

1 **TITLE**

2 Distribution and associations of vision-related quality of life (VQoL) and functional
3 vision (FV) of children with visual impairment

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18 All authors met the ICMJE criteria for authorship:

19 AR contributed to the design of the study, and was accountable for data acquisition
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27 No conflicting relationship exists for any author.

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34 **SYNOPSIS**

35 Self-rated vision-related quality of life of visually impaired children cannot be
36 predicted using clinical characteristics. Self-rated functional vision complements
37 clinical assessments. This study provides a reference for future interpretation of
38 VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP scores.

39 **ABSTRACT**

40 **Background:**

41 Patient-reported outcome measures (PROMs) are increasingly used in paediatric
42 ophthalmology. However, little is known about the distribution of PROM scores
43 among children and young people with visual impairment.

44 **Aim:**

45 To investigate the distributions and predictors of scores on the VQoL_CYP
46 (*measuring vision-related quality of life*) and FVQ_CYP (*measuring functional vision*).

47 **Methods:**

48 Children and young people aged 8 to 18 years, with visual impairment/blindness
49 (logarithm of the minimum angle of resolution (LogMAR) worse than 0.48 in the
50 better eye, and/or eligible visual field restriction) completed the VQoL_CYP and
51 FVQ_CYP at home or Great Ormond Street Hospital, London, UK. Associations
52 between VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP scores and socio-demographic and clinical
53 factors were analysed using multiple linear regression models.

54 **Results:**

55 Among 93 participants, VQoL_CYP scores ranged from 36.55–78.16 (mean=57.86,
56 SD=8.12). FVQ_CYP scores ranged from 23.52–70.29 (mean=48.32, SD=10.10).
57 Only 0.4% of the variation in VQoL_CYP scores was explained, with no associations
58 with the variables of interest. By contrast, 21.6% of the variation in FVQ_CYP scores
59 was explained, with a gradient of worse acuity ($p<0.001$) and female gender ($p=0.04$)
60 associated with worse self-rated functional vision. Age, ethnicity, time of onset and
61 stability/progression of visual impairment were not associated.

62 **Discussion:**

63 Self-rated vision-related quality of life and functional vision are not readily predicted
64 from socio-demographic or clinical characteristics that ophthalmologists
65 measure/record. Routine use of PROMs in clinical practice can offer important
66 insights. Use in research can provide valuable measures of effectiveness of
67 interventions. The reference values provided will aid interpretation in both settings.

68 INTRODUCTION

69 Patient-reported outcome measures (PROMs) are described as the ‘gold standard’
70 for measuring patients’ perspectives of the impact of a disease, impairment or
71 disability, and any related treatment.[1, 2] The benefits of using PROMs are well-
72 recognised by patients, their managing clinicians, and institutions and include
73 improved clinician-patient communication,[3, 4] increased patient satisfaction,[4]
74 meaningful comparisons of treatments,[5] and assessment of quality of
75 healthcare.[6]

76 Recognising that children as young as 8 years can accurately reflect on their own
77 health-related outcomes,[7] *generic* PROMs capturing health-related quality of life
78 (HRQoL) have been developed for use in paediatrics.[8] As these are intended for
79 use by all children/young people, and lack items (questions) specific to a particular
80 impairment, they are developed with mixed populations and the ‘normative’ datasets
81 include children both with and without any health conditions or disabilities.[9-11]
82 Such normative datasets describe the range of scores for a given PROM that are
83 expected in the absence of disease or impairment, and for comparisons between
84 different patient groups for example by country, age or gender.

85 To address the lack of specific items included in *generic* PROMs, disorder/condition-
86 specific PROMs have been developed for use *only* by those with the relevant
87 impairment. As a result, it is conceptually inappropriate to use these instruments with
88 individuals who do not have the relevant impairment, and the concept of normative
89 datasets is not relevant. However, a ‘reference’ range of scores, derived from a
90 representative population, affords the context for interpreting the scores for individual
91 patients or comparing average scores for different groups of patients. Until recently,

92 in the area of childhood visual impairment (VI), there have been few
93 psychometrically robust child vision PROMs. Consequently there is currently a lack
94 of information about a) the distribution of the vision-related quality of life and
95 functional vision of children and young people with all-cause VI, and b) variations
96 between different groups of children.

97 The VQoL_CYP[12] and FVQ_CYP[13] are complementary psychometrically robust
98 PROMs which capture respectively *vision-related quality of life* (VQoL) and *functional*
99 *vision* (FV) in children and young people (CYP) aged from 8 up to 18 years. Two
100 age-appropriate versions exist for each instrument, one for children (aged 8-12
101 years) and the other for young people (13 up to 18 years) but these have been
102 designed to be used longitudinally, enabling scores from the different versions to be
103 compared directly, or children of different ages to be included in the same analysis.

104 From a broader programme of research on feasibility of *routine* use of the
105 VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP in paediatric ophthalmology practice, we report here the
106 distribution of scores for each instrument as well as associations with potential
107 predictive clinical and sociodemographic factors routinely recorded in clinical
108 records, to inform future implementation of the VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP in clinical
109 practice and research.

110 **METHODS**

111 This study was approved prospectively by the National Health Service Research
112 Ethics Committee for UCL Great Ormond Street Institute of Child Health and Great
113 Ormond Street Hospital, London, UK (REC reference: 17/LO/1484) and followed
114 tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki. Participants aged >16 years gave individual

115 informed consent and those aged <16 years assented whilst their parents gave
116 informed consent to participate.

117 **Participants**

118 All children and young people who were i) visually impaired (VI), severely visually
119 impaired, or blind (corrected visual acuity in the better-seeing eye of logarithm of the
120 minimum angle of resolution (logMAR)[14] 0.48 or worse, or logMAR 0.3 or worse
121 with an NHS certification of VI or fluctuating acuity); ii) aged from 8 to 18 years; and
122 iii) scheduled to attend a follow-up appointment at Great Ormond Street Hospital in
123 the six month period between October 2018 and April 2019 were eligible for
124 inclusion. In keeping with the population for whom the instruments were
125 developed,[12, 13] and the fact the instruments are intended for self-completion, not
126 for proxy (parent or clinician) assessment, children with significant additional
127 impairments that impacted on the ability to self-report were not eligible for inclusion
128 in the study.

129 **Materials**

130 The VQoL_CYP comprises 20 (child version) and 22 (young person version) self-
131 report items asking about the experience of living with VI[12] e.g. *I feel different from*
132 *other children/young people because of my eyesight*. The respondent indicates how
133 true each statement is about their own life, using a 4-point Likert-type scale, ranging
134 from *1. Not at all true*, to *4. Completely true*. The FVQ_CYP contains 28 (child
135 version) and 38 (young person version) items about age-appropriate everyday
136 activities requiring vision[13] e.g. *Because of my eyesight I find watching TV....*
137 Respondents indicate ease of completing the activity using a 4-point Likert-type
138 scale, ranging from *1. Very easy*, to *4. Very difficult or impossible*. Possible scores in

139 both instruments range from 0 to 100, with a higher VQoL_CYP score indicating
140 **better** VQoL, and a higher FVQ_CYP score indicating **worse** FV. An equating model
141 was applied in the development of the VQoL_CYP[12] and FVQ_CYP[13] which
142 allows scores from either age-appropriate version of the instruments to be
143 compared, on the same measurement scale, despite variation in the number of, and
144 wording of individual items. The instruments and user manuals are available (last
145 accessed February 2021) from
146 https://xip.uclb.com/i/healthcare_tools/VQoL_CYP_V2.html and
147 https://xip.uclb.com/i/healthcare_tools/FVQ_CYP_V2.html.

148 Both a paper booklet and an electronic version of each age-version of both
149 instruments were developed. The paper booklets contained both the VQoL_CYP and
150 FVQ_CYP in large-print. The electronic format was presented using Qualtrics survey
151 development software,[15] and resembled the paper format as closely as possible
152 with regard to layout and presentation of individual items. The electronic version
153 included quick and easy enabling of text-to-speech software. Both formats were
154 tested for accessibility through consultations with a member of the clinical team who
155 is visually impaired and has extensive expertise in adapting written material for
156 children and young people with VI.

157 **Procedure**

158 All eligible children and young people (as described above) were sent an invitation to
159 participate in the study one month before the date of their next scheduled hospital
160 appointment in the Department of Ophthalmology at Great Ormond Street Hospital
161 NHS Foundation Trust, London, UK.

162 Participants were invited to complete the VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP either at home
163 or during their visit to the hospital for their appointment i.e. two 'real-world' PROM
164 completion settings. Participants were given a choice of completion format and
165 asked to complete the appropriate age-version of both instruments.

166 **Data analysis**

167 The instrument responses were entered into Excel and SPSS (version 25)[16]
168 databases. Sociodemographic information included participants' age, gender,
169 ethnicity, and socioeconomic status measured using quintiles of the index of multiple
170 deprivation score, i.e. the conventional area-based index used in the UK (IMD[17]).
171 Clinical characteristics included severity of visual impairment, timing of onset, and
172 stability of vision. Based on the characteristics and size of the sample, ethnicity was
173 re-coded as *White* versus *Any other ethnicity*. Severity of VI was analysed as a
174 continuous variable and later categorised according to participants' better-seeing eye
175 acuity (participants with *Severe VI* ($\log\text{MAR } 1.02 - 1.3$) or *Blind* ($\log\text{MAR} \geq 1.32$)
176 were combined. Additionally, for further exploration and confirmation, analysis of
177 acuity in participants' better- and worse-seeing eye (univariable analyses only) was
178 undertaken.

179 Cross-tabulations, and logistic regression models for participation and missing data
180 were fitted to investigate associations with participants' sociodemographic and
181 clinical characteristics. To aid interpretation, the age of the youngest participant (8
182 years) was used as the baseline. Participants with $\geq 20\%$ missing responses on
183 either instrument were excluded from the main analysis of that outcome. Remaining
184 missing values ($< 20\%$ per participant) were imputed using the mean item score for
185 the given responses of the participant.

186 Assumptions of data distributions were assessed using z-skewness and z-kurtosis
187 values for normality, and Levene's tests for homogeneity of variances. Scores were
188 stratified according to the sociodemographic and clinical characteristics (see above)
189 considered, *a priori*, key 'predictors' of VQoL or FV. Independent *t*-tests, Spearman's
190 rank and Pearson's correlations were used to examine whether there were any
191 associations between VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP scores and these
192 sociodemographic and clinical characteristics.

193 Multiple linear regression models, i.e. adjusted for all factors, were used to
194 investigate associations with scores for each instrument. Dummy variables were
195 created for categorical variables containing more than two groups (i.e. socio-
196 economic status and severity of VI), using the following categories as baseline: SES:
197 *5: least deprived*, Severity of VI: *Low vision (logMAR ≤ 0.46)*. Dichotomous variables
198 were coded as 0 (*Male, White, Early ≤ 2 years, and Stable*) or 1 (*Female, Any other*
199 *ethnicity, Late, and Progressive*), meaning that unstandardized coefficients can be
200 interpreted as the change in score between categories. Goodness-of-fit was
201 evaluated using adjusted R^2 and Nagelkerke's R^2 for linear and logistic regression
202 models. All significance tests were carried out at the 0.05 level.

203 **RESULTS**

204 In total, 93 children and young people participated, comprising 48% of all those
205 invited. The participant sample did not differ significantly from the eligible non-
206 participating sample with respect to key predictors (i.e. age, ethnicity, socio-
207 economic status, and severity of VI), however there was an over-representation of
208 girls ($p = 0.045$) (e-Table 1). The sociodemographic and clinical characteristics of the
209 sample who completed the VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP are shown in Table 1 and

210 Table 2, respectively. All participants self-reported that they were able to complete
211 the instruments, either with or without help from a parent/caregiver.

Table 1. Vision-related quality of life (VQoL_CYP) scores stratified by sociodemographic and clinical characteristics.

VQoL_CYP	<i>n</i>	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)	Minimum	Maximum	<i>p</i> -value
All participants	84 ^a	57.9	8.1	36.6	78.2	
Gender						
Male	41	57.9	8.4	40.0	78.2	0.977 ^c
Female	43	57.8	7.9	36.6	75.6	
Age						
8	8	56.6	7.8	42.7	68.1	0.069 ^d
9	9	60.7	4.4	52.2	69.5	
10	18	58.7	7.8	44.9	71.2	
11	11	57.9	9.9	44.9	78.2	
12	5	65.1	4.6	61.7	73.0	
13	10	59.6	10.6	40.0	75.6	
14	11	54.7	6.9	43.1	64.4	
15	8	55.2	5.2	43.7	59.5	
16	3	55.1	6.5	49.7	62.3	
17	1	36.6	-	36.6	36.6	
Ethnicity						
White UK	45	59.3	7.8	40.0	78.2	0.085 ^c
Any other	39	56.2	8.3	36.6	71.4	
Socioeconomic status (index of multiple deprivation quintiles)^b						
1: most deprived	13	56.0	8.9	40.0	68.1	0.078 ^e
2	20	57.0	7.6	43.1	71.4	
3	14	57.0	10.4	36.6	73.0	
4	16	58.8	6.2	45.6	71.2	
5: least deprived	19	61.0	7.3	51.5	78.2	
Severity of visual impairment (latest assessment of acuity in the better-seeing eye)						
Low vision (logMAR ≤ 0.46)	35	58.1	7.6	42.7	75.6	0.559 ^{e, f, g}
Visual impairment (logMAR 0.48 – 0.7)	21	57.8	8.4	40.0	71.4	
Visual impairment (logMAR 0.72 – 1.00)	18	58.7	8.7	43.7	78.2	
Severe visual impairment/Blind (logMAR ≥ 1.02)	10	55.6	9.1	36.6	71.2	
Timing of onset of visual impairment						
Early (≤ 2 years)	72	57.6	7.5	40.0	78.2	0.456 ^c
Late	12	59.5	11.3	36.6	75.6	
Stability of vision						
Stable	59	58.5	7.6	40.0	78.2	0.298 ^c
Progressive	25	56.4	9.3	36.6	75.6	

^a. 9 participants excluded with ≥ 20% missing data. Seven (78%) were male, 6 (67%) were of White UK ethnicity, 5 (56%) were from the 4th multiple deprivation quintile, and they were aged 8-15 years. Four (44%) had low vision, 9 (100%) had early onset VI and 7 (78%) had non-progressive VI.

^b. 2 participants with missing index of multiple deprivation.

^c. Independent samples *t*-test

^d. Pearson's correlation

^e. Spearman's rank correlation

^f. Spearman's rank correlation for better-seeing eye LogMAR (continuous): *p* = 0.257

^g. Spearman's rank correlation for worse-seeing eye LogMAR (continuous): *p* = 0.441

Table 2. Functional vision (FVQ_CYP) scores stratified by sociodemographic and clinical characteristics.

FVQ_CYP	<i>n</i>	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)	Minimum	Maximum	<i>p</i> -value
All participants	83 ^a	48.3	10.1	23.5	70.3	
Gender						
Male	42	46.3	10.7	23.5	67.4	0.064 ^c
Female	41	50.4	9.1	28.6	70.3	
Age						
8	8	49.8	6.2	40.0	57.1	0.64 ^d
9	9	40.6	8.6	24.6	52.8	
10	19	50.3	10.3	31.5	70.3	
11	12	50.4	8.5	36.2	68.3	
12	5	49.8	11.1	42.9	69.3	
13	9	45.7	12.1	26.8	65.3	
14	10	46.3	11.1	23.5	63.3	
15	8	52.7	8.3	38.0	66.4	
16	2	40.4	17.9	27.8	53.1	
17	1	60.9	-	60.9	60.9	
Ethnicity						
White UK	46	47.8	9.4	24.6	68.3	0.578 ^c
Any other	37	49.0	11.0	23.5	70.3	
Socioeconomic status (index of multiple deprivation quintiles)^b						
1: most deprived	11	53.5	10.8	40.0	67.4	0.159 ^e
2	17	48.0	5.9	38.0	58.8	
3	13	48.7	10.1	26.8	60.9	
4	21	47.1	12.8	23.5	70.3	
5: least deprived	19	46.5	9.8	28.6	69.3	
Severity of visual impairment (latest assessment of acuity in the better-seeing eye)						
Low vision (logMAR ≤ 0.46)	33	44.1	9.6	23.5	63.3	0.000^{e, f, g}
Visual impairment (logMAR 0.48 – 0.7)	22	47.2	9.2	27.8	70.3	
Visual impairment (logMAR 0.72 – 1.00)	19	52.6	6.9	41.2	67.4	
Severe visual impairment/Blind (logMAR ≥ 1.02)	9	57.7	11.6	31.5	69.3	
Timing of onset of visual impairment						
Early (≤ 2 years)	73	48.5	10.1	23.5	70.3	0.657 ^c
Late	10	47.0	10.5	28.6	60.9	
Stability of vision						
Stable	60	47.6	10.3	23.5	70.3	0.279 ^c
Progressive	23	50.3	9.6	28.6	68.3	

^a 10 participants excluded with ≥ 20% missing data. Six (60%) were male, 5 (50%) were of White UK ethnicity, 6 (60%) were from either the 1st or 2nd multiple deprivation quintile, and they were aged 8 to 16 years. Six (60%) had low vision, 8 (80%) had early onset VI, and 6 (60%) had non-progressive VI.

^b 2 participants with missing index of multiple deprivation

^c Independent samples *t*-test

^d Pearson's correlation

^e Spearman's rank correlation

^f Spearman's rank correlation for better-seeing eye LogMAR (continuous): *p* = 0.000

^g Spearman's rank correlation for worse-seeing eye LogMAR (continuous): *p* = 0.002

212 The data for 9 participants were excluded from the analysis of VQoL_CYP scores
213 and for 10 participants were excluded from analyses of FVQ_CYP scores based on
214 the standard threshold of $\geq 20\%$ missing responses, as shown in e-Table 2 and e-
215 Table 3. The proportion of children and young people with $< 20\%$ missing data was
216 15.5% in the VQoL_CYP dataset and 36.1% in the FVQ_CYP dataset (see e-Table 2
217 and e-Table 3). No characteristics were significantly associated with $< 20\%$ missing
218 data in the VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP (e-Table 4), except that participants with VI
219 classified (logMAR 0.48 – 0.7 in the better-seeing eye) were less likely than those
220 with low vision (logMAR 0.46 or better) to have missing data in the FVQ_CYP.

221 Z-skewness and z-kurtosis for VQoL_CYP scores were -0.39 and 0.30 respectively,
222 and -0.73 and 0.43 for FVQ scores, indicating normality. Levene's tests indicated
223 homogeneity of variances across VQoL_CYP scores ($p = 0.170$ to 0.936) and across
224 FVQ_CYP scores ($p = 0.099$ to 0.832) for comparisons of all subgroups.

225 **Vision-related quality of life (VQoL_CYP):**

226 The mean VQoL_CYP score (higher score indicates better quality of life) was 57.86
227 (SD = 8.12) in the total sample (Table 1). Univariable analyses provided no evidence
228 that the distribution of VQoL_CYP scores varied by any of the key characteristics. As
229 shown in Table 3, a non-significant regression equation was found ($F(12, 69) = 1.03$,
230 $p = 0.435$), with an adjusted R^2 indicating that 0.4% of the variance in VQoL_CYP
231 scores can be explained by participants' characteristics. Unstandardized coefficients
232 revealed that participants with late onset VI scored 6.4 (95% CI of 0.0 to 12.8) points
233 higher (i.e. reported better quality of life) than those with early onset VI. Participants
234 with VI which was progressive scored 4.4 (-0.3 to 9.2) points lower (i.e. reported

235 worse quality of life) than those with VI which was stable but neither association was
 236 significant at the specified level.

Table 3. Multiple linear regression models for change in VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP scores.

	VQoL_CYP*		FVQ_CYP**	
	Unstandardized coefficient (95% CI)	p-value	Unstandardized coefficient (95% CI)	p-value
Constant	63.69 (52.86 to 74.53)	<0.001	39.42 (27.26 to 51.58)	<0.001
Sociodemographic characteristics				
Age (baseline = 8 years)	-0.44 (-1.23 to 0.35)	0.274	-0.02 (-0.94 to 0.90)	0.969
Gender (baseline = Male)	-0.50 (-4.24 to 3.23)	0.789	4.35 (0.17 to 8.53)	0.042
Ethnicity (baseline = White)	-1.62 (-5.54 to 2.29)	0.411	0.58 (-3.99 to 5.16)	0.800
Socio-economic status (index of multiple deprivation quintiles) (baseline = 5: least deprived)				
1: most deprived	-4.42 (-10.45 to 1.62)	0.149	6.39 (-0.74 to 13.51)	0.078
2	-2.47 (-8.05 to 3.11)	0.380	1.16 (-5.40 to 7.73)	0.724
3	-3.49 (-9.36 to 2.38)	0.239	1.33 (-5.35 to 8.00)	0.693
4	-1.09 (-6.81 to 4.64)	0.706	0.30 (-5.65 to 6.25)	0.920
Clinical characteristics				
Severity of visual impairment (latest assessment of acuity in the better-seeing eye) (baseline = Low vision (logMAR ≤ 0.46))				
Visual impairment (logMAR 0.48 – 0.7)	-0.76 (-5.50 to 3.98)	0.750	3.71 (-1.57 to 8.99)	0.166
Visual impairment (logMAR 0.72 – 1.00)	0.58 (-4.27 to 5.44)	0.812	9.15 (3.76 to 14.55)	0.001
Severe visual impairment/ Blind (logMAR ≥ 1.02)	-2.12 (-8.13 to 3.88)	0.483	13.11 (6.06 to 20.15)	<0.001
Timing of onset of visual impairment (baseline = Early ≤ 2 years)	6.40 (-0.04 to 12.85)	0.051	-7.78 (-15.82 to 0.26)	0.058
Stability of vision (baseline = Stable)	-4.44 (-9.24 to 0.35)	0.069	3.28 (-2.42 to 8.98)	0.255

* Adjusted $R^2 = .004$, higher score = better outcome

** Adjusted $R^2 = .216$, higher score = worse outcome

237

238 **Functional vision (FVQ_CYP):**

239 The mean FVQ_CYP score (lower score indicates better functional vision) was 48.3
240 (SD = 10.1) in the total sample (Table 2). There was a gradient of higher (i.e. worse)
241 self-reported FV with increasing severity of VI ($r_s(81) = 0.46, p = <0.001$). Multiple
242 regression analysis and an adjusted R^2 showed 21.6% of the variance in FVQ_CYP
243 scores could be explained by participants' characteristics ($F(12, 68) = 2.834, p =$
244 0.003). In this model, females scored 4.4 (0.2 to 8.5) points higher (i.e. reported
245 worse FV) than males ($p = 0.042$). Participants with VI classified as logMAR 0.72 –
246 1.00 scored 9.2 (3.8 to 14.5) points higher on the FVQ_CYP, and those with the
247 most severe VI (logMAR ≥ 1.02) scored 13.1 (6.1 to 20.2) points higher (i.e. both
248 reported significantly worse FV than those with low vision (logMAR ≤ 0.48), $p \leq$
249 0.001). Visual acuity alone explained 21% of variance in FVQ_CYP scores. There
250 was some indication of an association between FVQ_CYP scores and timing of
251 onset of VI, as participants with late-onset VI scored 7.8 (-0.3 to 15.8) points lower
252 (i.e. reported better FV) than those with early onset VI, though it did not reach
253 statistical significance ($p = 0.058$).

254 **DISCUSSION**

255 From a study of the target population of children and young people with all-cause
256 visual disability for whom the VQoL and FVQ instruments are intended, we report a
257 Gaussian distribution of scores for each instrument, with children and young people
258 utilising a wide range of the full measurement scale in both instruments. The mean
259 VQoL_CYP score was 7.9 points higher than the midpoint of the range (higher
260 scores signify better VQoL) and the mean FVQ score was 1.7 points lower than the
261 midpoint of the range (higher scores signify worse FV) in this sample. None of the

262 key sociodemographic or clinical characteristics investigated were found to be
263 associated with VQoL scores ($p \leq 0.05$), and a multiple linear regression model
264 predicted only 0.4% of the variance in the full dataset. By contrast, FVQ_CYP scores
265 were associated with severity of VI and gender.

266 One strength of this study is the setting of routine PROM administration in clinical
267 practice. To enable a 'real world' assessment and achieve a study sample of children
268 and young people with visual impairment for whom the instruments have been
269 developed, we deliberately embedded recruitment and implementation into routine
270 clinical practice and therefore the schedule of existing clinical appointments. We
271 report elsewhere the feasibility of administering PROMs in two different settings and
272 using two different formats (i.e. an important design feature of this study). There was
273 a high participation rate in comparison with similar research with the same clinical
274 population [12, 19, 20] demonstrating, in part, the willingness of children and young
275 people with visual impairment to use the VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP in 'real life'
276 settings.

277 Nevertheless the sample size, although large for studies of childhood VI,[18] was
278 modest in comparison to studies of whole child populations.[9, 11] A formal power
279 calculation was not possible given the lack of prior research in this area, so it is not
280 possible to assess accurately if the study had limited power to identify any true
281 associations. In keeping with best practice, we excluded data from participants with \geq
282 20% missing VQoL_CYP and/or FVQ_CYP data since scores containing less than
283 80% data would be unreliable and skew the measurement construct. We imputed
284 remaining missing data using individual mean imputation which may lead to limited
285 false increased precision with slightly less variation in the constructs. Since the
286 VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP instruments are not intended for proxy completion

287 (parents or clinicians) but rather self-assessment and self-reporting by affected
288 children and young people, and they capture vision-related (rather than generic
289 health-related) issues, our study sample necessarily did not include children with
290 significant additional impairments where these would have precluded self-
291 assessment e.g. significant communication or learning impairment. Thus, our
292 findings are not applicable to children with VI who would be unable to self-assess
293 and self-report.

294 There are no similar studies that have reported a 'reference' dataset for specific
295 instruments and thus no studies with which we can directly compare our findings.
296 However, the relevance of our findings can be considered in the context of broader
297 literature in child health and paediatrics. The 'disability paradox'[21] is a well-
298 established concept outside ophthalmology. Our findings serve as empirical
299 evidence of this phenomenon in ophthalmology, amplifying findings we previously
300 reported during the development of the VQoL_CYP and FV_CYP.[12, 13] It can be
301 challenging for ophthalmic clinicians to understand how a child or young person with
302 significantly impaired vision might report very high VQoL but our data show that this,
303 and the reverse relationship, are not infrequent i.e. severity of VI does not predict
304 VQoL. Equally, our findings show that VQoL cannot be predicted by other key clinical
305 or sociodemographic factors that may be recorded in ophthalmic practice.

306 The consequences of incorrectly assuming a relationship between subjective vision-
307 related well-being and visual function are as important to clinical practice as they are
308 to research. For example, important influences on patients' well-being will be
309 overlooked through sole reliance on clinical measures of visual function. Use of a
310 PROM that directly measures well-being is therefore essential for an accurate
311 representation of 'unobservable' outcomes.

312 Our finding that FVQ_CYP scores were positively correlated with severity of visual
313 impairment is to be expected, given the nature of FVQ_CYP items. The finding that
314 girls reported worse FV is interesting, unexplained and warrants further investigation
315 as there is scant research on gender differences in the daily functional impact of VI.
316 The FVQ_CYP was developed to allow understanding of how and to what degree VI
317 impacts on activities in everyday contexts which are also influenced by issues such
318 as accessibility, and appropriate support. This, in turn, provides granularity and
319 affords a deeper level of understanding of function outside of clinical settings i.e. a
320 more holistic view of functional impact, which is of value in understanding whether
321 and to what extent treatment or other aspects of care improve functioning. It is
322 possible that the gender difference we found, reflect a broader context in which girls
323 with VI have reported lower overall confidence[22] and self-esteem[23] than boys,
324 regarding physical functioning, and place greater value on social means of functional
325 support.[24]

326 Whilst an association with timing of onset, suggesting that children and young people
327 with late-onset VI have better FV and better VQoL than those with early onset (≤ 2
328 years), did not reach conventional thresholds of 'statistical significance', it is
329 interesting to consider whether the global delay in developmental milestones among
330 children diagnosed with VI during early childhood,[25] may manifest in impaired
331 functional vision. Equally, the association between late-onset VI and VQoL, may
332 benefit from further consideration, given the broader literature on disability
333 documents that acceptance or/and adaptation to late-onset disability takes time and
334 effort.[26, 27]

335 Our models, assessing the key sociodemographic and clinical characteristics
336 generally measured in ophthalmic practice, predicted 0.4% of the variation in VQoL

337 scores and 21.6% of the variation in FVQ_CYP scores. These findings indicate the
338 need for primary research, which was outside the scope of our study, to investigate
339 specifically, what shapes these outcomes, with an overarching aim to develop
340 interventions which promote VQoL and FV among children and young people at
341 greater risk of adverse outcomes.

342 Our study, using the VQoL_CYP and FVQ_CYP instruments completed in a real
343 world setting, demonstrates that both VQoL and FV vary widely among children and
344 young people with all-cause VI and cannot be predicted from the child/young
345 person's sociodemographic or clinical profile. Routine use of these complementary
346 PROMs in clinical practice can provide critical insights for clinicians when evaluating
347 impact of care, and their use in research can provide new insights into effectiveness
348 of treatments. Our findings provide a useful reference for future use of these
349 instruments in the population for whom they are intended.

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