

Modelling for prostate cancer screening to assess the cost-effectiveness

Shuang Hao, Health Economist

Department of Medical Epidemiology and Biostatistics (MEB)

Karolinska Institutet

2023-03-30



About me

- Health economist who recently defended my PhD thesis (2022)
- “Prostate cancer testing in Sweden: the interplay between cost and effectiveness”
- Research interests: health economic evaluations of cancer screening, diagnosis and treatment
- Consultant at the Stockholm Centre for Health Economics (StoCHE), Region Stockholm
- PhD Health Economics, MPH Health Economics, MSc Applied Economics, BSc Statistics
- 9-year work experience in the consulting and pharmaceutical industry

Agenda

The way health economists do things: trial-based vs. lifetime

Modelling approach: Markov vs. individual-based simulations

Per-protocol vs. intention-to-treat: implications for modelling

Sensitivity analyses: one-way vs. probabilistic

Agenda

The way health economists do things: trial-based vs. lifetime

Modelling approach: Markov vs. individual-based simulations

Per-protocol vs. intention-to-treat: implications for modelling

Sensitivity analyses: one-way vs. probabilistic

Types of economic evaluation

| Economic evaluation | Health consequences |
|---|--|
| CUA Cost-utility analysis | QALYs (quality-adjusted life years) Generic or disease specific outcome measures (“utilities”) |
| CEA Cost-effectiveness analysis | A single, common effect that may differ in magnitude; e.g. case detected |
| CBA Cost-benefit analysis | Translate effects into monetary benefits; e.g. translate disability days avoided, life-years or QALYs gained |

Advantage of using QALYs

Simultaneously capture gains from

- reduced morbidity
- reduced mortality

Integrate these into a single measure

Source: Drummond (2015)

Costs

| Perspective | Direct | Indirect |
|-------------------|--|--|
| Healthcare | Costs for testing, diagnosis and managing the disease | N/A |
| Societal | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Direct healthcare• Non-healthcare, e.g. transportation, social services, informal care* | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Productivity losses• Morbidity: short- and long-term sick leave, early retirement• Premature mortality |

* Informal care is debatable. It is sometimes considered as indirect costs.

Primary: Healthcare

Societal perspective may discriminate against those who are not in the labour market: children, disabled, unemployed, elderly

Cost-utility analysis

Comparisons



Incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER)

$$\text{ICER} = \frac{\Delta C}{\Delta E} = \frac{C_1 - C_0}{E_1 - E_0}$$

Cost-effectiveness threshold (willingness-to-pay)

| Category | Costs per QALY gained |
|-----------|---------------------------------|
| Low | <100,000 SEK |
| Moderate | 100,000 (incl.) – 500,000 SEK |
| High | 500,000 (incl.) – 1,000,000 SEK |
| Very high | ≥1,000,000 SEK |

Trial-based vs. Lifetime



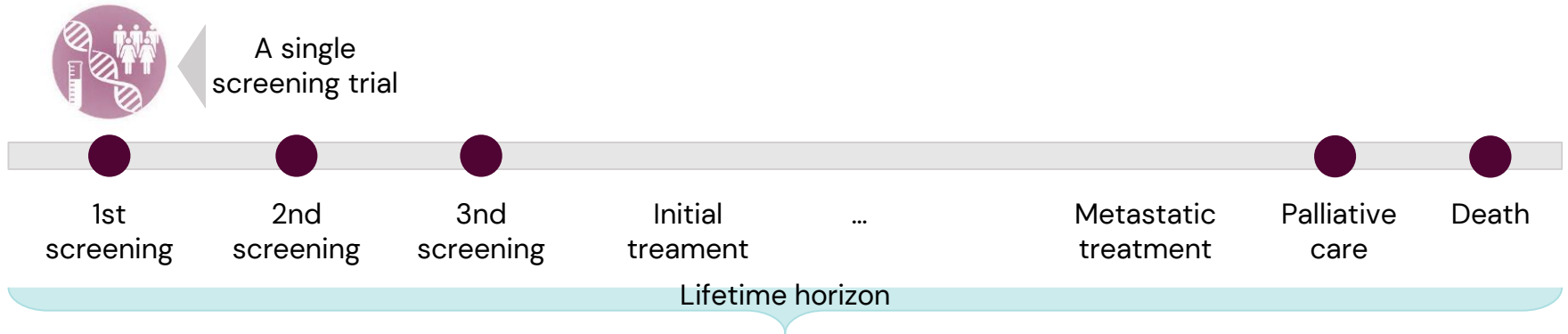
A single
screening trial



1st
screening

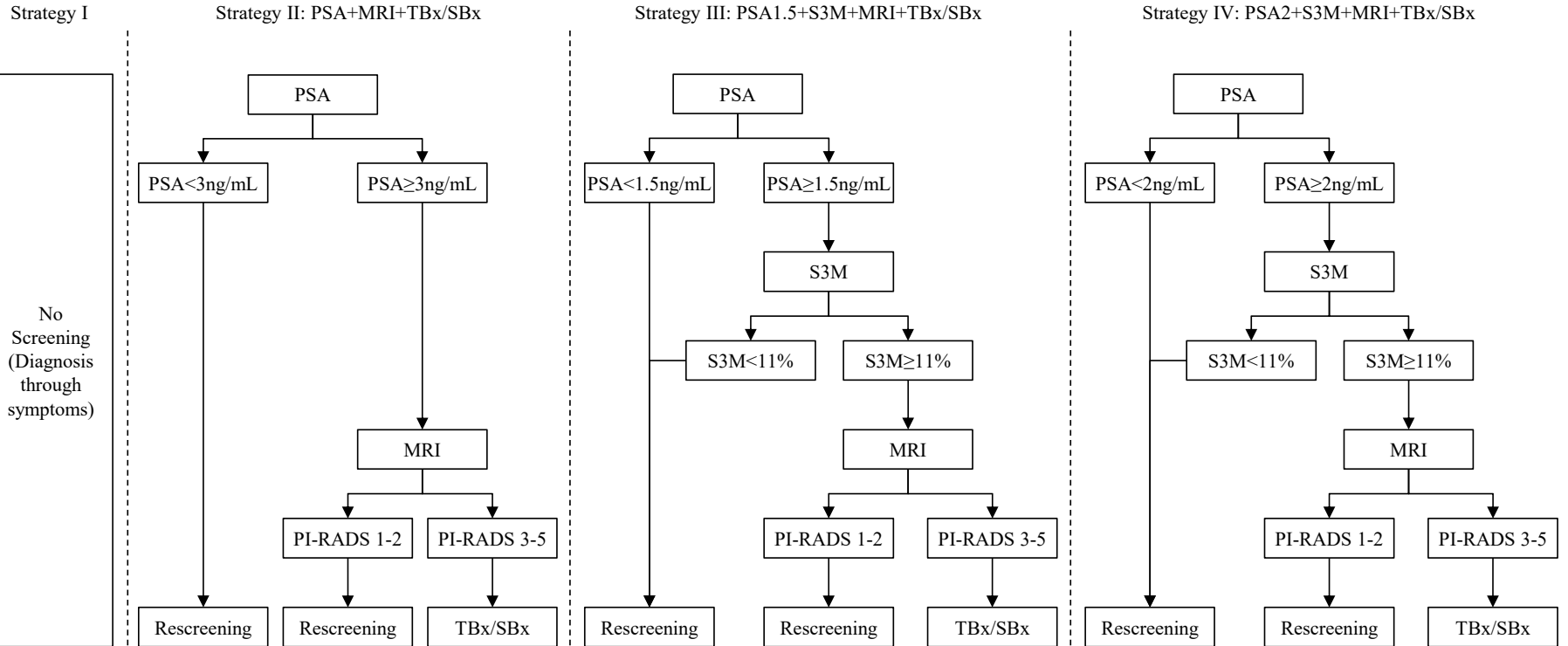
- Easy to compare screening strategies with no screening or current testing practice
- Straightforward to calculate the health consequences and costs
- Focus on shorter-term effects rather than effects after the trial period

Trial-based vs. Lifetime



- Captures the long-term health consequences and costs
- More applicable to health interventions that will affect survival
- Encounter challenges in how to capture the long-term effects
 - Lack of evidence
 - Difficult to model

Research question



MRI: magnetic resonance imaging; PI-RADS: Prostate Imaging Reporting and Data System; PSA: prostate-specific antigen; SBx: systematic biopsy; TBx: MRI-guided targeted biopsy

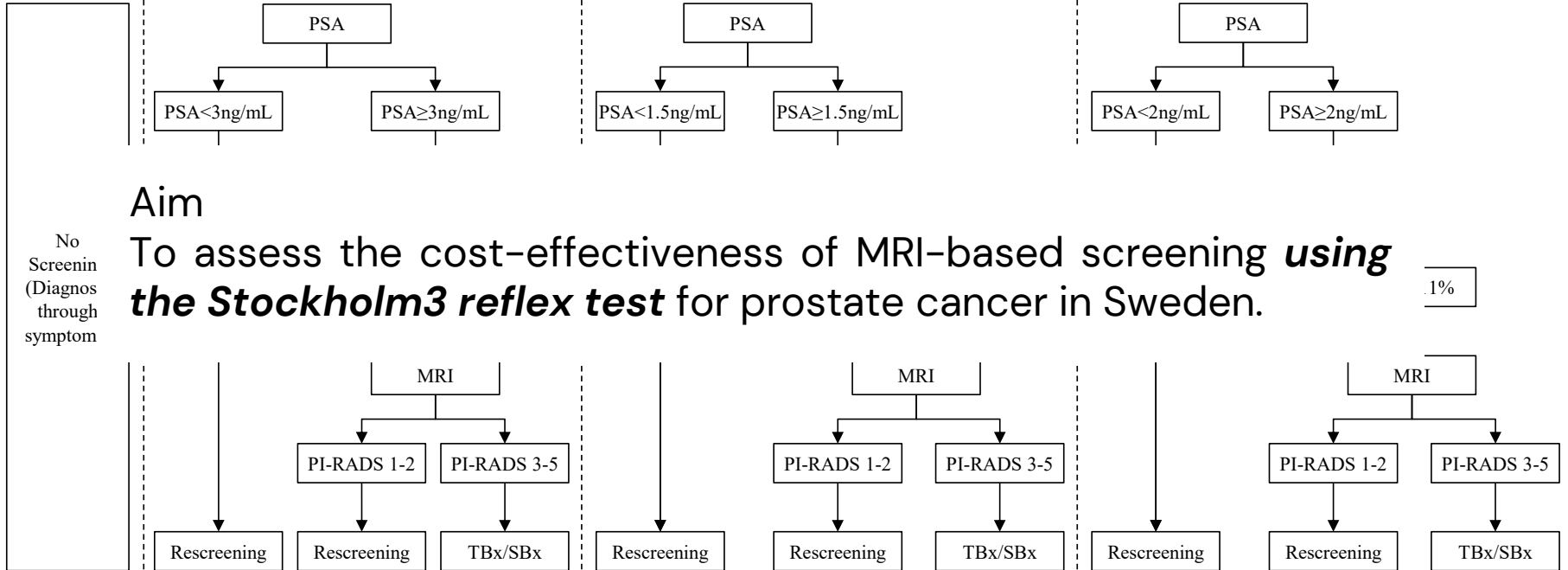
Research question

Strategy I

Strategy II: PSA+MRI+TBx/SBx

Strategy III: PSA1.5+S3M+MRI+TBx/SBx

Strategy IV: PSA2+S3M+MRI+TBx/SBx



MRI: magnetic resonance imaging; PI-RADS: Prostate Imaging Reporting and Data System; PSA: prostate-specific antigen; SBx: systematic biopsy; TBx: MRI-guided targeted biopsy

Agenda

The way health economists do things: trial-based vs. lifetime

Modelling approach: Markov vs. individual-based simulations

Per-protocol vs. intention-to-treat: implications for modelling

Sensitivity analyses: one-way vs. probabilistic

Overview of health economic models

1. Aggregate, branch-based, discrete time: Decision tree
2. Aggregate, state-based, discrete time, clock-forward: Markov
3. Aggregate, state-based, continuous time, clock-forward: Markov
4. Aggregate, state-based, continuous time, clock-reset: semi-Markov
5. Individual, state-based + attribute-based, continuous time, mixed time scales: Microsimulation or Discrete Event Simulation (DES)

Credit: Mark Clements' talk Model taxonomy for HTA on 2022-06-14

Why microsimulation?

Using individual-level data to address individual heterogeneity

- Available longitudinal data
- Ability to account for individual heterogeneity within the population of interest

State transition intensities depend on a patient's history

- Incorporate the memory of events occurring for simulated individuals in the model e.g. time since disease onset, the occurrence of previous events, or time-varying response to treatment
- Also supports individualised screening interventions

Flexible distributions for event times

Bring evidence from specific RCTs together with data from other sources

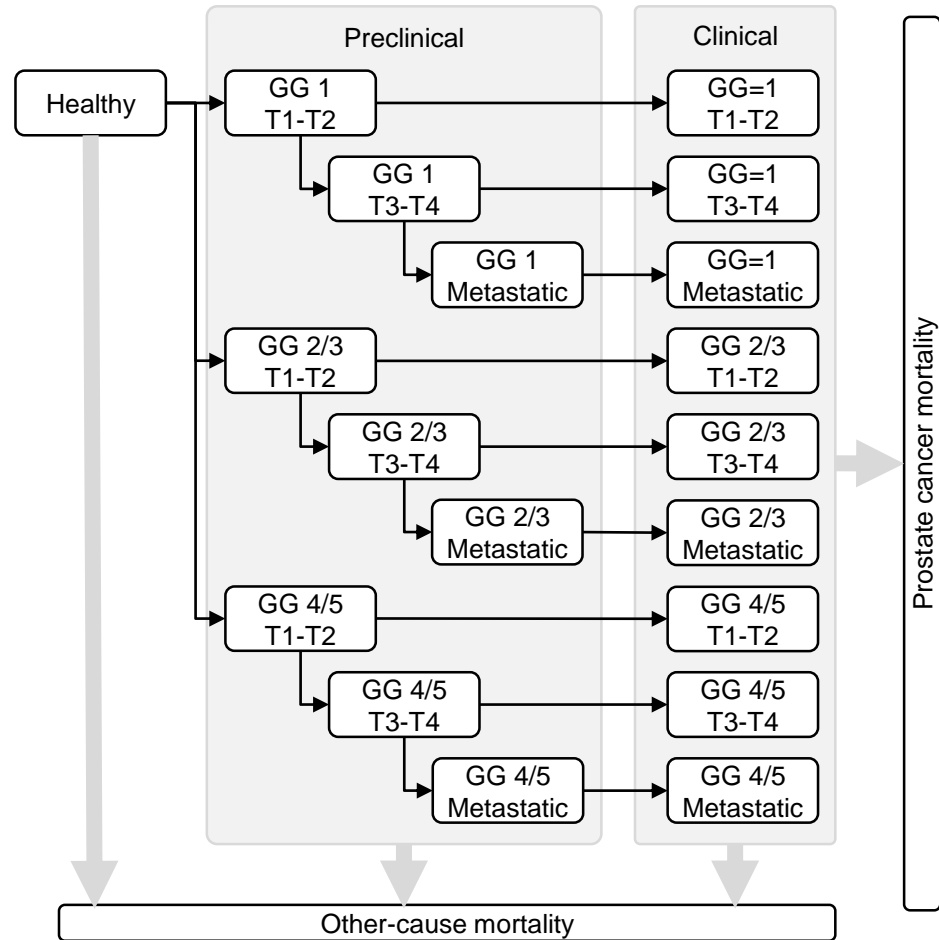
Difficulties in using microsimulation

- Complexity
- “Black box”, less transparent
- Data availability
- High computational workload (for multi-core simulations in R and C++, see our microsimulation package on CRAN)
- Monte Carlo uncertainty for individual-based simulations

Microsimulation model

The Prostata microsimulation model

- Simulated individual life histories from disease onset, disease progression through to deaths
- Included a longitudinal PSA sub-model (same as FHCRC), T-stage, M-stage and ISUP Grade Group
- Validated and well calibrated for Sweden and ERSPC
- Supports reliable health economic evaluations of cancer screening
- Open access to the model (github.com/mclements/prostate)



Agenda

The way health economists do things: trial-based vs. lifetime

Modelling approach: Markov vs. individual-based simulations

Per-protocol vs. intention-to-treat: implications for modelling

Sensitivity analyses: one-way vs. probabilistic

Per-protocol vs. Intention-to-treat

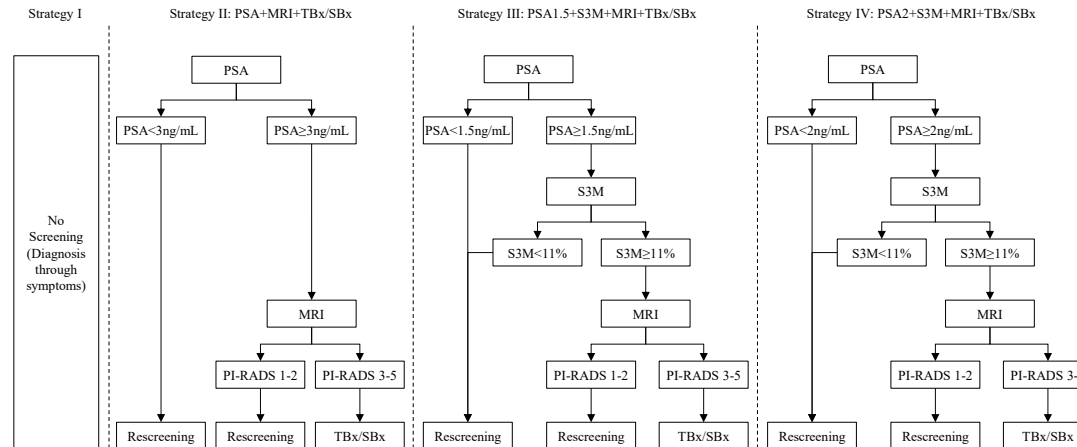
| | Intention-to-treat | Per-protocol |
|-------------|--|--|
| Principal | As randomised, ignoring the actual test or treatment received | As randomised, conditional on protocol compliance |
| Scope | Effectiveness of the test or treatment | Efficacy of the test or treatment under ideal circumstances (compliance) |
| Strengths | Randomisation – protected from bias due to imbalance of baseline characteristics | Proof of the diagnostic or therapeutic concept; more direct for modelling |
| Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Missing data: imputation required• Generalisability: difference in compliance between the study and real-life | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Power: may be reduced• Violation of randomisation: selection bias• May over-estimate the effect and does not represent the real-life situation |

Primary choice in modelling for prostate cancer screening: per-protocol

- Issues with generalisability of ITT
- Uncertainties in screening compliance (participation) and biopsy compliance: captured as parameters in the model
- Address reduced power: model-based multiple imputation (assuming missing at random given other covariates)
- Example: two-arm diagnostic trial (standard biopsy vs MRI-first and then biopsy), with poor biopsy compliance in the standard arm

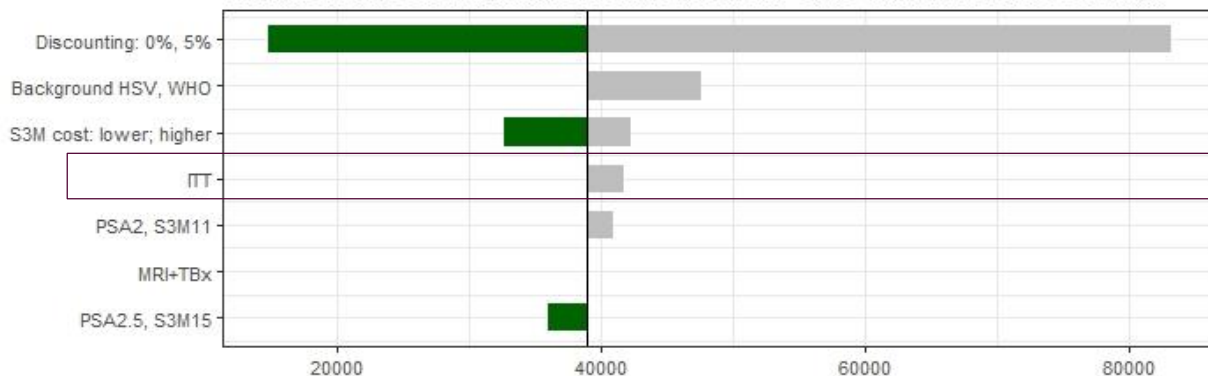
Differences in the test performance using PP and ITT

| Test characteristics | PP | 95% CI (PP) | ITT | 95% CI (ITT) |
|--|-------|----------------|-------|----------------|
| Pr(MRI+ PSA+, GG=O, MRI+TBx/SBx) | 0.148 | (0.126, 0.192) | 0.150 | (0.129, 0.195) |
| Pr(MRI+ PSA \geq 1.5, S3M \geq 15%, GG=O, MRI+TBx/SBx) | 0.167 | (0.124, 0.224) | 0.175 | (0.131, 0.233) |
| Pr(MRI+ PSA \geq 2, S3M \geq 15%, GG=O, MRI+TBx/SBx) | 0.164 | (0.119, 0.226) | 0.174 | (0.127, 0.236) |



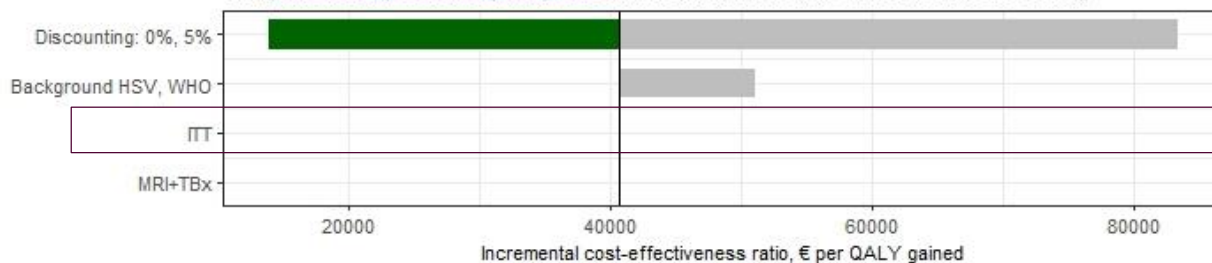
Differences in the results using PP and ITT

Study III: One-way sensitivity analyses tornado plots: PSA2+S3M15+MRI+TBx/SBx vs. No screening



+7.2%

Study III: One-way sensitivity analyses tornado plots: PSA3+MRI+TBx/SBx vs. No screening



+0.2%

■ Lower_ICER ■ Higher_ICER

HSV: health state value; ITT: intention-to-treat; MRI: magnetic resonance imaging; PSA: prostate-specific antigen; QALY: quality-adjust life-year; S3M: Stockholm3 test; TBx: targeted biopsy; TBx/SBx: the combined targeted and systematic biopsy; WHO: World Health Organisation

Agenda

The way health economists do things: trial-based vs. lifetime

Modelling approach: Markov vs. individual-based simulations

Per-protocol vs. intention-to-treat: implications for modelling

Sensitivity analyses: one-way vs. probabilistic


Both one-way and probabilistic sensitivity analyses are important

One-way: how a system is sensitive to key parameters

- Costs, utilities, discount rate
- Screening: age, screening interval, test threshold, trial evidence using PP or ITT, biopsy procedures, etc.

Probabilistic: addresses joint uncertainties

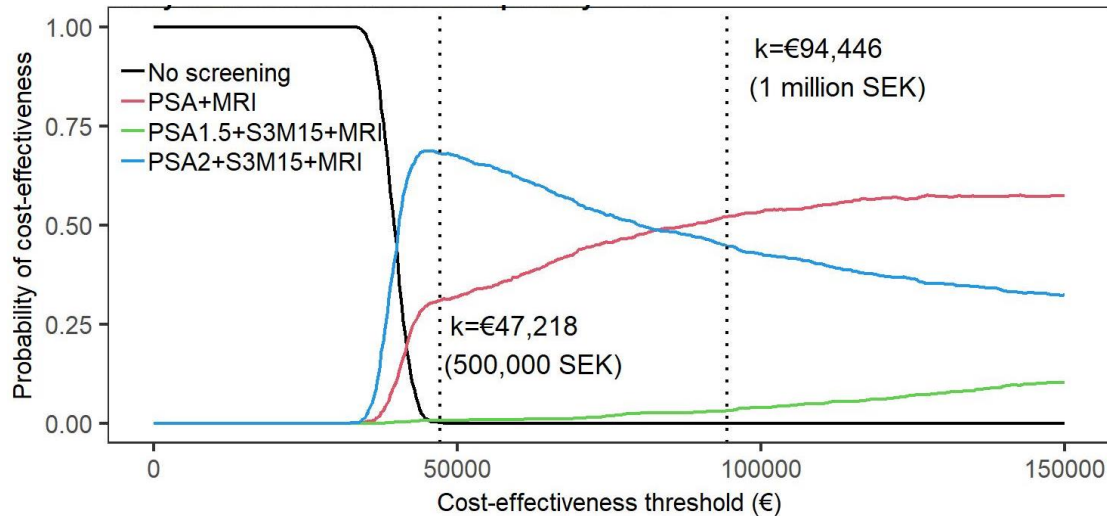
- Parametric bootstrap or Bayesian analysis
- May assume parameter independence
- Cost-effectiveness plane, cost-effectiveness acceptability curve (CEAC), etc.
- Screening: test performance, costs, utilities

- 
- Both are required by the Swedish guidelines for assessing cost-effectiveness
 - Not necessarily required by guidelines from other countries

Mathematically, for CEAC

- $E_{\theta}(Y | \theta)$ vs. $Y(E_{\theta}(\theta))$ where θ are the parameters (as a distribution) and Y could be costs or effects. Different countries accept one or both of these approaches
- $CEAC_k = \Pr(\text{Strategy } k \text{ is cost effective} | \theta, \tau)$, where τ is the cost-effectiveness threshold (willingness-to-pay threshold)

Cost-effectiveness acceptability curve (CEAC)



At a nominal threshold of €47,218 per QALY gained

- Blue: 70% probability of being cost-effective

At a nominal threshold of €83,000 per QALY gained

- Blue & red: equal probability of being cost-effective

At a nominal threshold of €94,446 per QALY gained

- Red: more than 50% probability of being cost-effective compared with other strategies

Summary

- Health economics is an important component for translating epidemiological findings into policy
- Health economics needs good modelling – which is potentially a nice fit for biostatisticians 😊
 - Long-term predictions outside of the observed data
 - Modelling for the disease natural history (e.g. using joint models)



**Karolinska
Institutet**