

# **1Measurement error in medical research: a systematic review of current practice**

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## 20ABSTRACT

21In medical research, covariates (e.g. exposure and confounder variables) are often measured  
22with error. While it is well accepted that this introduces bias and imprecision in exposure-  
23outcome relations, it is unclear to what extent such issues are currently considered in research  
24practice. The objective was to study common practices regarding covariate measurement error  
25via a systematic review of general medicine and epidemiology literature. Original research  
26published in 2016 in 12 high impact journals was full-text searched for phrases relating to  
27measurement error. Reporting of measurement error and methods to investigate or correct for  
28it were quantified and characterized. 247 (44%) of the 565 original research publications  
29reported on the presence of measurement error. 83% of these 247 did so with respect to the  
30exposure and/or confounder variables. Only 18 publications (7% of 247) used methods to  
31investigate or correct for measurement error. Consequently, it is difficult for readers to judge  
32the robustness of presented results to the existence of measurement error in the majority of  
33publications in high impact journals. Our systematic review highlights the need for increased  
34awareness about the possible impact of covariate measurement error. Additionally, guidance  
35on the use of measurement error correction methods is necessary.

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37**Key Words:** bias; epidemiology; measurement error; medicine; misclassification; review

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#### 40WHAT'S NEW

- 41 • About half of the reviewed original research from 12 top-ranked general medicine and  
42 epidemiology journals mentioned the concept of measurement error in some form.
- 43 • Investigations into the impact of covariate (exposure and confounder) measurement  
44 error on studied relations as well as the application of measurement error correction  
45 methods were rare.
- 46 • This extensive systematic review confirms suspicions raised over a decade ago by  
47 many authors as well as another review on a similar topic: that the potential impact of  
48 measurement error on studied relations is often ignored and misunderstood.
- 49 • Consequently, it is difficult for readers to judge the robustness of presented results to  
50 the existence of measurement error in the majority of publications in high impact  
51 journals.
- 52 • Our systematic review highlights the need for both, increased awareness about the  
53 possible impact of covariate measurement error, as well as guidance on the use of  
54 measurement error correction methods.

55

## 561. Introduction

57Measurement error is one of many key challenges to making valid inferences in biomedical  
58research [1]. Errors in measurements can arise due to inaccuracy or imprecision of  
59measurement instruments, data coding errors, self-reporting, or single measurements of  
60variable longitudinal processes, such as biomarkers. With the increased use of data not  
61originally intended for research, such as routine care data, ‘claims’ databases and other  
62sources of ‘big data’, it is conceivable that measurement error is becoming increasingly  
63prevalent in this field [2].

64

65It is generally well accepted that measurement error and classification error (hereinafter  
66collectively referred to as measurement error) in either the dependent variable (hereinafter  
67*outcome*) or independent explanatory variables (hereinafter *covariates*; e.g. exposure and  
68confounder variables) can introduce bias and imprecision to estimates of covariate-outcome  
69relations. Among others, several textbooks [3–6], methodological reviews [7,8] and a tool-kit  
70[9], have demonstrated how to examine, quantify, and correct for measurement error in a  
71variety of settings encountered in epidemiology. Most of this work has been focused on  
72measurement error in covariates given its conceived greater impact on studied relations than  
73measurement error in the outcome [4]. Despite these resources, it is suspected that the  
74attention it receives in applied medical and epidemiological studies is insufficient [10,11].

75

76Over a decade ago, a review of 57 randomly selected publications from three high ranking  
77epidemiology journals reported that 61% of the reviewed publications recognized the  
78potential influence of measurement error, but only 28% made a qualitative assessment of its  
79impact on their results, and only one quantified its potential impact on results [12]. In light of  
80the increasing prevalence of measurement error in medical and epidemiological research and

81increasing availability of methods and software to account for measurement error, a new and  
82more comprehensive investigation into current practice is necessary.

83

84We conducted a systematic review to quantify the extent to which (possible) measurement  
85error in covariates is addressed in recent medical and epidemiologic research published in  
86high impact journals. To guide the understanding of the results of the review, we briefly  
87introduce key concepts in the field of measurement error.

88

## 892. Measurement error

90Many variables of interest in medical research are subject to measurement error. Instead of an  
91error-free and unobserved, *true* value of a variable, researchers have to deal with an  
92imperfectly measured, *observed* value. For the remainder of this section, we consider the  
93erroneous measurement and perfect measurement of a single underlying entity as different  
94variables. Examples of variables prone to measurement error include the long-term average  
95level of a variable biological process (such as blood pressure) when the researcher may only  
96have access to a single measurement; average daily caloric intake measured using food  
97frequency questionnaires; diabetic status ascertained using electronic health record data; and  
98individual air pollution exposure based on measurements from a fixed monitor.

99

100In the context of multivariable statistical models, such as regression models, measurement  
101error can be present in the outcome and/or covariates. We focus on error in covariates. In their  
102seminal text-book, Carroll et al. [5] describe the effect of measurement error in covariates as a  
103“triple whammy”: covariate-outcome relationships can be biased, power to detect clinically  
104meaningful relationships is diminished, and features of the data can be masked. Whether bias

105is present, and if so its direction and magnitude, depend on the form of the measurement  
106error. It is therefore important to quantify any bias due to measurement error and to obtain  
107corrected estimates where possible. Three important considerations in this process are:  
108identification of the variables of interest that are measured with error, what type of  
109measurement error is present, and what additional information is available to help characterize  
110the error.

111

#### 1122.1 *Types of measurement error and their effects*

113Measurement error is characterized differently for continuous and categorical variables. For  
114continuous variables, four types of error can be distinguished that describe how the observed  
115variable relates to the unobserved, true variable.

116

117The simplest type of measurement error, *classical* error, occurs when the observed variable  
118can be expressed as the true variable plus a random component with zero mean and constant  
119variance. As a result, when measurements of an observed variable (e.g. blood pressure) are  
120repeatedly taken from the same person, the average of these measurements would approach  
121that person's true variable value (e.g. the usual blood pressure level) as the number of  
122replicate measurements increases. In the context of etiologic research, the estimated exposure-  
123outcome relation will be biased towards the null (also known as attenuation) when only the  
124exposure variable is measured with classical error [5]. However, the estimated relations  
125between the confounders (provided that they are measured without error) and the outcome in  
126the same model could be biased in either direction, depending on the form of the relation  
127between the main exposure and the confounders. It follows that classical measurement error  
128in one or multiple confounders can result in bias in either direction for the exposure-outcome  
129relation, even if the exposure is measured without error [13]. The direction and magnitude of

130this bias is thus unpredictable and this holds for different regression models of interest in  
131epidemiology, including logistic, Cox and linear regression models [5].

132

133Two other types of error that are related to the classical error model are *systematic* and  
134*differential* error. When the error is systematic, the observed variable is a biased  
135representation of the true variable and the average of repeated observed measurements would  
136no longer approach the true variable value. Measurement error is described as ‘differential’ if  
137the mismeasured covariate would help predict the studied outcome even if the values on the  
138true covariate would have been observed (i.e., the error is dependent on the outcome,  
139conditional on the values of the true covariate). Differential error depending on the outcome  
140can arise when the outcome occurs prior to the measurement of covariates, as in case-control  
141studies. Both systematic and differential error can cause bias in the exposure-outcome, or  
142more generic, the covariate-outcome relation in either direction.

143

144The last common type of measurement error is called *Berkson* error, which arises when the  
145true variable is equal to the observed variable plus a random component with zero mean and  
146constant variance; i.e. the true and observed variable reverse roles, compared to classical  
147error. Berkson error can occur when group averages are used in place of individual  
148measurements. Examples of Berkson error are often found in environmental epidemiology  
149where individual exposure to air pollutants is set equal for individuals that live within a  
150certain radius of an air pollution monitor. While Berkson error in covariates can diminish  
151precision, in many cases it does not cause bias in the estimates of the exposure-outcome  
152relation [5,14].

153

154For categorical variables, measurement error is commonly referred to as *misclassification*.  
155Misclassification can be summarized using sensitivity and specificity when the variable is  
156binary. In the situation where a single binary exposure is related to an outcome, random non-  
157differential misclassification present in the exposure will result in attenuation of this  
158exposure-outcome relation [1]. However, when the exposure has more than two categories,  
159when the exposure is subject to systematic or differential misclassification, or when  
160confounders measured with error are added to the analysis model, it is once more difficult to  
161predict in which direction the estimate of the true exposure-outcome relation will be biased  
162[4].

163

#### 1642.2 *Measurement error correction methods*

165Several methods have been proposed that aim to correct for bias due to measurement error in  
166covariates. We highlight a few measurement error correction methods below that can be used  
167when continuous variables are measured with error. The methodological literature addressing  
168measurement error corrections is extensive, e.g. [1,4,5,14].

169

170Regression calibration was proposed by Rosner, Willett and Spiegelman in 1989 [15]. The  
171essence of regression calibration is that the observed error-prone covariate is replaced by a  
172prediction of the expected value of the true variable in the analysis. Regression calibration can  
173be used when there is non-differential classical or systematic measurement error. This  
174approach requires information on the degree of measurement error, which is the error variance  
175in the case of classical error. We note how this information can be obtained below.

176

177Cook and Stefanski proposed the simulation-extrapolation (SIMEX) method [16]. This  
178method works via a two-step procedure. First, data are simulated by adding additional error of



179different magnitudes to the observed exposure measurements; the simulated data sets are used  
180to estimate the effect of this additional error on the exposure-outcome relation. As a second  
181step, the estimate of the exposure-outcome relation is extrapolated back to the situation where  
182there is no measurement error using an extrapolation model which relates the estimated  
183exposure-outcome association parameter to the degree of measurement error. Like regression  
184calibration, this method requires information about the amount of measurement error  
185(variance) in the observed variable. SIMEX as described above assumes non-differential  
186classical error, yet has also been extended to deal with misclassified categorical variables  
187[17].

188

189Alternatively, a large range of so-called latent variable models have been suggested to  
190account for measurement error during analysis. Latent variable models generally rely on  
191replicate measurements of error-prone measures to estimate a latent variable to represent the  
192true error-free variable [18]. This latent variable can replace the observed error-prone variable  
193in the exposure-outcome analysis or can be modelled directly in the exposure-outcome model,  
194for instance, using Structural Equation Modeling [18,19].

195

196We acknowledge that it can be very challenging to determine the structure and amount of  
197measurement error due to the plethora of underlying (unobserved) factors that may influence  
198it. While further guidance is required on how to assess the amount and type of measurement  
199error in practice, it can generally be recommended to collect additional data, whenever  
200feasible, either in a subset of the study sample or possibly in an external validation sample, to  
201compare observations on a covariate that is (suspected of being) measured with error and an  
202error free representation of that covariate (if such a ‘gold standard’ exists). This information  
203can subsequently be used to study measurement error structures, amount of measurement

204error, and to inform measurement error correction methods (e.g. regression calibration or  
205SIMEX, among others), which allow for a measurement error corrected analysis on the whole  
206study sample. Alternatively, when available, repeated measurements of a covariate measured  
207with error can be used to quantify measurement error variance and allow for measurement  
208error corrected analyses.

209

### 2102.3 *Availability of additional information for measurement error corrections*

211Additional information about the form of the measurement error is often required to quantify  
212its impact on the exposure-outcome relation and potentially correct for it. This information  
213can be obtained from validation data or, if the error is classical, replicate measurements.

214

215Validation data contains the error-prone variable alongside the true variable. Typically, these  
216data are only available for a subset of the study sample or the information may come from an  
217external source, such as another data set or published results. For example, when participants  
218of a study have been requested to self-report their BMI via an online questionnaire (the error-  
219prone variable), a subset may have had their BMI measured according to a systematic  
220protocol by a research assistant (the ‘true’ variable).

221

222Replicate measurements may consist of multiple measurements with error from the same  
223instrument (e.g. multiple measurements of blood pressure), or sometimes multiple  
224measurements from different instruments that aim to measure the same true variable (e.g.  
225multiple diagnostic tests for the same disease). Replicates may be observed for all or a subset  
226of study participants and is often collected when measuring a variable biological process.

227

228When validation or replication data are acquired from external sources, the similarity of these  
229research settings with the current setting, i.e., *transportability*, needs to be assessed [5].

230

231If there is little information available to inform measurement error correction methods or to  
232assess the structure of the measurement error model, the potential impact of measurement  
233error can still be explored through sensitivity analyses. Hypothetical scenarios can then be  
234assessed by rerunning the analysis assuming fixed amounts of measurement error or  
235misclassification. A formal extension of sensitivity analysis, referred to as “probabilistic  
236sensitivity analysis” (thoroughly detailed by Greenland & Lash in chapter 19 of [1]) can also  
237be used to assess many potential scenarios with differing amounts of measurement error  
238simultaneously, and obtain an estimate of the exposure-outcome relation adjusted for both  
239systematic and random errors.

240

### 2413. Methods

242We performed a systematic review of original research published in 2016 in high-impact  
243medical and epidemiological journals. Our aims were to: i) quantify and characterize the  
244reporting of measurement error in a main exposure and/or confounder variables and their  
245possible impact on study results and ii) quantify and characterize the use of available methods  
246for investigating or correcting for measurement error in the exposure and/or confounder  
247variables.

248

249Using the Thomson Reuters InCites rankings of 2015 [20], the 6 highest-ranking journals in  
250the categories “General & Internal Medicine” (New England Journal of Medicine, Lancet,  
251JAMA, BMJ, Annals of Internal Medicine and JAMA Internal Medicine) and  
252“Epidemiology” (International Journal of Epidemiology, European Journal of Epidemiology,  
253Epidemiology, American Journal of Epidemiology, Journal of Clinical Epidemiology, Journal  
254of Epidemiology and Community Health) were identified. The journal Epidemiology Review  
255was excluded as it is an annual journal. All publications of the above-mentioned journals from  
256the period 01/01/2016 to 31/12/2016 were identified using PubMed (see search string in  
257Appendix A).

258

259Title and abstracts were screened by one reviewer (TB). Publications that were not original  
260research (e.g. brief reports, essays, cohort profiles, and guidance papers) were excluded. Also  
261excluded were: methodological research, review and meta-analysis research, qualitative  
262research, policy oriented studies, descriptive studies, studies that analyzed data on an  
263aggregated level, and publications that did not assess individual health related exposures and  
264outcomes.

265

266After initial screening, a full-text search was performed in the remaining manuscripts using a  
267Boolean search with stemming in Adobe Acrobat XI Pro. The search string contained the  
268term “measurement error” and synonyms such as “misclassification” or “mismeasured”, as  
269well as phrases relating to the validity of the collected data, including “information bias” or  
270“self-reported”. The exact search string can be found in Appendix B. Manuscripts that  
271contained any of the terms included in the search string were screened to assess whether they:  
272a) discussed measurement error with respect to previous studies or the design of the current  
273study; b) discussed the potential of measurement error in one or more of the covariates; c)  
274discussed the potential effect of measurement error on the presented study results; or d)  
275described methodology to investigate or correct for any measurement error. Publications that  
276fulfilled at least one of these criteria were included in the following data extraction step.

277

278The included publications were reviewed independently by two readers (TB and MM) using a  
279standardized data extraction form (see Appendix C). This form was pilot tested by four  
280researchers (TB, MS, RG, MM). Disagreements were discussed until consensus was reached.  
281The elements extracted included: design of data collection, study characteristics, clinical  
282domain, characterization of variable(s) subject to measurement error (exposure/confounder),  
283sections of the article where measurement error was mentioned  
284(abstract/introduction/methods/results/discussion), reporting of possible effects of  
285measurement error on study results (direction and magnitude of effect), reporting of the  
286assumed type of error, reporting of methods that investigated the impact of, or attempted to  
287correct for, measurement error in exposure or confounder variables.

288

289Articles that reported impact of measurement error or corrections for measurement error were  
290included for additional review by four readers (TB, MS, RG, MM). For these publications,

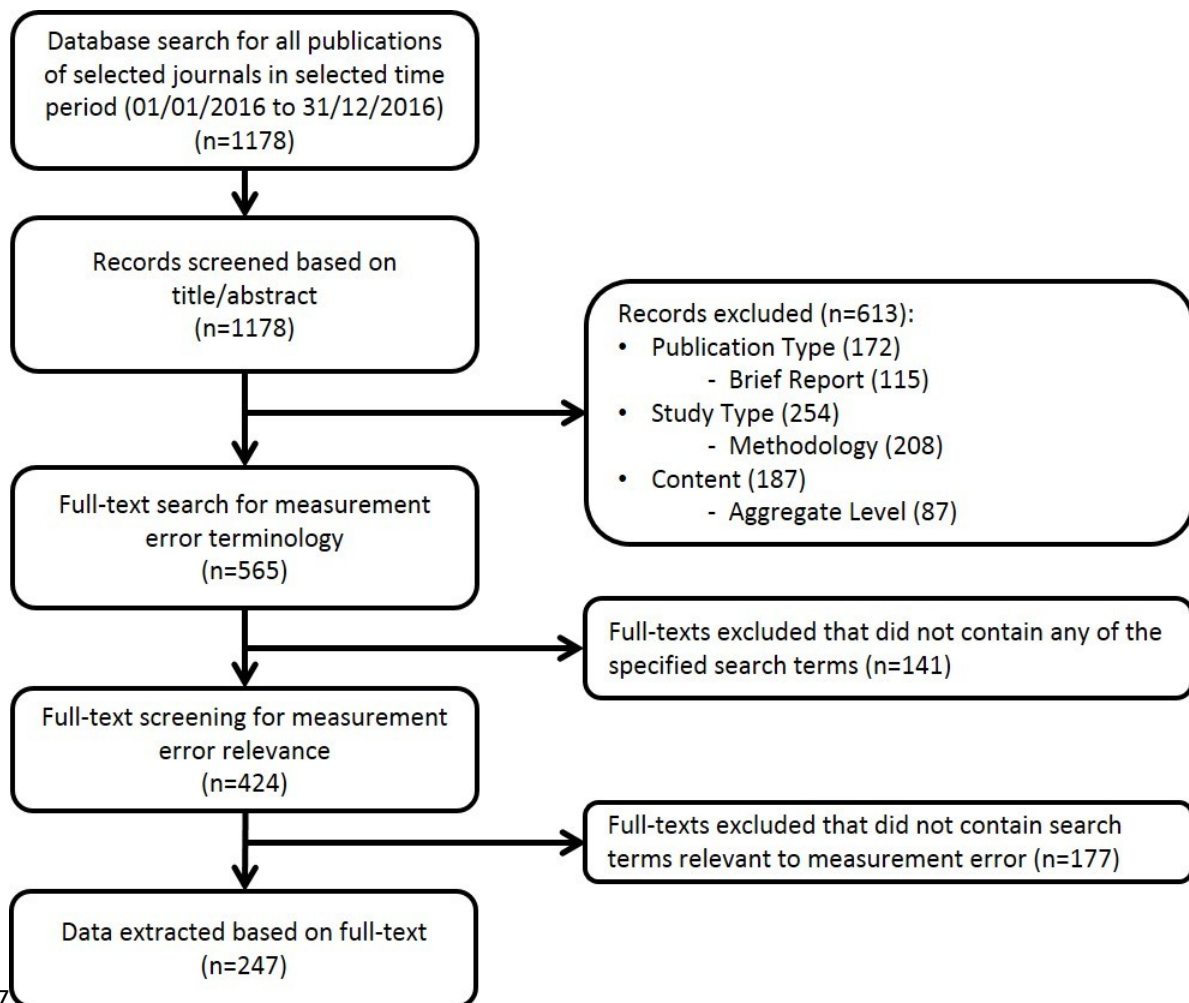
291data were extracted from the main document and the supplementary materials. The methods  
292used were characterized, alongside how this was reported and the type of additional  
293information used.

294

#### 2954. Results

296Figure 1 depicts the number of included papers at each step of the review process. Of the  
2971178 articles found in PubMed, 565 (337 from Epidemiology journals and 228 from General  
298& Internal Medicine journals) were judged as original research satisfying our inclusion  
299criteria. Of these, 247 (44%) directly addressed measurement error in some form.  
300Characteristics of these included studies are found in Table 1. Eighteen of these publications  
301(3% of the 565) investigated the possible impact of, or corrected for, measurement error.  
302Thirteen of these eighteen publications were from Epidemiology journals (4% of the 337  
303Epidemiology publications) and the remaining five were from General & Internal Medicine  
304Journals (2% of the 228 General & Internal Medicine publications). Table 2 shows from  
305which journals the publications that directly addressed measurement error originated.

306



**Fig. 1** Flow Diagram Detailing the Systematic Review Process

**Table 1** General Characteristics of the 247 Publications That Explicitly Report on Measurement Error (ME) in Some Form.

Characteristic	No. of Studies	% of 247
ME in which variable		
Exposure	195	79
Confounder	44	18
Outcome	115	47
Exposure & Confounder	35	14
ME discussed in which section		
Abstract	8	3
Introduction	22	9
Methods	49	20
Results	9	4
Discussion <sup>a</sup>	219	89
ME in previous study <sup>b</sup>	88	36
ME prevented by design <sup>c</sup>	60	24

<sup>a</sup>ME = Measurement error

<sup>a</sup> 174 (70%) publications considered ME **only** in the discussion section

<sup>b</sup> Mentions made of ME pertained to previously published research and not to the study presented in the published paper.

<sup>c</sup> ME in the presented study was prevented due to decisions made during the design of the study.

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**Table 2** In Which Journals the 247 Publications That Reported on Measurement Error (ME) and That Investigated or Corrected for it Were Published.

Journal Name	Publications that reported on ME		Publications that investigated/corrected for ME (n=18)
	No.	% of 247	
Am J Epidemiol	60	24	2
Ann Intern Med	7	3	1
BMJ	30	12	1
Epidemiology	17	7	4
Eur J Epidemiol	23	9	2
Int J Epidemiol	50	20	4
J Clin Epidemiol	2	1	0
J Epidemiol Community Health	37	15	1
JAMA	2	1	1
JAMA Intern Med	16	6	2
Lancet	2	1	0
N Engl J Med	1	0.5	0

ME=Measurement error

#### 4.1 Measurement error in main exposure variables

A total of 195 (79%) of the 247 publications reported on (possible) measurement error in the main exposure variable. Of these 195, 89 (46%) reported the presence of measurement error in the exposure but did not mention, or were unclear about, its possible effect on the studied relations; 66 (34%) reported that the measurement error in the exposure did or could have led to underestimation of the exposure–outcome relation; 25 (13%) reported that measurement error in the exposure was anticipated to have had no or a negligible effect on the estimated exposure–outcome relation; three (2%) publications stated that measurement error in the exposure could have led to both over- or underestimation of the studied effect; and one publication reported a possible overestimation of the exposure–outcome relation. 11 (6%) publications explicitly reported that their exposure variable was measured *without* error.

Information about the nature of measurement error was reported by 59 (30%) of the 195 publications. For instance, these papers made general statements about the structure of the

344 measurement error (e.g. using terms such as “random error” or “differential error”) or  
345 provided details on possible dependence of the measurement error on other variables in the  
346 analysis. Four publications (3%) were specific about the assumed error model; one  
347 publication assumed the error to be of the Berkson type and the remaining three investigated  
348 the form of the measurement error.

349

#### 350 4.2 *Measurement error in confounder variables*

351 Of the 44 publications that reported on measurement error in the confounders, 29 (66%)  
352 reported the presence of measurement error without mentioning (or were unclear about) its  
353 possible effect on the studied relations, six (14%) reported that the measurement error in the  
354 confounder did or could have led to underestimation of the relation between the main  
355 exposure and the outcome, and four (9%) reported that measurement error in the confounder  
356 was anticipated to have no or only a negligible effect on the main exposure–outcome relation.  
357 None of the publications reported on possible overestimation of the main exposure–outcome  
358 relation due to confounders measured with error. Five (11%) publications explicitly reported  
359 that their confounder variable(s) were measured *without* error.

360 Six (14%) of the 44 publications made general statements about the structure of the  
361 measurement error. One discussed the assumed error model.

362

#### 363 4.3 *Measurement error impact and correction*

364 Of the 247 publications that directly reported on measurement error, 18 (7%) either  
365 investigated its impact on the studied relations or corrected the exposure–outcome relation for  
366 measurement error (Table 3).

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**Table 3** Characteristics of the 18 Publications That Reported on Investigation of or Correction for Measurement Error (ME).

Characteristic	No. of Studies	% of 18
Study design		
Cohort	14	78
Case-control	4	22
Exposure field		
Lifestyle/Health (not nutrition)	9	50
Nutrition	1	6
Environment	3	17
Education	1	6
Medical intervention	4	22
ME in which variable		
Exposure	15	83
Continuous	6	
Categorical	9	
Confounder	1	6
Continuous	1	
Categorical	0	
Exposure & confounder	2	11
Both categorical	1	
Continuous & categorical	1	
How was ME dealt with		
Regression calibration	2	11
Latent variable analysis	2	11
Application specific methods*	3	17
Sensitivity analysis	11	61

ME=Measurement error

\*Methods designed specifically for a field of applied research

Seven publications (39%) of the 18, applied measurement error correction methods. Two publications used regression calibration, relying on internal validation data. One of these [21] used additional data gathered for a subset of participants to account for measurement error in the exposure (daily coffee intake). The other [22] corrected for measurement error in several anthropomorphic measurements using data from earlier validation studies conducted within the same cohort. One publication [23] used a non-parametric method [24] to correct for underestimation of the exposure-outcome relation because of assumed random measurement

381error in the exposure (plasma triglycerides values at baseline). Another publication [25] used  
382external observed air quality monitoring data to correct their estimates of individual air  
383pollutant exposure. Two publications used factor analysis to define a latent exposure. One  
384[26] implemented a latent variable model to determine each individual's disability score using  
385many different items of a conceptual framework for describing functioning and disability.  
386This score was then used in a regression analysis. In another [27] the factor analysis was  
387embedded in a structural equation model where latent PTSD status was estimated from  
388multiple clusters of symptoms suggestive of PTSD. Finally, Leslie et al. [28] used an ad-hoc  
389approach, coined 'least significant change', to take into account inherent instrument  
390measurement error when ascertaining exposure status (absolute bone mineral density  
391difference).

392

393The remaining 11 (61%) of the 18 publications investigated the impact of measurement error  
394on the exposure-outcome relation using sensitivity analyses. In five publications [29–33], an  
395assumption was made about the amount of possible measurement error and its effect on the  
396exposure-outcome relation was quantified. Often this was achieved by looking at a subgroup  
397of the original sample for which the mismeasured variable of interest was assumed to be  
398measured with less or no error. Four publications [34–37] looked at multiple scenarios in  
399which they assumed different amounts of measurement error. The remaining two publications  
400[38,39] performed a probabilistic sensitivity analysis. All authors reported that the results of  
401the sensitivity analyses were either similar to those of the conventional analyses or did not  
402influence their conclusions. No study investigated the impact of measurement error on their  
403results using an external dataset.

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## 4085. Discussion

409This review provides an overview of the attention given to measurement error in recent  
410epidemiological and medical literature. We found that a high proportion (44%) reported on  
411the (possible) presence of measurement error in one or more recorded variables. 70% of these  
412addressed measurement error in a qualitative manner only in the discussion section. In  
413contrast, few publications (7%) used some form of measurement error analysis to investigate  
414or correct the exposure-outcome relation for the presence of measurement error in covariates.

415

416The results of our review can be compared to the 2006 review by Jurek et al. [12]. In their  
417review of 57 papers published in 2001 in 3 high impact epidemiology journals (American  
418Journal of Epidemiology, Epidemiology and the International Journal of Epidemiology), the  
419authors reported that 61% discussed measurement error in exposure variables in some form.  
420Based on the 565 original research publications included in our review, we found the attention  
421given to exposure measurement error in 2016 to be lower (35%). In both studies, roughly half  
422of included papers did not report on the expected impact of measurement error on the studied  
423relations (2001: 51% vs 2016: 46%), and the application of measurement error correction  
424methods was found to be relatively rare (2001: 9% vs 2016: 3%). However, a marked  
425difference was found in the proportion of papers reporting possible attenuation of the  
426exposure-outcome relation due to measurement error (2001: 9% vs 2016: 34%). We note that  
427the comparison between the reviews should be interpreted with some caution due to  
428differences in the designs of the reviews. For instance, our review was based on a larger  
429sample of publications, examined measurement error in confounder variables, and considered  
430both “General & Internal Medicine” and “Epidemiology” journals.

431

432Half of the 565 included publications in our study reported about measurement error being  
433present in any of the studied variables. In our opinion, this proportion is quite high  
434considering the denominator includes studies in which measurement error may not be an issue  
435(e.g. clinical trials with objective endpoints such as mortality). As such, many authors  
436justifiably ignored the issue and did not report on it in the final publication.

437

438As compared to the abundance of qualitative statements made about the presence of  
439measurement error, we found formal measurement error evaluations to be surprisingly rare.  
440About 4% of the papers that made a qualitative statement about measurement error quantified  
441its impact using sensitivity analyses. Only 2% used formal measurement error correction  
442methods. Several reasons for this low prevalence can be postulated. In practice it can be very  
443challenging to properly assess the structure and amount of measurement error. Obviously,  
444determining a strategy to account for measurement error in the analysis is then very difficult.  
445But even when a suitable strategy can be determined and data are available to implement the  
446strategy, there may still be lack of familiarity with these methods and available software  
447among applied researchers, medical readers and journal editors, which may frustrate the  
448adoption of these methods in the medical literature. For example, statistical software such as  
449R [40] can be used to implement regression calibration (see supplementary material of [9]),  
450SIMEX [41] and latent variable modeling [42]. There also seems to be a lack of educational  
451materials and courses that provide guidance for practicing researchers, peer-reviewers and  
452editors on how to use, assess and interpret results from measurement error correction  
453methods.

454

455A need for better understanding of measurement error in medical and epidemiologic research  
456is further supported by a noticeably high incidence (about one third of those that discussed

457exposure measurement error) of manuscripts which claimed underestimation of the exposure-  
458outcome relation due to measurement error. This conclusion was supported by a claim that the  
459error was non-differential in about a third of the publications. Besides the fact that the non-  
460differential measurement error assumption was regularly made without proof and is easily  
461violated [14], non-differential measurement error also does not guarantee attenuation of the  
462studied relation towards the null. As discussed in section 2, even classical (random) error can  
463result in bias away from the null in several likely scenarios, e.g. when multiple variables in  
464the analysis model are measured with error or when an exposure variable has more than two  
465categories. In recent decades, several authors have attempted to dispel the myth that exposure  
466measurement error always leads to attenuation of the studied relation [43–45].

467

468Of the 18 publications that investigated or corrected for measurement error, most manuscripts  
469reported both the original ('naïve') and the measurement error corrected results.  
470Unfortunately, descriptions of the used methods were often not provided. Indeed, half of the  
471publications that performed sensitivity analyses reported the results using only a single line in  
472the results section claiming similarity of results to the main analysis (e.g., [36]). A similar  
473proportion of these publications also only investigated one possible measurement error  
474scenario.

475

476Our review has some limitations. It cannot be ruled out that our full-text search strategy may  
477have missed papers that mentioned measurement error. Although our search string covered a  
478broad range of terminology related to measurement error, papers using atypical terms may  
479have been overlooked. This might have led to an underestimation of the number of  
480publications that discussed measurement error. This limitation is unlikely to have a substantial  
481impact on the estimated percentages and conclusions, given that the intention was to give a



482general impression of current practice of measurement error reporting. Second, in our review  
483we ignored measurement error issues related to the outcome variable. While measurement  
484error in outcome variables is often assumed to pose less problems than measurement error in  
485covariates [4], we acknowledge that this choice limits our findings. Finally, there are  
486measurement errors that influence analyses that do not strictly fall in the multivariable  
487(exposure – outcome) classification. Specifically, diagnostic test accuracy studies often suffer  
488from measurement error in the disease verification procedure, a problem known as “absence  
489of gold standard”, and were outside the scope of this review. Reviews of methods [46,47] and  
490the use of methods [48] to account for disease verification problems are found elsewhere.

491

492Our systematic review also has strengths. By using modern, automated full-text searching  
493capabilities in Adobe Reader, a comprehensive review could be conducted with about 10  
494times as many included publications as the earlier review conducted by Jurek et al. [12] . We  
495were able to consider all publications from 12 top-ranked journals for a full one-year period.  
496This full-text searching approach is likely to be much more sensitive than common search  
497strategies that are limited to wording in the title or abstract. In addition, the full-text procedure  
498allowed us to systematically pinpoint the article section in which references to measurement  
499error were made.

500

501In conclusion, we found that measurement error is often discussed in high impact medical and  
502epidemiologic literature. However, only a small portion proceeds to investigate or correct for  
503measurement error. Renewed efforts are required to raise awareness among applied  
504researchers that measurement error can have a large impact on estimated exposure-outcome  
505relations and that tools are available to quantify this impact. More guidance and tutorials seem  
506necessary to assist the applied researchers with the assessment of the type and amount of

507 measurement error as well as the steps that can subsequently be taken to minimize its impact  
508 on the studied relations. Given the unpredictable nature of the impact of measurement error on  
509 the studied results, we advise authors to report on the potential presence of measurement error  
510 in recorded variables but exercise restraint when speculating about the magnitude and  
511 direction of its impact unless the appropriate analysis steps are taken to substantiate such  
512 claims. Also, we recommend authors to make more use of available correction methods and  
513 probabilistic sensitivity analyses to correct analyses for variables that were measured with  
514 error. Given the increasing use of data not originally intended for medical or epidemiological  
515 research, we anticipate that the use and understanding of measurement error analyses and  
516 corrections will become increasingly important in the near future.

## 517FUNDING

518This work was supported by the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO-Vidi  
519project 917.16.430 granted to R.H.H. Groenwold).

## 520CONFLICT OF INTEREST

521Conflicts of interest: none

522

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652  
653

654APPENDIX A

655

656PubMed Search String

657“(("N Engl J Med"[Journal] OR "Lancet"[Journal] OR "JAMA"[Journal] OR "BMJ"[Journal]  
658OR "Ann Intern Med"[Journal] OR "JAMA Intern Med"[Journal] OR "Int J  
659Epidemiol"[Journal] OR "Eur J Epidemiol"[Journal] OR "Epidemiology"[Journal] OR "Am J  
660Epidemiol"[Journal] OR "J Clin Epidemiol"[Journal] OR "J Epidemiol Community  
661Health"[Journal]) AND ("2016/01/01"[PDAT] : "2016/12/31"[PDAT]) NOT  
662(Addresses[ptyp] OR Autobiography[ptyp] OR Bibliography[ptyp] OR Biography[ptyp] OR  
663Clinical Conference[ptyp] OR Comment[sb] OR Congresses[ptyp] OR Consensus  
664Development Conference[ptyp] OR Consensus Development Conference, NIH[ptyp] OR  
665Dictionary[ptyp] OR Directory[ptyp] OR Editorial[ptyp] OR Festschrift[ptyp] OR Interactive  
666Tutorial[ptyp] OR Introductory Journal Article[ptyp] OR Lectures[ptyp] OR Legal  
667Cases[ptyp] OR Legislation[ptyp] OR Meta-Analysis[ptyp] OR News[ptyp] OR Newspaper  
668Article[ptyp] OR Patient Education Handout[ptyp] OR Personal Narratives[ptyp] OR  
669Portraits[ptyp] OR Research Support, American Recovery and Reinvestment Act[ptyp] OR  
670Research Support, N I H, Extramural[ptyp] OR Research Support, N I H, Intramural[ptyp]  
671OR Research Support, Non U S Gov't[ptyp] OR Research Support, U S Gov't, Non P H  
672S[ptyp] OR Research Support, U S Gov't, P H S[ptyp] OR Research Support, U.S.  
673Government[ptyp] OR Retracted Publication[sb] OR Retraction of Publication[sb] OR  
674Review[ptyp] OR Scientific Integrity Review[ptyp] OR systematic[sb] OR Video-Audio  
675Media[ptyp] OR Webcasts[ptyp] OR "published erratum"[Publication Type] OR "case  
676reports"[Publication Type] OR "historical article"[Publication Type] OR "letter"[Publication  
677Type])) AND hasabstract[text]”

678

679APPENDIX B

680

681Adobe Reader XI Pro Full-Text Search String (With Options “Boolean” and “Stemming”

682Enabled)

683

684“measurement error OR error measure OR measured with error OR error in measure OR

685mismeasure OR insensitive measurement OR unspecific measurement OR information bias

686OR misclassify OR misclassification OR classification error OR attenuate OR residual

687confounding OR miscode OR coding mistake OR deattenuate OR error in assessment OR bias

688measurement OR errant measure OR measure errantly OR measure erroneous OR erroneous

689measure OR self-report OR self-reported”

690

691

## 692 APPENDIX C

### 693 Data Extraction Form Used for 247 Publications That Reported on Measurement Error

#### 694 Basic information

- 695 1. Accession # [open text field]
- 696 2. Journal [drop down menu with all relevant journals]
- 697 3. First Author Last name [open text field]
- 698 4. (E)pub date [date field DD-MM-YY]
- 699 5. Extractor [drop down menu with author initials]
- 700 6. Date of extraction [date field DD-MM-YY]

#### 701 General Measurement Error Information

- 702 7. Are measurement error or related terms identified in the article? [y/n]
- 703 8. Is at least 1 hit **relevant** to measurement error? [y/n]
- 704 9. To which variables do the **relevant** measurement error statements pertain? [multiple
- 705 answers: exposure(s), confounder(s), outcome(s), unclear]
- 706 10. In which sections of the article are **relevant** measurement error statements made?
- 707 [multiple answers: introduction, methods, results, conclusion/discussion]
- 708 b. other (specify) [open text field]
- 709 11. Any attempt to correct for measurement error in this study? [y/n]
- 710 12. Doubt if the **relevant** measurement error is in the exposure or confounder? [y/n]
- 711 13. Is measurement error discussed with respect to previous research? [y/n]
- 712 14. Are measurement error statements made with respect to the prevention of
- 713 measurement error in the current study? [y/n]

#### 714 Studied Exposures

- 715 12. Was/were the exposure(s) randomized (i.e. is the study a randomized trial) [y/n]
- 716 13. Is the study a prediction study? [y/n]
- 717 **(IF YES, CONSIDER Q17 - Q22 AS PERTAINING TO THE PREDICTORS)**
- 718 14. Type of exposure(s) [multiple answers: lifestyle/dietary, biological processes, medical/  
719 drug intervention, demographic factors, infrastructure]
- 720 a. other(specify) [open text field]
- 721 15. Were any of the measurement error statements pertaining to the exposure(s)?  
722 [dropdown: Yes, No, Unclear, Not Applicable] **(IF NO, Q19 – Q22 are to be filled in**  
723 **with NA)**
- 724 16. In which section of the article was it discussed [multiple answers: introduction,  
725 methods, results, conclusion/discussion, Not applicable]
- 726 a. Other [open text field]
- 727 17. Was there ME in the exposure? Direction of the anticipated effect of ME on studied  
728 relations? [dropdown: Yes, underestimation of true effect; Yes, overestimation of true  
729 effect; Yes, no/negligible effect; Yes, Unclear/Not mentioned; No; Not Applicable]
- 730 18. Was any statement made about the type of ME? [multiple answers: Differentiability ,  
731 Error model, Not mentioned, Not Applicable]
- 732 a. Other [open text field]
- 733 19. Was any attempt made to correct for the ME? [dropdown: Yes, No, Unclear, Not  
734 Applicable]
- 735 20. Notes/Citations of exposure ME and its effect [open text field]

736

737 **Studied Confounders/ Predictors**

- 738 21. Type of confounder(s) [multiple answers: lifestyle/dietary, biological processes,  
739 medical/drug intervention, demographic factors, infrastructure]

- 740 a. Other [open text field]
- 741 22. Was measurement error of confounder(s) mentioned? [dropdown: Yes, No, Unclear,  
742 Not Applicable (*If no confounders in the study*)] **IF NO, Q26 – Q29 ARE NA**
- 743 23. In which section of the article was it discussed [multiple answers: introduction,  
744 methods, results, conclusion/discussion, Not applicable]
- 745 a. Other [open text field]
- 746 24. Was there ME in the confounder(s)? Direction of the anticipated effect of ME on  
747 studied relations? [dropdown: Yes, underestimation of true effect; Yes, overestimation  
748 of true effect; Yes, no/negligible effect; Yes, Unclear/Not mentioned; No; Not  
749 Applicable]
- 750 25. Was any statement made about the type of ME? [multiple answers: Differentiability ,  
751 Error model, Not mentioned, Not Applicable]
- 752 a. Other [open text field]
- 753 26. Was any attempt made to correct for the ME? [dropdown: Yes, No, Unclear, Not  
754 Applicable]
- 755 27. Notes/Citations of confounder ME and its effect [open text field]

## 756 Studied Outcome

- 757 28. Type of outcome(s) [multiple answers: mortality, CVD, cancer, infections,  
758 hospitalization]
- 759 a. Other [open text field]
- 760 29. Notes on type of outcome [open text field]

## 761 Next Steps

- 762 30. Include article for full extraction [dropdown menu: Yes, No, Maybe, Fully disregard  
763 (false positive)]

764 31. Any other general comments [open text field]

765 Revise form together? [y/n]

766