## PUTTING NHS RESEARCH ON THE MAP

An analysis of scientific publications in England, 1990-97


NHS
Executive

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## Foreword

The N H S Research and Development (R\&D) Programme was established in direct response to a H ouse of Lords Select C ommittee on Science and Technology report in 1988. It was felt that the NHS as 'customer' for research should not only 'articulate its needs' but also 'assist in meeting'. Since that time funding mechanisms have and continue to change and develop while the core aims of the over $£ 400$ million R\&D budget spent each year by the NHS remain.

Research funders need to be able to review the output and impact resulting from their support in order to plan future strategies at the macro level and make decisions at the micro level. A number of studies and evaluations to inform policy development have been funded by the NH S R\&D Directorate.

This study was commissioned by the London NHS region on behalf of the NHS R\&D Directorate of England and co-funded by the Wellcome Trust in order to benchmark N H S research outputs. The aims were to act as an information source for policy makers to support decision making and funding allocations, to demonstrate the usefulness of bibliometric indicators in R\&D evaluation, and to develop a standard set of indicators for future evaluations of research outputs.

Further development of the NHS R\&D funding system means this work takes on a new relevance. Better understanding of measures of research outputs - of which publications will form one part - will be important as research programmes are assessed through reports of activity, productivity and output against milestones.

NHS Priorities \& Needs (R\&D) Funding will strongly favour ministerial priority areas and work designed to maximize its impact on NH S decision making. Bibliometric indicators may provide one strand of evidence to help in assessing which research active NHS organizations can be considered the leaders in a particular field.

Similarly, for the Wellcome Trust, this research is timely. Last year the Trust published its first Corporate Plan which highlighted clinical, patient-oriented research as an area
where the Trust would enhance funding. This report will provide a useful insight into how the Trust's funds have been used to undertake research within the NHS and guide our planning processes for the future.

Improved understanding of the impact of research outputs is consistent with the push towards improving NHS knowledge management and the desire of funding bodies to show payback for their research spend. Bibliometrics takes account of the relative impact of articles emanating from different specialties according to where they are published instead of being just a crude measure of the number of publications. Bibliometric analysis repeated over time might provide a means of assessing the impact of organizational change or variations in funding.

The methodology presented, this report and the Research 0 utputs D atabase (ROD ) itself are an essential part of the evaluation evidence base for research funding in the health sector in the future.

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## Executive summary

The United Kingdom invests nearly $£ 3.5$ billion in medical research from public and private sources per year. Bibliometric indicators are one of a number of techniques that can be used to assess the impact of research. This project aims to 'map' research outputs for the National Health Service (NHS) in England, in order to:

- provide an information source for policy makers;
- demonstrate the usefulness of bibliometric indicators in research and development (R\&D) evaluation;
- develop a standard set of indicators for future evaluations of research outputs;
- support decision making in funding allocations.

A dataset of NHS research outputs (i.e. research publications) was defined using peer-reviewed literature in England for the years 1990-97, collated from the W ellcome Trust's Research 0 utputs D atabase (ROD). Funding acknow ledgements, an address filter and a comprehensive list of NHS postcodes and addresses were combined to create an NHS dataset. The research papers were also classified by a number of other criteria: by 24 biomedical subfields; by the nature of the research into four levels from 'basic' to 'clinical observation'; and by impact.

The NHS in England supports over 13500 research publications a year. Between the years 1990-97 the average annual growth of NHS research outputs was $2.96 \%$, compared to $3.87 \%$ for England as a whole.The W ellcome Trust, whilst supporting just under 8000 papers in the NHS between 1990-97, has a far greater average annual growth ( $9.67 \%$ ). The London region of the NHS accounts for half of all research outputs. The next largest region in terms of output is the South East (14\%), followed by the N orth W est (13\%), Trent (12\%), N orthern and Yorkshire (9\%), W est Midlands (8\%), South W est (7\%) and Eastern (6\%).

Investigation of the collaborative nature of the N HS research revealed that:

- there was an increased tendency for researchers and institutions to collaborate and, on average, NHS papers have more authors and more addresses than other papers in England;
- around $6 \%$ of NHS papers include a USA address;
- the level of international collaboration on NHS papers is less than it is for England;
- the London NHS region is co-authoring more interregional research with the other NHS regions;
- W ellcome Trust papers have a greater number of authors and addresses than either the NHS or England as a whole.

Examination of funding support showed that:

- for $47 \%$ of NHS papers, funding was 'unacknowledged' - a considerably greater proportion than that of papers for England as a whole (37\%);
- multiple funding was associated with high-impact journals;
- between 1990 and 1997, the UK Government contributed to $29 \%$ of all NHS biomedical research papers; the private non-profit-sector contributed to $32 \%$ (the W ellcome Trust 7\%); and the industrial sector $13 \%$. The combined public sector contributed to $76 \%$ of all outputs. These proportions add up to more than $100 \%$ because it is possible for more than one sector to fund each paper;
- during the study period Government funding, as a proportion of all funding, declined, whilst the private non-profit sector and industry increased their relative share of research outputs;
- explicitly acknowledged support from the Government sector, private non-profit sector and industry is lower in the N HS than for England.

The exploration of the balance between basic and clinical research, unsurprisingly, showed that the NHS produces proportionately more clinical observation papers than England as a whole. Interestingly, over the eight-year period of the study, basic research in the N HS has increased in terms of output by over $5 \%$ a year, although there was a decline in 1996 and 1997. This seems in part due to increased funding by the W ellcome Trust whose basic research funding increased year on year by $13 \%$. In contrast, NHS clinical research outputs were relatively stable over this period, growing at a rate less than that for all N HS publications.

Finally, the report assesses whether bibliometrics are an appropriate tool to evaluate clinical research and identify the major policy issues arising from the study.

# The United Kingdom invests nearly $£ 3.5$ billion² in medical research 

 from public and private sources per year ${ }^{12}$. In some cases, this is spent on improving our understanding of biology. Elsewhere, it is used to test the effectiveness of new drugs, devices or techniques on patient populations. In between this spectrum of 'basic' and 'applied' research is a breadth of activity that is ultimately united by its aim in improving health.What sort of return do we get from this investment? A recent report from the USA, Exceptional Returns (see Box A), estimated that the total economic value of reduced cardiovascular mortality averaged $\$ 1.5$ trillion annually between 1970 and 1990. The report surmises that if just one third of this was because of medical research, then the return on the investment would be about $\$ 500$ billion a year - a figure 20 times greater than the average annual spend on medical research in the $U S A^{3}$. This is an astonishing return on investment, albeit based on a number of potentially heroic assumptions. However, this type of aggregate statistic does not help inform the day-to-day decisions faced by research funders, whether Government, industry or the medical research charities. Not independent from the need for more specific management information, funding organizations - especially those financed by the taxpayer - are being asked to show value for their research expenditure. Therefore, the ability to measure accurately the outputs and outcomes of research, and to attribute this to a funding source, is becoming ever more important.

Such data enable funders to demonstrate accountability and good research governance to stakeholders; have the potential to enhance public perception and understanding of biomedical science and the scientific process; and help to develop more effective R\& D strategies to increase the likelihood of 'successful' research outcomes ${ }^{4,5}$.

## The use and abuse of bibliometrics

Traditionally, the output of scientific research has focused on contributions to knowledge, as measured by the number and impact of scientific papers in the peer-reviewed literature. For example, the US National Science Board makes an annual assessment of national performance by publishing counts of scientific papers and patents in its $N$ ational Indicators series ${ }^{6}$. Likewise, in the UK, the Research Assessment Exercise evaluation of university departments includes the submission of scientific papers as part of assessment proce dures'. These types of bibliometric analyses have attracted their critics ${ }^{8}$, not least because they have been used in isolation of other methodologies and failed to use multiple indicators in the assessment of research ${ }^{9}$.

## BoxA - Economic returns from research

The primary reason why most organizations fund biomedical research is to improve human health. However, since research programmes involve the expenditure of considerable quantities of public (and private) funds, those advocating increases or maintenance in funding for research often seek to quantify the benefits of such research in economic terms.

Recently, the US-based Mary W oodward Lasker Charitable Trust commissioned research from nine leading economists which allowed the economic value of extended life to be compared with national Gross Domestic Product.The conclusion was that the likely returns from future medical research are extremely high and that increases in life expectancy between 1970 and 1990 were worth $\$ 57$ trillion to Americans.

W hile it is very difficult, and offensive to some, to attempt to put a dollar value on human life, this is precisely what this report attempts to do.The value of lives saved by medical research was calculated in two steps:

1. Estimating the monetary value of better health and longer life.

A value of approximately $\$ 5$ million per life was inferred from studies asking people how much they would need to be compensated for incurring some known risk to their lives.

- It was recognized that the economic value of saving a life will be different for people at
different ages (e.g. less for a person of 90 than one of 30 years of age) and the economic value for life used in this study reflected this.
- In the absence of a plausible measure for improvements in health and wellbeing it was considered that the benefits calculated solely on the basis of longevity will be conservative.

2. Deciding how much of the life gain experienced over the period 1970-1990 is due to medical research.

- Some of the gains in life over this period were a result of new drugs and treatment proto cols - a result of medical research.
- Other gains in life can be attributed to changes in public policy and lifestyle, some of which can be attributed to information derived from medical research.

Of course the benefits of people living longer must be weighed against the increased costs of pensions as people live for many years past the current retirement age ${ }^{16}$. However, it is possible that as the age structure in developed countries changes and the ratio of young people in the workforce decreases, many people may be encouraged to remain working beyond the age of 65 .

The idea that a clinician would make a decision which is based on a single piece of observational data would be universally rejected in this era of 'evidence-based medicine'. Yet, medical audit - which is based on observational data - is an accepted tool for identifying best practice, benchmarking, and improving clinical standards. The analogy between medical audit and bibliometric analysis is strong - in both cases such information is useful, but it should never be used in isolation from other independent sources of evidence. Fundamentally, both sets of information should be used to generate hypotheses, rather than to provide conclusive evidence on a particular policy or intervention. In other words, bibliometric indicators provide one element of a research eval-
uator's toolkit and there are a number of other techniques that could and should be used in assessing the impact of research ${ }^{10}$ (see Box B, p. 10). Indeed, in evaluating research, the most important decision is to choose the appropriate methodology for the research objectives of a particular programme or funder.
$O$ ver the past decade an increasing body of literature has been published looking at methodologies for measuring the 'payback' on research ${ }^{11,12,13}$. The seminal thesis of this work is the identification of a number of multidimensional 'payback categories' as listed in Figure 1.1 (p. 12). The relative importance of each category will depend upon the (often not stated) objectives of the research. For example, one of the purposes of the NHS R\&D Strategy is to 'provide new

## Box B - An evaluator's toolkit

As a result of a set of budget reform measures in the USA, intended to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of Government, there was a need for all US Government-funded agencies to develop outcome measures. In early 1998 a series of workshops were
held to generate ideas on how to develop performance assessments for organizations funding research ${ }^{10}$. These workshops identified six methods of evaluating research - the pros and cons of each are summarized below.

| Method | Pro | Con |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bibliometric analysis | - Q uantitative - measures volume of output <br> - U seful to see global trends <br> - O bjective, repeatable analysis possible | - Estimates of quality may not be reliable <br> - Difficult to compare across fields <br> - Careful interpretation needed <br> - May be skewed by the biases in the available data |
| Economic rate of return | Q uantitative - estimates the economic benefits of research | - Focuses on financial benefits rather than social or health/quality <br> - Requires many assumptions which may be controversial/unreliable |
| Peer review | - W ell understood and accepted <br> - Provides qualitative informed evaluation | - Time consuming for experts <br> - Concerns regarding objectivity and variability of results <br> - Focuses mainly on quality to the exclusion of relevance etc. |
| Case studies | - Provides in-depth understanding <br> - Informs reform of systems <br> - Illustrates all types of benefits of research | - N ot necessarily comparable <br> - Single study may not be representative |
| Retrospective analysis | Useful to identify linkages between funding programmmes and innovations over time | - N ot useful for short-term evaluation as time lag between research and outcomes may be many years |
| Benchmarking | Useful tool for comparison across programmes and countries | - Focuses on fields not research programmes |

O ther observations made at these workshops include:

- it is important to choose carefully what will be measured and how, since the method chosen will usually change the behaviour of the people being measured;
- measuring performance is often more difficult for basic research compared to applied research due to time lags and the range of external contributing factors;
- the practical outcomes of research cannot be captured by quantitative methods alone.

See: www.nap.edu/catalog/6416.html
knowledge ${ }^{14}$ (see Box C). Likewise, in its recently published Corporate Plan, a key objective of the W ellcomeTrust is 'advancing the dis semination of results of Trust-funded research' (see Box D, p. 13). In other words, publications are not in themsel ves the end point, but a basis for providing improved healthcare. This is best illustrated with reference to the 'payback model' shown in Figures 1.1 and 1.2 (p. 12). The creation of knowledge payback, category a),
(Figure 1.1) is a Stage III - primary output (Figure 1.2), that is dependent on a research question or needs assessment (Stage 0), review by peers (Interface a), funding (Stage I), and the actual research (Stage II). H owever, this new knowledge will only improve healthcare if it continues to progress in the linear model ${ }^{b}$ to the final, Stage VI, of the payback model. That is, the new knowledge has to be disseminated (Interface b) and picked up in secondary

## Box C - The NHS R\&D Strategy

The establishment of the NHS R\&D Strategy17 in 1991 aimed to provide the basis to ensure that the clinical, policy and managerial decisions within the NHS were based on evidence. A major outcome of this early work was the establishment of the Research and Development Taskforce, chaired by Anthony Culyer, and the subsequent Culyer Report ${ }^{18}$ of 1994, which laid the foundation and principles for NHS R\&D funding to be built.

The Culyer Report defined NHS R\&D as that designed to provide new knowledge needed to improve the performance of the NHS in improving the health of the nation, but which was also generalizable and of value across the service.

A single stream of funding was created for NHS $R \& D$ raised by a levy on health authorities; this brought together existing central and regional budgets ${ }^{14}$. The NHS Executive (NHSE) takes advice on how to invest these funds from the Central Research and Development Committee (CRDC).The levy provides two budgets for research costs:

- Budget 1.This budget is effectively split into two strands. The first covers infrastructure and other indirect costs of research funded by non-commecial external organizations, such as charities. The second, often referred to as own account research, funds work that the NHS initiates and pays in full.
- Budget 2.This is used by the NHSE/Department of Health directly for R\&D to address health and health service needs identified by Ministers and the NHS that the research councils and charities do not meet.
multidisciplinary expert advisory groups. Broad areas have been selected for review on the basis of disease burden, policy relevance, timeliness and the likely benefits of research. This has led to the establishment of a number of time-limited $N$ ational R\&D Programmes (see box below), which commissioned research alongside the long standing Health Technology Assessment (HTA) programme and the various regional initiatives.

More recently a tri-partite framework has been created with the HTA Programme being joined by two further permanent national programmes Service Development and Organization and New and Emerging Applications of Technology.

Through the levy, N HS providers are also able to bid for funds to support R\&D.This has come in two forms: Portfolio Funding and Task-Linked Funding. Both these types of funding enable NHS providers to undertake own account research, particularly the former where the providers have considerable discretion to use the funds as they think best.

In addition to the NHS R\&D funding through the levy, the Department of Health also funds a range of R\&D activity across a number of policy areas, primarily through the Policy Research Programme (PRP), but also through the budgets of Non-Departmental Public Bodies. The PRP funds a number of research centres (e.g. Centre for Health Economics), units (Social Policy Research Unit) and programmes, strategic initiatives and projects (e.g. Environmental Health).

Earlier this year, the NHS announced ${ }^{19}$ some changes to the way $R \& D$ is managed in the service and these are described in Box G in Chapter 4.

A number of priority setting exercises have been undertaken by the CRDC, through the establishment of

| - Mental health | • Mother and child health |
| :--- | :--- |
| - Cardiovascular disease and stroke | • Primary dental care |
| - Physical and complex disabilities | •Asthma management |
| - Primary and secondary care interface | • Methods of implementing research findings |
| - Cancer | • Forensic mental health |

bThe authors of the payback model acknowledge that the linear process is an over-simplification and in their work they have developed more complex models with feedback loops etc. For the purposes of the current study, and for modelling payback in general, we would argue that a linear model is an adequate representation of the scientific process.

Figure 1.1: Categories of payback
a) Knowledge
b) Benefits to future research and research use:
i. the better targeting of future research;
ii the development of research skills, personnel and overall research capacity;
iii. a critical capability to appropriately utilize existing research, including that from overseas;
iv. staff development/educational benefits.
c) Political and administrative benefits:
i. improved information bases on which to take political and executive decisions;
ii. other political benefits from undertaking research.
d) Health sector benefits:
i. cost reduction in the delivery of existing services;
ii. qualitative improvements in the process of service delivery;
iii. increased effectiveness of services e.g. increased health;
iv. equity, e.g. improved allocation of resources at an area level, better targeting and accessibility;
v. revenues gained from intellectual property rights.
e) Broader economic benefits:
i. wider economic benefits from commercial exploitation of innovations arising from R\&D;
ii. economic benefits from a healthy workforce and reduction in working days lost.

Source: Buxton et al. (1999), Assessing the benefits from North Thames Research and Development.
HERG Research Report No.25. HERG, Brunel University, Middlesex.

Figure 1.2: Outline input-output model for assessing the payback

|  | Stage 0 - Research needs assessment |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | Interface (a) <br> project specification, selection and commissioning |
| Research sequence | Stage I - Inputs <br> Stage II - Process <br> Stage III - Primary outputs |
| Research sequence | Interface (b) Dissemination |
| $\gamma$ | Stage IV - Secondary outputs <br> Stage V-Applications <br> Stage VI - Impact or final outcomes |

Source: Buxton et al. (1999), Assessing the benefits from North Thames Research and Development.
HERG Research Report No.24. HERG, Brunel University, Middlesex.
outputs (Stage IV), such as clinical guidelines, and then applied to every day practice (Stage V). Therefore, in the language of the 'payback' model, publications (peer reviewed or otherwise) are only a primary output; they are a long way removed from achieving biomedical research's unifying mission of improving health and only a part of the knowledge spectrum. The challenge is to develop methodologies that fit the research objectives or payback categories listed in Figure 1.2. In the concluding part of this report we explore this issue further. It is raised now to highlight to the reader the need to use the
data presented in this report in context. That is, it measures one objective - knowledge creation using one methodology - bibliometrics.

## Mapping the N HS landscape

The purpose of this research project was to 'map' research outputs for a single performer of research - the $N$ ational $H$ ealth Servicein England - and then to describe the topography of that landscape. The work builds on a previous report $M$ apping the Landscape ${ }^{15}$ - that benchmarked all research outputs in the UK. As with that report,

## Box D - The W ellcome Trust's C orporate Plan

The Wellcome Trust is an independent researchfunding charity, established under the will of Sir Henry Wellcome in 1936. It is funded from a private endowment, which is managed with long-term stability and growth in mind.

Its mission is to foster and promote research with the aim of improving human and animal health. Its work covers four areas:

| Knowledge base: | improving our understanding of human and animal biology in health and disease, and of <br> the past and present role of medicine in society. <br> - Supporting basic, applied and strategically important research in biomedical science <br> - Researching the societal impact of biomedical science - past, present and future |
| :--- | :--- |
| Resources: | providing exceptional researchers with the infrastructural and career support they need <br> to fulfil their potential. <br> - Human resources: meeting training and career deveopment needs of researchers <br> - Physical resources: building suitable conditions for research |
| Translation: | ensuring maximum health benefits are gained from biomedical research. <br> - Promoting patient-oriented research and health services research <br> - Advancing the dissemination and exploration of the results ofTrust-funded research |
| Public engagement: | raising awareness of the medical, ethical and social implications of biomedical science. <br> - Stimulating an informed dialogue to raise awareness and understanding of biomedical science, <br> its achievments, applications and implications |

the data presented describe patterns of research papers published in the peer-reviewed serial literature.

The rescarch described in this report was supported by the Research and Development Directorate of the London Regional Office of the National Health Sevvice Executive and the Wellcome Trust. The objectives of the project were:

1. to provide an information source for policy makers;
2. to demonstrate the usefulness of biliometric indicators in $R \& D$ evaluation;
3. to develop a standard set of indicators for future evaluations of research outputs; and
4. to support decision making in funding allocations
By publishing this report we hope to fulfil objectives 1,2 and 3 . All those involved in the project see it as an interactive and iterative process and as such we hope the data presented will stimulate further discussion and research questions.

We have used a classical structure to this report. Chapter 2 describes the bibliometric methodolo-
gies we developed and utilized. It explains how we have created an NHS research outputs datasst and then describes how it can be 'mined' using a number of standard tools. Chapter 3 - the results section - is limited to single and bi-variate analysis of NHS research. Six types of analysis are presented - the number of papers published per year, by region etc.; the level of collaboration between researchers, funders, regions and countries; an analysis of the funding of supporting research in the NHS ; a description of the type of research (i.e whether basic or clinical) in the NH ; analysis by 24 different 'subfieds', or clinical specialities; and estimates of the impact of that research. The fourth chapter brings together these findings, by identifying the policy questions raised from the analysis and developing some initial thoughts for further investigation. Given the large volume of data, wehavemadean effort to focus our analyses (for example we only look at two of the 24 subfields) but we have provided extensive tabulations in the Appendix.

In order to achieve the goals set out in the original project specification, a dataset of NHS research outputs was defined using peer-reviewed literature in England for the years 1990-97. This information was collated from the Research 0 utputs Database (ROD), which contains all biomedical research papers from the United Kingdom covering the timescale of the study. Funding acknowledgements, an address filter and a comprehensive list of N HS postcodes and addresses were combined to create an N HS dataset.

## The development of RO D

In the early 1990s, the Wellcome Trust wanted to determine what had been achieved with its support and to investigate the effectiveness of different funding mechanisms. To do this, it needed details of papers published as a result of its support. H owever, the acquisition of the relevant data presented a problem as attempts to obtain lists directly from grantholders proved unreliable and incomplete.

An alternative approach was tried in which a large sample of papers was examined in libraries and their acknowledgements reviewed in order to identify papers supported by the Trust. As a result of a pilot study, a decision was made to design a full-scale ROD that would capture all UK biomedical papers in the peer-reviewed serial literature. Primarily this was intended to assist the Trust in its research management role. Since it also included data of value to other funding bodies it was envisaged that it would be made available to a 'club' of interested organizations, one of which was the N H Sc. The scope of the database was designed to include all the scientific areas of interest to the Trust, including clinical and veterinary medicine, basic cell biology and genetics, and some of the social sciences such as psychology and nursing.

The methodology whereby UK biomedical papers are identified and downloaded from the

Science Citation Index (SCI) and Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) is described in detail in the Annex. Briefly, all papers (articles, notes and reviews) with at least one UK address in the biomedical and relevant social science journals that are indexed on the SCI and SSCI are included, as are those with a biomedical keyword in other journals.

Data derived from ROD were published in 1998 in a report benchmarking UK biomedical outputs, Mapping the Landscape: National Biomedical Research 0 utputs, 1988-1995 ${ }^{15}$. It is the intention to use this report as a model for the current study, focusing on all research outputs from NH S institutions in England.

The development of the NHS research outputs dataset

There are several well-defined bibliometric techniques ${ }^{20,21,22,23}$ that can be used to describe research outputs. M apping the Landscape developed some of these techniques, which have been utilized to create an NHS research outputs dataset. Initial steering committee meetings proposed that the dataset should cover the period from 1990 until 1997, with regular updates for new publications to be added at a later date. It was also decided to look only at research carried out by the N H S in England. Therefore, for the purpose of comparison, research outputs in England as a whole were used instead of the UK.

[^0]Two major issues needed to be addressed in using ROD as the primary source of data to define NHS research outputs. First was the vexed question of defining N H S outputs given the complexity of extricating the health services systems from the university system. Second, it had been shown that coverage of health service research journals in UK bibliometric databases is inadequate.

## D efining N HS research outputs

In order to create a dataset of NHS research outputs, a way had to be found of defining N H S publications contained in ROD. This was done in three ways. First, an address filter was applied directly to ROD. The address field was searched for the letter strings H O SP, IN FIRM and NHS. Second, ROD was cross-referenced, using postcodes, with a database adapted from the NHS Organization Codes Service (OCS) dataset (see Box E for a description of the OCS data). Finally, any paper which received explicit funding acknowledgements from the N HS was also added to the dataset. Twenty-four NHS codes were used, representing funding by the Department of Health, the NHS Executive
(NHSE) and regional offices of the NHSE (formerly Regional H ealth Authorities ${ }^{\mathrm{d}}$ ), shown in Table 2.1 (p. 16). These methods provided three sets of overlapping data: papers with an NHS address; papers with an NHS postcode; and papers with an explicit NHS-funding acknowledgement.

The address filter relies on address words that denote a clinical setting, common to the large majority of NHS sites (hospitals, infirmaries, etc.). This filter also acts as an auxiliary to the postcode filter, as the OCS database may not include details of all postcodes within a large hospital trust site. The address filter allows us to pick up NHS sites with secondary or departmental postcodes that are not covered by the OCS. Similarly, the OCS postcodes not only validate records collected by the address filter but they also identify NHS sites regardless of the existence of address keywords. This provides a greater level of recall for records that do not conform to typical address structures either because of their name, links to a parent organization, or editorial formatting in journals. The funding filter takes into account the fact

## Box E - O rganization Codes Service ${ }^{38}$

The $O$ rganization Codes Service (OCS) is managed by the Codes Development and Allocation Section of the Department of Health and provides nationally agreed reference data on all organizations in the N HS, and some non-N HS organizations that supply services to the NHS.

The service maintains a dataset of all N HS organizations and allocates a unique code to each. This is used for a number of functions including:

- Reporting - information produced by individual organizations can be uniquely identified and data on resources and finances may be aggregated in useful ways such as by N HS region;
- Patient administration - by allowing identification and verification of the patient's referral source, registered GP and health authority of residence;
- Commissioning and managing service agreements - by identifying both the service provider and commissioner.

The information produced by the OCS includes:

- Authoritative national lists for all NHS organiztions;
- A change history for each of these organizations to allow changes in name, location or mergers to be traced over time;
- Details of geographic areas covered by these organizations, including postcodes.

Using this information, a comprehensive list of postcodes for NHS organizations in England was created and used as one of the means of identifying NHS papers.This data also allowed each paper to be linked to the corresponding N HS region of England.

Table 2.1: NHS funding bodies

| Code | Regional Health Authorities or NHSE regional offices |
| :---: | :---: |
| OXR | 0 xford Region |
| EAR | East Anglia Region |
| XAO | Anglia \& 0 xford NHS Executive |
| N W T | N orth W est Thames Regional Health Authority |
| N ET | N orth East Thames Regional Health Authority |
| XNT | N orth Thames N HS Executive |
| MYR | Mersey Regional Health Authority |
| NW R | N orth W estern Regional Health Authority |
| XNW | N orth W est N HS Executive |
| NOR | N orthern Regional Health A uthority |
| YKR | Yorkshire Regional Health Authority |
| XNY | N orthern \& Yorkshire N HS Executive |
| SW R | South W estern Regional Health A uthority |
| W XR | W essex Regional Health Authority |
| XSW | South and W est N HS Executive |
| SET | South East Thames Regional Health Authority |
| SW T | South W est Thames Regional Health Authority |
| XST | South Thames N HS Executive |
| TRR | Trent Regional Health Authority |
| XTR | Trent N HS Executive |
| W MR | W est Midlands Regional Health Authority |
| XWM | W est Midlands N HS Executive |
| XNH | N HSE generic code |
| DOH | DOH generic code |

Fig 2.1: Schematic representation illustrating the construction of the NHS dataset

practice the health service system is embedded in the university system, and vice versa. Specifically, during steering committee sessions, fears were raised that papers from academic sites would not be captured and their output under-represented within the NHS. This arises from the perception that clinicians in academic institutions may use their university addresses on papers. Other than stressing editorial accuracy and consistency in the way NHS research is attributed there is little that can be

[^1]Table 2.2: Postcode coverage of three groups of NHS sites

| Trust type | No. of <br> postcodes | No. in <br> RO D | No. in N HS <br> dataset | D ataset coverage <br> of postcodes |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| University Hospital Trust A | 21 | 20 | 20 | $95 \%$ |
| University Hospital Trust B | 27 | 20 | 20 | $74 \%$ |
| Community Health Services Trust | 56 | 16 | 16 | $29 \%$ |

Table 2.3: List of additional HSR journals included in ROD

| Journal title | Added to ROD | Number of papers ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Audit Trends | $\bullet$ | 122 |
| British Journal of Health Care M anagement | $\bullet$ | 319 |
| Health Director | $\bigcirc$ | $N$ ot peer reviewed |
| Health Services Journal | $\bigcirc$ | $N$ ot peer reviewed |
| Health Services M anagement Research | $\bullet$ | 59 |
| Journal of Evaluation in Clinical Practice | - | 56 |
| Journal of Health Services Research and Policy | - | 44 |
| Journal of $M$ anagement in M edicine | - | 38 |
| Journal of M ental Health Policy and Economics | $\bigcirc$ | Began in 1998 |
| N urse Researcher | - | 81 |
| Nursing Standard | $\bullet$ | 973 |
| Quality Connection | $\bigcirc$ | $N$ ot peer reviewed |
| Quality of Life in Childhood Asthma | $\bigcirc$ | N ot found |
| a that is articles, notes or review with a UK address. $\begin{aligned} & \bullet=\mathrm{Yes} \\ & \mathrm{O}=\mathrm{No} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |

done to assure complete recall without compromising the precision of records within the dataset. To this end several sensitivity analyses were undertaken to see just what was being captured or missed by the filters used to create the dataset. This analysis concluded that, in London the vast majority (i.e. 20 out of 24 $83 \%$ ) of 'medical academic sites' of the University of London (i.e. not directly funded by the NHS) were included in the NHS research outputs dataset.

A further analysis assessed the recall and precision of the techniques used to define N H S research outputs. The postcodes from two acute
hospital trusts and one community health services trust (all designated University H ospitals but where the latter contained a number of small clinics) were compared with ROD and the NHS datasets. The three groups of postcodes and their coverage on the datasets are detailed in Table 2.2. Whilst there was very good coverage of postcodes for the University Hospital Trusts, for the Community Health Services Trust there was much lower coverage by ROD. This raises the question of whether these sites are research-active in the sense that they produce research papers in peer-reviewed journals (and would therefore be included in the
$\mathrm{SCI} / \mathrm{SSCI}$ and ROD) or whether there is a tendency systematically to under-represent community-based research.

D efining health services research
In a recent paper ${ }^{24}$ Black and D avies pointed out that UK bibliographic databases, including ROD, underestimated the output of health services researchers. This is in part due to the lack of coverage of health services research (HSR) journals in ROD and other databases. Black and D avies argue that, although the 'poor cousin' of basic and clinical research, HSR is becoming a rival in terms of funding, scientific quality and political importance. Any database that concentrates on clinical and basic research journals is therefore missing out on a third 'vital requirement' of healthcare research. H owever, the wide range of journals in which HSR is published makes it difficult to monitor both the quantity and quality of HSR research.

In response to this analysis, an attempt was made to increase ROD's coverage of HSR journals $5^{25}$. O ut of 264 H SR journals identified by respondents to Black and Davies' request for lists of original research articles, only 138 were in ROD (41\%). H owever, of the remaining 126 journals not in ROD, 13 contained $50 \%$ of the missing papers identified by the survey respondents. These 13 journals are listed in Table 2.3 (p. 17). Five of the journals were excluded from ROD for various reasons. One journal could not be located in any library. Another journal began in 1998, which is outside the remit of this project but will be included in future updates of the dataset. Three of the journals were not peer reviewed and so were not added to ROD. These five journals alone accounted for $30 \%$ of the missing papers.The remaining $20 \%$ of papers, in the other eight journals, were collected from libraries and inputted into ROD if they were articles, notes, or reviews with UK addresses. According to standard procedures for ROD records, any funding information was also noted. Eventually, 1692 papers were collected, less than $1 \%$ of the current total on ROD.

## Counting publications

W hen assessing the number of publications by different units (e.g. NHS region, funding body etc.), two different methods can be used. In some studies a unit's contribution is recorded as a fraction (for example, a publication bearing addresses from say, London and North West regions would score 0.5 each) but in other studies - including this one - integer counting is used, whereby each region scores 1.0. The difference in the two methods is that if counts of publications are fractionated, then individual unit percentages sum to $100 \%$ and the subsequent proportions attributable are lower than with integer counting.

## Identifying funding sources

All the papers in the dataset were looked up in libraries to determine their funding sources. For extramural funding this was taken from the formal acknowledgement section, following detailed guidelines (see Annex). Intramural funding determined from addresses was also included in this analysis: this is particularly important for Government and Research Council labs, industrial companies and charity-funded labs. The funding bodies were individually identified from a thesaurus and additionally classified into three main funding sectors: Government; private-non-profit (PN P); and industry.

We defined Government funding as the research councils (e.g. the M edical Research Council), Government departments (e.g. the Department of H ealth), and local or regional authorities (e.g. the Scottish Executive). The PN P funding included collecting charities (e.g. Cancer Research Campaign), endowed or single source charities/foundations (e.g. the Wellcome Trust), hospital trustees (i.e. funds association with a particular hospital such as St. James' University Hospital Special Trustees), other not-for-profit organizations like MERLIN (Medical Emergency Relief International), and other mixed sources of academic funds (e.g. CT Taylor Studentship

Fund in Cambridge). In addition to assessing the PNP sector as a whole, we also looked at Wellcome Trust outputs arising from within an N H S setting.

The industry sector was defined as pharmaceutical (e.g. SmithKline Beecham) and non-pharmaceutical (e.g. Channel Four Television) companies and their subsidiaries, as well as biotechnology companies (e.g. O xford Biomedica). We did not analyse veterinary practices and those $1.2 \%$ of unclassified funding acknowledgements.

O ver onethird of papers (greater for those arising from the NHS) do not have funding acknowledgements and the implications of this are discussed later. T hat said, it should be noted that the number of papers without acknowledgements is declining ${ }^{15}$, and it has been shown that seven out of eight papers actually acknowledge extramural support that should do $\mathrm{so}^{26}$. It should be stressed that the lack of a funding acknowledgement does not imply that the research is unfunded - the main sources of funding for this research will be the NHS and to a lesser degree the Higher Education Funding Councils.

## Subfield definition

The research outputs identified for the N H S can be characterized by biomedical subfield. Such analysis is important, as it has been shown
that different fields of research have different publication patterns ${ }^{20}$.

The process used in defining subfields is given in the Annex. Table 2.4 shows the available subfields. Five of these subfields have been specifically developed for this project. In total, 25 subfields were to be applied, however, the filter for health services research proved exceptionally difficult to define and is as yet unfinished (and thus excluded from this report). This was unfortunate given the recent importance attributed to H SR and it is intended that the filter will be finally defined and added to future updates of the N H S dataset.

Of the current list, 11 subfields were used either because $N$ ational Service Frameworks in the area are published or because specific N H S advisory groups ('Topic Working Groups') to the Central Research and Development Committee (CRDC) recently reviewed research needs in that field ${ }^{27}$. A further 14 were chosen by the steering committee. Stroke, mental health, asthma, rehabilitation and public health were all developed specifically for this study at the request of the steering committee. In this report we concentrate on two contrasting subfields (oncology and mental health) to illustrate the utility of subfield specific bibliometric analysis. However, in the Appendix we provide the complete data for all 24 subfields.

Table 2.4: List of $\mathbf{2 4}$ biomedical subfields used in study

| Anaesthetics | Gerontology | O ncology |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Arthritis and rheumatism | H aematology | Paediatrics |
| Asthma | Intensive care | Primary healthcare |
| Cardiology | Mental health | Public health |
| Clinical trials | N eonatology | Rehabilitation |
| Diabetes | N eurosciences | Respiratory medicine |
| Gastroenterology | N ursing research | Stroke |
| Genetics | O bstetrics and gynaecology | Surgery |

## C lassifying research

A further tool used was a journal classification system developed and updated by CHI Research Inc., which is based on expert opinion and journal-to-journal citations, and has become a standard tool in bibliometric analyses ${ }^{21}$. Journals are allocated into four hierarchical levels in which each level is more likely to cite papers in journals at the same level or the level below it and vice versa (Table 2.5). Hence, only $4 \%$ of papers in level 1 'clinical observation' journals (e.g. BMJ) will cite papers in level 4 'basic' journals (e.g. Nature), compared to $8 \%$ for level 2 'clinical mix' journals (e.g. New England Journal of $M$ edicine), and $21 \%$ for level 3 'clinical investigation' journals (e.g. Immunology). By looking at the journals in which papers are published, it is possible to characterize the research on a clinical to basic continuum. It should be noted that this analysis is rather crude as it allocates all papers within a journal to one level, despite a strong likelihood that there is variation in the type of research published in a given journal.

## Measuring impact

As noted in the introduction, there are a number of ways in which research impacts on healthcare. O ne way is the transfer of knowledge from one user to another via publication in peer-reviewed journals. A proxy for the number of times a paper is read would be the number of times it is cited by other researchers. Hence citation analysis provides a useful tool for
measuring the impact of research. In this study we use five-year journal impact factors; that is a measure of expected number of citations a paper would receive if it was published in a given journal over a five-year period. For example, the five-year journal impact factor of the BMJ is 16 - this means that a paper published in the BMJ in 1994 might be expected to receive 16 citations between 1994 and 1998.

The major drawback of journal impact factors is that they range from 0 to over 200. However, it has been shown that scientific administrators and medical researchers differentiate the impact of publications by a factor of only about four ${ }^{22,23}$. Therefore in this study, each journal has been assigned a weight (W) indicating the potential impact of a paper from a journal, with $\mathrm{W}=4$ being high potential impact (the top $10 \%$ of journals) and $\mathrm{W}=1$ being low potential impact (the bottom 40\% of journals) ${ }^{15}$.

This is probably best illustrated with reference to Figure 2.2. In this schematic diagram, the $y$-axis is the five-year journal impact factor, and the x-axis is the number of journals (sorted in descending order of their journal impact factor). In this example, we are representing oncology research for papers published in England between 1990-97. The top $10 \%$ of journals all have a five-year impact factor greater than 29.2 (and include, for example, $N$ ature and $C$ ancer Research). These journals are allocated a weighting value of 4. The second group of journals - which

Table 2.5: Definition of research levels

| Research level | Type | Example |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | Clinical observation | BM J |
| 2 | Clinical mix | New England Journal of M edicine |
| 3 | Clinical investigation | Immunology |
| 4 | Basic research | Nature |
| N/A | Yet to be classified/difficult to classify | - |

Source: $N$ arin et al. (1976) 'Structure of the Biomedical Literature', Journal of the American Society for Information Science, Jan-Feb, 25-45.
account for 20\% of the journals that publish oncology papers - have five-year journal impact factors between 13.2 and 29.1. These journals are given a W -value of 3 . This process is repeated for the next $30 \%$ of W 2 journals whose impact factors lie between 6.9 and 13.1, and the final $40 \%$ of W 1 journals which all have a five-year impact factor less than 6.9.

As different areas of research use different journals, the citation boundaries for each of the W-values is calculated for each subfied, on the basis of the journals used by that subfield. This in effect means that all the $W$-values are subfield
specific, thus controlling for different publication patterns between different disciplines.

## Summary

In this chapter we have discussed the tools that we use to describe scientific publication patterns in the NHS. In the next chapter we begin to map N H S research outputs by looking at the quantity of publications, the level of collaboration, sources of funding, the type of research (using research levels) and the impact of research for two subfields, oncology and mental health.

Fig 2.2: Schematic representation illustrating how W-values were calculated for each subfield


# Results - An analysis of scientific publications in the NHS 

In one sense, the challenge set by this project was developing a systematic methodology for capturing all N H S research outputs. The dataset we have defined includes all research papers that are (a) on the Wellcome Trust's Research Outputs D atabase (ROD) and (b) either acknowledge the NHS for funding support and/or describe research that occurred on N HS premises and thus is supported by the health service. Therefore, the only plausible weakness to our methodology is if (a) ROD has inadequate coverage for NHS research (and this is the reason why we added $H$ ealth Services Research) and (b) if authors with joint (or honorary) positions between the N H S and a university/medical school are inappropriately excluding their NHS affiliation on research papers by not declaring NHS R\&D support. It is worth pointing out that H SR papers only accounted for $1 \%$ of research outputs, and secondly the sensitivity analysis performed suggested that $83 \%$ of University of London medical academic sites are included in the dataset.

In this chapter we describe the N H S research landscape by assessing: the number of papers published a year by region etc.; the level of collaboration between researchers, funders, regions, countries; an analysis of the funding of supporting research in the NHS ; a description of the level of research (i.e. whether basic or clinical) in the NH ; and an analysis of two contrasting subfields (oncology and mental health), including estimates of the impact of the research. (We also provide all the data for all 24 subfields in the Appendix). Throughout the chapter we compare the research outputs for the NHS (1990-97) with those of England (1990-97) f. In the analyses of the subfields we focus on outputs in the London region (1990-97) and those acknowledging the Wellcome Trust as a funder; these are compared with both the NHS and England ${ }^{9}$. It should be noted that these sets are not mutually exclusive the NHS dataset is a subset of the English one, and the London region and the WellcomeTrust a subset of the NHS (papers acknowledging the

Wellcome Trust as a funder are referred to as Wellcome Trust/NHS or WT/NHS from here on). Hence, any differences between the sets would be even more exaggerated if they were, or could be, separated.

## Producing research - the number of

 publicationsOn average, the NHS in England supports over 13500 research publications a year. Figure 3.1 shows the number of papers published per year in the UK, England, the NHS, and the Wellcome Trust/NHS. In 1997, the NHS accounted for 55\% of English outputs, although this had declined from 58\% in 1990. The average annual percentage growth of NHS outputs was $2.96 \%$, compared to $3.87 \%$ in England ${ }^{\text {h }}$, and $9.67 \%$ for WellcomeTrust/N H S outputs.

Using the data provided by the OCS (see Box E, p. 15), NHS regional codes were allocated to every NHS postcode and NHS address in the dataset. This enabled us to map the output of research publications by region, as shown in Figure 3.2.

Fig 3.1: Number of research publications in the UK, England, the NHS and the Wellcome Trust/NHS


[^2]Fig 3.2: Map of England, showing output of NHS papers by region (1990-97)


As can be seen in this map, the London region accounts for a half of all research outputs. The next largest region, in terms of output, is the South East (14\%), followed by the North West (13\%), Trent (12\%), Northern and Yorkshire (9\%), West Midlands (8\%), South West (7\%) and Eastern (6\%). The regional distribution of Wellcome Trust-acknowledged papers in the NHS follows a similar distribution with the London region at $44 \%$, followed by the South East (19\%), North West (10\%), Trent (8\%), Eastern (7\%), West M idlands (4\%), South West (4\%) and N orthern and Yorkshire (4\%).

## W orking in partnership

Collaboration or partnership is widely seen as a 'good thing'. It has been a central theme of science policy for the last ten years. In fact, there
is evidence to support this policy - scientific research papers with more authors, addresses and funding bodies are, other things being equal, more likely to be published in high-impact journals than single-author, single-funded publications ${ }^{20}$.

There are a number of different types of partnerships - there are those collaborations between researchers (which themselves could be interdisciplinary, interinstitutional, or international) and those collaborations between funders (whether formally via schemes such as the Joint Infrastructure Fund ${ }^{29}$, the N HS and qualifying partners for Support for Science NHS future funding ${ }^{\text {i }}$, or informally though multiple acknowledgements on papers). The level of collaboration through some of these types of partnership is assessed below.

Fig 3.3: Average number of authors and addresses for English, NHS, and Wellcome Trust/NHS papers (1990-97)


Fig 3.4: International co-authorship on English, NHS, and Wellcome Trust/NHS papers (1990-97)


## Country of co-authorship with NHS

Fig 3.5: Map of England, showing collaboration between the London region and other NHS regions


The average number of authors and addresses per paper is shown in Figure 3.3. These data, which proxy research collaborations between researchers and institutions, indicate an increased tendency to collaborate between 1990 and 1997. Figure 3.3 demonstrates that, on average, N H S papers have more authors and more addresses than other papers in England, whilst Wellcome Trust/NHS outputs have a greater number of authors and addresses than either the NHS as a whole or England.

International addresses can also be used as an indicator of collaboration. Those countries co-authoring with NHS papers are shown in Figure 3.4. Around $6 \%$ of NHS papers have been co-authored with colleagues from the USA. Papers co-authored with colleagues from the USA, Scotland, Germany and France account for the majority of international papers. The level of international collaboration in the NHS is less than it is for England as a whole.

Collaboration on papers between the London region and the remaining seven regions was also examined. Figure 3.5 displays the proportion of papers in each region that have a London address (top percentage). The percentage below is the proportion of London papers that are collaborative with theother regions. In other words, 14.1\% of South East papers are jointly published with a London region address, whilst 4.1\% of London papers have a South East address. The interesting thing to note from this map is how London is co-authoring more interregional research with the other regions, and that this is greater in the geographical surrounding regions than those further afield.

Another form of collaboration is between funding partners. A paper may acknowledge a number of funding sources as researchers - or groups of researchers - may have won a number of competitive grants from a number of different sources. Figure 3.6 (p. 26) shows the number of papers with a given number of explicit funding acknowledgements. There are two points to note from this figure. First, the proportion of 'unacknowledged' papers is considerably greater (i.e. by more than 10 percentage
points) for the N H S than for England. This does not imply that these papers are 'unfunded', but suggests that either the authors are not acknowledging direct funding support, or the support is via 'soft' money, i.e. funding which is not awarded through a competitive grant application. As previous research has shown that seven out of eight papers correctly acknowledge funding support ${ }^{26}$, then it would seem appropriate to assume that the majority of the 'unacknowledged' papers are indeed those arising from 'soft' research funds. W ithin the NHS such research is often known as 'own account' research. That is, research conceived by clinical staff, often preprotocol, which is funded through the NHS R\&D Levy but not specifically applied for outside the host institution through a competitive peer-review process (see Box C, p. 11). Wellcome Trust papers are identified in this analysis by funding body acknowledgement; the number of papers that did not acknowledge Trust support when in receipt of funding is not known.

The second point to note related to Figure 3.6 is that it has been shown in other studies that multiple funding is associated with high-impact journals ${ }^{20}$. That is, the $28 \%$ of papers that have two or more funding body acknowledgements are more likely to be published in journals such as Nature or Science, than those papers with no or only one acknowledgement. This empirical observation has a sound basis - the more times a project goes through a competitive peer-reviewed process the greater its quality is likely to be. From a research policy perspective, this would suggest that 'own account' research is of lower impact; this is a hypothesis that is explored in detail below and in the following chapter.

## Funding support

By assessing the pattern of funding body acknowledgements stated at the end of a paper, we can 'link' research inputs (i.e. funding or

Fig 3.6: Number of English, NHS, and Wellcome Trust/NHS papers (1990-97) with a given number of acknowledged funding bodies


Fig 3.7: Proportion of papers acknowledging funding from a sector - English and NHS papers (1990-97)


Funding sector

[^3]Table 3.1: Number of NHS papers acknowledging main sectors and subsectors

| Year | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | Total | AAPG |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Gov | 3490 | 3641 | 3805 | 4014 | 4059 | 4287 | 4216 | 4173 | 31685 | $2.84 \%$ |
| PN P | 3442 | 3722 | 4031 | 4483 | 4792 | 4842 | 4913 | 4509 | 34734 | $4.75 \%$ |
| W T | 678 | 744 | 828 | 881 | 1013 | 1162 | 1198 | 1238 | 7742 | $9.67 \%$ |
| Industry | 1417 | 1508 | 1514 | 1766 | 1821 | 1920 | 1957 | 1938 | 13841 | $5.18 \%$ |
| N one | 6091 | 6029 | 6265 | 6030 | 6398 | 6692 | 7002 | 7129 | 51636 | $2.54 \%$ |
| Public | 9581 | 9670 | 10070 | 10044 | 10457 | 10979 | 11218 | 11302 | 83321 | $2.65 \%$ |
| All N HS | 12219 | 12471 | 12988 | 13377 | 13976 | 14447 | 14814 | 14558 | 108850 | $2.96 \%$ |

AAPG = Average Annual Percentage Growth

Stage I in the payback model; Figure 1.2, p. 12) with outputs (i.e. publication or Stage III in the payback model). In the analysis presented here we focus on three main sectors: G overnment; private-not-for-profit (PNP) including the WellcomeTrust; and industry, although all these sectors are al so supported by the N H S. We also assume that those papers without acknowledgements are 'own account' research and therefore funded from the public purse. Hence we combine the Government sector with unacknowledged papers to create a category for all publicly funded research outputs.

Table 3.1 illustrates the number of papers in the three main funding sectors, and selected subgroups. Between 1990 and 1997, the UK Government contributed to $29 \%$ (i.e. 31 685/108 850) of all NHS biomedical research funding, the private-non-profit sector $32 \%$ (i.e. $34734 / 108850$ ) and the industrial sector $13 \%$ (i.e. $13841 / 108$ 850). The combined public sector accounted for $76 \%$ (i.e. $83321 / 108850$ ) of all outputs. D uring the period 1990-97, Government funding, as a proportion of all funding, declined, whilst the private-non-profit sector and industry increased their relative share of research outputs. The rise of the PN P sector is largely due to the increased funding of the Wellcome Trust and its subsequent doubling of NHS research output
over the period of analysis. The increased support for research sponsored by industry is noteworthy, no doubt reflecting the $5 \%$ annual increase in extramural $R \& D$ expenditure of the pharmaceutical industry over the same periodk.

A comparison between the patterns of funding acknowledgements in the NHS and for England as a whole is shown in Figure 3.7. The figures add up to more than $100 \%$ because it is possible for more than one sector to fund each paper. Explicitly acknowledged support from the Government sector, private-non-profit and industry is lower in the NHS than for England, whilst the reverse is true for the unacknowledged papers. Thecombined 'public' group is nearly identical for both the NHS and England and accounts for threequarters of all publications.

## Research levels

Research policy makers often debate the balance between basic and clinical research. On one hand, the serendipitous nature of science and the need to understand fundamental biological processes makes a compelling case for supporting basic research. On the other hand, and as noted in the introduction, the objective of biomedical research is ultimately to improve health, and thus most biomedical research strategies include support for applied or clinical - research. In practice, most research

[^4]funders have a portfolio of programmes that cover both basic and applied research. O ne way to describe a research portfolio is to consider the research published in a given journal and then categorize that journal by the predominance of papers in it. Thus if most of the papers in a journal are found to be of a clinical nature that journal would be categorized as clinical. As explained in Chapter 2 (p.20), CHI Research Inc. has developed a method for classifying papers by their journal type into four research levels: clinical observation ( $R L=1$ ); clinical mix ( $R L=2$ ); clinical investigation ( $R L=3$ ); and basic ( $R L=4$ ). Figure 3.8 compares the research levels of NHS papers and the Wellcome Trust/N H S to that for England. Unsurprisingly, the NHS produces proportionately more clinical observation ( $\mathrm{RL}=1$ ) papers than England as a whole (i.e. $26 \%$ for the NHS versus $17 \%$ for England and 8\% for the Wellcome Trust/N H S). Conversely, the N H S produces less basic research (16\%) than either England (29\%) or the Wellcome Trust/N H S (40\%). Perhaps the most interesting point arising from the analysis of research levels is how they have changed in the eight-year period of analysis (Table 3.2). O ver this period, research in the NHS has increased by around $3 \%$, in terms of output, annually. Basic research in the NHS increased by $5 \%$, which is in part due to the increase in the

Wellcome Trust/NHS outputs which increased year on year by $13 \%$. NHS clinical research is relatively stable over this period, growing at a rate less than that for all NHS publications. At all research levels the Wellcome Trust/NHS outputs had increased at a faster rate annually than N H S outputs.

## Subfields

Table 3.3 shows the number of papers in the 24 selected subfields, their annual average percentage growth, and their proportion of all NHS outputs. There are, of course, overlaps between subfields. For example, paediatrics will 'share' some papers with oncology. The largest subfield in Table 3.3 is surgery ( $14 \%$ ) followed by oncology (12\%) and cardiology (12\%). The smallest subfield is stroke (1\%), followed by asthma ( $1 \%$ ) and intensive care ( $2 \%$ ). The fastest growing subfields are nursing research, stroke and genetics. Analysis of research level in the different subfields reveals that those with the highest percentage of basic research are genetics (33\%), neuroscience ( $26 \%$ ) and diabetes ( $15 \%$ ), whilst mental health ( $52 \%$ ), stroke ( $52 \%$ ) and intensive care ( $51 \%$ ) are the most clinical subfields.

## The impact of research

As explained in the previous chapter (p. 20), to estimate the potential influence of a paper,

Table 3.2: Distribution of research levels of NHS and WellcomeTrust/NHS papers, 1990-97

| Year |  | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | Total | AAPG |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Clin. obs. | N HS | 3307 | 3425 | 3430 | 3576 | 3735 | 3570 | 378 | 3613 | 28442 | $1.54 \%$ |
| (RL = 1) | W T/N HS | 52 | 52 | 56 | 67 | 93 | 91 | 95 | 84 | 590 | $10.20 \%$ |
| Clin. mix | N HS | 4217 | 4099 | 4385 | 4305 | 4511 | 4665 | 4360 | 4474 | 35016 | $1.15 \%$ |
| (RL = 2) | W T/N HS | 166 | 189 | 197 | 210 | 212 | 251 | 252 | 245 | 1722 | $6.00 \%$ |
| Clin. inv. | N HS | 2531 | 2672 | 2831 | 2865 | 2956 | 2964 | 3102 | 2990 | 22911 | $2.51 \%$ |
| (RL=3) | W T/N HS | 232 | 216 | 251 | 269 | 316 | 309 | 346 | 338 | 2277 | $7.11 \%$ |
| Basic | N HS | 1813 | 1884 | 1901 | 2070 | 2124 | 2376 | 2588 | 2453 | 17209 | $5.38 \%$ |
| (RL = 4) | W T/N HS | 224 | 284 | 320 | 331 | 383 | 495 | 486 | 542 | 3065 | $13.08 \%$ |
| N ot | N HS | 351 | 391 | 441 | 561 | 650 | 872 | 978 | 1028 | 5272 | $18.55 \%$ |
| classified | W T/N HS | 4 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 9 | 16 | 19 | 29 | 88 | $39.67 \%$ |
| Total | N HS | 12219 | 12471 | 12988 | 13377 | 13976 | 14447 | 14814 | 14558 | 108850 | $2.96 \%$ |
|  | W T/N HS | 678 | 744 | 828 | 881 | 1013 | 1162 | 1198 | 1238 | 7742 | $9.67 \%$ |

[^5]Fig 3.8: Research level of English, NHS, and Wellcome Trust/NHS papers (1990-97)

five-year journal impact factors are mapped onto a four-point scale of weights (or W-values), with $\mathrm{W}=4$ being high-impact papers (i.e. within the top-rated $10 \%$ of journals) and $\mathrm{W}=1$ being low impact (i.e. the bottom $40 \%$ of journals). This method means that the impact of a paper is partly determined by the subfield within which it falls. For example, and as illustrated in Table 3.4 (p. 30), for a paper to be classified asW $=4$ in oncology, its journal impact factor would need to exceed 29 citations over a five-year period. In mental health research, on the other hand, a $\mathrm{W}=4$ journal would only need a five-year impact factor of 15 citations. It should be noted that the values presented in Table 3.4 arefor all English papers and therefore are used to act as benchmark to compare outputs, by subfield, for the N H S and its regions.

Below, we focus on two contrasting subfields - oncology and mental health. We look at outputs for England, the NHS, the Wellcome Trust/N H S and the London region, and profile the growth of outputs, collaboration, funding, and type and impact of research. The information presented for these two subfields is included for all 24 subfields in the Appendix, but without commentary.

Table 3.3: Proportion of biomedical papers in 24 selected subfields, 1990-97

| Subfield name <br> outputs | N |  | \% of N HS |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | AAPG

AAPG = Average Annual Percentage Growth

Table 3.4: Distribution of five-year impact factors for English outputs, determining impact categories, W, for 24 subfields

| Subfield | W 2 | W 3 | W 4 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Anaesthetics | 5.27 | 9.58 | 15.45 |
| Arthritis and <br> rheumatism | 7.19 | 12.26 | 22.71 |
| Asthma | 8.34 | 14.14 | 21.28 |
| Cardiology | 7.19 | 11.71 | 21.65 |
| Clinical trials | 7.62 | 11.82 | 19.94 |
| Diabetes | 7.70 | 13.82 | 28.79 |
| Gastroenterology | 6.65 | 11.49 | 19.25 |
| Genetics | 10.94 | 17.89 | 40.26 |
| Gerontology | 6.96 | 11.21 | 16.56 |
| Haematology | 7.83 | 14.63 | 30.91 |
| Intensive care | 4.52 | 9.53 | 14.58 |
| Mental health | 6.66 | 10.57 | 15.67 |
| N eonatology | 6.34 | 11.26 | 16.77 |
| N eurosciences | 7.72 | 12.64 | 22.23 |
| N ursing research | 4.08 | 7.41 | 13.77 |
| Obstetrics and | 6.83 | 10.86 | 15.63 |
| gynaecology | 6.87 | 13.18 | 29.19 |
| O ncology | 6.87 | 5.69 | 11.15 |
| Paediatrics | 23.01 |  |  |
| Primary healthcare | 6.35 | 11.06 | 19.56 |
| Public health | 6.48 | 8.87 | 16.47 |
| Rehabilitation | 4.42 | 9.58 | 16.82 |
| Respiratory | 7.02 | 11.59 | 16.43 |
| medicine | 5.53 | 10.31 | 15.97 |
| Stroke | 9.12 | 15.16 |  |
| Surgery |  |  |  |
|  | 4.69 | 10 |  |

## 0 ncology research

Table 3.5 profiles oncology research in England, the NHS, the Wellcome Trust/N HS and the London region of the NHS. A number of observations can be made from this profile. First, oncology research is a well-established subfield. It accounts for 12\% (Table 3.3, p. 29) of all N H S publications. Between 1990 and 1997, 18 805 papers were published in England, 72\%
(i.e. 13 500/18 805) of these were from theN H S. This is considerably higher than the expected $56 \%$ (Figure 3.1, p. 22) for all N H S publications in England. The London region produced 6584 papers over the eight-year period, making up 49\% (i.e. $6854 / 13500$ ) of all NHS oncology papers, although it is growing at a slower rate (2.4\%) than for all NHS papers (3.3\%). Only $2 \%$ (287/18 805) of NHS oncology papers acknowledge the Wellcome Trust. This is not surprising given that the Trust will consider proposals for funding cancer research only where the research could have broader rel evance to the understanding of biological processes or of other diseases'.

The second observation is that collaboration - as proxied by the number of authors on a paper - is positively associated with impact. This is a recurrent theme in bibliometric analyses and supports the notion that funding large, possibly multinational and multidisciplinary research teams is more effective in producing high-impact research than funding lone scientists. This, however, does not mean that such research is (cost) efficient; large-scale collaborations are more expensive than single scientist-led projects. The challenge for analysts is to develop methodologies that can begin to differentiate between the effectiveness (i.e. impact) of research and its efficiency.

The W-values were based on the distribution of five-year journal impact factors for all English oncology papers. The reason that $11.9 \%$ (i.e. 2244/18 805) of English oncology papers are classified as being of high impact (i.e., $W=4$ ) is because the Journal of Biological Chemistry spanned the 10th percentile and the citation boundary was lowered to include all papers published in this journal. The 11.9\% figure, however, acts as a benchmark for both the NHS ( $8.8 \%=1190 / 13500$ ), London ( $10.3 \%=$ 677/6584) and the WellcomeTrust/N H S (18.5\% $=53 / 287$ ). In other words, in comparison to all English oncology outputs, the NHS and the

Table 3.5: Profile of oncology research


London region of the NHS produce fewer highimpact publications, where as those funded by the WellcomeTrust are of greater impact. This observation, however, needs to be treated with caution, as impact is confounded by the research level of a journal of publication. Other things being equal, basic research is of greater impact than clinical research. This is not to say that basic research is 'better' than clinical research, but it does emphasize two points. First, citation analysis may be an inappropriate tool for measuring clinical research (and this is discussed in chapter 4) and, second, if bibliometric techniques are used, it is essential that the research level of a journal is controlled for in any analysis.

Accordingly, Table 3.5 (p. 31) presents cross tabulations of impact ( $W$-values) by research level, for the four units of analysis- England, the NHS, the Wellcome Trust and the London region of the NHS. Thefirst point to note is that the correlation between impact and research level is shown clearly in these data. In England, a third of 1\% (i.e. 8/3000) of high-impact (W 4) papers are clinical observation ( $R L=1$ ), compared to $32 \%$ (i.e. 894/2760) of high-impact basic (RL=4) papers. The proportion of high-impact (W4) papers by the four research levels, for England, the NHS, London and the Wellcome Trust/ NHS , is plotted in Figure 3.9. Thedifferences between the four sets of data are marginal, although the London region has a higher proportion of high-impact journals across all four research levels than for the NHS as a whole.

A second confounding factor in assessing impact is funding. It has been shown that there is a correlation between the number of funding body acknowledgements on a paper and the impact of that paper ${ }^{20}$. M ost importantly, in the current context, papers without a funding acknowledgement are of lower impact than those with one. This observation is validated in Table 3.5. For English papers, over half of the unacknowledged papers (i.e. $54.8 \%=3598 / 6750$ ) are low impact (W 1) compared to $2.6 \%$ (i.e. 169/6570) for highimpact (W4) publications. The proportion of unacknowledged low-impact papers for the N H S (55.3\% $=3147 / 5693$ ) and London is similar
(51.8\% = 1360/2625) to England as a whole (54.8\%).

For those papers with one or more acknowledgements, the PN P sector dominates oncology funding. Perhaps not unsurprisingly, given the cancer research charities in the UK, around a half $(6460 / 13500=48 \%)$ of all NHS oncology papers acknowledge the PNP sector. For the high-impact (W4) papers, PNP is acknowledged on around $80 \%$ (i.e. 949/1190) of NHS papers, compared to $43 \%$ (i.e. 509/1190) for Government, and $15 \%$ (i.e. 184/1190) for industry. This pattern is similar for all English papers and for the London region.

## Mental health research

In contrast to oncology, mental health research is a small but fast-growing subfield. It accounts for around 5\% of publications in England, theN HS, London and the Wellcome Trust/ NHS , but is growing at around 7\% ayear in England and 11\% for the WellcomeTrust. This would mean that the number of mental health research publications would double in a decade. Yet, despitethe low base and high growth rate, the associations described for oncology are further validated in Table 3.6.

Fig 3.9: Research level of high-impact (W4) oncology papers for England, the NHS, London, and the Wellcome Trust/NHS (1990-97)


Table 3.6: Profile of mental health research

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |$|$

For example, high-impact papers are associated with more authors, basic research and explicitly acknowledged funding.

In contrast to oncology, mental health research is far more clinical. For example, $52 \%$ (i.e. 2758/5311; Table 3.6, p. 33) of N H S mental health papers are published in clinical observation (i.e. RL=1) journals compared to $20 \%$ (i.e. 2721/13500; Table 3.5, p. 31) of oncology papers. Within the NHS clinical observation ( $\mathrm{RL}=1$ ) group there are proportionately more high-impact mental health papers (i.e. $3.5 \%=$ $98 / 2758$ for mental health research versus $0.2 \%=5 / 2721$ for oncology research; a statistically significant difference at $\mathrm{p}<0.05)$. C onversely, there is less high-impact basic $(R L=4)$ research in the NHS in mental health than in oncology (i.e. $20.3 \%=36 / 311$ for mental health research versus $26.9 \%=290 / 1077$ for oncology research; a statistically significant difference at $\mathrm{p}<0.05$ ).

Another contrast with oncology is the funding profile. For the high-impact (W 4) papers, Figure 3.10 illustrates the funding body acknowledgements for oncology and mental
health research. As noted previously, oncology research is exceptional in its support from the cancer research charities. That apart, support from Government and industry is similar between the two subfields.

## Summary

In this chapter we have illustrated the information that can be derived from a research outputs dataset. We have demonstrated how it is possible to analyse scientific publications using a number of different techniques. Most importantly, we have demonstrated the complexity of the data and how one needs to control for various confounding variables. In doing so, we hope we have demonstrated the use of bibliometric analysis as a source of information for supporting R\&D management.

In the next chapter, we assess the potential limitations of our analysis and discuss some of the main $R \& D$ policy issues arising from the study. We also highlight some of the research questions arising from this work and explain how the project will be developed.

Fig 3.10: Proportion of high-impact (W4) NHS papers, by funding source for mental health and oncology research


Research in the NHS is big business. O ver half of all biomedical research papers published in England are supported, one way or another, by the N ational Health Service. Between 1990 and 1997, the NHS would have invested around $£ 2.5$ billion in research and development ${ }^{\text {n }}$. Somewhere between two-thirds and four-fifths of this investment has been used as the 'third leg' in a 'triple support system' to fund the indirect costs of externally sponsored non-commercial research ${ }^{n}$. The size of this inward investment is hard to estimate, but could be in the region of $£ 150 \mathrm{~m}$ per year . This would make the combined (non-commercial) expenditure on R\&D in the NHS in excess of $£ 400 \mathrm{~m}$ per year over the period of analysis; an expenditure equivalent to the R\&D budgets of major household names such as Zeneca ( $£ 653 \mathrm{~m}$ ), Shell ( $£ 403 \mathrm{~m}$ ) and British Aerospace ( $£ 301 \mathrm{~m}$ ). ${ }^{24}$

For these commercial organizations the return on $R \& D$ investment is measured in increased sales, profit and ultimately in share price. For non-commercial organizations such as the NHS , research councils, and medical research charities, the task of measuring payback is much harder as there is no agreed metric such as monetary value ${ }^{p}$. The payback model (Figures 1.1 and 1.2, p. 12) provides a framework whereby it is possible to disaggregate the research process and begin to measure different payback categories and different stages in research and development. In this study, we have comprehensively measured the return on knowledge creation. Thequestion is whether new knowledge (as recorded in the peerreviewed literature) has any impact on 'health gain', and if so by how much?

In this chapter we expand on this research question, by examining whether bibliometrics is an appropriate tool to assess clinical research. We then draw out three major policy issues that, we believe, arise from this study. In conclusion we describe how this project will be managed and developed over the coming years.

Using bibliometrics to assess clinical research

At the outset of this study, we were aware of the view that bibliometrics is an inappropriate tool to assess clinical research. This, in part, reflected general concerns about bibliometric analysis but also was a special plea for clinical research. As we emphasized in the introduction, we unreservedly accept that bibliometrics has

[^6]limitations and that it is one part of a research evaluator's toolkit (see Box B, p. 10). Thus, the data we have presented in this report should not be used in isolation from other supporting evidence. That said, we hold the strong conviction that bibliometric analysis provides a useful, quantifiable, evidence base for R\&D strategists and managers in the NHS and elsewhere.

We also have some sympathy with the argument that clinical research is a 'special case' inasmuch as the objective of clinical research is to improve healthcare and is not, necessarily, about knowledge creation (as is the case for basic research). H owever, in our opinion, this concern arises from the misplaced assumption that clinical researchers will be compared directly with those basic scientists publishing in highly cited journals such as N ature or Science. In this study we have controlled for this by, firstly, only evaluating research that has occurred in a clinical setting (i.e. the N H S) and, secondly, by using the research level classification developed by CHI Research Inc. (although we accept that this is a rather crude tool and one that could be refined in subsequent research).

A second issue is that high-impact research may not be best measured by citation analysis. For example, an article in, say, (the non peer-
reviewed) Nursing Times may have a greater clinical impact than a paper published in, say, (the peer-reviewed) Clinical Genetics Likewise, research that informs systematic reviews, national clinical guidelines etc. (at Stage IV Secondary O utput in the payback model; Figure 1.2, p. 12) may have a greater clinical impact than a paper published in Nature. Previously, the Wellcome Trust has undertaken some work to 'link' funding with publications and their citation on clinical guidelines (see Box F), but this only goes some way in developing a clinically-relevant impact factor. We see this as an important area for future bibliometric research. One possible protocol would be to identify (via survey or previous research) what type of publication (whether a paper, systematic review or clinical guideline etc.) has the greatest impact on clinical practice and see by how many degrees the original research (published in the peer-reviewed literature) is 'removed' from that publication. Journals that are more likely to be cited in more clinically relevant publications (e.g. a clinical guideline) could receive a greater weight than other journals. This weight could then be scaled depending on how 'close' (in terms of generations of citations) the original research was to clinically-relevant publications. Obviously such a system would

## Box F - Measuring citations on clinical guidelines

Papers cited in clinical guidelines may prove to be a useful alternative for measuring impact. A recent study investigated the use of this indicator and, among other things, concluded that:

- The median age of papers cited in clinical guidelines is eight years;
- Most papers are published by authors living in either the USA (36\%) or the UK (25\%); and
- Clinical guidelines do not cite basic research.

From a policy viewpoint this study raised two important issues. First was the finding that UK clinical guidelines disproportionately cite research papers in the UK - $25 \%$ of citations are from the UK, whereas only $10 \%$ of all biomedical papers are from the UK.

The study finds no evidence of publication bias and therefore concluded that preferential citing of UK papers may provide good evidence for supporting a local science base. If $s 0$, then the central policy question is does a strong science base lead to improved clinical practice?

A second policy relevant finding was that clinical guidelines do not cite basic research. By tracing the research process through four preceding generations of citations, the authors conclude that it takes about 17 years for basic research to feed into clinical practice. Furthermore, the proportion of basic (i.e. RL=4) research papers increased from $0.2 \%$ to $8 \%$ over the four generations of citation, whereas around a quarter of biomedical research in the UK is basic.
need validating but, if workable, could provide a method to evaluate clinical research.

By highlighting these issues, we do not wish to undermine the importance of the findings we present in this report, but to illustrate the difficulties faced by researchers in undertaking studies such as this. Indeed, despite these limita tions, we would encourage other investigators to spend some time thinking about the way research is managed. In a period when researchers are demanding that clinicians practice evidence-based medicine, it is only appropriate and correct that researchers audit and evaluate the research outputs and outcomes of their own investigations.

## Policy implications and research agenda

Given the quantity of data presented in this project, it is not possible to draw out every policy implication from the study. Indeed, it is likely that there will be specific issues relevant to different subfields and for this reason we have published all the data in the Appendix. In this section we have decided to focus on three issues which we believe to have generic relevance to R\&D managers in the NHS and elsewhere. They are: the characteristics of high-impact research; the role of basic research in supporting clinical advance; and the effectiveness and efficiency of partnerships.

## Supporting high-impact research

The analysis we have presented confirms previous observations that high-impact (W4) research is associated with multi-authored multi-funded papers ${ }^{20}$. Naturally, such an observation could be confounded by other inputs (for example, the research level of a paper, the increase in funding and authorship etc.) and multivariate analysis will be the subject of future research 9 . As noted earlier, the association between multiplefunding and impact is plausible. Themore times that research proposals have been through a peer-review funding process, the more likely that
the subsequent research is of high quality and thus published in high-impact research journals.

From a policy perspectivethis suggests that the NHS should continue to develop systems to ensure that all research it funds (via whatever mechanism) is quality assured through peer (or other forms of) review. This would mean that 'own account' research - those 47\% of publications without a funding acknowledgement but, presumably, initiated and paid for by the NHS should be discouraged. Indeed, following a review of the NHS R\&D Levy, the NHS recently published a new framework for managing R\&D (see Box G, p. 39). This document states that 'R\&D in the NHS...will normally involve appropriateexternal peer review' (paragraph 2.17) although funds will be provided to recognize the costs of preparing protocols to submit for external funding [and] for pilot work' (paragraph 2.35).

These two, potentially conflicting, statements reflect a common problem in R\&D policy. Whilst peer review has been shown (here and elsewhere) to be associated with high-quality research, some of the most important developments in medical research in the last 50 years have been funded from 'soft' (i.e. non-peer reviewed) sources such as 'own account' research. Anecdotal examples include ${ }^{31}$ the introduction of in vitro fertilization, the identification of B-lymphocytes, and the development of radioimmunoassays. In the case of in vitro fertilization, requests for research funding by Steptoe were repeatedly turned down, forcing him to fund the research personally ${ }^{32}$. D espite this inauspicious start, in 1996 over 5000 test tube babies were born in the UK ${ }^{33,34}$.

Thustheissue is one of balance- on one hand the NHS, and other funders, should be supporting first class research, but on the other hand they do not want to be suppressing high-risk innovative research which could provide payback with a paradigm-changing outcome. From bibliometric evidence, we are not in a position to say what that balance should be. To inform this debate we need

[^7]a better understanding of what happens to research that, at the margin, is turned down by per-review funding panels. If some of these projects were subsequently supported from N H S own account funds, it would be possible to compare the output and outcome of those 'soft-' and 'hard-' funded projects which, in terms of quality, are broadly similar inasmuch as they were on the borderline for funding.

Support for basic research in the N HS
O ne of the most interesting observations in this report is that one in six NHS publications are in basic science journals. Moreover, the proportion of research classified as basic increased at an average annual rate of 5\% over the eight-year period of analysis (although, as already noted, there was a decline in basic research outputs in 1996 and 1997).

That said, it is worth noting that $83 \%$ (i.e. $14302 /(2907+14302)$ in Table 4.1) of the basic research in the N H S is externally supported (i.e. has a funding body acknowledgement) and the vast majority of this funding is therefore outside the strategic control of NHS R\&D. The new NHS Support for Science funding stream (see Box G) will continue to meet the costs of supporting R\&D in the NHS and thus by implication will continue to underpin basic research in the NHS.

By raising this point we are not arguing that the NHS should not be supporting basic research, but we are suggesting that there needs to be a greater understanding of how basic research actually supports the N H S in achieving its mission. The relationship between basic research, and how it supports clinical research, has often been debated. A recent study of clinical guidelines (described in Box F, p. 36) concluded that, after four generations of citation, only $8 \%$ of research underpinning clinical guidelines (and thus a healthcare intervention) is basic (i.e. $R L=4)^{5}$. This observation, however, is at odds with Comroe and Dripps seminal study which concluded that 40\% of all research articles judged to be essential for later clinical advance were not clinically oriented at the time of the study ${ }^{35}$. H owever, to further confuse the debate, the validity of the Comroe and Dripps' study has been questioned on the premise that the methodology is not repeatable ${ }^{36}$. In other words, the relationship between basic research and clinical advance is not clear, and there is an urgent need to develop our understanding in this area if R\&D managers are going to be able to make informed, evidence-based, decisions on the type of research to be supported.

Table 4.1: Research level of unacknowledged papers

| Research level | Acknowledged papers | Unacknowledged papers |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Clinical observation <br> $($ RL $=1)$ | 8225 | 20217 |
| Clinical mix <br> $(R L=2)$ | 17334 | 17682 |
| Clinical investigation <br> $(R L=3)$ | 15780 | 7131 |
| Basic <br> (RL $=4)$ | 14302 | 2907 |
| Not classified | 1602 | 57243 |
| Total | 570 |  |

## Box G - Research and Development for a First Class Service

On 30 March 2000, the Parliamentary Under Secretary of State for Health announced a new statement of policy and principles and a development programme to carry through reforms of NHS R\&D. These are set out in Research and Development for a First Class Service: R\&D funding in the new NHS. This document replacesThe Strategic Framework for the use of the NHS R\&D Levy (1997).

From A pril 2001, N HS R\&D funding will be organized into two funding streams: NHS Support for Science; and NHS Priorities and N eeds R\&D Funding. The diagram shows how the current components of NHS R\&D funding will relate to the new systems.

Components of NHS R\&D Funding


NHS Priorities and $N$ eeds R\&D Funding will support research that is needed to underpin modernization and quality improvements in the health service. It will address:

- the implementation of NHS priorities;
- the programme of N ational Service Framework and $N$ ational Performance Assessment Framework;
- the work of the $N$ ational Institute for Clinical Excellence; and
- the needs of the NHS in implementing Government policy.

N HS Support for Science will be available to NHS providers to meet costs they incur in supporting R\&D in the NHS under the direction and quality assurance of an eligible $R \& D$ funding partner (such as the MRC and medical research charities) and NHS Priorities and $N$ eeds R\&D Funding.

Funding will be separated into N HS Support for Science and NHS Priorities and $N$ eeds R\&D Funding from 2001/2. As the new funding systems are introduced, a quality framework of research governance for NHS R\&D will be developed to improve leadership and systems to deliver results and performance management. This will include arrangements for reviewing the outputs, outcomes and value for money of research.

The effectiveness and efficiency of partnership
As we have repeated many times in this report, collaborative research is associated with high-impact research publications. Collaboration and especially multiple funding requires clear and transparent lines of accountability. With such mechanisms in place, it would seem entirely appropriate that the NHS and others promote and foster collaboration - be that by bringing together individual scientists or
funding agencies. However, in doing so we should make a distinction between the effectiveness and efficiency of partnerships. Effectiveness could be measured as the number of high-impact publications, whilst efficiency could be the cost per paper or citation of high-impact publications. This is perhaps best illustrated with reference to Figure 3.2 (p. 23). In this diagram the London region is obviously the most effective region -
it produces more research than any other region. H owever, London accounts for $70 \%$ of the NHS R\&D budget and thus, in terms of (cost) efficiency (Table 4.2) it has the highest estimated cost per paper. H owever, this type of input:output ratio has some inherent flaws. First, is the time lag between input and output (one that is solved by comparing inputs at time t with outputs at time t plus 2-3 years). The second is the issue of attribution. For example, a publication may have a number of authors, from different N H S regions supported by different funding agencies. In this, not untypical example, how does one attribute the inputs and outputs to calculate cost-efficiency ratios? This is perhaps best illustrated with reference to Table 4.2, where the N orth West has a higher cost efficiency (as measured by the cost of a paper published in 1997 from the amount estimated to have been invested by the N H S in 1995) than London. Part of the reason is that the North West's NHS R\&D budget is small (estimated $£ 23.7 \mathrm{~m}$ in 1995) but nearly one-inten of its papers are indirectly supported by London through collaboration (Figure 3.5, p. 25). Conversely, London's N H S R \& D budget is over ten times greater (estimated $£ 275 \mathrm{~m}$ in 1995), but only one-in-fifty of its papers are co-authored with the North West. In other
words, the investment from London to the North West is four times greater than in the opposite direction, making it very difficult to attribute the financial inputs to published papers. An associated problem is that because the medical schools in London have traditionally been less associated with 'broader' universities there is less chance in London than elsewhere of biomedical papers from non-NHS parts of the university being included as part of the NH S output. This may lead in some cases to the number of papers from regions outside London being somewhat inflated.

These examples illustrate the difficulties in developing meaningful cost-efficiency indicators for R\&D (and we have made no attempt to include funding external to the N H S). The way public domain research in the UK is organized means that there are multiple inputs from a pluralistic funding sector which contribute to the production of knowledge through peerreviewed publications. Given the immense complexity of the system we would caution against the use of cost-efficiency indicators. Further research on the link between input and output is clearly needed, although perfect hypothecation of one by the other will always be difficult, if only because the timescale is always out of synchrony. The extent to which the existing

Table 4.2: Illustrative example of the effectiveness and efficiency of research by NHSE region

| Region | Estimated R\&D (£ m) <br> expenditure (1995)a,b | Research outputs (1997) | Cost (£) per paper |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| N orthern \& Yorkshire | 18.6 | 1267 | 14680 |
| Trent | 21.2 | 1689 | 12551 |
| W est Midlands | 10.9 | 1038 | 10500 |
| N orth W est | 22.7 | 1711 | 13267 |
| Eastern | 7.0 | 942 | 7430 |
| London | 275.0 | 6145 | 44751 |
| South East | 15.0 | 1995 | 7518 |
| South W est | 18.7 | 966 | 19358 |

[^8]ratios should cautiously inform current decision making, or should be regarded purely as 'work in progress', is a matter of judgement.

Future development of the NHS research outputs dataset

This research project began in February 1999 as a collaboration between the Wellcome Trust's Unit for Policy Research in Science and Medicine (PRISM) and the London Regional Office of the NHSE. As part of this project, the London Regional Office of the NH SE paid for an 'NHS fellow' (M ichael Yare) to work within PRISM to benchmark NHS research outputs, using ROD data and the expertise of staff in the Unit.

In 0 ctober 1999, PRISM was refocused and renamed as the Wellcome Trust's Policy Unit. As part of this process it was decided to outsource ROD. Following a competitive tendering process, City University's Department for Informatics won a contract to take over the maintenance and development of ROD. At the same time it was decided to transfer the N H S fellow to the Health Economics Research Group at Brunel University (the developers of the payback model). HERG have now taken over this project (although collaborative links will be maintained with the Wellcome Trust) and thus any suggestions for future research should be addressed to themr

[^9]
## Methodology

Research papers considered The ROD contains three types of record (limited to articles, notes and reviews with a UK address):

- papers that have been checked for funding (status A);
- papers that have not yet been checked (status C);
- papers that have been deleted, usually because they did not have a UK address (status D).
O nly status A papers are used for fundingrelated analyses whereas for global counts all status $A$ and $C$ papers are counted.

Research Leved A Research Level (RL) value can be determined for each journal. It is a number from clinical observation $=1$ to basic research $=4$ which characterizes the majority of the papers in a journal by their research type, based on expert opinion and journal-to-journal citation patterns. Values for many journals have been determined by CHI Research Inc., and this categorization system is becoming an industry standard for the classification of research journals.

Potential impact of research (W) For each paper a W value has been calculated to indicate the level of average citation impact of the journal in which it was published. For any given group of papers the $W$ values were calculated as follows:

- First, all the journals in a group were listed in descending order of frequency of use;
- Second, a 'core set' of journals was identified, which accounted for about $85 \%$ of the total number of papers;
- Third, the core set of journals was listed in descending order of five-year impact factor, determined as the mean number of citations from 1994-98 to papers published in 1994;
- Fourth, the top $10 \%$ of these journals were assigned a weighting, W , of 4 ; the next $20 \%$ $W=3$; the next $30 \% W=2$ and the bottom $40 \% \mathrm{~W}=1$.

Subfield definition The first step is to identify papers with addresses containing relevant keywords (i.e. from specialist departments)
which are likely to be mostly within the subfield and to derive from these a list of specialist journals. A sample of papers from all of these journals, and ones from the named departments, are then processed to list all the title words used and place them in descending order of frequency of use. These words are scanned by experts in the field and a proportion retained as being indicative of a paper relevant to that subfield. The performance of the filter is then checked by printing out sets of papers (titles and journal names) to check for their relevance to the subfield, and to provide data with which the filter may be calibrated. Two methods of calibration are used, one based on the relative numbers of papers in specialist and general journals, and another based on the relative numbers of papers retrieved and not retrieved from specialist departments. The two methods are independent and afford a check on the system. The filter calibration factor is an estimate of the number of papers actually present in a subfield compared with the number identified by the filter.

## Methodological caveats

Filters It was apparent during filter development that some were much better than others, i.e. they had both better recall and better precision. T hese were the filters for papers associated with particular parts of the human body, e.g. gastroenterology. None of the figures in this report have been adjusted by the calibration factors but the true absolute number of biomedical publications in any given subfield may be estimated by multiplying by the calibration factor (which is available from the authors on request).

SCI/SSCI The Research Outputs D atabase (ROD) is based on data available within ISI's (Institute for Scientific Information) Science and Social Sciences Citation Indeces (SCI/SSCI) with the addition of further postcode checks and funding information. This leaves ROD open to the same criticisms as these indices. This is not the case for subfield filters that are developed independently of ISI (Institute for Scientific Information).

One major concern is the journal coverage of the Science Citation Index. The database has been based on the CD-ROM version of the SCI until 2000 but has expanded in more recent years to cover more journals. T his creates a moving target when attempting to indicate research trends and may impact on one subfield more than another. The only way to overcome this problem is always to consider changes in output in any given subfield at the national level as a proportion of world papers. In this way any changes are standardized for the changing base and should remain relatively comparable from one country to the next.

Another problem is the 'bias' towards interna tional journals which precludes much research of any one country that may bein local national journals in the language of origin. The SCI has a tendency to cover journals of higher renown in the English language causing biases in any interna tional comparisons, and this tendency is even more pronounced in the SSCI. As this report concentrates on national trends of the NH , albeit in an increasingly global climate, and research that is predominantly in the English language, these problems may be less important here but are still worth noting.

W ithin theUK wemay talk about increases or decreases in the output of a funding sector or in a given subfield but these must be considered in relation to overall movementsfrom year to year in UK biomedicine as a whole. The biomedical filter used to develop the ROD is country specific, i.e. it usesUK address keywords. It is not therefore fully appropriate to use for the identification of biomedical papers from other countries or from theSCI as a whole. T hus although wehave shown that publications increased between 1990 and 1997, it is not clear what has happened to thetrue level of world biomedical publications (as defined here) in that time, although it appears to have increased steadily, by about 3\% per year, based on the application of the filter to the SCI alone.

## The Research $O$ utputs D atabase <br> Paper identification The bibliographic records for inclusion in the ROD are selected

from the Science Citation Index (SCI) and the Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) CD-ROM s under a licence agreement with ISI in Philadelphia. These databases are not only multidisciplinary and give coverage of all the scientific areas of interest, but they also contain all the authors' names and all the addresses in a standardized format. The ROD is intended to cover all UK papers in the scientific areas of interest to theTrust and the ROD members.

In order to select relevant papers from journals other than those classed as biomedical, and in particular important multidisciplinary journals such as N ature and Science, an additional keyword filter is used to search the address field of all UK papers. These words are of two types, specific (such as GLAXO or M RC) and generic (such as the contractions CAN C - cancer, or BIO CH EM - biochemistry, used by the compilers of theSCI). The biomedical filter is checked and refined prior to the start of each campaign to ensure a comprehensive search of the CD-ROM s.

D atabase architecture A relational data model was chosen for implementation of the database that provides data integrity and allows flexible data analysis through the mapping of reationships between parameters. The relational database management system Oracle 7 was selected, running on a H ewlett-Packard UNIX machine.

Recording funding information Once the paper data are loaded into the database, the funding details are manually noted by inspection of the original sources. Recorders (history graduates) are supplied with workbooks each listing approximately 1000 papers and a thesaurus of funding bodies with threeletter (trigraph) codes, see below. Thejournals covered in the workbooks may be found in several libraries, and the workbooks list the journals and their shelf references for ease of location. The libraries mainly used are:

- The Science Reference Library (SRL), part of the British Library (in two parts);
- The library of the Royal Society of M edicine (RSM);
- The library of the British Medical Association (BM A);
- The libraries of University College, London (UCL) and its constituent medical schools.

Six types of funding are recorded in the workbooks, as follows:

- Intramural support (from the addresses on the paper);
- Extramural;
- Personal (e.g. fellowship or studentship);
- Travel;
- Equipment;
- In-kind (often a gift of a pharmaceutical drug).

Funding body thesaurus The funding body thesaurus database, developed within the Wellcome Trust using M S Access, currently lists approximately 9500 different bodies funding biomedical research from many different countries, of which some 3640 are from the UK. Each is assigned a unique threeletter code in addition to its country code (two-digit ISO code) and organizational category. Currently the categories in use are as follows:

- BT Biotechnology company
- CH Charity, collecting from the public
- FO Foundation, endowed or with a single source (e.g. a company)
- GA Government agency (not controlled by ministers)
- GD G overnment department
- HT Hospital trustees (funds associated with a particular hospital)
- IN Industry (non-pharmaceutical)
- IP Industry (pharmaceutical)
- LA Local or regional authority
- NP Not-for-profit (including some charities not primarily supporting research)
- MI Mixed (collecting charity and endoment; mainly academic own funds)
- SN Subsidiary industrial organization (non-pharmaceutical)
- SP Subsidiary industrial organization (pharmaceutical)
- VP Veterinary practice
- XX Unidentified

New or unrecognized funding bodies found by the recorders are temporarily assigned a numerical code and the details noted in the workbooks for investigation within the Trust. Some are found to have existing codes, some are assigned new codes and some are not sources of funding and therefore ignored.

New funding bodies are investigated using available information sources to determine their country and their category, and whether they are in fact the same as an organization previously listed. Some funding bodies are acknowledged with their names in English and some in other languages; some with their full names and some with only their initials. In the past, books and other readily available directories were consulted but currently the Internet (through the use of many search engines and online databases) is proving to be an excellent source of new funding body information. It is particularly valuable for organizations identified only by their initial sor acronyms. W hen they are found, the addresses of the relevant web pages are recorded for future reference.

Inevitably, there are many organizations with but a single paper in the ROD acknowledging their support. This creates a very long tail of funding bodies which occupies space in the thesaurus and makes it needlessly long. To simplify the problem, a system of 'generic' codes, which include numeric as well as alphabetic characters, has been adopted for the grouping of minor funding bodies in the larger countries (other than the UK). Thus 'X12' designates a US foundation and 'X4B' a Swedish biotech company.

Data entry process Once the workbooks holding the indexed acknowledgements are returned to the Trust, all queries resolved and new funding body codes assigned, the funding acknowledgements are entered into the database. This is done separately by two
different data entry clerks and procedurally cross-checked. Any inconsistencies are resolved and corrections are made.

Postcode correction and addition All UK postcodes are checked for consistency and are corrected where necessary. If a postcode is missing from a paper and no address with the correct postcode exists on other papers in the $R O D$, then it is determined by reference to a postcode CD-ROM compiled by the Post O ffice, or other references such asT he H ospitals and H ealth Services Year Book. If the address cannot be identified precisely by postcode (e.g. UNIV-OXFORD), a 'dummy' postcode is entered. The area code (the first one or two letters) is entered if it is obvious, followed by dummy values: this allows the paper to be assigned to the correct geographical area for mapping purposes.

Quality assurance A photocopy of the address and acknowledgement sections of every 100th paper is made by the recorders. Thefunding bodies recorded in the workbook are checked against the photocopies within the

Trust and any errors are noted and fed back to the recorders to resolve any misunderstanding or lack of clarity in the guidelines.

ROD club membership Access to detailed data in the ROD is through a club membership scheme. It is open to all organizations funding or carrying out research in the UK or Ireland. M embership is currently in four classes with annual subscriptions based on either biomedical research expenditure (for funding bodies) or external income (for research performers) in the UK and Ireland. It provides a wide variety of benefits, including:

- An annual cumulative list of papers supported or published by the funding organization;
- Attendance at or representation on the ROD Club M embers' Committee to influence the development of the database;
- Invitations to seminars on research outputs;
- Complimentary copies of research reports and publications;
- Consultancy time to help with analysis and interpretation (with an initial free allowance).

Table A1: Profile of anaesthetics research

|  |  |  | JOURNAL IMPACT |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { W } 1 \\ & \text { (LOW) } \end{aligned}$ | W 2 | W 3 | $\begin{gathered} \text { W } 4 \\ \text { (HIGH) } \end{gathered}$ | Total |
| Number of publications <br> The average annual percentage growth AAPG - is calculated for 1990-97 | England | N | 1511 | 2690 | 738 | 522 | 5461 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | $\sim$ | ~ | 0.31\% |
|  | NHS | N | 1072 | 2372 | 479 | 348 | 4271 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | ~ | ~ | 1.04\% |
|  | W T/N HS | N | 29 | 50 | 43 | 26 | 148 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | 11.71\% |
|  | London | N | 455 | 831 | 246 | 182 | 1714 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | -3.05\% |
| Mean (and standard error) number of authors per paper | England | Mean | 2.91 | 3.35 | 4.58 | 4.08 | 3.48 |
|  |  | SE | 0.051 | 0.036 | 0.383 | 0.147 | 0.059 |
|  | NHS | Mean | 2.93 | 3.33 | 5.06 | 4.28 | 3.51 |
|  |  | SE | 0.060 | 0.036 | 0.585 | 0.1875 | 0.073 |
|  | W T/N HS | Mean | 3.79 | 3.84 | 4.23 | 4.42 | 4.05 |
|  |  | SE | 0.221 | 0.181 | 0.347 | 1.445 | 0.151 |
|  | London | Mean | 3.07 | 3.60 | 4.74 | 4.38 | 3.72 |
|  |  | SE | 0.102 | 0.064 | 0.294 | 0.248 | 0.066 |
| Number of papers by research level <br> (136 papers for England, 101 papers for the NHS and 29 papers for London did not have a research level and were excluded from this analysis) | England | 1 (Clinical) | 565 | 1220 | 183 | 119 | 2087 |
|  |  | 2 | 435 | 1167 | 159 | 90 | 1851 |
|  |  | 3 | 222 | 145 | 311 | 222 | 900 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 203 | 112 | 82 | 90 | 487 |
|  | NHS | 1 (Clinical) | 517 | 1153 | 171 | 108 | 1949 |
|  |  | 2 | 301 | 1051 | 129 | 77 | 1558 |
|  |  | 3 | 119 | 87 | 148 | 129 | 483 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 74 | 44 | 29 | 33 | 180 |
|  | W T/N HS | 1 (Clinical) | 1 | 12 | 6 | 1 | 20 |
|  |  | 2 | 7 | 19 | 4 | 5 | 35 |
|  |  | 3 | 8 | 6 | 29 | 10 | 53 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 13 | 11 | 4 | 10 | 38 |
|  | London | 1 (Clinical) | 199 | 404 | 85 | 45 | 733 |
|  |  | 2 | 129 | 349 | 60 | 50 | 588 |
|  |  | 3 | 61 | 34 | 78 | 60 | 233 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 51 | 31 | 23 | 26 | 131 |
| Research funder <br> (The public category is the sum of Government and none. The figures can add up to more than $100 \%$ because of multiple funding) | England | Government | 235 | 296 | 221 | 178 | 930 |
|  |  | PN P | 298 | 358 | 225 | 179 | 1060 |
|  |  | Industry | 221 | 505 | 270 | 151 | 1147 |
|  |  | N one | 925 | 1758 | 228 | 170 | 3081 |
|  |  | Public | 1160 | 2054 | 449 | 348 | 4011 |
|  | NHS | Government | 99 | 228 | 110 | 100 | 537 |
|  |  | PN P | 164 | 291 | 142 | 108 | 705 |
|  |  | Industry | 108 | 377 | 137 | 75 | 697 |
|  |  | N one | 772 | 1640 | 196 | 145 | 2753 |
|  |  | Public | 871 | 1868 | 306 | 245 | 3290 |
|  | London | Government | 44 | 97 | 55 | 45 | 241 |
|  |  | PN P | 97 | 118 | 92 | 62 | 369 |
|  |  | Industry | 42 | 140 | 79 | 53 | 314 |
|  |  | N one | 309 | 535 | 79 | 65 | 988 |
|  |  | Public | 353 | 632 | 134 | 110 | 1229 |

Table A2: Profile of arthritis and rheumatism research

|  |  |  |  | JOU | AL IM |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text { (Low) } \end{array}\right.$ | W 2 | W 3 | $\underset{(H 1 G H)}{(H)}$ | Total |
| Number of publications | England | N | 2220 | 2913 | 1130 | 394 | 6657 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 2.55\% |
| (The average annual | NHS | N | 1646 | 2257 | 743 | 223 | 4869 |
| AAPG - is calculated for |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 0.66\% |
| 1990-97) | W T/N HS | N | 60 | 120 | 65 | 42 | 287 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 1.98\% |
|  | London | N | 745 | 1096 | 419 | 154 | 2414 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | -2.76\% |
| Mean (and standard | England | Mean | 3.63 | 4.38 | 5.13 | 5.98 | 4.37 |
| error) number of authors per pape |  | SE | 0.051 | 0.067 | 0.135 | 0.148 | 0.043 |
|  | NHS | Mean | 3.64 | 4.45 | 5.07 | 6.14 | 4.37 |
|  |  | SE | 0.060 | 0.070 | 0.134 | 0.194 | 0.046 |
|  | W T/N HS | Mean | 4.65 | 4.70 | 5.17 | 5.93 | 4.98 |
|  |  | SE | 0.242 | 0.223 | 0.235 | 0.474 | 0.139 |
|  | London | Mean | 4.00 | 4.88 | 5.61 | 6.09 | 4.84 |
|  |  | SE | 0.111 | 0.108 | 0.205 | 0.236 | 0.073 |
| Number of papers by | England | 1 (Clinical) | 442 | 791 | 110 | 0 | 1343 |
| research level |  | 2 | 839 | 1452 | 295 | 63 | 2649 |
| (379 papers for |  | 3 | 358 | 504 | 499 | 248 | 1609 |
| England, 310 papers for |  | 4 (Basic) | 216 | 153 | 225 | 83 | 677 |
| the NHS and 113 | NHS | 1 (Clinical) | 384 | 658 | 91 | 0 | 1133 |
| papers for London did |  | 2 | 644 | 1159 | 224 | 48 | 2075 |
| level and were excluded |  | 3 | 203 | 341 | 308 | 131 | 983 |
| from this analysis) |  | 4 (Basic) | 111 | 93 | 120 | 44 | 368 |
|  | W T/N HS | 1 (Clinical) | 8 | 23 | 4 | 0 | 35 |
|  |  | 2 | 22 | 51 | 7 | 7 | 87 |
|  |  | 3 | 14 | 33 | 40 | 29 | 116 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 14 | 13 | 14 | 6 | 47 |
|  | London | 1 (Clinical) | 160 | 273 | 36 | 0 | 469 |
|  |  | 2 | 316 | 549 | 148 | 32 | 1045 |
|  |  | 3 | 97 | 205 | 167 | 98 | 567 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 62 | 66 | 68 | 24 | 220 |
| Research funder | England | Government | 401 | 739 | 410 | 223 | 1773 |
|  |  | PN P | 723 | 1391 | 669 | 311 | 3094 |
|  |  | Industry | 255 | 446 | 249 | 129 | 1079 |
| and none. The figures |  | None | 1187 | 1069 | 253 | 33 | 2542 |
| can add up to more |  | Public | 2566 | 3645 | 1581 | 696 | 8488 |
| than 100\% because of | NHS | Government | 251 | 540 | 248 | 115 | 1154 |
| mutiple funding) |  | PN P | 455 | 1004 | 422 | 168 | 2049 |
|  |  | Industry | 132 | 307 | 129 | 66 | 634 |
|  |  | None | 1013 | 931 | 201 | 24 | 2169 |
|  |  | Public | 1264 | 1471 | 449 | 139 | 3323 |
|  | London | Government | 139 | 311 | 161 | 84 | 695 |
|  |  | PNP | 240 | 551 | 249 | 118 | 1158 |
|  |  | Industry | 61 | 176 | 79 | 47 | 363 |
|  |  | None | 420 | 365 | 99 | 14 | 898 |
|  |  | Public | 559 | 676 | 260 | 98 | 1593 |

Table A3: Profile of asthma research

|  |  |  |  | JOU | AL IM |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { W } 1 \\ \text { (LOW) } \end{gathered}$ | W 2 | W 3 | $\begin{gathered} \text { W } 4 \\ (H I G H) \end{gathered}$ | Total |
| N umber of publications | England | $N$ | 907 | 524 | 325 | 174 | 1930 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 5.91\% |
| The average annual | NHS | N | 641 | 349 | 239 | 125 | 1354 |
| AAPG - is calculated for |  | AAPG | ~ | $\sim$ | ~ | ~ | 3.61\% |
| 1990-97 | W T/N HS | N | 13 | 24 | 19 | 18 | 74 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | $\sim$ | ~ | 5.56\% |
|  | London | N | 271 | 172 | 113 | 70 | 626 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | $\sim$ | ~ | ~ | 0.11\% |
| Mean (and standard | England | Mean | 3.49 | 4.26 | 5.37 | 5.12 | 4.17 |
| error) number of |  | SE | 0.116 | 0.186 | 0.298 | 0.388 | 0.066 |
|  | NHS | Mean | 3.59 | 4.44 | 5.38 | 5.06 | 4.27 |
|  |  | SE | 0.142 | 0.238 | 0.348 | 0.453 | 0.080 |
|  | W T/N HS | Mean | 4.92 | 4.58 | 6.37 | 7.00 | 5.6 |
|  |  | SE | 0.625 | 0.380 | 0.593 | 0.780 | 0.311 |
|  | London | Mean | 3.60 | 4.83 | 5.82 | 5.01 | 4.50 |
|  |  | SE | 0.262 | 0.302 | 0.477 | 0.965 | 0.141 |
| Number of papers by | England | 1 (Clinical) | 483 | 6 | 66 | 0 | 555 |
| research level |  | 2 | 192 | 187 | 206 | 127 | 712 |
| (45 papers for England, |  | 3 | 158 | 305 | 14 | 39 | 516 |
| 23 papers for the NHS |  | 4 (Basic) | 31 | 26 | 37 | 8 | 102 |
| and 7 papers for | NHS | 1 (Clinical) | 389 | 6 | 59 | 0 | 454 |
| London did not have a |  | 2 | 141 | 136 | 153 | 103 | 533 |
| excluded from this |  | 3 | 75 | 195 | 3 | 18 | 291 |
| analysis) |  | 4 (Basic) | 14 | 12 | 23 | 4 | 53 |
|  | W T/N HS | 1 (Clinical) | 6 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 8 |
|  |  | 2 | 4 | 12 | 8 | 12 | 36 |
|  |  | 3 | 2 | 11 | 2 | 3 | 18 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 1 | 1 | 7 | 3 | 12 |
|  | London | 1 (Clinical) | 162 | 5 | 21 | 0 | 188 |
|  |  | 2 | 63 | 53 | 78 | 61 | 255 |
|  |  | 3 | 32 | 107 | 2 | 8 | 149 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 7 | 7 | 12 | 1 | 27 |
| Research funder | England | Government | 127 | 115 | 140 | 75 | 457 |
|  |  | PN P | 190 | 144 | 135 | 84 | 553 |
| (The public category is the sum of Government |  | Industry | 281 | 222 | 127 | 71 | 701 |
| and none. The figures |  | N one | 436 | 178 | 78 | 38 | 730 |
| can add up to more |  | Public | 563 | 293 | 218 | 113 | 1187 |
| than 100\% because of | NHS | Government | 92 | 82 | 100 | 46 | 320 |
| muttiple funding) |  | PN P | 140 | 100 | 102 | 68 | 410 |
|  |  | Industry | 146 | 115 | 77 | 48 | 386 |
|  |  | N one | 345 | 139 | 64 | 25 | 573 |
|  |  | Public | 437 | 221 | 164 | 71 | 893 |
|  | London | Government | 39 | 44 | 56 | 24 | 163 |
|  |  | PN P | 76 | 58 | 55 | 39 | 228 |
|  |  | Industry | 70 | 60 | 42 | 31 | 203 |
|  |  | N one | 134 | 62 | 17 | 15 | 228 |
|  |  | Public | 173 | 106 | 73 | 39 | 391 |

Table A4: Profile of cardiology research


Table A5: Profile of clinical trials research

|  |  |  | JOURNAL IMPACT |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { W } 1 \\ \text { (LOW) } \end{gathered}$ | W 2 | W 3 | $\begin{array}{r} \text { W } 4 \\ \text { (HIGH) } \end{array}$ | Total |
| Number of publications <br> The average annual percentage growth AAPG - is calculated for 1990-97 | England | N | 1283 | 817 | 727 | 317 | 3144 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | ~ | $\sim$ | ~ | 8.75\% |
|  | NHS | N | 943 | 691 | 593 | 262 | 2489 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 7.44\% |
|  | W T/N HS | $N$ | 16 | 21 | 34 | 14 | 85 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 25.58\% |
|  | London | N | 360 | 318 | 292 | 171 | 1141 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | ~ | $\sim$ | 9.18\% |
| Mean (and standard error) number of authors per paper | England | Mean | 5.46 | 6.60 | 7.28 | 17.67 | 7.47 |
|  |  | SE | 0.308 | 0.292 | 0.481 | 1.903 | 0.287 |
|  | NHS | Mean | 5.79 | 6.69 | 7.34 | 18.23 | 7.78 |
|  |  | SE | 0.407 | 0.335 | 0.558 | 2.380 | 0.346 |
|  | W T/N HS | Mean | 6.25 | 10.86 | 5.91 | 10.64 | 7.98 |
|  |  | SE | 0.727 | 5.410 | 0.579 | 2.495 | 1.420 |
|  | London | Mean | 7.13 | 8.10 | 7.19 | 20.96 | 9.54 |
|  |  | SE | 0.732 | 0.660 | 0.580 | 3.241 | 0.607 |
| N umber of papers by research level <br> (198 papers for England, 144 papers for the NHS and 48 papers for London did not have a research level and were excluded from this analysis) | England | 1 (Clinical) | 456 | 186 | 347 | 17 | 1006 |
|  |  | 2 | 470 | 443 | 254 | 266 | 1433 |
|  |  | 3 | 154 | 163 | 112 | 29 | 458 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 22 | 17 | 5 | 5 | 49 |
|  | NHS | 1 (Clinical) | 359 | 174 | 284 | 11 | 828 |
|  |  | 2 | 345 | 375 | 216 | 225 | 1161 |
|  |  | 3 | 97 | 135 | 86 | 22 | 340 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 7 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 16 |
|  | W T/N HS | 1 (Clinical) | 3 | 0 | 21 | 2 | 26 |
|  |  | 2 | 8 | 13 | 8 | 11 | 40 |
|  |  | 3 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 13 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 5 |
|  | London | 1 (Clinical) | 137 | 65 | 140 | 7 | 349 |
|  |  | 2 | 131 | 181 | 119 | 148 | 579 |
|  |  | 3 | 45 | 68 | 31 | 14 | 158 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 7 |
| Research funder <br> (The public category is the sum of Government and none. The figures can add up to more than $100 \%$ because of multiple funding) | England | Government | 282 | 203 | 279 | 142 | 906 |
|  |  | PN P | 267 | 270 | 307 | 158 | 1002 |
|  |  | Industry | 393 | 290 | 200 | 142 | 1025 |
|  |  | N one | 549 | 250 | 162 | 35 | 996 |
|  |  | Public | 831 | 453 | 441 | 177 | 1902 |
|  | NHS | Government | 173 | 158 | 213 | 106 | 650 |
|  |  | PN P | 192 | 237 | 258 | 130 | 817 |
|  |  | Industry | 251 | 237 | 170 | 110 | 768 |
|  |  | N one | 161 | 95 | 60 | 23 | 339 |
|  |  | Public | 334 | 253 | 273 | 129 | 989 |
|  | London | Government | 56 | 65 | 100 | 67 | 288 |
|  |  | PN P | 80 | 112 | 128 | 84 | 404 |
|  |  | Industry | 113 | 133 | 86 | 76 | 408 |
|  |  | N one | 161 | 95 | 60 | 23 | 339 |
|  |  | Public | 217 | 160 | 160 | 90 | 627 |

Table A6: Profile of diabetes research

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table A7: Profile of gastroenterology research

|  |  |  | JOURNAL IMPACT |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\begin{array}{r} \text { W } 1 \\ \text { (LOW) } \end{array}$ | W 2 | W 3 | $\begin{gathered} \text { W } 4 \\ (\text { HIGH }) \end{gathered}$ | Total |
| Number of publications <br> The average annual percentage growth AAPG - is calculated for 1990-97 | England | N | 5093 | 4348 | 3424 | 1360 | 14225 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 0.08\% |
|  | NHS | N | 3311 | 3098 | 2263 | 832 | 9504 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | ~ | ~ | ~ | -0.66\% |
|  | W T/N HS | N | 115 | 154 | 165 | 113 | 447 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | ~ | $\sim$ | -3.95\% |
|  | London | N | 1524 | 1500 | 1172 | 556 | 4752 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | -2.42\% |
| Mean (and standard error) number of authors per paper | England | Mean | 3.59 | 4.34 | 4.77 | 6.30 | 4.39 |
|  |  | SE | 0.030 | 0.044 | 0.054 | 0.131 | 0.026 |
|  | NHS | Mean | 3.57 | 4.40 | 4.91 | 6.48 | 4.44 |
|  |  | SE | 0.038 | 0.055 | 0.070 | 0.190 | 0.034 |
|  | W T/N HS | Mean | 4.11 | 4.90 | 5.25 | 5.99 | 5.07 |
|  |  | SE | 0.185 | 0.166 | 0.275 | 0.283 | 0.134 |
|  | London | Mean | 3.74 | 4.79 | 5.19 | 6.94 | 4.83 |
|  |  | SE | 0.063 | 0.091 | 0.082 | 0.251 | 0.052 |
| Number of papers by research level <br> (568 papers for England, 293 papers for the NHS and 146 papers for London did not have a research level and were excluded from this analysis) | England | 1 (Clinical) | 1535 | 1205 | 261 | 12 | 3013 |
|  |  | 2 | 1445 | 1813 | 1551 | 800 | 5609 |
|  |  | 3 | 1029 | 859 | 934 | 286 | 3108 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 561 | 435 | 673 | 258 | 1927 |
|  | NHS | 1 (Clinical) | 1289 | 1031 | 218 | 8 | 2546 |
|  |  | 2 | 979 | 1444 | 1261 | 595 | 4279 |
|  |  | 3 | 542 | 456 | 521 | 145 | 1664 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 221 | 156 | 261 | 84 | 722 |
|  | W T/N HS | 1 (Clinical) | 10 | 24 | 3 | 1 | 38 |
|  |  | 2 | 42 | 73 | 72 | 73 | 260 |
|  |  | 3 | 35 | 35 | 47 | 22 | 139 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 28 | 22 | 43 | 17 | 110 |
|  | London | 1 (Clinical) | 560 | 453 | 107 | 6 | 1126 |
|  |  | 2 | 480 | 734 | 675 | 426 | 2315 |
|  |  | 3 | 247 | 237 | 279 | 85 | 848 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 103 | 64 | 111 | 39 | 317 |
| Research funder <br> (The public category is the sum of Government and none. The figures can add up to more than $100 \%$ because of multiple funding) | England | Government | 1174 | 1204 | 1203 | 650 | 4231 |
|  |  | PN P | 1075 | 1218 | 1367 | 716 | 4376 |
|  |  | Industry | 674 | 733 | 683 | 307 | 2397 |
|  |  | N one | 2877 | 2021 | 1142 | 275 | 6315 |
|  |  | Public | 4051 | 3225 | 2345 | 925 | 10546 |
|  | NHS | Government | 533 | 699 | 622 | 344 | 2198 |
|  |  | PN P | 593 | 804 | 839 | 410 | 2646 |
|  |  | Industry | 271 | 427 | 359 | 178 | 1235 |
|  |  | N one | 2239 | 1656 | 939 | 214 | 5048 |
|  |  | Public | 2772 | 2355 | 1561 | 558 | 7246 |
|  | London | Government | 214 | 298 | 309 | 198 | 1019 |
|  |  | PN P | 326 | 482 | 481 | 267 | 1556 |
|  |  | Industry | 100 | 190 | 167 | 133 | 590 |
|  |  | N one | 1028 | 780 | 467 | 158 | 2433 |
|  |  | Public | 1242 | 1078 | 776 | 356 | 3452 |

Table A8: Profile of genetics research


Table A9: Profile of gerontology research


Table A10: Profile of haematology research


Table A11: Profile of intensive care research

|  |  |  |  | JOU | AL IM |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { W } 1 \\ & \text { (LOW) } \end{aligned}$ | W 2 | W 3 | $\begin{array}{r} \text { W } 4 \\ (H I G H) \end{array}$ | Total |
| Number of publications | England | N | 473 | 849 | 323 | 210 | 1855 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | ~ | 2.22\% |
| The average annual percentage growth - | NHS | N | 406 | 752 | 282 | 175 | 1615 |
| AAPG - is calculated for |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | ~ | ~ | $\sim$ | 2.19\% |
| 1990-97 | W T/N HS | N | 5 | 26 | 15 | 10 | 56 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | ~ | $\sim$ | 6.02\% |
|  | London | N | 164 | 304 | 174 | 113 | 755 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | ~ | $\sim$ | ~ | -1.19\% |
| Mean (and standard | England | Mean | 3.01 | 3.66 | 5.93 | 6.37 | 4.23 |
| error) number of |  | SE | 0.062 | 0.092 | 1.020 | 1.880 | 0.215 |
|  | NHS | Mean | 3.07 | 3.64 | 6.17 | 6.62 | 4.23 |
|  |  | SE | 0.064 | 0.087 | 1.235 | 2.762 | 0.244 |
|  | W T/N HS | Mean | 4.80 | 4.23 | 5.40 | 4.70 | 4.68 |
|  |  | SE | 0.969 | 0.393 | 0.748 | 0.650 | 0.306 |
|  | London | Mean | 3.09 | 3.96 | 5.34 | 8.39 | 4.79 |
|  |  | SE | 0.101 | 0.121 | 0.567 | 3.770 | 0.372 |
| Number of papers by | England | 1 (Clinical) | 243 | 424 | 142 | 68 | 877 |
| research level |  | 2 | 117 | 270 | 92 | 101 | 580 |
| (72 papers for England, |  | 3 | 34 | 92 | 77 | 28 | 231 |
| 53 papers for the NHS |  | 4 (Basic) | 9 | 61 | 12 | 13 | 95 |
| and 24 papers for | NHS | 1 (Clinical) | 235 | 396 | 130 | 59 | 820 |
| London did not have a |  | 2 | 90 | 246 | 88 | 86 | 510 |
| excluded from this |  | 3 | 24 | 77 | 58 | 21 | 180 |
| analysis) |  | 4 (Basic) | 6 | 31 | 6 | 9 | 52 |
|  | W T/N HS | 1 (Clinical) | 2 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 9 |
|  |  | 2 | 2 | 10 | 7 | 5 | 24 |
|  |  | 3 | 0 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 10 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 1 | 9 | 1 | 2 | 13 |
|  | London | 1 (Clinical) | 88 | 170 | 67 | 22 | 347 |
|  |  | 2 | 40 | 78 | 61 | 74 | 253 |
|  |  | 3 | 8 | 29 | 41 | 10 | 88 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 5 | 26 | 5 | 7 | 43 |
| Research funder | England | Government | 57 | 122 | 83 | 51 | 313 |
|  |  | PN P | 72 | 176 | 95 | 69 | 412 |
| (The public category is the sum of Government |  | Industry | 35 | 107 | 75 | 25 | 242 |
| and none. The figures |  | N one | 344 | 534 | 150 | 96 | 1124 |
| can add up to more |  | Public | 401 | 656 | 233 | 147 | 1437 |
| than 100\% because of | NHS | Government | 42 | 101 | 63 | 39 | 245 |
|  |  | PN P | 49 | 142 | 83 | 55 | 329 |
|  |  | Industry | 23 | 88 | 59 | 18 | 188 |
|  |  | N one | 318 | 492 | 142 | 87 | 1039 |
|  |  | Public | 360 | 593 | 205 | 126 | 1284 |
|  | London | Government | 12 | 52 | 40 | 23 | 127 |
|  |  | PN P | 21 | 80 | 57 | 41 | 199 |
|  |  | Industry | 9 | 32 | 41 | 15 | 97 |
|  |  | N one | 133 | 181 | 81 | 49 | 444 |
|  |  | Public | 145 | 233 | 121 | 72 | 571 |

Table A12: Profile of neonatology research


Table A13: Profile of neurosciences research


Table A14: Profile of nursing research

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |  | JO U RNAL IMPACT |  |  |  |

Table A15: Profile of obstetrics and gynaecology research


Table A16: Profile of paediatrics research


Table A17: Profile of primary healthcare research


Table A18: Profile of public healthcare research

|  |  |  |  | Jou | AL IM |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { W1 } \\ \text { (Low) } \end{gathered}$ | W 2 | W 3 | $\underset{(H / G H)}{W}$ | Total |
| Number of publications | England | N | 1194 | 995 | 636 | 257 | 3082 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 10.89\% |
| The average annual | NHS | N | 802 | 617 | 458 | 145 | 2022 |
| AAPG - is calculated for |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | ~ | 8.63\% |
| 1990-97 | W T/N HS | N | 16 | 28 | 26 | 20 | 90 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 14.13\% |
|  | London | N | 285 | 242 | 207 | 81 | 815 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 8.76\% |
| Mean (and standard | England | Mean | 3.25 | 3.91 | 4.84 | 9.74 | 4.35 |
| error) number of |  | SE | 0.076 | 0.120 | 0.195 | 1.284 | 0.129 |
|  | NHS | Mean | 3.22 | 4.03 | 5.05 | 8.81 | 4.29 |
|  |  | SE | 0.064 | 0.108 | 0.243 | 1.824 | 0.152 |
|  | W T/NHS | Mean | 5.00 | 4.82 | 5.27 | 6.80 | 5.42 |
|  |  | SE | 0.492 | 0.468 | 0.456 | 0.823 | 0.289 |
|  | London | Mean | 3.39 | 4.24 | 5.38 | 6.85 | 4.51 |
|  |  | SE | 0.130 | 0.183 | 0.309 | 0.589 | 0.127 |
| Number of papers by | England | 1 (Clinical) | 355 | 630 | 324 | 4 | 1313 |
| research level |  | 2 | 203 | 190 | 193 | 200 | 786 |
| (561 papers for |  | 3 | 50 | 162 | 103 | 42 | 357 |
| England, 371 papers for |  | 4 (Basic) | 40 | 5 | 13 | 7 | 65 |
| the NHS and 95 papers | NHS | 1 (Clinical) | 263 | 410 | 242 | 2 | 917 |
| for London did not |  | 2 | 134 | 145 | 144 | 109 | 532 |
| were excluded from this |  | 3 | 25 | 58 | 66 | 24 | 173 |
| analysis) |  | 4 (Basic) | 16 | 2 | 4 | 7 | 29 |
|  | W T/N HS | 1 (Clinical) | 4 | 21 | 19 | 1 | 45 |
|  |  | 2 | 6 | 7 | 2 | 14 | 29 |
|  |  | 3 | 0 | 0 | 4 | , | 5 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 3 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 8 |
|  | London | 1 (Clinical) | 127 | 155 | 110 | 2 | 384 |
|  |  | 2 | 49 | 63 | 62 | 63 | 237 |
|  |  | 3 | 13 | 24 | 33 | 12 | 82 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 4 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 7 |
| Research funder | England | Government | 425 | 510 | 294 | 167 | 1396 |
|  |  | PN P | 232 | 287 | 287 | 159 | 965 |
| (The public category is |  | Industry | 81 | 83 | 80 | 47 | 291 |
| and none. The figures |  | None | 601 | 318 | 177 | 30 | 1126 |
| can add up to more |  | Public | 1026 | 828 | 471 | 197 | 2522 |
| than 100\% because of | NHS | Government | 301 | 334 | 212 | 90 | 937 |
| multiple funding) |  | PN P | 139 | 193 | 214 | 86 | 632 |
|  |  | Industry | 51 | 47 | 63 | 23 | 184 |
|  |  | None | 391 | 180 | 116 | 16 | 703 |
|  |  | Public | 692 | 514 | 328 | 106 | 1640 |
|  | London | Government | 88 | 114 | 97 | 48 | 347 |
|  |  | PN P | 67 | 85 | 101 | 45 | 298 |
|  |  | Industry | 17 | 17 | 41 | 13 | 88 |
|  |  | None | 148 | 87 | 49 | 12 | 296 |
|  |  | Public | 236 | 201 | 146 | 60 | 643 |

Table A19: Profile of rehabilitation research


Table A20: Profile of respiratory medicine research

|  |  |  | JOURNAL IMPACT |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\underset{(\text { (Low) }}{(1)}$ | W 2 | W 3 | $\begin{array}{r} \text { W } 4 \\ (H I G H) \end{array}$ | Total |
| Number of publications <br> The average annual percentage growth AAPG - is calculated for 1990-97 | England | N | 3590 | 3075 | 1444 | 1106 | 9215 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 1.94\% |
|  | NHS | N | 2633 | 2408 | 933 | 753 | 6727 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | $\sim$ | ~ | ~ | 1.60\% |
|  | W T/N HS | N | 81 | 116 | 89 | 94 | 380 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 9.04\% |
|  | London | N | 1195 | 1136 | 463 | 460 | 3254 |
|  |  | AAPG | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | 0.55\% |
| Mean (and standard error) number of authors per paper | England | Mean | 3.56 | 4.14 | 4.72 | 5.69 | 4.20 |
|  |  | SE | 0.042 | 0.049 | 0.099 | 0.131 | 0.033 |
|  | NHS | Mean | 3.52 | 4.24 | 4.78 | 5.81 | 4.49 |
|  |  | SE | 0.043 | 0.058 | 0.121 | 0.161 | 0.044 |
|  | W T/N HS | Mean | 4.69 | 5.02 | 5.06 | 5.88 | 5.17 |
|  |  | SE | 0.253 | 0.260 | 0.250 | 0.350 | 0.143 |
|  | London | Mean | 3.53 | 4.63 | 5.18 | 5.84 | 4.49 |
|  |  | SE | 0.064 | 0.104 | 0.221 | 0.227 | 0.064 |
| Number of papers by research level <br> (326 papers for England, 172 papers for the NHS and 81 papers for London did not have a research level and were excluded from this analysis) | England | 1 (Clinical) | 1299 | 1284 | 197 | 8 | 2788 |
|  |  | 2 | 1124 | 605 | 617 | 642 | 2988 |
|  |  | 3 | 511 | 947 | 398 | 195 | 2051 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 339 | 236 | 228 | 259 | 1062 |
|  | NHS | 1 (Clinical) | 1155 | 1126 | 170 | 6 | 2457 |
|  |  | 2 | 891 | 487 | 471 | 487 | 2336 |
|  |  | 3 | 255 | 671 | 190 | 105 | 1221 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 165 | 123 | 99 | 154 | 541 |
|  | W T/N HS | 1 (Clinical) | 11 | 24 | 6 | 0 | 41 |
|  |  | 2 | 24 | 22 | 34 | 36 | 116 |
|  |  | 3 | 14 | 50 | 24 | 15 | 103 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 32 | 20 | 25 | 43 | 120 |
|  | London | 1 (Clinical) | 522 | 511 | 93 | 3 | 1129 |
|  |  | 2 | 410 | 197 | 224 | 310 | 1141 |
|  |  | 3 | 94 | 355 | 99 | 59 | 607 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 90 | 73 | 46 | 87 | 296 |
| Research Funder <br> (The public category is the sum of government and none. The figures can add up to more than $100 \%$ because of multiple funding) | England | Government | 820 | 735 | 619 | 527 | 2701 |
|  |  | PNP | 943 | 942 | 572 | 600 | 3057 |
|  |  | Industry | 511 | 584 | 356 | 309 | 1760 |
|  |  | None | 1899 | 1437 | 392 | 210 | 3938 |
|  |  | Public | 2719 | 2172 | 1011 | 737 | 6639 |
|  | NHS | Government | 436 | 514 | 360 | 330 | 1640 |
|  |  | PN P | 607 | 698 | 363 | 418 | 2086 |
|  |  | Industry | 263 | 366 | 184 | 191 | 1004 |
|  |  | None | 1652 | 1264 | 316 | 158 | 3390 |
|  |  | Public | 2088 | 1778 | 676 | 488 | 5030 |
|  | London | Government | 203 | 272 | 176 | 190 | 841 |
|  |  | PNP | 304 | 402 | 195 | 253 | 1154 |
|  |  | Industry | 128 | 186 | 100 | 129 | 543 |
|  |  | None | 735 | 535 | 146 | 101 | 1517 |
|  |  | Public | 938 | 807 | 322 | 291 | 2358 |

Table A21: Profile of stroke research

|  |  |  | JOURNAL IMPACT |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { W } 1 \\ \text { (LOW) } \end{gathered}$ | W 2 | W 3 | $\begin{gathered} \text { W } 4 \\ (H I G H) \end{gathered}$ | Total |
| Number of publications <br> The average annual percentage growth AAPG - is calculated for 1990-97 | England | N | 390 | 266 | 192 | 221 | 1069 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | ~ | 9.71\% |
|  | NHS | N | 335 | 221 | 154 | 168 | 878 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | ~ | 9.37\% |
|  | W T/N HS | N | 4 | 9 | 11 | 17 | 41 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | ~ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | 3.74\% |
|  | London | N | 123 | 97 | 51 | 86 | 357 |
|  |  | AAPG | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | $\sim$ | 7.93\% |
| Mean (and standard error) number of authors per paper | England | Mean | 3.45 | 3.82 | 4.84 | 6.79 | 4.51 |
|  |  | SE | 0.095 | 0.123 | 0.673 | 1.285 | 0.301 |
|  | NHS | Mean | 3.48 | 3.90 | 4.95 | 7.14 | 4.73 |
|  |  | SE | 0.104 | 0.138 | 0.811 | 1.671 | 0.260 |
|  | W T/N HS | Mean | 4.25 | 3.89 | 4.18 | 5.65 | 4.73 |
|  |  | SE | 1.377 | 0.611 | 0.585 | 0.606 | 0.359 |
|  | London | Mean | 3.92 | 3.98 | 6.51 | 5.57 | 4.57 |
|  |  | SE | 0.219 | 0.190 | 2.404 | 0.777 | 0.565 |
| Number of papers by research level <br> (66 papers for England, 48 papers for the NHS and 18 papers for London did not have a research level and were excluded from this analysis) | England | 1 (Clinical) | 221 | 82 | 67 | 130 | 500 |
|  |  | 2 | 85 | 114 | 70 | 42 | 311 |
|  |  | 3 | 13 | 43 | 34 | 19 | 109 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 12 | 23 | 18 | 30 | 83 |
|  | NHS | 1 (Clinical) | 205 | 77 | 62 | 108 | 452 |
|  |  | 2 | 79 | 104 | 67 | 37 | 287 |
|  |  | 3 | 5 | 25 | 15 | 9 | 54 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 4 | 12 | 7 | 14 | 37 |
|  | W T/N HS | 1 (Clinical) | 2 | 4 | 6 | 4 | 16 |
|  |  | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 12 |
|  |  | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 3 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 0 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 10 |
|  | London | 1 (Clinical) | 63 | 36 | 22 | 57 | 178 |
|  |  | 2 | 37 | 47 | 19 | 17 | 120 |
|  |  | 3 | 3 | 8 | 6 | 3 | 20 |
|  |  | 4 (Basic) | 3 | 6 | 3 | 9 | 21 |
| Research funder <br> (The public category is the sum of Government and none. The figures can add up to more than $100 \%$ because of multiple funding) | England | Government | 52 | 47 | 55 | 84 | 238 |
|  |  | PN P | 67 | 78 | 72 | 114 | 331 |
|  |  | Industry | 22 | 36 | 30 | 49 | 137 |
|  |  | N one | 280 | 141 | 86 | 52 | 559 |
|  |  | Public | 332 | 188 | 141 | 136 | 797 |
|  | N HS | Government | 38 | 39 | 43 | 66 | 186 |
|  |  | PN P | 48 | 57 | 60 | 95 | 260 |
|  |  | Industry | 16 | 22 | 15 | 22 | 75 |
|  |  | N one | 256 | 134 | 77 | 43 | 510 |
|  |  | Public | 294 | 173 | 120 | 109 | 696 |
|  | London | Government | 16 | 17 | 13 | 33 | 79 |
|  |  | PN P | 25 | 27 | 22 | 50 | 124 |
|  |  | Industry | 10 | 5 | 6 | 13 | 34 |
|  |  | N one | 87 | 62 | 26 | 20 | 195 |
|  |  | Public | 103 | 79 | 39 | 53 | 274 |

Table A22: Profile of surgery research


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[^0]:    ${ }^{C}$ The NHS ROD membership is paid for and managed by the R\&D Directorate of the London Regional 0 ffice of the NHSE.

[^1]:    elt should be noted that since A pril 1998 NHS providers in receipt of NHS funds have been expected, by contract, to acknowledge the NHS R\&D funding stream.

[^2]:    f These data are taken from the Research 0 utputs D atabase.
    g We have concentrated on the London region - the sponsors of the project.
    h It should be noted that both ROD and the NHS research outputs dataset are derived from the CD-ROM version of the SCI which has expanded in recent years to cover more journals. Thus some of the increase in publications will be an artifact of increased coverage, and this may impact one subfield more than another.

[^3]:    j We make the assumption that papers without funding acknowledgement result from 'own account' funds. However, we are aware that other funding sources may also contribute to funding this research, e.g. Higher Education Funding Council allocations.

[^4]:    k This is calculated from Table 4.4 of the Science Engineering and Technology Statistics 1999 (reference 2).

[^5]:    RL 1 = clinical observation; RL 2 = clinical mix; RL 3 = clinical investigation; and RL $4=$ basic
    AAPG $=$ Average Annual Percentage Growth

[^6]:    m This estimate is based on a combined Budget 1 and 2 expenditure of $£ 410 \mathrm{~m}$ in $1996 / 7$, deflated by $5 \%$ per year for the preceding eight years.
    n This is the recently adopted language used in the Department of Health report, Research and Development for a First Class Service (reference 19).
    0 This is hard to estimate but $37 \%$ of Culyer projects in $1995 / 6$ recorded some non-commercial external funding.
    p Although, in theory at least, instruments such as quality-adjusted life years could be used.

[^7]:    q Previous multivariate analysis (reference 20) confirms that the association between impact, authorship and funding still holds, even when other factors have been controlled for.

[^8]:    a Prior to 1996, R\&D expenditure in the NHS was not known. Following the Culyer report, during 1996 N HSTrusts were asked to declare their R\&D costs for the 1995/96 financial year. This in effect established Budget 1 of the Levy (see Box C). Budget 2 was established from the returns provided by the regions and HQ giving spend on activity supporting R\&D funded by the NHSE. In this example we have deflated the combined Budget 1 and 2 by $5 \%$ to estimate NHS R\&D expenditure for 1995.
    b In January 1999 the NHS regions were reorganized, thus the figures for Eastern, London and the South East are estimated based on the deflated figures for Anglia and O xford, N orth Thames and South Thames.

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