

1 **WORK IN PROGRESS**

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5

6 **A comparison of direct, indirect and joint analyses of cost-**
7 **effectiveness.**

8

9

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13 Introduction

14 An economic evaluation of a healthcare technology may be based on a direct
15 analysis of the effect of treatment choice on the final endpoints of costs and
16 effects or an indirect analysis operating via intermediate endpoints. In some
17 cases, a joint model which combines both indirect and direct estimates of
18 costs and effects may also be feasible. In this paper we present a framework
19 for comparing and evaluating different analytic approaches.

20

21 In order to compare different approaches, we need to understand the,
22 possibly conflicting, needs of decision-makers. In this paper we assume that
23 the decision-maker's objective is to maximise health gain subject to budget
24 constraint. Unbiased estimates of the expectation (taking into account
25 uncertainty) of the incremental mean costs and effects for each treatment
26 option, $E(\delta c_t)$ and $E(\delta q_t)$, are sufficient to make reliable adoption decisions
27 based on current evidence. However, if the decision makers also wishes to
28 consider the need for (and feasibility of) further research to reduce decision
29 uncertainty, unbiased estimates of the joint distribution of incremental costs
30 and effects, $P(\delta c_t = c \cap \delta q_t = q)$, are also required[1]. It has been argued that
31 decision-makers should always take into account the need for further
32 research, particularly as an unconditional decision to adopt a technology may
33 preclude further research. In addition, there is a need to include all relevant
34 treatments, otherwise the analysis may be invalid as the optimum treatment
35 may be missed[2]. We would also expect, a priori, that the more *applicable*
36 information we are able to include in an analysis, the greater the reliability of
37 the final decision.

38

39 The direct, or "trial based", analysis can only include data from studies that
40 include measures of the final outcomes of cost, including all relevant resource
41 use, and effect, on an appropriate scale for decision-making. Direct analyses
42 cannot incorporate additional data from studies of the effect of treatment on
43 intermediate endpoints.

44

45 In an indirect, or “model based”, analyses, the effect of treatment choice on
46 intermediate endpoints is estimated - typically using clinical trial data - and
47 expected costs and effects are then estimated conditional on the intermediate
48 endpoints using a treatment model parameterised from a variety of sources.
49 This form of analysis requires an assumption of conditional independence;
50 that either the expectations or joint distribution of costs and effects are
51 independent of treatment choice (T) conditional on a function (m) representing
52 the ‘model’ based on the intermediate endpoints I :

53

$$54 \quad E(\delta c_t), E(\delta q_t) \perp T \mid m(I)$$

55 or

$$56 \quad P(\delta c_t = c \cap \delta q_t = q) \perp T \mid m(I)$$

57

58

59 Indirect analyses can incorporate additional data from studies of the effect of
60 treatment on intermediate endpoints. Indirect analysis may be necessary
61 when there are insufficient data to allow a direct analysis.

62

63 In a joint analysis, the effect of treatment choice on costs and effects is
64 estimated both directly and indirectly via intermediate endpoints. Joint
65 analysis requires study data including measures of both the final outcomes of
66 cost and effects and the intermediate endpoints. It allows the incorporation of
67 additional data from studies of the effect of treatment on intermediate
68 endpoints. The analysis does not require an assumption of conditional
69 independence, as costs and effects that are not conditional on the
70 intermediate endpoint will be included via the direct component of the
71 analysis.

72

73 In this paper, we compare the results of direct, indirect and joint analysis of
74 the Chronic Disease Self Management Programme (CDSMP). This
75 intervention, developed in the US, forms the basis of the Expert Patient
76 Programme (EPP), a peer led self management programme that has recently
77 been rolled out throughout the UK and will be available to 100,000 individuals

78 with chronic conditions by the year 2012[3]. This paper presents a
79 methodology for introducing data of different types from different sources into
80 a cost-effectiveness decision model. However, analyses of these data are
81 ongoing and the results and conclusions of these analyses should not be
82 used as evidence in favour of the CDSMP or the Expert Patient Programme.

83

84 These preliminary analyses are based on a synthesis of individual patient data
85 from two trials that include measures of both costs and QALYs and the
86 intermediate endpoint of patient reported self-efficacy (SE). In addition, the
87 effect of incorporating additional aggregate data from a series of trials of the
88 effect of EPP on mean self-efficacy into the indirect and joint analyses is
89 investigated. The estimated incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER), cost-
90 effectiveness acceptability curves (CEAC), expected value of perfect
91 information (EVPI) and the likely implications for decisions regarding
92 treatment adoption and the need for further research are compared for each
93 analytic approach.

94

95 We demonstrate that the indirect and direct analyses can be viewed as
96 special cases of the joint analysis with certain parameters constrained to zero
97 and use this treatment to examine the underlying assumptions and their
98 corollaries for each of the methods of analysis. We also consider how the
99 appropriate method of analysis might be selected.

100

101

102 **Methods**

103 **Decision Problem**

104 The CDSMP intervention is designed to increase patients level of self-
105 efficacy, defined as their confidence in their ability to manage their
106 condition.[4] It is hypothesised that improving patients' self-efficacy will lead
107 to improvements in health outcomes[5, 6]. The decision problem is to
108 determine whether the EPP programme is cost-effective compared to no
109 intervention.

110 Two sources of data were available. Firstly, individual patient level data are
111 available from two trials comparing the EPP interventions to ‘no
112 intervention’[7, 8]. These trials provided details of resource use sufficient to
113 estimate costs and also repeated measures of utility derived from EQ-5D data
114 allowing treatment effect to be expressed in terms of quality adjusted life
115 years (QALYs). These trials also included measurement of the SE
116 intermediate endpoint. These trials were used in all the analyses (direct,
117 indirect and joint as described below).

118

119 In addition, there were eight trials that provided estimates of mean self-
120 efficacy comparing EPP to ‘no intervention’. However, these trials provided
121 no estimates of costs or QALYs. Henceforth, these are referred as the
122 additional data.

123

124 **Methods of analysis**

125 Estimates of incremental mean costs and effects for the EPP intervention
126 compared to ‘no intervention’ were estimated using joint, direct and indirect
127 analyses. The three analytic approaches are summarised in table 1. Each
128 analysis has two main components, a within-study calibration model and an
129 out-of-study prediction model.

130

131 The out-of-study prediction model is used to predict the incremental mean
132 costs and effects for each treatment option for the future – next through the
133 door – patients for whom we are trying to identify the optimum treatment,
134 given budget restraints.

135

136 The within study calibration model predicts values for the costs, effects and
137 other intermediate variables for the subjects included in the various studies
138 based on their characteristics and model parameters; these parameter
139 estimates are subsequently used in the prediction model. A Bayesian
140 analysis was used to estimate the values of the model parameters; the
141 likelihood functions used to incorporate the trial and additional aggregate data
142 are also shown in table 1.

143

144 **1. Direct Analysis**

145 In the calibration model, the mean costs and qalys for subject s ($\mu_{c,s}$ and $\mu_{q,s}$),
146 are estimated as a linear function of treatment indicator variables T and other
147 covariables X .

148

149 The trial data are incorporated into the analysis using the following likelihoods,

150 $c_s \sim N(\mu_{c,s}, \sigma_c^2)$ and $q_s \sim N(\mu_{q,s}, \sigma_q^2)$.

151

152 In the prediction model, the incremental mean costs and QALYs for a future
153 patient are assumed to equal the value of the costs and QALYs conditional on
154 treatment $\beta_{c|t}$ and $\beta_{q|t}$ parameters from the calibration model.

155

156 **2. Indirect Analysis**

157 In the calibration model, $\mu_{c,s}$ and $\mu_{q,s}$ are estimated as a linear function of the
158 intermediate endpoint, rather than the treatment indicator, and other
159 covariables and the mean value of the intermediate endpoint I for subject s
160 ($\mu_{i,s}$) is estimated as a linear function of treatment and other covariables.

161

162 The trial data are incorporated into the analysis using the

163 likelihoods, $c_s \sim N(\mu_{c,s}, \sigma_c^2)$, $q_s \sim N(\mu_{q,s}, \sigma_q^2)$ and $s_i \sim N(\mu_{s,i}, \sigma_s^2)$; and additional

164 data on the mean change ($\overline{\delta I_t}$) and its associated standard error (s_t^2) in self-
165 efficacy associated with treatment T are incorporated using the following

166 likelihood function, $\overline{\delta I_t} \sim N(\beta_{i|t}, s_t^2)$.

167

168 In the prediction model, the incremental mean costs and QALYs for a future
169 patient are assumed to equal the value the products of the $\beta_{i|t}$ and $\beta_{c|i}$ and the
170 $\beta_{i|t}$ and $\beta_{q|i}$ parameters from the calibration model.

171

172 **3. Joint Analysis**

173

174 For the joint analysis, the calibration model is a combination of the calibration
175 models from the direct and indirect analysis: $\mu_{c,s}$ and $\mu_{q,s}$ are estimated as a
176 linear function of the intermediate endpoint, treatment and other covariables;
177 $\mu_{i,s}$ is estimated as a linear function of treatment and other covariables.

178

179 The trial data are incorporated into the analysis using the
180 likelihoods, $c_s \sim N(\mu_{c,s}, \sigma_c^2)$, $q_s \sim N(\mu_{q,s}, \sigma_q^2)$ and $s_i \sim N(\mu_{s,i}, \sigma_s^2)$; and additional
181 data using the likelihood function, $\overline{\delta I}_t \sim N(\beta_{i|t}, s_t^2)$.

182

183 The prediction model is also a combination of the direct and indirect prediction
184 models; the incremental mean costs for a future patient is assumed to equal
185 the sum of $\beta_{c|t}$ and product of the $\beta_{i|t}$ and $\beta_{c|i}$ parameters and QALYs the sum
186 of $\beta_{q|t}$ and product of the $\beta_{i|t}$ and $\beta_{q|i}$ parameters

187

188 In all of the analysis the correlation between costs and QALYs are accounted
189 for by including the following term, $\kappa(Q_s - \overline{Q})$, in the cost regression. All of
190 the linear predictors in the calibration models included a study specific
191 intercept terms so the estimated model parameters reflected within study
192 variation and were not influenced by between study differences. All of the
193 analyses currently assume fixed effects. They could be extended to random
194 effects for any of the parameters.

195

196 In each analysis, the direct cost of the EPP intervention, estimated at £250[9],
197 was added to the estimated non-treatment costs to arrive at the total
198 treatment cost. This estimate of the intervention cost was employed in one of
199 the trials [8]. However, the other trial for which individual patient data are
200 available[7] estimated a lower intervention cost, and using the latter estimate
201 would clearly increase the cost-effectiveness of the intervention.

202

203 **Implementation**

204 Parameters were estimated using Monte-Carlo Markov Chain methods
205 implemented in the Winbugs 1.4 software.

206

207 **Results**

208 **Parameter estimates**

209 The mean estimated regression co-efficients and their 95% credibility
210 intervals¹ are shown in table 2. The $\beta_{c|t}$ and $\beta_{q|t}$ parameters from the direct
211 model indicate that EPP treatment is associated with higher non-treatment
212 costs and QALYs than no-intervention. The $\beta_{i|t}$ parameters for the indirect
213 and joint analyses indicate that the EPP programme is associated with an
214 increase in patient reported self-efficacy. The costs and QALYs conditional on
215 self-efficacy parameters, $\beta_{c|i}$ and $\beta_{q|i}$, indicate that increased self-efficacy is in
216 turn associated with lower non-treatment costs and increased QALYs.
217 Combining these two effects in the prediction model, the resulting estimate of
218 the effect of EPP on QALYs from the indirect model is lower than the direct
219 model, 0.002 compared to 0.009. In contrast, the estimated incremental non-
220 treatment costs associated with EPP from the indirect model is lower than the
221 direct model, £-6 compared to £12.

222

223 The incorporation of additional information increases the estimated mean
224 increase in self-efficacy associated with EPP from 0.273 to 0.455.

225

226 **Predicted cost-effectiveness**

227 The cost-effectiveness acceptability curves for each analysis are shown in
228 figure 2. The CEACs for the direct and joint analyses are almost identical.
229 The CEAC for the indirect analysis is shifted to the right reflecting the lower
230 estimated increase in QALYs for EPP. The incorporation of additional data
231 shifts the CEACs for both the indirect and joint analysis to the left, reflecting
232 the effect of the increased estimate of the effect of EPP on self-efficacy.

233

234 The direct 'trial based' and joint analyses produced similar ICERs of £29,111
235 and £28,333 for EPP, similar probabilities that EPP is optimal of 0.52 and
236 0.53, and similar EVPIs of £105 and £107. The inclusion of the additional

¹ analogous to the usual interpretation of a frequentist confidence interval

237 aggregate data on SE to the joint model reduced the ICER to £25,200,
238 increased the probability that EPP is optimal to 0.62 and reduced the EVPI to
239 £72.

240

241 The results of the indirect analysis different from the joint and direct analyses;
242 the ICER is £122,000 for EPP, which reduces to £80,333 if the additional SE
243 data are included. In both cases the probability that EPP is optimal is 0.00 and
244 the EVPI is £0.

245

246 **Likely recommendations**

247 Assuming an acceptable cost-effectiveness threshold of £30,000; a decision
248 maker making adoption decisions based on current data alone would adopt
249 EPP based on the direct and joint analyses and would reject EPP based on
250 the indirect analysis. Based on the joint or direct analysis, a decision-maker
251 who was also concerned with need for further information might commission
252 further research or make the adoption of EPP conditional in some way on the
253 conduct of further research. Based on the indirect analysis, the decision-
254 maker would decide that there is no value in future research.

255

256 **Discussion**

257 **Alternate analytic frameworks**

258 In the example presented, the indirect analysis produced different results
259 compared to the joint and direct analyses. Decision-makers would be likely to
260 reach different conclusions regarding adoption and the need for further
261 research based on the indirect analysis.

262

263 In addition, the indirect and joint analyses allow the inclusion of additional
264 data on the effect of treatment on the intermediate endpoint. In the case of the
265 joint analysis this led to a reduction in uncertainty at the acceptable threshold
266 of £30,000. The inclusion of additional data did not lead to a reduction in
267 uncertainty at all thresholds, as the expected mean costs and QALYs also
268 changed.

269

270 Both the indirect and direct models can be seen as special cases of the joint
271 model. In the direct model, the effects of the intermediate endpoint, on costs
272 and QALYs are not included ($\gamma_{c|j}$ and $\gamma_{q|j}$ are constrained to zero). In the
273 indirect model, the effects of treatment on costs and QALYs, independent of
274 the intermediate endpoint, are not included ($\beta_{c|t}$ and $\beta_{q|t}$ are constrained to
275 zero).

276

277 The indirect model is likely to produce more certain estimates of cost and
278 effects as the $\beta_{c|t}$ and $\beta_{q|t}$ are constrained to zero and no uncertainty regarding
279 the parameters is included in the prediction model. The removal of this
280 uncertainty is also likely to increase the correlation between estimated costs
281 and effects. However, this will not always lead to a reduction in decision
282 uncertainty at a given threshold as the estimates of expected costs and
283 effects may also change.

284

285 The central questions arising from these observations are: how should we
286 select the 'appropriate' analytic approach when we have a choice of analytic

287 frameworks; and what are the implications for the interpretation of our results,
288 especially when we do not have a choice.

289

290 **Direct Analysis**

291 Direct analysis appears to be an attractive option as it does not require any
292 assumptions regarding the effect pathway or any assumptions of conditional
293 independence. However, direct analysis requires, and is restricted to studies,
294 that include appropriate measures of cost and effect and does not allow the
295 incorporation of additional data on intermediate endpoints. In addition, if the
296 assumption of conditional independence is valid, the direct model may
297 overestimate uncertainty in costs and effects.

298

299 **Indirect Analysis**

300 If studies including measures of all relevant costs and effects over the
301 appropriate time horizon do not exist, an indirect analysis via intermediate
302 endpoints may be required. In addition, an indirect model allows the
303 incorporation of additional data on intermediate endpoints. The incorporation
304 of additional data may be necessary to include all relevant comparators in a
305 model. The indirect model does, however, require an assumption of
306 conditional independence.

307

308 In an indirect model, if we believe that the expectations, averaging over
309 uncertainty, of $\beta_{c|t}$ and $\beta_{q|t}$ are zero, the estimates of expected mean cost and
310 effect from our model can be regarded as unbiased. This may be a
311 reasonable assumption, especially if there is no evidence to the contrary. This
312 is sufficient if we are only interested in adoption decisions based on current
313 evidence.

314

315 However, unless we believe with certainty that $\beta_{c|t}$ and $\beta_{q|t}$ **actually** are zero,
316 rather than have an **expectation** of zero, the estimates of decision uncertainty
317 and EVPI from the indirect model will be biased. This is a much stronger
318 assumption and harder to justify.

319

320 **Joint Analysis**

321 A joint analysis allows the incorporation of additional data on intermediate
322 endpoints and does not require an assumption of conditional independence. It
323 does however require study data that includes appropriate measures of cost
324 and effect and measures of the intermediate endpoint. Joint models also
325 potentially allow the assumption of conditional independence implicit in
326 indirect models to be tested, helping model selection.

327

328 **Selection**

329 The empirical estimates of decision uncertainty or value of information should
330 not be used as the basis for selecting the appropriate analytic approach. As
331 we have seen in the EPP example, both the direct or indirect models were
332 associated with lower decision uncertainty depending on the acceptable cost-
333 effectiveness threshold. Similarly, the decision to include additional data
334 should not depend on whether the additional data reduces estimated
335 uncertainty.

336

337 The choice between analytic frameworks, should be influenced by our belief in
338 the true value of the $\beta_{c|t}$ and $\beta_{q|t}$ parameters, if we believe these are zero or
339 have an expectation of zero, the estimates from the indirect model may be
340 appropriate, if not then the direct model or joint models are appropriate.

341

342 **Hypothesis Testing**

343 One option to inform model selection is to perform a test of the hypothesis that
344 the true values of $\beta_{c|t}$ and $\beta_{q|t}$ are zero . If we accept this hypothesis, the
345 indirect model should be accepted over the joint model. This should be
346 equivalence test of the alternate hypothesis (H_1) that $\beta_{c|t}$ or $\beta_{q|t}$ lie in a defined
347 range ($\theta_L < \beta < \theta_U$). If we use a non-equivalence test, we are likely to adopt
348 indirect models when we have little data, even if $\beta_{c|t}$ and $\beta_{q|t}$ deviate
349 significantly from zero, due to lack of power, and reject them when we have
350 large amounts of data, even if $\beta_{c|t}$ and $\beta_{q|t}$ are close to zero. However, if we do
351 adopt an equivalence test, we have to define an acceptable range over which
352 it is acceptable for $\beta_{c|t}$ to deviate from 0. If this range is narrow, there will in

353 any event be little difference between the joint and indirect analyses if
354 selected.

355

356 **Conclusions**

357 Where there is sufficient data to allow for a trial based analysis, we would
358 suggest considering a joint modelling approach. This potentially allows a
359 larger evidence base relating to intermediate endpoints to be incorporated
360 without requiring assumptions of conditional independence.

361

362 If an indirect analysis via an intermediate endpoint is required, the validity of
363 the assumption of conditional independence should be carefully considered;
364 are the intermediate variables included in an indirect analysis likely to capture
365 all of the effect of treatment on costs and effects? If not, do we believe the
366 bias operates in a particular direction?

367

368 Even if we believe our estimates are unbiased, failure to take into account the
369 uncertainty around the assumption of conditional independence, may lead to
370 the overall uncertainty in the final decision being underestimated and to
371 erroneous conclusions as to the need for further research.

372

373 **Table 1: Comparison of the three analytic approaches**

Analysis:			
	Direct	Indirect	Joint
Within-study Calibration Model	$\mu_{c,s} = \alpha_c + \beta_{c t}T_s + \delta_{c x}X_s + \kappa(Q_s - \bar{Q})$ $\mu_{q,s} = \alpha_q + \beta_{q t}T_s + \delta_{q x}X_s$	$\mu_{c,s} = \alpha_c + \gamma_{c i}I_s + \delta_{c x}X_s + \kappa(Q_s - \bar{Q})$ $\mu_{q,s} = \alpha_q + \gamma_{q i}I_s + \delta_{q x}X_s$ $\mu_{i,s} = \alpha_s + \beta_{i t}T_s + \delta_{i x}X_s$	$\mu_{c,s} = \alpha_c + \beta_{c t}T_s + \gamma_{c i}I_s + \delta_{c x}X_s + \kappa(Q_s - \bar{Q})$ $\mu_{q,s} = \alpha_q + \beta_{q t}T_s + \gamma_{q i}I_s + \delta_{q x}X_s$ $\mu_{i,s} = \alpha_s + \beta_{i t}T_s + \delta_{i x}X_s$
Likelihood -IPD	$c_s \sim N(\mu_{c,s}, \sigma_c^2)$ $q_s \sim N(\mu_{q,s}, \sigma_q^2)$	$c_s \sim N(\mu_{c,s}, \sigma_c^2)$ $q_s \sim N(\mu_{q,s}, \sigma_q^2)$ $I_s \sim N(\mu_{i,s}, \sigma_i^2)$	$c_s \sim N(\mu_{c,s}, \sigma_c^2)$ $q_s \sim N(\mu_{q,s}, \sigma_q^2)$ $I_s \sim N(\mu_{i,s}, \sigma_i^2)$
Likelihood -Additional data		$\bar{\delta I}_t \sim N(\beta_{i t}, s_t^2)$	$\bar{\delta I}_t \sim N(\beta_{i t}, s_t^2)$
Out-of-study Prediction Model	$\delta c_t = \beta_{c t}$ $\delta q_t = \beta_{q t}$	$\delta c_t = \beta_{i t} \cdot \gamma_{c i}$ $\delta q_t = \beta_{i t} \cdot \gamma_{q i}$	$\delta c_t = \beta_{i t} \cdot \gamma_{c i} + \beta_{c t}$ $\delta q_t = \beta_{i t} \cdot \gamma_{q i} + \beta_{q t}$
Constraints	Data on intermediate endpoints is not relevant and cannot be incorporated $(\gamma_{c i}, \gamma_{q i} = 0)$	Requires implicit assumption that costs and QALYs are conditional independent of treatment given self-efficacy $(\beta_{c t}, \beta_{q t} = 0)$	None. Data on intermediate endpoints can be incorporated without implicit assumption that costs and QALYs are conditional independent of treatment given self-efficacy

374 **Table 2: Example Results**

Analysis:										
	Direct		Indirect		Indirect + additional data		Joint		Joint + additional data	
	Mean	(95% CI)	Mean	(95% CI)	Mean	(95% CI)	Mean	(95% CI)	Mean	(95% CI)
<i>Regression co-efficients</i>										
Costs on treatment (β_{ct})	12	(-65,89)					10	(-66, 85)	11	(-64,89)
QALYs on treatment (B_{qt})	0.009	(0.00,0.018)					0.007	(-0.002,0.016)	0.007	(0.002,0.016)
Costs on self-efficacy (γ_{ct})			-21	(-36, -5)	-21	(-37,-6)	-21	(-36,-4)	-21	(-36,-5)
QALYs on self-efficacy (γ_{qt})			0.008	(0.005, 0.010)	0.008	(0.005,0.010)	0.007	(0.005,0.010)	0.007	(0.005,0.010)
Self-efficacy on treatment (β_{st})			0.273	(0.048, 0.497)	0.455	(0.372,0.537)	0.268	(0.048,0.496)	0.455	(0.373,0.542)
<i>Incremental Non-Treatment Costs</i>	12	(-65,89)	-6	(-14,0)	-9	(-17,-3)	5	(-71,80)	2	(-73,79)
<i>Incremental Total Cost</i>	262	(185,339)	244	(236, 250)	241	(233,247)	255	(179,330)	252	(177,329)
<i>Incremental QALYs</i>	0.009	(0.00,0.018)	0.002	(0.00, 0.004)	0.003	(0.002,0.005)	0.009	(0.00,0.018)	0.010	(0.001,0.019)
ICER (£ per QALY)	29,111		122,000		80,333		28,333		25,200	
<i>Probability that EPP is optimum at a cost-effectiveness threshold of £30,000</i>										
<i>EVPI at a cost-effectiveness threshold of £30,000 (£)</i>	107		0.00		0.00		105		73	

375 **Figure 1: Forms of evaluation**

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377 *Direct 'Trial based' analysis*

Indirect 'Model based' analysis

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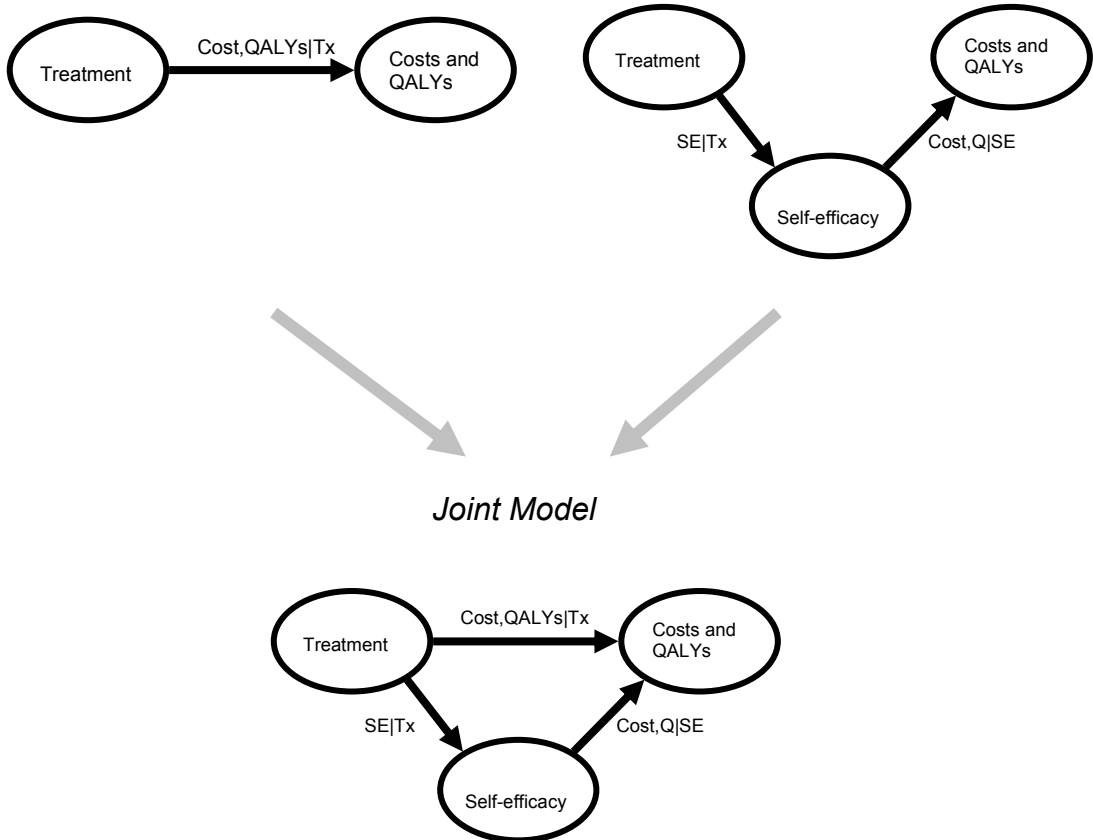
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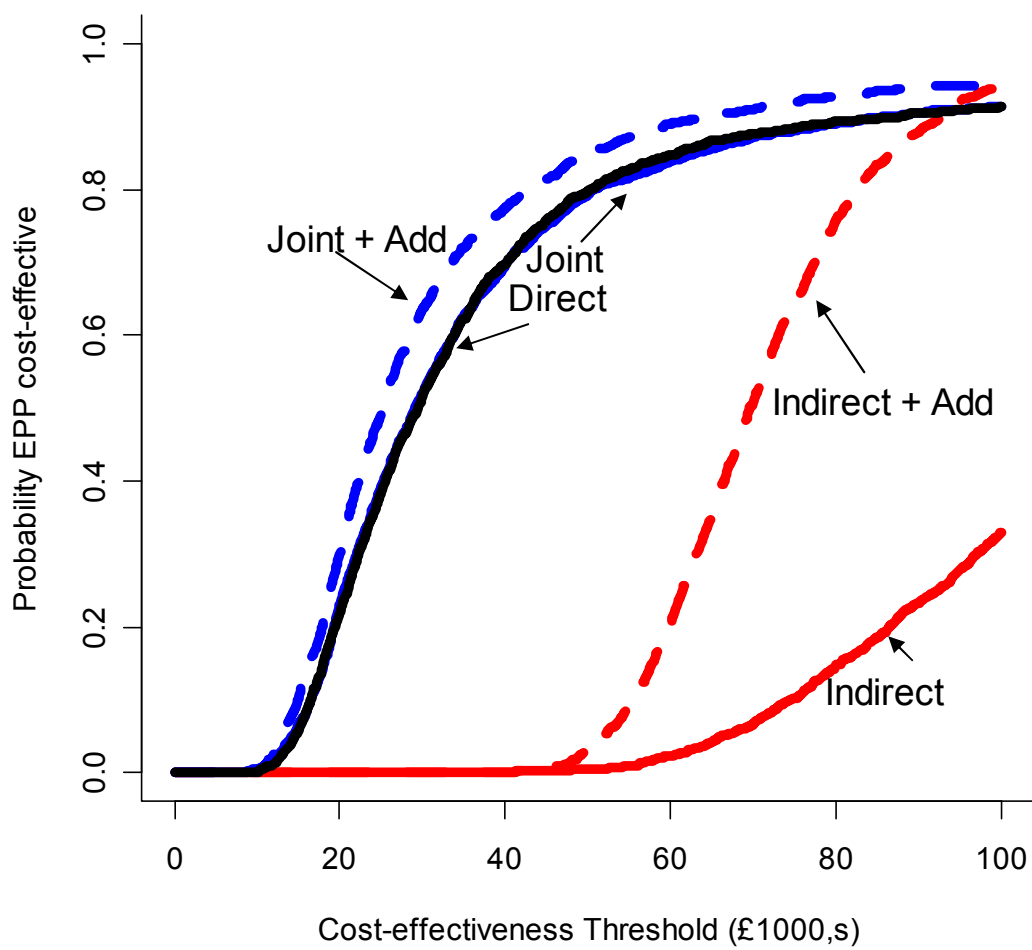
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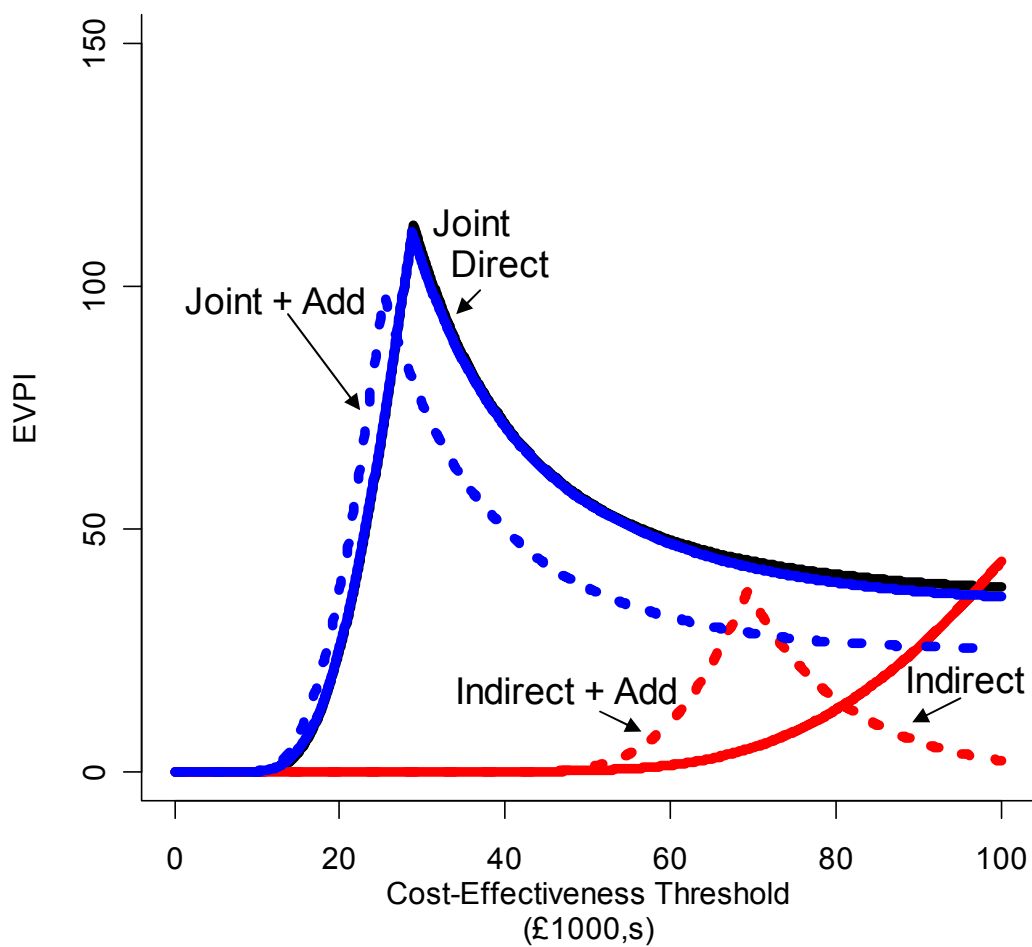
393 **Figure 2: Cost-effectiveness acceptability curves**
394 **(CEACs) for the direct, indirect, indirect including**
395 **additional data, joint and joint including additional**
396 **data analyses**
397



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399

400

401 **Figure 3: Expected value of additional information**
402 **(EVPI) as a function of acceptable cost-effectiveness**
403 **threshold for the direct, indirect, indirect including**
404 **additional data, joint and joint including additional**
405 **data analyses**



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413

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