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TITLE

Systematic Reviews: Understanding the Best Evidence For Clinical Decision-Making in Health Care:
Pros and Cons

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evidence; study design and bias; evidence-informed.

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32 **ABSTRACT**

33 In the era of evidence-based decision-making, systematic reviews are being widely used in many
34 health care policies, government programs, and academic disciplines. Systematic reviews are
35 detailed and comprehensive literature review of a specific research topic with a view to identifying,
36 appraising and synthesising the research findings from various relevant primary studies. A systematic
37 review therefore extracts the relevant summary information from the selected studies without bias
38 by strictly adhering to the review procedures and protocols. This paper presents all underlying
39 concepts, stages, steps and procedures in conducting and publishing systematic reviews. Unlike, the
40 findings of narrative reviews, the synthesised results of any systematic reviews are reproducible, not
41 subjective and bias free. However, there are a number of issues related to systematic reviews that
42 directly impact on the quality of the end results. If the selected studies are of high quality, the
43 criteria of the systematic reviews are fully satisfied, and the results constitute the highest level of
44 evidence. It is therefore essential that the end users of systematic reviews are aware of the
45 weaknesses and strengths of the underlying processes and techniques so that they could assess the
46 results in the correct perspective within the context of the research question.

47

48 **1. INTRODUCTION**

49 Detailed, comprehensive, objective, bias free and high-quality evidence on the effectiveness of
50 health care intervention is increasingly becoming important for decision-making in health sciences
51 and healthcare policies. As stated by Jahan et al (1) systematic reviews (SRs) have immense
52 importance in the research methodology and provide the highest level of evidence on the
53 effectiveness of healthcare intervention. SR is therefore an essential tool for gathering, summarising
54 and refining the most relevant available evidence from carefully designed healthcare studies to
55 determine the most effective intervention that have a positive impact. A scrupulously conducted SR
56 helps researchers to determine what is already known about a proposed research topic, appraise the
57 quality of the research evidence, synthesise the research evidence from studies of the highest

58 quality, identify research gaps, prioritise availability of new evidence to fill these gaps, avoid
59 unnecessarily duplication of research, and shape future research projects. SRs involve statistical
60 techniques to synthesise the data from several research studies into a single quantitative estimate to
61 determine the outcome which is largely dependent on the quality and level of the evidence which
62 have been analysed. Drawing on the results of several high-quality studies is much more informative
63 than relying on any single study. However, different studies and their data usually varies in
64 assumptions, methods, sample size and design. SRs can help address such variabilities, offering a
65 structured format of gathering and integrating results from these wider range of studies. The
66 summary effect size becomes increasing important when dealing with a large number of scientific
67 studies on similar research questions often with conflicting results.

68

69 The purpose of this article is to introduce the processes and requirements of SRs to minimise
70 selection bias; achieve consistency and maintain high quality in assessing the studies with uniform
71 standard. A number of rigorous systems with specific selection criteria have been developed to
72 improve SR process to achieve its repeatability or reproducibility. In many SRs, statistical meta-
73 analysis plays the key role to synthesise quantitative summary data from independent studies to
74 estimate the common effect size (2). However, while the SRs are routinely used in many evidence-
75 based decision-making processes and offer many advantages, they are not without criticism.
76 Conclusions based on reviews might be subject to bias and error if there are flaws in the design of
77 studies being reviewed and/or the way in which the SR is being conducted, particularly if it fails to
78 follow the recommended criteria or if the evidence is not assessed, analysed and summarised
79 appropriately. This paper critically investigates various aspects of systematic review process and
80 highlights their weaknesses and strengths. The aim is to help the producers and end-users of the
81 evidence to understand how they should assess the outcomes of SRs within the context of their own
82 expertise in the relevant discipline and health care topics. However, it is always essential to make
83 clear distinctions between primary studies and SRs (Table 1).

84 **2. AN OVERVIEW OF SYSTEMATIC REVIEW**

85 Research on any specific clinical topic differs depending on researchers' interest and the use of
86 different analytical tools employed to analyse and summarise the findings. Furthermore, studies on
87 the same topic may be underpinned by different theoretical concepts and assumptions, and the
88 focus of analysis and findings may also represent the specific views of the researchers or funders.
89 Reviews therefore play an important role in summarising existing evidence. These are usually of two
90 types of reviews; narrative reviews (NRs) and SRs (3). Table 2 provides a summary of the differences
91 between these two types of reviews.

92

93 To guarantee that the evidence reported in a SR is of highest quality, strict criteria has to be applied
94 (a) to review literature comprehensively; (b) analyse the data objectively and (c) produce
95 conclusions without any bias. Some biases, such as publication bias are difficult to eliminate due to
96 its very nature. Publication bias means that studies which failed to find significant evidence or that
97 contradict accepted believes (negative studies). These studies are less likely to be published than
98 those showing statistically significant results (positive studies). Publication bias can lead to the
99 overestimation of effect sizes and their significance. A funnel plot, where the study size is plotted
100 against the effect estimates of the individual studies can be used to identify publication bias. Often
101 quantitative publication bias is assessed by Egger test (4) and Begg test (5) . Therefore, researchers
102 have been continuously trying to improve the processes, criteria and protocols of SRs to minimise
103 errors due to various biases and design flaws to enhance the quality of the final product. Some
104 protocols are specific to meta-analysis, where the results are quantitatively summarized using
105 statistical methods and pooled effect estimates are calculated (6). Others are concerned with certain
106 research designs such as Randomized Controlled Trials (RCTs), the most rigorous design of
107 determining whether a cause-effect relation exists between intervention and outcome (7).

108

109

110 **3. PROCESS OF SYSTEMATIC REVIEWS**

111 A brief list of key protocols in conducting SRs and meta-analyses is provided below.

112 The Quality of Reporting of Meta-analyses (QUOROM) was proposed by Moher et al in 1999 (8) .

113 This was superseded by the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses

114 (PRISMA) (9). PRISMA Protocols (7) was published in 2015 aiming to facilitate the development and

115 reporting of SR . Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) (10) encompasses various

116 initiatives developed by the CONSORT Group to deal with the problems arising from inadequate

117 reporting of RCTs. The Meta-analysis Of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (MOOSE) group (11)

118 proposed a checklist for reporting of meta-analyses of observational studies.

119

120 SR must be comprehensive, exhaustive, and meet the expectation of reproducibility. Khan et al (12)

121 suggest the following five steps:

122 (1) Framing the research or study questions for the intended review

123 (2) identifying all relevant work in the published and unpublished literature

124 (3) assessing the quality of studies

125 (4) summarizing the evidence and

126 (5) interpreting the findings

127

128 There are a number of a authors such as Bettany (13) , Yannascoli, et al (14) and Peters et al (15)

129 who provided a comprehensive summary of conducting a good quality SR. In spite of some minor

130 differences in the details, the key steps in conducting a systematic review literature largely remains

131 the same.

132

133

134 **3.1. Planning of systematic reviews**

135 The first stage of any SR is the planning that includes creating a research team, identification of a
136 research question, determining inclusion/exclusion criterias, preparation of data extraction form,
137 organising a comprehensive literature search strategy and registration of study protocol.

138

139 **3.1.1. Formation of a research team**

140 Establishing a research team is the first step in conducting a SR once a research question is
141 identified. The research team must agree on the review topic, strategy, approach and framework of
142 their review. They require agreement on the list of tasks and any foreseeable problems should be
143 addressed earlier on and during the planning stage. The team should agree on task distribution and
144 timeframe to complete them. The successful implementation of the planning would require regular
145 review of the progress and modification of the review process in the light of any new information.

146

147 **3.1.2. Reason for the study**

148 The aims and objectives for any chosen health care topic should be the driving force for a SR. The
149 team must be fully aware of reasons behind the proposed review and why the study is important. It
150 is essential to keep in mind the positive contribution of the review to the existing literature and the
151 importance of its reproducibility along with its practical benefit such as (a) is the study going to
152 answer a question proposed by the research team?; (b) how important is the health care topic in
153 terms of benefit to the society?; (c) what is the overall advantage to the patient in terms of
154 treatment? (d) is there a potential to save lives and or money?; (e) would it impact any future
155 healthcare policy decisions? etc

156

157 **3.1.3. Research question**

158 This is the key driver in formulating a SR. This requires initial literature review to check if the
159 research question has already been addressed by others and how recently, and if there is an

160 accessible and contemporary material to update it. All the planning and activities will be centred
161 around the research question. Concepts within the review questions should be clearly defined to
162 account for the gaps in the existing research. The review team must critically discuss the
163 appropriateness and importance of the research question, and its associated concepts, and agree on
164 an action plan guided by the resources available. The research questions should not be too broad or
165 too narrow to ensure the review captures relevant evidence in-depth. At this stage, the team should
166 agree on the theory or logic underpinning their research questions, particularly when complex
167 interventions are synthesised.

168

169 Some helpful framework to decide research question are: Patient/Population/Problem, Intervention,
170 Comparison, Outcome (PICO) for quantitative outcomes; and Setting, Perspective, Intervention,
171 Comparison, Evaluation (SPICE) for qualitative outcomes. If the study has already been conducted by
172 others or not can be check by visiting websites such as PROSPERO, Cochrane Database, JBI Database
173 etc (see later).

174

175 **3.1.4. Determine inclusion and exclusion criteria**

176 The determination of research question and well-defined relevant concepts help determine the
177 types of studies to be included. Inclusion criteria may also determine the countries, year and
178 language of studies to be included in the review. Clear specification of criteria is essential to avoid
179 personal or selection bias during the literature search process. The specific conditions and protocols
180 to select studies in the proposed review should be explicitly stated under this section. There are
181 many considerations that could potentially impact on the inclusion/exclusion criteria but the most
182 relevant ones (e.g. study period, study type/design, RCTs, language, outcome measures) must be
183 clearly stated and implemented throughout the searching process.

184

185

186 **3.1.5. Preparation of data extraction form**

187 Data extraction form in a SR is similar to the questionnaire in a survey. It must clearly specify what
188 data from the selected records will be extracted and how. Since independent search of databases is
189 a requirement for a SR, the data extraction form makes the collected data consistent and in the
190 same format.

191

192 **3.1.6. Registration of protocol**

193 Before starting a SR, the team requires to register the study protocol on an online professional
194 platform dedicated for such studies. This would inform the global research community of the
195 upcoming research by a specific team ensuring that the study is not duplicated by another team.

196 One of the sites based in the UK is the International prospective register of systematic reviews
197 accessible via <https://www.crd.york.ac.uk/prospero/>. Another option is Cochrane Database of
198 Systematic Reviews as at (16) or JBI Database of Systematic Reviews and Implementation Reports at
199 (17). Helpful guidance on development of protocol is found in the JBI Reviewers Manual at JBI
200 database (18).

201

202 **3.2. Search strategy and data extraction**

203 The second stage of systematic review involves the actual search of all relevant databases, review of
204 search outcomes, collection of relevant studies, selection of records based on inclusion criteria,
205 extraction of research data using data extraction form and comparison of records of different team
206 members.

207

208 **3.2.1. Database search strategy**

209 Extensive and comprehensive search of all the relevant literature on a research topic are undertaken
210 to identify and collect all materials pertaining to the review. Search should be inclusive of all
211 published and unpublished studies in any language and from any country. Before embarking on the

212 search, the team must prepare a search strategy, list the relevant databases and appropriate search
213 engines and if needs be, create accounts for various databases for the entire team to access.
214 Because research questions do not always precisely match existing academic disciplines and
215 databases may not be comprehensive, it is essential to search all relevant electronic databases
216 methodically from different disciplines to capture all evidences to address the same research
217 question . The choice of bibliographic databases is critical in determining the thoroughness of one's
218 search. Study time period should be specified for the search to reflect that only the studies
219 conducted within the relevant period are considered for the review. During the search, all different
220 combinations of the key/technical words, phrases and terms related to the topic of interest must be
221 included using all available search engines. The search should be extended to all major languages to
222 make sure that the publications in non-English languages are fully covered, however, this will
223 depend on the resources available and the expertise of the research team. It is important to record
224 the search date and note the cut-off date up to which the review entries are included from a
225 particular database. Accurate details of every search history including search log, search
226 terms/phrases, date/time of search, name of database etc. is imperative.

227

228 ***3.2.2. Review of search outcomes***

229 At least two members of the review team should conduct independent searches in all relevant
230 databases taking into account both the electronic and paper version of the materials, and then
231 reconcile the information gathered from the identified studies. If needed, a third reviewer may be
232 engaged to reach an agreement on the selection of any disputed studies. Any limitations or
233 weaknesses of the search should be included in the review report. In case of disputes/discrepancies
234 between two members of the search team on inclusion of any study, an independent opinion of
235 another expert will be used.

236

237

238 **3.2.3. Collection of studies**

239 During the first stage, the selection of studies is based on the checking the title of the articles by the
240 independent reviewers. The studies selected in the first stage are then critically analysed based on
241 the abstracts and full text articles are subsequently obtained. In the final stage, the selection of
242 studies which will be included in the SR is undertaken. The list of citations or bibliographies of the
243 full text articles should be reviewed to identify any additional studies on the topic of interest. The
244 same criteria of inclusion/exclusion should be applied to these additional studies.

245

246 **3.2.4. Selection of records based on inclusion criteria**

247 Once the individual members of the team have independently identified the articles to be included
248 in the SR, all the relevant documents, including full-text article, must be collected and listed for
249 review and record. A well-documented summary of key information in each study may help conduct
250 the review in a systematic and orderly manner. The analytical and critical review of these documents
251 would lead to the review report to address the research question. The selected records then be
252 verified against the predetermined inclusion and exclusion criteria to determine for the final
253 research synthesis. Referencing software such as EndNote or Rayyan should be used to keep an
254 accurate record of the selected studies. Any studies excluded during the full-text review should be
255 recorded and reasons explained.

256

257 **3.2.5. Extraction of summary data**

258 Data extraction on the items of interest (variables) should be entered independently by at least two
259 team members on a spreadsheet in a predetermined format. The format should allow sufficient
260 flexibility to accommodate reporting of data in different format or scale or unit. It may be a good
261 idea to pilot the data extraction sheet with a subset of the studies to make sure that the format is
262 robust enough to deal with the diversities, if any. The data entry of individual team member for each
263 variable should be compared and consensus should be achieved before embarking on the analyses

264 of the data. In case of any dispute a third reviewer or an expert in the field should be consulted in
265 the decision-making process. In case of any missing or confusing data, the authors of the relevant
266 articles should be contacted for clarification or obtaining the missing information. Excel or any other
267 spreadsheet program should be used to gather qualitative and quantitative information. The
268 summary of numerical data may be used for meta-analysis to synthesise quantitative results of
269 independent primary studies.

270

271 **3.3. Research data synthesis and reporting**

272 The third stage of any SR deals with the synthesis of the data, interpretation of findings and
273 reporting of results for publication.

274

275 ***3.3.1. Synthesis of research data***

276 Research data from all selected primary studies should be presented in a tabular form so that
277 different characteristics and summary statistics are on a single document. The synthesis of numerical
278 data is obtained by using meta-analysis which calculates estimate of the common effect size of
279 relevant intervention along with 95% confidence interval (19).

280

281 ***3.3.2. Interpretation of findings***

282 The results produced by SRs should be interpreted accurately in the context of the study based on
283 the research synthesis. This will be the most important piece of information for readers and users,
284 including policy makers, indicating the implications of the final finding. The synthesis may reveal new
285 evidence that may have future research and policy implications.

286

287 ***3.3.3. Reporting the study outcomes***

288 Reporting of findings of SRs may have different form and/or outlet. This may include technical
289 report, journal article, updating previous report etc. The style and content of the report may vary

290 but the final outcome of the review must be the same and reproducible. A flow chart (Figure 1) of
291 the number of studies starting from an initial search stage to the final selection of records is
292 essential for the reporting of any SR (20). Forest plot (Figure 2) also is an essential part of the report
293 if meta-analysis is included in the synthesis (21).

294

295 **4. STUDY QUALITY AND LEVEL OF EVIDENCE**

296 Not every SR would produce results of good quality with high level of evidence. These depend on the
297 quality of the individual studies included in the synthesis as well as the level of evidence they
298 provide (Table 3).

299

300 ***4.1. Assessing quality of studies***

301 The quality of the included studies directly impacts on the quality of evidence. In fact, the quality of
302 the SR is no better than the study with the worst quality included in the review. Thus, quality
303 analysis of the included studies is a crucial part of any systematic reviews.

304

305 One key aspect of any systematic review is to check the internal and external validity of the selected
306 studies (21). The internal validity is threatened by the methodological errors and varieties of biases
307 such as selection, measurement, analytical, and interpretation bias. The introduction of any kind of
308 bias invalidates the reproducibility of the studies. Studies do not meet the criteria of external validity
309 disqualify to be included in the analysis as the results based on the data from such studies should
310 not be generalised to the wider population.

311

312 There are several measures of study quality in the literature. One measure to assess the quality of
313 randomised controlled trials in meta-analysis is Jadad Score (22). This score is also known as the
314 Oxford Quality Scoring System which ranges from zero to five, zero being the lowest quality and five
315 being the highest achievable quality based on reporting of randomization, blinding, and withdrawals

316 reported during the study period. The most recent one is a revised Cochrane Risk-of-Bias (RoB 2)
317 tool for RCTs (23). The Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) is used for assessing the quality of
318 nonrandomised studies in meta-analyses. Wells et al (24) have developed this scale to assess the
319 quality of nonrandomised studies. The other method to address the study bias is the Risk Of Bias In
320 Non-randomised Studies of Interventions (ROBINS-I) proposed by Sterne et al (6) . It is a new tool
321 for evaluating risk of bias in estimates of the comparative effectiveness (harm or benefit) of
322 interventions from studies that did not use randomisation to allocate units (individuals or clusters of
323 individuals) to comparison groups. The tool is particularly useful to those undertaking systematic
324 reviews that include non-randomised studies.

325

326 **4.2. Level of evidence**

327 Not every study provides the same level of evidence because it depends on the design of the
328 primary study (Table 3). There are two different sources of evidence – primary and secondary. The
329 primary source provides the original data and analysis from the research studies. No outside
330 evaluation or interpretation is provided. An example of a primary literature source is a peer-
331 reviewed research article. Other primary sources include preprints, theses, reports and conference
332 proceedings.

333 The level of evidence from primary source are broadly categorised based on the study design as
334 follows (highest to lowest):

- 335 • Experimental: Randomised Controlled Trials (RCTs), known as the ‘Gold Standard’
- 336 • Quasi-experimental studies (such as Non-randomised control studies, Before-and-after
337 study, Interrupted time series)
- 338 • Observational studies (eg Cohort study, Case-control study, Cross-sectional studies).

339 The secondary source includes analysis, synthesis, interpretation and evaluation of primary works.

340 These include commentaries on and discussions of evidence. Table 3 provided a More detailed rating

341 (highest to lowest) of level of evidence for quantitative questions is suggested in the health care
342 literature (25) . Further information can be found in Canberra University Library (26)

343

344 **5. STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF SYSTEMATIC REVIEWS**

345 The strengths and limitations of SRs are briefly summarised below. These remarks should only be
346 taken within the context of the specific SR, assuming that all relevant conditions are met.

347

348 ***5.1. Strengths***

349 SRs are based on a clearly formulated questions of all the relevant high quality studies summarising
350 the evidence using an explicit methodology. These reviews provide objective appraisal of evidence
351 as the underlying procedures and protocols minimise the bias and errors from difference sources
352 and make the final outcomes reproducible. Furthermore, SRs are peer-reviewed at different stages
353 which helps minimise errors and reduce researcher bias. Unlike NR, SRs could use the quantitative
354 data of individual studies to combine them for providing much stronger evidence. Meta-analyses can
355 be an integral part of SRs if the studies contain summary statistics on quantitative outcome
356 variables. All information about the method and extent of searches, collection and selection of
357 studies, extraction of data, any resolution of disagreements or missing information etc are fully
358 recorded by the research team in any SR making the outcomes more transparent and open. Properly
359 conducted SRs may help set up relatively objective baseline or benchmark to assess future research
360 and evidence on specific topic. SRs could identify research gap during the process of searches and
361 investigations enabling to evolve new research questions for further investigations in the areas
362 where disagreement or lack of sufficient evidence is present. The strength of a SR lies in the
363 transparency at each phase of the synthesis process, allowing the reader to focus on the merits of
364 each decision made in compiling the information.

365

366

367 **5.2. Weaknesses**

368 Even though the SRs provide more reliable, objective and accurate evidence than the NRs, it has its
369 own potential weaknesses if the procedures and protocols are not strictly followed. Flaw or non-
370 compliance in any step or stage of SR will seriously undermine the quality of evidence. SRs can be
371 inconclusive if there are conflicting evidences from different studies or trials. This may suggest the
372 need for further investigations. SRs are subject to different kind of biases including description bias,
373 selection bias, measurement bias, analytical bias an interpretation bias (27).

374

375 **6. CONCLUSIONS**

376 It is inevitable that rigorous focus on generating evidence-based guidelines, researchers and
377 organisations in the health care sector are increasing adapting the practice of SRs and meta-analysis.
378 It is essential that everyone involved in the evidence-based decision-making process must have an
379 in-depth knowledge of various stages of undertaking these complex reviews from its inception to the
380 end. The quality of the results produced by any SR will never be better than the quality of the study
381 design reported in the individual trials. However, a properly conducted SR could provide much
382 needed high quality evidence for making appropriate decisions if the underlying processes, protocols
383 and methods are properly and strictly observed. Nonetheless, every step in a SR must be scrutinized
384 for potential bias, from the formulation of the research question to the interpretation and discussion
385 of the results, to ensure the quality and value of the final product. The research team must be well-
386 skilled to decide on what should and should not be included strictly following the agreed procedure
387 and criteria as well as meeting the underlying assumptions and satisfying the technical
388 requirements. In case of disagreement, expert opinion, past experience and discipline knowledge
389 may be the useful guide for the research team. Some of the key benefits of using an evidence based
390 approach for policy-making include (a) ensuring that policies are responding to the real needs of the
391 community; (b) highlighting the urgency of an issue or problem which requires immediate attention;
392 (c) sharing of information amongst other members of the health care sector; (d) potentially reducing

393 the government expenditure which may otherwise be directed into ineffective policies or programs
394 which is likely to produce an acceptable return on the financial investment allocated toward various
395 public programs and (f) enhancing consultative decisions that are characterised by transparency and
396 accountability.

397

398

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