

# COMPONENT-BASED PATH MODELING

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## SEM: historical corner

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## Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

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**Structural Equation Models (SEM)** are complex models allowing us to study real world complexity by taking into account a whole number of **causal relationships among latent concepts** (i.e. the Latent Variables, LVs), each measured by several observed indicators usually defined as Manifest Variables (MVs).

### Key concepts:

**Latent variables** (unobservable by a direct way): abstract psychological variables like «intelligence», «attitude toward the brand», «satisfaction», «social status», «ability», «trust».

**Manifest variables** are used to measure latent concepts and they contain sizable measurement errors to be taken into account: multiple measures are allowed to be associated with a single construct.

Measurement is recognized as difficult and error-prone: the **measurement error is explicitly modeled** seeking to derive unbiased estimates for the relationships between latent constructs.

## Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

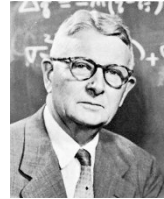
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Several fields played a role in developing Structural Equation Models :

- From **Psychology**, comes the belief that the measurement of a valid construct **cannot rely on a single measure**.
- From **Economics** comes the conviction that **strong theoretical specification** is necessary for the estimation of parameters.
- From **Sociology** comes the notion of **ordering theoretical variables** and decomposing types of effects.

## Sewall Wright and Path Analysis

**Sewall Wright** (21 December 1889 – 3 March 1988)  
American Geneticist, son of the economist Philip Wright



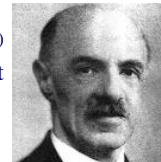
Path Analysis has been developed in the 20s by S. Wright to investigate genetic problems and to help his father in economic studies.

Path Analysis aims to study cause-effect relations among several variables by looking at the correlation matrix stemming from them.

The main novelty is the introduction of a new tool to investigate cause-effect relations: the path diagram

## Factor Analysis and the idea of Latent Variable

**Charles Edward Spearman** (10 September 1863 – 17 September 1945)  
English psychologist



C. Spearman proposed Factor Analysis (FA) at the beginning of the 20th century to measure intelligence in an “objective” way.

The main idea is that intelligence is a MULTIDIMENSIONAL issue, thus the correlation observed among several variables should be explained by a unique underlying “factor”.

The most important input from Factor Analysis is the introduction of the concept of “factor”, in other words of the concept of Latent Variable

## Thurstone and Multiple Factor Analysis

Spearman approach has been modified in the following 40 years in order to consider more than one factor as the “cause” of observed correlation among several set of manifest variables.

**Louis Thurstone** (29 May 1887–30 September 1955)

is the father of the Multiple Factor Analysis

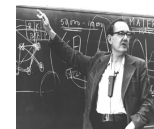


**Herman Wold** (25 december 1908 – 16 february 1992)

In the 50' s he meets Thurstone. They decide to co-organize “the Upspsala Symposium on Psychological Factor Analysis”. Since then, H. Wold started working on Latent Variable models.

## Causal models rediscovered

**Herbert Simon** (June, 15 1916 – February 9, 2001)  
Economist – Nobel Prize for economic in 1978



In 1954 presents a paper proving that “*under certain assumptions correlation is an index of causality*”



**Hubert M. Blalock** (23 Augut 1926 – 8 Febrary 1991)  
Sociologist

In 1964 published the book “Causal Inference in Nonexperimental Research”, in which he defines methods able to make causal inference starting from the observed covariance matrix. He faces the problem of assessing relations among variables by means of the inferential method.

They developed the SIMON-BLALOCK techinque



## Path analysis and Causal models

Otis D. Duncan

(December, 2 1921– November, 16 2004)



He was one of the leading sociologists in the world. He introduces the Path Analysis of Wright in Sociology.

In the mid-60's, he comes to the conclusion that there is no difference between the Path Analysis of Wright and the Simon-Blalock model.

With the economist Arthur Goldberger he comes to the conclusion that **there is no difference between what was known in sociology as Path Analysis and simultaneous equations models commonly used in econometrics.**

Along with Goldberger he organizes a conference in 1970 in Madison (USA) where he invited Karl Jöreskog.

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## Covariance Structure Analysis and K. Jöreskog

Karl Jöreskog

is Professor at Uppsala University, Sweden



In the late 50's, he started working with Herman Wold. He discussed a thesis on Factor Analysis.

In the second half of the 60's, he started collaborating with O.D. Duncan and A. Goldberger. This collaboration represents a meeting between Factor Analysis (and the concept of latent variable) and Path Analysis (i.e. the idea behind causal models).

**In 1970, at a conference organized by Duncan and Goldberger, Jöreskog presented the Covariance Structure Analysis (CSA) for estimating a linear structural equation system, later known as LISREL**

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## Soft Modeling and H. Wold

### Herman Wold

(December 25, 1908 – February 16, 1992)  
Econometrician and Statistician

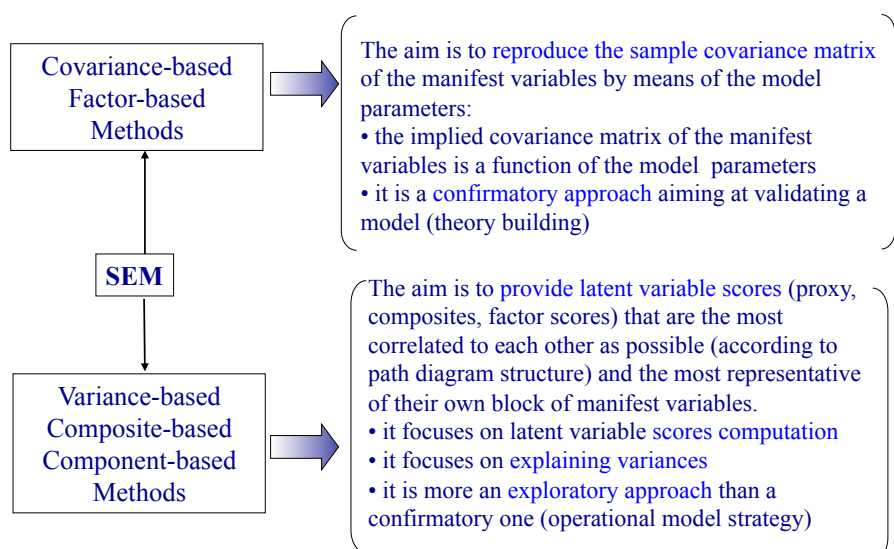


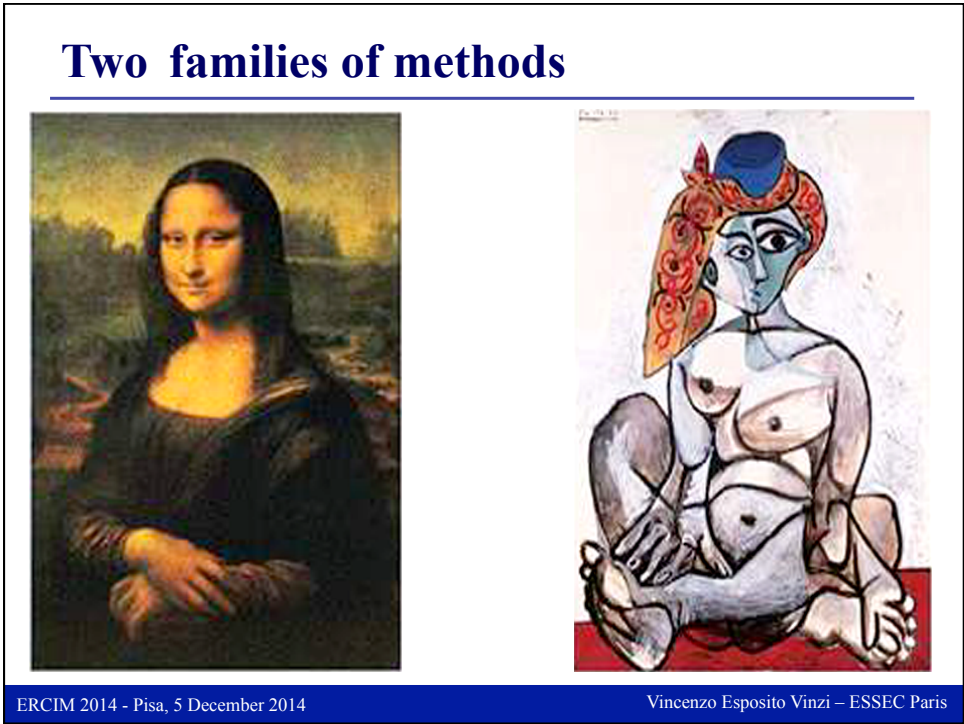
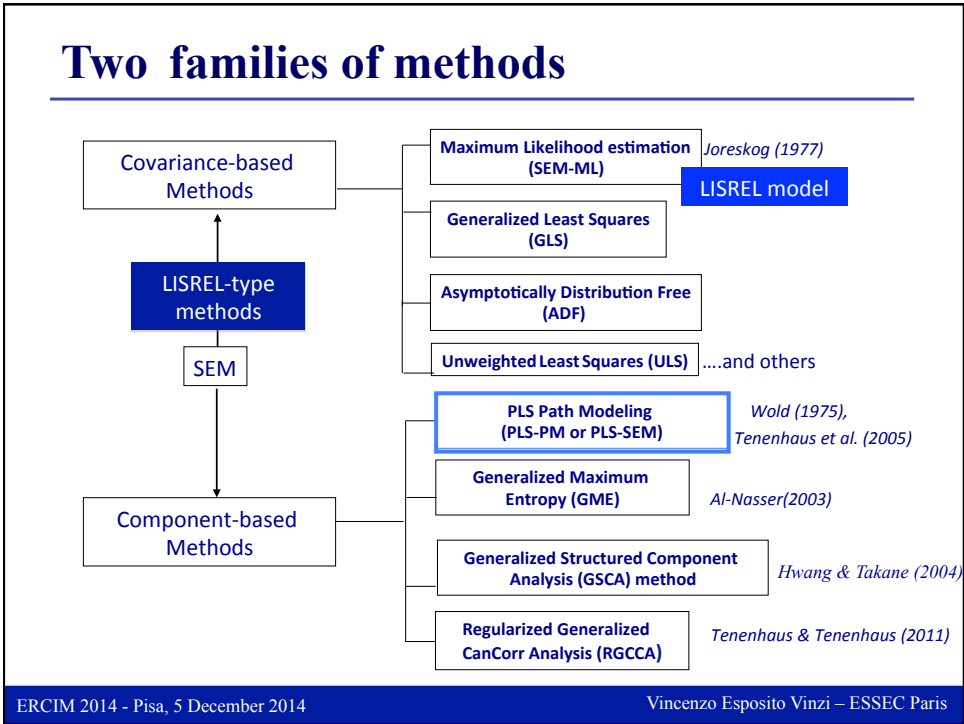
In 1975, H. Wold extended the basic principles of an iterative algorithm aimed to the estimation of the PCs (NIPALS) to a more general procedure for the estimation of relations among several blocks of variables linked by a network of relations specified by a path diagram.

The PLS Path Modeling avoids restrictive hypothesis, i.e. multivariate normality and large samples, underlying maximum likelihood techniques.

It was proposed to estimate Structural Equation Models (SEM) parameters, as a **Soft Modeling** alternative to Jöreskog's Covariance Structure Analysis

## Two families of methods





## Structural Equation Modeling

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Quite a **few (statistical) hypotheses** are usually needed

Important **theoretical knowledge** has to be available **for the model specification**:

- **Measurement** model  
(what manifest variables are exclusively measuring what concept)
- Direction of links between manifest and latent variables  
(**outwards or inwards**, i.e. reflective vs. formative)
- Network of **structural relationships**  
("causality" direction, "predictive path", feedbacks, hidden?)

Confirmatory vs. Exploratory

## Structural Equation Models: two approaches

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In **component-based SEM** the latent variables are defined as **components** or weighted sums of the manifest variables

→ they are **fixed variables** (linear composites, scores)

In **covariance-based SEMs** the latent variables are equivalent to **common factors**

→ they are **theoretical (and random) variables**

This leads to different parameters to estimate for latent variables, i.e.:

→ **factor means and variances** in covariance-based methods

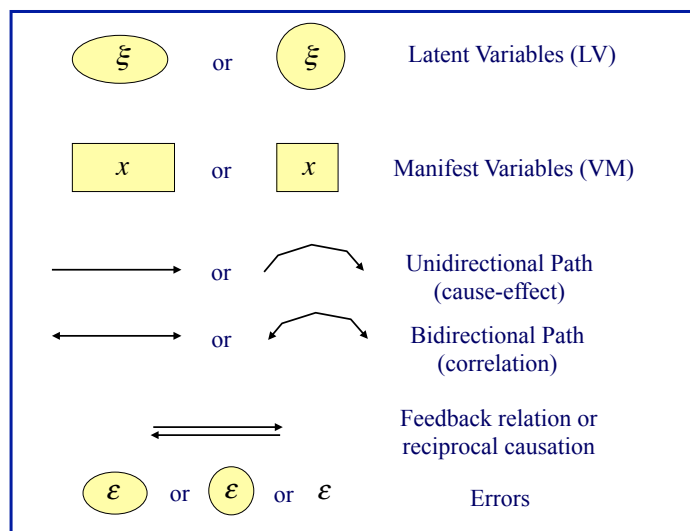
→ **weights** in component based approaches

## SEM: inner, outer and global model

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## SEM: drawing conventions



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## Structural Equation models: notation

- P manifest variables (MVs) observed on  $n$  units

→  $x_{pq}$  generic MV

- Q latent variables (LVs)

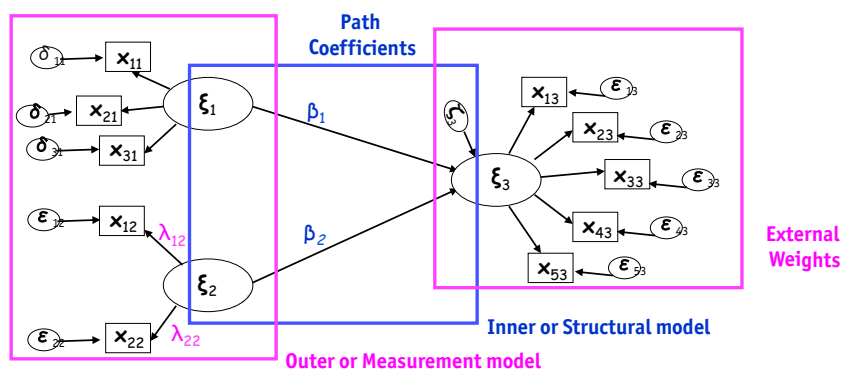
→  $\xi_q$  generic LV

- Q blocks composed by each LV and the corresponding MVs

→ in each  $q$ -th block  $p_q$  manifest variables  $x_{pq}$ , with  $\sum_{q=1}^Q p_q = P$

N.B. Greek characters are used to refer to Latent Variables  
Latin characters refer to Manifest Variables

## Structural Equation models: notation

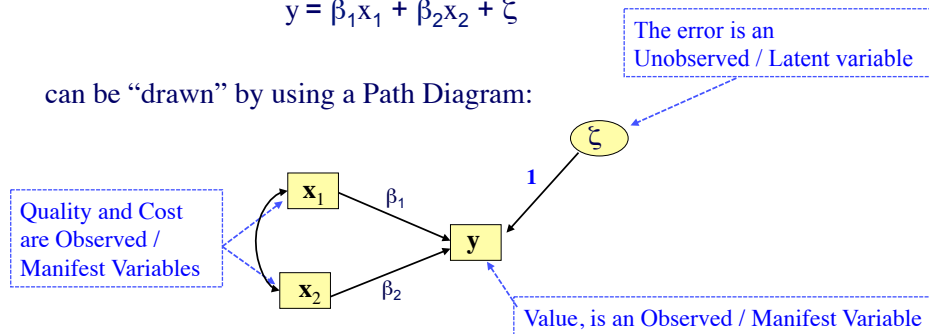


## “Drawing” a regression model

The multiple regression model (on centred variables) :

$$y = \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \zeta$$

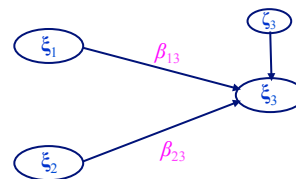
can be “drawn” by using a Path Diagram:



**Example:** The Value for a brand in terms of Quality and Cost

## PLS Path Model Equations: inner model

The structural model describes the relations among the latent variables



For each endogenous LV in the model it can be written as:

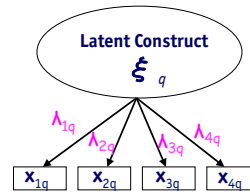
$$\xi_{q^*} = \sum_{j=1}^J \beta_{jq^*} \xi_j + \zeta_{q^*}$$

where:

- $\beta_{jq^*}$  is the path-coefficient linking the  $j$ -th LV to the  $q^*$ -th endogenous LV
- $J$  is the number of the explanatory LVs impacting on  $\xi_{q^*}$

## PLS Path Model Equations: inner model

The measurement model describes the relations among the manifest variables and the corresponding latent variable.



For each MV in the model it can be written as:

$$\mathbf{X}_{pq} = \lambda_{pq} \xi_q + \varepsilon_{pq}$$

where:

-  $\lambda_{pq}$  is a loading term linking the  $q$ -th LV to the  $p$ -th MV

## Weight relation – Linear composite

In component-based approach a weight relation defines the casewise scores of each latent variable as a weighted aggregate of its own MVs:

$$\xi_q = \mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q$$



# PLS-PM Algorithm

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## PLS path modeling

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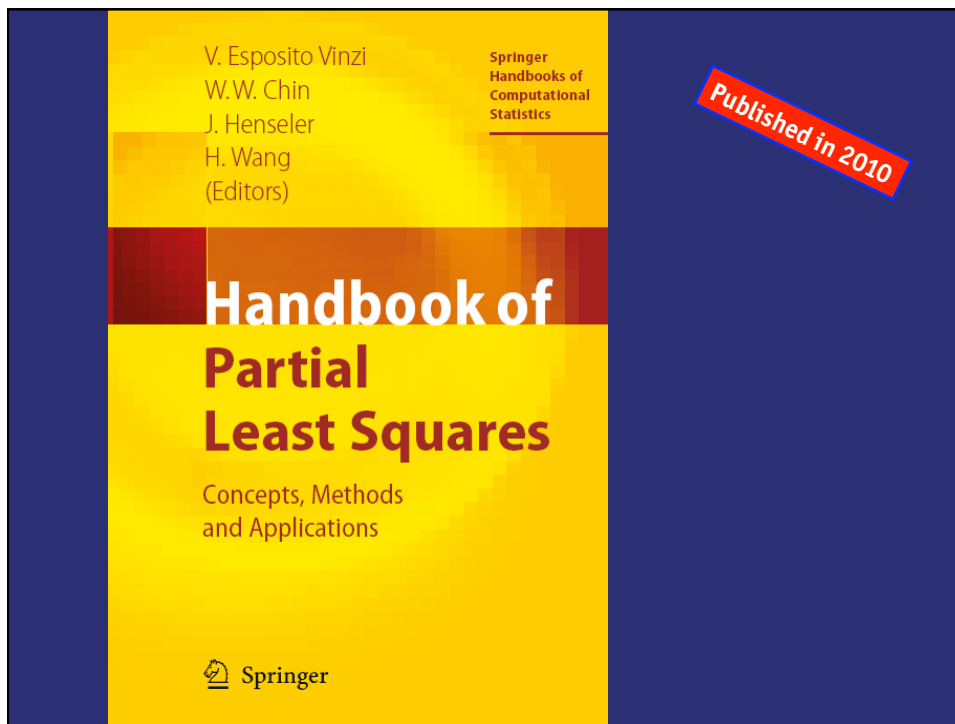
### Abstract

A presentation of the Partial Least Squares approach to Structural Equation Modeling (or PLS Path Modeling) is given together with a discussion of its extensions. This approach is compared with the estimation of Structural Equation Modeling by means of maximum likelihood (SEM-ML). Notwithstanding, this approach still shows some weaknesses. In this respect, some new improvements are proposed. Furthermore, PLS path modeling can be used for analyzing multiple tables so as to be related to more classical data analysis methods used in this field. Finally, a complete treatment of a real example is shown through the available software.  
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**Keywords:** Structural equation modeling; Partial least squares; PLS approach; Multiple table analysis

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## Partial LEAST Squares StrUctural Relationship Estimation

XLSTAT-PLSPM software ([www.xlstat.com](http://www.xlstat.com))

currently developed by:  
Y.M. Chatelin, V. Esposito Vinzi, T. Fahmy,  
E. Jakobowicz, M. Tenenhaus

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## PLS-PM approach in 4 steps

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### 1) Computation of the outer weights

Outer weights  $w_q$  are obtained by means of an iterative algorithm based on alternating LV estimations in the structural and in the measurement models

### 2) Computation of the LV scores (composites)

Latent variable scores are obtained as weighted aggregates of their own MVs:

$$\hat{\xi}_q \propto \mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q$$

### 3) Estimation of the path coefficients

Path coefficients are estimated as regression coefficients according to the structural model

### 4) Estimation of the loadings

Loadings are estimated as regression coefficients according to the measurement model

## PLS Path Model: the algorithm

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The aim of the PLS-PM algorithm is to define a system of weights to be applied at each block of MVs in order to estimate the corresponding LV, according to the weight relation:

$$\hat{\xi}_q \propto \mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q$$

This goal is achieved by means of an iterative algorithm based on two main steps:

- the outer estimation step
  - Latent Variable proxies = weighted aggregates of MVs
- the inner estimation step
  - Latent Variable proxies = weighted aggregates of connected LVs

## A focus on the Outer Estimation

### External (Outer) Estimation

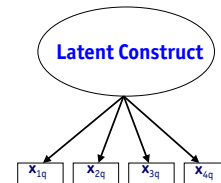
Composites = weighted aggregates of manifest variables

$$\mathbf{t}_q \propto \sum_q w_{pq} \mathbf{x}_{pq} = \mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q$$

Mode A (for outwards directed links – reflective – principal factor model):

$$w_{pq} = (1/n) \mathbf{x}_{pq}^T \mathbf{z}_q$$

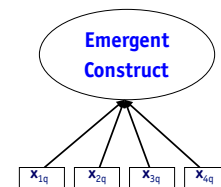
- These indicators **should covary**
- Several **simple OLS** regressions
- Explained Variance (higher **AVE**, communality)
- Internal Consistency
- **Stability of results** with well-defined blocks



Mode B (for inwards directed links – formative – composite LV):

$$\mathbf{w}_q = (\mathbf{X}_q^T \mathbf{X}_q)^{-1} \mathbf{X}_q^T \mathbf{z}_q$$

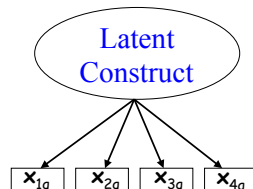
- These indicators **should covary**
- One **multiple OLS** regression (multicollinearity?)
- Structural Predictions (higher **R<sup>2</sup> values** for endogenous LVs)
- Multidimensionality (even partial, by sub-blocks)
- Might incur in **unstable results** with ill-defined blocks



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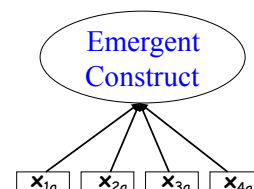
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## Latent or Emergent Constructs?



Reflective (or Effects) Indicators

- e.g. Consumer's attitudes, feelings
- Constructs **give rise** to observed variables (unique cause → unidimensional)
  - Aim at **accounting for observed variances** or covariances
  - These indicators **should covary**: changes in one indicator imply changes in the others.
  - **Internal consistency** is measured (es. Cronbach's alpha)



Formative (or Causal) Indicators

- e.g. Social Status, Perceptions
- Constructs are **combinations of observed variables (multidimensional)**
  - Not designed to account for observed variables
  - These indicators **need not covary**: changes in one indicator do not imply changes in the others.
  - Measures of internal consistency **do not apply**.

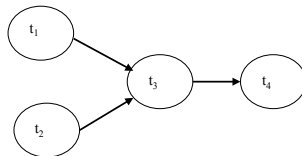
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## A focus on Inner Estimation

### Inner Estimation

Latent Variable proxies = weighted aggregates of connected LVs



$$\mathbf{z}_q \propto \sum_{q'} e_{qq'} \mathbf{t}_{q'}$$

1. **Centroid scheme:**  $\mathbf{z}_3 = e_{13}\mathbf{t}_1 + e_{23}\mathbf{t}_2 + e_{43}\mathbf{t}_4$  where  $e_{qq'} = \text{sign}(\text{cor}(\mathbf{t}_q, \mathbf{t}_{q'}))$

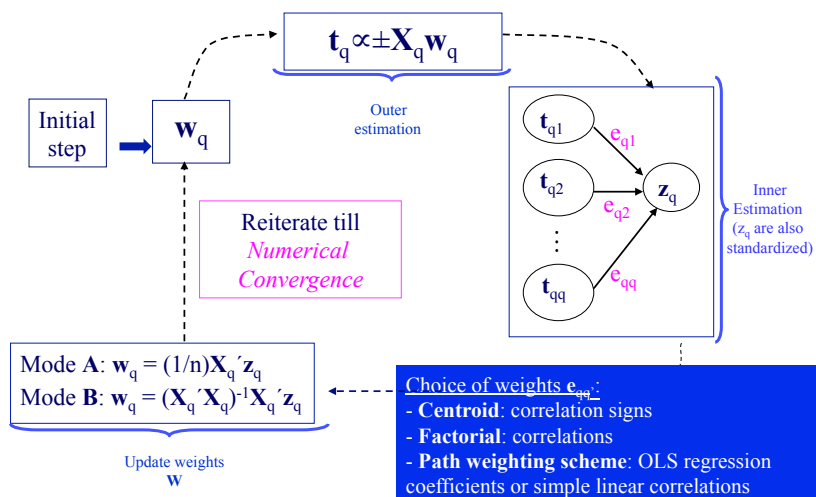
2. **Factorial scheme:**  $\mathbf{z}_3 = \text{cor}(\mathbf{t}_3, \mathbf{t}_1) * \mathbf{t}_1 + \text{cor}(\mathbf{t}_3, \mathbf{t}_2) * \mathbf{t}_2 + \text{cor}(\mathbf{t}_3, \mathbf{t}_4) * \mathbf{t}_4$

3. **Path weighting scheme:**  $\mathbf{z}_3 = \hat{\gamma}_{31} \times \mathbf{t}_1 + \hat{\gamma}_{32} \times \mathbf{t}_2 + \text{cor}(\mathbf{t}_3, \mathbf{t}_4) \times \mathbf{t}_4$

Where the  $\gamma$ 's are the regression coefficients of the model:  $\mathbf{t}_3 = \gamma_{31} \times \mathbf{t}_1 + \gamma_{32} \times \mathbf{t}_2 + \delta$

## The PLS Path Modeling algorithm

MVs are centered or standardized



## PLS-PM Optimizing Criteria

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## Optimization Criteria behind the PLS-PM

### Full Mode B PLS-PM

Glang (1988) and Mathes (1993) showed that the stationary equation of a “full mode B” PLS-PM solves this optimization criterion:

$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{w}_q} \left\{ \sum_{q \neq q'} c_{qq'} g \left( \text{cor} \left( \mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q, \mathbf{X}_{q'} \mathbf{w}_{q'} \right) \right) \right\}$$

s.t.  $\|\mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q\| = 1$

where:

$$c_{qq'} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{X}_q \text{ and } \mathbf{X}_{q'} \text{ is connected} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$g = \begin{cases} \text{square} & \text{(Factorial scheme)} \\ \text{absolute value} & \text{(Centroid scheme)} \end{cases}$$

Hanafi (2007) proved that PLS-PM iterative algorithm is monotonically convergent to these criteria

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## Optimization Criteria behind PLS-PM

### Full Mode A PLS-PM

Kramer (2007) showed that “full Mode A” PLS-PM algorithm is not based on a stationary equation related to the optimization of a twice differentiable function

### Full **NEW** Mode A PLS-PM

In 2007 Kramer showed also that a slightly adjusted PLS-PM iterative algorithm (in which a **normalization constraint is put on outer weights** rather than latent variable scores) we obtain a stationary point of the following optimization problem:

$$\arg \max_{\|\mathbf{w}_q\|=1} \left\{ \sum_{q \neq q'} c_{qq'} g \left( \text{cov}(\mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q, \mathbf{X}_{q'} \mathbf{w}_{q'}) \right) \right\}$$

Tenenhaus and Tenenhaus (2011) proved that the modified algorithm proposed by Kramer **is monotonically convergent to this criterion**.

## Optimization Criteria behind PLS-PM

A general criterion for PLS-PM, in which (New) Mode A and B are mixed, can be written as follows:

$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{w}_q} \left\{ \sum_{q \neq q'} c_{qq'} g \left( \text{cov}(\mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q, \mathbf{X}_{q'} \mathbf{w}_{q'}) \right) \right\} =$$

$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{w}_q} \left\{ \sum_{q \neq q'} c_{qq'} g \left[ \text{cor}(\mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q, \mathbf{X}_{q'} \mathbf{w}_{q'}) \sqrt{\text{var}(\mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q)} \sqrt{\text{var}(\mathbf{X}_{q'} \mathbf{w}_{q'})} \right] \right\}$$

**s.t.**  $\|\mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q\| = 1$  if Mode B for block  $q$   
 $\|\mathbf{w}_q\| = 1$  if New Mode A for block  $q$

**The empirical evidence shows that Mode A (unknown) criterion is approximated by the New Mode A criterion**

## PLS-PM « special » cases

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## PLS-PM SPECIAL CASES

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- Principal component analysis
- Multiple factor analysis
- Canonical correlation analysis
- Redundancy analysis
- PLS Regression
- Generalized canonical correlation analysis (Horst)
- Generalized canonical correlation analysis (Carroll)
- Multiple Co-inertia Analysis (MCOA) (Chessel & Hanafi, 1996)

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## One block case

### Principal Component Analysis through PLS-PM\*

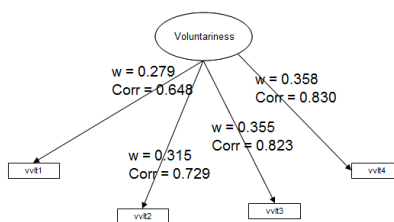
#### SPSS results (principal components)

Component Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Component
	1
VVL11	.648
VVL12	.729
VVL13	.823
VVL14	.830

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.  
a. 1 components extracted.

#### XL-STAT graphical results

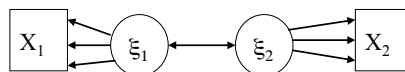


\* Results from W.W. Chin slides on PLS-PM

## Two block case

#### Tucker Inter-batteries Analysis (1st component)

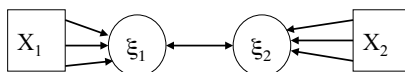
$$\arg \max_{\|w_1\|=\|w_2\|=1} \{ \text{cov}(X_1 w_1, X_2 w_2) \}$$



Mode A for X<sub>1</sub>, Mode A for X<sub>2</sub>

#### Canonical Correlation Analysis (1st component)

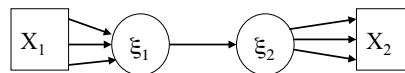
$$\arg \max_{\text{var}(X_1 w_1) = \text{var}(X_2 w_2) = 1} \{ \text{cov}(X_1 w_1, X_2 w_2) \}$$



Mode B for X<sub>1</sub>, Mode B for X<sub>2</sub>

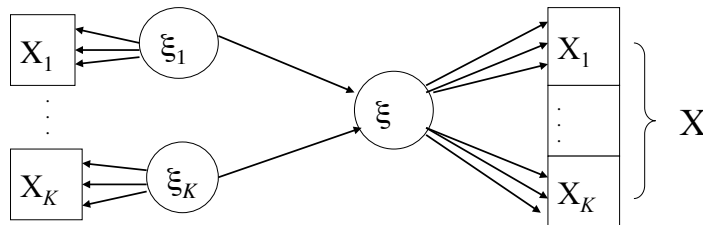
#### Redundancy Analysis (1st component)

$$\arg \max_{\|w_1\|=\|w_2\|=1} \{ \text{cov}(X_1 w_1, X_2 w_2) \}$$



Mode B for X<sub>1</sub>, Mode A for X<sub>2</sub>

## Hierarchical Models



### Mode A + Path Weighting

- Lohmöller's Split PCA
- Multiple Factorial Analysis by Escofier and Pagès
- Horst's Maximum Variance Algorithm
- Multiple Co-Inertia Analysis (ACOM) by Chessel and Hanafi

$$\arg \max_{\text{var}(\mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{w}_k)=1, \mathbf{Xw}=\sum_k \mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{w}_k} \left\{ \sum_k \text{cov}^2(\mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{w}_k, \mathbf{Xw}) \right\}$$

### Mode B + Factorial

- Generalised Canonical Correlation Analysis (Carroll)

$$\arg \max_{\text{var}(\mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{w}_k)=1, \mathbf{Xw}=\sum_k \mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{w}_k} \left\{ \sum_k \text{cor}(\mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{w}_k, \mathbf{Xw}) \right\}$$

### Mode B + Centroid

- Generalised CCA (Horst's SUMCOR criterion)
- Mathes (1993) & Hanafi (2004)

$$\arg \max_{\text{var}(\mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{w}_k)=1, \mathbf{Xw}=\sum_k \mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{w}_k} \left\{ \sum_k \text{cor}^2(\mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{w}_k, \mathbf{Xw}) \right\}$$

## Wine Tasting: Loire Wine Multiblock Dataset (Pagès, Asselin, Morlat & Robichet 1987)

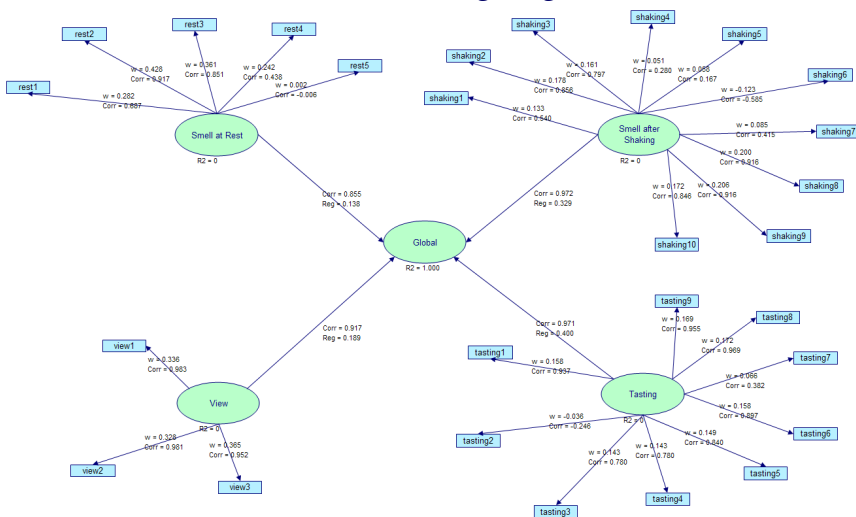
4 blocks of variables      3 Appellations      4 Soils      21 observed wines

	2el (Saumur),1	1cha (Saumur),1	1fon (Bourgueil),1	1vau (Chinon),3	...	t1 (Saumur),4	t2 (Saumur),4
$X_1$	Smell intensity at rest	3.07	2.96	2.86	2.81	3.70	3.71
	Aromatic quality at rest	3.00	2.82	2.93	2.59	3.19	2.93
	Fruity note at rest	2.71	2.38	2.56	2.42	2.83	2.52
	Floral note at rest	2.28	2.28	1.96	1.91	1.83	2.04
	Spicy note at rest	1.96	1.68	2.08	2.16	2.38	2.67
$X_2$	Visual intensity	4.32	3.22	3.54	2.89	4.32	4.32
	Shading (orange to purple)	4.00	3.00	3.39	2.79	4.00	4.11
	Surface impression	3.27	2.81	3.00	2.54	3.33	3.26
	Smell intensity after shaking	3.41	3.37	3.25	3.16	3.74	3.73
$X_3$	Smell quality after shaking	3.31	3.00	2.93	2.88	3.08	2.88
	Fruity note after shaking	2.88	2.56	2.77	2.39	2.83	2.60
	Floral note after shaking	2.32	2.44	2.19	2.08	1.77	2.08
	Spicy note after shaking	1.84	1.74	2.25	2.17	2.44	2.61
	Vegetable note after shaking	2.00	2.00	1.75	2.30	2.29	2.17
	Phenolic note after shaking	1.65	1.38	1.25	1.48	1.57	1.65
	Aromatic intensity in mouth	3.26	2.96	3.08	2.54	3.44	3.10
	Aromatic persistence in mouth	3.26	2.96	3.08	2.54	3.44	3.10
	Aromatic quality in mouth	3.26	2.96	3.08	2.54	3.44	3.10
	$X_4$	Intensity of attack	2.96	3.04	3.22	2.70	2.96
Acidity		2.11	2.11	2.18	3.18	2.41	2.57
Astringency		2.43	2.18	2.25	2.18	2.64	2.67
Alcohol		2.50	2.65	2.64	2.50	2.96	2.70
Balance (Acid., Astr., Alco.)		3.25	2.93	3.32	2.33	2.57	2.77
Mellowness		2.73	2.50	2.68	1.68	2.07	2.31
Bitterness		1.93	1.93	2.00	1.96	2.22	2.67
Ending intensity in mouth		2.86	2.89	3.07	2.46	3.04	3.33
Harmony		3.14	2.96	3.14	2.04	2.74	3.00
Global quality		3.39	3.21	3.54	2.46	2.64	2.85

$X_1 = \text{Smell at rest (5)}$ ,  $X_2 = \text{View (3)}$ ,  $X_3 = \text{Smell after shaking (10)}$ ,  $X_4 = \text{Tasting (9)}$

## Hierarchical PLS Model: Wine data

### Mode A + Path Weighting

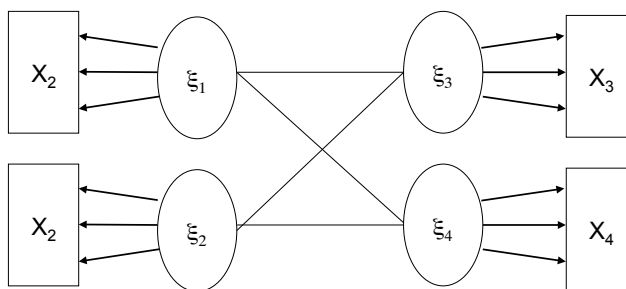


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## 'Confirmatory' PLS Model

Each LV is connected to all the others



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## PLS criteria for multiple table analysis

Method	Criterion $(F_k = X_k w_k, F = Xw)$	PLS path model	Mode	Scheme
(1) SUMCOR (Horst 1961)	$Max \sum_{j,k} Cor(F_j, F_k)$ or $Max \sum_j Cor(F_j, \sum_k F_k)$	Hierarchical	B	Centroid
(2) MAXVAR (Horst 1961) or GCCA (Carroll 1968)	$Max \{\lambda_{first}[Cor(F_j, F_k)]\}$ (a) or $Max \sum_j Cor^2(F_j, F_{j+1})$	Hierarchical	B	Factorial
(3) SsqCor (Kettenring 1971)	$Max \sum_{j,k} Cor^2(F_j, F_k)$	Confirmatory	B	Factorial
(4) GenVar (Kettenring 1971)	$Min \{\det[Cor(F_j, F_k)]\}$			
(5) MINVAR (Kettenring 1971)	$Min \{\lambda_{last}[Cor(F_j, F_k)]\}$ (b)			
(6) Lafosse (1989)	$Max \sum_j Cor^2(F_j, \sum_k F_k)$			
(7) Mathes (1993) or Hanafi (2005)	$Max \sum_{j,k}  Cor(F_j, F_k) $	Confirmatory	B	Centroid
(8) MAXDIFF (Van de Geer, 1984 & Ten Berge, 1988)	$Max_{all} \ w_j\ =1 \sum_{j \neq k} Cov(X_j w_j, X_k w_k)$			
(9) MAXBET (Van de Geer, 1984 & Ten Berge, 1988)	$Max_{all} \ w_j\ =1 \sum_{j,k} Cov(X_j w_j, X_k w_k)$			
(10) MAXDIFF B (Hanafi and Kiers 2006)	$Max_{all} \ w_j\ =1 \sum_{j \neq k} Cov^2(X_j w_j, X_k w_k)$			

From Tenenhaus and Hanafi (2010)

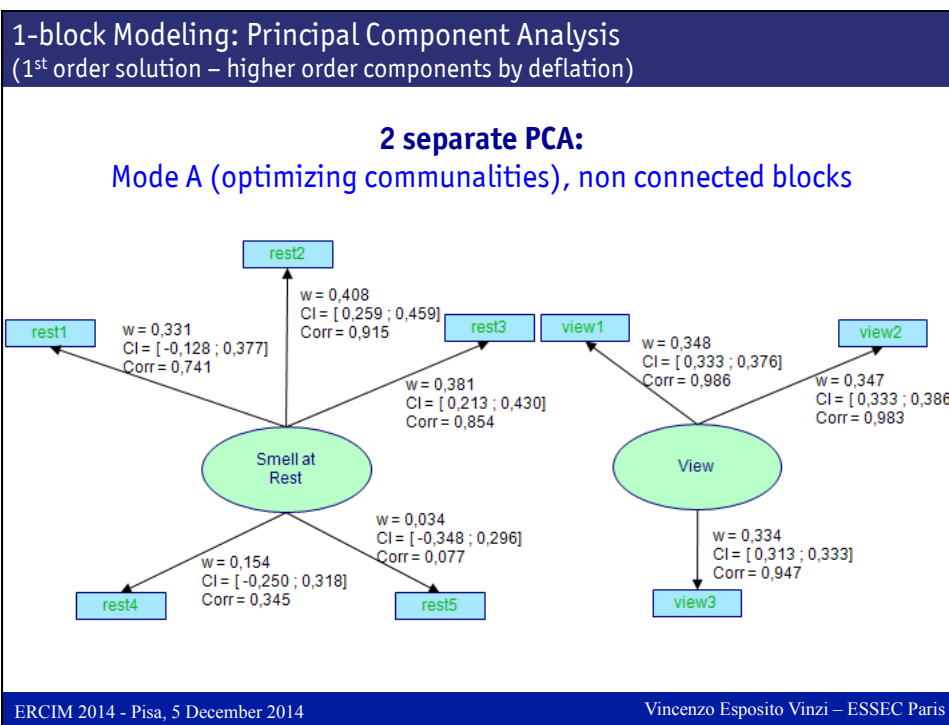
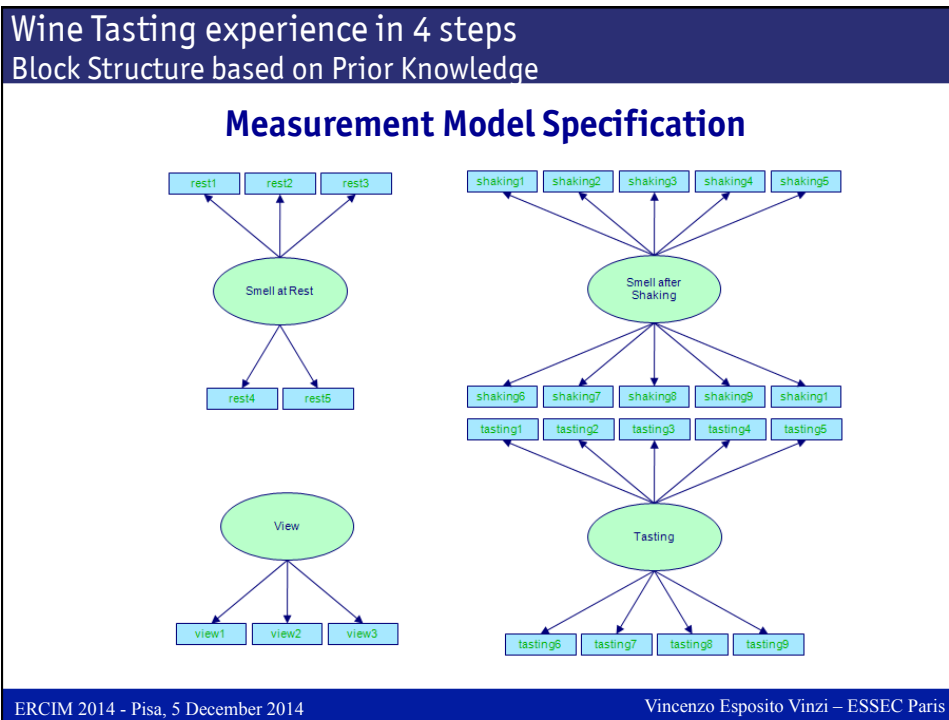
(a)  $\lambda_{first}[Cor(F_j, F_k)]$  is the first eigenvalue of block LV correlation matrix.  
 (b)  $\lambda_{last}[Cor(F_j, F_k)]$  is the last eigenvalue of block LV correlation matrix.

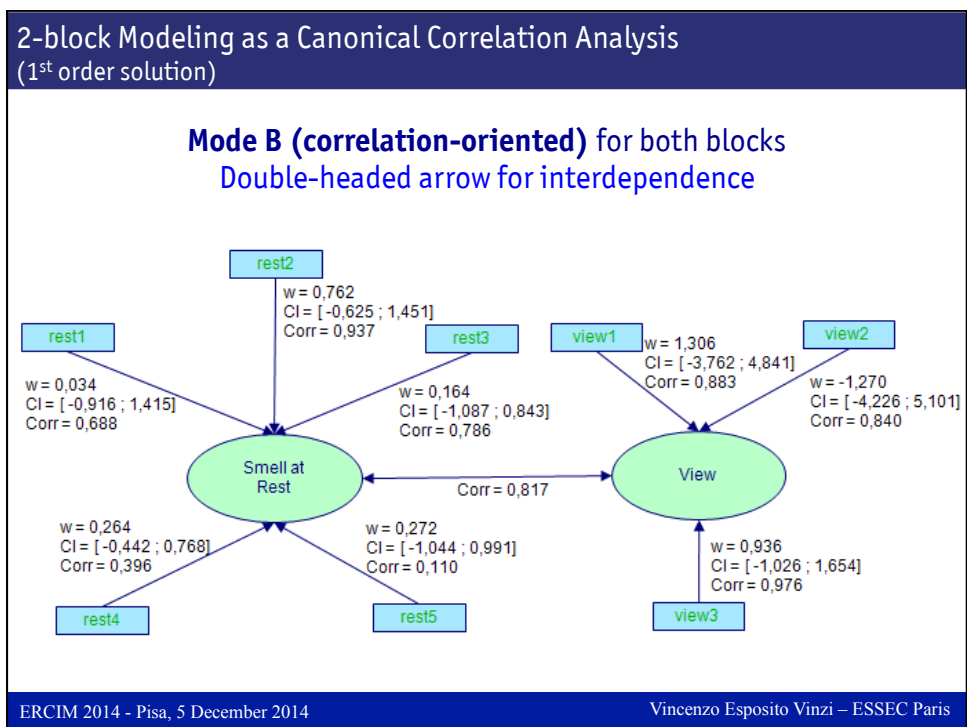
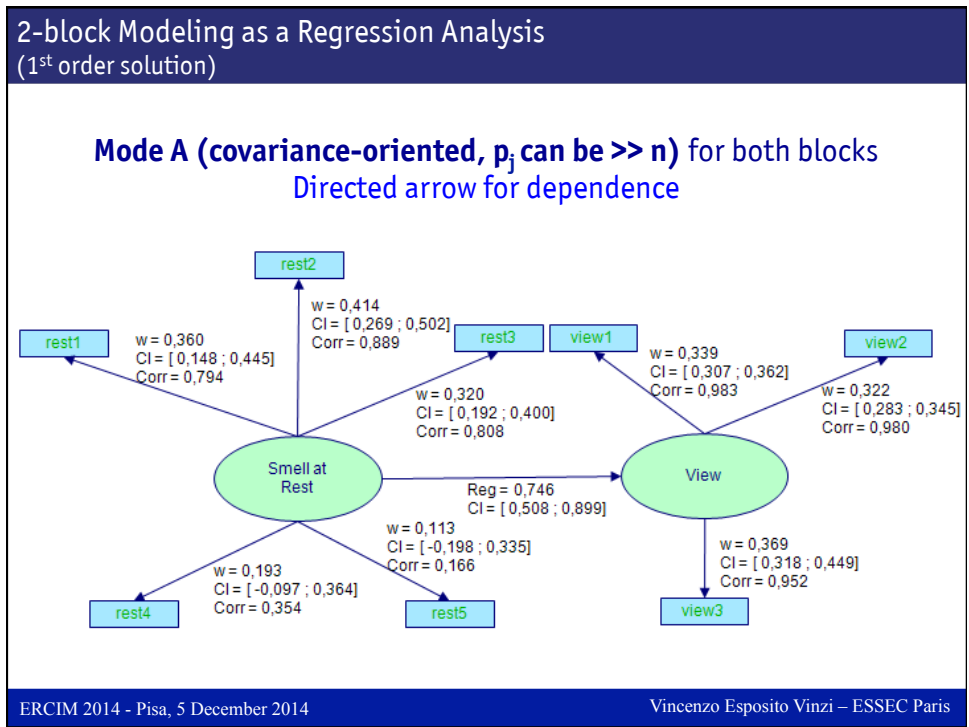
## PLS criteria for multiple table analysis

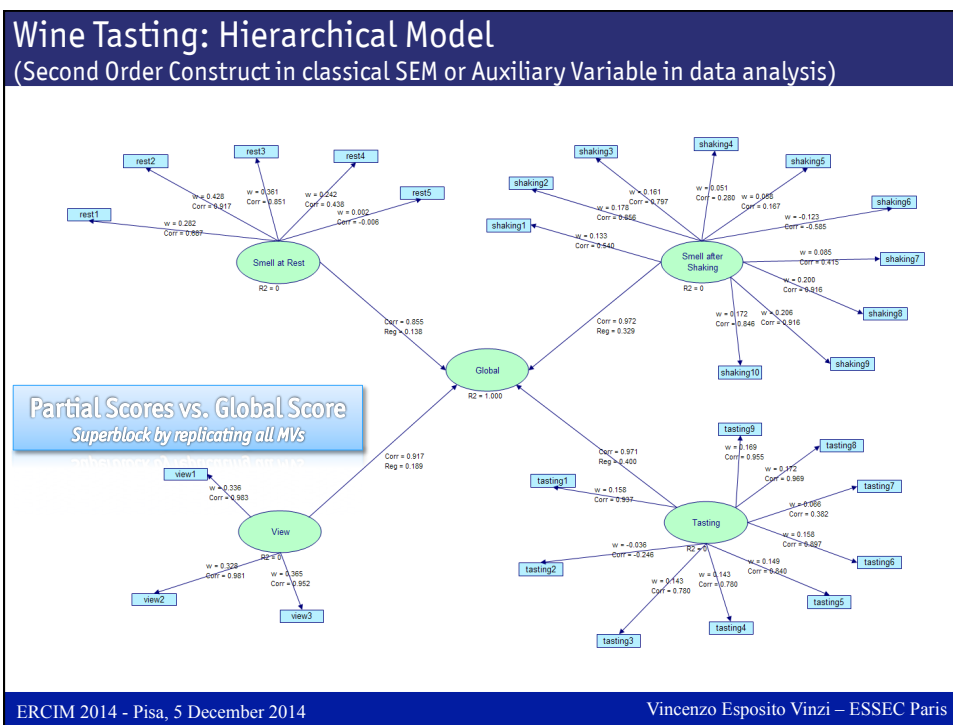
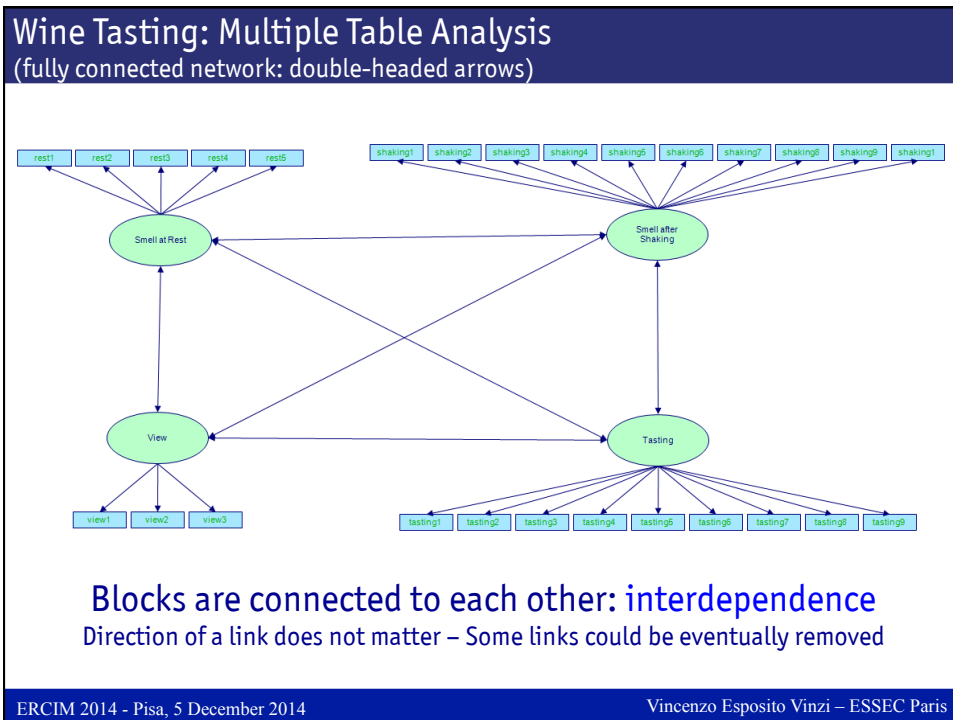
Method	Criterion	PLS path model	Mode	Scheme
(11) (Hanafi and Kiers 2006)	$Max_{all} \ w_j\ =1 \sum_{j \neq k}  Cov(X_j w_j, X_k w_k) $			
(12) ACOM (Chessel and Hanafi 1996) or Split PCA (Lohmöller 1989)	$Max_{all} \ w_j\ =1 \sum_j Cov^2(X_j w_j, X_{j+1} w_{j+1})$ or $Min_{F,p_j} \sum_j \ X_j - F p_j^T\ ^2$	Hierarchical	A	Path-weighting
(13) CCSWA (Hanafi et al., 2006) or HPCA (Wold et al., 1996)	$Max_{all} \ w_j\ =1, Var(F)=1 \sum_j Cov^4(X_j w_j, F)$ or $Min_{\ F\ =1} \sum_j \ X_j X_j^T - \lambda_j F F^T\ ^2$			
(14) Generalized PCA (Casin 2001)	$Max \sum_j R^2(F, X_j) \sum_h Cor^2(x_{jh}, \hat{F}_j)$ (c)			
(15) MFA (Escofier and Pagès 1994)	$Min_{F,p_j} \sum_j \left\  \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{first}[Cor(x_{jh}, x_{j\ell})]}} X_j - F p_j^T \right\ ^2$	Hierarchical (applied to the reduced $X_j$ ) (d)	A	Path-weighting
(16) Oblique maximum variance method (Horst 1965)	$Min_{F,p_j} \sum_j \left\  X_j \left( \frac{1}{n} X_j^T X_j \right)^{-1/2} - F p_j^T \right\ ^2$	Hierarchical (applied to the transformed $X_j$ ) (e)	A	Path-weighting

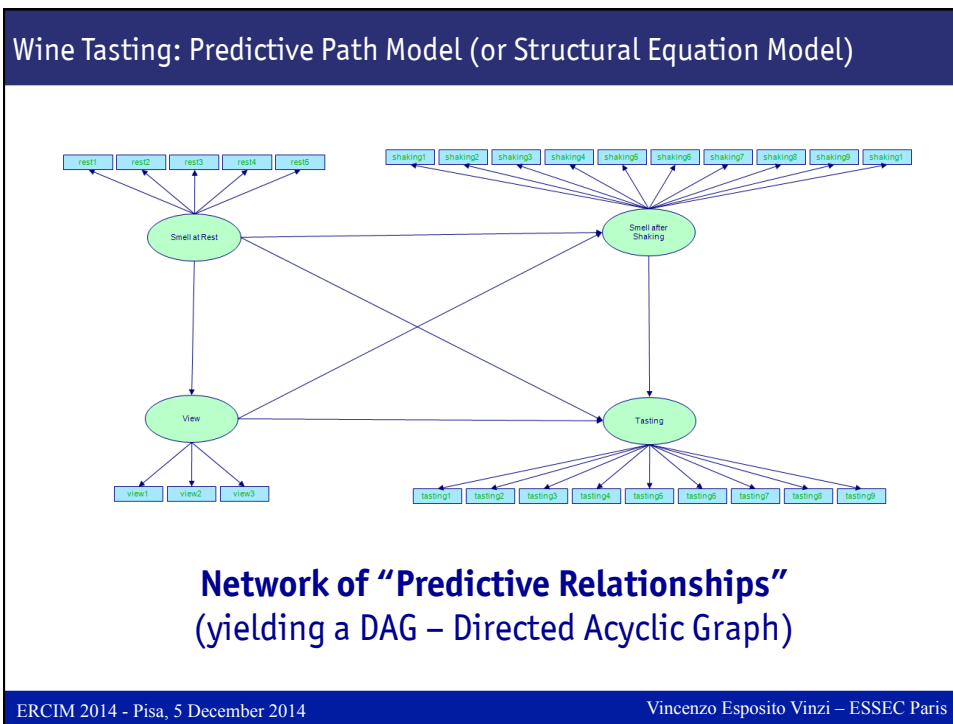
From Tenenhaus and Hanafi (2010)

(c)  $\hat{F}_j$  is the prediction of  $F$  in the regression of  $F$  on block  $X_j$ .  
 (d) The reduced block number  $j$  is obtained by dividing the block  $X_j$  by the square root of  $\lambda_{first}[Cor(x_{jh}, x_{j\ell})]$ .  
 (e) The transformed block number  $j$  is computed as  $X_j[(1/n)X_j^T X_j]^{-1/2}$ .









**PLS-PM**  
a toy example for understanding the algorithm

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## Economic inequality and political instability

### Economic inequality

#### Agricultural inequality

**GINI** : Inequality of land distributions

**FARM** : % farmers that own half of the land (> 50%)

**RENT** : % farmers that rent all their land

#### Industrial development

**GNPR** : Gross national product per capita (\$ 1955)

**LABO** : % of labour force employed in agriculture

#### Political instability

**INST** : Instability of executive (1945-1961)

**ECKS** : Nb of violent internal war incidents ('46-'61)

**DEAT** : Nb of people killed as a result of civil war violence ('50-'62)

**DEMO** :

**D-STAB** : Stable democracy

**D-UNST** : Unstable democracy

**DICT** : Dictatorship

Data from Russett (1964), with non linear transformations in Giffi (1981)

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## Economic inequality and political instability

Original Data from Russett (1964), as presented in Tenenhaus (1998)  
47 countries

	Gini	Farm	Rent	Gnpr	Labo	Inst	Ecks	Deat	Demo
Argentina	86.3	98.2	32.9	374	25	13.6	57	217	2
Australia	92.9	99.6	29.5	1215	14	11.3	0	0	1
Austria	74.0	97.4	10.7	532	32	12.8	4	0	2
⋮									
France	58.3	86.1	26.0	1046	26	16.3	46	1	2
⋮									
Yugoslavia	43.7	79.8	0.0	297	67	0.0	9	0	3

The Demo variable is categorical (nominal) with:

- 1 = Stable democracy
- 2 = Unstable democracy
- 3 = Dictatorship

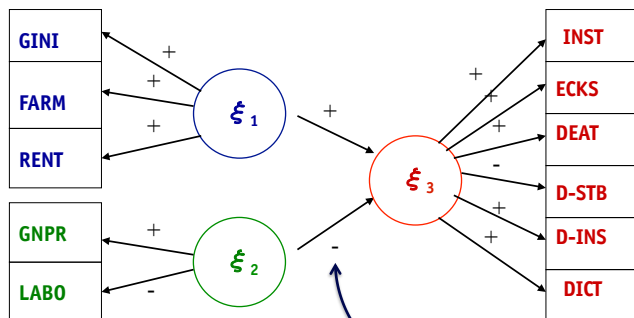
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## Economic inequality and political instability

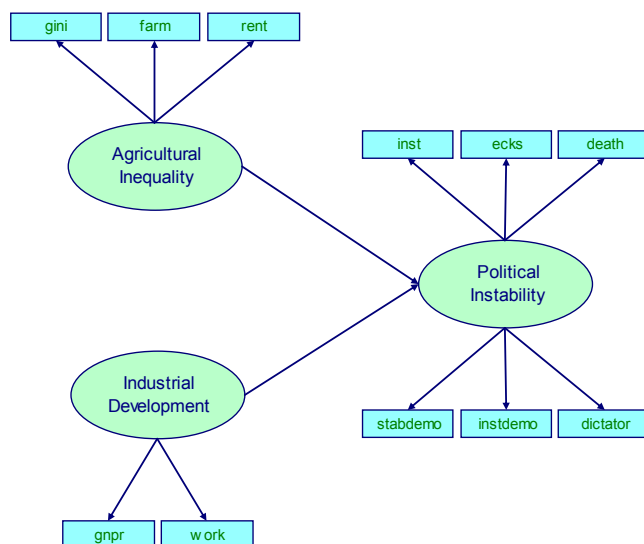
Agricultural inequality (X<sub>1</sub>)

Political instability (X<sub>3</sub>)



There exists a structural relationship between latent variables :  
 Political inst. ( $\xi_3$ ) =  $\beta_1 \times$  Agricultural ineq. ( $\xi_1$ ) +  $\beta_2 \times$  Industrial dev. ( $\xi_2$ ) + residual

## Use of the XLSTAT-PLSPM software



## Estimation of Latent Variables in PLS-PM

An example with Mode A + Centroid Scheme

### (1) External Estimates

$$t_1 = X_1 w_1$$

$$t_2 = X_2 w_2$$

$$t_3 = X_3 w_3$$

### (2) Internal Estimates

$$z_1 = t_3$$

$$z_2 = -t_3$$

$$z_3 = t_1 - t_2$$

### (3) Computation of $w_j$

$$w_{1q} = \text{cor}(x_{1q}, z_1)$$

$$w_{2q} = \text{cor}(x_{2q}, z_2)$$

$$w_{3q} = \text{cor}(x_{3q}, z_3)$$

### Algorithm

- Start with arbitrary weights  $w_1, w_2, w_3$ . Here:  $w_1 = (1, 0, 0)$
- Obtain the new weights  $w_j$  by means of steps from (1) to (3).
- Iterate the procedure till convergence.

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## Economic inequality and political instability

Results: Problems in the signs...

Weights (Dimension 1):

Latent variable	Manifest variables	Outer weight	Outer weight (Bootstrap)	Standard error	Critical ratio (CR)	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)
Agricultural Inequality	gini	0.460	0.453	0.046	9.889	0.325	0.545
	farm	0.516	0.510	0.049	10.451	0.395	0.653
	rent	0.081	0.080	0.152	0.535	-0.278	0.347
Industrial Development	gnpr	<b>-0.511</b>	-0.511	0.023	-22.112	-0.557	-0.448
	labo	0.538	0.536	0.022	24.111	0.498	0.606
	inst	<b>-0.104</b>	-0.109	0.066	-1.579	-0.227	0.064
Political Instability	ecks	-0.270	-0.265	0.041	-6.600	-0.340	-0.151
	death	-0.302	-0.296	0.039	-7.693	-0.379	-0.218
	demostab	<b>0.336</b>	0.326	0.037	9.157	0.257	0.421
	demoinst	-0.037	-0.031	0.064	-0.575	-0.156	0.123
	dictatur	-0.285	-0.281	0.036	-7.974	-0.357	-0.206

Correlations (Dimension 1):

Latent variable	Manifest variables	Standardized loadings	Communalities	Redundancies
Agricultural Inequality	gini	0.977	0.955	
	farm	0.986	0.972	
	rent	0.516	0.266	
Industrial Development	gnpr	-0.950	0.903	
	labo	0.955	0.912	
Political Instability	inst	-0.352	0.124	0.077
	ecks	-0.816	0.665	0.414
	death	-0.794	0.630	0.392
	demostab	0.866	0.749	0.466
	demoinst	-0.094	0.009	0.006
	dictatur	-0.733	0.537	0.334

Loading = Regression coefficient of each MV on the corresponding LV  
 = Correlation coefficient if MV's are standardized

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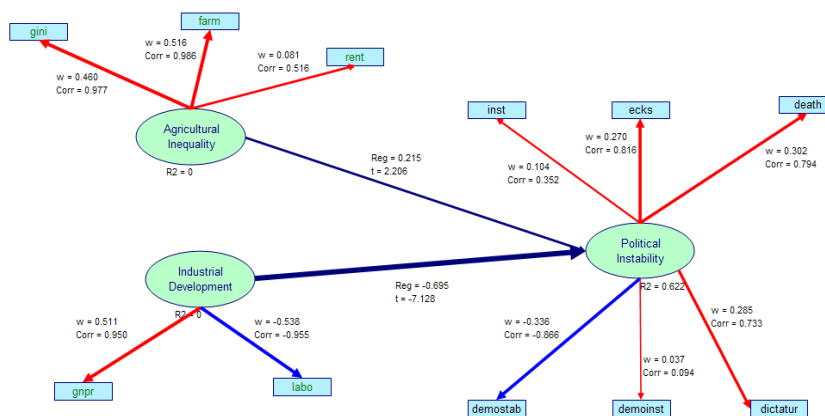
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## Economic inequality and political instability

Results: after sign inversion....

Latent variable	Manifest variables	Outer weight
Agricultural Inequality	gini	0.460
	farm	0.516
	rent	0.081
Industrial Development	gnpr	0.511
	labo	-0.538
Political Instability	inst	0.104
	ecks	0.270
	death	0.302
	demostab	-0.336
	demoinst	0.037
	dictatur	0.285

## Economic inequality and political instability



## Economic inequality and political instability

### PLS Results: Structural Equations (Inner Model)

Inner model (Dimension 1):

R<sup>2</sup> (Political Instability / 1):

R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> (Bootstrap)	Std. deviation	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)
0.622	0.632	0.063	0.532	0.762

Path coefficients (Political Instability / 1):

Latent variable	Value	Standard error	t	Pr >  t
Intercept	0.000	0.092	0.000	0.000
Agricultural Inequality	0.215	0.097	2.206	0.033
Industrial Development	-0.695	0.097	-7.128	0.000

Value(Bootstrap)	Standard error(Bootstrap)	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)
0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.251	0.104	0.039	0.487
-0.673	0.077	-0.846	-0.466

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## Economic inequality and political instability

### PLS results: Standardized Latent Variable Scores

Latent variable scores (Dimension 1):

	Agricultural Inequality	Industrial Development	Political Instability
Argentina	0.953	0.238	0.751
Australia	1.265	1.371	-1.601
Austria	0.404	0.253	-0.464
Belgium	-0.848	1.530	-0.881
Bolivia	1.115	-1.584	1.503
Brasil	0.789	-0.654	0.268
Canada	-1.539	1.680	-0.972
Chile	1.239	-0.324	0.016
Colombia	0.819	-0.443	0.810
Costa Rica	0.939	-0.484	0.302
Cuba	0.734	-0.182	1.694
Denmark	-1.996	0.821	-1.528
Dominican Republic	0.720	-0.737	0.542
Ecuador	0.976	-0.690	0.956
Egypt	0.464	-1.086	0.865
Salvador	0.824	-0.718	0.426
Finland	-1.020	0.304	-0.262
France	-0.910	0.804	0.492
Guatemala	1.006	-0.959	1.099
...	...	...	...

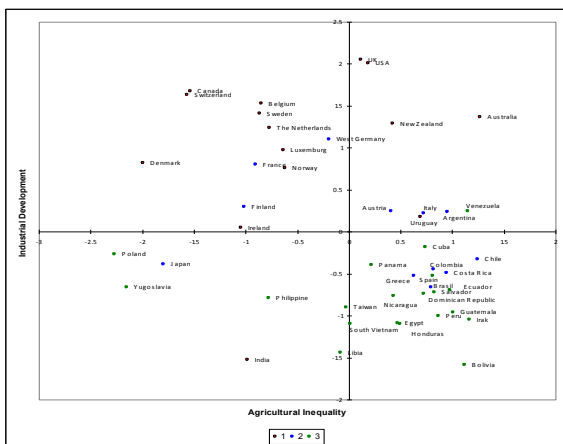
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## Economic inequality and political instability

Map of countries as mapped by LV scores

$Y_1$  = agricultural inequality ,  $Y_2$  = industrial development



## Model Assessment

## Reliability

---

The **reliability**  $rel(x_{pq})$  of a measure  $x_{pq}$  of a true score  $\xi_q$  modeled as  $x_{pq} = \lambda_{pq}\xi_q + \delta_{pq}$  is defined as:

$$rel(x_{pq}) = \frac{\lambda_{pq}^2 \text{var}(\xi_q)}{\text{var}(x_{pq})} = cor^2(x_{pq}, \xi_q)$$

$rel(x_{pq})$  can be interpreted as the variance of  $x_{pq}$  that is explained by  $\xi_q$

## Measuring the Reliability

---

### Question:

How to measure the overall reliability of the measurement tool ?

In other words, how to measure the homogeneity level of a block  $X_q$  of positively correlated variables?

### Answer:

The composite reliability (**internal consistency**) of manifest variables can be checked using:

- the Cronbach's Alpha
- the Dillon Goldstein's (or Jöreskog's) rho

## Composite reliability

The measurement model (in a **reflective** scheme) assumes that each group of manifest variables is homogeneous and unidimensional (related to a single variable). The composite reliability (**internal consistency or homogeneity of a block**) of manifest variables is **measured** by either of the following indices:

$$\alpha_q = \frac{P_q}{(P_q - 1)} \frac{\sum_{p \neq p'} \text{cov}(x_{pq}, x_{p'q})}{P_q + \sum_{p \neq p'} \text{cov}(x_{pq}, x_{p'q})}$$

$$\rho_q = \frac{(\sum_p \lambda_{pq})^2 \times \text{var}(\xi_q)}{(\sum_p \lambda_{pq})^2 \times \text{var}(\xi_q) + \sum_p \text{var}(\varepsilon_{pq})}$$

Where:

- $x_{pq}$  is the p-th manifest variable in the block q,
- $P_q$  is the number of manifest variables in the block,
- $\lambda_{pq}$  is the component loading for  $x_{pq}$
- $\text{var}(\varepsilon_{pq})$  is the variance of the measurement error
- MVs are standardized

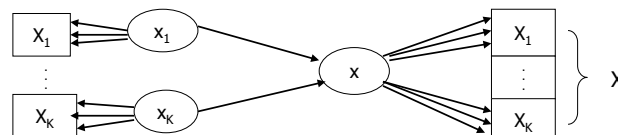
*Cronbach's alpha assumes lambda-equivalence (parallelity) and is a lower bound estimate of reliability*

**The manifest variables are reliable if these indices are at least 0.7**  
(0.6 to 0.8 according to exploratory vs. confirmatory purpose)

## What if unidimensionality is rejected?

*Four possible solutions:*

- **Remove** manifest variables that are far from the model
- Change the measurement model into a **inwards-directed model** (eventual multicollinearity problems -> via PLS Regression)
- Use the auxiliary variable in the **multiple table analysis** of unidimensional sub-blocks:



- Split the multidimensional block into **unidimensional sub-blocks**



## Model Assessment

Since PLS-PM is a Soft Modeling approach, model validation regards only the way relations are modeled, in both the structural and the measurement model; in particular, the following null hypotheses should be rejected:

- $\lambda_{pq} = 0$ , as each MV is supposed to be correlated to its corresponding LV;
- $w_{pq} = 0$ , as each LV is supposed to be affected by all the MVs of its block;
- $\beta_{qq} = 0$ , as each latent predictor is assumed to be explanatory with respect to its latent response;
- $R^2_{q*} = 0$ , as each endogenous LV is assumed to be explained by its latent predictors;
- $\text{cor}(\xi_q; \xi_q) = 0$ , as LVs are assumed to be connected by a statistically significant correlation. Rejecting this hypothesis means assessing the **Nomological Validity** of the PLS Path Model;
- $\text{cor}(\xi_q; \xi_q) = 1$ , as LVs are assumed to measure concepts that are different from one another. Rejecting this hypothesis means assessing the **Discriminant Validity** of the PLS Path Model;
- Both  $AVE_q$  and  $AVE_q$ , smaller than  $\text{cor}^2(\xi_q; \xi_q)$ , as a LV should be related more strongly with its block of indicators (convergent and monofactorial validity).

## Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

The goodness of measurement model (**reliability of latent variables**) is evaluated by the amount of variance that a LV captures from its indicators (**average communality**) relative to the amount due to measurement error.

### Average Variance Extracted

$$AVE_q = \frac{\sum_p [\lambda_{pq}^2 \text{var}(\xi_q)]}{\sum_p [\lambda_{pq}^2 \text{var}(\xi_q)] + \sum_q (1 - \lambda_{pq}^2)}$$

- The convergent validity holds if AVE is  $>0.5$
- Consider also **standardised loadings  $>0.707$**

## Monofactorial MVs

A manifest variable needs to load significantly higher with the latent variables it is intended to measure than with the other latent variables:

$$\text{cor}^2(x_{pq}, \xi_q) \gg \text{cor}^2(x_{pq}, \xi_{q'})$$

Cross-loadings for checking proper reflection

## Discriminant and Nomological Validity

The latent variables shall be correlated (nomological validity) but they need to measure different concepts (discriminant validity). It must be possible to discriminate between latent variables if they are meant to refer to distinct concepts.

$$H_0 : \text{cor}(\xi_q, \xi_{q'}) = 1$$

$$H_0 : \text{cor}(\xi_q, \xi_{q'}) = 0$$

The correlation between two latent variables is tested to be significantly lower than 1 (discriminant validity) and significantly higher than 0 (nomological validity):

### Decision Rules:

The null hypotheses are rejected if:

1. **95% confidence interval** for the mentioned correlation does not comprise 1 and 0, respectively (bootstrap/jackknife empirical confidence intervals);
2. For **discriminant validity** only:  $(\text{AVE}_q \text{ and } \text{AVE}_{q'}) > \text{cor}^2(\xi_q, \xi_{q'})$  which indicates that more variance is shared between the LV and its block of indicators than with another LV representing a different block of indicators.

## Model Quality

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## Communality

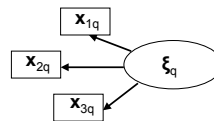
For each manifest variable  $x_{pq}$  the communality is a squared correlation:

$$Com_{pq} = cor^2(x_{pq}, \xi_q)$$

The communality of a **block** is the mean of the communalities of its MVs

$$Com_q = \frac{1}{P_q} \sum_{p=1}^{P_q} cor^2(x_{pq}, \xi_q)$$

(NB: if standardised MVs:  $Com_q = AVE_q$ )



The communality of the whole **model** is the **Mean Communality**, obtained as:

$$\overline{Com} = \frac{\sum_{q: P_q > 1} (P_q \times Com_q)}{\sum_{q: P_q > 1} P_q}$$

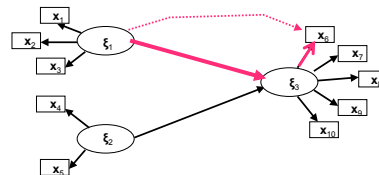
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## Redundancy

Redundancy is the average variance of the MVs set, related to the J\* endogenous LVs, explained by the exogenous LVs:

$$RED_{x_{pq^*}} = \frac{Var[\beta_{qq^*} \xi_q]}{Var[x_{pq^*}]} \lambda_{pq^*}^2$$



$$Redundancy_{q^*} = R^2(\xi_{q^*}, \xi_q: \xi_q \rightarrow \xi_{q^*}) \times Community_{q^*}$$

## CV-communality and redundancy

The **Stone-Geisser** test follows a **blindfolding procedure**: repeated (for all data points) omission of a **part of the data** matrix (by row and column, where **jackknife** proceeds exclusively by row) while estimating parameters, and then reconstruction of the omitted part by the estimated parameters.

This procedure results in:

- a generalized **cross-validation measure** that, in case of a negative value, implies a bad estimation of the related block
- « **jackknife standard deviations** » of parameters (but most often these **standard deviations** are **very small** and lead to significant parameters)

### Communality Option

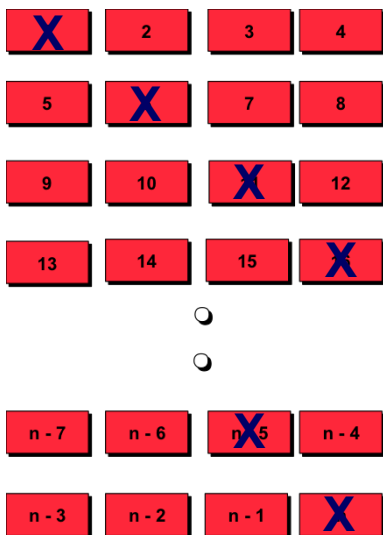
$$H_q^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_q \sum_i (x_{pq_i} - \bar{x}_{pq} - \hat{\lambda}_{pq(i)} \hat{\xi}_{g(i)})^2}{\sum_q \sum_i (x_{pq_i} - \bar{x}_{pq})^2}$$

### Redundancy Option (also called Q<sup>2</sup>)

$$F_q^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_q \sum_i (x_{pq_i} - \bar{x}_{pq} - \hat{\lambda}_{pq(i)} \text{Pred}(\hat{\xi}_{g(i)}))^2}{\sum_q \sum_i (x_{pq_i} - \bar{x}_{pq})^2}$$

The mean of the CV-communality and the CV-redundancy (for endogenous blocks) indices can be used to measure the **global quality of the measurement model** if they are positive for all blocks (endogenous for redundancy).

## Blindfolding procedure

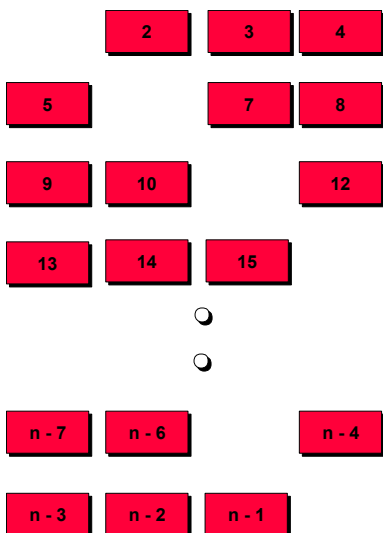


From W.W. Chin's slides on PLS-PM

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## Blindfolding procedure



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## A global prediction index for PLS-PM

- PLS-PM is blamed **not** to “optimize” a global scalar “fit” function....
- PLS-PM does not optimize one single criterion, instead it is very flexible as it can **optimize several criteria** according to the user’s choices for the estimation modes, schemes and normalization constraints
- Users and researchers often feel uncomfortable especially as compared to the traditional covariance-based SEM
- Features of a global “descriptive” index:
  - Compromise between outer and inner model performance
  - Allow a comparison of performances
  - Know its “real” maximum for a better interpretation
  - No claim of global quality assessment

## Godness of Fit index

$$GoF = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\sum_{q:P_q>1} P_q} \sum_{q:P_q>1} \sum_{p=1}^{P_q} Cor^2(\mathbf{x}_{pq}, \xi_q)} \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{Q^*} \sum_{q^*=1}^{Q^*} R^2(\xi_{q^*}, \xi_j \text{ explaining } \xi_{q^*})}$$

Validation of  
the outer model

The validation of the outer model is obtained as average of the squared correlations between each manifest variables and the corresponding latent variable, i.e. the average communality!

Validation of  
the inner model

The validation of the inner model is obtained as average of the  $R^2$  values of all the structural relationships.

## Relative GoF

From PCA is well known that  $\sum_{p=1}^{P_q} \text{cor}^2(\mathbf{x}_{pq}, \xi_q) \leq \lambda_q^{PCA}$   
 the largest eigenvalue of the  $\mathbf{X}_q' \mathbf{X}_q$

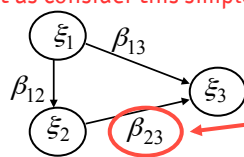
From CCA we know that  $\sum_{q^*=1}^{Q^*} R^2(\xi_{q^*}, \xi_j \text{ explaining } \xi_{q^*}) \leq \rho_{q^*}^2$   
 The square of the first canonical correlation

so relating each term of the GoF to the corresponding maximum:

$$GoF = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\sum_{q: P_q > 1} P_q} \sum_{p=1}^{P_q} \frac{\text{Cor}^2(\mathbf{x}_{pq}, \xi_q)}{\lambda_q^{PCA}} \times \frac{1}{Q^*} \sum_{q^*=1}^{Q^*} \frac{R^2(\xi_{q^*}, \xi_j \text{ explaining } \xi_{q^*})}{\rho_{q^*}^2}}$$

## Non parametric Bootstrap-based validation of one or more path coefficients

Let us consider this simple model:



$$\begin{cases} \xi_2 = \beta_{12} \xi_1 + \zeta_1 \\ \xi_3 = \beta_{13} \xi_1 + \beta_{23} \xi_2 + \zeta_2 \end{cases}$$

Is this coefficient significant?

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 : \beta_{23} &= 0 \\ H_1 : \beta_{23} &\neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Step 1. Estimate the complete model and compute the GoF index.

Step 2. «Deflate» the MV block  $X_3$ :  $\hat{X}_3 = X_3 - X_2 (X_2' X_2)^{-1} X_2' X_3$

Step 3. Compute GoF index for the «null» model,  $GoF_{H_0}$

Step 4. Draw  $B$  samples from  $\hat{F}_{[X_1, X_2, X_3]}$ , compute  $GoF_{H_0}^{(b)}$  and, for each  $b$ ,

compute the ratio  $\frac{GoF}{GoF_{H_0}^{(b)}}$ .

Step 5. By referring to the inverse cdf of  $\frac{GoF}{GoF_{H_0}^{(b)}}$  accept or reject  $H_0$

### The non parametric validation for one coefficient

Let us consider the complete model: Is this standardized coefficient significant?

Thresholds, by bootstrap, for different confidence levels

$\Phi_t^{(B)}(0.1) = 1.00238$

$\Phi_t^{(B)}(0.05) = 1.00316$

$\Phi_t^{(B)}(0.025) = 1.00411$

$t > 1.00316$

We reject  $H_0$

p-value=0.035

$H_0: \beta_{\text{Ima,Loy}} = 0$   
 $H_1: \beta_{\text{Ima,Loy}} \neq 0$

$$t = \frac{GoF}{GoF_{(\beta_{\text{Ima,Loy}}=0)}} = \frac{0.4645}{0.4628} = 1.0037$$

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### Non parametric Bootstrap-based validation of all path coefficients

$H_0: \beta_{12} = \beta_{13} = \beta_{23} = 0$

$H_1: \text{at least one of } \beta_{ij} (i = 1,2; j = 1,2,3; j > i) \neq 0$

**Step 1.** Estimate the complete model and compute the *GoF* index.

**Step 2.** «Deflate» all MV blocks in accordance with the structural links (as we deal with recursive models, it is always possible to build blocks that verify the null hypothesis):

$$X_2: \hat{X}_2 = X_2 - X_1(X_1'X_1)^{-1}X_1'X_2$$

$$X_3: \hat{X}_3 = X_3 - (X_1 | \hat{X}_2) \left[ (X_1 | \hat{X}_2)'(X_1 | \hat{X}_2) \right]^{-1} (X_1 | \hat{X}_2)' X_3$$

**Step 3.** Compute *GoF* index for the «null» model,  $GoF_{H_0}$

**Step 4.** Draw  $B$  samples from  $\hat{F}_{[X_1, \hat{X}_2, \hat{X}_3]}$  and compute  $GoF_{H_0}^{(b)}$  for each sample  $b$

**Step 5.** By referring to the inverse cdf of  $GoF_{H_0}^{(b)}$ , accept or reject  $H_0$

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## Structural Model revision

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## Testing the path coefficients

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### Removing a link from the model.....

We can use the *t-test* to assess coefficient significance (for a large  $n$ )

$$H_0: \beta = 0$$

$$H_1: \beta \neq 0$$

$$T = \frac{B - 0}{s_B} \approx N$$

**Decision rule:**

We reject  $H_0$  if:  $|T|_{s_B} > 2$

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## Contribution to the R<sup>2</sup>

- Since the case values of LV 's are determined by the weight relations, the structural prediction may be assessed by looking at usual R<sup>2</sup>'s.
- The change in R<sup>2</sup> can be explored to see whether the inclusion of a specific exogenous LV has a substantive impact (effect size  $f^2$ ) on the predictive power

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{included} - R^2_{excluded}}{1 - R^2_{included}}$$

$f^2 \geq 0.02$  -> small impact

$f^2 \geq 0.15$  -> medium impact

$f^2 \geq 0.35$  -> large impact

## Suppression effects and Redundancy

- When the path coefficient and the correlation between latent constructs do not have the same sign, **the original relationship between the two has been suppressed**. This may be due to:
  - the **original relationship is so close to 0** that the difference in signs reflects random variation around 0: **non significant coefficients**
  - there are **redundant variables** that artificially change the signs; one or more redundant variables must be eliminated (**multicollinearity**)
  - **real suppression**: an important predictor variable, making the model correctly specified, suppresses the effect of another predictor variable. The correct sign interpretation is the one given by the path coefficient
- **How to detect** redundancy from real suppressor?
  - **Change model specification (remove a path)** and **check the change in R<sup>2</sup>**. Redundancy does not provoke a decrease. Be cautious with **model trimming**.

## PLS-PM

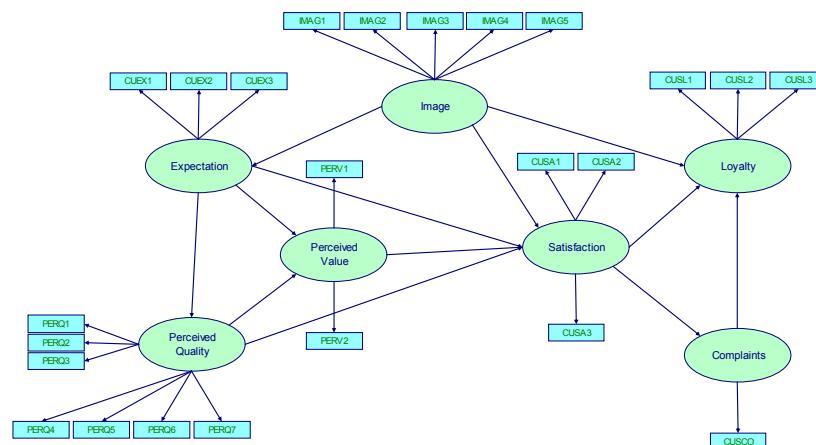
### an example for measuring Customer Satisfaction

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## European Customer Satisfaction Index (ECSI) Model

### Perceptions of consumers on one brand, product or service



- ECSI is an economic indicator describing how the satisfaction of a customer is modeled
- It is an adaptation of the « Swedish Customer Satisfaction Barometer » and of the « American Customer Satisfaction Index (ACSI) proposed by Claes Fornell

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## Examples of Manifest Variables

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### Customer expectation

1. Expectations for the overall quality of “your mobile phone provider” at the moment you became customer of this provider.
2. Expectations for “your mobile phone provider” to provide products and services to meet your personal need.
3. How often did you expect that things could go wrong at “your mobile phone provider” ?

### Customer satisfaction

1. Overall satisfaction
2. Fulfilment of expectations
3. How well do you think “your mobile phone provider” compares with your ideal mobile phone provider ?

## Examples of Manifest Variables

---

### Customer loyalty

1. If you would need to choose a new mobile phone provider how likely is it that you would choose “your provider” again ?
2. Let us now suppose that other mobile phone providers decide to lower fees and prices, but “your mobile phone provider” stays at the same level as today. At which level of difference (in %) would you choose another phone provider ?
3. If a friend or colleague asks you for advice, how likely is it that you would recommend “your mobile phone provider” ?

## Study of the complete ECSI model

### Fornell framework:

- Manifest variables are transformed from a scale “1-10” to a scale “0-100”

$$\tilde{x} = \frac{x-1}{9} \times 100$$

- Manifest Variables are left in the form of raw data
- “Classical” Estimation Options: Mode A + Centroid Scheme
- Each “latent variable” is estimated as a weighted average of its own manifest variables (keeps their same scale)

## XLSTAT Output: Block Homogeneity

### Checking for block homogeneity by means of classical reliability indexes

Composite reliability:

Latent variable	Dimensions	Cronbach's alpha	D.G. rho (PCA)	Condition number	Critical value	Eigenvalues
Image	5	0,714	0,815	2,302	397,494	954,332 410,806 238,904 203,300 180,126
Expectation	3	0,433	0,717	1,631	422,464	616,441 419,132 231,816
Perceived Quality	7	0,872	0,903	3,642	349,439	1400,080 320,997 212,997 159,796 127,366 119,273 105,556
Perceived Value	2	0,817	0,921	2,430	503,782	861,651 145,912
Satisfaction	3	0,770	0,879	2,494	316,477	682,990 156,596 109,844
Complaints	1					
Loyalty	3	0,442	0,723	1,923	825,084	1190,246 963,254 221,746

## XLSTAT Output: Block Homogeneity

### Checking for block homogeneity by means of PCA

Variables/Factors correlations (Expectation / 1):

	F1	F2	F3
CUEX1	0.571	0.432	0.701
CUEX2	0.506	0.759	-0.414
CUEX3	0.868	-0.491	-0.099

Variables/Factors correlations (Loyalty / 1):

	F1	F2	F3
CUSL1	0.864	-0.365	-0.352
CUSL2	0.424	0.907	-0.033
CUSL3	0.774	-0.228	0.593

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## XLSTAT Result: Cross-loadings

### Detection of monofactorial MVs

Cross-loadings (Monofactorial manifest variables / 1):

	Image	Expectation	Perceived Quality	Perceived Value	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Complaints
IMAG1	<b>0.717</b>	0.347	0.571	0.393	0.540	0.338	0.423
IMAG2	<b>0.566</b>	0.387	0.492	0.269	0.398	0.293	0.188
IMAG3	<b>0.658</b>	0.272	0.367	0.332	0.339	0.309	0.207
IMAG4	<b>0.792</b>	0.374	0.571	0.459	0.542	0.461	0.440
IMAG5	<b>0.698</b>	0.340	0.544	0.260	0.501	0.485	0.337
CUEX1	0.349	<b>0.687</b>	0.437	0.293	0.362	0.268	0.183
CUEX2	0.404	<b>0.644</b>	0.343	0.175	0.345	0.320	0.225
CUEX3	0.285	<b>0.726</b>	0.357	0.273	0.300	0.190	0.126
PERQ1	0.622	0.534	<b>0.778</b>	0.454	0.661	0.461	0.380
PERQ2	0.405	0.308	<b>0.651</b>	0.295	0.474	0.319	0.300
PERQ3	0.621	0.423	<b>0.801</b>	0.467	0.651	0.461	0.472
PERQ4	0.480	0.388	<b>0.760</b>	0.390	0.587	0.353	0.379
PERQ5	0.598	0.406	<b>0.732</b>	0.455	0.517	0.373	0.389
PERQ6	0.551	0.447	<b>0.766</b>	0.405	0.539	0.333	0.418
PERQ7	0.596	0.411	<b>0.803</b>	0.547	0.707	0.446	0.465
PERV1	0.405	0.314	0.477	<b>0.933</b>	0.495	0.435	0.287
PERV2	0.542	0.354	0.594	<b>0.911</b>	0.629	0.525	0.360
CUSA1	0.558	0.495	0.637	0.403	<b>0.711</b>	0.484	0.334
CUSA2	0.524	0.395	0.672	0.480	<b>0.872</b>	0.484	0.416
CUSA3	0.612	0.382	0.684	0.588	<b>0.885</b>	0.609	0.547
CUSL1	0.430	0.281	0.393	0.407	0.455	<b>0.855</b>	0.237
CUSL2	0.109	0.095	0.065	0.148	0.115	<b>0.273</b>	0.122
CUSL3	0.528	0.351	0.537	0.481	0.658	<b>0.869</b>	0.448
CUSCO	0.469	0.250	0.537	0.348	0.540	0.401	<b>1.000</b>

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## XLSTAT Output: Bivariate and Partial correlation between LVs

### Checking for nomological and discriminant validity

Correlations (Latent variable) / Dimension (1):

	Image	Expectation	Perceived Quality	Perceived Value	Satisfaction	Complaints	Loyalty
Image	<b>1.000</b>	0.493	0.731	0.508	0.671	0.469	0.548
Expectation	0.493	<b>1.000</b>	0.545	0.360	0.481	0.250	0.366
Perceived Quality	0.731	0.545	<b>1.000</b>	0.576	0.791	0.537	0.524
Perceived Value	0.508	0.360	0.576	<b>1.000</b>	0.604	0.348	0.517
Satisfaction	0.671	0.481	0.791	0.604	<b>1.000</b>	0.540	0.635
Complaints	0.469	0.250	0.537	0.348	0.540	<b>1.000</b>	0.401
Loyalty	0.548	0.366	0.524	0.517	0.635	0.401	<b>1.000</b>

Partial correlations (Latent variable) / Dimension (1):

	Image	Expectation	Perceived Quality	Perceived Value	Satisfaction	Complaints	Loyalty
Image	<b>1.000</b>	0.141	0.363	0.053	0.081	0.087	0.185
Expectation	0.141	<b>1.000</b>	0.232	0.014	0.052	-0.102	0.052
Perceived Quality	0.363	0.232	<b>1.000</b>	0.149	0.458	0.180	-0.103
Perceived Value	0.053	0.014	0.149	<b>1.000</b>	0.188	-0.031	0.197
Satisfaction	0.081	0.052	0.458	0.188	<b>1.000</b>	0.170	0.314
Complaints	0.087	-0.102	0.180	-0.031	0.170	<b>1.000</b>	0.074
Loyalty	0.185	0.052	-0.103	0.197	0.314	0.074	<b>1.000</b>

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## XLSTAT Output: AVE

### Checking for discriminant validity

→ (LV squared correlation < AVE)

Discriminant validity (Squared correlations < AVE) (Dimension 1):

	Image	Expectation	Perceived Quality	Perceived Value	Satisfaction	Complaints	Loyalty	Mean Communalities (AVE)
Image	<b>1</b>	0.243	0.535	0.258	0.450	0.220	0.300	0.476
Expectation	0.243	<b>1</b>	0.297	0.130	0.231	0.063	0.134	0.471
Perceived Quality	0.535	0.297	<b>1</b>	0.332	0.626	0.288	0.275	0.574
Perceived Value	0.258	0.130	0.332	<b>1</b>	0.365	0.121	0.267	0.850
Satisfaction	0.450	0.231	0.626	0.365	<b>1</b>	0.292	0.403	0.683
Complaints	0.220	0.063	0.288	0.121	0.292	<b>1</b>	0.161	0.520
Loyalty	0.300	0.134	0.275	0.267	0.403	0.161	<b>1</b>	0.520
Mean Communalities (AVE)	0.476	0.471	0.574	0.850	0.683	0.520	0.520	<b>0</b>

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## XLSTAT Output: The Weights

- **Normalized outer weights** (sum up to 1) for computing raw scores
- **Bootstrap resampling** is used for statistical significance

Outer model (Dimension 1):

Weights (Dimension 1):

Latent variable	Manifest variables	Outer weight	Outer weight (normalized)	Outer weight (Bootstrap)	Std. deviation	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)
Expectation	CUEX1	0.023	0.326	0.023	0.003	0.015	0.031
	CUEX2	0.022	0.317	0.022	0.005	0.013	0.033
	CUEX3	0.025	0.357	0.024	0.003	0.016	0.030
Perceived Quality	PERQ1	0.010	0.140	0.010	0.001	0.008	0.012
	PERQ2	0.009	0.121	0.009	0.001	0.006	0.013
	PERQ3	0.012	0.167	0.012	0.001	0.009	0.014
	PERQ4	0.009	0.134	0.009	0.001	0.008	0.011
	PERQ5	0.008	0.119	0.008	0.001	0.007	0.010
	PERQ6	0.009	0.135	0.009	0.001	0.008	0.012
	PERQ7	0.013	0.183	0.013	0.001	0.011	0.015
Perceived Value	PERV1	0.024	0.491	0.024	0.002	0.021	0.027
	PERV2	0.025	0.509	0.025	0.002	0.022	0.029
Satisfaction	CUSA1	0.016	0.242	0.016	0.002	0.012	0.019
	CUSA2	0.023	0.354	0.023	0.001	0.020	0.026
	CUSA3	0.026	0.404	0.026	0.002	0.022	0.029
Loyalty	CUSL1	0.018	0.393	0.018	0.001	0.016	0.021
	CUSL2	0.006	0.129	0.006	0.003	0.000	0.012
	CUSL3	0.022	0.477	0.022	0.002	0.019	0.026
Image	IMAG1	0.014	0.199	0.014	0.002	0.010	0.018
	IMAG2	0.013	0.174	0.013	0.002	0.009	0.018
	IMAG3	0.014	0.187	0.014	0.002	0.007	0.019
	IMAG4	0.018	0.242	0.017	0.002	0.014	0.021
	IMAG5	0.014	0.197	0.014	0.002	0.011	0.020
Complaints	CUSCO	0.040	1.000	0.040	0.002	0.036	0.043

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## XLSTAT Output: Latent Variable Scores

First 15 observations, out of 250

Latent variable scores (Dimension 1):

	Image	Perceived Value	Satisfaction	Complaints	Loyalty
Obs1	46,673	16,762	52,174	66,667	54,118
Obs2	95,875	100,000	91,030	100,000	88,497
Obs3	58,719	66,667	69,360	55,556	55,109
Obs4	76,129	44,444	100,000	44,444	91,373
Obs5	82,013	55,556	83,164	44,444	79,326
Obs6	86,066	100,000	69,360	77,778	89,935
Obs7	56,389	55,746	77,778	66,667	70,533
Obs8	79,361	55,746	62,734	77,778	63,234
Obs9	67,949	55,746	66,667	77,778	56,547
Obs10	69,342	44,635	49,831	55,556	70,155
Obs11	72,460	66,667	70,813	66,667	80,764
Obs12	77,870	55,746	73,293	66,667	40,131
Obs13	77,515	50,095	73,293	77,778	66,220
Obs14	100,000	72,317	83,164	77,778	91,373
Obs15	72,878	28,063	65,427	66,667	66,654

**Example : Computation of the CS index:**

$$CSI = \frac{0.01579 \times C\_sat1 + 0.02307 \times C\_sat2 + 0.02630 \times C\_sat3}{0.01579 + 0.02307 + 0.02630}$$

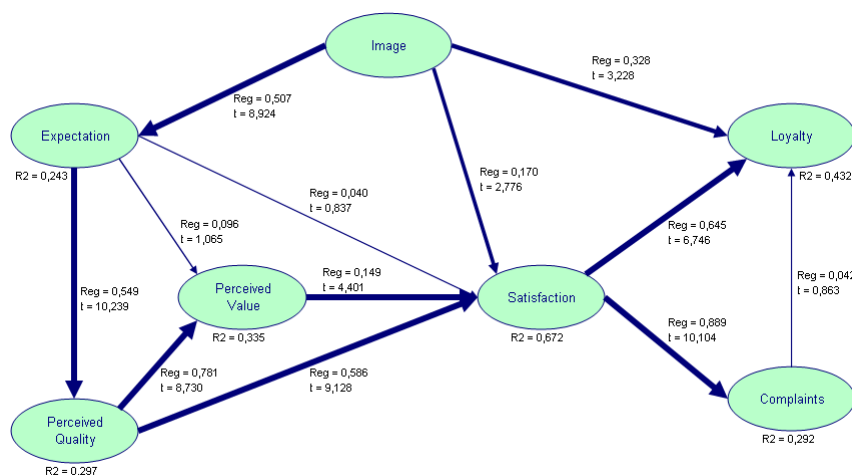
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## XLSTAT Output: Structural model

Path coefficients, value of the t-statistics and R<sup>2</sup>

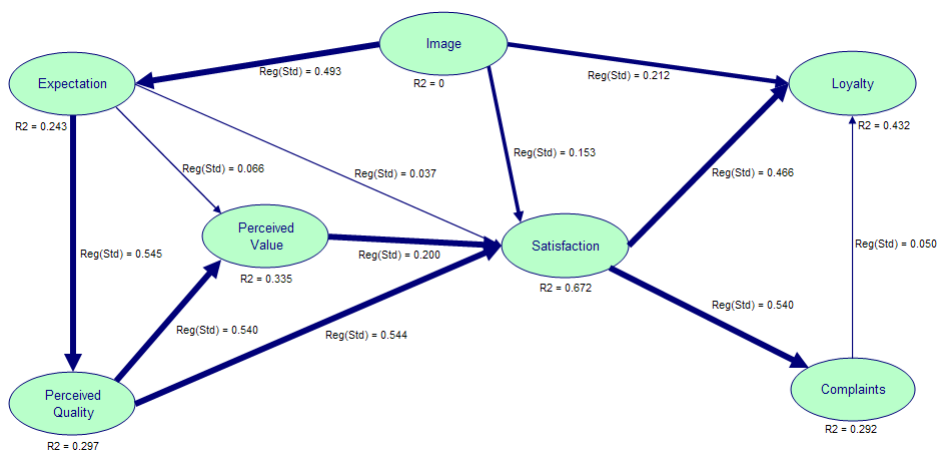


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## XLSTAT Output: Structural model

Standardized Path coefficients and R<sup>2</sup>



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## XLSTAT Output: Structural model

### Validation of Block « Satisfaction »

R<sup>2</sup> (Satisfaction / 1):

R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> (Bootstrap)	Std. deviation	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)
0.672	0.673	0.047	0.567	0.749

Path coefficients (Satisfaction / 1):

Latent variable	Value	Standard error	t	Pr >  t
Intercept	3.102	6.021	0.515	0.000
Image	0.170	0.061	2.776	0.006
<b>Expectation</b>	<b>0.040</b>	<b>0.048</b>	<b>0.837</b>	<b>0.403</b>
Perceived Quality	0.586	0.064	9.128	0.000
Perceived Value	0.149	0.034	4.401	0.000

Latent variable	Value(Bootstrap)	Standard error(Bootstrap)	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)
Intercept	0.382	4.819	-8.894	11.973
Image	0.177	0.055	0.071	0.316
<b>Expectation</b>	<b>0.039</b>	<b>0.055</b>	<b>-0.063</b>	<b>0.154</b>
Perceived Quality	0.572	0.067	0.421	0.718
Perceived Value	0.152	0.054	0.059	0.244

Standardized coefficients (Satisfaction / 1):

Latent variable	Value
Image	0.153
Expectation	0.037
Perceived Quality	0.544
Perceived Value	0.200

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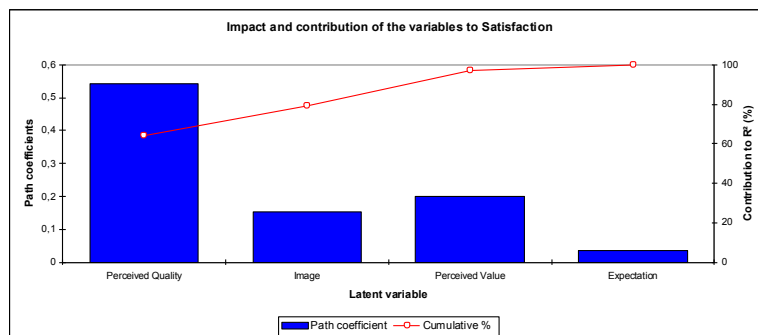
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## XLSTAT Output: Contribution to R<sup>2</sup>

### Relative importance of Satisfaction predictors

Impact and contribution of the variables to Satisfaction (Dimension 1):

	Perceived Quality	Image	Perceived Value	Expectation
Correlation	0,791	0,671	0,604	0,481
Path coefficient	0,544	0,153	0,200	0,037
Correlation * path coefficient	0,431	0,102	0,121	0,018
Contribution to R <sup>2</sup> (%)	64,134	15,242	17,968	2,656
Cumulative %	64,134	79,376	97,344	100,000



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## XLSTAT Output: MVs quality

### MV Loadings, Communalities and Redundancies

Correlations (Dimension 1):

Latent variable	Manifest variables	Standardized loadings	Communalities	Redundancies
Expectation	CUEX1	0.687	0.471	0.115
	CUEX2	0.644	0.415	0.101
	CUEX3	0.726	0.527	0.128
Perceived Quality	PERQ1	0.778	0.605	0.180
	PERQ2	0.651	0.423	0.126
	PERQ3	0.801	0.641	0.191
	PERQ4	0.760	0.578	0.172
	PERQ5	0.732	0.536	0.159
	PERQ6	0.766	0.587	0.174
	PERQ7	0.803	0.644	0.191
Perceived Value	PERV1	0.933	0.870	0.291
	PERV2	0.911	0.829	0.278
Satisfaction	CUSA1	0.711	0.505	0.339
	CUSA2	0.872	0.760	0.510
	CUSA3	0.885	0.783	0.526
Loyalty	CUSL1	0.855	0.731	0.316
	CUSL2	0.273	0.075	0.032
	CUSL3	0.869	0.755	0.326
Image	IMAG1	0.717	0.514	
	IMAG2	0.566	0.320	
	IMAG3	0.658	0.433	
	IMAG4	0.792	0.627	
	IMAG5	0.698	0.487	
Complaints	CUSCO	1.000		0.292

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## XLSTAT Output: model assessment

### Mean Communality and Redundancy

Model assessment (Dimension 1):

Latent variable	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	Mean Communalities	Mean Redundancy
Image			0.476	
Expectation	0.243	0.243	0.471	0.115
Perceived Quality	0.297	0.297	0.574	0.170
Perceived Value	0.335	0.332	0.850	0.285
Satisfaction	0.672	0.668	0.683	0.458
Complaints	0.292	0.292	1.000	0.292
Loyalty	0.432	0.427	0.520	0.225
Mean	0.378		0.570	0.257

$$\text{GoF} = (0.3784 * 0.5702)^{1/2} = 0.4645$$

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## XLSTAT Output: GoF

### Validation by Bootstrap

Goodness of fit index (1):

	GoF	GoF (Bootstrap)
Absolute	0.4645	0.4702
Relative	0.9371	0.9110
Outer model	0.9957	0.9944
Inner model	0.9411	0.9162

	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)
	0.4136	0.5262
	0.8565	0.9448
	0.9884	0.9977
	0.8616	0.9482

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## XLSTAT Output: Direct, Indirect and Total effects

Direct effects (Latent variable) / Dimension (1):

	Image	Expectation	Perceived Quality	Perceived Value	Satisfaction	Complaints	Loyalty
Image							
Expectation	0.507						
Perceived Quality	0.000	0.549					
Perceived Value	0.000	0.096	0.781				
Satisfaction	0.170	0.040	0.586	0.149			
Complaints	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.889		
Loyalty	0.328	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.645	0.042	

Indirect effects (Latent variable) / Dimension (1):

	Image	Expectation	Perceived Quality	Perceived Value	Satisfaction	Complaints	Loyalty
Image							
Expectation	0.000						
Perceived Quality	0.278	0.000					
Perceived Value	0.266	0.429	0.000				
Satisfaction	0.223	0.400	0.116	0.000			
Complaints	0.350	0.391	0.624	0.132	0.000		
Loyalty	0.268	0.300	0.479	0.102	0.037	0.000	

Total effects (Latent variable) / Dimension (1):

	Image	Expectation	Perceived Quality	Perceived Value	Satisfaction	Complaints	Loyalty
Image							
Expectation	0.507						
Perceived Quality	0.278	0.549					
Perceived Value	0.266	0.525	0.781				
Satisfaction	0.393	0.440	0.702	0.149			
Complaints	0.350	0.391	0.624	0.132	0.889		
Loyalty	0.596	0.300	0.479	0.102	0.683	0.042	

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## Blindfolding validation

	Communalities	Redundancies
Image	0,198	
Expectation	-0,016	0,057
Perceived Quality	0,401	0,090
Perceived Value	0,452	0,240
Satisfaction	0,388	0,465
Complaints		0,181
Loyalty	0,149	0,164

- Only the **Customer Satisfaction** block has an **acceptable** cross-validated redundancy index.
- Due to blindfolding, the cv-communality and the cv-redundancy **measures may be negative**.
- A negative value implies that the corresponding latent **variable is badly estimated**.

## Other Component-based Approaches

### Generalized Structured Component Analysis

### Regularized Generalized CCA

## Generalized Structured Component Analysis (GSCA)

GSCA (Hwang & Takane, Psychometrika 2004) integrates both the measurement and the structural model formulation in a unique equation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_i \\ \xi_i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\Lambda} \\ \mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix} \xi_i + \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_i \\ \zeta_i \end{bmatrix}$$

Since  $\xi_i = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_i$

$$\mathbf{u}_i \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{W} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_i = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{\Lambda} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{W} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_i + \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_i \\ \zeta_i \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \mathbf{e}_i$$

$\mathbf{A}$

and so the model can be rewritten as:  $\mathbf{u}_i = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}_i + \mathbf{e}_i$

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## GSCA optimizing function

Unlike PLS-PM, in GSCA a unique function is optimized:

$$\phi = \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{u}_i - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}_i)^T (\mathbf{u}_i - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}_i) = SS(\mathbf{U} - \mathbf{UA})$$

Under the constraint that latent variables are normalized, i.e.  $\sum_{i=1}^N \xi_{iq}^2 = 1$

The unknown parameters of GSCA (W and A) are estimated so as to minimize the residual sum of squares by means of an ALS (Alternative Least Squares) algorithm



ALS does not assure convergence in a global minimum,  
several starting values are needed

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## GSCA optimizing function

Searching for standardized latent variables  $\xi_q = \mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q$   
 minimizing :

$$\underbrace{\sum_{\text{Block } \mathbf{X}_q \text{ reflective}} \left\| \mathbf{X}_q - \xi_q \lambda'_q \right\|^2}_{\text{PCA}} + \underbrace{\sum_{\substack{\xi_j \text{ endogenous,} \\ \xi_{q^*} \text{ explaining } \xi_j}} \left\| \xi_j - \sum_{q^*} b_{jq^*} \xi_{q^*} \right\|^2}_{\text{MSEV, Glang (1988)}}$$

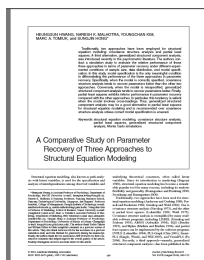
MSEV = Maximum Sum of Explained Variance

When the blocks are heterogeneous, GSCA might be trapped by PCA

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## GSCA vs. PLS-PM and Covariance-based SEM (simulated data)

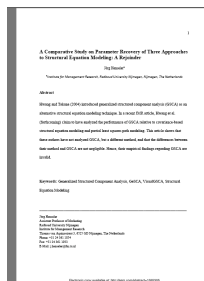


Hwang Heungsun *et al.*  
 A Comparative Study on  
 Parameter Recovery of Three  
 Approaches to Structural  
 Equation Modeling.  
*Journal of marketing research*,  
 2010, vol. 47, n.4, pp. 699-712

Hwang *et al.* (2010) tested the performance of PLS-PM, GSCA and the covariance-based approach to SEM under different simulation schemes:

→ When the model is correctly specified, covariance-based approach generally recovered parameters better than GSCA and PLS-PM (but with cross-loadings)

→ When the model is misspecified, GSCA tends to recover parameters better than PLS-PM and covariance-based approach



Jörg Henseler.  
 A Comparative Study on  
 Parameter Recovery of Three  
 Approaches to Structural  
 Equation Modeling: A  
 Rejoinder (January 15, 2010).  
 Available at SSRN: <http://ssrn.com/abstract=1585305>

**However, Henseler (2010) claims:**

*"It seems like Hwang et al. (2010) did not apply GSCA at all, but only a reduced form of GSCA that ignores the structural model. This reduced form of GSCA provides estimates that differ substantially from those of GSCA. Consequently, these authors' empirical findings and conclusions are invalid and should be ignored."*

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## Regularized Generalized Canonical Correlation Analysis (RGCCA)

### A continuum between New Mode A and Mode B: RGCCA

Tenenhaus and Tenenhaus (Psychometrika, 2011) proposed a new framework, called Regularized Generalized Canonical Correlation Analysis (RGCCA) where a continuum is built between the covariance criterion (New Mode A) and the correlation criterion (Mode B) by means of a tuning parameter (Mode Ridge):

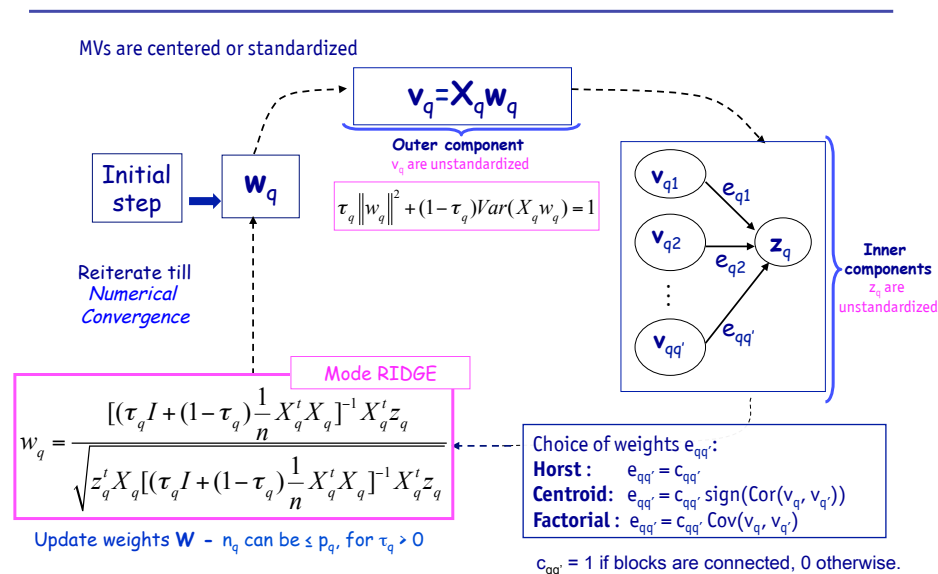
$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{w}_q} \left\{ \sum_{q \neq q'} c_{qq'} g(\text{cov}(\mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q, \mathbf{X}_{q'} \mathbf{w}_{q'})) \right\}$$

$$\text{s.t. } (1 - \tau_q) \text{var}(\mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{w}_q) + \tau_q \|\mathbf{w}_q\|^2 = 1$$

**Remarks:**

- Choice of the tuning parameter for each block
- Matrix inversion (if tau different from 1)
- Interpretation of the composite scores

## The PLS algorithm for RGCCA – Tenenhaus & Tenenhaus, 2011



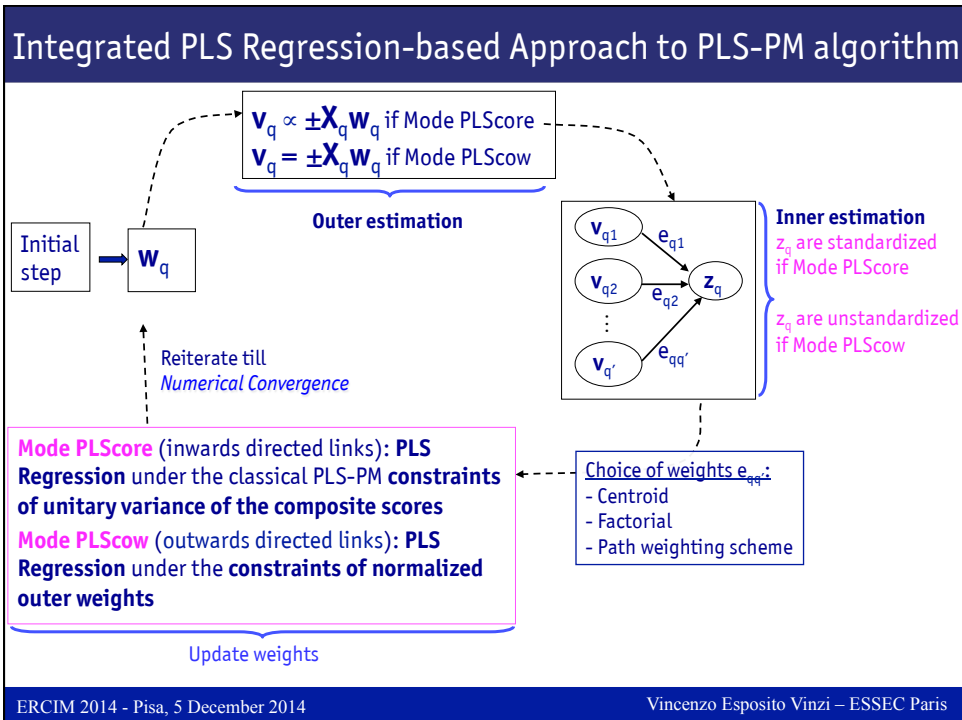


# Multi-component estimation for Predictive PLS-PM

## PLS Regression for outer model regularization in PLS-PM

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## PLS Regression rationale

Research of  $M$  (value chosen by **cross-validation** or **defined by the user**) **orthogonal** components  $\mathbf{t}_{mq} = \mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{a}_{mq}$  which are as **correlated** as possible to  $\mathbf{z}_q$  (from the inner estimation step) and **also explanatory** of their own block  $\mathbf{X}_q$ .

$$\text{Cov}^2(\mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{a}_{mq}, \mathbf{z}_q) = \text{Cor}^2(\mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{a}_{mq}, \mathbf{z}_q) * \text{Var}(\mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{a}_{mq})$$

PLS1 (regression) Mode leads to a **compromise** between a **multiple regression** of  $\mathbf{z}_q$  on  $\mathbf{X}_q$  (**Mode B**) and a **principal component analysis** of  $\mathbf{X}_q$  (**Mode A for a single block**)

## PLS Regression algorithm in PLS-PM

1. **First** PLS component  $\mathbf{t}_{1q}$  (with  $\mathbf{x}_{pq}$  standardized as well):

$$\mathbf{t}_{1q} = \mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{a}_{1q} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sum_p \text{cor}^2(\mathbf{z}_q, \mathbf{x}_{pq})}} \sum_p \text{cor}(\mathbf{z}_q, \mathbf{x}_{pq}) \times \mathbf{x}_{pq}$$

2. **Normalization** of the vector  $\mathbf{a}_{1q} = (a_{11q}, \dots, a_{1pq})$
3. **Regression** of  $\mathbf{z}_q$  on  $\mathbf{t}_{1q} = \mathbf{X}_q \mathbf{a}_{1q}$  expressed in terms of  $\mathbf{X}_q$
4. Computation of the **residuals**  $\mathbf{z}_{q1}$  and  $\mathbf{X}_{q1}$  of the **regressions** of  $\mathbf{z}_q$  and  $\mathbf{X}_q$  on  $\mathbf{t}_{1q}$ :  $\mathbf{z}_q = \mathbf{c}_{1q} \mathbf{t}_{1q} + \mathbf{z}_{q1}$  and  $\mathbf{X}_q = \mathbf{t}_{1q} \mathbf{p}'_{1q} + \mathbf{X}_{q1}$

For successive components the procedure is **iterated** on **residuals** and assessed by means of **cross-validation** or stopped by the user

## PLS Regression algorithm in PLS-PM

Finally, the  $m$ -components PLS regression model yielding the weights for the outer estimate  $\mathbf{v}_q$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{z}_q &= c_{1q}\mathbf{t}_{1q} + c_{2q}\mathbf{t}_{2q} + \dots + c_{mq}\mathbf{t}_{mq} + \text{Residual} \\
 &= c_{1q}\mathbf{X}_q\mathbf{a}_{1q} + c_{2q}\mathbf{X}_q\mathbf{a}_{2q} + \dots + c_{mq}\mathbf{X}_q\mathbf{a}_{mq} + \text{Residual} \\
 &= \mathbf{X}_q(c_{1q}\mathbf{a}_{1q} + c_{2q}\mathbf{a}_{2q} + \dots + c_{mq}\mathbf{a}_{mq}) + \text{Residual} \\
 &= \underbrace{W_{1q}\mathbf{X}_{1q} + W_{2q}\mathbf{X}_{2q} + \dots + W_{pq}\mathbf{X}_{pq}}_{\mathbf{V}_q} + \text{Residual}
 \end{aligned}$$

How should we normalize?

$\mathbf{V}_q$

Further transformed so as to satisfy the classical normalization constraint:  $\text{Var}(\mathbf{v}_q)=1$

## Features of the integrated PLS approach

- **No need to invert  $\mathbf{X}_q'\mathbf{X}_q$**  (i.e. takes full advantage of the NIPALS algorithmic approach)
- Decomposition into common (explanatory) and distinctive dimensions
- **Criterion of fairness** across blocks, i.e. takes into account heterogeneous levels of noise
- **Number of dimensions** in each block chosen in coherence with a **prediction purpose**
- **Choosing a different number of dimensions per block does not affect normalization constraints**

## Two possible normalization constraints for PLS regression Modes

		Normalization constraints on	
		Outer weights <small>(like in RGCCA)</small>	Composite scores <small>(like in PLS-PM)</small>
Oriented to	Covariances between LVs	PLScow	
	Correlations between LVs		PLScore

**PLScore Mode:**  
PLS Mode oriented to maximizing **correlations** between connected composites under normalization constraints on composite **scores**

**PLScow Mode:**  
PLS Mode oriented to maximizing **covariances** between connected composites under normalization constraints on outer **weights**

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## PLS regression Modes in PLS-PM and Ridge Mode in RGCCA

PLS-R as an estimation method for measurement model in standard PLS-PM  
(normalization constraints on composite scores)

$m_q = 1$   
**Mode A**  
 $\|X_q w_q\| = 1$

PLScore Mode

[ Esposito Vinzi et al., 2009 ]  
Mode PLS in XLSTAT-PLSPM

$m_q = P_q$   
**Mode B**  
 $\|X_q w_q\| = 1$

$\tau_q = 0$

Covariance approach

Correlation approach

$m_q = 1$   
**New Mode A**  
 $\|w_q\| = 1$

PLScow Mode

[ Tenenhaus & Tenenhaus, 2011 ]

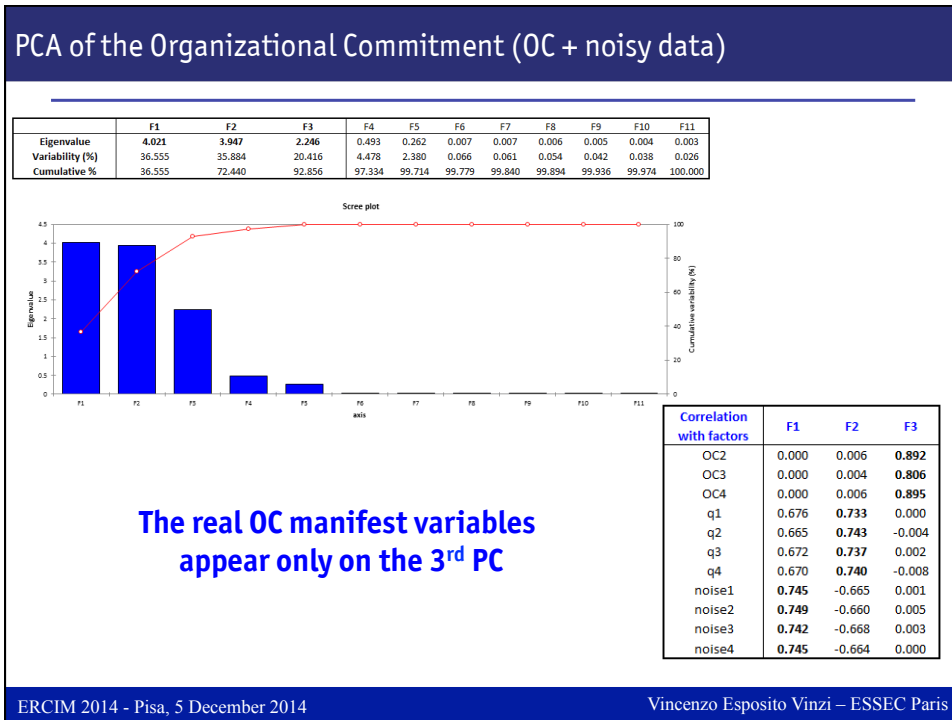
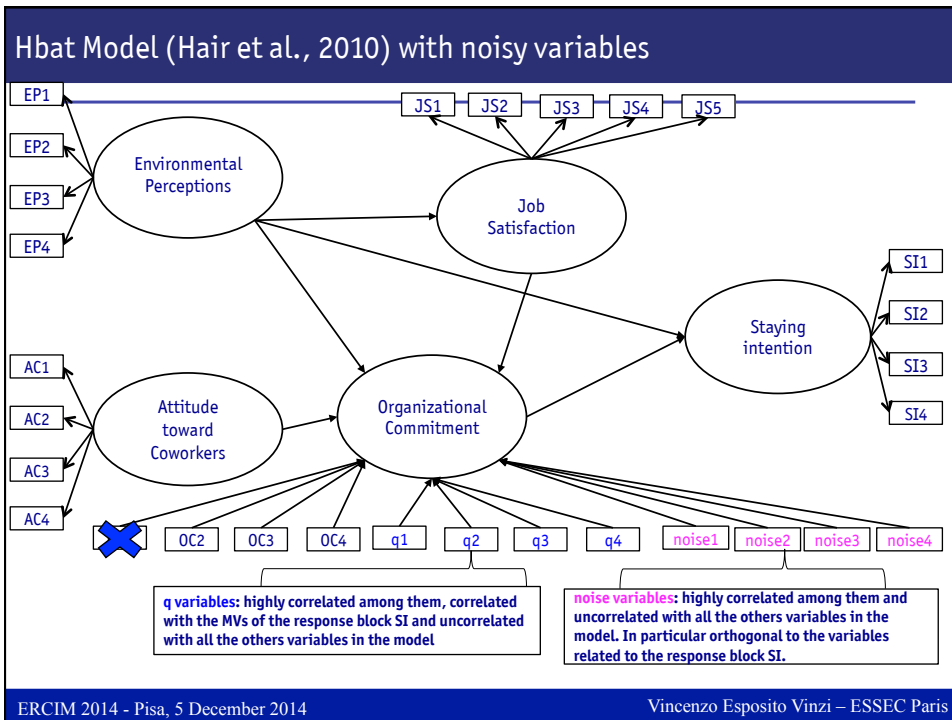
$m_q = P_q$   
**New Mode B**  
 $\|w_q\| = 1$

$\tau_q = 1$

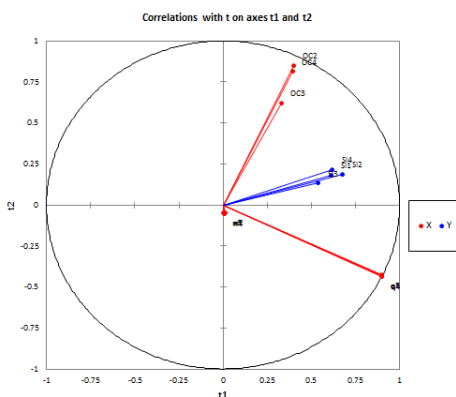
Mode Ridge (RGCCA)

PLS-R as an estimation method for measurement model in a modified PLS-PM  
(normalization constraints on outer weights)

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## PLS Regression of the OC noisy data on Staying Intention (SI)

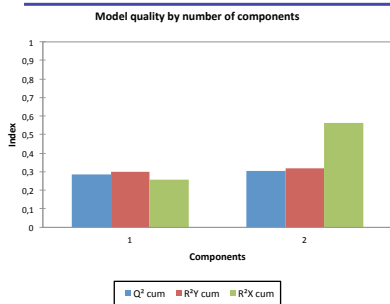


The noise variables are downweighted as they have no predictive power

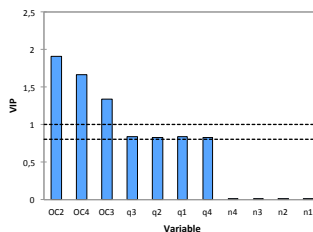
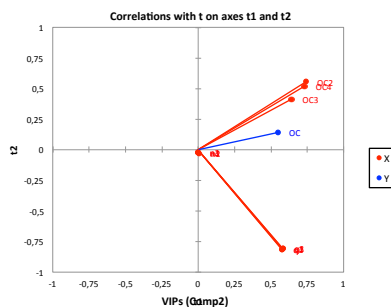
Variable	t1	t2
OC2	0.400	0.850
OC3	0.330	0.623
OC4	0.394	0.814
q1	0.900	-0.428
q2	0.898	-0.432
q3	0.901	-0.427
q4	0.896	-0.436
n1	0.006	-0.049
n2	0.013	-0.049
n3	0.002	-0.046
n4	0.006	-0.051

Variable	w*1	w*2
OC2	0.380	0.771
OC3	0.214	0.204
OC4	0.326	0.558
q1	0.416	-0.182
q2	0.420	-0.159
q3	0.423	-0.152
q4	0.417	-0.170
n1	0.000	-0.015
n2	0.003	-0.017
n3	-0.002	-0.015
n4	-0.001	-0.019

## PLS Regression for the OC outer model in PLS-PM



Variable	t1	t2
OC2	0.740	0.552
OC3	0.640	0.415
OC4	0.731	0.516
q1	0.581	-0.808
q2	0.577	-0.811
q3	0.583	-0.808
q4	0.575	-0.814
n1	0.001	-0.024
n2	0.007	-0.028
n3	-0.001	-0.020
n4	0.000	-0.026
OC	0.548	0.141



### A comparison between Modes PLScore, A and B: outer weights

	Mode PLScore	Mode A	Mode B
<b>OC2</b>	0.435	0.361	-0.655
<b>OC3</b>	0.277	0.258	-0.156
<b>OC4</b>	0.358	0.317	-0.222
<b>q1</b>	0.088	0.144	0.656
<b>q2</b>	0.090	0.145	-0.228
<b>q3</b>	0.092	0.147	-0.225
<b>q4</b>	0.090	0.144	-0.563
<b>n1</b>	0.000	0.000	-0.589
<b>n2</b>	0.000	0.001	-0.093
<b>n3</b>	-0.002	-0.001	0.374
<b>n4</b>	-0.003	-0.002	0.304

## Non-Metric PLS-PM

## Steven's measurement scale classification

Scale	Basic empirical operations	Mathematical group structure	Permissible statistics
NOMINAL	Determination of equality	Permutation group	mode, chi square
ORDINAL	Determination of greater or less	Isotonic group	median, percentile
INTERVAL	Determination of equality of intervals or differences	General linear group	mean, standard deviation, product moment and rank order correlations
RATIO	Determination of equality of ratios	Similarity group	geometric mean, harmonic mean, coefficient of variation

- Interval and Ratio scales are METRIC structures, i.e. sets where notion of distance (metric) between elements of the set is defined.
- Nominal and Ordinal scales are NON-METRIC structures (unordered and ordered sets).
- Statistical analyses based on Pearson's correlation should be performed **only** on metric variables.

## Ordinal vs Nominal variables

Nominal and ordinal variables are categorical variables, i.e. variables that associate each observation to one of the  $m$  groups defined by their categories.

From the mathematical point of view, they are similar:

- Both are **not continuous** variables
- Both have **no metric** properties
- Both do have **no origin** or units of measurements

**The only difference between nominal and ordinal variables is that groups defined by categories of an ordinal variable can be conceptually ordered.**



## PLS-PM assumptions

---

Two basic **assumptions** underlying PLS models:

- Each variable is measured on a **interval (or ratio) scale**.
- Relationships between variables and latent constructs are **linear** and, consequently, **monotonic**.

However, in practice:

- Nominal variables are handled by using a **boolean coding**
- Ordinal variables (e.g. Likert scale items) are coded by **numerals (1,2,3..)**
- **Linearity** is almost never checked

## Three good practical reasons..

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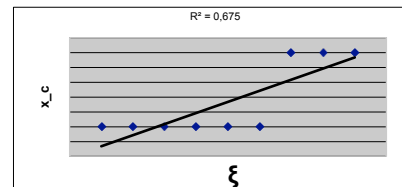
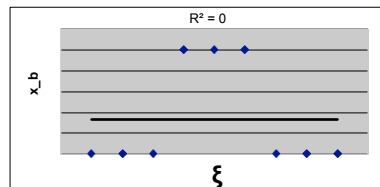
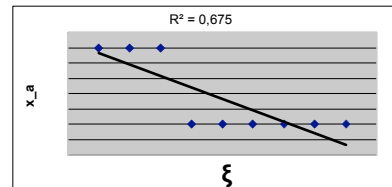
### .. NOT to use boolean coding in PLS-PM

- 1) The number of categories affects the relative impact of categorical variables and generates sparse matrices.
- 2) It measures the impact of the single category, giving up the idea of the variable as a whole.
- 3) The importance of categories associated to central values of the LV distribution is systematically underestimated.

## The relation between $z_q$ and $x_{pq}$

The weight of a MV depends on the linear relation between the MV and the LV inner estimate

ID	z	x	x a	x b	x c
obs1	1	a	1	0	0
obs2	2	a	1	0	0
obs3	3	a	1	0	0
obs4	4	b	0	1	0
obs5	5	b	0	1	0
obs6	6	b	0	1	0
obs7	7	c	0	0	1
obs8	8	c	0	0	1
obs9	9	c	0	0	1



## Ordinal variables in linear models

- “Ordinal variables are not continuous variables and should not be treated as if they were”.
- “It is common practice to treat scores 1,2,3.... assigned to categories as if they had metric properties but this is wrong.”
- “Ordinal variables do not have origins or units of measurements”
- “To use ordinal variables in SEM requires other techniques than those that are traditionally used with continuous variables”

Jöreskog (1994) speaking about covariance-base SEM

**These statements are valid in PLS-PM framework too!**

## Scaling

---

- Scaling a variable means providing the variable with a metric: each observed category (or distinct value) of the raw (i.e. to be scaled) variable is replaced by a numerical value.
- The new scale is an interval scale, independently of the properties of the initial measurement scale.
- Scaling techniques are generally used to convert a WEAKER measurement scale INTO A STRONGER measurement scale..
- However, it can be useful to RE-SCALE a metric variable by providing it with a DIFFERENT metric..

## Scaling Level

---

- We don't need to retain all of the properties of the initial measurement scale of the variable.
- The scaling level is defined by the properties of the initial measurement scale that the researcher chooses to retain in the new measurement scale

## Optimal Scaling (OS)

---

To define a scaling process as optimal, the [scaling parameter estimates](#) must be:

- [Suitable](#), as it must respect the constraints defined by the scaling level.
- [Optimal](#), as it must optimize the same criterion of the analysis in which the OS process is involved.

## Non-Metric Partial Least Squares

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### Non-Metric Partial Least Squares

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## Non-Metric Partial Least Squares

The OS principle, applied to PLS-PM, allows us:

- Handling numerical, ordinal and nominal variables in the same model
  - Checking and/or adjusting the data for non-linearity and non-monotonicity
  - Dealing with outliers
  - Suggesting a discretization process
- Each raw variable is transformed as  $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \propto \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\phi$ , where  $\phi' = (\phi_1 \dots \phi_k)$  is the vector of optimal scaling parameters and the matrix  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$  defines a space in which constraints imposed by the scaling level are respected.
  - Optimal quantification are calculated by means of a PLS-based iterative algorithm

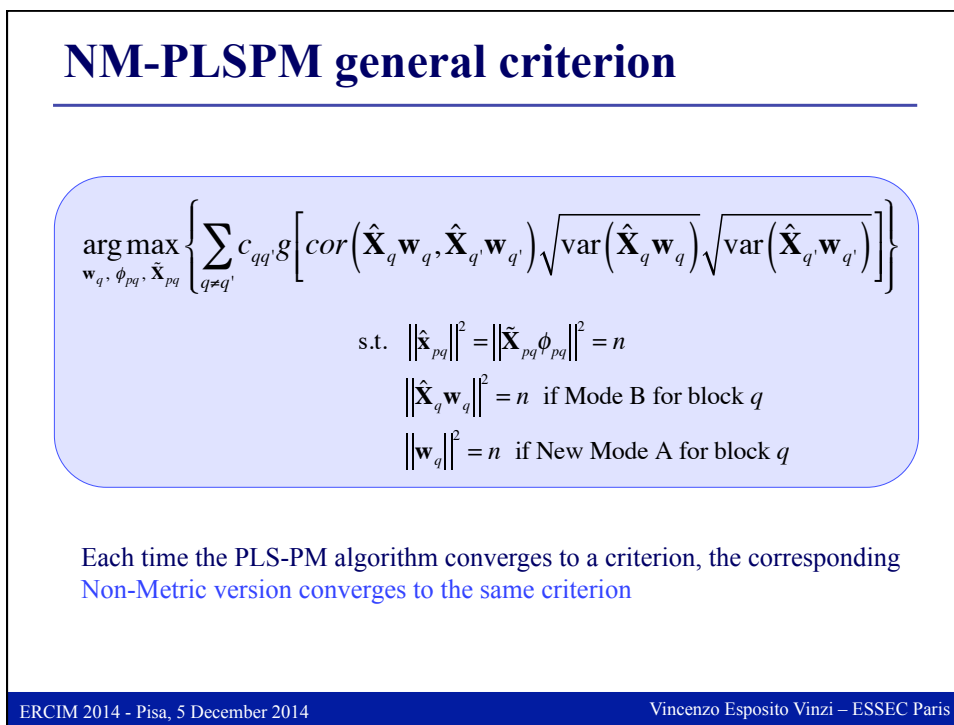
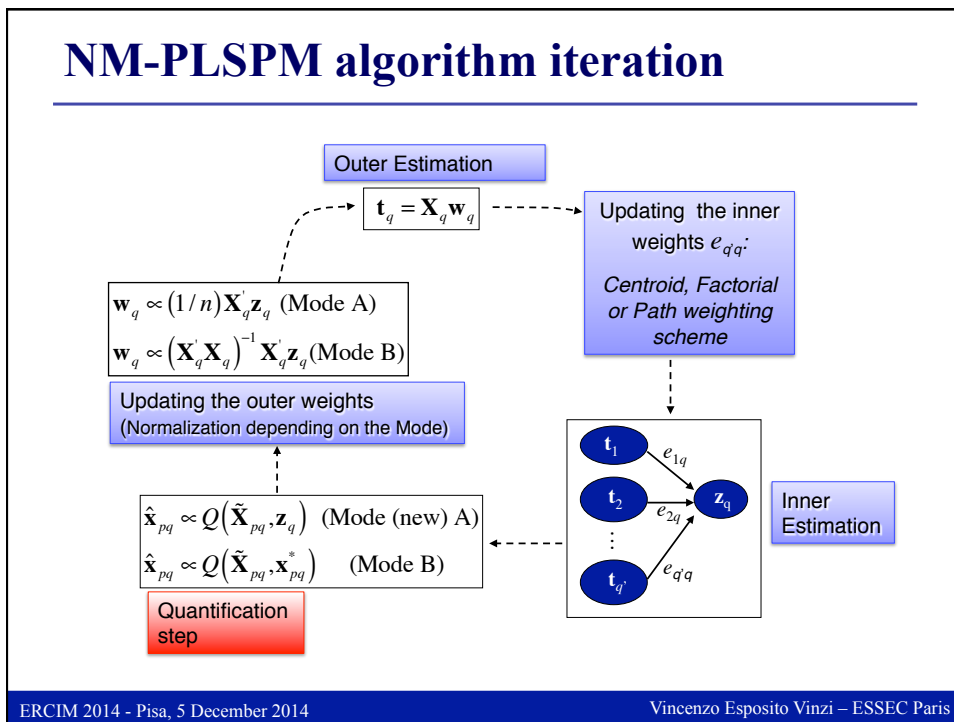
## Non-Metric PLS Path Modeling algorithm

A new PLS algorithm which works (also) as an optimal scaling algorithm: NM-PLSPM assigns a scaling (numeric) value to each category (or distinct value)  $k$  ( $k = 1 \dots K \leq N$ ) of raw variables  $x$ , such that

- It is coherent with the chosen scaling level;
- It optimizes the PLS criterion, if any.

Outer weights and scaling parameters are alternately optimized in a modified PLS loop where a quantification step is added.

- In standard PLS steps the outer weights are optimized for given scaling values.
- In the quantification step, instead, the scaling values are optimized for given outer weights: raw variables are properly transformed through scaling (quantification) functions  $Q()$



## PLSPM R-package

The NN-PLSPM algorithm is implemented in the R-package **plsmpm**:



[CRAN](#)  
[Mirror](#)  
[What's new?](#)  
[Task Views](#)  
[Search](#)  
 About R  
[R Homepage](#)  
[The R Journal](#)

**plsmpm**: Tools for Partial Least Squares Path Modeling (PLS-PM)  
 plsmpm contains a set of functions for performing Partial Least Squares Path Modeling (PLS-PM) analysis for both metric and non-metric data, as well as REBUS analysis.

Version: 0.4.1  
 Depends: R (≥ 3.0.1), [amap](#), [diagram](#), [tester](#), [turner](#)  
 Suggests: [plsdepot](#), [FactoMineR](#), [ggplot2](#), [reshape](#), [testthat](#), [knitr](#)  
 Published: 2013-12-08  
 Author: Gaston Sanchez [aut, cre], Laura Trinchera [aut], Giorgio Russolillo [aut]  
 Maintainer: Gaston Sanchez <gaston.stat@gmail.com>  
 License: [GPL-3](#)  
 URL: <http://www.gastonsanchez.com> <http://www.plsmodeling.com>  
 NeedsCompilation: no

Two types of quantification are currently allowed:

- **Nominal Scaling**, in which the following **group** constraint is considered:

$$(x_i \sim x_{i'}) \Rightarrow (\hat{x}_i = \hat{x}_{i'})$$

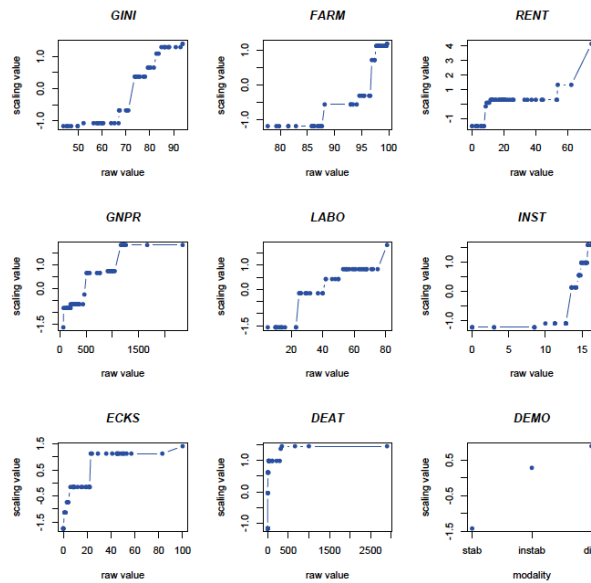
- **Ordinal scaling**, in which a further **order** constraint is considered:

$$(x_i^* \sim x_{i'}^*) \Rightarrow (\hat{x}_i = \hat{x}_{i'}) \quad \text{and} \quad (x_i^* \prec x_{i'}^*) \Rightarrow (\hat{x}_i \leq \hat{x}_{i'})$$

## An application to the Russett data (1965)

- **gini**: Gini's index of concentration;
- **farm**: complement of the percentage of farmers that own half of the lands, starting with the smallest ones. Thus if farm is 90%, then 10% of the farmers own half of the lands;
- **rent**: percentage of farm households that rent all their land.
- **gnpr**: gross national product pro capite (in U.S. dollars) in 1955;
- **labo**: the percentage of labor force employed in agriculture.
- **inst**: an index, bounded from 0 (stability) to 17 (instability), calculated as a function of the number of the chiefs of the executive and of the number of years of independence of the country during the period 1946-1961;
- **ecks**: the Eckstein's index, which measures the number of violent internal war incidents during the same period;
- **death**: number of people killed as a result of violent manifestations during the period 1950-1962;
- **demo**: a categorical variable that classifies countries in three groups: stable democracy, unstable democracy and dictatorship.

## Russet data (1964): Quantifications



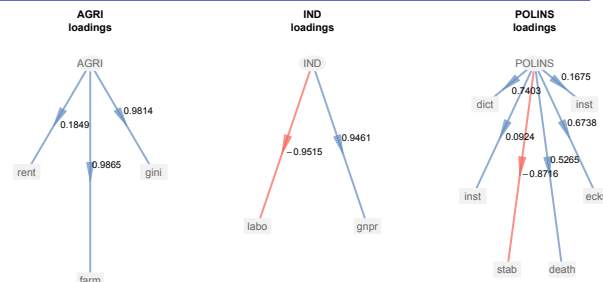
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## Russet data (1964): Model comparison

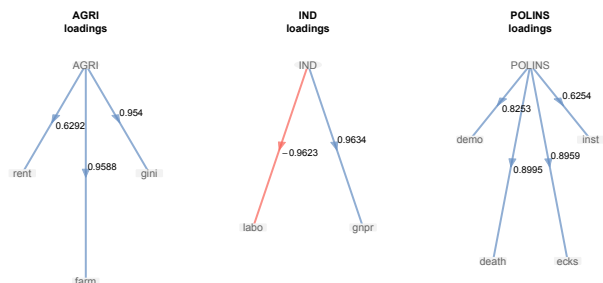
### PLS Model:

- $R^2 = .605$
- $GoF = .567$



### NM-PLS Model:

- $R^2 = .793$
- $GoF = .772$



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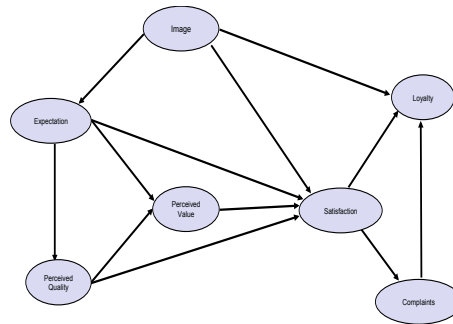
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## Application to mobile data

Latent variables	Manifest variables
Image ( $\xi_1$ )	(a) It can be trusted in what it says and does (b) It is stable and firmly established (c) It has a social contribution for the society (d) It is concerned with customers (e) It is innovative and forward looking
Customer expectations of the overall quality ( $\xi_2$ )	(a) Expectations for the overall quality of "your mobile phone provider" at the moment you became customer of this provider (b) Expectations for "your mobile phone provider" to provide products and services to meet your personal need (c) How often did you expect that things could go wrong at "your mobile phone provider"
Perceived quality ( $\xi_3$ )	(a) Overall perceived quality (b) Technical quality of the network (c) Customer service and personal advice offered (d) Quality of the services you use (e) Range of services and products offered (f) Reliability and accuracy of the products and services provided (g) Clarity and transparency of information provided
Perceived value ( $\xi_4$ )	(a) Given the quality of the products and services offered by "your mobile phone provider" how would you rate the fees and prices that you pay for them? (b) Given the fees and prices that you pay for "your mobile phone provider" how would you rate the quality of the products and services offered by "your mobile phone provider"?
Customer satisfaction ( $\xi_5$ )	(a) Overall satisfaction (b) Fulfillment of expectations (c) How well do you think "your mobile phone provider" compares with your ideal mobile phone provider?
Customer complaints ( $\xi_6$ )	(a) You complained about "your mobile phone provider" last year. How well, or poorly, was your most recent complaint handled or (b) You did not complain about "your mobile phone provider" last year. Imagine you have to complain to "your mobile phone provider" because of a bad quality of service or product. To what extent do you think that "your mobile phone provider" will care about your complaint?
Customer loyalty ( $\xi_7$ )	(a) If you would need to choose a new mobile phone provider how likely is it that you would choose "your provider" again? (b) Let us now suppose that other mobile phone providers decide to lower their fees and prices, but "your mobile phone provider" stays at the same level as today. At which level of difference (in %) would you choose another mobile phone provider? (c) If a friend or colleague asks you for advice, how likely is it that you would recommend "your mobile phone provider"?

All the items measured on a Likert scale from 1 (very negative point of view on the service) to 10 (vey positive point of view on the service)



- Standardized MVs
- Centroid Scheme
- Mode A

## Mobile data: Comparing model quality

Linearity hypothesis

(No scaling)

$$\begin{aligned} GoF &= 0.470 \\ \bar{R}^2 &= 0.387 \\ Com_M &= 0.599 \\ Red_M &= 0.263 \end{aligned}$$

Monotonicity hypothesis

(Ordinal Scaling)

$$\begin{aligned} GoF &= 0.526 \\ \bar{R}^2 &= 0.464 \\ Com_M &= 0.618 \\ Red_M &= 0.315 \end{aligned}$$

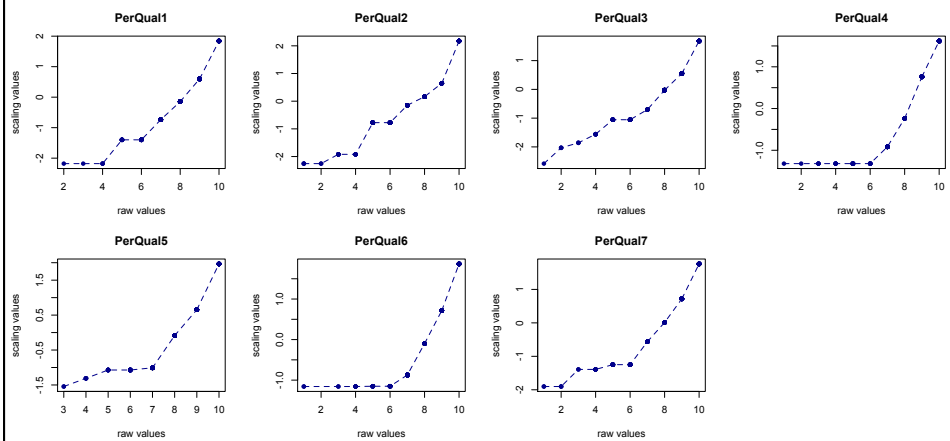
No hypothesis

(Nominal Scaling)

$$\begin{aligned} GoF &= 0.547 \\ \bar{R}^2 &= 0.495 \\ Com_M &= 0.623 \\ Red_M &= 0.335 \end{aligned}$$

## Mobile data: Ordinal quantification for perceived quality

Perceived Quality Latent Variable: 7 indicators



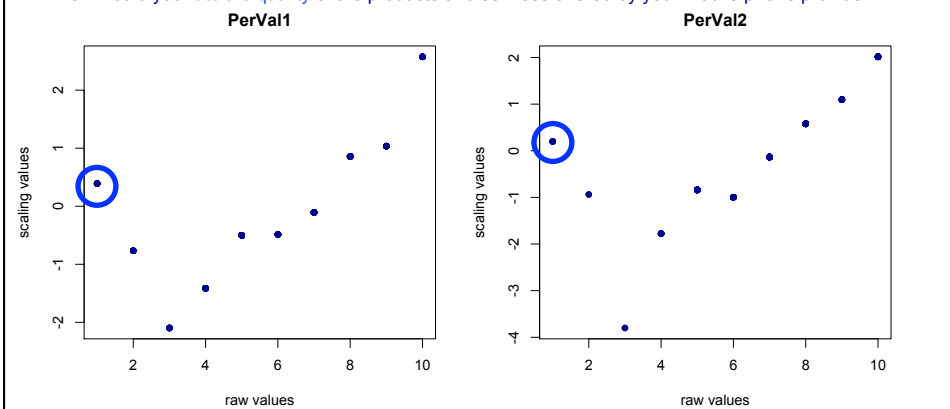
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## Mobile data: Nominal quantification for perceived quality

Perceived Value: 2 manifest variables

- **PerVal1:** Given the quality of the product and services offered by your mobile phone provider, how would you rate the fees and the price that you pay for them?
- **PerVal2:** Given the fees and the price of the product and services offered by your mobile phone provider, how would you rate the quality of the products and services offered by your mobile phone provider?



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## Mediation and Moderation\*

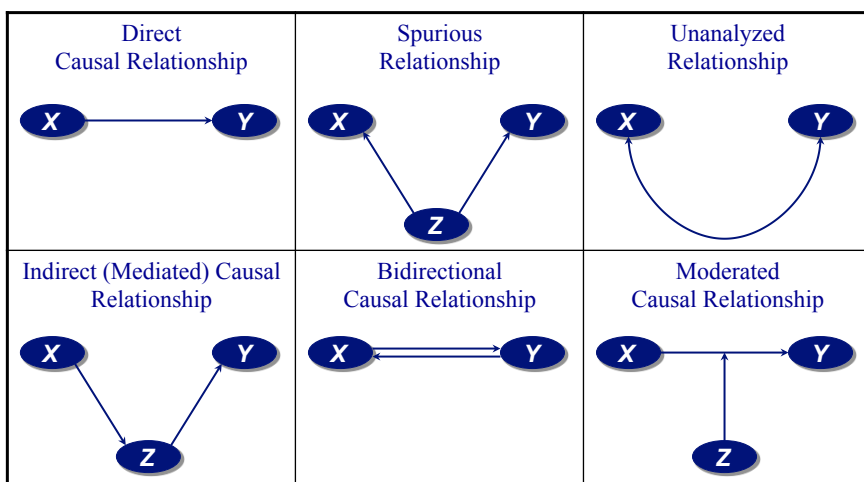
\*Extract from W.W. Chin's slide on mediation and moderation

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## Kind of Relationships between LVs

### Review of Causal Relationships between Latent Variables



(c.f. Jaccard/Turrisi, 2003)

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## Moderating effect

“In general terms, a **moderator** can be a qualitative (e.g., sex, race, class) or quantitative (e.g., level of reward) **variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable**”

*Baron/Kenny, 1986, p. 1174*

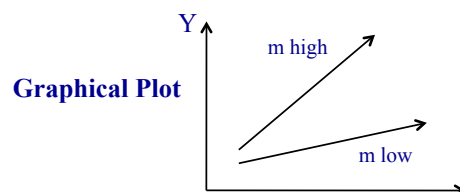
→ The effect of a moderator variable on the relation between two variables is called a “**moderating effect**” or an “**interaction effect**”.

Example for moderated effect: *satisfaction-loyalty link*

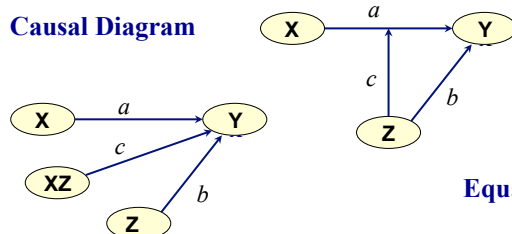
- Moderated by socio-demographic variables (Homburg/Giering, 2001).
- Moderated by involvement (Bloemer/Kasper 1995)

## Moderating effect

Example of moderator or interaction term



The slope of the exogenous variable  $x$  be no longer constant, but depend (linearly) on the moderator variable  $z$ .



**Equation**

$$Y = aX + bZ + cX * Z + \delta$$

$$= bZ + (a + cZ)X + \delta$$

## Creating the Interaction Term

The way of creating the interaction term depends on the type of measurement models involved.

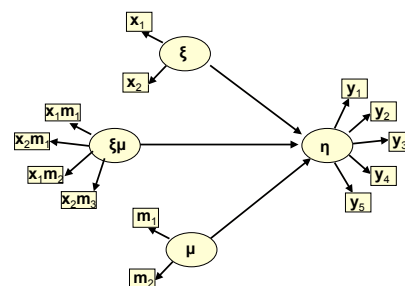
1. The measurement model of both the exogenous and the moderator variable is reflective
  - ⇒ Product-indicator approach
  - ⇒ Orthogonalizing approach
2. The measurement model of the exogenous or the moderator variable is reflective
  - ⇒ Two-stage approach

## The Product-Indicator Approach

→ Mode A (arrows outwards) has to be used.

### Idea:

1. Each of the  $P_1$  indicators of the exogenous variable is elementwise multiplied with each of the  $P_2$  indicators of the moderator variable, resulting in  $P_1 * P_1$  product indicators.
2. These product indicators serve as indicators of the interaction term.



Based on Kenny/Judd (1984) and Chin/Marcolin/Newsted (1996, 2003).

Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 1996, Paper available at: <http://disc-nt.cba.uh.edu/chin/icis96.pdf>

Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003, *Information Systems Research*, 14 (2), 189-217.

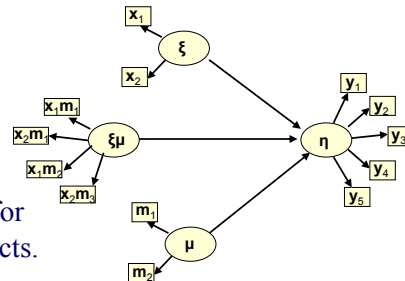
## The Product-Indicator Approach

### Procedure:

Step 1: Standardize or center indicators for the main and moderating constructs.

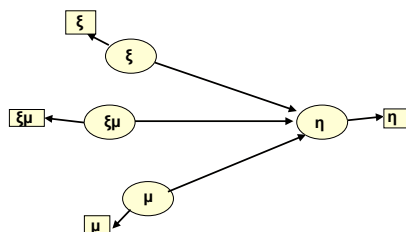
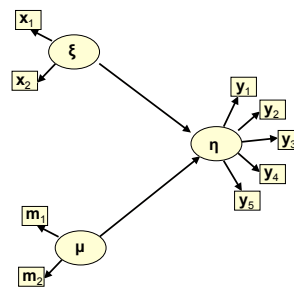
Step 2: Create all pair-wise product indicators where each indicator from the main construct is multiplied with each indicator from the moderating construct.

Step 3: Use the new product indicators to reflect the interaction construct.



## Two-Stage Approach

1. Run the Main Effects Model
2. Estimating the Moderating Effect



## Two-Stage Approach – formative MVs

---

### Follow a two step construct score procedure:

Step 1: Use the formative indicators in conjunction with PLS to create underlying construct scores for the predictor and moderator variables.

Step 2: Take the single composite scores from PLS to create a single interaction term.

**Attention:** This approach has yet to be tested in a Monte Carlo simulation.

## Remarks on Moderating effects

---

- The path coefficients between latent variables no longer represent main effects but so-called “single effects”.
- A single effect expresses the strength of an effect when the moderator variable is zero.
- It is indispensable to include all simple effects in the model.
- Pay attention to the choices for Centering and Standardizing the Indicators

## Centering or Standardizing the Indicators

---

### Centering

- Helps to circumvent problem of multicollinearity.
- For prediction purposes, means have to be recovered.

### Standardization

- Same as for centering.
- Beware of interpretational flaws!
- A standardized interaction term is never interpretable.

In general, the elementwise product of two standardized manifest variables will not have a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one.



The interaction term's path coefficient as such is not interpretable.

## Centering or Standardizing the Indicators

---

### Correcting the Moderating Effect's Path Coefficient for Standardization Bias

One suggestion:

- Calculate the standard deviation of each product indicator.
- Create the weighted average of the standard deviations (weighted by the outer weights of the interaction term).
- Divide the interaction term's path coefficient by this weighted average.

Alternatively, the latent variable scores of the interaction term should be multiplied by the weighted average of the standard deviations of the product indicators, using the respective loadings of the product indicators as weights.

→ This corrected coefficient can be interpreted in relation to the moderated relation.



## Determining the Strength of the Moderating Effect

Effect size

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{\text{model with moderator}} - R^2_{\text{model without moderator}}}{1 - R^2_{\text{model without moderator}}}$$

- Effect sizes of 0.02/0.15/0.35 are regarded as weak/moderate/strong (Cohen, 1988).
- “Even a small interaction effect can be meaningful under extreme moderating conditions, if the resulting beta changes are meaningful, then it is important to take these conditions into account” (Chin/Marcolin/Newsted 2003, p. 211).

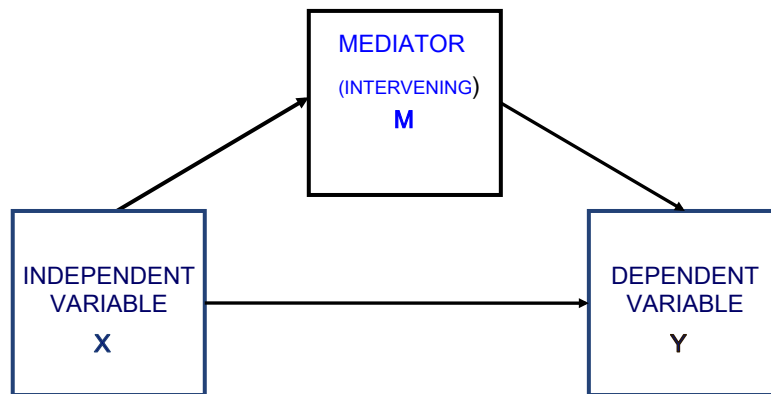
## Mediated effect

**Mediator:** a variable that is intermediate in the causal process relating an independent to a dependent variable.

- A mediator is a variable in a chain whereby an independent variable causes the mediator which in turn causes the outcome variable (Sobel, 1990)
- The generative mechanism through which the focal independent variable is able to influence the dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986)
- A variable that occurs in a causal pathway from an independent variable to a dependent variable. It causes variation in the dependent variable and itself is caused to vary by the independent variable (Last, 1988)

## Single mediator model

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## Mediation Causal Steps Test

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- Series of steps described in Judd & Kenny (1981) and Baron & Kenny (1986).
- One of the most widely used methods to assess mediation in psychology.
- Consists of a series of tests required for mediation as shown in the next slides.

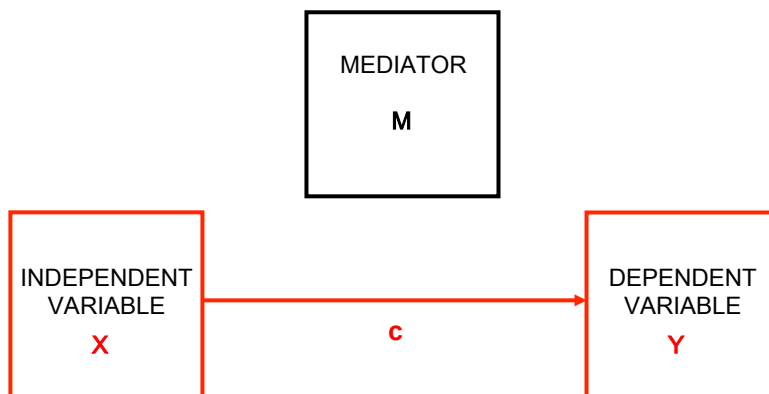
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## Mediator model: *Total Effect*

1. The independent variable causes the dependent variable:

$$Y = i_1 + cX + e_1$$



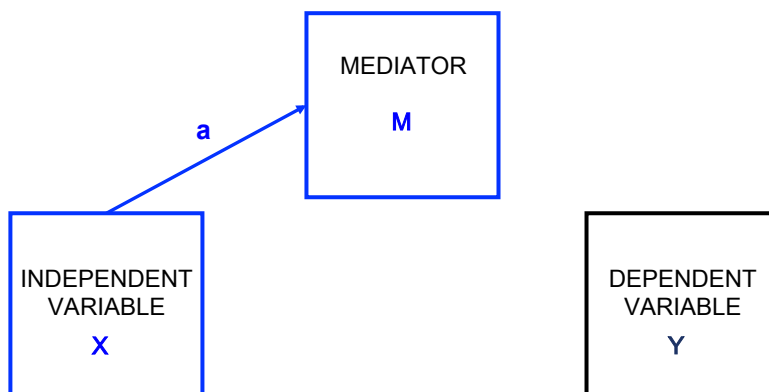
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## Mediator model: *Direct effect of X on M*

2. The independent variable causes the potential mediator:

$$M = i_2 + aX + e_2$$



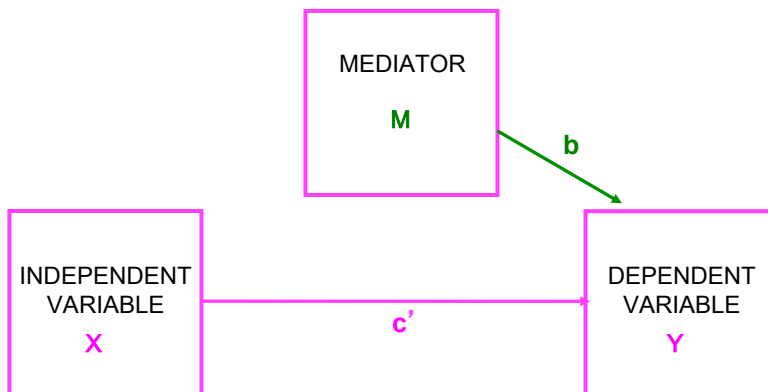
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### Mediator model: *Direct Effects of M and X on Y*

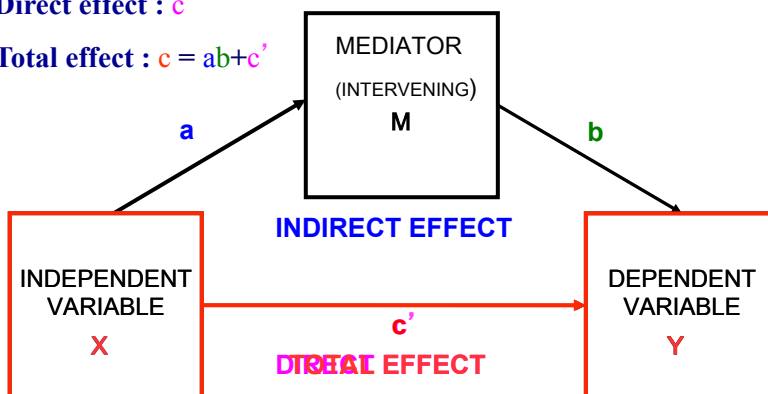
3. The mediator causes the dependent variable controlling for the independent variable:

$$Y = i_3 + c'X + bM + e_3$$



### Single mediator model

- Mediated (Indirect) effect :  $ab$
- Direct effect :  $c'$
- Total effect :  $c = ab + c'$



## Test for significant mediation

---

M is a full (partial) mediator if the following conditions are satisfied:

- **c is significant**
- **c'** is not significant (still significant **but less than c**)
- **Indirect effect ab is significant.**

$$z = \frac{ab}{\sqrt{a^2 s_b^2 + b^2 s_a^2}}$$

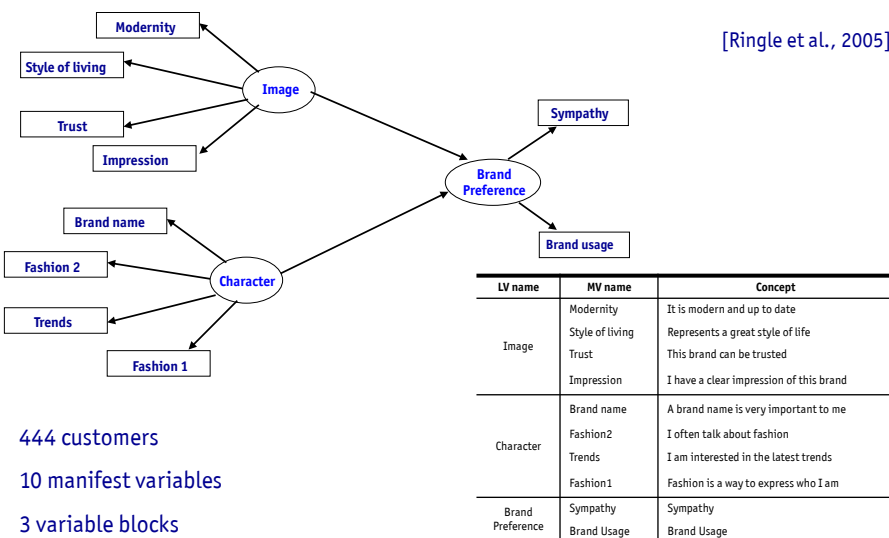
Standandar error of the mediated effect

## Unobserved Heterogeneity in PLS-PM

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## A path model for BENETTON brand preference

[Ringle et al., 2005]

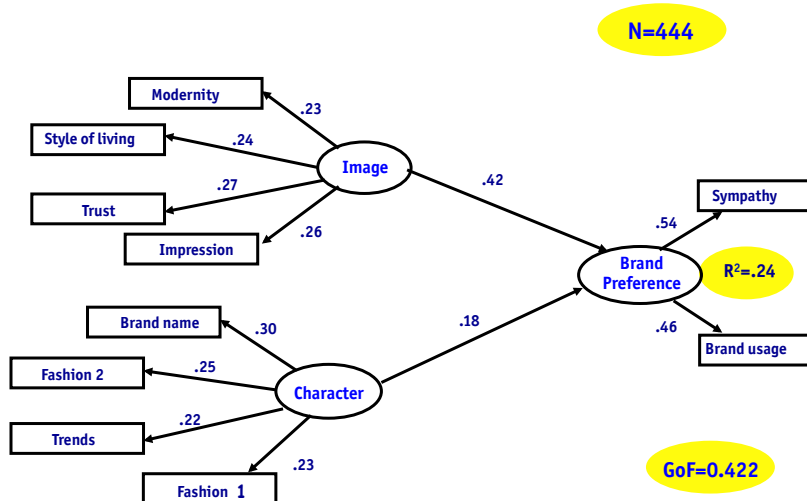


444 customers  
10 manifest variables  
3 variable blocks

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## PLS-PM estimates for BENETTON model



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## Unobserved Heterogeneity in SEM

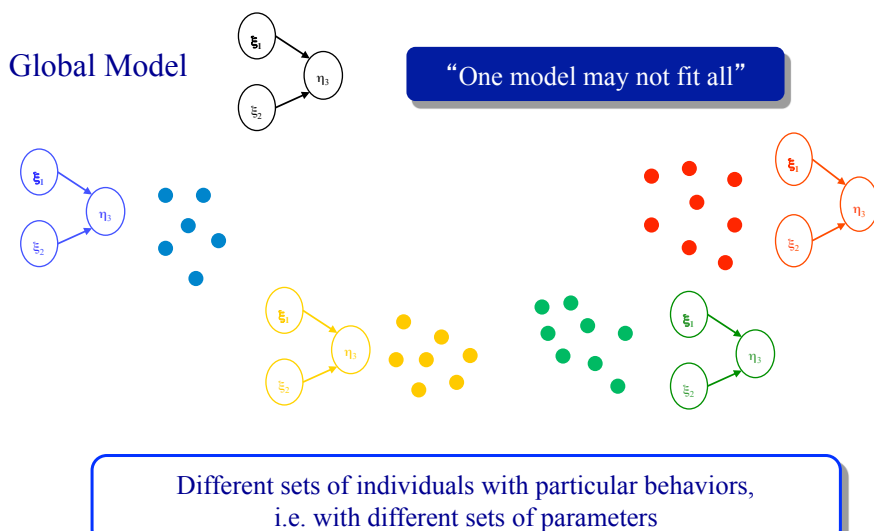
Traditional Structural Equation Models assume homogeneity across an entire population: data are treated as if they were collected from a single population

→ a unique model, i.e. the global model, is considered as explaining the behaviours of the whole set of units (the same set of parameter values applies to all individuals)



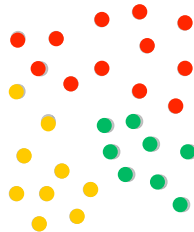
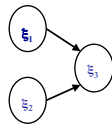
A unique model for all the observations may “hide” differences in consumer behaviours and may lead to biased results

## Unobserved Heterogeneity in SEM



## A priori unit segmentation

Global Model

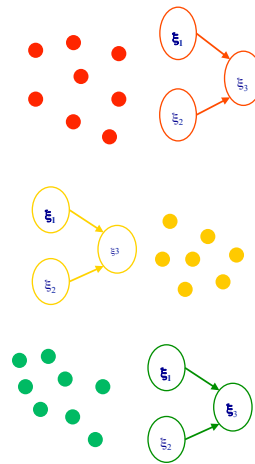


Observed clustering variable:  
e.g. **Education**

- Doctors
- Graduated
- Undergraduated



No Model-Based,  
No Response-Based !!!



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## Unobserved Heterogeneity in PLS-PM

The need of searching for latent classes very often arises  
in several business and marketing studies

Latent Classes are unobservable (latent) subgroups or segments of  
observations



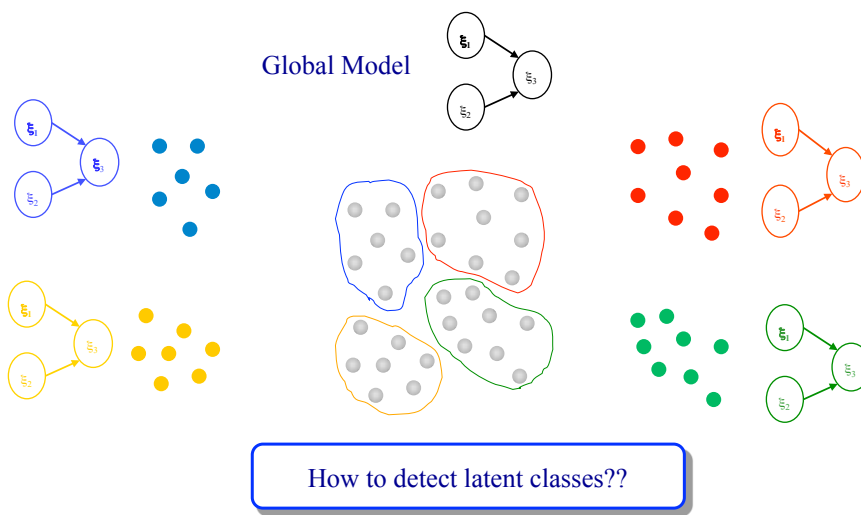
Observations within the same latent class are homogeneous on certain criteria, while  
observations in different latent classes are dissimilar from each other in certain  
important ways

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## Unsupervised segmentation

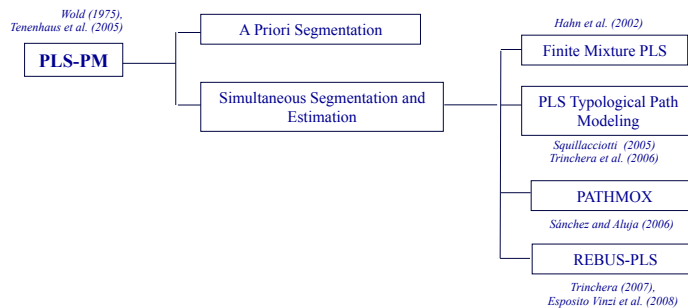


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## Latent Class detection in component-based SEM

Several techniques to obtain unit clustering in Component-based Structural Equation Models



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## REsponse Based Unit Segmentation in PLS Path Modeling (REBUS-PLS): the idea behind

➔ Units showing similar performance (i.e. residuals!!) as regards the global model are considered to be represented by a unique model

➔ If a unit is assigned to the correct latent class, its performance (i.e. residuals!!) in the local model computed for that specific class will be better than the performance obtained by the same unit considered as supplementary in all the other local models

REBUS-PLS has a different implementation for outwards and inwards indicators

## REBUS-PLS article in ASMBI (2008)

APPLIED STOCHASTIC MODELS IN BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY  
*Appl. Stochastic Models Bus. Ind.* 2008; 24:439-458  
 Published online 28 August 2008 in Wiley InterScience (www.interscience.wiley.com). DOI: 10.1002/asmb.728

### REBUS-PLS: A response-based procedure for detecting unit segments in PLS path modelling

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#### SUMMARY

Structural equation models (SEMs) make it possible to estimate the causal relationships, defined according to a theoretical model, linking two or more latent complex concepts, each measured through a number of observable indicators, usually called manifest variables. Traditionally, the component-based estimation of SEMs by means of partial least squares (PLS path modelling, PLS-PM) assumes homogeneity over the observed set of units: all units are supposed to be well represented by a unique model estimated on the overall data set. In many cases, however, it is reasonable to expect classes made of units showing heterogeneous behaviours to exist.

Two different kinds of heterogeneity could be affecting the data: observed and unobserved heterogeneity. The first refers to the case of *a priori* existing classes, whereas in unobserved heterogeneity no information is available either on the number of classes or on their composition.

## REBUS-PLS: the closeness measure for PLS-PM with Outwards Indicators

Since the “distance” is a sum of squared residuals, it would be better defined as a measure of “closeness” of units to the model, i.e. a “closeness measure” (CM).

$$CM_{ik} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{q=1}^Q \sum_{p=1}^{P_q} [e_{ipqk}^2 / Com(\xi_{qk}, \mathbf{x}_{pq})]}{(N - m_k - 1)}} \times \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{j=1}^J [f_{ijk}^2] R^2(\xi_j, \{\xi_q \text{'s explaining } \xi_j\})}{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^J [f_{ijk}^2 / R^2(\xi_j, \xi_q \text{'s explaining } \xi_j)] (N - m_k - 1)}}$$

Number of extracted latent factors, so  $m_k=1$  ALWAYS!

The Measurement residuals
The Structural residuals

## REBUS-PLS: the Measurement Residuals for Outwards Indicators

For each  $p$ -th manifest variable in the  $q$ -th block...

...the Measurement Residual is obtained as the difference between the observed value of the  $p$ -th manifest variable and the corresponding estimated value, which is obtained by regression of  $x_{pq}$  on the  $q$ -th latent variable of the  $k$ -th group:

$$e_{ipqk} = x_{ipq} - \hat{x}_{ipqk}$$

Observed manifest variable
Estimated manifest variable:

$$\hat{x}_{ipqk} = \lambda_{pqk} \hat{\xi}_{iqk}$$

where:  $\hat{\xi}_{iqk} = \sum_{p=1}^{P_q} w_{pqk} x_{ipq}$

$\lambda_{pqk}$  and  $w_{pqk}$  are GROUP SPECIFIC!!

**P Measurement Residuals are computed for each  $i$ -th unit as regards the  $k$ -th group!**

## REBUS-PLS: the Structural Residuals

For each  $j$ -th endogenous latent variable...

...the Structural Residual is obtained as the difference between the  $j$ -th endogenous latent variable score and the inner estimation of the  $j$ -th latent variable, i.e. it is the residual of the multiple regressions of the endogenous latent variables on their explanatory latent variables:

$$f_{ijk} = \hat{\xi}_{ijk} - y_{ijk}$$

where:

$$\hat{\xi}_{ijk} = \sum_{p=1}^{p_q} w_{pjk} x_{ipj}$$

is obtained by using the **outer weights estimated for the  $k$ -th group**

**GROUP SPECIFIC!!!**

and  $y_{ijk} = \sum_{q=1}^{Q \text{ s on } j} \beta_{qjk} \hat{\xi}_{ijk}$  is obtained by using the **path coefficients estimated for the  $k$ -th group**

**J Structural Residuals are computed for each  $i$ -th unit as regards the  $k$ -th group!**

## REBUS-PLS: the closeness measure for PLS-PM with Inwards Indicators

$$CM_{ik} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{q=1}^Q [g_{iqk}^2 / R^2(\xi_{qk}, X_q)]}{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{q=1}^Q [g_{iqk}^2 / R^2(\xi_{qk}, X_q)]} \times \frac{\sum_{j=1}^J [f_{ijk}^2 / R^2(\xi_j, \{\xi_q \text{ 's explaining } \xi_j\})]}{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^J [f_{ijk}^2 / R^2(\xi_j, \{\xi_q \text{ 's explaining } \xi_j\})]}}$$

The Outer residuals

## REBUS-PLS: the Outer Residuals for Inwards Indicators

For each latent variable in the  $q$ -th reflective block...

...the Outer Residual is obtained as the difference between the latent variable score, obtained as linear combination of the manifest variable using the group-specific outer weights, and the last inner estimation of the latent variable:

$$g_{i q k} = \hat{\xi}_{i q k} - z_{i q}$$

Latent variable score obtained by using the **outer weights estimated for the  $k$ -th group**:

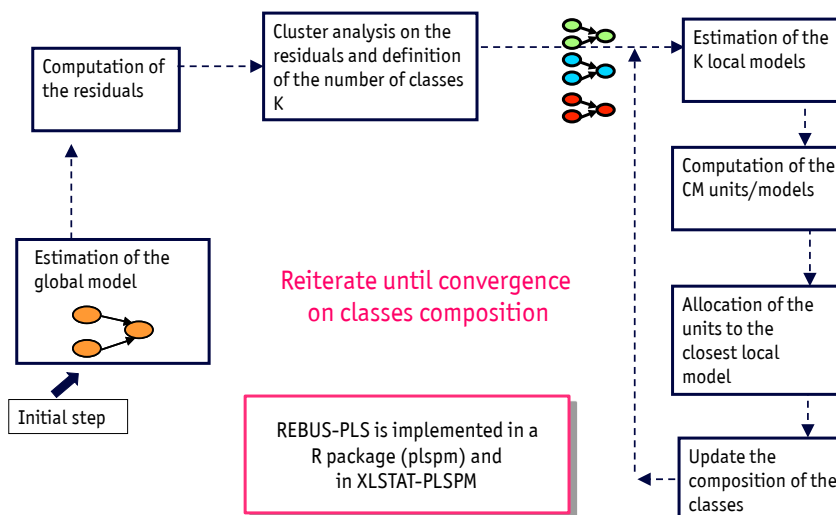
$$\hat{\xi}_{i q k} = \sum_{p=1}^{p_q} w_{p q k} x_{i p q}$$

$w_{p q k}$  is **GROUP SPECIFIC!**

Inner estimation of the latent variable

**Q** Structural Residuals are computed for each  $i$ -th unit as regards the  $k$ -th group!

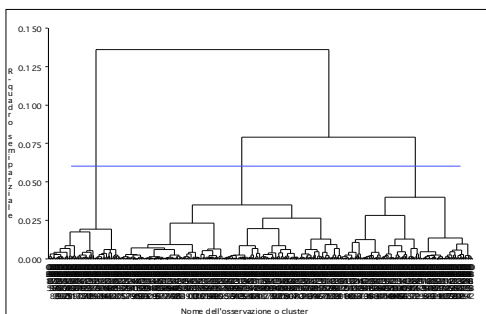
## REBUS-PLS algorithm



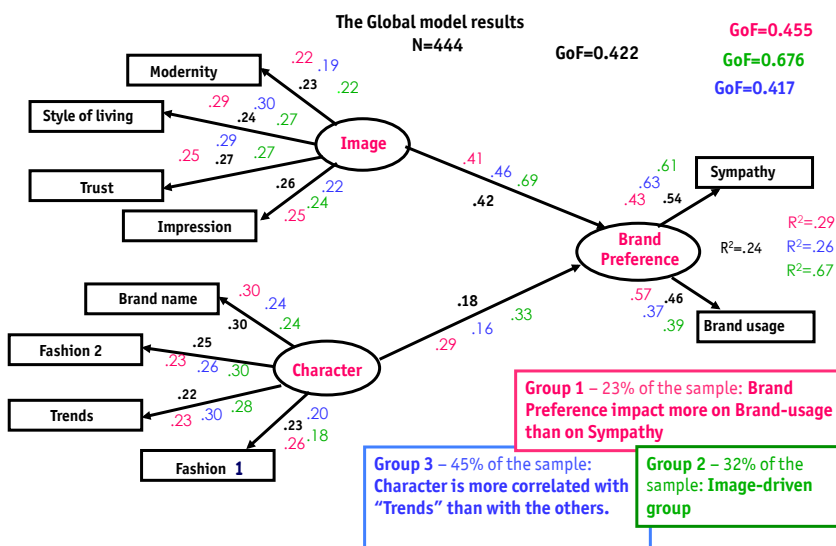
## BENETTON data: REBUS-PLS results

How many classes?

Three in REBUS-PLS

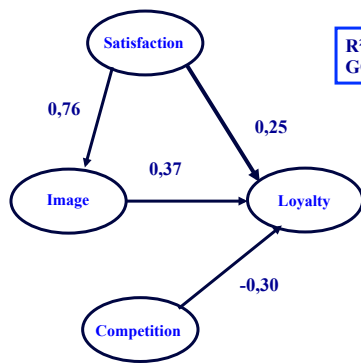


## BENETTON data: REBUS-PLS results



## A real case example

### Satisfaction survey on professional customers of a electricity provider



$R^2(\text{loy})=0,47$   
GOF= 0,53

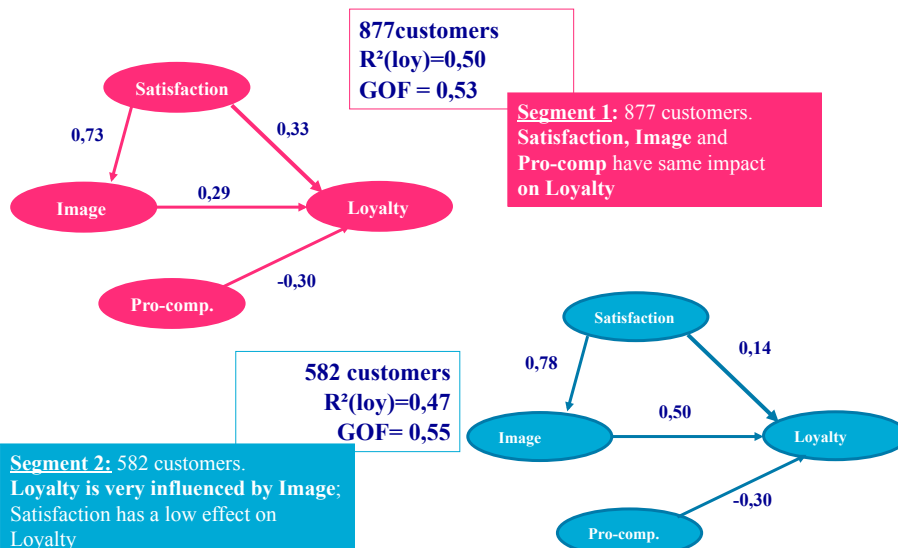
1459 customers  
25 manifest variables  
4 variable blocks

IMAGE with 13 manifest variables  
SATISFACTION with 7 manifest variables  
LOYALTY with 1 manifest variable  
PRO-COMPETITION with 4 manifest variables

All blocks are FORMATIVE

- Are there groups of customers showing **different behavioural models**?
- Is the impact of the explanatory latent variables on loyalty the same for all customers?
- Do customers show the same satisfaction model?

## Electricity provider: the REBUS-PLS results



877customers  
 $R^2(\text{loy})=0,50$   
GOF = 0,53

Segment 1: 877 customers.  
Satisfaction, Image and  
Pro-comp have same impact  
on Loyalty

582 customers  
 $R^2(\text{loy})=0,47$   
GOF= 0,55

Segment 2: 582 customers.  
Loyalty is very influenced by Image;  
Satisfaction has a low effect on  
Loyalty

## The Group Quality Index

The **GQI** → a new index based on residuals to assess if local models perform better than the global model

$$GQI_K = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^K \frac{n_k}{N} \left[ \frac{1}{P} \sum_{q=1}^Q \sum_{p=1}^P \left( 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_k} e_{ipqk}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n_k} (x_{ipq} - \bar{x}_{pqk})^2} \right) \times \frac{1}{J} \sum_{j=1}^J \left( 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_k} f_{ijk}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n_k} (\xi_{ijk} - \bar{\xi}_{jk})^2} \right) \right]}$$

GQI is a reformulation of the GoF index in a multi-group optic



If K=1 → GQI<sub>1</sub> = GoF of the global model!!!

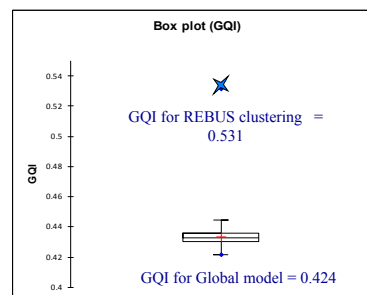
A **permutation test** can be performed to assess the quality of the detected partition

## BENETTON Data: evaluation of the partition

Simple Statistics	GQI
No. of observations	302
Minimum	0.422
Maximum	0.454
1° Quartile	0.426
Median	0.428
3° Quartile	0.431
Mean	0.429
Lower bound on mean (95%)	0.428
Upper bound on mean (95%)	0.429

300 random replications of the unit partition in 3 classes + the REBUS-based partition + the global model

Empirical distribution of the GQI values





## Multi-group comparison

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## Multigroup comparison in PLS-PM

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A form of PLS-PM analysis where two or more samples of respondents are compared using similar models.

### Main question addressed:

- Do values of model parameters vary across groups?
- Does group membership moderate the relations specified in the model?
- Is there an interaction between group membership and exogenous variables in effect on endogenous variables?

Local models can be compared according to differences in:

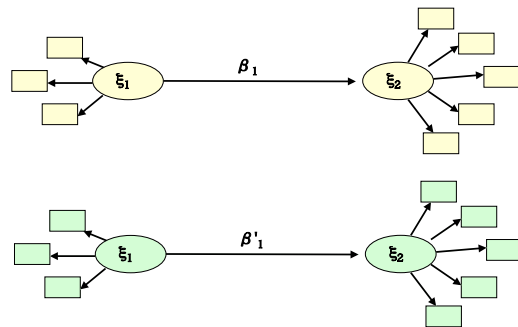
- Structural model parameters
- Measurement model parameters
- Latent variable scores
- Quality indexes

The **model structure** is considered **constant across the different classes**

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## Multigroup comparison in PLS-PM



Are there **significant differences** between the parameters associated with each subsample?

Few methods are proposed in literature to compare groups by pairs:

- A **t-test** (classical parametric approach but based on bootstrap)
- **Non-parametric** resampling approach for **confidence intervals**
- **Non-parametric** approach for computing empirical p-value
- A **permutation-based test**
- **Moderating variables** → moderating effect =  $\beta_1 - \beta'_1$

## Detecting Moderating Effects through Group Comparisons

- **Idea:**
  - Split sample into two (or more) subsamples (categories).
  - Categorize observations according to the level of the moderator variable.
  - Estimate the path coefficients through PLS path modeling for each subsample.
  - Differences between path coefficients are interpreted as moderating effects.

## The (pragmatic) t tests for path coefficients

The null hypothesis is :

$$H_0 : \beta_{ij}^{Group1} = \beta_{ij}^{Group2}$$

To **compare structural (path) coefficients**, the following t-test is used (with n units in sample 1 and m units in sample 2 and standard error estimates yielded by bootstrap re-samples):

$$t = \frac{Path_{sample\_1} - Path_{sample\_2}}{\left[ \sqrt{\frac{(m-1)^2}{(m+n-2)} * S.E.^2_{sample1} + \frac{(n-1)^2}{(m+n-2)} * S.E.^2_{sample2}} \right] * \left[ \sqrt{\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{n}} \right]}$$

Based on the use of S.E. estimates in a parametric sens, this would follow a **t-distribution with m+n-2 degrees of freedom** (ref: <http://disc-nt.cba.uh.edu/chin/plsfaq.htm>)

## The t tests for path coefficients

If the variances are assumed different, a Smith-Satterthwait test can be applied to approximate a level  $\alpha$  test.

$$t = \frac{Path_{sample\_1} - Path_{sample\_2}}{\sqrt{S.E.^2_{sample1} + S.E.^2_{sample2}}}$$

$$df = \text{round to nearest integer} \left[ \frac{(S.E.^2_{sample1} + S.E.^2_{sample2})^2}{\left( \frac{S.E.^2_{sample1}}{m+1} + \frac{S.E.^2_{sample2}}{n+1} \right)} - 2 \right]$$

## The t-test – Properties

- Structural coefficients can be compared using **bootstrap standard errors** (i.e. standard error estimates from empirical bootstrap distributions).
- It is a **parametric-based test** (mind the assumptions on independence of subsamples, normality and equal variances)
- This approach works reasonably well if the two subsamples **are not too far from normality and/or the two variances are not too different** from one another
- Empirical **bootstrap-based confidence intervals** could be also built for the pair-wise differences between coefficients related to different groups.

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## Non parametric approach for an empirical p-value (Henseler and Fassot ,2009)

Four steps:

1. For each group, **estimate the parameter** and set the hypotheses
2. For each group, **build G bootstrap samples** and **compute the G estimates** for the parameter of interest
3. Build **all the possible combinations** ( $G^K$ ) of the bootstrap parameters
4. Count **how often**, in the  $G^K$  combinations, **the null hypothesis is rejected**

Increasing the number of classes directly increases the number of bootstrap sample combinations to take into account

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### Non parametric approach for an empirical p-value (Henseler and Fassot ,2009)

Example:

$$H_o : \beta_{jj^*}^{Group1} \geq \beta_{jj^*}^{Group2}$$

$$P(\hat{\beta}_{jj^*}^{Group1} \geq \hat{\beta}_{jj^*}^{Group2}) = 1 - \frac{1}{G^2} \sum_{g=1}^G \sum_{s=1}^G I(\hat{\beta}_{jj^*}^{Group1(g)} < \hat{\beta}_{jj^*}^{Group2(s)})$$

where:

$$I(\hat{\beta}_{jj^*}^{Group1(g)} < \hat{\beta}_{jj^*}^{Group2(s)}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \hat{\beta}_{jj^*}^{Group1(g)} < \hat{\beta}_{jj^*}^{Group2(s)} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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### Permutation tests (Chin, 2003)

You can compare:

- Structural (path) coefficients
- Outer weights
- Goodness of fit quality indexes
- Means of latent variable scores

Ref: Chin, W. W. (2003). A Permutation Procedure For Multi-Group Comparison Of PLS Models. Proceedings of the PLS'03 International symposium -- "Focus on Customers", Lisbon, September 15th to 17th, 2003, pp. 33-43.

These tests are based on the **permutation of the elements of the sub-samples**:

1. Merge the two sub-samples into a single one (case of K=2 groups);
2. Draw (at random) two new sub-samples of, respectively, size n and m from the overall sample;
3. Repeat the previous step B times (usually, B > 500);
4. Run the analysis on the B pairs of sub-samples (within the same draw);
5. Get the empirical distribution of the B differences between estimated parameters;
6. Compute empirical p-values (based on percentiles);
7. Draw conclusions on statistical significance of the difference.

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## Permutation tests

- Fisher “introduced the idea of permutation testing more as a theoretical argument supporting Student’s t-test than as a useful statistical method in its own right.” (Efron and Tibshirani, 1993)
- With modern computational power available for permutation tests to be used on a routine basis, the reliance on parametric tests as an approximation is no longer necessary.
- When samples are very large, decision based on parametric tests like the t and F tests usually agree with decisions based on the corresponding permutation test.
- But with small samples, “the parametric test will be preferable IF the assumptions of the parametric test are satisfied completely” ( Good, 2000, p. 9). Otherwise, even for large samples, the permutation test is usually as powerful as the most powerful parametric test and may be more powerful when the test statistic does not follow the assumed distribution (Noreen, pp. 32-41).

Ref: Chin, W. W. (2003). A Permutation Procedure For Multi-Group Comparison Of PLS Models. Proceedings of the PLS'03 International symposium -- “Focus on Customers”, Lisbon, September 15th to 17th, 2003, pp. 33-43.

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## Permutation tests

### Principle:

- Null hypothesis: “Difference between parameters equals 0”
- Used statistic :  $S = |\text{param}_{G1} - \text{param}_{G2}|$

### Steps :

1. Select a statistic  $S$  and compute  $S_{\text{init}}$  on the original samples
2. Permute all elements of your sample and compute  $S_{\text{permut}(i)}$  on the obtained subsamples.
3. Repeat step (2)  $B$  times (with  $B$  high)
4. Compare  $S_{\text{init}}$  and  $S_{\text{permut}(i)}$  in order to obtain a probability (empirical p-value) showing if  $S_{\text{init}}$  is significantly different from  $S_{\text{permut}(i)}$ .

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## Permutation tests - Properties

Empirical p-value is defined as:

$$P = \frac{1}{B-1} \sum_{i=1}^B I_{S_{init} < S_{permut_i}}$$

If  $P < 0.05$ , then the difference is significant.

Remarks:

- This test is a non parametric test well suited to PLS Path modeling.
- It has a **very high computational cost** (B has to be high). That is why this approach might take quite a long time if it is used to compare more than two groups.

## Group Comparison: an application

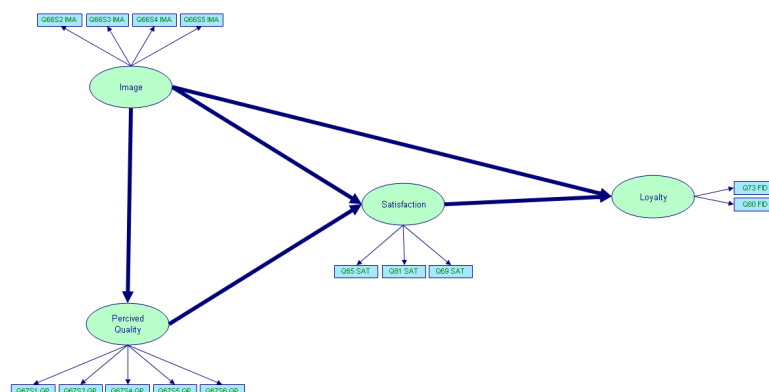
The **banking sector** in France (survey in 1999)

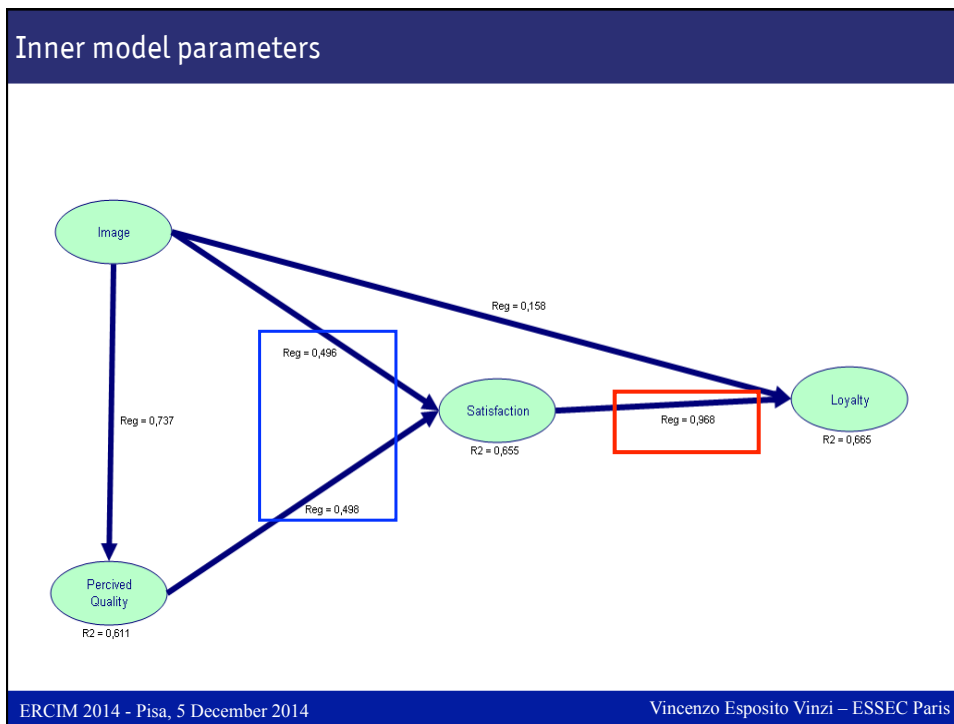
Number of manifest variables: 14

Overall sample size: 1510

Clients of 6 banks

Model:





### Comparing structural coefficients across the 6 banks: t-test

#### Image – Satisfaction

Groups	Difference	t (Observed value)	t (Critical value)	DF	p-value	alpha	Significant
2 vs 1	0,106	1,292	1,648	504	0,098	0,050	No
3 vs 1	0,106	1,104	1,648	500	0,135	0,050	No
3 vs 2	0,001	0,008	1,648	502	0,497	0,050	No
4 vs 1	0,124	1,396	1,648	501	0,082	0,050	No
4 vs 2	0,019	0,237	1,648	503	0,406	0,050	No
4 vs 3	0,018	0,192	1,648	499	0,424	0,050	No
5 vs 1	0,140	1,571	1,648	500	0,058	0,050	No
5 vs 2	0,034	0,436	1,648	502	0,331	0,050	No
5 vs 3	0,034	0,359	1,648	498	0,360	0,050	No
5 vs 4	0,016	0,182	1,648	499	0,428	0,050	No
6 vs 1	0,323	2,997	1,648	503	0,001	0,050	Yes
6 vs 2	0,218	2,194	1,648	505	0,014	0,050	Yes
6 vs 3	0,217	1,943	1,648	501	0,026	0,050	Yes
6 vs 4	0,199	1,888	1,648	502	0,030	0,050	Yes
6 vs 5	0,184	1,738	1,648	501	0,041	0,050	Yes

**Bank 6 is different from the other banks  
as concerns the relation between image and satisfaction.**

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## Comparing structural coefficients : t-test

### Perceived quality – Satisfaction

Groups	Difference	t (Observed value)	t (Critical value)	DF	p-value	alpha	Significant
2 vs 1	0,077	0,926	1,648	504	0,178	0,050	No
3 vs 1	0,071	0,717	1,648	500	0,237	0,050	No
3 vs 2	0,007	0,072	1,648	502	0,471	0,050	No
4 vs 1	0,110	1,325	1,648	501	0,093	0,050	No
4 vs 2	0,033	0,428	1,648	503	0,334	0,050	No
4 vs 3	0,040	0,426	1,648	499	0,335	0,050	No
5 vs 1	0,095	1,061	1,648	500	0,145	0,050	No
5 vs 2	0,017	0,207	1,648	502	0,418	0,050	No
5 vs 3	0,024	0,243	1,648	498	0,404	0,050	No
5 vs 4	0,016	0,189	1,648	499	0,425	0,050	No
6 vs 1	0,264	2,656	1,648	503	0,004	0,050	Yes
6 vs 2	0,187	1,984	1,648	505	0,024	0,050	Yes
6 vs 3	0,193	1,795	1,648	501	0,037	0,050	Yes
6 vs 4	0,154	1,638	1,648	502	0,051	0,050	No
6 vs 5	0,170	1,708	1,648	501	0,044	0,050	Yes

**Bank 6 is different from the other banks (but Bank 4)  
as concerns the relation between Perceived quality and Satisfaction.**

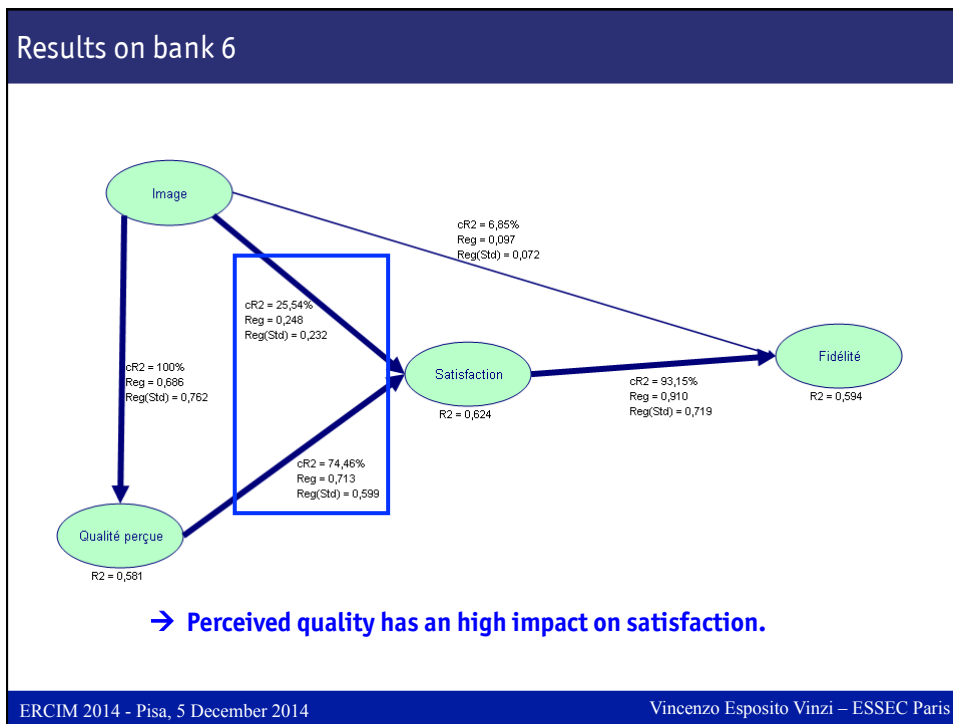
## Comparing structural coefficients: Permutation test

### Comparing bank 1 to bank 6

Latent variable:	Difference	p-value	alpha	Significant
Image -> QP	0,006	0,918	0,050	No
Image -> sat	0,324	0,025	0,050	Yes
QP -> sat	0,263	0,042	0,050	Yes
Image -> fid	0,093	0,395	0,050	No
sat -> fid	0,042	0,649	0,050	No

1000 permutations

**Same conclusions as with the t-test**



### Comparing bank 1 to bank 6 with the permutation test

**Model quality**

Qualité du modèle (Variable latente)	Différence	p-value	alpha	Significatif
Communalité (Image)	0,071	0,101	0,050	Non
Communalité (QP)	0,067	0,109	0,050	Non
Communalité (sat)	0,005	0,894	0,050	Non
Communalité (fid)	0,083	0,024	0,050	Oui
Redondance (Image)				Non défini
Redondance (QP)	0,035	0,595	0,050	Non
Redondance (sat)	0,057	0,375	0,050	Non
Redondance (fid)	0,111	0,092	0,050	Non
GoF	0,011	0,770	0,050	Non

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## Comparing bank 1 to bank 6 with the permutation test

### Outer model

Latent variable	manifest variable	Difference	p-value	alpha	Significant
Image	Q66S2 IMA	0,070	0,052	0,050	No
	Q66S3 IMA	0,417	0,003	0,050	Yes
	Q66S4 IMA	0,034	0,639	0,050	No
	Q66S5 IMA	0,052	0,344	0,050	No
QP	Q67S1 QP	0,005	0,955	0,050	No
	Q67S2 QP	0,001	0,984	0,050	No
	Q67S4 QP	0,231	0,060	0,050	No
	Q67S5 QP	0,044	0,512	0,050	No
	Q67S6 QP	0,013	0,700	0,050	No
sat	Q65 SAT	0,067	0,055	0,050	No
	Q81 SAT	0,067	0,038	0,050	Yes
fid	Q69 SAT	0,008	0,783	0,050	No
	Q73 FID	0,103	0,002	0,050	Yes
	Q80 FID	0,009	0,644	0,050	No

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## Comparing latent variable scores (means)

Using the permutation test, we have:

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Banque 1	0	0.06	0.12	0.76**	0.26	0.37
Banque 2		0	0.18	0.70**	0.20	0.31
Banque 3			0	0.88**	0.36	0.49**
Banque 4				0	0.50**	0.39
Banque 5					0	0.11
Banque 6						0

**Differences between means with 1000 permutations**

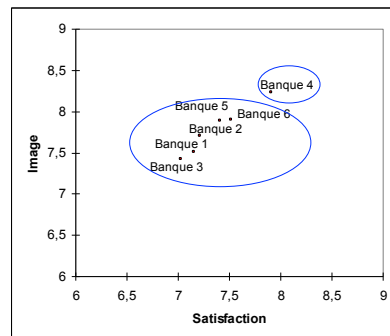
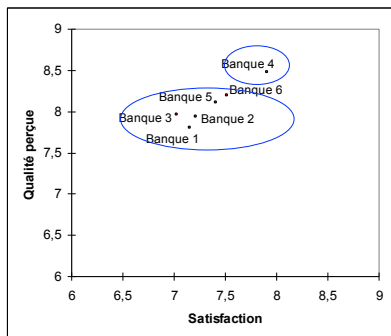
\*\* : differences are significant ( $P < 0.05$ )

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## Results

Variable	Banque 1	Banque 2	Banque 3	Banque 4	Banque 5	Banque 6	Global
Image	7,504	7,706	7,424	8,232	7,891	7,901	7,786
Qualité perçue	7,798	7,932	7,958	8,468	8,104	8,190	8,084
Satisfaction	7,157	7,217	7,034	7,908	7,409	7,522	7,383
Fidélité	7,417	7,436	7,204	8,549	7,633	7,840	7,687



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## Concluding remarks

- ✓ The 2 methods yield **very similar results**.
- ✓ 2 banks have different behaviors :
  - **Bank 6:**
    - **Satisfaction** on bank 6 is mainly **influenced by perceived quality**.
    - Other parameters remain close to other banks
  - **Bank 4:**
    - The **satisfaction score** is significantly **higher** for customer of bank 4.
    - Other parameters remain close to other banks.

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## Advanced (recent) thoughts on PLS-PM

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### Component-based approaches to SEM

Quite a **few (statistical) hypotheses** are usually needed

Important **theoretical knowledge** has to be available **for the model specification**:

- **Measurement** model  
(what manifest variables are measuring what concept)
- Direction of links between manifest and latent variables  
(outwards or inwards, i.e. reflective vs. formative)
- Network of “causal” relationships  
(“causality” direction, “predictive path”, feedbacks, hidden?)

Confirmatory vs. Exploratory

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## Comparisons between the two approaches

Comparisons between modeling methods:

- **Legitimacy of the comparison**
- **Differentially parameterized models**

Researchers in applied disciplines often seem to:

- **Overlook** some (if not most) of the **subsequent literature in Statistics**
- Strive to run **comparisons** and derive **properties by simulations...**

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## Comparisons between the two approaches

*“Our task is to find out which approach works best in which circumstances...  
 ...Let us establish empirically where each works best. For problems in well-established fields highly structured approaches like mainstream SEM may be appropriate, other fields will be well served by highly efficient means of extracting information from high dimensional data...”*

Dijkstra (2014),  
 PLS' Janus Face - Response to Professor Rigdon's "Rethinking Partial Least Squares Modeling: In Praise of Simple Methods,  
 Long Range Planning

Dolce and Lauro (Quality & Quantity, 2014) show that in SEM with **formative blocks**, the **effect of measurement model misspecification** is much larger on the SEM-ML estimates than PLS estimates.

For a **correctly specified** formative block, the **bias** and the **variability** of the estimates of the two approaches are differently affected by **correlation** among MVs and magnitude of the **disturbance's variance**.

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## Component-based method vs. Factor-based method

### Recent standpoints...

*“PLS path modeling should separate itself from factor-based SEM and renounce entirely all mechanisms, frameworks and jargon associated with factor models... Without rejecting rigor, but defining rigor in composite terms...”*

Ed Rigdon (2012)  
Rethinking PLSPM: In Praise of Simple Methods  
Long Range Planning, 341-358

*“I wish to maintain the double-sided nature of PLS that characterized it from the very start. **In the family of a structural equations estimators PLS, when properly adjusted, can be a valuable member as well...**”*

Dijkstra (2014)  
PLS' Janus Face – Response to Professor Rigdon's 'Rethinking Partial Least Squares Modeling: In Praise of Simple Methods'  
Long Range Planning

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## Component-based method vs. Factor-based method

### Could we consider PLS-PM as a SEM estimator?

**NO, because:**

- Lack of **unbiasedness** and **consistency**

**YES, because:**

- **Consistency at large**, i.e. large number of cases and of indicators for each latent variable (“finite item bias”)
- **PLSc** (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015), **PLS algorithm yield** all the ingredients for obtaining **CAN (consistent and asymptotically normal estimations)** of loadings and LVs squared correlations of a 'clean' second order factor model.

The correction factor for weights is equal to:

$$\hat{c}_q := \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\mathbf{w}}_q' (\mathbf{S}_q - \text{diag}(\mathbf{S}_q)) \hat{\mathbf{w}}_q}{\hat{\mathbf{w}}_q' (\hat{\mathbf{w}}_q \hat{\mathbf{w}}_q' - \text{diag}(\hat{\mathbf{w}}_q \hat{\mathbf{w}}_q')) \hat{\mathbf{w}}_q}}$$

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## Component-based method vs. Factor-based method

### How to assess the quality of the model?

- Covariance-based methods allow for goodness-of-fit tests
- PLS-PM lacks a probabilistic framework and an overall goodness-of-fit measure

**However:**

- Computational inference for empirical confidence intervals and hypothesis testing (Blindfolding, permutation and resampling techniques)
- On going work at UCLA (W. Huang, PhD Dissertation with P. Bentler) proposing a modified PLS-PM suitable for confirmatory research via  $\chi^2$  goodness of fit tests and classical inference

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## Component-based method vs. Factor-based method

### Latent variable or linear composite?

- In component-based SEM the “latent variables” are defined as linear composites or weighted sums of the manifest variables. They are fixed variables (scores)
- In covariance-based SEMs the latent variables are equivalent to common factors. They are theoretical (and random) variables

This leads to different parameters to estimate for latent variables, i.e.:

- factor means and variances in covariance-based methods
- weights in component based approaches

Casewise scores are essential in several applications where observations count...  
 PLS-PM is a component-based method, and we should see this character as a strength.

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## Component-based method vs. Factor-based method

**Prediction-oriented or confirmatory approach ?**

- **Reproducing model parameters** is not the same thing as making valid predictions about individual observations.  
*"Factor-based methods are fundamentally unsuitable for prediction, especially for prediction outside the dataset used to estimate the factor model, because of factor indeterminacy" (Rigdon, 2014)*
- **PLS is a prediction-oriented method**

PLS path modeling has strengths as a tool for prediction which have not been fully explored and appreciated.

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## Component-based method vs. Factor-based method

**Out-of-sample vs. in-of-sample prediction**

*"Researchers applying PLS path modeling often assert the "predictive" nature of their research, though researchers often seem to mean nothing more than aiming to maximize  $R^2$  for dependent variables" (Rigdon, 2012)*

**What is good for out-of-sample prediction?**

- Using an **inwards-directed measurement model** in PLS-PM produces higher  $R^2$  values for proxies of endogenous construct. It provides most accurate **in-of-sample prediction**
- Using an **outwards-directed measurement model** in PLS-PM produces higher  $R^2$  values in regression with observed variables. It delivers better prediction on **out-of-sample data**

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## Component-based method vs. Factor-based method

*“...PLS-SEM should retain its predictive character rather than fully subscribing to explanatory PAR QUAD modeling...  
 ...further criteria and evaluation techniques for PLS-SEM need to be considered...  
 ...The current guidelines for model evaluation have limited value in detecting model misspecification...”*

*Sarstedt et al. (2014)  
 On the Emancipation of PLS-SEM: A Commentary on Rigdon (2012)  
 Long Range Planning*

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## Component-based method vs. Factor-based method

### Oriented relations or symmetrical modeling ?

- Covariance-based approaches clearly consider the direction of the path in the inner model
- **PLS-PM** suffers from some deficiencies in terms of coherence with the direction of the links in the inner model. It **tends to amplify interdependence** and it misses to distinguish between the role of dependent and explanatory blocks in the inner model.

Dolce et al. (2014) proposed a more suitable non-symmetrical approach, (**NSCPM**), that aims at maximizing the explained variance of the dependent manifest variables.

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## Component-based method vs. Factor-based method

### Suitable for Big Data ?

- **Covariance-based** approach is **not easily** scalable to Big Data analysis
- **PLS-PM** is appropriate in the new research problems considering Big Data. It **can easily face 3 out of the Big Data's Fourth "V"**.
  - **Volume**: classical PLS-PM is an easy and fast algorithm that is suitable for large N and/or large P problems (multicollinearity? → **PLS-R in PLS-PM**)
  - **Variety**: **Non-metric PLS-PM** (Russolillo, 2012) for mixed nature variables and non-linear relations.
  - **Veracity**: PLS-PM is more robust compared to SEM for modeling misspecification (Cassel et al., 1999).

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