

Acne vulgaris: management

Methods

NICE guideline tbc

Supplement 1

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Draft for consultation

*Supplementary material was developed by the
National Guideline Alliance which is a part of
the Royal College of Obstetricians and
Gynaecologists*

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Contents

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Development of the guideline..... | 5 |
| Remit..... | 5 |
| Methods | 6 |
| Introduction | 6 |
| Developing the review questions and outcomes | 6 |
| Searching for evidence..... | 9 |
| Scoping search..... | 9 |
| Systematic literature search | 9 |
| Economic systematic literature search | 9 |
| Reviewing evidence..... | 10 |
| Systematic review process | 10 |
| Type of studies and inclusion/exclusion criteria | 11 |
| Methods of combining evidence | 11 |
| Appraising the quality of evidence | 14 |
| Reviewing economic evidence | 24 |
| Inclusion and exclusion of economic studies | 24 |
| Appraising the applicability and quality of economic evidence | 25 |
| Inclusion and exclusion of health state utility studies | 25 |
| Economic modelling | 26 |
| Cost effectiveness criteria | 27 |
| Developing recommendations | 27 |
| Guideline recommendations..... | 27 |
| Research recommendations..... | 27 |
| Validation process | 28 |
| Updating the guideline..... | 28 |
| Funding | 28 |
| References..... | 29 |

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 guideline for the management of
5 acne vulgaris.

6 For further details of what the guideline does and does not cover see:
7 <https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/gid-ng10109/documents/final-scope>.

8

9

1 Methods

2 Introduction

3 This section summarises methods used to identify and review the evidence, to
4 consider cost effectiveness, and to develop guideline recommendations. This
5 guideline was developed in accordance with methods described in [Developing NICE](#)
6 [guidelines: the manual](#) (NICE 2018a).

7 Declarations of interest were recorded and managed in accordance with NICE's 2018
8 [Policy on declaring and managing interests for NICE advisory committees](#) (NICE
9 2018b).

10 Developing the review questions and outcomes

11 The review questions considered in this guideline were based on the key areas
12 identified in the guideline [scope](#). They were drafted by the NGA technical team, and
13 refined and validated by the guideline committee.

14

15 The review questions were based on the following frameworks:

- 16 • intervention reviews – using population, intervention, comparison and outcome
17 (PICO)
- 18 • prognostic reviews – using population, presence or absence of a prognostic, risk
19 or predictive factor and outcome (PPO)
- 20 • qualitative reviews – using population, phenomenon of interest and context

21 These frameworks guided the development of review protocols, the literature
22 searching process, and critical appraisal and synthesis of evidence. They also
23 facilitated development of recommendations by the committee.

24 Literature searches, critical appraisal and evidence reviews were completed for all
25 review questions.

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

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

| Question number | Evidence review ID* | Review question | Type of review |
|---|---------------------|---|----------------|
| Individual topics: Evidence reviews covering one review question | | | |
| 1. | A | What information and support is valued by people with acne vulgaris, and their parents or carers? | Qualitative |
| 2. | B | What skin cleansing advice is effective in the treatment of acne vulgaris? | Intervention |
| 3. | C | What is the effectiveness of dietary interventions for acne vulgaris, for example <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • milk free diet • dairy product free diet | Intervention |

| | | | |
|----|---|---|--------------|
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • low glycaemic load diet? | |
| 4. | D | When should people with acne vulgaris be referred to specialist care? | Intervention |
| 5. | J | Is the addition of oral corticosteroids to oral isotretinoin of benefit for the treatment of severe acne (including acne conglobata and acne fulminans)? | Intervention |
| 6. | K | What is the effectiveness of intralesional corticosteroids in the treatment of individual acne vulgaris lesions? | Intervention |
| 7. | L | What are the risk factors for scarring in people with acne vulgaris? | Prognostic |
| 8. | M | <p>What interventions are effective in the management of scarring resulting from acne vulgaris, for example</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • microneedling techniques • laser treatment • intradermal injection (for example, autologous platelet-rich plasma; autologous fibroblasts; polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) microspheres in collagen) • surgical treatment (for example, subcuticular incision)? | Intervention |

Combined topics: Evidence reviews covering more than one question

Questions 9-17 below are covered by 5 overarching review questions:

For people with mild to moderate acne vulgaris what are the most effective treatment options? (E1 refers to network meta-analysis and E2 refers to the pairwise meta-analysis of treatment options)

For people with moderate to severe acne vulgaris what are the most effective treatment options? (F1 refers to network meta-analysis and F2 refers to the pairwise meta-analysis of treatment options)

What is an effective management option for people with acne vulgaris and polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS)? (G)

What is the effectiveness of topical or oral pharmacological and physical interventions in treatment resistant acne vulgaris? (H)

What is the effectiveness of topical or oral pharmacological and physical maintenance treatment for acne vulgaris? (I)

| | | | |
|----|---------------------------|--|--|
| 9. | E1/E2 F1/F2 G, H, I | <p>What is the effectiveness of topical treatments individually or in combination in the treatment of acne vulgaris, for example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • benzoyl peroxide • antibiotics • antiseptics • retinoids and retinoid-like agents (for example, tretinoin, adapalene) | |
|----|---------------------------|--|--|

| | | | |
|-----|---------------------------|---|--------------|
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • azelaic acid • nicotinamide • combination of antibiotic and retinoid or retinoid-like agent • combination of benzoyl peroxide and retinoid or retinoid-like agent • combination of antibiotic and benzoyl peroxide? | |
| 10. | E1/E2 F1/F2 G, H, I | <p>What is the effectiveness of oral antibiotic treatments individually or in combination in the treatment of acne vulgaris, for example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • tetracyclines (for example oxytetracycline, doxycycline, minocycline, tetracycline, lymecycline) • macrolide antibiotics (for example, erythromycin and azithromycin) • trimethoprim? | Intervention |
| 11. | E1/E2 F1/F2 G, H, I | What is the effectiveness of an oral antibiotic with a topical agent compared to oral antibiotic alone in the treatment of acne vulgaris? | |
| 12. | E1/E2 F1/F2 G, H, I | What is the optimal duration of antibiotic treatments (topical and systemic) for acne vulgaris? | |
| 13. | E1/E2 F1/F2 G, H, I | What is the effectiveness of hormonal contraceptive treatments for people with acne vulgaris? | |
| 14. | E1/E2 F1/F2 G, H, I | What is the effectiveness of non- hormonal contraceptive anti-androgens (including spironolactone) in the treatment of acne vulgaris? | |
| 15. | E1/E2 F1/F2 G, H, I | What is the effectiveness of metformin in people with acne vulgaris? | |
| 16. | E1/E2 F1/F2 G, H, I | What is the effectiveness of oral isotretinoin for acne vulgaris? | |
| 17. | E1/E2 F1/F2 G, H, I | <p>What is the effectiveness of physical treatments for acne vulgaris, for example</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • comedone extraction • chemical peels (for example, glycolic acid, lactic acid, salicylic acid) • intralesional steroids • light devices (for example, intense pulsed light, photopneumatic therapy and photodynamic therapy)? | |

1 * this refers to the alphabetical or alphanumeric ID of evidence reviews in the guideline

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 Additional information related to development of the guideline is contained in:

- 1 • Supplement 2 – NGA team and collaborators from the TSU
- 2 • Supplement 3 – TSU NMA software code (mild to moderate acne)
- 3 • Supplement 4 – NMA data (mild to moderate acne)
- 4 • Supplement 5 – NMA of efficacy: included and excluded studies (mild to moderate
- 5 acne)
- 6 • Supplement 6 – NMA, direct and indirect estimates (mild to moderate acne)
- 7 • Supplement 7 – TSU NMA software code (moderate to severe acne)
- 8 • Supplement 8 – NMA data (moderate to severe acne)
- 9 • Supplement 9 – NMA of efficacy: included and excluded studies (moderate to
- 10 severe acne)
- 11 • Supplement 10 – NMA, direct and indirect estimates (moderate to severe acne)

12 **Searching for evidence**

13 **Scoping search**

14 During the scoping phase, searches were conducted for previous guidelines,
15 economic evaluations, health technology assessments and randomized controlled
16 trials and systematic reviews. Searches of websites of organisations and institutional
17 repositories were also undertaken for relevant documents. Any references suggested
18 by stakeholders at the scoping consultation were considered.

19 **Systematic literature search**

20 Systematic literature searches were undertaken to identify published evidence
21 relevant to each review question.

22 Databases were searched using subject headings, free-text terms and, where
23 appropriate, study type filters. Where possible, searches were limited to retrieve
24 studies published in English. All searches were conducted in Medline, Embase,
25 Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CCTR) and Cochrane Database of
26 Systematic Reviews (CDSR). For the review question related to Q13.1, CINAHL was
27 also searched.

28 Searches were run once for all reviews during development. Searches for the
29 following questions were updated in May 2020.

- 30 • Effectiveness of topical or oral pharmacological and physical interventions in the
- 31 treatment of acne vulgaris

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

34 **Economic systematic literature search**

35 Systematic literature searches were also undertaken to identify published economic
36 evidence. An additional search was undertaken of 'studies reporting health state
37 utility data that could be utilised in a cost-utility analysis'. Databases were searched
38 using subject headings, free-text terms and, where appropriate, an economic
39 evaluations search filter.

1 A single search, using the population search terms used in the evidence reviews,
2 was conducted to identify economic evidence in the NHS Economic Evaluation
3 Database (NHS EED) and Health Technology Assessments (HTA). Another single
4 search, using the population search terms used in the evidence reviews combined
5 with an economic evaluations search filter and additionally, a health state utility
6 search filter, was conducted in Medline, Embase, the Cochrane Central Register of
7 Controlled Trials (CCTR). Where possible, searches were limited to studies
8 published in English.

9 As with the general literature searches, the economic literature searches were
10 updated in May 2020.

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

13 **Quality assurance**

14 Search strategies were quality assured by cross-checking reference lists of relevant
15 studies, analysing search strategies from published systematic reviews and asking
16 members of the committee to highlight key studies. The principal search strategies
17 for each search were also quality assured by a second information scientist using an
18 adaptation of the PRESS 2015 Guideline Evidence-Based Checklist
19 (McGowan 2016). In addition, all publications highlighted by stakeholders at the time
20 of the consultation on the draft scope were considered for inclusion.

21 **Reviewing evidence**

22 **Systematic review process**

23 The evidence was reviewed in accordance with the following approach.

- 24 • Potentially relevant articles were identified from the search results for each review
25 question by screening titles and abstracts. Full-text copies of the articles were
26 then obtained.
- 27 • Full-text articles were reviewed against pre-specified inclusion and exclusion
28 criteria in the review protocol (see Appendix A of each evidence review).
- 29 • Key information was extracted from each article on study methods and results, in
30 accordance with factors specified in the review protocol. The information was
31 presented in a summary table in the corresponding evidence review and in a more
32 detailed evidence table (see Appendix E of each evidence review).
- 33 • Included studies were critically appraised using an appropriate checklist as
34 specified in [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#) (NICE 2018a). Further detail
35 on appraisal of the evidence is provided below.
- 36 • Summaries of evidence by outcome were presented in the corresponding
37 evidence review and discussed by the committee.

38 Review questions informing network meta-analyses (NMA) were subject to dual
39 screening, study selection and data extraction. Other review questions selected as
40 high priorities for economic analysis (and those selected as medium priorities and
41 where economic analysis could influence recommendations), were subject to dual
42 screening and study selection through a 10% random sample of articles. Any
43 discrepancies were resolved by discussion between the first and second reviewers or

1 by reference to a third (senior) reviewer. For the remaining review questions, internal
2 (NGA) quality assurance processes included consideration of the outcomes of
3 screening, study selection and data extraction and the committee reviewed the
4 results of study selection and data extraction.

5 Drafts of all evidence reviews were checked by a senior reviewer.

6 **Type of studies and inclusion/exclusion criteria**

7 Inclusion and exclusion of studies was based on criteria specified in the
8 corresponding review protocol.

9 Systematic reviews with meta-analyses were considered to be the highest quality
10 evidence that could be selected for inclusion.

11 For intervention reviews, randomised controlled trials (RCTs) were prioritised for
12 inclusion because they are considered to be the most robust type of study design
13 that could produce an unbiased estimate of intervention effects. Where there was
14 limited evidence from RCTs, non-randomised studies (NRS) were considered for
15 inclusion.

16 Topical and physical treatments for acne vulgaris are sometimes tested in split-face
17 trials, where the right and left sides of the same person's face are randomly allocated
18 different treatments. Due to unit of analysis issues, results from such trials were only
19 included if they were presented as the difference in outcome between left and right
20 sides of the face.

21 For prognostic reviews, prospective and retrospective cohort and case-control
22 studies and case series were considered for inclusion. Studies that included
23 multivariable analysis were prioritised.

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

29 The committee was consulted about any uncertainty regarding inclusion or exclusion
30 of studies. A list of excluded studies for each review question, including reasons for
31 exclusion is presented in Appendix D of the corresponding evidence review.

32 Narrative reviews, posters, letters, editorials, comment articles, unpublished studies
33 and studies published in languages other than English were excluded. Conference
34 abstracts were not considered for inclusion because conference abstracts typically
35 do not have sufficient information to allow for full critical appraisal.

36 **Methods of combining evidence**

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

1 Data synthesis for intervention reviews

2 *Pairwise meta-analysis*

3 Meta-analysis to pool results from RCTs was conducted where possible using
4 Cochrane Review Manager (RevMan5) software. Where non-randomised evidence
5 was used, this was/was not meta-analysed.

6 For dichotomous outcomes, such as mortality, the Mantel–Haenszel method with a
7 fixed effect model was used to calculate risk ratios (RRs). For all outcomes with zero
8 events in both arms the risk difference was presented. For outcomes in which the
9 majority of studies had low event rates (<1%), Peto odds ratios (ORs) were
10 calculated as this method performs well when events are rare (Bradburn 2007).

11 For continuous outcomes, measures of central tendency (mean) and variation
12 (standard deviation; SD) are required for meta-analysis. Data for continuous
13 outcomes, such as duration of hospital stay, were meta-analysed using an inverse-
14 variance method for pooling weighted mean differences (WMDs). Where SDs were
15 not reported for each intervention group, the standard error (SE) of the mean
16 difference was calculated from other reported statistics (p values or 95% confidence
17 intervals; CIs) and then meta-analysis was conducted as described above.

18 If a study reported only the summary statistic and 95% CI the generic-inverse
19 variance method was used to enter data into RevMan5. If the control event rate was
20 reported this was used to generate the absolute risk difference in GRADEpro. If
21 multivariable analysis was used to derive the summary statistic but no adjusted
22 control event rate was reported, no absolute risk difference was calculated.

23 When evidence was based on studies that reported descriptive data or medians with
24 interquartile ranges or p values, this information was included in the corresponding
25 GRADE tables (see below) without calculating relative or absolute effects.
26 Consequently, certain aspects of quality assessment such as imprecision of the
27 effect estimate could not be assessed as per standard methods for this type of
28 evidence and subjective ratings were considered instead.

29 Subgroups for stratified analyses were agreed for some review questions as part of
30 protocol development.

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

33 When case series were included, descriptive data from the studies were included and
34 no further analysis was performed.

35 *Network meta-analysis*

36 Network meta-analysis (NMA) is a generalisation of standard pairwise meta-analysis
37 for A versus B trials, to data structures that include, for example, A versus B, B
38 versus C, and A versus C trials (Dias 2011; Lu 2004). A basic assumption of NMA
39 methods is that direct and indirect evidence estimate the same parameter, that is, the
40 relative effect between A and B measured directly from an A versus B trial, is the
41 same with the relative effect between A and B estimated indirectly from A versus C
42 and B versus C trials. NMA techniques strengthen inference concerning the relative
43 effect of two treatments by including both direct and indirect comparisons between
44 treatments, and, at the same time, allow simultaneous inference on all treatments
45 examined in the pair-wise trial comparisons, which is essential for consideration of

1 treatment in economic analysis (Caldwell 2005; Lu 2004). Simultaneous inference on
2 the relative effect of a number of treatments is possible provided that treatments
3 participate in a single “network of evidence”, that is, every treatment is linked to at
4 least one of the other treatments under assessment through direct or indirect
5 comparisons. NMA takes all trial information into consideration, without ignoring part
6 of the evidence and without introducing bias by breaking the rules of randomisation.

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

14 Class models were used so that strength could be borrowed across treatments in the
15 same class and to reconnect disconnected networks. Classes of treatments are
16 groups of interventions which are thought to have similar modes of action and,
17 consequently, similar effects. For all outcomes, both fixed and random class effects
18 models were fitted. The random class effects model assumes the relative effects of
19 treatments within a class are exchangeable. Treatment effects are shrunk towards a
20 class mean and can borrow strength from other elements of the class. The fixed
21 class effects model assumes treatments within a class have identical relative effects.

22 In a Bayesian analysis, for each parameter the evidence distribution is weighted by a
23 distribution of prior beliefs. The Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm was
24 used to generate a sequence of samples from a joint posterior distribution of 2 or
25 more random variables and is particularly well adapted to sampling the treatment
26 effects (known as a posterior distribution) of a Bayesian network. A prior distribution
27 was used to maximise the weighting given to the data and to generate the posterior
28 distribution of the results.

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

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

41 Evidence of treatment effect was demonstrated if the 95% credible intervals [CrI] of
42 the effect versus placebo did not cross the line of no effect.

43 For the outcome of efficacy, new models were developed by the NICE Guidelines
44 Technical Support Unit, University of Bristol (TSU). For other outcomes, standard
45 fixed and random effects models were adapted, available from NICE Decision
46 Support Unit (DSU) technical support document number 2 (Dias 2011).

- 1 The NMA work was undertaken by the NICE Guidelines Technical Support Unit,
2 University of Bristol (TSU).
- 3 Details of the NMA methods employed in this guideline are provided in appendix M of
4 evidence reports E1 and F1.

5 **Data synthesis for prognostic reviews**

- 6 ORs or RRs with 95% CIs reported in published studies were extracted or calculated
7 by the NGA technical team to examine relationships between risk factors and
8 outcomes of interest. Ideally analyses would have adjusted for key confounders
9 (such as age or parity) to be considered for inclusion. Recognising variation across
10 studies in terms of populations, risk factors, outcomes and statistical analysis
11 methods (including adjustments for confounding factors), prognostic data were not
12 pooled, but results from individual studies were presented in the evidence reviews.
- 13 When case series were included, descriptive data from the studies were included and
14 no further analysis was performed.

15 **Data synthesis for qualitative reviews**

- 16 Where possible, a meta-synthesis was conducted to combine evidence from
17 qualitative studies. Whenever studies identified a qualitative theme relevant to the
18 protocol, this was extracted and the main characteristics were summarised. When all
19 themes had been extracted from studies, common concepts were categorised and
20 tabulated. This included information on how many studies had contributed to each
21 theme identified by the NGA technical team.
- 22 Themes from individual studies were integrated into a wider context and, when
23 possible, overarching categories of themes with sub-themes were identified. Themes
24 were derived from data presented in individual studies. When themes were extracted
25 from 1 primary study only, theme names used in the guideline mirrored those in the
26 source study. However, when themes were based on evidence from multiple studies,
27 the theme names were assigned by the NGA technical team. The names of
28 overarching categories of themes were also assigned by the NGA technical team.
- 29 Emerging themes were placed into a thematic map representing the relationship
30 between themes and overarching categories. The purpose of such a map is to show
31 relationships between overarching categories and associated themes.

32 **Appraising the quality of evidence**

33 **Intervention studies**

34 *Pairwise meta-analysis*

35 **GRADE methodology for intervention reviews**

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

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

5 The selection of outcomes for each review question was agreed during development
 6 of the associated review protocol in discussion with the committee. The evidence for
 7 each outcome was examined separately for the quality elements summarised in
 8 Table 2. Criteria considered in the rating of these elements are discussed below.
 9 Each element was graded using the quality ratings summarised in Table 3. Footnotes
 10 to GRADE tables were used to record reasons for grading a particular quality
 11 element as having a 'serious' or 'very serious' quality issue. The ratings for each
 12 component were combined to obtain an overall assessment of quality for each
 13 outcome as described in Table 4.

14 The initial quality rating was based on the study design: RCTs start as 'high' quality
 15 evidence, non-randomised studies start as 'low' quality evidence. The rating was
 16 then modified according to the assessment of each quality element (Table 2). Each
 17 quality element considered to have a 'serious' or 'very serious' quality issue was
 18 downgraded by 1 or 2 levels respectively (for example, evidence starting as 'high'
 19 quality was downgraded to 'moderate' or 'low' quality). In addition, there was a
 20 possibility to upgrade evidence from non-randomised studies (provided the evidence
 21 for that outcome had not previously been downgraded) if there was a large
 22 magnitude of effect, a dose–response gradient, or if all plausible confounding would
 23 reduce a demonstrated effect or suggest a spurious effect when results showed no
 24 effect.

25 **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 |

26 **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 |

1 **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 |

2 *Assessing risk of bias in intervention reviews*

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

5 Risk of bias in RCTs was assessed using the Cochrane risk of bias tool version 2
6 (see Appendix H in [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#); NICE 2018a).

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

11 More details about the Cochrane risk of bias tool version 2 can be found in Section 8
12 of the [Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions](#) (Higgins 2020).

13 For systematic reviews of RCTs the AMSTAR checklist was used and for systematic
14 reviews of other study types the ROBIS checklist was used (see Appendix H in
15 [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#); NICE 2018a).

16 For non-randomised studies the ROBINS-I checklist was used (see Appendix H in
17 [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#); NICE 2018a).

18 *Assessing inconsistency in intervention reviews*

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

26 Inconsistency was assessed visually by inspecting forest plots and observing
27 whether there was considerable heterogeneity in the results of the meta-analysis (for
28 example if the point estimates of the individual studies consistently showed benefits
29 or harms). This was supported by calculating the I-squared statistic for the meta-
30 analysis with an I-squared value of more than 50% indicating serious heterogeneity,
31 and more than 80% indicating very serious heterogeneity. When considerable or very
32 serious heterogeneity was observed, possible reasons were explored and subgroup
33 analyses were performed as pre-specified in the review protocol where possible. In
34 the case of unexplained heterogeneity, sensitivity analyses were planned based on

1 the quality of studies, eliminating studies at high risk of bias (in relation to
2 randomisation, allocation concealment and blinding, and/or missing outcome data).

3 When considerable heterogeneity was present, the meta-analysis was re-run using
4 the Der-Simonian and Laird method with a random effects model and this was used
5 for the final analysis.

6 When no plausible explanation for the heterogeneity could be found, the quality of
7 the evidence was downgraded in GRADE for inconsistency.

8 *Assessing indirectness in intervention reviews*

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

15 *Assessing imprecision and importance in intervention reviews*

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

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

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

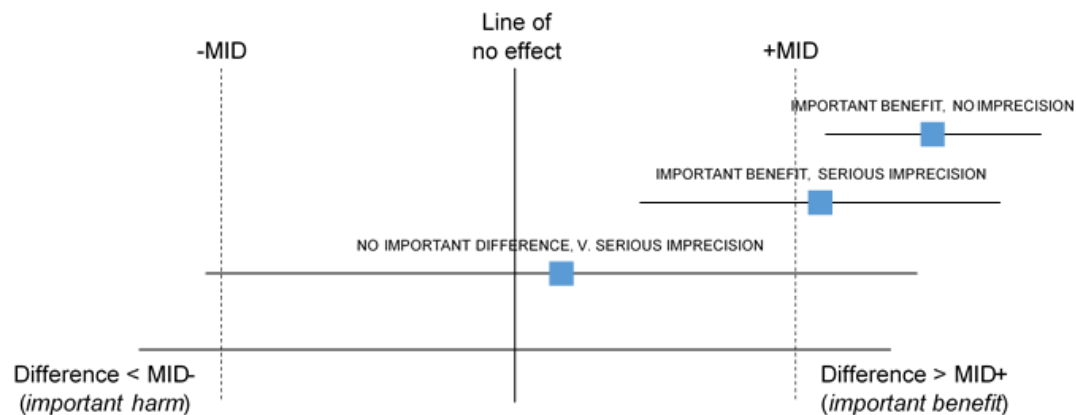
33 When the CI of the effect estimate is wholly contained in 1 of the 3 zones there is no
34 uncertainty about the size and direction of effect, therefore, the effect estimate is
35 considered precise; that is, there is no imprecision.

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

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

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

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



6
 7 *MID, minimally important difference*

8 *Defining minimally important differences for intervention reviews*

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

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

22 If risk difference was used for meta-analysis, for example if the majority of studies
 23 had zero events in either arm, imprecision was assessed based on sample size using
 24 300 and 500 as cut-offs for very serious and serious imprecision respectively. The
 25 committee used these numbers based on commonly used optimal information size
 26 thresholds.

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

31 *Assessing publication bias in intervention reviews*

32 Where 10 or more studies were included as part of a single meta-analysis, a funnel
 33 plot was produced to graphically assess the potential for publication bias. Where

1 fewer than 10 studies were included for an outcome, the committee subjectively
2 assessed the likelihood of publication bias based on factors such as the proportion of
3 trials funded by industry and the propensity for publication bias in the topic area.

4 **Network meta-analysis**

5 For the NMAs, quality was assessed by looking at risk of bias across the included
6 evidence using the Cochrane Risk of Bias Tool for Randomized Controlled Trials, as
7 well as heterogeneity and consistency (also called coherence). Heterogeneity
8 concerns the differences in treatment effects between trials within each treatment
9 contrast (measured by the posterior median between-study standard deviation and
10 compared with treatment posterior mean effects), while consistency concerns the
11 differences between the direct and indirect evidence informing the treatment
12 contrasts. Inconsistency arises when there is a conflict between direct evidence (from
13 an A vs. B trial) and indirect evidence (gained from A vs. C and B vs. C trials) and
14 can only be assessed when there are closed loops of evidence on three treatments
15 that are informed by at least three distinct trials (van Valkenhoef 2016).

16 To determine if there was evidence of inconsistency, in each analysis, the selected
17 consistency model (fixed or random effects) was compared to an “inconsistency”, or
18 unrelated mean effects, model. Further checks for evidence of inconsistency were
19 performed through node-splitting (van Valkenhoef 2016).

20 Bias adjustment models were fitted to down-weight trials at high or unclear risk of
21 bias for domains of the Cochrane Risk of Bias tool that had sufficient variability in the
22 ratings. Models that adjusted for small study bias were also fitted (Dias 2010, Welton
23 2009).

24 Threshold analysis was undertaken to test the robustness of treatment
25 recommendations based on the NMA, to potential biases or sampling variation in the
26 included evidence. Threshold analysis has been developed as an alternative to
27 GRADE for assessing confidence in guideline recommendations based on network
28 meta-analysis (Phillippo 2018).

29 **Prognostic studies**

30 ***Adapted GRADE methodology for prognostic reviews***

31 For prognostic reviews with evidence from comparative studies an adapted GRADE
32 approach was used. As noted above, GRADE methodology is designed for
33 intervention reviews but the quality assessment elements were adapted for
34 prognostic reviews. Adapted GRADE was not used for evidence from case series;
35 instead quality of case series evidence was assessed using the Checklist for Case
36 Series developed by the Joanna Briggs Institute. More information about this tool can
37 be found on the [developer's website](#).

38 The evidence for each outcome in the prognostic reviews was examined separately
39 for the quality elements listed and defined in Table 5. The criteria considered in the
40 rating of these elements are discussed below. Each element was graded using the
41 quality levels summarised in Table 3. Footnotes to GRADE tables were used to
42 record reasons for grading a particular quality element as having ‘serious’ or ‘very
43 serious’ quality issues. The ratings for each component were combined to obtain an
44 overall assessment of quality for each outcome as described in Table 4.

1 **Table 5: Adaptation of GRADE quality elements for prognostic reviews**

| Quality element | Description |
|------------------------------------|--|
| Risk of bias ('Study limitations') | Limitations in study design and implementation may bias estimates and interpretation of the effect of the prognostic/risk factor. High risk of bias for the majority of the evidence reduces confidence in the estimated effect. Prognostic 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 between studies looking at the same prognostic/risk factor, resulting in wide variability in estimates of association (such as RRs or ORs), with little or no overlap in confidence intervals |
| Indirectness | This refers to any departure from inclusion criteria listed in the review protocol (such as differences in study populations or prognostic/risk factors), that may affect the generalisability of results |
| Imprecision | This occurs when a study has relatively few participants and also when the number of participants is too small for a multivariable analysis (as a rule of thumb, 10 participants are needed per variable). This was assessed by considering the confidence interval in relation to the point estimate for each outcome reported in the included studies |

2 *RR, relative risk; OR, odds ratio*3 *Assessing risk of bias in prognostic reviews*

4 The Quality in Prognosis Studies (QUIPS) tool developed by Hayden 2013 was used
5 to assess risk of bias in studies included in prognostic reviews (see Appendix H in
6 the [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#); NICE 2018a). The risk of bias in each
7 study was determined by assessing the following domains:

- 8 • selection bias
- 9 • attrition bias
- 10 • prognostic factor bias
- 11 • outcome measurement bias
- 12 • control for confounders
- 13 • appropriate statistical analysis.

14 *Assessing inconsistency in prognostic reviews*

15 Where multiple results were deemed appropriate to meta-analyse (that is, there was
16 sufficient similarity between risk factor and outcome under investigation)
17 inconsistency was assessed by visually inspecting forest plots and observing
18 whether there was considerable heterogeneity in the results of the meta-analysis.
19 This was assessed by calculating the I-squared statistic for the meta-analysis with an
20 I-squared value of more than 50% indicating considerable heterogeneity, and more
21 than 80% indicating very serious heterogeneity. When considerable or very serious
22 heterogeneity was observed, possible reasons were explored and subgroup analyses
23 were performed as pre-specified in the review protocol where possible.

24 When no plausible explanation for the heterogeneity could be found, the quality of
25 the evidence was downgraded in GRADE for inconsistency.

1 *Assessing indirectness in prognostic reviews*

2 Indirectness in prognostic reviews was assessed by comparing the populations,
3 prognostic factors and outcomes in the evidence to those defined in the review
4 protocol.

5 *Assessing imprecision and importance in prognostic reviews*

6 Prognostic studies may have a variety of purposes, for example, establishing typical
7 prognosis in a broad population, establishing the effect of patient characteristics on
8 prognosis, and developing a prognostic model. While by convention MIDs relate to
9 intervention effects, the committee agreed to use GRADE default MIDs for
10 intervention studies as a starting point from which to assess whether the size of an
11 outcome effect in a prognostic study would be large enough to be meaningful in
12 practice.

13 **Qualitative reviews**14 ***GRADE-CERQual methodology for qualitative reviews***

15 For qualitative reviews an adapted GRADE Confidence in the Evidence from
16 Reviews of Qualitative research (GRADE-CERQual) approach (Lewin 2015) was
17 used. In this approach the quality of evidence is considered according to themes in
18 the evidence. The themes may have been identified in the primary studies or they
19 may have been identified by considering the reports of a number of studies. Quality
20 elements assessed using GRADE-CERQual are listed and defined in Table 6. Each
21 element was graded using the levels of concern summarised in Table 7. The ratings
22 for each component were combined (as with other types of evidence) to obtain an
23 overall assessment of quality for each theme as described in Table 8.

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

| Quality element | Description |
|--|--|
| Risk of bias ('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 confidence in review findings. 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 evidence 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 |
| 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. Individual studies that may have contributed to a theme or sub-theme may have been conducted in a manner that by design would have not reached theoretical saturation at an individual study level |

1 **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 |

2 **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 |

3 *Assessing methodological limitations in qualitative reviews*

4 Methodological limitations in qualitative studies were assessed using the Critical
 5 Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) checklist for qualitative studies (see appendix H
 6 in [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#); NICE 2018a). Overall methodological
 7 limitations were derived by assessing the methodological limitations across the 6
 8 domains summarised in Table 9.

9 **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 healthcare professionals might not be the same as those
16 of family members, but they could contribute to the same overarching themes).

17 *Assessing adequacy of data in qualitative reviews*

18 Adequacy of data (theme saturation or sufficiency) corresponds to a similar concept
19 in primary qualitative research in which consideration is made of whether a
20 theoretical point of theme saturation was achieved, meaning that no further citations
21 or observations would provide more insight or suggest a different interpretation of the
22 theme concerned. As noted above, it is not equivalent to the number of studies

1 contributing to a theme, but rather to the depth of evidence and whether sufficient
2 quotations or observations were provided to underpin the findings.

3 *Assessing importance in qualitative reviews*

4 For themes stemming from qualitative findings, importance was agreed by the
5 committee taking account of the generalisability of the context from which the theme
6 was derived and whether it was sufficiently convincing to support or warrant a
7 change in current practice, as well as the quality of the evidence.

8 **Reviewing economic evidence**

9 Systematic reviews of economic literature were conducted for all review questions
10 covered in the guideline. In addition, literature on the health-related quality of life of
11 the population covered by this guideline was systematically searched to identify
12 studies reporting appropriate health state utility data that could be utilised in a cost-
13 utility analysis.

14 **Inclusion and exclusion of economic studies**

15 Titles and abstracts of articles identified through the economic literature searches
16 were assessed for inclusion using the predefined eligibility criteria listed in Table 10.

17 **Table 10: Inclusion and exclusion criteria for systematic reviews of economic** 18 **evaluations**

| Inclusion criteria |
|---|
| Only studies from 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 2000 onwards were included in the review. This date restriction was imposed so that retrieved economic evidence was relevant to current healthcare settings and costs. |
| Intervention or comparators in accordance with the guideline scope |
| Study population in accordance with the guideline scope |
| Full economic evaluations (cost-utility, cost effectiveness, cost-benefit or cost-consequence analyses) assessing both costs and outcomes associated with interventions of interest, as well as costing analyses that compared only costs between 2 or more interventions of interest were included in the review |
| Studies were included provided that sufficient details regarding methods and results were available to enable the methodological quality of the study to be assessed, and provided that the study's data and results were extractable. |
| Clinical effectiveness data utilised in the economic study should have been derived from a clinical trial, a prospective or retrospective cohort study, or from a literature review. |
| The outcome measure of the economic analysis should be the Quality Adjusted Life Year (QALY) or one of the measures considered in the clinical review. |
| Studies should be reporting separately costs from a healthcare (and, if available, personal social services) perspective. |
| Exclusion criteria |
| Poster presentations, conference abstracts and letters containing insufficient methodological details |
| Non-English language papers |

| Inclusion criteria |
|--|
| Cost-of-illness type studies |
| Non-comparative studies |
| Before-and-after studies and studies based on retrospective analyses of administrative healthcare data, due to associated methodological limitations and overall low quality characterising these study designs. |
| Studies that considered exclusively intervention costs, e.g. drug acquisition costs, without considering wider healthcare costs associated with the management of acne |
| Studies that compared costs of branded vs generic forms of the same drug |

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

4 No economic studies met inclusion criteria for the review. Lists of economic studies
5 excluded after obtaining full text with reasons for exclusion are provided in the
6 appendix K of the relevant evidence reviews. The PRISMA for the search of
7 economic evaluations is presented in the appendix G of each evidence review.

8 Appraising the applicability and quality of economic evidence

9 The applicability and quality of economic evidence, including economic evidence
10 derived from primary economic modelling conducted for the guideline, was assessed
11 using the economic evaluations checklist specified in [Developing NICE guidelines:
12 the manual](#) (NICE 2018a), Appendix H, for all studies that met the inclusion criteria.

13 The methodological assessment of economic studies considered in this guideline has
14 been summarised in economic evidence profiles that were developed for each review
15 question for which economic evidence was available. All studies that fully or partially
16 met the applicability and quality criteria described in the methodology checklist were
17 considered during the guideline development process.

18 Economic profiles of all economic studies that were considered during guideline
19 development, including de novo economic analyses undertaken for this guideline, are
20 provided in Appendix J of the respective Evidence Review Reports.

21 Inclusion and exclusion of health state utility studies

22 The titles and abstracts of papers identified through the searches were independently
23 assessed for inclusion using predefined eligibility criteria defined in Table 11.

24 Table 11: Inclusion and exclusion criteria for the systematic review of health 25 state utility values

| Inclusion criteria |
|--|
| Only studies published from 2000 onwards were included in the review, so that evidence were relevant to current healthcare settings and preferences. |
| Studies were included provided that sufficient details regarding methods and results were available to enable the methodological quality of the study to be assessed, and provided that the study's data and results were extractable. |
| To be included, studies should report utility data for specific health states associated with acne through the care pathway. |

Health-related quality of life should be rated directly by people with acne using a validated generic measure (such as EQ-5D, SF-6D, HUI-3) or a validated preference-based acne-specific measure, or a validated non-preference-based acne-specific measure that could be mapped onto a preference-based measure; alternatively, utility values could be derived by valuation of vignettes describing acne-related health states.

Valuation should be based on a choice-based method (i.e. time trade-off or standard gamble) and not on a visual analogue scale. Preferences could be derived from a sample of the general population or people with acne or their carers or health professionals. Preferences of the UK population were prioritised over preferences derived from non-UK populations.

Exclusion criteria

Poster presentations and abstracts in conference proceedings

Non-English language papers

Studies reporting an overall utility score for people with acne (and/or people without acne), who might have a mixture of acne-related health states or a range of symptom severity, were not considered.

- 1 Once the screening of titles and abstracts was complete, full versions of the selected
- 2 papers were acquired for assessment.
- 3 Utility studies that met inclusion criteria and those that were excluded after full text
- 4 was obtained are reported in the appendix J and appendix K, respectively, of
- 5 evidence reports for areas in which economic modelling was undertaken.

6 Economic modelling

7 The aims of the economic input to the guideline were to inform the guideline
 8 committee of potential economic issues to ensure that recommendations represented
 9 a cost effective use of healthcare resources. Economic evaluations aim to integrate
 10 data on care benefits (ideally in terms of quality-adjusted life-years; QALYs) with the
 11 costs of different options. In addition, the economic input aimed to identify areas of
 12 high resource impact, as these need to be supported by robust evidence on cost
 13 effectiveness.

14 Areas for economic modelling were prioritised by the committee. The rationale for
 15 prioritising review questions for economic modelling was set out in an economic plan
 16 agreed between NICE, the committee, and members of the NGA technical team.
 17 Economic modelling was undertaken in areas with likely major resource implications,
 18 where the current extent of uncertainty over cost effectiveness was significant and
 19 economic analysis was expected to reduce this uncertainty. The following economic
 20 questions were selected as key issues that were addressed by economic modelling:

- 21 • Cost-effectiveness of treatments for people with mild to moderate acne. The
 22 methods and results of the de novo economic analysis are fully reported in
 23 appendix J of evidence review E1.
- 24 • Cost-effectiveness of treatments for people with moderate to severe acne. The
 25 methods and results of the de novo economic analysis are fully reported in
 26 appendix J of evidence review F1.
- 27 • Cost-effectiveness of interventions for the management of acne-related scarring.
 28 This question was not possible to model, due to lack of sufficient clinical evidence.
 29 Instead, a simple cost consequence analysis was undertaken, where intervention
 30 costs were assessed alongside intervention outcomes, in order to formulate

1 recommendations. The approach to this cost consequence analysis is described
2 in evidence review M, under the 'Economic model' sub-heading.

3

4 When new economic analysis was not prioritised, the committee made a qualitative
5 judgement regarding cost effectiveness by considering expected differences in
6 resource and cost use between options, alongside clinical effectiveness evidence
7 identified from the clinical evidence review.

8 **Cost effectiveness criteria**

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

- 13 • the intervention dominated other relevant strategies (that is, it was both less costly
14 in terms of resource use and more effective compared with all the other relevant
15 alternative strategies)
- 16 • the intervention cost less than £20,000 per QALY gained compared with the next
17 best strategy
- 18 • the intervention provided important benefits at an acceptable additional cost when
19 compared with the next best strategy.

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

23 **Developing recommendations**

24 **Guideline recommendations**

25 Recommendations were drafted on the basis of the committee's interpretation of the
26 available evidence, taking account of the balance of benefits, harms and costs
27 between different courses of action. When effectiveness and economic evidence was
28 of poor quality, conflicting or absent, the committee drafted recommendations based
29 on their expert opinion. The considerations for making consensus-based
30 recommendations include the balance between potential benefits and harms, the
31 economic costs or implications compared with the economic benefits, current
32 practices, recommendations made in other relevant guidelines, person's preferences
33 and equality issues.

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

36 For further details refer to [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#) (NICE 2018a).

37 **Research recommendations**

38 When areas were identified for which evidence was lacking, the committee
39 considered making recommendations for future research. For further details refer to
40 [Research recommendations process and methods guide](#) (NICE 2015).

1 Validation process

2 This guideline was subject to a 6-week public consultation and feedback process. All
3 comments received from registered stakeholders were responded to in writing and
4 posted on the NICE website at publication. For further details refer to [Developing](#)
5 [NICE guidelines: the manual](#) (NICE 2018a).

6 Updating the guideline

7 Following publication, NICE will undertake a surveillance review to determine
8 whether the evidence base has progressed sufficiently to consider altering the
9 guideline recommendations and warrant an update. For further details refer to
10 [Developing NICE guidelines: the manual](#) (NICE 2018a).

11 Funding

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