

1 **Paper-and-pencil questionnaires analysis: a new automated technique to**
2 **reduce analysis time and errors.**

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Abstract

17 **Background and Objective:** Questionnaires are essential tools in many scientific fields,
18 including health and medicine. However, the analysis of paper-and-pencil questionnaires is
19 time consuming, source of errors and expensive, limiting its use in large cohort studies.
20 Computer-based questionnaires might be a valuable alternative but they may introduce bias,
21 especially for sensitive questions, and they require programming skills. The aim of this study
22 is to develop a reliable and adaptable open-source technique (i.e. LightQuest) to automatically
23 analyse various types of scanned paper-and-pencil questionnaires with closed questions,
24 including those with inverted scale.

25 **Methods:** To evaluate the usefulness of LightQuest, the time needed for 7 experimenters for
26 manually code 10 sets of 4 frequently used questionnaires and the number of errors (i.e.
27 reliability) were compared with the time and errors their made using LightQuest.

28 **Results:** LightQuest was twice as fast as the manual analysis, even though the time to create
29 the reference model was taken into account (933s vs. 1935s, $t(2)=8.81$, $p<0.001$). Without
30 model creation, the reduced analysis time was more pronounced, with an average of
31 $2.77\text{s.question}^{-1}$ for the manual technique versus $0.55\text{s.question}^{-1}$ for LightQuest ($t(2)=22.5$,
32 $p<0.001$). Moreover, during correction of the 5180 questions performed by the 7
33 experimenters, LightQuest made a total of 2 errors versus 46 with the manual technique
34 ($q(2)=4.53$, $p<0.05$).

35 **Conclusion:** LightQuest demonstrated clear superiority both in terms of time and reliability.
36 The script of this first open-source technique, which does not require programming skills, is
37 downloadable in supplemental data and may become an asset for all studies using
38 questionnaires.

39 **Keywords:** Open-source technique; Psychometric; Computerization; Closed-ended survey

40 **Abbreviations:**

41 AF : Automatic with Feedback

42 AnF: Automatic with no Feedback

43 GIGO: Garbage In/Garbage Out

44 MCQ: multiple choice question

45 PANAS: Positive and Negative Affect Schedule

46 POMS: Profile of Mood States

47 RSES: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

48 STAI: State-Trait Anxiety Inventory

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1 Introduction

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Questionnaires are ubiquitous in scientific fields ranging from psychology to epidemiology. They are used to assess numerous psychological health indicators in specific contexts, such as clinical care, as well as in more general contexts, such as epidemiological longitudinal follow-up. According to the Medline database, the keyword “questionnaire” appeared in 74,062 studies in 2016, corresponding to more than 5.8% of the total publications of that year. The occurrence of this keyword has increased over 10-fold in the past 50 years (0.51% of total publications in 1966), clearly indicating that the questionnaire has become an unavoidable tool in human research. However, their analysis is very time-consuming, especially in large cohort studies [1], and is a repetitive cognitively demanding task that is likely to generate errors despite the experimenter’s high degree of attention [2]. Previous studies, showed that almost all the spreadsheet studied showed errors despite great diversity in computerization methodology, and a visual corrections by experimenters [3, 4]. This introduce the concept of Garbage In/Garbage Out (GIGO), which express that the errors performed during the computerization of the data in spreadsheet software (i.e. garbage in) may lead to incorrect statistical analysis results (i.e. garbage out).

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To decrease the errors from electronic transcription [4] and increase processing efficiency and reliability, computer-based versions of questionnaires have been developed [5-7]. Over the past 30 years, the development of communication tools and the computerization of results analysis have enabled large multi-centre studies that include thousands of subjects. However, computer-based questionnaires generally require strong programming skills; they may reduce the data quality due to the cognitive burden, the “yes” bias, the population recruitment [8, 9], and the time to computerization must be considered [1]. They may also introduce bias in specific populations such as adolescent cohorts, due to alteration of social inhibition [10], or elderly cohorts, who may be unfamiliar with computer use and therefore

76 apprehensive [11]. Thus, computer-based questionnaires seem to distort results through
77 disinhibition and a modification in social desirability [12, 13]. Furthermore, the differences in
78 the results obtained with paper-and-pencil and computer-based questionnaires appear to be
79 more pronounced for investigations seeking sensitive information (e.g. drugs, risky
80 behaviours [14]), although several studies have shown that in some populations and under
81 some circumstances, these two types of questionnaire do not produce different results [15,
82 16]. It should also be noted that computer-based questionnaires present disadvantages
83 compared with paper-and-pencil questionnaires, notably in field experiments that require
84 more organization and means. For example, for outdoor experiments a sufficient number of
85 computers and an adequate power supply must be available, and in austere environments (e.g.
86 rain, dust, low/high temperatures) computer fragility becomes an issue. Not least, most
87 questionnaires were initially validated in paper format.

88 Overall, the automated analysis of paper-and-pencil questionnaires seems to be an
89 interesting alternative cumulating both the advantages of computer-based questionnaires (i.e.
90 time efficiency and error reduction) and paper-and-pencil questionnaires (i.e. logistics, cost,
91 ecological task). To our knowledge, a few automated systems exist, but they have been
92 designed only to correct multiple choice question (MCQ) tests and are not very adaptable as
93 they have not been provided in an open source format [17, 18]. Several companies sell
94 systems for automated analysis of paper-and-pencil questionnaires, but they are expensive and
95 mainly destined for MCQ analysis in an educational context (e.g. OMR software or Exatech
96 QCM).

97 Thus, the aim of this work was to develop an adaptable open source software to
98 automatically analyse digitalized paper-and-pencil questionnaires with closed questions. The
99 reliability (i.e. the number of errors) and efficiency (i.e. analysis time) of the technique were
100 compared with the manual technique by analysing 4 frequently used questionnaires.

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2 Material and Methods

103 2.1 Experimenters

104 Seven experimenters (29 ± 4 years old) with 5.9 ± 2 years of university education were
105 recruited to analyse the questionnaires. Each experimenter analysed all the questionnaires
106 manually and using the software in randomized order.

107 2.2 Analysed questionnaires

108 To compare the manual analysis with the software analysis, we used 10 sets of 4 well-
109 known questionnaires, corresponding to a total of 740 questions. The questionnaires were: the
110 Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; [19]), the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory
111 (STAI; [20]), the Profile of Mood States (POMS; [21, 22]), and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem
112 Scale (RSES; [23, 24]). These questionnaires were chosen because they have been frequently
113 used since their validation (respectively cited 27,562 times, 7,164 times, 9,659 times and
114 1,364 times) and, despite their lifespan, they are still used in many recent studies [25-28].
115 Although the RSES has been used less often than the others, its reversed scoring of some
116 items makes it interesting for automated analysis because the reversed valence may increase
117 the cognitive processes needed for analysis, which probably leads to increased analysis time
118 and number of errors. The PANAS and the STAI are 20-item questionnaires with respectively
119 5 (ranging from 1 to 5) and 4 (ranging from 1 to 4) possible answers. The POMS consists of
120 24 questions on a 5-point scale ranging from 0 to 4. The RSES is a 10-item questionnaire with
121 4 possible answers (ranging from 1 to 4) and reversed valence for questions 2, 5, 6, 8 and 9.

122 2.3 Manual analysis

123 The 10 sets of each questionnaire were analysed in one session with a pause between
124 the questionnaire types. The analysis time (in seconds) for each questionnaire corresponded to

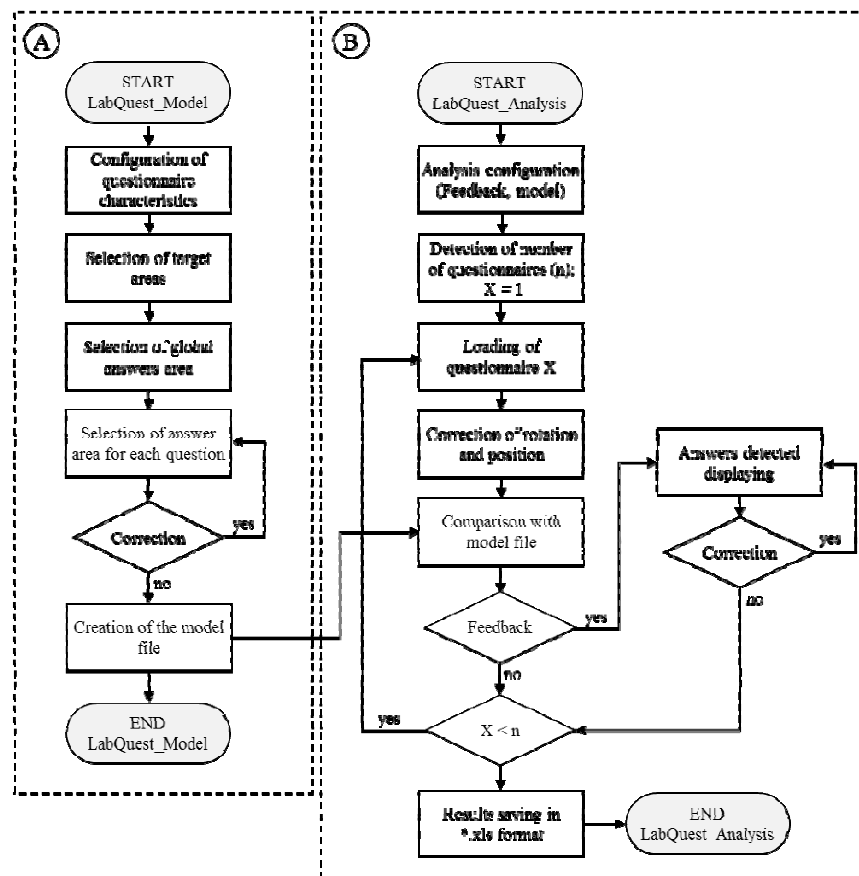
125 the time from the first question of the first questionnaire to the completion of answer
126 digitalization of the 10th questionnaire in a pre-established Excel matrix.

127 **2.4 Automated analysis**

128 The first step before starting the LightQuest script is to digitize an empty
129 questionnaire, which will be used to create the model file, and the questionnaires to be
130 analysed. For this study, digitization was performed with the charger of an ineo+554e printer
131 (DEVELOP, Langenhagen, Germany), enabling us to copy all questionnaires in a single
132 session. With this tool, the digitization time is approximately 1 second per questionnaire.

133 The automated analysis (i.e. LightQuest) has two main steps. First, the user has to
134 create a model of the questionnaire to be processed (Figure 1A). In this step, which uses
135 LightQuest_Model.m software for the analysis of a blank questionnaire, a model file is
136 created and can be used every time the experimenter re-uses the questionnaire. Once this
137 script is launched, a dialog box appears for the configuration of the questionnaire variables:
138 number of items, response scale, presence of inverted items, and number of targets. Targets
139 are the black rectangles visible on the questionnaire (see example of questionnaires used in
140 this study in supplemental data “LightQuest.zip”) used for correcting the displacement (first
141 target) and rotation (first and second targets) of the questionnaire, which may occur during
142 digitization. Targets must be at the same height and have the same size (for this study we used
143 0.5cm x 0.5cm) and should be drawn on the questionnaire before printing. Once the user
144 clicks on “OK”, the software asks the user to determine the approximate areas of the first and
145 second targets, as described in “instructions for users” file (see supplemental data
146 “LightQuest.zip”). The user then has to select all the questionnaire answers areas in one time
147 to zoom and facilitate the selection of the question-by-question answer area. To obtain the
148 best results, the selection rectangle must be focused on the centre of the answer area, with
149 blank space all around. To help the user, the number of answers currently being parameterized

150 is displayed at the top of the window. After selection of the answer area for the last question,
151 a dialog box appears for the correction of the areas that the user estimates as wrongly selected.
152 To finish creating the model, the user then simply clicks on “OK”.



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154 *Figure 1: Main steps of LightQuest processing for questionnaire model creation (A) and*
155 *analysis by experimenters of the completed questionnaires (B).*

156 Second, the analysis of the questionnaires is performed by the LightQuest_Analysis.m
157 file (Figure 1B). Once the script is run, a dialog box appears so that the appropriate model file
158 can be selected to analyse the questionnaires, as well as the feedback level wanted during the
159 analysis. If the feedback selected is “Yes”, each questionnaire is displayed with the detected
160 answers, and the user can quickly verify and correct the analysis with an interactive interface
161 in the case of multiple answers or no answer to a question (i.e: AF). Otherwise, selecting

162 “No” means that the Excel matrix with the detected answers is directly generated by the script
163 without steps of user verification and correction (i.e. AnF). For each participant of the study, 3
164 columns were implemented in the Excel file and saved in the Results folder. The first column
165 corresponds to the detected answers, the second to the value attributed to the answer during
166 model creation, and the third to the number of answers detected for each question. If inverted
167 items are present in the questionnaire, the script automatically corrects the value attributed to
168 the answer, in accordance with the configuration established during model creation. For ease
169 of use, an explanation file describing the step by step use of the software is available in
170 supplemental data (LightQuest.zip).

171 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

172 The analysis time, detected answers, and number of errors were collected for each
173 technique and questionnaire. Analysis time (in seconds) per questionnaire and per question
174 were assessed with an omnibus 2-way ANOVA according to the questionnaire (PANAS,
175 STAI, RSES, PANAS) and technique (manually, automatically with feedback: AF to directly
176 validate and correct the detected answers, and automatically with no feedback: AnF). To
177 perform the omnibus 2-way ANOVA, data were corrected with Box-Cox transformation [29]
178 to fit with normality law (Shapiro-Wilk test) and homogeneity (Levene test). Holm-Sidak
179 *post-hoc* tests were performed to determine the detected effects. Because results did not show
180 significant differences between questionnaires (results not shown), statistical analysis of the
181 total number of errors with each technique (Figure 3) was performed with a Kruskal-Wallis 1-
182 way ANOVA on ranks (technique factor), followed by a Tukey *post-hoc* test.

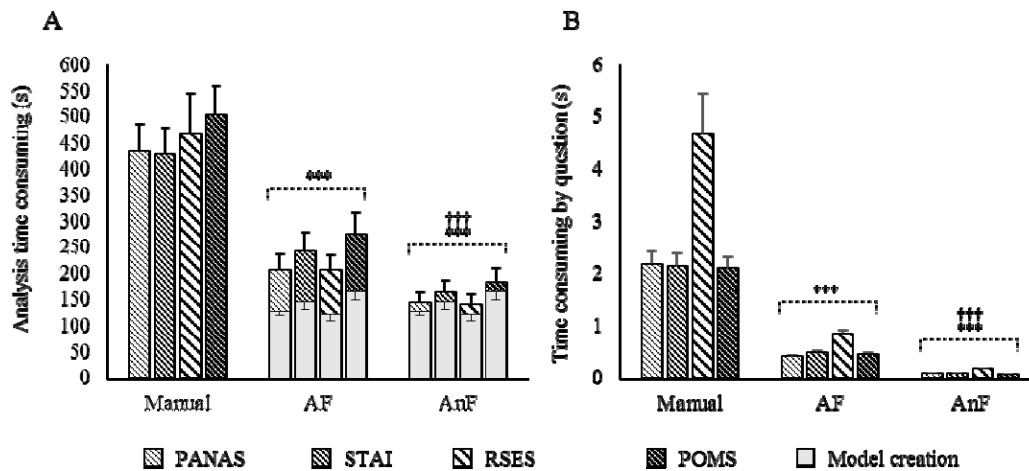
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3 Results

185 3.1 Comparison of analysis times

186 Figure 2A presents the mean time taken by the 7 experimenters to analyse 10 copies of
187 the PANAS, POMS, RSES and POMS questionnaires with the 3 techniques. Statistical
188 analysis showed a main effect of both technique ($F(2, 72) = 125.26, p < 0.001$, partial $\eta^2 =$
189 0.74) and questionnaire ($F(3, 83) = 4.66, p = 0.005$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.041$), with no significant
190 interaction between these 2 factors ($F(6, 83) = 4.9e^{-4}, p = 0.812$, partial $\eta^2 = 8.7e^{-3}$).



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192 *Figure 2: Time needed for 10 questionnaires analysis (A) or for one question (B), according*
193 *to the technique used. Mean±SEM; n = 7. AF: automatic + feedback; AnF: automatic with no*
194 *feedback; PANAS: Positive and Negative Affect Schedule; STAI: State-Trait Anxiety*
195 *Inventory; POMS: Profile of Mood States; RSES: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. ***: diff.*
196 *from manual analysis (p<0.001); †††: diff. from AF (p<0.001).*

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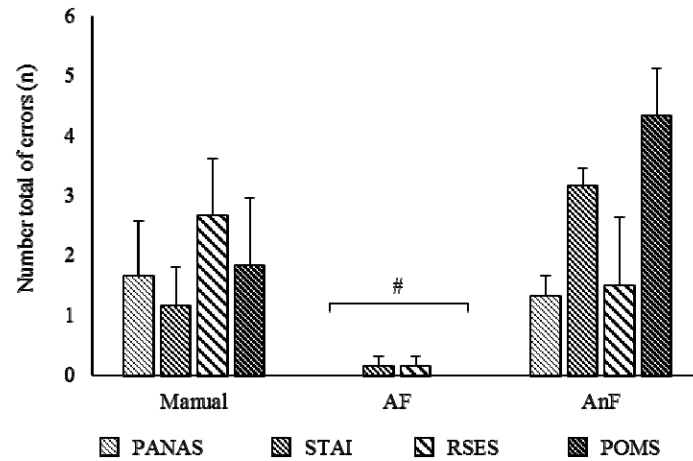
198 Comparison of manual *versus* AF and AnF showed a significant decrease in analysis
199 time between 49% and 66% (manual *vs.* AF: $t(2) = 8.81, p < 0.001$; manual *vs.* AnF: $t(2) =$
200 $15.79, p < 0.001$). Comparison of AF and AnF revealed a significant 32% decrease in analysis

201 time by technique: the time in AF condition was significantly longer than the time in AnF
202 condition ($t(2) = 6.98, p < 0.001$). *Post-hoc* analysis of the questionnaire factor showed a
203 significant difference between POMS (24 questions) *versus* the RSES (10 questions) and
204 PANAS (20 questions) questionnaires (respectively $t(3) = 3.35, p = 0.008$; and $t(3) = 3.06, p =$
205 0.015).

206 Analysis time in relation to the number of questions in each questionnaire (Figure 2B)
207 also showed a main effect of technique ($F(2, 72) = 1083.42, p < 0.001$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.92$) and
208 questionnaire ($F(3, 83) = 41.69, p < 0.001$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.053$), with no significant interaction
209 between these 2 factors ($F(6, 83) = 0.57, p = 0.756$, partial $\eta^2 = 1.44e^{-3}$). Thus, the manual
210 technique was 79% and 96% significantly slower than AF and AnF (respectively $t(2) = 22.50,$
211 $p < 0.001$ and $t(2) = 46.54, p < 0.001$). AF and AnF were statistically different ($t(2) = 24.03, p$
212 < 0.001), with the analysis time reduced over 80% with AnF compared with AF. Analysis of
213 the questionnaire factor revealed that processing RSES was significantly longer than
214 processing PANAS, POMS and STAI (respectively $t(3) = 9.42, p < 0.001$; $t(3) = 9.39, p <$
215 0.001 ; and $t(3) = 8.46, p < 0.001$).

216 **3.2 Reliability of the analysis techniques**

217 To test the reliability of the analysis techniques, we compared the total number of
218 errors made by each experimenter when they corrected the questionnaires manually and with
219 AF and AnF (Figure 3).



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221 *Figure 3: Number of errors made by experimenters during analysis with the techniques.*
222 *Mean±SEM; n = 7. AF: automatic + feedback; AnF: automatic with no feedback; PANAS:*
223 *Positive and Negative Affect Schedule; STAI: State-Trait Anxiety Inventory; POMS: Profile of*
224 *Mood States; RSES: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. #: diff. from manual and AnF technique*
225 *(p<0.05).*

226

227 A non-parametric 1-way ANOVA performed on the questionnaire factor found a
228 significant difference ($H(2) = 30.84, p < 0.001$). Tukey *post-hoc* analysis showed that the
229 number of errors with AF was significantly lower than with the manual (2 vs. 46 errors, $q(2) =$
230 $4.528, p < 0.05$) and AnF (2 vs. 67 errors, $q(2) = 7.16, p < 0.05$) techniques. No significant
231 difference was observed between the AnF and manual techniques (67 vs. 46 errors, $q(2) =$
232 2.63).

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4 Discussion

235 4.1 Main findings

236 Questionnaires are unavoidable tools in many research fields to better characterize
237 study populations or evaluate psychological parameters, quality of life, fatigue, and so on.
238 However, analysing a large number of questionnaires is expensive (if subcontracted) or very
239 time-consuming, and mistakes are not uncommon. This study presents an efficient and
240 reliable automated technique to analyse questionnaires with Matlab scripts (downloadable in
241 supplemental data). Our results showed that the technique significantly decreased the number
242 of errors (AF) and the time needed (AF and AnF) to process 4 widely used questionnaires,
243 suggesting that it is a potential asset in all studies using paper-and-pencil questionnaires.
244 Furthermore, this technique enables users to configure new questionnaires, thereby making it
245 highly adaptable.

246 4.2 Comparison with manual technique

247 The automated technique with user feedback (AF) reduced the time needed to
248 manually analyse 10 sets of 4 questionnaires (1835s vs. 933s) by half and appeared to be time-
249 efficient from the 5th questionnaire. At the 20th questionnaire, the AF technique was 9 to
250 11min faster and saved effective-time analysis work. Furthermore, this benefit included the
251 time needed to create a model, corresponding to approximately 60% of the processing time,
252 whereas the model can be re-used as long as the questionnaire is not changed. Thus, once the
253 model is created, the technique is at least 4.4 to 5.5 times faster than manual analysis, and this
254 is without taking into account the decreased efficiency in analysis due to the experimenter's
255 fatigue during a repetitive task [30].

256 In addition to the time saved, the automated technique with feedback sharply
257 decreased the number of errors. Indeed, the number of errors occurring during analysis was
258 divided by 23 for the AF technique compared with the manual analysis. For the RSES, the

259 number of errors with manual analysis was identical to those for the other questionnaires,
260 despite differences in the number of questions (only 10 for RSES vs. 20-24 for the others).
261 Thus, the number of errors per question was doubled for the RSES, probably due to the
262 reverse-coded questions that increased the task complexity. With this technique, inverted
263 items are configured during model creation and are automatically taken into account by the
264 script during analysis.

265 **4.3 Interest of the automatic with no feedback (AnF) option**

266 An option was also developed to directly generate the results table without user
267 feedback and correction (AnF). With this option, computer processing took less than 2s per
268 questionnaire, whereas the AF technique needed 11s. However, using this option resulted in a
269 gain of only 1-2min in analysis time for each set of 10 questionnaires and sharply increased
270 the total number of errors compared with AF (2 vs. 67 errors for 280 questionnaires).
271 Furthermore, although the difference appeared to be non-significant in this study, the number
272 of errors was multiplied by almost 1.5 compared with manual analysis (67 errors vs. 46 for
273 280 questionnaires). Thus, we recommend using this option only in very specific situations
274 after careful verification of the model quality. A post-analysis correction is also possible
275 directly in the Excel table generated by the script, facilitated by the annotation of the number
276 of answers detected for each question in the third column. Nonetheless, this correction mode
277 is not advisable because it appears to be more time-consuming than the user interface we
278 developed to directly validate the software analysis (data not shown). Interestingly, the low
279 number of errors obtained with the model created by beginners shows the ease of handling our
280 technique (experimenters have only one created model to become used to).

281 **4.4 Strengths and weaknesses**

282 To our knowledge, LightQuest is the first open source script available for the analysis
283 of paper-and-pencil research questionnaires, and the possibility of creating new model files

284 makes it an usable tool for all existing and future questionnaires. Furthermore, LightQuest's
285 graphic interface is user-friendly, decreasing the cognitive load and thereby decreasing the
286 questionnaire analysis time and the number of errors. LightQuest appears to be particularly
287 efficient for analysing questionnaires with an inverted scale, probably because it requires
288 fewer cognitive resources compared with manual analysis. Last, the 2 black targets help to
289 correct the rotation and displacement of the questionnaire during computerization, which
290 makes LightQuest functional with all printer chargers or commercial scanners.

291 However, to maintain sufficient picture quality, the questionnaires need to be printed
292 from a computer and photocopiers should not be used. For already completed questionnaires,
293 the absence of 2 black targets reduces LightQuest's accuracy. Nonetheless, an option is
294 available (i.e. Black target = 0) to analyse questionnaires without these targets, but the low
295 accuracy implies more manual corrections by the LightQuest user. The AnF option decreases
296 the analysis time but increases the number of errors. However, these errors are mainly
297 because LightQuest is unable to identify mistakes made by study participants (e.g. 42 cross-
298 outs out of the 160 questionnaires corrected during this study) and the software makes
299 artefactual detections when participants exceed the response box. Thus, this option is only
300 recommended for questionnaires with considerable distance between answer areas and after
301 visual validation of the created model quality. Last, LightQuest is not encoded to analyse
302 visual analogue scales, but this function could easily be implemented in its open source code
303 by a user with programming skills.

304 **5 Conclusion**

305 The open source script proposed in this study considerably reduces the analysis time
306 and the number of errors on paper-and-pencil questionnaires. Thus, using LightQuest for
307 questionnaires based studies may reduce cost, allow inclusion of larger cohorts and decrease

308 the errors of interpretation due to mistake during the manual electronic transcription of data.
309 LightQuest is adaptable to any questionnaire with closed questions by adding black targets,
310 and no programming skills are required. To our knowledge, this technique is the only one
311 offering automated analysis of research questionnaires, which is why it could become an asset
312 for large cohort studies in many fields of investigation.

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Acknowledgement

315 This project was supported by a « Programme Opérationnel - Fonds Européen de
316 Développement Régional » (PO-FEDER) grant. B.C. is supported by an Ambizione grant
317 (PZ00P1_180040) from the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF).

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Author Contribution Statement

320 C.C. and A.C. participated equally in the design, measurement, analysis and redaction
321 of this work. B.C. and O.H. contributed to the data analysis and the redaction of this work.

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Conflict of interest

323 No conflict of interest is declared by the authors.

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