https://doi.org/10.59865/abacj.2023.54
Special Issue-Application of Structural Equation Modeling in Business, Sport, Tourism, Recreation, Education, and Language Studies

BEYOND FACTORS: IGSCA-SEM'S APPLICATION IN THE CONTEXT OF CANNABIS TOURISM

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Abstract

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is a statistical technique that is used to model the relationships among hypothetical constructs investigated by researchers. SEM can be broadly classified into two main approaches: factor-based (or covariance-based) SEM and component-based (or variance-based) SEM. Factor-based SEM is particularly well-suited for analyzing constructs that resemble factors, while component-based SEM is designed for composites or components. Historically, in the field of tourism research, there has been a tendency to treat factor models as a statistical proxy for all types of hypothetical constructs. However, when the hypothetical construct is incorrectly modeled as a factor instead of a composite, which is its appropriate representation, it can result in bias in parameter estimates. The information presented in this study highlights that this practice has persisted even in top-tier tourism journals, including articles published in the ABAC journal. Contemporary practices that align with the current research landscape in tourism are synthesized. These practices acknowledge that hypothetical constructs can either be factors or components. To illustrate this, a hypothetical example related to cannabis tourism is used, modelling it using mixed constructs based on IGSCA-SEM. Researchers are consequently encouraged to employ SEM, particularly when aiming to publish in the ABAC journal, to enhance their methodological rigor by adopting the recommended practices outlined.

Keyword: Integrated Generalized Structured Component Analysis (IGSCA), SDG 8, Structural Equation Modeling, Cannabis Tourism.

INTRODUCTION

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is widely popular in the field of social sciences research. Its popularity is largely attributed to its capability to simultaneously test multiple hypotheses involving latent variables. In the SEM framework, there are two primary types of variables: latent variables and observed variables. Observed variables are those directly measured by researchers through constructed survey instruments, while latent variables are those that cannot be directly measured but are assessed through a set of questions or indicators. For instance, academic English proficiency can be assessed through a set of shared indicators, such as TOEFL scores, IELTS scores, and TOEIC

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scores. Researchers believe that an underlying latent variable referred to as "academic English proficiency" exists because it influences the outcomes of all three standardized tests in a similar manner. In other words, if an individual exhibits a high level of academic English proficiency, they are likely to perform well in all three tests. This abstract latent variable, therefore, serves as a primary causal factor underlying the observed performance in these standardized tests. Another example is the Marketing Mix construct, which comprises elements such as price, place, product, and promotion. Thus, the measurement of the Marketing Mix construct can be conceived as an aggregate of these individual elements: price, place, product, and promotion.

The preceding paragraph drew upon the example of latent variables to elucidate two distinct conceptualizations. If researchers posit that latent variables explain the variations observed in the manifest variables in the same direction, as exemplified in the first instance, they may designate such latent variables as factor models. Conversely, when there is a belief that manifest variables are utilized to elucidate latent variables, researchers may term these latent variables as component models. Given the inherent distinctions between these types of latent variables, contemporary Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) can be broadly categorized into two overarching approaches: factor-based (or covariance-based) SEM and component-based (or variance-based) SEM.

The primary objective of this article is to present a contemporary approach to Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) that seeks to align the categorization of latent variables with the researchers' measurement objectives. This differentiation of latent variable types not only serves to reduce the complexity in latent variable construction but also mitigates the potential bias stemming from misaligned model specifications. For instance, when latent variables should ideally be conceptualized as component models, researchers frequently employ factor-based SEM for parameter estimation, or conversely, when latent variables should be viewed as factor models, researchers often opt for component-based SEM.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is employed to examine the interrelationships among hypothetical constructs using multiple indicators within each construct set. The analysis relies on two fundamental models, namely the structural model and the measurement model. Hypothetical constructs are considered as primary variables that are often abstract and cannot be directly measured, such as attitudes, intentions, satisfaction, or indices. The measurement model represents the model used to measure these hypothetical constructs, while the structural model involves the application of regression analysis concepts to link the hypothetical constructs of interest for researchers.

In its early inception, the measurement model drew its theoretical underpinnings from factor analysis (Hwang et al., 2023). The pivotal theoretical assumption within the framework of hypothetical constructs measured by factor analysis is the concept of conceptual unity among the indicators (Bollen & Diamantopoulos, 2017). From this standpoint, researchers conceive that if a hypothetical construct truly exists, it exerts a significant influence, causing all indicators nested under this hypothetical construct to change in the same direction (Manosuthi et al., 2021b). In practice, researchers summarize the pairwise relationships of indicators believed to be influenced by this hypothetical construct in the form of a covariance matrix, called "covariance-based SEM".

Factor analysis, therefore, serves as a means to elucidate the co-movement of indicators presumed to be influenced by all underlying constructs, postulated as common factors. As illustrated in the aforementioned example presented in the introduction section, "academic English proficiency" serves as a pertinent example for viewing a hypothetical construct as a common factor model. Analyzing hypothetical constructs in this manner is essentially an approach to measurement through the lens of factor-based or covariance-based perspectives. Figure 1 depicts the visual representation of both a component and a factor model. Three indicators, denoted as I1, I2, and I3, are included in the illustration. In the diagram, the component model is represented by a hexagon, while the factor model is represented by an ellipse. In the component model, it is assumed that the latent construct is composed of a combination of the indicators, namely I1, I2, and I3. In this context, I1-I3 are referred to as component indicators. Conversely, in the factor model, it is assumed that the latent construct simultaneously influences I1, I2, and I3 in the same direction. Here, I1-I3 are termed effect indicators or reflect-like indicators.

Conversely, hypothetical constructs can also be viewed from the perspective of being constructed from indicators (Bollen & Bauldry, 2011). This perspective introduced a level of ambiguity within the research community, particularly during the period from 2005 to 2015. Initially, the term "formative measurement model" was introduced, which regarded hypothetical constructs as being formed by all indicators, instead of positing that hypothetical constructs cause all indicators to move in a common direction. However, due to the mathematical expressions being structurally similar to covariates, for a period researchers began using the term "formative" interchangeably with "covariates" (Bollen & Diamantopoulos, 2017).

Due to this lack of clarity, some researchers argued that the formative model should not be considered a measurement model (Bollen & Diamantopoulos, 2017). However, this paper attempts to integrate these differing perspectives. The study concurs with Henseler's concept of dividing hypothetical constructs into emergent constructs (human design) and behavioral constructs (Henseler, 2017), rather than categorizing them as reflective, causal-formative, composite-formative, or covariates (Bollen & Diamantopoulos, 2017). Therefore, this work adopts a perspective that classifies hypothetical constructs into two categories: design constructs (component) and behavioral constructs (common factor).

Within the realm of tourism and service research, theoretical constructs exhibit a diverse range (Fakfare et al., 2023; Manosuthi et al., 2022a). They encompass not only behavioral constructs, such as intentions, perceived service quality, and satisfaction, which are typically elucidated using a common factor model, but also design constructs specifically devised to evaluate marketing strategies in tourism, including brand equity, marketing mix, advertising practices, and indices (Henseler, 2017). These variables primarily represent human-made objects (Y. Liu et al., 2022). However, due to markedly different assumptions regarding construct confirmation—where the first posits that constructs influence indicators to move in a common direction and the second asserts that all indicators collectively form the construct—analyzing constructs with a mismatched approach negatively impacts the internal validity of the associated research (Sarstedt et al., 2016).

While simulations have shown that utilizing factor-based structural equation

Figure 1 Graphical Representation of a Composite/Component and Factor with Component Weight (W1-W3) and Factor Loadings (L1-L3)

modeling (SEM) to examine components introduces greater bias compared to employing component-based SEM to evaluate common factors (Sarstedt et al., 2016), the optimal approach involves using factor-based SEM to approximate common factor models and component-based SEM to approximate component models. A review of the Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing (JTTM), the top tier tourism marketing journal, was conducted over the past three years, with a significant number of inadequately appropriate estimation methods being observed in several articles. The ABAC journal was included in this comparison analysis, yielding the results presented in Table 1. Table 1 highlights a prevailing tendency within tourism research, even in the Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing (JTTM), for researchers to frequently default to the assumption that all hypothetical constructs conform to a factor model, often without providing justifications. Nevertheless, biases in parameter estimates may emerge when a hypothetical construct is inaccurately assumed to be a factor, particularly when researchers opt for Partial Least Squares (PLS) as the primary estimator. To mitigate such biases, it is advisable to consider factor-based Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), such as PLSc or GSCAm, when the hypothetical construct is indeed a factor.

Table 1 Summary of the Types of Measurement Model and SEM in the JTTM and ABAC Journals Since 2020

Authors (Year)	Journal	Year	Assumption of Hypothetical Constructs	Type of Analysis
Lo (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Fakfare et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Ok et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Manosuthi et al. (2020b)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Duman et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Xu and Gursoy (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Han, Lee, et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Chen et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Rather (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Lu et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
S. H. Kim et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Shen et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Dekhili and Hallem (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
M. J. Kim et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	PLS
Choi et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Leung and Ma (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Han, Koo, et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Taylor (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Wang et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	PLS
Pikkemaat et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	PLS
Su et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Adam et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Mehran et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Suess et al. (2020)	JTTM	2020	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Al-Ansi et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Mwesiumo et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	PLS

Table 1 (Continued)

Authors (Year)	Journal	Year	Assumption of Hypothetical Constructs	Type of Analysis
Choe et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Le et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Xie and Luo (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Chen et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Li et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Woosnam et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Kim et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	PLS
Lee and Lee (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	PLS
J. Hwang, H. Kim, et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Yen et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Fakfare et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Mixed models	IGSCA
Yu et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Kautish et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
J. Hwang, J. Y. Choe, et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Tsai and Fong (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	PLS
Chi and Han (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Zhang et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	PLS
Guan et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Shin and Kang (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Hung and Wang (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Paker and Gök (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Han et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	PLS
Moon et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Liu et al. (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Manosuthi et al. (2021a)	JTTM	2021	Mixed models	PLSc
Hao and Chon (2021)	JTTM	2021	Factor Models	PLS
Hwang et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Manosuthi et al. (2022b)	JTTM	2022	Mixed models	IGSCA
Joo and Woosnam (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Quan et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	PLS
Shin and Jeong (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
B. Liu et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Chi et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Ruan et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Tsaur et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Wang et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	PLS
Sharma et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Lv et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Yu et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Radic et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Lin et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Russell et al. (2022)	JTTM	2022	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Yin et al. (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Lin and Ryu (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	PLS

Table 1 (Continued)

Authors (Year)	Journal	Year	Assumption of Hypothetical Constructs	Type of Analysis
Chua et al. (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Singh et al. (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Stangl et al. (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Wattanacharoensil et al. (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	GSCAm
Chiu et al. (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	PLS
Xu, Pratt, et al. (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	PLS
Lee et al. (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	PLS
Quan et al. (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Joo et al. (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Tsaur and Tsai (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Xu, Wang, et al. (2023)	JTTM	2023	Factor Models	Factor-Based SEM
Satchapappichit (2020)	ABAC	2020	Observed variables	Multiple Regression
Khetjenkarn and Agmapisarn (2020)	ABAC	2020	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Chitthanom (2020)	ABAC	2020	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Hareebin (2020)	ABAC	2020	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Chokpitakkul et al. (2020)	ABAC	2020	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Siri and Lorsuwannarat (2020)	ABAC	2020	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Chantamas et al. (2020)	ABAC	2020	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Amonhaemanon and Isaramalai (2020)	ABAC	2020	Factor model	Unidentified
Naglis and Inprom (2020)	ABAC	2020	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Dankaew and Silpcharu (2020)	ABAC	2020	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Seriwatana and Charoensukmongkol (2020)	ABAC	2020	Factor model	PLS
Ativetin (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Purwanto (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	PLS
Kitcharoen (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Sriram et al. (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	PLS
Noosong et al. (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Intayos et al. (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Noypa et al. (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Võ (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Tarurhor (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Ueasangkomsate et al. (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Chaisuwan (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Batada (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Chinnapong et al. (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	PLS
Muensriphum et al. (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Zhu (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	PLS
Niyawanont and Wanarat (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Poolsawat (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Dhasan and Kowathanakul (2021)	ABAC	2021	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Kim and Jindabot (2021)	ABAC	2021	Observed variables	Path Analysis
Thepprasarn and Suntrayuth (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	PLS
Ubaidillah et al. (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	PLS
Thongyai and Potipiroon (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM

Table 1 (Continued)

Authors (Year)	Journal	Year	Assumption of Hypothetical Constructs	Type of Analysis
Kim et al. (2022)	ABAC	2022	Observed variables	Path Analysis
Kitjaroenchai and Chaipoopiratana (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Chuchuen and Chanvarasuth (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Suwannakul and Khetjenkarn (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Auemsuvarn and Ngamcharoenmongkol (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Laliwan and Potipiroon (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Phairat and Potipiroon (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Maneechaeye and Potipiroon (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Terason et al. (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	PLS
Jitsoonthornchaikul (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Borirakcharoenkit et al. (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Qamar and Qureshi (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	PLS
Jaengprajak and Chaipoopiratana (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Prasongthan (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	PLS
Ma and Aung (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	PLS
Widyaningtyas et al. (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	PLS
Uppathampracha (2022)	ABAC	2022	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Tadawattanawit et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Khanngoen et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Composite model	GSCA
Batool et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	PLS
Wening and Moertono (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	PLS
Kim et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Wiwoho et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	PLS
Tassawa and Khumhome (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Unidentified
Chaipoopirutana and Minakan (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	PLS
Ahmadi et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	PLS
Napontun and Senachai (2023)	ABAC	2023	Mixed model	IGSCA
Senachai et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Mixed model	IGSCA
Napontun et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Mixed model	IGSCA
Zhu and Thøgersen (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Keeratipranon and Theerawanviwat (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Prasongthan (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Kumar et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Cattapan et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Rattanaburi (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Khongsawatkiat and Agmapisarn (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Sangthong and Soonsan (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Unidentified
Fadilah and Ramayah (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	PLS
Ekasari et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Chumwichan et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Mixed model	IGSCA
Vilaisri et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM
Sungthong et al. (2023)	ABAC	2023	Factor model	Factor-Based SEM

Guidelines for Evaluating IGSCA-SEM

As previously recognized, researchers should employ parameter estimation methods that are appropriate for the nature of the measurement model. In the field of tourism studies, variables are often encountered that exhibit characteristics of both components (Fakfare & Manosuthi, 2023) and common factors (Wattanacharoensil et al., 2024). Analyzing models with this mixed nature of variables has led to the prominence of two highly favored approaches, namely, IGSCA-SEM and PLSc-SEM (H. Hwang, G. Cho, K. Jung, et al., 2021).

IGSCA-SEM employs the GSCA pro software for analysis (H. Hwang, G. Cho, & H. Choo, 2021), while PLSc-SEM utilizes the ADANCO software (Henseler et al., 2016). This article opts to present the usage of IGSCA-SEM due to its high flexibility, ease of use, and cost-effectiveness. Nonetheless, it is important to note that the utilization of IGSCA-SEM can be explored through the official GSCApro webpage (https://www.gscapro.com/tutorial). The guidelines for evaluating IGSCA-SEM can be summarized as follows:

The Evaluation of Overall Model Fit

IGSCA-SEM offers a plethora of indices for assessing the adequacy of a model, including GFI, SRMR, FIT, and others. However, the index currently recommended as a criterion for evaluating the overall model adequacy and validated through simulation experiments is the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) (Cho et al., 2022). According to Cho et al. (2022), SRMR should ideally be less than 0.08 . Nevertheless, in cases with a limited sample size, such as when the number of participants is only 100, researchers should consider a threshold SRMR level of 0.1. In exceptional cases involving very small sample sizes, e.g., 50 participants, the threshold SRMR level should be raised to around 0.13. It is important to note that the specified SRMR thresholds should be regarded as upper limits of acceptable SRMR values of the associated bootstrap confidence interval.

Evaluation of the Measurement Model

Distinguishing between the assessment of a measurement model within a hybrid system and the conventional framework is crucial. In the traditional context, the measurement model is perceived exclusively as a factor model (Hwang et al., 2023). However, in a system where the measurement model can assume either a factor or component structure, researchers should initiate the process by clearly specifying the type of measurement model at the outset. Researchers should not tether the measurement model type solely to the variable names.

For example, consider "satisfaction", which can be viewed as a factor if researchers believe that an underlying unobserved variable named "satisfaction" is influencing all indicators of this hypothetical variable. Simultaneously, "satisfaction" can also be considered a component if researchers construct a satisfaction index defining it as composed of various components, such as satisfaction with food taste, ambiance, service quality, pricing, and convenience facilities, among others.

Once researchers have successfully identified the measurement model type, the subsequent step entails evaluating the measurement model based on the specified type. The assessment of a factor-type measurement model can commence with the consideration of internal consistency reliability, often measured using Cronbach's alpha (Benitez et al., 2020). Researchers generally accept Cronbach's alpha values within the range of 0.6 to 0.95, with a preference for values falling between 0.7 and 0.95 in research endeavors that are not primarily exploratory in nature (Hwang et al., 2023). At this juncture, it is important for researchers to be mindful that if the Cronbach's alpha exceeds 0.95, it may indicate excessive redundancy among the indicators, which is an undesirable situation.

Another highly favored index in this context is composite reliability (Benitez et al., 2020). The concept underlying composite reliability differs from Cronbach's alpha in terms of the weight average of each indicator, which may vary. Given that the set of constructs pertains to the same latent trait, a rough guideline for composite reliability is that it should ideally fall within the range of 0.7 to 0.95.

The second step in evaluating a factor model involves examining convergent validity, a process often facilitated by employing the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and factor loadings (Benitez et al., 2020). AVE represents the average of all squared loadings. Consequently, if the extracted variance exceeds 50%, researchers generally accept that the hypothetical construct demonstrates convergent validity. However, due to the direct calculation of AVE from factor loadings, it is important to note that factor loadings exceeding 0.7 for all indicators can result in an AVE exceeding 0.5 when averaged. Therefore, researchers can analyze the quality of convergent validity through an examination of individual item factor loadings. Nonetheless, it's worth mentioning that excluding items with low factor loadings may not always be suitable, especially if researchers have carefully adapted definitions and items from prior relevant research that align well with the conceptualization of the current hypothetical construct.

In the final stage of assessment, discriminant validity can be examined using the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio (Benitez et al., 2020; Roemer et al., 2021). The initial threshold for this ratio is typically set at 0.9, especially when researchers aim to distinguish variables that share closely related concepts. If the HTMT ratio exceeds 0.9, it may serve as a warning sign that hypothetical constructs have such a high degree of similarity that they should not be separated. Researchers may consider consolidating hypothetical constructs to reduce their number in such cases. However, when researchers intend to test discriminant validity between variables with distinct concepts, the HTMT ratio threshold is lowered to 0.85 from 0.9. Presently, it is increasingly common to employ confidence intervals to assess discriminant validity. If the upper bound of the confidence interval is less than 0.85, researchers conclude that the constructs exhibit discriminant validity.

In the context of a component model, researchers cannot directly apply the concepts used to assess factor models. Instead, the evaluation of a component model may draw from concepts rooted in principal component analysis. In this regard, researchers can consider criteria such as eigenvalues greater than 1, which is indicative of unidimensionality. Unidimensionality tests are applicable for assessment, and GSCA Pro provides computations for this purpose. Researchers can also employ parallel analysis (Hwang et al., 2023), a method that involves comparing the eigenvalues derived from the indicators with values generated from the same sample. Additionally, researchers may consider calculating the Proportion of Variance Explained (PVE). If the PVE exceeds 0.7, it confirms unidimensionality for the component model, given conceptual unity.

The subsequent step in evaluating the quality of a component model involves assessing the weight components (Hwang et al., 2023). To ascertain the significance of weight components, one can examine the lower bound of the bootstrap confidence interval for each indicator. Specifically, in cases with a positive relationship, the lower bound should be greater than zero, whereas in instances with a negative relationship, the upper bound should be less than zero. Although there are various bootstrap methods available, researchers can opt for the percentile bootstrap confidence interval as it is generally considered a robust approach, offering favorable characteristics in terms of coverage and balance.

The final step involves assessing the collinearity within the set of indicators (Hwang et al., 2023). Researchers commonly employ the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) to gauge the extent of multicollinearity. In general cases, the VIF should ideally be less than 3. However, some researchers may adopt a more lenient approach, allowing VIF values not exceeding 5 to accommodate greater flexibility in their analysis.

Evaluation of the Structural Model

Once researchers have assessed the quality of the measurement model thoroughly, the next step is to evaluate the structural model. In this regard, three critical aspects should be considered: multicollinearity, explanatory power, and structural model effects (Hwang et al., 2023).

If researchers hypothesize a large number of predictor variables, one potential issue that could introduce distortion into the analysis results is the high degree of intercorrelation among the variable pairs. Hence, evaluating the extent of multicollinearity becomes essential. Nevertheless, assessing this problem involves using various tools, such as the correlation matrix or auxiliary regression, among others. However, one highly favored approach is the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Evaluating VIF is similar to assessing the component model but shifts the focus from indicators to construct levels. It's important to note that a VIF below 3 signifies that multicollinearity is not likely to pose parameter estimation issues. However, values falling between 3 and 5, are considered worth attention, while values exceeding 5 are deemed high. Researchers can choose to address this issue by either combining variables or selectively dropping those with high VIF values.

Regarding explanatory power, researchers can opt to consider and utilize popular metrics such as the coefficient of determination, or, when there are numerous predictor variables in the model, the adjusted coefficient of determination. The coefficient of determination can take values between 0 and 1. When assessing this aspect, the ability to account for variance in each variable can significantly differ. For example, an R-square value of 0.3 might be considered high for explaining attitude, while the same value may not be regarded as high for explaining intentions in the Theory of Planned Behavior. Therefore, the evaluation should be context-dependent and may draw from relevant research in the field.

A highly crucial aspect of evaluating the structural model lies in examining the effects of the variables as hypothesized by researchers. Coefficient estimates should ideally be assessed using the percentile bootstrap confidence interval method, with the number of rounds set to at least the same as the sample size of the research or set at 1000 rounds. In addition to evaluating effects, both in terms of direct and indirect effects, researchers should gauge the effect size concerning its contribution to the overall explanatory power when the focal variable is removed. Effect size values are generally accepted by researchers at low (0.2), medium (0.15), or high (0.35) levels.

Hypothetical Example: Cannabis for Tourism and Tourist's Perception

In the following example, a questionnaire format was employed. The questionnaire had received approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Khon Kaen University under reference number HE663073. This research focused on the Thai tourist demographic, collecting data from individuals with prior experience in consuming products containing cannabis as an ingredient. Previous research in consumer behavior has often yielded positive conclusions regarding sensory drivers influencing behavioral intentions. In this context, the sensory component was defined to comprise three primary elements: taste, aroma, and color. The primary hypothesis posits that the sensory component exerts a positive influence on the intention to repurchase.

Moreover, tourists must also consider the risks and benefits associated with the consumption of cannabis-infused products. At this juncture, the concepts of risk and benefit are subjective viewpoints. Negative assumptions have been postulated concerning the relationship between risk and behavioral intentions, while positive assumptions have been made regarding the relationship between benefits and behavioral intentions.

The IGSCA-SEM (Integrated Generalized Structural Equation Model) was employed in this context due to the categorization of sensory variables as components, while behavioral intention variables were designated as factors. Furthermore, both the risk and benefit variables were classified as components as they are each measured by a single variable. The research model for this example is shown in Figure 2.

Data were collected from a sample of 220 tourists who engaged in recreational activities across Thailand, using an online data collection method. The data collection period spanned two weeks, with convenience sampling being employed for participant selection. It is noteworthy that among the 220 surveyed tourists, there was a mix of individuals with varying preferences and experiences regarding the consumption of cannabis-infused products, encompassing both those who favor and those who do not favor such products. Out of the total 220 participants, 142 were male, constituting 60% of the sample. The average age of the participants was 36 years, and the mean income was 46,125 Thai Baht. Furthermore, 70% of the respondents held a bachelor's degree or higher level of education.

RESULTS

The findings are reported based on the recommendations presented in the literature review section. Table 2 illustrates the types of constructs. In this context, "sensory" is defined as a variable composed of three indicators: taste, aroma, and color. Therefore, "sensory" is considered a component model, while "benefit" and "risk" are measured by single-item constructs, rendering the speci

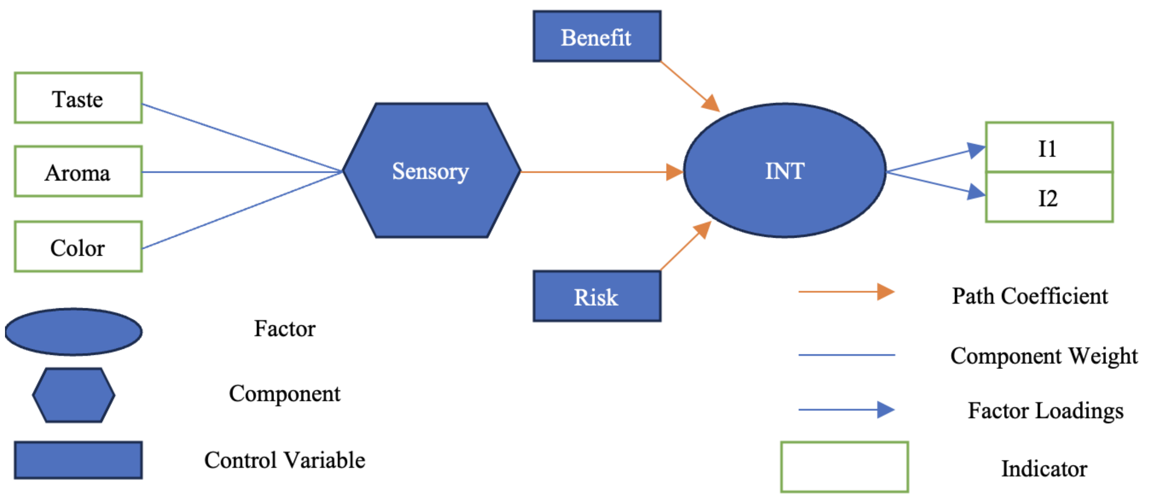

Figure 2 Research Model

Table 2 Assessment of Measurement Model Using IGSCA

Type	Construct	Indicators	Loadings	95% CI	Weight	95% CI	Alpha	Rho	PVE/AVE
Component	Sensory	Taste	0.821	[.767;.868]	0.425	[.384;.472]	0.731	0.848	0.652
		Aroma	0.753	[.645;.825]	0.427	[.373;.457]			
		Color	0.844	[.805;.892]	0.388	[.352;.459]			
-	Benefit	benefit	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
-	Risk	risk	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Factor	Intention	int_1	0.78	[.727;.859]	0.615	[.588;.685]	0.771	0.776	0.634
		int_2	0.812	[.729;.892]	0.64	[.581;.686]			

fication of measurement models unnecessary.

"Intention", is defined in the conventional sense as a latent factor influencing the inclination to spread positive word-of-mouth and revisit the service, reflecting a unidirectional change. Thus, in this case, "intention" is specified as a factor model.

In terms of internal consistency reliability, the analysis results indicate that both Cronbach's Alpha and rho fall within the acceptable range of 0.7 to 0.95. Additionally, the IGSCA reports that the dimensionality, extracted from eigenvalues, equals 1, signifying the appropriateness and suitability for further analysis of the component model (sensory construct). The values of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Proportion of Variance Explained (PVE) exceed 0.5, and are thus deemed suitable. Furthermore, the factor loadings surpass 0.7, while all component weights are statistically significant, demonstrating the equal importance of each indicator. Therefore, we can conclude that the convergent validity of both factor and component models is empirically supported.

Furthermore, discriminant validity was assessed through Confidence Interval analysis. It was found that the HTMT value between pairs of "sensory" and "intention" values was statistically significant at the 0.709 level (standard error = 0.077), with a lower bound of 0.527 and an upper bound of 0.847. The analysis results confirm that discriminant validity is supported.

The overall model fit demonstrates acceptability, as evidenced by GFI = 0.989 and SRMR = 0.049. As depicted in Table 3, issues of multicollinearity do not reach levels that significantly affect interpretation, given that the VIF values remain below 3 (VIF of sensory-intention = 1.41, VIF of risk-intention = 1.27, and VIF of benefit-intention = 1.15). In summary, the three predictor variables collectively account for approximately 45.4% of the variation in intention. Among these three, the sensory factor exhibits the largest effect size at 24.6%, contributing to the variation in intention. Subsequently, risk and benefit follow in descending order.

Furthermore, the path coefficient estimates indicate that sensory has a positive influence on intention, as the lower bound of the 95% confidence interval is greater than 0. Conversely, risk has a negative influence on intention, as the upper bound of the 95% confidence interval is less than 0. Considering the effect sizes in conjunction, it can be concluded that sensory falls within the range of a medium to large effect size, while risk falls within the range of a small to medium effect size.

CONCLUSION

The analysis of structural equation modeling (SEM) in the past often involved the assumption that hypothetical constructs are simply factors, employed in a somewhat arbitrary manner. This practice has become a prevailing model for SEM analysis in the field of tourism (Manosuthi et al., 2020a). Even in top-tier marketing tourism journals such as the Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, the use of normative factor models as statistical proxies for hypothetical constructs is prevalent. This influence has extended to top-tier journals in Thailand, such as the ABAC Journal. However, in recent years, the analysis of SEM within the component-based paradigm has gained substantial traction in the tourism research community (Manosuthi et al., 2021b). The GSCA framework, in particular, has broadened the analysis scope. It views hypothetical constructs in a similar

Table 3 Assessment of Structural Model Using IGSCA

Path relationship	Path coefficient	95% CI	VIF	Effect size	R-sq
Sensory -> Intention	0.444	[.289;.571]	1.41	0.246	0.454
Risk -> Intention	-0.327	[-.463;-.194]	1.27	0.12	
Benefit -> Intention	0.028	[.009;.165]	1.15	0.001	

light to traditional factor-based SEM but estimates factor models by considering weighted sums of all indicators within the hypothetical constructs while removing their uniqueness (Hwang et al., 2017). On the other hand, component-based SEM calculates composite indicators by weighting sums of hypothetical constructs. Although other systems like PLS also attenuate error terms in a similar manner using Consistent PLS (PLSc), IGSCA-SEM surpasses PLSc in full-information estimation, model flexibility, and is currently available for free.

In the realm of empirical research in the field of tourism academia, hypothetical constructs can manifest as both component and factor models. Often, marketers in tourism design strategies or marketing metrics that are man-made or artifacts (Y. Liu et al., 2022). Assuming that hypothetical constructs equate to factors every time SEM analysis is conducted may not always be appropriate. This article summarizes intriguing considerations for modern SEM analysis that have received little attention in the tourism marketing academic sphere. Researchers are consequently encouraged to begin by specifying the model type when conducting SEM analyses. Notable points of interest include the following:

Graphical Representation: Hexagons are now favored as representations of components, while circles or ellipses are typically used for factors. Arrows pointing from factors to indicators (factor loadings) are suitable when researchers aim to convey hypothetical constructs as factors. Conversely, straight lines from indicators to components (component weights) are used to indicate that hypothetical constructs are components.

Model Evaluation: The assessment of models has also evolved from past practices. For factor models, the evaluation process remains similar to the past, involving Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). In contrast, the psychometric properties of components can be analyzed through Confirmatory Composite Analysis (CCA) (Hubona et al., 2021). For factor models, the quality of measurement models can be gauged through internal consistency reliability, with both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability falling between 0.7 and 0.95. Convergent validity can be assessed through an Average Variance Extracted (AVE) exceeding 0.5 or by observing factor loadings below 0.7. Discriminant validity is determined by examining the upper bound of the confidence interval HTMT ratio, which should be below 0.9 for similar concepts and below 0.85 for different concepts (Roemer et al., 2021).

Component Model Emphasis: In the context of component models, three primary focal points exist. These are: unidimensionality, observed through eigenvalues greater than 1 or parallel analysis; weight's statistical significance, as indicated by the 95th percentile bootstrap confidence interval; and the level of multicollinearity among indicators, which should ideally yield Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) less than 3. Furthermore, when evaluating mixed models that combine factors and components, researchers should consider utilizing the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) for assessment.

The forthcoming future of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis in the field of tourism marketing is poised to benefit significantly from more academically rigorous and precise analytical approaches. Researchers utilizing SEM in the realm of tourism marketing are invited to place paramount importance on specifying the type of constructs used, distinguishing between components and factors, while employing appropriate statistical analyses tailored to the nature of the model under examination. It is anticipated that, in the future, research articles submitted to ABAC Journal should take these considerations into account.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

While a portion of the dataset provided by Associate Professor Dr. Supawat Meeprom was utilized in this study, it is essential to note that the entire dataset used in this study received approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) under project ID: HE663073. We extend our sincere gratitude to Dr. Noppadol Manosuthi for his invaluable guidance and advisory contributions in shaping the presentation direction of this article. Additionally, we acknowledge the support provided by the Faculty of Business Administration and Accountancy at KKBS, Khon Kaen University.

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