The measurement invariance of the Driver Behavior Questionnaire across samples of young drivers from Finland and Ireland

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Tässä pro gradu –työssä tarkastellaan liikennepsykologiassa ehkä eniten käytetyn kyselyinstrumentin, Driver Behaviour Questionnaire DBQ:n mittausinvarianssia suomalaisten ja irlantilaisten nuorten kuljettajien (18–25 v.) otoksissa, DBQ on kehitetty 1990-luvun alussa pääkompopenttianaluvsin perusteella. Kysely perustui alup perin						

Behaviour Questionnaire DBQ:n mittausinvarianssia suomalaisten ja irlantilaisten nuorten kuljettajien (18–25 v.) otoksissa. DBQ on kehitetty 1990-luvun alussa pääkomponenttianalyysin perusteella. Kysely perustui alun perin laajalti testattuun kognitiivisen ergonomian teoriaan (Generic Error Modeling System, GEMS), mutta sittemmin kyselyn osioiden joukko ja sen faktori- tai pääkomponenttirakenne ovat määräytyneet aineistolähtöisesti. Tämä on johtanut siihen, että kyselystä on olemassa runsaasti erilaisia versioita, joiden osiomäärä vaihtelee yhdeksästä yli sataan ja faktorimäärä yhdestä seitsemään. Kyselyn perusteella lasketaan yleisesti summa- tai keskiarvomuuttujia, joita vertaillaan vastaajien osajoukoissa. Mahdollisesti yleisimmin kyselystä käytetään 28 osion versiota, jonka ajatellaan mittaavan kahta, kolmea tai neljää latenttia muuttujaa. Tässä tutkimuksessa tarkastellaan konfirmatorisen faktorianalyysin ja erityisesti mittausinvarianssianalyysin keinoin, mikä esitetyistä faktorirakenteista sopii kuvaamaan suomalaisten ja irlantilaisten nuorten kuljettajien vastauksia parhaiten.

Mittausinvarianssianalyysi perustuu ajatukseen siitä, että aineistoon sovitetaan sarja malleja, joissa rajoitetaan koko ajan kasvava joukko mallin parametreja identtisiksi vertailtavien otosten välillä. Mikäli rajoitettu malli ei sovi tilastollisessa mielessä rajoittamatonta mallia huonommin aineistoon, voidaan rajoitettua mallia soveltaa kaikkiin (tässä: molempiin) vertailtaviin aineistoihin. Aineistoon sovitettavat mallit ovat järjestyksessä: 1) mittausmalli, jossa ainoastaan faktoreiden määrä on rajoitettu, 2) heikon invarianssin malli, jossa faktorilataukset on rajoitettu samoiksi, 3) vahvan invarianssin malli, jossa lisäksi osioiden vakiotermit on rajoitettu samoiksi ja 4) tiukan invarianssin malli, jossa lisäksi osioiden virhetermit on rajoitettu samoiksi. Lisäksi sovelletaan osittaisen invarianssin malleja, joissa vain osa kyseisessä invarianssitestauksen vaiheessa asetettavista rajoituksista pidetään voimassa. Mallien tilastollisen vertailun lisäksi niiden sopivuutta aineistoon arvioidaan erilaisten kuvailevien tunnuslukujen ja graafisten esitysten avulla.

Keskeisenä tuloksena esitetään, että vertailluista malleista neljän faktorin malli sopii parhaiten molempiin aineistoihin, vaikka mallia onkin muokattava aineistolähtöisesti, jotta riittävä yhteensopivuus aineiston kanssa saadaan varmistettua.Tarkempi tarkastelu osoittaa, että neljästä faktorista kaksi ovat luonteeltaan erilaisia kahdessa otoksessa, sillä vain irlantilaisessa otoksessa kaikki osiot latautuvat odotusten mukaisille faktoreille. Toisaalta kahden muun faktorin analyysi osoittaa, että niille latautuvat osiot tulkitaan olennaisesti samalla tavoin kahdessa otoksessa ja heikon invarianssin oletus voidaan tehdä. Lisäksi voidaan tehdä osittaisen vahvan invarianssin oletus yhden faktorin tapauksessa, vaikka tällöinkin suurin osa faktorille latautuvien vakiotermien arvoista on estimoitava vapaasti kahdessa aineistossa.

Johtopäätöksinä esitetään, että nykyisestä käytännöstä poiketen DBQ:n faktoreiden pohjalta laskettujen summamuuttujien vertailu on arveluttavaa ja että latenttien muuttujien vertailu saattaa olla perusteltua vain yhden faktorin tapauksessa neljästä. Toimintasuosituksena esitetään faktorirakenteen jatkokehittämistä kognitiivisen ergonomian ja kognitiivisen psykologian teorioiden pohjalta sekä invarianssitarkastelujen suorittamista rutiininomaisesti ennen faktorianalyysin tuloksiin perustuvien ryhmävertailujen suorittamista.

Avainsanat – Nyckelord – Keywords

Driver Behavior Questionnaire, DBQ, konfirmatorinen faktorianalyysi, CFA, mittausinvarianssianalyysi Säilytyspaikka – Förvaringsställe – Where deposited

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In this Master's thesis I examine the measurement invariance of the Driver Behavior Questionnaire (DBQ), the perhaps most widely used questionnaire instrument in traffic psychology, across samples of Finnish and Irish young drivers (18–25 years of age). The DBQ was developed in the beginning of the 1990s based on principal component analyses. The questionnaire was originally based on a well-tested theory in cognitive ergonomics (the Generic Error Modeling System, GEMS), but in the research that has ensued, the item pool and the factor structure has been determined in an exploratory fashion. This has resulted in an abundance of DBQ versions, which comprise anything from nine to over one hundred items and from one to seven factors. Further, in research articles based on the DBQ, it is a common practice to calculate sum or average scores and compare them across subgroups of respondents. The 28-item version of questionnaire, which is currently perhaps most widely used, is thought to measure two, three or four latent variables. In this thesis I use confirmatory factor analysis and, specifically, analysis of measurement invariance to examine which of the three alternative factor structures functions as the most fitting description of the responses of Finnish and Irish young drivers.

The analysis of measurement invariance is based on fitting a series of increasingly restrictive models to data. At each stage of the analysis, an increasing set of parameters are constrained to equality across the samples under comparison. In case the constrained model does not fit the data worse than the unconstrained model, the constrained model can be applied in all (in this thesis both) data sets. The models that are fit to data are, in order: 1) The configural model in which only the number of factors is constrained, 2) the weak invariance model, in which factor loadings are constrained to equality, 3) the strong invariance model, in which also the intercept terms of each item are constrained to equality and 4) the strict invariance model, in which also the error terms of each item are constrained to equality. In addition, models of partial invariance are applied. In these models, only some of the constraints related to each stage of the analysis are preserved. In addition to comparing the models statistically, their fit to data is examined using various descriptive statistics and graphical representations.

As a central result I propose that the four-factor model offers the best fit to both data sets, even though the model needs to be modified in an exploratory mode of analysis to ensure sufficient fit to data. Further analyses show that two of the four factors are different in nature in the two samples and that only in the Irish data set do all of the items load on the factors they are expected to. On the other hand, the analysis of the other two factors shows that the items that load on them are interpreted essentially similarly in the two samples and that weak invariance can be assumed on their part. In addition, partial strong invariance can be assumed in the case of one factor, even though even then the values of most of the intercept terms need to be freely estimated in the two data sets.

As a conclusion I suggest that, in contrast to the prevailing practice, comparing sum scores based on DBQ factors is dubious and that comparing latent variables scores may be justified only in the case of one factor out of four. As a practical recommendation, I suggest that the factor structure of the DBQ be further developed based on theories of cognitive ergonomics and cognitive psychology and that invariance analyses be performed as a matter of routine before carrying out comparisons of groups based on results of factor analyses.

Avainsanat - Nyckelord - Keywords

Driver Behavior Questionnaire, DBQ, konfirmatorinen faktorianalyysi, CFA, mittausinvarianssianalyysi Säilytyspaikka – Förvaringsställe – Where deposited

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Esipuhe

Tämä tutkielma perustuu aiemmin kerätyn aineiston analysointiin. Irlantilaisia kuljettajia koskeva aineisto on alun perin kerätty Trinity Collegen tutkija Fearghal O'Brienin väitöstyötä varten. Suomalaisia kuljettajia koskeva aineisto on kerätty Helsingin yliopiston silloisen psykologian laitoksen liikennetutkimusyksikössä osana Tieliikenteen turvallisuuden pitkän aikavälin tutkimus- ja kehittämisohjelmaa (LINTU). Aineiston ovat keränneet Timo Lajunen ja Heikki Summala. Kiitän lämpimästi O'Brienia, Lajusta ja Summalaa siitä, että he ovat antaneet keräämänsä aineiston käyttööni tutkielman kirjoittamista varten.

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1 Introduction

The Driver Behavior Questionnaire (DBQ) is the perhaps most commonly used psychometric instrument in traffic psychology, with roughly 200 studies being published by 2010 (De Winter & Dodou, 2010). The DBQ is most commonly assumed to measure from two to four latent variables, though factor structures embodying anything from one (Hennessy & Wiesenthal, 2005) to seven (Kontogiannis, Kossiavelou, & Marmaras, 2002) factors have been published. In this study, I investigate the cross-cultural equality of the three most commonly used factor structures, namely the two-, three-, and four-factor solution in two samples of young drivers, one collected in Finland and the other one in Ireland.

The two-factor model represents the fundamental distinction between *unintentional errors* and *intentional violations*¹. The meta-analysis of De Winter & Dodou (2010) showed that these two factors can be used as common denominators for the various factor structures encountered in the literature. This is a noteworthy finding because the instrument comes in many versions, comprising anything from 10 (Martinussen, Lajunen, Møller, & Özkan, 2013) to 112 (Kontogiannis et al., 2002) items. The basic distinction between voluntary and involuntary forms of traffic behavior has its roots in the theory of errors presented in Reason (1990).

The three-factor model, on the other hand, is derived from the primary study of the DBQ (Reason, Manstead, Stradling, Baxter, & Campbell, 1990). In that study, a five-factor structure was hypothesized to underlie the individual items. The structure of the questionnaire was investigated using principal components analysis (PCA), which resulted in a three-component solution of *involuntary errors, involuntary lapses* and *intentional violations. Errors* were judged by the researchers as "potentially dangerous" in contrast to *lapses*, which were characterized as "not dangerous" or "silly". It is of historical interest to note that the three-factor structure of the DBQ is based on the results of the PCA carried out by Reason et al. (1990), rather than being derived from the underlying theory (Reason, 1990). In subsequent DBQ studies some of the individual items were dropped (Parker, Reason, Manstead & Stradling, 1995;

¹ In this thesis, I refer to latent variables using *italics*.

Lawton, Parker, Manstead & Stradling, 1997; Åberg & Rimmö, 1998) and others added (Lawton et al., 1997). In the resulting 28-item version of the questionnaire, the two factors related to involuntary *errors* can perhaps be interpreted as attention-related *slips* and memory-related *lapses* (Mattsson, 2012) in accordance with the theory upon which the DBQ was originally based (Reason, 1990).

The four-factor structure of the DBQ results from dividing the subscale of *violations* into *rule violations* and *aggressive violations* (Lawton et al., 1997). The resulting questionnaire, which is also used in the present study, consists of eight items that are assumed to load on a *lapses* factor, nine on a *rule violations* factor, eight on a factor variously referred to as *errors* or *slips* and three on an *aggressive violations* factor.

In this study, I use modern structural equation modeling and factor analytical methods to investigate whether the same factor structure can be used in explaining the patterns of intercorrelations among the questionnaire items in Finnish and Irish samples of young drivers. In particular, I examine whether one of the three factor solutions fits the data collected from young, inexperienced drivers in one or both of the two countries. Methodologically, the present contribution is based on the measurement invariance framework that has thus far been little used in traffic psychology. Additionally, new methods of visualizing the results are utilized.

Previous studies have investigated the cross-cultural stability of the DBQ factor structures and the four-factor solution has been found to be more or less stable across countries (Lajunen, Parker, & Summala, 2004; Özkan, Lajunen, Chliaoutakis, Parker, & Summala, 2006). In these studies, the factor structures were compared by examining the factor loading matrices and calculating various indices of approximate factor similarity, such as identity, additivity, proportionality and correlation coefficients (van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). The values of these indices ranged from 0.85 to 0.98 when comparing Finnish, Dutch and British data (Lajunen et al., 2004). However, no statistical test is associated with these indices of factor similarity and there remains an element of subjective judgment on which values of the indices to consider "large" and which ones "small". In addition, it is known that Tucker's phi²

² One of the similarity indices

values of over .9 may well be obtained even when the factor structures are actually dissimilar across groups (van de Vijver & Leung, 1997).

In addition, competing factor models (the two-, three- and four-factor solutions) were not compared in the studies of Lajunen et al. (2004) and Özkan et al. (2006). The meta-analysis by De Winter & Dodou (2010) argued for the two-factor solution while the studies by Lajunen et al. (2004) and Özkan et al. (2006) stated that the four-factor model offers a good fit across countries and traffic cultures. Then again, the original study by Reason et al. (1990) and, for instance, the more recent study Davey, Wishart, Freeman, & Watson (2007) concluded that the three-factor (or three-component) solution fits the data best. A formal evaluation of the issue across cultures is in order.

This study builds on these earlier studies and complements them by utilizing modern structural equation modeling tools in comparing the three measurement models across two countries, Finland and Ireland. In the first stage of the analysis, the 2-, 3- and 4-factor models were fit to the two samples separately in order to find the one with the best fit. In the second stage, the model chosen in the first stage was fit to the two samples simultaneously and the differences in model fit were evaluated by analyses of measurement invariance.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Participants and Data

In the present study, Finnish and Irish data on the driving behavior of young drivers (18–25 years of age) was compared. The Finnish data set consisted of a sample of 1051 young drivers with an overall response rate of 35.3 %. The sample was collected as a stratified random sample from the driving license register. The respondents were enrolled in a lottery with two 250 euro pecuniary rewards as incentives to participate. Comparison of the responders and non-responders indicated that the two groups did not differ in terms of penalties received for reckless driving or driving under the influence of alcohol. The mean age of the Finnish respondents was 20.6 years, and median age 20. Other characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 1. Cases with missing values in DBQ variables 1–9 or 11–19 were removed from the data

because this pattern of missing values was likely due to the respondent not realizing that the questionnaire continued on a different page.

The patterns of missing values in the DBQ variables were investigated using the Missing Values Analysis (MVA) procedure in SPSS (IBM Corp., 2012). The analysis showed that the number of missing values varied between zero and 12, which amounts to 0 - 1.1 percent of the total number of values. Little's MCAR test showed that the values were missing completely at random $\chi^2(3438, N = 1051) = 3506.45, p = .204$ with respect to the variables gender, age, the time that the respondent had possessed a driver's license, exposure (kilometers driven per month) and whether the respondent had been involved in an accident. The missing values were not imputed because the Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML) estimation procedure in the R (R Development Core Team, 2013) package *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012) was used when performing the analyses.

In contrast to the Finnish sample, the Irish sample was collected using an online questionnaire. The respondents were acquired from among college students at Trinity College Dublin and people visiting a number of online car forums, or car sections of general interest online forums. The respondents from the college completed the questionnaire in response to an email sent around their college department by a member of administration while forum respondents were notified through a general post. Participants were entered into a lottery for a \in 50 gift voucher. As the online system did not allow the user to continue before answering all the items, the Irish data set contained no missing values. The data set consisted of 816 drivers with mean age of 20.3, and median age of 20. Respondents' other characteristics are presented in Table 1.

	Country		
	Finland	Ireland	
n	1051	816	
Sex (percent female)	62.5	53.6	
Mean years licence held (sd)	2.44 (1.71)	NA	
Licence type (percent provisional/full)	NA	37.6/62.4	

Table 1. Respondents' characteristics

2.2 Measures and model specification

The 28-item questionnaire (Lawton et al., 1997) and its Finnish translation (Lajunen et al., 2004) served as the basis of the current study. The item related to driving under the influence of alcohol was removed as recommended by Lajunen et al. (2004). The 27-item version of the questionnaire thus obtained was used in the present study.

The English version of the questionnaire (which was used in the Irish sample) is included as Appendix A. The DBQ variables were measured on a six-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Never") to 6 ("Nearly all the time"). The distributions of the DBQ variables in the Finnish sample are presented in Figure 1 and those in the Irish sample in Figure 2. The figures make it clear that the observed variables were not distributed normally.

In the two-factor model, the latent variables *violations* and *errors* were assumed to underlie the observed variables. In the three-factor solution, the *violations* factor was assumed identical to that of the two-factor solution. However, the *errors* factor was split into *slips* and *lapses*. For the four-factor solution, the assumed factor loadings on the factors of *slips* and *lapses* were identical to those of the three-factor solution. However, the latent variable *violations* was split into *rule violations* and *aggressive violations*. The specific items that were assumed to load on each factor in each solution are reported in Appendix A.



Figure 1. Distributions of the DBQ variables in the Finnish sample



Figure 2. Distributions of the DBQ variables in the Irish sample

The metric of the latent variables was set by using the method proposed by Little, Slegers, & Card (2006). This method involves setting the average loading of the indicator variables to unity and the average intercept term to zero. No cross-loadings or correlated indicator errors were specified in the initial models. The correlation matrices between the observed variables are reported in Appendix B so that my analyses can be replicated. The presence of missing data in the Finnish sample will, however, produce slight differences between results obtained from using raw data and correlation matrices as input.

2.3 Statistical analyses

The analysis of measurement invariance consists of fitting a sequence of models with increasingly restrictive constraints on the parameters of the model: 1) model with no constraints fit to both samples simultaneously (configural invariance), 2) constraining factor loadings to equality across groups (weak invariance), 3) constraining item intercepts to equality (strong invariance) and 4) constraining item errors to equality (strict invariance). An excellent summary of the stages of an analysis of measurement invariance can be found in Gregorich (2006) and especially Figure 1 therein.

Passing or failing the test at each stage has direct practical consequences for the model. The first two tests are concerned with the qualitative similarity of the interpretations given to the items across groups. If configural invariance is reached in the first stage, the items load on the same factors in the two samples. Passing the second test can be interpreted as showing that respondents being compared assign similar meanings to the latent constructs (Gregorich, 2006).

The remaining two tests indicate whether factor means (stage 3) and composite means (stage 4) can be meaningfully compared across groups. The test of strong factorial invariance is related to testing the equality of the intercept terms of the items. Inequality of intercepts indicates the presence of unequal systematic, additive effects across groups. For instance, different levels of social desirability of certain behaviors could lead to respondents from the two countries responding differently to an item even if they have identical values on the latent variable. This type of item functioning is also known as differential additive bias.

The last stage of the analysis (stage 4) is related to testing the equality of error variances. According to the theory of factor analysis, observed variation is composed of a) variation due to the common factors underlying the sets of items and b) variation due to factors specific to each item. Thus for the comparison of composite means (or sum scores) to be meaningful, the individual items should be composed of similar amounts of factor variance and specific (error) variance.

This study complements the previous studies on cross-cultural similarity of the DBQ factor structures in also testing for partial measurement invariance. Partial invariance refers to relaxing some of the invariance constraints for particular items. This type of analysis gives us practical information on which specific items actually function in an equivalent manner across cultures and which may be in need of reformulation in either one version of the questionnaire or both. Further, from a practical point of view, obtaining partial strong invariance is the minimum requirement for comparing latent factor means across groups. Still, it is important to differentiate comparing latent means from comparing sum scores of observed variables; for the latter, strict invariance is required.

The models were fit to the data using the R software (R Development Core Team, 2013) packages *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012) and semTools (Pornprasertmanit, Miller, Schoemann, & Rosseel, 2013). The visualizations were produced using the package qgraph (Epskamp, Cramer, Waldorp, Schmittmann, & Borsboom, 2012). The data was analyzed using the MLR estimator that is robust to the obvious non-normality of the observed variables. Modification indices and plots of residual correlations were used to improve model fit when the modifications were deemed theoretically reasonable and/or being in accordance with previous empirical results.

The following indices of approximate model fit were utilized to describe different aspects of model fit: CFI, RMSEA, SRMR and AIC. The CFI has been noted to be especially sensitive to misspecification of factor loadings (Hu & Bentler, 1999). For CFI, the cut-off value recommended by Hu & Bentler (1999) (0.95) was used as a starting point while keeping in mind that Marsh, Hau, & Wen (2004) caution against over-interpreting the proposed value. The RMSEA is a parsimony-adjusted index that favors simpler models over more complex ones. For RMSEA, according to Browne & Cudeck (1993) values of < 0.05 may indicate good fit, while also a cut-off value of 0.06 has been proposed (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The SRMR indicates the average absolute value of the residual correlations among the observed variables, i.e. the differences between the observed and predicted correlations. For SRMR, a cut-off value of 0.08 has been proposed (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The SRMR, however, does not take into account variation in residuals: a small number of theoretically important residuals may be high even if most of the residuals are low. For this reason, I investigated individual residuals using graphical methods in addition to reporting the SRMR. AIC was reported to facilitate comparisons between models. When assessing the fit of models that were modified based on modification indices and patterns of residual correlations, avoiding overfitting models to these particular samples of data was deemed a priority; modified models were thus especially expected to show good fit to data according to these indices.

It is still an open question which analysis method is most appropriate for assessing partial measurement invariance and for identifying items that function differently across groups. Sometimes, modification indices are used for this purpose. This procedure is referred to as the "traditional approach" by Gregorich (2006). We, however, chose to follow the build-up strategy (Pornprasertmanit et al., 2013) when performing the analyses of partial invariance and proceeded as follows: 1) all loadings/intercepts were freely estimated, 2) each loading/intercept in turn was constrained to equality across groups and an individual χ^2 -test was performed separately for each loading/intercept to assess the fit of the constrained model against the unconstrained model (a Bonferroni correction was applied to account for multiple testing), 3) the indicator associated with the lowest χ^2 -test value was constrained to equality across groups if doing so did not worsen model fit in a statistically significant manner and 4) the model thus obtained was used as the baseline model for testing if further indicator loadings could be constrained to equality across groups. I only report the partial invariance models that I arrived at using this procedure in order to save space.

3 Results

Model fits for the two-, three-, and four-factor models are reported in Table 2. The two-factor model is nested within the three-factor model and the three-factor model

within the four-factor model. Because of this, it was possible to compare changes in model fit via the likelihood ratio test as factors were added to the model. These tests showed that the three-factor model fitted the data better than the two-factor model, and the four-factor model better than the three-factor model in both samples.

It is, however, not clear that the fit of the four-factor model was satisfactory. The chisquare tests rejected the assumption that the four-factor model fit well in either sample and the CFI values were extremely low in both samples. In addition to being lower than the cut-off limit of 0.95, they were much lower than what is encountered in practice for models considered as well-fitting (Jackson, Gillaspy Jr, & Purc-Stephenson, 2009). The RMSEA value exceeded the more stringent cut-off of 0.05 in both groups while being slightly lower than the more lenient cut-off of 0.06. The SRMR values were in the acceptable range in both samples.

Model	χ^2	df	р	RMSEA	90% CI	CFI	AIC	SRMR
Finnish data								
two factors (2F)	1572.97	323	< 0.001	0.061	0.058-0.063	0.766	60412	0.066
three factors $(3F)$	1492.78	321	< 0.001	0.059	0.056-0.062	0.781	60307	0.065
four factors (4F)	1346.65	318	<0.001	0.055	0.053-0.058	0.808	60094	0.062
$\Delta \chi^2 (3F - 2F)$	58.66	2	< 0.001			0.015*		
$\Delta \chi^2 (4F - 3F)$	59.04	3	<0.001			0.027 *		
Irish data								
two factors	1262.21	323	<0.001	0.060	0.057-0.063	0.788	50268	0.071
three factors	1179.89	321	< 0.001	0.057	0.054-0.060	0.806	50166	0.070
four factors	1003.20	318	< 0.001	0.051	0.048-0.055	0.845	49945	0.068
$\Delta \chi^2 (3F - 2F)$	77.88	2	<0.001			0.018*		
$\Delta \chi^2 (4F - 3F)$	168.29	3	< 0.001			0.039*		

Table 2. Fit indices for the three models fit to the two samples separately

The $\Delta \chi^2$ -values are Satorra-Bentler scaled chi square values. * ΔCFI

Because it could not be concluded that the fit of the four-factor model was satisfactory, modification indices and patterns of residual correlations were inspected to better understand the sources of the lack of model fit. Residual correlations among the 27 DBQ items are shown in Figures 3 (Finnish sample) and 4 (Irish sample). The measurement model is represented by the differently colored nodes. Correlations of >

|.10| are shown in the two figures according to the recommendation given by Kline(2011). The ten largest modification index (MI) values are shown in table 3 for both samples.

Finnish sample					Irish sample				
M. IC.		Madification index	Expected Parameter		Madification	Madification index	Expected Parameter		
		INFORM ICALION INCEX	Change		MOdification	Would cauon muex	Change		
1	x10 ~~ x27	338.043	0.622	1	slips =~ x9	118.874	1.064		
2	slips =~ x9	135.599	0.723	2	lapses =~ x9	90.88	0.739		
3	x9 ~~ x27	65.284	-0.113	3	x10 ~~ x27	77.647	0.393		
4	ruleviol =~ $x25$	64.003	0.664	4	slips =~ $x22$	53.513	0.649		
5	aggr =~ x25	47.031	0.398	5	lapses = $\sim x22$	49.211	0.494		
6	lapses =~ x20	45.741	-0.776	6	x7 ~~ x11	48.569	0.198		
7	lapses =~ x9	44.128	0.336	7	x12 ~~ x13	46.71	0.049		
8	slips =~ x20	43.056	-0.926	8	lapses =~ x27	39.608	-0.821		
9	aggr =~ x11	41.11	-0.313	9	slips = $\sim x27$	38.881	-1.023		
10	slips =~ x27	39.695	-0.963	10	x10 ~~ x17	34.11	-0.16		
10	slips =~ x27	39.695	-0.963	10	x10 ~~ x17	34.11	-0.16		

Table 3. The ten largest modification index values for the two samples

~~: covariance; =~: measured by; aggr: aggressive violations; ruleviol: rule violations

Overall, there were numerous strong residual correlations (RCs) among the items in spite of the SRMR values falling in the acceptable range. In both samples, item 9 ("pull out of junction") had large residual correlations with many of the items measuring *slips*. The modification index values for regressing the item on *lapses* were also high in both samples. Further, item 9 had a negative residual correlation with the speeding-related item 27 in the Finnish sample, indicating that the model over-estimated the correlation between these two items. These results are illustrated by the lines originating from item 9 in Figures 3 and 4.



Figure 3. Residual correlations ($|\mathbf{r}| > .10$) among the DBQ items after fitting the fourfactor model to the Finnish sample. The color and type of the lines indicates whether the correlation is positive (solid green) or negative (dashed red), while the width and the level of transparency of the line indicate the strength of the correlation.



Figure 4. Residual correlations (|r| > .10) among the DBQ items after fitting the four-factor model to the Irish sample.

In addition, the patterns of residual correlations exhibited certain dissimilarities across samples (Figure 5). Items 2, 14 and 9 had, in general, positive residual correlations with other items in the Irish sample, while those residuals were close to zero in the Finnish sample. The residuals between items 27 and 11 and other items were similar but different in magnitude in the two samples. The other residuals lacked a clear pattern across the samples. These results show that many of the potential modifications to improve model fit would be different in the two samples (namely, all modifications that are not related to differences in the magnitude of the residual correlations across the samples).



Figure 5. Differences (Finnish residuals – Irish residuals, $|\mathbf{r}| > .10$) among residual correlations between the Finnish and Irish samples.

Overall, examination of the MIs and RCs resulted in two modifications to the fourfactor model that improved model fit in both samples: 1) item 9 was re-specified to measure *slips* and 2) the error variances of speeding-related items 10 and 27 were allowed to correlate. The fit of this modified model is reported in Table 4; this model also served as the basis (configural model) of the measurement invariance analyses. The test of configural invariance is reported in Table 4. The RMSEA indicated acceptable model fit, while the χ^2 -test and the CFI indicated lack of model fit. The SRMR indicated that the average residual correlation was in the acceptable range. The low CFI value and the different patterns of residual correlations across samples (Figure 5) were interpreted as indicating that the factor structures differed across the two samples. These considerations led me to the conservative decision to reject the configural model and to adopt the exploratory mode of analysis.

Table 4. Fit indices for the tests of factorial invariance

Model	χ^2	df	р	RMSEA	90% CI	CFI	SRMR
Configural inv.	1777.0	632	<0.001	0.044	0.042-0.046	0.883	0.056

Accordingly, separate Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFAs) were carried out in the two samples using the semTools package (Pornprasertmanit et al., 2013). A four-factor model with oblique target rotation to the expected four-factor solution was specified in both samples. The robust maximum likelihood (MLR) estimator was used. The results of these analyses are shown in Figures 6 and 7 and Tables 5 and 6.



Figure 6. The results of the exploratory factor analysis in the Finnish sample. The factor loadings implied by the original four-factor model are shown in the legend. Loadings with absolute value > .2 are shown.

	1	2	3	4	2
Item	Slips	Lapses			λ^2
Nearly hit cyclist (12)	0.67	0.01	-0.02	0.04	0.46
Pull out of junction (9)	0.58	-0.08	0.00	0.17	0.38
Miss "Give way" signs (13)	0.58	0.01	0.10	-0.06	0.36
Fail to notice pedestrians (5)	0.45	0.12	0.06	-0.01	0.30
Attempt to overtake turning (15)	0.43	0.06	-0.01	0.13	0.27
Brake too quickly (8)	0.36	0.15	0.04	0.03	0.24
Fail to check mirror (7)	0.36	0.10	0.09	-0.13	0.18
Nearly hit car when queueing (4)	0.30	0.29	0.01	0.09	0.31
Hit something when reversing (1)	0.29	0.15	0.13	-0.07	0.19
Underestimate speed of oncoming car (26)	0.27	0.27	0.14	-0.01	0.29
Get into wrong lane (3)	0.03	0.55	-0.03	-0.01	0.31
Misread signs (21)	0.01	0.51	0.05	0.05	0.30
Take off in third gear (14)	0.05	0.50	-0.12	-0.07	0.24
"Wake up" on an unintended route (2)	-0.03	0.49	-0.05	0.08	0.21
Forget where you left car (18)	0.02	0.39	-0.01	0.10	0.27
Switch on wrong thing (11)	0.20	0.39	0.00	-0.23	0.18
No recollection of road (25)	0.00	0.37	0.28	0.04	0.31
Disregard speed limit on motorway (27)	-0.11	-0.03	0.96	-0.13	0.77
Disregard speed limit on residential road (10)	0.02	-0.07	0.85	-0.09	0.63
Drive too close (22)	0.18	0.15	0.45	0.00	0.38
Race from lights (20)	-0.07	-0.01	0.41	0.35	0.37
Cross a junction when lights red (23)	0.06	0.14	0.36	0.25	0.37
Become angered, indicate hostility (24)	-0.01	0.06	0.11	0.73	0.62
Sound horn (6)	0.01	-0.05	0.14	0.62	0.47
Become angered, give chase (16)	0.06	0.03	0.20	0.55	0.49
Overtake on the inside (19)	0.13	0.08	0.13	0.37	0.28
Force your way on a lane (17)	0.28	-0.01	0.14	0.36	0.34

Table 5. Factor loadings: EFA with target rotation for the 27 DBQ items in the Finnish sample

The largest loading in black, other loadings in gray, crossloadings > |0.15| on gray background

	Correlations among the factors						
	Slips	Slips Lapses Factor 3 Factor 4					
Sh	ps 1.00	0.55	0.31	0.32			
La	pses 0.55	1.00	0.38	0.15			
Fa	ctor 3 0.31	0.38	1.00	0.42			
Fa	ctor 4 0.32	0.15	0.42	1.00			



Figure 7. The results of the exploratory factor analysis in the Irish sample. The factor loadings implied by the original four-factor model are shown in the legend. Loadings with absolute value > .2 are shown.

	Factor				
-	1	2	3	4	
	Sline	Lanses	Rule	Aggressive	λ^2
Item	ыра	Дарьсь	violations	violations	λ
Miss "Give way" signs (13)	0.76	-0.08	0.00	0.01	0.52
Nearly hit cyclist (12)	0.68	-0.12	0.10	-0.01	0.42
Attempt to overtake turning (15)	0.53	-0.03	0.05	0.09	0.32
Fail to notice pedestrians (5)	0.45	0.18	0.09	-0.06	0.34
Pull out of junction (9)	0.36	0.13	0.19	0.03	0.30
Fail to check mirror (7)	0.31	0.25	-0.09	0.00	0.22
Brake too quickly (8)	0.27	0.12	0.05	0.13	0.19
Get into wrong lane (3)	0.12	0.56	-0.04	-0.03	0.39
No recollection of road (25)	-0.03	0.47	0.18	0.07	0.31
"Wake up" on an unintended route (2)	-0.12	0.45	0.17	0.08	0.25
Forget where you left car (18)	0.01	0.43	-0.02	0.10	0.21
Misread signs (21)	0.19	0.43	0.06	0.01	0.33
Switch on wrong thing (11)	0.24	0.37	-0.20	0.01	0.27
Nearly hit car when queueing (4)	0.30	0.32	0.03	0.12	0.36
Underestimate speed of oncoming car (26)	0.23	0.27	0.20	-0.03	0.27
Take off in third gear (14)	0.19	0.27	0.01	-0.05	0.16
Hit something when reversing (1)	0.15	0.24	0.05	0.04	0.14
Disregard speed limit on motorway (27)	-0.05	-0.10	0.83	-0.03	0.61
Disregard speed limit on residential road (10)	-0.05	0.05	0.83	-0.14	0.56
Race from lights (20)	-0.04	-0.03	0.58	0.16	0.44
Cross a junction when lights red (23)	0.04	0.17	0.56	0.00	0.41
Overtake on the inside (19)	0.12	-0.22	0.55	0.08	0.36
Force your way on a lane (17)	0.15	-0.03	0.46	0.16	0.38
Drive too close (22)	0.06	0.27	0.37	0.11	0.37
Become angered, indicate hostility (24)	-0.08	0.10	0.13	0.73	0.66
Sound horn (6)	0.06	-0.12	0.07	0.66	0.48
Become angered, give chase (16)	0.06	0.04	-0.10	0.64	0.38

Table 6 Factor loading	EFA with target	rotation for the 27 DI	BQ items in the	Irish sample
5	3			*

The largest loading in black, other loadings in gray, crossloadings > |0.15| on gray background

	Correlations among the factors					
	Cling I opgog		Rule	Aggressive		
	STD2	Lapses	violations	violations		
Slips	1.00	0.55	0.27	0.31		
Lapses	0.55	1.00	0.27	0.24		
Rule violations	0.27	0.27	1.00	0.59		
Aggressive violations	0.31	0.24	0.59	1.00		

Performing the exploratory factor analyses separately in the two samples helped to understand the reason for the poor fit of the configural model: the items related to various violations loaded on different factors in the two samples. In the Irish sample the factor loadings conformed to the original four-factor model (Figure 7, Table 6), whereas in the Finnish sample a different pattern of loadings was found (Figure 6, Table 5). The three items related to aggressive violations loaded most strongly on the fourth factor, while four other items also had a strong loading on the factor. These items were (in descending order by the size of the loading) 19 ("overtake on the inside"), 17 ("force your way to another lane"), 20 ("race from traffic lights"), and 23 ("cross a junction after the traffic lights have turned against you") also loading on the factor.

The EFAs thus showed that the factor loadings related to *violations* were rather different in the two samples. Still, the loading patterns related to *slips* and *lapses* were similar across samples. The invariance of these two factors was tested using the build-up strategy of invariance testing introduced in section 2.3 (Model estimation and evaluation). The results of these analyses are reported in Tables 7 and 8.

Table 7. Fit indices for the tests of factorial invariance of slips

Model	χ^2	df	р	RMSEA	90% CI	CFI	AIC	SRMR	$\Delta \chi^2$	∆df	р	∆CFI
Configural inv	106.5	52	<0.001	0.034	0.026-0.041	0.975	29082	0.03				
Weak invariance	115.4	60	<0.001	0.031	0.024-0.039	0.974	29092	0.04	11.5	8	0.17	< 0.001
Strong invariance	370.1	68	<0.001	0.069	0.063-0.075	0.859	29424	0.06	380.5	8	< 0.001	0.12
Partial strong inv.	123.2	63	<0.001	0.032	0.025-0.039	0.972	29095	0.04	8.6	3	0.03*	0.002

The $\Delta \chi^2$ -values are Satorra-Bentler scaled chi square values.

*Even though the p-value < 0.05, the build-up strategy with Bonferroni-corrected p-values indicated that this model provided acceptable fit. See also Discussion.

The invariance analysis of *slips* indicated that the factor loadings could be treated as identical across the samples (Table 7, non-significant $\Delta \chi^2$ -value of weak invariance analysis). The strong invariance assumption was, however, rejected. I then decided to investigate the assumption of partial strong invariance using the build-up strategy described in Section 2.3. The items that were constrained to equality in the partial

strong invariance model were items 7, 8 and 15. Items were constrained to equality in the following order: 7, 15, 8.

The invariance analysis of lapses showed that the configural model could be treated as identical across groups but the weak invariance assumption was rejected. In the partial weak invariance model that fit the data adequately, the loadings of items 2 and 18 were estimated freely and the other loadings were constrained to equality across samples. The strong invariance model with the corresponding intercepts freely estimated but all other item intercepts constrained to equality failed to fit the data as well. All the partial strong invariance models that were tested also fit significantly worse than the partial weak invariance model and so no associated results are reported in Table 8.

Table 8. Fit indices for the tests of factorial invariance of lapses

Model	χ^2	df	р	RMSEA	90% CI	CFI	AIC	SRMR	$\Delta \chi^2$	∆df	р	$\triangle CFI$
Configural inv.	149.4	40	< 0.001	0.054	.046062	0.916	36226	0.04				
Weak invariance	167.5	47	< 0.001	0.052	.045060	0.907	36240	0.05	18.9	7	0.009	0.009
Partial weak inv.	156.1	46	< 0.001	0.051	.043058	0.915	36226	0.04	8.1	6	0.230	0.001
Strong invariance	235.2	52	<0.001	0.061	.055068	0.859	36312	0.05	93.1	6	<0.001	0.048

The $\Delta \chi^2$ -values are Satorra-Bentler scaled chi square values.

The strong invariance model was compared with the partial weak invariance model.

The intercepts of the items whose loadings were freely estimated in the comparison model were also freely estimated

4 Discussion

In this study, my aim was to compare the fit of the existing two-, three-, and fourfactor models to data collected from 18–25 year-old drivers in Finland and Ireland. Performing these types of analyses is important because in the DBQ tradition, it has been common practice to compare sum scores of respondents across age groups, genders or countries with little effort being put to showing that the instrument actually measures the same latent variables in each group in the same way. Indeed, it has been shown that the factor structures differ across age groups and genders for the 28-item version of the questionnaire that is standardly used (Mattsson, 2012). One way of examining the cross-cultural measurement invariance of the DBQ involves comparing samples of similar age across countries: this has the beneficial effect of ruling out the potential confounding effect of age. Even though in the present study the four-factor model proved to fit the data best, two modifications needed to be made to the model: item 9 ("pull out of junction") was specified to load on *slips* and the error variances of the speeding-related items (10 and 27) were specified to correlate. The strong residual correlations between item 9 and the items measuring *slips* were interpreted as showing that at least these drivers may pull out of a junction too far out of misjudgment rather than when deliberately breaking traffic rules. The strong residual correlation between the speeding-related items (10 and 27) was thought to reflect the fact that the same drivers who speed on motorways may also plausibly speed on smaller roads.

This modified model was used as the starting point (configural model) for the invariance analyses. The configural model was, however, rejected as specified in the Results section. The conservative choice to reject the model was made for several reasons. The low value of the CFI index and the different patterns of residual correlations across samples hinted at the possibility of factor structures differing across samples. On a more theoretical note, the confirmatory analyses had actually become exploratory already when the original model was modified based on residual correlations and modification indices. It has been argued that in this situation, the discovery of misspecified loadings is more direct through rotating the factor matrix than examining modification indices (Browne, 2001, p. 113). Due to these considerations, exploratory factor analyses were performed separately for the two samples of data.

The four-factor exploratory factor analysis indicated that the Finnish sample deviated more radically from the assumed four-factor structure than the Irish one. The EFA of the Irish sample indicated that even though the largest factor loadings were as expected based on earlier research, many of the items had a secondary loading on another factor (see Table 6 and Figure 7). Accordingly, the lack of fit of the four-factor model in the Finnish sample was due to the fact that the model was more plainly misspecified, while the lack of fit in the Irish sample was explained by the numerous cross-loadings. The practical consequence of this result for the *violations* factors is that factor means or sum scores formed on the basis of observed variables should not be compared across samples of Finnish and Irish young drivers since the very nature of the latent factors differed across the two samples. Further, it would be

advisable to perform similar analyses before comparing the mean scores (latent or observed) across other samples of drivers.

In spite of these results, the EFAs showed that two of the four factors, *slips* and *lapses*, had similar patterns of factor loadings across samples. I decided to investigate the matter in more detail by carrying out analyses of measurement invariance separately for these two factors. The analyses showed that the factor loadings could be assumed equal for both factors, even though two loadings (those of items 2 and 18) needed to be estimated freely for the *lapses* factor to obtain adequate model fit.

I then investigated the similarity of item intercepts to obtain further information on differential item functioning across samples. Looking at *lapses*, item intercepts were clearly of different magnitudes across the samples. This means that for two individuals (one from each country) with an equal standing on the latent factor, the responses to the individual items would be expected to be systematically different. Looking at *slips*, and depending on the test carried out, the item intercepts of two (7 and 15) or three (7, 15 and 8) items could be constrained to equality across samples while the intercepts of the other items needed to be estimated freely.

The practical conclusions related to these latter results are as follows. Factor loadings on *lapses* were mostly equal across samples, which suggests that the phenomenon itself was similar across the two countries. Still, the mean scores of *lapses* (latent or observed) should not be compared across samples of Finnish and Irish young drivers. The latent mean scores of *slips* could perhaps be compared with caution across samples of Irish and Finnish young drivers even though forming sum scores of the observed variables does not seem warranted. In this case, it would be advisable to treat all factor loadings and the intercepts of the items 7, 15 (and perhaps 8) as equal and estimate the other intercepts freely.

It is of interest to note that the respondents from the two countries interpreted the items related to the more cognitively-based factors (*slips* and *lapses*) more similarly than the items related to the more social aspects of traffic (different forms of *violations*). This is of interest, since Finland and Ireland are similar in many respects: they are both Western, industrialized, rich, democratic countries. Still, the result seems to suggest that the social conventions in traffic differ in these two countries.

Differences in implicit social norms and traffic cultures may have had an influence on which items the respondents perceived as being related to aggressive behavior on the road. If the *slips* are indeed related to the amount of attention paid to the driving task, as suggested by Reason et al. (1990), then it is at least understandable that respondents from two similar countries with similar traffic systems might commit similar attention-related errors. The same reasoning might apply to lapses as errors potentially related to absent-mindedness or lack of experience.

These results add to the on-going discussion of the correct number of factors to extract in DBQ studies (Mattsson, 2012; De Winter & Dodou, 2010; de Winter, 2013; Mattsson, 2014). In a meta-analysis of the various versions of the DBQ the two-factor solution has proved useful (De Winter & Dodou, 2010) and De Winter (2013) considers factor structures involving more than two factors as "over-extraction" of factors. Still, individual studies investigating the matter using state-of-the-art statistical methodology (Mattsson, 2012; the present contribution) seem to arrive at a different conclusion at least when basing the analysis on the 28- or 27-item version of the DBQ. The fact that a two-factor solution can be used in a meta-analysis does not mean that this would be the optimal structure in any of the individual studies included in the meta-analysis. Re-analyzing the data from these studies would be a fruitful endeavor and future studies should investigate the matter rather than taking the similarity of any one factor structure across subgroups of respondents for granted.

The ways in which the factor structure of the Finnish sample deviated from what was expected merit closer inspection. Looking at factor four, the strongest loadings were on the three aggression-related items (6, 16 and 24) while the remaining items that loaded (or strongly cross-loaded) on this factor were a subset of the items assumed to be related to *rule violations* (items 17, 19, 20 and 23). These items are related to forcing one's way into the other lane, overtaking on the inside, racing from the traffic lights and crossing a junction after lights have changed against the driver. Perhaps the most economical explanation for the present results is that the Finnish young drivers perceive these traffic behaviors more as forms of aggressive personal interaction between two drivers than as violations of societal norms or legislation. That is, Finnish and Irish young drivers may have different conceptions of what aggressive driving consists of. Interestingly, a very much similar pattern of results was observed

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by Mesken, Lajunen, & Summala (2002). These authors also found that the factor of interpersonal violations included two additional items (overtaking on the inside and pushing in at the last minute) with a cross-loading on a third (racing from lights).

A further observation in the Finnish data is that the factor *rule violations* does not appear as such. Rather, factor three comprises two speeding-related items and one item related to driving close to another vehicle. Further, items 20 and 23 that are related to behavior at traffic lights cross-load on this factor. These results are markedly similar to those found in Mattsson (2012) in the group of 18–24-year-old drivers (the analyses were based on separately collected sets of data). Rather than interpreting the factor as one related to rule violations, it may be more appropriate to label it either "driving fast" or "maintaining progress". A similar pattern of results was, again, found by Mesken et al. (2002). These authors interpreted the affective tone related to this factor as one of enjoying speed and unimpeded progress rather than as interpersonal aggression. The study by Mesken et al. (2002) was also based on a sample of Finnish drivers, so the present study replicates that finding on an independent Finnish sample.

Examining the distributions of the items in Figures 1 and 2 may shed further light on the differences between the factor structures in the two samples. In particular, the distributions of the speeding-related items (10 and 27) appeared rather symmetric in the Finnish sample and positively skewed in the Irish sample. Could speeding actually be more common among Finnish drivers than the Irish ones? Official reports from the two countries may shed light on the issue. When comparing reports from the year 2011 (Road Safety Authority Research department, 2012; Ylönen, 2012), some differences in actual speeding across the two countries can indeed be seen. Due to different conventions in reporting the data only some of the measurements are easily comparable. On dual carriageways with a 100 km/h speed limit, 44 % of the Finnish car drivers and 31 % of the Irish car drivers exceeded the speed limit. On motorways with a 120 km/h speed limit, the respective figures were 24 % (Finland) and 16 % (Ireland). These comparisons are of course extremely tentative, but at least they are compatible with the idea that it is more common to exceed the speed limits in Finland than in Ireland. The differences in the distributions of the DBQ items might then be related to actual differences between countries.

In the Irish sample, the lack of the four-factor model fit was mainly due to numerous cross-loadings. Perhaps the most parsimonious interpretation for these findings is that there are numerous causes for any single type of traffic behavior. In particular, the inexperienced drivers that comprised the present sample may have committed the behaviors that were thought to reflect *rule violations* unintentionally because of the traffic environment "overloading" their capacity to perform the driving tasks that have not yet been automatized. Another explanation may be related to the fact that correctly estimating properties of the traffic environment (such as distances, item 22, or times, item 23) are skills that are learned and the young drivers may simply have lacked the necessary experience to perform these tasks correctly. The items cross-loading on slips and lapses may have more subtle differences in their causal origins. Perhaps the factor of *slips* is more closely related to problems of focusing attention correctly in traffic (also a skill to be learned), while the *lapses* factor may reflect inexperience with driving and the traffic environment.

Besides the actual analyses of measurement invariance and comparisons of factor structure, I utilized network modeling techniques of visualizing results. To this end, the residual correlations of the confirmatory factor analyses were presented as networks in which the items function as the nodes and the residual correlations as the edges; further, the color, width and level of transparency of the edges represented the strength of the residual correlations. Similar mode of representation was used to communicate the results of the exploratory factor analyses. These visual representations allow us to process high-dimensional information efficiently (Epskamp et al., 2012). In the present case, it would be tedious to interpret and compare, say, the triangular matrices of residual correlations, both with 378 unique entries.

The present contribution is naturally not without limitations. For one, even though the methods used in the present contribution offer notable benefits over the similaritybased methods (van de Vijver & Leung, 1997) used in previous cross-cultural DBQ studies (Lajunen et al., 2004; Özkan, Lajunen, & Summala, 2006), there is also an element of subjectivity associated with the presently utilized methods. For instance, it is not a clear-cut question of when to accept a configural model. As the value of the χ^2 -test statistic is likely to be significant in a largish sample, researchers are likely to base their decision of when a model is acceptable on the values of the descriptive fit indices. This course of action was taken also in this study. The indices of approximate fit remain a hotly debated topic in the field of structural equation modeling. In this contribution I took the middle road between abandoning their use altogether (as suggested by Barrett, 2007) and using them as near-equivalents of proper test statistics: a moderate position is that the indices of approximate fit provide useful information on the ways that the model fails to fit the data (Kline, 2011).

Second, the present results do not conclusively show whether the results were due to differences between the Finnish and English language versions of the DBQ items or due to genuine cultural differences. However, it has been previously speculated that the Finnish translation of at least one of the items (item 9, pulling out of junction) could be interpreted as related to either voluntary or involuntary action (Lajunen et al., 2004; Mattsson, 2012). What the present results do show is that at least this interpretational confound was not specific to the Finnish translation, as item 9 loaded on *slips* in both samples with a cross-loading on one of the *violations* factors.

Third, different methods of data collection were used in the two countries. In particular, the representativeness of the Irish sample may be called into question. Further, it may be that systematic differences exist in how people respond to online questionnaires and traditional paper-and-pencil questionnaires. In particular, it may be that there are differences in social desirability in responses to online questionnaires and paper questionnaires. While the representativeness of the Irish sample remains an open question, the other concerns may be address based on published research findings. In the field of epidemiology, it has been shown that respondents taking an online questionnaire do not systematically differ from those surveyed by more traditional means in terms of age, gender, income, education or health status (van Gelder, Bretveld, & Roeleveld, 2010). The issue of differences in social desirability was addressed in a recent meta-analysis encompassing 16,700 participants (Dodou & de Winter, 2014). That study found no differences in social desirability scores in paper and computer surveys. Still, it would be beneficial to carry out a future study that explicitly examines the question of measurement invariance of the online and paper-and-pencil version of the DBQ.

In conclusion, the present results underscore the need to take the issue of measurement invariance into account when comparing the results obtained using questionnaire instruments in traffic psychology. The factor structure of the DBQ should be further developed based on theories of cognitive ergonomics, cognitive psychology and traffic psychology. Future studies should investigate these issues also in samples of older drivers or samples of a more heterogeneous age range. The need of such studies attests, in itself, to the fact that the issue of measurement invariance can no longer be neglected in traffic psychology.

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Appendix A. The 27 items of the English version of the DBQ and the assumed factor loadings

1. Hit something when reversing that you had not previously seen

2. Intending to drive to destination A, you "wake up" to find yourself on the road to destination B

3. Get into the wrong lane approaching a roundabout or a junction

4. Queuing to turn left onto a main road, you pay such close attention to the main stream of traffic that you nearly hit the car in front

5. Fail to notice that pedestrians are crossing when turning into a side street from a main road

6. Sound your horn to indicate your annoyance to another road user

7. Fail to check your rear-view mirror before pulling out, changing lanes, etc.

8. Brake too quickly on a slippery road or steer the wrong way in a skid

9. Pull out of a junction so far that the driver with right of way has to stop and let you out

10. Disregard the speed limit on a residential road

11. Switch on one thing, such as the headlights, when you meant to switch on something else, such as the wipers

12. On turning left nearly hit a cyclist who has come up on your inside

13. Miss "Give Way" signs and narrowly avoid colliding with traffic having right of way

14. Attempt to drive away from the traffic lights in third gear

15. Attempt to overtake someone that you had not noticed to be signalling a right turn

16. Become angered by another driver and give chase with the intention of giving him/her a piece of your mind

17. Stay in a motorway lane that you know will be closed ahead until the last minute before forcing your way into the other lane

18. Forget where you left your car in a car park

19. Overtake a slow driver on the inside

20. Race away from traffic lights with the intention of beating the driver next to you

21. Misread the signs and exit from a roundabout on the wrong road

22. Drive so close to the car in front that it would be difficult to stop in an emergency

23. Cross a junction knowing that the traffic lights have already turned against you

24. Become angered by a certain type of a driver and indicate your hostility by whatever means you can

25. Realise that you have no clear recollection of the road along which you have just been travelling

26. Underestimate the speed of an oncoming vehicle when overtaking

27. Disregard the speed limit on a motorway

In the two-factor solution, the *violations* factor was thought to be measured by the following items: 10, 9, 17, 19, 20, 22, 23, 27, 24, 6, 16 and *errors* by the items 25, 7, 12, 5, 8, 4, 15, 26, 21, 1, 2, 3, 11, 14, 18, 13.

In the three-factor solution, the *violations* factor was assumed to be identical to that of the two-factor solution. The errors factor, however, was split in two. *Slips* were thought to be measured by the items 5, 4, 7, 8, 12, 13, 15 and 26; *lapses* by 21, 2, 3, 11, 14, 18, 1 and 25.

In the four-factor solution, the assumed factor loadings on the factors of *slips* and *lapses* were identical to those of the three-factor solution. In the four-factor solution, the *violations*-factor was split in two, items 6, 24 and 16 being detached from the previous *violations* factor to measure *aggressive violations*. Apart from these three items, the *violations* factor was identical to the other two factor solutions.



Table 1: Correlations, means and standard deviations of the 27 DBQ variables in the Finnish sample abd draft abd2 draft abd3 draft abd3 draft abd3 draft abd12 drq13 drq13 drq13 drq13 drq13 drq18 drq19 drq20 drq21 drq23 drq23 drq23 drq25 drq25 drq25 drq25 8 5 5 8.88188 134* 2223 0.25 120 mil 84 35 ee 12 E 8 125*** 5 8 2149.9 ž 8 0.18*** +-860 **81.0 8 0.15*** 0.13*** 0.13*** 0.12*** 21444 16** 8 0.17***
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