

# Harmful gambling: identification, assessment and management

## Methods

*NICE guideline number tbc*

*Supplement 1*

*October 2023*

*Draft for Consultation*



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ISBN:

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# 1 Development of the guideline

## 2 Remit

3 The National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) commissioned the  
4 National Guideline Alliance (NGA) to develop a new guideline on harmful gambling.  
5 This guideline focuses on the identification, assessment and management of harmful  
6 gambling. In April 2022 the NGA became part of the NICE centre for guidelines.

7 To see “What this guideline covers” and “What this guideline does not cover” please  
8 see the [guideline scope](#).

# 1 Methods

2 This guideline was developed using the methods described in the [2018 NICE](#)  
3 [guidelines manual](#).

4 Declarations of interest were recorded according to the [NICE conflicts of interest](#)  
5 [policy](#).

## 6 Developing the review questions and outcomes

7 The review questions developed for this guideline were based on the key areas  
8 identified in the guideline [scope](#). They were drafted by the NGA technical team, and  
9 refined and validated by the guideline committee.

10 The review questions were based on the following frameworks:

- 11 • population, intervention, comparator and outcome (PICO) for reviews of  
12 interventions
- 13 • diagnostic reviews and reviews of prediction model accuracy – using population,  
14 diagnostic test (index test), reference standard and target condition (PIRT)
- 15 • qualitative reviews – using population, phenomenon of interest and context (PICo)

16 Full literature searches, critical appraisals and evidence reviews were completed for  
17 all review questions.

18 The review questions and evidence reviews corresponding to each question (or  
19 group of questions) are summarised below in Table 1.

20 **Table 1: Summary of review questions and index to evidence reviews**

Evidence review	Review question	Type of review
[A] Factors suggesting harmful gambling	What factors, either alone or in combination, suggest that a person is participating in harmful gambling?	Diagnostic
[B] Tools for identification and assessment of harmful gambling	What is the accuracy of individual brief screening tools in identifying harmful gambling?  What is the accuracy of tools to identify and assess harmful gambling?	Diagnostic
[C] Information and support	What are the information and support needs of people who participate in harmful gambling, their families, friends and others close to them?	Qualitative
[D] Models of care and service delivery	What is the effectiveness of different models of care and delivery of services for people who participate in harmful	Intervention

Evidence review	Review question	Type of review
	gambling (including those with comorbid conditions)?	
[E] Pharmacological treatment of harmful gambling	What is the effectiveness of pharmacological interventions for people who participate in harmful gambling (including those with comorbid conditions)?	Intervention
[F] Psychological and psychosocial treatment of harmful gambling	What is the effectiveness of psychological and psychosocial interventions for people who participate in harmful gambling (including those with comorbid conditions)?	Intervention <sup>1</sup>
[G] Interventions for families and affected others	What is the effectiveness of interventions and approaches for reducing gambling-related harms for families, friends and others close to people who gamble?	Intervention
[H] Relapse prevention	What is the effectiveness of interventions and approaches (for example, building recovery capital, mutual aid, peer support and mentoring programmes) for preventing relapse in people who have previously participated in harmful gambling?	Intervention
[I] Access	What are the barriers and facilitators to accessing treatment for harmful gambling from the perspective of practitioners, people who participate or have participated in harmful gambling, and their families, friends and others close to them?	Qualitative
[J] Interventions to improve access	What is the effectiveness of interventions or approaches designed to improve access to treatment for people who participate in harmful gambling among groups who are generally under-represented in treatment services?	Intervention
[K] Improving gambling	What works well and what could be improved in gambling treatment services, including	Qualitative

Evidence review	Review question	Type of review
treatment services	treatments for individuals, family approaches and relapse prevention, from the perspective of practitioners, people who participate or have participated in harmful gambling, and their families, friends and others close to them?	

1 <sup>1</sup>Original health economic analysis conducted

2 The [COMET database](#) was searched for core outcome sets relevant to this guideline.  
3 No core outcome sets were identified and therefore the outcomes were chosen  
4 based on committee discussions.

## 5 Searching for evidence

### 6 Scoping search

7 During the scoping phase, searches were conducted for previous guidelines,  
8 economic evaluations, health technology assessments, systematic reviews,  
9 randomised controlled trials, observational studies and qualitative research.  
10 Searches of websites of organisations, institutional repositories and internet search  
11 engines were also undertaken for relevant policies and related documents, including  
12 grey literature.

### 13 Systematic literature search

14 Systematic literature searches were undertaken to identify published evidence  
15 relevant to each review question. NICE undertook the searches for evidence reviews  
16 A-D and F-K, as reported below. For evidence review E, the Cochrane review for  
17 pharmacological interventions for the treatment of disordered and problem gambling  
18 (Dowling 2022) was used. A single search was used to cover the questions in  
19 evidence review F (psychological treatment) and evidence review H (relapse  
20 prevention).

21 Databases were searched using subject headings, free-text terms and, where  
22 appropriate, study type filters. Where possible, searches were limited to exclude:  
23 articles published before 2000; non-English language articles; non-human studies;  
24 and letters, editorials, case reports, conference proceedings and dissertations.

25 All the searches were conducted in the following databases: Applied Social Science  
26 Index and Abstracts (ASSIA), Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials  
27 (CCTR), Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (CDSR), Cumulative Index to  
28 Nursing and Allied Health Literature (CINAHL), Embase, Emcare, Epistemonikos,  
29 Health Management Information Consortium (HMIC), International Health  
30 Technology Assessment Database (INAHTA), MEDLINE ALL, PsycInfo, Social Care  
31 Online (SCO), Social Policy & Practice (SPP) and Social Science Citation Index  
32 (SSCI). Searches for grey literature were conducted on the websites of relevant  
33 organisations (as listed in the protocols provided in Appendix A of each evidence  
34 review) for all review questions.



1 Searches were run once for evidence reviews A, B, C, I and K during development in  
2 2022. Searches for evidence review F were updated in November 2022. Searches  
3 for evidence reviews D, G, H and J were updated in April 2023, 11 weeks in advance  
4 of the final committee meeting.

5 The Cochrane review (Dowling 2022) used for evidence review E searched the  
6 Cochrane Common Mental Disorders Specialised Register, CCTR, MEDLINE,  
7 Embase, and PsycInfo up to 11 January 2022 and the search strategies are provided  
8 in the [appendix](#) to the Cochrane review.

9 Details of the search strategies, including the study-design filters used and  
10 databases searched, are provided in appendix B of each evidence review.

## 11 **Economic systematic literature search**

12 Systematic literature searches were also undertaken to identify published economic  
13 evidence. A combined literature search was undertaken to cover the economics  
14 aspects of all the review questions in a single search. Databases were searched  
15 using subject headings, free-text terms and, where appropriate, an economic  
16 evaluations search filter. Where possible, searches were limited to exclude: articles  
17 published before 2000; non-English language articles; non-human studies; and  
18 letters, editorials, case reports, conference proceedings and dissertations.

19 A search, based on the population search terms used in the evidence reviews, was  
20 conducted to identify economic evidence in the NHS Economic Evaluation Database  
21 (NHS EED) and INAHTA. Another search, using the population search terms based  
22 on the evidence reviews combined with an economic evaluations search filter, was  
23 conducted in ASSIA, CCTR, CINAHL, Embase, Emcare, HMIC, MEDLINE ALL,  
24 PsycInfo, SCO, SPP and SSCI. Where possible, searches were limited to studies  
25 published in English. Database strategies were limited to the publication dates of  
26 2000 to current. Searches for grey literature were conducted on the websites of  
27 relevant organisations (as listed in the protocol provided in appendix A of each  
28 evidence review).

29 The economic literature searches were run in March 2022 and updated in April 2023,  
30 11 weeks in advance of the final committee meeting before consultation on the draft  
31 guideline.

32 Details of the search strategies, including the study-design filter used and databases  
33 searched, are provided in Appendix B of each evidence review.

## 34 **Quality assurance**

35 Search strategies were quality assured by cross-checking reference lists of relevant  
36 studies, analysing search strategies from published systematic reviews and asking  
37 members of the committee to highlight key studies. The principal search strategies  
38 for each search were also quality assured by a second information scientist using an  
39 adaptation of the PRESS 2015 Guideline Evidence-Based Checklist  
40 (McGowan 2016).

# 1 Reviewing research evidence

## 2 Systematic review process

3 Evidence review E was based on a Cochrane systematic review, which the  
4 committee agreed answered the guideline review question about pharmacological  
5 interventions for the treatment of harmful gambling. No additional outcomes were of  
6 interest to the committee so no additional analysis was conducted by the NICE  
7 reviewers.

8 The evidence for all reviews except review E was reviewed in accordance with the  
9 following approach.

- 10 • Potentially relevant articles were identified from the search results for each review  
11 question by screening titles and abstracts. Full-text copies of the articles were  
12 then obtained.
- 13 • Full-text articles were reviewed against pre-specified inclusion and exclusion  
14 criteria in the review protocol (see Appendix A of each evidence review).
- 15 • Key information was extracted from each article on study methods and results, in  
16 accordance with factors specified in the review protocol. The information was  
17 presented in a summary table in the corresponding evidence review and in a more  
18 detailed evidence table (see Appendix D of each evidence review).
- 19 • Where data allowed, it was stratified upfront, according to the role of the gambling  
20 industry in funding the included studies (any industry funding/no industry funding/  
21 unclear funding source). In the qualitative reviews, themes identified from industry  
22 funded evidence were therefore presented separately and in quantitative reviews,  
23 meta-analysis pooled results only from studies in the same funding stratification.  
24 This was in recognition that in this topic area of gambling, there are commercial  
25 interests about which the committee wanted to be aware and which they wanted  
26 to mitigate appropriately to reduce the risk of bias. The exception to this approach  
27 was review F in which the potential for funding related bias was explored through  
28 sensitivity analysis, which is explained below and in the review itself.
- 29 • Included studies were critically appraised using an appropriate checklist as  
30 specified in [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#). Further detail on appraisal  
31 of the evidence is provided below.
- 32 • Summaries of quantitative evidence by outcome and qualitative evidence by  
33 theme were presented in the corresponding evidence review and discussed by the  
34 committee.

35 All review questions were subject to dual screening and study selection through a  
36 10% random sample of articles. Any discrepancies were resolved by discussion  
37 between the first and second reviewers or by reference to a third (senior) reviewer.  
38 For review F, informing the network meta-analysis (NMA), dual data extraction was  
39 performed. For the remaining review questions, internal (NGA) quality assurance  
40 processes included consideration of the outcomes of screening, study selection and  
41 data extraction and the committee reviewed the results of study selection and data  
42 extraction. The review protocol for each question specifies whether dual screening  
43 and study selection was undertaken for that particular question. Drafts of all evidence  
44 reviews were quality assured by a senior reviewer.

## 1 Type of studies and inclusion/exclusion criteria

2 Inclusion and exclusion of studies was based on criteria specified in the  
3 corresponding review protocol. A general rule across reviews was that if some, but  
4 not all, of a study's participants were eligible for the review, then the study would be  
5 included if at least 66% of its participants met the protocol criteria.

6 Systematic reviews with meta-analyses or meta-syntheses were considered to be the  
7 highest quality evidence that could be selected for inclusion.

8 For intervention reviews, randomised controlled trials (RCTs) were prioritised for  
9 inclusion because they are considered to be the most robust type of study design  
10 that could produce an unbiased estimate of intervention effects. In addition,  
11 experimental studies using a non-randomly assigned control group design that  
12 adjusted for relevant confounders or matched participants on important confounding  
13 domains were also considered for inclusion.

14 For diagnostic reviews, individual studies of diagnostic test accuracy were prioritised  
15 for inclusion. In addition, any study with random or consecutive selection of the target  
16 participants from which diagnostic data could be extracted. These were primarily  
17 cross-sectional or cohort studies but randomised controlled trials with one or more  
18 arms that met the inclusion criteria were also considered for inclusion.

19 For qualitative reviews, studies using focus groups, structured interviews or semi-  
20 structured interviews were considered for inclusion. Where qualitative evidence was  
21 sought, data from surveys or other types of questionnaire were considered for  
22 inclusion only if they provided data from open-ended questions, but not if they  
23 reported only quantitative data.

24 The committee was consulted about any uncertainty regarding inclusion or exclusion  
25 of studies. A list of excluded studies for each review question, including reasons for  
26 exclusion is presented in Appendix J of the corresponding evidence review.

27 Narrative reviews, posters, letters, editorials, comment articles, books and book  
28 chapters, unpublished studies and studies published in languages other than English  
29 were excluded. Conference abstracts were not considered for inclusion because  
30 conference abstracts typically do not have sufficient information to allow for full  
31 critical appraisal.

## 32 Methods of combining evidence

33 When planning reviews (through preparation of protocols), the following approaches  
34 for data synthesis were discussed and agreed with the committee.

### 35 Data synthesis for intervention studies

#### 36 *Pairwise meta-analysis*

37 Meta-analysis to pool results from comparative intervention studies, from the same  
38 funding stratification, was conducted where possible using Cochrane Review  
39 Manager (RevMan5) software.

40 For dichotomous outcomes, such as mortality, the Mantel–Haenszel method with a  
41 fixed effect model was used to calculate risk ratios (RRs).

1 For continuous outcomes, measures of central tendency (mean) and variation  
2 (standard deviation; SD) are required for meta-analysis. Data for continuous  
3 outcomes, such as quality of life, were meta-analysed using an inverse-variance  
4 method for pooling weighted mean differences (WMDs). Where SDs were not  
5 reported for each intervention group, the standard error (SE) of the mean difference  
6 was calculated from other reported statistics (p values or 95% confidence intervals;  
7 CIs) and then meta-analysis was conducted as described above. The exception was  
8 the pairwise analysis in review F, where data for continuous outcomes were meta-  
9 analysed using random effects models of standardised mean differences (SMDs). A  
10 random effects model was used due to assumed heterogeneity based on differences  
11 between interventions that formed a class and methodological variation between  
12 studies, such as different tools for the measurement of the same outcomes. This was  
13 also in line with the approach taken to the NMA informing the same evidence review.

14 If a study reported only the summary statistic and 95% CI the generic-inverse  
15 variance method was used to enter data into RevMan5. If the control event rate was  
16 reported this was used to generate the absolute risk difference in GRADEpro. If  
17 multivariable analysis was used to derive the summary statistic but no adjusted  
18 control event rate was reported, no absolute risk difference was calculated. Where a  
19 study reported multiple adjusted estimates for the same outcome, the one that  
20 minimised the risk of bias due to confounding was chosen.

21 For most reviews, evidence was stratified from the outset according to funding  
22 category or separated into subgroups when heterogeneity was encountered. The  
23 stratifications and potential subgroups were pre-defined at the protocol stage (see  
24 the protocols for each review for further detail). Where evidence was stratified or  
25 subgrouped the committee considered on a case-by-case basis if separate  
26 recommendations should be made for distinct groups. Separate recommendations  
27 may be made where there is evidence of a differential effect of interventions in  
28 distinct groups. If there is a lack of evidence in one group, the committee considered,  
29 based on their experience, whether it was reasonable to extrapolate and assume the  
30 interventions will have similar effects in that group compared with others.

31 When meta-analysis was undertaken, the results were presented visually using forest  
32 plots generated using RevMan5 (see Appendix E of relevant evidence reviews).

### 33 **Network meta-analysis**

34 Network meta-analysis (NMA) is a generalization of standard pairwise meta-analysis  
35 for A versus B trials, to data structures that include, for example, A versus B, B  
36 versus C, and A versus C trials (Dias 2011a; Lu 2004). A basic assumption of NMA  
37 methods is that direct and indirect evidence estimate the same parameter, that is, the  
38 relative effect between A and B measured directly from an A versus B trial, is the  
39 same with the relative effect between A and B estimated indirectly from A versus C  
40 and B versus C trials. NMA techniques strengthen inference concerning the relative  
41 effect of two treatments by including both direct and indirect comparisons between  
42 treatments, and, at the same time, allow simultaneous inference on all treatments  
43 examined in the pair-wise trial comparisons, which is essential for consideration of  
44 treatment in economic analysis (Caldwell 2005; Lu 2004). Simultaneous inference on  
45 the relative effect of a number of treatments is possible provided that treatments  
46 participate in a single “network of evidence”, that is, every treatment is linked to at  
47 least one of the other treatments under assessment through direct or indirect

1 comparisons. NMA takes all trial information into consideration, without ignoring part  
2 of the evidence and without introducing bias by breaking the rules of randomisation.

3 A key assumption when conducting an NMA is that the populations included in all  
4 randomised controlled trials (RCTs) considered in the NMA are similar so that the  
5 treatment effects are exchangeable across all populations (Mavridis 2015). This  
6 assumption of 'transitivity' of the effect may not hold if there are different potential  
7 effect modifiers that are not equally distributed across the different comparisons  
8 (Jansen 2014).

9 As is the case for ordinary pairwise meta-analysis, NMA may be conducted using  
10 either fixed or random effect models. A fixed effect model typically assumes that  
11 there is no variation in relative effects across trials for a particular pairwise  
12 comparison and any observed differences are solely due to chance. For a random  
13 effects model, it is assumed that the relative effects are different in each trial but that  
14 they are from a single common distribution. The variance reflecting heterogeneity is  
15 often assumed to be constant across trials.

16 Due to the large number of interventions included in this review, comparing all pairs  
17 of interventions individually within the NMA would require multiple comparisons and  
18 complex consideration and interpretation of the evidence. Moreover, some  
19 interventions included in the systematic review had been tested on small numbers of  
20 participants and their effects were characterised by considerable uncertainty. For  
21 these reasons, the NMAs utilised class models: each class consisted of interventions  
22 with similar mode of action or similar treatment components or approaches, so that  
23 interventions within a class were expected to have similar (but not necessarily  
24 identical) effects. Use of class models in the NMA has three benefits:

- 25 • strength can be borrowed across interventions in the same class, therefore  
26 improving precision of effects
- 27 • networks that may otherwise be disconnected are possible to connect via  
28 interventions belonging to the same class, resulting in a connected network that  
29 includes all classes and interventions of interest
- 30 • relative effects between a more limited number of classes are easier to interpret  
31 and thus more helpful for the committee when making recommendations.

32 For all outcomes, both fixed and random class effects models were fitted. The  
33 random class effects model assumes the relative effects of treatments within a class  
34 are exchangeable. Treatment effects are shrunk towards a class mean and can  
35 borrow strength from other elements of the class. The fixed class effects model  
36 assumes treatments within a class have identical relative effects.

37 In a Bayesian analysis, for each parameter the evidence distribution is weighted by a  
38 distribution of prior beliefs. The Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm was  
39 used to generate a sequence of samples from a joint posterior distribution of 2 or  
40 more random variables and is particularly well adapted to sampling the treatment  
41 effects (known as a posterior distribution) of a Bayesian network. Non-informative  
42 prior distributions were used to maximise the weighting given to the data, in order to  
43 generate the posterior distribution of the results.

44 For the analyses, a series of burn-in simulations were run to allow the posterior  
45 distributions to converge and then further simulations were run to produce the  
46 posterior outputs. Convergence was assessed by examining the history,  
47 autocorrelation and Brooks-Gelman-Rubin plots.

1 Goodness-of-fit of the models were also estimated by using the posterior mean of the  
2 sum of the deviance contributions for each item by calculating the residual deviance  
3 and the deviance information criterion (DIC). If the residual deviance was close to the  
4 number of unconstrained data points (the number of trial arms in the analysis) then  
5 the model was explaining the data at a satisfactory level. The choice of a fixed effect  
6 or random effects model can be made by comparing their goodness-of-fit to the data.  
7 Treatment specific posterior effects were generated for every possible pair of  
8 comparisons by combining direct and indirect evidence in each network.

9 The NMA work was undertaken by the NICE Guidelines Technical Support Unit,  
10 University of Bristol (TSU).

11 Overall methods and approaches adopted for the guideline NMA work were based on  
12 methodology described in the NICE Decision Support Unit (DSU) technical support  
13 document number 2 (Dias 2011a).

14 Details of the NMA methods employed in this guideline are provided in evidence  
15 review F (appendix L).

## 16 **Data synthesis for diagnostic test accuracy reviews**

17 When diagnostic test accuracy was measured dichotomously, sensitivity, specificity,  
18 and positive and negative predictive values were used as outcomes. These  
19 diagnostic test accuracy parameters were obtained directly from results reported in  
20 the source articles or calculated by the NGA technical team using data reported in  
21 the articles. Where possible, 95% CIs for diagnostic test accuracy parameters were  
22 reported; alternatively, median values and corresponding ranges were used if CIs  
23 were not reported and could not be calculated by the NGA technical team.

24 Meta-analysis of diagnostic test accuracy parameters would have been conducted if  
25 there were data from three or more studies that could be pooled but this did not  
26 occur.

## 27 **Data synthesis for qualitative reviews**

28 Where possible, a meta-synthesis was conducted to combine evidence from more  
29 than one study into a theme or sub-theme. Whenever studies identified a qualitative  
30 theme relevant to the protocol, this was extracted and the main characteristics were  
31 summarised. When all themes had been extracted from studies, common concepts  
32 were categorised and tabulated. This included information on how many studies had  
33 contributed to each theme identified by the NGA technical team.

34 The technical team were guided in their data extraction, synthesis and formulation of  
35 review findings, or themes, by a framework of phenomena developed by the  
36 guideline committee. This framework consisted of the themes that the committee  
37 anticipated would be covered by the included studies and these were set out a priori  
38 in the corresponding review protocol. As well as guiding the data extraction and  
39 synthesis, the framework also underpinned the approach referred to in the protocol  
40 as 'thematic saturation'. Essentially, data or themes from included studies would not  
41 be extracted if they contributed to review findings which were judged to be 'adequate'  
42 and 'coherent' following assessment using the GRADE-CERQual approach; that is,  
43 they were not downgraded for either domain. Themes identified from the included  
44 studies, which were not set out in the protocol but which were considered relevant to

1 answering the review question, were also extracted and the same approach to  
2 'thematic saturation' would have been applied. Thematic saturation was not reached  
3 for any themes in any of the qualitative reviews in this guideline. Therefore, all  
4 relevant data from all included qualitative studies were extracted and analysed.

5 Themes from individual studies were integrated into a wider context and, when  
6 possible, overarching categories of themes with sub-themes were identified. Themes  
7 were derived from data presented in individual studies. When themes were extracted  
8 from 1 primary study only, theme names used in the guideline mirrored those in the  
9 source study. However, when themes were based on evidence from multiple studies,  
10 the theme names were assigned by the NGA technical team. The names of  
11 overarching categories of themes were also assigned by the NGA technical team.

12 Emerging themes were placed into a thematic map representing the relationship  
13 between themes and overarching categories. The purpose of such a map is to show  
14 relationships between overarching categories and associated themes.

15

## 16 **Appraising the quality of evidence**

### 17 **Intervention studies**

#### 18 *Pairwise meta-analysis*

#### 19 **GRADE methodology for intervention reviews**

20 For intervention reviews, the evidence for outcomes from included RCTs and  
21 comparative non-randomised studies was evaluated and presented using the  
22 Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE)  
23 methodology developed by the international [GRADE working group](#).

24 When GRADE was applied, software developed by the GRADE working group  
25 (GRADEpro) was used to assess the quality of each outcome, taking account of  
26 individual study quality factors and any meta-analysis results. Results were  
27 presented in GRADE profiles (GRADE tables).

28 The selection of outcomes for each review question was agreed during development  
29 of the associated review protocol in discussion with the committee. The evidence for  
30 each outcome was examined separately for the quality elements summarised in  
31 Table 2. Criteria considered in the rating of these elements are discussed below.  
32 Each element was graded using the quality ratings summarised in Table 3. Footnotes  
33 to GRADE tables were used to record reasons for grading a particular quality  
34 element as having a 'serious' or 'very serious' quality issue. The ratings for each  
35 component were combined to obtain an overall assessment of quality for each  
36 outcome as described in Table 4.

37 The initial quality rating was based on the study design: RCTs and NRS assessed by  
38 ROBINS-I start as 'high' quality evidence, other non-randomised studies start as 'low'  
39 quality evidence. The rating was then modified according to the assessment of each  
40 quality element (Table 2). Each quality element considered to have a 'serious' or  
41 'very serious' quality issue was downgraded by 1 or 2 levels respectively (for  
42 example, evidence starting as 'high' quality was downgraded to 'moderate' or 'low'

1 quality). In addition, there was a possibility to upgrade evidence from non-  
 2 randomised studies (provided the evidence for that outcome had not previously been  
 3 downgraded) if there was a large magnitude of effect, a dose–response gradient, or if  
 4 all plausible confounding would reduce a demonstrated effect or suggest a spurious  
 5 effect when results showed no effect.

6 **Table 2: Summary of quality elements in GRADE for intervention reviews**

Quality element	Description
Risk of bias ('Study limitations')	This refers to limitations in study design or implementation that reduce the internal validity of the evidence
Inconsistency	This refers to unexplained heterogeneity in the results
Indirectness	This refers to differences in study populations, interventions, comparators or outcomes between the available evidence and inclusion criteria specified in the review protocol
Imprecision	This occurs when a study has few participants or few events of interest, resulting in wide confidence intervals that cross minimally important thresholds
Publication bias	This refers to systematic under- or over-estimation of the underlying benefit or harm resulting from selective publication of study results

7 **Table 3: GRADE quality ratings (by quality element)**

Quality issues	Description
None or not serious	No serious issues with the evidence for the quality element under consideration
Serious	Issues with the evidence sufficient to downgrade by 1 level for the quality element under consideration
Very serious	Issues with the evidence sufficient to downgrade by 2 levels for the quality element under consideration

8 **Table 4: Overall quality of the evidence in GRADE (by outcome)**

Overall quality grading	Description
High	Further research is very unlikely to change the level of confidence in the estimate of effect
Moderate	Further research is likely to have an important impact on the level of confidence in the estimate of effect and may change the estimate
Low	Further research is very likely to have an important impact on the level of confidence in the estimate of effect and is likely to change the estimate
Very low	The estimate of effect is very uncertain

9 *Assessing risk of bias in intervention reviews*

10 Bias is a systematic error, or consistent deviation from the truth in results obtained.  
 11 When a risk of bias is present the true effect can be either under- or over-estimated.



1 Risk of bias in RCTs was assessed using the Cochrane risk of bias tool ((RoB 2; see  
2 [Appendix H in Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#)).

3 The Cochrane risk of bias tool assesses the following possible sources of bias:

- 4 • risk of bias arising from the randomization process
- 5 • risk of bias due to deviations from the intended interventions
- 6 • risk of bias due to missing outcome data
- 7 • risk of bias due to measurement of the outcome
- 8 • risk of bias in selection of the reported result.

9 A study with a poor methodological design does not automatically imply high risk of  
10 bias; the bias is considered individually for each outcome and it is assessed whether  
11 the chosen design and methodology will impact on the estimation of the intervention  
12 effect.

13 More details about the Cochrane risk of bias tool can be found in Section 8 of the  
14 [Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions](#) (Higgins 2011).

15 For systematic reviews of RCTs the ROBIS checklist was used (see [Appendix H in  
16 Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#)).

17 For non-randomised controlled studies, cohort studies or historical controlled studies  
18 the ROBINS-I checklist was used ([see Appendix H in Developing NICE guidelines:  
19 the manual](#)).

#### 20 *Assessing inconsistency in intervention reviews*

21 Inconsistency refers to unexplained heterogeneity in results of meta-analysis. When  
22 estimates of treatment effect vary widely across studies (that is, there is  
23 heterogeneity or variability in results), this suggests true differences in underlying  
24 effects. Inconsistency is, thus, only truly applicable when statistical meta-analysis is  
25 conducted (that is, results from different studies are pooled). When outcomes were  
26 derived from a single study the rating 'no serious inconsistency' was used when  
27 assessing this domain, as per GRADE methodology (Santesso 2016).

28 Inconsistency was assessed visually by inspecting forest plots and observing  
29 whether there was considerable heterogeneity in the results of the meta-analysis (for  
30 example if the point estimates of the individual studies consistently showed benefits  
31 or harms). This was supported by calculating the I-squared statistic for the meta-  
32 analysis with an I-squared value of more than 50% indicating serious heterogeneity,  
33 and more than 80% indicating very serious heterogeneity. When serious or very  
34 serious heterogeneity was observed, possible reasons were explored and subgroup  
35 analyses were performed as pre-specified in the review protocol where possible. In  
36 the case of unexplained heterogeneity, sensitivity analyses were planned based on  
37 the quality of studies, eliminating studies at high risk of bias (in relation to  
38 randomisation, allocation concealment and blinding, and/or missing outcome data).

39 When no plausible explanation for the serious or very serious heterogeneity could be  
40 found, the quality of the evidence was downgraded in GRADE for inconsistency and  
41 the meta-analysis was re-run using the Der-Simonian and Laird method with a  
42 random effects model and this was used for the final analysis.

1 *Assessing indirectness in intervention reviews*

2 Directness refers to the extent to which populations, interventions, comparisons and  
3 outcomes reported in the evidence are similar to those defined in the inclusion  
4 criteria for the review and was assessed by comparing the PICO elements in the  
5 studies to the PICO defined in the review protocol. Indirectness is important when  
6 such differences are expected to contribute to a difference in effect size, or may  
7 affect the balance of benefits and harms considered for an intervention.

8 *Assessing imprecision and importance in intervention reviews*

9 Imprecision in GRADE methodology refers to uncertainty around the effect estimate  
10 and whether or not there is an important difference between interventions (that is,  
11 whether the evidence clearly supports a particular recommendation or appears to be  
12 consistent with several candidate recommendations). Therefore, imprecision differs  
13 from other aspects of evidence quality because it is not concerned with whether the  
14 point estimate is accurate or correct (has internal or external validity). Instead, it is  
15 concerned with uncertainty about what the point estimate actually represents. This  
16 uncertainty is reflected in the width of the CI.

17 The 95% CI is defined as the range of values within which the population value will  
18 fall on 95% of repeated samples, were the procedure to be repeated. The larger the  
19 study, the smaller the 95% CI will be and the more certain the effect estimate.

20 Imprecision was assessed in the guideline evidence reviews by considering whether  
21 the width of the 95% CI of the effect estimate was relevant to decision making,  
22 considering each outcome independently. This is illustrated in Figure 1, which  
23 considers a positive outcome for the comparison of two treatments. Three decision-  
24 making zones can be differentiated, bounded by the thresholds for minimal  
25 importance (minimally important differences; MIDs) for benefit and harm.

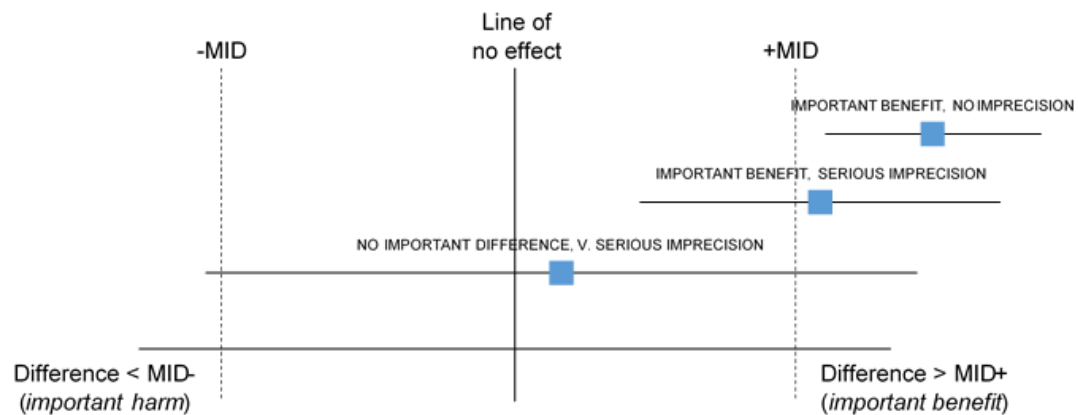
26 When the CI of the effect estimate is wholly contained in 1 of the 3 zones there is no  
27 uncertainty about the size and direction of effect, therefore, the effect estimate is  
28 considered precise; that is, there is no imprecision.

29 When the CI crosses 2 zones, it is uncertain in which zone the true value of the effect  
30 estimate lies and therefore there is uncertainty over which decision to make. The CI  
31 is consistent with 2 possible decisions, therefore, the effect estimate is considered to  
32 be imprecise in the GRADE analysis and the evidence is downgraded by 1 level  
33 ('serious imprecision').

34 When the CI crosses all 3 zones, the effect estimate is considered to be very  
35 imprecise because the CI is consistent with 3 possible decisions and there is  
36 therefore a considerable lack of confidence in the results. The evidence is therefore  
37 downgraded by 2 levels in the GRADE analysis ('very serious imprecision').

38 Implicitly, assessing whether a CI is in, or partially in, an important zone, requires the  
39 guideline committee to estimate an MID or to say whether they would make different  
40 decisions for the 2 confidence limits.

1 **Figure 1: Assessment of imprecision and importance in intervention reviews**  
2 **using GRADE**



3  
4 *MID, minimally important difference*

#### 5 *Defining minimally important differences for intervention reviews*

6 The committee was asked whether there were any recognised or acceptable MID in  
7 the published literature and community relevant to the review questions under  
8 consideration. The committee was not aware of any MID that could be used for the  
9 guideline.

10 In the absence of published or accepted MID, the committee agreed to use the  
11 GRADE default MID to assess imprecision. For dichotomous outcomes minimally  
12 important thresholds for a RR of 0.8 and 1.25 respectively were used as default MID  
13 in the guideline. The committee also chose to use 0.8 and 1.25 as the MID for ORs  
14 & HRs in the absence of published or accepted MID. ORs were predominantly used  
15 in the guideline when Peto OR were indicated due to low event rates, at low event  
16 rates OR are mathematically similar to RR making the extrapolation appropriate.  
17 While no default MID exist for HR, the committee agreed for consistency to continue  
18 to use 0.8 and 1.25 for these outcomes. For continuous outcomes measured using  
19 SMD, minimally important thresholds of -0.5 and 0.5 respectively were used as  
20 default MID in the guideline.

21 The same thresholds were used as default MID in the guideline for all dichotomous  
22 outcomes considered in intervention evidence reviews. For continuous outcomes  
23 default MID are equal to half the median SD of the control groups at baseline (or at  
24 follow-up if the SD is not available a baseline).

#### 25 *Assessing publication bias in intervention reviews*

26 Where 10 or more studies were included as part of a single meta-analysis, a funnel  
27 plot was produced to graphically assess the potential for publication bias. Where  
28 fewer than 10 studies were included for an outcome, the committee subjectively  
29 assessed the likelihood of publication bias based on factors such as the proportion of  
30 trials funded by industry and the propensity for publication bias in the topic area.

#### 31 **Network meta-analysis**

32 For the NMAs, quality was assessed by looking at risk of bias across the included  
33 evidence using the Cochrane Risk of Bias Tool for Randomized Controlled Trials, as

1 well as heterogeneity and consistency (also called coherence). Heterogeneity refers  
2 to the differences in treatment effects between trials within each treatment contrast  
3 (measured by the posterior median between-study standard deviation and compared  
4 with treatment posterior mean effects), while consistency refers to the differences  
5 between the direct and indirect evidence informing the treatment contrasts. Direct  
6 and indirect comparisons measure the same underlying true effect, and therefore, in  
7 principle, they should be consistent. However, this is not the case if effect modifiers  
8 and heterogeneity across studies, populations and comparisons are present.  
9 Inconsistency arises when there is a conflict between direct evidence (from an A vs.  
10 B trial) and indirect evidence (gained from A vs. C and B vs. C trials) and can only be  
11 assessed when there are both direct and indirect sources of evidence for a treatment  
12 comparison, that is, there are closed loops of evidence on three treatments that are  
13 informed by at least three distinct trials (Caldwell 2014).

14 Checking for inconsistency between direct and indirect evidence can reveal whether  
15 the transitivity assumption holds. To determine if there was evidence of  
16 inconsistency, in each analysis, the selected consistency model (fixed or random  
17 effects) was compared to an “inconsistency”, or unrelated mean effects, model (Dias  
18 2011b & 2013). When evidence of inconsistency was found, studies contributing to  
19 between-trial heterogeneity were checked for data accuracy and analyses were  
20 repeated if corrections in the data extraction were made. However, following any data  
21 corrections and if inconsistency persisted, no studies were excluded from the  
22 analysis, as their results could not be considered as less valid than those of other  
23 studies solely because of the inconsistency findings. Nevertheless, the presence of  
24 inconsistency in the network was highlighted and results were interpreted accordingly  
25 by the committee.

26 Tests of inconsistency are inherently underpowered, so they may fail to detect  
27 inconsistency even though this may be present in the network (Dias 2011b).  
28 Therefore, even if inconsistency is not detected, results of NMA should be interpreted  
29 following qualitative evaluation of the anticipated transitivity within the network and  
30 judgement of reasons for potential inconsistency (Linde 2016).

31 Publication bias is known to affect results of meta-analyses (Moreno 2009 & 2011;  
32 Turner 2008). Small sample size studies are associated with publication bias as  
33 small studies with positive results are more likely to be published compared with  
34 small studies with negative results, and may also be associated with lower study  
35 quality. Published smaller studies tend to overestimate the relative treatment effect of  
36 interventions versus control, compared to larger studies (Chaimani 2013; Moreno  
37 2011). Bias adjustment models were fitted to down-weight trials with industry or  
38 unclear funding. Models that adjusted for small study bias were also fitted (Dias  
39 2010, Welton 2009).

40 Threshold analysis was done to test the robustness of treatment recommendations  
41 based on the NMA, to potential biases or sampling variation in the included evidence.  
42 Threshold analysis has been developed as an alternative to GRADE for assessing  
43 confidence in guideline recommendations based on network meta-analysis (Phillippo  
44 2019).

## 1 Diagnostic studies

### 2 *Adapted GRADE methodology for diagnostic reviews*

3 For diagnostic reviews, an adapted GRADE approach was used. GRADE  
4 methodology is designed for intervention reviews but the quality assessment  
5 elements and outcome presentation were adapted by the guideline developers for  
6 diagnostic test accuracy reviews. For example, GRADE tables were modified to  
7 include diagnostic test accuracy measures (sensitivity, specificity and predictive  
8 values).

9 The evidence for each outcome in the diagnostic reviews was examined separately  
10 for the quality elements listed and defined in Table 5. The criteria considered in the  
11 rating of these elements are discussed below. Each element was graded using the  
12 quality levels summarised in Table 3. Footnotes to GRADE tables were used to  
13 record reasons for grading a particular quality element as having a 'serious' or 'very  
14 serious' quality issue. The ratings for each component were combined to obtain an  
15 overall assessment of quality for each outcome as described in Table 4.

16 The initial quality rating was based on the study design: cross-sectional or cohort  
17 studies start as 'high' quality and case-control studies start as 'low' quality.

### 18 **Table 5: Adaptation of GRADE quality elements for diagnostic reviews**

Quality element	Description
Risk of bias ('Study limitations')	Limitations in study design and implementation may bias estimates of diagnostic accuracy. High risk of bias for the majority of the evidence reduces confidence in the estimated effect. Diagnostic accuracy studies are not usually randomised and therefore would not be downgraded for study design from the outset (they start as high quality)
Inconsistency	This refers to unexplained heterogeneity in test accuracy measures (such as sensitivity and specificity) between studies
Indirectness	This refers to differences in study populations, index tests, reference standards or outcomes between the available evidence and inclusion criteria specified in the review protocol
Imprecision	This occurs when a study has relatively few participants and the probability of a correct diagnosis is low. Accuracy measures would therefore have wide confidence intervals around the estimated effect

### 19 *Assessing risk of bias in diagnostic reviews and prediction models*

20 Risk of bias in diagnostic reviews and prediction models was assessed using the  
21 Quality Assessment of Diagnostic Accuracy Studies version 2 (QUADAS-2) checklist  
22 ([see Appendix H in Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#)).

23 Risk of bias in primary diagnostic accuracy reviews or prediction models in QUADAS-  
24 2 consists of 4 domains:

- 25 • participant selection
- 26 • index test
- 27 • reference standard
- 28 • flow and timing.

1 More details about the QUADAS-2 tool can be found on the [developer's website](#).

## 2 *Assessing inconsistency in diagnostic reviews*

3 Inconsistency refers to the unexplained heterogeneity of the results in meta-analysis.  
4 When estimates of diagnostic accuracy and prediction model parameters vary widely  
5 across studies (that is, there is heterogeneity or variability in results), this suggests  
6 true differences in underlying effects. Inconsistency is, thus, only truly applicable  
7 when statistical meta-analysis is conducted (that is, results from different studies are  
8 pooled).

9 Inconsistency for diagnostic reviews and prediction models was assessed based on  
10 visual inspection of the point estimates and confidence intervals of the included  
11 studies. If these varied widely (for example, point estimates for some studies lying  
12 outside the CIs of other studies) the evidence was downgraded for inconsistency.

## 13 *Assessing indirectness in diagnostic reviews*

14 Indirectness in diagnostic reviews and prediction models was assessed using the  
15 QUADAS-2 checklist by assessing the applicability of the studies in relation to the  
16 review question in the following domains:

- 17 • participant selection
- 18 • index test
- 19 • reference standard.

20 More details about the QUADAS-2 tool can be found on the [developer's website](#).

## 21 *Assessing imprecision and importance in diagnostic reviews*

22 The judgement of precision for diagnostic evidence was based on the CIs of the  
23 single pair of parameters prioritised by the guideline committee. For review A, the  
24 judgement of precision was based on positive predictive values and for review B, it  
25 was based on sensitivity and specificity.

26 For review A, the committee agreed the following cut-off when summarising the  
27 performance of factors suggesting harmful gambling in terms of positive predictive  
28 values (PPVs), for studies where people presented in a non-gambling specialist  
29 setting. This was the value above which the risk factor should be considered an  
30 indication of harmful gambling behaviour:

- 31 • important factor: PPV 2% or greater.

32 This was used as the upper threshold to assess the imprecision of PPV and the  
33 committee set a lower threshold of 0.5%, based on the prevalence figure for  
34 'problem' gambling in England (PHE, 2022).

35 Outcomes were downgraded for imprecision when their 95% CI crossed at least 1  
36 threshold. If the CI crossed 1 threshold, the outcome was downgraded one level for  
37 imprecision. If the CI crossed 2 thresholds, the outcome was downgraded two levels  
38 for imprecision. These assessments were made on the meta-analysed outcomes  
39 where applicable or, if outcomes were not meta-analysed, on the individual study  
40 results themselves. For negative predictive values (NPVs), the committee chose  
41 thresholds of 98% and 99.5% and they were used to assess imprecision in the same  
42 way.

1 For sensitivity and specificity the committee defined 2 decision thresholds, a value  
2 above which the measurement tools could be recommended and a value below  
3 which the tools would be considered of no use. These thresholds were based on the  
4 committee's experience and consensus.

5 The thresholds were:

- 6 • sensitivity: low threshold 60%, high threshold 90%
- 7 • specificity: low threshold 60%, high threshold 90%.

8 These thresholds were also used to assess imprecision of sensitivity and specificity.

9 Outcomes were downgraded for imprecision when their 95% CI crossed at least 1  
10 threshold. If the CI crossed 1 threshold, the outcome was downgraded once for  
11 imprecision. If the CI crossed 2 thresholds, the outcome was downgraded twice for  
12 imprecision. These assessments were made on the meta-analysed outcomes where  
13 applicable or if outcomes were not meta-analysed, on the individual study results  
14 themselves.

## 15 **Qualitative studies**

### 16 ***GRADE-CERQual methodology for qualitative reviews***

17 For qualitative reviews an adapted GRADE Confidence in the Evidence from  
18 Reviews of Qualitative research (GRADE-CERQual) approach (Lewin 2018) was  
19 used. In this approach the quality of evidence is considered according to themes in  
20 the evidence. The themes may have been identified in the primary studies or they  
21 may have been identified by considering the reports of a number of studies. Quality  
22 elements assessed using GRADE-CERQual are listed and defined in Table 6. Each  
23 element was graded using the levels of concern summarised in Table 7.

24 The ratings for each component were combined (as with other types of evidence) to  
25 obtain an overall assessment of quality for each theme as described in Table 8.  
26 'Confidence' in this context refers to the extent to which the review finding is a  
27 reasonable representation of the phenomenon of interest set out in the protocol.  
28 Similar to other types of evidence all review findings start off with 'high confidence'  
29 and are rated down by one or more levels if there are concerns about any of the  
30 individual CERQual components. In line with advice from the CERQual developers,  
31 the overall assessment does not involve numerical scoring for each component but in  
32 order to ensure consistency across and between guidelines, the NGA established  
33 some guiding principles for overall ratings. For example, a review finding would not  
34 be downgraded (and therefore would be assessed with 'high' confidence) if at least 2  
35 of the individual components were rated as 'no or very minor; and none of the  
36 components were rated as having moderate or serious concerns.

37 At the other extreme, a review finding would be downgraded 3 times (to 'very low') if  
38 at least 2 components had serious concerns or 3 had moderate concerns (as long as  
39 the 4<sup>th</sup> component was rated 'serious') or if all components had moderate concerns .  
40 A basic principle was that if any components had any serious concerns then overall  
41 confidence in the review finding would be downgraded at least twice, to low.  
42 Transparency about overall judgements is provided in the CERQual tables, with  
43 explanations for downgrading given in the individual domain cells.



1 **Table 6: Adaptation of GRADE quality elements for qualitative reviews**

Quality element	Description
Methodological limitations	Limitations in study design and implementation may bias interpretation of qualitative themes identified. High risk of bias for the majority of the evidence reduces our confidence that the review findings reflect the phenomena of interest. Qualitative studies are not usually randomised and therefore would not be downgraded for study design from the outset (they start as high quality)
Relevance (or applicability) of evidence	This refers to the extent to which the context of the studies supporting the review findings is applicable to the context specified in the review question
Coherence of findings	This refers to the extent to which review findings are well grounded in data from the contributing primary studies and provide a credible explanation for patterns identified in the evidence. If the data from the underlying studies are ambiguous or contradict the review finding this would reduce our confidence in the finding.
Adequacy of data (theme saturation or sufficiency)	This corresponds to a similar concept in primary qualitative research, that is, whether a theoretical point of theme saturation was achieved, at which point no further citations or observations would provide more insight or suggest a different interpretation of the particular theme. Judgements are not based on the number of studies but do take account of the quantity and also richness of data underpinning a finding. The more complex the finding, the more detailed the supporting data need to be. For simple findings, relatively superficial data would be considered adequate to explain and explore the phenomenon being described.

2 **Table 7: CERQual levels of concern (by quality element)**

Level of concern	Definition
None or very minor concerns	Unlikely to reduce confidence in the review finding
Minor concerns	May reduce confidence in the review finding
Moderate concerns	Will probably reduce confidence in the review finding
Serious concerns	Very likely to reduce confidence in the review finding

3 **Table 8: Overall confidence in the evidence in CERQual (by review finding)**

Overall confidence level	Definition
High	It is highly likely that the review finding is a reasonable representation of the phenomenon of interest
Moderate	It is likely that the review finding is a reasonable representation of the phenomenon of interest
Low	It is possible that the review finding is a reasonable representation of the phenomenon of interest
Very low	It is unclear whether the review finding is a reasonable representation of the phenomenon of interest



1 *Assessing methodological limitations in qualitative reviews*

2 Methodological limitations in qualitative studies were assessed using the Critical  
3 Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) checklist for qualitative studies ([see appendix H](#)  
4 [in Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#)). Overall methodological limitations were  
5 derived by assessing the methodological limitations across the 6 domains  
6 summarised in Table 9.

7 **Table 9: Methodological limitations in qualitative studies**

Aim and appropriateness of qualitative evidence	This domain assesses whether the aims and relevance of the study were described clearly and whether qualitative research methods were appropriate for investigating the research question
Rigour in study design or validity of theoretical approach	This domain assesses whether the study approach was documented clearly and whether it was based on a theoretical framework (such as ethnography or grounded theory). This does not necessarily mean that the framework has to be stated explicitly, but a detailed description ensuring transparency and reproducibility should be provided
Sample selection	This domain assesses the background, the procedure and reasons for the method of selecting participants. The assessment should include consideration of any relationship between the researcher and the participants, and how this might have influenced the findings
Data collection	This domain assesses the documentation of the method of data collection (in-depth interviews, semi-structured interviews, focus groups or observations). It also assesses who conducted any interviews, how long they lasted and where they took place
Data analysis	This domain assesses whether sufficient detail was documented for the analytical process and whether it was in accordance with the theoretical approach. For example, if a thematic analysis was used, the assessment would focus on the description of the approach used to generate themes. Consideration of data saturation would also form part of this assessment (it could be reported directly or it might be inferred from the citations documented that more themes could be found)
Results	This domain assesses any reasoning accompanying reporting of results (for example, whether a theoretical proposal or framework is provided)

1 *Assessing relevance of evidence in qualitative reviews*

2 Relevance (applicability) of findings in qualitative research is the equivalent of  
3 indirectness for quantitative outcomes, and refers to how closely the aims and  
4 context of studies contributing to a theme reflect the objectives outlined in the  
5 guideline review protocol.

6 *Assessing coherence of findings in qualitative reviews*

7 For qualitative research, a similar concept to inconsistency is coherence, which  
8 refers to the way findings within themes are described and whether they make sense.  
9 This concept was used in the quality assessment across studies for individual  
10 themes. This does not mean that contradictory evidence was automatically  
11 downgraded, but that it was highlighted and presented, and that reasoning was  
12 provided. Provided the themes, or components of themes, from individual studies fit  
13 into a theoretical framework, they do not necessarily have to reflect the same  
14 perspective. It should, however, be possible to explain these by differences in context  
15 (for example, the views of health or social care professionals might not be the same  
16 as those of family members, but they could contribute to the same overarching  
17 themes).

18 *Assessing adequacy of data in qualitative reviews*

19 Adequacy of data (theme saturation or sufficiency) corresponds to a similar concept  
20 in primary qualitative research in which consideration is made of whether a  
21 theoretical point of theme saturation was achieved, meaning that no further citations  
22 or observations would provide more insight or suggest a different interpretation of the  
23 theme concerned. As noted above, it is not equivalent to the number of studies  
24 contributing to a theme, but it does take account of the quantity of data supporting a  
25 review finding (for instance whether sufficient quotations or observations were  
26 provided to underpin the findings) and in particular the degree of 'richness' of  
27 supporting data. Concerns about richness arise when insufficient details are provided  
28 by the data to enable an understanding of the phenomenon being described.  
29 Generally, if a review finding is fairly simple then relatively superficial data will be  
30 needed to understand it. Data underpinning a more complex finding would need to  
31 offer greater detail, allowing for interpretation and exploration of the phenomenon  
32 being described. Therefore in assessing adequacy our downgrading involved  
33 weighing up the complexity of the review finding against the explanatory contribution  
34 of the supporting data.

35 **Reviewing economic evidence**

36 **Inclusion and exclusion of economic studies**

37 Systematic reviews of economic literature were conducted in all areas covered in the  
38 guideline. Titles and abstracts of articles identified through the economic literature  
39 searches were assessed for inclusion using the predefined eligibility criteria listed in  
40 Table 10.

1 **Table 10: Inclusion and exclusion criteria for systematic reviews of economic**  
2 **evaluations**

Inclusion criteria
For each review question, selection criteria regarding the study population and the interventions or conditions assessed were identical to those described in the respective effectiveness review protocol.
Only studies from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development member countries were included, as the aim of the review was to identify economic information transferable to the UK context.
Only studies published from 2002 onwards were included in the review. This date restriction was imposed so that retrieved economic evidence was relevant to current healthcare settings and costs.
Only studies that reported sufficient details regarding methods and results, to enable the methodological quality of the study to be assessed were included, provided also that the study's data and results were extractable.
Full economic evaluations that compared 2 or more relevant options and considered both costs and consequences as well as costing analyses that compared only costs between 2 or more interventions.
Clinical effectiveness data utilised in the analysis should have been derived from a literature review, a clinical trial, a prospective or retrospective cohort study, or a study with a before-and-after design.
Studies should be reporting separately costs for each option assessed, from a healthcare perspective.
Exclusion criteria
Poster presentations and abstracts in conference proceedings.
Non-English language papers.
Non-comparative studies.
Studies reporting exclusively intervention and/or implementation costs without any assessment of benefits or cost-savings
Studies that adopted a non-healthcare perspective and did not consider healthcare costs.

3 Once the screening of titles and abstracts was completed, full-text copies of  
4 potentially relevant articles were obtained for detailed assessment. Inclusion and  
5 exclusion criteria were applied to articles obtained as full-text copies.

6 Details of economic evidence study selection, lists of included and excluded studies,  
7 summaries of economic evidence in economic evidence profiles, and economic  
8 evidence tables for each review question are presented in respective evidence  
9 reviews.

## 10 **Appraising the quality of economic evidence**

11 The applicability and quality of economic evidence, including economic evidence  
12 derived from primary economic modelling conducted for the guideline, was assessed  
13 using the economic evaluations checklist specified in [Developing NICE guidelines:  
14 the manual](#), Appendix H, for all studies that met the inclusion criteria.

15 The methodological assessment of economic studies considered in this guideline has  
16 been summarised in economic evidence profiles that were developed for each review  
17 question for which economic evidence was available. All studies that fully or partially

1 met the applicability and quality criteria described in the methodology checklist were  
2 considered during the guideline development process.

### 3 **Inclusion and exclusion of health state utility studies**

4 Literature on the health-related quality of life of adults experiencing harmful gambling  
5 was systematically searched to identify studies reporting appropriate utility scores  
6 that could be utilised in a primary economic modelling. The titles and abstracts of  
7 papers identified through the searches were independently assessed for inclusion  
8 using predefined eligibility criteria defined in Table 11.

9 **Table 11: Inclusion and exclusion criteria for the systematic review of health**  
10 **state utility values**

<b>Inclusion criteria</b>
Only studies from Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development member countries were included, as the aim of the review was to identify utility data transferable to the UK context.
Studies should report utility data for health states associated with harmful gambling through the care pathway.
Studies should report health-related quality of life ratings made using a validated generic or harmful gambling-specific preference-based measure directly or via mapping from another validated non-preference-based measure. Utility values should have been elicited from the general population using a choice-based method, such as time trade-off (TTO) or standard gamble (SG).
<b>Exclusion criteria</b>
Poster presentations and abstracts in conference proceedings
Non-English language papers

11 Once the screening of titles and abstracts was complete, full versions of the selected  
12 papers were acquired for assessment.

13 Utility studies that met inclusion criteria and those that were excluded after full text  
14 was obtained are listed in evidence review F, which included economic modelling.

### 15 **Economic modelling**

16 The aims of the economic input to the guideline were to inform the guideline  
17 committee of potential economic issues to ensure that recommendations represented  
18 a cost effective use of healthcare resources. Economic evaluations aim to integrate  
19 data on healthcare benefits (ideally in terms of quality-adjusted life-years; QALYs)  
20 with the costs of different options. In addition, the economic input aimed to identify  
21 areas of high resource impact; these are recommendations which (while cost  
22 effective) might have a large impact on Clinical Commissioning Group or Trust  
23 finances and so need special attention.

24 Areas for economic modelling were prioritised by the committee. The rationale for  
25 prioritising review questions for economic modelling was set out in an economic plan  
26 agreed between NICE, the committee, and members of the NGA technical team.  
27 Economic modelling was undertaken in areas with likely major resource implications,  
28 where the current extent of uncertainty over cost effectiveness was significant and

1 economic analysis was expected to reduce this uncertainty. The following economic  
2 questions were selected as key issues to be addressed by economic modelling:

- 3 • Cost-effectiveness of pharmacological and psychological/psychosocial treatments  
4 for adults experiencing harmful gambling. As the size of the available clinical  
5 evidence for pharmacological interventions was small and characterised by  
6 limitations, it did not allow the development of a robust model. Instead, a simple  
7 cost analysis was undertaken, to estimate the intervention costs of naltrexone,  
8 which was the only pharmacological intervention considered by the committee for  
9 a recommendation. This is described in evidence review E. The methods and  
10 results of the de novo economic analysis for psychological/psychosocial  
11 treatments are fully reported in appendix I of evidence review F.
- 12 • Cost-effectiveness of interventions and approaches for preventing relapse in  
13 people who have previously participated in harmful gambling. No economic model  
14 was carried out for this question, due to the limited amount and quality of the  
15 clinical evidence, which did not allow for a robust model to be developed or for  
16 recommendations on specific interventions to be made.

17 When relevant economic evidence was not available and new economic analysis  
18 was not prioritised, the committee made a qualitative judgement regarding cost  
19 effectiveness by considering expected differences in resource and cost use between  
20 options, alongside clinical effectiveness evidence identified from the clinical evidence  
21 review.

## 22 **Cost effectiveness criteria**

23 NICE's report [The NICE Principles](#) sets out the principles that committees should  
24 consider when judging whether an intervention offers good value for money. In  
25 general, an intervention was considered to be cost effective if any of the following  
26 criteria applied (provided that the estimate was considered plausible):

- 27 • the intervention dominated other relevant strategies (that is, it was both less costly  
28 in terms of resource use and more effective compared with all the other relevant  
29 alternative strategies)
- 30 • the intervention cost less than £20,000 per QALY gained compared with the next  
31 best strategy
- 32 • the intervention provided important benefits at an acceptable additional cost when  
33 compared with the next best strategy.

34 The committee's considerations of cost effectiveness are discussed explicitly under  
35 the heading 'The committee's discussion of the evidence' under subheading 'Cost  
36 effectiveness and resource use' in the relevant evidence reviews.

## 37 **Developing recommendations**

### 38 **Guideline recommendations**

39 Recommendations were drafted on the basis of the committee's interpretation of the  
40 available evidence, taking account of the balance of benefits, harms and costs  
41 between different courses of action. When effectiveness, qualitative and economic  
42 evidence was of poor quality, conflicting or absent, the committee drafted  
43 recommendations based on their expert opinion. The considerations for making

1 consensus-based recommendations include the balance between potential benefits  
2 and harms, the economic costs or implications compared with the economic benefits,  
3 current practices, recommendations made in other relevant guidelines, person's  
4 preferences and equality issues.

5 The main considerations specific to each recommendation are outlined under the  
6 heading 'The committee's discussion of the evidence' within each evidence review.

7 For further details refer to [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#).

## 8 **Research recommendations**

9 When areas were identified for which evidence was lacking, the committee  
10 considered making recommendations for future research. For further details refer to  
11 [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual and NICE's Research recommendations](#)  
12 [process and methods guide](#).

## 13 **Validation process**

14 This guideline was subject to a 6-week public consultation and feedback process. All  
15 comments received from registered stakeholders were responded to in writing and  
16 posted on the NICE website at publication. For further details refer to [Developing](#)  
17 [NICE guidelines: the manual](#).

## 18 **Updating the guideline**

19 Following publication, NICE will undertake a surveillance review to determine  
20 whether the evidence base has progressed sufficiently to consider altering the  
21 guideline recommendations and warrant an update. For further details refer to  
22 [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#).

## 23 **Funding**

24 The NGA was commissioned by NICE to develop this guideline. In April 2022 the  
25 NGA became part of the NICE centre for guidelines.

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