



PREDICTING SURVEY NONRESPONSE WITH REGISTRY DATA IN SWEDEN BETWEEN 1992 TO 2022: COHORT REPLACEMENT OR A DETERIORATING SURVEY CLIMATE?

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The problem: Declining response rates in Western societies

- Shows no signs of stopping
- Uniformly distributed non-response is a prerequisite for accurate inferences and generalizations

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Mapping nonresponse

• A better understanding of what is associated with survey nonresponse and its impact on nonresponse bias enables better statistical modeling

- Aid in designing interventions that counteract the trend of increasing nonresponse (e.g., for whom to tailor the survey requests) (Lynn, 2016; Schouten et al., 2017; Tourangeau et al., 2017; Brick & Tourangeau, 2017; Christensen et al., 2019)
- Understanding whether the decline is due to a changing <u>survey climate</u> or <u>cohort</u> <u>replacement</u> ensure preparation for combating nonresponse in the near future





Individual predictors of response propensities

- Educational attainment (Keeter et al., 2006; Keeter et al., 2017; Piekut, 2021; Rogelberg & Luong, 1998; van Wees et al., 2019)
- Age (Bates, 2017; Eisile, 2017; Shaghaghi et al., 2011; van Loom et al., 2003; van Wees et al., 2019)
- Sex (van Loon et al. 2003)
- Household characteristics (Abraham et al., 2006; Bergstrand et al., 1983; Groves 2006; Eisile, 2017)
- Marital status (Abraham et al., 2006)
- Migrant status (Bates, 2017; Bates et al., 2019; Eisile, 2017; Shaghaghi et al., 2011; van Wees et al., 2019)
- Citizenship (Kreuter, Müller, and Trappman, 2010)
- Economic status (Abraham et al., 2006; Bates & Mulry, 2011; Brick & Williams, 2013; Groves & Couper, 1998; Kreuter, Müller, and Trappman, 2010; Shaghaghi et al., 2011)
- Language proficiencies (Bates, 2017; Bates & Mulry, 2011; Brick & Williams, 2013; Couper & de Leeuw; Japec et al., 1997)





Contextual predictors of response propensities

- Commuting distance (Groves and Couper, 1998; Brick and Williams, 2013)
- Proportion of rental apartments (Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Proportion of single households (Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Income levels (Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Proportion of welfare dependence (Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Crime rates (Brick and Williams, 2013)
- Proportion of educational attainment (Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Proportion of women in the workforce (Brick and Williams, 2013)
- Proportion of unemployment (Brick and Williams, 2013)
- Proportion of families with young children (Brick and Williams, 2013; Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Population density (Groves and Couper, 1998; Bates & Mulry, 2011)





The Case: Response rates in Sweden

- Response rates in the Swedish: a middle-ground between the high response rate in the GSS and the slightly lower the ALLBUS
- Capitalizing on the reliable registry data in Sweden, theories on response propensities should likely be accurately assessed
- The long-time series of our data allow for the assessment of a deteriorating survey climate or cohort replacement as causes increasing non-response bias (Gummer, 2019)





New contextual factor: Socially disadvantaged areas in Sweden

The Swedish Police identified **socially disadvantaged areas**.

- A greater proportion of crimes (especially organized crime) than other areas in Sweden (Swedish Police, 2015)
- Parallel societies with own rules and parallel enforcement of rules and law (not the police)
- Inhabitants show lower trust in authorities





Contextual predictors that coincide with socially disadvantaged areas in Sweden

- Commuting distance (Groves and Couper, 1998; Brick and Williams, 2013)
- Proportion of rental apartments (Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Proportion of single households (Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Income levels (Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Proportion of welfare dependence (Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Crime rates (Brick and Williams, 2013)
- Proportion of educational attainment (Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Proportion of women in the workforce (Brick and Williams, 2013)
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- Proportion of families with young children (Brick and Williams, 2013; Bates & Mulry, 2011)
- Population density (Groves and Couper, 1998; Bates & Mulry, 2011)





Sample 1: The SOM Institute 1992-2022

- Annual surveys since 1986 administered every fall
- Paper-and-pencil questionnaires
- Administered to simple random sample of people living in Sweden
- Omnibus style, broad topics on media, society, politics, behavior
- Since 2012, respondents have been offered to complete the questionnaire both online and on paper
- Since 2017 been offered a lottery scratcher ticket incentive with no incentive before that





Sample 2: The Swedish National Election Studies (SNES) 2022 • Every national parliamentary election since 1956

- Face-to-face but paper-and-pencil/web since 2018
- Topics on voting behavior, politics, and political media consumption
- Administered to a random sample of people eligible to vote, 18+ and citizen, and living in Sweden
- Administered by Statistics Sweden (two versions) or the SOM Institute (one version)
- No incentives for Statistics Sweden versions but scratcher ticket for the SOM Institute version





Predicting Response Propensities

OLS regression for each year separately

 y_i Responded = β_1 sex dummy + β_2 age dummies + β_3 foreign-born dummies + β_4 marital status dummies + β_5 citizenship dummy + (β_6 education dummies) + β_7 socially disadvantaged area dummies + ϵ

Meta-analytical regression analysis for the years 2015-2022



Sample 1: Response Propensities

Strongest predictors:

Age Migrant status

Individual, weaker, predictors:

Sex, Marital status, citizenship

Contextual, weaker, predictors:

Socially disadvantaged areas, metropolitan areas

Sub-group overall meta-analytical effects on response rates			Standardized response propensities (95% CI)
Born in the Nordics Subtotal (I-squared = 0.0%, p = 0.504)	٥		-0.01 (-0.02, -0.01)
Born somewhere else in Europe Subtotal (I-squared = 61.7%, p = 0.011)	\diamond		-0.09 (-0.10, -0.08)
Born somewhere outside Europe Subtotal (I-squared = 84.6%, p = 0.000)	\diamond		-0.15 (-0.16, -0.14)
Swedish citizen Subtotal (I-squared = 56.3%, p = 0.025)		\$	0.05 (0.04, 0.05)
Female Subtotal (I-squared = 42.3%, p = 0.096)		◊	0.03 (0.03, 0.04)
Age Subtotal (I-squared = 82.3%, p = 0.000)		\diamond	0.17 (0.15, 0.18)
Divorced Subtotal (I-squared = 0.0%, p = 0.636)	<	>	-0.00 (-0.01, 0.00)
Widow/Widower Subtotal (I-squared = 16.0%, p = 0.304)	\$		-0.02 (-0.03, -0.02)
Married Subtotal (I-squared = 53.3%, p = 0.036)		\diamond	0.09 (0.08, 0.10)
Metropolitan area Subtotal (I-squared = 0.0%, p = 0.451)		٥	0.02 (0.02, 0.03)
Socially impoverished Subtotal (I-squared = 38.9%, p = 0.120)	\$		-0.02 (-0.02, -0.01)
Risk of becoming socially impoverished Subtotal (I-squared = 65.1%, p = 0.005)	♦		-0.01 (-0.02, -0.00)
Extremely socially impoverished Subtotal (I-squared = 39.4%, p = 0.116)	٥		-0.03 (-0.03, -0.02)
NOTE: Weights are from random effects a	analysis		



Sample 1: Response Propensities

Increasing predictors over time

Age Migrant status







Sample 2: Response Propensities

Education a very strong predictor

Replicated predictors:

Age Migrant Status Married

Not replicating

Sex Widow/Widower

Sub-group overall meta-analytical effects on response rates				Standardized response propensities (95% CI)
Born in the Nordics Subtotal (I-squared = 72.5%, p = 0.026)	<	>		-0.00 (-0.03, 0.02)
Born somewhere else in Europe Subtotal (I-squared = 61.1%, p = 0.076)	\diamond			-0.08 (-0.10, -0.07)
Born somewhere outside Europe Subtotal (I-squared = 29.5%, p = 0.242)	\diamond			-0.13 (-0.14, -0.12)
Female Subtotal (I-squared = 70.1%, p = 0.035)	\diamond			-0.02 (-0.04, -0.00)
Age Subtotal (I-squared = 49.6%, p = 0.138)		<	>	0.20 (0.18, 0.22)
Divorced Subtotal (I-squared = 69.7%, p = 0.037)	<	>		0.00 (-0.02, 0.02)
Widow/Widower Subtotal (I-squared = 0.0%, p = 0.395)	<	>		-0.01 (-0.02, 0.01)
Married Subtotal (I-squared = 4.2%, p = 0.352)		\diamond		0.08 (0.06, 0.09)
Metropolitan area Subtotal (I-squared = 84.2%, p = 0.002)	<	>		-0.01 (-0.04, 0.02)
Elementary (completed) Subtotal (I-squared = 44.5%, p = 0.165)		\diamond		0.06 (0.04, 0.09)
Upper-secondary (started or completed) Subtotal (I-squared = 0.0%, p = 0.398)		\diamond		0.14 (0.11, 0.17)
Post-upper-secondary (less than 2 years) Subtotal (I-squared = 0.0%, p = 0.515)		\diamond		0.13 (0.11, 0.15)
Post-upper-secondary (2 years or longer) Subtotal (I-squared = 37.7%, p = 0.201)			\diamond	0.31 (0.28, 0.34)
NOTE: Weights are from random effects an	nalysis			
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Non-response bias: *R* indicators

- The standard deviation (SD) of probabilities of responses of units in the population.
- Estimated by fitting a probit regression equation of the parameters of response propensities
- Then estimating (Eq. 5. in Schouten et al. 2009, and the unadjusted R indicators in the R script created by de Heij, Schouten, and Shlomo, 2015).

$$1-2\sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\rho_i-\overline{\rho})^2}$$





Sample 1: Non-response bias

No relationship between Response Rate (RR1) and Nonresponse Bias (*R* Indicators)

r = .07







Sample 2: Non-response bias

Again, no relationship between Response Rate (RR1) and Nonresponse Bias (*R* Indicators)

Almost reversed relationship







Survey Climate: Corrected Dissimilarity Indices and Decomposition (Gummer, 2019)

- Estimate how much the difference between the responding sample (r) and the population (p) changed between two specified years within specific cohorts (e.g., among those born 1910-1919, how much did the difference between respondents and the population increase/decrease between the two specified survey years).
- Estimate a cohort-specific dissimilarity index (d), the dissimilarity can be decomposed into changes within and between cohorts

Eq.4.
$$\Delta D = \underbrace{\sum_{1}^{c} \frac{p_{c1} + p_{c0}}{2} \times \Delta d_{c}}_{WCC} + \underbrace{\sum_{1}^{c} \frac{d_{c1} + d_{c0}}{2} \times \Delta p_{c}}_{BCC}$$





Survey Climate: Corrected Dissimilarity Indices and Decomposition (Gummer, 2019)

Within Cohort Changes (WCC): deteriorating survey climate *Between Cohort Changes* (BCC): cohort replacement

- A positive WCC indicates that cohorts became more reluctant to complete the questionnaire
- A positive BCC indicates that some cohorts (e.g., older birth cohorts) with a higher response propensity left the population, while cohorts with a lower response propensity (e.g., younger birth cohorts) remained or joined





Sample 1: Survey Climate or Cohort Replacement?

Dissimilarity of birth cohorts increased

 $D_{1992} = 0.61$ doubled to $D_{2022} = 1.47$

$$b_{year} = 0.04, p < .01, CI[0.02, 0.06]$$







Sample 1: Survey Climate or Cohort Replacement?

Dissimilarity of immigrant cohorts increased rapidly (blue line)

$$D_{2015} = 3.61$$
 to $D_{2022} = 4.6^{\circ}$

b_{year} = 0.22, p < .001, CI[0.16, 0.29]







Sample 1: Survey Climate or Cohort Replacement?

The increased dissimilarity was wholly attributable to *Within Cohort Change* (survey climate) rather than *Between Cohort Change* (cohort replacement)







Summary

- Declining response rates does not seem to be a product of birth cohort replacement or influx of immigrant from different regions
- The survey climate has deteriorated in Sweden and seems responsible for the declining response rates (deteriorated rapidly 2002 to 2012)
- Education level, age, and migrant status are strong predictors of response propensities
- Individual predictors appear superior to contextual factors
- Nonresponse bias did not correlate with response rate
- Increasing nonresponse bias seem safe from strong influence of declining response rates (simulation studies show a safe-area when RR exceed 20%; Hedlin, 2020)





European Survey Research Association July 17 – 21, Milan, Italy 2023

Predicting Survey Nonresponse with Registry Data in Sweden between 1992 to 2022: Cohort Replacement or a Deteriorating Survey Climate?

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Working paper available at: psyarxiv.com/8xsyb

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