

Statistical Analyses and Methods in the Published Literature: The SAMPL Guidelines”

Thomas A. Lang^a and Douglas G. Altman^b

^aPrincipal, Tom Lang Communications and Training International

^bDirector, Centre for Statistics in Medicine, Oxford University

Have they reflected that the sciences founded on observation can only be promoted by statistics? . . . If medicine had not neglected this instrument, this means of progress, it would possess a greater number of positive truths, and stand less liable to the accusation of being a science of unfixed principles, vague and conjectural.

Jean-Etienne Dominique Esquirol, an early French psychiatrist,
quoted in *The Lancet*, 1838 [1]

Introduction

The first major study of the quality of statistical reporting in the biomedical literature was published in 1966 [2]. Since then, dozens of similar studies have been published, every one of which has found that large proportions of articles contain errors in the application, analysis, interpretation, or reporting of statistics or in the design or conduct of research. (See, for example, references 3 through 19.) Further, large proportions of these errors are serious enough to call the authors’ conclusions into question [5,18,19]. The problem is made worse by the fact that most of these studies are of the world’s leading peer-reviewed general medical and specialty journals.

Although errors have been reported for more complex statistical procedures [19-22], paradoxically, many errors are in basic, not advanced, statistical methods [23]. Perhaps advanced methods are suggested by consulting statisticians, who perform the analyses competently, but it is also true that authors are far more likely to use only elementary statistical methods, if they use any at all [23-26]. Still, articles with even major errors continue to pass editorial and peer review and to be published in leading journals.

The truth is that the problem of poor statistical reporting is long-standing, widespread, potentially serious, concerns mostly basic statistics, and yet is largely unsuspected by most readers of the biomedical literature [27].

More than 30 years ago, O’Fallon and colleagues recommended that “Standards governing the content and format of statistical aspects should be developed to guide authors in the preparation of manuscripts” [28]. Despite the fact that this call has since been echoed by several others (29-32), most journals have still not included in their Instructions for Authors more than a paragraph or two about reporting statistical methods and results [33]. However, given that many statistical errors concern basic statistics, a comprehensive—and comprehensible—set of reporting guidelines might improve how statistical analyses are documented.

Lang T, Altman D. Basic statistical reporting for articles published in clinical medical journals: the SAMPL Guidelines. In: Smart P, Maisonneuve H, Polderman A (eds). *Science Editors’ Handbook*, European Association of Science Editors, 2013. References documenting the incidence of statistical errors have been updated in this revision.

The SAMPL guidelines are designed to be included in a journal's Instructions for Authors. These guidelines tell authors, journal editors, and reviewers how to report basic statistical methods and results. Although these guidelines are limited to the most common statistical analyses, they are nevertheless sufficient to prevent most of the reporting deficiencies routinely found in scientific articles.

Unlike most of the other guidelines in this book, the SAMPL guidelines were not developed by a formal consensus-building process, but they do draw considerably from published guidelines [27,34-37]. In addition, a comprehensive review of the literature on statistical reporting errors reveals near universal agreement on how to report the most common methods [27].

Statistical analyses are closely related to the design and activities of the research itself. However, we do not address these issues here. Instead, we refer readers to the EQUATOR Network website (www.equator-network.org) where guidelines for reporting specific research designs can be found. (For example, see the CONSORT [38], TREND [39], STROBE [40]) These guidelines for reporting methodologies all include items on reporting statistics, but the guidelines presented here are more specific and complement, not duplicate, those in the methodology guidelines.

We welcome feedback and anticipate the need to update this guidance in due course.

Guiding Principles for Reporting Statistical Methods and Results

Our first guiding principle for statistical reporting comes from The International Committee of Medical Journal Editors, whose Uniform Requirements for Manuscripts Submitted to Biomedical Journals include the following excellent statement about reporting statistical analyses:

“Describe statistical methods with enough detail to enable a knowledgeable reader with access to the original data to verify the reported results. [Emphasis added.] When possible, quantify findings and present them with appropriate indicators of measurement error or uncertainty (such as confidence intervals). Avoid relying solely on statistical hypothesis testing, such as P values, which fail to convey important information about effect size. References for the design of the study and statistical methods should be to standard works when possible (with pages stated). Define statistical terms, abbreviations, and most symbols. Specify the computer software used” [33,41].

Our second guiding principle for statistical reporting is to **provide enough detail that the results can be incorporated into other analyses.** In general, this principle requires reporting the descriptive statistics from which other statistics are derived, such as the numerators and denominators of percentages, especially in risk, odds, and hazards ratios. Likewise, P values are not sufficient for re-analysis. Needed instead are descriptive statistics for the variables being compared, including sample size of the groups involved, the estimate (or “effect size”) associated with the P value, and a measure of precision for the estimate, usually a 95% confidence interval.

General Principles for Reporting Statistical Methods

Preliminary analyses

- Identify any statistical procedures used to modify raw data before analysis. Examples include mathematically transforming continuous measurements to make distributions closer to the normal distribution, creating ratios or other derived variables, and collapsing continuous data into categorical data or combining categories.

Primary analyses

- Describe the purpose of the analysis.
- Identify the variables used in the analysis and summarize each with descriptive statistics.
- When possible, identify the smallest difference considered to be clinically important.
- Describe fully the main methods for analyzing the primary objectives of the study.
- Make clear which method was used for each analysis, rather than just listing in one place all the statistical methods used.
- Verify that that data conformed to the assumptions of the test used to analyze them. In particular, specify that 1) skewed data were analyzed with non-parametric tests, 2) paired data were analyzed with paired tests, and 3) the underlying relationship analyzed with linear regression models was linear.
- Indicate whether and how any allowance or adjustments were made for multiple comparisons (performing multiple hypothesis tests on the same data).
- If relevant, report how any outlying data were treated in the analysis.
- Say whether tests were one- or two-tailed and justify the use of one-tailed tests.
- Report the alpha level (e.g., 0.05) that defines statistical significance.
- Name the statistical package or program used in the analysis.

Supplementary analyses

- Describe methods used for any ancillary analyses, such as sensitivity analyses, imputation of missing values, or testing of assumptions underlying methods of analysis.
- Identify post-hoc analyses, including unplanned subgroup analyses, as exploratory.

General Principles for Reporting Statistical Results

Reporting numbers and descriptive statistics

- Report numbers—especially measurements—with an appropriate degree of precision. For ease of comprehension and simplicity, round to a reasonable extent. For example, mean age can often be rounded to the nearest year without compromising either the clinical or the statistical analysis. If the smallest meaningful difference on a scale is 5 points, scores can be reported as whole numbers; decimals are not necessary.
- Report total sample and group sizes for each analysis.
- Report numerators and denominators for all percentages.
- Summarize data that are approximately normally distributed with means and standard deviations (SD). Use the form: mean (SD), not mean \pm SD.
- Summarize data that are not normally distributed with medians and interpercentile ranges, ranges, or both. Report the upper and lower boundaries of interpercentile ranges and the minimum and maximum values of ranges, not just the size of the range.

- Do NOT use the standard error of the mean (SE) to indicate the variability of a data set. Use standard deviations, inter-percentile ranges, or ranges instead. (The SE is an inferential statistic—it is about a 68% confidence interval—not a descriptive statistic.)
- Display data in tables or figures. Tables present exact values, and figures provide an overall assessment of the data.[42,43]

Reporting risk, rates, and ratios

- Identify the type of rate (e.g., incidence rates; survival rates), ratio (e.g., odds ratios; hazards ratios), or risk (e.g., absolute risks; relative risk differences), being reported.
- Identify the quantities represented in the numerator and denominator (e.g., the number of men with prostate cancer divided by the number of men in whom prostate cancer can occur).
- Identify the time period over which each rate applies.
- Identify any unit of population (that is, the unit multiplier: e.g., x 100; x 10,000) associated with the rate.
- Consider reporting a measure of precision (a confidence interval) for estimated risks, rates, and ratios.

Reporting hypothesis tests

- State the hypothesis being tested.
- Identify the variables in the analysis and summarize the data for each variable with the appropriate descriptive statistics.
- If possible, identify the minimum difference considered to be clinically important.
- For equivalence and non-inferiority studies, report the largest difference between groups that will still be accepted as indicating biological equivalence (the equivalence margin).
- Identify the name of the test used in the analysis. Report whether the test was one- or two-tailed (justify the use of one-tailed tests) and for paired or independent samples.
- Confirm that the assumptions of the test were met by the data.
- Report the alpha level (e.g., 0.05) that defines statistical significance.
- At least for primary outcomes, such as differences or agreement between groups, diagnostic sensitivity, and slopes of regression lines, report a measure of precision, such as the 95% confidence interval.
- Do NOT use the standard error of the mean (SE) to indicate the precision of an estimate. The SE is essentially a 68% confidence coefficient: use the 95% confidence coefficient instead.
- Although not preferred to confidence intervals, if desired, *P* values should be reported as equalities when possible and to one or two decimal places (e.g., $P = 0.03$ or 0.22 not as inequalities: e.g., $P < 0.05$). Do NOT report “NS”; give the actual *P* value. The smallest *P* value that need be reported is $P < 0.001$, save in studies of genetic associations.
- Report whether and how any adjustments were made for multiple statistical comparisons.

- Name the statistical software package used in the analysis.

Reporting association analyses

- Describe the association of interest.
- Identify the variables used and summarize each with descriptive statistics.
- Identify the test of association used.
- Indicate whether the test was one- or two-tailed. Justify the use of one-tailed tests.
- For *tests* of association (e.g., a *chi*-square test), report the *P* value of the test (because association is defined as a statistically significant result).
- For *measures* of association (i.e., the *phi* coefficient), report the value of the coefficient and a confidence interval. Do not describe the association as low, moderate, or high unless the ranges for these categories have been defined. Even then, consider the wisdom of using these categories given their biological implications or realities.
- For primary comparisons, consider including the full contingency table for the analysis.
- Name the statistical package or program used in the analysis.

Reporting correlation analyses

- Describe the purpose of the analysis.
- Summarize each variable with the appropriate descriptive statistics.
- Identify the correlation coefficient used in the analysis (e.g., Pearson, Spearman).
- Confirm that the assumptions of the analysis were met.
- Report the alpha level (e.g., 0.05) that indicates whether the correlation coefficient is statistically significant.
- Report the value of the correlation coefficient. Do not describe correlation as low, moderate, or high unless the ranges for these categories have been defined. Even then, consider the wisdom of using these categories given their biological implications or realities.
- For primary comparisons, report the (95%) confidence interval for the correlation coefficient, whether or not it is statistically significant.
- For primary comparisons, consider reporting the results as a scatter plot. The sample size, correlation coefficient (with its confidence interval), and *P* value can be included in the data field.
- Name the statistical package or program used in the analysis.

Reporting regression analyses

- Describe the purpose of the analysis.
- Identify the variables used in the analysis and summarize each with descriptive statistics.

- Confirm that the assumptions of the analysis were met. For example, in linear regression indicate whether an analysis of residuals confirmed the assumptions of linearity.
- If relevant, report how any outlying values were treated in the analysis.
- Report how any missing data were treated in the analyses.
- For either simple or multiple (multivariable) regression analyses, report the regression equation.
- For multiple regression analyses: 1) report the alpha level used in the univariate analysis; 2) report whether the variables were assessed for a) colinearity and b) interaction; and 3) describe the variable selection process by which the final model was developed (e.g., forward-stepwise; best subset).
- Report the regression coefficients (beta weights) of each explanatory variable and the associated confidence intervals and *P* values, preferably in a table.
- Provide a measure of the model's "goodness-of-fit" to the data (the coefficient of determination, r^2 , for simple regression and the coefficient of multiple determination, R^2 , for multiple regression).
- Specify whether and how the model was validated.
- For primary comparisons analyzed with simple linear regression analysis, consider reporting the results graphically, in a scatter plot showing the regression line and its confidence bounds. Do not extend the regression line (or the interpretation of the analysis) beyond the minimum and maximum values of the data.
- Name the statistical package or program used in the analysis.

Reporting analyses of variance (ANOVA) or of covariance (ANCOVA)

- Describe the purpose of the analysis.
- Identify the variables used in the analysis and summarize each with descriptive statistics.
- Confirm that the assumptions of the analysis were met. For example, indicate whether an analysis of residuals confirmed the assumptions of linearity.
- If relevant, report how any outlying data were treated in the analysis.
- Report how any missing data were treated in the analyses.
- Specify whether the explanatory variables were tested for interaction, and if so how these interactions were treated.
- If appropriate, in a table, report the *P* value for each explanatory variable, the test statistics and, where applicable, the degrees of freedom for the analysis.
- Provide an assessment of the goodness-of-fit of the model to the data, such as R^2 .
- Specify whether and how the model was validated.
- Name the statistical package or program used in the analysis.

Reporting survival (time-to-event) analyses

- Describe the purpose of the analysis.
- Identify the dates or events that mark the beginning and the end of the time period analyzed.
- Specify the circumstances under which data were censored.
- Specify the statistical methods used to estimate the survival rate.
- Confirm that the assumptions of survival analysis were met.
- For each group, give the estimated survival probability at appropriate follow-up times, with confidence intervals, and the number of participants at risk for death at each time. It is often more helpful to plot the cumulative probability of not surviving, especially when events are not common.
- Reporting median survival times, with confidence intervals, is often useful to allow the results to be compared with those of other studies.
- Consider presenting the full results in a graph (e.g., a Kaplan-Meier plot) or table.
- Specify the statistical methods used to compare two or more survival curves.
- When comparing two or more survival curves with hypothesis tests, report the P value of the comparison
- Report the regression model used to assess the associations between the explanatory variables and survival or time-to-event.
- Report a measure of risk (e.g., a hazard ratio) for each explanatory variable, with a confidence interval.

Reporting Bayesian analyses

- Specify the pre-trial probabilities (“priors”).
- Explain how the priors were selected.
- Describe the statistical model used.
- Describe the techniques used in the analysis.
- Identify the statistical software program used in the analysis.
- Summarize the posterior distribution with a measure of central tendency and a credibility interval
- Assess the sensitivity of the analysis to different priors.

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