SCIENTIFIC CONTRIBUTION

Kathryn A. Phillips, MPA, PhD Joseph A. Catania, PhD

Dr. Phillips is an Assistant Professor and Dr. Catania is an Associate Professor with the Center for AIDS Prevention Studies and the Department of General Internal Medicine, School of Medicine, University of California, San Francisco (UCSF). Dr. Phillips is also affiliated with the Institute of Health Policy Studies, UCSF.

Tearsheet requests to Kathryn A. Phillips, PhD, University of California-San Francisco, 74 New Montgomery, No. 74, San Francisco, CA 94105; tel. 415-597-9190; fax 415-597-9125.

Consistency in Self-Reports of HIV Testing: Longitudinal Findings from the National AIDS Behavioral Surveys

SYNOPSIS

THIS PAPER ASSESSES consistency in self-reports of human immunodeficiency virus testing using two waves of longitudinal data from a large, national probability survey, the National AIDS Behavioral Survey.

Of those reporting at Wave I that they had been tested for reasons other than blood donation, 18 percent reported at Wave 2 that they had never been tested. Of those reporting at Wave I that they had been tested when they donated blood, 29 percent reported at Wave 2 that they had never been tested.

Inconsistent responses may be due to poor recall and to high self-presentation bias, that is, a desire to provide socially acceptable answers. Poor recall may be exacerbated by passive conditions such as blood donation. The authors conclude with recommendations for reducing measurement error in surveys of testing behavior.

urvey research usually has to rely on self-reported data, so it is important to assess the reliability of such data. In prior work, the importance of measurement error in self-reports of sensitive subjects such as behaviors related to the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) have been discussed (1). In this paper, we report on consistency in self-reports of HIV testing, using a longitudinal, population based sample. This information has important implications for providers of HIV testing and can be used to estimate measurement error and improve questionnaire design.

Two studies have examined the validity of self-reports of HIV test results in high prevalence samples (2,3). To our knowledge, there are no published studies on the reliability of self-reports of HIV testing in the general population. We report longitudinal data from the 1991 and 1992 National AIDS (acquired immmunodeficiency syndrome) Behavioral Survey (NABS), a large, national probability survey, on consistency in self-reports of HIV testing. We hypothesized that people might be inconsistent in their responses as a result of poor recall or high self-presentation bias, that is, a desire to provide socially acceptable answers (1).

Methods

Sample frames and procedures. Methodological details on the baseline survey have been described in detail elsewhere (4,5). In brief, the baseline survey (Wave 1, June 1990 through February 1991) was preceded by an intensive pretest phase, conducted in Spanish or English, and the data were collected by telephone. Wave 2 interviews were conducted approximately one year after Wave 1, using the same general interviewing procedures (85 percent of the Wave 2 interviews were completed between January and June 1992).

Our study uses two probability samples: National (ages 18-75) and Cities (ages 18-49). The cities sample provides an indepth picture of 23 cities which, at baseline, had large numbers of AIDS cases. For the national sample, 76 percent of the unweighted 1,820 Wave 1 respondents and 66 percent of the unweighted 3,723 cities respondents were reinterviewed.

In both Wave 1 and Wave 2, intereviewers asked the question: "As you may know, there is a blood test that tells you whether or not you have the AIDS virus. Have you ever had this test done?" A separate question in Wave 2 asked about reasons for testing, including blood donation. We report results separately for blood donors since many people do not know that they are tested for HIV when they donate blood (6) and that response category was offered at Wave 1 but not Wave 2.

We defined as consistent those who said at both Wave 1 and Wave 2 that they had been tested for HIV. We defined as inconsistent those who reported at Wave 1 having been tested but stated "no" or "don't know" when asked at Wave 2 if they had ever been tested. We were not able to assess which answer was correct or measure whether testing was overreported. Given the sensitive nature of HIV testing, however, we suspect overreporting is less frequent than underreporting.

We examined sociodemographics, risk factors, and HIV-AIDS knowledge and beliefs at Wave 1 and reexamined at Wave 2 those variables that might have changed. We defined persons to be at risk if they reported any of the following risk factors: (a) multiple sexual partners in the past year, (b) donor blood transfusions between 1978 and 1985, (c) treatment for hemophilia, (d) injecting themselves with drugs in the past five years, or (e) a primary sexual partner with one or more risk factors (HIV positive, intravenous drug user in the past five years, nonmonogamous, transfusion recipient, or hemophiliac patient).

The stereotypes scale was composed of four questions that measured stereotypes people hold of persons who become HIV infected. The question on ease in talking about sex was found in previous work to distinguish between responders and nonresponders to sexual questions (1).

Statistical analyses. We assessed associations using Chi-

Frequency	National			Cities		
	N	Number	Percent	N	Number	Percent
Overall testing:						
Percent ever tested at Wave I						
(includes blood donation)	1,817	348	19	3,715	1,030	28
Inconsistent responses						
(persons tested for reasons other than						
blood donation):						
Percent reporting at Wave 1 that they						
had been tested but at Wave 2 that						
they had never been tested	282	51	18	894	137	15
Percent reporting at Wave 1 that they						
had been tested but at Wave 2 that they						
didn't know if they had been tested	282	3	1	894	11	1
Inconsistent responses						
(persons tested for blood donation):						
Percent reporting at Wave I that they had						
been tested for blood donation but at						
Wave 2 that they had never been tested	66	19	29	136	51	38
Percent reporting at Wave I that they had						
been tested for blood donation but at						
Wave 2 that they didn't know if they had						
been tested	66	2	3	136	4	3

Table 1. Frequency of inconsistent reports of HIV testing in two survey samples on responses in National AIDS Behavioral Surveys, 1991–92

NOTE: The N's are weighted.

	National		Cities		
		Percent		Percent	
		inconsistent ¹		inconsistent	
	Percent	excluding	Percent	excluding	
	inconsistent	donors	inconsistent	donors	
Characteristics	(N=348)	(N=325)	(N=1,030)	(N=964)	
Sex:					
Male	20	15	20	15	
Female	24	17	19	14	
Age (years):					
Younger than 30	217	² 3	20	14	
30–39	22	14	19	14	
40-49	22	15	21	16	
50 and older	31	27	NA	NA	
Race-ethnicity:					
White	. 22	15	19	212 ²	
African American	20	17	19	16	
English-speaking					
Latino	20	20	25	19	
Spanish-speaking					
Latino	28	28	21	20	
Education:					
Less than high					
school	25	20	21 8	217	
High school					
graduate	25	17	28	19	
Some college					
or more	19	15	17	12	
Income (per year):					
Less than \$10,000	12	9	²27	²22	
\$10,000-20,000	27	20	14	Н	
\$20,000-40,000	24	17	21	14	
More than \$40,000	19	15	19	14	
Marital status:					
Married	23	16	² 24	218	
Not married	20	15	17	12	

¹Persons are inconsistent if they reported having ever been tested at Wave 1 but stated "no" or "don't know" when asked at Wave 2 if they had ever been tested. ²P <.10, chi-square comparing characteristics of consistent and inconsistent persons.

square tests and weighted the data to reflect differences in probability of selection and in the characteristics of the sample as compared with the Current Population Survey (at baseline) and to adjust for attrition (due to nonvolunteerism at baseline and loss to followup) from Wave 1 to Wave 2. (Further details are available from Dr. Catania). Weighting is standard practice for national surveys, the National Health Interview Survey (7), for example, to obtain unbiased estimates that are representative of the national population.

Results

Of those who reported in Wave 1 that they were tested for reasons other than blood donation, 18 percent in the national sample and 15 percent in the cities sample reported in Wave 2 that they had never been tested. Of those reporting in Wave 1 that they had been tested when donating blood, 29 percent in the national sample and 38 percent in the cities sample reported in Wave 2 that they had never been tested. Few respondents answered "don't know" when asked at Wave 2 if they had been tested (table 1).

We did not find any evidence that persons with inconsistent responses to HIV testing questions refused to answer other sensitive questions. For example, the income question had the highest nonresponse rate among the demographic variables (two percent of the cities sample, based on Wave 2 data). However, of the income nonresponders, only one gave inconsistent responses to HIV testing testing questions, while 11 gave consistent responses.

Significant results common across samples (tables 2 and 3) were that inconsistent reports were more likely to be given by those who perceived themselves to be at high risk for contracting HIV from sex (Wave 1), did not any report risk factors (Wave 2), and rated high on the stereotypes scale (for example, they believed that heterosexuals don't need to worry about getting AIDS). Other findings that were significant in one or more samples were that people who gave inconsistent reports were more likely to be older than 50, to be nonwhite, to have less than a college education, to have an income of less than \$10,000 per year, to be married, to have no risk factors (Wave 1), to be HIV negative or did not know the results, and to find it difficult to discuss sex.

Discussion

Our results suggest that inconsistent responses may be due to poor recall, especially if testing is not a salient issue for the person. For instance, blood donors were more likely to give inconsistent responses; for these people, testing is probably not a salient issue, and some might have forgotten being tested because they never received their results. Recall may also be a factor simply because interviews occurred a year apart. A Public Health Service study found that close to 20 percent of hospitalizations went unreported when interviews occurred a year after discharge, compared with fewer than 5 percent unreported when interviews occurred within several weeks of discharge (8). Donegan and coworkers (9) found that 12 percent of people receiving blood transfusions did not report being transfused.

Inconsistent responses may also be due to high self-presentation bias. For instance, inconsistent people were more likely to report difficulty with discussing sex in an AIDS survey (national sample only). Another finding that may reflect presentation bias is that people with inconsistent testing reports had a pattern of inconsistent responses to

Table 3. Percentage breakdown on persons in two samples from the National AIDS Behavioral Surveys according to their answers on AIDS risk

	Na	tional	Cities		
	Percent inconsistent			Percent inconsistent	
	Percent inconsistent	excluding donors	Percent inconsistent	excluding donors	
Questions	(N=348)	(N=325)	(N=1,030)	(N=964)	
n the next five years, do you think you might					
get the AIDS virus from having sex? (Wave 1):					
Yes	¹ 48	'48	'34	'29	
Maybe	16	13	18	13	
No	21	15	20	14	
n the next five years, do you think you might					
get the AIDS virus from having sex? (Wave 2):					
Yes	19	19	18	13	
Maybe	24	17	19	12	
No	21	16	21	16	
Type of risk factor (Wave 1):					
Multiple partners only	15	12	'13	'8	
Other risk factors ²	12	10	15	9	
None	23	17	22	16	
Type of risk factor (Wave 2):					
Multiple partners only	'14	'14	17	9	
Other risk factors ²	8	5	14	11	
None	24	18	21	16	
HIV test results:					
Negative	22	'17	'19	'14	
Did not get results	18	4	32	15	
AIDS transmission knowledge (two questions):					
Correct (both answers)	22	16	20	14	
Incorrect (either answer)	20	13	16	13	
Stereotypes about who gets AIDS ³ :					
High (score = 8–16)	'30	'23	' 24	'19	
Medium (score = 5–7)		17	22	14	
Low (score = 4)		12	15	12	
Do you find that talking about sex in an AIDS survey					
is very easy to do, kind of easy, kind of hard,					
or very hard to do?:					
Very hard	'57	24	25	19	
Kind of hard		15	17	II.	
Kind of easy		21	21	15	
Very easy		12	19	14	

 ^{1}P <.10, chi-square comparing characteristics of consistent and inconsistent persons.

²Such as injection drug use, for example.

³Scale composed of four questions: (a) You can always tell if a person has the AIDS virus, (b) Only gay (homosexual) men or people who inject drugs have the AIDS virus, (c) Elderly people don't need to worry about getting the AIDS virus, (d) Heterosexual people don't need to worry about getting the AIDS virus.

questions on risk. For example, people who were inconsistent perceived themselves to be at high risk of contracting HIV (Wave 1) despite a lack of reported risk behaviors and believed that people outside the major risk groups do not need to worry about contracting HIV.

Despite extensive pretesting of the question about HIV testing, it is still possible that inconsistent responses were due to poor question comprehension. Groups that might have comprehensive difficulties—older people, Spanishspeaking Latinos, and those with limited education—were more likely to provide inconsistent responses. In addition, differences in the response categories between Wave 1 and Wave 2 may have facilitated inconsistent responses, but only in blood donors. Our results are similar to those for the 1988 and 1990 National Surveys of Family Growth (NSFG). Analysis of the NSFG data found that approximately 14 percent of women were inconsistent in self-reports of HIV testing when interviews were two years apart, according to a personal communication from J. Wilson, National Center for Health Statistics, April 5, 1994. Other studies of HIV testing that have focused on validity rather than reliability have found that people often misreport test results (2,3). It is difficult to compare our results with other reliability studies, since they report on risk behaviors such as alcohol consumption that may be sensitive but that also may change between interviews (10), or they report on screening behaviors that may be less sensitive topics (for example, Pap smears) (11).

Our study suggests that self-reports of prior testing are generally reliable but that reports of testing under passive conditions such as blood donations should be viewed with particular caution. Those who survey HIV testing can encourage reliable reports by probing to enhance recall and by reassuring patients that having been HIV tested is acceptable.

Several steps can be taken to reduce measurement error in surveys of testing behavior. First, it is important to distinguish voluntary testing from testing at blood donation and other routine testing, as was done in the NABS, in order to facilitate the identification of sources of inconsistent responses. Further research should be conducted to assess how changes in question wording may increase the accuracy of responses. Second, to reduce presentation bias, lead-ins to testing questions can be used, such as "Many people have been tested..." Third, the use of partially self-administered surveys, perhaps computer-facilitated, could also be explored. Finally, researchers could interview persons who are inconsistent to determine why they changed their responses.

References

- Catania, J. et al.: Response bias in surveys of AIDS-related sexual behavior. In Methodological issues in AIDS behavioral research, edited by D.G. Ostrow and R.C. Kessler. Plenum Press, New York, 1993, pp. 133-162.
- McCusker, K., Stoddard, A., and McCarthy, E.: The validity of selfreported HIV antibody test results. Am J Public Health 82: 567–569 (1992).
- 3. Lindan, C., et al.: Level of HIV testing and low validity of self-reported results among alcoholics and drug users. AIDS 8: 1149–1155 (1994).
- Catania, J. A., et al.: Prevalence of AIDS-related risk factors and condom use in the United States. Science 258: 1101–1106 (1992).
- Berrios, D., et al.: HIV antibody testing among those at risk for HIV infection: the National AIDS Behavior Survey (NABS). JAMA 270: 1576–1580, Oct. 6, 1993.
- Aguilar, S., and Hardy, A.: AIDS knowledge and attitudes for 1991: data from the National Health Interview Survey. National Center for Health Statistics, Hyattsville, MD, 1992.
- Schoenborn, C., Marsh, S., and Hardy, A.: AIDS knowledge and attitudes for 1992: data from the National Health Interview Survey. Advance data from vital and health statistics, No. 243. National Center for Health Statistics, Hyattsville, MD, 1994.
- Public Health Service: Reporting of hospitalization in the health interview survey. DHEW Publication No. (HSM) 73-1261. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC, 1965.
- Donegan, E., Johnson, D., Remedio, V., and Cohen, S.: Mass notification of transfusion recipients at risk for HIV infection. Letter. JAMA 32: 922, Aug. 19, 1988.
- Stein, A., Lederman, R., and Shea, S.: The behavioral risk factor surveillance system questionnaire: its reliability in a statewide sample. Am J Public Health 83: 1768-1772 (1993).
- 11. McKenna, M., Steers, M., Mallin, K., and Warnecke, R.: Agreement between patient self-reports and medical records for Pap smear histories. Am J Prev Med 8: 287-291 (1992).