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The use of QALY weights for QALY calculations: a review of industry submissions requesting listing on the Australian Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme 2002 to 2004

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5 **ABSTRACT**
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10 ***Background***
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12 Quality-adjusted life years (QALYs) combine survival and health-related
13 quality of life into a single index enabling judgements about the relative value for
14 money of health care interventions.
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19 ***Objective***
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21 The purpose of this study was to investigate the methods used for
22 estimating QALY weights included in submissions by industry for listing on the
23 Australian Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme.
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29 ***Study design***
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31 Retrospective descriptive review of submissions considered by the Pharmaceutical
32 Benefits Advisory Committee (PBAC) from 2002 to 2004.
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36 ***Data sources***
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38 The database of submissions considered at PBAC meetings was obtained from the
39 Pharmaceutical Evaluation Section of the Australian Government Department of Health
40 and Ageing. Further information on each included submission was obtained in the form of
41 the PES commentary (expert report) on the submission.
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47 ***Review methods***
48

49 Submissions to the PBAC over 2002-04 presenting QALYs as an outcome
50 measure were reviewed to identify the methods used to obtain preference-based QALY
51 weights. Information was analysed according to the approach taken to obtain QALY
52 weights (multi-attribute utility instrument (MAUI), health state valuation (HSV) experiment
53 for scaling the health states, or non-preference-based approach), the population from
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5 whom the QALY weights were obtained, the appropriateness of the population for the
6 instrument, recommendation made by the PBAC and the main indicated category for use
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8 of the pharmaceutical.
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10 11 **Results**

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14 MAUIs were used in 39% of approaches reporting QALYs; the most frequently
15 used MAUI was the EQ-5D. HSV experiments were used in 36% of the approaches and
16 generally drawn from the published literature. Non-preference based approaches (24%)
17 included rating scales, mapping transformations and consensus opinions. Responses
18 from patients were used in 58% of the approaches, followed by healthcare professionals
19 and investigators (24% and 9% respectively). Healthcare professionals and investigators'
20 responses were frequently used in non-preference based approaches. Submissions for
21 Nervous system, Infectious disease and Neoplasms were less likely to have presented
22 QALY weights derived from a "more appropriate" approach. The approaches using "more
23 appropriate" populations and techniques were associated with a 56% rejection rate of
24 submissions by the PBAC compared with 66% of those using "less appropriate"
25 approaches.
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41 **Conclusions**

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43 The variability in the quality of QALY weights is troubling. The PBAC Guidelines
44 that applied over the period studied neither encouraged nor discouraged cost-utility
45 analyses and provided only brief guidance on how QALY studies should be conducted. A
46 consistent approach to the application of standard methods should be used when the
47 QALY is used to inform decisions on resource allocation. The new guidelines released in
48 2006 provide more extensive guidance on derivation of QALY estimates and are more
49 encouraging of the presentation of cost-utility analysis. MAUIs offer a straightforward
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approach to obtaining QALY weights and ideally, should be routinely used in relevant comparative randomised trials to assess patients' health states.

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5 **INTRODUCTION**
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10 The Australian Pharmaceutical Benefits Schedule (PBS) aims to provide reliable
11 and affordable access to a wide range of necessary medicines for Australian residents and
12 eligible visitors through government subsidies.^[1] For a pharmaceutical or vaccine to be
13 listed on the PBS, a sponsor prepares a detailed submission according to guidelines.^[2]
14 Submissions are considered by the Pharmaceutical Benefits Advisory Committee (PBAC),
15 an independent statutory body established to make recommendations to the Minister for
16 Health on which pharmaceuticals should be subsidised by the Australian government. In
17 January 1993, Australia became the first country to require an assessment of the costs
18 and cost-effectiveness as part of the decision-making process for government subsidies of
19 medications.^[2] As such, the PBAC process is one of the most developed in the world.
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34 The PBAC considers each submission on the basis of safety, efficacy, cost-
35 effectiveness, and the clinical role of the new pharmaceutical relative to the comparator.^[2]
36 Sponsors of pharmaceuticals are required to provide details on the pharmaceutical (action,
37 indications and restrictions, treatment details, main comparator, clinical management), a
38 clinical evaluation of the main indication (including a systematic review of all relevant
39 randomised trials), an economic evaluation and the estimated impact on government
40 health budgets. The PBAC, with the assistance of its subcommittees, appraises each
41 submission and makes recommendation for government funding, defers the submission,
42 or rejects the submission. Decisions to recommend are presented to the Minister of
43 Health for approving. Decisions to defer are those where the evidence in the submission
44 might be accepted in principle but the price of the medication requires negotiation and/or
45 further information is required. Following rejection, a sponsor, may resubmit the drug for
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5 consideration at a subsequent meeting; it is expected that the sponsor might present new
6 clinical evidence, lower the price and/or undertake major revisions to decision modelling
7 (e.g. including providing more relevant cost and/or quality of life data). Although economic
8 efficiency is not the sole factor considered in reimbursement decisions, the importance
9 placed on this highlights the need for a consistent approach to economic evaluation.
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19 One type of economic evaluation, cost-utility analysis (CUA), uses the Quality-
20 Adjusted-Life-Year (QALY) as its outcome measure. The QALY has gained popularity as
21 the outcome measure of choice for economic evaluations of health care interventions.
22 Underlying the QALY measure is a common assumption that health care resources should
23 be allocated in such a way as to maximise any health gains in society as measured by
24 additional QALYs.^[3] That is, utilitarianism weights the health gains of each individual
25 equally to maximize any increase in the level of health of society. Therefore, all else being
26 equal, for a given budget, programs which provide more additional QALYs should be given
27 priority for funding over programs that produce fewer additional QALYs. Since April 2004,
28 QALYs have been required by the National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence
29 (NICE) in the economic evaluation of all health care interventions being appraised.^[4, 5]
30 However, the United States Food and Drug Administration appears to be avoiding the
31 concept of QALYs and has rebadged health-related quality of life (HR-QoL) under a
32 banner of Patient-Reported Outcomes (PROs).^[6, 7] In its latest guidelines, the PBAC has
33 described QALYs and their use in submissions;^[2] a summary is provided here:
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54 QALYs have three key characteristics:

- 55 1. They combine survival and HR-QoL into a single measure that allows comparability
56 across health care programmes with disparate health outcomes;^[8]
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2. Each health state is assigned a preference-based quality of life weight, or ‘QALY weight’.^[9-11] The QALY weight indicates how much of a life year a person would be prepared to sacrifice to improve their quality of life from a given health state to full health. It is measured on a cardinal scale such that a year of life in perfect health has a score of one and death has a score of zero. Scores less than zero, to reflect states worse than death, are possible.
 3. QALY weights are derived from individuals in stated preference tasks which are designed to reflect the individuals’ trade-offs between quality and quantity of life.^[2]

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As such, there is some validity to QALYs representing social trade-offs and social values, which are desirable properties in a measure of health outcomes for making decisions around the funding of health care interventions.^[3] HR-QoL scores which do not indicate strength of preference have less intrinsic validity.

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To calculate QALYs is a straightforward process. The duration a person is in a health state is multiplied by the QALY weight for that health state. People may experience many health states throughout life; as such, the products of QALY weights and (expected) duration for each health state are summed to give QALYs. The two main approaches to obtaining QALY weights to calculate QALYs are:

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1. Using a multi-attribute utility instrument (MAUI), and
 2. Creating scenarios to elicit QALY weights through health state valuation (HSV) experiments.

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MAUIs have three key elements: A generic quality-of-life instrument, a scaling technique (based on a stated preference task, such as a time trade-off (TTO) and standard gamble (SG)) reflecting trade-offs that individuals representative of society are willing to

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5 make between health outcomes (i.e. preference-based rankings of health states), and a
6 mathematical or statistical model that provides a scoring algorithm to generate QALY
7 weights for any health state that can be described by the instrument. The quality of life
8 instrument consists of a questionnaire which breaks down a health state into (multiple)
9 attributes each of which corresponds with one or more questions and responses in the
10 instrument. Responses are scaled and the mathematical model combines these attribute
11 scores into an overall instrument score.
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23 MAUIs allow health state experiences to be described by patients using a common
24 HR-QoL instrument, in an environment that minimises bias in the reporting of that
25 experience; MAUIs also assign “strength of preference” from the general population (i.e. a
26 valuation) associated with the health states. In this way, MAUIs are an appropriate and
27 practical method to obtain preference-based valuations for HR-QoL. MAUIs, along with
28 disease-specific measures, can be used in clinical trials to collect information at baseline
29 and at various time points during follow-up.
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41 There are several well known MAUIs available that possess the three key
42 elements; the most recent is the SF-6D developed by Brazier et al. to transform SF-36 or
43 SF-12 scores into QALY weights.^[12, 13] The most widely used is the EQ-5D;^[14, 15] others
44 include the Health Utilities Index (HUI2 and HUI3)^[16, 17] and the Assessment of Quality of
45 Life (AQoL).^[18, 19] These MAUIs are all based on acceptable scaling techniques using the
46 SG or TTO.^[8, 20] The comparative merits of the SG and TTO techniques have been the
47 subject of some debate; however, there appears to be no established compelling
48 normative or empirical reason to favour the SG over the TTO method or vice versa.^[8, 21]
49 Similarly, no single MAUI has demonstrated unequivocal superiority or universal
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5 acceptance.^[2] Moreover, there is variation between scores derived from MAUIs;^[18] this
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7 variation may be due to the preferences of the population valuing the health state, cultural
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9 differences and differences in the construction and domains of the instruments.
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14 An alternative to using a MAUI is the use of HSV experiments. In HSV, stated
15 preference experiments around health state scenarios are undertaken to elicit QALY
16 weights. The scenarios are often hypothetical, and the respondents may be patients or
17 drawn from a community sample. The stated preference experiments generally involve an
18 explicit trade-off between health profiles described by HR-QoL and survival durations. The
19 TTO and SG have been the most commonly used approaches for HSV experiments. Such
20 experiments generally involve face-to-face interviews requiring numerous decisions by
21 participants to identify their preferences. These can be relatively labour-intensive and
22 sometimes cognitively challenging. Rating scales have been appealing because they are
23 easy (and inexpensive) to use, but they do not involve a choice or a trade-off to be made
24 between HR-QoL and survival, and therefore, the relative strength of preference cannot be
25 inferred validly.
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43 While there continues to be debate about methods for deriving QALYs, there is
44 general agreement that QALYs, as a measure of health benefit, should have a sound
45 basis in measurement of individuals' relative preferences for health states such that they
46 capture the values of society as a whole.^[22-24] Recognising the need for consistency, NICE
47 and the U.S. Panel on Cost-Effectiveness in Health and Medicine have produced
48 reference cases for undertaking economic evaluation for pharmaceuticals and health care
49 interventions.^[4, 25] Both reference cases suggest the use of choice-based techniques to
50 elicit preferences, the use of generic MAUIs to describe and value health states, and the
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use of a representative sample of the public as the most appropriate source for preferences. This approach is now also encouraged in the most recent version of the PBAC Guidelines (2006).^[2]

This descriptive study investigates the methods used for estimating QALY weights included in submissions from industry to the PBAC for listing on the PBS prepared according to previous versions of the PBAC Guidelines which neither encouraged nor discouraged cost-utility analysis. We review the submissions that have reported QALYs as a measure of health outcomes with the purpose of identifying the approach taken to obtain QALY weights, assessing whether this approach involved use of a MAUI or HSV experiments for scaling the health states, and identifying the population from whom the QALY weights were obtained. We do not assess the strengths and weakness each of the various MAUIs or the different HSV techniques to elicit preferences (e.g. we do not compare TTO with SG). In addition, we assess whether the approach used has any bearing on the PBAC's decision to recommend or reject the submission. Of note is that submissions may include both a cost-effectiveness analysis (CEA) and CUA to support their case. Thus, the PBAC may place greater weight on the CEA if the quality of the CUA is low, or may assess the CEA results as being less uncertain than the CUA results.

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5 **METHOD**
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10 The database of submissions considered at PBAC meetings was obtained from the
11 Pharmaceutical Evaluation Section (PES) of the Australian Government Department of
12 Health and Ageing (DoHA). All submissions considered by the PBAC at their meetings
13 between January 2002 and December 2004 that reported QALYs as an outcome measure
14 were included for this analysis. Further information on each included submission was
15 obtained in the form of the PES commentary on the submission. These commentaries are
16 prepared by expert analysts who prepare detailed critical reports on each submission.
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27 Included submissions were sorted according to which of the following approaches
28 were used to obtain QALY weights:
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32 1. Use of a MAUI
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34 2. Use of a HSV experiment in response to health state scenarios
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36 3. Non-preference based approaches.
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41 We extracted data from the commentaries on the submissions focussing on the
42 approach used to obtain QALY weights. When a MAUI was used, details of the instrument
43 and the population completing the questionnaire were recorded. Where an approach
44 involved HSV experiments around health state scenarios, the technique and population
45 from whom preferences were elicited were recorded. Finally, details were noted for non-
46 preference based approaches, including rating scales and mapping transformations. We
47 have included mapping transformations in this category where the mapping function
48 involved mapping a disease-specific or generic HR-QoL scale onto a 0-1 scale that did not
49 involve trade-offs for preference elicitation (e.g. mapping SF-36 scores onto the Quality of
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5 Well-being index ^[26]). Likewise, rating scales (e.g. visual analogue scales, VAS) do not
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7 require a trade-off or choice decision to be made. As such, scores from these approaches
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9 are not consistent with the QALY approach, which explicitly trades-off quality of life and
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11 survival.
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16 Populations from whom QALY weights were obtained were categorised into:
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- 18 1. Target patient group
- 19 2. Healthcare professionals
- 20 3. Investigators
- 21 4. General population.
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30 The target patient group are living with or being treated for the disease, and
31 includes those actively taking the study medication or those in a clinical trial. Healthcare
32 professionals included clinicians, nurses, and allied health professionals; and the general
33 population are a random (and potentially representative) sample of society.
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41 Where the submission relied on data from published literature, the primary study
42 was retrieved. Where more than one of the above approaches to estimate QALY weights
43 was used in a submission, the approaches were analysed separately. For example, if a
44 submission used a MAUI and a HSV experiment to derive QALY weights, both were
45 recorded and considered independently. Similarly, when an approach was used in more
46 than one population group (e.g. a HSV experiment was undertaken by the general
47 population and a group of patients), each population group was recorded and considered
48 separately.
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The approach and the population were then classified as “more appropriate” and “less appropriate”. The “more appropriate” approaches were where a MAUI was administered to patients who were currently experiencing the health states being valued, or when a HSV experiment (such as a TTO or SG) was undertaken in either the general population to value a health state derived from clinical and quality of life studies or a population of patients to value their own health state. All other approaches were considered “less appropriate”. We also sorted data into recommend, reject, or defer according to the outcome from the PBAC meeting.

Because data submitted to the PBAC was bound by secrecy provisions in the *National Health Act 1953*, it is not possible to name the pharmaceuticals or indications requested in the submissions. However, we do disaggregate results according to a general category indicated for the use of each medication.

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5 **RESULTS**
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10 The PES database contains 230 unique submission numbers which were
11 considered by the PBAC at meetings during 2002 to 2004. A total of 49 (21%)
12 submissions were identified that included QALYs (Table I). These 49 submissions were
13 included in this study for further consideration. There was no apparent trend in the
14 proportion of submissions reporting QALYs, with 18%, 27% and 19% in 2002, 2003 and
15 2004 respectively.
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25 The 49 submissions with QALYs consisted of new submissions (27%),
26 resubmissions (51%)**, submissions for a change to listing (12%), and other submissions
27 such as deferred PBAC considerations and submissions in response to pricing matters
28 (10%) (Table I).
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36 TABLE I ABOUT HERE
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41 Five of the 49 submissions identified had insufficient information available to allow
42 analysis of the approaches used to derive QALY weights and were excluded from further
43 analysis. Of the preference source(s) and methodology used in the 44 submissions with
44 data available, 11 submissions used more than one approach and two submissions
45 presented four approaches. Overall, there were 66 approaches reported from 44
46 submissions. Of the 66 approaches used in the submissions, 47 (71%) approaches were
47 taken from studies previously published in academic journals; the remaining 19 (29%)
48 presented studies specifically undertaken for the purposes of preparing a cost-utility
49 analysis to include in submissions to reimbursement agencies. Of these 66 approaches
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5 used in the submissions, 16 (24%) resulted in a positive recommendation for the drug, 10
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7 (15%) were deferred and 40 (61%) were rejected.
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10 11 *The approaches used*

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14 MAUIs and HSV experiments were the most frequently employed approaches
15 accounting for 26 (39%) and 24 (36%) of the approaches respectively. Non-preference
16 based approaches accounted for 16 (24%) of all approaches used. When a specific study
17 was undertaken for the purposes of a submission, MAUIs were most frequently used
18 (12/19; 63%) followed by non-preference approaches (5/19 26%) and two (11%)
19 undertook a HSV experiment.
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30 Of the MAUIs used (n=26), the EQ-5D was the most common (15/26; 58%),
31 followed by the AQoL (6/26; 23%), and the relatively new SF-6D (3/26; 12%) (Table II). Of
32 the HSV experiments, the TTO was used in 14/24 (58%), SG in 5/24 (21%), and both TTO
33 and SG were used in 5/24 (21%) of the approaches. The five approaches referring to
34 combined use of the TTO and SG all referred to one paper in the published literature;^[27]
35 however, the details of how the TTO and SG were implemented and combined was not
36 reported in that paper.
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48 TABLE II ABOUT HERE
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52 Of the non-preference based approaches, mapping functions and rating scales
53 were each employed in 7/16 (44%) approaches, with consensus opinion and an
54 unvalidated instrument in the remaining 2/16 (12%). All mapping functions were
55 developed from regressions to transform a quality of life measure onto a 0-1 scale. A
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5 published algorithm was used twice^[26] and two approaches developed algorithms
6 specifically for the submissions. Use of non-preference approaches, including global
7 quality-of-life scores and visual analogue scales, were relatively more common in specific
8 studies compared with approaches drawn from the literature (i.e. 8/19 (42%) vs 8/47 (17%)
9 respectively).

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12 Submissions employing MAUIs had the lowest rejection rate in PBAC decisions
13 (14/26; 54%) whereas 15/24 (62.5%) submissions with HSVs had rejections; non-
14 preference approaches had the highest rejection rate (11/16; 69%) but surprisingly, 3/16
15 (19%) non-preference approaches were associated with positive recommendations (Table
16 II).

17 18 19 *The participants*

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21 Of the 66 approaches used, six sampled from more than one population group.
22 When a MAUI was used, patients with the relevant condition completed the instrument
23 based on their current health state in 18/26 (69%) occasions (Table III); 8/26 (31%) were
24 completed by proxy (or a combination of patients and proxy) based on an assessment of
25 each health state. These proxies were healthcare professionals or the investigators; in
26 6/26 (23%) of occasions, scenarios describing health states had been developed by the
27 investigator and the proxy asked to complete the questionnaire. In another 2/26 (7%) of
28 occasions, the investigator or health professional completed the questionnaire based on
29 their impression of the patient's health state.
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5 For those submissions that included a HSV experiment, preferences were elicited
6 from patients on 12/24 (50%) occasions and from healthcare professionals on 7/24 (29%)
7 occasions. The general population was used in 2/24 (8%) and were included in a mixed
8 sample in a further 2/24 (8%) of occurrences. Most notable was that there was only one
9 specific study which undertook a HSV experiment; all other HSV experiments were
10 sourced from published studies.
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21 In the non-preference based approaches, patients were the most common group
22 reporting “QALY weights” (8/16; 50%) followed by investigators (4/16; 25%), healthcare
23 professionals (3/16; 19%) and investigators plus healthcare professionals combined (1/16;
24 6%).
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32 Overall, QALY weights derived using “more appropriate” approaches were used in
33 the majority of approaches (34/66; 52%). The remainder used non-preference approaches
34 (16/66; 24%) or “less appropriate” populations (16/66; 24%) responding to MAUIs or
35 HSVs. Of the 34 “more appropriate” approaches, 56% were in submissions for drugs
36 rejected by the PBAC. Rejection rates were slightly higher for submissions with HSV’s
37 (10/16; 63%) compared with MAUIs (9/18; 50%). This may reflect greater potential for
38 uncertainty about the methods for HSV approaches.
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50 *The clinical indications*

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52 Results were disaggregated into general categories based on the indicated use;
53 “other” was used to represent all categories with less than five submissions in the
54 category.
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5 Submissions for drugs to treat Neoplastic disorders tended to use a MAUI but with
6 responses from healthcare professionals (Table IV); most of these submissions were
7 rejected. HSVs were frequently used in submissions for Infectious diseases; however, the
8 response population was split between healthcare professionals and patients. MAUIs and
9 HSVs were both used in submissions for drugs to treat Mental disorders with responses
10 more often from patients (3 HSVs and 3 MAUIs were completed by patients); the PBAC
11 made one positive recommendation and one deferred decision (both of these involved
12 MAUIs completed by patients) and rejected all other submissions in this category.
13 Musculoskeletal system disorders had the greatest number of submissions over the 2002-
14 04 period; almost half employed a MAUI and a quarter used a non-preference approach to
15 QALYs. In this indication, most submissions used a “more appropriate” approach (14/23;
16 61%) of which 10/14 (71%) were in submissions rejected by the PBAC.
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34 Half of the submissions for drugs to treat Nervous system disorders (3/6; 50%)
35 employed MAUIs but 2/3 (67%) used responses from healthcare professionals; positive
36 recommendations were made for the HSV with responses from patients and for a non-
37 preference approach with responses from clinicians. Other diseases and disorders all
38 used responses from patients; 7/10 (70%) of these were “more appropriate” approaches of
39 which only 2/7 (29%) were in rejected submissions.
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5 **DISCUSSION**
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10 The 21% of submissions to the PBAC using QALYs represents a considerable
11 increase over the 2.5% found by George et al. in the early 1990's.^[28] Given the increased
12 support for QALYs as the primary outcome measure, particularly by the NICE,^[4] and now
13 by the PBAC,^[2] it is expected this proportion will continue to rise in the future. Therefore,
14 the comparability and appropriateness of the approaches and methodology used to derive
15 QALY weights is an important consideration.
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25 The findings of this study suggest that, in the recent period studied, there was little
26 consistency in the approaches and methods used to estimate QALY weights in
27 submissions considered by the PBAC. MAUIs and HSV experiments were most widely
28 used, accounting for 39% and 36% of the approaches used respectively. Surprisingly,
29 non-preference based approaches were used in almost 24% of approaches. The
30 submissions considered in this study were prepared using the guidance in the 1995 PBAC
31 Guidelines (and 2002 revision), which did not require CUA, and provided limited guidance
32 on the derivation of QALYs.^[29] Typically, CUA was used as a supplementary analysis to
33 augment a base case CEA, which may have reduced the sponsor's perceived necessity to
34 obtain high quality QALY weights as the PBAC may have primarily relied on the CEA as
35 the analysis guiding their decision. The revised PBAC guidelines released in 2006
36 provided more detailed guidance on QALY approaches and include a more explicit
37 preference for CUA in most situations (although the use of CUA is not mandatory).
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5 Approaches reporting use of a MAUI had the lowest rate of drugs rejected by the
6
7 PBAC (54%) whereas approaches using a HSV or non-preference approach were more
8 likely to be in rejected submissions (63% and 69% respectively). When a submission used
9 a “more appropriate” approach, 56% were rejected by the PBAC. It is emphasised here
10 that a “more appropriate” approach does not mean the recommendation will be positive;
11 however, a “less appropriate” approach and/or poorly selected population may increase
12 uncertainty and be a strong contributing factor to a rejection decision. The magnitude of
13 the cost-utility ratio and the uncertainty are only two factors considered by the PBAC in
14 their decision-making process. Other factors include safety, efficacy, and the clinical role
15 of the new pharmaceutical (or vaccine) relative to the comparator. Moreover, a CUA was
16 not required by the PBAC during the study period, and only 21% of submissions included a
17 CUA. In many cases CUA may be used as a supplementary analysis to augment a base
18 case cost-effectiveness analysis, and therefore, the PBAC may, when there is uncertainty
19 arising from the CUA approach, place greater emphasis on the CEA results. As such, it is
20 possible that obtaining QALY weights or using a “more appropriate” approach was not
21 given sufficient priority.
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43 Of those submissions that did include a CUA, many studies to generate QALY
44 weights were of low quality. For example, proxies such as investigators and healthcare
45 professionals are not representative of society; likewise, non-preference based
46 approaches cannot reflect society’s preferences or be used to provide QALY weights. The
47 inconsistencies found provide challenges for the decision-making process and increase
48 uncertainty. To some extent, the inconsistencies and inappropriate methods may be
49 related to a limited amount of data being available to the sponsors at the time of
50 submission. This lack of appropriate data is due to a lack of foresight in designing clinical
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5 trials without regard for the concurrent collection of data necessary for a good economic
6 evaluation (i.e. use of a MAUI and resource use data). Although large multinational trials
7 are often run from a centre in the USA or Europe, there is a need to allow and encourage
8 the inclusion of local country-specific data in the data collection process. Without local
9 data, additional uncertainties are introduced when transferring results to Australia. Ideally,
10 country-specific data on resource use, costs and health outcomes would be available in
11 adequately powered multinational trials; this would also allow differences between the
12 aggregate and country-specific results to be assessed for generalisability. In future, it is
13 recommended that validated, generic MAUIs (with the relevant country-specific scoring
14 algorithm) are routinely included in all relevant comparative randomised trials.
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30 The most appropriate use of a MAUI for obtaining QALYs involves completion of
31 the instrument by blinded participants in a randomised trial to rate their own health at
32 baseline and various points during follow-up using the instrument. This study found that
33 no MAUI was used in this way. Most MAUIs were administered to (non-trial) patients with
34 the condition under study, which raises some uncertainty in the validity of the matching of
35 their results to the sets of patients taking the therapies being compared in the analysis.
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45 In some uses of a MAUI, health state scenarios were described for completion of
46 the MAUI by a healthcare professional or investigator. The use of a MAUI to generate
47 QALY weights from scenarios is inappropriate. In an extreme case, the investigator could
48 effectively nominate the QALY weight expected based on his or her own opinion and then
49 construct scenarios aligned to the text of the MAUI. That is, it would be near impossible to
50 describe a health state to a respondent without actually telling them how to rate it on the
51 MAUI. However, when a MAUI is used appropriately such as in a group of patients in a
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5 randomised trial, there are numerous advantages of MAUIs including more accurate and
6 unbiased measurement of health states, comparability across studies (and internationally),
7 and efficiency for respondents and analysts (because no MAUI takes longer than 5-8
8 minutes to complete and analysis is well developed).^[2]
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16 When a HSV experiment is undertaken, a choice-based technique, such as the SG
17 or TTO, should be used to elicit preferences for the described health states. To avoid the
18 introduction of bias and self-interest, preferences should be obtained from a representative
19 sample of society.^[2] Preferences elicited from representative samples of society may be
20 inconsistent with those of patients who may be elderly, young, from a particular social
21 group, and may have their preferences altered by the disease. However, preferences
22 were rarely elicited from the general population with only 2/24 using the general population
23 exclusively, and 2/24 using a mix of patients and the general population. Instead,
24 subgroups of patients or healthcare professionals were commonly used for preference
25 elicitation. This reflects difficulty in ensuring that respondents adequately understand the
26 health states that they are requested to choose between. Furthermore, because there are
27 less decision points for the analyst in a MAUI compared with HSV and therefore less
28 potential for bias and uncertainty to be introduced by the methods, MAUIs are preferred to
29 HSV.
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50 Approaches based on mapping from quality of life questionnaires were often
51 inappropriate and/or lacking validity, and frequently did not involve choice techniques. Of
52 particular concern were attempts to derive QALY weights based on expert consensus or
53 on an assumed linear transformation of a global quality of life or a rating scale to a QALY
54 weight index. Weights estimated in this way are not preference based and do not conform
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5 to the theory underpinning economic evaluation; as such they cannot be considered
6 appropriate for use in QALY calculations. Best practice would ensure that any
7 transformation function would be based on data collected concurrently for both instruments
8 in the same population; unless this approach is taken the validity of any transformation is
9 severely compromised and increases uncertainty. In one submission, QALY weights were
10 transformed from the EQ-5D to the AQL. This was unnecessary and also created greater
11 uncertainty as the rationale for doing so was unfounded and a sensitivity analysis using a
12 different set of weights would have provided greater elucidation of the effect of changes in
13 those weights.
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28 When more than one approach was used, it was often used to obtain a QALY
29 weight for the same health state. A second approach was either the same technique
30 applied to a different population, or a different technique used in the same population. The
31 additional effort needed to use two approaches could be better spent by finding and using
32 one technique with a larger relevant population. The concept of efficiency suggests that
33 greater effort should go into obtaining greater accuracy for the main drivers, and less
34 robust estimates may be used for those states that have little effect (such as when there is
35 a low probability of going into that health state, or the duration in that state is short). As
36 such, we recommend that any post-trial marginal effort in obtaining QALY weights should
37 be directed to collecting data from patients using a MAUI or from the general population
38 using HSV.
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54 The 2006 PBAC Guidelines moderates the preference for obtaining QALY weights
55 from the general population with an understanding of the information asymmetry relating to
56 the health state being valued.^[2] In the HSV context, the issues are (a) how the analyst
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5 described the key features of the health state(s) actually experienced and (b) how the
6 respondent understands the health state from the analyst's description before then
7 proceeding to generate the valuation via SG or TTO. In the MAUI context, the respondent
8 completing the questionnaire actually understands the health state, so the issues are (a) if
9 the respondents are not in the randomised trial(s), how well the patients completing the
10 MAUI "match" the patients receiving the alternative therapies being compared, (b) how
11 well the questionnaire captures the elements which "drive" the health state and (c) how
12 well the separate set of respondents in the general population understand each health
13 state assigned when completing the SG or TTO to value the health states assigned and
14 (d) how well the scoring algorithm aggregates these. Because of the difficulty of
15 minimising investigator bias, there are greater concerns with HSV experiments. These
16 factors also explain the 2006 PBAC Guidelines preference for MAUIs to be completed in
17 the relevant double-blind randomised trials.
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37 The limitations of the current study include the assumption that all data entered in
38 the PES database are accurate and complete, and that the analysis is based on the PES
39 commentaries of submissions. The database has been independently checked and
40 validated against the commentaries as part of this study. Whilst there were instances
41 when insufficient data were available in a commentary to analyse a submission, it is
42 considered unlikely that either the database or commentaries would be sufficiently
43 inaccurate to alter the findings of this study. While we may have double-counted some
44 approaches in resubmissions where the approach used did not change, we believe this is
45 a reasonable approach to take as sponsors have the opportunity to amend their approach
46 to estimating QALY weights; in some cases the feedback from the PBAC on the original
47 submission may have suggested that the approach should be changed. Despite these
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5 limitations, the data provides a reliable trend of the approaches and methodologies used to
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7 estimate QALY weights in support of submissions.
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12 In a previous review of submissions for inclusion on the PBS (1994 to 1997), Hill
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14 and colleagues reported finding examples of inappropriate questionnaire design and
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16 inadequate sample size in time trade-off analyses.^[30] Other studies based on published
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18 CUAs have found extensive variation in the derivation of preferences.^[31-33] The findings of
19
20 the current study suggest there is a general improvement with increased use of generic
21
22 MAUIs and a reduction in the use of rating scales. For example, in a review of 228 CUAs
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24 involving 949 health state descriptions published prior to 1997, Bell and colleagues found
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26 that 20% of health state values were derived through MAUIs.^[32] This compares to the
27
28 current study which found 43% of approaches used a MAUI.
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35 In contrast to earlier studies, which found the Rosser Index, HUI (and its
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37 subsequent variants) and QWB to be the most frequently employed instruments,^[31, 32] a
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39 review of 23 CUAs undertaken alongside clinical trials (based on a MAUI questionnaire
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41 completed by participants in the trial) and published between 1995 and 2002 found that
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43 the EQ-5D was the most common MAUI employed (70%) followed by the HUI (and its
44
45 variants) (26%).^[34] This is similar to the findings of the current study where the EQ-5D was
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47 used in 58% of all MAUIs used.
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53 The EQ-5D is a generic, validated instrument using choice-based methods for
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55 preference elicitation, originally based on the preferences of a UK population; more
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57 recently, a scoring algorithm for the USA population has been developed.^[15] There are
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59 substantial differences between the USA and UK QALY weights for the same health state.
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5 For example, for the health state described in the EQ-5D as 11223, the QALY weights are
6 0.506 and 0.255 using the USA and UK preferences respectively. Significant differences
7 in QALY weights between UK and Japan from this instrument were evident;^[35] however,
8 there were no significant differences across six European countries.^[36] These differences
9 in preferences across populations create uncertainties around the applicability of the
10 QALY weights to populations other than from whom the preferences were drawn. QALY
11 weights for the EQ-5D and the SF-6D with preferences elicited from the Australian
12 population are currently being developed. This will allow greater consistency and
13 applicability for calculating QALYs in Australia.
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28 Because of the above problems (and others), some analysts advocate abandoning
29 QALYs and reverting to clinical outcomes (e.g. cases, life-years etc).^[37] However, this
30 would reintroduce a lack of outcome comparability across health care programmes and
31 pragmatically remove our ability to place a societal value on disparate health outcomes
32 inherent with a single preference-based measure. Moreover, this is equivalent to giving a
33 QALY weight of 1 to all life years and is likely to be an even less accurate representation
34 of health outcomes than from the existing instruments. The problems need to be
35 addressed and methods for eliciting preferences and the use of MAUIs need to be further
36 developed and used appropriately.^[38] Factors to consider when choosing an MAUI include
37 evidence of its validity, reliability, responsiveness/sensitivity (both between groups of
38 individuals and in the same individual at different points in time), and feasibility of use in
39 the relevant health condition or population.
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57 The source of the preferences used should also be applicable to the society in
58 which the decision-making occurs. The preferences from representative samples of
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society continue to be uncommonly elicited. We estimate responses were obtained from an appropriate population in 52% of QALY approaches submitted to the PBAC (i.e. where patients responded to a MAUI or the general population or patients responded to a HSV experiment); this is an improvement on the 24% reported by Bell and colleagues and the 22% reported by Stein from a review of NICE assessments.^[32, 33]

CONCLUSIONS

The quality of QALY weights is troubling and the methodological issues described impact on the measurement of health outcomes. A consistent approach to the application of standard methods should be used when the QALY is used to inform decisions on resource allocation. The new guidelines released in 2006 provide more extensive guidance on derivation of QALY estimates and are more encouraging of the presentation of cost-utility analysis. MAUIs offer a straightforward approach to obtaining QALY weights and should be routinely used in relevant comparative randomised trials to assess patients' health state.

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FOOTNOTES

* We use the term “QALY weight” to distinguish the weights used to estimate QALYs from the scoring systems commonly used in quality of life instruments, such as the SF-36. The scores for the latter are not based on any direct measurement of individual preferences, and hence there is no indication of strength of preference for different health states, or for the trade-offs individuals may make between dimensions of HR-QoL that contribute to the instrument. Elsewhere QALY weights are sometimes referred to as utilities or utility weights, and claimed to have a basis in Von Neumann Morgenstern expected utility. However, QALYs are only a measure of utility if additional strong restrictions are imposed on the utility function.^[9-11]

** A resubmission is a submission that was previously rejected by the PBAC; the sponsor may choose to resubmit to provide additional information and/or make other appropriate amendments. The main reasons for rejections typically include insufficient evidence on the clinical benefit (e.g. from a different target population to that described in the evidence provided), too much residual uncertainty around the clinical benefit or cost-effectiveness estimate, or unacceptable cost-effectiveness ratio.

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