

Scoring of Visual Field Measured through Humphrey Perimetry: Principal Component Varimax Rotation Followed by Validated Cluster Analysis

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PURPOSE. To extract unidimensional, well-separated latent scores that are anatomically and clinically valid from 52 standardized variables collected by Humphrey visual field (VF) perimetry (Carl Zeiss Meditec, Dublin, CA).

METHODS. Visual field data of 437 patients were collected and classified by a glaucoma specialist into seven clinical groups: irregularities of VF (IVF), nasal step (NaS), arcuate scotoma (AC), paracentral scotoma (PCS), blind-spot enlargement (BSE), diffuse deficit (DD), and advanced deficit (AD). The number and content of constituent variable scores were identified by principal components analysis followed by Varimax Rotation and simple clustering, taking spatial distribution homogeneity and visual system anatomy into account. Unidimensionality was checked by a stepwise Cronbach α curve. Clinical predictability of the derived scores was checked by comparing clinical groups (ANOVA).

RESULTS. Patients older than 60 years comprised 53.3% of the sample. The average mean deviation was -9.2 dB and pattern standard deviation was 6.5 dB. Six scores were identified: four peripheral scores (nasal superior, NS; nasal inferior, NI; temporal superior, TS; and temporal inferior, TI) and two paracentral scores (PCSS; superior, PCSS; and inferior, PCSD). Cronbach α was always >0.90 . The six scores decreased sequentially from IVF to DD to AD. Scores of AC were lower in NS, NI, and TS; PCSS was less in PCS; BSE scores were less in TS and TI; NaS scores were less in NS and NI.

CONCLUSIONS. Six well-separated, optimal scores were obtained from the Humphrey perimetry matrix. Internal reliability was good. It was possible to discriminate between clinical subgroups. Further analyses, based on longitudinal data, must be performed to confirm these findings. (*Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci.* 2005;46:3169–3176) DOI:10.1167/iovs.04.1214

Automated static perimetry is one of the methods used to screen and follow up patients who have glaucoma.^{1–4} It consists of approximately 100 quantitative threshold measures that permit evaluation of retinal sensitivity. Each measure is

standardized in a population free of ocular disease, and two simple statistics are calculated: mean deviation (MD) and pattern standard deviation (PSD). These indices are widely used in glaucoma clinical trials and patient follow-up.

Mean deviation (MD)⁵ is the average of all differences between measures and their normal values, weighted by the variance observed in the general population (where X_i is the measured threshold, N_i is the normal reference threshold at point i , S^2_{1i} is the variance of normal field measurement at point i , and n is the number of test points).

$$\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(X_i - N_i)}{S^2_{1i}} \right] / \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{S^2_{1i}} \right]$$

PSD is a normalized distance, standardized with reference to the general population, calculated for each point.

$$\sqrt{\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n S^2_{1i} \right] \cdot \left[\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(X_i - N_i - MD)^2}{S^2_{1i}} \right]}$$

Although there is a considerable body of literature about the properties of these indices as they relate to the clinical picture, some weaknesses can be identified a priori: (1) They do not take into account the spatial distribution of the points measured, the proximity of one point to another, and correlations between the points (e.g., switching one measure with another changes neither the MD nor PSD); (2) MD cannot be interpreted without knowing PSD, and vice versa; (3) MD is not a sensitive parameter in early stages of glaucoma; (4) PSD is not a sensitive parameter in late stages of glaucoma; (5) neither measure takes into account anatomic dimensions of the eye or visual system (horizontal threshold of retinal nerve fibers, the vertical threshold of vision cerebral hemispheres, and the retinal artery located centrally in the optic nerve).

Very little research has been performed to find algorithms that would help to identify visual field defects (VFDs) more precisely. Brigatti et al.^{6,7} used computerized neural networks with some success to identify patients with early glaucomatous visual field loss, yielding sensitivity and specificity both $>70\%$. To achieve this, they had to include information on the automated visual field index and other structural data.

Mandava et al.⁸ identified 11 clusters by nearest-neighbor cluster analysis performed on Octopus visual fields (Haag-Streit, Köniz, Switzerland). A discriminant analysis was performed on the 11 scores used to classify patients with and without glaucoma. The sensitivity and specificity of this classification were very good (sensitivity and specificity $>90\%$).

Brigatti et al.⁷ and Mandava et al.⁸ shared a common objective to develop a classifying algorithm that would help clinicians to detect new VFDs. Brigatti et al.⁷ directly included global perimetry indicators that assume that MD, PSD, and short-term fluctuation are the optimal information that can be retrieved from this test. However, the model produces estima-

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Assessment of Unidimensionality and Clinical Validity of Scores

A stepwise Cronbach α curve⁹⁻¹¹ was plotted to check the unidimensionality of the variables yielding the score. This calculation made it possible to verify that a group of items measured the same underlying unidimensional concept (construct validity). The curvature should increase monotonically when all items belong to the appropriate score. Otherwise, items should be allocated to another score. However, because it is influenced by sample fluctuations, it should be interpreted cautiously, especially when scores contain few items.

Clinical validity can be estimated as the ability of a score to capture clinical relevance.¹² The mean of each score was compared across all seven clinical groups by ANOVA.

RESULTS

In total, 437 consecutive visual fields were collected of which 229 (52.4%) were right eyes. Mean age was 61.2 \pm 14.8 years (SD) and 53.3% of patients were older than 60. Patients manifested the following visual field abnormalities: irregularities of visual field ($n = 34$; 7.8%); nasal steps ($n = 126$; 28.8%); arcuate scotomas ($n = 154$; 35.2%); paracentral scotomas ($n = 21$; 4.8%); blind-spot enlargements ($n = 13$; 3.0%); diffuse deficits ($n = 26$; 5.9%); and advanced deficits ($n = 63$; 14.5%).

Pupil diameter was documented in 137 patients and, on average, was 4.3 mm \pm 1.1 (SD). The average duration of the test was 8.0 minutes. The average MD was -9.2 \pm 7.2 dB (SD) and the PSD was 6.5 \pm 3.3.

Principal component analysis identified six factors that explained 61.09% of the total variance. After an abrupt decrease, the plot of the eigenvalues showed a clear break at the sixth eigenvalue, then a plateau, and again a new, but slighter, decrease. The sixth eigenvalue was also the first value less than unity,¹ and so the min-eigen criterion also retained six factors.

Figure 2 describes step-by-step how the scores were constructed. Examination of correlations with the six factors retained after Varimax Rotation indicated the first cluster pattern of the original variables. All measurements of the northwest quadrant plus NE3, NE6, and NE11 were correlated and constituted factor 1 (correlations: 0.53-0.85). Factor 2 comprised all measurements of the southwest sector (correlations: 0.59-0.85). Factor 3 included all measurements of the northeast sector (correlations: 0.40-0.75) except NE3, NE6, and NE11, already attracted by factor 1, and NE10, which alone represented factor 6 (correlation: 0.49). Factor 4 comprised measurements of the southeast sector (correlations: 0.54-0.70) except SE5 and SE6, which jointly made factor 5 (correlations: 0.53 and 0.63).

The six rotated factors gave us an initial set from which to build six simple scores. When examining empiric correlations between the original variables and these scores, we found that NE3 correlated more with score 3 (from factor 3) than with its own score 1 (from factor 1). Similarly, NE11 correlated more with score 6 than with score 1, and SW5 correlated more with score 5 than with its own score of 2 (Fig. 2: scores after the first correlation analysis). Moves were performed accordingly.

Correlations were calculated again, and we were obliged to move NE6 from score 1 to score 3, NW14 to score 6, and both SE1 and SE2 from score 4 to score 5. (Fig. 2: scores after the second correlation analysis). No additional moves were necessary after the second step.

Cronbach α curves were estimated for each subset to check that the scores were unidimensional. We were obliged to move NE13 and SE4 to another set to obtain unidimensional scores. If NE13 was moved to score 4, we produced a set crossing the north-to-south quadrants. Moreover, the new set (score 4 + NE13) was no longer unidimensional. A similar situation arose

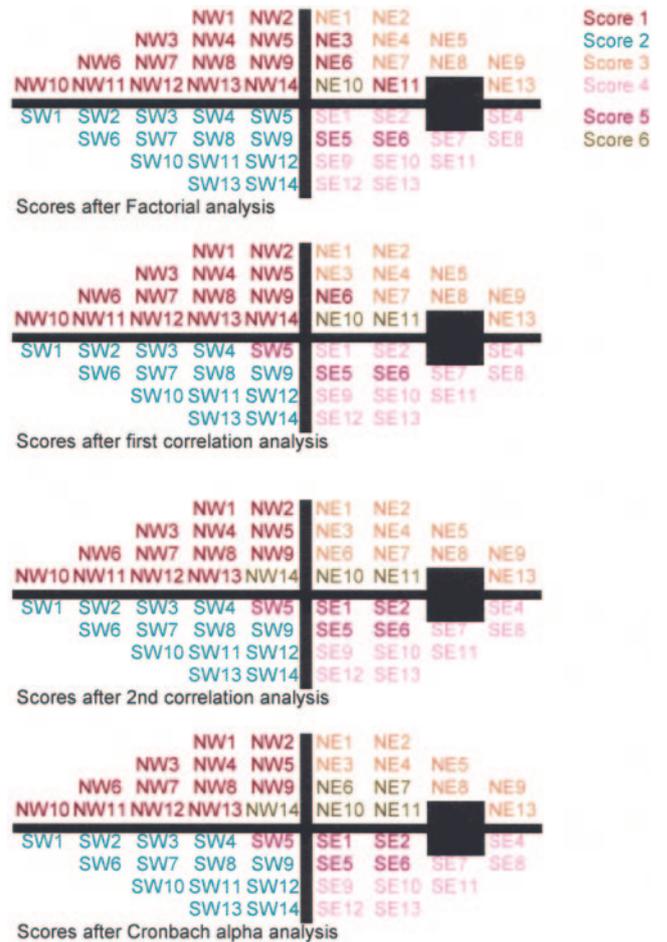


FIGURE 2. Score construction. Step-by-step description: nasal superior (NW1-NW13); nasal inferior (SW1-SW4; SW6-SW14); temporal superior (NE1-NE5; NE8; NE9; NE13); temporal inferior (SE4; SE7-SE13); paracentral superior (NE6; NE7; NW14; NE10; NE11); paracentral inferior (SW5; SE1; SE2; SE5; SE6).

when we tried to move SE4 to score 3. NE13 and SE4 were therefore not moved. NE6 and NE7 could, however, be moved to score 6, in accordance with the adopted rules. In this way, spatial homogeneity was respected (no crossing from the north to the south quadrant), as was specificity (each variable correlated more with its own score than with any other score).

The six clusters from which scores were derived are described in Figure 2. Four scores were peripheral (nasal superior, NS; nasal inferior, NI; temporal superior, TS; temporal inferior, TI) and the remaining two central (paracentral superior, PCS; and paracentral inferior, PCI). The formulas were respectively:

$$NS = (NW1 + NW2 + NW3 + NW4 + NW5 + NW6 + NW7 + NW8 + NW9 + NW10 + NW11 + NW12 + NW13)/13$$

$$NI = (SW1 + SW2 + SW3 + SW4 + SW6 + SW7 + SW8 + SW9 + SW10 + SW11 + SW12 + SW13 + SW14)/13$$

$$TS = (NE1 + NE2 + NE3 + NE4 + NE5 + NE8 + NE9 + NE13)/8$$

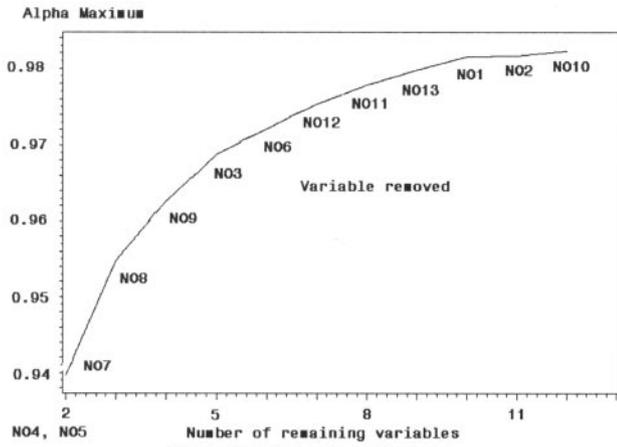


Figure 3a: Nasal superior score

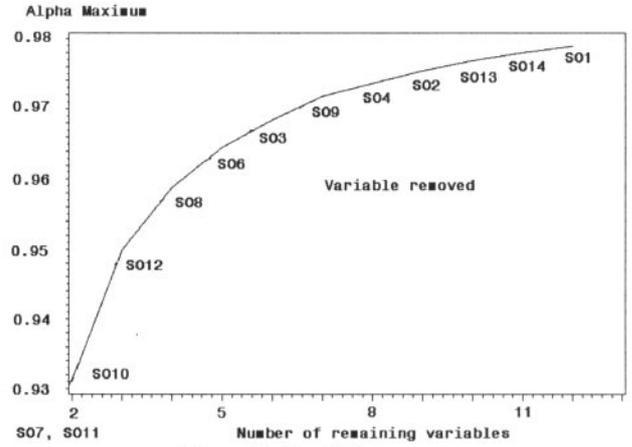


Figure 3b: Nasal inferior score

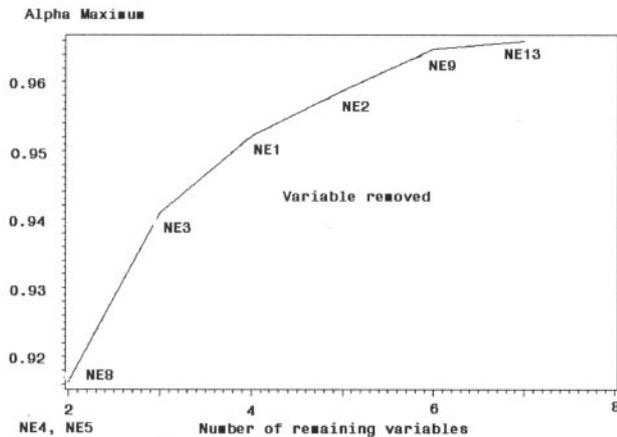


Figure 3c: Temporal superior score

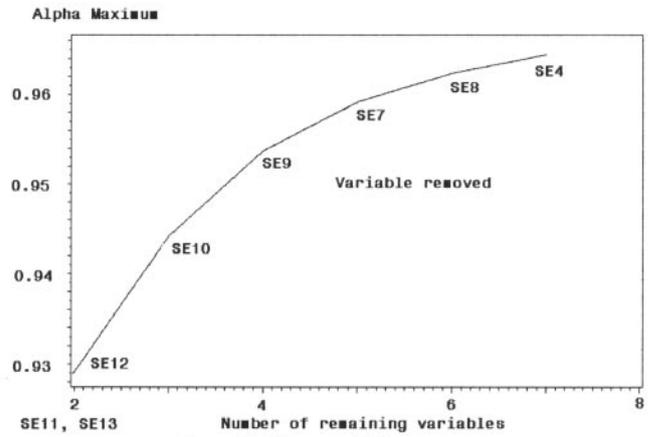


Figure 3d: Temporal inferior score

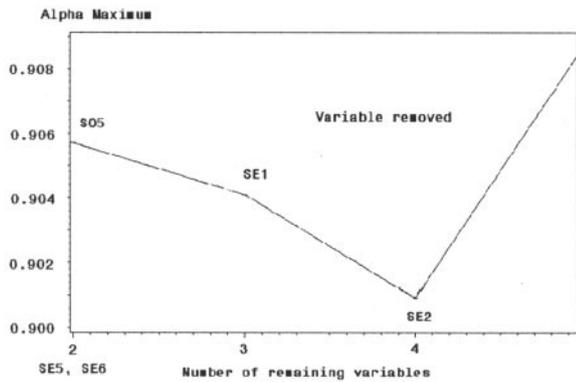


Figure 3e: Para-central inferior score

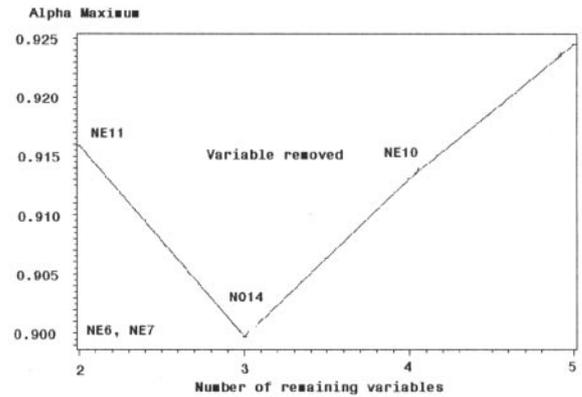


Figure 3f: Para-central superior score

FIGURE 3. Cronbach α curves.

$$TI = (SE4 + SE7 + SE8 + SE9 + SE10 + SE11 + SE12 + SE13)/8$$

$$PCS = (NE6 + NE7 + NW14 + NE10 + NE11)/5$$

$$PCI = (SW5 + SE1 + SE2 + SE5 + SE6)/5$$

For each score, Cronbach α^{13} was always >0.90 (Fig. 3, the maximum value reported in the curve), demonstrating good internal reliability. Cronbach α curves for peripheral scores increased monotonically, supporting the requirement that all

items should contribute to the score. However, this was not the case for central scores, although Cronbach α curves were always >0.90 . Last, the decrease of curvature was small and limited to a single item.

Table 1 describes cross-correlations between the scores. Six of fifteen coefficients were >0.70 and most were between central and peripheral scores.

Table 2 and Figures 4 and 5 illustrate the six scores and the MD according to the type of clinical abnormality. As shown by the MD, all scores demonstrated highly significant differences across the seven groups of patients. At the extremes, patients

TABLE 1. Correlation Coefficients between Scores

Cluster	Nasal Superior	Nasal Inferior	Temporal Superior	Temporal Inferior	Paracentral Superior	Paracentral Inferior
Nasal superior	1.00					
Nasal inferior	0.58	1.00				
Temporal superior	0.80	0.53	1.00			
Temporal inferior	0.53	0.79	0.65	1.00		
Paracentral superior	0.45	0.76	0.52	0.77	1.00	
Paracentral inferior	0.80	0.51	0.78	0.53	0.56	1.00

All correlation coefficients were significantly different from zero ($P < 0.001$). According to Chassany *et al.*,¹³ a correlation coefficient between 0.4 and 0.7 is a guarantee of no redundancy.

with advanced deficits produced lower MDs than those with VF irregularities. The MDs in Figures 4 and 5 were weighted averages of the six scores according to the size of the respective clinical groups. The scores showed significant variations around MD that were specific to clinical abnormalities. Patients with a nasal step had nasal superior and nasal inferior scores less than the MD, whereas the other four scores were greater than the MD. Patients with VFDs, or a diffuse deficit, did not demonstrate large differences between the six scores and the MD. Patients with an arcuate scotoma had nasal superior and temporal superior scores less than the MD, whereas the paracentral score was greater than the MD. Patients with a paracentral scotoma had temporal superior and temporal inferior scores greater than the MD, whereas the paracentral score was less than the MD. Patients with blind spot enlargement had temporal superior and temporal inferior scores less than the MD. Last, some variation was observed in even the most severe patients (advanced), as follows: the paracentral inferior and temporal inferior scores were greater than the MD, whereas the two nasal scores (superior and inferior) were less than the MD.

DISCUSSION

MD and PSD are often used in randomized clinical trials as primary end points for the evaluation of glaucoma treatments. A low MD or a high PSD is associated with moderate or advanced stages of glaucoma. Consequently, both parameters must be taken into account when making decisions at a population level, thus making a global decision rule difficult to formulate.

If homogenous subgroups of measures (i.e., a new set of MD scores) could be identified (ideally related, even empirically, to a clinical glaucoma classification), the follow-up of patients with glaucoma would be more clinically relevant. A vector of scores, each specific to a precise anatomic visual field area, starting with a high score at the onset of disease and

decreasing with severity, would dramatically clarify treatment decisions and the follow-up of patients with glaucoma. In this manner, PSD would become an indirect measure of heterogeneity within scores.

A PCA followed by our clustering algorithm allowed us to reach this objective. We identified six scores that explained more than 60% of the observed variance. The scores had orthogonal properties meaning that their independence was maximized. They had also good construct validity, as demonstrated by Cronbach α curves—that is, with the four peripheral scores, at least; switching an item to another score did not improve its validity. In the case of the two paracentral scores, some switching did improve reliability. However, the loss of reliability, as measured by the Cronbach α curve, was very low and could be explained by stochastic sampling issues. We therefore preferred to keep scores close to retinal anatomy (proximity of points), instead of maximizing the mathematical properties of our scores. Finally, the scores were easy to calculate.

We used the pattern deviation matrix and performed statistical manipulations to achieve this result. We could have worked on threshold sensitivities or the total deviation matrix. The former would have required an adjustment for age. The latter provides an indirect standardization, based on a population-wise approach, which is better than local data-based adjustments. We used the pattern-deviation matrix because it emphasized localized defects and therefore would increase the correlation between points belonging to a same VFD. This correlation should stabilize the Varimax Rotation.

Although we used a rotation pattern that maximized score independence, we still found high correlations between certain scores. This indirectly, but strongly, supports the fact that the MD is a score with a high construct validity. In other words, each item contributes homogeneously to the MD. In contrast, a possible use of MD as a single score would explain a much smaller part of the total variance; hence, much information would be lost.

TABLE 2. Scores According to VF Clinical Abnormalities

Clinical Group	Irregularities of Visual Field <i>n</i> = 34	Nasal Step <i>n</i> = 126	Arcuate Scotoma <i>n</i> = 154	Para-Central Scotoma <i>n</i> = 21	Blind Spot Enlargement <i>n</i> = 13	Diffuse Deficit <i>n</i> = 26	Advanced Deficit <i>n</i> = 63
Nasal superior	-3.50 (0.34)	-6.46 (0.45)	-13.30 (0.68)	-6.96 (1.14)	-3.42 (0.98)	-7.87 (0.98)	-23.98 (0.85)
Nasal inferior	-3.16 (0.33)	-6.10 (0.51)	-10.16 (0.62)	-6.47 (0.92)	-3.60 (0.87)	-6.52 (0.65)	-23.48 (0.92)
Temporal superior	-4.71 (0.46)	-4.00 (0.39)	-12.42 (0.62)	-4.68 (0.77)	-6.80 (1.77)	-7.94 (0.62)	-20.70 (0.85)
Temporal inferior	-3.25 (0.31)	-3.16 (0.34)	-8.56 (0.51)	-3.92 (0.71)	-6.39 (1.37)	-7.96 (0.79)	-19.88 (1.13)
Paracentral inferior	-2.42 (0.26)	-2.44 (0.29)	-5.80 (0.45)	-6.91 (1.40)	-5.65 (1.37)	-7.36 (0.71)	-18.58 (1.07)
Paracentral superior	-2.99 (0.34)	-3.13 (0.31)	-9.60 (0.63)	-10.61 (1.25)	-4.43 (0.91)	-6.75 (0.89)	-22.00 (1.01)
Humphrey MD (dB)	-3.19 (0.23)	-4.67 (0.31)	-10.04 (0.41)	-6.72 (0.65)	-4.49 (0.94)	-7.19 (0.61)	-22.17 (0.61)

Probability calculated according to ANOVA. Average scores by clinical groups were found to be statistically significant at $P < 0.0001$. Data are expressed as the mean \pm SD.

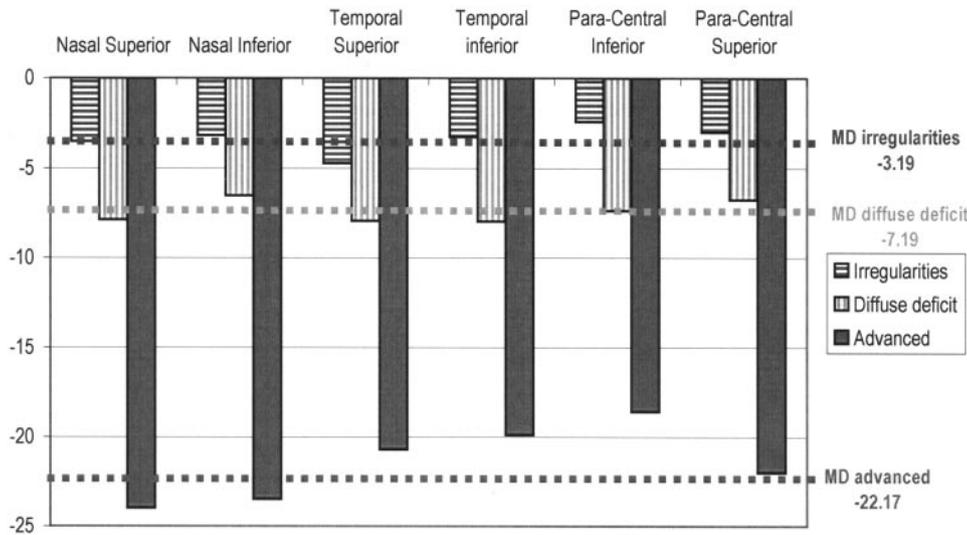


FIGURE 4. Scores according to clinical visual field abnormalities (irregularities, diffuse deficit, and advanced deficit). MD was the control.

Our algorithm was successful in producing scores that respected retinal anatomy (good and rapid convergence). Four quadrants, fully separated by the horizontal and vertical axes, were shown to be associated with two central scores. The coexistence of central and peripheral central scores could be interpreted as follows: Central scores may be sensitive to blood flow variations in the central retinal artery, whereas peripheral scores may be more sensitive to intraocular pressure's effects on nerve fibers at the disc junction. Additional data are needed to confirm this hypothesis.

The relationship between the localization of a clinical field defect and its corresponding score demonstrated that our scoring algorithm was clinically relevant and thereby possessed construct validity. Apart from visual field irregularities and diffuse deficit, our six scores assembled valuable data describing the localization of a VFD.

Nasal scores were involved in nasal step and arcuate scotoma, temporal and paracentral scores in blind-spot enlargement, and paracentral scores in paracentral scotoma. Even with advanced deficits, the six scores added information to the MD. The relationship between the localization of a clinical VFD and its corresponding score demonstrated that our scoring algorithm was clinically relevant and thereby possessed construct validity.

Our six scores differed from the eleven described by Mandava et al.⁸ because of the algorithm used. We believe that fewer scores for retinal anatomy would be easier both to apply and understand in daily practice. Because our scores demonstrated good construct and external validity, they should assist in patient follow-up, although additional longitudinal data are needed to confirm this. Comparison with the work of Brigatti et al.^{6,7} is not straightforward, since their main goal was to identify patients with glaucoma. Nonetheless, our scores could be used as entry parameters in a neural network to serve the same purpose.

AGIS (Advanced Glaucoma Intervention Study) scores¹⁴ were not calculated for our sample of patients. Therefore, a head-to-head comparison with our six scores was not possible. The AGIS investigators decided that one single clinical score was appropriate to define the severity of glaucomatous VFDs. This assumption was somewhat contradicted by our findings. Our algorithm is also simpler than that used in AGIS and can be managed with a basic calculator. Finally, we demonstrated that our six scores brought additional information to the MD.

Our pilot study has limitations. A larger sample size may have increased the sensitivity of our algorithm to detect different or additional scores. The sample size of some patient groups was rather small, and certain analyses should be inter-

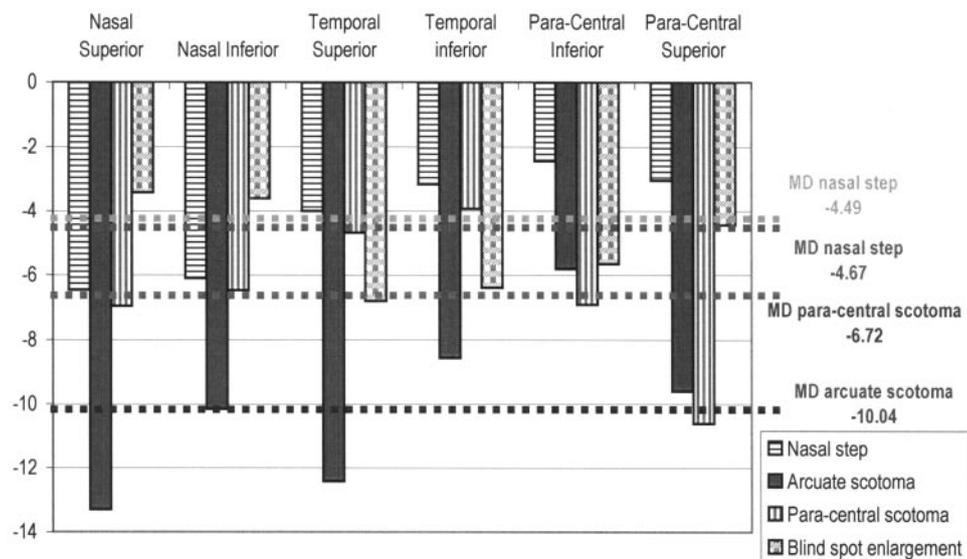


FIGURE 5. Scores according to clinical VFDs (nasal step, arcuate scotoma, paracentral scotoma, and blind-spot enlargement). MD was the control.

preted cautiously. All patients came from a single center, which reduces external validity. We defined seven classes of clinical abnormality arbitrarily, but other clinical classifications may be of interest. We also used unweighted combinations of variables, whereas Humphrey algorithms use standardization according to several confounding factors. The use of weighted combinations of variables could improve the sensitivity our scores. Last, we restricted our algorithm to a linear approach. The use of nonlinear models may make some scores more accurate.

More development work is needed before our six scores can be used. Sensitivity to clinical changes should be explored, and the discrimination of different clinical abnormalities must be verified.

APPENDIX

Cronbach α and the Stepwise Cronbach α Curve

A Parallel Model Describing the Unidimensionality of a Set of Variables. Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k , be a set of observed variables measuring the same underlying unidimensional latent (unobserved) variable. We define X_{ij} as the measurement of patient i , where $i = 1, \dots, n$, given by a variable j , where $j = 1, \dots, k$. The model underlying Cronbach α is a simple, mixed, one-way model: $X_{ij} = \mu_j + \alpha_i + \varepsilon_{ij}$, where μ_j is a variable fixed (nonrandom) effect and α_i is a random effect with zero mean and SE σ_α corresponding to patient variability. It produces the variance of the true latent measure ($\tau_{ij} = \mu_j + \alpha_i$); and ε_{ij} is a random effect with zero mean and SE σ corresponding to the additional measurement error. The true measure and the error are uncorrelated: $\text{cov}(\alpha_i, \varepsilon_{ij}) = 0$.

These assumptions are classic in experimental design. This model defines relationships between different kinds of variables: the observed score X_{ij} , the true score τ_{ij} , and the error ε_{ij} .

Reliability of an Instrument. A measurement instrument gives us readings that we call observed values. The reliability Δ of an instrument is defined as the ratio of the true over the observed measure. Under the parallel model, one can show that the reliability of any variable X_j (as an instrument to measure the true value) is given by

$$\rho = \sigma_\alpha / (\sigma_\alpha^2 + \sigma^2)$$

which is also the constant correlation between any two variables. This coefficient is also known as the intraclass coefficient. The reliability coefficient Δ can be easily interpreted as a correlation coefficient between the true and the observed measure.

When the parallel model is assumed, the reliability of the sum of k variables equals

$$\tilde{\rho} = k\rho / [k\rho + (1 - \rho)]$$

This formula is known as the Spearman-Brown formula. Its maximum-likelihood estimator, under the assumption of a normal distribution of the error and the parallel model, is known as the Cronbach α coefficient (CAC)¹⁵:

$$\alpha = [k / (k - 1)] \left[1 - \left(\sum_{j=1}^n S_j^2 / S_{tot}^2 \right) \right],$$

where

$$S_i^2 = 1 / (n - 1) \sum_{j=1}^n (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_j)^2$$

and

$$S_{tot}^2 = 1 / (nk - 1) \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k (X_{ij} - \bar{X})^2.$$

It is easy to show a direct connection between CAC and the percentage of variance of the first component in PCA, which in factor analysis is often used to assess unidimensionality.¹⁶ The PCA is usually based on an analysis of the latent roots of the correlation matrix of k variables R , which, under the parallel model, looks as follows:

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \rho & \dots & \dots & \rho \\ \rho & 1 & \rho & \dots & \rho \\ \dots & \rho & 1 & \rho & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \rho & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This matrix has only two different latent roots. The greater root is: $\lambda_1 = (k - 1)\rho + 1$, and the other multiple roots are $\lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = \lambda_4 = \dots = 1 - \rho = (k - \lambda_1) / (k - 1)$. Thus, using the Spearman-Brown formula, we can express the reliability of the sum of variables as:

$$\tilde{\rho} = k / (k - 1) [1 - (1 / \lambda_1)].$$

This clearly indicates a monotonic relationship that is estimated by α (CAC) and the first latent root λ_1 , which in practice is estimated by the corresponding value of the observed correlation matrix and thus the percentage of variance of the first principal component in a PCA. So, CAC is also considered as a measure of unidimensionality.

The Spearman-Brown formula indicates a simple relationship between CAC and the number of variables. It is easy to show that the CAC is an increasing function of the number of variables. This formula is obtained under the parallel model.

A step-by-step curve of CAC can be built to assess the unidimensionality of a set of variables.^{11,16} The first step uses all variables to compute CAC. Then, at every successive step, one variable is removed from the scale. The removed variable is that which leaves the scale with its maximum CAC value. This procedure is repeated until only two variables remain. If the parallel model is true, increasing the number of variables increases the reliability of the total score, which is estimated by Cronbach α . Thus, a decrease of such a curve after adding a variable would cause us to suspect strongly that the added variable did not constitute a unidimensional set with the other variables.

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