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Item response drift in the Family Affluence Scale: A study on three consecutive surveys of the Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) survey

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Comparable data on socio-economic position (SEP) is essential to international studies on health inequalities. The Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) has used the Family Affluence Scale (FAS) on material assets. The present study used data collected from adolescents in eight countries in 2002, 2006 and 2010, and examined the construct validity of the FAS, by focusing on changes in item responses over time. The analyses reported the changes in means in item responses, and fitted models which estimated differential item functioning (DIF), and local dependency (LD) between items. DIF and LD were analysed by Graphical Log-Linear Rasch Models (GLLRMs), and changes in the measurement properties of the FAS over time and between countries were assessed. The results showed that the FAS items have changed their measurement properties between 2002 and 2010, and caution is warranted in studies comparing the FAS between different time points.

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1. Introduction

International variations and trends in social inequalities in health are a staple of social epidemiological research [1]. Most of the research done in this area has involved adult populations, despite a broad consensus that reducing inequalities in child and adolescents health are essential to the health of future generations. A challenge in researching socio-economic differences in child and adolescent health lies in providing valid and comparable measurements on socio-economic status. Questionnaires to adolescents on their parents’ education, occupation or income usually result in low completion rates and high misclassification rate [2–4] so various alternatives have been examined. Since 1998, the Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) study has measured family affluence in more than 40 countries by collecting information on specific material assets in the Family Affluence Scale (FAS).
Different theoretical perspectives can be taken on the FAS [2,5–7]. One implies that the items that make up the FAS may be considered as indicators of the material assets that produce affluence, which is called formative. Another is that the FAS items reflect a latent construct, which is called reflexive. Either way, the procedure for using the FAS in analysis often involved adding the scores on each item to produce a sum score. A formative index considers the items to be separate independent (albeit correlated) exposures of the family’s material wealth, whereas a reflexive assumes correlation between items and to an underlying (latent) construct such as material wealth or affluence. This approach assumes a cumulative effect of the different items, and that items can be combined to form a reliable scale measuring an underlying construct. Scales constructed by several items potentially suffer from differential item functioning and this is exacerbated when used in cross-national and trend analyses [8,9]. Differential item functioning (DIF) occurs when item responses vary across different subgroups and local dependency (LD) occurs when items correlate beyond the underlying construct expressed by the sum score. Earlier studies have shown large country variations in the FAS in terms of DIF, and a cautious approach has been warranted on using the FAS for international comparisons, for validity reasons [6,10].

In our experience, the FAS is no different to many scales. DIF and LD appears to be the rule rather than the exception in health related scales; recently developed software tools can be useful for identifying validity problems such as DIF. Scales are validated to make sure that measurements are not confounded by DIF and/or items measuring something other than intended, but in most cases, the task of validating a scale is overlooked perhaps because it is considered subordinate to addressing empirical research questions. It could be argued that this is true in the case of the FAS which was developed as a measure of deprivation in order to study health inequalities among adolescents [2,11,12].

1.1. The Health Behaviour in School-aged Children and the Family Affluence Scale

HBSC is an international study with 41 participating countries in the European Region and North America. The study aims at providing comparable data on young people’s health and lifestyle from countries with different economic conditions and cultural, societal and political systems.

The HBSC study includes 11-, 13- and 15-year-old school children in representative samples of schools in the participating countries. The students answer the standardised questionnaire during a school lesson after instruction from the teacher or survey administrator. HBSC has been collecting data on adolescents every fourth year since 1982, the most recent cross-national survey was conducted in 2009/10.

In the HBSC-study socio-economic position (SEP) is measured by the FAS. Assessing adolescent’s absolute socio-economic status based on material markers provides an alternative to the more traditional social class [2,4] and is conceptually related to common consumption indices of material deprivation [13] and home affluence [4,14]. FAS items ask students about things they are likely to know about in their family (car, bedrooms, vacations, and computers), thus limiting the number of non-responses in the study. When the scale was introduced in 1998 it was used in a national context only and contained three items (family car, bedroom and telephone) [2]. In 2001/02 it was used cross-nationally and comprised family car, bedroom, holiday and computer. The items, their response categories, and their rationale are the following:

- **Does your family own a car, van or truck?** (No = 0, Yes = 1, Two or more = 2). This item is a component of the Scottish deprivation index developed by Carstairs and Morris [13], which is used widely in health inequalities research.
- **Do you have your own bedroom for yourself?** (No = 0, Yes = 1). This item is a simple proxy for overcrowding, classified by Townsend [14] as housing deprivation, and is also a component of the Scottish deprivation index.
- **During the past 12 months, how many times did you travel away on holiday with your family?** (Not at all = 0, Once = 1, Twice = 2, More than twice = 3). This item is a measure of ‘deprivation of home facilities’ [14].
- **How many computers does your family own?** (None = 0, Two = 2, More than two = 3). This item has been introduced to differentiate SEP in affluent countries.

In previous research the FAS has been included differently depending on the research question, the data being analysed and the statistical technique in use. The FAS has both been included at an individual, and as an aggregated school and country level variable [12], and is widely used in educational research [10].

1.2. Validity of FAS

Based on the thorough development of the survey items and the theoretical rationale of the scale, it is assumed that the scale is content valid [15]. From its early development, the validity of FAS has been discussed in several papers, and validated at both national and international levels. Studies found that the FAS has good criterion validity, on the basis of showing graded associations between SEP and various health outcomes [12,16,17]. Adolescents and parents report similarly to the FAS items [18] and the FAS is less affected by non-response bias than SEP measures that rely on child reports of household income or parental occupation [2,7,11]. Additionally, data from the FAS are far less burdensome to collect and manage than other sources on SEP, e.g. data on parental occupation. Within educational research, the FAS is considered valuable as a tool when assessing children’s eligibility for free school meals, but so far it has been concluded that the FAS does not have good overall reliability [10]. Boyce et al. has discussed limitations in the use of FAS in relation to cross-national studies. The authors compared the FAS measurements internationally and recommended the inclusion of the FAS in aggregate analyses in studies on health inequalities [16].
Scale measurement properties are crucial when relying on a scale that is derived from items presumed to be equally sensitive to an attribute (in this case family affluence) [19]. Collecting data according to a standardised protocol as done in HBSC allow researchers to compare data from different countries. A critical evaluation of the comparability of questionnaires across cultures and languages is only partly achieved by back translation, review by focus groups and co-ordinated multinational questionnaire development [9]. However, statistical methods for translation evaluation can also be used, one of which is the analysis of DIF also known as item bias. DIF methods require that items should function in the same way, whatever subgroups are investigated. Individuals at the same level of affluence ideally respond the same on the FAS items. DIF occurs when groups at the same level of affluence respond differently to an item, e.g. number of computers in boys and girls. The method chosen to investigate for DIF in the present paper can also be used to correct for DIF, if analyses are successful in fitting a model satisfactorily [9].

Batista-Foguet and colleagues found country specific variations in the relative contribution of the FAS-items, and their work provided a new technique for weighting scale items in a revised FAS. They concluded that cross-cultural studies were possible when constructing a country specific index [8]. This method, however, has not been widely used so far. Schnohr et al. also found country specific variations in the measurement properties of the FAS, and showed that modelling its DIF was possible [6]. By use of the statistical procedures described for the present study, equated scores were generated, and analyses on health inequalities were conducted for six countries [20]. However, neither of these two methods for handling DIF, has been adopted by other HBSC researchers, presumably due to its perceived complexity and to a lack of consistency with the more widely used approach to working with the FAS. Even though the recommendations from these two studies has not been applied, they were critical to the position presented by Boyce et al. [16] from a theoretical point of view. It is therefore still relevant to question the comparability of the FAS between HBSC countries because of DIF [8].

The overall aim of the work reported here was to further investigate the construct validity of the FAS in order to support its use cross-national time trends analyses with HBSC data. Specifically, the authors set out to assess how the properties of the FAS changed over time within each country. This was done by examining the drift in item responses as well as examining DIF and LD in the FAS in five HBSC countries and across three survey cycles spanning 12 years. Since the results of the model used can be used to correct for DIF and LD, the study examine the possibilities of constructing adjusted DIF and LD FAS-scores for future use in health inequality research.

1.3. Validation of FAS

The construct validity and objectivity of the FAS was investigated by Rasch’s model for item analysis and its applicability to Graphical Log Linear Rasch Models (GLLRM), analysing five countries in three consecutive surveys to determine the patterns and magnitude of DIF and LD.

A number of technical demands, need to be met when validating the measurement properties of a scale. The Rasch model is an item response model [21], which can be regarded as a formalisation of perfect measurement, by meeting the requirements of criterion related construct validity [22], statistical sufficiency [23] and objectivity [24]. Rosenbaum’s definition of construct validity is but one of many attempts to define construct validity. We refer to Cronbach and Meehl [32], Borsboom [25], Kane [26] and Zumbo [27] for discussions of validity.

In this analysis the FAS is considered a latent construct. Analysis addressing the dependence of the latent variable, or the way the latent variable influences or is associated to other variables, is referred to as latent regression analyses or latent structure analyses. GLLRM are useful for such purposes, and preferable to analyses where the score – DIF equated or not – is used as a proxy for the latent variable. Latent regression in GLLRM has been described by Christensen and colleagues [28]. GLLRM are also useful because conditional inference and Mantel–Haenszel techniques apply for these models in the same way as for ordinary Rasch models. Two of the requirements of construct validity according to Rosenbaum are that items are mutually locally independent (no local dependence, LD) and conditionally independent of exogenous variables given the latent variable being measured (no differential item functioning, DIF). The GLLRM relaxes these two requirements, replacing them with the requirements that LD and DIF are uniform in the strength of association between locally dependent items, and the effect of exogenous variables on items does not depend on the trait being measured. It is therefore relevant to test the degree of DIF and LD and examine the patterns in these before concluding on the validity of the FAS. For a more detailed description of the method, DIF equating, reliability and validity claims, see Schnohr et al. [6]. The analyses were supplemented by a description of the changes over time and between countries in the range of item responses expressed by means and standard deviations.

2. Method

The HBSC study has been described in the introduction. The basis for the present study was data from surveys in 2001/02, 2005/06 and 2009/10 in Austria, Belgium (Flemish region), Canada, Norway and Scotland including a total of 24,426 adolescents from the survey in 2001/02, 25,715 from the survey in 2005/06 and 35,969 from the survey in 2009/10. The sample characteristics on the basis of age-group and gender are presented in Table 1.

2.1. The fitting of Graphical Log-Linear Rasch Models (GLLRM’s)

The statistical procedures chosen to analyse for DIF and LD in the present paper were the GLLRM. The model fit of the FAS to GLLRM was initially performed for each of the five countries. Estimates of GLLRM parameters and partial
gamma coefficients (denoted $\gamma^p$) measuring the strength of the conditional association between pairs of items, and between items and exogenous variables were used to analyze the patterns of DIF and LD. In this paper, $\gamma^p$ correlations of 0.00–0.15 were regarded as weak correlations, 0.16–0.30 were regarded as moderate correlations and $\gamma^p > 0.30$ were regarded as strong correlations. Table 2 provides an overview of the $\gamma^p$ calculated on the basis of analyses for each of the three survey cycles in all five countries, a total of 15 analyses (Table 2).

Table 2

Results of Graphical Log-Linear Rasch Models disclosing DIF and LD stratified by country and survey years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of survey</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Room</th>
<th>Car</th>
<th>Holiday</th>
<th>Computer</th>
<th>Room</th>
<th>Car</th>
<th>Holiday</th>
<th>Computer</th>
<th>Room</th>
<th>Car</th>
<th>Holiday</th>
<th>Computer</th>
<th>Room</th>
<th>Car</th>
<th>Holiday</th>
<th>Computer</th>
<th>Room</th>
<th>Car</th>
<th>Holiday</th>
<th>Computer</th>
<th>Room</th>
<th>Car</th>
<th>Holiday</th>
<th>Computer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^*$ Partial gamma coefficients are denoted $\gamma^p$ measuring the strength of the conditional association between pairs of items, and between items and exogenous variables. Interpretations in the present paper are $\gamma^p$ of 0.00–0.15 = weak, 0.16–0.30 = moderate and $\gamma^p > 0.30$ = strong correlations.
Table 3 shows the fit statistics (Conditional Likelihood Ratio) of country-year-specific models.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Survey Year</th>
<th>CLR</th>
<th>df (Parameters)</th>
<th>p-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>24.24</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.0843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>14.77</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0.9614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>23.63</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.0978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>30.47</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.0331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>14.02</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.5971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>17.30</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0.8998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>17.76</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.5338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>16.07</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.7121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>21.16</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.3878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>14.51</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.6954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.9981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>33.14</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0.2306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>67.62</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>19.94</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0.7945</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Norway 2009/10 fitted a model with 43 parameters, but it was considered too complex to be included as meaningful.
** Scotland 2005/06 had very poor fit, but was included in the table to show fit statistics.

Table 3 summarises the findings across countries and survey years.

To illustrate the constructed models and the findings of correlation coefficients within item (LD) and between items and exogenous variables (DIF), the models of Norway in 2001/02 (Fig. 1) and Scotland in 2009/10 (Fig. 2) are shown. Due to space constraints for this paper, only two models out of the 15 sets of analyses performed are presented.

3.1. Survey year 2001/02

Fig. 1 shows the GLLRM-model for Norway in the first survey. DIF was identified between gender and computer ($\gamma^p$ between $-0.10$ and $-0.22$) in four of the five countries, indicating the families with boys were more likely to have computers in the home. No other DIF-associations were found with regards to gender, except a $\gamma^p$ of 0.18 indicating that girls in Canada were more likely to have their own bedroom than boys. Findings on DIF between age and the FAS-items, results were consistent and strong in showing DIF between age and bedroom ($\gamma^p$ between 0.19 to 0.44), indicating that age positively related to having your own bedroom. Likewise, results were consistent and strong in showing DIF between age and going on holiday ($\gamma^p$ between $0.12$ and $0.20$), indicating that age negatively related to the likelihood of going on holiday with your parents. In the fitted models, LD was identified on all between-item associations, but with few exceptions, these were weak.

3.2. Survey year 2005/06

As seen in 2001/02, DIF between age and bedroom were strong in three of the five countries ($\gamma^p$ between 0.18 and 0.42). The same but a bit stronger associations were found between age and going on holiday ($\gamma^p$ between $-0.21$ and $-0.25$), indicating that age was positively related to having your own bedroom, and negatively related to going on holiday with your parents. The association between gender and computer had diminished to be weak ($\gamma^p$ of $-0.09$ and $-0.21$), and only identified in two countries. In the fitted models, LD was identified on all between-item associations, but with few exceptions, these were weak.

3.3. Survey year 2009/10

Fig. 2 shows the GLLRM-model for Scotland in the third survey. In comparison to the two first surveys, no DIF was found with regards to gender. Findings on DIF with regards to age were consistent, and showing DIF between age and bedroom ($\gamma^p$ between 0.11 and 0.24), and between age and going on holiday ($\gamma^p$ between $-0.14$ and $-0.28$). DIF between age and computer had emerged, being moderate to strong ($\gamma^p$ between 0.14 and 0.32). In the fitted models,
weak or moderate associations on LD were identified on all between-item associations with only one exception.

3.4. Fitting of models across survey years

In the statistical process, a model was fitted for each country, where survey-year was included as a potential (third) exogenous variable. This maneuver revealed models with massive DIF and LD between the surveys, where a model was fitted with acceptable test-results for Austria (CLR$^1 = 56.44, p = 0.0274$) and good fit for Canada (CLR = 50.09, $p = 0.1317$) and Norway (CLR = 30.78, $p = 0.9185$). No overall model with acceptable fit was accomplished for Belgium and Scotland (data not shown).

3.5. Item response drift in the FAS

Another crude but intuitive measure of item response is shown in Table 4, where the range in item responses are calculated for each country and year of survey. Most inconsistent finding which is interpreted as the highest item response drift is seen for the computer item, which increases from 1.42 in Austria and 1.66 in Norway to 2.10 and 2.64 respectively (Table 4).

4. Discussion

Earlier studies have discussed how scales such as the FAS perform differently in different countries, and these findings have now been examined in HBSC. This study found, that the computer item has changed from being different between genders, to varying across age. The

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Year of survey</th>
<th>Austria</th>
<th>Belgium</th>
<th>Canada</th>
<th>Norway</th>
<th>Scotland</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Car (range 0–2)</td>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>1.44 (.58)</td>
<td>1.44 (.59)</td>
<td>1.60 (.53)</td>
<td>1.50 (.57)</td>
<td>1.38 (.66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>1.50 (.57)</td>
<td>1.48 (.59)</td>
<td>1.70 (.53)</td>
<td>1.56 (.55)</td>
<td>1.43 (.65)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>1.51 (.58)</td>
<td>1.54 (.58)</td>
<td>1.66 (.56)</td>
<td>1.64 (.53)</td>
<td>1.49 (.64)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holiday (range 0–3)</td>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>1.53 (1.03)</td>
<td>1.42 (1.01)</td>
<td>1.68 (1.09)</td>
<td>2.16 (.95)</td>
<td>1.43 (.98)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>1.45 (1.04)</td>
<td>1.52 (1.03)</td>
<td>1.55 (1.09)</td>
<td>2.12 (.97)</td>
<td>1.47 (1.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>1.57 (1.05)</td>
<td>1.65 (1.02)</td>
<td>1.57 (1.08)</td>
<td>1.99 (1.03)</td>
<td>1.55 (1.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bedroom (range 0–1)</td>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>0.82 (.38)</td>
<td>0.84 (.37)</td>
<td>0.88 (.32)</td>
<td>0.93 (.27)</td>
<td>0.78 (.41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>0.85 (.36)</td>
<td>0.86 (.35)</td>
<td>0.89 (.31)</td>
<td>0.94 (.23)</td>
<td>0.80 (.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>0.85 (.36)</td>
<td>0.85 (.36)</td>
<td>0.86 (.35)</td>
<td>0.94 (.24)</td>
<td>0.83 (.38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers (range 0–3)</td>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>1.42 (.85)</td>
<td>1.45 (.87)</td>
<td>1.48 (.81)</td>
<td>1.66 (.84)</td>
<td>1.51 (.90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>1.74 (.85)</td>
<td>1.79 (.88)</td>
<td>1.74 (.83)</td>
<td>2.12 (.83)</td>
<td>1.79 (.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>2.10 (.84)</td>
<td>2.17 (.82)</td>
<td>2.09 (.85)</td>
<td>2.64 (.63)</td>
<td>2.30 (.78)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^1$ Conditional Likelihood Ratio-test, $p$-value > 0.05 indicating good model fit.
assumption is that owning a computer in earlier 2000s related to a game-culture led on by boys. It seems that during the past 8 years, this item measures differently, now being related to the educational span adolescents go through during their schooling; there is a need for older students to have computer for educational purposes instead of a computer being used for leisure primarily for boys. Computers have also become a tool for social interaction between 2002 and 2010, which does not have a traceable gender difference. The consistency of this finding across all five countries results in an emphasis to these results as reliable.

Even though housing space can be seen as a sociological issue concerning family size, there is a clear tendency that children have their own room as they grow older, irrespective of the family’s level of affluence.

The failure to fit GLLRM’s across survey years warrants a cautious approach when comparing data from the FAS between surveys. The indication of changing LD over time emphasises this conclusion. LD is also dependent on development in items over time, which is part of the explanation to the poor model fit between surveys. However, it does not necessarily mean that within country measurement is invalid. The comprehensive finding of LD indicate that further analyses are warranted on the loading of the items, and which are most optimal to include in the scale. Further development of the FAS in this respect would require one or two items, which function in the same way between surveys, and this (these) items will benefit from functioning as “anchor items” when adjusting for DIF and LD, as previously described [6]. A development of additional FAS items, which functions in the same way between countries and survey years, is consequently of high importance if part of the validation process around the FAS is to support the claims that the FAS can be used for valid comparisons between countries or surveys.

It is important to note that the problem of DIF would not be solved by adjusting for age and gender as a confounder, since this modification does not adjust on an item level, but on the sum score. Older children more often had their own bedroom, independent of family affluence, and they were also less likely to go on holiday with their parents.

The nature of relationships between constructs and measures has been discussed in the literature on construct validity [29]. There are basically two theoretical approaches with the question whether constructs are specified as causes or effects of their measures. If constructs are viewed as causes of measures, a variation in a construct will lead to a variation in its measures [30]. This type of measure is labelled reflexive, because they represent reflections of a construct. The theoretical approach of this study is that the FAS indicators are effect indicators, an approach providing the opportunity for testing construct validity by means of Rasch models, as done in the present paper. It is also supported by the changing of items across survey years, which is not advisable for causal indicators, that are not interchangeable and usually essential [5]. Additionally, the rationale is also based on the fitting of a model. Although the fit of a latent variable model to the data may not prove the existence of causally operating latent variables, the model does formulate this as a hypothesis, and the fitting of the models can be added as evidence supporting this hypothesis [31]. Discussions on the directions and relationship between constructs and measures are important, and must be addressed before models can be empirically tested [29]. The view on the FAS presented in this study may be challenged by researchers presupposing that the FAS is a formative scale with causal indicators, and future validation work taking on this view is welcomed to extend the methodological discussion even further.

The concluding remarks of the present paper based on the analyses is in support of previous studies [6,8,10], which urge caution when using the FAS to compare across different countries and different times. Future development in FAS items could benefit from using this knowledge, and further methodological developments should be undertaken before comparisons can be done with confidence to that conclusions drawn are reliable.

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References


