The GRADE system classifies recommendations made in guidelines as either strong or weak. This article explores the meaning of these descriptions and their implications for patients, clinicians, and policy makers.

What do we mean by the strength of a recommendation?
The strength of a recommendation reflects the extent to which we can be confident that the desirable effects of an intervention outweigh the undesirable effects. Desirable effects of an intervention include reduction in morbidity and mortality, improvement in quality of life, reduction in the burden of treatment (such as having to take drugs or the inconvenience of blood tests), and reduced resource expenditures. Undesirable consequences include adverse effects that have a deleterious impact on morbidity, mortality, or quality of life or increase use of resources.

Previous grading systems have used up to nine categories of strength of recommendations.¹ The GRADE system has only two categories—although in this article we will characterise them as strong and weak, guideline panels may choose different words to characterise the two categories of strength. When using GRADE, panels make strong recommendations when they are confident that the desirable effects of adherence to a recommendation outweigh the undesirable effects. Weak recommendations indicate that the desirable effects of adherence to a recommendation probably outweigh the undesirable effects, but the panel is less confident.

Strong and weak recommendations provide specific guidance
GRADE’s binary classification of strength of recommendations provides clear direction to patients, clinicians, and policy makers. The implications of a strong recommendation are:

- For patients—most people in your situation would want the recommended course of action and only a small proportion would not; request discussion if the intervention is not offered
- For clinicians—most patients should receive the recommended course of action
- For policy makers—the recommendation can be adopted as a policy in most situations.

The implications of a weak recommendation are:

- For patients—most people in your situation would want the recommended course of action, but many would not
- For clinicians—you should recognise that different choices will be appropriate for different patients and that you must help each patient to arrive at a management decision consistent with her or his values and preferences
- For policy makers—policy making will require substantial debate and involvement of many stakeholders.

As clinicians become more aware of variability in patients’ values and preferences, they are turning to structured decision aids to facilitate the decision making process.² A strong recommendation indicates that use of a decision aid is unnecessary—almost all informed patients will make the same choice. A weak recommendation indicates that a decision aid could be useful.

Managers of healthcare systems are becoming increasingly interested in ensuring the quality of care. Guidelines help managers to differentiate practices that constitute quality of care from others that are discretionary. GRADE provides clear guidance on these matters: The management options associated with strong, but not with weak, recommendations are candidates for quality criteria. When a recommendation is weak, discussing with patients and families the relative merits of the alternative management strategies may become a quality criterion.

Four key factors determine the strength of a recommendation
The first key determinant of the strength of a recommendation is the balance between the desirable and undesirable consequences of the alternative management strategies, on the basis of the best estimates of those consequences (table 1). Consider, for instance, the use of antenatal steroids in women destined to deliver an infant prematurely. Administration of steroids to mothers decreases the risk of infant respiratory distress syndrome with minimal side effects, inconvenience, and costs. Advantages of steroid administration hugely outweigh the disadvantages, indicating the appropriateness of a strong recommendation.

When advantages and disadvantages are closely
The more values and preferences vary, or the greater the uncertainty in values and preferences, the higher the costs of an intervention—that is, the greater the resources consumed—the lower the likelihood that a strong recommendation is warranted. When setting priorities, governments and public health officials must also consider factors beyond the strength of a recommendation. These include the prevalence of the health problem, considerations of equity, and the potential for improvement in quality of care, all of which will have an impact on the population health gain of an intervention.

**Strong recommendations may not be important from all perspectives**

If the consequences of the choice are relatively unimportant, some patients may not bother with even strong recommendations. This is particularly likely if they are faced with many new drugs or many suggestions to change their lifestyle. When setting priorities, governments and public health officials must also consider factors beyond the strength of a recommendation. These include the prevalence of the health problem, considerations of equity, and the potential for improvement in quality of care, all of which will have an impact on the population health gain of an intervention.

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**Determinants of strength of recommendation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Comment</th>
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<tr>
<td>Balance between desirable and undesirable effects</td>
<td>The larger the difference between the desirable and undesirable effects, the higher the likelihood that a strong recommendation is warranted. The narrower the gradient, the higher the likelihood that a weak recommendation is warranted.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Quality of evidence</td>
<td>The higher the quality of evidence, the higher the likelihood that a strong recommendation is warranted.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Values and preferences</td>
<td>The more values and preferences vary, or the greater the uncertainty in values and preferences, the higher the likelihood that a weak recommendation is warranted.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Costs (resource allocation)</td>
<td>The higher the costs of an intervention—that is, the greater the resources consumed—the lower the likelihood that a strong recommendation is warranted.</td>
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**ANALYSIS**

balanced, a weak recommendation becomes appropriate. Consider, for instance, patients with atrial fibrillation at low risk of stroke. Warfarin can reduce that low risk even further, but adds inconvenience and an increased risk of bleeding. The right choice under such circumstances is likely to differ between patients.

The second determinant of the strength of a recommendation is the quality of the evidence. If we are uncertain of the magnitude of the benefits and harms of an intervention, making a strong recommendation for or against a particular course of action becomes problematic. For instance, graduated compression stockings have an apparent large effect in reducing deep venous thrombosis in people making long plane journeys. The randomised trials from which the estimate of effect comes were, however, seriously flawed—the techniques for measuring deep venous thrombosis were not reproducible, and the studies were unblinded. Despite the apparent large benefit, use of stockings warrants only a weak recommendation.

The third determinant of the strength of a recommendation is uncertainty about, or variability in, values and preferences. Given that alternative management strategies will always have advantages and disadvantages, and thus a trade-off exists, how a guideline panel values benefits, risks, and inconvenience is critical to the strength of any recommendation.

Consider the subject of preventing strokes in patients with atrial fibrillation. Warfarin, relative to no antithrombotic therapy, reduces the risk of stroke by approximately 65% but increases the risk of severe gastrointestinal bleeding. Devereaux and colleagues asked 63 physicians and 61 patients how many serious gastrointestinal bleeds they would tolerate in 100 patients and still be willing to prescribe or take warfarin to prevent eight strokes (four minor and four major) in 100 patients. Figure 1 shows the results. Whereas physicians gave a wide diversity of responses, most patients placed a high value on avoiding a stroke and were ready to accept a bleeding risk of 22% to reduce their chances of having a stroke by 8%. Even among patients, however, diversity in values and preferences was apparent; a few patients were ready to accept only a small risk of bleeding. These data suggest that only in patients at high risk of stroke would a strong recommendation for warfarin be warranted.

Contrast this with the decision faced by pregnant women with deep venous thrombosis. Warfarin treatment between the sixth and 12th week of pregnancy puts women's unborn infants at risk of relatively minor developmental abnormalities. The alternative, heparin, eliminates the risk to the child. The benefit, however, comes with disadvantages of pain, inconvenience, and cost. Clinicians’ experience is that women overwhelmingly place a high value on preventing fetal complications. Thus, despite its disadvantages, a strong recommendation for heparin substitution is warranted.

The final determinant of the strength of a recommendation is cost. Cost is much more variable over time and geographical areas than are other outcomes. Drug costs tend to plummet when patents expire, and charges for the same drug differ widely across jurisdictions. In addition, the resource implications vary widely. For instance, a year’s prescription of the same expensive drug may pay for a single nurse’s salary in the United States and 30 nurses’ salaries in China.

Thus, although higher costs reduce the likelihood of a strong recommendation in favour of an intervention, the context of the recommendation will be critical. In considering resource allocation, guideline panels must therefore be specific about the setting to which a recommendation applies.
Quality of evidence
High quality
Moderate quality
Low quality
Very low quality

Strength of recommendation
Strong recommendation for using an intervention
Weak recommendation for using an intervention
Weak recommendation against using an intervention
Strong recommendation against using an intervention

Fig 2 Recommendations of quality of evidence and strength of recommendations

Recommendations to use interventions in research context may be appropriate
Guideline panels may face decisions about promising interventions associated with appreciable harms or costs and with insufficient evidence of benefit to support their use. They may be reluctant to close the door on such an intervention or to inappropriately provide a weak recommendation for its use. Their fears will be realised if the appropriate recommendation against use of the intervention in clinical practice has the effect of stifling further investigation.

Recommendation for use of an intervention only in the context of research may ameliorate these problems. Furthermore, such a recommendation may encourage efforts to answer important research questions. The National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence felt this was the case in eight of its first 95 technology appraisals, which included recommendations for use in the context of research.

Various presentations of quality of evidence and strength of recommendations may be appropriate
Most guideline panels have used letters and numbers to summarise their recommendations, but they have used them differently. This is potentially confusing. Symbolic representations of quality of evidence and strength of recommendations are appealing in that they are free of this history. On the other hand, clinicians seem to be very comfortable with numbers and letters, and these are particularly suitable for verbal communication.

GRADE offers preferred symbolic representations and, for organisations that wish to use numbers and letters, a preferred number/letter representation, for quality of evidence and grades of recommendation (fig 2). The members of the Grade Working Group are Phil Alderson, Pablo Alonso-Coello, Jeff Andrews, David Atkins, Hilda Bastian, Hans de Beer, Jan Brozek, Françoise Cluzeau, Jonathan Craig, Ben Djulbegovic, Yingve Falck-Ytter, Beatrice Fervers, Signe Flottorp, Paul Glasziou, Gordon H Guyatt, Robin Harbour, Margaret Haugh, Mark Helfand, Sue Hill, Roman Jaeschke, Katharine Jones, Ikka Kunnamo, Regina Kurz, Alessandro Liberati, Nicola Magrini, Merce Marco, James Mason, Jacoet Mrukowics, Andrew D Oxman, Susan Norris, Vivian Robinson, Holger Schünemann, Jane Thomas, Tessa Tan Torres, David Tovey, Peter Tugwell, Mariska Tuut, Helena Varelen, Gunn E Vist, Craig Wittington, John Williams, and James Woodcock.

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Endpiece

Two kinds of surgery
Surgical operations are of two kinds—those that benefit the patient and those that kill him.

Abu al-Qasim Khalaf bin ‘Abbas al-Zahrawi, also known as Albucaasis (940-1013)