estimation options dialog box.

12. Show standardized estimates.

From the SEM Builder menu, select View > Standardized Estimates.

Reference

Campbell, D. T., and D. W. Fiske. 1959. Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix. Psychological Bulletin 56: 81–105.

Also see

[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command[SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure() — Specifying covariance restrictions

Title

example 18 — Latent growth model

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

To demonstrate a latent growth model, we use the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_lcm
- . describe

Contains data from http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_lcm.dta

obs: 359 vars: 4 size: 5,744

25 May 2013 11:08 (_dta has notes)

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
lncrime0	float	%9.0g		ln(crime rate) in Jan & Feb
lncrime1	float	%9.0g		<pre>ln(crime rate) in Mar & Apr</pre>
lncrime2	float	%9.0g		ln(crime rate) in May & Jun
lncrime3	float	%9.0g		ln(crime rate) in Jul & Aug

Sorted by:

. notes

_dta:

- Data used in Bollen, Kenneth A. and Patrick J. Curran, 2006, _Latent Curve Models: A Structural Equation Perspective_. Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons
- Data from 1995 Uniform Crime Reports for 359 communities in New York state.

See Latent growth models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

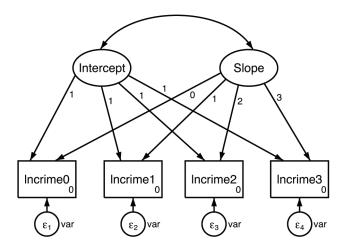
Fitting the model Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting the model

(14)

 $[lncrime3]_cons = 0$

We fit the following model:



```
. sem (lncrime0 <- Intercept@1 Slope@0 _cons@0)
>
      (lncrime1 <- Intercept@1 Slope@1 _cons@0)
      (lncrime2 <- Intercept@1 Slope@2 _cons@0)
>
      (lncrime3 <- Intercept@1 Slope@3 _cons@0),
              latent(Intercept Slope)
              var(e.lncrime0@var e.lncrime1@var
                  e.lncrime2@var e.lncrime3@var)
              means(Intercept Slope)
Endogenous variables
Measurement: lncrime0 lncrime1 lncrime2 lncrime3
Exogenous variables
Latent:
              Intercept Slope
Fitting target model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -1034.1038
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -1033.9044
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood = -1033.9037
Iteration 3:
               log\ likelihood = -1033.9037
Structural equation model
                                                Number of obs
                                                                            359
Estimation method = ml
Log likelihood
                   = -1033.9037
 (1)
      [lncrime0]Intercept = 1
 (2)
      [lncrime1]Intercept = 1
 (3)
      [lncrime1]Slope = 1
 (4) [lncrime2]Intercept = 1
 (5)
       [lncrime2]Slope = 2
 (6)
       [lncrime3]Intercept = 1
 (7)
       [lncrime3]Slope = 3
 (8)
      [var(e.lncrime0)]_cons - [var(e.lncrime3)]_cons = 0
 (9)
      [var(e.lncrime1)]_cons - [var(e.lncrime3)]_cons = 0
 (10)
      [var(e.lncrime2)]_cons - [var(e.lncrime3)]_cons = 0
 (11) [lncrime0]_cons = 0
 (12)
      [lncrime1]_cons = 0
 (13)
       [lncrime2]_cons = 0
```

		OIM				
	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measurement						
lncri~0 <-						
Intercept	1	(constraine				
_cons	0	(constraine	ed) 			
lncri~1 <-						
Intercept	1	(constraine	ed)			
Slope	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	0	(constraine	ed)			
lncri~2 <-						
Intercept	1	(constraine	ed)			
Slope	2	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	0	(constraine	ed)			
lncri~3 <-						
Intercept	1	(constraine	ed)			
Slope	3	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	0	(constraine	ed)			
mean(Inter~t)	5.337915	.0407501	130.99	0.000	5.258047	5.417784
mean(Slope)	.1426952	.0104574	13.65	0.000	.1221992	.1631912
var(e.lncr~0)	.0981956	.0051826			.0885457	.1088972
var(e.lncr~1)	.0981956	.0051826			.0885457	.1088972
var(e.lncr~2)	.0981956	.0051826			.0885457	.1088972
var(e.lncr~3)	.0981956	.0051826			.0885457	.1088972
var(Interc~t)	.527409	.0446436			.4467822	.6225858
var(Slope)	.0196198	.0031082			.0143829	.0267635
cov(Inter~t,						
Slope)	034316	.0088848	-3.86	0.000	0517298	0169022

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(8) = 16.25, Prob > chi2 = 0.0390

Notes:

- 1. In this example, we have repeated measures of the crime rate in 1995. We will assume that the underlying rate grows linearly.
- 2. As explained in *Latent growth models* in [SEM] **intro 5**, we assume

$$lncrime_i = Intercept + i \times Slope$$

3. sem does not usually report the means of latent exogenous variables because sem automatically includes the identifying constraint that the means are 0; see *How sem (gsem) solves the problem for you* in [SEM] **intro 4** and see *Default normalization constraints* in [SEM] **sem**.

In this case, sem did not constrain the means to be 0 because we specified sem's means() option. In particular, we specified means(Intercept Slope), which said not to constrain the means of those two exogenous latent variables and to report the estimated result.

Our model was identified even without the usual 0 constraints on Intercept and Slope because we specified enough other constraints.

4. We estimate the Intercept to have mean 5.34 and the mean Slope to be 0.14 per two months. Remember, we have measured crime rates as log base e crime rates.

- 5. It might help some to think of this as a mixed model:
 - . generate id = _n
 - . reshape long lncrime, i(id) j(year)
 - . mixed lncrime year || id:year, cov(unstructured) mle var

The mean Intercept and Slope are what mixed would refer to as the coefficients in the fixed-effects part of the model.

Acock (2013, chap. 4) discusses the use of sem to fit latent growth-curve models in more detail. Acock demonstrates extensions to the basic model we fit here, such as including time-varying and time-invariant covariates in the model.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_lcm
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Create the four repeated measurements for log crime rate.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click in the diagram about one-fourth of the way in from the left and about one-third of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. use the Variables control to select the variables in this order: lncrime0, lncrime1, lncrime2, and lncrime3;
- c. select Horizontal in the Orientation control;
- d. select the Distances tab;
- e. select .25 (inch) from the Distance between variables control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

4. Create the two latent variables.

Select the Add Latent Variables Set tool, ", and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way down from the top and above the left side of the lncrime0 rectangle.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. type the latent variable names Intercept and Slope into the Variables control;
- c. select Horizontal in the Orientation control;
- d. select the Distances tab:

e. select 1 (inch) from the Distance between variables control:

f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

We could have forgone specifying the distances between variables and simply dragged each variable where we wished after it was created.

- 5. Create the factor-loading paths.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool. →.
 - b. Click in the bottom-left quadrant of the Intercept oval (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the top of the IncrimeO rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, create the following paths by clicking first in the bottom of the latent variable and dragging it to the top of the observed (measurement) variable:

```
Intercept -> lncrime1
Intercept -> lncrime2
Intercept -> lncrime3
Slope -> lncrime0
Slope -> lncrime1
Slope -> lncrime2
Slope -> lncrime3
```

6. Clean up the direction of the errors.

We want all the errors to be below the measurement variables.

- a. Choose the Select tool. .
- b. Click on the rectangle of any measurement variable whose associated error is not below it.
- c. Click on one of the **Error Rotation** buttons, \bigcirc c, in the Contextual Toolbar until the error is below the measurement variable.

Repeat this for all errors that are not below the measurement variables.

- 7. Create the covariance between Intercept and Slope.
 - a. Select the Add Covariance tool. \(^{\chi}\).
 - b. Click in the top-right quadrant of the Intercept oval, and drag a covariance to the top left of the Slope oval.
- 8. Clean up paths and covariance.

If you do not like where a path has been connected to its variables, use the Select tool, , to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle and drag the endpoint. Similarly, you can change where the covariance connects to the latent variables by clicking on the covariance and dragging the endpoint. You can also change the bow of the covariance by clicking on the covariance and dragging the control point that extends from one end of the selected covariance.

- 9. Constrain the intercepts of the measurements to 0.
 - a. Choose the Select tool. .

- b. Click on the rectangle for lncrime0. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 0 in the box and press *Enter*.
- c. Repeat this process to add the O constraint on the intercept for lncrime1, lncrime2, and lncrime3
- 10. Set constraints on the paths from Intercept to the measurements.
 - a. Continue with the Select tool, .
 - b. Click on the path from Intercept to IncrimeO. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1 in the β box and press *Enter*.
 - c. Repeat this process to add the 1 constraint on the following paths:

```
Intercept -> lncrime1
Intercept -> lncrime2
Intercept -> lncrime3
```

- 11. Set constraints on the paths from Slope to the measurements.
 - a. Continue with the Select tool, .
 - b. Click on the path from Slope to lncrime0. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 0 in the box and press *Enter*.
 - c. Click on the path from Slope to Incrime1. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1 in the box and press *Enter*.
 - d. Click on the path from Slope to lncrime2. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 2 in the box and press *Enter*.
 - e. Click on the path from Slope to lncrime3. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 3 in the box and press *Enter*.
- 12. Set equality constraints on the error variances.
 - a. Continue with the Select tool, .
 - b. Click in the ϵ_1 circle, which is the error term for lncrime0. In the Contextual Toolbar, type var in the σ^2 box and press *Enter*.
 - c. Repeat this process to add the var constraint on the three remaining error variances: ϵ_2 , ϵ_3 , and ϵ_4 .
- 13. Clean up placement of the constraints.

From the SEM Builder menu, select **Settings > Connections > Paths...**.

In the resulting dialog box, do the following:

- a. Click on the Results tab.
- b. Click on the **Result 1...** button at the bottom left.
- c. In the Appearance of result 1 paths dialog box that opens, choose 20 (%) in the Distance between nodes control.
- d. Click on **OK** on the Appearance of result 1 paths dialog box.
- e. Click on **OK** on the Connection settings paths dialog box.

- 14. Specify that the means of Intercept and Slope are to be estimated.
 - a. Choose the Select tool,
 - b. Double-click on the Intercept oval.
 - c. In the resulting dialog box, check the Estimate mean box.
 - d. Click on OK.
 - e. In the same manner, double-click on Slope and check the Estimate mean box.
- 15. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *SEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_lcm

Reference

Acock, A. C. 2013. Discovering Structural Equation Modeling Using Stata. Rev. ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press.

Also see

[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command

```
example 19 — Creating multiple-group summary statistics data
```

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

The data analyzed in [SEM] **example 20** are summary statistics data (SSD) and contain summary statistics on two groups of subjects, those from grade 4 and those from grade 5. Below we show how we created this summary statistics dataset.

See [SEM] **intro 11** for background on SSD.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 2 for creating a single-group dataset from published covariances. In this example, we will create a two-group dataset from published correlations, standard deviations, and means.

Marsh and Hocevar (1985) publish lots of SSD, of which we will enter the data for students in grade 4 and grade 5 found on pages 579–581. In that source, the authors published the correlations, standard deviations, and means of their variables.

We will set the data for the first group, declare that we have groups and wish to add another, and set the data for the second group.

Starting with the first group, we will issue the following commands:

```
ssd init variable names
ssd set obs values
ssd set means values
ssd set sd values
ssd set corr values
```

We will first set the end-of-line delimiter to a semicolon because we are going to have some long lines. We will be entering SSD for 16 variables!

```
. #delimit ;
delimiter now ;
. ssd init phyab1
                    phyab2
                             phyab3
                                      phyab4
>
           appear1 appear2 appear3
                                      appear4
>
           peerrel1 peerrel2 peerrel3 peerrel4
           parrel1 parrel2 parrel3 parrel4;
Summary statistics data initialized.
                                      Next use, in any order,
    ssd set observations (required)
        It is best to do this first.
    ssd set means (optional)
        Default setting is 0.
    ssd set variances or ssd set sd (optional)
        Use this only if you have set or will set correlations and, even
        then, this is optional but highly recommended. Default setting is 1.
    ssd set covariances or ssd set correlations (required)
```

```
. ssd set obs 134;
  (value set)
    Status:
                       observations:
                                        set
                              means: unset
                    variances or sd: unset
        covariances or correlations: unset (required to be set)
. ssd set means
      8.34 8.34 8.37 8.40 7.51 7.22 7.03 7.13
      8.44 7.62 7.06 7.89 9.32 9.39 8.69 9.13 ;
  (values set)
    Status:
                       observations:
                                        set
                              means:
                    variances or sd: unset
        covariances or correlations: unset (required to be set)
. ssd set sd
      1.90 1.75 2.06 1.88 2.30 2.63 2.71 2.42
      2.05 2.22 2.38 2.12 1.21 1.21 1.71 1.32 ;
  (values set)
    Status:
                       observations:
                                        set
                                        set
                              means:
                    variances or sd:
                                        set
        covariances or correlations: unset (required to be set)
. ssd set corr
     1.0 \
>
      .50 1.0 \
     .59 .46 1.0 \
      .58 .43 .66 1.0 \
      .30 .27 .35 .46 1.0 \
      .32 .34 .38 .39 .71 1.0 \
     .38 .41 .43 .53 .68 .67 1.0 \
    .23 .29 .33 .43 .61 .63 .73 1.0 \
     .43 .32 .40 .42 .36 .34 .45 .42 1.0 \
     .38 .40 .38 .49 .53 .61 .69 .59 .59 1.0 \
     .27 .24 .41 .37 .43 .46 .57 .57 .61 .59 1.0 \
     .43 .41 .37 .47 .51 .45 .63 .61 .59 .58 .65 1.0 \
      .20 .14 .15 .18 .22 .21 .13 .03 .15 .19 .12 .14 1.0 \
      .29 .18 .26 .20 .25 .29 .17 .25 .35 .23 .23 .28 .25 1.0 \
      .37 .14 .34 .37 .34 .34 .35 .33 .42 .36 .39 .39 .53 .50 1.0 \
      .13 .10 .16 .21 .33 .28 .23 .22 .23 .25 .23 .28 .46 .43 .59 1.0 ;
  (values set)
    Status:
                       observations:
                                       set.
                              means:
                    variances or sd:
                                       set
        covariances or correlations: set
. #delimit cr
delimiter now cr
```

We have now entered the data for the first group, and ssd reports that we have a fully set dataset.

Next we are going to add a second group by typing

The ssd set command now modifies the new group grade==2. If we needed to modify data for grade==1, we would place a 1 right after the set. For example,

```
. ssd set 1 means ...
```

values

. ssd set obs

We are not modifying data; however, we are now adding data for the second group. The procedure for entering the second group is the same as the procedure for entering the first group:

```
. ssd set means values
                     values
     . ssd set sd
     . ssd set corr values
We do that below.
     . #delimit;
     delimiter now ;
     . ssd set obs 251;
       (value set for group grade==2)
         Status for group grade==2:
                             observations:
                                              set
                                    means: unset
                          variances or sd: unset
             covariances or correlations: unset (required to be set)
     . ssd set corr
     >
           1.0 \
     >
           .31 1.0 \
     >
           .52 .45 1.0 \
           .54 .46 .70 1.0 \
     >
           .15 .33 .22 .21 1.0 \
           .14 .28 .21 .13 .72 1.0 \
           .16 .32 .35 .31 .59 .56 1.0 \
           .23 .29 .43 .36 .55 .51 .65 1.0 \
           .24 .13 .24 .23 .25 .24 .24 .30 1.0 \
           .19 .26 .22 .18 .34 .37 .36 .32 .38 1.0 \
           .16 .24 .36 .30 .33 .29 .44 .51 .47 .50 1.0 \
           .16 .21 .35 .24 .31 .33 .41 .39 .47 .47 .55 1.0 \
           .08 .18 .09 .12 .19 .24 .08 .21 .21 .19 .19 .20 1.0 \
           .01 -.01 .03 .02 .10 .13 .03 .05 .26 .17 .23 .26 .33 1.0
           .06 .19 .22 .22 .23 .24 .20 .26 .16 .23 .38 .24 .42 .40 1.0 \
```

.04 .17 .10 .07 .26 .24 .12 .26 .16 .22 .32 .17 .42 .42 .65 1.0 ;

set

means: unset
variances or sd: unset
covariances or correlations: set

```
. ssd set sd
                 1.84 1.94 2.07 1.82 2.34 2.61 2.48 2.34
                 1.71 1.93 2.18 1.94 1.31 1.57 1.77 1.47 ;
  (values set for group grade==2)
   Status for group grade==2:
                       observations:
                              means: unset
                    variances or sd:
                                        set
        covariances or correlations:
. ssd set means 8.20 8.23 8.17 8.56 7.41 7.00 7.17 7.40
                 8.81 7.94 7.52 8.29 9.35 9.13 8.67 9.00 ;
  (values set for group grade==2)
   Status for group grade==2:
                       observations:
                                        set
                              means:
                                        set
                    variances or sd:
                                        set
        covariances or correlations:
                                        set
. #delimit cr
delimiter now cr
```

We could stop here and save the data in a Stata dataset. We might type

. save sem_2fmmby

However, we intend to use these data as an example in this manual and online. Here is what you would see if you typed ssd describe:

```
. ssd describe
```

Summary statistics data 385 obs: 16 vars:

Obs. by group: 134, 251

variable name	variable label
phyab1	
phyab2	
phyab3	
phyab4	
appear1	
appear2	
appear3	
appear4	
peerrel1	
peerrel2	
peerrel3	
peerrel4	
parrel1	
parrel2	
parrel3	
parrel4	
Group variable: grad	e (2 groups)

We are going to label these data so that ssd describe can provide more information:

```
. label data "two-factor CFA"
. label var phyab1
                     "Physical ability 1"
. label var phyab2
                     "Physical ability 2"
. label var phyab3
                     "Physical ability 3"
. label var phyab4
                     "Physical ability 4"
                       "Appearance 1"
. label var appear1
. label var appear2
                      "Appearance 2"
. label var appear3
                      "Appearance 3"
                      "Appearance 4"
. label var appear4
. label var peerrel1
                      "Relationship w/ peers 1"
. label var peerrel2
                      "Relationship w/ peers 2"
                      "Relationship w/ peers 3"
. label var peerrel3
. label var peerrel4
                       "Relationship w/ peers 4"
                       "Relationship w/ parent 1"
. label var parrel1
. label var parrel2
                      "Relationship w/ parent 2"
. label var parrel3
                      "Relationship w/ parent 3"
. label var parrel4
                      "Relationship w/ parent 4"
. #delimit ;
delimiter now;
. notes: Summary statistics data from
         Marsh, H. W. and Hocevar, D., 1985,
         "Application of confirmatory factor analysis to the study of
         self-concept: First- and higher order factor models and their
         invariance across groups", _Psychological Bulletin_, 97: 562-582.;
. notes: Summary statistics based on
         134 students in grade 4 and
         251 students in grade 5
>
>
         from Sydney, Australia.;
. notes: Group 1 is grade 4, group 2 is grade 5.;
. notes: Data collected using the Self-Description Questionnaire
         and includes sixteen subscales designed to measure
         nonacademic traits: four intended to measure physical
>
         ability, four intended to measure physical appearance,
         four intended to measure relations with peers, and four
         intended to measure relations with parents.;
. #delimit cr
delimiter now cr
```

We would now save the dataset.

To see ssd describe's output with the data labeled, see [SEM] example 20.

Reference

Marsh, H. W., and D. Hocevar. 1985. Application of confirmatory factor analysis to the study of self-concept: First-and higher order factor models and their invariance across groups. *Psychological Bulletin* 97: 562–582.

Also see

```
[SEM] ssd — Making summary statistics data (sem only)[SEM] example 20 — Two-factor measurement model by group
```

```
example 20 — Two-factor measurement model by group
```

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

Below we demonstrate sem's group() option, which allows fitting models in which path coefficients and covariances differ across groups of the data, such as for males and females. We use the following data:

variable name	variable label
phyab1	Physical ability 1
phyab2	Physical ability 2
phyab3	Physical ability 3
phyab4	Physical ability 4
appear1	Appearance 1
appear2	Appearance 2
appear3	Appearance 3
appear4	Appearance 4
peerrel1	Relationship w/ peers 1
peerrel2	Relationship w/ peers 2
peerrel3	Relationship w/ peers 3
peerrel4	Relationship w/ peers 4
parrel1	Relationship w/ parent 1
parrel2	Relationship w/ parent 2
parrel3	Relationship w/ parent 3
parrel4	Relationship w/ parent 4

Group variable: grade (2 groups)

Obs. by group: 134, 251

. notes

_dta:

- Summary statistics data from Marsh, H. W. and Hocevar, D., 1985,
 "Application of confirmatory factor analysis to the study of
 self-concept: First- and higher order factor models and their invariance
 across groups", _Psychological Bulletin_, 97: 562-582.
- 2. Summary statistics based on 134 students in grade 4 and 251 students in grade 5 from Sydney, Australia.
- 3. Group 1 is grade 4, group 2 is grade 5.
- 4. Data collected using the Self-Description Questionnaire and includes sixteen subscales designed to measure nonacademic status: four intended to measure physical ability, four intended to measure physical appearance, four intended to measure relations with peers, and four intended to measure relations with parents.

Remarks and examples

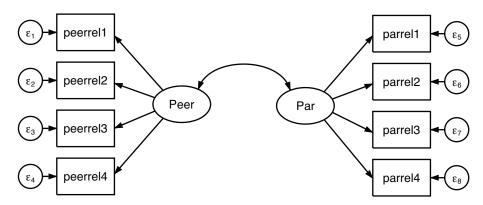
Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Background
Fitting the model with all the data
Fitting the model with the group() option
Fitting the model with the Builder

Background

See [SEM] intro 6 for background on sem's group() option.

We will fit the model



which in command syntax can be written as

```
(Peer -> peerrel1 peerrel2 peerrel3 peerrel4) ///
(Par -> parrel1 parrel2 parrel3 parrel4)
```

We are using the same data used in [SEM] **example 15**, but we are using more of the data and fitting a different model. To remind you, those data were collected from students in grade 5. The dataset we are using, however, has data for students from grade 4 and from grade 5, which was created in [SEM] **example 19**. We have the following observed variables:

- 1. Four measures of physical ability.
- 2. Four measures of appearance.
- 3. Four measures of quality of relationship with peers.
- 4. Four measures of quality of relationship with parents.

In this example, we will consider solely the measurement problem, and include only the measurement variables for the two kinds of relationship quality. We are going to treat quality of relationship with peers as measures of underlying factor Peer and quality of relationship with parents as measures of underlying factor Par.

Below we will

- 1. Fit the model with all the data. This amounts to assuming that the students in grades 4 and 5 are identical in terms of this measurement problem.
- 2. Fit the model with sem's group() option, which will constrain some parameters to be the same for students in grades 4 and 5 and leave free of constraint the others.

Fitting the model with all the data

Throughout this example, we want you to appreciate that we are using SSD and that matters not at all. Not one command would have a different syntax or option, or produce a different result, if we had the real data.

We begin by fitting the model with all the data:

```
. sem (Peer -> peerrel1 peerrel2 peerrel3 peerrel4)
     (Par -> parrel1 parrel2 parrel3 parrel4)
```

Endogenous variables

Measurement: peerrel1 peerrel2 peerrel3 peerrel4 parrel1 parrel2 parrel3 parrel4

Exogenous variables Latent: Peer Par Fitting target model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -5559.545Iteration 1: log likelihood = -5558.609 Iteration 2: log likelihood = -5558.6017 Iteration 3: log likelihood = -5558.6017

385 Structural equation model Number of obs

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -5558.6017

(1) [peerrel1]Peer = 1

(2) [parrel1]Par = 1

		OIM				_
	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measurement						
peerr~1 <-						
Peer	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	8.681221	.0937197	92.63	0.000	8.497534	8.864908
peerr~2 <-						
Peer	1.113865	.09796	11.37	0.000	.9218666	1.305863
_cons	7.828623	.1037547	75.45	0.000	7.625268	8.031979
peerr~3 <-						
Peer	1.42191	.114341	12.44	0.000	1.197806	1.646014
_cons	7.359896	.1149905	64.00	0.000	7.134519	7.585273
peerr~4 <-						
Peer	1.204146	.0983865	12.24	0.000	1.011312	1.39698
_cons	8.150779	.1023467	79.64	0.000	7.950183	8.351375
parrel1 <-						
Par	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	9.339558	.0648742	143.96	0.000	9.212407	9.46671
parrel2 <-						
Par	1.112383	.1378687	8.07	0.000	.8421655	1.382601
_cons	9.220494	.0742356	124.21	0.000	9.074994	9.365993
parrel3 <-						
Par	2.037924	.204617	9.96	0.000	1.636882	2.438966
_cons	8.676961	.088927	97.57	0.000	8.502667	8.851255
parrel4 <-						
Par	1.52253	.1536868	9.91	0.000	1.221309	1.82375
_cons	9.045247	.0722358	125.22	0.000	8.903667	9.186826

var(e.peer~1)	1.809309	.1596546			1.521956	2.150916
var(e.peer~2)	2.193804	.194494			1.843884	2.610129
var(e.peer~3)	1.911874	.214104			1.535099	2.381126
var(e.peer~4)	1.753037	.1749613			1.441575	2.131792
var(e.parr~1)	1.120333	.0899209			.9572541	1.311193
var(e.parr~2)	1.503003	.1200739			1.285162	1.757769
var(e.parr~3)	.9680081	.1419777			.7261617	1.290401
var(e.parr~4)	.8498834	.0933687			.685245	1.054078
var(Peer)	1.572294	.2255704			1.186904	2.082822
var(Par)	.5000022	.093189			.3469983	.7204709
cov(Peer,Par)	.4226706	.0725253	5.83	0.000	. 2805236	.5648176

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(19) = 28.19, Prob > chi2 = 0.0798

Note:

 We are using SSD with data for two separate groups. There is no hint of that in the output above because sem combined the summary statistics and produced overall results just as if we had the real data.

Fitting the model with the group() option

. sem (Peer -> peerrel1 peerrel2 peerrel3 peerrel4)

```
(Par -> parrel1 parrel2 parrel3 parrel4), group(grade)
Endogenous variables
              peerrel1 peerrel2 peerrel3 peerrel4 parrel1 parrel2 parrel3
Measurement:
              parrel4
Exogenous variables
Latent:
              Peer Par
Fitting target model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -13049.77
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -10819.682
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -8873.4568
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 3:
               log\ likelihood = -6119.7114
                                           (not concave)
               log\ likelihood = -5949.354
Iteration 4:
                                           (not concave)
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -5775.6085
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 6:
               log likelihood = -5713.9178
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 7:
               log likelihood = -5638.1208
                                           (not concave)
Iteration 8:
               log likelihood = -5616.6335 (not concave)
Iteration 9:
               log likelihood = -5595.7507 (not concave)
Iteration 10:
              log likelihood = -5589.9802 (not concave)
              log likelihood = -5578.8701 (not concave)
Iteration 11:
Iteration 12:
               log likelihood = -5574.0162
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 13:
              log likelihood = -5568.0786
Iteration 14: log likelihood = -5551.7349
Iteration 15: log likelihood = -5544.0052
Iteration 16: log likelihood = -5542.7113
Iteration 17: log likelihood = -5542.6775
Iteration 18: log likelihood = -5542.6774
Structural equation model
                                                Number of obs
                                                                           385
Grouping variable = grade
                                                Number of groups
                                                                             2
Estimation method = ml
Log likelihood
                   = -5542.6774
```

[mean(Par)]1bn.grade = 0

(20)

```
(1)
      [peerrel1]1bn.grade#c.Peer = 1
(2)
      [peerrel2]1bn.grade#c.Peer - [peerrel2]2.grade#c.Peer = 0
      [peerrel3]1bn.grade#c.Peer - [peerrel3]2.grade#c.Peer = 0
(3)
      [peerrel4]1bn.grade#c.Peer - [peerrel4]2.grade#c.Peer = 0
(4)
(5)
     [parrel1]1bn.grade#c.Par = 1
(6)
     [parrel2]1bn.grade#c.Par - [parrel2]2.grade#c.Par = 0
     [parrel3]1bn.grade#c.Par - [parrel3]2.grade#c.Par = 0
(7)
(8)
      [parrel4]1bn.grade#c.Par - [parrel4]2.grade#c.Par = 0
(9)
      [peerrel1]1bn.grade - [peerrel1]2.grade = 0
      [peerrel2]1bn.grade - [peerrel2]2.grade = 0
(10)
      [peerrel3]1bn.grade - [peerrel3]2.grade = 0
(11)
      [peerrel4]1bn.grade - [peerrel4]2.grade = 0
(12)
(13)
      [parrel1]1bn.grade - [parrel1]2.grade = 0
(14)
      [parrel2]1bn.grade - [parrel2]2.grade = 0
      [parrel3]1bn.grade - [parrel3]2.grade = 0
(15)
(16)
      [parrel4]1bn.grade - [parrel4]2.grade = 0
(17)
      [peerrel1]2.grade#c.Peer = 1
(18)
      [parrel1]2.grade#c.Par = 1
(19)
      [mean(Peer)]1bn.grade = 0
```

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measurement peerr~1 <-						
Peer [*] _cons	1	(constraine	ed)			
[*]	8.466539	.1473448	57.46	0.000	8.177748	8.755329
peerr~2 <- Peer						
[*] _cons	1.109234	.0975279	11.37	0.000	.9180833	1.300385
[*]	7.589872	.1632145	46.50	0.000	7.269977	7.909766
peerr~3 <- Peer						
[*] _cons	1.409361	.1138314	12.38	0.000	1.186256	1.632467
[*]	7.056996	.1964299	35.93	0.000	6.672001	7.441992
peerr~4 <- Peer						
[*] _cons	1.195982	.0980272	12.20	0.000	1.003852	1.388112
[*]	7.89358	.169158	46.66	0.000	7.562036	8.225123
parrel1 <- Par						
[*] _cons	1	(constraine	ed)			
[*]	9.368654	.0819489	114.32	0.000	9.208037	9.529271
parrel2 <- Par						
[*]	1.104355	.1369365	8.06	0.000	.8359649	1.372746
_cons [*]	9.287629	.0903296	102.82	0.000	9.110587	9.464672

parrel3 <-						
Par						
[*]	2.05859	.2060583	9.99	0.000	1.654723	2.462457
_cons						
[*]	8.741898	.136612	63.99	0.000	8.474144	9.009653
parrel4 <-						
Par						
[*]	1.526706	.1552486	9.83	0.000	1.222424	1.830987
_cons						
[*]	9.096609	.1061607	85.69	0.000	8.888538	9.30468
mean(Peer)						
1	0	(constraine	ed)			
2	.3296841	.1570203	2.10	0.036	.02193	.6374382
mean(Par)						
1	0	(constraine				
2	0512439	.0818255	-0.63	0.531	211619	.1091313
var(e.peer~1)						
1	1.824193	.2739446			1.359074	2.448489
2	1.773813	.1889104			1.439644	2.185549
<pre>var(e.peer~2)</pre>						
1	2.236974	.3310875			1.673699	2.989817
2	2.165228	.2321565			1.75484	2.671589
var(e.peer~3)						
1	1.907009	.3383293			1.346908	2.700023
2	1.950679	.2586196			1.504298	2.529516
var(e.peer~4)	1 620001	070764			1 10267	0 071005
2	1.639881 1.822448	.272764 .2151827			1.18367 1.445942	2.271925 2.296992
var(e.parr~1)	1.022440	.2151021			1.445942	2.290992
var(e.parr 1)	.9669121	.1302489			.7425488	1.259067
2	1.213159	.1192634			1.000547	1.470949
var(e.parr~2)	1,770100	.1102001			2,00001	11110010
1	.9683878	.133192			.7395628	1.268012
2	1.79031	.1747374			1.478596	2.167739
<pre>var(e.parr~3)</pre>						
1	.8377567	.1986089			.526407	1.333258
2	1.015707	.1713759			.7297073	1.4138
var(e.parr~4)						
1	.8343032	.1384649			.6026352	1.15503
2	.8599648	.1165865			.6592987	1.121706
var(Peer)						
1	2.039297	.3784544			1.41747	2.933912
2	1.307976	.2061581			.9603661	1.781406
var(Par)	4400000	1011505			0000076	6005400
1 2	.4492996 .5201696	.1011565 .1029353			.2889976 .3529413	.6985183 .7666329
	.0201030	.1023000			.0023413	.1000029
<pre>cov(Peer,Par)</pre>						
1	.5012091	.1193333	4.20	0.000	.2673201	.7350982
2	.3867156	.079455	4.87	0.000	.2309867	.5424445

Note: [*] identifies parameter estimates constrained to be equal across groups.

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(50) = 61.91, Prob > chi2 = 0.1204

Notes:

1. In Which parameters vary by default, and which do not in [SEM] intro 6, we wrote that, generally speaking, when we specify group(groupvar), the measurement part of the model is constrained by default to be the same across the groups, whereas the remaining parts will have separate parameters for each group.

More precisely, we revealed that sem classifies each parameter into one of nine classes, which are the following:

Class description	Class nar	ne
1. structural coefficients	scoef	
2. structural intercepts	scons	
3. measurement coefficients	mcoef	
4. measurement intercepts	mcons	
5. covariances of structural errors	serrvar	
6. covariances of measurement errors	merrvar	
7. covariances between structural and measurement errors	smerrco	V
8. means of exogenous variables	meanex	(*)
9. covariances of exogenous variables	covex	(*)
10. all the above	all	(*)
11. none of the above	none	

(*) Be aware that classes 8, 9, and 10 (meanex, covex, and all) exclude the observed exogenous variables—include only the latent exogenous variables—unless you specify option noxconditional or the noxconditional option is otherwise implied; see [SEM] sem option noxconditional. This is what you would desire in most cases.

By default, classes 3 and 4 are constrained to be equal and the rest are allowed to vary.

- 2. Thus you might expect that most of the parameters of our model would have been left unconstrained until you remember that we are fitting a measurement model. That is why sem listed 20 constraints at the top of the estimation results. Some of the constraints are substantive and some are normalization.
- 3. In the output, paths listed with an asterisk are constrained to be equal across groups.
 - Paths labeled with group 1 and group 2 are group specific (unconstrained).
 - In our data, group 1 corresponds with students in grade 4, and group 2 corresponds with students in grade 5.
- 4. It may surprise you that the output contains estimates for the means of the latent variables. Usually, sem does not report this.
 - Usually, you are running on only one group of data and those means cannot be estimated, at least not without additional identifying constraints. When you are running on two or more groups, the means for all the groups except one can be estimated.

In [SEM] example 21, we use estat ggof to evaluate goodness of fit group by group.

In [SEM] example 22, we use estat ginvariant to test whether parameters that are constrained across groups should not be and whether parameters that are not constrained could be.

In [SEM] example 23, we show how to constrain the parameters we choose to be equal across groups.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_2fmmby
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Create the measurement component for relationships with peers.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, $\overline{\mathbb{Y}}$, and then click in the diagram about halfway down from the top and about one-third of the way in from the left.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to Peer;
- select peerrel1, peerrel2, peerrel3, and peerrel4 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. select Left in the Measurement direction control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

4. Create the measurement component for relationships with parents.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, \overline{Y} , and then click in the diagram about halfway down from the top and about one-third of the way in from the right.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to Par;
- select parrel1, parrel2, parrel3, and parrel4 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. select Right in the Measurement direction control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 5. Correlate the latent variables.
 - a. Select the Add Covariance tool, \square.
 - b. Click in the upper-right quadrant of the Peer oval (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a covariance to the upper-left quadrant of the Per oval (it will highlight when you can release to connect the covariance).

6. Clean up.

If you do not like where a covariance has been connected to its variable, use the Select tool, to click on the covariance, and then simply click on where it connects to an oval and drag the endpoint. You can also change the bow of the covariance by dragging the control point that extends from one end of the selected covariance.

7. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button. in the Standard Toolbar.

In the resulting dialog box, do the following:

- a. Select the Group tab.
- b. Select the *Group analysis* radio button. The variable grade should appear in the *Group variable* control.
- c. Click on OK.
- d. In the Standard Toolbar, use the *Group* control to toggle between results for group 1 and group 2.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_2fmmby

Reference

Acock, A. C. 2013. Discovering Structural Equation Modeling Using Stata. Rev. ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press.

Also see

[SEM] example 3 — Two-factor measurement model

[SEM] example 19 — Creating multiple-group summary statistics data

[SEM] example 21 — Group-level goodness of fit

[SEM] example 22 — Testing parameter equality across groups

[SEM] example 23 — Specifying parameter constraints across groups

[SEM] **intro 6** — Comparing groups (sem only)

[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] sem group options — Fitting models on different groups

Title

```
example 21 — Group-level goodness of fit
```

Description

Remarks and examples

Also see

Description

Below we demonstrate the estat ggof command, which may be used after sem with the group() option. estat ggof displays group-by-group goodness-of-fit statistics.

We pick up where [SEM] example 20 left off:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_2fmmby

Remarks and examples

. estat ggof

Group-level fit statistics

	N	SRMR	CD
grade 1 2	134 251	0.088 0.056	0.969 0.955

Note: group-level chi-squared are not reported because of constraints between groups.

Notes:

- 1. Reported are the goodness-of-fit tests that estat gof, stats(residuals) would report. The difference is that they are reported for each group rather than overall.
- 2. If the fit is good, then SRMR (standardized root mean squared residual) will be close to 0 and CD (the coefficient of determination) will be near 1.

It is also appropriate to run estat gof to obtain overall results:

. estat gof, stats(residuals)

Fit statistic	Value	Description
Size of residuals SRMR CD	0.074 0.958	Standardized root mean squared residual Coefficient of determination

Also see

```
[SEM] example 20 — Two-factor measurement model by group
```

[SEM] example 4 — Goodness-of-fit statistics

[SEM] estat ggof — Group-level goodness-of-fit statistics

[SEM] estat gof — Goodness-of-fit statistics

Title

```
example 22 — Testing parameter equality across groups
```

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

Below we demonstrate estat ginvariant to test parameters across groups.

We pick up where [SEM] example 20 left off:

Remarks and examples

We use estat ginvariant to test whether parameters that are constrained to be equal across groups should not be and whether parameters that are not constrained across groups could be.

. estat ginvariant $\\ \mbox{Tests for group invariance of parameters}$

	chi2	Wald Test	p>chi2	chi2	Score Test	p>chi2
Measurement peerr~1 <-						
Peer				2.480	1	0.1153
_cons		•	•	0.098	1	0.7537
peerr~2 <-						
Peer		•		0.371	1	0.5424
_cons		•	•	0.104	1	0.7473
peerr~3 <-						
Peer			•	2.004	1	0.1568
_cons	•	•	•	0.002	1	0.9687
peerr~4 <-						
Peer			•	0.239	1	0.6246
_cons	•	•	•	0.002	1	0.9611
parrel1 <-						
Par			•	0.272	1	0.6019
_cons		•	•	0.615	1	0.4329
parrel2 <-						
Par			•	0.476	1	0.4903
_cons	•	•	•	3.277	1	0.0703
parrel3 <-						
Par		•	•	3.199	1	0.0737
_cons		•	•	1.446	1	0.2291
parrel4 <-						
Par				2.969	1	0.0849
_cons	•	•	•	0.397	1	0.5288
<pre>var(e.peer~1)</pre>	0.024	1	0.8772	•		
var(e.peer~2)	0.033	1	0.8565		•	•
var(e.peer~3)	0.011	1	0.9152		•	•
var(e.peer~4)	0.294	1	0.5879	•	•	•
var(e.parr~1)	1.981	1	0.1593	•	•	•
var(e.parr~2)	14.190	1	0.0002	•	•	•
var(e.parr~3)	0.574	1	0.4486	•	•	•
var(e.parr~4)	0.022	1 1	0.8813	•	•	•
var(Peer)	4.583 0.609	1	0.0323	•	•	•
var(Par)	0.609	1	0.4350	•	•	•
<pre>cov(Peer,Par)</pre>	0.780	1	0.3772	•	•	

Notes:

- 1. In the output above, score tests are reported for parameters that were constrained. The null hypothesis is that the constraint is valid. None of the tests reject a valid constraint.
- 2. Wald tests are reported for parameters that were not constrained. The null hypothesis is that a constraint would be valid. Only in two cases does it appear that grade 4 differs from grade 5, namely, the variance of e.parrel2 and the variance of Peer.

3. We remind you that these tests are marginal tests. That is, each test is intended to be interpreted separately. These are not joint tests of simultaneous imposition or relaxation of constraints. If you want simultaneous tests, you must do them yourself by using, for instance, the test command.

If joint tests of parameter classes are desired, the class option can be used.

These results imply that none of the constraints we impose should be relaxed, and that perhaps we could constrain all the variances and covariances to be equal across groups except for the variances of e.parrel2 and Peer. We do that in [SEM] example 23.

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 20 — Two-factor measurement model by group
    [SEM] example 23 — Specifying parameter constraints across groups
    [SEM] estat ginvariant — Tests for invariance of parameters across groups
```

Title

example 23 — Specifying parameter constraints across groups

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

Below we demonstrate how to constrain the parameters we want constrained to be equal across groups when using sem with the group() option.

We pick up where [SEM] example 22 left off:

The estat ginvariant command implied that perhaps we could constrain all the variances and covariances to be equal across groups except for the variances of e.parrel2 and Peer.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Background Fitting the constrained model

Background

We can specify which parameters we wish to allow to vary. Remember that sem's group() option classifies the parameters of the model as follows:

Class description	Class nan	ne
1. structural coefficients	scoef	
2. structural intercepts	scons	
3. measurement coefficients	mcoef	
4. measurement intercepts	mcons	
5. covariances of structural errors	serrvar	
6. covariances of measurement errors	merrvar	
7. covariances between structural and measurement errors	smerrco	J
8. means of exogenous variables	meanex	(*)
9. covariances of exogenous variables	covex	(*)
10. all the above	all	(*)
11. none of the above	none	

^(*) Exogenous variables means just the latent exogenous variables unless you specify sem option noxconditional or you specify option method(mlmv) (which implies option noxconditional); see [SEM] sem option noxconditional.

When fitting a model with the group() option,

```
. sem ..., ... group(varname)
```

you may also specify the ginvariant() option:

```
. sem ..., ... group(varname) ginvariant(class names)
```

You may specify any of the class names as being ginvariant(). You may specify as many class names as you wish. When you specify ginvariant(), sem cancels its default actions on which parameters vary and which do not, and uses the information you specify. All classes that you do not mention as being ginvariant() are allowed to vary across groups.

By using ginvariant(), you can constrain, or free by your silence, whole classes of parameters. For instance, you could type

```
. sem ..., group(mygroup) ginvariant(mcoef mcons serrvar)
```

and you are constraining those parameters to be equal across groups and leaving unconstrained scoef, scons, merrvar, smerrcov, meanex, and covex.

In addition, if a class is constrained, you can still unconstrain individual coefficients. Consider the model

```
. sem ... (x1<-L) ...
```

If you typed

```
. sem ... (1: x1<-L@a1) (2: x1<-L@a2) ..., group(mygroup) ginvariant(all)
```

then all estimated parameters would be the same across groups except for the path x1<-L, and it would be free to vary in groups 1 and 2.

By the same token, if a class is unconstrained, you can still constrain individual coefficients. If you typed

```
. sem ... (1: x1<-L@a) (2: x1<-L@a) ..., group(mygroup) ginvariant(none)
```

then you would leave unconstrained all parameters except the path x1<-L, and it would be constrained to be equal in groups 1 and 2.

This is all discussed in [SEM] **intro 6**, including how to constrain and free variance and covariance parameters.

Fitting the constrained model

In our case, we wish to fit our model:

We impose constraints on all parameters except the variances of e.parrel2 and Peer. We can do that by typing

```
. sem (Peer -> peerrel1 peerrel2 peerrel3 peerrel4)
      (Par -> parrel1 parrel2 parrel3 parrel4),
                     group(grade)
>
>
                     ginvariant(all)
>
                     var(1: e.parrel2@v1)
                     var(2: e.parrel2@v2)
                     var(1: Peer@v3)
                     var(2: Peer@v4)
Endogenous variables
              peerrel1 peerrel2 peerrel3 peerrel4 parrel1 parrel2 parrel3
Measurement:
              parrel4
Exogenous variables
Latent:
              Peer Par
Fitting target model:
               log likelihood = -5560.9934
Iteration 0:
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -5552.3122
Iteration 2:
             log likelihood = -5549.5391
Iteration 3:
               log likelihood = -5549.3528
Iteration 4:
               log likelihood = -5549.3501
               log likelihood = -5549.3501
Iteration 5:
                                                                            385
Structural equation model
                                                 Number of obs
Grouping variable = grade
                                                 Number of groups
Estimation method = ml
                   = -5549.3501
Log likelihood
       [peerrel1]1bn.grade#c.Peer = 1
 (2)
       [peerrel2]1bn.grade#c.Peer - [peerrel2]2.grade#c.Peer = 0
       [peerrel3]1bn.grade#c.Peer - [peerrel3]2.grade#c.Peer = 0
 (3)
       [peerrel4]1bn.grade#c.Peer - [peerrel4]2.grade#c.Peer = 0
 (4)
 (5)
       [parrel1]1bn.grade#c.Par = 1
 (6)
       [parrel2]1bn.grade#c.Par - [parrel2]2.grade#c.Par = 0
 (7)
       [parrel3]1bn.grade#c.Par - [parrel3]2.grade#c.Par = 0
 (8)
       [parrel4]1bn.grade#c.Par - [parrel4]2.grade#c.Par = 0
 (9)
       [var(e.peerrel1)]1bn.grade - [var(e.peerrel1)]2.grade = 0
       [var(e.peerrel2)]1bn.grade - [var(e.peerrel2)]2.grade = 0
 (10)
       [var(e.peerrel3)]1bn.grade - [var(e.peerrel3)]2.grade = 0
 (11)
 (12)
       [var(e.peerrel4)]1bn.grade - [var(e.peerrel4)]2.grade = 0
 (13)
       [var(e.parrel1)]1bn.grade - [var(e.parrel1)]2.grade = 0
 (14)
       [var(e.parrel3)]1bn.grade - [var(e.parrel3)]2.grade = 0
 (15)
       [var(e.parrel4)]1bn.grade - [var(e.parrel4)]2.grade = 0
       [cov(Peer,Par)]1bn.grade - [cov(Peer,Par)]2.grade = 0
 (16)
 (17)
       [var(Par)]1bn.grade - [var(Par)]2.grade = 0
       [peerrel1]1bn.grade - [peerrel1]2.grade = 0
 (18)
       [peerrel2]1bn.grade - [peerrel2]2.grade = 0
 (19)
       [peerrel3]1bn.grade - [peerrel3]2.grade = 0
 (20)
 (21)
       [peerrel4]1bn.grade - [peerrel4]2.grade = 0
 (22)
       [parrel1]1bn.grade - [parrel1]2.grade = 0
 (23)
       [parrel2]1bn.grade - [parrel2]2.grade = 0
 (24)
       [parrel3]1bn.grade - [parrel3]2.grade = 0
 (25)
       [parrel4]1bn.grade - [parrel4]2.grade = 0
 (26)
       [peerrel1]2.grade#c.Peer = 1
 (27)
       [parrel1]2.grade#c.Par = 1
```

		OIM				
	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measurement peerr~1 <- Peer						
[*]	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons [*]	8.708274	.0935844	93.05	0.000	8.524852	8.891696
peerr~2 <-						
Peer [*]	1.112225	.0973506	11.42	0.000	.9214217	1.303029
_cons [*]	7.858713	.1035989	75.86	0.000	7.655663	8.061763
peerr~3 <-						
Peer [*]	1.416486	.113489	12.48	0.000	1.194052	1.638921
_cons [*]	7.398217	.1147474	64.47	0.000	7.173316	7.623118
peerr~4 <-						
Peer [*]	1.196494	.0976052	12.26	0.000	1.005191	1.387796
_cons [*]	8.183148	.1021513	80.11	0.000	7.982936	8.383361
parrel1 <-						
Par [*]	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons [*]	9.339558	.0648742	143.96	0.000	9.212407	9.46671
parrel2 <-						
Par [*]	1.100315	.1362999	8.07	0.000	.8331722	1.367458
_cons [*]	9.255299	.0725417	127.59	0.000	9.11312	9.397478
parrel3 <-						
Par [*]	2.051278	.2066714	9.93	0.000	1.64621	2.456347
_cons [*]	8.676961	.088927	97.57	0.000	8.502667	8.851255
parrel4 <-						
Par [*]	1.529938	.154971	9.87	0.000	1.2262	1.833675
_cons [*]	9.045247	.0722358	125.22	0.000	8.903667	9.186826

var(e.peer~1)	4 700400	450050			4 540000	0.420502
[*]	1.799133	.159059			1.512898	2.139523
var(e.peer~2)						
[*]	2.186953	.193911			1.838086	2.602035
var(e.peer~3)						
[*]	1.915661	.2129913			1.54056	2.382094
var(e.peer~4)						
[*]	1.767354	.1746104			1.45622	2.144965
var(e.parr~1)						
[*]	1.125082	.0901338			.9615942	1.316366
var(e.parr~2)						
1	.9603043	.13383			.730775	1.261927
2	1.799668	. 1747351			1.487807	2.176898
var(e.parr~3)						
[*]	.9606889	.1420406			.7190021	1.283617
var(e.parr~4)						
[*]	.8496935	.0933448			.6850966	1.053835
var(Peer)						
1	1.951555	.3387796			1.388727	2.742489
2	1.361431	.2122853			1.002927	1.848084
var(Par)						
[*]	. 4952527	.0927994			.3430288	.7150281
cov(Peer,Par)						
[*]	.4096197	.0708726	5.78	0.000	.2707118	.5485275

Note: [*] identifies parameter estimates constrained to be equal across groups.

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(61) = 75.25, Prob > chi2 = 0.1037

Notes:

1. In [SEM] example 20, we previously fit this model by typing

```
. sem (...) (...), group(grade)
```

This time, we typed

```
. sem (...) (...), group(grade)
                                         ///
                                         ///
                ginvariant(all)
                var(1: e.parrel2@v1)
                                         ///
                var(2: e.parrel2@v2)
                                         ///
                var(1: Peer@v3)
                                         ///
                var(2: Peer@v4)
```

2. Previously, sem, group() mentioned 20 constraints that it imposed because of normalization or because of assumed ginvariant(mcoef mcons).

This time, sem, group() mentioned 27 constraints. It applied more constraints because we specified ginvariant(all).

3. After the ginvariant (all) option, we relaxed the following constraints:

```
var(1: e.parrel2@v1)
var(2: e.parrel2@v2)
var(1: Peer@v3)
var(2: Peer@v4)
```

ginvariant(all) specified, among other constraints, that

```
var(1: e.parrel2) == var(2: e.parrel2)
var(1: Peer) == var(2: Peer)
```

ginvariant (all) did that by secretly issuing the options

```
var(1: e.parrel2@secretname1)
var(2: e.parrel2@secretname1)
var(1: Peer@secretname2)
var(2: Peer@secretname2)
```

because that is how you impose equality constraints with the path notation. When we specified

```
var(1: e.parrel2@v1)
var(2: e.parrel2@v2)
var(1: Peer@v3)
var(2: Peer@v4)
```

our new constraints overrode the secretly issued constraints. It would not have worked to leave off the symbolic names; see [SEM] sem path notation extensions. We specified the symbolic names v1, v2, v3, and v4. v1 and v2 overrode secretname I, and thus the constraint that var(e.parrel2) be equal across the two groups was relaxed. v3 and v4 overrode secretname2, and thus the constraint that var(Peer) be equal across groups was relaxed.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 20 — Two-factor measurement model by group
[SEM] example 22 — Testing parameter equality across groups
[SEM] intro 6 — Comparing groups (sem only)
[SEM] sem group options — Fitting models on different groups
```

example 24 — Reliability

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

Below we demonstrate sem's reliability() option with the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/sem_rel
 (measurement error with known reliabilities)
- . summarize

Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
1234	701.081	71.79378	487	943
1234	100.278	14.1552	51	149
1234	100.2066	14.50912	55	150
	1234 1234	1234 701.081 1234 100.278	1234 701.081 71.79378 1234 100.278 14.1552	1234 701.081 71.79378 487 1234 100.278 14.1552 51

. notes

_dta:

- 1. Fictional data.
- Variables x1 and x2 each contain a test score designed to measure X. The test is scored to have mean 100.
- 3. Variables x1 and x2 are both known to have reliability 0.5.
- 4. Variable y is the outcome, believed to be related to X.

See [SEM] sem and gsem option reliability() for background.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Baseline model (reliability ignored)
Model with reliability
Model with two measurement variables and reliability

Baseline model (reliability ignored)

. sem $(y \leftarrow x1)$

Endogenous variables

Observed: y

Exogenous variables

Observed: x1

Fitting target model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -11629.745
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -11629.745

Structural equation model Number of obs = 1234

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -11629.745

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural y <-						
x1	3.54976	.1031254	34.42	0.000	3.347637	3.751882
_cons	345.1184	10.44365	33.05	0.000	324.6492	365.5876
var(e.y)	2627.401	105.7752			2428.053	2843.115

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(0) = 0.00, Prob > chi2 =

Notes:

- 1. In these data, variable x1 is measured with error.
- 2. If we ignore that, we obtain a path coefficient for y < -x1 of 3.55.
- 3. We also ran this model for y < -x2. We obtained a path coefficient of 3.48.

Model with reliability

```
. sem (x1<-X) (y<-X), reliability(x1 .5)
```

Endogenous variables
Measurement: x1 y
Exogenous variables
Latent: X

Fitting target model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -11745.845
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -11661.626
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -11631.469
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -11629.755
Iteration 4: log likelihood = -11629.745
Iteration 5: log likelihood = -11629.745

Structural equation model Number of obs = 1234

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -11629.745

(1) [x1]X = 1

 $(2) [var(e.x1)]_{cons} = 100.1036$

		Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measur x1 <							
	Х	1	(constrain	ed)			
	_cons	100.278	.4027933	248.96	0.000	99.4885	101.0674
y <-							
	Х	7.09952	.352463	20.14	0.000	6.408705	7.790335
	_cons	701.081	2.042929	343.17	0.000	697.077	705.0851
va	r(e.x1)	100.1036	(constrain	ed)			
v	rar(e.y)	104.631	207.3381			2.152334	5086.411
	var(X)	100.1036	8.060038			85.48963	117.2157

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(0) =

0.00, Prob > chi2 =

Notes:

- 1. We wish to estimate the effect of y<-x1 when x1 is measured with error (0.50 reliability). To do that, we introduce latent variable X and write our model as (x1<-X) (y<-X).
- 2. When we ignored the measurement error of x1, we obtained a path coefficient for y<-x1 of 3.55. Taking into account the measurement error, we obtain a coefficient of 7.1.

Model with two measurement variables and reliability

```
. sem (x1 x2<-X) (y<-X), reliability(x1 .5 x2 .5)
```

Endogenous variables
Measurement: x1 x2 y
Exogenous variables
Latent: X

Fitting target model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -16258.636
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -16258.401
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -16258.4

Structural equation model Number of obs = 1234

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -16258.4

- (1) [x1]X = 1
- $(2) [var(e.x1)]_{cons} = 100.1036$
- $(3) [var(e.x2)]_{cons} = 105.1719$

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measurement						
x1 <-						
Х	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	100.278	.4037851	248.34	0.000	99.48655	101.0694
x2 <-						
Х	1.030101	.0417346	24.68	0.000	.9483029	1.1119
_cons	100.2066	.4149165	241.51	0.000	99.39342	101.0199
y <-						
X	7.031299	.2484176	28.30	0.000	6.544409	7.518188
_cons	701.081	2.042928	343.17	0.000	697.077	705.0851
var(e.x1)	100.1036	(constraine	ed)			
var(e.x2)	105.1719	(constraine	ed)			
var(e.y)	152.329	105.26			39.31868	590.1553
var(X)	101.0907	7.343656			87.67509	116.5591

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(2) = 0.59, Prob > chi2 = 0.7430

Notes:

- 1. We wish to estimate the effect of y<-X. We have two measures of X—x1 and x2—both measured with error (0.50 reliability).
- 2. In the previous section, we used just x1. We obtained path coefficient 7.1 with standard error 0.4. Using both x1 and x2, we obtain path coefficient 7.0 and standard error 0.2.
- 3. We at StataCorp created these fictional data. The true coefficient is 7.

Also see

[SEM] sem and gsem option reliability() — Fraction of variance not due to measurement error [SEM] example 1 — Single-factor measurement model

Title

example 25 — Creating summary statistics data from raw data

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

Below we show how to create summary statistics data (SSD) from raw data. We use auto2.dta:

```
. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/auto2
(1978 Automobile Data)
. describe
  (output omitted)
. summarize
  (output omitted)
```

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Preparing data for conversion Converting to summary statistics form Publishing SSD Creating SSD with multiple groups

We are going to create SSD containing the variables price, mpg, weight, displacement, and foreign.

Preparing data for conversion

Before building the SSD, prepare the data to be converted:

- 1. Drop variables that you do not intend to include in the SSD. Dropping variables is not a requirement, but it will be easier to spot problems if you begin by eliminating the irrelevant variables.
- 2. Verify that you have no string variables in the resulting data. Summary statistics datasets cannot contain string values.
- 3. Verify that there are no missing values. If there are, be aware that observations containing one or more variables with missing values will be omitted from the SSD.
- 4. Verify that all variables are on a reasonable scale. We recommend that the means of variables be only 3 or 4 orders of magnitude different from each other. This will help to preserve numerical accuracy when the SSD are used.
- 5. Create any new variables containing transformations of existing variables that might be useful later. Once the data are converted to summary statistics form, you will not be able to create such variables.
- 6. Place the variables in a logical order. That will help the user of the SSD understand the data.
- 7. Save the resulting prepared data. Probably you will never need the prepared data, but one never knows for sure.

We take our own advice below:

. * ------

. * Suggestion 1: Keep relevant variables:

. keep price mpg weight displacement foreign

. * Suggestion 2: Check for string variables

. * Suggestion 3: Verify no missing values

. * Suggestion 4: Verify variables on a reasonable scale:

. summarize

Variable	0bs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
price	74	6165.257	2949.496	3291	15906
mpg	74	21.2973	5.785503	12	41
weight	74	3019.459	777.1936	1760	4840
displacement	74	197.2973	91.83722	79	425
foreign	74	.2972973	.4601885	0	1

. * We will rescale weight and price:

. replace weight = weight/1000

weight was int now float

(74 real changes made)

. replace price = price/1000 price was int now float (74 real changes made)

. label var weight "Weight (1000s lbs.)"

. label var price "Price (\$1,000s)"

. * and now we check our work:

. summarize

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
price	74	6.165257	2.949496	3.291	15.906
mpg	74	21.2973	5.785503	12	41
weight	74	3.019459	.7771936	1.76	4.84
displacement	74	197.2973	91.83722	79	425
foreign	74	.2972973	.4601885	0	1

. * Suggestion 5: Create useful transformations:

. gen gpm = 1/mpg

. label var gpm "Gallons per mile"

```
* -----
```

. * Suggestion 6: Place variables in logical order:

*

. order price mpg gpm

. summarize

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
price	74	6.165257	2.949496	3.291	15.906
mpg	74	21.2973	5.785503	12	41
gpm	74	.0501928	.0127986	.0243902	.0833333
weight	74	3.019459	.7771936	1.76	4.84
displacement	74	197.2973	91.83722	79	425
foreign	74	.2972973	.4601885	0	1

. . * -----

. * Suggestion 7: save prepared data

. save auto_raw

file auto_raw.dta saved

. * -----

Converting to summary statistics form

To create the summary statistics dataset, you just need to type sud build and the names of the variables to be included. If you have previously kept the relevant variables, you can type ssd build _all.

We recommend the following steps:

- 1. Convert data to summary statistics form:
 - . ssd build _all
- 2. Review the result:
 - . ssd describe
 - . notes
 - . ssd list
- 3. Digitally sign the data:
 - . datasignature set
- 4. Save the data:
 - . save auto_ss

We follow our advice below. After that, we will show you the advantages of digitally signing the data.

- . * -----
- . * Convert data:
- . *
- . ssd build _all

(data in memory now summary statistics data; you can use **ssd describe** and **ssd list** to describe and list results.)

```
. * Review results:
. ssd describe
 Summary statistics data
   obs:
                   74
  vars:
                                     (_dta has notes)
 variable name
                             variable label
 price
                             Price ($1,000s)
                             Mileage (mpg)
 mpg
                             Gallons per mile
 gpm
                             Weight (1000s lbs.)
 weight
 displacement
                             Displacement (cu. in.)
 foreign
                             Car type
. notes
_dta:
 1. summary statistics data built from 'auto_raw.dta' on 30 Jun 2012 15:32:33
     using -ssd build _all-
. ssd list
 Observations = 74
 Means:
               mpg gpm weight displacement 21.297297 .0501928 3.0194595 197.2973
       price
    6.1652567
      foreign
     .2972973
 Variances implicitly defined; they are the diagonal of the covariance
 matrix.
 Covariances:
                                           weight displacement
       price
                      mpg
                                   gpm
    8.6995258
   -7.9962828 33.472047
.02178417 -.06991586
1.2346748 -3.6294262
                             .0001638
                           .0001638
.00849897 .60402985
    134.06705 -374.92521
                            .90648519
                                          63.87345 8434.0748
               1.0473899 -.00212897 -.21202888 -25.938912
    .06612809
      foreign
    .21177342
. * -----
. * Digitally sign:
. *
. datasignature set
 8:8(102846):1810957193:2605039657 (data signature set)
. * Save:
. save auto ss
file auto_ss.dta saved
. * ------
```

We recommend digitally signing the data. This way, anyone can verify later that the data are unchanged:

```
. datasignature confirm
 (data unchanged since 30jun2012 15:32)
```

Let us show you what would happen if the data had changed:

```
. replace mpg = mpg+.0001 in 5
(1 real change made)
. datasignature confirm
  data have changed since 30jun2012 15:34
r(9):
```

There is no reason for you or anyone else to change the SSD after it has been created, so we recommend that you digitally sign the data. With regular datasets, users do make changes, if only by adding variables.

Be aware that the data signature is a function of the variable names, so if you rename a variable—something you are allowed to do—the signature will change and datasignature will report, for example, "data have changed since 30jun2012 15:34". Solutions to that problem are discussed in [SEM] ssd.

Publishing SSD

The summary statistics dataset you have just created can obviously be sent to and used by any Stata user. If you wish to publish your data in printed form, use ssd describe and ssd list to describe and list the data.

Creating SSD with multiple groups

The process for creating SSD containing multiple groups is nearly the same as for creating single-group data. The only differences are that you do not drop the group variable during preparation and that rather than typing

```
. ssd build _all
you type
    . ssd build _all, group(varname)
```

Below we build the automobile SSD again, but this time, we specify group (rep78):

```
. ssd build _all, group(rep78)
```

If you think carefully about this, you may be worried that _all includes rep78 and thus we will be including the grouping variable among the summary statistics. ssd build knows to omit the group variable:

. * -----

- . * Suggestion 2: Check for string variables
- . * Suggestion 3: Verify no missing values
- . * Suggestion 4: Verify variables on a reasonable scale:

. *

. summarize

Variable	0bs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
price	74	6165.257	2949.496	3291	15906
mpg	74	21.2973	5.785503	12	41
rep78	69	3.405797	.9899323	1	5
weight	74	3019.459	777.1936	1760	4840
displacement	74	197.2973	91.83722	79	425
foreign	74	.2972973	.4601885	0	1

. drop if rep78 >= .

(5 observations deleted)

- . * We will rescale weight and price:
- . replace weight = weight/1000

weight was int now float

(69 real changes made)

. replace price = price/1000
price was int now float
(69 real changes made)

- . label var weight "Weight (1000s lbs.)"
- . label var price "Price (\$1,000s)"
- . * and now we check our work:
- . summarize

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
price	69	6.146043	2.91244	3.291	15.906
mpg	69	21.28986	5.866408	12	41
rep78	69	3.405797	.9899323	1	5
weight	69	3.032029	.7928515	1.76	4.84
displacement	69	198	93.14789	79	425
foreign	69	.3043478	.4635016	0	1

* -----

. * Suggestion 5: Create useful transformations:

. gen gpm = 1/mpg

. label var gpm "Gallons per mile"

. . * ------

. * Suggestion 6: Place variables in logical order:

. *

. order price mpg gpm

. summarize

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
price	69 69	6.146043 21.28986	2.91244 5.866408	3.291 12	15.906 41
mpg gpm	69	.0502584	.0128353	.0243902	.0833333
rep78 weight	69 69	3.405797 3.032029	.9899323 .7928515	1 1.76	5 4.84
displacement	69	198	93.14789	79	425
foreign	69	.3043478	.4635016	0	1

```
. * Suggestion 7: save prepared data
. save auto_group_raw
file auto_group_raw.dta saved
. * Convert data:
. ssd build _all, group(rep78)
 (data in memory now summary statistics data; you can use ssd describe and
  ssd list to describe and list results.)
  * Review results:
. ssd describe
  Summary statistics data
    obs:
   vars:
                       6
                                          (_dta has notes)
  variable name
                                  variable label
  price
                                  Price ($1,000s)
                                  Mileage (mpg)
  mpg
                                  Gallons per mile
  gpm
                                  Weight (1000s lbs.)
  weight
                                  Displacement (cu. in.)
  displacement
  foreign
                                  Car type
  Group variable: rep78 (5 groups)
   Obs. by group: 2, 8, 30, 18, 11
. notes
_dta:
      summary statistics data built from 'auto_group_raw.dta' on 30 Jun 2012
      15:32:33 using -ssd build _all, group(rep78)-
. ssd list
Group rep78==Poor:
 (output omitted)
Group rep78==Fair:
 (output omitted)
Group rep78==Average:
 (output omitted)
Group rep78==Good:
 (output omitted)
Group rep78==Excellent:
  Observations = 11
  Means:
                                                  weight displacement
         price
                         mpg
                                        gpm
                                .04048131 2.3227273 111.09091
                   27.363636
         5.913
       foreign
     .81818182
```

Variances implicitly defined; they are the diagonal of the covariance matrix.

```
Covariances:
                                        weight displacement
      price
                   mpg
                               gpm
  6.8422143
           76.254545
 -15.608899
                       .00019114
             -.1184875
  .02750797
    .956802 -3.0610912
                         .00510833 .16856184
  55.493298 -201.03636
                         .33150758
                                    9.9577283
                                                 648.09091
                                     .07254547
  .34169998
            -.92727273
                         .00182175
                                                 3.8181818
    foreign
  .16363636
```

```
. * -----
. * Digitally sign:
. datasignature set
40:8(34334):2463066775:1212422464 (data signature set)
. * -----
. * Save:
. save auto_group_ss
```

file auto_group_ss.dta saved

Also see

[SEM] ssd — Making summary statistics data (sem only)

Title

example 26 — Fitting a model with data missing at random

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

sem method(mlmv) is demonstrated using

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/cfa_missing
 (CFA MAR data)
- . summarize

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
id	500	250.5	144.4818	1	500
test1	406	97.37475	13.91442	56.0406	136.5672
test2	413	98.04501	13.84145	62.25496	129.3881
test3	443	100.9699	13.4862	65.51753	137.3046
test4	417	99.56815	14.25438	53.8719	153.9779
taken	500	3.358	.6593219	2	4

. notes

_dta:

- 1. Fictional data on 500 subjects taking four tests.
- 2. Tests results M.A.R. (missing at random).
- 3. 230 took all 4 tests
- 4. 219 took 3 of the 4 tests
- 5. 51 took 2 of the 4 tests
- 6. All tests have expected mean 100, s.d. 14.

See [SEM] intro 4 for background.

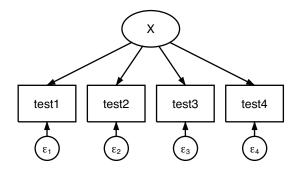
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the model with method(ml)
Fitting the model with method(mlmv)
Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting the model with method(ml)

We fit a single-factor measurement model.



. sem (test1 test2 test3 test4 <- X), nolog (270 observations with missing values excluded)

Endogenous variables

Measurement: test1 test2 test3 test4

Exogenous variables

Latent: Х

Structural equation model Number of obs 230

Estimation method = ml

Log likelihood = -3464.3099

(1) [test1]X = 1

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measurement						
test1 <-	_	,	-1			
Х	1	(constraine		0 000	05 47407	00 00040
_cons	96.76907	.8134878	118.96	0.000	95.17467	98.36348
test2 <-						
Х	1.021885	.1183745	8.63	0.000	.789875	1.253895
_cons	92.41248	.8405189	109.95	0.000	90.7651	94.05987
test3 <-						
X	.5084673	.0814191	6.25	0.000	.3488889	.6680457
_cons	94.12958	.7039862	133.71	0.000	92.7498	95.50937
test4 <-						
Х	.5585651	.0857772	6.51	0.000	.3904449	.7266853
_cons	92.2556	.7322511	125.99	0.000	90.82042	93.69079
var(e.test1)	55.86083	10.85681			38.16563	81.76028
var(e.test2)	61.88092	11.50377			42.985	89.08338
var(e.test3)	89.07839	8.962574			73.13566	108.4965
var(e.test4)	93.26508	9.504276			76.37945	113.8837
var(X)	96.34453	16.28034			69.18161	134.1725

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(2) = 0.39, Prob > chi2 = 0.8212

Notes:

- 1. This model was fit using 230 of the 500 observations in the dataset. Unless you use sem's method(mlmv), observations are casewise omitted, meaning that if there is a single variable with a missing value among the variables being used, the observation is ignored.
- 2. The coefficients for test3 and test4 are 0.51 and 0.56. Because we at StataCorp manufactured these data, we can tell you that the true coefficients are 1.
- 3. The error variance for e.test1 and e.test2 are understated. These data were manufactured with an error variance of 100.
- 4. These data are missing at random (MAR), not missing completely at random (MCAR). In MAR data, which values are missing can be a function of the observed values in the data. MAR data can produce biased estimates if the missingness is ignored, as we just did. MCAR data do not bias estimates.

Fitting the model with method(mlmv)

```
. sem (test1 test2 test3 test4 <- X), method(mlmv) nolog
```

Endogenous variables

Measurement: test1 test2 test3 test4

Exogenous variables

Latent: X
 (output omitted)

Structural equation model Number of obs = 500

Estimation method = mlmv Log likelihood = -6592.9961

(1) [test1]X = 1

	T	0.714				
	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Measurement						
test1 <-						
Х	1	(constrain	ed)			
_cons	98.94386	.6814418	145.20	0.000	97.60826	100.2795
test2 <-						
Х	1.069952	.1079173	9.91	0.000	.8584378	1.281466
_cons	99.84218	.6911295	144.46	0.000	98.48759	101.1968
test3 <-						
Х	.9489025	.0896098	10.59	0.000	.7732706	1.124534
_cons	101.0655	.6256275	161.54	0.000	99.83928	102.2917
test4 <-						
Х	1.021626	.0958982	10.65	0.000	.8336687	1.209583
_cons	99.64509	.6730054	148.06	0.000	98.32603	100.9642
var(e.test1)	101.1135	10.1898			82.99057	123.1941
<pre>var(e.test2)</pre>	95.45572	10.79485			76.47892	119.1413
<pre>var(e.test3)</pre>	95.14847	9.053014			78.9611	114.6543
<pre>var(e.test4)</pre>	101.0943	10.0969			83.12124	122.9536
var(X)	94.04629	13.96734			70.29508	125.8225

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(2) = 2.27, Prob > chi2 = 0.3209

Notes:

- 1. The model is now fit using all 500 observations in the dataset.
- 2. The coefficients for test3 and test4—previously 0.51 and 0.56—are now 0.95 and 1.02.
- 3. Error variance estimates are now consistent with the true value of 100.
- 4. Standard errors of path coefficients are mostly smaller than reported in the previous model.
- 5. method(mlmv) requires that the data be MCAR or MAR.
- 6. method(mlmv) requires that the data be multivariate normal.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/cfa_missing
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Create the measurement component for X.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, \(^{\mathbb{Y}}\), and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way down from the top and about halfway in from the left.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to X;
- b. select test1, test2, test3, and test4 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. select Down in the Measurement direction control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

4. Estimate.

Click on the Estimate button, I, in the Standard Toolbar. In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Model tab:
- b. select the Maximum likelihood with missing values radio button;
- c. click on OK.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem cfa_missing

Also see

```
[SEM] intro 4 — Substantive concepts
```

[SEM] sem option method() — Specifying method and calculation of VCE

example 27g — Single-factor measurement model (generalized response)

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

This is the first example in the g series. The g means that the example focuses exclusively on the gsem command. If you are interested primarily in standard linear SEMs, you may want to skip the remaining examples. If you are especially interested in generalized SEMs, we suggest you read the remaining examples in order.

gsem provides two features not provided by sem: the ability to fit SEMs containing generalized linear response variables and the ability to fit multilevel mixed SEMs. These two features can be used separately or together.

Generalized response variables means that the response variables can be specifications from the generalized linear model (GLM). These include probit, logistic regression, ordered probit and logistic regression, multinomial logistic regression, and more.

Multilevel mixed models refer to the simultaneous handling of group-level effects, which can be nested or crossed. Thus you can include unobserved and observed effects for subjects, subjects within group, group within subgroup, ..., or for subjects, group, subgroup,

Below we demonstrate a single-factor measure model with pass/fail (binary outcome) responses rather than continuous responses. This is an example of a generalized linear response variable. We use the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_1fmm
 (single-factor pass/fail measurement model)
- . summarize

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
x1	123	.4065041	.4931897	0	1
x2	123	.4065041	.4931897	0	1
x3	123	.4227642	.4960191	0	1
x4	123	.3495935	.4787919	0	1
s4	123	690.9837	77.50737	481	885

. notes

_dta:

- 1. Fictional data.
- 2. The variables x1, x2, x3, and x4 record 1=pass, 0=fail.
- 3. Pass/fail for x1, x2, x3: score > 100
- 4. Pass/fail for x4: score > 725
- 5. Variable s4 contains actual score for test 4.

See Single-factor measurement models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

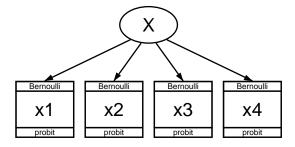
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Single-factor pass/fail measurement model Single-factor pass/fail + continuous measurement model Fitting the model with the Builder

Single-factor pass/fail measurement model

Below we fit the following model:



The measurement variables we have (x1, ..., x4) are not continuous. They are pass/fail, coded as 1 (pass) and 0 (fail). To account for that, we use probit (also known as family Bernoulli, link probit). The equations for this model are

$$\begin{aligned} &\Pr(x_1 = 1) = \Phi(\alpha_1 + X\beta_1) \\ &\Pr(x_2 = 1) = \Phi(\alpha_2 + X\beta_2) \\ &\Pr(x_3 = 1) = \Phi(\alpha_3 + X\beta_3) \\ &\Pr(x_4 = 1) = \Phi(\alpha_4 + X\beta_4) \end{aligned}$$

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the N(0,1) cumulative distribution.

One way to think about this is to imagine a test that is scored on a continuous scale. Let's imagine the scores were s_1 , s_2 , s_3 , and s_4 and distributed $N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$, as test scores often are. Let's further imagine that for each test, a cutoff c_i is chosen and the student passes the test if $s_i \geq c_i$.

If we had the test scores, we would fit this as a linear model. We would posit

$$s_i = \gamma_i + X\delta_i + \epsilon_i$$

where $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma_i^2)$. However, we do not have test scores in our data; we have only the pass/fail results $x_i = 1$ if $s_i > c_i$.

So let's consider the pass/fail problem. The probability that a student passes test i is determined by the probability that the student scores above the cutoff:

$$\begin{split} \Pr(s_i > c_i) &= \Pr(\gamma_i + X\delta_i + \epsilon_i > c_i) \\ &= \Pr\{\, \epsilon_i > c_i - (\gamma_i + X\delta_i) \,\} \\ &= \Pr\{\, -\epsilon_i \leq -c_i + (\gamma_i + X\delta_i) \,\} \\ &= \Pr\{\, -\epsilon_i \leq (\gamma_i - c_i) + X\delta_i \,\} \\ &= \Pr\{\, -\epsilon_i / \sigma_i \leq (\gamma_i - c_i) / \sigma_i + X\delta_i / \sigma_i \,\} \\ &= \Phi\{\, (\gamma_i - c_i) / \sigma_i + X\delta_i / \sigma_i \,\} \end{split}$$

The last equation is the probit model. In fact, we just derived the probit model, and now we know the relationship between the parameters we will be able to estimate with our pass/fail data: α_i and β_i . We also now know the parameters we could have estimated if we had the continuous test scores: γ_i and δ_i . The relationship is

$$\alpha_i = (\gamma_i - c_i)/\sigma_i$$
$$\beta_i = \delta_i/\sigma_i$$

Notice that the right-hand sides of both equations are divided by σ_i , the standard deviation of the error term from the linear model for the *i*th test score. In pass/fail data, we lose the original scale of the score, and the slope coefficient we will be able to estimate is the slope coefficient from the linear model divided by the standard deviation of the error term. Meanwhile, the intercept we will be able to estimate is just the difference of the continuous model's intercept and the cutoff for passing the test, sans scale.

The command to fit the model and the results are

```
. gsem (x1 x2 x3 x4 \leftarrowX), probit
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -329.82091
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -329.57665
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -329.57664
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -273.75437
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -273.75437
               log likelihood = -264.3035
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -263.37815
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood =
Iteration 3:
                                   -262.305
Iteration 4:
               log\ likelihood = -261.69025
               log\ likelihood = -261.42132
Iteration 5:
Iteration 6:
               log\ likelihood = -261.35508
               log likelihood = -261.3224
Iteration 7:
Iteration 8:
               log\ likelihood = -261.3133
               log likelihood = -261.30783
Iteration 9:
Iteration 10:
               log\ likelihood = -261.30535
Iteration 11:
               log likelihood = -261.30405
Iteration 12:
               log\ likelihood = -261.30337
Iteration 13:
               log likelihood = -261.30302
Iteration 14:
               log likelihood = -261.30283
Iteration 15:
               log\ likelihood = -261.30272
               log likelihood = -261.30267
Iteration 16:
Iteration 17:
               log likelihood = -261.30264
               log\ likelihood = -261.30263
Iteration 18:
```

Generalized structural equation model Number of obs 123 Log likelihood = -261.30263

(1) $\lceil x1 \rceil X = 1$

		Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
x1 <-							
	Х	1	(constraine	d)			
	_cons	3666763	.1896773	-1.93	0.053	738437	.0050844
x2 <-							
	Х	1.33293	.4686743	2.84	0.004	.4143455	2.251515
	_cons	4470271	.2372344	-1.88	0.060	911998	.0179438
x3 <-							
	Х	.6040478	.1908343	3.17	0.002	.2300195	.9780761
	_cons	2276709	.1439342	-1.58	0.114	5097767	.0544349
x4 <-							
	Х	9.453342	5.151819	1.83	0.067	6440375	19.55072
	_cons	-4.801027	2.518038	-1.91	0.057	-9.736291	.1342372
	var(X)	2.173451	1.044885			.847101	5.576536

Notes:

- 1. In the path diagrams, x1, ..., x4 are shown as being family Bernoulli, link probit. On the command line, we just typed probit although we could have typed family(bernoulli) link(probit). In the command language, probit is a synonym for family(bernoulli) link(probit).
- 2. Variable X is latent exogenous and thus needs a normalizing constraint. The variable is anchored to the first observed variable, x1, and thus the path coefficient is constrained to be 1. See Identification 2: Normalization constraints (anchoring) in [SEM] intro 4.
- 3. The path coefficients for X->x1, X->x2, and X->x3 are 1, 1.33, and 0.60. Meanwhile, the path coefficient for X->x4 is 9.45. This is not unexpected; we at StataCorp generated these fictional data, and we made the x4 effect large and less precisely estimable.

Single-factor pass/fail + continuous measurement model

In the above example, all equations were probit. Different equations within a single SEM can have a different family and link.

Below we refit our model with the continuous measure for test 4 (variable s4) in place of the pass/fail measure (variable x4). We continue to use the pass/fail measures for tests 1, 2, and 3.

```
. gsem (x1 x2 x3 <-X, probit) (s4<-X)
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -959.23492
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -959.09499
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood = -959.09499
Refining starting values:
               log likelihood = -905.14944
Grid node 0:
Fitting full model:
```

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -905.14944(not concave)

 $log\ likelihood = -872.33773$ Iteration 1:

```
      Iteration 2:
      log likelihood = -869.83144

      Iteration 3:
      log likelihood = -869.69578

      Iteration 4:
      log likelihood = -869.68928

      Iteration 5:
      log likelihood = -869.6892
```

Generalized structural equation model Number of obs = 123

Log likelihood = -869.6892

(1) [x1]X = 1

		Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
x1 <-							
	Х	1	(constraine	d)			
	_cons	4171085	.1964736	-2.12	0.034	8021896	0320274
x2 <-							
	Х	1.298311	.3280144	3.96	0.000	.6554142	1.941207
	_cons	4926357	.2387179	-2.06	0.039	9605142	0247573
x3 <-							
	Х	. 682969	.1747328	3.91	0.000	.3404989	1.025439
	_cons	2942021	.1575014	-1.87	0.062	6028992	.0144949
s4 <-							
	Х	55.24829	12.19904	4.53	0.000	31.3386	79.15798
	_cons	690.9837	6.960106	99.28	0.000	677.3422	704.6253
	var(X)	1.854506	.7804393			.812856	4.230998
va	r(e.s4)	297.8565	408.64			20.24012	4383.299

Notes:

- 1. We obtain similar coefficients for $x1, \ldots, x3$.
- 2. We removed x4 (a pass/fail variable) and substituted s4 (the actual test score). s4 turns out to be more significant than x4. This suggests a poor cutoff was set for "passing" test 4.
- 3. The log-likelihood values for the two models we have fit are strikingly different: -261 in the previous model and -870 in the current model. The difference has no meaning. Log-likelihood values are dependent on the model specified. We changed the fourth equation from a probit specification to a continuous (linear-regression) specification, and just doing that changes the metric of the log-likelihood function. Comparisons of log-likelihood values are only meaningful when they share the same metric.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in Single-factor pass/fail measurement model above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_1fmm
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the button.

4. Create the measurement component for X.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, \overline{Y} , and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way down from the top and slightly left of the center.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to X;
- b. select x1, x2, x3, and x4 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. check Make measurements generalized;
- d. select Bernoulli, Probit in the Family/Link control;
- e. select Down in the Measurement direction control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

5. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

- 6. To fit the model in *Single-factor pass/fail + continuous measurement model*, modify the diagram created in the previous steps.
 - a. Use the Select tool, , to click on the x4 rectangle.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, select s4 in the Variable control.
 - c. In the Contextual Toolbar, select Gaussian, Identity in the Family/Link control.
- 7. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, [15], in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem ${\tt gsem_1fmm}$

Also see

```
[SEM] example 1 — Single-factor measurement model
```

[SEM] example 28g — One-parameter logistic IRT (Rasch) model

[SEM] example 29g — Two-parameter logistic IRT model

[SEM] example 30g — Two-level measurement model (multilevel, generalized response)

[SEM] example 31g — Two-factor measurement model (generalized response)

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

Title

example 28g — One-parameter logistic IRT (Rasch) model

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

To demonstrate a one-parameter logistic IRT (Rasch) model, we use the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_cfa (Fictional math abilities data)
- . summarize

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
school	500	10.5	5.772056	1	20
id	500	50681.71	29081.41	71	100000
q1	500	.506	.5004647	0	1
q2	500	.394	.4891242	0	1
q3	500	.534	.4993423	0	1
q4	500	.424	.4946852	0	1
q5	500	.49	.5004006	0	1
q6	500	.434	.4961212	0	1
q 7	500	.52	.5001002	0	1
q8	500	.494	.5004647	0	1
att1	500	2.946	1.607561	1	5
att2	500	2.948	1.561465	1	5
att3	500	2.84	1.640666	1	5
att4	500	2.91	1.566783	1	5
att5	500	3.086	1.581013	1	5
test1	500	75.548	5.948653	55	93
test2	500	80.556	4.976786	65	94
test3	500	75.572	6.677874	50	94
test4	500	74.078	8.845587	43	96

[.] notes

dta:

- Fictional data on math ability and attitudes of 500 students from 20 schools.
- 2. Variables q1-q8 are incorrect/correct (0/1) on individual math questions.
- Variables att1-att5 are items from a Likert scale measuring each student's attitude toward math.
- 4. Variables test1-test4 are test scores from tests of four different aspects of mathematical abilities. Range of scores: 0-100.

These data record results from a fictional instrument measuring mathematical ability. Variables q1 through q8 are the items from the instrument.

For discussions of Rasch models, IRT models, and their extensions, see Embretson and Reise (2000), van der Linden and Hambleton (1997), Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2004), Andrich (1988), Bond and Fox (2007), and Fischer and Molenaar (1995). Although not demonstrated in this example, many of the extensions discussed in these books can be fit with gsem as well.

See Item-response theory (IRT) models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

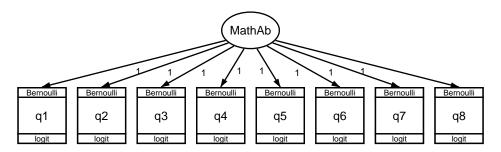
Remarks are presented under the following headings:

1-PL IRT model with unconstrained variance 1-PL IRT model with variance constrained to 1 Obtaining item-characteristic curves Fitting the model with the Builder

1-PL IRT model with unconstrained variance

Mechanically speaking, one-parameter logistic (1-PL) IRT models are similar to the probit measurement model we demonstrated in [SEM] **example 27g**. The differences are that we will use logit rather than probit and that we will place various constraints on the logit model to obtain results that will allow us to judge the difficulty of the individual questions.

The model we wish to fit is



In the 1-PL model, we place constraints that all coefficients, the factor loadings, are equal to 1. The negative of the intercept for each question will then represent the difficulty of the question:

```
. gsem (MathAb -> (q1-q8)@1), logit
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
                log\ likelihood = -2750.3114
Iteration 1:
                log likelihood = -2749.3709
Iteration 2:
                log likelihood = -2749.3708
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
                log\ likelihood = -2653.2353
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
                log\ likelihood = -2653.2353
Iteration 1:
                log\ likelihood = -2651.2171
                log\ likelihood = -2650.9117
Iteration 2:
Iteration 3:
                log\ likelihood = -2650.9116
Generalized structural equation model
                                                     Number of obs
                                                                                500
Log likelihood = -2650.9116
 (1)
       [q1]MathAb = 1
 (2)
       [q2]MathAb = 1
 (3)
       [q3]MathAb = 1
 (4)
       [q4]MathAb = 1
 (5)
       [q5]MathAb = 1
 (6)
       [q6]MathAb = 1
       [q7]MathAb = 1
 (7)
 (8)
       [q8]MathAb = 1
                              Std. Err.
                                                              [95% Conf. Interval]
                     Coef.
                                                   P>|z|
                                              7.
q1 <-
      MathAb
                             (constrained)
                  .0293252
                              .1047674
                                           0.28
                                                   0.780
                                                            -.1760152
                                                                           .2346656
       _cons
q2 <-
      MathAb
                             (constrained)
                         1
                              .1068768
                 -.5025012
                                          -4.70
                                                   0.000
                                                            -.7119759
                                                                         -.2930264
       _cons
q3 <-
      MathAb
                         1
                             (constrained)
       _cons
                  .1607425
                               .104967
                                           1.53
                                                   0.126
                                                              -.044989
                                                                           .3664739
q4 <-
      MathAb
                             (constrained)
                         1
       _cons
                 -.3574951
                               .105835
                                          -3.38
                                                   0.001
                                                              -.564928
                                                                         -.1500623
q5 <-
      MathAb
                             (constrained)
                              .1047812
                                                            -.2510274
       _cons
                 -.0456599
                                          -0.44
                                                   0.663
                                                                           .1597075
q6 <-
                             (constrained)
      MathAb
                         1
       _cons
                 -.3097521
                              .1055691
                                          -2.93
                                                   0.003
                                                            -.5166637
                                                                         -.1028404
q7 <-
                             (constrained)
      MathAb
                         1
                    .09497
                              .1048315
                                           0.91
                                                   0.365
                                                             -.1104959
                                                                            .300436
       _cons
q8 <-
```

(constrained)

-0.26

0.797

-.232254

.6154407

.1784332

1.02171

.1047691

.1025406

1

-.0269104

.7929701

MathAb

var(MathAb)

_cons

Notes:

- 1. We had to use gsem and not sem to fit this model because the response variables were 0/1 and not continuous and because we wanted to use logit and not a continuous model.
- 2. To place the constraints that all coefficients are equal to 1, in the diagram we placed 1s along the path from the underlying latent factor MathAb to each of the questions. In the command language, we added @1 to our command:

```
gsem (MathAb -> (q1-q8)@1), logit
```

Had we omitted the Q1, we would have obtained coefficients about how well each question measured math ability.

There are several ways we could have asked that the model above be fit. They include the following:

```
gsem (MathAb -> q1@1 q2@1 q3@1 q4@1 q5@1 q6@1 q7@1 q8@1), logit
gsem (MathAb -> (q1 q2 q3 q4 q5 q6 q7 q8)@1), logit
gsem (MathAb -> (q1-q8)@1), logit
```

Similarly, for the shorthand logit, we could have typed family(bernoulli) link(logit).

3. The negative of the reported intercept represents the difficulty of the item. The most difficult is q2, and the least difficult is q3.

1-PL IRT model with variance constrained to 1

The goal of the 1-PL model is in fact to constrain the loadings to be equal. In the previous model, that was achieved by constraining them to be 1 and letting the variance of the latent variable float. An alternative with perhaps easier-to-interpret results would constrain the variance of the latent variable to be 1—giving it a standard-normal interpretation—and constrain the loadings to be merely equal:

```
. gsem (MathAb -> (q1-q8)@b), logit var(MathAb@1)
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -2750.3114
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -2749.3709
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood = -2749.3708
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log likelihood = -2645.8536
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -2656.1973
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -2650.9139
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood = -2650.9116
Iteration 3:
               log\ likelihood = -2650.9116
                                                                            500
Generalized structural equation model
                                                   Number of obs
Log likelihood = -2650.9116
 (1)
       [q1]MathAb - [q8]MathAb = 0
 (2)
       [q2]MathAb - [q8]MathAb = 0
 (3)
       [q3]MathAb - [q8]MathAb = 0
 (4)
       [q4]MathAb - [q8]MathAb = 0
       [q5]MathAb - [q8]MathAb = 0
 (5)
       [q6]MathAb - [q8]MathAb = 0
 (6)
       [q7]MathAb - [q8]MathAb = 0
 (7)
 (8)
       [var(MathAb)]_{cons} = 1
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
q1 <-						
MathAb	.8904887	.0575755	15.47	0.000	.7776429	1.003335
_cons	.0293253	.1047674	0.28	0.780	1760151	.2346657
q2 <-						
MathAb	.8904887	.0575755	15.47	0.000	.7776429	1.003335
_cons	5025011	.1068768	-4.70	0.000	7119758	2930264
q3 <-						
MathAb	.8904887	.0575755	15.47	0.000	.7776429	1.003335
_cons	.1607425	.104967	1.53	0.126	044989	.366474
q4 <-						
MathAb	.8904887	.0575755	15.47	0.000	.7776429	1.003335
_cons	3574951	.105835	-3.38	0.001	5649279	1500622
q5 <-						
MathAb	.8904887	.0575755	15.47	0.000	.7776429	1.003335
_cons	0456599	.1047812	-0.44	0.663	2510273	.1597076
q6 <-						
MathAb	.8904887	.0575755	15.47	0.000	.7776429	1.003335
_cons	309752	.1055691	-2.93	0.003	5166637	1028403
q7 <-						
MathAb	.8904887	.0575755	15.47	0.000	.7776429	1.003335
_cons	.0949701	.1048315	0.91	0.365	1104959	.300436
q8 <-						
MathAb	.8904887	.0575755	15.47	0.000	.7776429	1.003335
_cons	0269103	.1047691	-0.26	0.797	232254	.1784333
var(MathAb)	1	(constraine	d)			

Notes:

- 1. The log-likelihood values of both models is -2650.9116. The models are equivalent.
- 2. Intercepts are unchanged.

Obtaining item-characteristic curves

Item—characteristic curves graph the conditional probability of a particular response given the latent trait. In our case, this simply amounts to graphing the probability of a correct answer against math ability. After estimation, we can obtain the predicted probabilities of a correct answer by typing

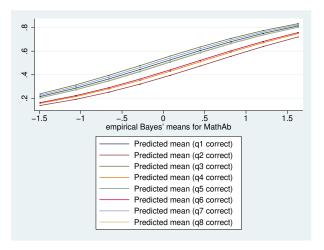
```
. predict pr*, pr
(using 7 quadrature points)
```

We can obtain the predicted value of the latent variable by typing

```
. predict ability, latent(MathAb)
(using 7 quadrature points)
```

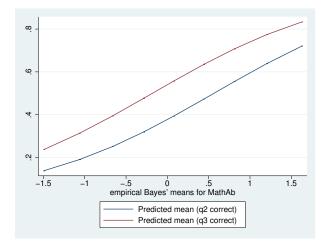
and thus we can obtain the item-characteristic curves for all eight questions by typing

. twoway line pr1 pr2 pr3 pr4 pr5 pr6 pr7 pr8 ability, sort xlabel(-1.5(.5)1.5)



A less busy graph might show merely the most difficult and least difficult questions:

. twoway line pr2 pr3 ability, sort xlabel(-1.5(.5)1.5)



The slopes of each curve are identical because we have constrained them to be identical. Thus we just see the shift between difficulties with the lower items having higher levels of difficulty.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in 1-PL IRT model with unconstrained variance above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_cfa
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Create the measurement component for MathAb.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, $\overline{\mathbf{w}}$, and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way down from the top and slightly left of the center.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to MathAb;
- b. select q1, q2, q3, q4, q5, q6, q7, and q8 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. check Make measurements generalized;
- d. select Bernoulli, Logit in the Family/Link control;
- e. select Down in the Measurement direction control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 5. Constrain all path coefficients to 1.
 - a. Choose the Select tool, .
 - b. Click on the path from MathAb to q1. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1 in the β box and press *Enter*.
 - c. Repeat this process to add the 1 constraint on the paths from MathAb to each of the other measurement variables.
- 6. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

- 7. To fit the model in 1-PL IRT model with variance constrained to 1, change the constraints in the diagram created above.
 - a. From the SEM Builder menu, select **Estimation > Clear Estimates** to clear results from the previous model.
 - b. Choose the Select tool, .
 - c. Click on the path from MathAb to q1. In the Contextual Toolbar, type b in the β box and press *Enter*.
 - d. Repeat this process to add the b constraint on the paths from MathAb to each of the other measurement variables.
 - e. With $^{\triangleright}$, click on the oval for MathAb. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1 in the $^{\triangle}\sigma^2$ box and press *Enter*.
- 8. Estimate again.

Click on the **Estimate** button, **\overline{\mathbb{E}}**, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder for the first model by typing

. webgetsem gsem_irt1

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder for the second model by typing

. webgetsem gsem_irt2

References

Andrich, D. 1988. Rasch Models for Measurement. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Bond, T. G., and C. M. Fox. 2007. Applying the Rasch Model: Fundamental Measurement in the Human Sciences. 2nd ed. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Embretson, S. E., and S. P. Reise. 2000. Item Response Theory for Psychologists. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Fischer, G. H., and I. W. Molenaar, ed. 1995. Rasch Models: Foundations, Recent Developments, and Applications. New York: Springer.

Rasch, G. 1960. Probabilistic Models for Some Intelligence and Attainment Tests. Copenhagen: Danish Institute of Educational Research.

Skrondal, A., and S. Rabe-Hesketh. 2004. Generalized Latent Variable Modeling: Multilevel, Longitudinal, and Structural Equation Models. Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall/CRC.

van der Linden, W. J., and R. K. Hambleton, ed. 1997. Handbook of Modern Item Response Theory. New York: Springer.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 27g — Single-factor measurement model (generalized response)
```

[SEM] example 29g — Two-parameter logistic IRT model

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] **predict after gsem** — Generalized linear predictions, etc.

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

Title

example 29g — Two-parameter logistic IRT model

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

We demonstrate a two-parameter logistic (2-PL) IRT model with the same data used in [SEM] example 28g:

. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_cfa
(Fictional math abilities data)

. summarize

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
school	500	10.5	5.772056	1	20
id	500	50681.71	29081.41	71	100000
q1	500	.506	.5004647	0	1
q2	500	.394	.4891242	0	1
q3	500	.534	.4993423	0	1
q4	500	.424	.4946852	0	1
q5	500	.49	.5004006	0	1
q6	500	.434	.4961212	0	1
q7	500	.52	.5001002	0	1
q8	500	.494	.5004647	0	1
att1	500	2.946	1.607561	1	5
att2	500	2.948	1.561465	1	5
att3	500	2.84	1.640666	1	5
att4	500	2.91	1.566783	1	5
att5	500	3.086	1.581013	1	5
test1	500	75.548	5.948653	55	93
test2	500	80.556	4.976786	65	94
test3	500	75.572	6.677874	50	94
test4	500	74.078	8.845587	43	96

. notes

_dta:

- Fictional data on math ability and attitudes of 500 students from 20 schools.
- 2. Variables q1-q8 are incorrect/correct (0/1) on individual math questions.
- Variables att1-att5 are items from a Likert scale measuring each student's attitude toward math.
- 4. Variables test1-test4 are test scores from tests of four different aspects of mathematical abilities. Range of scores: 0-100.

These data record results from a fictional instrument measuring mathematical ability. Variables q1 through q8 are the items from the instrument.

For discussions of IRT models and their extensions, see Embretson and Reise (2000), van der Linden and Hambleton (1997), Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2004), and Rabe-Hesketh, Skrondal, and Pickles (2004).

See Item-response theory (IRT) models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

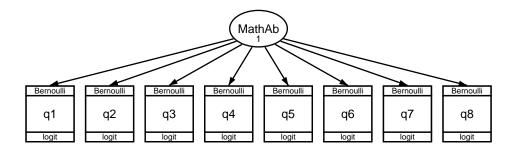
Fitting the 2-PL IRT model
Obtaining predicted difficulty and discrimination
Using coeflegend to obtain the symbolic names of the parameters
Graphing item-characteristic curves
Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting the 2-PL IRT model

When we fit the 1-PL model, we commented that it was similar to the probit measure model we demonstrated in [SEM] **example 27g**. The 1-PL model differed in that it used logit rather than probit, and it placed constraints on the loadings to judge the difficulty of the individual questions.

The 2-PL model is even more similar to [SEM] **example 27g**. We still substitute logit for probit, but we only constrain the variance (the latent variable) to be 1—we leave the loadings unconstrained—and we constrain the variance to be 1 merely to aid interpretation. Compared with the 1-PL example, this time we will measure not just difficulty but discrimination as well.

The model we wish to fit is



The results are

```
. gsem (MathAb -> q1-q8), logit var(MathAb@1)
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
                log\ likelihood = -2750.3114
Iteration 1:
                log\ likelihood = -2749.3709
Iteration 2:
                log\ likelihood = -2749.3708
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
                log\ likelihood = -2645.8536
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
                log\ likelihood = -2645.8536
Iteration 1:
                log\ likelihood = -2637.4315
Iteration 2:
                log\ likelihood = -2637.3761
Iteration 3:
                log\ likelihood = -2637.3759
Generalized structural equation model
                                                      Number of obs
                                                                                 500
Log likelihood = -2637.3759
       [var(MathAb)]_{cons} = 1
                     Coef.
                              Std. Err.
                                                    P>|z|
                                                               [95% Conf. Interval]
                                              z
q1 <-
      MathAb
                  1.466636
                              .2488104
                                            5.89
                                                    0.000
                                                               .9789765
                                                                            1.954296
                  .0373363
                              .1252274
                                            0.30
                                                    0.766
                                                               -.208105
                                                                            .2827776
       _cons
q2 <-
                                                               .2897102
      MathAb
                  .5597118
                              .1377584
                                            4.06
                                                    0.000
                                                                            .8297134
                 -.4613391
                              .0989722
                                           -4.66
                                                    0.000
                                                              -.6553211
                                                                           -.2673571
       _cons
q3 <-
                                                                            1.023821
                    .73241
      MathAb
                              .1486818
                                            4.93
                                                    0.000
                                                                .440999
                  .1533363
                                            1.52
                                                    0.127
                                                              -.0438503
                                                                            .3505228
       _cons
                              .1006072
q4 <-
                                                               .2271893
                                                                            .7407109
      MathAb
                  .4839501
                              .1310028
                                            3.69
                                                    0.000
                                                                           -.1353054
       _cons
                 -.3230667
                              .0957984
                                           -3.37
                                                    0.001
                                                              -.5108281
q5 <-
                              .2075044
                                            5.94
                                                    0.000
      MathAb
                  1.232244
                                                               .8255426
                                                                            1.638945
       _cons
                 -.0494684
                              .1163093
                                           -0.43
                                                    0.671
                                                              -.2774304
                                                                            .1784937
q6 <-
                                                    0.000
      MathAb
                   .946535
                              .1707729
                                            5.54
                                                               .6118262
                                                                            1.281244
                 -.3147231
                              .1083049
                                           -2.91
                                                    0.004
                                                              -.5269969
                                                                           -.1024493
       _cons
q7 <-
                                                               .7995449
      MathAb
                  1.197317
                              .2029485
                                            5.90
                                                    0.000
                                                                            1.595088
       _cons
                  .1053405
                              .1152979
                                            0.91
                                                    0.361
                                                              -.1206393
                                                                            .3313203
q8 <-
```

Notes:

1. In the above model, we constrain the variance MathAb to be 1 by typing var (MathAb@1).

.1588325

.1034396

(constrained)

.8461858

-.026705

1

MathAb _cons

var (MathAb)

2. Had we not constrained var(MathAb@1), the path coefficient from MathAb to q1 would have automatically constrained to be 1 to set the latent variable's scale. When we applied

5.33

-0.26

0.000

0.796

.5348799

-.2294429

1.157492

.1760329

var (MathAb@1), the automatic constraint was automatically released. Setting the variance of a latent variable is another way of setting its scale.

- 3. We set var(MathAb@1) to ease interpretation. Our latent variable, MathAb, is now N(0,1).
- 4. Factor loadings, which are the slopes, are estimated above for each question.
- 5. The slopes reveal how discriminating each question is in regard to mathematical ability. Question 1 is the most discriminating, and question 4 is the least discriminating.
- 6. In the 1-PL model, the negative of the intercept is a measure of difficulty if we constrain the slopes to be equal to each other. To measure difficulty in the 2-PL model, we divide the negative of the intercept by the unconstrained slope. If you do the math, you will discover that question 2 is the most difficult and question 3 is the least difficult. It will be easier, however, merely to continue reading; in the next section, we show an easy way to calculate the discrimination and difficulty for all the questions.

Obtaining predicted difficulty and discrimination

For each question, discrimination is defined as the question's slope coefficient.

For each question, difficulty is defined as the negative of the question's intercept divided by its slope.

Here is how we quickly obtain all the discrimination and difficulty values in a single, easy-to-read table:

```
. preserve
. drop _all
. set obs 8
obs was 0, now 8
. gen str question = "q" + strofreal(_n)
. gen diff =
(8 missing values generated)
. gen disc
              =
(8 missing values generated)
. forvalues i = 1/8 {
       replace diff = -_b[q'i':_cons] / _b[q'i':MathAb] in 'i'
       replace disc = _b[q'i':MathAb] in 'i'
  4. }
(1 real change made)
. format diff disc %9.4f
. egen rank_diff = rank(diff)
```

- . egen rank_disc = rank(disc)
- . list

	question	diff	disc	rank_d~f	rank_d~c
1. 2.	q1 q2	-0.0255 0.8242	1.4666 0.5597	3	8
3. 4.	q3	-0.2094 0.6676	0.7324	1	3
5.	q4 q5	0.0401	1.2322	5	7
6.	q6	0.3325	0.9465	6	5
7. 8.	q7 q8	-0.0880 0.0316	1.1973 0.8462	2 4	6 4

. restore

Notes:

- Our goal in the Stata code above is to create a dataset containing one observation for each
 question. The dataset will contain the following variables: question containing q1, q2, ...;
 diff and disc containing each question's difficulty and discrimination values; and rank_disc
 and rank_diff containing the ranks of those discrimination and difficulty values.
- 2. We first preserved the current data before tossing out the data in memory. Later, after making and displaying our table, we restored the original contents.
- 3. We then made an 8-observation, 0-variable dataset (set obs 8) and added variables to it. We created string variable question containing q1, q2,
- 4. We were ready to create variables diff and disc. They are defined in terms of estimated coefficients, and we had no idea what the names of those coefficients were. To find out, we typed gsem, coeflegend (output shown below). We quickly learned that the slope coefficients had names like _b[q1:MathAb], _b[q2:MathAb], ..., and the intercepts had names like _b[q1:_cons], _b[q2:_cons],
- 5. We created new variables diff and disc containing missing values and then created a forvalues loop to fill in the new variables. Notice the odd-looking 'i' inside the loop. 'i' is the way that you say "substitute the value of (local macro) i here".
- 6. We put a display format on new variables diff and disc so that when we listed them, they would be easier to read.
- 7. We created the rank of each variable by using the egen command.
- 8. We listed the results. So now you do not have to do the math to see that question 2 is the most difficult (it has rank_diff = 8) and question 3 is the least (it has rank_diff = 1).
- 9. We typed restore, bringing our original data back into memory and leaving ourselves in a position to continue with this example.

Using coeflegend to obtain the symbolic names of the parameters

In the section above, we did not retype coefficient values to obtain discrimination and difficulty. After estimation, coefficient values are stored in _b[name]. To find out what the names are, type gsem, coeflegend. Here are the results:

Number of obs

500

```
. gsem, coeflegend
```

Generalized structural equation model Log likelihood = -2637.3759

(1) [var(MathAb)]_cons = 1

	Coef.	Legend
q1 <- MathAb _cons	1.466636 .0373363	_b[q1:MathAb] _b[q1:_cons]
q2 <- MathAb _cons	.5597118 4613391	_b[q2:MathAb] _b[q2:_cons]
q3 <- MathAb _cons	.73241 .1533363	_b[q3:MathAb] _b[q3:_cons]
q4 <- MathAb _cons	.4839501 3230667	_b[q4:MathAb] _b[q4:_cons]
q5 <- MathAb _cons	1.232244 0494684	_b[q5:MathAb] _b[q5:_cons]
q6 <- MathAb _cons	.946535 3147231	_b[q6:MathAb] _b[q6:_cons]
q7 <- MathAb _cons	1.197317 .1053405	_b[q7:MathAb] _b[q7:_cons]
q8 <- MathAb _cons	.8461858 026705	_b[q8:MathAb] _b[q8:_cons]
var(MathAb)	1	_b[var(MathAb):_cons]

Graphing item-characteristic curves

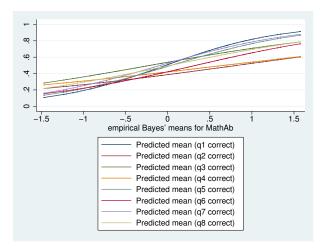
We showed you the item-characteristic curves in [SEM] example 28g, so we will show them to you again. Graphs of item-characteristic curves plot the probability of a correct answer against the latent trait, which in this case is math ability.

We obtain the probabilities of a correct answer (the values of the latent variable) just as we did previously,

```
. predict pr2pl*, pr
(using 7 quadrature points)
. predict ability2pl, latent(MathAb)
(using 7 quadrature points)
```

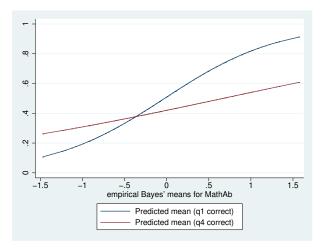
and we graph the curves just as we did previously, too. Here are all eight curves on one graph:

. twoway line pr2pl* ability2pl, sort xlabel(-1.5(.5)1.5)



In [SEM] example 28g, we showed a graph for the most and least difficult questions. This time we show a graph for the most and least discriminating questions:

. twoway line pr2pl1 pr2pl4 ability2pl, sort xlabel(-1.5(.5)1.5)



Here the curves are not parallel because the discrimination has not been constrained to be equal across the questions. Question 1 has a steeper slope, so it is more discriminating.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in Fitting the 2-PL IRT model above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_cfa

2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Create the measurement component for MathAb.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, ", and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way down from the top and slightly left of the center.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to MathAb;
- b. select q1, q2, q3, q4, q5, q6, q7, and q8 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. check Make measurements generalized;
- d. select Bernoulli, Logit in the Family/Link control;
- e. select Down in the Measurement direction control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 5. Constrain the variance of MathAb to 1.
 - a. Choose the Select tool. .
 - b. Click on the oval for MathAb. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1 in the $\frac{\Delta \sigma^2}{\sigma^2}$ box and press Enter.
- 6. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting GSEM estimation options dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_irt3

References

Embretson, S. E., and S. P. Reise. 2000. Item Response Theory for Psychologists. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Rabe-Hesketh, S., A. Skrondal, and A. Pickles. 2004. Generalized multilevel structural equation modeling. Psychometrika 69: 167-190.

Skrondal, A., and S. Rabe-Hesketh. 2004. Generalized Latent Variable Modeling: Multilevel, Longitudinal, and Structural Equation Models. Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall/CRC.

van der Linden, W. J., and R. K. Hambleton, ed. 1997. Handbook of Modern Item Response Theory. New York: Springer.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 27g — Single-factor measurement model (generalized response)
```

[SEM] example 28g — One-parameter logistic IRT (Rasch) model

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] **predict after gsem** — Generalized linear predictions, etc.

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

Title

example 30g — Two-level measurement model (multilevel, generalized response)

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

We demonstrate a multilevel measurement model with the same data used in [SEM] example 29g:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_cfa
 (Fictional math abilities data)
- . summarize

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
school	500	10.5	5.772056	1	20
id	500	50681.71	29081.41	71	100000
q1	500	.506	.5004647	0	1
q2	500	.394	.4891242	0	1
q3	500	.534	.4993423	0	1
q4	500	.424	.4946852	0	1
q5	500	.49	.5004006	0	1
q6	500	.434	.4961212	0	1
q7	500	.52	.5001002	0	1
q8	500	.494	.5004647	0	1
att1	500	2.946	1.607561	1	5
att2	500	2.948	1.561465	1	5
att3	500	2.84	1.640666	1	5
att4	500	2.91	1.566783	1	5
att5	500	3.086	1.581013	1	5
test1	500	75.548	5.948653	55	93
test2	500	80.556	4.976786	65	94
test3	500	75.572	6.677874	50	94
test4	500	74.078	8.845587	43	96

[.] notes

dta:

- Fictional data on math ability and attitudes of 500 students from 20 schools.
- 2. Variables q1-q8 are incorrect/correct (0/1) on individual math questions.
- Variables att1-att5 are items from a Likert scale measuring each student's attitude toward math.
- 4. Variables test1-test4 are test scores from tests of four different aspects of mathematical abilities. Range of scores: 0-100.

These data record results from a fictional instrument measuring mathematical ability. Variables q1 through q8 are the items from the instrument.

For discussions of multilevel measurement models, including extensions beyond the example we present here, see Mehta and Neale (2005) and Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2004).

See Single-factor measurement models and Multilevel mixed-effects models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

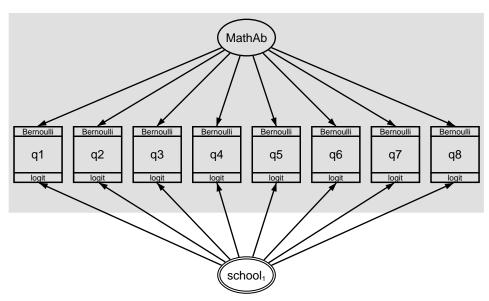
Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the two-level model Fitting the variance-components model Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting the two-level model

We extend the measurement model fit in [SEM] **example 29g** to better account for our (fictional) data. In the data, students are nested within school, but we have ignored that so far. In this example, we include a latent variable at the school level to account for possible school-by-school effects.

The model we wish to fit is



The double-ringed school₁ is new. That new component of the path diagram is saying, "I am a latent variable at the school level—meaning I am constant within school and vary across schools—and I correspond to a latent variable named M1"; see *Specifying generalized SEMs: Multilevel mixed effects (2 levels)* in [SEM] intro 2. This new variable will account for the effect, if any, of the identity of the school.

To fit this model without this new, school-level component in it, we would type

. gsem (MathAb -> q1-q8), logit

To include the new school-level component, we add M1[school] to the exogenous variables:

. gsem (MathAb M1[school] -> q1-q8), logit
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -2750.3114
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -2749.3709
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -2749.3708
Refining starting values:

Grid node 0: $\log likelihood = -2649.0033$

Fitting full model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -2649.0033 (not concave)
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -2645.0613 (not concave)
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -2641.9755 (not concave)
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -2634.3857

 Iteration 4:
 log likelihood = -2631.1111

 Iteration 5:
 log likelihood = -2630.7898

 Iteration 6:
 log likelihood = -2630.2477

 Iteration 7:
 log likelihood = -2630.2402

 Iteration 8:
 log likelihood = -2630.2074

 Iteration 9:
 log likelihood = -2630.2063

 Iteration 10:
 log likelihood = -2630.2063

Generalized structural equation model Number of obs =

Log likelihood = -2630.2063

- (1) [q1]M1[school] = 1
- (2) [q2]MathAb = 1

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
q1 <-						
M1[school]	1	(constrained	i)			
MathAb	2.807515	.9468682	2.97	0.003	.9516878	4.663343
_cons	.0388021	.1608489	0.24	0.809	276456	.3540602
q2 <-						
M1[school]	.6673925	.3058328	2.18	0.029	.0679712	1.266814
MathAb	1	1 (constrained)				
_cons	4631159	.1201227	-3.86	0.000	698552	2276798
q3 <-						
M1[school]	.3555867	.3043548	1.17	0.243	2409377	.9521111
MathAb	1.455529	.5187786	2.81	0.005	. 4387416	2.472316
_cons	.1537831	.1070288	1.44	0.151	0559894	.3635556
q4 <-						
M1[school]	.7073241	.3419273	2.07	0.039	.037159	1.377489
MathAb	.8420897	.3528195	2.39	0.017	.1505762	1.533603
_cons	3252735	.1202088	-2.71	0.007	5608784	0896686
q5 <-						
M1[school]	.7295553	.3330652	2.19	0.028	.0767595	1.382351
MathAb	2.399529	.8110973	2.96	0.003	.8098079	3.989251
_cons	0488674	.1378015	-0.35	0.723	3189533	.2212185

500

q6 <-	494003	0044447	1 70	0.000	0705002	1 040404
M1[school]	.484903	. 2844447	1.70	0.088	0725983	1.042404
MathAb	1.840627	.5934017	3.10	0.002	.6775813	3.003673
_cons	3139302	.1186624	-2.65	0.008	5465042	0813563
q7 <-						
M1[school]	.3677241	.2735779	1.34	0.179	1684787	.903927
MathAb	2.444023	.8016872	3.05	0.002	.8727449	4.015301
_cons	.1062164	.1220796	0.87	0.384	1330552	.3454881
q8 <-						
M1[school]	.5851299	.3449508	1.70	0.090	0909612	1.261221
MathAb	1.606287	.5367614	2.99	0.003	.5542541	2.65832
_cons	0261962	.1189835	-0.22	0.826	2593995	.2070071
M1[school])	.2121216	.1510032			.052558	.8561121
var(MathAb)	.2461246	.1372513			.0825055	.7342217

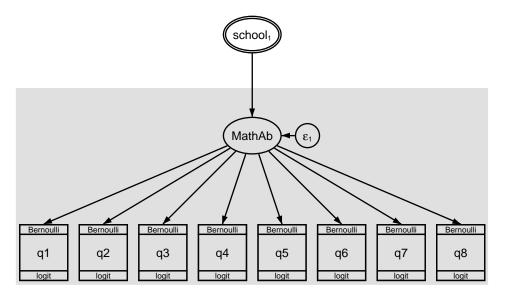
Notes:

- 1. The variance of M1[school] is estimated to be 0.21.
- 2. So how important is M1[school]? The variance of MathAb is estimated to be 0.25, so math ability and school have roughly the same variance, and both of course have mean 0. The math ability coefficients, meanwhile, are larger—often much larger—than the school coefficients in every case, so math ability is certainly more important than school in explaining whether questions were answered correctly. At this point, we are merely exploring the magnitude of effect.
- 3. You could also include a school-level latent variable for each question. For instance, you could type

You will sometimes see such effects included in multilevel measurement models in theoretical discussions of models. Be aware that estimation of models with many latent variables is problematic, requiring both time and luck.

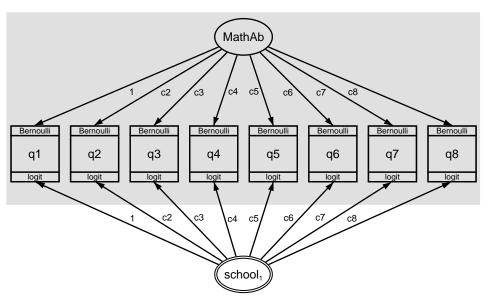
Fitting the variance-components model

In a variance-components model, school would affect math ability which would affect correctness of answers to questions. The model might be drawn like this:



The above is a great way to draw the model. Sadly, gsem cannot understand it. The problem from gsem's perspective is that one latent variable is affecting another and the two latent variables are at different levels.

So we have to draw the model differently:



The models may look different, but constraining the coefficients along the paths from math ability and from school to each question is identical in effect to the model above.

The result of fitting the model is

```
. gsem (MathAb M1[school] ->
       q101 q20c2 q30c3 q40c4 q50c5 q60c6 q70c7 q80c8), logit
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
              log\ likelihood = -2750.3114
Iteration 1:
             log likelihood = -2749.3709
Iteration 2:
              log likelihood = -2749.3708
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
              log likelihood = -2642.8248
Fitting full model:
```

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -2651.7239 (not concave)

Iteration 1: log likelihood = -2644.4937Iteration 2: log likelihood = -2634.92 Iteration 3: log likelihood = -2633.9336 Iteration 4: $log\ likelihood = -2633.5924$ Iteration 5: log likelihood = -2633.5922

Generalized structural equation model Number of obs = 500

Log likelihood = -2633.5922

- (1) [q1]M1[school] = 1(2) [q1]MathAb = 1
- [q2]M1[school] [q2]MathAb = 0(3)
- [q3]M1[school] [q3]MathAb = 0(4)
- (5) [q4]M1[school] - [q4]MathAb = 0
- (6) [q5]M1[school] - [q5]MathAb = 0
- (7) [q6]M1[school] - [q6]MathAb = 0
- (8) [q7]M1[school] - [q7]MathAb = 0
- (9) [q8]M1[school] - [q8]MathAb = 0

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf	. Interval]
q1 <- M1[school]	1	(constraine	d)			
MathAb _cons	.0385522	(constraine .1556214	d) 0.25	0.804	2664601	.3435646
q2 <- M1[school]	.3876281	.1156823	3.35	0.001	.1608951	.6143612
MathAb _cons	.3876281 4633143	.1156823 .1055062	3.35 -4.39	0.001 0.000	.1608951 6701028	.6143612 2565259
q3 <- M1[school]	.4871164	.1295515	3.76	0.000	.2332001	.7410328
MathAb _cons	.4871164 .1533212	.1295515 .1098068	3.76 1.40	0.000 0.163	.2332001 0618962	.7410328 .3685386
q4 <- M1[school]	.3407151	.1058542	3.22	0.001	.1332446	.5481856
MathAb _cons	.3407151 3246936	.1058542 .1011841	3.22 -3.21	0.001 0.001	.1332446 5230108	.5481856 1263763
q5 <- M1[school]	.8327426	.1950955	4.27	0.000	. 4503624	1.215123
MathAb _cons	.8327426 0490579	.1950955 .1391324	4.27 -0.35	0.000 0.724	.4503624 3217524	1.215123 .2236365

q6 <-						
M1[school]	.6267415	.1572247	3.99	0.000	.3185868	.9348962
MathAb	.6267415	.1572247	3.99	0.000	.3185868	.9348962
_cons	3135398	.1220389	-2.57	0.010	5527317	074348
q7 <-						
M1[school]	.7660343	.187918	4.08	0.000	.3977219	1.134347
MathAb	.7660343	.187918	4.08	0.000	.3977219	1.134347
_cons	.1039102	.1330652	0.78	0.435	1568927	.3647131
q8 <-						
M1[school]	.5600833	.1416542	3.95	0.000	.2824462	.8377203
MathAb	.5600833	.1416542	3.95	0.000	.2824462	.8377203
_cons	0264193	.1150408	-0.23	0.818	2518951	.1990565
var(
M1[school])	. 1719347	.1150138			.0463406	.6379187
var(MathAb)	2.062489	.6900045			1.070589	3.973385

- 1. Note that for each question, the coefficient on MathAb is identical to the coefficient on M1 [school].
- 2. We estimate separate variances for M1[school] and MathAb. They are 0.17 and 2.06. Now that the coefficients are the same on school and ability, we can directly compare these variances. We see that math ability has a much larger affect than does school.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in Fitting the two-level model above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_cfa
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the $^{\mbox{\scriptsize G}}$ button.
- 4. Create the measurement component for MathAb.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, $\overline{\Psi}$, and then click in the diagram about one-fourth of the way down from the top and slightly left of the center.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to MathAb;
- b. select q1, q2, q3, q4, q5, q6, q7, and q8 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. check Make measurements generalized;
- d. select Bernoulli, Logit in the Family/Link control;

- e. select Down in the Measurement direction control:
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 5. Create the school-level latent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, , and click about one-fourth of the way up from the bottom and slightly left of the center.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the ... button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 2 from the *Nesting depth* control and selecting school > *Observations* in the next control.
 - d. Specify M1 as the Base name.
 - e. Click on OK.
- 6. Create the factor-loading paths for the multilevel latent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the top-left quadrant of the double oval for school₁ (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the bottom of the q1 rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the → tool, draw paths from school₁ to each of the remaining rectangles.
- 7. Clean up paths.

If you do not like where a path has been connected to its variables, use the Select tool, , to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle or oval and drag the endpoint.

8. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, **\overline{\mathbb{E}}**, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

- 9. To fit the model in *Fitting the variance-components model*, add constraints to the diagram created above.
 - a. From the SEM Builder menu, select **Estimation > Clear Estimates** to clear results from the previous model.
 - b. Choose the Select tool, .
 - c. Click on the path from MathAb to q1. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1 in the β box and press *Enter*.
 - d. Click on the path from $school_1$ to q1. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1 in the β box and press *Enter*.
 - c. Click on the path from MathAb to q2. In the Contextual Toolbar, type c2 in the β box and press Enter.
 - d. Click on the path from $school_1$ to q2. In the Contextual Toolbar, type c2 in the β box and press *Enter*.
 - e. Repeat this process to add the c3 constraint on both paths to q3, the c4 constraint on both paths to q4, ..., and the c8 constraint on both paths to q8.

10. Estimate again.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM* estimation options dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder for the first model by typing

. webgetsem gsem_mlcfa1

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder for the second model by typing

. webgetsem gsem_mlcfa2

References

Mehta, P. D., and M. C. Neale. 2005. People are variables too: Multilevel structural equations modeling. Psychological Methods 10: 259–284.

Skrondal, A., and S. Rabe-Hesketh. 2004. Generalized Latent Variable Modeling: Multilevel, Longitudinal, and Structural Equation Models. Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall/CRC.

Also see

[SEM] example 27g — Single-factor measurement model (generalized response)

[SEM] example 29g — Two-parameter logistic IRT model

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

example 31g — Two-factor measurement model (generalized response)

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

We demonstrate a two-factor generalized linear measurement model with the same data used in [SEM] example 29g:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_cfa
 (Fictional math abilities data)
- . describe

Contains data from http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_cfa.dta

obs: 500 Fictional math abilities data vars: 19 21 Mar 2013 10:38 size: 18,500 (_dta has notes)

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
school	byte	%9.0g		School id
id	long	%9.0g		Student id
q1	byte	%9.0g	result	q1 correct
q2	byte	%9.0g	result	q2 correct
q3	byte	%9.0g	result	q3 correct
q4	byte	%9.0g	result	q4 correct
q5	byte	%9.0g	result	q5 correct
q6	byte	%9.0g	result	q6 correct
q7	byte	%9.0g	result	q7 correct
q8	byte	%9.0g	result	q8 correct
att1	float	%26.0g	agree	Skills taught in math class will help me get a better job.
att2	float	%26.0g	agree	Math is important in everyday life
att3	float	%26.0g	agree	Working math problems makes me anxious.
att4	float	%26.0g	agree	Math has always been my worst subject.
att5	float	%26.0g	agree	I am able to learn new math concepts easily.
test1	byte	%9.0g		Score, math test 1
test2	byte	%9.0g		Score, math test 2
test3	byte	%9.0g		Score, math test 3
test4	byte	%9.0g		Score, math test 4

Sorted by:

. notes

_dta:

- Fictional data on math ability and attitudes of 500 students from 20 schools.
- 2. Variables q1-q8 are incorrect/correct (0/1) on individual math questions.
- Variables att1-att5 are items from a Likert scale measuring each student's attitude toward math.
- 4. Variables test1-test4 are test scores from tests of four different aspects of mathematical abilities. Range of scores: 0-100.

These data record results from a fictional instrument measuring mathematical ability. Variables q1 through q8 are the items from the instrument.

In this example, we will also be using variables att1 through att5. These are five Likert-scale questions measuring each student's attitude toward math.

See Multiple-factor measurement models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

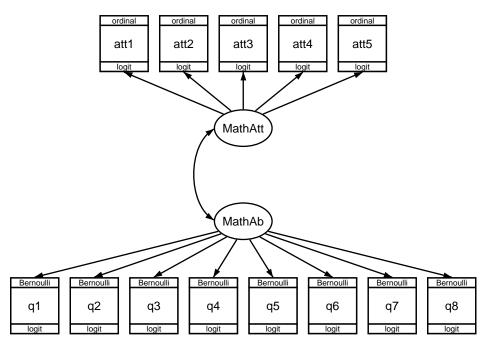
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the two-factor model Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting the two-factor model

We extend the measurement model fit in [SEM] **example 29g** from one factor, math ability, to two factors, math ability and attitude. The model we wish to fit is



In this model, mathematical ability affects the correctness of the answers to the items just as previously. The new component, attitude toward mathematics, is correlated with math ability. We expect this correlation to be positive, but that is yet to be determined.

What is important about the attitudinal questions is that the responses are ordinal, that is, the ordering of the possible answers is significant. In other cases, we might have a categorical variable taking on, say, five values; even if the values are 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, there is no case in which answer 5 is greater than answer 4, answer 4 is greater than answer 3, and so on.

For our attitude measures, however, response 5 signifies strong agreement with a statement and 1 signifies strong disagreement. We handle the ordinal property by specifying that the attitudinal responses are family ordinal, link logit, also known as ordered logit or ordinal logistic regression, and also known in Stata circles as ologit.

In the command language, to fit a one-factor measurement model with math ability, we would type

```
gsem (MathAb -> q1-q8), logit
```

q2 <-

MathAb

_cons

.3446081

-.4572215

.1050264

.0979965

3.28

-4.67

0.001

0.000

.1387601

-.6492911

.5504562

-.265152

To include the second factor, attitude correlated with math ability, we would type

```
gsem (MathAb -> q1-q8, logit) ///
(MathAtt -> att1-att5, ologit)
```

The covariance between MathAtt and MathAb does not even appear in the command! That is because latent exogenous variables are assumed to be correlated in the command language unless you specify otherwise; in path diagrams, such variables are correlated only if a curved path is drawn between them.

There is another, minor difference in syntax between the one-factor and two-factor models that is worth your attention. Notice that the logit was outside the parentheses in the command to fit the one-factor model, but it is inside the parentheses in the command to fit the two-factor model. Actually, logit could have appeared inside the parentheses to fit the one-factor model. When options appear inside parentheses, they affect only what is specified inside the parentheses. When they appear outside parentheses, they affect all parenthetical specifications.

To obtain the estimates of the two-factor model, we type

```
. gsem (MathAb -> q1-q8, logit)
       (MathAtt -> att1-att5, ologit)
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -6629.7253
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -6628.7848
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood = -6628.7848
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -6457.4584
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -6457.4584
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -6437.9594
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood = -6400.2731
Iteration 3:
               log likelihood = -6396.3795
               log\ likelihood = -6394.5787
Iteration 4:
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -6394.4019
Iteration 6:
               log\ likelihood = -6394.3923
Iteration 7:
               log\ likelihood = -6394.3923
Generalized structural equation model
                                                                             500
                                                   Number of obs
Log likelihood = -6394.3923
 (1)
       [q1]MathAb = 1
 (2)
       [att1]MathAtt = 1
                    Coef.
                             Std. Err.
                                                 P>|z|
                                                            [95% Conf. Interval]
q1 <-
      MathAb
                            (constrained)
                        1
                  .0446118
                             .1272964
                                          0.35
                                                 0.726
                                                          -.2048845
                                                                        .2941082
       _cons
```

q3 <-						
MathAb _cons	.5445245	.1386993	3.93 1.54	0.000 0.123	.272679 0433464	.8163701 .3616276
q4 <- MathAb	. 2858874	.0948553	3.01	0.003	.0999743	.4718004
_cons	3196648	.0947684	-3.37	0.001	5054075	1339222
q5 <-						
MathAb	.8174803	.1867024	4.38	0.000	.4515504	1.18341
_cons	04543	.116575	-0.39	0.697	2739127	.1830527
q6 <-						
MathAb	.6030448	.1471951	4.10	0.000	.3145478	.8915419
_cons	309992	.1070853	-2.89	0.004	5198753	1001086
q7 <-						
MathAb _cons	.72084 .1047265	.1713095 .1116494	4.21 0.94	0.000 0.348	.3850796 1141023	1.056601
	.1047200					.0200002
q8 <- MathAb	.5814761	.1426727	4.08	0.000	.3018428	.8611094
_cons	0250442	.1045134	-0.24	0.811	2298868	.1797983
att1 <-						
MathAtt	1	(constrain	ed)			
att2 <-						
MathAtt	.3788714	.0971223	3.90	0.000	.1885152	.5692276
att3 <-						
MathAtt	-1.592717	.3614859	-4.41	0.000	-2.301216	8842173
att4 <-						
MathAtt	8100107	.153064	-5.29	0.000	-1.11001	5100108
att5 <-						
MathAtt	.5225423	.1170141	4.47	0.000	.2931988	.7518858
att1 /cut1	-1.10254	.1312272	-8.40	0.000	-1.359741	8453396
/cut2	2495339	.1160385	-2.15	0.032	4769651	0221027
/cut3	.2983261	.1164414	2.56	0.010	.0701052	.5265471
/cut4	1.333053	.1391907	9.58	0.000	1.060244	1.605861
att2						0.45.45.40
/cut1 /cut2	-1.055791 1941211	.1062977 .0941435	-9.93 -2.06	0.000	-1.264131 378639	8474513 0096032
/cut2 /cut3	.3598488	.0941435	3.78	0.039	.1732528	.5464448
/cut4	1.132624	.1082204	10.47	0.000	.9205156	1.344732
att3						
/cut1	-1.053519	.1733999	-6.08	0.000	-1.393377	7136614
/cut2	0491073	.1442846	-0.34	0.734	3318999	.2336853
/cut3	.5570671	.1538702	3.62	0.000	. 2554871	.8586471
/cut4	1.666859	.2135554	7.81	0.000	1.248298	2.08542

att4						
/cut1	-1.07378	.1214071	-8.84	0.000	-1.311734	8358264
/cut2	2112462	.1076501	-1.96	0.050	4222366	0002559
/cut3	.406347	.1094847	3.71	0.000	.191761	.620933
/cut4	1.398185	.1313327	10.65	0.000	1.140778	1.655593
att5						
/cut1	-1.244051	.1148443	-10.83	0.000	-1.469142	-1.018961
/cut2	336135	.0986678	-3.41	0.001	5295203	1427498
/cut3	.2137776	.0978943	2.18	0.029	.0219084	.4056468
/cut4	.9286849	.107172	8.67	0.000	.7186316	1.138738
var(MathAb)	2.300652	.7479513			1.216527	4.350909
var(MathAtt)	1.520854	.4077674			.8992196	2.572228
cov(MathAtt,						
MathAb)	.8837681	.2204606	4.01	0.000	.4516733	1.315863

Notes:

- 1. The estimated covariance between math attitude and ability is 0.88.
- 2. We can calculate the correlation from the estimated covariance; the formula is $\hat{\rho}_{xy} = \hat{\sigma}_{xy}/(\hat{\sigma}_x\hat{\sigma}_y)$. The estimated values are $\hat{\sigma}_{xy} = 0.8838$, $\hat{\sigma}_x^2 = 2.301$, and $\hat{\sigma}_y^2 = 1.521$. Thus the estimated correlation between attitude and ability is 0.4724.
- 3. There is something new in the output, namely, things labeled /cut1, ..., /cut4. These appear for each of the five attitudinal measures. These are the ordered logit's cutpoints, the values on the logit's distribution that separate attitude 1 from attitude 2, attitude 2 from attitude 3, and so on. The four cutpoints map the continuous distribution into five ordered, categorical groups.
- 4. There's something interesting hiding in the MathAtt coefficients: the coefficients for two of the paths, att3 att4 <- MathAtt, are negative! If you look back to the description of the data, you will find that the sense of these two questions was reversed from those of the other questions. Strong agreement on these two questions was agreement with a negative feeling about mathematics.</p>

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in Fitting the two-factor model above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_cfa
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the statement button.
- 4. Create the measurement component for MathAb.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, $\overline{\Psi}$, and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way up from the bottom and slightly left of the center.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to MathAb;
- b. select q1, q2, q3, q4, q5, q6, q7, and q8 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. check Make measurements generalized;
- d. select Bernoulli, Logit in the Family/Link control;
- e. select Down in the Measurement direction control:
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

5. Create the measurement component for MathAtt.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, ", and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way down from the top and slightly left of the center.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to MathAtt;
- b. select att1, att2, att3, att4, and att5 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. check Make measurements generalized;
- d. select Ordinal, Logit in the Family/Link control;
- e. select Up in the Measurement direction control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 6. Create the covariance between MathAtt and MathAb.
 - a. Select the Add Covariance tool, \square.
 - b. Click in the top-left quadrant of the MathAb oval, and drag a covariance to the bottom left of the MathAtt oval.
- 7. Clean up.

If you do not like where a covariance has been connected to its variable, use the Select tool, , to simply click on the covariance, and then click on where it connects to an oval and drag the endpoint. You can also change the bow of the covariance by dragging the control point that extends from one end of the selected covariance.

8. Estimate.

Click on the Estimate button, , in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on OK in the resulting GSEM estimation options dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_2fmm

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 27g — Single-factor measurement model (generalized response)
    [SEM] example 29g — Two-parameter logistic IRT model
    [SEM] example 32g — Full structural equation model (generalized response)
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models
```

Title

example 32g — Full structural equation model (generalized response)

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

To demonstrate a structural model with a measurement component, we use the same data used in [SEM] example 31g:

. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_cfa
(Fictional math abilities data)

. summarize

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
school	500	10.5	5.772056	1	20
id	500	50681.71	29081.41	71	100000
q1	500	.506	.5004647	0	1
q2	500	.394	.4891242	0	1
q3	500	.534	.4993423	0	1
q4	500	.424	.4946852	0	1
q5	500	.49	.5004006	0	1
q6	500	.434	.4961212	0	1
q7	500	.52	.5001002	0	1
q8	500	.494	.5004647	0	1
att1	500	2.946	1.607561	1	5
att2	500	2.948	1.561465	1	5
att3	500	2.84	1.640666	1	5
att4	500	2.91	1.566783	1	5
att5	500	3.086	1.581013	1	5
test1	500	75.548	5.948653	55	93
test2	500	80.556	4.976786	65	94
test3	500	75.572	6.677874	50	94
test4	500	74.078	8.845587	43	96

. notes

_dta:

- Fictional data on math ability and attitudes of 500 students from 20 schools.
- 2. Variables q1-q8 are incorrect/correct (0/1) on individual math questions.
- Variables att1-att5 are items from a Likert scale measuring each student's attitude toward math.
- 4. Variables test1-test4 are test scores from tests of four different aspects of mathematical abilities. Range of scores: 0-100.

These data record results from a fictional instrument measuring mathematical ability. Variables q1 through q8 are the items from the instrument.

In this example, we will also be using variables att1 through att5. These are five Likert-scale questions measuring each student's attitude toward math.

See Structural models 8: Unobserved inputs, outputs, or both in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

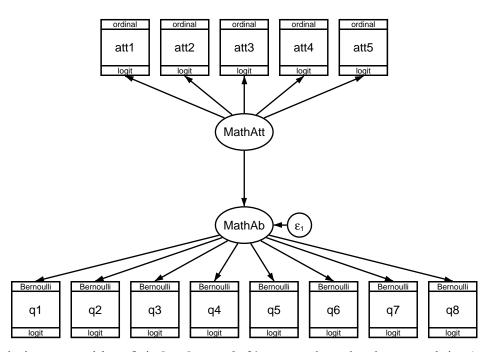
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Structural model with measurement component Fitting the model with the Builder

Structural model with measurement component

We wish to fit the following model:



This is the same model we fit in [SEM] example 31g, except that rather than a correlation (curved path) between MathAtt and MathAb, this time we assume a direct effect and so allow a straight path.

If you compare the two path diagrams, in addition to the new substitution of the direct path for the curved path signifying correlation, there is now an error variable on MathAb. In the previous diagram, MathAb was exogenous. In this diagram, it is endogenous and thus requires an error term. In the Builder, the error term is added automatically.

To fit this model in the command language, we type

```
. gsem (MathAb -> q1-q8, logit)
>          (MathAtt -> att1-att5, ologit)
>          (MathAtt -> MathAb)
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -6629.7253
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -6628.7848
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -6628.7848
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0: log likelihood = -6429.1636
```

Fitting full model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -6429.1636Iteration 1: $\log likelihood = -6396.7471$ Iteration 2: log likelihood = -6394.6197 log likelihood = -6394.3949Iteration 3: $log\ likelihood = -6394.3923$ Iteration 4: Iteration 5: $\log likelihood = -6394.3923$

Number of obs = Generalized structural equation model

500

Log likelihood = -6394.3923

- (1) [q1]MathAb = 1
- (2) [att1]MathAtt = 1

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
q1 <- MathAb	1	(constraine	d)			
_cons	.044612	.1272967	0.35	0.726	204885	.294109
q2 <-						-
MathAb _cons	.3446066 4572215	.1050261 .0979965	3.28 -4.67	0.001	.1387593 6492911	.550454 2651519
q3 <- MathAb	.5445222	.1386992	3.93	0.000	.2726767	.8163677
_cons	.1591406	.1033116	1.54	0.123	0433465	.3616276
q4 <-						
MathAb _cons	.2858862 3196648	.0948549 .0947684	3.01 -3.37	0.003 0.001	.099974 5054075	.4717984
	.0130040					
q5 <- MathAb	.8174769	.1867022	4.38	0.000	.4515473	1.183406
_cons	04543	.116575	-0.39	0.697	2739129	.1830528
q6 <-						
MathAb	.6030423	.1471949 .1070853	4.10 -2.89	0.000	.3145457	.8915389
_cons	3099919	.1070655	-2.69		5198754	1001085
q7 <- MathAb	.7208369	.171309	4.21	0.000	.3850774	1.056597
_cons	.1047264	.1116494	0.94	0.348	1141024	.3235553
q8 <-						
MathAb	.5814736	.1426725	4.08	0.000	.3018406	.8611067
_cons	0250443	.1045135	-0.24	0.811	2298869	.1797984
att1 <- MathAtt	1	(constraine	d)			
att2 <- MathAtt	.3788715	.0971234	3.90	0.000	.1885131	.5692299
att3 <- MathAtt	-1.592717	.3614956	-4.41	0.000	-2.301236	8841989
att4 <- MathAtt	8100108	.1530675	-5.29	0.000	-1.110017	510004
att5 <- MathAtt	. 5225425	.1170166	4.47	0.000	. 2931942	.7518907

MathAb <- MathAtt	.581103	.14776	3.93	0.000	.2914987	.8707072
att1						
/cut1	-1.10254	.131228	-8.40	0.000	-1.359742	8453377
/cut2	2495339	.1160385	-2.15	0.032	4769652	0221025
/cut3	.2983261	.1164415	2.56	0.010	.070105	.5265472
/cut4	1.333052	.1391919	9.58	0.000	1.060241	1.605864
att2						
/cut1	-1.055791	.1062977	-9.93	0.000	-1.264131	8474513
/cut2	1941211	.0941435	-2.06	0.039	378639	0096032
/cut3	.3598488	.0952038	3.78	0.000	.1732528	.5464448
/cut4	1.132624	.1082204	10.47	0.000	.9205156	1.344732
att3						
/cut1	-1.053519	.1734001	-6.08	0.000	-1.393377	7136612
/cut2	0491074	.1442846	-0.34	0.734	3319	. 2336853
/cut3	.5570672	.1538702	3.62	0.000	.2554871	.8586472
/cut4	1.666859	.2135557	7.81	0.000	1.248297	2.08542
att4						
/cut1	-1.07378	.1214071	-8.84	0.000	-1.311734	8358264
/cut2	2112462	.1076501	-1.96	0.050	4222365	0002559
/cut3	.406347	.1094847	3.71	0.000	.191761	.620933
/cut4	1.398185	.1313327	10.65	0.000	1.140778	1.655593
att5						
/cut1	-1.244051	.1148443	-10.83	0.000	-1.469142	-1.018961
/cut2	336135	.0986678	-3.41	0.001	5295203	1427498
/cut3	.2137776	.0978943	2.18	0.029	.0219084	.4056468
/cut4	.9286849	.107172	8.67	0.000	.7186316	1.138738
var(e.MathAb)	1.787117	.5974753			.9280606	3.441357
var(MathAtt)	1.520854	.4077885			.8991947	2.572298

Notes:

- In the model fit in [SEM] example 31g, we estimated a correlation between MathAtt and MathAb
 of 0.4724.
- 2. Theoretically speaking, the model fit above and the model in [SEM] example 31g are equivalent. Both posit a linear relationship between the latent variables and merely choose to parameterize the relationship differently. In [SEM] example 31g, it was parameterized as a covariance. In this example, it is parameterized as causal. People often use structural equation modeling to confirm a proposed hypothesis. It is important that the causal model you specify be based on theory or that you have some other justification. You need something other than empirical results to rule out competing but equivalent models such as the covariance model. Distinguishing causality from correlation is always problematic.
- Practically speaking, note that the log-likelihood values for this model and the model in [SEM] example 31g are equal at -6394.3923. Also note that the estimated variances of math attitude, var(MathAtt), are also equal at 1.520854.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in Structural model with measurement component above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_cfa
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in grem mode by clicking on the button.
- 4. Create the measurement component for MathAb.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, \(\forall \), and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way up from the bottom and slightly left of the center.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to MathAb;
- b. select q1, q2, q3, q4, q5, q6, q7, and q8 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. check Make measurements generalized;
- d. select Bernoulli, Logit in the Family/Link control;
- e. select Down in the Measurement direction control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

5. Create the measurement component for MathAtt.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, \(^{\mathbb{Y}}\), and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way down from the top and slightly left of the center.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to MathAtt;
- b. select att1, att2, att3, att4, and att5 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. check Make measurements generalized;
- d. select Ordinal, Logit in the Family/Link control;
- e. select Up in the Measurement direction control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 6. Create path from MathAtt to MathAb.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool. →.
 - b. Click in the bottom of the MathAtt oval (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the top of the MathAb oval (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).

7. Clean up the direction of the error.

The error on MathAb has likely been created below the oval instead of to the right of the oval. If so, choose the Select tool, , and then click in the MathAb oval. Click on one of the Error Rotation buttons, , in the Contextual Toolbar until the error is where you want it.

8. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, , in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_sem

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 9 — Structural model with measurement component
    [SEM] example 31g — Two-factor measurement model (generalized response)
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models
```

```
example 33g — Logistic regression
```

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

In this example, we demonstrate with gsem how to fit a standard logistic regression, which is often referred to as the logit model in generalized linear model (GLM) framework.

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_lbw (Hosmer & Lemeshow data)
- . describe

Contains data from http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_lbw.dta
obs: 189 Hosmer & Lemeshow data
vars: 11 21 Mar 2013 12:28
size: 2,646 (_dta has notes)

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
id	int	%8.0g		subject id
low	byte	%8.0g		birth weight < 2500g
age	byte	%8.0g		age of mother
lwt	int	%8.0g		weight, last menstrual period
race	byte	%8.0g	race	race
smoke	byte	%9.0g	smoke	smoked during pregnancy
ptl	byte	%8.0g		premature labor history (count)
ht	byte	%8.0g		has history of hypertension
ui	byte	%8.0g		presence, uterine irritability
ftv	byte	%8.0g		# physician visits, 1st trimester
bwt	int	%8.0g		birth weight (g)

Sorted by:

- . notes
- _dta:
 - Data from Hosmer, D. W., Jr., S. A. Lemeshow, and R. X. Sturdivant. 2013.
 "Applied Logistic Regression". 3rd ed. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
 - 2. Data from a study of risk factors associated with low birth weights.

See Structural models 3: Binary-outcome models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

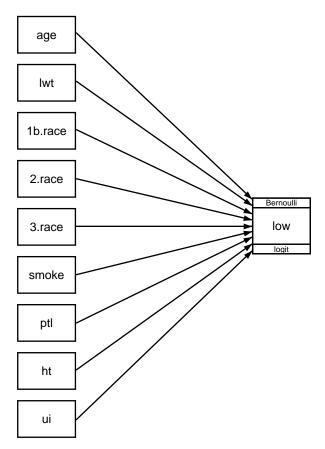
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the logit model Obtaining odds ratios Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting the logit model

The model we wish to fit is



That is, we wish to fit a model in which low birthweight is determined by a history of hypertension (ht), mother's age (age), mother's weight at last menstrual period (lwt), mother's race (white, black, or other; race), whether the mother smoked during pregnancy (smoke), the number of premature babies previously born to the mother (ptl), and whether the mother has suffered from the presence of uterine irritability (ui).

The path diagram matches the variable names listed in parentheses above except for race, where the path diagram contains not one but three boxes filled in with 1b.race, 2.race, and 3.race. This is because in our dataset, race is coded 1, 2, or 3, meaning white, black, or other. We want to include indicator variables for race so that we have a separate coefficient for each race. Thus we need three boxes.

In Stata, 1.race means "an indicator for race equaling 1". Thus it should not surprise you if you filled in the boxes with 1.race, 2.race, and 3.race, and that is almost what we did. The difference is that we filled in the first box with 1b.race rather than 1.race. We use the b to specify the base category, which we specified as white. If we wanted the base category to be black, we would have specified 2b.race and left 1.race alone.

The above is called factor-variable notation. See [SEM] intro 3 for details on using factor-variable notation with gsem.

In the command language, we could type

```
. gsem (low <- age lwt 1b.race 2.race 3.race smoke ptl ht ui), logit
```

to fit the model. Written that way, there is a one-to-one correspondence to what we would type and what we would draw in the Builder. The command language, however, has a feature that will allow us to type i.race instead of 1b.race 2.race 3.race. To fit the model, we could type

```
. gsem (low <- age lwt i.race smoke ptl ht ui), logit
```

i.varname is a command-language shorthand for specifying indicators for all the levels of a variable and using the first level as the base category. You can use i.varname in the command language but not in path diagrams because boxes can contain only one variable. In the Builder, however, you will discover a neat feature so that you can type i.race and the Builder will create however many boxes are needed for you, filled in, and with the first category marked as the base. We will explain below how you do that.

The result of typing our estimation command is

```
. gsem (low <- age lwt i.race smoke ptl ht ui), logit
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -101.0213
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -100.72519
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood =
                                  -100.724
              log likelihood =
                                  -100.724
Iteration 3:
Generalized structural equation model
                                                  Number of obs
                                                                            189
                  -100.724
Log likelihood =
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf	. Interval]
low <-						
age	0271003	.0364504	-0.74	0.457	0985418	.0443412
lwt	0151508	.0069259	-2.19	0.029	0287253	0015763
race						
black	1.262647	.5264101	2.40	0.016	.2309024	2.294392
other	.8620792	.4391532	1.96	0.050	.0013548	1.722804
smoke	.9233448	.4008266	2.30	0.021	. 137739	1.708951
ptl	.5418366	.346249	1.56	0.118	136799	1.220472
ht	1.832518	.6916292	2.65	0.008	.4769494	3.188086
ui	.7585135	.4593768	1.65	0.099	1418484	1.658875
_cons	.4612239	1.20459	0.38	0.702	-1.899729	2.822176

Obtaining odds ratios

Some of you are looking at the output above, nodding your heads, and thinking to yourselves, "Yes, that's right." Others are shaking your heads sadly and thinking, "Where are the exponentiated coefficients, the odds ratios?" Researchers from different backgrounds are used to seeing logit results presented in two different ways.

If you want to see the odds ratios, type estat eform after fitting the model:

. estat eform

low	exp(b)	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
age lwt	.9732636	.0354759	-0.74 -2.19	0.457	.9061578	1.045339
IWU	.9649634	.0000217	-2.19	0.029	.9710034	.9904249
race						
white	1	(empty)				
black	3.534767	1.860737	2.40	0.016	1.259736	9.918406
other	2.368079	1.039949	1.96	0.050	1.001356	5.600207
smoke	2.517698	1.00916	2.30	0.021	1.147676	5.523162
ptl	1.719161	.5952579	1.56	0.118	.8721455	3.388787
ht	6.249602	4.322408	2.65	0.008	1.611152	24.24199
ui	2.1351	.9808153	1.65	0.099	.8677528	5.2534
_cons	1.586014	1.910496	0.38	0.702	.1496092	16.8134

Whichever way you look at the results above, they are identical to the results that would be produced by typing

. logit low age lwt i.race smoke ptl ht ui

or

. logistic low age lwt i.race smoke ptl ht ui

which are two other ways that Stata can fit logit models. logit, like gsem, reports coefficients by default. logistic reports odds ratios by default.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in Fitting the logit model above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_lbw
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Enlarge the size of the canvas to accommodate the height of the diagram.

Click on the **Adjust Canvas Size** button, $\stackrel{\frown}{\Box}$, in the Standard Toolbar, change the second size to 5 (inches), and then click on **OK**.

5. Create the logistic regression component for low.

Select the Add Regression Component tool, , and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the left and halfway down.

In the resulting dialog box,

a. select low in the Dependent variable control;

- b. check Make measurements generalized;
- c. select Bernoulli, Logit in the Family/Link control;
- d. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- e. use the Independent variables control to select the variables age and lwt;
- f. include the levels of the factor variable race by clicking on the ... button next to the Independent variables control. In the resulting dialog box, select the Factor variable radio button, select Main effect in the Specification control, and select race in the Variables control for Variable 1. Click on Add to varlist, and then click on OK;
- g. continue with the *Independent variables* control to select the variables smoke, ptl, ht, and ui;
- h. select Left in the Independent variables' direction control;
- i. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

6. Clean up.

The box for low is created closer to the independent variables than it is in the example diagram. Use the Select tool, , and click on the box for low. Drag it to the right to allow more space for results along the paths.

7. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, **\overline{\mathbb{E}}**, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_logit

Reference

Hosmer, D. W., Jr., S. A. Lemeshow, and R. X. Sturdivant. 2013. *Applied Logistic Regression*. 3rd ed. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 34g — Combined models (generalized responses)
```

[SEM] example 35g — Ordered probit and ordered logit

[SEM] example 37g — Multinomial logistic regression

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] estat eform — Display exponentiated coefficients

[SEM] intro 3 — Learning the language: Factor-variable notation (gsem only)

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

Title

```
example 34g — Combined models (generalized responses)
```

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

We demonstrate how to fit a combined model with one Poisson regression and one logit regression by using the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_lbw (Hosmer & Lemeshow data)
- . describe

Contains data from http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_lbw.dta
obs: 189 Hosmer & Lemeshow data
vars: 11 21 Mar 2013 12:28
size: 2,646 (_dta has notes)

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
id	int	%8.0g		subject id
low	byte	%8.0g		birth weight < 2500g
age	byte	%8.0g		age of mother
lwt	int	%8.0g		weight, last menstrual period
race	byte	%8.0g	race	race
smoke	byte	%9.0g	smoke	smoked during pregnancy
ptl	byte	%8.0g		premature labor history (count)
ht	byte	%8.0g		has history of hypertension
ui	byte	%8.0g		presence, uterine irritability
ftv	byte	%8.0g		# physician visits, 1st trimester
bwt	int	%8.0g		birth weight (g)

Sorted by:

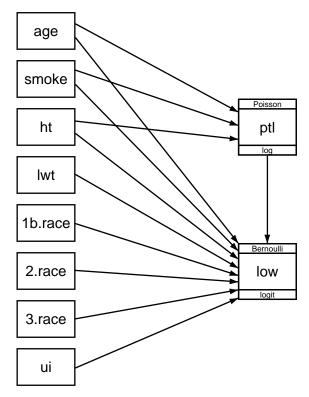
- . notes
- _dta:
 - Data from Hosmer, D. W., Jr., S. A. Lemeshow, and R. X. Sturdivant. 2013. "Applied Logistic Regression". 3rd ed. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
 - 2. Data from a study of risk factors associated with low birth weights.

See Structural models 7: Dependencies between response variables in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the combined model Obtaining odds ratios and incidence-rate ratios Fitting the model with the Builder The model we wish to fit is



This model has one logit equation and one Poisson regression equation, with the Poisson response variable also being an explanatory variable in the logit equation.

Because the two equations are recursive, it is not necessary to fit these models together. We could draw separate diagrams for each equation and fit each separately. Even so, many researchers often do fit recursive models together, and sometimes, it is just the first step before placing constraints across models or introducing a common latent variable. The latter might be likely in this case because neither generalized linear response has an error that could be correlated and so the only way to correlate these two responses in gsem is to add a shared latent variable affecting each.

Our purpose here is to show that you can mix models with generalized response variables of different types.

To fit the model in the command language, we type

```
. gsem (low <- ptl age smoke ht lwt i.race ui, logit)
       (ptl <- age smoke ht, poisson)
              log likelihood = -322.96738
Iteration 0:
Iteration 1:
              log likelihood = -200.5818
              log likelihood = -198.58086
Iteration 2:
Iteration 3:
              log likelihood = -198.56179
Iteration 4:
              log likelihood = -198.56178
Generalized structural equation model
                                                  Number of obs =
                                                                           189
Log likelihood = -198.56178
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
low <-						
ptl	.5418366	.346249	1.56	0.118	136799	1.220472
age	0271003	.0364504	-0.74	0.457	0985418	.0443412
smoke	.9233448	.4008266	2.30	0.021	.137739	1.708951
ht	1.832518	.6916292	2.65	0.008	.4769494	3.188086
lwt	0151508	.0069259	-2.19	0.029	0287253	0015763
race						
black	1.262647	.5264101	2.40	0.016	.2309023	2.294392
other	.8620791	.4391532	1.96	0.050	.0013548	1.722803
ui	.7585135	.4593768	1.65	0.099	1418484	1.658875
_cons	.4612238	1.20459	0.38	0.702	-1.899729	2.822176
ptl <-						
age	.0370598	.0298752	1.24	0.215	0214946	.0956142
smoke	.9602534	.3396867	2.83	0.005	.2944796	1.626027
ht	1853501	.7271851	-0.25	0.799	-1.610607	1.239906
_cons	-2.985512	.7842174	-3.81	0.000	-4.52255	-1.448474

Obtaining odds ratios and incidence-rate ratios

As mentioned in [SEM] **example 33g**, some researchers prefer to see exponentiated coefficients. In both odds ratios and incidence-rate ratios, exponentiation is meaningful. Exponentiated logit coefficients are odds ratios, and exponentiated Poisson regression coefficients are incidence-rate ratios. To obtain exponentiated coefficients for both equations, we type

. es	tat	eform	low	ptl
------	-----	-------	-----	-----

		exp(b)	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
low							
	ptl	1.719161	.5952579	1.56	0.118	.8721455	3.388787
	age	.9732636	.0354759	-0.74	0.457	.9061578	1.045339
	smoke	2.517698	1.00916	2.30	0.021	1.147676	5.523162
	ht	6.249602	4.322407	2.65	0.008	1.611152	24.24199
	lwt	.9849634	.0068217	-2.19	0.029	.9716834	.9984249
	race						
	white	1	(empty)				
	black	3.534767	1.860737	2.40	0.016	1.259736	9.918406
	other	2.368079	1.039949	1.96	0.050	1.001356	5.600207
	ui	2.1351	.9808153	1.65	0.099	.8677528	5.2534
	_cons	1.586014	1.910496	0.38	0.702	.1496092	16.8134
ptl							
-	age	1.037755	.0310032	1.24	0.215	.9787348	1.100334
	smoke	2.612358	.8873835	2.83	0.005	1.342428	5.083638
	ht	.8308134	.6041551	-0.25	0.799	.1997664	3.45529
	_cons	.0505137	.0396137	-3.81	0.000	.0108613	.2349286

Had we merely typed estat eform without the two equation names, we would have obtained exponentiated coefficients for the first equation only.

Equation names are easily found on the output or the path diagrams. Equations are named after the dependent variable.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in *Fitting the combined model* above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_lbw
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the button.
- 4. Create the independent variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, ", and then click at the bottom of the diagram about one-third of the way in from the left.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. use the Variables control to select the variables age, smoke, ht, and lwt in this order;
- c. include the levels of the factor variable race by clicking on the ... button next to the Variables control. In the resulting dialog box, select the Factor variable radio button, select

Main effect in the *Specification* control, and select race in the *Variables* control for *Variable 1*. Click on **Add to varlist**, and then click on **OK**;

- d. continue with the Variables control and select the variable ui;
- e. select Vertical in the Orientation control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 5. Create the generalized response for premature labor history.
 - a. Select the Add Generalized Response Variable tool, .
 - b. Click about one-third of the way in from the right side of the diagram, to the right of ht.
 - c. In the Contextual Toolbar, select Poisson, Log in the Family/Link control.
 - d. In the Contextual Toolbar, select ptl in the Variable control.
- 6. Create the generalized response for low birthweight.
 - a. Select the Add Generalized Response Variable tool, .
 - b. Click about one-third of the way in from the right side of the diagram, to the right of 2.race.
 - c. In the Contextual Toolbar, select Bernoulli, Logit in the Family/Link control.
 - d. In the Contextual Toolbar, select low in the Variable control.
- 7. Create paths from the independent variables to the dependent variables.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the right side of the age rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the ptl rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, create the following paths by clicking first in the right side of the rectangle for the independent variable and dragging it to the left side of the rectangle for the dependent variable:

```
smoke -> ptl
ht -> ptl
age -> low
smoke -> low
ht -> low
lwt -> low
1b.race -> low
2.race -> low
3.race -> low
ui -> low
```

d. Continuing with the tool, create the path from ptl to low by clicking in the bottom of the ptl rectangle and dragging the path to the top of the low rectangle.

8. Clean up.

If you do not like where a path has been connected to its variables, use the Select tool, to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle and drag the endpoint.

9. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, **\overline{\mathbb{E}}**, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_comb

Reference

Hosmer, D. W., Jr., S. A. Lemeshow, and R. X. Sturdivant. 2013. *Applied Logistic Regression*. 3rd ed. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Also see

[SEM] example 33g — Logistic regression

[SEM] example 45g — Heckman selection model

[SEM] example 46g — Endogenous treatment-effects model

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] estat eform — Display exponentiated coefficients

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

Title

example 35g — Ordered probit and ordered logit

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

Below we demonstrate ordered probit and ordered logit in a measurement-model context. We are not going to illustrate every family/link combination. Ordered probit and logit, however, are unique in that a single equation is able to predict a set of ordered outcomes. The unordered alternative, mlogit, requires k-1 equations to fit k (unordered) outcomes.

To demonstrate ordered probit and ordered logit, we use the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_issp93
 (Selection from ISSP 1993)
- . describe

Contains data from http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_issp93.dta obs: 871 Selection for ISSP 1993

vars: 8 21 Mar 2013 16:03 size: 7,839 (_dta has notes)

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
id	int	%9.0g		respondent identifier
y1	byte	%26.0g	agree5	too much science, not enough feelings & faith
у2	byte	%26.0g	agree5	science does more harm than good
у3	byte	%26.0g	agree5	any change makes nature worse
y4	byte	%26.0g	agree5	science will solve environmental problems
sex	byte	%9.0g	sex	sex
age	byte	%9.0g	age	age (6 categories)
edu	byte	%20.0g	edu	education (6 categories)

Sorted by:

- . notes
- _dta:
 - Data from Greenacre, M. and J Blasius, 2006, _Multiple Correspondence Analysis and Related Methods_, pp. 42-43, Boca Raton: Chapman & Hall. Data is a subset of the International Social Survey Program (ISSP) 1993.
 - 2. Full text of y1: We believe too often in science, and not enough in feelings and faith.
 - 3. Full text of y2: Overall, modern science does more harm than good.
 - 4. Full text of y3: Any change humans cause in nature, no matter how scientific, is likely to make things worse.
 - 5. Full text of y4: Modern science will solve our environmental problems with little change to our way of life.

See Structural models 5: Ordinal models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Ordered probit
Ordered logit
Fitting the model with the Builder

Ordered probit

For the measurement model, we focus on variables y1 through y4. Each variable contains 1–5, with 1 meaning strong disagreement and 5 meaning strong agreement with a statement about science.

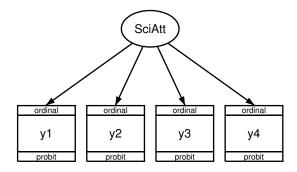
Ordered probit produces predictions about the probabilities that a respondent gives response 1, response 2, ..., response k. It does this by dividing up the domain of an N(0,1) distribution into k categories defined by k-1 cutpoints, $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_{k-1}$. Individual respondents are assumed to have a score $s = X\beta + \epsilon$, where $\epsilon \sim N(0,1)$, and then that score is used along with the cutpoints to produce probabilities for each respondent producing response $1, 2, \ldots, k$.

$$\Pr(\text{response is } i \mid X) = \Pr(c_{i-1} < X\beta + \epsilon \le c_i)$$

where $c_0 = -\infty$; $c_k = +\infty$; and $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_{k-1}$ and β are parameters of the model to be fit. This ordered probit model has long been known in Stata circles as oprobit.

We have a set of four questions designed to determine the respondent's attitude toward science, each question with k=5 possible answers ranging on a Likert scale from 1 to 5. With ordered probit in hand, we have a way to take a continuous variable, say, a latent variable we will call SciAtt, and produce predicted categorical responses.

The measurement model we want to fit is



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We fit the model in the command language by typing

. gsem (y1 y2 y3 y4 <- SciAtt), oprobit

Fitting fixed-effects model:

Iteration 0: $log\ likelihood = -5227.8743$ Iteration 1: $log\ likelihood = -5227.8743$

Refining starting values:

Grid node 0: log likelihood = -5230.8106

Fitting full model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -5230.8106 (not concave)

Iteration 1: log likelihood = -5132.1849 (not concave)

Iteration 2: log likelihood = -5069.5037 Iteration 3: log likelihood = -5040.4779 Iteration 4: log likelihood = -5040.2397 Iteration 5: log likelihood = -5039.8242 log likelihood = -5039.823Iteration 6: Iteration 7: log likelihood = -5039.823

Generalized structural equation model Number of obs

Log likelihood = -5039.823

(1) [y1]SciAtt = 1

		[
		Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
y1 <-				- >			
	SciAtt	1	(constraine	ed) 			
y2 <-							
	SciAtt	1.424366	.2126574	6.70	0.000	1.007565	1.841167
у3 <-							
	SciAtt	1.283359	.1797557	7.14	0.000	.931044	1.635674
y4 <-							
	SciAtt	0322354	.0612282	-0.53	0.599	1522405	.0877697
y1							
	/cut1	-1.343148	.0726927	-18.48	0.000	-1.485623	-1.200673
	/cut2	.0084719	.0521512	0.16	0.871	0937426	.1106863
	/cut3	.7876538	.0595266	13.23	0.000	.6709837	.9043238
	/cut4	1.989985	.0999181	19.92	0.000	1.794149	2.18582
у2							
	/cut1	-1.997245	.1311972	-15.22	0.000	-2.254387	-1.740104
	/cut2	8240241	.0753839	-10.93	0.000	9717738	6762743
	/cut3	.0547025	.0606036	0.90	0.367	0640784	.1734834
	/cut4	1.419923	.1001258	14.18	0.000	1.22368	1.616166
у3							
	/cut1	-1.271915	.0847483	-15.01	0.000	-1.438019	-1.105812
	/cut2	.1249493	.0579103	2.16	0.031	.0114472	.2384515
	/cut3	.9752553	.0745052	13.09	0.000	.8292277	1.121283
	/cut4	2.130661	.1257447	16.94	0.000	1.884206	2.377116
у4							
	/cut1	-1.484063	.0646856	-22.94	0.000	-1.610844	-1.357281
	/cut2	4259356	.0439145	-9.70	0.000	5120065	3398647
	/cut3	.1688777	.0427052	3.95	0.000	.0851771	.2525782
	/cut4	.9413113	.0500906	18.79	0.000	.8431356	1.039487
var	(SciAtt)	.5265523	.0979611			.3656637	.7582305

Notes:

1. The cutpoints c_1, \ldots, c_4 are labeled /cut1, ..., /cut4 in the output. We have a separate cutpoint for each of the four questions y1, ..., y4. Look at the estimated cutpoints for y1, which are -1.343, 0.008, 0.788, and 1.99. The probabilities that a person with SciAtt = 0 (its mean) would give the various responses are

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Pr}(\text{response 1}) = \text{normal(-1.343)} = 0.090 \\ & \text{Pr}(\text{response 2}) = \text{normal(0.008)} - \text{normal(-1.343)} = 0.414 \\ & \text{Pr}(\text{response 3}) = \text{normal(0.788)} - \text{normal(0.008)} = 0.281 \\ & \text{Pr}(\text{response 4}) = \text{normal(1.99)} - \text{normal(0.788)} = 0.192 \\ & \text{Pr}(\text{response 5}) = 1 - \text{normal(1.99)} = 0.023 \end{aligned}$$

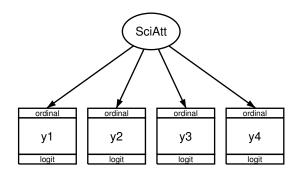
- 2. The path coefficients (y1 y2 y3 y4 <- SciAtt) measure the effect of the latent variable we called science attitude on each of the responses.
- 3. The estimated path coefficients are 1, 1.42, 1.28, and -0.03 for the four questions.
- 4. If you read the questions—they are listed above—you will find that in all but the fourth question, agreement signifies a negative attitude toward science. Thus SciAtt measures a negative attitude toward science because the loadings on negative questions are positive and the loading on the single positive question is negative.
- 5. The direction of the meanings of latent variables is always a priori indeterminate and is set by the identifying restrictions we apply. We applied—or more correctly, gsem applied for us—the constraint that y1 <- SciAtt has path coefficient 1. Because statement 1 was a negative statement about science, that was sufficient to set the direction of SciAtt to be the opposite of what we hoped for.

The direction does not matter. You simply must remember to interpret the latent variable correctly when reading results based on it. In the models we fit, including more complicated models, the signs of the coefficients will work themselves out to adjust for the direction of the variable.

Ordered logit

The description of the ordered logit model is identical to that of the ordered probit model except that where we assumed a normal distribution in our explanation above, we now assume a logit distribution. The distributions are similar.

To fit an ordered logit (ologit) model, the link function shown in the boxes merely changes from probit to logit:



We can fit the model in the command language by typing

. gsem (y1 y2 y3 y4 <- SciAtt), ologit

Fitting fixed-effects model:

 $log\ likelihood = -5227.8743$ Iteration 0: $log\ likelihood = -5227.8743$ Iteration 1:

Refining starting values:

Grid node 0: log likelihood = -5127.9026

Fitting full model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -5127.9026 (not concave)

Iteration 1: log likelihood = -5065.4679 Iteration 2: log likelihood = -5035.9766 Iteration 3: log likelihood = -5035.0943 Iteration 4: log likelihood = -5035.0353Iteration 5: log likelihood = -5035.0352

Number of obs = Generalized structural equation model 871

Log likelihood = -5035.0352

(1) [y1]SciAtt = 1

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
y1 <- SciAtt	1	(constraine				
SCIALL	1	(constraine	ea) 			
y2 <-						
SciAtt	1.394767	.2065479	6.75	0.000	.9899406	1.799593
у3 <-						
SciAtt	1.29383	.1845113	7.01	0.000	.9321939	1.655465
y4 <-						
SciAtt	0412446	.0619936	-0.67	0.506	1627498	.0802606
y1						
/cut1	-2.38274	.1394292	-17.09	0.000	-2.656016	-2.109464
/cut2	0088393	.0889718	-0.10	0.921	1832207	.1655422
/cut3	1.326292	.106275	12.48	0.000	1.117997	1.534587
/cut4	3.522017	.1955535	18.01	0.000	3.138739	3.905295
у2						
/cut1	-3.51417	. 2426595	-14.48	0.000	-3.989774	-3.038566
/cut2	-1.421711	.135695	-10.48	0.000	-1.687669	-1.155754
/cut3	.0963154	.1046839	0.92	0.358	1088612	.3014921
/cut4	2.491459	.1840433	13.54	0.000	2.130741	2.852178
у3						
/cut1	-2.263557	.1618806	-13.98	0.000	-2.580838	-1.946277
/cut2	.2024798	.1012122	2.00	0.045	.0041075	.400852
/cut3	1.695997	.1393606	12.17	0.000	1.422855	1.969138
/cut4	3.828154	.2464566	15.53	0.000	3.345108	4.3112
y4						
/cut1	-2.606013	.1338801	-19.47	0.000	-2.868413	-2.343613
/cut2	6866159	.0718998	-9.55	0.000	8275369	5456949
/cut3	.268862	.0684577	3.93	0.000	.1346874	.4030366
/cut4	1.561921	.0895438	17.44	0.000	1.386419	1.737424
var(SciAtt)	1.715641	.3207998			1.189226	2.475077

Note:

1. Results are nearly identical to those reported for ordered probit.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in *Ordered probit* above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_issp93
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Create the measurement component for SciAtt.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, \(\forall \), and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way down from the top and slightly left of the center.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to SciAtt;
- b. select y1, y2, y3, and y4 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. check Make measurements generalized;
- d. select Ordinal, Probit in the Family/Link control;
- e. select Down in the Measurement direction control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

5. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, , in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

- 6. To fit the model in *Ordered logit*, change the type of generalized response for each of the measurement variables.
 - a. Choose the Select tool,
 - b. Click on the y1 rectangle. In the Contextual Toolbar, select Ordinal, Logit in the Family/Link control.
 - c. Repeat this process to change the family and link to Ordinal, Logit for y2, y3, and y4.
- 7. Estimate again.

Click on the **Estimate** button, [1], in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram for the ordered probit model in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_oprobit

You can open a completed diagram for the ordered logit model in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_ologit

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

Reference

Greenacre, M. J. 2006. From simple to multiple correspondence analysis. In Multiple Correspondence Analysis and Related Methods, ed. M. J. Greenacre and J. Blasius. Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 1 — Single-factor measurement model
[SEM] example 27g — Single-factor measurement model (generalized response)
[SEM] example 33g — Logistic regression
[SEM] example 36g — MIMIC model (generalized response)
[SEM] example 37g — Multinomial logistic regression
[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
```

```
example 36g — MIMIC model (generalized response)
```

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

To demonstrate a multiple-indicators multiple-causes (MIMIC) model with generalized indicators, we use the same data used in [SEM] example 35g:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_issp93
 (Selection from ISSP 1993)
- . describe

Contains data from http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_issp93.dta
obs: 871 Selection for ISSP 1993
vars: 8 21 Mar 2013 16:03
size: 7,839 (_dta has notes)

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
id	int	%9.0g		respondent identifier
у1	byte	%26.0g	agree5	too much science, not enough feelings & faith
у2	byte	%26.0g	agree5	science does more harm than good
у3	byte	%26.0g	agree5	any change makes nature worse
y4	byte	%26.0g	agree5	science will solve environmental problems
sex	byte	%9.0g	sex	sex
age	byte	%9.0g	age	age (6 categories)
edu	byte	%20.0g	edu	education (6 categories)

Sorted by:

. notes

dta:

- Data from Greenacre, M. and J Blasius, 2006, _Multiple Correspondence Analysis and Related Methods_, pp. 42-43, Boca Raton: Chapman & Hall. Data is a subset of the International Social Survey Program (ISSP) 1993.
- 2. Full text of y1: We believe too often in science, and not enough in feelings and faith.
- 3. Full text of y2: Overall, modern science does more harm than good.
- Full text of y3: Any change humans cause in nature, no matter how scientific, is likely to make things worse.
- 5. Full text of y4: Modern science will solve our environmental problems with little change to our way of life.

See Structural models 9: MIMIC models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

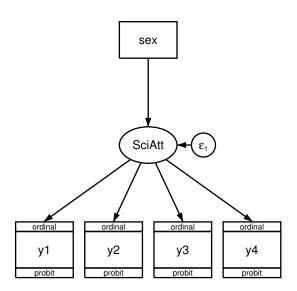
Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the MIMIC model Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting the MIMIC model

For a refresher on MIMIC models, see [SEM] **example 10**. In the data above, we have ordered categorical indicators. For an explanation on how we are about to treat these indicators with ordered probit, see [SEM] **example 35g**.

We wish to fit the following model:



We fit the model in the command language by typing

```
. gsem (y1 y2 y3 y4 <- SciAtt) (SciAtt <- sex), oprobit
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -5227.8743
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -5227.8743
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log likelihood = -5230.8106
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -5230.8106
                                              (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -5132.1065
                                              (not concave)
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -5066.8481
Iteration 3:
               log\ likelihood = -5033.2807
Iteration 4:
               log\ likelihood = -5032.7884
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -5032.3837
Iteration 6:
               log likelihood = -5032.3778
Iteration 7:
               log\ likelihood = -5032.3778
```

Generalized structural equation model Log likelihood = -5032.3778

Number of obs = 871

(1) [y1]SciAtt = 1

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
y1 <- SciAtt	1	(constraine	ed)			
y2 <- SciAtt	1.405732	.2089672	6.73	0.000	.9961641	1.8153
y3 <- SciAtt	1.246449	.1710771	7.29	0.000	.911144	1.581754
y4 <- SciAtt	0345517	.0602017	-0.57	0.566	1525449	.0834415
SciAtt <- sex	2337427	.0644245	-3.63	0.000	3600124	1074729
y1 /cut1 /cut2 /cut3 /cut4	-1.469615 10992 .6729334 1.879901	.0855651 .0615897 .0644695 .0996675	-17.18 -1.78 10.44 18.86	0.000 0.074 0.000 0.000	-1.63732 2306336 .5465755 1.684557	-1.301911 .0107937 .7992914 2.075246
y2 /cut1 /cut2 /cut3 /cut4	-2.16739 9912152 1118914 1.252164	.1480596 .0943091 .075311 .0983918	-14.64 -10.51 -1.49 12.73	0.000 0.000 0.137 0.000	-2.457582 -1.176058 2594982 1.05932	-1.877199 8063727 .0357154 1.445008
y3 /cut1 /cut2 /cut3 /cut4	-1.412372 0230879 .8209522 1.966042	.0977772 .0687432 .0771653 .1196586	-14.44 -0.34 10.64 16.43	0.000 0.737 0.000 0.000	-1.604012 1578221 .6697109 1.731515	-1.220733 .1116464 .9721935 2.200568
y4 /cut1 /cut2 /cut3 /cut4	-1.47999 4218768 .172995 .9454906	.0650596 .0443504 .0432394 .0507422	-22.75 -9.51 4.00 18.63	0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000	-1.607505 508802 .0882473 .8460376	-1.352476 3349516 .2577427 1.044944
<pre>var(e.SciAtt)</pre>	.5283629	.0978703			.3675036	.7596315

Notes:

- 1. Our latent variable measures a negative attitude toward science, just as it did in [SEM] example 35g.
- In this MIMIC model, we allow males and females to have different underlying attitudes toward science.
- 3. The coefficient for SciAtt <- sex is -0.234. Variable sex is equal to 1 for females, thus females have a lower mean value for SciAtt by 0.234. Because our SciAtt measure is reversed, this means that females have a more positive attitude toward science. The effect is significant at better than the 1% level.
- 4. The difference between males and females in SciAtt is −0.234. Is that big or small, practically speaking?

In the ordered probit specification, predicted agreement with questions is determined by an index into a N(0,1) distribution. The value of the index is then compared with the cutpoints to determine the probability that the response is 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5.

For statement 1, the loading on SciAtt is 1, and therefore the average difference in the probit index for males and females is $-0.0234 \times 1 = -0.0234$ standard deviation units. Females are 0.234 standard deviations to the left of males on average.

For statement 2, the loading on SciAtt is 1.41, and therefore the average difference in the probit index is $-0.0234 \times 1.41 = -0.033$ standard deviation units.

You can work out the effect size for the other statements. We would say that the effect is medium sized.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in Fitting the MIMIC model above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_issp93
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Create the measurement component for SciAtt.

Select the Add Measurement Component tool, \(^{\mathbb{T}}\), and then click in the diagram halfway down and slightly left of the center.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. change the Latent variable name to SciAtt;
- b. select y1, y2, y3, and y4 by using the Measurement variables control;
- c. check Make measurements generalized;
- d. select Ordinal, Probit in the Family/Link control;
- e. select Down in the Measurement direction control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the component by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 5. Create the variable for the formative indicator of SciAtt.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, , and then click in the diagram directly above the oval for SciAtt and about one-fourth of the way down from the top. After adding it, you can click inside the rectangle to move the variable if you wish.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, select sex with the Variable control.

- 6. Create the path from the formative indicator to SciAtt.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the bottom of the sex rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the top of the SciAtt oval (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
- 7. Clean up the direction of the error.

The error on SciAtt is likely to have been created below the oval for SciAtt. Choose the Select tool, , and then click in the SciAtt oval. Click on one of the Error Rotation buttons, , in the Contextual Toolbar until the error is where you want it.

8. Clean up the location of the path.

If you do not like where the path between sex and SciAtt has been connected to its variables, use the Select tool, , to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle or oval and drag the endpoint.

9. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_mimic

Reference

Greenacre, M. J. 2006. From simple to multiple correspondence analysis. In *Multiple Correspondence Analysis and Related Methods*, ed. M. J. Greenacre and J. Blasius. Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall.

Also see

[SEM] example 10 — MIMIC model

[SEM] example 35g — Ordered probit and ordered logit

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

```
example 37g — Multinomial logistic regression
```

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

With the data below, we demonstrate multinomial logistic regression, also known as multinomial logit, mlogit, and family multinomial, link logit:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_sysdsn1
 (Health insurance data)
- . describe

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
site	byte	%9.0g		study site (1-3)
patid	float	%9.0g		patient id
insure	byte	%9.0g	insure	insurance type
age	float	%10.0g		NEMC (ISCNRD-IBIRTHD)/365.25
male	byte	%8.0g		NEMC PATIENT MALE
nonwhite	byte	%9.0g		race
noinsur0	byte	%8.0g		no insurance at baseline
noinsur1	byte	%8.0g		no insurance at year 1
noinsur2	byte	%8.0g		no insurance at year 2
ppd0	byte	%8.0g		prepaid at baseline
ppd1	byte	%8.0g		prepaid at year 1
ppd2	byte	%8.0g		prepaid at year 2

Sorted by: patid

- . notes
- _dta:
 - Data on health insurance available to 644 psychologically depressed subjects.
 - Data from Tarlov, A.R., et al., 1989, "The Medical Outcomes Study. An
 application of methods for monitoring the results of medical care." _J.
 of the American Medical Association_ 262, pp. 925-930.
 - 3. insure: 1=indemnity, 2=prepaid, 3=uninsured.

See Structural models 6: Multinomial logistic regression in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

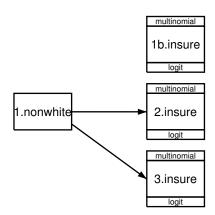
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Simple multinomial logistic regression model Multinomial logistic regression model with constraints Fitting the simple multinomial logistic model with the Builder Fitting the multinomial logistic model with constraints with the Builder

Simple multinomial logistic regression model

In a multinomial logistic regression model, there are multiple unordered outcomes. In our case, these outcomes are recorded in variable insure. This variable records three different outcomes—indemnity, prepaid, and uninsured—recorded as 1, 2, and 3. The model we wish to fit is



The response variables are 1.insure, 2.insure, and 3.insure, meaning insure = 1 (code for indemnity), insure = 2 (code for prepaid), and insure = 3 (code for uninsured). We specified that insure = 1 be treated as the mlogit base category by placing a b on 1.insure to produce 1b.insure in the variable box.

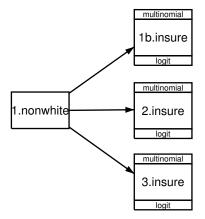
Notice that there are no paths into 1b.insure. We could just as well have diagrammed the model with a path arrow from the explanatory variable into 1b.insure. It would have made no difference.

In one sense, omitting the path is more mathematically appropriate, because multinomial logistic base levels are defined by having all coefficients constrained to be 0.

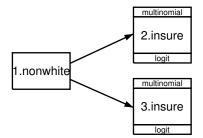
In another sense, drawing the path would be more appropriate because, even with insure = 1as the base level, we are not assuming that outcome insure = 1 is unaffected by the explanatory variables. The probabilities of the three possible outcomes must sum to 1, and so any predictor that increases one probability of necessity causes the sum of the remaining probabilities to decrease. If a predictor x has positive effects (coefficients) for both 2. insure and 3. insure, then increases in xmust cause the probability of 1.insure to fall.

The choice of base outcome specifies that the coefficients associated with the other outcomes are to be measured relative to that base. In multinomial logistic regression, the coefficients are logs of the probability of the category divided by the probability of the base category, a mouthful also known as the log of the relative-risk ratio.

We drew the diagram one way, but we could just as well have drawn it like this:



In fact, we could just as well have chosen to indicate the base category by omitting it entirely from our diagram, like this:



Going along with that, we could type three different commands, each exactly corresponding to one of the three diagrams:

- . gsem (1b.insure) (2.insure 3.insure <- i.nonwhite), mlogit
- . gsem (1b.insure 2.insure 3.insure <- i.nonwhite), mlogit
- . gsem (2.insure 3.insure <- i.nonwhite), mlogit

In the command language, however, we would probably just type

. gsem (i.insure <- i.nonwhite), mlogit

See [SEM] **intro 3** for a complete description of factor-variable notation. It makes no difference which diagram we draw or which command we type.

This model can be fit using the command syntax by typing

. gsem (i.insure <- i.nonwhite), mlogit

Iteration 0: $log\ likelihood = -556.59502$ $\log likelihood = -551.78935$ Iteration 1: $log\ likelihood = -551.78348$ Iteration 2: Iteration 3: $log\ likelihood = -551.78348$

Generalized structural equation model

Number of obs 616

Log likelihood = -551.78348

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf	Interval]
1.insure	(base outco	ome)				
2.insure <-						
1.nonwhite _cons	.6608212 1879149	.2157321 .0937644	3.06 -2.00	0.002 0.045	.2379942 3716896	1.083648 0041401
3.insure <-						
1.nonwhite _cons	.3779586 -1.941934	.407589 .1782185	0.93 -10.90	0.354 0.000	4209011 -2.291236	1.176818 -1.592632

Notes:

- 1. The above results say that nonwhites are more likely to have insure = 2 relative to 1 than whites, and that nonwhites are more likely to have insure = 3 relative to 1 than whites, which obviously implies that whites are more likely to have insure = 1.
- 2. For a three-outcome multinomial logistic regression model with the first outcome set to be the base level, the probability of each outcome is

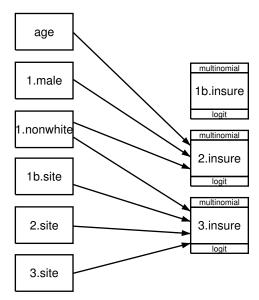
$$\begin{aligned} ⪻(y=1) = 1/D \\ ⪻(y=2) = \exp(\mathbf{X}_2\boldsymbol{\beta}_2)/D \\ ⪻(y=2) = \exp(\mathbf{X}_3\boldsymbol{\beta}_3)/D \end{aligned}$$

where
$$D = 1 + \exp(\mathbf{X}_2 \boldsymbol{\beta}_2) + \exp(\mathbf{X}_3 \boldsymbol{\beta}_3)$$
.

3. For whites—that is, for 1.nonwhite = 0—we have $X_2\beta_2 = -0.1879$ and $X_3\beta_3 = -1.9419$. Thus D = 1.9721, and the probabilities for each outcome are 0.5071, 0.4202, and 0.0727. Those probabilities sum to 1. You can make the similar calculations for nonwhites—that is, for 1.nonwhite = 1—for yourself.

Multinomial logistic regression model with constraints

Using the same data, we wish to fit the following model:



In the above, insure = 2 and insure = 3 have paths pointing to them from different sets of predictors. They share predictor 1.nonwhite, but insure = 2 also has paths from age and 1.male, whereas insure = 3 also has paths from the site variables. When we fit this model, we will not obtain estimates of the coefficients on age and 1.male in the equation for insure = 3. This is equivalent to constraining the coefficients for age and 1.male to 0 in this equation. In other words, we are placing a constraint that the relative risk of choosing insure = 3 rather than insure = 1 is the same for males and females and is the same for all ages.

This model can be fit using command syntax by typing

```
. gsem (2.insure <- i.nonwhite age i.male)
       (3.insure <- i.nonwhite i.site), mlogit
              log\ likelihood = -555.85446
Iteration 0:
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -541.20487
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -540.85219
Iteration 3:
              log likelihood = -540.85164
Iteration 4:
              log likelihood = -540.85164
```

Generalized structural equation model Log likelihood = -540.85164

Number of obs = 615

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
1.insure	(base outc	ome)				
2.insure <-						
1.nonwhite age 1.male _cons	.7219663 0101291 .5037961 .1249932	.2184994 .0058972 .1912717 .2743262	3.30 -1.72 2.63 0.46	0.001 0.086 0.008 0.649	.2937153 0216874 .1289104 4126763	1.150217 .0014292 .8786818 .6626627
3.insure <-						
1.nonwhite	.0569646	.4200407	0.14	0.892	7663001	.8802293
site 2 3	-1.273576 .0434253	.4562854 .3470773	-2.79 0.13	0.005 0.900	-2.167879 6368337	3792728 .7236843
_cons	-1.558258	.2540157	-6.13	0.000	-2.056119	-1.060396

We could have gotten identical results from Stata's mlogit command for both this example and the previous one. To fit the first example, we would have typed

. mlogit insure i.nonwhite

To obtain the results for this second example, we would have been required to type a bit more:

```
. constraint 1 [Uninsure]age = 0
```

- . constraint 2 [Uninsure] 1.male = 0
- . constraint 3 [Prepaid] 2.site = 0
- . constraint 4 [Prepaid]3.site = 0
- . mlogit insure i.nonwhite age i.male i.site, constraints(1/4)

Having mlogit embedded in gsem, of course, also provides the advantage that we can combine the mlogit model with measurement models, multilevel models, and more. See [SEM] example 41g for a two-level multinomial logistic regression with random effects.

Fitting the simple multinomial logistic model with the Builder

Use the first diagram in Simple multinomial logistic regression model above for reference.

Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_sysdsn1

2. Open a new builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the button.
- 4. Create the rectangles for each possible outcome of the multinomial endogenous variable.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the right and one-fourth of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. check Make variables generalized responses;
- c. select Multinomial, Logit in the Family/Link control;
- d. select insure in the Variable control;
- e. select Vertical in the Orientation control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 5. Create the independent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, , and then click in the diagram to the left of 2.insure.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1.nonwhite in the Variable control and press Enter.
- 6. Create the paths from the independent variable to the rectangles for outcomes $\mathtt{insure} = 2$ and $\mathtt{insure} = 3$.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the right side of the 1.nonwhite rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the 2.insure rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, click in the right side of the 1.nonwhite rectangle and drag a path to the left side of the 3.insure rectangle.
- 7. Clean up the location of the paths.

If you do not like where the paths have been connected to the rectangles, use the Select tool, , to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle and drag the endpoint.

8. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, [15], in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_mlogit1

Fitting the multinomial logistic model with constraints with the Builder

Use the diagram in Multinomial logistic regression model with constraints above for reference.

Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_sysdsn1
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Create the rectangles for each possible outcome of the multinomial endogenous variable.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, "", and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the right and one-fourth of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. check Make variables generalized responses;
- c. select Multinomial, Logit in the Family/Link control;
- d. select insure in the Variable control:
- e. select Vertical in the Orientation control;
- f. click on **OK**.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

5. Create the independent variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click in the diagram about one-third from the left and one-fourth from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. uncheck Make variables generalized responses;
- c. use the Variables control and select age;
- d. type 1.male 1.nonwhite in the Variables control after age (typing 1.varname rather than using the ... button to create them as i.varname factor variables prevents rectangles corresponding to the base categories for these binary variables from being created);
- e. include the levels of the factor variable site by clicking on the ... button next to the Variables control. In the resulting dialog box, select the Factor variable radio button, select Main effect in the Specification control, and select site in the Variables control for Variable 1. Click on Add to varlist, and then click on OK;
- f. select Vertical in the Orientation control;
- g. click on OK.

- 6. Create the paths from the independent variables to the rectangles for outcomes insure = 2 and insure = 3.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the right side of the age rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the 2.insure rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, create the following paths by clicking first in the right side of the rectangle for the independent variable and dragging it to the left side of the rectangle for the given outcome of the dependent variable:

```
1.male -> 2.insure
1.nonwhite -> 2.insure
1.nonwhite -> 3.insure
1b.site -> 3.insure
2.site -> 3.insure
3.site -> 3.insure
```

7. Clean up the location of the paths.

If you do not like where the paths have been connected to the rectangles, use the Select tool, to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle and drag the endpoint.

8. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_mlogit2

Reference

Tarlov, A. R., J. E. Ware, Jr., S. Greenfield, E. C. Nelson, E. Perrin, and M. Zubkoff. 1989. The medical outcomes study. An application of methods for monitoring the results of medical care. *Journal of the American Medical* Association 262: 925–930.

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 35g — Ordered probit and ordered logit
    [SEM] example 41g — Two-level multinomial logistic regression (multilevel)
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models
```

example 38g — Random-intercept and random-slope models (multilevel)

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

Below we discuss random-intercept and random-slope models in the context of multilevel models, and specifically, 2-level models, although we could just as well use higher-level models (see [SEM] example 39g). Some people refer to these models as random-effects models and as mixed-effects models.

To demonstrate random-intercept and random-slope models, we will use the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_nlsy
 (NLSY 1968)
- . describe

Contains data from http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_nlsy.dta

obs: 2,763 NLSY 1968

vars: 21 29 Mar 2013 11:30 size: 93,942 (_dta has notes)

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
idcode year birth_yr age race msp nev_mar grade collgrad not_smsa c_city south ind_code occ_code union wks_ue ttl_exp tenure hours wks_work	int int byte byte byte byte byte byte byte byt	%9.0g %8.0g %8.0g	racelbl	NLS ID interview year birth year age in current year race 1 if married, spouse present 1 if never married current grade completed 1 if college graduate 1 if not SMSA 1 if central city 1 if south industry of employment occupation 1 if union weeks unemployed last year total work experience job tenure, in years usual hours worked weeks worked last year
ln_wage	float	%9.0g		<pre>ln(wage/GNP deflator)</pre>

Sorted by: idcode year

. notes

_dta:

- Data from National Longitudinal Survey of Young Women 14-27 years of age in 1968 (NLSY), Center for Human Resource Research, Ohio State University, first released in 1989.
- 2. This data was subsetted for purposes of demonstration.

These 2-level data are recorded in long form, that is, each observation corresponds to a year within a subject and the full set of data is spread across repeated observations.

. list id year ln_wage union grade in 1/20, sepby(idcode)

	idcode	year	ln_wage	union	grade
1.	1	1970	1.451214		12
2.	1	1971	1.02862		12
3.	1	1972	1.589977	1	12
4.	1	1973	1.780273		12
5.	1	1975	1.777012		12
6.	1	1977	1.778681	0	12
7.	1	1978	2.493976		12
8.	1	1980	2.551715	1	12
9.	1	1983	2.420261	1	12
10.	1	1985	2.614172	1	12
11.	1	1987	2.536374	1	12
12.	1	1988	2.462927	1	12
13.	2	1971	1.360348	0	12
14.	2	1972	1.206198		12
15.	2	1973	1.549883		12
16.	2	1975	1.832581		12
17.	2	1977	1.726721	1	12
18.	2	1978	1.68991	1	12
19.	2	1980	1.726964	1	12
20.	2	1982	1.808289	1	12

In the repeated observations for a subject, some variables vary (they are at the observation level, such as ln_wage) and other variables do not vary (they are at the subject level, such as grade).

When using gsem, multilevel data must be recorded in the long form except in one case. The exception is latent-growth curve models, which can be fit in the long or wide form. In the wide form, there is one physical observation for each subject and multiple variables within subject, such as ln_wage_1970, ln_wage_1971, and so on. Researchers from a structural equation modeling background think about latent-growth models in the wide form; see [SEM] example 18.

In all other cases, if your data are in the wide form, use Stata's reshape command (see [D] reshape) to convert the data to long form.

See Structural models 1: Linear regression and Multilevel mixed-effects models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Random-intercept model, single-equation formulation Random-intercept model, within-and-between formulation Random-slope model, single-equation formulation Random-slope model, within-and-between formulation Fitting the random-intercept model with the Builder Fitting the random-slope model with the Builder

Random-intercept model, single-equation formulation

There are two formulations of the random-intercept model, which we call the single-equation formulation and the within-and-between formulation. Results from both formulations are identical unless you have observations with missing values, in which case the within-and-between formulation will sometimes use more of the data.

We will show you both formulations, but the single-equation formulation makes a good starting point. The model we wish to fit is

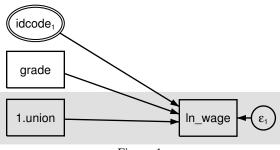


Figure 1

We use factor-variable notation in the diagram above; see [SEM] example 37g.

We are using multilevel data. ln_wage and union (union membership) vary at the observation level, while grade (school completion) varies at the subject level. We have used shading to emphasize that.

In this model, we are including a random intercept (a random effect) at the subject level. Doubleringed idcode is saying, "I am a latent variable at the idcode level-meaning I am constant within identification codes and vary across identification codes—and I correspond to a latent variable named M1." The M1 part of the statement came from the subscript 1; the M part is fixed.

Double-ringed idcode indicates a latent variable constant within idcode—a random effect. And the fact that the path from the latent variable is pointing to a box and not to another path means that the latent variable is used as a random intercept rather than a random slope. By the way, variable idcode in the data contains each subject's identification number.

Using command syntax, we can fit this model by typing

```
. gsem (ln_wage <- i.union grade M1[idcode])
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -925.06629
               log\ likelihood = -925.06629
Iteration 1:
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -763.3769
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -763.3769
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -622.04625
                                              (backed up)
               log likelihood = -613.54948
Iteration 2:
Iteration 3:
               log\ likelihood = -607.56242
Iteration 4:
               log likelihood = -607.49246
               log\ likelihood = -607.49233
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -607.49233
Iteration 6:
```

Generalized structural equation model Log likelihood = -607.49233

Number of obs = 1904

// order of arguments unimportant

(1) [ln_wage]M1[idcode] = 1

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
ln_wage <-						
1.union grade	.1637408 .0767919	.0227254	7.21 11.31	0.000 0.000	.1191998 .0634791	.2082818 .0901046
M1[idcode]	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	.7774129	.0906282	8.58	0.000	.5997848	.955041
var(M1[idcode])	.080247	.0073188			.0671113	.0959537
var(e.ln_w~e)	.078449	.0028627			.0730342	.0842653

Notes:

 The ln_wage <- M1[idcode] coefficient is constrained to be 1. Such constraints are automatically supplied by gsem to identify the latent variable. Our model is

$$ln_wage = \cdots + \beta_3 \times M1[idcode] + _cons$$
$$= \cdots + 1 \times MI[idcode] + 0.7774$$

Thus M1[idcode] is being used as a random intercept.

. lrtest without with

Remember that the square bracketed [idcode] means that M1 is constant within idcode and varies only across idcode.

- 2. The variance of our random intercept is estimated to be 0.0802, which is greater than the estimated error variance of 0.0784.
- 3. Although it is obvious in this case that the latent variable (random intercept) has sufficient variance that it cannot be ignored, we can test whether the variance is large enough that we could not ignore it. The test will be up against a boundary (variances cannot be less than 0), and so the test will be conservative. To perform the test, we would type

Random-intercept model, within-and-between formulation

The other way to write the random-intercept model is

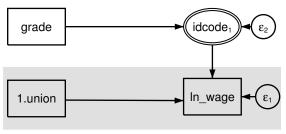


Figure 2

Do not read grade pointing to double-ringed idcode as grade being a predictor of idcode. That would make no sense. Double rings indicate a latent variable, and grade is a predictor of a latent variable. In particular, the subscript 1 on idcode indicates that the latent variable is named M1. Thus grade is a predictor of M1. The idcode inside the double rings says that M1 is constant within idcode. Thus grade, which itself does not vary within idcode, is a predictor of M1, which does not vary within idcode; said more elegantly, grade is a predictor of M1 at the subject level.

It is logically required that grade vary at the same or higher level as M1[idcode], and gsem will check that requirement for you.

In this model, M1[idcode] contains both the random intercept and the grade effect. There is now an equation for M1[idcode], with an error associated with it, and it will be the variance of the error term that will reflect the variance of the random intercept.

To fit this within-and-between formulation of our model, we type

```
. gsem (ln_wage <- i.union M1[idcode]) (M1[idcode] <- grade)
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -1091.655
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -1091.655
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -886.50236
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -886.50236
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -683.7337
               log\ likelihood = -630.91327
Iteration 2:
Iteration 3:
               log likelihood = -608.14536
Iteration 4:
               log likelihood = -607.49376
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -607.49233
Iteration 6:
               log\ likelihood = -607.49233
Generalized structural equation model
                                                   Number of obs
                                                                            1904
Log likelihood = -607.49233
 ( 1) [ln_wage]M1[idcode] = 1
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
ln_wage <-						
1.union	.1637408	.0227254	7.21	0.000	.1191998	.2082818
M1[idcode]	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	.7774129	.0906282	8.58	0.000	.5997848	.955041
M1[idco~] <- grade	.0767919	.0067923	11.31	0.000	.0634791	.0901046
var(e.M1[idcode])	.080247	.0073188			.0671113	.0959537
var(e.ln_w~e)	.078449	.0028627			.0730342	.0842653

Notes:

- 1. Results are identical to what we previously obtained.
- 2. The within-and-between formulation is equivalent to the single-equation formulation if there are no missing values in the data.
- 3. In this simple model, the two formulations are also equivalent even in the presence of missing values.
- 4. If M1[idcode] were also being used to predict another endogenous variable, then missing values in grade would only cause the equation for the other endogenous variable to have to omit those observations in the within-and-between formulation.

Random-slope model, single-equation formulation

Let us now turn to random slopes. Because it is generally—not always—a good idea to include random intercepts with random slopes, we are going to include both. In addition, we are going to complicate our model by adding an interaction term between union membership and grade so we can make another point that we will not explain until the next section.

The model we wish to fit is

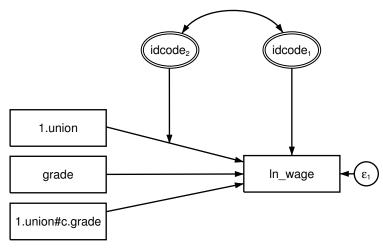


Figure 3: Demonstrated formulation 1

Ignore the interaction between union membership and grade. We could have omitted it from this example, but we want to show later the strikingly different way that interaction can be written in the within-and-between formulation.

In this model, we have double-ringed idcode, just as we did in a previous section introducing a random intercept into the model. This time, however, we also have a second double-ringed idcode adding a random slope. When a path from a latent variable points to another path, it is specifying a random slope. When specifying a random slope for a variable, you still include the variable in the usual, fixed-slope way, and then you add the extra component.

The result of the extra component will be to add an interaction into the model. 1.union will affect ln_wage, just as we have drawn, and the extra component will add 1.union × M2[idcode]. That is, the effect of 1.union in our model will be

$$\begin{split} & \texttt{ln_wage} = \cdots \, + \, \beta_3 \times \texttt{1.union} \, + \, \beta_4 \times \texttt{1.union} \times \texttt{M2[idcode]} \, + \cdots \\ & = \cdots \, + \, \beta_3 \times \texttt{1.union} \, + \, \beta_4 \times \texttt{M2[idcode]} \times \texttt{1.union} \, + \cdots \\ & = \cdots \, + \, (\beta_3 + \beta_4 \times \texttt{M2[idcode]}) \times \texttt{1.union} + \cdots \end{split}$$

The fixed-plus-random, total slope is $\beta_3 + \beta_4 \times M2$ [idcode]. Latent variable M2 has an arbitrary scale, and therefore coefficient β_4 cannot be identified. So constraining $\beta_4 = 1$ results in the total slope being $\beta_3 + M2[idcode]$, which is exactly how you would expect a fixed-plus-random slope to look. In other words, drawing the path from $idcode_2$ to the path with coefficient β_3 indicates that M2[idcode] is added to β_3 .

To fit this model in the command language, we type

```
. gsem (ln_wage <- i.union grade i.union#c.grade M1[idcode] 1.union#M2[idcode])
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -925.06629
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -925.06629
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log likelihood = -869.92256
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -869.92256
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -727.15806 (not concave)
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood = -711.74718 (not concave)
               log likelihood = -684.33867
Iteration 3:
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 4:
               log likelihood = -665.94123
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -610.14526
Iteration 6:
               log\ likelihood = -589.89989
Iteration 7:
               log\ likelihood = -582.24119
Iteration 8:
               log likelihood =
                                  -581.298
               log likelihood = -581.29004
Iteration 9:
Iteration 10: log likelihood = -581.29003
Generalized structural equation model
                                                   Number of obs
                                                                           1904
Log likelihood = -581.29003
```

- (1) [ln_wage]M1[idcode] = 1
- (2) [ln_wage]1.union#M2[idcode] = 1

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
ln_wage <-						
1.union grade	.1199049 .0757883	.1508189	0.80 9.26	0.427 0.000	1756946 .0597552	.4155045 .0918215
union# c.grade 1	.0019983	0112524	0.18	0.860	020254	.0242506
_		.0113534		0.000	020254	.0242506
M1[idcode]	1	(constraine	d)			
union# M2[idcode]						
0 1	0 1	(omitted) (constraine	d)			
_cons	.7873884	.1086476	7.25	0.000	.574443	1.000334
var(M1[idcode]) var(.0927931	.0088245			.0770136	.1118056
M2[idcode])	.0823065	.018622			.052826	.1282392
cov(M2[idcode],						
M1[idcode])	0549821	.0116103	-4.74	0.000	077738	0322263
var(e.ln_w~e)	.0720873	.0027135			.0669603	.0776068

Notes:

- 1. M1[idcode] is the random intercept. The coefficient on it is constrained to be 1, just as previously and just as we would expect.
- 2. The coefficient on 1.union is the fixed part of the slope of union.
- 3. M2[idcode] is the random part of the slope of union.

The coefficient on 1.union#M2[idcode] is constrained to be 1, just as we would expect. 1.union#M2[idcode] is the way Stata writes 1.union × M2[idcode].

4. There is an unexpected term in the output, O.union#M2[idcode], shown with coefficient O. The first thing to remember about unexpected terms is that they are irrelevant if their coefficients are O. gsem reports the coefficient as being O (omitted), which is gsem's way of saying, "Here is a line that I did not even include in the model." There are a lot of terms gsem could tell us about that were not included in the model, so why did gsem feel obligated to tell us about this term? The term has to do with how Stata tracks base levels of factor variables.

There is a setting—set showbaselevels off—that will prevent lines like that from being displayed. There is also a setting—set showbaselevels all—that will show even more of them! The default is set showbaselevels on.

5. We specified the interaction as 1.union#M2[idcode] rather than i.union#M2[idcode]. Even so, using #.union#M2[idcode] or i.union#M2[idcode] makes no difference because union takes on two values. If union took on three values, however, think about how we would diagram the model. We would have two latent variables, and we would want 1.union#M2[idcode] and 2.union#M3[idcode]. If union took on three or more values, typing i.union#M2[idcode] simply would not produce the desired result.

Random-slope model, within-and-between formulation

To properly demonstrate the within-and-between formulation, we need a more complicated model; we made one in the previous section when we included 1.union#c.grade and then told you to ignore it.

Pretend that we had omitted 1.union#c.grade from the random-slope, single-equation formulation model. It would have looked like this:

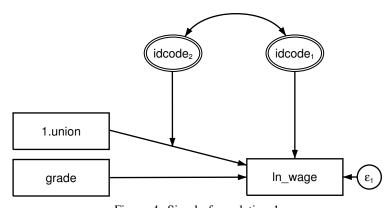


Figure 4: Simple formulation 1

Let's call this model Simple formulation 1 as compared with the model that we fit in the previous section, which we will call Demonstrated formulation 1. We could have fit Simple formulation 1 by typing

```
. gsem (ln_wage <- i.union grade M1[idcode] 1.union#M2[idcode])</pre>
```

The corresponding within-and-between model, which we will call Simple formulation 2, would look something like this:

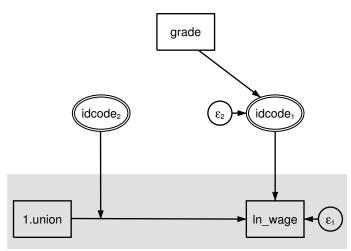


Figure 5: Simple formulation 2

We say that it would look something like the above because Simple formulations 1 and 2 are not identical models. In particular, there is nothing in Simple formulation 2 that corresponds to the correlation between M1[idcode] and M2[idcode] in Simple formulation 1. Other than that, the models are identical. In Simple formulation 1, grade directly affects ln_wage. In Simple formulation 2, grade affects M1[idcode] and M1[idcode] affects ln_wage. The results are the same either way. Many researchers prefer Simple formulation 2 because it visually separates the within (subject) and between (subject) levels.

But as we said, the two formulations are not identical. They would be identical if we added a curved covariance path between ϵ_2 and idcode₂, but Stata will not allow us to do that.

On the other hand, if you wanted to fit the simple model without the correlation, you could do it in either formulation. For Simple formulation 1, you would type

For Simple formulation 2, you would type

```
. gsem (ln_wage <- i.union M1[idcode] 1.union#M2[idcode]) (M1[idcode] <- grade)
```

Either way, results would be identical.

In more complicated models, you can correlate the random intercepts and slopes even in a second formulation. Consider Demonstrated formulation 2:

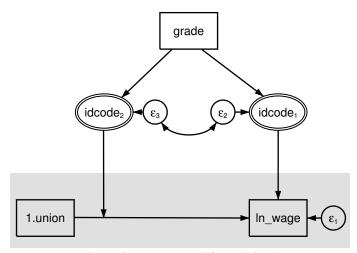


Figure 6: Demonstrated formulation 2

In this model, we allow correlation between ϵ_3 and ϵ_2 —which Stata does allow—and that is the same as allowing correlation between M1[idcode] and M2[idcode] in the formulation-1 model. The general rule is that formulation 2 can be used to correlate the random intercepts and random slopes when both M1 and M2 are (latent) exogenous or (latent) endogenous.

Demonstrated formulation 2 corresponds to Demonstrated formulation 1. In Demonstrated formulation 1, we included ln_wage <- i.union#c.grade. Do you see how that term is implied by the path diagram above? Variable grade affects M2[idcode], which in turn affects the slope of 1.union. Affecting the slope is the same as an interaction.

And now you know why we complicated Demonstrated formulation 1. We did that so that we can show you Demonstrated formulation 2:

```
. gsem (ln_wage <- i.union M1[idcode] 1.union#M2[idcode])
       (M1[idcode] M2[idcode] <- grade), cov(e.M1[idcode]*e.M2[idcode])</pre>
Fitting fixed-effects model:
               log likelihood = -1091.655
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -1091.655
Iteration 1:
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log likelihood = -982.18261
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -982.18261
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -690.60714
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -677.13819
                                             (not concave)
               log likelihood = -661.26658
Iteration 3:
Iteration 4:
               log likelihood = -615.66049
Iteration 5:
               log likelihood = -585.69402
Iteration 6:
               log\ likelihood = -581.34158
Iteration 7:
               log\ likelihood = -581.29005
               log\ likelihood = -581.29003
Iteration 8:
```

Generalized structural equation model
Log likelihood = -581.29003

Number of obs = 1904

- (1) [ln_wage]M1[idcode] = 1
- (2) [ln_wage]1.union#M2[idcode] = 1

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
ln_wage <-						
1.union	.119905	.1508188	0.80	0.427	1756945	.4155045
M1[idcode]	1	(constrained	1)			
union# M2[idcode] 0 1	0 1	(omitted) (constrained	1)			
_cons	.7873884	.1086476	7.25	0.000	.5744431	1.000334
M1[idco~] <- grade	.0757883	.0081803	9.26	0.000	.0597552	.0918215
M2[idco~] <- grade	.0019983	.0113534	0.18	0.860	020254	.0242506
var(e.M1[idcode]) var(e.M2[idcode])	.092793	.0088245			.0770136	.1118055
cov(e.M2[idcode],	.002000	.010022				.1202002
e.M2[idcode], e.M1[idcode])	0549822	.0116103	-4.74	0.000	077738	0322263
var(e.ln_w~e)	.0720873	.0027135			.0669603	.0776068

Note:

1. Results of the above are identical to the results of Demonstrated formulation 1.

Fitting the random-intercept model with the Builder

Use the diagram in Random-intercept model, single-equation formulation above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_nlsy
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Put the Builder in grem mode by clicking on the button.

- 4. Create the endogenous variable.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, \square , and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the right and one-third of the way up from the bottom. After adding it, you can click inside the rectangle and move the variable if you wish.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, select ln_wage with the Variable control.
- 5. Create the observed exogenous variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the left and one-third of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. use the Variables control and select grade;
- c. type 1.union in the *Variables* control after grade (typing 1.union rather than using the button to create i.union prevents the rectangle corresponding to the base category for this binary variable from being created);
- d. select Vertical in the Orientation control:
- e. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 6. Create the multilevel latent variable corresponding to the random intercept.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, , and click above the rectangle for grade.
 - b. In the Contextual toolbar, click on the ... button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 2 from the Nesting depth control and selecting idcode > Observations in the next control.
 - d. Specify M1 as the Base name.
 - e. Click on OK.
- 7. Create the paths from the exogenous variables to ln_wage.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the right side of the 1.union rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the ln_wage rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, draw paths from the right side of the grade rectangle to the left side of the ln_wage rectangle and from the right side of the idcode₁ double oval to the left side of the ln_wage rectangle.
- 8. Clean up the location of the paths.

If you do not like where the paths have been connected to the rectangles or oval, use the Select tool, , to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle or oval and drag the endpoint.

9. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, [12], in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_rint

Fitting the random-slope model with the Builder

Use the diagram in Random-slope model, single-equation formulation above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_nlsy
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Increase the width of the observed variable rectangles to accommodate the length of the name of the interaction term.

From the SEM Builder menu, select **Settings > Variables > All Observed...**.

In the resulting dialog box, change the first size to 1 and click on **OK**.

- 5. Create the endogenous variable.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, \square , and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the right and one-third of the way up from the bottom. After adding it, you can click inside the rectangle and move the variable if you wish.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, select ln_wage with the Variable control.
- 6. Create the observed exogenous variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the left and one-third of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. type 1.union in the *Variables* control (typing 1.union rather than using the ... button to create i.union prevents the rectangle corresponding to the base category for this binary variable from being created);
- c. use the Variables control and select grade;
- d. type 1.union#c.grade in the Variables control after grade;
- e. select Vertical in the Orientation control;
- f. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 6. Create the multilevel latent variable corresponding to the random intercept.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, and click above the rectangle for ln_wage.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the ... button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 2 from the *Nesting depth* control and selecting idcode > *Observations* in the next control.
 - d. Specify M1 as the Base name.
 - e. Click on OK.
- 7. Create the paths from the exogenous variables to ln_wage.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the right side of the 1.union rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the ln_wage rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, draw paths from the right sides of the grade and 1.union#c.grade rectangles to the left side of the ln_wage rectangle and from the bottom of the idcode₁ double oval to the top of the ln_wage rectangle.
- 8. Create the random slope.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, , and click above the path from 1.union to ln_wage.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the ... button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 2 from the *Nesting depth* control and selecting idcode > *Observations* in the next control.
 - d. Specify M2 as the Base name.
 - e. Click on OK.
 - f. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - g. Click in the bottom of the $idcode_2$ double oval, and drag a path to the path between 1.union and ln_wage .
- 9. Create the covariance between the random slope and random intercept.
 - a. Select the Add Covariance tool, ...
 - b. Click in the top-right quadrant of the $idcode_2$ double oval, and drag a covariance to the top left of the $idcode_1$ double oval.
- 10. Clean up paths and covariance.

If you do not like where a path has been connected to its variables, use the Select tool, to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle and drag the endpoint. Similarly, you can change where the covariance connects to the latent variables by clicking on the covariance and dragging the endpoint. You can also change the bow of the covariance by clicking on the covariance and dragging the control point that extends from one end of the selected covariance.

11. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, , in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_rslope

Reference

Center for Human Resource Research. 1989. National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Market Experience, Young Women 14–24 years of age in 1968. Columbus, OH: Ohio State University Press.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 39g — Three-level model (multilevel, generalized response)
[SEM] example 42g — One- and two-level mediation models (multilevel)
[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models
```

example 39g — Three-level model (multilevel, generalized response)

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

To demonstrate three-level models, we use the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_melanoma (Skin cancer (melanoma) data)
- . describe

Contains data from http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_melanoma.dta
obs: 354 Skin cancer (melanoma) data
vars: 6 25 Mar 2013 15:28
size: 4,956 (_dta has notes)

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
nation region county	byte byte int	%12.0g %9.0g %9.0g	nation	Nation ID Region ID: EEC level-I areas County ID: EEC level-II/level-III areas
deaths expected uv	int float float	%9.0g %9.0g %9.0g		No. deaths during 1971-1980 No. expected deaths UV dose, mean-centered

Sorted by: nation region county

. notes

_dta:

- Smans, M., C. S. Muir, and P. Boyle. 1992. _Atlas of Cancer Mortality in the European Economic Community_. Lyon, France: IARC Scientific Publications
- 2. Data on 7 nations, 3-95 regions w/i nation, 1-13 counties w/i region.
- Variable deaths is # of deaths among males due to malignant melanoma, 1971-1980.
- Variable expected contains # of expected male deaths based on crude rates for the combined counties.

Rabe-Hesketh and Skrondal (2012, exercise 13.7) describe data from the *Atlas of Cancer Mortality in the European Economic Community* (EEC) (Smans, Mair, and Boyle 1993). The data were analyzed in Langford, Bentham, and McDonald (1998) and record the number of deaths among males due to malignant melanoma during 1971–1980.

Data are stored in the long form. Observations are counties within regions within nation. These data and some of the models fit below are also demonstrated in [ME] menbreg.

See Structural models 4: Count models and Multilevel mixed-effects models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

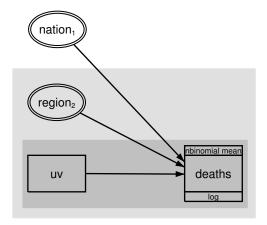
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Three-level negative binomial model Three-level Poisson model Testing for overdispersion Fitting the models with the Builder

Three-level negative binomial model

The model we wish to fit is



Deaths due to malignant melanoma at the county level are modeled as being affected by ultraviolet exposure with random region and nation effects.

To fit this model, we type

```
. gsem (deaths <- uv M1[nation] M2[nation>region]), nbreg exposure(expected)
Fitting fixed-effects model:
               log likelihood = -1361.855
Iteration 0:
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -1230.0211
               log likelihood = -1211.049
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood = -1202.5641
Iteration 3:
Iteration 4:
               log\ likelihood = -1202.5329
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -1202.5329
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -1209.6951
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -1209.6951
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -1195.0761
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -1189.7235
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 3:
               log likelihood =
                                   -1167.58
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 4:
               log\ likelihood = -1145.4325
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -1138.4471
               log likelihood = -1088.3882
Iteration 6:
Iteration 7:
               log\ likelihood = -1086.7992
Iteration 8:
               log likelihood = -1086.4085
Iteration 9:
               log likelihood = -1086.3903
Iteration 10:
               log likelihood = -1086.3902
Iteration 11:
               log likelihood = -1086.3902
                                                                             354
Generalized structural equation model
                                                   Number of obs
Log likelihood = -1086.3902
 (1)
       [deaths]M1[nation] = 1
 (2)
       [deaths]M2[nation>region] = 1
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
deaths <- uv	0335933	.0113725	-2.95	0.003	055883	0113035
M1[nation] M2[nation> region]	1	(constrained)				
	1	(constrained)				
_cons ln(expected)	0790606 1	.1295931 (exposure)	-0.61	0.542	3330583	.1749372
deaths /lnalpha	-4.182603	.3415036	-12.25	0.000	-4.851937	-3.513268
var(M1[nation]) var(.1283614	.0678971			.0455187	.3619758
<pre>M2[nation> region])</pre>	.0401818	.0104855			.0240938	.067012

Notes:

1. This is a three-level model of counties nested within region nested within nation, so we specified the latent variables as M1[nation] M2[nation>region]. Actually, we did the same thing in the diagram when we used the SEM Builder to define the latent variables, but the nesting information does not show in the double rings.

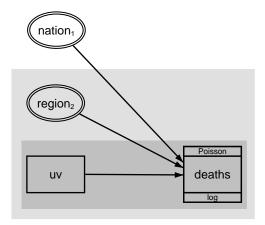
- 2. We fit this model by using negative binomial regression, also known as a mean-dispersion model. In the command, we typed nbreg, which is shorthand for family(nbinomial mean) link(log).
- 3. A negative binomial distribution can be regarded as a Gamma mixture of Poisson random variables, where said Gamma distribution has mean 1 and variance α . The estimated $\ln(\alpha)$ is -4.183, which is small; α is estimated as 0.0153. The reported test statistic of -12.25 is significant at better than the 1% level for $\ln(\alpha) = 0$, but this is a test for $\alpha = 1$, not 0.
- 4. Zero does not mean lack of overdispersion, because we are including random effects that also allow for extra dispersion. For a discussion on these issues, see [ME] menbreg.
- 5. Notice that we specified exposure(expected), where variable expected contains the expected number of deaths based on crude rates.

The exposure() option is allowed with Poisson and negative binomial models. If we specify exposure(*varname*), we are usually saying that each observation's time at risk is recorded in variable *varname*. When we omit the option, we are saying that each observation has the same time at risk. Obviously, if one observation had twice the time at risk of another observation, but was otherwise identical, we would expect twice the number of events in the first observation.

In this case, however, we are using exposure() differently. We have a variable called expected containing the expected number of deaths from crude rates, and we are claiming exposure(expected). What this is doing is saying that in two otherwise identical observations, if the number of expected deaths differed, we would expect the number of deaths due to melanoma to differ, too, and by the same proportion. See [SEM] gsem family-and-link options.

Three-level Poisson model

The same model, fit with Poisson, is



To fit the model in the command language, we type

```
. gsem (deaths <- uv M1[nation] M2[nation>region]), poisson exposure(expected)
Fitting fixed-effects model:
               log likelihood = -2136.5847
Iteration 0:
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -1723.8955
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -1723.7727
Iteration 3:
               log\ likelihood = -1723.7727
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -1166.6536
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
                                              (not concave)
               log likelihood = -1166.6536
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -1152.2741
                                              (not concave)
Iteration 2:
               log likelihood = -1146.3094
                                              (not concave)
Iteration 3:
               log\ likelihood = -1119.8479
                                              (not concave)
Iteration 4:
               log\ likelihood = -1108.0129
                                              (not concave)
               log likelihood = -1098.8067
Iteration 5:
Iteration 6:
               log\ likelihood = -1095.7563
Iteration 7:
               log\ likelihood = -1095.3164
Iteration 8:
               log likelihood =
                                   -1095.31
Iteration 9:
               log likelihood =
                                   -1095.31
Generalized structural equation model
                                                    Number of obs
                                                                              354
Log likelihood =
                    -1095.31
 (1)
       [deaths]M1[nation] = 1
 (2)
       [deaths]M2[nation>region] = 1
                     Coef.
                             Std. Err.
                                                  P>|z|
                                                             [95% Conf. Interval]
deaths <-
                                                  0.013
                                                            -.0505473
          uv
                 -.0282041
                             .0113998
                                          -2.47
                                                                        -.0058608
  M1[nation]
                            (constrained)
  M2[nation>
     region]
                            (constrained)
                 -.0639672
                              .1335515
                                          -0.48
                                                  0.632
                                                            -.3257234
                                                                           .197789
       _cons
ln(expected)
                         1
                            (exposure)
        var(
  M1[nation])
                  .1371732
                             .0723303
                                                              .048802
                                                                         .3855676
```

Testing for overdispersion

var(
M2[nation>
region])

.0483483

.0109079

The negative binomial model allows for overdispersion, or in a multilevel framework, allows for conditional overdispersion. The Poisson model has no overdispersion, or in a multilevel model, no overdispersion beyond that predicted by the latent variables. We can test whether there is dispersion beyond what Poisson would predict:

.0310699

.0752353

. gsem (deaths <- uv M1[nation] M2[nation>region]), nbreg exposure(expected)
 (output omitted)

estimates store nbreg

- . gsem (deaths <- uv M1[nation] M2[nation>region]), poisson exposure(expected)
 (output omitted)
- . estimates store poisson
- . lrtest nbreg poisson

Likelihood-ratio test LR chi2(1) = 17.84 (Assumption: poisson nested in nbreg) Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

We can reject at any reasonable level that the Poisson model adequately accounts for the dispersion in these data. Be aware that this test is conservative, because we are testing whether a variance goes to 0. lrtest usually issues a warning in such cases, but lrtest does not know that the relationship between negative binomial regression and Poisson regression involves a variance going to 0.

Fitting the models with the Builder

Use the diagram in Three-level negative binomial model above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_melanoma
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Create the generalized response variable.
 - a. Select the Add Generalized Response Variable tool, .
 - b. Click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the right and one-fourth of the way up from the bottom.
 - c. In the Contextual Toolbar, select Nbinomial mean, Log in the Family/Link control.
 - d. In the Contextual Toolbar, select deaths in the Variable control.
- 5. Create the observed exogenous variable.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, \square , and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the right and one-fourth of the way up from the bottom.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, select uv with the Variable control.
- 6. Create the level-three latent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, and click above the rectangle for uv about one-fourth of the way down from the top.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 2 from the *Nesting depth* control and selecting nation > *Observations* in the next line.

- d. Specify M1 as the Base name.
- e. Click on OK.
- 7. Create the level-two latent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, , and click between the rectangle for uv and the double oval for nation₁.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the ... button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 3 from the Nesting depth control and selecting nation > region > Observations in the next control.
 - d. Specify M2 as the Base name.
 - e. Click on OK.
- 8. Create the paths from the exogenous variables to deaths.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the right side of the uv rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the deaths rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, draw paths from the right side of the double ovals for nation₁ and region₂ to the left side of the deaths rectangle.
- 9. Specify the level of exposure.

Use the Select tool, , and double-click in the deaths rectangle. In the resulting dialog box, select expected in the Exposure control, and click on OK.

10. Clean up the location of the paths.

If you do not like where the paths have been connected to the rectangles or oval, use the Select tool, , to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle or oval and drag the endpoint.

11. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, **\overline{\overlin\overline{\overline{\overline{\overline{\overline{\overline{\over** GSEM estimation options dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_3lev

References

Langford, I. H., G. Bentham, and A. McDonald. 1998. Multi-level modelling of geographically aggregated health data: A case study on malignant melanoma mortality and UV exposure in the European community. Statistics in Medicine 17: 41–57.

Rabe-Hesketh, S., and A. Skrondal. 2012. Multilevel and Longitudinal Modeling Using Stata. 3rd ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press.

Smans, M., C. S. Mair, and P. Boyle. 1993. Atlas of Cancer Mortality in the European Economic Community. Lyon, France: IARC Scientific Publications.

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 38g — Random-intercept and random-slope models (multilevel)
    [SEM] example 34g — Combined models (generalized responses)
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models
```

example 40g — Crossed models (multilevel)

Description Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Description

To illustrate crossed models, we use

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_fifeschool
 (School data from Fife, Scotland)
- . describe

Contains data from http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_fifeschool.dta
obs: 3,435 School data from Fife, Scotland
vars: 5 25 Mar 2013 16:17
size: 24,045 (_dta has notes)

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
pid	int	%9.0g		Primary school ID
sid	byte	%9.0g		Secondary school ID
attain	byte	%9.0g		Attainment score at age 16
vrq	int	%9.0g		Verbal-reasoning score from final year of primary school
sex	byte	%9.0g		1: female; 0: male

Sorted by: pid sid

. notes

_dta:

- Paterson, L. 1991. "Socio-economic status and education attainment: A multidimensional and multilevel study" in _Evaluation and Research in Education_ 5: 97-121.
- Each observation is a different student. Each student attended a primary school (pid) and a secondary school (sid).
- 3. pid and sid are crossed, not nested. All combinations are possible.

Rabe-Hesketh and Skrondal (2012, 443–460) give an introduction to crossed-effects models and provide other examples of crossed-effects models by using the school data from Fife, Scotland.

See Structural models 1: Linear regression and Multilevel mixed-effects models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

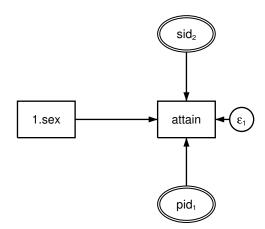
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

The crossed model Fitting the model with the Builder

The crossed model

In these data, 3,435 students attended 148 different primary schools and 19 different secondary schools. The model we wish to fit is



We include latent (random) effects for primary and secondary school because we think that school identities may have an effect.

The command syntax to fit this model is

```
. gsem (attain <- i.sex M1[pid] M2[sid])
note: crossed random-effects model specified; option intmethod(laplace)
implied
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -8701.1372
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -8701.1372
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -8587.4875
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -8587.4875
               log\ likelihood = -8573.5619
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -8562.9985
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -8561.7425
Iteration 3:
Iteration 4:
               log likelihood = -8561.7354
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -8561.7354
Generalized structural equation model
                                                   Number of obs
                                                                            3435
Log likelihood = -8561.7354
 (1)
       [attain]M2[sid] = 1
 (2) [attain]M1[pid] = 1
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
attain <-						
1.sex	.4986152	.0982634	5.07	0.000	.3060224	.6912079
M1[pid] M2[sid]	1 1	(constraine				
_cons	5.257372	.1813784	28.99	0.000	4.901876	5.612867
var(M1[pid]) var(M2[sid])	1.104316 .3457086	.2022595 .1608679			.7712451 .1388744	1.581226 .8605937
var(e.attain)	8.053437	.1990023			7.672694	8.453074

Notes:

- 1. These data are not nested, but the diagram above would look the same even if they were. The fact that primary and secondary schools are crossed and not nested is, however, specified when we enter the model into the SEM Builder and is implicit in the command syntax.
- We typed attain <- i.sex M1[pid] M2[sid]. We would have typed attain <- i.sex M1[pid] M2[sid<pid] had secondary school been nested within primary school.
- 3. gsem produced the following note when it began estimation: "crossed random effects detected; option intmethod(laplace) assumed". gsem provides four integration methods. The default is mvaghermite, which stands for mean-variance adaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature. The others are mcaghermite (mode-curvature adaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature); ghermite (nonadaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature); and laplace (Laplacian approximation).

In general, the adaptive methods mvaghermite and mcaghermite are considered superior in terms of accuracy to the nonadaptive method ghermite, which is considered superior to the approximation method laplace. They also take longer.

Fitting crossed models can be difficult. You may specify intmethod() with one of the superior methods, but be aware, convergence may not be achieved in finite time.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in The crossed model above for reference.

Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_fifeschool
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in grem mode by clicking on the button.
- 4. Create the endogenous variable.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, \square , and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the right and halfway down from the top. After adding it, you can click inside the rectangle and move the variable if you wish.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, select attain with the Variable control.
- 5. Create the observed exogenous variable.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, \square , and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the left and halfway down from the top.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1.sex in the *Variable* control (typing 1.sex rather than using the ... button to create i.sex prevents the rectangle corresponding to the base category for this binary variable from being created);
- 6. Create the pid-level latent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, $^{\circ}$, and click below the rectangle for attain.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the ... button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 2 from the *Nesting depth* control and selecting pid > *Observations* in the next control.
 - d. Specify M1 as the Base name.
 - e. Click on OK.
- 7. Create the sid-level latent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, , and click above the rectangle for attain.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the ... button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 2 from the *Nesting depth* control and selecting sid > *Observations* in the next control.
 - d. Specify M2 as the Base name.
 - e. Click on OK.

- 8. Create the paths from the exogenous variables to attain.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →
 - b. Click in the right side of the 1.sex rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the attain rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the \neg tool, draw paths from bottom of the sid_2 double oval to the top of the attain rectangle and from the top of the pid_1 double oval to the bottom of the attain rectangle.
- 9. Clean up the location of the paths.

If you do not like where the paths have been connected to the rectangles or oval, use the Select tool, , to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle or oval and drag the endpoint.

10. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, [1], in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM* estimation options dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_cross

Reference

Rabe-Hesketh, S., and A. Skrondal. 2012. *Multilevel and Longitudinal Modeling Using Stata*. 3rd ed. College Station, TX: Stata Press.

Also see

[SEM] example 38g — Random-intercept and random-slope models (multilevel)

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

Title

example 41g — Two-level multinomial logistic regression (multilevel)

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

We demonstrate two-level multinomial logistic regression with random effects by using the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_lineup
 (Fictional suspect identification data)
- . describe

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
suspect suswhite violent location witmale chosen	float float float float float float	%9.0g %9.0g %9.0g %14.0g %9.0g %9.0g	loc choice	suspect id suspect is white violent crime lineup location witness is male indvidual identified in linup by witness

Sorted by: suspect

. notes

_dta:

- Fictional data inspired by Wright, D.B and Sparks, A.T., 1994, "Using multilevel multinomial regression to analyse line-up data", _Multilevel Modeling Newsletter_, Vol. 6, No. 1
- Data contain repeated values of variable suspect. Each suspect is viewed by multiple witnesses and each witness (1) declines to identify a suspect, (2) chooses a foil, or (3) chooses the suspect.
- . tabulate location

lineup location	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
police_station suite_1 suite_2	2,228 1,845 2,462	34.09 28.23 37.67	34.09 62.33 100.00
Total	6,535	100.00	

. tabulate chosen			
indvidual identified in linup by witness	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
none foil suspect	2,811 1,369 2,355	43.01 20.95 36.04	43.01 63.96 100.00
Total	6,535	100.00	

In what follows, we re-create results similar to those of Wright and Sparks (1994), but we use fictional data. These data resemble the real data used by the authors in proportion of observations having each level of the outcome variable chosen, and the data produce results similar to those presented by the authors.

See Structural models 6: Multinomial logistic regression and Multilevel mixed-effects models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

For additional discussion of fitting multilevel multinomial logistic regression models, see Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2003).

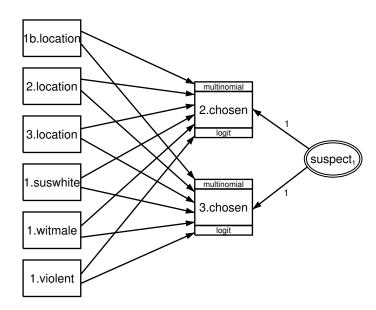
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Two-level multinomial logistic model with shared random effects Two-level multinomial logistic model with separate but correlated random effects Fitting the model with the Builder

Two-level multinomial logistic model with shared random effects

We wish to fit the following model:



This model concerns who is chosen in a police lineup. The response variables are 1.chosen, 2.chosen, and 3.chosen, meaning chosen = 1 (code for not chosen), chosen = 2 (code for foil chosen), and chosen = 3 (code for suspect chosen). A foil is a stand-in who could not possibly be guilty of the crime.

We say the response variables are 1.chosen, 2.chosen, and 3.chosen, but 1.chosen does not even appear in the diagram. By its omission, we are specifying that chosen = 1 be treated as the base mlogit category. There are other ways we could have drawn this; see [SEM] example 37g.

In these data, each suspect was viewed by multiple witnesses. In the model, we include a random effect at the suspect level, and we constrain the effect to be equal for chosen values 2 and 3 (selecting the foil or the suspect).

We can fit this model with command syntax by typing

```
. gsem (i.chosen <- i.location i.suswhite i.witmale i.violent M1[suspect]@1),
> mlogit
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -6914.9098
               log likelihood = -6696.7136
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -6694.0006
Iteration 2:
Iteration 3:
               log likelihood = -6693.9974
Iteration 4:
               log likelihood = -6693.9974
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -6705.0919
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -6705.0919
                                            (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -6654.5724
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -6653.5717
Iteration 3:
               log likelihood = -6653.5671
Iteration 4:
               log likelihood = -6653.5671
Generalized structural equation model
                                                   Number of obs
                                                                           6535
Log likelihood = -6653.5671
 (
```

(1)	[2.chosen]M1[suspect]	=	1
(2)	[3.chosen]M1[suspect]	=	1

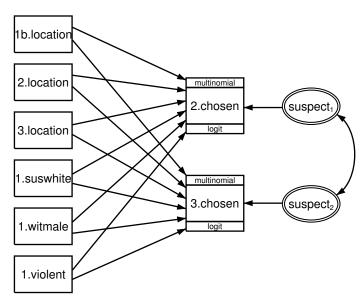
	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
1.chosen	(base outc	ome)				
2.chosen <-						
location suite_1 suite_2	.3867066 .4915675	.1027161 .0980312	3.76 5.01	0.000	.1853868 .2994299	.5880264 .6837051
1.suswhite 1.witmale 1.violent	0275501 0001844 .0356477	.0751664 .0680803 .0773658	-0.37 -0.00 0.46	0.714 0.998 0.645	1748736 1336193 1159864	.1197734 .1332505 .1872819
M1[suspect]	1	(constraine	•			
_cons	-1.002334	.099323	-10.09	0.000	-1.197003	8076643
3.chosen <-						
location suite_1 suite_2	2832042 .1391796	.0936358 .0863473	-3.02 1.61	0.002 0.107	4667271 0300581	0996814 .3084172
1.suswhite 1.witmale 1.violent	2397561 .1419285 -1.376579	.0643075 .059316 .0885126	-3.73 2.39 -15.55	0.000 0.017 0.000	3657965 .0256712 -1.55006	1137158 .2581857 -1.203097
M1[suspect]	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	.1781047	.0833393	2.14	0.033	.0147627	.3414468
var(M1[suspect])	. 2538014	.0427302			.1824673	.3530228

Notes:

- 1. We show the interpretation of mlogit coefficients in [SEM] example 37g.
- 2. The estimated variance of the random effect is 0.2538, implying a standard deviation of 0.5038. Thus a 1-standard-deviation change in the random effect amounts to a $\exp(0.5038) = 1.655$ change in the relative-risk ratio. The effect is both practically significant and, from the output, statistically significant.
- 3. This is not the model fit by Wright and Sparks (1994). Those authors did not constrain the random effect to be the same for chosen equal to 2 and 3. They included separate but correlated random effects, and then took that even a step further.

Two-level multinomial logistic model with separate but correlated random effects

The model we wish to fit is



This is one of the models fit by Wright and Sparks (1994), although remember that we are using fictional data.

We can fit this model with command syntax by typing

We did not even mention the assumed covariance between the random effects because latent exogenous variables are assumed to be correlated in the command language. Even so, we can specify the cov() option if we wish, and we might do so for emphasis or because we are unsure whether the parameter would be included.

```
. gsem (2.chosen <- i.location i.suswhite i.witmale i.violent M1[suspect])
>          (3.chosen <- i.location i.suswhite i.witmale i.violent M2[suspect]),
>          cov(M1[suspect]*M2[suspect]) mlogit
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -6914.9098
```

```
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -6696.7136
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -6694.0006
Iteration 3:
               log likelihood = -6693.9974
Iteration 4:
               log likelihood = -6693.9974
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -6793.4228
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -6793.4228
                                              (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -6717.7507
                                              (not concave)
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -6684.6592
Iteration 3:
               log\ likelihood = -6660.1404
Iteration 4:
               log\ likelihood = -6652.1368
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -6651.7841
Iteration 6:
               log\ likelihood = -6651.7819
Iteration 7:
               log\ likelihood = -6651.7819
                                                                             6535
Generalized structural equation model
                                                    Number of obs
Log likelihood = -6651.7819
 (1)
       [2.chosen]M1[suspect] = 1
       [3.chosen]M2[suspect] = 1
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
1.chosen	(base outc	ome)				
2.chosen <-						
location suite_1 suite_2	.3881676 .48938	.1004754 .0960311	3.86 5.10	0.000	.1912394 .3011625	.5850958 .6775974
1.suswhite 1.witmale 1.violent	0260152 0007652 .0369381	.0749378 .0679187 .0771594	-0.35 -0.01 0.48	0.728 0.991 0.632	1728906 1338833 1142915	.1208602 .132353 .1881677
M1[suspect]	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	-1.000382	.0992546	-10.08	0.000	-1.194918	8058469
3.chosen <-						
location suite_1 suite_2 1.suswhite 1.witmale	2904225 .1364246 2437654 .139826	.0968578 .089282 .0647275 .0596884	-3.00 1.53 -3.77 2.34	0.003 0.127 0.000 0.019	4802604 0385649 370629 .0228389	1005847 .3114142 1169018 .256813
1.violent M2[suspect]	-1.388013 1	.0891863	-15.56 ed)	0.000	-1.562815	-1.213212
_cons	.1750622	.0851614	2.06	0.040	.008149	.3419754
var(M1[suspect]) var(M2[suspect])	.2168248	.0549321			.131965	.3562533
cov(M2[suspect], M1[suspect])	. 2329749	.0438721	5.31	0.000	. 1469872	.3189627

Notes:

- 1. The estimated variances of the two random effects are 0.2168 and 0.2978, which as explained in the second note of above example, are both practically and statistically significant.
- 2. The covariance is estimated to be 0.2300. Therefore, $0.2300/\sqrt{0.2168 \times 0.2978} = 0.9052$ is the estimated correlation.
- 3. Wright and Sparks (1994) were interested in whether the location of the lineup mattered. They found that it did, and that foils were more likely to be chosen at lineups outside of the police station (at the two "specialist" suites). They speculated the cause might be that the police at the station strongly warn witnesses against misidentification, or possibly because the specialist suites had better foils.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the first diagram in Two-level multinomial logistic model with shared random effects above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_lineup
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Create the independent variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click near the bottom of the diagram about one-third of the way in from the left.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. include the levels of the factor variable location by clicking on the ... button next to the Variables control. In the resulting dialog box, select the Factor variable radio button, select Main effect in the Specification control, and select location in the Variables control for Variable 1. Click on Add to varlist, and then click on OK;
- c. type 1. suswhite 1. witmale 1. violent in the *Variables* control after i.location (typing 1. *varname* rather than using the ... button to create them as i. *varname* factor variables prevents rectangles corresponding to the base categories for these binary variables from being created);
- d. select Vertical in the Orientation control:
- e. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

5. Create the rectangles for the possible outcomes of the multinomial endogenous variable.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, ", and then click in the diagram about one-third of the way in from the right and one-fourth of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. check Make variables generalized responses;
- c. select Multinomial, Logit in the Family/Link control;
- d. select chosen in the Variable control;
- under Levels, remove 1b to prevent the rectangle corresponding to the base category from being created;
- f. select Vertical in the Orientation control;
- g. select the Distances tab;
- h. select .5 (inch) from the from the Distance between variables control;
- i. click on OK.
- 6. Create the paths from the independent variables to the rectangles for outcomes chosen = 2 and chosen = 3.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the right side of the 1b.location rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the 2.chosen rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, click in the right side of each independent variable and drag a path to both the 2.chosen and 3.chosen rectangles.
- 7. Create the suspect-level latent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, , and click near the right side of the diagram, vertically centered between 2.chosen and 3.chosen.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the ... button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 2 from the *Nesting depth* control and selecting suspect > *Observations* in the next control.
 - d. Specify M1 as the Base name.
 - e. Click on OK.
- 8. Create the paths from the multilevel latent variable to the rectangles for outcomes chosen = 2 and chosen = 3.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, -.
 - b. Click in the upper-left quadrant of the suspect₁ double oval, and drag a path to the right side of the 2.chosen rectangle.
 - c. Continuing with the tool, click in the lower-left quadrant of the suspect₁ double oval, and drag a path to the right side of the 3.chosen rectangle.
- 9. Place constraints on path coefficients from the multilevel latent variable.

Use the Select tool, , to select the path from the suspect₁ double oval to the 2.chosen rectangle. Type 1 in the box in the Contextual Toolbar and press *Enter*. Repeat this process to constrain the coefficient on the path from the suspect₁ double oval to the 3.chosen rectangle to 1.

10. Clean up the location of the paths.

If you do not like where the paths have been connected to the rectangles, use the Select tool, to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle and drag the endpoint.

11. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

12. If you wish to fit the model described in *Two-level multinomial logistic model with separate but correlated random effects*, use the Select tool to select the path from the suspect₁ double oval to the 3.chosen rectangle in the diagram created above. Select **Object > Delete** from the SEM Builder menu.

Using the Select tool, select the suspect₁ double oval and move it up so that it is parallel with the rectangle for 2.chosen.

- 13. Create the multilevel latent variable corresponding to the random effects of suspect in the 3.chosen equation.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, , and click near the right side of the diagram, next to the 3.chosen rectangle.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the ... button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 2 from the *Nesting depth* control and selecting suspect > *Observations* in the next control.
 - d. Specify M2 as the Base name.
 - e. Click on **OK**.
- 14. Draw a path from the newly added suspect-level latent variable to 3.chosen.

Select the Add Path tool, click in the left of the suspect₂ double oval, and drag a path to the right side of the 3.chosen rectangle.

- 15. Create the covariance between the random effects.
 - a. Select the Add Covariance tool, \square.
 - b. Click in the bottom-right quadrant of the suspect₁ double oval, and drag a covariance to the top right of the suspect₂ double oval.
- 16. Clean up paths and covariance.

If you do not like where a path has been connected to its variables, use the Select tool, to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle and drag the endpoint. Similarly, you can change where the covariance connects to the latent variables by clicking on the covariance and dragging the endpoint. You can also change the bow of the covariance by clicking on the covariance and dragging the control point that extends from one end of the selected covariance.

17. Estimate again.

Click on the **Estimate** button, **\overline{\mathbb{E}}**, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram for the first model in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_mlmlogit1

You can open a completed diagram for the second model in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_mlmlogit2

References

Skrondal, A., and S. Rabe-Hesketh. 2003. Multilevel logistic regression for polytomous data and rankings. *Psychometrika* 68: 267–287.

Wright, D. B., and A. T. Sparks. 1994. Using multilevel multinomial regression to analyse line-up data. *Multilevel Modelling Newsletter* 6: 8–10.

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 37g — Multinomial logistic regression
    [SEM] example 38g — Random-intercept and random-slope models (multilevel)
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models
```

Title

example 42g — One- and two-level mediation models (multilevel)

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

To demonstrate linear mediation models, we use the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_multmed (Fictional job-performance data)
- . summarize

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
branch	1500	38	21.65593	1	75
support	1500	.0084667	.5058316	-1.6	1.8
satis	1500	.0212	.6087235	-1.6	2
perform	1500	5.005317	.8949845	2.35022	8.084294

. notes

_dta:

- Fictional data on job performance, job satisfaction, and perceived support from managers for 1,500 sales employees of a large department store in 75 locations.
- Variable support is average of Likert-scale questions, each question scored from -2 to 2.
- Variable satis is average of Likert-scale questions, each question scored from -2 to 2.
- 4. Variable perform is job performance measured on continuous scale.

See Structural models 1: Linear regression and Multilevel mixed-effects models in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

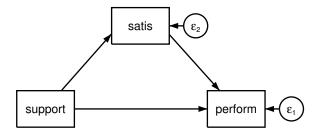
Remarks are presented under the following headings:

One-level model with sem One-level model with gsem Two-level model with gsem Fitting the models with the Builder

One-level model with sem

You can fit single-level mediation models with sem or gsem. You will be better off using sem because then you can use estat teffects afterward to compute indirect and total effects.

The model we wish to fit is the simplest form of a mediation model, namely,



We are interested in the effect of managerial support on job performance, but we suspect a portion of the effect might be mediated through job satisfaction. In traditional mediation analysis, the model would be fit by a series of linear regression models as described in Baron and Kenny (1986). That approach is sufficient because the errors are not correlated. The advantage of using structural equation modeling is that you can fit a single model and estimate the indirect and total effects, and you can embed the simple mediation model in a larger model and even use latent variables to measure any piece of the mediation model.

To fit this model with the command syntax, we type

```
. sem (perform <- satis support) (satis <- support)
```

Endogenous variables Observed: perform satis Exogenous variables Observed: support Fitting target model:

Iteration 0: $log\ likelihood = -3779.9224$ $log\ likelihood = -3779.9224$ Iteration 1:

Structural equation model Number of obs 1500

Estimation method = ml

= -3779.9224Log likelihood

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural						
perform <-						
satis	.8984401	.0251903	35.67	0.000	.849068	.9478123
support	.6161077	.0303143	20.32	0.000	.5566927	.6755227
_cons	4.981054	.0150589	330.77	0.000	4.951539	5.010569
satis <-						
support	.2288945	.0305047	7.50	0.000	.1691064	.2886826
_cons	.019262	.0154273	1.25	0.212	0109749	.0494989
var(e.perf~m)	.3397087	.0124044			.3162461	.364912
var(e.satis)	.3569007	.0130322			.3322507	.3833795

LR test of model vs. saturated: chi2(0) 0.00, Prob > chi2 =

Notes:

- 1. The direct effect of managerial support on job performance is measured by perform <- support and is estimated to be 0.6161. The effect is small albeit highly statistically significant. The standard deviations of performance and support are 0.89 and 0.51. A one standard deviation increase in support improves performance by a third of a standard deviation.
- 2. The direct effect of job satisfaction on job performance is measured by perform <- satis and is estimated to be 0.8984. That also is a moderate effect, practically speaking, and is highly statistically significant.
- 3. The effect of managerial support on job satisfaction is measured by satis <- support and is practically small but statistically significant.
- 4. What is the total effect of managerial support on performance? It is the direct effect (0.6161) plus the indirect effect of support on satisfaction on performance $(0.2289 \times 0.8984 = 0.2056)$, meaning the total effect is 0.8217. It would be desirable to put a standard error on that, but that's more work.

We can use estat teffects after estimation to obtain the total effect and its standard error:

. estat teffects Direct effects

	Coef.	OIM Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural						
perform <-						
satis	.8984401	.0251903	35.67	0.000	.849068	.9478123
support	.6161077	.0303143	20.32	0.000	.5566927	.6755227
satis <-						
support	. 2288945	.0305047	7.50	0.000	.1691064	.2886826
Indirect effec	cts					
		OIM				
	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	<pre>Interval]</pre>
Structural perform <-						
satis	0	(no path)				
support	.205648	.0280066	7.34	0.000	.150756	.26054
satis <-						
support	0	(no path)				
Total effects						
		OIM				
	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Structural perform <-						
satis	.8984401	.0251903	35.67	0.000	.849068	.9478123
support	.8217557	.0404579	20.31	0.000	.7424597	.9010516
satis <-						
support	.2288945	.0305047	7.50	0.000	.1691064	.2886826

One-level model with gsem

We can fit the same model with gsem. The command is the same except that we substitute gsem for sem, and results are identical:

```
. gsem (perform <- satis support) (satis <- support)

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -2674.3421

Iteration 1: log likelihood = -2674.3421

Generalized structural equation model Number of obs = 1500

Log likelihood = -2674.3421
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
perform <- satis support _cons	.8984401 .6161077 4.981054	.0251903 .0303143 .0150589	35.67 20.32 330.77	0.000 0.000 0.000	.849068 .5566927 4.951539	.9478123 .6755227 5.010569
satis <- support _cons	.2288945 .019262	.0305047	7.50 1.25	0.000 0.212	.1691064 0109749	. 2886826 . 0494989
<pre>var(e.perf~m) var(e.satis)</pre>	.3397087	.0124044			.3162461 .3322507	.364912

After gsem, however, we cannot use estat teffects:

```
. estat teffects
invalid subcommand teffects
r(321);
```

We can, however, calculate the indirect and total effects for ourselves and obtain the standard error by using nlcom. Referring back to note 4 of the previous section, the formula for the indirect effect and total effects are

```
indirect effect = \beta_1 \beta_4 total effect = \beta_2 + \beta_1 \beta_4 where \beta_1 = \text{path coefficient for perform <- satis} \beta_4 = \text{path coefficient for satis} <- support \beta_2 = \text{path coefficient for perform <- support}
```

It turns out that we can access the coefficients by typing

```
\begin{split} \beta_1 &= \_b[perform:satis] \\ \beta_4 &= \_b[satis:support] \\ \beta_2 &= \_b[perform:support] \end{split}
```

which is most easily revealed by typing

```
. gsem, coeflegend
  (output omitted)
```

Thus we can obtain the indirect effect by typing

. nlcom _b[perform:satis]*_b[satis:support]
 _nl_1: _b[perform:satis]*_b[satis:support]

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
_nl_1	. 205648	.0280066	7.34	0.000	.150756	.26054

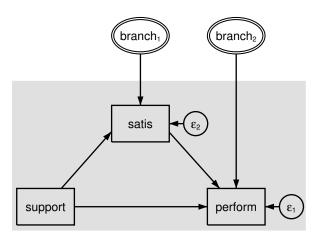
and we can obtain the total effect by typing

. nlcom _b[perform:support]+_b[perform:satis]*_b[satis:support]
 _nl_1: _b[perform:support]+_b[perform:satis]*_b[satis:support]

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
_nl_1	.8217557	.0404579	20.31	0.000	.7424597	.9010516

Two-level model with gsem

It may be easier to use sem rather than gsem for fitting single-level models, but if you want to fit multilevel models, you must use gsem. A variation on the model we just fit is



In this model, we include a random intercept in each equation at the branch (individual store) level. The model above is one of many variations on two-level mediation models; see Krull and MacKinnon (2001) for an introduction to multilevel mediation models, and see Preacher, Zyphur, and Zhang (2010) for a discussion of fitting these models with structural equation modeling.

To fit this model with the command syntax, we type

```
. gsem (perform <- satis support M1[branch]) (satis <- support M2[branch]),
> cov(M1[branch]*M2[branch]@0)
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -2674.3421
               log\ likelihood = -2674.3421
Iteration 1:
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -2132.1613
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -2132.1613
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -1801.3155
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -1769.6421
Iteration 3:
               log\ likelihood = -1705.1282
               log likelihood = -1703.746
Iteration 4:
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -1703.7141
Iteration 6:
               log\ likelihood = -1703.714
Generalized structural equation model
                                                   Number of obs
                                                                            1500
Log likelihood = -1703.714
 (1)
       [perform]M1[branch] = 1
 (2)
       [satis]M2[branch] = 1
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
perform <- satis support	.604264 .6981525	.0336398	17.96 27.88	0.000	.5383313 .6490687	.6701968 .7472364
M1[branch]	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	4.986596	.0489465	101.88	0.000	4.890663	5.082529
satis <- support	. 2692633	.0179649	14.99	0.000	. 2340528	.3044739
M2[branch]	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	.0189202	.0570868	0.33	0.740	0929678	.1308083
var(M1[branch]) var(.1695962	.0302866			.119511	.2406713
M2[branch])	.2384738	.0399154			.1717781	.3310652
var(e.perf~m) var(e.satis)	.201053 .1188436	.0075451			.1867957 .1104299	.2163985

Notes:

- 1. In *One-level model with sem* above, we measured the direct effects on job performance of job satisfaction and managerial support as 0.8984 and 0.6161. Now the direct effects are 0.6043 and 0.6982.
- 2. We can calculate the indirect and total effects just as we did in the previous section, which we will do below. We mentioned earlier that there are other variations of two-level mediation models, and how you calculate total effects depends on the model chosen.

In this case, the indirect effect is

. nlcom _b[perform:satis]*_b[satis:support]

_nl_1: _b[perform:satis]*_b[satis:support]

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
_nl_1	.1627062	.0141382	11.51	0.000	.1349958	.1904165

and the total effect is

. nlcom _b[perform:support]+_b[perform:satis]*_b[satis:support]
_nl_1: _b[perform:support]+_b[perform:satis]*_b[satis:support]

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
_nl_1	.8608587	.0257501	33.43	0.000	.8103894	.911328

Fitting the models with the Builder

Use the diagram in One-level model with sem above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_multmed
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Create a regression component for the perform outcome.

Select the Add Regression Component tool, $\stackrel{\triangleright}{\triangleright}$, and then click in the center of the diagram. In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select perform in the Dependent variable control;
- b. select support with the Independent variables control;
- c. select Left in the Independent variables' direction control;
- d. click on OK.
- e. Use the Select tool, , to select only the perform rectangle, and drag it to the right to increase the distance between the rectangles. (You can hold the *Shift* key while dragging to ensure that the movement is directly to the right.)
- 4. Create the mediating variable.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, \square , and then click in the diagram above the path from support to perform.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, select satis with the Variable control.

- 5. Create the paths to and from the mediating variable.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool. →
 - b. Click in the upper right of the support rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the lower left of the satis rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, draw a path from the lower right of the satis rectangle to the upper left of the perform rectangle.
- 6. Clean up the direction of the error term.

We want the error for each of the endogenous variables to be to the right of the rectangle. The error for satis may have been created in another direction. If so,

- a. choose the Select tool, ,;
- b. click in the satis rectangle;
- c. click on one of the **Error Rotation** buttons, \bigcirc c, in the Contextual Toolbar until the error is to the right of the rectangle.
- 7. Clean up the location of the paths.

If you do not like where the paths have been connected to the rectangles, use the Select tool, to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle and drag the endpoint.

8. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, **\overline{\mathbb{E}}**, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting SEM estimation options dialog box.

- 9. To fit the model in *Two-level model with gsem*, continue with the previous diagram, and put the builder in gsem mode by clicking on the gsm button.
- 10. Create the multilevel latent variable corresponding to the random intercept for satis.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, , and click above the rectangle for satis.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the ... button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 2 from the Nesting depth control and selecting branch > Observations in the next control.
 - d. Specify M1 as the Base name.
 - e. Click on OK.
- 11. Create the multilevel latent variable corresponding to the random intercept for perform.
 - a. Select the Add Multilevel Latent Variable tool, , and click above the rectangle for satis and to the right of the branch₁ double oval.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the ... button.
 - c. Select the nesting level and nesting variable by selecting 2 from the *Nesting depth* control and selecting branch > *Observations* in the next control.
 - d. Specify M2 as the Base name.
 - e. Click on OK.

- 12. Draw paths from the multilevel latent variables to their corresponding endogenous variables.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the bottom of the branch₁ double oval, and drag a path to the top of the satis rectangle.
 - c. Continuing with the intool, click in the bottom of the branch₂ double oval, and drag a path to the top of the perform rectangle.
- 13. Estimate again.

Click on the Estimate button, [1], in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on OK in the resulting GSEM estimation options dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram for the first model in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem sem_med

You can open a completed diagram for the second model in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_mlmed

References

Baron, R. M., and D. A. Kenny. 1986. The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 51: 1173–1182.

Krull, J. L., and D. P. MacKinnon. 2001. Multilevel modeling of individual and group level mediated effects. Multivariate Behavorial Research 36: 249-277.

Preacher, K. J., M. J. Zyphur, and Z. Zhang. 2010. A general multilevel SEM framework for assessing multilevel mediation. Psychological Methods 15: 209-233.

Also see

[SEM] example 38g — Random-intercept and random-slope models (multilevel)

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] **intro 5** — Tour of models

Title

```
example 43g — Tobit regression
```

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

Tobit regression is demonstrated using auto.dta:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/auto
 (1978 Automobile Data)
- . generate wgt = weight/1000

See Structural models 1: Linear regression in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

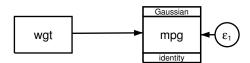
Fitting tobit regression models
Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting tobit regression models

The first example in [R] tobit is

. tobit mpg wgt, ll(17)

This model corresponds to



Censoring information does not appear in the path diagram by default. It can be added to the path diagram by customizing the appearance of mpg in the Builder. The Builder reports the censoring information for mpg in the Details pane.

To fit this model with gsem, we type

. gsem mpg <- wgt, family(gaussian, lcensored(17))</pre>

Refining starting values:

Grid node 0: $log\ likelihood = -170.32555$

Fitting full model:

Iteration 0: $log\ likelihood = -170.32555$ Iteration 1: log likelihood = -164.66209 $log\ likelihood = -164.25471$ Iteration 2: log likelihood = -164.25438Iteration 3: Iteration 4: log likelihood = -164.25438

Generalized structural equation model

Log likelihood = -164.25438

Number of obs 74

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
mpg <- wgt _cons	-6.87305 41.49856	.700257 2.058384	-9.82 20.16	0.000	-8.245529 37.4642	-5.500572 45.53291
var(e.mpg)	14.78942	2.817609			10.18085	21.48414

Notes:

- 1. Reported coefficients match those reported by tobit.
- 2. Reported standard errors (SEs) differ very slightly from those reported by tobit.
- 3. gsem reports the point estimate of e.mpg as 14.78942. This is an estimate of σ^2 , the error variance. tobit reports an estimated σ as 3.845701. And $\sqrt{14.78942} = 3.8457$.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in *Fitting tobit regression models* above for reference.

1. Open the dataset and create the rescaled weight variable.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/auto
- . gen wgt = weight/1000
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Create the independent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, \square .
 - b. Click in the diagram about one-fourth of the way in from the left and half of the way up from the bottom.
 - c. In the Contextual Toolbar, use the Variable control to select the variable wgt.
- 5. Create the tobit response.
 - a. Select the Add Generalized Response Variable tool, \square .

- c. In the Contextual Toolbar, select Gaussian, Identity in the Family/Link control (it may already be selected).
- d. In the Contextual Toolbar, use the Variable control to select the variable mpg.
- e. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the **Properties** button.
- f. In the resulting Variable properties dialog box, click on the Censoring button in the Variable tab.
- g. In the resulting *Censoring* dialog box, select the *Left censored* radio button. In the resulting *Left censoring* box below, select the *Constant* radio button (it may already be selected), and type 17 in the *Constant* control.
- h. Click on **OK** in the *Censoring* dialog box, and then click on **OK** in the *Variable properties* dialog box. The Details pane will now show the *Censoring* information for mpg.
- 6. Create a path from the independent variable to the dependent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the right side of the wgt rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the mpg rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
- 7. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, [1], in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM* estimation options dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_tobit

Also see

```
[SEM] example 38g — Random-intercept and random-slope models (multilevel)
```

[SEM] example 44g — Interval regression

[SEM] example 45g — Heckman selection model

[SEM] example 46g — Endogenous treatment-effects model

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

Title

```
example 44g — Interval regression
```

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

Interval regression is demonstrated using intregxmpl.dta:

. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/intregxmpl
(Wages of women)

See Structural models 1: Linear regression in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

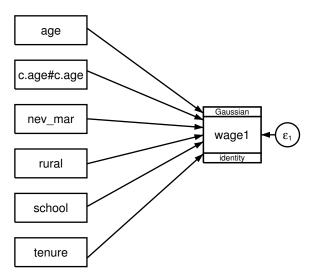
Fitting interval regression models Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting interval regression models

The first example in [R] intreg is

. intreg wage1 wage2 age c.age#c.age nev_mar rural school tenure

This model corresponds to



Interval measure information does not appear in the path diagram by default. It can be added to the path diagram by customizing the appearance of wage1 in the Builder. The Builder reports the interval measure information for wage1 in the Details pane.

To fit this model with gsem, we type

- . gsem wage1 <- age c.age#c.age nev_mar rural school tenure,
- > family(gaussian, udepvar(wage2))

Refining starting values:

Grid node 0: $\log likelihood = -856.59446$

Fitting full model:

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -856.59446
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -856.33321
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -856.33293
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -856.33293

Generalized structural equation model

Log likelihood = -856.33293

Number of obs = 488

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
wage1 <-						
age	.7914438	.4433604	1.79	0.074	0775265	1.660414
c.age#c.age	0132624	.0073028	-1.82	0.069	0275757	.0010509
nev_mar	2075022	.8119581	-0.26	0.798	-1.798911	1.383906
rural	-3.043044	.7757324	-3.92	0.000	-4.563452	-1.522637
school	1.334721	.1357873	9.83	0.000	1.068583	1.600859
tenure	.8000664	.1045077	7.66	0.000	.5952351	1.004898
_cons	-12.70238	6.367117	-1.99	0.046	-25.1817	2230584
var(e.wage1)	53.28454	3.693076			46.51635	61.0375

Notes:

- 1. Just like intreg, gsem requires two dependent variables for fitting interval regression models. The udepvar() suboption in family(gaussian) allows you to specify the dependent variable containing the upper-limit values for the interval regression. Consequently, the dependent variable participating in the path specification necessarily contains the lower-limit values.
- 2. Reported coefficients match those reported by intreg.
- 3. Reported standard errors (SEs) match those reported by intreg.
- 4. gsem reports the point estimate of e.wage1 as 53.28454. This is an estimate of σ^2 , the error variance. intreg reports an estimated σ as 7.299626. And $\sqrt{53.28454} = 7.299626$.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in *Fitting interval regression models* above for reference.

Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/intregxmpl
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the button.

4. Create the independent variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click in the diagram about one-fourth of the way in from the left and one-fourth of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. type the following variable names in the Variables control: age, c.age#c.age, nev_mar, rural, school, and tenure;
- c. select Vertical in the Orientation control; and
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 5. Create the interval responses.
 - a. Select the Add Generalized Response Variable tool, \square .
 - b. Click about one-third of the way in from the right side of the diagram, to the right of the nev_mar rectangle.
 - c. In the Contextual Toolbar, select Gaussian, Identity in the Family/Link control (it may already be selected).
 - d. In the Contextual Toolbar, use the Variable control to select the variable wage1.
 - e. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the **Properties** button.
 - f. In the resulting *Variable properties* dialog box, click on the **Censoring** button in the **Variable** tab
 - g. In the resulting *Censoring* dialog box, select the *Interval measured*, depvar is lower boundary radio button. In the resulting *Interval measured* box below, use the *Upper bound* control to select the variable wage2.
 - h. Click on **OK** in the *Censoring* dialog box, and then click on **OK** in the *Variable properties* dialog box. The Details pane will now show that wage1 is the lower bound and wage2 is the upper bound of our interval measure.
- 6. Create paths from the independent variables to the dependent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, -.
 - b. Click in the right side of the age rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the wage1 rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, create the following paths by clicking first in the right side of the rectangle for the independent variable and dragging it to the left side of the rectangle for the dependent variable:

```
c.age#c.age -> wage1
nev_mar -> wage1
rural -> wage1
school -> wage1
tenure -> wage1
```

7. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, , in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM estimation options* dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_intreg

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 38g — Random-intercept and random-slope models (multilevel)
    [SEM] example 43g — Tobit regression
    [SEM] example 45g — Heckman selection model
    [SEM] example 46g — Endogenous treatment-effects model
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
```

example 45g — Heckman selection model

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

To demonstrate selection models, we will use the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_womenwk (Fictional data on women and work)
- . summarize

Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
2000	36.208	8.28656	20	59
2000	13.084	3.045912	10	20
2000	.6705	.4701492	0	1
2000	1.6445	1.398963	0	5
1343	23.69217	6.305374	5.88497	45.80979
	2000 2000 2000 2000	2000 36.208 2000 13.084 2000 .6705 2000 1.6445	2000 36.208 8.28656 2000 13.084 3.045912 2000 .6705 .4701492 2000 1.6445 1.398963	2000 36.208 8.28656 20 2000 13.084 3.045912 10 2000 .6705 .4701492 0 2000 1.6445 1.398963 0

. notes

_dta:

- 1. Fictional data on 2,000 women, 1,343 of whom work.
- 2. age age in years
- 3. educ years of schooling
- 4. married ... 1 if married spouse present
- 5. children .. # of children under 12 years
- 6. wage hourly wage (missing if not working)

See Structural models 7: Dependencies between response variables and Structural models 8: Unobserved inputs, outputs, or both in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

The Heckman selection model as an SEM Fitting the Heckman selection model as an SEM Transforming results and obtaining rho Fitting the model with the Builder

The Heckman selection model as an SEM

We demonstrate below how gsem can be used to fit the Heckman selection model (Gronau 1974; Lewis 1974; Heckman 1976) and produce results comparable to those of Stata's dedicated heckman command; see [R] heckman.

Our purpose is not to promote green as an alternative to heckman. We have two other purposes.

One is to show that gsem can be used to generalize the Heckman selection model to response functions other than linear and, in addition or separately, to include multilevel effects when such effects are present.

The other is to show how Heckman selection models can be included in more complicated SEMs.

For those unfamiliar with this model, it deals with a continuous outcome that is observed only when another equation determines that the observation is selected, and the errors of the two equations are allowed to be correlated. Subjects often choose to participate in an event or medical trial or even the labor market, and thus the outcome of interest might be correlated with the decision to participate. Heckman won a Nobel Prize for this work.

The model is sometimes cast in terms of female labor supply, but it obviously has broader application. Nevertheless, we will consider a female labor-supply example.

Women are offered employment at a wage of w,

$$w_i = \mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon_i$$

Not all women choose to work, and w is observed only for those women who do work. Women choose to work if

$$\mathbf{Z}_i \boldsymbol{\gamma} + \xi_i > 0$$

where

$$\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

$$\xi_i \sim N(0, 1)$$

$$\mathrm{corr}(\epsilon, \xi) = \rho$$

More generally, we can think of this model as applying to any continuously measured outcome w_i , which is observed only if $\mathbf{Z}_i \gamma + \xi_i > 0$. The important feature of the model is that the errors ξ_i of the selection equation and the errors ϵ_i of the observed-data equation are allowed to be correlated.

The Heckman selection model can be recast as a two-equation SEM—one linear regression (for the continuous outcome) and the other censored regression (for selection)—and with a latent variable L_i added to both equations. The latent variable is constrained to have variance 1 and to have coefficient 1 in the selection equation, leaving only the coefficient in the continuous-outcome equation to be estimated. For identification, the variance from the censored regression will be constrained to be equal to that of the linear regression. The results of doing this are the following:

- 1. Latent variable L_i becomes the vehicle for carrying the correlation between the two equations.
- 2. All the parameters given above, namely, β , γ , σ^2 , and ρ , can be recovered from the SEM estimates.
- 3. If we call the estimated parameters in the SEM formulation β^* , γ^* , and σ^{2^*} , and let κ denote the coefficient on L_i in the continuous-outcome equation, then

$$\beta = \beta^*$$

$$\gamma = \gamma^* / \sqrt{\sigma^{2^*} + 1}$$

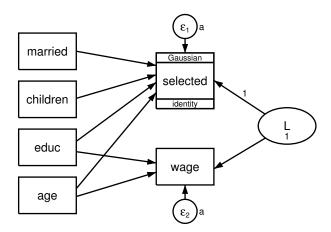
$$\sigma^2 = \sigma^{2^*} + \kappa^2$$

$$\rho = \kappa / \sqrt{(\sigma^{2^*} + \kappa^2)(\sigma^{2^*} + 1)}$$

This parameterization places no restriction on the range or sign of ρ . See Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2004, 107–108).

Fitting the Heckman selection model as an SEM

We wish to fit the following Heckman selection model:



What makes this a Heckman selection model is

- 1. the inclusion of latent variable L in both the continuous-outcome (wage) equation and the censored-outcome selection equation;
- 2. constraining the selected <- L path coefficient to be 1;
- 3. constraining the variance of L to be 1; and
- 4. constraining the error variances to be equal.

Before we can fit this model, we need to create new variables selected and notselected. selected will equal 0 if the woman works (wage is not missing) and missing otherwise, notselected is the complement of selected: it equals 0 if the woman does not work (wage is missing) and missing otherwise. selected and notselected will be used as the dependent variables in the censored regression, providing the equivalent of a scaled probit regression.

- . gen selected = 0 if wage < . (657 missing values generated) . gen notselected = 0 if wage >= . (1343 missing values generated)
- . tabulate selected notselected, missing

	notselected					
selected	0	•	Total			
0	0	1,343	1,343			
	657	0	657			
Total	657	1,343	2,000			

Old-time Stata users may be worried that because wage is missing in so many observations, namely, all those corresponding to nonworking women, there must be something special we need to do so that gsem uses all the data. There is nothing special we need to do. gsem counts missing values on an equation-by-equation basis, so it will use all the data for the censored regression part of the model while simultaneously using only the working-woman subsample for the continuous-outcome (wage)

part of the model. We use all the data for the censored regression because gsem understands the meaning of missing values in the censored dependent variables so long as one of them is nonmissing.

To fit this model in command syntax, we type

```
. gsem (wage <- educ age L)
 (selected <- married children educ age L@1,
    family(gaussian, udepvar(notselected))),
   var(L@1 e.wage@a e.selected@a)
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -5568.1366
Iteration 1:
              log likelihood = -5211.0882 (not concave)
Iteration 2:
              log likelihood = -5209.4228 (not concave)
Iteration 3:
             log likelihood = -5209.2214
Iteration 4: log likelihood = -5209.1638
Iteration 5: log likelihood = -5208.9052
                                           (not concave)
Iteration 6: log likelihood = -5208.9044 (not concave)
Iteration 7: log likelihood = -5208.9042 (not concave)
              log likelihood = -5208.904
Iteration 8:
              log likelihood = -5208.9038
Iteration 9:
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -5259.1366
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log\ likelihood = -5557.2489
                                           (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -5439.0882
                                           (not concave)
Iteration 2:
              log likelihood = -5285.2854
Iteration 3:
              log likelihood = -5229.0964
Iteration 4:
              log likelihood = -5179.3914
Iteration 5:
              log\ likelihood = -5178.3235
Iteration 6:
               log likelihood = -5178.3046
Iteration 7:
               log likelihood = -5178.3046
                                                 Number of obs =
Generalized structural equation model
                                                                          2000
Log likelihood = -5178.3046
 (1)
       [selected]L = 1
 (2)
       [var(e.selected)]_cons - [var(e.wage)]_cons = 0
       [var(L)]_{cons} = 1
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf	. Interval]
wage <-						
educ	.9899509	.0532552	18.59	0.000	.8855727	1.094329
age	.213128	.020602	10.34	0.000	.1727488	.2535073
L	5.923733	.1846827	32.08	0.000	5.561761	6.285704
_cons	.4859256	1.076867	0.45	0.652	-1.624696	2.596547
selected <-						
married	.624276	.1054324	5.92	0.000	.4176322	.8309197
children	.615211	.0652008	9.44	0.000	.4874197	.7430023
educ	.0781544	.0162868	4.80	0.000	.0462328	.110076
age	.0511984	.006637	7.71	0.000	.0381901	.0642067
L	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	-3.493224	.3730411	-9.36	0.000	-4.224371	-2.762077
var(L)	1	(constraine	ed)			
var(e.sele~d)	.9664716	.2689702			.5601427	1.667552
<pre>var(e.wage)</pre>	.9664716	.2689702			.5601427	1.667552
	·					

Notes:

1. Some of the estimated coefficients and parameters above will match those reported by the heckman command and others will not. The above parameters are in the transformed structural equation modeling metric. That metric can be transformed back to the Heckman metric and results will match. The relationship to the Heckman metric is

$$\beta = \beta^*$$

$$\gamma = \gamma^* / \sqrt{\sigma^{2^*} + 1}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \sigma^{2^*} + \kappa^2$$

$$\rho = \kappa / \sqrt{(\sigma^{2^*} + \kappa^2)(\sigma^{2^*} + 1)}$$

2. β refers to the coefficients on the continuous-outcome (wage) equation. We can read those coefficients directly, without transformation except that we ignore the wage <- L path:

$$\mathtt{wage} = 0.9900\,\mathtt{educ} + 0.2131\,\mathtt{age} + 0.4859$$

3. γ refers to the selection equation, and because $\gamma = \gamma^*/\sqrt{\sigma^{2^*}+1}$, we must divide the reported coefficients by the square root of $\sigma^{2^*}+1$. What has happened here is that the scaled probit has variance $\sigma^{2^*}+1$, and we are merely transforming back to the standard probit model, which has variance 1. The results are

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Pr}(\texttt{selected} = 0) = \\ & \Phi(0.4452\,\texttt{married} + 0.4387\,\texttt{children} + 0.0557\,\texttt{educ} + 0.0365\,\texttt{age} - 2.4910) \end{aligned}$$

4. To calculate ρ , we first calculate $\sigma^2 = \sigma^{2^*} + \kappa^2$ and then calculate $\rho = \kappa / \sqrt{\sigma^2(\sigma^{2^*} + 1)}$:

$$\sigma^2 = 0.9664 + 5.9237^2 = 36.0571$$
$$\rho = 5.9237 / \sqrt{\sigma^2 (.9664 + 1)} = 0.7035$$

- 5. These transformed results match the results that would have been reported had we typed
 - . heckman wage educ age, select(married children educ age) $(output\ omitted)$
- 6. There is an easier way to obtain the transformed results than by hand, and the easier way provides standard errors. That is the subject of the next section.

Transforming results and obtaining rho

We can use Stata's nlcom command to perform the transformations we made by hand above, and we can obtain standard errors.

Let's start by obtaining σ^2 and ρ . To remind you, the formulas are

$$\sigma^2 = {\sigma^2}^* + \kappa^2$$

$$\rho = \kappa/\sqrt{\sigma^2({\sigma^2}^* + 1)}$$

We must describe these two formulas in a way that nlcom can understand. The Stata notation for parameters σ^{2*} and κ fit by gsem is

$$\sigma^{2^*}$$
: _b[var(e.wage):_cons]
 κ : _b[wage:L]

We cannot remember that notation; however, we can type gsem, coeflegend to be reminded. We now have all that we need to obtain the estimates of σ^2 and ρ . Because heckman reports σ rather than σ^2 , we will tell nlcom to report the sqrt(σ^2):

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
sigma rho			36.25 13.74	0.000	5.680091 .6031633	6.329418 .8038116

The output above nearly matches what heckman reports. heckman does not report the test statistics and p-values for these two parameters. In addition, the confidence interval that heckman reports for ρ will differ slightly from the above and is better. heckman uses a method that will not allow ρ to be outside of -1 and 1, whereas nlcom is simply producing a confidence interval for the calculation we requested and in absence of the knowledge that the calculation corresponds to a correlation coefficient. The same applies to the confidence interval for σ , where the bounds are 0 and infinity.

To obtain the coefficients and standard errors for the selection equation, we type

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
married	.4451771	.0673953	6.61	0.000	.3130847	.5772694
children	.4387128	.0277788	15.79	0.000	.3842673	.4931583
educ	.0557326	.0107348	5.19	0.000	.0346927	.0767725
age	.0365101	.0041534	8.79	0.000	.0283696	.0446505

The above output matches what heckman reports.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in Fitting the Heckman selection model as an SEM above for reference.

1. Open the dataset and create the selection variable.

In the Command window, type

```
. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_womenwk
. gen selected = 0 if wage < .</pre>
```

. gen notselected = 0 if wage >= .

2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Create the independent variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, "", and then click in the diagram about one-fourth of the way in from the left and one-fourth of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. use the Variables control to select the variables married, children, educ, and age in this order:
- c. select Vertical in the Orientation control;
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 5. Create the generalized response for selection.
 - a. Select the Add Generalized Response Variable tool, .
 - b. Click about one-third of the way in from the right side of the diagram, to the right of the married rectangle.
 - c. In the Contextual Toolbar, select Gaussian, Identity in the Family/Link control (it may already be selected).
 - d. In the Contextual Toolbar, select selected in the Variable control.
 - e. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the Properties button.
 - f. In the resulting Variable properties dialog box, click on the Censoring button in the Variable
 - g. In the resulting Censoring dialog box, select the Interval measured, depvar is lower boundary radio button. In the resulting Interval measured box below, use the Upper bound control to select the variable notselected.
 - h. Click on **OK** in the Censoring dialog box, and then click on **OK** in the Variable properties dialog box. The Details pane will now show selected as the lower bound and notselected as the upper bound of our interval measure.
- 6. Create the endogenous wage variable.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, \square , and then click about one-third of the way in from the right side of the diagram, to the right of the age rectangle.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, select wage with the Variable control.
- 7. Create paths from the independent variables to the dependent variables.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the right side of the married rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the selected rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, create the following paths by clicking first in the right side of the rectangle for the independent variable and dragging it to the left side of the rectangle for the dependent variable:

```
children -> selected
educ -> selected
age -> selected
educ -> wage
age -> wage
```

8. Clean up the direction of the error terms.

We want the error for selected to be above the rectangle and the error for wage to be below the rectangle, but it is likely they have been created in other directions.

- a. Choose the Select tool. .
- b. Click in the selected rectangle.
- c. Click on one of the **Error Rotation** buttons, \bigcirc c, in the Contextual Toolbar until the error is above the rectangle.
- d. Click in the wage rectangle.
- e. Click on one of the **Error Rotation** buttons, **Solution**, in the Contextual Toolbar until the error is below the rectangle.
- 9. Create the latent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Latent Variable tool, , and then click at the far right of the diagram and vertically centered between the selected and wage variables.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, type L in the Name control and press Enter.
- 10. Draw paths from the latent variable to each endogenous variable.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool. →.
 - b. Click in the upper left quadrant of the L oval, and drag a path to the right side of the selected rectangle.
 - c. Continuing with the → tool, create another path by clicking first in the lower-left quadrant of the L oval and dragging a path to the right side of the wage rectangle.
- 11. Place constraints on the variances and on the path from L to selected.
 - a. Choose the Select tool, .
 - b. Click on the L oval. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1 in the Government box and press Enter.
 - c. Click on the error oval attached to the wage rectangle. In the Contextual Toolbar, type a in the $\frac{\alpha \sigma^2}{2}$ box and press *Enter*.
 - d. Click on the error oval attached to the selected rectangle. In the Contextual Toolbar, type a in the $\frac{\Delta \sigma^2}{2}$ box and press *Enter*.
 - e. Click on the path from L to selected. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1 in the β box and press *Enter*.
- 12. Clean up the location of the paths.

If you do not like where a path has been connected to its variables, use the Select tool, to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a rectangle and drag the endpoint.

Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting GSEM estimation options dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_select

References

Gronau, R. 1974. Wage comparisons: A selectivity bias. Journal of Political Economy 82: 1119-1143.

Heckman, J. 1976. The common structure of statistical models of truncation, sample selection and limited dependent variables and a simple estimator for such models. Annals of Economic and Social Measurement 5: 475-492.

Lewis, H. G. 1974. Comments on selectivity biases in wage comparisons. Journal of Political Economy 82: 1145–1155.

Skrondal, A., and S. Rabe-Hesketh. 2004. Generalized Latent Variable Modeling: Multilevel, Longitudinal, and Structural Equation Models. Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall/CRC.

Also see

[SEM] example 34g — Combined models (generalized responses)

[SEM] example 46g — Endogenous treatment-effects model

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] **intro 5** — Tour of models

Title

example 46g — Endogenous treatment-effects model

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

To illustrate the treatment-effects model, we use the following data:

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_union3
 (NLSY 1972)
- . describe

Contains data from http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_union3.dta

obs: 1,693 NLSY 1972

vars: 24 size: 79,571 29 Mar 2013 11:39 (_dta has notes)

variable name	storage type	display format	value label	variable label
idcode	int	%8.0g		NLS ID
year	int	%8.0g		interview year
birth_yr	byte	%8.0g		birth year
age	byte	%8.0g		age in current year
race	byte	%8.0g	racelbl	race
msp	byte	%8.0g		1 if married, spouse present
nev_mar	byte	%8.0g		1 if never married
grade	byte	%8.0g		current grade completed
collgrad	byte	%8.0g		1 if college graduate
not_smsa	byte	%8.0g		1 if not SMSA
c_city	byte	%8.0g		1 if central city
south	byte	%8.0g		1 if south
ind_code	byte	%8.0g		industry of employment
occ_code	byte	%8.0g		occupation
union	byte	%8.0g		1 if union
wks_ue	byte	%8.0g		weeks unemployed last year
ttl_exp	float	%9.0g		total work experience
tenure	float	%9.0g		job tenure, in years
hours	int	%8.0g		usual hours worked
wks_work	int	%8.0g		weeks worked last year
ln_wage	float	%9.0g		<pre>ln(wage/GNP deflator)</pre>
wage	double	%10.0g		real wage
black	float	%9.0g		race black
smsa	byte	%8.0g		1 if SMSA

Sorted by: idcode

. notes

_dta:

- Data from National Longitudinal Survey of Young Women 14-27 years of age (NLSY) in 1968, Center for Human Resource Research, Ohio State University, first released in 1989.
- 2. This data was subsetted for purposes of demonstration. Among other things, it contains data only for 1972.

See Structural models 7: Dependencies between response variables and Structural models 8: Unobserved inputs, outputs, or both in [SEM] intro 5 for background.

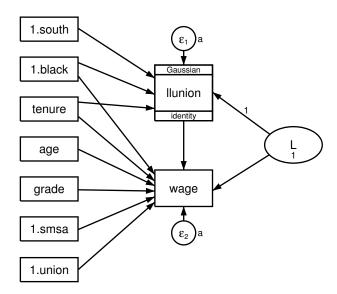
Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Fitting the treatment-effects model Fitting the model with the Builder

Fitting the treatment-effects model

We wish to fit the following model:



We wish to estimate the "treatment effect" of being a union member. That is, we speculate that union membership has an effect on wages, and we want to measure that effect. The problem would be easy if we had data on the same workers from two different but nearly identical universes, one in which the workers were not union members and another in which they were.

The model above is similar to the Heckman selection model we fit in [SEM] example 45g. The differences are that the continuous variable (wage) is observed in all cases and that we have a path from the treatment indicator (previously selection, now treatment) to the continuous variable. Just as with the Heckman selection model, we allow for correlation by introducing a latent variable with model identification constraints.

Before we can fit this model, we need to create new variables 11union and ulunion. 11union will equal 0 if union is 1 and missing otherwise. ulunion is the complement of llunion: it equals 0 if union is 0 and missing otherwise. llunion and ulunion will be used as the dependent variables in the treatment equation, providing the equivalent of a scaled probit regression.

```
gen llunion = 0 if union == 1
(1433 missing values generated)
. gen ulunion = 0 if union == 0
(709 missing values generated)
```

We can now fit this model with command syntax by typing

```
. gsem (wage <- age grade i.smsa i.black tenure 1.union L)
       (llunion <- i.black tenure i.south L@1,
        family(gaussian, udepvar(ulunion))),
       var(L@1 e.wage@a e.llunion@a)
Fitting fixed-effects model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood = -3308.0497
Iteration 1:
               log likelihood = -3062.8995
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -3062.2307
Iteration 3:
               log likelihood = -3061.5084
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 4:
               log likelihood = -3061.5029
Iteration 5:
               log likelihood = -3061.497
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 6:
               log likelihood = -3061.497 (backed up)
Refining starting values:
Grid node 0:
               log\ likelihood = -3104.2036
Fitting full model:
Iteration 0:
               log likelihood =
                                  -3178.91
                                             (not concave)
Iteration 1:
               log\ likelihood = -3112.9538
Iteration 2:
               log\ likelihood = -3059.5126
Iteration 3:
               log likelihood = -3051.6997
Iteration 4:
               log likelihood = -3051.576
Iteration 5:
               log\ likelihood = -3051.575
               log\ likelihood = -3051.575
Iteration 6:
Generalized structural equation model
                                                   Number of obs
                                                                           1210
Log likelihood = -3051.575
 (1)
       [llunion]L = 1
 (2)
       [var(e.llunion)]_cons - [var(e.wage)]_cons = 0
 (3)
       [var(L)]_{cons} = 1
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
wage <-						
age	.1487409	.0193291	7.70	0.000	.1108566	.1866252
grade	.4205658	.0293577	14.33	0.000	.3630258	.4781057
1.smsa	.9117044	.1249041	7.30	0.000	.6668969	1.156512
1.black	7882472	.1367077	-5.77	0.000	-1.056189	520305
tenure	.1524015	.0369595	4.12	0.000	.0799621	.2248408
1.union	2.945816	.2749549	10.71	0.000	2.406915	3.484718
L	-1.706795	.1288024	-13.25	0.000	-1.959243	-1.454347
_cons	-4.351572	.5283952	-8.24	0.000	-5.387207	-3.315936
llunion <-						
1.black	.6704049	.148057	4.53	0.000	.3802185	.9605913
tenure	.1282024	.0357986	3.58	0.000	.0580384	.1983664
1.south	8542673	.136439	-6.26	0.000	-1.121683	5868518
L	1	(constraine	ed)			
_cons	-1.302676	.1407538	-9.25	0.000	-1.578548	-1.026804
var(L)	1	(constraine	ed)			
var(e.llun~n)	1.163821	.2433321			.7725324	1.753298
<pre>var(e.wage)</pre>	1.163821	.2433321			.7725324	1.753298

Notes:

1. The treatment effect is measured by the coefficient on the path *treatment_variable-* >*continuous_variable* or, in our case, 1.union->wage. It is estimated to be 2.9458, which is practically large and statistically significant.

The interpretation formulas are the same as for the Heckman selection model in [SEM] example 45g, namely,

$$\beta = \beta^*$$

$$\gamma = \gamma^* / \sqrt{\sigma^{2^*} + 1}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \sigma^{2^*} + \kappa^2$$

$$\rho = \kappa / \sqrt{(\sigma^{2^*} + \kappa^2)(\sigma^{2^*} + 1)}$$

To remind you, β are the coefficients in the continuous-outcome equation, γ are the coefficients in the treatment equation, σ^2 is the variance of the error in the continuous-outcome equation, and ρ is the correlation between the errors in the treatment and continuous-outcome equations.

3. In the output above, σ^{2^*} (var(e.wage)) is 1.1638 and κ (the path coefficient on wage<-L) is -1.7068. In [SEM] example 45g, we calculated ρ by hand and then showed how to use the software to obtain the value and its standard error. This time, we will go right to the software.

After obtaining symbolic names by typing gsem, coeflegend, we type the following to obtain ρ :

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
rho	574648	.060969	-9.43	0.000	6941451	455151

- 4. We can obtain the untransformed treatment coefficients just as we did in [SEM] example 45g.
- 5. Just as with the Heckman selection model, with gsem, the treatment-effects model can be applied to generalized outcomes and include multilevel effects. See Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2004, chap. 14.5) for an example with a Poisson response function.

Fitting the model with the Builder

Use the diagram in *Fitting the treatment-effects model* above for reference.

1. Open the dataset.

In the Command window, type

- . use http://www.stata-press.com/data/r13/gsem_union3
 . gen llunion = 0 if union == 1
- . gen ulunion = 0 if union == 0
- 2. Open a new Builder diagram.

Select menu item Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation.

- 3. Put the Builder in gsem mode by clicking on the sem button.
- 4. Create the independent variables.

Select the Add Observed Variables Set tool, and then click in the diagram about one-fourth of the way in from the left and one-fourth of the way up from the bottom.

In the resulting dialog box,

- a. select the Select variables radio button (it may already be selected);
- b. type 1.south, 1.black, tenure, age, grade, 1.smsa, and 1.union in the Variables control (typing 1.varname rather than using the ... button to create i.varname prevents the rectangle corresponding to the base category for these binary variables from being created);
- c. select Vertical in the Orientation control; and
- d. click on OK.

If you wish, move the set of variables by clicking on any variable and dragging it.

- 5. Create the generalized response for llunion.
 - a. Select the Add Generalized Response Variable tool, \square .
 - b. Click about one-third of the way in from the right side of the diagram, to the right of the 1.black rectangle.
 - c. In the Contextual Toolbar, select Gaussian, Identity in the Family/Link control (it may already be selected).
 - d. In the Contextual Toolbar, select llunion in the Variable control.
 - e. In the Contextual Toolbar, click on the Properties button.
 - f. In the resulting *Variable properties* dialog box, click on the **Censoring** button in the **Variable** tab.
 - g. In the resulting *Censoring* dialog box, select the *Interval measured*, depvar is lower boundary radio button. In the resulting *Interval measured* box below, use the *Upper bound* control to select the variable ulunion.
 - h. Click on **OK** in the *Censoring* dialog box, and then click on **OK** in the *Variable properties* dialog box. The Details pane will now show llunion as the lower bound and ulunion as the upper bound for our interval measure.
- 6. Create the endogenous wage variable.
 - a. Select the Add Observed Variable tool, \square , and then click about one-third of the way in from the right side of the diagram, to the right of the grade rectangle.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, select wage with the Variable control.
- 7. Create paths from the independent variables to the dependent variables.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →
 - b. Click in the right side of the 1.south rectangle (it will highlight when you hover over it), and drag a path to the left side of the llunion rectangle (it will highlight when you can release to connect the path).
 - c. Continuing with the tool, create the following paths by clicking first in the right side of the rectangle for the independent variable and dragging it to the left side of the rectangle for the dependent variable:

```
1.black -> llunion
tenure -> llunion
1.black -> wage
tenure -> wage
age -> wage
grade -> wage
1.smsa -> wage
1.union -> wage
```

8. Clean up the direction of the error terms.

We want the error for llunion to be above the rectangle and the error for wage to be below the rectangle, but it is likely they have been created in other directions.

- a. Choose the Select tool, ...
- b. Click in the llunion rectangle.
- c. Click on one of the **Error Rotation** buttons, $^{\circ}$ C, in the Contextual Toolbar until the error is above the rectangle.
- d. Click in the wage rectangle.
- e. Click on one of the **Error Rotation** buttons, \bigcirc c, in the Contextual Toolbar until the error is below the rectangle.
- 9. Create the latent variable.
 - a. Select the Add Latent Variable tool, O, and then click at the far right of the diagram and vertically centered between the llunion and wage variables.
 - b. In the Contextual Toolbar, type L in the Name control and press Enter.
- 10. Draw paths from the latent variable to each endogenous variable.
 - a. Select the Add Path tool, →.
 - b. Click in the upper-left quadrant of the L oval, and drag a path to the right side of the llunion rectangle.
 - c. Continuing with the → tool, create another path by clicking first in the lower-left quadrant of the L oval and dragging a path to the right side of the wage rectangle.
- 11. Place constraints on the variances and on the path from L to llunion.
 - a. Choose the Select tool, .
 - b. Click on the L oval. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1 in the God box and press Enter.
 - c. Click on the error oval attached to the wage rectangle. In the Contextual Toolbar, type a in the $\frac{\Delta \sigma^2}{2}$ box and press *Enter*.
 - d. Click on the error oval attached to the llunion rectangle. In the Contextual Toolbar, type a in the $\frac{\Delta \sigma^2}{2}$ box and press *Enter*.
 - e. Click on the path from L to llunion. In the Contextual Toolbar, type 1 in the β box and press *Enter*.

12. Clean up the location of the paths.

If you do not like where a path has been connected to its variables, use the Select tool, , to click on the path, and then simply click on where it connects to a variable and drag the endpoint.

13. Estimate.

Click on the **Estimate** button, in the Standard Toolbar, and then click on **OK** in the resulting *GSEM* estimation options dialog box.

You can open a completed diagram in the Builder by typing

. webgetsem gsem_treat

References

Center for Human Resource Research. 1989. National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Market Experience, Young Women 14–24 years of age in 1968. Columbus, OH: Ohio State University Press.

Skrondal, A., and S. Rabe-Hesketh. 2004. Generalized Latent Variable Modeling: Multilevel, Longitudinal, and Structural Equation Models. Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall/CRC.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 34g — Combined models (generalized responses)
```

[SEM] example 45g — Heckman selection model

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] intro 5 — Tour of models

Title

gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

Syntax Menu Description Options
Remarks and examples Stored results Also see

Syntax

gsem
$$paths$$
 $[if]$ $[in]$ $[, options]$

where *paths* are the paths of the model in command-language path notation; see [SEM] **sem and gsem path notation**.

options	Description
model_description_options	fully define, along with paths, the model to be fit
estimation_options	method used to obtain estimation results
reporting_options	reporting of estimation results
syntax_options	controlling interpretation of syntax

Factor variables and time-series operators are allowed.

bootstrap, by, jackknife, permute, and statsby are allowed; see [U] 11.1.10 Prefix commands.

Also see [SEM] gsem postestimation for features available after estimation.

Menu

 ${\it Statistics} > {\it SEM}$ (structural equation modeling) $> {\it Model}$ building and estimation

Description

gsem fits generalized SEMs. When you use the Builder in gsem mode, you are using the gsem command.

Options

model_description_options describe the model to be fit. The model to be fit is fully specified by paths—which appear immediately after gsem—and the options covariance(), variance(), and means(). See [SEM] gsem model description options and [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

estimation_options control how the estimation results are obtained. These options control how the standard errors (VCE) are obtained and control technical issues such as choice of estimation method. See [SEM] **gsem estimation options**.

reporting_options control how the results of estimation are displayed. See [SEM] gsem reporting options.

syntax_options control how the syntax that you type is interpreted. See [SEM] sem and gsem syntax options.

Remarks and examples

gsem provides important features not provided by sem and correspondingly omits useful features provided by sem. The differences in capabilities are the following:

- gsem allows generalized linear response functions as well as the linear response functions allowed by sem.
- 2. gsem allows for multilevel models, something sem does not.
- gsem allows Stata's factor-variable notation to be used in specifying models, something sem does not.
- 4. gsem's method ML is sometimes able to use more observations in the presence of missing values than can sem's method ML. Meanwhile, gsem does not provide the MLMV method provided by sem for explicitly handling missing values.
- 5. gsem lacks the group-comparison capabilities that sem provides.
- 6. gsem lacks the ability to produce estimates adjusted for survey sampling that sem provides.
- 7. gsem cannot produce standardized coefficients.
- 8. gsem cannot use summary statistic datasets (SSDs); sem can.

gsem has nearly identical syntax to sem. Differences in syntax arise because of differences in capabilities. The resulting differences in syntax are the following:

- 1. gsem adds new syntax to paths to handle latent variables associated with multilevel modeling.
- 2. gsem adds new options to handle the family and link of generalized linear responses.
- gsem deletes options related to features it does not have, such as group-comparison capabilities and SSDs.
- 4. gsem adds technical options for controlling features not provided by sem, such as numerical integration (quadrature choices), number of integration points, and a number of options dealing with starting values, which are a more difficult proposition in the generalized SEM framework.

For a readable explanation of what gsem can do and how to use it, see the intro sections. You might start with [SEM] intro 1.

For examples of gsem in action, see the example sections. You might start with [SEM] example 1.

For detailed syntax and descriptions, see the references below.

Remarks on three advanced topics are presented under the following headings:

Default normalization constraints Default covariance assumptions How to solve convergence problems

Default normalization constraints

gsem applies the same rules as sem to identify models; see [SEM] sem and see [SEM] intro 4. Everything said there about latent variables applies to multilevel latent variables such as M1[school] and M2[school>teacher].

Default covariance assumptions

gsem assumes the same covariance structures as does sem; see [SEM] sem and see [SEM] intro 4. gsem, however, treats covariances between observed exogenous variables as given. Actually, so does sem unless you specify an override. The override cannot be specified with gsem.

How to solve convergence problems

See [SEM] intro 12.

Stored results

gsem stores the following in e():

```
Scalars
                               number of observations
    e(N)
                               number of clusters
    e(N_clust)
    e(k)
                               number of parameters
                               number of categories for the #th depvar, ordinal
    e(k_cat#)
                               number of dependent variables
    e(k_dv)
                               number of equations in e(b)
    e(k_eq)
    e(k_out#)
                               number of outcomes for the #th depvar, mlogit
    e(k_rc)
                               number of covariances
                               number of variances
    e(k_rs)
    e(11)
                               log likelihood
    e(n_quad)
                               number of integration points
                               rank of e(V)
    e(rank)
                               number of iterations
    e(ic)
    e(rc)
                               return code
    e(converged)
                               1 if target model converged, 0 otherwise
Macros
    e(cmd)
                               gsem
    e(cmdline)
                               command as typed
    e(depvar)
                               names of dependent variables
    e(title)
                               title in estimation output
    e(clustvar)
                               name of cluster variable
    e(family#)
                               family for the #th depvar
                               link for the #th depvar
    e(link#)
    e(offset#)
                               offset for the #th depvar
                               integration method
    e(intmethod)
                               vcetype specified in vce()
    e(vce)
    e(vcetype)
                               title used to label Std. Err.
    e(opt)
                               type of optimization
    e(which)
                               max or min; whether optimizer is to perform maximization or minimization
                               estimation method: ml
    e(method)
    e(ml_method)
                               type of ml method
                               name of likelihood-evaluator program
    e(user)
    e(technique)
                               maximization technique
    e(datasignature)
                               the checksum
                               variables used in calculation of checksum
    e(datasignaturevars)
    e(properties)
    e(estat_cmd)
                               program used to implement estat
    e(predict)
                               program used to implement predict
    e(covariates)
                               list of covariates
    e(footnote)
                               program used to implement the footnote display
    e(marginsnotok)
                               predictions not allowed by margins
```

```
Matrices
    e(b)
                           parameter vector
    e(b_pclass)
                           parameter class
    e(cat#)
                           categories for the #th depvar, ordinal
    e(out#)
                          outcomes for the #th depvar, mlogit
    e(Cns)
                          constraints matrix
                          iteration log (up to 20 iterations)
    e(ilog)
                          gradient vector
    e(gradient)
    e(V)
                          covariance matrix of the estimators
    e(V_modelbased)
                          model-based variance
Functions
    e(sample)
                          marks estimation sample
```

Also see

```
    [SEM] intro 1 — Introduction
    [SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams
    [SEM] gsem path notation extensions — Command syntax for path diagrams
    [SEM] gsem model description options — Model description options
    [SEM] gsem estimation options — Options affecting estimation
    [SEM] gsem reporting options — Options affecting reporting of results
    [SEM] sem and gsem syntax options — Options affecting interpretation of syntax
    [SEM] gsem postestimation — Postestimation tools for gsem
```

[SEM] methods and formulas for gsem — Methods and formulas

Title

gsem estimation options — Options affecting estimation

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

gsem paths ..., ... estimation_options

estimation_options	Description
method(ml)	method used to obtain the estimated parameters; only one method available with gsem
vce(vcetype)	vcetype may be oim, opg, robust, or cluster clustvar
<pre>from(matname) startvalues(symethod) startgrid[(gridspec)] noestimate intmethod(intmethod) intpoints(#) adaptopts(adaptopts)</pre>	specify starting values method for obtaining starting values perform a grid search to improve starting values do not fit the model; show starting values instead integration method set the number of integration (quadrature) points options for adaptive quadrature
listwise	apply sem's (not gsem's) rules for omitting observations with missing values
dnumerical	use numerical derivative techniques
maximize_options	control maximization process for specified model; seldom used
intmethod	Description
mvaghermite mcaghermite ghermite laplace	mean-variance adaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature; the default mode-curvature adaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature nonadaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature Laplacian approximation
adaptopts	Description
$[\underline{\mathtt{no}}]\underline{\mathtt{log}}$	whether to display the iteration log for each numerical integral calculation
<pre>iterate(#)</pre>	set the maximum number of iterations of the adaptive technique; default is iterate(1001)
tolerance(#)	set tolerance for determining convergence of the adaptive parameters; default is tolerance(1e-8)

Description

These options control how results are obtained, from starting values, to numerical integration (also known as quadrature), to how variance estimates are obtained.

Options

method(ml) is the default and is the only method available with gsem. This option is included for compatibility with sem, which provides several methods; see [SEM] sem option method().

vce(vcetype) specifies the technique used to obtain the variance-covariance matrix of the estimates. See [SEM] sem option method().

from (matname), startvalues (symethod), and startgrid [(gridspec)] specify overriding starting values, specify how other starting values are to be calculated, and provide the ability to improve the starting values. All of this is discussed in [SEM] intro 12. Below we provide a technical description.

from (matname) allows you to specify starting values. See [SEM] intro 12 and see [SEM] sem and gsem option from(). We show the syntax as from (matname), but from() has another, less useful syntax, too. An alternative to from() is init() used in the path specifications; see [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

startvalues() specifies how starting values are to be computed. Starting values specified in from() override the computed starting values, and starting values specified via init() override both.

startvalues(zero) specifies that starting values are to be set to 0.

startvalues(constantonly) builds on startvalues(zero) by fitting a constant-only model for each response to obtain estimates of intercept and scale parameters, and it substitutes 1 for the variances of latent variables.

startvalues(fixedonly) builds on startvalues(constantonly) by fitting a full fixed-effects model for each response variable to obtain estimates of coefficients along with intercept and scale parameters, and it continues to use 1 for the variances of latent variables.

startvalues(ivloadings) builds on startvalues(fixedonly) by using instrumental-variable methods with the generalized residuals from the fixed-effects models to compute starting values for latent variable loadings, and still uses 1 for the variances of latent variables.

startvalues(iv) builds on startvalues(ivloadings) by using instrumental-variable methods with generalized residuals to obtain variances of latent variables.

startgrid() performs a grid search on variance components of latent variables to improve starting values. This is well discussed in [SEM] intro 12. No grid search is performed by default unless the starting values are found to be not feasible, in which case gsem runs startgrid() to perform a "minimal" search involving L^3 likelihood evaluations, where L is the number of latent variables. Sometimes this resolves the problem. Usually, however, there is no problem and startgrid() is not run by default. There can be benefits from running startgrid() to get better starting values even when starting values are feasible.

noestimate specifies that the model is not to be fit. Instead, starting values are to be shown (as modified by the above options if modifications were made), and they are to be shown using the coeflegend style of output. An important use of this option is before you have modified starting values at all; you can type the following:

```
. gsem ..., ... noestimate
. matrix b = e(b)
. ... (modify elements of b) ...
. gsem ..., ... from(b)
```

intmethod(intmethod), intpoints(#), and adaptopts(adaptopts) affect how integration for the
latent variables is numerically calculated.

intmethod(intmethod) specifies the method and defaults to intmethod(mvaghermite). We recommend this method, although sometimes the more computationally intensive intmethod(mcaghermite) works better for multilevel models that are failing to converge. Sometimes it is useful to fall back on the less computationally intensive and less accurate intmethod(ghermite) and intmethod(laplace) to get the model to converge and then perhaps use one of the other more accurate methods. All of this is explained in [SEM] intro 12. intmethod(laplace) is the default when fitting crossed models. Crossed models are often difficult.

intpoints(#) specifies the number of integration points to use and defaults to intpoints(7). Increasing the number increases accuracy but also increases computational time. Computational time is roughly proportional to the number specified. See [SEM] intro 12.

adaptopts (*adaptopts*) affects the adaptive part of adaptive quadrature (another term for numerical integration) and thus is relevant only for intmethod(mvaghermite), intmethod(mcaghermite), and intmethod(laplace).

adaptopts() defaults to adaptopts(nolog iterate(1001) tolerance(1e-8)).

[no]log specifies whether iteration logs are shown each time a numerical integral is calculated.

iterate() specifies the maximum number of iterations of the adaptive technique.

tolerance() specifies the tolerance for determining convergence of the adaptive parameters. Convergence is declared when the relative change in the log likelihood is less than or equal to the tolerance.

listwise applies sem's rules rather than gsem's rules for omitting observations with missing values. By default, gsem is sometimes able to use observations containing missing values for fitting parts of the model. sem, meanwhile, applies a listwise-deletion rule unless it is using method(mlmv). Specifying listwise allows us at StataCorp to verify that gsem and sem produce the same results. We find that reassuring. Actually, automated tests verify that results are the same before shipping. For your information, sem and gsem use different numerical machinery for obtaining results, and thus the near equality of results is a strong test that each is coded correctly. You may find listwise useful if you are reproducing results from another package that uses listwise deletion.

dnumerical specifies that during optimization, the gradient vector and Hessian matrix be computed using numerical techniques instead of analytical formulas. By default, gsem uses analytical formulas for computing the gradient and Hessian for all integration methods except intmethod(laplace).

maximize_options specify the standard and rarely specified options for controlling the maximization process; see [R] maximize. The relevant options for gsem are difficult,
 technique(algorithm_spec), iterate(#), [no]log, trace, gradient, showstep, hessian,
 tolerance(#), ltolerance(#), nrtolerance(#) and nonrtolerance.

Remarks and examples

For more information on vce(), see [SEM] intro 8 and [SEM] intro 9.

For more information on the other options, see [SEM] intro 12.

Also see

```
[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
```

[SEM] intro 8 — Robust and clustered standard errors

[SEM] intro 9 — Standard errors, the full story

[SEM] intro 12 — Convergence problems and how to solve them

gsem family-and-link options — Family-and-link options

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
\texttt{gsem} \hspace{0.1cm} \textit{paths} \hspace{0.1cm} \dots, \hspace{0.1cm} \textit{mily\_and\_link\_options}
```

family_and_link_options	Description
<u>family(family)</u>	distribution family; default is family(gaussian)
link(link)	link function; default varies per family
cloglog	<pre>synonym for family(bernoulli) link(cloglog)</pre>
gamma	synonym for family(gamma) link(log)
logit	<pre>synonym for family(bernoulli) link(logit)</pre>
nbreg	<pre>synonym for family(nbreg mean) link(log)</pre>
mlogit	<pre>synonym for family(multinomial) link(logit)</pre>
ocloglog	<pre>synonym for family(ordinal) link(cloglog)</pre>
ologit	<pre>synonym for family(ordinal) link(logit)</pre>
oprobit	<pre>synonym for family(ordinal) link(probit)</pre>
poisson	<pre>synonym for family(poisson) link(log)</pre>
probit	<pre>synonym for family(bernoulli) link(probit)</pre>
regress	<pre>synonym for family(gaussian) link(identity)</pre>
$exposure(varname_e)$	include $ln(varname_e)$ with coefficient constrained to 1
$\underbrace{\text{off}}_{\text{set}(varname_o)}$	include <i>varname</i> _o with coefficient constrained to 1
family	Description
gaussian [, options]	Gaussian (normal); the default
<u>be</u> rnoulli	Bernoulli
<u>bin</u> omial [# varname]	binomial; default number of binomial trials is 1
gamma	gamma
$\underline{\mathtt{m}}$ ultinomial	multinomial
$\underline{\mathtt{nb}}$ inomial $[\mathtt{mean} \mid \underline{\mathtt{cons}}$ tant	negative binomial; default dispersion is mean
<u>o</u> rdinal	ordinal
poisson	Poisson
<u>-</u>	FOISSOII
<u>*</u>	
link	Description
<u> </u>	
link identity log	Description identity log
link identity log logit	Description identity
link identity log	Description identity log
link identity log logit	Description identity log logit

options	Description
<u>ld</u> epvar(<i>varname</i>)	lower depvar for interval-response data
<u>ud</u> epvar(<i>varname</i>)	upper depvar for interval-response data
$\frac{1c}{ensored}(varname \#)$	lower limit for left-censoring
rcensored(varname #)	upper limit for right-censoring

Only allowed with family(gaussian) with link(identity).

If you specify both family() and link(), not all combinations make sense. You may choose from the following combinations:

	identity	log	logit	probit	cloglog
Gaussian	D	х			
Bernoulli			D	X	X
binomial			D	X	X
family multinomial			D		
gamma		D			
negative binomial		D			
ordinal			D	X	X
Poisson		D			

D denotes the default.

Description

gsem not only allows models of the form $y_i = \mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + u_i$, it also allows

$$g\{E(y_i)\} = \mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}$$
$$y_i \sim F$$

where you can choose F and $g(\cdot)$ from a menu. F is called the family, and $g(\cdot)$ is called the link. One set of choices is the Gaussian distribution for F and the identity function for $g(\cdot)$. In that case, gsem reproduces linear regression. Other combinations of $g(\cdot)$ and F produce other popular models, including logit (also known as logistic regression), probit, multinomial logit, Poisson regression, and more.

Options

family (family) and link(linkname) specify F and $g(\cdot)$. If neither is specified, linear regression is assumed.

Two of the families allow optional arguments:

family(binomial [#|varname]) specifies that data are in binomial form, that is, that the response variable records the number of successes from a series of Bernoulli trials. The number of trials is given either as a constant number or as a varname that allows the number of trials to vary over observations, or it is not given at all. In the last case, the number of trials is thus equivalent to specifying family(bernoulli).

family(nbinomial [mean | constant]) specifies a negative binomial model, a Poisson model with overdispersion. Be aware, however, that even Poisson models can have overdispersion if latent variables are included in the model. Let's use the term "conditional overdispersion" to refer to dispersion above and beyond that implied by latent variables, if any.

That conditional overdispersion can take one of two forms. In mean overdispersion, the conditional overdispersion is a linear function of the conditional (predicted) mean. Constant overdispersion refers to the conditional overdispersion being, of course, constant.

If you do not specify mean or constant, then mean is assumed.

cloglog, gamma, logit, nbreg, mlogit, ocloglog, ologit, oprobit, poisson, probit, and regress are shorthands for specifying popular models.

exposure($varname_e$) and offset($varname_o$) are used only with families poisson and nbreg, that is, they concern count models.

exposure() specifies a variable that reflects the amount of exposure—usually measured in time units—for each observation over which the responses were counted. If one observation was exposed for twice the time of another, and the observations were otherwise identical, one would expect twice as many events to be counted. To assume that, $\ln(varname_e)$ is entered into $\mathbf{x}_i\beta$ with coefficient constrained to be 1.

offset() enters $varname_o$ into $x_i\beta$ with coefficient constrained to be 1. offset() is just another way of specifying exposure() where the offset variable is the log of amount of exposure.

If neither exposure() nor offset() is specified, observations are assumed to have equal amounts of exposure.

ldepvar(varname) and udepvar(varname) specify that each observation can be point data, interval data, left-censored data, or right-censored data. The type of data for a given observation is determined by the values in y_i and varname. The following specifications are equivalent:

$$depvar_1 \leftarrow \dots$$
, family(gauss, udepvar($depvar_2$)
 $depvar_2 \leftarrow \dots$, family(gauss, ldepvar($depvar_1$)

Thus only one of ldepvar() or udepvar() is allowed. In either case, $depvar_1$ and $depvar_2$ should have the following form:

Type of data		var_1	var_2
point data	a = [a, a]	a	a
interval data	[a,b]	a	b
left-censored data	$(-\infty, b]$		b
right-censored data	$[a, +\infty)$	a	•

lcensored(varname|#) and rcensored(varname|#) indicate the lower and upper limits for censoring, respectively. You may specify only one.

lcensored(arg) specifies that observations with $y_i \leq arg$ are left-censored and the remaining observations are not.

rcensored(arg) specifies that observations with $y_i \ge arg$ are right-censored and the remaining observations are not.

Neither lcensored() nor rcensored() may not be combined with ldepvar() or udepvar().

In the command language, the family-and-link options may be specified at the end of a command among the global options:

```
. gsem ..., ... family(...) link(...) ...
. gsem ..., ... poisson exposure(time) ...
```

Specified that way, the options apply to all the response variables. Alternatively, they may be specified inside paths to affect single equations:

On a different topic, it is worth nothing that you can fit exponential-regression models with family(gamma) link(log) if you constrain the log of the scale parameter to be 0 with gsem's constraints() option. For instance, you might type

```
. constraint 1 _b[y_logs:_cons] = 0
. gsem (y <- x1 x2, gamma), constraints(1)</pre>
```

The name _b[y_logs:_cons] changes according to the name of the dependent variable. Had y instead been named waitingtime, the parameter would have been named _b[waitingtime_logs:_cons]. Rather than remembering that, remember instead that the best way to discover the names of parameters is to type

```
. gsem (waitingtime <- x1 x2, gamma), noestimate
```

and then look at the output to discover the names. See [SEM] sem and gsem option constraints().

```
For examples of generalized response variables, see the following:
  [SEM] example 27g: Single-factor measurement model (generalized response)
  [SEM] example 28g: One-parameter logistic IRT (Rasch) model
  [SEM] example 29g: Two-parameter logistic IRT model
  [SEM] example 30g: Two-level measurement model (multilevel, generalized response)
  [SEM] example 31g: Two-factor measurement model (generalized response)
  [SEM] example 32g: Full structural equation model (generalized response)
  [SEM] example 33g: Logistic regression
  [SEM] example 34g: Combined models (generalized responses)
  [SEM] example 35g: Ordered probit and ordered logit
  [SEM] example 36g: MIMIC model (generalized response)
  [SEM] example 37g: Multinomial logistic regression
  [SEM] example 39g: Three-level model (multilevel, generalized response)
  [SEM] example 41g: Two-level multinomial logistic regression (multilevel)
  [SEM] example 43g: Tobit regression
  [SEM] example 44g: Interval regression
  [SEM] example 45g: Heckman selection model
```

Also see

```
[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command [SEM] intro 2 — Learning the language: Path diagrams and command language [SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams [SEM] gsem path notation extensions — Command syntax for path diagrams
```

[SEM] example 46g: Endogenous treatment-effects model

gsem model description options — Model description options

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

gsem paths ..., ... model_description_options

model_description_options	Description
family(), link(),	see [SEM] gsem family-and-link options
* <u>cov</u> ariance()	path notation for treatment of covariances; see [SEM] sem and gsem path notation
* <u>var</u> iance()	path notation for treatment of variances; see [SEM] sem and gsem path notation
* <u>mean</u> s()	path notation for treatment of means; see [SEM] sem and gsem path notation
* covstructure()	alternative method to place restrictions on covariances; see [SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure()
<u>col</u> linear	keep collinear variables
<u>nocons</u> tant	do not fit intercepts
noasis	omit perfect predictors from Bernoulli models
fvstandard	interpret factor variables according to Stata standard
noanchor	do not apply default anchoring
forcenoanchor	programmer's option
* <u>rel</u> iability()	reliability of measurement variables; see [SEM] sem and gsem option reliability()
<pre>constraints() from()</pre>	specify constraints; see [SEM] sem and gsem option constraints() specify starting values; see [SEM] sem and gsem option from()

^{*} Option may be specified more than once.

Description

paths and the options above describe the model to be fit by gsem.

Options

family() and link() specify the distribution and link function, such as family(poisson)
 link(log), for generalized linear responses. There are lots of synonyms, so you can specify, for example, just poisson. In addition, there are exposure() and offset() options. See
 [SEM] gsem family-and-link options.

- covariance(), variance(), and means() fully describe the model to be fit. See [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.
- covstructure() provides a convenient way to constrain covariances in your model. Alternatively or in combination, you can place constraints by using the standard path notation. See [SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure().
- collinear; see [R] estimation options.
- noconstant specifies that all intercepts be constrained to 0. See [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.
 - This option is seldom specified.
- noasis specifies that perfect-predictor variables be omitted from all family Bernoulli models. By default, gsem does not omit the variable, so one can specify tricky models where an equation contains perfect predictors that are still identified through other portions of the model.
- fvstandard specifies that factor-variable notation be interpreted according to the Stata standard. gsem interprets factor variables slightly differently than do other Stata commands and, given how factor-variable notation is used in command mode, this usually makes no difference. This is explained in [SEM] intro 3.
 - To be technical, when fvstandard is specified, all factor variables automatically are assigned a base level among the specified or implied levels, and implied yet unspecified elements of interaction terms will be left in the model specification.
- noanchor specifies that gsem not check for lack of identification or fill in anchors where needed. gsem is instead to issue an error message if anchors would be needed. Specify this option when you believe you have specified the necessary normalization constraints and want to hear about it if you are wrong. See *Identification 2: Normalization constraints (anchoring)* in [SEM] intro 4.
- forcenoanchor is similar to noanchor except that rather than issue an error message, gsem proceeds to estimation. There is no reason you should specify this option. forcenoanchor is used in testing of gsem at StataCorp.
- reliability() specifies the fraction of variance not due to measurement error for a variable. See [SEM] sem and gsem option reliability().
- constraints() specifies parameter constraints you wish to impose on your model; see [SEM] sem and gsem option constraints(). Constraints can also be specified as described in [SEM] sem and gsem path notation, and they are usually more conveniently specified using the path notation.
- from() specifies the starting values to be used in the optimization process; see [SEM] sem and gsem
 option from(). Starting values can also be specified using the init() suboption as described in
 [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

Remarks and examples

To use gsem successfully, you need to understand *paths*, covariance(), variance(), and means(); see *Using path diagrams to specify standard linear SEMs* in [SEM] **intro 2** and see [SEM] **sem and gsem path notation**.

covstructure() is often convenient; see [SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure().

Also see

```
[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
```

[SEM] intro 2 — Learning the language: Path diagrams and command language

[SEM] sem and gsem option constraints() — Specifying constraints

[SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure() — Specifying covariance restrictions

[SEM] sem and gsem option from() — Specifying starting values

[SEM] sem and gsem option reliability() — Fraction of variance not due to measurement error

[SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams

Title

gsem path notation extensions — Command syntax for path diagrams

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
gsem paths ... [, covariance() variance() means()]
```

paths specifies the direct paths between the variables of your model.

The model to be fit is fully described by paths, covariance(), variance(), and means().

Description

This entry concerns gsem only.

The command syntax for describing generalized SEMs is fully specified by *paths*, covariance(), variance(), and means(); see [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

With gsem, the notation is extended to allow for generalized linear response variables and to allow for multilevel latent variables. That is the subject of this entry.

Options

covariance(), variance(), and means() are described in [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Specifying multilevel nested latent variables Specifying multilevel crossed latent variables Specifying family and link

Specifying multilevel nested latent variables

Latent variables are indicated by a name in which at least the first letter is capitalized. This generic form of the name is often written *Lname*.

In regular latent variables, which we will call level-1 latent variables, the unobserved values vary observation by observation. Level-1 latent variables are the more common kinds of latent variables.

gsem allows higher-level latent variables as well as the level-1 variables. Let's consider three-level data: students at the observational level, teachers at the second level, and schools at the third. In these data, each observation is a student. We have data on students nested within teacher nested within school.

Let's assume that we correspondingly have three identification (ID) variables. We number the following list with the nesting level of the data:

3. Variable school contains a school ID number. If two observations have the same value of school, then both of those students attended the same school.

- 2. Variable teacher contains a teacher ID number, or it contains a teacher-within-school ID number. That is, we do not care whether different schools assigned teachers the same ID number. It will be sufficient for us that the ID number is unique within school.
- 1. Variable student contains a student ID number, or it contains a student-within-school ID number, or even a student-within-teacher-within-school ID number. That is, we do not care whether different observations have the same student ID as long as they have different teacher IDs or different school IDs.

Here is how you write latent-variable names at each level of the model:

3. Level 3 is the school level. Latent variables are written as

Lname[school]

An example would be SchQuality[school].

The unobserved values of *Lname*[school] vary across schools and are constant within school.

If *Lname* [school] is endogenous, its error variable is e. *Lname* [school].

You must refer to *Lname* [school] without omitting the [school] part. *Lname* by itself looks like another latent variable to gsem.

2. Level 2 is the teacher-within-school level. Latent variables are written as

Lname[school>teacher] or Lname[teacher<school]</pre>

An example would be TeachQuality[school>teacher] or TeachQuality[teacher<school].

To gsem, Lname[school>teacher] and Lname[teacher<school] mean the same thing. You can even refer to TeachQuality[school>teacher] in one place and refer to TeachQuality[teacher<school] in another, and there will be no confusion.

The unobserved values of Lname[school>teacher] vary across schools and teachers, and they are constant within teacher.

If *Lname* [school>teacher] is endogenous, its error variable is e. Lname [school>teacher] or, equivalently, e. Lname [teacher<school].

1. Level 1 is the student or observational level. Latent variables are written as

Lname[school>teacher>student] or Lname[student<teacher<school] or Lname

Everybody just writes Lname. These are the latent variables that correspond to the latent variables that sem provides. Unobserved values within the latent variable vary observation by observation.

If *Lname* is endogenous, its error variable is e. *Lname*.

You can use multilevel latent variables in paths and options just as you would use any other latent variable; see [SEM] sem and gsem path notation. Remember, however, that you must type out the full name of all but the first-level latent variables. You type, for instance, SchQual[school>teacher]. There is a real tendency to type just SchQual when the name is unique.

Changing the subject, the names by which effects are referred to are a function of the top level. We just discussed a three-level model. The three levels of the model were

- (3) school
- (2) school>teacher
- (1) school>teacher>student

If we had a two-level model, the levels would be

- (2) teacher
- (1) teacher>student

Thus, if we had started with a two-level model and then wanted to add a third, higher level onto it, latent variables that were previously referred to as, say, TeachQual[teacher] would now be referred to as TeachQual[school>teacher].

Specifying multilevel crossed latent variables

In our previous example, we had a three-level nested model in which student was nested within teacher, which was nested within school.

Let's consider data on employees that also have the characteristics of working in an occupation and working in an industry. These variables are not nested. Just as before, we will assume we have variable employee containing an employee ID, and variables industry and occupation. The latent variables associated with this model could be

Level	Latent-variable name
occupation	Lname[occupation]
industry	<pre>Lname[industry]</pre>
employee (observational)	Lname

Specifying family and link

gsem fits not only linear models but also generalized linear models. There is a set of options for specifying the specific model to be fit. These options are known as family-and-link options, which include family() and link(), but those options are seldom used in favor of other family-and-link shorthand options such as logit, which means family(bernoulli) and link(logit). These options are explained in [SEM] gsem family-and-link options.

In the command language, you can specify these options among the shared options at the end of a gsem command:

```
. gsem ..., ... logit ...
```

That is convenient, but only if all the equations in the model are using the same specific response function. Many models include multiple equations with each using a different response function.

You can specify any of the family-and-link options within paths. For instance, typing

```
. gsem (y <- x1 x2), logit
```

has the same effect as typing

```
. gsem (y <- x1 x2, logit)
```

Thus you can type

```
. gsem (y1 <- x1 L, logit) (y2 <- x2 L, poisson) ..., ...
```

The y1 equation would be logit, and the y2 equation would be Poisson. If you wanted y2 to be linear regression, you could type

```
. gsem (y1 <- x1 L, logit) (y2 <- x2 L, regress) ..., ...
```

or you could be silent and let y2 default to linear regression,

```
. gsem (y1 <- x1 L, logit) (y2 <- x2 L) ..., ...
```

Also see

```
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams
    [SEM] intro 2 — Learning the language: Path diagrams and command language
```

Title

n postestimation — Postestimation tools for gsem
--

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

The following are the postestimation commands that you can use after estimation by gsem:

Command	Description
gsem, coeflegend	display _b[] notation
estat eform estat ic	display exponentiated coefficients Akaike's and Schwarz's Bayesian information criteria (AIC and BIC)
lrtest test lincom nlcom testnl	likelihood-ratio tests Wald tests linear combination of parameters nonlinear combination of parameters Wald tests of nonlinear hypotheses
estat summarize estat vce	summary statistics for the estimation sample variance—covariance matrix of the estimators (VCE)
predict	generalized linear predictions, etc.
margins contrast pwcompare	marginal means, predictive margins, and marginal effects contrasts and linear hypothesis tests pairwise comparisons
estimates	cataloging estimation results

For a summary of postestimation features, see [SEM] intro 7.

Remarks and examples

This manual entry concerns gsem. For information on postestimation features available after sem, see [SEM] sem postestimation.

Also see

[SEM] gsem reporting options — Options affecting reporting of results

Title

gsem reporting options — Options affecting reporting of results

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
gsem paths ..., ... reporting_options
gsem, reporting_options
```

reporting_options	Description
<u>l</u> evel(#)	set confidence level; default is level(95)
<u>coefl</u> egend	display coefficient legend
<u>nocnsr</u> eport	do not display constraints
<u>nohead</u> er	do not display header above parameter table
notable	do not display parameter table
display_options	control column formats, row spacing, line width, display of omitted variables and base and empty cells, and factor-variable labeling

Description

These options control how gsem displays estimation results.

Options

level(#); see [R] estimation options.

coeflegend displays the legend that reveals how to specify estimated coefficients in _b[] notation, which you are sometimes required to type in specifying postestimation commands.

nocnsreport suppresses the display of the constraints. Fixed-to-zero constraints that are automatically set by gsem are not shown in the report to keep the output manageable.

noheader suppresses the header above the parameter table, the display that reports the final loglikelihood value, number of observations, etc.

notable suppresses the parameter table.

display_options: noomitted, vsquish, noemptycells, baselevels, allbaselevels, nofvlabel, fvwrap(#), fvwrapon(style), cformat(%fmt), pformat(%fmt), sformat(%fmt), and nolstretch; see [R] estimation options.

Remarks and examples

Any of the above options may be specified when you fit the model or when you redisplay results, which you do by specifying nothing but options after the gsem command:

- . gsem (...) (...), ... (original output displayed)
- . gsem (output redisplayed)
- . gsem, coeflegend (coefficient-name table displayed)
- . gsem (output redisplayed)

Also see

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command [SEM] example 29g — Two-parameter logistic IRT model

Title

lincom — Linear combinations of parameters

Syntax Menu Description Options
Remarks and examples Stored results Also see

Syntax

```
lincom exp [, options]
```

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Testing and CIs > Linear combinations of parameters

Description

lincom is a postestimation command for use after sem, gsem, and nearly all Stata estimation commands.

lincom computes point estimates, standard errors, z statistics, p-values, and confidence intervals for linear combinations of the estimated parameters.

After sem and gsem, you must use the _b[] coefficient notation; you cannot refer to variables by using shortcuts to obtain coefficients on variables.

See [R] lincom.

Options

See Options in [R] lincom.

Remarks and examples

lincom works in the metric of SEM, which is to say path coefficients, variances, and covariances. If you want to frame your linear combinations in terms of standardized coefficients and correlations, and you fit the model with sem, not gsem, then prefix lincom with estat stdize:; see [SEM] estat stdize.

Stored results

See Stored results in [R] lincom.

Also see

```
    [R] lincom — Linear combinations of estimators
    [SEM] estat stdize — Test standardized parameters
    [SEM] nlcom — Nonlinear combinations of parameters
    [SEM] test — Wald test of linear hypotheses
```

Title

Irtest — Likelihood-ratio test of linear hypothesis

Syntax Menu Description Remarks and examples Stored results Also see

Syntax

```
{sem | gsem} ..., ... (fit model 1)
estimates store modelname1
{sem | gsem} ..., ... (fit model 2)
estimates store modelname2
lrtest modelname1 modelname2 (compare models)
```

where one of the models is constrained and the other is unconstrained. lrtest counts parameters to determine which model is constrained and which is unconstrained, so it does not matter which model is which.

Warning concerning use with sem: Do not omit variables, observed or latent, from the model. Constrain their coefficients to be 0 instead. The models being compared must contain the same set of variables. This is because the standard SEM likelihood value is a function of the variables appearing in the model. Despite this fact, use of lrtest is appropriate under the relaxed conditional normality assumption.

Note concerning gsem: The above warning does not apply to gsem just as it does not apply to other Stata estimation commands. Whether you omit variables or constrain coefficients to 0, results will be the same. The generalized SEM likelihood is conditional on the exogenous variables.

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Testing and CIs > Likelihood-ratio test

Description

lrtest is a postestimation command for use after sem, gsem, and other Stata estimation commands. lrtest performs a likelihood-ratio test comparing models. See [R] lrtest.

Remarks and examples

```
See [SEM] example 10 and [SEM] example 39g.
```

When using 1rtest after sem, you must be careful that the models being compared have the same observed and latent variables. For instance, the following is allowed:

. sem (L1 -> x1 x2 x3) (L1 <- x4 x5) (x1 <- x4) (x2 <- x5) . estimates store m1 . sem (L1 -> x1 x2 x3) (L1 <- x4 x5) . estimates store m2

This is allowed because both models contain the same variables, namely, L1, x1, ..., x5, even though the second model omitted some paths.

The following would produce invalid results:

```
. sem (L1 -> x1 x2 x3) (L1 <- x4 x5) (x1 <- x4) (x2 <- x5)
```

- . estimates store m1
- . sem (L1 -> x1 x2 x3) (L1 <- x4)
- . estimates store m2
- . lrtest m1 m2

. lrtest m1 m2

It produces invalid results because the second model does not include variable x5 and the first model does. To run this test correctly, you type

```
. sem (L1 -> x1 x2 x3) (L1 <- x4 x5) (x1 <- x4) (x2 <- x5)
```

- . estimates store m1
- . sem (L1 -> x1 x2 x3) (L1 <- x4 x5@0)
- . estimates store m2
- . lrtest m1 m2

If we were using gsem rather than sem, all the above would still be valid.

Stored results

See Stored results in [R] Irtest.

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 10 — MIMIC model
    [SEM] example 39g — Three-level model (multilevel, generalized response)
    [R] Irtest — Likelihood-ratio test after estimation
    [SEM] test — Wald test of linear hypotheses
    [SEM] estat stdize — Test standardized parameters
```

[SEM] estat egtest — Equation-level test that all coefficients are zero

Title

methods and formulas for gsem — Methods and formulas

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

The methods and formulas for the gsem command are presented below.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Introduction

Families of distributions

The Bernoulli family

The binomial family

The ordinal family

The multinomial family

The Poisson family

The negative binomial family

The gamma family

The Gaussian family

Reliability

Link functions

The logit link

The probit link

The complementary log-log link

The log link

The identity link

The likelihood

Gauss-Hermite quadrature

Adaptive quadrature

Laplacian approximation

Postestimation

Empirical Bayes

Other predictions

Introduction

gsem fits generalized linear models with latent variables via maximum likelihood. Here is a table identifying the family/link combinations that gsem allows.

	logit	probit	cloglog	log	identity
Bernoulli	х	X	X		
binomial	X	X	X		
ordinal	X	X	X		
multinomial	X				
Poisson				X	
negative binomial				X	
gamma				X	
Gaussian				X	X

Log-likelihood calculations for fitting any model with latent variables require integrating out the latent variables. One widely used modern method is to directly estimate the integral required to calculate the log likelihood by Gauss-Hermite quadrature or some variation thereof. gsem implements four different methods for numerically evaluating the integrals.

- Gauss–Hermite quadrature (GHQ)
- 2. Mean-variance adaptive quadrature (MVAGH)
- 3. Mode-curvature adaptive quadrature (MCAGH)
- 4. Laplacian approximation

The default method is MVAGH. The numerical integration method for MVAGH is based on Rabe-Hesketh, Skrondal, and Pickles (2005), and the other numerical integration methods described in this manual entry are based on Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2004, chap. 6.3).

Families of distributions

gsem implements the most commonly used distribution families associated with generalized linear models. gsem also implements distributions for ordinal and multinomial outcomes.

In this manual entry, observed endogenous variables are also known as generalized responses or generalized outcomes, but we will simply refer to them as responses or outcomes. The random variable corresponding to a given response will be denoted by Y. An observed value of Y will be denoted by y, and the expected value of Y by y. For the ordinal and multinomial families, we will refer to a linear prediction, denoted by y, instead of the expected value.

The Bernoulli family

The Bernoulli family is a binary response model. The response Y is assumed to take on the values 0 or 1; however, gsem allows any nonzero and nonmissing value to mean 1.

The log of the conditional probability mass function is

$$\log f(y|\mu) = y \log \mu + (1-y) \log(1-\mu)$$

where μ is also known as the probability of a success. The default link for the Bernoulli family is the logit link.

The binomial family

The binomial family is a count response model and generalizes the Bernoulli family by taking the sum of k independent Bernoulli outcomes. The response Y is assumed to take on the values $0, 1, \ldots, k$.

The log of the conditional probability mass function is

$$\log f(y|\mu) = \log\{\Gamma(k+1)\} - \log\{\Gamma(y+1)\} - \log\{\Gamma(k-y+1)\}$$
$$+ y \log \mu + (1-y) \log(1-\mu)$$

where μ is the expected value for a single Bernoulli outcome. The default link for the binomial family is the logit link.

The ordinal family

The ordinal family is a discrete response model. The response Y is assumed to take on one of k unique values. The actual values are irrelevant except that higher values are assumed to correspond to "higher" outcomes. Without loss of generality, we will assume that Y takes on the values $1, \ldots, k$. The ordinal family with k outcomes has cutpoints $\kappa_0, \kappa_1, \ldots, \kappa_k$, where $\kappa_0 = -\infty$, $\kappa_y < \kappa_{y+1}$, and $\kappa_k = +\infty$.

Given a linear prediction z, the probability that a random response Y takes the value y is

$$\Pr(Y = y|z) = \Pr(Y^* < \kappa_y - z) - \Pr(Y^* < \kappa_{y-1} - z)$$

where Y^* is the underlying stochastic component for Y. The distribution for Y^* is determined by the link function. gsem allows logit, probit, and cloglog for the ordinal family. The logit link assigns Y^* the extreme value distribution that is synonymous with the logit link for Bernoulli outcomes. The probit link assigns Y^* the standard normal distribution that is synonymous with the probit link for Bernoulli outcomes. The cloglog link assigns Y^* the distribution that is synonymous with the complementary log-log link for Bernoulli outcomes. The default link for the ordinal family is the logit link.

The multinomial family

The multinomial family is a discrete response model. The response Y is assumed to take on one of k unique values. The actual values are irrelevant and order does not matter; however, gsem requires that the values are nonnegative integers. Without loss of generality, we will assume that Y takes on the values $1, \ldots, k$. Each of the k outcomes has its own linear prediction. For the model to be identified, one of the outcomes is chosen to be the base or reference. The linear prediction for the base outcome is constrained to be 0 for all observations. Without loss of generality, we will assume the base outcome is the first outcome. Let z_i be the prediction for outcome i, where $z_1 = 0$ for the base outcome.

Given the k linear predictions $\mathbf{z}'=(z_1,z_2,\ldots,z_k)$, the log of the conditional probability mass function is

$$\log f(y|\mathbf{z}) = z_y - \log \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \exp(z_i) \right\}$$

The only link allowed for the multinomial family is the logit link.

The Poisson family

The Poisson family is a count-data response model. The response Y is assumed to take on nonnegative integer values.

The log of the conditional probability mass function is

$$\log f(y|\mu) = -\mu + y \log \mu - \log \Gamma(y+1)$$

The only link allowed for the Poisson family is the log link.

The negative binomial family

The negative binomial family is another count-data response model. It is commonly thought of as a Poisson family with overdispersion. gsem allows two parameterizations for the dispersion in this family: mean dispersion and constant dispersion.

The log of the conditional probability mass function is

$$\log f(y|\mu, \alpha) = \log\{\Gamma(y+m)\} - \log\{\Gamma(y+1)\} - \log\{\Gamma(m)\} + m \log p + y \log(1-p)$$

where m and p depend on the form of dispersion.

The only link allowed for the negative binomial family is the log link.

For mean dispersion, we have

$$m = 1/\alpha$$
$$p = \frac{1}{1 + \alpha\mu}$$

where μ is the expected value of Y and α is the scale parameter, gsem fits α in the log scale.

For constant dispersion, we have

$$m = \exp(\log \mu - \log \delta)$$
$$p = \frac{1}{1+\delta}$$

where μ is the expected value of Y and δ is the scale parameter. gsem fits δ in the log scale.

The gamma family

The gamma family is a continuous response model. The response Y is assumed to be a nonnegative real value.

The log of the conditional probability density function is

$$\log f(y|\mu, s) = -\log \Gamma(s^{-2}) - \left(\log \mu + 2\log s + \frac{y}{\mu}\right)s^{-2} + (s^{-2} - 1)\log y$$

where μ is the expected value of Y and s is the scale parameter. gsem fits s in the log scale.

The only link allowed for the gamma family is the log link.

The Gaussian family

The Gaussian family is a continuous response model and is synonymous with the normal distribution.

When the Gaussian family is specified with the identity link but no censoring, gsem fits this family by using a single multivariate density function and allows the following two special features:

- 1. gsem can fit covariances between the Gaussian error variables.
- 2. gsem can fit paths between Gaussian responses, including nonrecursive systems.

The log of the conditional probability density function is

$$\log f(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = -\frac{1}{2} \left\{ d \log 2\pi + \log |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}| + (\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\}$$

where d is the dimension of the observed response vector y, μ is the mean of the responses, and Σ is the variance matrix of their unexplained errors.

When the Gaussian family is specified with the log link or censoring, the two special features described above no longer apply. In addition, the multivariate density function is no longer used. Instead, for each response using the log link, the log of the conditional probability density function corresponds to the formula above with d = 1. For censored responses, the log likelihood corresponds to the one in the *Methods and formulas* for [R] intreg.

Reliability

For a given Gaussian response variable with the identity link, the reliability Y may be specified as p or $100 \times p\%$. The variance of Y's associated error variable is then constrained to (1-p) times the observed variance of Y.

Link functions

Except for the ordinal and multinomial families, the link function defines the transformation between the mean and the linear prediction for a given response. If Y is the random variable corresponding to an observed response variable y, then the link function performs the transformation

$$g(\mu) = z$$

where $\mu = E(Y)$ and z is the linear prediction. In practice, the likelihood evaluator function uses the inverse of the link function to map the linear prediction to the mean.

The logit link

The logit link is

$$g(\mu) = \log \mu - \log(1 - \mu)$$

and its inverse is

$$\mu = g^{-1}(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^z}$$

The probit link

The probit link is

$$g(\mu) = \Phi^{-1}(\mu)$$

and its inverse is

$$\mu = g^{-1}(z) = \Phi(z)$$

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the cumulative distribution function for the standard normal distribution and $\Phi^{-1}(\cdot)$ is its inverse.

The complementary log-log link

The complementary log-log link is

$$g(\mu) = \log\{-\log(1-\mu)\}$$

and its inverse is

$$\mu = g^{-1}(z) = 1 - \exp\{-\exp(z)\}$$

The log link

The log link is

$$g(\mu) = \log \mu$$

and its inverse is

$$\mu = q^{-1}(z) = e^z$$

The identity link

The identity link is $g(\mu) = \mu$.

The likelihood

gsem fits generalized linear models with latent variables via maximum likelihood. The likelihood for the specified model is derived under the assumption that each response variable is independent and identically distributed across the estimation sample. The response variables are also assumed to be independent of each other. These assumptions are conditional on the latent variables and the observed exogenous variables.

The likelihood is computed by integrating out the latent variables. Let θ be the vector of model parameters, y be the vector of observed response variables, x be the vector of observed exogenous variables, and u be the $r \times 1$ vector of latent variables. Then the marginal likelihood looks something like

$$\mathcal{L}(oldsymbol{ heta}) = \int_{\Re^r} f(oldsymbol{y} | oldsymbol{x}, oldsymbol{u}, oldsymbol{ heta}) \phi(oldsymbol{u} | oldsymbol{\mu}_u, oldsymbol{\Sigma}_u) \partial oldsymbol{u}$$

where \Re denotes the set of values on the real line, \Re^r is the analog in r-dimensional space, θ is a vector of the unique model parameters, $f(\cdot)$ is the conditional probability density function for the observed response variables, $\phi(\cdot)$ is the multivariate normal density for u, μ_u is the expected value of u, and Σ_u is the covariance matrix for u. All auxiliary parameters are fit directly without any further parameterization, so we simply acknowledge that the auxiliary parameters are among the elements of θ .

The y variables are assumed to be independent, conditionally on x and u, so $f(\cdot)$ is the product of the individual conditional densities. One exception to this is when y contains two or more Gaussian response variables with the identity link, in which case the Gaussian responses are actually modeled using a multivariate normal density to allow for correlated errors and nonrecursive systems among Gaussian responses. This one exception does not change how the integral is numerically evaluated, so we make no effort to represent this distinction in the formulas.

For a single-level model with n response variables, the conditional joint density function for a given observation is

$$f(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f_i(y_i|\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

For a two-level model, the likelihood is computed at the cluster level, so the conditional density is also a product of the observation-level density contributions within a given cluster

$$f(oldsymbol{y}|oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{u},oldsymbol{ heta}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{j=1}^t f_i(y_{ij}|oldsymbol{x}_j,oldsymbol{u},oldsymbol{ heta})$$

where t is the number of individuals within the cluster. This extends to more levels by expanding the products down to the observations nested within the hierarchical groups. Because the single-level model is a special case of a two-level model where all the groups have a single observation, we will now use the two-level notation and subscripts.

Except for the ordinal and multinomial families, we use the link function to map the conditional mean

$$\mu_{ij} = E(y_{ij}|\boldsymbol{x}_j,\boldsymbol{u})$$

to the linear prediction

$$z_{ij} = x_j' \beta_i + x_j' \Lambda_i u$$

where β_i is the vector of the fixed-effect coefficients and Λ_i is the matrix of the latent loadings for y_{ij} . For notational convenience, we will overload the definitions of $f(\cdot)$ and $f_i(\cdot)$ so that they are functions of the responses and model parameters through the linear predictions $\mathbf{z}' = (z_1, \dots, z_n)$. Thus $f(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is equivalently specified as $f(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$, and $f_i(y_{ij}|\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{u}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is equivalently specified as $f_i(y_{ij}, z_{ij}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$. In this new notation, the likelihood for a given cluster is

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \int_{\Re^r} f(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \phi(\boldsymbol{u} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_u, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_u) \partial \boldsymbol{u}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{r/2} \sqrt{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_u|}} \int_{\Re^r} \exp\left\{ \log f(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{u} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_u)' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_u^{-1} (\boldsymbol{u} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_u) \right\} \partial \boldsymbol{u}$$
(1)

gsem allows nonrecursive systems between Gaussian response variables with the identity link, but non-Gaussian responses and Gaussian responses with the log link are not allowed to participate in any nonrecursive systems. This means that if a given response y is specified with a family other than Gaussian or a link other than identity, then y cannot have a path that ultimately leads back to itself. Any response may participate in a recursive system because the participating responses may be treated as exogenous variables when predicting other responses in a recursive system.

The latent vector u consists of stacked collections of the latent variables from each level. Within each level, the latent endogenous variables η are stacked over the latent exogenous variables ξ . Within a given level, the latent exogenous variables and latent endogenous errors are assumed independent and multivariate normal

$$\boldsymbol{\xi} \sim N(\boldsymbol{\kappa}, \boldsymbol{\Phi})$$

 $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim N(\boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{\Psi})$

so according to the linear relationship

$$oldsymbol{\eta} = \mathbf{B}oldsymbol{\eta} + \mathbf{\Gamma}oldsymbol{\xi} + \mathbf{A}oldsymbol{x} + oldsymbol{\epsilon}$$

we have that the latent variables are jointly multivariate normal. This linear relationship implies that gsem allows latent variables to predict each other, but only within level. It also means that gsem allows paths from observed variables to latent variables; however, the observed variable must be constant within group if the path is to a group-level latent variable.

For our two-level model, we have

$$\boldsymbol{u} \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}_u, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_u)$$

where

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{\mu}_u &= egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\mu}_\eta \ oldsymbol{\kappa} \end{pmatrix} & oldsymbol{\Sigma}_u &= egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\eta\eta} & oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\eta\xi} \ oldsymbol{\mu}_\eta &= (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B})^{-1} (oldsymbol{\Gamma} oldsymbol{\kappa} + \mathbf{A} oldsymbol{x}) \ oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\eta\eta} &= (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B})^{-1} (oldsymbol{\Gamma} oldsymbol{\Phi} oldsymbol{\Gamma}' + oldsymbol{\Psi}) \left\{ (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B})^{-1} \right\}' \ oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\etaarepsilon} &= (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B})^{-1} oldsymbol{\Gamma} oldsymbol{\Phi} \end{aligned}$$

The vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is therefore the set of unique model parameters taken from the following:

 β_i is the vector of fixed-effect coefficients for y_{ij} .

 Λ_i is the matrix of latent loadings for y_{ij} .

B is the matrix of latent endogenous coefficients.

 Γ is the matrix of latent exogenous coefficients.

A is the matrix of latent fixed-effect coefficients.

 κ is the vector of latent exogenous means.

 Φ is the matrix of latent exogenous variances and covariances.

 Ψ is the matrix of latent endogenous error variances and covariances.

Auxiliary parameters that result from some of the distribution families.

Each level of a multilevel model will have its own set of the following parameters: B, Γ , A, κ , Φ , and Ψ . For multilevel models, Σ_u is a block-diagonal matrix with a block for each level.

Gauss-Hermite quadrature

The integral in (1) is generally not tractable, so we must use numerical methods. In the univariate case, the integral of a function multiplied by the kernel of the standard normal distribution can be approximated using Gauss-Hermite quadrature (GHQ). For q-point GHQ, let the abscissa and weight pairs be denoted by (a_k^*, w_k^*) , $k = 1, \ldots, q$. The GHQ approximation is then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \exp(-x^2) dx \approx \sum_{k=1}^{q} w_k^* f(a_k^*)$$

Using the standard normal distribution yields the approximation

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)\phi(x) dx \approx \sum_{k=1}^{q} w_k f(a_k)$$

where $a_k = \sqrt{2}a_k^*$ and $w_k = (w_k^*)/\sqrt{\pi}$.

We can use a change-of-variables technique to transform the multivariate integral (1) into a set of nested univariate integrals. Each univariate integral can then be evaluated using GHQ. Let \boldsymbol{v} be a random vector whose elements are independently standard normal, and let \mathbf{L} be the Cholesky decomposition of Σ_u , that is, $\Sigma_u = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}'$. In the distribution, we have that $\boldsymbol{u} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_u + \mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{v}$, and the linear predictions vector as a function of \boldsymbol{v} is

$$z_{ij} = x'_j \beta_i + x'_j \Lambda_i (\mu_u + \mathbf{L} v)$$

so the likelihood for a given cluster is

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = (2\pi)^{-r/2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left\{\log f(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{r} v_k^2\right\} dv_1 \dots dv_r$$
 (2)

where r is the number of latent variables.

Consider an r-dimensional quadrature grid containing q quadrature points in each dimension. Let the vector of abscissas $\mathbf{a_k} = (a_{k_1}, \dots, a_{k_r})'$ be a point in this grid, and let $\mathbf{w_k} = (w_{k_1}, \dots, w_{k_r})'$ be the vector of corresponding weights. The GHQ approximation to the likelihood for a given cluster is

$$\mathcal{L}^{\text{GHQ}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{k_1=1}^{q} \dots \sum_{k_r=1}^{q} \left[\exp \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log f_i(y_{ij}, z_{ijk}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \right\} \prod_{s=1}^{r} w_{k_s} \right]$$

where

$$z_{ijk} = \boldsymbol{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i (\boldsymbol{\mu}_u + \mathbf{L} \boldsymbol{a}_k)$$

Adaptive quadrature

This section sets the stage for mean-variance adaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature (MVAGH) and mode-curvature adaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature (MCAGH).

Let's reconsider the likelihood in (2). If we fix the observed variables and the model parameters, we see that the posterior density for v is proportional to

$$\phi(\boldsymbol{v})f(\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{z},\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

It is reasonable to assume that this posterior density can be approximated by a multivariate normal density with mean vector μ_v and variance matrix τ_v . Instead of using the prior density of v as the weighting distribution in the integral, we can use our approximation for the posterior density,

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \int_{\Re^r} \frac{f(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \phi(\boldsymbol{v})}{\phi(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_v, \boldsymbol{\tau}_v)} \phi(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_v, \boldsymbol{\tau}_v) \, d\boldsymbol{v}$$

The likelihood is then approximated with

$$\mathcal{L}^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{k_1=1}^q \dots \sum_{k_r=1}^q \left[\exp \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \log f_i(y_{ij}, z_{ijk}^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \right\} \prod_{s=1}^r \omega_{k_s} \right]$$

where

$$z_{ij\mathbf{k}}^* = oldsymbol{x}_j'oldsymbol{eta} + oldsymbol{x}_j'oldsymbol{\Lambda}_i(oldsymbol{\mu}_u + \mathbf{L}oldsymbol{lpha}_\mathbf{k})$$

and α_k and the ω_{k_s} are the adaptive versions of the abscissas and weights after an orthogonalizing transformation, which eliminates posterior covariances between the latent variables. α_k and the ω_k are functions of a_k and w_k and the adaptive parameters μ_v and τ_v .

For MVAGH, μ_v is the posterior mean and τ_v is the posterior variance of v. They are computed iteratively by updating the posterior moments by using the MVAGH approximation, starting with a 0 mean vector and identity variance matrix.

For MCAGH, μ_v is the posterior mode for v and τ_v is the curvature at the mode. They are computed by optimizing the integrand in (2) with respect to v.

Laplacian approximation

Let's reconsider the likelihood in (1) and denote the argument in the exponential function by

$$h(\boldsymbol{u}) = \log f(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{u} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_u)' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_u^{-1} (\boldsymbol{u} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_u)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^t \log f_i(y_{ij}, z_{ij}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{u} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_u)' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_u^{-1} (\boldsymbol{u} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_u)$$

where

$$z_{ij} = \boldsymbol{x}_{j}' \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i} + \boldsymbol{x}_{j}' \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{i} \boldsymbol{u}$$

The Laplacian approximation is based on a second-order Taylor expansion of h(u) about the value of u that maximizes it. The first and second partials with respect to u are

$$h'(\boldsymbol{u}) = \frac{\partial h(\boldsymbol{u})}{\partial \boldsymbol{u}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \frac{\partial \log f_i(y_{ij}, z_{ij}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial z_{ij}} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}'_i \boldsymbol{x}_j - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{u} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_u)$$

$$\mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{u}) = \frac{\partial^2 h(\boldsymbol{u})}{\partial \boldsymbol{u} \partial \boldsymbol{u}'} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^t \boldsymbol{x}_j' \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i \frac{\partial^2 \log f_i(y_{ij}, z_{ij}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial z_{ij} \partial z_{ij}} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_i' \boldsymbol{x}_j - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$$

The maximizer of h(u) is \widehat{u} such that $h'(\widehat{u}) = 0$. The integral in (1) is proportional to the posterior density of u given the data, so \widehat{u} is also the posterior mode.

The second-order Taylor approximation then takes the form

$$h(\boldsymbol{u}) \approx h(\widehat{\boldsymbol{u}}) + \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{u} - \widehat{\boldsymbol{u}})'\mathbf{H}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{u}})(\boldsymbol{u} - \widehat{\boldsymbol{u}})$$
 (3)

because the first order derivative term is 0. The integral is approximated by

$$\int_{\Re^r} \exp\{h(\boldsymbol{u})\} \, d\boldsymbol{u} \approx \exp\{h(\widehat{\boldsymbol{u}})\} (2\pi)^{r/2} \left| -\mathbf{H}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{u}}) \right|^{-1/2}$$

because the second term in (3) is the kernel of a multivariate normal density once it is exponentiated. The Laplacian approximation for the log likelihood is

$$\log \mathcal{L}^{\mathrm{Lap}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\frac{1}{2}\log |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_u| - \frac{1}{2}\log |-\mathbf{H}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{u}})| + h(\widehat{\boldsymbol{u}})$$

Postestimation

We begin by considering the prediction of the latent variables \boldsymbol{u} for a given cluster in a two-level model. Prediction of latent variables in multilevel generalized linear models involves assigning values to the latent variables, and there are many methods for doing so; see Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2009) and Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2004, chap. 7) for a comprehensive review. Stata offers two methods of predicting latent variables: empirical Bayes means (also known as posterior means) and empirical Bayes modes (also known as posterior modes). Below we provide more details about the two methods.

Empirical Bayes

Let $\widehat{\theta}$ denote the estimated model parameters. Empirical Bayes (EB) predictors of the latent variables are the means or modes of the empirical posterior distribution with the parameter estimates $\widehat{\theta}$ replaced with their estimates $\widehat{\theta}$. The method is called "empirical" because $\widehat{\theta}$ is treated as known. EB combines the prior information about the latent variables with the likelihood to obtain the conditional posterior distribution of latent variables. Using Bayes' theorem, the empirical conditional posterior distribution of the latent variables for a given cluster is

$$\begin{split} \omega(\boldsymbol{u}|\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{x};\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) &= \frac{f(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{u},\boldsymbol{x};\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})\,\phi(\boldsymbol{u};\widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{u},\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{u})}{\int f(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{u},\boldsymbol{x};\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})\,\phi(\boldsymbol{u};\widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{u},\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{u})\,d\boldsymbol{u}} \\ &= \frac{f(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{u},\boldsymbol{x};\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})\,\phi(\boldsymbol{u};\widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{u},\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{u})}{\mathcal{L}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})} \end{split}$$

The denominator is just the likelihood contribution of the given cluster.

EB mean predictions of latent variables, \tilde{u} , also known as posterior means, are calculated as

$$\widetilde{\boldsymbol{u}} = \int_{\boldsymbol{w}_T} \boldsymbol{u} \, \omega(\boldsymbol{u}|\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}; \widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \, d\boldsymbol{u}$$

where we use the notation \tilde{u} rather than \hat{u} to distinguish predicted values from estimates. This multivariate integral is approximated by MVAGH. If you have multiple latent variables within a level or latent variables across levels, the calculation involves orthogonalizing transformations with the Cholesky transformation because the latent variables are no longer independent under the posterior distribution.

When all the response variables are normal, the posterior density is multivariate normal, and EB means are also best linear unbiased predictors (BLUPs); see Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2004, 227). In generalized mixed-effects models, the posterior density tends to multivariate normal as cluster size increases.

EB modal predictions can be approximated by solving for $\widetilde{\widetilde{u}}$ such that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{u}}\log\omega(\boldsymbol{u}|\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{x};\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})\big|_{\boldsymbol{u}=\widetilde{\widetilde{\boldsymbol{u}}}}=\boldsymbol{0}$$

Because the denominator in $\omega(\cdot)$ does not depend on u, we can omit it from the calculation to obtain the EB mode. The calculation of EB modes does not require numerical integration, and for that reason they are often used in place of EB means. As the posterior density gets closer to being multivariate normal, EB modes get closer and closer to EB means.

Just like there are many methods of assigning values to the random effects, there exist many methods of calculating standard errors of the predicted random effects; see Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2009) for a comprehensive review.

Stata uses the posterior standard deviation as the standard error of the posterior means predictor of random effects. For a given level, the EB posterior covariance matrix of the random effects is given by

$$\operatorname{Cov}(\widetilde{\boldsymbol{u}}|\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}; \widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^r} (\boldsymbol{u} - \widetilde{\boldsymbol{u}}) (\boldsymbol{u} - \widetilde{\boldsymbol{u}})' \, \omega(\boldsymbol{u}|\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}; \widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \, d\boldsymbol{u}$$

The posterior covariance matrix and the integrals are approximated by MVAGH.

Conditional standard errors for the estimated posterior modes are derived from standard theory of maximum likelihood, which dictates that the asymptotic variance matrix of \tilde{u} is the negative inverse of the Hessian matrix.

Other predictions

In what follows, we show formulas with the posterior means estimates of random effects \widetilde{u} , which are used by default or if the means option is specified. If the modes option is specified, \widetilde{u} are simply replaced with the posterior modes $\widetilde{\widetilde{u}}$ in these formulas.

For the ith response in the jth observation within a given cluster in a two-level model, the linear predictor is computed as

$$\widehat{z}_{ij} = oldsymbol{x}_j' \widehat{oldsymbol{eta}} + oldsymbol{x}_j' \widehat{oldsymbol{\Lambda}}_i \widetilde{oldsymbol{u}}$$

The linear predictor includes the offset or exposure variable if one was specified during estimation, unless the nooffset option is specified. If the fixedonly option is specified, the linear predictor is computed as

$$\widehat{z}_{ij} = \boldsymbol{x}_i' \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$$

The predicted mean, conditional on the predicted latent variables, is

$$\widehat{\mu}_{ij} = g^{-1}(\widehat{z}_{ij})$$

where $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ is the inverse link function defined in *Link functions* above. For the ordinal and multinomial families, the predicted mean is actually a probability, and gsem can produce a probability for each outcome value as described in *The ordinal family* and *The multinomial family* above.

References

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Also see

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

Title

methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem

Description Remarks and examples References Also see

Description

The methods and formulas for the sem commands are presented below.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Variable notation

Model and parameterization

Summary data

Maximum likelihood

Weighted least squares

Groups

Fitted parameters

Standardized parameters

Reliability

Postestimation

Model framework

Goodness of fit

Group goodness of fit

Equation-level goodness of fit

Wald tests

Score tests

Residuals

Testing standardized parameters

Stability of nonrecursive systems

Direct, indirect, and total effects

Predictions

Variable notation

We will use the following convention to keep track of the five variable types recognized by the sem estimation command:

- 1. Observed endogenous variables are denoted y.
- 2. Observed exogenous variables are denoted x.
- 3. Latent endogenous variables are denoted η .
- 4. Latent exogenous variables are denoted ξ .
- 5. Error variables are denoted with prefix e on the associated endogenous variable.
 - a. Error variables for observed endogenous are denoted e.y.
 - b. Error variables for latent endogenous are denoted $e.\eta$.

In any given analysis, there are typically several variables of each type. Vectors of the four main variable types are denoted y, x, η , and ξ . The vector of all endogenous variables is

$$oldsymbol{Y}=\left(egin{array}{c} oldsymbol{y} \ oldsymbol{\eta} \end{array}
ight)$$

The vector of all exogenous variables is

$$oldsymbol{X} = \left(egin{array}{c} oldsymbol{x} \ oldsymbol{\xi} \end{array}
ight)$$

The vector of all error variables is

$$\zeta = \begin{pmatrix} e. \boldsymbol{y} \\ e. \boldsymbol{\eta} \end{pmatrix}$$

Model and parameterization

sem can fit models of the form

$$Y = \mathbf{B}Y + \mathbf{\Gamma}X + \alpha + \zeta$$

where $\mathbf{B} = [\beta_{ij}]$ is the matrix of coefficients on endogenous variables predicting other endogenous variables, $\mathbf{\Gamma} = [\gamma_{ij}]$ is the matrix of coefficients on exogenous variables, $\alpha = [\alpha_i]$ is the vector of intercepts for the endogenous variables, and $\boldsymbol{\zeta}$ is assumed to have mean 0 and

$$Cov(X, \zeta) = 0$$

Let

$$\kappa = [\kappa_j] = E(X)$$

$$\Phi = [\phi_{ij}] = \text{Var}(X)$$

$$\Psi = [\psi_{ij}] = \text{Var}(\zeta)$$

Then the mean vector of the endogenous variables is

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_Y = E(\boldsymbol{Y}) = (\boldsymbol{I} - \mathbf{B})^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\Gamma} \boldsymbol{\kappa} + \boldsymbol{\alpha})$$

the variance matrix of the endogenous variables is

$$\Sigma_{YY} = \text{Var}(Y) = (I - \mathbf{B})^{-1} (\Gamma \Phi \Gamma' + \Psi) \{(I - \mathbf{B})^{-1}\}'$$

and the covariance matrix between the endogenous variables and the exogenous variables is

$$\Sigma_{YX} = \text{Cov}(Y, X) = (I - \mathbf{B})^{-1} \mathbf{\Gamma} \mathbf{\Phi}$$

Let Z be the vector of all variables:

$$Z = \begin{pmatrix} Y \\ X \end{pmatrix}$$

Then its mean vector is

$$\mu = E(\mathbf{Z}) = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_Y \\ \kappa \end{pmatrix}$$

and its variance matrix is

$$oldsymbol{\Sigma} = ext{Var}(oldsymbol{Z}) = egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{YY} & oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{YX} \ oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{YX}' & oldsymbol{\Phi} \end{pmatrix}$$

Summary data

Let z_t be the vector of all observed variables for the tth observation,

$$oldsymbol{z}_t = \left(egin{array}{c} oldsymbol{y}_t \ oldsymbol{x}_t \end{array}
ight)$$

and let w_t be the corresponding weight value, where t = 1, ..., N. If no weights were specified, then $w_t = 1$. Let w_t be the sum of the weights; then the sample mean vector is

$$\overline{\boldsymbol{z}} = \frac{1}{w_{\cdot}} \sum_{t=1}^{N} w_{t} \boldsymbol{z}_{t}$$

and the sample variance matrix is

$$S = \frac{1}{w_{\cdot} - 1} \sum_{t=1}^{N} w_{t} (\boldsymbol{z}_{t} - \overline{\boldsymbol{z}}) (\boldsymbol{z}_{t} - \overline{\boldsymbol{z}})'$$

Maximum likelihood

Let θ be the vector of unique model parameters, such as

$$oldsymbol{ heta} = \left(egin{array}{c} \operatorname{vec}(\mathbf{B}) \\ \operatorname{vec}(\mathbf{\Gamma}) \\ \operatorname{vech}(\mathbf{\Psi}) \\ \operatorname{vech}(\mathbf{\Phi}) \\ oldsymbol{lpha} \\ oldsymbol{\kappa} \end{array}
ight)$$

Then under the assumption of the multivariate normal distribution, the overall log likelihood for θ is

$$\log L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\frac{w_{\cdot}}{2} \left[k \log(2\pi) + \log \left\{ \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{o}) \right\} + \operatorname{tr} \left(\boldsymbol{D} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{o}^{-1} \right) \right]$$

where k is the number of observed variables, Σ_o is the submatrix of Σ corresponding to the observed variables, and

$$D = fS + (\overline{z} - \mu_o)(\overline{z} - \mu_o)'$$

where

$$f = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1, & \mbox{if nm1 is specified} \\ \frac{w_{\cdot} - 1}{w}, & \mbox{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

and μ_o is the subvector of μ corresponding to the observed variables.

For the BHHH optimization technique and when computing observation-level scores, the log likelihood for θ is computed as

$$\log L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{t=1}^{N} \frac{w_t}{2} \left[k \log(2\pi) + \log \left\{ \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_o) \right\} + (\boldsymbol{z}_t - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o)' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_o^{-1} (\boldsymbol{z}_t - \boldsymbol{\mu}_o) \right]$$

and the nm1 option is ignored.

When method(mlmv) is specified, sem groups the data according to missing-value patterns. Each missing-value pattern will have its own summary data: k, \bar{z} , and S. The log likelihood for a missing-value pattern is computed using this summary data and the corresponding elements of μ_o and Σ_o . The overall log likelihood is computed by summing the log-likelihood values from each missing-value pattern.

Weighted least squares

Let v be the vector of unique sample moments of the observed variables and τ be the corresponding vector of population moments. Then

$$oldsymbol{v} = egin{bmatrix} \overline{oldsymbol{z}} \\ \operatorname{vech}(foldsymbol{S}) \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$au = \left(egin{array}{c} oldsymbol{\mu}_o \ oldsymbol{\Sigma}_o \end{array}
ight)$$

The weighted least-squares (WLS) criterion function to minimize is the quadratic form

$$F_{\text{WLS}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = (\boldsymbol{v} - \boldsymbol{\tau})' \boldsymbol{W}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{v} - \boldsymbol{\tau})$$

where W is the least-squares weight matrix. For unweighted least squares (ULS), the weight matrix is the identity matrix W = I. Other weight matrices are mentioned in Bollen (1989).

The weight matrix implemented in sem is an estimate of the asymptotic covariance matrix of v. This weight matrix is derived without any distributional assumptions and is often referred to as derived from an arbitrary distribution function or is asymptotic distribution free (ADF), thus the option method(adf).

Groups

When the group() option is specified, each group has its own summary data and model parameters. The entire collection of model parameters is

$$oldsymbol{ heta} = egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{ heta}_1 \ oldsymbol{ heta}_2 \ dots \ oldsymbol{ heta}_G \end{pmatrix}$$

where G is the number of groups. The group-level criterion values are combined to produce an overall criterion value.

For method(ml) and method(mlmv), the overall log likelihood is

$$\log L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{g=1}^{G} \log L(\boldsymbol{\theta}_g)$$

For method(adf), the overall criterion function to minimize is

$$F_{\text{WLS}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{g=1}^{G} F_{\text{WLS}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_g)$$

Fitted parameters

sem fits the specified model by maximizing the log likelihood or minimizing the WLS criterion. If θ is the vector of model parameters, then the fitted parameter vector is denoted by $\hat{\theta}$, and similarly for $\hat{\mathbf{B}}$, $\hat{\Gamma}$, $\hat{\Psi}$, $\hat{\Phi}$, $\hat{\alpha}$, $\hat{\kappa}$, $\hat{\Sigma}$, $\hat{\mu}$, and their individual elements.

Standardized parameters

Let $\hat{\sigma}_{ii}$ be the *i*th diagonal element of $\hat{\Sigma}_{YY}$. Then the standardized parameter estimates are

$$\widetilde{\beta}_{ij} = \widehat{\beta}_{ij} \sqrt{\frac{\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}}{\widehat{\sigma}_{jj}}}$$

$$\widetilde{\gamma}_{ij} = \widehat{\gamma}_{ij} \sqrt{\frac{\widehat{\phi}_{ii}}{\widehat{\sigma}_{jj}}}$$

$$\widetilde{\psi}_{ij} = \begin{cases}
\widehat{\psi}_{ij} / \sqrt{\widehat{\psi}_{ii} \widehat{\psi}_{jj}}, & \text{if } i \neq j \\
\widehat{\psi}_{ii} / \sqrt{\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}}, & \text{if } i = j
\end{cases}$$

$$\widetilde{\phi}_{ij} = \frac{\widehat{\phi}_{ij}}{\sqrt{\widehat{\phi}_{ii} \widehat{\phi}_{jj}}}$$

$$\widetilde{\alpha}_{i} = \frac{\widehat{\alpha}_{i}}{\sqrt{\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}}}$$

$$\widetilde{\kappa}_{j} = \frac{\widehat{\kappa}_{j}}{\sqrt{\widehat{\phi}_{jj}}}$$

The variance matrix of the standardized parameters is estimated using the delta method.

Reliability

For an observed endogenous variable, y, the reliability may be specified as p or $100 \times p\%$. The variance of e.y is then constrained to (1-p) times the observed variance of y.

Postestimation

Model framework

estat framework reports the fitted parameters in their individual matrix forms as introduced in Fitted parameters.

Goodness of fit

estat gof reports the following goodness-of-fit statistics.

Let the degrees of freedom for the specified model be denoted by df_m . In addition to the specified model, sem fits saturated and baseline models corresponding to the observed variables in the specified model. The saturated model fits a full covariance matrix for the observed variables and has degrees of freedom

$$\mathrm{df}_s = \binom{p+q+1}{2} + p + q$$

where p is the number of observed endogenous variables and q is the number of observed exogenous variables in the model. The baseline model fits a reduced covariance matrix for the observed variables depending on the presence of endogenous variables. If there are no endogenous variables, all variables are uncorrelated in the baseline model; otherwise, only exogenous variables are correlated in the baseline model. The degrees of freedom for the baseline model is

$$\mathrm{df}_b = \begin{cases} 2q, & \text{if } p = 0\\ 2p + q + \binom{q+1}{2}, & \text{if } p > 0 \end{cases}$$

For method(ml) and method(mlmv), let the saturated log likelihood be denoted by $\log L_s$ and the baseline log likelihood be denoted by $\log L_b$. The likelihood-ratio test of the baseline versus saturated models is computed as

$$\chi_{bs}^2 = 2(\log L_s - \log L_b)$$

with degrees of freedom $df_{bs} = df_s - df_b$. The likelihood-ratio test of the specified model versus the saturated model is computed as

$$\chi_{ms}^2 = 2\{\log L_s - \log L(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})\}\$$

with degrees of freedom $df_{ms} = df_s - df_m$.

For method(adf), the saturated criterion value is 0, $F_s = 0$. Let the baseline criterion value be denoted by F_b . The chi-squared test of the baseline versus saturated models is computed as

$$\chi_{bs}^2 = NF_b$$

with degrees of freedom $df_{bs} = df_s - df_b$. The chi-squared test of the specified model versus the saturated model is computed as

$$\chi^2_{ms} = NF_{\rm WLS}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$$

with degrees of freedom $df_{ms} = df_s - df_m$.

The Akaike information criterion (Akaike 1974) is defined as

$$AIC = -2\log L(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) + 2\mathrm{df}_m$$

The Bayesian information criterion (Schwarz 1978) is defined as

$$\mathrm{BIC} = -2\log L(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) + N\mathrm{df}_m$$

See [R] BIC note for additional information on calculating and interpreting the BIC.

The overall coefficient of determination is computed as

$$\mathrm{CD} = 1 - \frac{\det(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}})}{\det(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}})}$$

This value is also referred to as the overall R^2 in estat eggof (see [SEM] estat eggof).

The root mean squared error of approximation (Browne and Cudeck 1993) is computed as

$$\text{RMSEA} = \left\{ \frac{(\chi_{ms}^2 - \text{df}_{ms})G}{N \text{df}_{ms}} \right\}^{1/2}$$

The 90% confidence interval for RMSEA is

$$\left(\sqrt{\frac{G\lambda_L}{N\mathrm{df}_{ms}}}, \sqrt{\frac{G\lambda_U}{N\mathrm{df}_{ms}}}\right)$$

where λ_L and λ_U are the noncentrality parameters corresponding to a noncentral chi-squared distribution with df_{ms} degrees of freedom in which the noncentral chi-squared random variable has a cumulative distribution function equal to 0.95 and 0.05, respectively.

The Browne and Cudeck (1993) p-value for the test of close fit with null hypothesis

$$H_0$$
: RMSEA < 0.05

is computed as

$$p = 1 - \Pr(\chi^2 < \chi_{ms}^2 | \lambda, df_{ms})$$

where χ^2 is distributed noncentral chi-squared with noncentrality parameter $\lambda = (0.05)^2 N df_{ms}$ and df_{ms} degrees of freedom. This p-value is not computed when the group() option is specified.

The comparative fit index (Bentler 1990) is computed as

$$CFI = 1 - \left[\frac{(\chi_{ms}^2 - df_{ms})}{\max\{(\chi_{bs}^2 - df_{bs}), (\chi_{ms}^2 - df_{ms})\}} \right]$$

The Tucker-Lewis index (Bentler 1990) is computed as

$$\text{TLI} = \frac{(\chi_{bs}^2/\text{df}_{bs}) - (\chi_{ms}^2/\text{df}_{ms})}{(\chi_{bs}^2/\text{df}_{bs}) - 1}$$

Let k be the number of observed variables in the model. If means are not in the fitted model, the standardized root mean squared residual is computed according to

$$\text{SRMR} = \left\{ \frac{2 \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j \leq i} r_{ij}^2}{k(k+1)G} \right\}^{1/2}$$

(Hancock and Mueller 2006) where r_{ij} is the standardized covariance residual

$$r_{ij} = \frac{s_{ij}}{\sqrt{s_{ii}s_{jj}}} - \frac{\widehat{\sigma}_{ij}}{\sqrt{\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}\widehat{\sigma}_{jj}}}$$

If means are in the fitted model, SRMR is computed as

$$\text{SRMR} = \left\{ \frac{2\sum_{i=1}^{k} \left(m_i^2 + \sum_{j \leq i} r_{ij}^2\right)}{k(k+3)G} \right\}^{1/2}$$

where m_i is the standardized mean residual

$$m_i = \frac{\overline{z}_i}{\sqrt{s_{ii}}} - \frac{\widehat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}}}$$

These standardized residuals are not the same as those reported by estat residuals; see *Residuals* below.

Group goodness of fit

estat ggof reports CD, SRMR, and model versus saturated χ^2 values for each group separately. The group-level formulas are the same as those computed for a single group analysis; see *Goodness* of fit above.

Equation-level goodness of fit

estat eggof reports goodness-of-fit statistics for each endogenous variable in the specified model. The coefficient of determination for the *i*th endogenous variable is computed as

$$R_i^2 = 1 - \frac{\widehat{\psi}_{ii}}{\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}}$$

The Bentler-Raykov (Bentler and Raykov 2000) squared multiple correlation for the *i*th endogenous variable is computed as

$$\mathrm{mc}_i^2 = \frac{\widehat{\mathrm{Cov}}(y_i, \widehat{y}_i)}{\sqrt{\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(\widehat{y}_i)}}$$

where $\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}$ is a diagonal element of $\widehat{\Sigma}$, $\widehat{\text{Var}}(\widehat{y}_i)$ is a diagonal element of

$$\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{Y}}) = (\boldsymbol{I} - \widehat{\mathbf{B}})^{-1} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Phi}} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}' \left\{ (\boldsymbol{I} - \widehat{\mathbf{B}})^{-1} \right\}' + \left\{ (\boldsymbol{I} - \widehat{\mathbf{B}})^{-1} - \boldsymbol{I} \right\} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} \left\{ (\boldsymbol{I} - \widehat{\mathbf{B}})^{-1} - \boldsymbol{I} \right\}'$$

and $\widehat{\text{Cov}}(y_i, \widehat{y}_i)$ is a diagonal element of

$$\widehat{\mathrm{Cov}}(\boldsymbol{Y},\widehat{\boldsymbol{Y}}) = (\boldsymbol{I} - \widehat{\mathbf{B}})^{-1}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Phi}}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}'\left\{(\boldsymbol{I} - \widehat{\mathbf{B}})^{-1}\right\}' + (\boldsymbol{I} - \widehat{\mathbf{B}})^{-1}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}\left\{(\boldsymbol{I} - \widehat{\mathbf{B}})^{-1} - \boldsymbol{I}\right\}'$$

Wald tests

estat eqtest performs Wald tests on the coefficients for each endogenous equation in the model. estat ginvariant computes a Wald test of group invariance for each model parameter that is free to vary across all groups. See [R] test.

Score tests

estat mindices computes modification indices for each constrained parameter in the model, including paths and covariances that were not even part of the model specification. Modification indices are score tests, which are also known as Lagrange multiplier tests. estat scoretests performs a score test for each user-specified linear constraint. estat ginvariant performs a score test of group invariance for each model parameter that is constrained to be equal across all groups.

A score test compares a constrained model fit to the same model without one or more constraints. The score test is computed as

$$\chi^2 = \mathbf{g}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})' \mathbf{V}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \mathbf{g}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$$

where $\hat{\theta}$ is the fitted parameter vector from the constrained model, $g(\theta)$ is the gradient vector function for the unconstrained model, and $V(\theta)$ is the variance matrix function computed from the expected information matrix function for the unconstrained model. For method(ml) and method(mlmv),

$$\begin{split} & g(\theta) = \frac{\partial \log L^*(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \\ & V(\theta) = \left[E \left\{ -\frac{\partial^2 \log L^*(\theta)}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \right\} \right]^{-1} \end{split}$$

where $\log L^*(\theta)$ is the log-likelihood function for the unconstrained model. For method(adf),

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= -\frac{\partial F_{\mathrm{WLS}}^*(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \\ \boldsymbol{V}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \left[E \left\{ \frac{\partial^2 F_{\mathrm{WLS}}^*(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta} \partial \boldsymbol{\theta}'} \right\} \right]^{-1} \end{split}$$

where $F^*(\theta)$ is the WLS criterion function for the unconstrained model.

The score test is computed as described in Wooldridge (2010) when vce(robust) or vce(cluster *clustvar*) is specified.

Residuals

estat residuals reports raw, normalized, and standardized residuals for means and covariances of the observed variables.

The raw residual for the mean of the ith observed variable is

$$\overline{z}_i - \widehat{\mu}_i$$

The raw residual for the covariance between the ith and jth observed variables is

$$S_{ij} - \widehat{\sigma}_{ij}$$

The normalized residual for the mean of the ith observed variable is

$$\frac{\overline{z}_i - \widehat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\overline{z}_i)}}$$

where

$$\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(\overline{z}_i) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{S_{ii}}{N}, & \text{if the sample option is specified} \\ \frac{\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}}{N}, & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

The normalized residual for the covariance between the ith and jth observed variables is

$$\frac{S_{ij} - \widehat{\sigma}_{ij}}{\sqrt{\widehat{\text{Var}}(S_{ij})}}$$

where

$$\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(S_{ij}) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{S_{ii}S_{jj} + S_{ij}}{N}, & \text{if the sample option is specified} \\ \frac{\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}\widehat{\sigma}_{jj} + \widehat{\sigma}_{ij}}{N}, & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

If the nm1 option is specified, the denominator in the variance estimates is N-1 instead of N.

The standardized residual for the mean of the ith observed variable is

$$\frac{\overline{z}_i - \widehat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\overline{z}_i - \widehat{\mu}_i)}}$$

where

$$\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\overline{z}_i - \widehat{\mu}_i) = \widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\overline{z}_i) - \widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\widehat{\mu}_i)$$

and $\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(\widehat{\mu}_i)$ is computed using the delta method. Missing values are reported when the computed value of $\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(\overline{z}_i)$ is less than $\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(\widehat{\mu}_i)$. The standardized residual for the covariance between the ith and jth observed variables is

$$\frac{S_{ij} - \widehat{\sigma}_{ij}}{\sqrt{\widehat{\text{Var}}(S_{ij} - \widehat{\sigma}_{ij})}}$$

where

$$\widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(S_{ij} - \widehat{\sigma}_{ij}) = \widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(S_{ij}) - \widehat{\operatorname{Var}}(\widehat{\sigma}_{ij})$$

and $\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(\widehat{\sigma}_{ij})$ is computed using the delta method. Missing values are reported when the computed value of $\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(S_{ij})$ is less than $\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(\widehat{\sigma}_{ij})$. The variances of the raw residuals used in the standardized residual calculations are derived in Hausman (1978).

Testing standardized parameters

estat stdize provides access to tests on the standardized parameter estimates. estat stdize can be used as a prefix to lincom (see [R] lincom), nlcom (see [R] nlcom), test (see [R] test), and testnl (see [R] testnl).

Stability of nonrecursive systems

estat stable reports a stability index for nonrecursive systems. The stability index is calculated as the maximum of the modulus of the eigenvalues of **B**. The nonrecursive system is considered stable if the stability index is less than 1.

Direct, indirect, and total effects

estat teffects reports direct, indirect, and total effects for the fitted model. The direct effects are

$$oldsymbol{E}_d = egin{bmatrix} \widehat{\mathbf{B}} & \widehat{\mathbf{\Gamma}} \end{bmatrix}$$

the total effects are

$$E_t = [(I - \widehat{\mathbf{B}})^{-1} - I , (I - \widehat{\mathbf{B}})^{-1} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}}]$$

and the indirect effects are $E_i = E_t - E_d$. The standard errors of the effects are computed using the delta method.

Let D be the diagonal matrix whose elements are the square roots of the diagonal elements of $\widehat{\Sigma}$, and let D_Y be the submatrix of D associated with the endogenous variables. Then the standardized effects are

$$egin{aligned} \widetilde{m{E}}_d &= m{D}_Y^{-1} m{E}_d m{D} \ \widetilde{m{E}}_i &= m{D}_Y^{-1} m{E}_i m{D} \ \widetilde{m{E}}_t &= m{D}_V^{-1} m{E}_t m{D} \end{aligned}$$

Predictions

predict computes factor scores and linear predictions.

Factor scores are computed with a linear regression by using the mean vector and variance matrix from the fitted model. For notational convenience, let

$$oldsymbol{Z} = \left(egin{array}{c} oldsymbol{z} \ oldsymbol{l} \end{array}
ight)$$

where

$$oldsymbol{z} = \left(egin{array}{c} oldsymbol{y} \ oldsymbol{x} \end{array}
ight)$$

and

$$oldsymbol{l} = \left(egin{array}{c} oldsymbol{\eta} \ oldsymbol{\xi} \end{array}
ight)$$

The fitted mean of Z is

$$\widehat{oldsymbol{\mu}}_Z = \left(egin{array}{c} \widehat{oldsymbol{\mu}}_z \ \widehat{oldsymbol{\mu}}_l \end{array}
ight)$$

and fitted variance of Z is

$$\widehat{oldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{Z} = \left(egin{array}{cc} \widehat{oldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{zz} & \widehat{oldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{zl} \ \widehat{oldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{zl}' & \widehat{oldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{ll} \end{array}
ight)$$

The factor scores are computed as

$$\widetilde{m{l}} = \left(rac{\widetilde{m{\eta}}}{\widetilde{m{arepsilon}}}
ight) = \widehat{m{\Sigma}}_{zl}'\widehat{m{\Sigma}}_{zz}\widehat{m{\mu}}_z + \widehat{m{\mu}}_l$$

The linear prediction for the endogenous variables in the tth observation is computed as

$$\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}_t = \widehat{\mathbf{B}}\widetilde{\mathbf{Y}}_t + \widehat{\mathbf{\Gamma}}\widetilde{\mathbf{X}}_t + \widehat{\mathbf{\alpha}}$$

where

$$\widetilde{m{Y}}_t = \left(egin{array}{c} m{y}_t \ \widetilde{m{\eta}} \end{array}
ight)$$

and

$$\widetilde{m{X}}_t = \left(egin{array}{c} m{x}_t \ \widetilde{m{\xi}} \end{array}
ight)$$

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Also see

[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command

Title

nlcom — Nonlinear combinations of parameters

Syntax Menu Description Options
Remarks and examples Stored results Also see

Syntax

nlcom exp [, options]

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Testing and CIs > Nonlinear combinations of parameters

Description

nlcom is a postestimation command for use after sem, gsem, and other Stata estimation commands.

nlcom computes point estimates, standard errors, z statistics, p-values, and confidence intervals for (possibly) nonlinear combinations of the estimated parameters. See [R] **nlcom**.

Options

See Options in [R] nlcom.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 42g.

nlcom works in the metric of SEM, which is to say path coefficients, variances, and covariances. If you want to frame your nonlinear combinations in terms of standardized coefficients and correlations and you fit the model with sem, not gsem, then prefix nlcom with estat stdize:; see [SEM] estat stdize.

□ Technical note

estat stdize: is, strictly speaking, unnecessary because everywhere you wanted a standardized coefficient or correlation, you could just type the formula. If you did that, you would get the same results except for numerical precision. The answer produced with the estat stdize: prefix will be a little more accurate because estat stdize: is able to substitute an analytic derivative in one part of the calculation where nlcom, doing the whole thing itself, would be forced to use a numeric derivative.

Stored results

See Stored results in [R] nlcom.

Also see

```
    [R] nlcom — Nonlinear combinations of estimators
    [SEM] estat stdize — Test standardized parameters
    [SEM] lincom — Linear combinations of parameters
    [SEM] test — Wald test of linear hypotheses
    [SEM] testnl — Wald test of nonlinear hypotheses
    [SEM] example 42g — One- and two-level mediation models (multilevel)
```

Title

predict after gsem — Generalized linear predictions, etc.

Syntax	Menu	Description	Options
Remarks and examples	Reference	Also see	

Syntax

The default is to predict observed endogenous variables with empirical Bayes means predictions of the latent variables.

options_obs_endog	Description
outcome(depvar [#])1	specify observed response variable (default all)
mu pr eta	calculate expected value of $depvar$ calculate probability (synonym for mu when μ is a probability) calculate expected value of linear prediction of $depvar$
nooffset	make calculation ignoring Poisson or nbreg offset or exposure
fixedonly	make calculation setting latent variables to 0 —or—
means	use empirical Bayes means of latent variables; the default
modes	use empirical Bayes modes of latent variables
<pre>intpoints(#) tolerance(#) iterate(#)</pre>	<pre># of integration points; default is intpoints(7) (means only) tolerance; default is tolerance(1.0e-8) (means and modes) maximum # of iterations; default is iterate(1001) (means and modes)</pre>

outcome(depvar #) is allowed only after mlogit, ologit, and oprobit. Predicting other generalized responses requires specifying only outcome(depvar). outcome(depvar #) may also be specified as outcome(#depvar) or outcome(depvar ##). outcome(depvar #3) means the third outcome value. outcome(depvar #3) would mean the same as outcome(depvar 4) if outcomes were 1, 3, and 4.

options_latent	Description
*latent *latent(varlist)	calculate empirical Bayes prediction of all latent variables calculate empirical Bayes prediction of specified latent variables
se(stub* newvarlist)	calculate standard errors
means	use empirical Bayes means of latent variables; the default
modes	use empirical Bayes modes of latent variables
<pre>intpoints(#)</pre>	# of integration points; default is intpoints(7) (means only)
tolerance(#)	tolerance; default is tolerance(1.0e-8) (means and modes)
iterate(#)	maximum # of iterations; default is iterate(1001) (means and modes)

^{*} Either latent or latent() must be specified to obtain predictions of latent variables.

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Predictions

Description

predict is a standard postestimation command of Stata. This entry concerns use of predict after gsem. See [SEM] predict after sem if you fit your model with sem.

predict after gsem creates new variables containing observation-by-observation values of estimated observed response variables, linear predictions of observed response variables, or endogenous or exogenous latent variables.

Out-of-sample prediction is allowed in three cases:

- 1. if the prediction does not involve latent variables, or
- 2. if the prediction involves latent variables, directly or indirectly, option fixedonly is specified, or
- 3. if the prediction involves latent variables, directly or indirectly, the model is multilevel and no observational-level latent variables are involved.

predict has two ways of specifying the name(s) of the variable(s) to be created:

```
. predict stub*, ...
```

or

. predict firstname secondname ..., ...

The first creates variables named stub1, stub2, The second creates variables named as you specify. We strongly recommend using the stub* syntax when creating multiple variables because you have no way of knowing the order in which to specify the individual variable names to correspond to the order in which predict will make the calculations. If you use stub*, the variables will be labeled and you can rename them.

The second syntax is useful when creating one variable and you specify either outcome() or latent().

Options

outcome(depvar [#]) and latent[(varlist)] determine what is to be calculated.

neither specified
outcome(depvar [#]) specified
latent specified
latent(varlist) specified

predict all observed response variables predict specified observed response variable predict all latent variables predict specified latent variables

If you are predicting latent variables, both empirical Bayes means and modes are available; see options means, modes, intpoints(#), tolerance(#), and iterate(#) below.

If you are predicting observed response variables, you can obtain $g^{-1}(\mathbf{x}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$ or $\mathbf{x}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$; see options mu and eta below. Predictions can include latent variables or treat them as 0; see option fixedonly. If predictions include latent variables, then just as when predicting latent variables, both means and modes are available; see options means, modes, intpoints(#), tolerance(#), and iterate(#).

mu and pr specify that $g^{-1}(\mathbf{x}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$ be calculated, the inverse-link of the expected value of the linear predictions. \mathbf{x} by default contains predictions of latent variables. pr is a synonym for mu if response variables are multinomial, ordinal, or Bernoulli. Otherwise, pr is not allowed.

eta specifies that $x\hat{\beta}$ be calculated, the expected value of the linear prediction. x by default contains predictions of latent variables.

fixedonly and nooffset are relevant only if observed response variables are being predicted.

fixedonly concerns predictions of latent variables used in the prediction of observed response variables. fixedonly specifies latent variables be treated as 0, and thus only the fixed-effects part of the model is used to produce the predictions.

nooffset is relevant only if option offset() or exposure() were specified at estimation time. nooffset specifies that offset() or exposure() be ignored, thus producing predictions as if all subjects had equal exposure.

means, modes, intpoints(#), tolerance(#), and iterate(#) specify what predictions of the latent variables are to be calculated.

means and modes specify that empirical Bayes means or modes be used. Means are the default.

intpoints(#) specifies the number of numerical integration points and is relevant only in the calculation of empirical Bayes means. intpoints() defaults to the number of integration points specified at estimation time or to intpoints(7).

tolerance(#) is relevant for the calculation of empirical Bayes means and modes. It specifies the convergence tolerance. It defaults to the value specified at estimation time with gsem's adaptopts() or to tolerance(1e-8).

iterate(#) is relevant for the calculation of empirical Bayes means and modes. It specifies the maximum number of iterations to be performed in the calculation of each integral. It defaults to the value specified at estimation time with gsem's adaptopts() or to tolerance(1e-8).

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] intro 7, [SEM] example 28g, and [SEM] example 29g.

Reference

Skrondal, A., and S. Rabe-Hesketh. 2009. Prediction in multilevel generalized linear models. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Series A 172: 659-687.

Also see

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] **gsem postestimation** — Postestimation tools for gsem

[SEM] **intro** 7 — Postestimation tests and predictions

[SEM] example 28g — One-parameter logistic IRT (Rasch) model

[SEM] example 29g — Two-parameter logistic IRT model

[SEM] methods and formulas for gsem — Methods and formulas

Title

predict after sem — Factor scores, linear predictions, etc.

Syntax	Menu	Description	Options
Remarks and examples	Reference	Also see	

Syntax

options	Description
xb xb(varlist)	linear prediction for all OEn variables; the default linear prediction for specified OEn variables
<pre>xblatent xblatent(varlist)</pre>	linear prediction for all LEn variables linear prediction for specified LEn variables
<pre>latent latent(varlist)</pre>	factor scores for all latent variables factor scores for specified latent variables
scores	calculate first derivative of the log likelihood

Key: OEn = observed endogenous; LEn = latent endogenous

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Predictions

Description

predict is a standard postestimation command of Stata. This entry concerns use of predict after sem. See [SEM] predict after gsem if you fit your model with gsem.

predict after sem creates new variables containing observation-by-observation values of estimated factor scores (meaning predicted values of latent variables) and predicted values for latent and observed endogenous variables. Out-of-sample prediction is allowed.

When predict is used on a model fit by sem with the group() option, results are produced with the appropriate group-specific estimates. Out-of-sample prediction is allowed; missing values are filled in for groups not included at the time the model was fit.

```
predict allows two syntaxes. You can type
. predict stub*, ...

to create variables named stub1, stub2, ..., or you can type
. predict var1 var2..., ...

to create variables named var1, var2, ....
predict may not be used with summary statistics data.
```

Options

- xb calculates the linear prediction for all observed endogenous variables in the model. xb is the default if no option is specified.
- xb(varlist) calculates the linear prediction for the variables specified, all of which must be observed endogenous variables.
- xblatent and xblatent(varlist) calculate the linear prediction for all or the specified latent endogenous variables, respectively.
- latent and latent(varlist) calculate the factor scores for all or the specified latent variables, respectively. The calculation method is an analog of regression scoring; namely, it produces the means of the latent variables conditional on the observed variables used in the model. If missing values are found among the observed variables, conditioning is on the variables with observed values only.
- scores is for use by programmers. It provides the first derivative of the observation-level log likelihood with respect to the parameters.

Programmers: In single-group sem, each parameter that is not constrained to be 0 has an associated equation. As a consequence, the number of equations, and hence the number of score variables created by predict, may be large.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 14.

Factor scoring for latent variables can be interpreted as a form of missing-value imputation—think of each latent variable as an observed variable that has only missing values.

When latent variables are present in the model, linear predictions from predict, xb are computed by substituting the factor scores in place of each latent variable before computing the linear combination of coefficients. This method will lead to inconsistent coefficient estimates when the factor score contains measurement error; see Bollen (1989, 305–306).

Reference

Bollen, K. A. 1989. Structural Equations with Latent Variables. New York: Wiley.

Also see

```
[SEM] example 14 — Predicted values
```

[SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem

[SEM] sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem

sem — Structural equation model estimation command

Syntax Menu Description Options
Remarks and examples Stored results Reference Also see

Syntax

```
sem paths [if] [in] [weight] [, options]
```

where *paths* are the paths of the model in command-language path notation; see [SEM] **sem and gsem path notation**.

options	Description
model_description_options	fully define, along with paths, the model to be fit
group_options	fit model for different groups
ssd_options	for use with summary statistics data
estimation_options	method used to obtain estimation results
reporting_options	reporting of estimation results
syntax_options	controlling interpretation of syntax

Time-series operators are allowed.

bootstrap, by, jackknife, permute, statsby, and svy are allowed; see [U] 11.1.10 Prefix commands.

Weights are not allowed with the bootstrap prefix; see [R] bootstrap.

vce() and weights are not allowed with the svy prefix; see [SVY] svy.

fweights, iweights, and pweights are allowed; see [U] 11.1.6 weight.

Also see [SEM] sem postestimation for features available after estimation.

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Model building and estimation

Description

sem fits structural equation models. Even when you use the SEM Builder, you are using the sem command.

Options

model_description_options describe the model to be fit. The model to be fit is fully specified by paths—which appear immediately after sem—and the options covariance(), variance(), and means(). See [SEM] sem model description options and [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

- group_options allow the specified model to be fit for different subgroups of the data, with some parameters free to vary across groups and other parameters constrained to be equal across groups. See [SEM] sem group options.
- ssd_options allow models to be fit using summary statistics data (SSD), meaning data on means, variances (standard deviations), and covariances (correlations). See [SEM] sem ssd options.
- estimation_options control how the estimation results are obtained. These options control how the standard errors (VCE) are obtained and control technical issues such as choice of estimation method. See [SEM] sem estimation options.
- *reporting_options* control how the results of estimation are displayed. See [SEM] **sem reporting options**.
- syntax_options control how the syntax that you type is interpreted. See [SEM] sem and gsem syntax options.

Remarks and examples

For a readable explanation of what sem can do and how to use it, see any of the intro sections. You might start with [SEM] intro 1.

For examples of sem in action, see any of the example sections. You might start with [SEM] example 1.

For detailed syntax and descriptions, see the references below.

Remarks on three advanced topics are presented under the following headings:

Default normalization constraints Default covariance assumptions How to solve convergence problems

Default normalization constraints

sem applies the following rules as necessary to identify the model:

- 1. means(1: LatentExogenous@0)
 - sem constrains all latent exogenous variables to have mean 0. When the group() option is specified, this rule is applied to the first group only.
- (LatentEndogenous <- _cons@0)
 sem sets all latent endogenous variables to have intercept 0.
- 3. (first <- Latent@1)</pre>

If latent variable Latent is measured by observed endogenous variables, then sem sets the path coefficient of (first<-Latent) to be 1; first is the first observed endogenous variable.

4. (First<-Latent@1)

If item 3 does not apply—if latent variable Latent is measured by other latent endogenous variables only—then sem sets the path coefficient of First<-Latent to be 1; First is the first latent variable.

The above constraints are applied as needed. Here are the available overrides:

1. To override the normalization constraints, specify your own constraints. Most normalization constraints are added by sem as needed. See *How sem (gsem) solves the problem for you* under *Identification 2: Normalization constraints (anchoring)* in [SEM] intro 4.

- 2. To override means() constraints, you must use the means() option to free the parameter. To override that the mean of latent exogenous variable MyLatent has mean 0, specify the means(MyLatent) option. See [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.
- 3. To override constrained path coefficients from _cons, such as (LatentEndogenous <- _cons@0), you must explicitly specify the path without a constraint (LatentEndogenous <- _cons). See [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

Default covariance assumptions

sem assumes the following covariance structure:

- covstructure(_Ex, unstructured)
 All exogenous variables (observed and latent) are assumed to be correlated with each other.
- covstructure(e._En, diagonal)
 The error variables associated with all endogenous variables are assumed to be uncorrelated with each other.

You can override these assumptions by

- 1. Constraining or specifying the relevant covariance to allow e.y and e.Ly to be correlated (specify the covariance(e.y*e.Ly) option); see [SEM] sem model description options.
- 2. Using the covstructure() option; see [SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure().

How to solve convergence problems

See [SEM] intro 12.

Stored results

sem stores the following in e():

```
Scalars
                          number of observations
    e(N)
    e(N_clust)
                          number of clusters
    e(N_groups)
                          number of groups
                           number of missing values in the sample for method(mlmv)
    e(N_missing)
    e(11)
                           log likelihood of model
    e(df_m)
                           model degrees of freedom
                           baseline model degrees of freedom
    e(df_b)
    e(df_s)
                           saturated model degrees of freedom
                           test of target model against saturated model
    e(chi2_ms)
                           degrees of freedom for e(chi2_ms)
    e(df_ms)
                           p-value for e(chi2_ms)
    e(p_ms)
                          test of baseline model against saturated model
    e(chi2_bs)
    e(df_bs)
                           degrees of freedom for e(chi2_bs)
    e(p_bs)
                           p-value for e(chi2_bs)
                          rank of e(V)
    e(rank)
                          number of iterations
    e(ic)
    e(rc)
                          return code
    e(converged)
                           1 if target model converged, 0 otherwise
    e(critvalue)
                           log likelihood or discrepancy of fitted model
    e(critvalue_b)
                           log likelihood or discrepancy of baseline model
    e(critvalue_s)
                           log likelihood or discrepancy of saturated model
    e(modelmeans)
                           1 if fitting means and intercepts, 0 otherwise
```

```
Macros
    e(cmd)
    e(cmdline)
                          command as typed
    e(data)
                          raw or ssd if SSD were used
    e(wtype)
                           weight type
                           weight expression
    e(wexp)
                          title in estimation output
    e(title)
    e(clustvar)
                          name of cluster variable
    e(vce)
                           vcetype specified in vce()
    e(vcetype)
                           title used to label Std. Err.
    e(method)
                           estimation method: ml, mlmv, or adf
    e(technique)
                           maximization technique
    e(properties)
                           program used to implement estat
    e(estat_cmd)
    e(predict)
                          program used to implement predict
    e(lyvars)
                          names of latent y variables
    e(oyvars)
                          names of observed y variables
                          names of latent x variables
    e(lxvars)
    e(oxvars)
                          names of observed x variables
    e(groupvar)
                           name of group variable
    e(xconditional)
                          empty if noxconditional specified, xconditional otherwise
Matrices
    e(b)
                           parameter vector
    e(b_std)
                           standardized parameter vector
    e(b_pclass)
                           parameter class
    e(admissible)
                           admissibility of \Sigma, \Psi, \Phi
    e(ilog)
                           iteration log (up to 20 iterations)
                           gradient vector
    e(gradient)
    e(V)
                           covariance matrix of the estimators
    e(V_std)
                           standardized covariance matrix of the estimators
    e(V_modelbased)
                          model-based variance
    e(nobs)
                           vector with number of observations per group
    e(groupvalue)
                           vector of group values of e(groupvar)
    e(S
                           sample covariance matrix of observed variables (for group #)
    e(means
                           sample means of observed variables (for group #)
    e(W)
                           weight matrix for method(adf)
Functions
    e(sample)
                           marks estimation sample (not with SSD)
```

Reference

Wiggins, V. L. 2011. Multilevel random effects in xtmixed and sem—the long and wide of it. The Stata Blog: Not Elsewhere Classified.

http://blog.stata.com/2011/09/28/multilevel-random-effects-in-xtmixed-and-sem-the-long-and-wide-of-it/.

Also see

[SEM]	intro	o 1 —	- Intro	oduct	ion								
[SEM]	sem	and g	gsem	path	notati	ion —	Comn	nand	syntax	for p	oath (diagram	S
[SEM]	sem	path	notat	ion e	extensi	ons —	Comr	nand	syntax	for	path	diagran	ıs

[SEM] sem model description options — Model description options

[SEM] sem group options — Fitting models on different groups

[SEM] sem ssd options — Options for use with summary statistics data

[SEM] sem estimation options — Options affecting estimation

[SEM] sem reporting options — Options affecting reporting of results

[SEM] sem and gsem syntax options — Options affecting interpretation of syntax

[SEM] **sem postestimation** — Postestimation tools for sem

[SEM] methods and formulas for sem — Methods and formulas for sem

sem and gsem option constraints() — Specifying constraints

Syntax Description Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
sem ... [, ... constraints(# [# ...]) ...]
gsem ... [, ... constraints(# [# ...]) ...]
```

where # are constraint numbers. Constraints are defined by the constraint command; see [R] constraint.

Description

Constraints refer to constraints to be imposed on the estimated parameters of a model. These constraints usually come in one of three forms:

- 1. Constraints that a parameter such as a path coefficient or variance is equal to a fixed value such as 1.
- 2. Constraints that two or more parameters are equal.
- 3. Constraints that two or more parameters are related by a linear equation.

It is usually easier to specify constraints with sem's and gsem's path notation; see [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

sem's and gsem's constraints() option provides an alternative way of specifying constraints.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Use with sem
Use with gsem

Also see [R] constraint.

Use with sem

There is only one case where constraints() might be easier to use with sem instead of specifying constraints in the path notation. You wish to specify that two or more parameters are related and then decide you would like to fix the value at which they are related.

For example, if you wanted to specify that parameters are equal, you could type

. sem ... (y1 <-
$$x@c1$$
) (y2 <- $x@c1$) (y3 <- $x@c1$) ...

Using the path notation, you can specify more general relationships, too, such as

. sem ...
$$(y1 \leftarrow x@c1)$$
 $(y2 \leftarrow x@(2*c1))$ $(y3 \leftarrow x@(3*c1+1))$...

Say you now decide you want to fix c1 at value 1. Using the path notation, you modify what you previously typed:

```
. sem ... (y1 \leftarrow x@1) (y2 \leftarrow x@2) (y3 \leftarrow x@4) ...
```

Alternatively, you could do the following:

- . constraint 1 $_b[y2:x] = 2*_b[y1:x]$
- . constraint $2 _b[y3:x] = 3*_b[y1:x] + 1$
- . sem ..., ... constraints(1 2)
- . constraint 3 b[y1:x] = 1
- . sem .., ... constraints(1 2 3)

Use with gsem

Gamma regression can produce exponential regression estimates if you constrain the log of the scale parameter to 0. Parameters associated with particular generalized linear families, such as scalar parameters, cutpoints, and the like, cannot be constrained using the @ notation in paths. You must use Stata's constraints.

Say we wish to fit the model y <- x1 with exponential regression. We admit that we do not remember the name under which gsem stores the scalar parameter, so first we type

```
. gsem (y <- x1, gamma), noestimate
```

From the output, we quickly discover that the log of the scale parameter is stored as _b[y_logs:_cons]. With that information, to obtain the constrained results, we type

- . constraint 1 _b[y_logs:_cons] = 0
- . gsem (y <- x1, gamma), constraints(1)

Also see

```
[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
```

[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams

[SEM] gsem model description options — Model description options

[SEM] sem model description options — Model description options

[R] constraint — Define and list constraints

sem and gsem option covstructure() — Specifying covariance restrictions

Syntax Description Option Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
sem ... [, ... covstructure(variables, structure) ...]
sem ... [, ... covstructure(groupid: variables, structure) ...]
gsem ... [, ... covstructure(variables, structure) ...]
```

where variables is one of

 a list of (a subset of the) exogenous variables (sem) or latent exogenous variables (gsem) in your model, for instance,

```
. sem ..., ... covstruct(x1 x2, structure)
. sem ..., ... covstruct(L1 L2, structure)
. gsem ..., ... covstruct(L1 L2, structure)
```

- 2. _OEx, meaning all observed exogenous variables in your model (sem only)
- 3. _LEx, meaning all latent exogenous variables in your model (including any multilevel latent exogenous variables in the case of gsem)
- 4. _Ex, meaning all exogenous variables in your model (sem only)

or where variables is one of

1. a list of (a subset of the) error variables in your model, for example,

```
. sem ..., ... covstruct(e.y1 e.y2 e.Aspect, structure)
```

- 2. e._OEn, meaning all error variables associated with observed endogenous variables in your model
- 3. e. LEn, meaning all error variables associated with latent endogenous variables in your model
- 4. e._En, meaning all error variables in your model

•	•		
and	where	structure	10

structure	Description	Notes
diagonal	all variances unrestricted all covariances fixed at 0	
<u>un</u> structured	all variances unrestricted all covariances unrestricted	
<u>id</u> entity	all variances equal all covariances fixed at 0	
<u>ex</u> changeable	all variances equal all covariances equal	
zero	all variances fixed at 0 all covariances fixed at 0	
<pre>pattern(matname)</pre>	covariances (variances) unrestricted if $matname[i,j] \geq .$ covariances (variances) equal if $matname[i,j] = matname[k,l]$	(1)
<pre>fixed(matname)</pre>	covariances (variances) unrestricted if $matname[i,j] \geq .$ covariances (variances) fixed at $matname[i,j]$ otherwise	(2)

Notes:

- (1) Only elements in the lower triangle of *matname* are used. All values in *matname* are interpreted as the floor() of the value if noninteger values appear. Row and column stripes of *matname* are ignored.
- (2) Only elements on the lower triangle of *matname* are used. Row and column stripes of *matname* are ignored.

groupid may be specified only when the group() option is also specified, and even then it is optional; see [SEM] sem group options.

Description

Option covstructure() provides a sometimes convenient way to constrain the covariances of your model.

Alternatively or in combination, you can place constraints on the covariances by using the standard path notation, such as

```
. sem ..., ... cov(name1*name2@c1 name3*name4@c1) ... gsem ..., ... cov(name1*name2@c1 name3*name4@c1) ...
```

See [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

Option

covstructure([groupid:] variables, structure) is used either to modify the covariance structure among the exogenous variables of your model or to modify the covariance structure among the error variables of your model. Optional groupid is available only with sem with option group() specified; see [SEM] sem group options.

You may specify the covstructure() option multiple times.

The default covariance structure for exogenous variables is covstructure(_Ex, unstructured) for sem. There is no simple way in this notation to write the default for gsem.

The default covariance structure for error variables is covstructure(e._En, diagonal) for sem and gsem.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 17.

Standard linear structural equation modeling allows covariances among exogenous variables, both latent and observed, and allows covariances among the error variables. Covariances between exogenous variables and error variables are disallowed (assumed to be 0).

Some authors refer to the covariances among the exogenous variables in standard SEMs as matrix Φ and to the covariances among the error variables as matrix Ψ .

Also see

```
    [SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams
    [SEM] example 17 — Correlated uniqueness model
```

```
sem and gsem option from() — Specifying starting values
```

Syntax Description Option Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
\{\text{sem} | \text{gsem}\} \dots [, \dots \text{from}(matname[, \text{skip}]) \dots]
\{\text{sem} | \text{gsem}\} \dots [, \dots \text{from}(svlist) \dots]
```

where *matname* is the name of a Stata matrix and where *svlist* is a space-separated list of the form

eqname:name = #

Description

See [SEM] intro 12 for a description of starting values.

Starting values are usually not specified. When there are convergence problems, it is often necessary to specify starting values. You can specify starting values by using

- 1. suboption init() as described in [SEM] sem and gsem path notation, or by using
- 2. option from() as described here.

Option from() is especially convenient for using the solution of one model as starting values for another.

Option

skip is an option of from (matname). It specifies to ignore any parameters in matname that do not appear in the model being fit. If this option is not specified, the existence of such parameters causes sem (gsem) to issue an error message.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Syntax 1, especially useful when dealing with convergence problems Syntax 2, seldom used

Option from() can be used with sem or gsem. We illustrate below using sem.

Syntax 1, especially useful when dealing with convergence problems

Say you are attempting to fit

. sem your_full_model, ...

and are having difficulty with convergence. Following the advice in [SEM] **intro 12**, you have simplified your model,

. sem your_simple_model, ...

and that does converge. You now want to use those values as starting values for the full model. Let's imagine that there are 47 estimated parameters in the simple model.

Using the standard init() method for specifying starting values, you now have a real job in front of you. You have to type your full model, find all the places where you want to add starting values, and add an init() suboption. Just a piece of your full model might read

```
... (y<-L1 L2) (L1->x1 x2) (L2->x3 L4) ...
```

and you need to modify that to read

```
... (y<-(L1, init(14.283984)) L2) ///
(L1->(x1, init(2.666532)) (x2, init(-6.39499))) ///
(L2->x3 L4) ...
```

That change handles 3 of the 47 parameters you need to specify.

There is an easier way. Type

- . sem your_simple_model, ...
- matrix b = e(b)
- . sem your_full_model, ... from(b)

Here is how this works:

- 1. You fit the simple model. sem stores the resulting parameters in e(b).
- 2. You store the fitted parameters in Stata matrix b.
- 3. To fit your full model, type the model just as you would usually, and add option from(b). That option tells sem to get any starting values it can from Stata matrix b. sem does that and then follows its usual logic for producing starting values for the remaining parameters.

Just because you use from(b) does not mean you cannot specify starting values with init(). You can even specify starting values for some of the same parameters. Starting values specified by init() take precedence over those obtained from from().

Syntax 2, seldom used

```
In syntax 2, you specify
```

```
. sem ..., ... from(eqname:name = # eqname:name = # ...)
```

For instance, you could type

```
. sem ..., ... from(var(X):_cons=10)
```

or you could type

```
. sem ..., ... var(X, init(10))
```

It is usually easier to type the second. See [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

You may combine the two notations. If starting values are specified for a parameter both ways, those specified by init() take precedence.

Also see

```
    [SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams
    [SEM] gsem model description options — Model description options
    [SEM] sem model description options — Model description options
    [SEM] gsem estimation options — Options affecting estimation
```

[R] maximize — Details of iterative maximization

sem and gsem option reliability() — Fraction of variance not due to measurement error

Syntax Description Option Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
\{sem | gsem\} \dots [, \dots reliability(varname # [varname # [...]])]
```

where *varname* is the name of an observed endogenous variable and # is the fraction or percentage of variance not due to measurement error:

```
. {sem | gsem} ..., ... reliability(x1 .8 x2 .9)
. {sem | gsem} ..., ... reliability(x1 80% x2 90%)
```

Description

Option reliability() allows you to specify the fraction of variance not due to measurement error for measurement variables.

Option

```
reliability(varname # [...]) specifies the reliability for variable varname. Reliability is bounded by 0 and 1 and is equal to
```

 $1 - \frac{\text{noise variance}}{\text{total variance}}$

The reliability is assumed to be 1 when not specified.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 24.

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

Background

Dealing with measurement error of exogenous variables Dealing with measurement error of endogenous variables

What can go wrong

Background

Option reliability() may be used with sem and may be used with gsem for Gaussian response variables with the identity link but only in the absence of censoring. We illustrate using sem, but we could just as well have used gsem.

Variables measured with error have attenuated path coefficients. If we had the model

```
. sem (y < -x)
```

and x were measured with error, then the estimated path coefficient would be biased toward 0. The usual solution to such measurement problems is to find multiple measurements and develop a latent variable from them:

Another solution is available if we know the reliability of x. In that case, we can fit the model

. sem
$$(x < -X)$$
 $(y < -X)$, reliability $(x . 9)$

The two solutions can even be combined:

```
. sem (x1 x2 x3<-X) (y<-X), reliability(x1 .9 x2 .8 x3 .9)
```

Even if you do not know the reliability, you can experiment using different but reasonable values for the reliability and thus determine the sensitivity of your estimation results to the measurement problem.

Dealing with measurement error of exogenous variables

Measurement error is most important when it occurs in exogenous variables, yet the reliability() option deals with measurement error of endogenous variables only. By creation of a latent variable, reliability() can deal with the measurement error of exogenous variables.

To fit the model (y < -x) where x is measured with error, you must introduce a latent variable corresponding to x measured without error. That is, the model (y < -x) can be converted into the model (x < -x) and (y < -x):

$$x = \alpha_0 + \beta_0 X + e.x$$

$$y = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 X + e.y$$

To fit this model, you type

. sem
$$(x < -X)$$
 $(y < -X)$, reliability $(x . 9)$

sem will introduce a normalization constraint, namely, that the path coefficient β_0 for x<-X is 1, but that is of no importance. What is important is that the estimate of that path coefficient β_1 of y<-X is the coefficient that would be obtained from y<-x were x measured without error.

In the above, we specified the measurement part of the model first. Be sure to do that. You might think you could equally well reverse the two terms so that, rather than writing

$$(x < -X) (y < -X)$$
 (correct)

you could write

$$(y \leftarrow X)$$
 $(x \leftarrow X)$ (incorrect)

But you cannot do that unless you write

$$(y < -X)$$
 $(x < -X@1)$ (correct)

because otherwise results are as if you typed

$$(y < -X@1)$$
 $(x < -X)$ (incorrect)

All of that is because sem places its normalization constraint from the latent variable to the first observed endogenous variable. There is no real error if the terms are interchanged except that you will be surprised by the coefficient of 1 for y < -X and (the reciprocal of) the coefficient of interest will be on x < -X.

See How sem (gsem) solves the problem for you in [SEM] intro 4 and see Default normalization constraints in [SEM] sem.

Dealing with measurement error of endogenous variables

When a variable would already be endogenous before you add the reliability() option, it really makes little difference whether you add the reliability() option. That is because endogenous variables are assumed to contain error, and if some of that error is measurement error, it is still just an error. Coefficients will be unchanged by the inclusion of the reliability() option.

Some variances and covariances will change, but the changes are offsetting in the calculation of path coefficients.

What will change are the standardized coefficients should you ask to see them. That is because the variances are changed.

What can go wrong

Consider a model of y on x. Say we fit the model with linear regression. If the R^2 of the fit is 0.6, then we know the reliability must be greater than 0.6. R^2 measures the fraction of variance of y that is explained by x, and the reliability of x measures the fraction of the variance of x that is not due to measurement error. Measurement error is assumed to be pure noise. It is just not possible that we could explain 0.6 of the variance of y by using a variable with reliability of, say, 0.5.

Well, in fact, it is because there is always a chance that the pure noise will correlate with y, too. Asymptotically, that probability vanishes, but in finite—especially small—samples, it could happen. Even so, the calculation of the corrected SEM estimates blows up.

If you have convergence problems, you need to check for this. Specify a larger value for the reliability. The problem is you cannot specify a value of 1, and large values such as 0.99999 can lead to a lack of identification. In most cases, you will be able to find a value in between, but the only way to be sure is to remove the reliability() option and, if necessary, simplify your model by removing any intermediary latent variables you had to add because of reliability.

If your model converges without reliability, then your measure of reliability is too low. At this point, we have little useful advice for you. Check whether you have the right value, of course. If you do, then there are two possibilities: either the experts who provided that estimate are wrong or you got unlucky in that the measurement error did just happen to correlate with the rest of your data. You will need to evaluate the chances of that for yourself. In any case, you can experiment with higher values of the reliability and at least provide an idea of the sensitivity of your estimates to differing assumptions.

Also see

```
    [SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] gsem model description options — Model description options
    [SEM] sem model description options — Model description options
    [SEM] example 24 — Reliability
```

sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
sem paths ... [, covariance() variance() means()]
gsem paths ... [, covariance() variance() means()]
```

paths specifies the direct paths between the variables of your model.

The model to be fit is fully described by paths, covariance(), variance(), and means().

Description

The command syntax for describing your SEM is fully specified by *paths*, covariance(), variance(), and means(). How this works is described below.

If you are using sem, also see [SEM] sem path notation extensions for documentation of the group() option for comparing different groups in the data. The syntax of the elements described below is modified when group() is specified.

If you are using gsem, also see [SEM] gsem path notation extensions for documentation on specification of family-and-link for generalized (nonlinear) response variables and for specification of multilevel latent variables.

Either way, read this section first.

Options

covariance() is used to

- 1. specify that a particular covariance path of your model that usually is assumed to be 0 be estimated,
- 2. specify that a particular covariance path that usually is assumed to be nonzero is not to be estimated (to be constrained to be 0),
- 3. constrain a covariance path to a fixed value, such as 0, 0.5, 1, etc., and
- 4. constrain two or more covariance paths to be equal.

variance() does the same as covariance() except it does it with variances.

means() does the same as covariance() except it does it with means.

Remarks and examples

Path notation is used by the sem and gsem commands to specify the model to be fit, for example,

```
. sem (x1 x2 x3 x4 <- X)
```

In the path notation,

- 1. Latent variables are indicated by a *name* in which at least the first letter is capitalized.
- 2. Observed variables are indicated by a *name* in which at least the first letter is lowercased. Observed variables correspond to variable names in the dataset.
- 3. Error variables, while mathematically a special case of latent variables, are considered in a class by themselves. For sem, every endogenous variable (whether observed or latent) automatically has an error variable associated with it. For gsem, the same is true of Gaussian endogenous variables (and latent variables, which are Gaussian). The error variable associated with endogenous variable name is e. name.
- 4. Paths between variables are written as

```
(name1 <- name2)
or
(name2 -> name1)
```

There is no significance to which coding is used.

5. Paths between the same variables can be combined: The paths

```
(name1 \leftarrow name2) (name1 \leftarrow name3)
can be combined as
     (name1 < - name2 name3)
or as
     (name2 name3 \rightarrow name1)
The paths
     (name1 \leftarrow name3) (name2 \leftarrow name3)
can be combined as
     (name1 name2 <- name3)
or as
     (name3 \rightarrow name1 name2)
The paths
    (name1 <- name2 name3)
     (name4 \leftarrow name2 name3)
may be written as
     (name1 name4 <- name2 name3)
or as
     (name2 name3 \rightarrow name1 name4)
```

6. Variances and covariances (curved paths) between variables are indicated by options. Variances are indicated by

```
..., ... var(name1)

Covariances are indicated by
..., ... cov(name1*name2)
..., ... cov(name2*name1)
```

There is no significance to the order of the names.

The actual names of the options are variance() and covariance(), but they are invariably abbreviated as var() and cov(), respectively.

The var() and cov() options are the same option, so a variance can be typed as

```
..., ... cov(name1)

and a covariance can be typed as
..., ... var(name1*name2)
```

Variances may be combined, covariances may be combined, and variances and covariances may be combined.

```
If you have
```

```
..., ... var(name1) var(name2)
you may code this as
..., ... var(name1 name2)
If you have
..., ... cov(name1*name2) cov(name2*name3)
you may code this as
..., ... cov(name1*name2 name2*name3)
All the above combined can be coded as
..., ... var(name1 name2 name1*name2 name2*name3)
or as
..., ... cov(name1 name2 name1*name2 name2*name3)
```

8. All variables except endogenous variables are assumed to have a variance; it is only necessary to code the var() option if you wish to place a constraint on the variance or specify an initial value. See items 11, 12, 13, and 16 below. (In gsem, the variance and covariances of observed exogenous variables are not estimated and thus var() cannot be used with them.)

Endogenous variables have a variance, of course, but that is the variance implied by the model. If *name* is an endogenous variable, then var(*name*) is invalid. The error variance of the endogenous variable is var(e.name).

- 9. Variables mostly default to being correlated:
 - a. All exogenous variables are assumed to be correlated with each other, whether observed or latent.
 - b. Endogenous variables are never directly correlated, although their associated error variables can be.
 - c. All error variables are assumed to be uncorrelated with each other.

You can override these defaults on a variable-by-variable basis with the cov() option.

To assert that two variables are uncorrelated that otherwise would be assumed to be correlated, constrain the covariance to be 0:

```
..., ... cov(name1*name2@0)
```

To allow two variables to be correlated that otherwise would be assumed to be uncorrelated, simply specify the existence of the covariance:

```
..., ... cov(name1*name2)
```

This latter is especially commonly done with errors:

```
\dots, \dots cov(e.name1*e.name2)
```

(In gsem, you may not use the cov() option with observed exogenous variables. You also may not use cov() with error terms associated with family Gaussian, link log.)

10. Means of variables are indicated by the following option:

```
..., ... means(name)
```

Variables mostly default to having nonzero means:

- a. All observed exogenous variables are assumed to have nonzero means. In sem, the means can be constrained using the means() option, but only if you are performing noxconditional estimation; [SEM] sem option noxconditional.
- b. Latent exogenous variables are assumed to have mean 0. Means of latent variables are not estimated by default. If you specify enough normalization constraints to identify the mean of a latent exogenous variable, you can specify means (name) to indicate that the mean should be estimated in either.
- c. Endogenous variables have no separate mean. Their means are those implied by the model. The means() option may not be used with endogenous variables.
- d. Error variables have mean 0 and this cannot be modified. The means() option may not be used with error variables.

To constrain the mean to a fixed value, such as 57, code

```
\dots, \dots means (name@57)
```

Separate means() options may be combined:

```
..., ... means(name1@57 name2@100)
```

11. Fixed-value constraints may be specified for a path, variance, covariance, or mean by using @ (the "at" symbol). For example,

```
(name1 <- name2@1)
(name1 <- name2@1 name3@1)
..., ... var(name@100)
..., ... cov(name1*name2@223)
..., ... cov(name1@1 name2@1 name1*name2@.8)
..., ... means(name@57)</pre>
```

12. Symbolic constraints may be specified for a path, variance, covariance, or mean by using @ (the "at" symbol). For example,

```
(name1 <- name2@c1) (name3 <- name4@c1)
..., ... var(name1@c1 name2@c1)
..., ... cov(name1@1 name2@1 name3@1 name1*name2@c1 name1*name3@c1)
..., ... means(name1@c1 name2@c1)
(name1 <- name2@c1) ..., var(name3@c1) means(name4@c1)</pre>
```

Symbolic names are just names from 1 to 32 characters in length. Symbolic constraints constraint equality. For simplicity, all constraints below will have names c1, c2,

13. Linear combinations of symbolic constraints may be specified for a path, variance, covariance, or mean by using @ (the "at" symbol). For example,

```
(name1 <- name2@c1) (name3 <- name4@(2*c1))
..., ... var(name1@c1 name2@(c1/2))
..., ... cov(name1@1 name2@1 name3@1 name1*name2@c1 name1*name2@(c1/2))
..., ... means(name1@c1 name2@(3*c1+10))
(name1 <- name2@(c1/2)) ..., var(name3@c1) means(name4@(2*c1))</pre>
```

14. All equations in the model are assumed to have an intercept (to include observed exogenous variable _cons) unless the noconstant option (abbreviation nocons) is specified, and then all equations are assumed not to have an intercept (not to include _cons). (There are some exceptions to this in gsem because some generalized linear models have no intercept or even the concept of an intercept.)

Regardless of whether noconstant is specified, you may explicitly refer to observed exogenous variable _cons.

The following path specifications are ways of writing the same model:

```
(name1 <- name2) (name1 <- name3)
(name1 <- name2) (name1 <- name3) (name1 <- _cons)
(name1 <- name2 name3)
(name1 <- name2 name3 _cons)</pre>
```

There is no reason to explicitly specify _cons unless you have also specified the noconstant option and want to include _cons in some equations but not others, or regardless of whether you specified the noconstant option, you want to place a constraint on its path coefficient. For example,

```
(name1 <- name2 name3 _cons@c1) (name4 <- name5 _cons@c1)
```

15. The noconstant option may be specified globally or within a path specification. That is,

```
(name1 <- name2 name3) (name4 <- name5), nocons suppresses the intercepts in both equations. Alternatively,
```

```
(name1 <- name2 name3, nocons) (name4 <- name5)
```

suppresses the intercept in the first equation but not the second, whereas

```
(name1 <- name2 name3) (name4 <- name5, nocons)
```

suppresses the intercept in the second equation but not the first.

```
In addition, consider the equation

(name1 <- name2 name3, nocons)
```

This can be written equivalently as

```
(name1 <- name2, nocons) (name1 <- name3, nocons)
```

16. Initial values (starting values) may be specified for a path, variance, covariance, or mean by using the init(#) suboption:

```
(namel <- (name2, init(0)))
(namel <- (name2, init(0)) name3)
(namel <- (name2, init(0)) (name3, init(5)))
..., ... var((name3, init(1)))
..., ... cov((name4*name5, init(.5)))
..., ... means((name5, init(0)))</pre>
```

The initial values may be combined with symbolic constraints:

```
(name1 <- (name2@c1, init(0)))
(name1 <- (name2@c1, init(0)) name3)
(name1 <- (name2@c1, init(0)) (name3@c2, init(5)))
..., ... var((name3@c1, init(1)))
..., ... cov((name4*name5@c1, init(.5)))
..., ... means((name5@c1, init(0)))</pre>
```

Also see

```
[SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command [SEM] sem path notation extensions — Command syntax for path diagrams [SEM] gsem path notation extensions — Command syntax for path diagrams [SEM] intro 2 — Learning the language: Path diagrams and command language
```

[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command

[SEM] **intro 6** — Comparing groups (sem only)

sem and gsem syntax options — Options affecting interpretation of syntax

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
    sem paths ..., ... syntax_options

    gsem paths ..., ... syntax_options

    syntax_options

    Description

    latent(names)
    explicitly specify latent variable names

    nocapslatent
    do not treat capitalized Names as latent
```

where *names* is a space-separated list of the names of the latent variables.

Description

These options affect some minor issues of how sem and gsem interpret what you type.

Options

latent(names) specifies that names is the full set of names of the latent variables. sem and gsem ordinarily assume that latent variables have the first letter capitalized and observed variables have the first letter lowercased; see [SEM] sem and gsem path notation. When you specify latent(names), sem and gsem treat the listed variables as the latent variables and all other variables, regardless of capitalization, as observed. latent() implies nocapslatent.

nocapslatent specifies that having the first letter capitalized does not designate a latent variable. This option can be used when fitting models with observed variables only where some observed variables in the dataset have the first letter capitalized.

Remarks and examples

We recommend using the default naming convention. If your dataset contains variables with the first letter capitalized, it is easy to convert the variables to have lowercase names by typing

```
. rename *, lower
See [D] rename group.
```

Also see

```
    [SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] gsem — Generalized structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams
```

sem estimation options — Options affecting estimation

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

sem paths ..., ... estimation_options

estimation_options	Description
method(method)	method may be ml, mlmv, or adf
vce(vcetype)	<pre>vcetype may be oim, eim, opg, robust, cluster clustvar, bootstrap, or jackknife</pre>
nm1	compute sample variance rather than ML variance
${\tt \underline{noxcond}}$ itional	compute covariances, etc., of observed exogenous variables
<u>allmiss</u> ing	for use with method(mlmv)
noivstart	skip calculation of starting values
<u>noest</u> imate	do not fit the model; instead show starting values
maximize_options satopts(maximize_options) baseopts(maximize_options)	control maximization process for specified model; seldom used control maximization process for saturated model; seldom used control maximization process for baseline model; seldom used

Description

These options control how results are obtained.

Options

method() and vce() specify the method used to obtain parameter estimates and the technique used to obtain the variance—covariance matrix of the estimates. See [SEM] sem option method().

nm1 specifies that the variances and covariances used in the SEM equations be the sample variances (divided by N-1) and not the asymptotic variances (divided by N). This is a minor technical issue of little importance unless you are trying to match results from other software that assumes sample variances. sem assumes asymptotic variances.

noxconditional states that you wish to include the means, variances, and covariances of the observed exogenous variables among the parameters to be estimated by sem. See [SEM] sem option noxconditional.

allmissing specifies how missing values should be treated when method(mlmv) is also specified.

Usually, sem omits from the estimation sample observations that contain missing values of any of the observed variables used in the model. method(mlmv), however, can deal with these missing values, and in that case, observations containing missing are not omitted.

Even so, sem, method(mlmv) does omit observations containing .a, .b, ..., .z from the estimation sample. sem assumes you do not want these observations used because the missing value is not missing at random. If you want sem to include these observations in the estimation sample, specify the allmissing option.

noivstart is an arcane option that is of most use to programmers. It specifies that sem is to skip efforts to produce good starting values with instrumental-variable techniques, techniques that require computer time. If you specify this option, you should specify all the starting values. Any starting values not specified will be assumed to be 0 (means, path coefficients, and covariances) or some simple function of the data (variances).

noestimate specifies that the model is not to be fit. Instead, starting values are to be shown and they are to be shown using the coeflegend style of output. An important use of this is to improve starting values when your model is having difficulty converging. You can do the following:

```
. sem ..., ... noestimate
. matrix b = e(b)
. ... (modify elements of b) ...
. sem ..., ... from(b)
```

maximize_options specify the standard and rarely specified options for controlling the maximization process for sem; see [R] maximize. The relevant options for sem are difficult,
 technique(algorithm_spec), iterate(#), [no]log, trace, gradient, showstep, hessian,
 tolerance(#), ltolerance(#), and nrtolerance(#).

satopts(maximize_options) is a rarely specified option and is only relevant if you specify the
method(mlmv) option. sem reports a test for model versus saturated at the bottom of the output.
Thus sem needs to obtain the saturated fit. In the case of method(ml) or method(adf), sem can
make a direct calculation. In the other case of method(mlmv), sem must actually fit the saturated
model. The maximization options specified inside satopts() control that maximization process.
It is rare that you need to specify the satopts() option, even if you find it necessary to specify
the overall maximize_options.

baseopts(maximize_options) is a rarely specified option and an irrelevant one unless you also specify method(mlmv) or method(adf). When fitting the model, sem records information about the baseline model for later use by estat gof, should you use that command. Thus sem needs to obtain the baseline fit. In the case of method(ml), sem can make a direct calculation. In the cases of method(mlmv) and method(adf), sem must actually fit the baseline model. The maximization options specified inside baseopts() control that maximization process. It is rare that you need to specify the baseopts() option even if you find it necessary to specify the overall maximize_options.

Remarks and examples

The most commonly specified option among this group is vce(). See [SEM] sem option method(), [SEM] intro 8, and [SEM] intro 9.

Also see

```
    [SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] sem option method() — Specifying method and calculation of VCE
    [SEM] sem option noxconditional — Computing means, etc., of observed exogenous variables
    [SEM] intro 8 — Robust and clustered standard errors
    [SEM] intro 9 — Standard errors, the full story
```

sem group options — Fitting models on different groups

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

sem paths ..., ... group_options

Description		
fit model for different groups specify parameters that are equal across groups		
Description		
structural coefficients		
structural intercepts		
measurement coefficients		
measurement intercepts		
covariances of structural errors		
covariances of measurement errors		
covariances between structural and measurement errors		
means of exogenous variables		
covariances of exogenous variables		
all the above		
none of the above		

ginvariant(mcoef mcons) is the default if ginvariant() is not specified.

meanex, covex, and all exclude the observed exogenous variables (that is, they include only the latent exogenous variables) unless you specify the noxconditional option or the noxconditional option is otherwise implied; see [SEM] sem option noxconditional. This is what you would desire in most cases.

Description

sem can fit combined models across subgroups of the data while allowing some parameters to vary and constraining others to be equal across subgroups. These subgroups could be males and females, age category, and the like.

sem performs such estimation when the group(varname) option is specified. The ginvariant(classname) option specifies which parameters are to be constrained to be equal across the groups.

Options

group(varname) specifies that the model be fit as described above. varname specifies the name of a numeric variable that records the group to which the observation belongs.

If you are using summary statistics data in place of raw data, *varname* is the name of the group variable as reported by ssd describe; see [SEM] ssd.

ginvariant(classname) specifies which classes of parameters of the model are to be constrained to be equal across groups. The classes are defined above. The default is ginvariant(mcoef mcons) if the option is not specified.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] intro 6, and see [SEM] example 20 and [SEM] example 23.

Also see

```
    [SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] intro 6 — Comparing groups (sem only)
    [SEM] example 20 — Two-factor measurement model by group
    [SEM] example 23 — Specifying parameter constraints across groups
```

sem model description options — Model description options

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

sem paths ..., ... model_description_options model_description_options Description *covariance() path notation for treatment of covariances; see [SEM] sem and gsem path notation st variance() path notation for treatment of variances; see [SEM] sem and gsem path notation *means() path notation for treatment of means: see [SEM] sem and gsem path notation *covstructure() alternative method to place restrictions on covariances; see [SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure() do not fit intercepts noconstant do not fit means or intercepts nomeans do not apply default anchoring noanchor forcenoanchor programmer's option *reliability() reliability of measurement variables: see [SEM] sem and gsem option reliability()

specify constraints; see [SEM] sem and gsem option constraints()

specify starting values; see [SEM] sem and gsem option from()

Description

from()

constraints()

paths and the options above describe the model to be fit by sem.

Options

covariance(), variance(), and means() fully describe the model to be fit. See [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

covstructure() provides a convenient way to constrain covariances in your model. Alternatively or in combination, you can place constraints by using the standard path notation. See [SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure().

noconstant specifies that all intercepts be constrained to 0. See [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

nomeans specifies that means and intercepts not be fit. The means and intercepts are concentrated out of the function being optimized, which is typically the likelihood function. Results for all other parameters are the same whether or not this option is specified.

^{*} Option may be specified more than once.

This option is seldom specified. sem issues this option to itself when you use summary statistics data that do not include summary statistics for the means.

- noanchor specifies that sem is not to check for lack of identification and fill in anchors where needed. sem is instead to issue an error message if anchors would be needed. You specify this option when you believe you have specified the necessary normalization constraints and want to hear about it if you are wrong. See *Identification 2: Normalization constraints (anchoring)* in [SEM] intro 4.
- forcenoanchor is similar to noanchor except that rather than issue an error message, sem proceeds to estimation. There is no reason you should specify this option. forcenoanchor is used in testing of sem at StataCorp.
- reliability() specifies the fraction of variance not due to measurement error for a variable. See [SEM] sem and gsem option reliability().
- constraints() specifies parameter constraints you wish to impose on your model; see [SEM] sem and gsem option constraints(). Constraints can also be specified as described in [SEM] sem and gsem path notation, and they are usually more conveniently specified using the path notation.
- from() specifies the starting values to be used in the optimization process; see [SEM] sem and gsem
 option from(). Starting values can also be specified by using the init() suboption as described
 in [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

Remarks and examples

To use sem successfully, you need to understand paths, covariance(), variance(), and means(); see Using path diagrams to specify standard linear SEMs in [SEM] intro 2 and [SEM] sem and gsem path notation.

covstructure() is often convenient; see [SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure().

Also see

- [SEM] sem Structural equation model estimation command
- [SEM] intro 2 Learning the language: Path diagrams and command language
- [SEM] sem and gsem path notation Command syntax for path diagrams
- [SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure() Specifying covariance restrictions
- [SEM] sem and gsem option reliability() Fraction of variance not due to measurement error
- [SEM] sem and gsem option constraints() Specifying constraints
- [SEM] sem and gsem option from() Specifying starting values

sem option method() — Specifying method and calculation of VCE

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

sem ... [, ... method(method) vce(vcetype) ...]

method	Description
ml	maximum likelihood; the default
mlmv	ml with missing values
adf	asymptotic distribution free
vcetype	Description
oim	observed information matrix; the default
eim	expected information matrix
opg	outer product of gradients
robust	Huber/White/sandwich estimator
<u>cl</u> uster <i>clustvar</i>	generalized Huber/White/sandwich estimator
bootstrap [, bootstrap_options]	bootstrap estimation
<pre>jackknife [, jackknife_options]</pre>	jackknife estimation

The following combinations of method() and vce() are allowed:

	oim	eim	opg	robust	cluster	bootstrap	jackknife
ml	x	X	X	X	X	X	X
mlmv	x	X	X	X	X	X	X
adf	x	X				X	X

Description

sem option method() specifies the method used to obtain the estimated parameters.

sem option vce() specifies the technique used to obtain the variance-covariance matrix of the estimates (VCE), which includes the reported standard errors.

Options

method(*method*) specifies the method used to obtain parameter estimates. method(ml) is the default. vce(*vcetype*) specifies the technique used to obtain the VCE. vce(oim) is the default.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] intro 4, [SEM] intro 8, and [SEM] intro 9.

Also see

```
    [SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] intro 4 — Substantive concepts
    [SEM] intro 8 — Robust and clustered standard errors
    [SEM] intro 9 — Standard errors, the full story
```

[SEM] example 26 — Fitting a model with data missing at random

sem option noxconditional — Computing means, etc., of observed exogenous variables

Syntax Description Option Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
sem ... [, ... noxconditional ...]
```

Description

sem has a noxconditional option that you may rarely wish to specify. The option is described below.

Option

noxconditional states that you wish to include the means, variances, and covariances of the observed exogenous variables among the parameters to be estimated by sem.

Remarks and examples

Remarks are presented under the following headings:

What is x conditional? When to specify noxconditional Option forcexconditional (a technical note)

What is x conditional?

In many cases, sem does not include the means, variances, and covariances of observed exogenous variables among the parameters to be estimated. When sem omits them, the estimator of the model is said to be x conditional. Rather than estimating the values of the means, variances, and covariances, sem uses the separately calculated observed values of those statistics. sem does this to save time and memory.

sem does not use the x-conditional calculation when it would be inappropriate.

The noxconditional option prevents sem from using the x-conditional calculation. You specify noxconditional on the sem command:

```
. sem ..., ... noxconditional
```

Do not confuse the x-conditional calculation with the assumption of conditional normality discussed in [SEM] **intro 4**. The x-conditional calculation is appropriate even when the assumption of conditional normality is inappropriate.

It is never inappropriate to specify the noxconditional option. Be aware, however:

- If you are using the default method(ml), estimated point estimates and standard errors will be the same.
- If you are using method(adf), estimated point estimates and standard errors will be slightly different, asymptotically equivalent, and there is no reason to prefer one set of estimates over the other.
- 3. If you are using method(mlmv), the situation is the same as in statement 1.
- 4. Regardless of the estimation method used, calculation of results will require more computer time and memory. The memory requirements increase quadratically with the total number of estimated parameters in your model. If you have k_1 observed exogenous variables and k_2 latent exogenous variables, the number of added parameters from noxconditional is $k_1 + k_1(k_1 + 1)/2 + k_1k_2$. The resulting total memory requirements can be so great as to require more memory than your computer can provide.

To make statements 1-4 true, there are two cases when sem specifies noxconditional for you:

1. sem defaults to noxconditional whenever you constrain a mean, variance, or covariance of an observed exogenous variable. For example,

```
. sem ..., ... means(x10m x20m)
. sem ..., ... var(x10v x20v)
. sem ..., ... cov(x1*x20c x1*x30c)
. sem ..., ... covstruct(_OEx, diagonal)
```

See [SEM] sem and gsem path notation and [SEM] sem and gsem option covstructure().

 sem defaults to noxconditional whenever you use method(mlmv) and there are missing values among the observed exogenous variables.

There are only three reasons for you to specify the noxconditional option:

1. Specify noxconditional if you subsequently wish to test means, variances, or covariances of observed exogenous variables with postestimation commands. For example,

```
. sem ..., ... noxconditional
. sem, coeflegend
. test _b[means(x1):_cons] == _b[means(x2)_cons]
```

- 2. Specify noxconditional if you are fitting a model with the group() option.
- Specify noxconditional if you also specify the ginvariant() option, and you want the ginvariant() classes meanex, covex, or all to include the observed exogenous variables. For example,

```
. sem ..., ... by(agegrp) ginvariant(all) noxconditional
```

You may also wish to specify noxconditional when comparing results with those from other packages. Many packages use the noxconditional approach when using an estimation method other than maximum likelihood (ML). Correspondingly, most packages use the x-conditional calculation when using ML.

Option forcexconditional (a technical note)

In addition to noxconditional, sem has a forcexconditional option:

```
sem ... [, ... forcexconditional ...]
```

This option turns off sem's switching away from the x-conditional calculation when that is required. Do not specify this option unless you are exploring the behavior of x-conditional calculation in cases where it is theoretically inappropriate.

Also see

[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command

sem option select() — Using sem with summary statistics data

Syntax Description Option Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
sem \dots [, \dots ] select(# [# \dots]) \dots]
```

Description

sem may be used with summary statistics data (SSD), data containing only summary statistics such as the means, standard deviations or variances, and correlations and covariances of the underlying, raw data.

You enter SSD with the ssd command; see [SEM] ssd.

To fit a model with sem, there is nothing special you have to do except specify the select() option where you would usually specify if *exp*.

Option

select(#[#...]) is allowed only when you have SSD in memory. It specifies which groups should be used.

Remarks and examples

```
See [SEM] intro 11.
```

sem option select() is the SSD alternative for if *exp* if you only had the underlying, raw data in memory. With the underlying raw data, where you would usually type

```
. sem ... if agegrp==1 | agegrp==3, ...
with SSD in memory, you type
. sem ..., ... select(1 3)
```

You may select only groups for which you have separate summary statistics recorded in your summary statistics dataset; the ssd describe command will list the group variable, if any. See [SEM] ssd.

By the way, select() may be combined with sem option group(). Where you might usually type

```
. sem ... if agegrp==1 | agegrp==3, ... group(agegrp)
you could type
. sem ..., ... select(1 3) group(agegrp)
```

The above restricts sem to age groups 1 and 3, so the result will be an estimation of a combined model of age groups 1 and 3 with some coefficients allowed to vary between the groups and other coefficients constrained to be equal across the groups. See [SEM] sem group options.

Also see

```
[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
[SEM] intro 11 — Fitting models with summary statistics data (sem only)
```

Title

sem path notation extensions — Command syntax for path diagrams

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

```
sem paths ... [, covariance() variance() means() [group(varname)]]
```

paths specifies the direct paths between the variables of your model.

The model to be fit is fully described by paths, covariance(), variance(), and means().

The syntax of these elements is modified (generalized) when the group() option is specified.

Description

This entry concerns sem only.

The command syntax for describing your SEMs is fully specified by *paths*, covariance(), variance(), and means(). How that works is described in [SEM] sem and gsem path notation. See that section before reading this section.

This entry concerns the path features unique to sem, and that has to do with the group() option for comparing different groups.

Options

```
covariance(), variance(), and means() are described in [SEM] sem and gsem path notation. group(varname) allows models specified with paths, covariance(), variance(), and means() to be automatically generalized (interacted) with the groups defined by varname; see [SEM] intro 6. The syntax of paths and the arguments of covariance(), variance(), and means() gain an extra syntactical piece when group() is specified.
```

Remarks and examples

The model you wish to fit is fully described by the *paths*, covariance(), variance(), and means() that you type. The group(*varname*) option,

```
. sem ..., ... group(varname)
```

specifies that the model be fit separately for the different values of *varname*. *varname* might be sex and then the model would be fit separately for males and females, or *varname* might be something else and perhaps take on more than two values.

Whatever *varname* is, group(*varname*) defaults to letting some of the path coefficients, covariances, variances, and means of your model vary across the groups and constraining others to be equal. Which parameters vary and which are constrained is described in [SEM] **sem group options**, but that is a minor detail right now.

In what follows, we will assume that *varname* is mygrp and takes on three values. Those values are 1, 2, and 3, but they could just as well be 2, 9, and 12.

```
Consider typing
```

```
. sem ..., ...
```

and typing

```
. sem ..., ... group(mygrp)
```

Whatever the *paths*, covariance(), variance(), and means() are that describe the model, there are now three times as many parameters because each group has its own unique set. In fact, when you give the second command, you are not merely asking for three times the parameters, you are specifying three models, one for each group! In this case, you specified the same model three times without knowing it.

You can vary the model specified across groups.

1. Let's write the model you wish to fit as

```
. sem (a) (b) (c), cov(d) cov(e) var(f)
```

where a, b, \ldots, f stand for what you type. In this generic example, we have two cov() options just because multiple cov() options often occur in real models. When you type

```
. sem (a) (b) (c), cov(d) cov(e) var(f) group(mygrp)
```

results are as if you typed

The 1:, 2:, and 3: identify the groups for which paths, covariances, or variances are being added, modified, or constrained.

If mygrp contained the unique values 5, 8, and 10 instead of 1, 2, and 3, then 5: would appear in place of 1:; 8: would appear in place of 2:; and 10: would appear in place of 3:.

2. Consider the model

```
. sem (y \leftarrow x) (b) (c), cov(d) cov(e) var(f) group(mygrp)
```

If you wanted to constrain the path coefficient $(y \le x)$ to be the same across all three groups, you could type

```
. sem (y \leftarrow x@c1) (b) (c), cov(d) cov(e) var(f) group(mygrp)
```

See item 12 in [SEM] sem and gsem path notation for more examples of specifying constraints. This works because the expansion of $(y \le x \le 1)$ is

```
(1: y <- x@c1) (2: y <- x@c1) (3: y <- x@c1)
```

3. Consider the model

```
. sem (y \leftarrow x) (b) (c), cov(d) cov(e) var(f) group(mygrp)
```

If you wanted to constrain the path coefficient $(y \le x)$ to be the same in groups 2 and 3, you could type

```
. sem (1: y <- x) (2: y <- x@c1) (3: y <- x@c1) (b) (c), /// cov(d) cov(e) var(f) group(mygrp)
```

4. Instead of following item 3, you could type

```
. sem (y <- x) (2: y <- x@c1) (3: y <- x@c1) (b) (c), /// cov(d) cov(e) var(f) group(mygrp)
```

The part
$$(y \leftarrow x)$$
 (2: $y \leftarrow x@c1$) (3: $y \leftarrow x@c1$) expands to
(1: $y \leftarrow x$) (2: $y \leftarrow x$) (3: $y \leftarrow x$) (2: $y \leftarrow x@c1$) (3: $y \leftarrow x@c1$)

and thus the path is defined twice for group 2 and twice for group 3. When a path is defined more than once, the definitions are combined. In this case, the second definition adds more information, so the result is as if you typed

```
(1: y \leftarrow x) (2: y \leftarrow x@c1) (3: y \leftarrow x@c1)
```

5. Instead of following item 3 or item 4, you could type

```
. sem (y < -x@c1) (1: y < -x@c2) (b) (c),
                             cov(d) cov(e) var(f) group(mygrp)
```

The part $(y \leftarrow x@c1)$ (1: $y \leftarrow x@c2$) expands to

```
(1: y \leftarrow x@c1) (2: y \leftarrow x@c1) (3: y \leftarrow x@c1) (1: y \leftarrow x@c2)
```

When results are combined from repeated definitions, then definitions that appear later take precedence. In this case, results are as if the expansion read

```
(1: y <- x@c2) (2: y <- x@c1) (3: y <- x@c1)
```

Thus coefficients for groups 2 and 3 are constrained. The group-1 coefficient is constrained to c2. If c2 appears nowhere else in the model specification, then results are as if the path for group 1 were unconstrained.

6. Instead of following item 3, item 4, or item 5, you could not type

```
. sem (y \leftarrow x@c1) (1: y \leftarrow x) (b) (c),
                                    cov(d) cov(e) var(f) group(mygrp)
```

The expansion of $(y \leftarrow x@c1)$ (1: $y \leftarrow x$) reads

```
(1: y \leftarrow x@c1) (2: y \leftarrow x@c1) (3: y \leftarrow x@c1) (1: y \leftarrow x)
```

and you might think that 1: y <- x would replace 1: y <- x@c1. Information, however, is combined, and even though precedence is given to information appearing later, silence does not count as information. Thus the expanded and reduced specification reads the same as if 1: y <x was never specified:

```
(1: y <- x@c1) (2: y <- x@c1) (3: y <- x@c1)
```

7. Items 1-6, stated in terms of paths, apply equally to what is typed inside the means(), variance(), and covariance() options. For instance, if you typed

```
. sem (a) (b) (c), var(e.y@c1) group(mygrp)
```

then you are constraining the variance to be equal across all three groups.

If you wanted to constrain the variance to be equal in groups 2 and 3, you could type

```
. sem (a) (b) (c), var(e.y) var(2: e.y@c1) var(3: e.y@c1), group(mygrp)
```

You could omit typing var(e.y) because it is implied. Alternatively, you could type

```
. sem (a) (b) (c), var(e.y@c1) var(1: e.y@c2) group(mygrp)
```

You could not type

```
. sem (a) (b) (c), var(e.y@c1) var(1: e.y) group(mygrp)
```

because silence does not count as information when specifications are combined.

Similarly, if you typed

```
. sem (a) (b) (c), cov(e.y1*e.y2@c1) group(mygrp)
```

then you are constraining the covariance to be equal across all groups. If you wanted to constrain the covariance to be equal in groups 2 and 3, you could type

You could not omit cov(e,y1*e,y2) because it is not assumed. By default, error variables are assumed to be uncorrelated. Omitting the option would constrain the covariance to be 0 in group 1 and to be equal in groups 2 and 3.

Alternatively, you could type

8. In the examples above, we have referred to the groups with their numeric values, 1, 2, and 3. Had the values been 5, 8, and 10, then we would have used those values.

If the group variable mygrp has a value label, you can use the label to refer to the group. For instance, imagine mygrp is labeled as follows:

- . label define grpvals 1 Male 2 Female 3 "Unknown sex"
- . label values mygrp grpvals

We could type

```
. sem (y <- x) (Female: y <- x@c1) (Unknown sex: y <- x@c1) ..., ...
```

or we could type

```
. sem (y \leftarrow x) (2: y \leftarrow x@c1) (3: y \leftarrow x@c1) ..., ...
```

Also see

```
[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
[SEM] sem and gsem path notation — Command syntax for path diagrams
[SEM] intro 2 — Learning the language: Path diagrams and command language
[SEM] intro 6 — Comparing groups (sem only)
```

Title

sem postestimation — Postestimation tools for sem

Description Remarks and examples Also see

Description

The following are the postestimation commands that you can use after estimation by sem:

Command	Description
sem, coeflegend estat framework	display _b[] notation display results in modeling framework (matrix form)
estat gof estat ggof estat eqgof estat residuals estat ic	overall goodness of fit group-level goodness of fit equation-level goodness of fit matrices of residuals Akaike's and Schwarz's Bayesian information criteria (AIC and BIC)
estat mindices estat scoretests estat ginvariant	modification indices (score tests) score tests test of invariance of parameters across groups
estat eqtest lrtest test lincom nlcom testnl estat stdize:	equation-level Wald tests likelihood-ratio tests Wald tests linear combination of parameters nonlinear combination of parameters Wald tests of nonlinear hypotheses test standardized parameters
estat teffects estat stable estat summarize estat vce	decomposition of effects assess stability of nonrecursive systems summary statistics for the estimation sample variance–covariance matrix of the estimators (VCE)
predict	factor scores, predicted values, etc.
margins	marginal means, predictive margins, and marginal effects
estimates	cataloging estimation results

For a summary of postestimation features, see [SEM] intro 7.

Remarks and examples

This manual entry concerns sem. For information on postestimation features available after gsem, see [SEM] gsem postestimation.

Also see

[SEM] sem reporting options — Options affecting reporting of results

Title

sem reporting options — Options affecting reporting of results

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Reference Also see

Syntax

```
sem paths ..., ... reporting_options
sem, reporting_options
```

reporting_options	Description
<u>l</u> evel(#)	set confidence level; default is level(95)
<u>stand</u> ardized	display standardized coefficients and values
<u>coefl</u> egend	display coefficient legend
<u>nocnsr</u> eport	do not display constraints
<u>nodes</u> cribe	do not display variable classification table
<u>nohead</u> er	do not display header above parameter table
<u>nofoot</u> note	do not display footnotes below parameter table
notable	do not display parameter table
<u>nofvlab</u> el	display group values rather than value labels
fvwrap(#)	allow # lines when wrapping long value labels
fvwrapon(style)	apply <i>style</i> for wrapping long value labels; <i>style</i> may be word or width
$\underline{\mathtt{showg}}\mathtt{invariant}$	report all estimated parameters

Description

These options control how sem displays estimation results.

Options

level(#); see [R] estimation options.

standardized displays standardized values, that is, "beta" values for coefficients, correlations for covariances, and 1s for variances. Standardized values are obtained using model-fitted variances (Bollen 1989, 124–125). We recommend caution in the interpretation of standardized values, especially with multiple groups.

coeflegend displays the legend that reveals how to specify estimated coefficients in _b[] notation, which you are sometimes required to use when specifying postestimation commands.

nocnsreport suppresses the display of the constraints. Fixed-to-zero constraints that are automatically set by sem are not shown in the report to keep the output manageable.

nodescribe suppresses display of the variable classification table.

noheader suppresses the header above the parameter table, the display that reports the final loglikelihood value, number of observations, etc.

nofootnote suppresses the footnotes displayed below the parameter table.

notable suppresses the parameter table.

nofvlabel displays group values rather than value labels.

fvwrap(#) specifies how many lines to allow when long value labels must be wrapped. Labels requiring more than # lines are truncated. This option overrides the fvwrap setting; see [R] set showbaselevels.

fvwrapon(style) specifies whether value labels that wrap will break at word boundaries or break based on available space.

fvwrapon(word), the default, specifies that value labels break at word boundaries.

fvwrapon(width) specifies that value labels break based on available space.

This option overrides the fvwrapon setting; see [R] set showbaselevels.

showginvariant specifies that each estimated parameter be reported in the parameter table. The default is to report each invariant parameter only once.

Remarks and examples

Any of the above options may be specified when you fit the model or when you redisplay results, which you do by specifying nothing but options after the sem command:

```
. sem (...) (...), ...
(original output displayed)
(output redisplayed)
. sem, standardized
(standardized output displayed)
. sem, coeflegend
(coefficient-name table displayed)
(output redisplayed)
```

Reference

Bollen, K. A. 1989. Structural Equations with Latent Variables. New York: Wiley.

Also see

```
[SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
[SEM] example 8 — Testing that coefficients are equal, and constraining them
[SEM] example 16 — Correlation
```

Title

```
sem ssd options — Options for use with summary statistics data
```

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Also see

Syntax

sem paths, ssd_options		
ssd_options	Description	
select() forcecorrelations	alternative to if <i>exp</i> for SSD allow groups and pooling of SSD correlations	

Description

Data are sometimes available in summary statistics form only. These summary statistics include means, standard deviations or variances, and correlations or covariances. These summary statistics can be used by sem in place of the underlying raw data.

Options

select() is an alternative to if exp when you are using summary statistics data (SSD). Where you
might usually type

```
. sem ... if agegrp==1 | agegrp==3 | agegrp==5, ...
with SSD in memory, you type
. sem ..., ... select(1 3 5)
```

See [SEM] sem option select() and [SEM] intro 11.

forcecorrelations tells sem that it may make calculations that would usually be considered suspicious with SSD that contain only a subset of means, variances (standard deviations), and covariances (correlations). Do not specify this option unless you appreciate the statistical issues that we are about to discuss. There are two cases where forcecorrelations is relevant.

In the first case, sem is unwilling to produce group() estimates if one or more (usually all) of the groups have correlations only defined. You can override that by specifying forcecorrelations, and sem will assume unit variances for the group or groups that have correlations only. Doing this is suspect unless you make ginvariant() all parameters that are dependent on covariances or unless you truly know that the variances are indeed 1.

In the second case, sem is unwilling to pool across groups unless you have provided means and covariances (or means and correlations and standard deviations or variances). Without that information, should the need for pooling arise, sem issues an error message. The forcecorrelations option specifies that sem ignore its rule and pool correlation matrices, treating correlations as if they were covariances when variances are not defined and treating means as if they were 0 when means are not defined. The only justification for making the calculation in this way is that variances truly are 1 and means truly are 0.

Understand that there is nothing wrong with using pure correlation data, or covariance data without the means, so long as you fit models for individual groups. Doing anything across groups basically requires that sem have the covariance and mean information.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] intro 11.

Also see

```
    [SEM] sem — Structural equation model estimation command
    [SEM] intro 11 — Fitting models with summary statistics data (sem only)
    [SEM] ssd — Making summary statistics data (sem only)
```

```
ssd — Making summary statistics data (sem only)
```

Syntax Description Options Remarks and examples Stored results Also see

Syntax

```
To enter summary statistics data (SSD), the commands are
```

```
ssd init varlist

ssd set [#] observations #

ssd set [#] means vector

ssd set [#] {variances|sd} vector

ssd set [#] {covariances|correlations} matrix

ssd addgroup varname (to add second group)

ssd addgroup (to add subsequent groups)

ssd unaddgroup # (to remove last group)

ssd status [#]
```

To build SSD from raw data, the command is

```
ssd build varlist [, group(varname) clear]
```

To review the contents of SSD, the commands are

```
ssd status [#]
ssd describe
ssd list [#]
```

In an emergency (ssd will tell you when), you may use

```
ssd repair
```

In the above.

A *vector* can be any of the following:

1. A space-separated list of numbers, for example,

```
. ssd set means 1 2 3
```

2. (stata) matname

where matname is the name of a Stata $1 \times k$ or $k \times 1$ matrix, for example,

- . ssd set variances (stata) mymeans
- 3. (mata) matname

where *matname* is the name of a Mata $1 \times k$ or $k \times 1$ matrix, for example,

. ssd set sd (mata) mymeans

A matrix can be any of the following:

1. A space-separated list of numbers corresponding to the rows of the matrix, with backslashes (\) between rows. The numbers are either the lower triangle and diagonal or the diagonal and upper triangle of the matrix, for example,

```
. ssd set correlations 1 \ .2 1 \ .3 .5 1
```

or

- . ssd set correlations 1 .2 .3 \ 1 .5 \ 1
- 2. (1td) ##...

which is to say, a space-separated list of numbers corresponding to the lower triangle and diagonal of the matrix, without backslashes between rows, for example,

- . ssd set correlations (ltd) 1 .2 1 .3 .5 1
- 3. (dut) ##...

which is to say, a space-separated list of numbers corresponding to the diagonal and upper triangle of the matrix, without backslashes between rows, for example,

- . ssd set correlations (dut) 1 .2 .3 1 .5
- 4. (stata) matname

where *matname* is the name of a Stata $k \times k$ symmetric matrix, for example,

- . ssd set correlations (stata) mymat
- 5. (mata) matname

where *matname* is the name of a Mata $k \times k$ symmetric matrix, for example,

. ssd set correlations (mata) mymat

Description

ssd allows you to enter SSD to fit SEMs and allows you to create SSD from original, raw data to publish or to send to others (and thus preserve participant confidentiality). Data created by ssd may be used with sem but not gsem.

Options

group(varname) is for use with ssd build. It specifies that separate groups of summary statistics be produced for each value of varname.

clear is for use with ssd build. It specifies that it is okay to replace the data in memory with SSD even if the original dataset has not been saved since it was last changed.

See

```
[SEM] intro 11 Fitting models with summary statistics data (sem only)
for an introduction, and see

[SEM] example 2
[SEM] example 19 Creating a dataset from published covariances
Creating multiple-group summary statistics data
```

A summary statistics dataset is different from a regular, raw Stata dataset. Be careful not to use standard Stata data-manipulation commands with SSD in memory. The commands include

Creating summary statistics data from raw data

```
generate
replace
merge
append
drop
set obs
```

[SEM] example 25

to mention a few. You may, however, use rename to change the names of the variables.

The other data-manipulation commands can damage your summary statistics dataset. If you make a mistake and do use one of these commands, do not attempt to repair the data yourself. Let ssd repair your data by typing

. ssd repair

ssd is usually successful as long as variables or observations have not been dropped.

Every time you use ssd, even for something as trivial as describing or listing the data, ssd verifies that the data are not corrupted. If ssd finds that they are, it suggests you type ssd repair:

```
. ssd describe
SSD corrupt
    The summary statistics data should [ssd describes the problem]. The data may be fixable; type ssd repair.
. ssd repair (data repaired)
. ssd describe (usual output appears)
```

In critical applications, we also recommend you digitally sign your summary statistics dataset:

```
. datasignature set 5:5(65336):3718404259:2275399871 (data signature set)
```

Then at any future time, you can verify the data are still just as they should be:

```
. datasignature confirm (data unchanged since 30jun2012 15:32)
```

The data signature is a function of the variable names. If you rename a variable—something that is allowed—then the data signature will change:

```
. rename varname newname
. datasignature confirm
  data have changed since 30jun2012 15:32
r(9);
```

In that case, you can re-sign the data:

```
. datasignature set, reset 5:5(71728):3718404259:2275399871 (data signature set)
```

Before re-signing, however, if you want to convince yourself that the data are unchanged except for the variable name, type datasignature report. It is the part of the signature in parentheses that has to do with the variable names. datasignature report will tell you what the new signature would be, and you can verify that the other components of the signature match.

See [D] datasignature.

Stored results

ssd describe stores the following in r():

```
Scalars
    r(N)
                                     number of observations (total across groups)
    r(k)
                                     number of variables (excluding group variable)
    r(G)
                                     number of groups
                                     1 if complete, 0 otherwise
    r(complete)
    r(complete_means)
                                     1 if complete means, 0 otherwise
    r(complete_covariances)
                                     1 if complete covariances, 0 otherwise
    r(v#)
                                     variable names (excluding group variable)
    r(groupvar)
                                     name of group variable (if there is one)
```

Also see

```
    [SEM] intro 11 — Fitting models with summary statistics data (sem only)
    [D] datasignature — Determine whether data have changed
    [SEM] example 2 — Creating a dataset from published covariances
    [SEM] example 19 — Creating multiple-group summary statistics data
    [SEM] example 25 — Creating summary statistics data from raw data
```

Title

test — Wald test of linear hypotheses

Syntax Menu Description Options
Remarks and examples Stored results Also see

Syntax

```
test coeflist

test exp = exp = [= ...]

test [eqno] [: coeflist]

test [eqno = eqno [= ...]] [: coeflist]

test (spec) [(spec) ...] [, test_options]
```

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Testing and CIs > Wald tests of linear hypotheses

Description

test is a postestimation command for use after sem, gsem, and other Stata estimation commands.

test performs the Wald test of the hypothesis or hypotheses that you specify. In the case of sem and gsem, you must use the _b[] coefficient notation.

See [R] test. Also documented there is testparm. testparm cannot be used after sem or gsem because its syntax hinges on use of shortcuts for referring to coefficients.

Options

See Options for test in [R] test.

Remarks and examples

See [SEM] example 8 and [SEM] example 16.

test works in the metric of SEM, which is to say path coefficients, variances, and covariances. If you want to frame your tests in terms of standardized coefficients and correlations and you fit your model with sem, not gsem, then prefix test with estat stdize; see [SEM] estat stdize.

Stored results

See Stored results in [R] test.

Also see

```
    [SEM] example 8 — Testing that coefficients are equal, and constraining them
    [SEM] example 16 — Correlation
    [R] test — Test linear hypotheses after estimation
    [SEM] estat stdize — Test standardized parameters
    [SEM] estat eqtest — Equation-level test that all coefficients are zero
    [SEM] lrtest — Likelihood-ratio test of linear hypothesis
    [SEM] lincom — Linear combinations of parameters
```

Title

testnl — Wald test of nonlinear hypotheses

Syntax Menu Description Options
Remarks and examples Stored results Also see

Syntax

testnl
$$exp = exp$$
 [= ...] [, options]
testnl $(exp = exp$ [= ...]) [$(exp = exp$ [= ...]) ...] [, options]

Menu

Statistics > SEM (structural equation modeling) > Testing and CIs > Wald tests of nonlinear hypotheses

Description

testnl is a postestimation command for use after sem, gsem, and other Stata estimation commands.

testnl performs the Wald test of the nonlinear hypothesis or hypotheses. In the case of sem and gsem, you must use the _b[] coefficient notation.

Options

See Options in [R] testnl.

Remarks and examples

testnl works in the metric of SEM, which is to say path coefficients, variances, and covariances. If you want to frame your tests in terms of standardized coefficients and correlations and you fit the model with sem, not gsem, then prefix testnl with estat stdize; see [SEM] estat stdize.

□ Technical note

estat stdize: is unnecessary because, with testnl, everywhere you wanted a standardized coefficient or correlation, you could just type the formula. If you did that, you would get the same answer except for numerical precision. In this case, the answer produced with the estat stdize: prefix will be a little more accurate because estat stdize: is able to substitute an analytic derivative in one part of the calculation where testnl, doing the whole thing itself, would be forced to use a numeric derivative.

Stored results

See Stored results in [R] testnl.

Also see

```
    [R] testnl — Test nonlinear hypotheses after estimation
    [SEM] test — Wald test of linear hypotheses
    [SEM] lrtest — Likelihood-ratio test of linear hypothesis
    [SEM] estat stdize — Test standardized parameters
    [SEM] estat eqtest — Equation-level test that all coefficients are zero
    [SEM] nlcom — Nonlinear combinations of parameters
```

Glossary

- **ADF**, **method(adf)**. ADF stands for asymptotic distribution free and is a method used to obtain fitted parameters for standard linear SEMs. ADF is used by sem when option method(adf) is specified. Other available methods are ML, QML, and MLMV.
- anchoring, anchor variable. A variable is said to be the anchor of a latent variable if the path coefficient between the latent variable and the anchor variable is constrained to be 1. sem and gsem use anchoring as a way of normalizing latent variables and thus identifying the model.
- **baseline model**. A baseline model is a covariance model—a model of fitted means and covariances of observed variables without any other paths—with most of the covariances constrained to be 0. That is, a baseline model is a model of fitted means and variances but typically not all the covariances. Also see *saturated model*. Baseline models apply only to standard linear SEMs.
- **Bentler-Weeks formulation**. The Bentler and Weeks (1980) formulation of standard linear SEMs places the results in a series of matrices organized around how results are calculated. See [SEM] **estat framework**.
- **bootstrap**, **vce(bootstrap)**. The bootstrap is a replication method for obtaining variance estimates. Consider an estimation method E for estimating θ . Let $\widehat{\theta}$ be the result of applying E to dataset D containing N observations. The bootstrap is a way of obtaining variance estimates for $\widehat{\theta}$ from repeated estimates $\widehat{\theta}_1$, $\widehat{\theta}_2$, ..., where each $\widehat{\theta}_i$ is the result of applying E to a dataset of size N drawn with replacement from D. See [SEM] **sem option method()** and [R] **bootstrap**.
 - vce(bootstrap) is allowed with sem but not gsem. You can obtain bootstrap results by prefixing the gsem command with bootstrap;, but remember to specify bootstrap's cluster() and idcluster() options if you are fitting a multilevel model. See [SEM] intro 9.
- **Builder**. The Builder is Stata's graphical interface for building sem and gsem models. The Builder is also known as the SEM Builder. See [SEM] intro 2, [SEM] Builder, and [SEM] Builder, generalized.
- **CFA**, **CFA** models. CFA stands for confirmatory factor analysis. It is a way of analyzing measurement models. CFA models is a synonym for measurement models.
- CI. CI is an abbreviation for confidence interval.
- **clustered**, **vce**(**cluster clustvar**). Clustered is the name we use for the generalized Huber/White/sandwich estimator of the VCE, which is the robust technique generalized to relax the assumption that errors are independent across observations to be that they are independent across clusters of observations. Within cluster, errors may be correlated.
 - Clustered standard errors are reported when sem or gsem option vce(cluster *clustvar*) is specified. The other available techniques are OIM, OPG, robust, bootstrap, and jackknife. Also available for sem only is EIM.
- coefficient of determination. The coefficient of determination is the fraction (or percentage) of variation (variance) explained by an equation of a model. The coefficient of determination is thus like \mathbb{R}^2 in linear regression.
- **command language**. Stata's sem and gsem commands provide a way to specify SEMs. The alternative is to use the Builder to draw path diagrams; see [SEM] **intro 2**, [SEM] **Builder**, and [SEM] **Builder**, **generalized**.

complementary log-log regression. Complementary log-log regression is a term for generalized linear response functions that are family Bernoulli, link cloglog. It is used for binary outcome data. Complementary log-log regression is also known in Stata circles as cloglog regression or just cloglog. See *generalized linear response functions*.

conditional normality assumption. See normality assumption, joint and conditional.

constraints. See parameter constraints.

correlated uniqueness model. A correlated uniqueness model is a kind of measurement model in which the errors of the measurements have a structured correlation. See [SEM] **intro 5**.

crossed-effects models. See multilevel models.

curved path. See path.

degree-of-freedom adjustment. In estimates of variances and covariances, a finite-population degree-of-freedom adjustment is sometimes applied to make the estimates unbiased.

Let's write an estimated variance as $\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}$ and write the "standard" formula for the variance as $\widehat{\sigma}_{ii} = S_{ii}/N$. If $\widehat{\sigma}_{ii}$ is the variance of observable variable x_i , it can readily be proven that S_{ii}/N is a biased estimate of the variances in samples of size N and that $S_{ii}/(N-1)$ is an unbiased estimate. It is usual to calculate variances with $S_{ii}/(N-1)$, which is to say the "standard" formula has a multiplicative degree-of-freedom adjustment of N/(N-1) applied to it.

If $\hat{\sigma}_{ii}$ is the variance of estimated parameter β_i , a similar finite-population degree-of-freedom adjustment can sometimes be derived that will make the estimate unbiased. For instance, if β_i is a coefficient from a linear regression, an unbiased estimate of the variance of regression coefficient β_i is $S_{ii}/(N-p-1)$, where p is the total number of regression coefficients estimated excluding the intercept. In other cases, no such adjustment can be derived. Such estimators have no derivable finite-sample properties, and one is left only with the assurances provided by its provable asymptotic properties. In such cases, the variance of coefficient β_i is calculated as S_{ii}/N , which can be derived on theoretical grounds. SEM is an example of such an estimator.

SEM is a remarkably flexible estimator and can reproduce results that can sometimes be obtained by other estimators. SEM might produce asymptotically equivalent results, or it might produce identical results depending on the estimator. Linear regression is an example in which sem and gsem produce the same results as regress. The reported standard errors, however, will not look identical because the linear-regression estimates have the finite-population degree-of-freedom adjustment applied to them and the SEM estimates do not. To see the equivalence, you must undo the adjustment on the reported linear regression standard errors by multiplying them by $\sqrt{\{(N-p-1)/N\}}$.

direct, indirect, and total effects. Consider the following system of equations:

$$y_1 = b_{10} + b_{11}y_2 + b_{12}x_1 + b_{13}x_3 + e_1$$

$$y_2 = b_{20} + b_{21}y_3 + b_{22}x_1 + b_{23}x_4 + e_2$$

$$y_3 = b_{30} + b_{32}x_1 + b_{33}x_5 + e_3$$

The total effect of x_1 on y_1 is $b_{12} + b_{11}b_{22} + b_{11}b_{21}b_{32}$. It measures the full change in y_1 based on allowing x_1 to vary throughout the system.

The direct effect of x_1 on y_1 is b_{12} . It measures the change in y_1 caused by a change in x_1 holding other endogenous variables—namely, y_2 and y_3 —constant.

The indirect effect of x_1 on y_1 is obtained by subtracting the total and direct effect and is thus $b_{11}b_{22} + b_{11}b_{21}b_{32}$.

EIM, vce(eim). EIM stands for expected information matrix, defined as the inverse of the negative of the expected value of the matrix of second derivatives, usually of the log-likelihood function. The EIM is an estimate of the VCE. EIM standard errors are reported when sem option vce(eim) is specified. EIM is available only with sem. The other available techniques for sem are OIM, OPG, robust, clustered, bootstrap, and jackknife.

endogenous variable. A variable, observed or latent, is endogenous (determined by the system) if any path points to it. Also see *exogenous variable*.

error, **error variable**. The error is random disturbance e in a linear equation:

$$y = b_0 + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + \cdots + e$$

An error variable is an unobserved exogenous variable in path diagrams corresponding to e. Mathematically, error variables are just another example of latent exogenous variables, but in sem and gsem, error variables are considered to be in a class by themselves. All (Gaussian) endogenous variables—observed and latent—have a corresponding error variable. Error variables automatically and inalterably have their path coefficients fixed to be 1. Error variables have a fixed naming convention in the software. If a variable is the error for (observed or latent) endogenous variable y, then the residual variable's name is $e \cdot y$.

In sem and gsem, error variables are uncorrelated with each other unless explicitly indicated otherwise. That indication is made in path diagrams by drawing a curved path between the error variables and is indicated in command notation by including cov(e.name1*e.name2) among the options specified on the sem command. In gsem, errors for family Gaussian, link log responses are not allowed to be correlated.

estimation method. There are a variety of ways that one can solve for the parameters of an SEM. Different methods make different assumptions about the data-generation process, so it is important that you choose a method appropriate for your model and data; see [SEM] **intro 4**.

exogenous variable. A variable, observed or latent, is exogenous (determined outside the system) if paths only originate from it or, equivalently, no path points to it. In this manual, we do not distinguish whether exogenous variables are strictly exogenous—that is, uncorrelated with the errors. Also see *endogenous variable*.

family distribution. See generalized linear response functions.

fictional data. Fictional data are data that have no basis in reality even though they might look real; they are data that are made up for use in examples.

first-, second-, and higher-level (latent) variables. Consider a multilevel model of patients within doctors within hospitals. First-level variables are variables that vary at the observational (patient) level. Second-level variables vary across doctors but are constant within doctors. Third-level variables vary across hospitals but are constant within hospitals. This jargon is used whether variables are latent or not.

first- and second-order latent variables. If a latent variable is measured by other latent variables only, the latent variable that does the measuring is called first-order latent variable, and the latent variable being measured is called the second-order latent variable.

full joint and conditional normality assumption. See normality assumption, joint and conditional.

gamma regression. Gamma regression is a term for generalized linear response functions that are family gamma, link log. It is used for continuous, nonnegative, positively skewed data. Gamma regression is also known as log-gamma regression. See *generalized linear response functions*.

Gaussian regression. Gaussian regression is another term for linear regression. It is most often used when referring to generalized linear response functions. In that framework, Gaussian regression is family Gaussian, link identity. See *generalized linear response functions*.

generalized linear response functions. Generalized linear response functions include linear functions and include functions such as probit, logit, multinomial logit, ordered probit, ordered logit, Poisson, and more.

These generalized linear functions are described by a link function $g(\cdot)$ and statistical distribution F. The link function $g(\cdot)$ specifies how the response variable y_i is related to a linear equation of the explanatory variables, $\mathbf{x}_i\beta$, and the family F specifies the distribution of y_i :

$$g\{E(y_i)\} = \mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}, \quad y_i \sim F$$

If we specify that $g(\cdot)$ is the identity function and F is the Gaussian (normal) distribution, then we have linear regression. If we specify that $g(\cdot)$ is the logit function and F the Bernoulli distribution, then we have logit (logistic) regression.

In this generalized linear structure, the family may be Gaussian, gamma, Bernoulli, binomial, Poisson, negative binomial, ordinal, or multinomial. The link function may be the identity, log, logit, probit, or complementary log-log.

gsem fits models with generalized linear response functions.

generalized method of moments. Generalized method of moments (GMM) is a method used to obtain fitted parameters. In this documentation, GMM is referred to as ADF, which stands for asymptotic distribution free and is available for use with sem. Other available methods for use with sem are ML, OML, ADF, and MLMV.

The SEM moment conditions are cast in terms of second moments, not the first moments used in many other applications associated with GMM.

generalized SEM. Generalized SEM is a term we have coined to mean SEM optionally allowing generalized linear response functions or multilevel models. gsem fits generalized SEMs.

GMM. See generalized method of moments.

goodness-of-fit statistic. A goodness-of-fit statistic is a value designed to measure how well the model reproduces some aspect of the data the model is intended to fit. SEM reproduces the first-and second-order moments of the data, with an emphasis on the second-order moments, and thus goodness-of-fit statistics appropriate for use after sem compare the predicted covariance matrix (and mean vector) with the matrix (and vector) observed in the data.

gsem, gsem is the Stata command that fits generalized SEMs. Also see sem.

GUL See Builder.

identification. Identification refers to the conceptual constraints on parameters of a model that are required for the model's remaining parameters to have a unique solution. A model is said to be unidentified if these constraints are not supplied. These constraints are of two types: substantive constraints and normalization constraints.

Normalization constraints deal with the problem that one scale works as well as another for each latent variable in the model. One can think, for instance, of propensity to write software as being measured on a scale of 0 to 1, 1 to 100, or any other scale. The normalization constraints are the constraints necessary to choose one particular scale. The normalization constraints are provided automatically by sem and gsem by anchoring with unit loadings.

Substantive constraints are the constraints you specify about your model so that it has substantive content. Usually, these constraints are 0 constraints implied by the paths omitted, but they can include explicit parameter constraints as well. It is easy to write a model that is not identified for substantive reasons; see [SEM] intro 4.

indicator variables, indicators. The term "indicator variable" has two meanings. An indicator variable is a 0/1 variable that contains whether something is true. The other usage is as a synonym for measurement variables.

indirect effects. See direct, indirect, and total effects.

initial values. See starting values.

intercept. An intercept for the equation of endogenous variable y, observed or latent, is the path coefficient from _cons to y. _cons is Stata-speak for the built-in variable containing 1 in all observations. In SEM-speak, _cons is an observed exogenous variable.

jackknife, **vce(jackknife**). The jackknife is a replication method for obtaining variance estimates. Consider an estimation method E for estimating θ . Let $\widehat{\theta}$ be the result of applying E to dataset D containing N observations. The jackknife is a way of obtaining variance estimates for $\widehat{\theta}$ from repeated estimates $\widehat{\theta}_1, \widehat{\theta}_2, \ldots, \widehat{\theta}_N$, where each $\widehat{\theta}_i$ is the result of applying E to D with observation i removed. See [SEM] **sem option method()** and [R] **jackknife**.

vce(jackknife) is allowed with sem but not gsem. You can obtain jackknife results by prefixing the gsem command with jackknife:, but remember to specify jackknife's cluster() and idcluster() options if you are fitting a multilevel model. See [SEM] intro 9.

joint normality assumption. See normality assumption, joint and conditional.

Lagrange multiplier test. Synonym for score test.

latent growth model. A latent growth model is a kind of measurement model in which the observed values are collected over time and are allowed to follow a trend. See [SEM] **intro 5**.

latent variable. A variable is latent if it is not observed. A variable is latent if it is not in your dataset but you wish it were. You wish you had a variable recording the propensity to commit violent crime, or socioeconomic status, or happiness, or true ability, or even income accurately recorded. Latent variables are sometimes described as imagined variables.

In the software, latent variables are usually indicated by having at least their first letter capitalized.

Also see first- and second-order latent variables, first-, second-, and higher-level (latent) variables, and observed variables.

linear regression. Linear regression is a kind of SEM in which there is a single equation. See [SEM] intro 5.

link function. See generalized linear response functions.

logit regression. Logit regression is a term for generalized linear response functions that are family Bernoulli, link logit. It is used for binary outcome data. Logit regression is also known as logistic regression and also simply as logit. See *generalized linear response functions*.

manifest variables. Synonym for observed variables.

measure, measurement, x a measurement of X, x measures X. See measurement variables.

measurement models, measurement component. A measurement model is a particular kind of model that deals with the problem of translating observed values to values suitable for modeling. Measurement models are often combined with structural models and then the measurement model part is referred to as the measurement component. See [SEM] intro 5.

measurement variables, measure, measurement, x a measurement of X, x measures X. Observed variable x is a measurement of latent variable X if there is a path connecting $x \leftarrow X$. Measurement variables are modeled by measurement models. Measurement variables are also called indicator variables.

method. Method is just an English word and should be read in context. Nonetheless, method is used here usually to refer to the method used to solve for the fitted parameters of an SEM. Those methods are ML, QML, MLMV, and ADF. Also see *technique*.

MIMIC. See multiple indicators and multiple causes.

mixed-effects models. See multilevel models.

- ML, method(ml). ML stands for maximum likelihood. It is a method to obtain fitted parameters. ML is the default method used by sem and gsem. Other available methods for sem are QML, MLMV, and ADF. Also available for gsem is QML.
- MLMV, method(mlmv). MLMV stands for maximum likelihood with missing values. It is an ML method used to obtain fitted parameters in the presence of missing values. MLMV is the method used by sem when the method(mlmv) option is specified; method(mlmv) is not available with gsem. Other available methods for use with sem are ML, QML, and ADF. These other methods omit from the calculation observations that contain missing values.
- **modification indices**. Modification indices are score tests for adding paths where none appear. The paths can be for either coefficients or covariances.
- **moments** (of a distribution). The moments of a distribution are the expected values of powers of a random variable or centralized (demeaned) powers of a random variable. The first moments are the expected or observed means, and the second moments are the expected or observed variances and covariances.
- **multilevel models**. Multilevel models are models that include unobserved effects (latent variables) for different groups in the data. For instance, in a dataset of students, groups of students might share the same teacher. If the teacher's identity is recorded in the data, then one can introduce a latent variable that is constant within teacher and that varies across teachers. This is called a two-level model.

If teachers could in turn be grouped into schools, and school identities were recorded in the data, then one can introduce another latent variable that is constant within school and varies across schools. This is called a three-level (nested-effects) model.

In the above example, observations (students) are said to be nested within teacher nested within school. Sometimes there is no such subsequent nesting structure. Consider workers nested within occupation and industry. The same occupations appear in various industries and the same industries appear within various occupations. We can still introduce latent variables at the occupation and industry level. In such cases, the model is called a crossed-effects model.

The latent variables that we have discussed are also known as random effects. Any coefficients on observed variables in the model are known as the fixed portion of the model. Models that contain fixed and random portions are known as mixed-effects models.

- **multinomial logit regression**. Multinomial logit regression is a term for generalized linear response functions that are family multinomial, link logit. It is used for categorical-outcome data when the outcomes cannot be ordered. Multinomial logit regression is also known as multinomial logistic regression and as mlogit in Stata circles. See *generalized linear response functions*.
- **multiple correlation**. The multiple correlation is the correlation between endogenous variable y and its linear prediction.
- multiple indicators and multiple causes. Multiple indicators and multiple causes is a kind of structural model in which observed causes determine a latent variable, which in turn determines multiple indicators. See [SEM] intro 5.

multivariate regression. Multivariate regression is a kind of structural model in which each member of a set of observed endogenous variables is a function of the same set of observed exogenous variables and a unique random disturbance term. The disturbances are correlated. Multivariate regression is a special case of seemingly unrelated regression.

negative binomial regression. Negative binomial regression is a term for generalized linear response functions that are family negative binomial, link log. It is used for count data that are overdispersed relative to Poisson. Negative binomial regression is also known as nbreg in Stata circles. See generalized linear response functions.

nested-effects models. See multilevel models.

nonrecursive (structural) model (system), recursive (structural) model (system). A structural model (system) is said to be nonrecursive if there are paths in both directions between one or more pairs of endogenous variables. A system is recursive if it is a system—it has endogenous variables that appear with paths from them—and it is not nonrecursive.

A nonrecursive model may be unstable. Consider, for instance,

$$y_1 = 2y_2 + 1x_1 + e_1$$
$$y_2 = 3y_1 - 2x_2 + e_2$$

This model is unstable. To see this, without loss of generality, treat x_1+e_1 and $2x_2+e_2$ as if they were both 0. Consider $y_1=1$ and $y_2=1$. Those values result in new values $y_1=2$ and $y_2=3$, and those result in new values $y_1=6$ and $y_2=6$, and those result in new values Continue in this manner, and you reach infinity for both endogenous variables. In the jargon of the mathematics used to check for this property, the eigenvalues of the coefficient matrix lie outside the unit circle.

On the other hand, consider these values:

$$y_1 = 0.5y_2 + 1x_1 + e_1$$

 $y_2 = 1.0y_1 - 2x_2 + e_2$

These results are stable in that the resulting values converge to $y_1 = 0$ and $y_2 = 0$. In the jargon of the mathematics used to check for this property, the eigenvalues of the coefficient matrix lie inside the unit circle.

Finally, consider the values

$$y_1 = 0.5y_2 + 1x_1 + e_1$$

 $y_2 = 2.0y_1 - 2x_2 + e_2$

Start with $y_1 = 1$ and $y_2 = 1$. That yields new values $y_1 = 0.5$, and $y_2 = 2$ and that yields new values $y_1 = 1$ and $y_2 = 1$, and that yields new values $y_1 = 0.5$ and $y_2 = 2$, and it will oscillate forever. In the jargon of the mathematics used to check for this property, the eigenvalues of the coefficient matrix lie on the unit circle. These coefficients are also considered to be unstable.

normalization constraints. See identification.

normality assumption, joint and conditional. The derivation of the standard, linear SEM estimator usually assumes the full joint normality of the observed and latent variables. However, full joint normality can replace the assumption of normality conditional on the values of the exogenous variables, and all that is lost is one goodness-of-fit test (the test reported by sem on the output) and

the justification for use of optional method MLMV for dealing with missing values. This substitution of assumptions is important for researchers who cannot reasonably assume normality of the observed variables. This includes any researcher including, say, variables age and age-squared in his or her model.

Meanwhile, the generalized SEM makes only the conditional normality assumption.

Be aware that even though the full joint normality assumption is not required for the standard linear SEM, sem calculates the log-likelihood value under that assumption. This is irrelevant except that log-likelihood values reported by sem cannot be compared with log-likelihood values reported by gsem, which makes the lesser assumption.

See [SEM] intro 4.

normalized residuals. See standardized residuals.

observed variables. A variable is observed if it is a variable in your dataset. In this documentation, we often refer to observed variables by using x1, x2, ..., y1, y2, and so on; in reality, observed variables have names such as mpg, weight, testscore, and so on.

In the software, observed variables are usually indicated by having names that are all lowercase.

Also see latent variable.

- OIM, vce(oim). OIM stands for observed information matrix, defined as the inverse of the negative of the matrix of second derivatives, usually of the log likelihood function. The OIM is an estimate of the VCE. OIM is the default VCE that sem and gsem report. The other available techniques are EIM, OPG, robust, clustered, bootstrap, and jackknife.
- **OPG**, **vce(opg)**. OPG stands for outer product of the gradients, defined as the cross product of the observation-level first derivatives, usually of the log likelihood function. The OPG is an estimate of the VCE. The other available techniques are OIM, EIM, robust, clustered, bootstrap, and jackknife.
- **ordered complementary log-log regression**. Ordered complementary log-log regression is a term for generalized linear response functions that are family ordinal, link cloglog. It is used for ordinal-outcome data. Ordered complementary log-log regression is also known as ocloglog in Stata circles. See *generalized linear response functions*.
- **ordered logit regression**. Ordered logit regression is a term for generalized linear response functions that are family ordinal, link logit. It is used for ordinal outcome data. Ordered logit regression is also known as ordered logistic regression, as just ordered logit, and as ologit in Stata circles. See *generalized linear response functions*.
- ordered probit regression. Ordered probit regression is a term for generalized linear response functions that are family ordinal, link probit. It is used for ordinal-outcome data. Ordered probit regression is also known as just ordered probit and known as oprobit in Stata circles. See generalized linear response functions.
- parameter constraints. Parameter constraints are restrictions placed on the parameters of the model. These constraints are typically in the form of 0 constraints and equality constraints. A 0 constraint is implied, for instance, when no path is drawn connecting x with y. An equality constraint is specified when one path coefficient is forced to be equal to another or one covariance is forced to be equal to another.

Also see identification.

parameters, ancillary parameters. The parameters are the to-be-estimated coefficients of a model. These include all path coefficients, means, variances, and covariances. In mathematical notation, the theoretical parameters are often written as $\theta = (\alpha, \beta, \mu, \Sigma)$, where α is the vector of intercepts,

 β is the vector of path coefficients, μ is the vector of means, and Σ is the matrix of variances and covariances. The resulting parameter estimates are written as θ .

Ancillary parameters are extra parameters beyond the ones just described that concern the distribution. These include the scale parameter of gamma regression, the dispersion parameter for negative binomial regression, and the cutpoints for ordered probit, logit, and cloglog regression, and the like. These parameters are also included in θ .

path. A path, typically shown as an arrow drawn from one variable to another, states that the first variable determines the second variable, at least partially. If $x \to y$, or equivalently $y \leftarrow x$, then $y_i = \alpha + \cdots + \beta x_i + \cdots + e.y_i$, where β is said to be the $x \to y$ path coefficient. The ellipses are included to account for paths to y from other variables. α is said to be the intercept and is automatically added when the first path to y is specified.

A curved path is a curved line connecting two variables, and it specifies that the two variables are allowed to be correlated. If there is no curved path between variables, the variables are usually assumed to be uncorrelated. We say usually because correlation is assumed among observed exogenous variables and, in the command language, assumed among latent exogenous variables, and if some of the correlations are not desired, they must be suppressed. Many authors refer to covariances rather than correlations. Strictly speaking, the curved path denotes a nonzero covariance. A correlation is often called a standardized covariance.

A curved path can connect a variable to itself, and in that case, it indicates a variance. In path diagrams in this manual, we typically do not show such variance paths even though variances are assumed.

path coefficient. The path coefficient is associated with a path; see path. Also see intercept.

path diagram. A path diagram is a graphical representation that shows the relationships among a set of variables using paths. See [SEM] intro 2 for a description of path diagrams.

path notation. Path notation is a syntax defined by the authors of Stata's sem and gsem commands for entering path diagrams in a command language. Models to be fit may be specified in path notation or they may be drawn using path diagrams into the Builder.

p-value. P-value is another term for the reported significance level associated with a test. Small p-values indicate rejection of the null hypothesis.

Poisson regression. Poisson regression is a term for generalized linear response functions that are family Poisson, link log. It is used for count data. See generalized linear response functions.

probit regression. Probit regression is a term for generalized linear response functions that are family Bernoulli, link probit. It is used for binary outcome data. Probit regression is also known simply as probit. See generalized linear response functions.

QML, method(ml) vce(robust). QML stands for quasimaximum likelihood. It is a method used to obtain fitted parameters and a technique used to obtain the corresponding VCE. QML is used by sem and gsem when options method(ml) and vce(robust) are specified. Other available methods are ML, MLMV, and ADF. Other available techniques are OIM, EIM, OPG, clustered, bootstrap, and jackknife.

quadrature. Quadrature is generic method for performing numerical integration. gsem uses quadrature in any model including latent variables (excluding error variables). sem, being limited to linear models, does not need to perform quadrature.

random-effects models. See multilevel models.

regression. A regression is a model in which an endogenous variable is written as a function of other variables, parameters to be estimated, and a random disturbance.

- **reliability**. Reliability is the proportion of the variance of a variable not due to measurement error. A variable without measure error has reliability 1.
- **residual**. In this manual, we reserve the word "residual" for the difference between the observed and fitted moments of an SEM. We use the word "error" for the disturbance associated with a (Gaussian) linear equation; see *error*. Also see *standardized residuals*.
- robust, vce(robust). Robust is the name we use here for the Huber/White/sandwich estimator of the VCE. This technique requires fewer assumptions than most other techniques. In particular, it merely assumes that the errors are independently distributed across observations and thus allows the errors to be heteroskedastic. Robust standard errors are reported when the sem (gsem) option vce(robust) is specified. The other available techniques are OIM, EIM, OPG, clustered, bootstrap, and jackknife.
- **saturated model**. A saturated model is a full covariance model—a model of fitted means and covariances of observed variables without any restrictions on the values. Also see *baseline model*. Saturated models apply only to standard linear SEMs.
- **score test, Lagrange multiplier test.** A score test is a test based on first derivatives of a likelihood function. Score tests are especially convenient for testing whether constraints on parameters should be relaxed or parameters should be added to a model. Also see *Wald test*.
- scores. Scores has two unrelated meanings. First, scores are the observation-by-observation first-derivatives of the (quasi) log-likelihood function. When we use the word "scores", this is what we mean. Second, in the factor-analysis literature, scores (usually in the context of factor scores) refers to the expected value of a latent variable conditional on all the observed variables. We refer to this simply as the predicted value of the latent variable.
- second-level latent variable. See first-, second-, and higher-order latent variables.
- second-order latent variable. See first- and second-order latent variables.
- **seemingly unrelated regression**. Seemingly unrelated regression is a kind of structural model in which each member of a set of observed endogenous variables is a function of a set of observed exogenous variables and a unique random disturbance term. The disturbances are correlated and the sets of exogenous variables may overlap. If the sets of exogenous variables are identical, this is referred to as multivariate regression.
- **SEM**. SEM stands for structural equation modeling and for structural equation model. We use SEM in capital letters when writing about theoretical or conceptual issues as opposed to issues of the particular implementation of SEM in Stata with the sem or gsem commands.
- sem. sem is the Stata command that fits standard linear SEMs. Also see gsem.
- SSD, ssd. See summary statistics data.
- **standard linear SEM**. An SEM without multilevel effects in which all response variables are given by a linear equation. Standard linear SEM is what most people mean when they refer to just SEM. Standard linear SEMs are fit by sem, although they can also be fit by gsem; see *generalized SEM*.
- **standardized coefficient**. In a linear equation $y=\ldots bx+\ldots$, the standardized coefficient β is $(\widehat{\sigma}_y/\widehat{\sigma}_x)b$. Standardized coefficients are scaled to units of standard deviation change in y for a standard deviation change in x.
- **standardized covariance**. A standardized covariance between y and x is equal to the correlation of y and x, that is, it is equal to $\sigma_{xy}/\sigma_x\sigma_y$. The covariance is equal to the correlation when variables are standardized to have variance 1.

- **standardized residuals**, **normalized residuals**. Standardized residuals are residuals adjusted so that they follow a standard normal distribution. The difficulty is that the adjustment is not always possible. Normalized residuals are residuals adjusted according to a different formula that roughly follow a standard normal distribution. Normalized residuals can always be calculated.
- **starting values**. The estimation methods provided by sem and gsem are iterative. The starting values are values for each of the parameters to be estimated that are used to initialize the estimation process. sem and gsem provide starting values automatically, but in some cases, these are not good enough and you must both diagnose the problem and provide better starting values. See [SEM] intro 12.
- **structural equation model**. Different authors use the term "structural equation model" in different ways, but all would agree that an SEM sometimes carries the connotation of being a structural model with a measurement component, that is, combined with a measurement model.
- **structural model**. A structural model is a model in which the parameters are not merely a description but are believed to be of a causal nature. Obviously, SEM can fit structural models and thus so can sem and gsem. Neither SEM, sem, nor gsem are limited to fitting structural models, however.

Structural models often have multiple equations and dependencies between endogenous variables, although that is not a requirement.

See [SEM] intro 5. Also see structural equation model.

structured (correlation or covariance). See unstructured and structured (correlation or covariance). **substantive constraints**. See identification.

- summary statistics data. Data are sometimes available only in summary statistics form, as means and covariances; means, standard deviations or variances, and correlations; covariances; standard deviations or variances and correlations; or correlations. SEM can be used to fit models with such data in place of the underlying raw data. The ssd command creates datasets containing summary statistics.
- **technique**. Technique is just an English word and should be read in context. Nonetheless, technique is usually used here to refer to the technique used to calculate the estimated VCE. Those techniques are OIM, EIM, OPG, robust, clustered, bootstrap, and jackknife.

Technique is also used to refer to the available techniques used with ml, Stata's optimizer and likelihood maximizer, to find the solution.

total effects. See direct, indirect, and total effects.

- unstandardized coefficient. A coefficient that is not standardized. If $mpg = -0.006 \times weight + 39.44028$, then -0.006 is an unstandardized coefficient and, as a matter of fact, is measured in mpg-per-pound units.
- unstructured and structured (correlation or covariance). A set of variables, typically error variables, is said to have an unstructured correlation or covariance if the covariance matrix has no particular pattern imposed by theory. If a pattern is imposed, the correlation or covariance is said to be structured.
- variance-covariance matrix of the estimator. The estimator is the formula used to solve for the fitted parameters, sometimes called the fitted coefficients. The VCE is the estimated variance-covariance matrix of the parameters. The diagonal elements of the VCE are the variances of the parameters or equivalent; the square roots of those elements are the reported standard errors of the parameters.

VCE. See variance—covariance matrix of the estimator.

- **Wald test**. A Wald test is a statistical test based on the estimated variance–covariance matrix of the parameters. Wald tests are especially convenient for testing possible constraints to be placed on the estimated parameters of a model. Also see *score test*.
- weighted least squares. Weighted least squares (WLS) is a method used to obtain fitted parameters. In this documentation, WLS is referred to as ADF, which stands for asymptotic distribution free. Other available methods are ML, QML, and MLMV. ADF is, in fact, a specific kind of the more generic WLS.

WLS. See weighted least squares.

Subject and author index

This is the subject and author index for the Structural Equation Modeling Reference Manual. Readers interested in topics other than structural equation modeling should see the combined subject index (and the combined author index) in the Glossary and Index.

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