

# The Origin of HTA

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- *Technology*: an existing, new or emerging device, pharmaceutical, procedure or protocol.
- *Technology assessment*: the practical process of forming an advisory committee to determine effectiveness, outcome, risk and strategic planning
- *Technology Planning*: the systematic method of determining the hospital's technology needs and setting short and long term priorities
- *Technology acquisition*: the process of determining which manufacturer provides the best equipment and support
- *Technology management*: the process of ensuring that the technology is well used and supported

# Technology Assessment

- Involve physicians
- Detailed financial analysis and other considerations
- Consider replacement proposals
  - Safety
  - Standard of care
  - Age
- Develop strategic plans

# Technology Planning

- Audit existing technology
  - Review
  - Condition, capability, history
  - Statistics
  - Incident reports
- Evaluate other hospitals' technology
- Review technology trends
- Develop a long term plan

# Technology Acquisition and Management

- Large purchases can be phased over several years
- Budget plans are submitted to cover training, spare parts, service, support and upgrades.
- Support costs, less expensive alternatives, insurance, in-house support or service contracts
- Cost savings of around 10-30%.

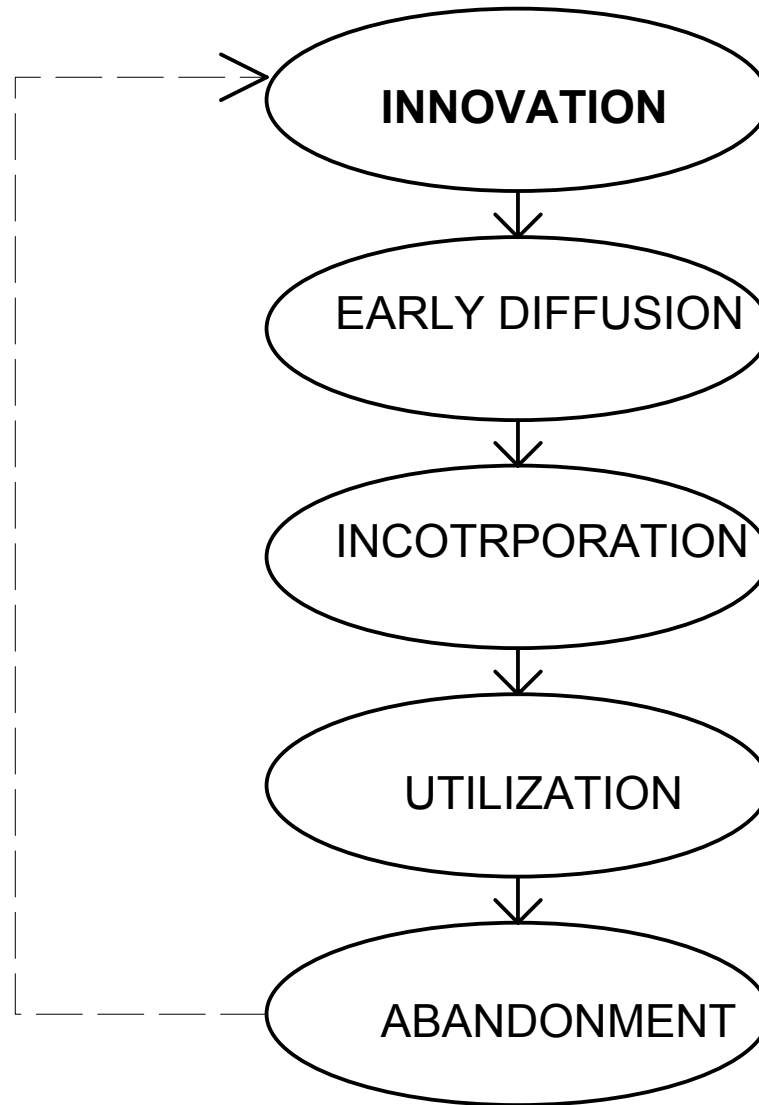
# Regional considerations

- Distribute technology more rationally
- Maximise patient convenience
- Enhance reputation of local hospitals

# Regional Considerations; Strategies

- Telemedicine systems
- Clinical practice guidelines
- Mobile services

# The life cycle of healthcare technology





# Cost-effectiveness (CE)

	Benefit increase	Benefit decrease
Costs increase	CE analysis	do not adopt
Costs decrease	Adopt	CE analysis

Utilities are measured in units such as QALY (quality-adjusted life years).

# Cost-effectiveness (CE) and cost-benefit (CB) analysis

$$\frac{\text{Added benefits}}{\text{Added cost}} \geq g \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{B_n - B_e}{C_n - C_e} \geq g$$

g: acceptable cut-off

- In CB analysis benefits as well as costs are measured in terms of monetary units
- Most clinicians feel uncomfortable or find it unethical to place a value on human life

# *Example*

A health district carries out smear tests on women between the ages (20 - 45) on 5 yearly basis. New evidence suggests that carrying out the tests on a 3-yearly basis increases benefit. Suppose the cost of a stool test per QALY is £500,000 whilst the same for a smear test is £20,000. The same district might decide to shift resources of £1m from the former to the latter thus gaining 48 QALYs. This can not be repeated indefinitely however due to the following factors:

- Carrying out smears in less susceptible population might increase its cost per QALY.
- Increasing the frequency of smears in the same population might increase its cost per QALY.
- At some point, stool tests will become as cost-effective as smear tests as its intensity of use falls.
- Changes in technology might reduce cost per QALY for either test.

# Cost Analysis Viewpoint

- Costs from a hospital viewpoint could be seen as benefits from a patient or society's viewpoint and vice versa e.g. patient travel costs, loss in earning due to sickness, etc.
- It might not always be easy to consider all costs especially costs which are not reflected in market prices such as volunteer time, patients leisure time, donated clinic space, etc.
- Sources of cost estimation can be collected from clinical trial forms, patient's notes, hospital records, patient diaries or questionnaires.

# Time Period of Cost Analysis

- Angioplasty v coronary artery bypass surgery costs
  - Short term study has shown that the latter costs more than twice the former.
  - A 24 month randomised control trial showed that the two procedures were almost identical in costs since more patients from the angioplasty group may require additional treatment including bypass surgery.

# Related Costs

- The costs of treatment of a disease are closely linked with the costs of the screening programme.
- Capital costs, such as the purchase of equipment, building or land
- Opportunity cost
- Depreciation

$$E = K (1 + r)^{-n} - S$$

- 'annuity factor'  $(1+r)^{-n}$

# Average v Marginal Costs

$$AC = TC/Q \text{ and}$$

$$MC = d(TC)/dQ$$

- The extra cost of keeping a patient in hospital for another day at the end of their treatment might be less than the average daily cost for the whole stay.

# Overhead Costs

- Shared resources across many departments, e.g. general administration, laundry, cleaning, porters, power, etc.
- Marginal cost analysis are employed
- The quantities of service consumed by the patient (days of stay, number of laboratory tests, number of procedures, etc. ) are multiplied by the full cost (including overhead, capital, etc.) per unit and sum up the results.
- Alternatively, assume all patients cost the same amount in items related to 'hotel services'



# Cost Utility (CU) Analysis

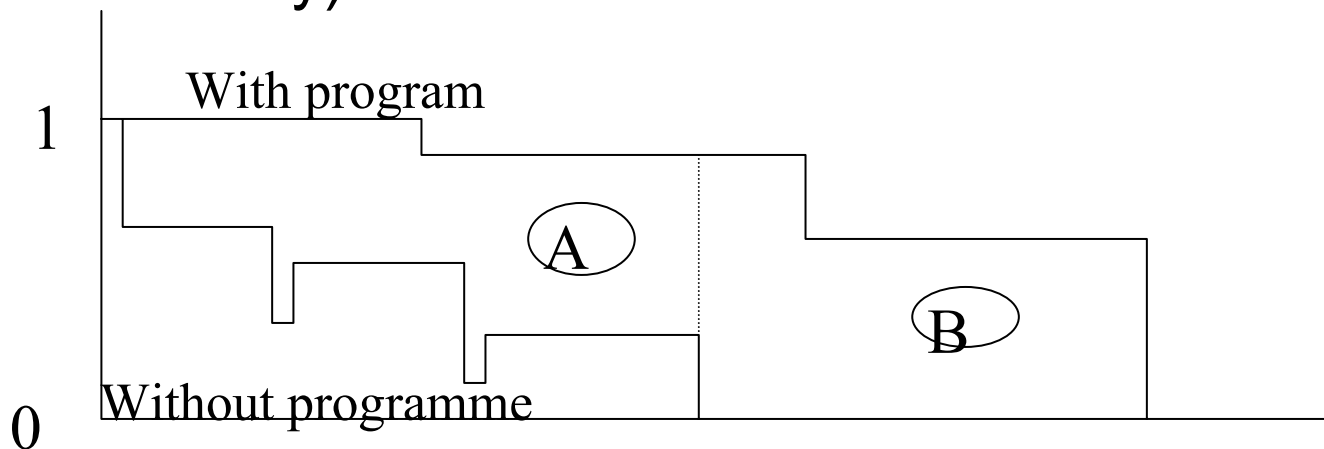
- When health related quality of life is *the* important outcome.
- When health related quality of life is an important outcome
- When the programme affects both morbidity and mortality and you wish to have a common unit of outcome.
- When comparing different programmes with different outcomes that are all applying for funding.
- When comparing a new programme to established ones

# Differences between CE and CB analysis

- **Reporting style**
  - CB calculates the net benefits
  - CE calculates the *price* of a QALY
- **Aggregation**
  - CE are on individual basis
  - CB applies to larger groups with the use of "weights"
- **Multiple dimensioned benefits**
  - CB combining benefits into one dimension (usually pounds)
  - CE use relative weights (a day in a hospital bed versus a healthy day)

# Quality Adjusted Life Years (QALY)

- The area between the 2 curves is the QALY gained by the intervention.
- Part A is the amount of QALY gained due to quality improvement (reduced morbidity) and part B is the same amount due to quantity improvement (reduced mortality).



# Quality Adjusted Life Years (QALY)

$$\text{QALY} = 1.06(b1 \times b2 \times b3 \times b4 \times b5 \times b6 \times b7) - 0.06$$

$$Q \times (1 + r)^{-n}$$

year n - discount r

Total amount of QALYs gained is:

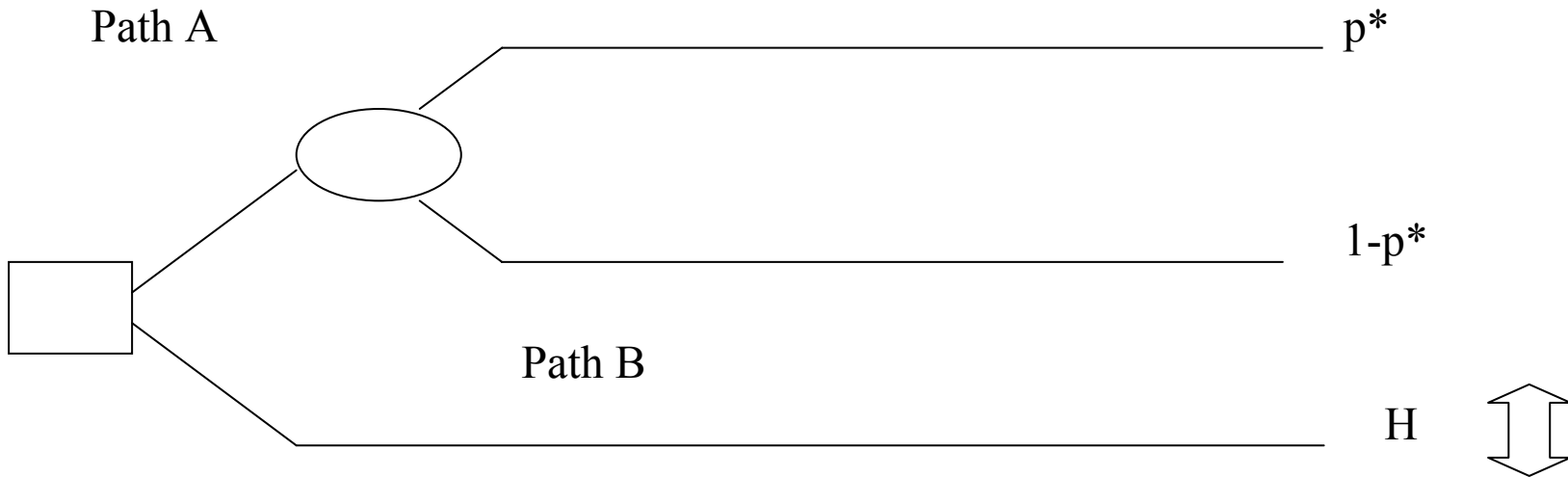
$$Q \times \sum_{x=0}^{n-1} (1 + r)^{-x}$$

# Healthy Years Equivalent (HYE) - Stage 1



- Path B: living with a condition (x) for (n) years.
- Path A: perfect health for (n) years with probability  $p$ , immediate death with probability  $(1-p)$ .
- Vary ( $p$ ) until path B is the preferred option. Fix ( $p$ ) as ( $p^*$ )

# Healthy Years Equivalent (HYE) - Stage 2

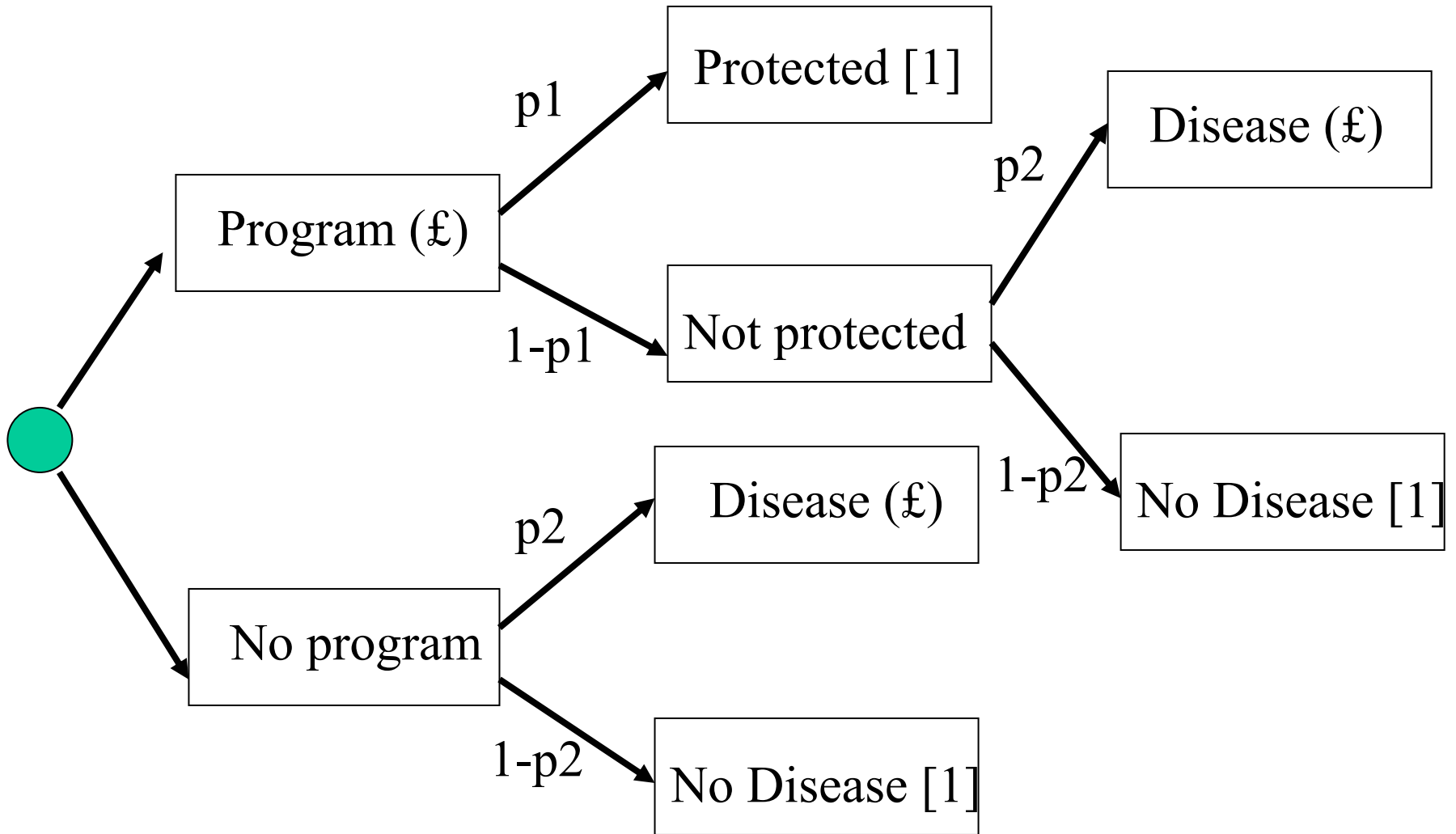


- Path B: perfect health for (H) years
- Vary (H) until path B is the preferred option.
- (H) is the HYE for condition (x)

# Willingness to Pay (WTP)

- Valuing a certain health outcome.
- Valuing a treatment with uncertain outcome.
- Valuing access to a treatment programme.

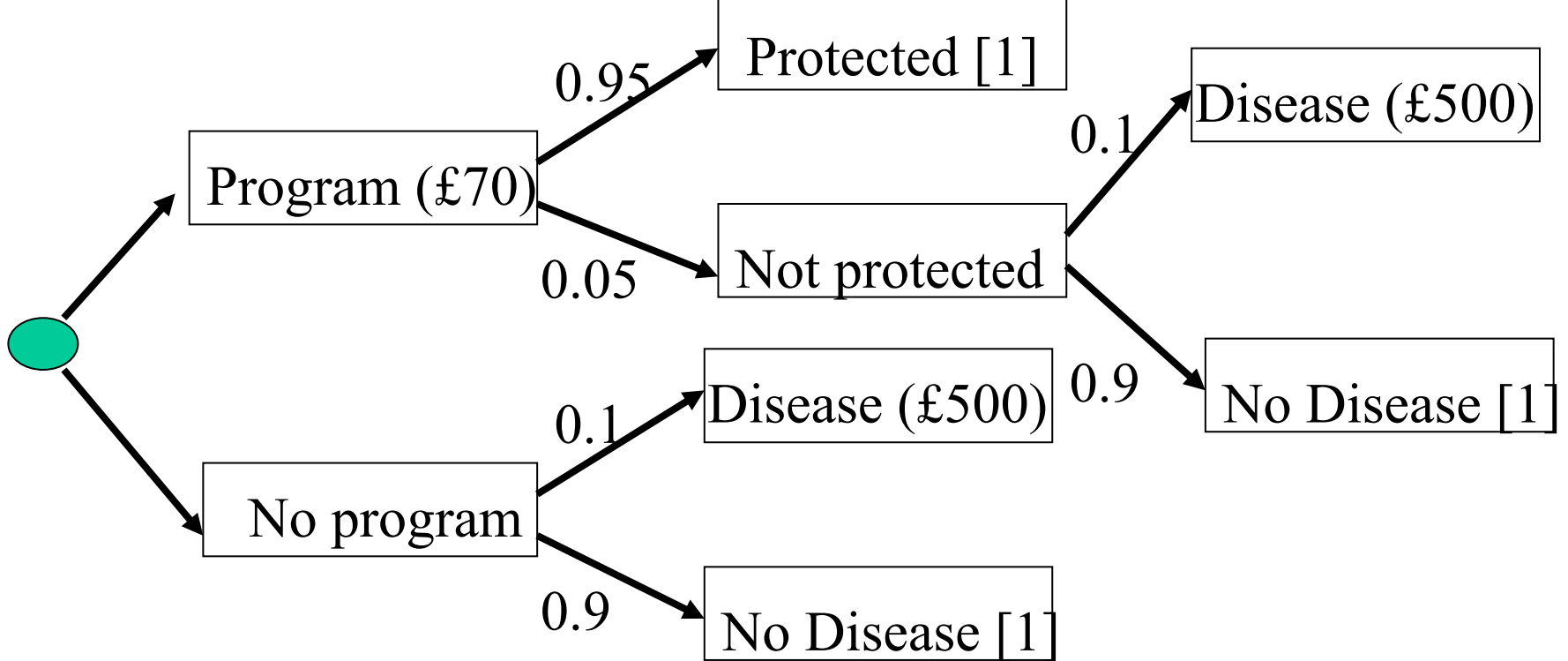
# Decision Trees





# Decision Trees

- $U_E = \sum P_i \cdot U_i$
- $C_E = \sum P_i \cdot C_i$
- Cost effectiveness =  $U_E / C_E$



$$U_E(\text{No Program}) = 0.9$$

$$U_E(\text{Program}) = 0.95 + \{0.9 \cdot 0.05\} = 0.995 \text{ (0.095 gain)}$$

$$C_E(\text{No Program}) = 500 \cdot 0.1 = \text{£}50$$

$$C_E(\text{Program}) = 70 + \{500 \cdot (0.1 \cdot 0.05)\} = \text{£}72.5 \text{ (£}22.5 \text{ loss)}$$

# Bayes' Rule

$$p(d | s) = \frac{p(d) \cdot p(s | d)}{p(s)}$$

$p(d|s)$ : Probability of disease given symptom











$p(d)$ : Probability of disease

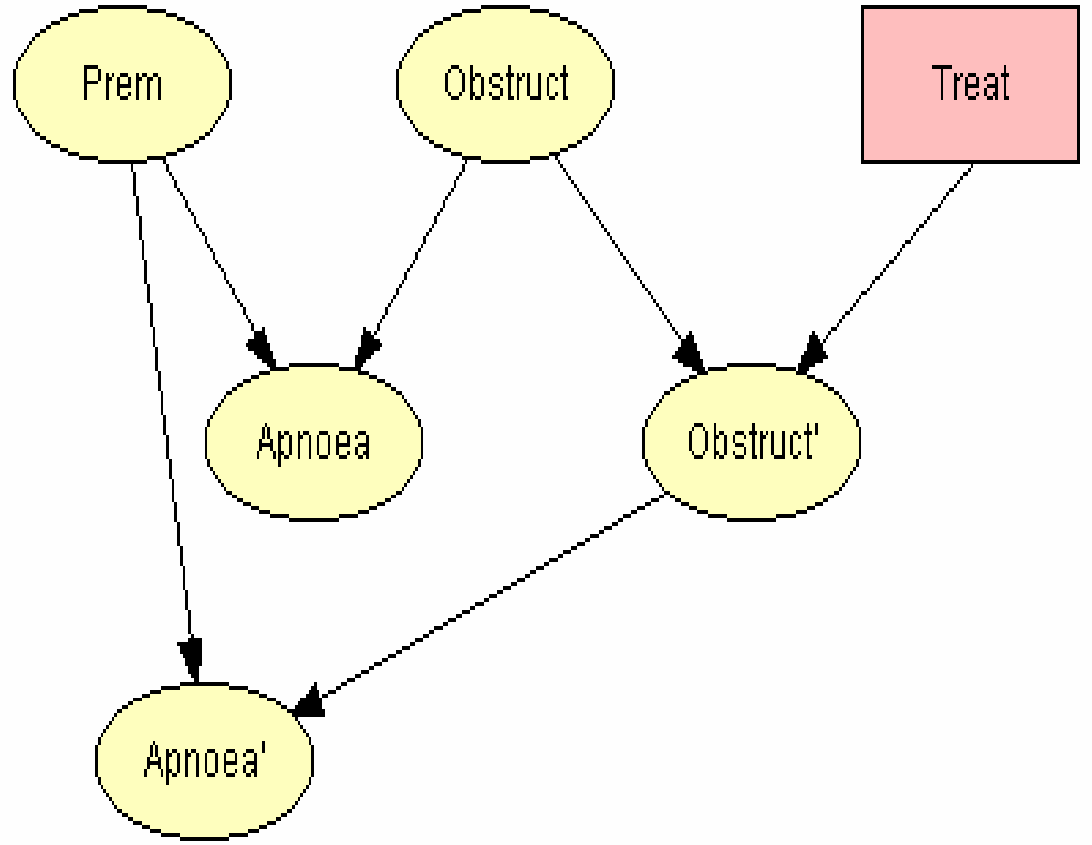
$p(s|d)$ : Probability of symptom given disease

$p(s)$ : Probability of Symptom

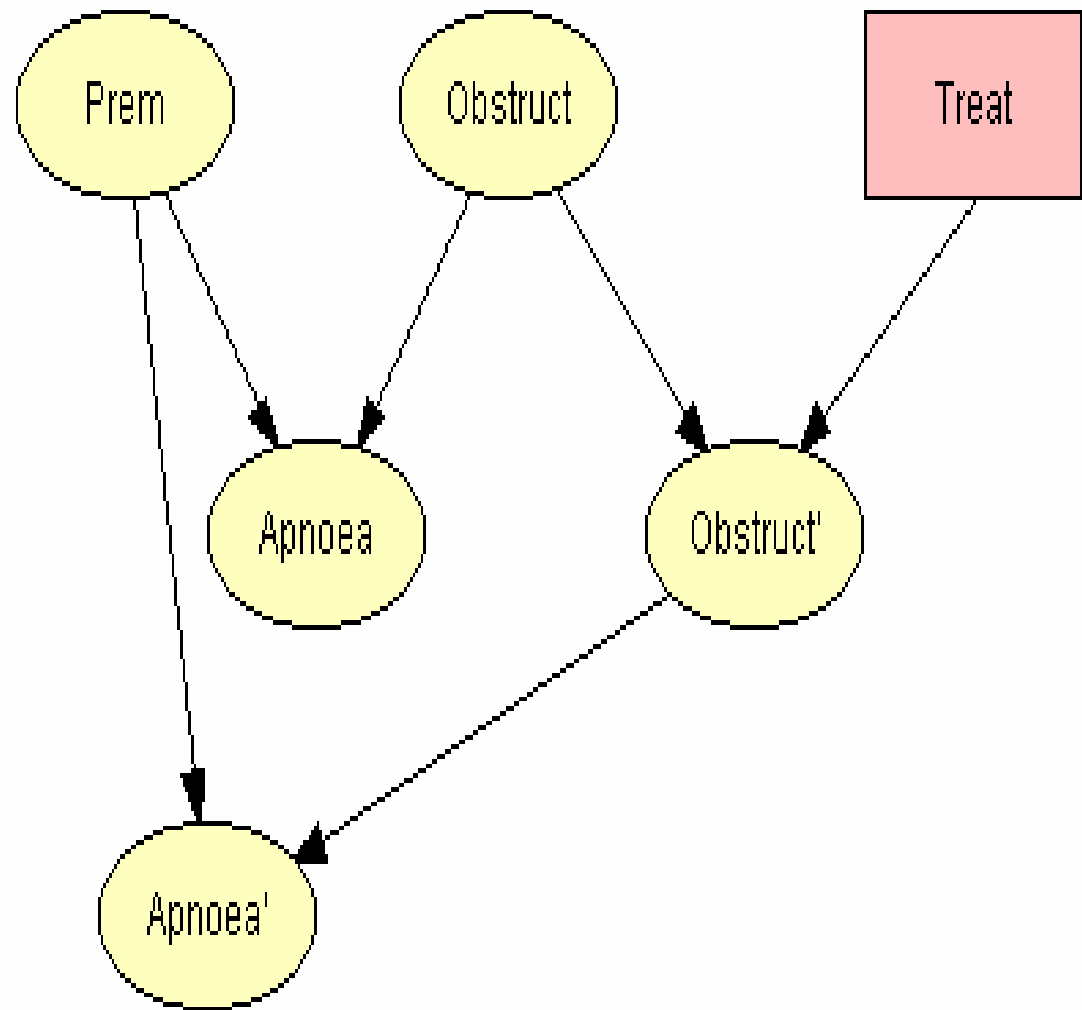
# Bayes' Decision Theory

- $P(\text{error} | s) = p(d | s)$  if we decide  $\bar{d}$   
 $= p(\bar{d} | s)$  if we decide  $d$
- decide  $d$  if  $p(d | s) > p(\bar{d} | s)$  and *vice versa*

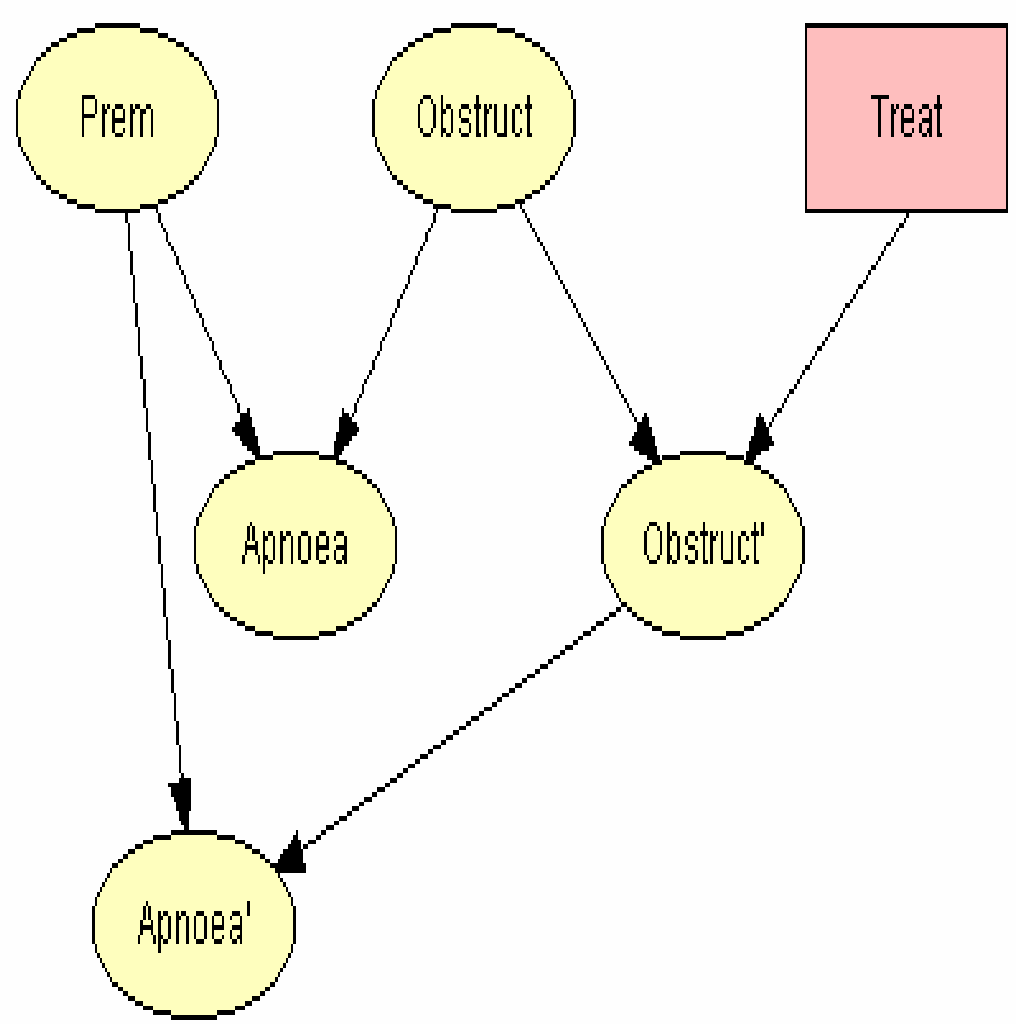
<b>Apnoea (Apnoea)</b>					
└─		0.1832	Yes		
└─		0.8168	No		
<b>Apnoea' (Newap)</b>					
└─		0.099682	Yes		
└─		0.900318	No		
<b>Obstruct (Obstruct)</b>					
└─		0.1	Yes		
└─		0.9	No		
<b>Obstruct' (newobs)</b>					
└─		0.102	Yes		
└─		0.898	No		
<b>Prem (Prem)</b>					
└─		0.1	Yes		
└─		0.9	No		
<b>Treat (Treat)</b>					
└─	<table border="1" data-bbox="66 1035 199 1092"><tr><td> </td><td> </td></tr></table>			0	Yes
└─	<table border="1" data-bbox="66 1106 199 1163"><tr><td> </td><td> </td></tr></table>			0	No



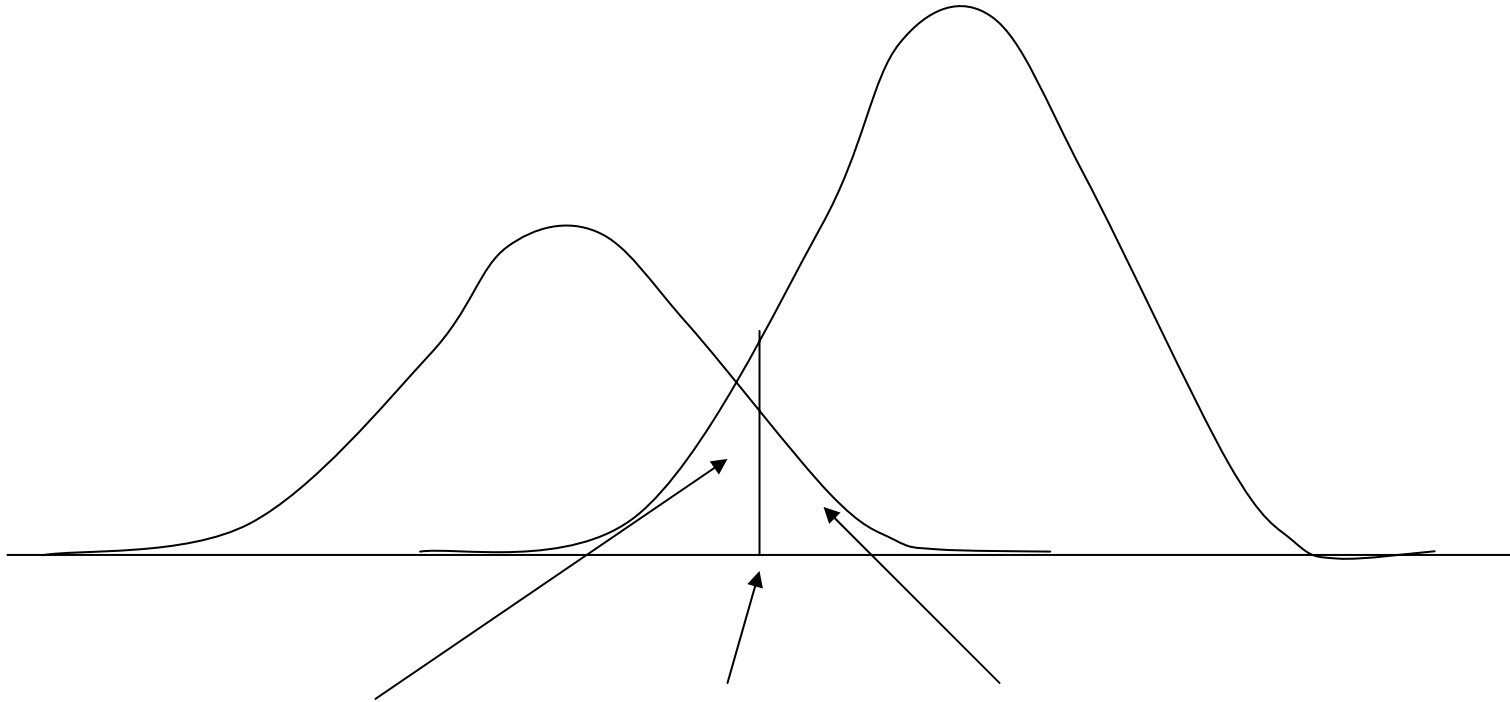
<b>Apnoea (Apnoea)</b>		
1	Yes	
-	No	
<b>Apnoea' (Newap)</b>		
0.255116	Yes	
0.744884	No	
<b>Obstruct (Obstruct)</b>		
<b>Obstruct' (newobs)</b>		
<b>Prem (Prem)</b>		
1	Yes	
-	No	
<b>Treat (Treat)</b>		
0	Yes	
*0	No	



<b>Apnoea (Apnoea)</b>		
1	Yes	
-	No	
<b>Apnoea' (Newap)</b>		
0.86	Yes	
0.14	No	
<b>Obstruct (Obstruct)</b>		
1	Yes	
-	No	
<b>Obstruct' (newobs)</b>		
<b>Prem (Prem)</b>		
1	Yes	
-	No	
<b>Treat (Treat)</b>		
0	Yes	
*0	No	



# Risk Analysis



$$\int_{-\infty}^D p(s | \bar{d}) \cdot p(\bar{d})$$

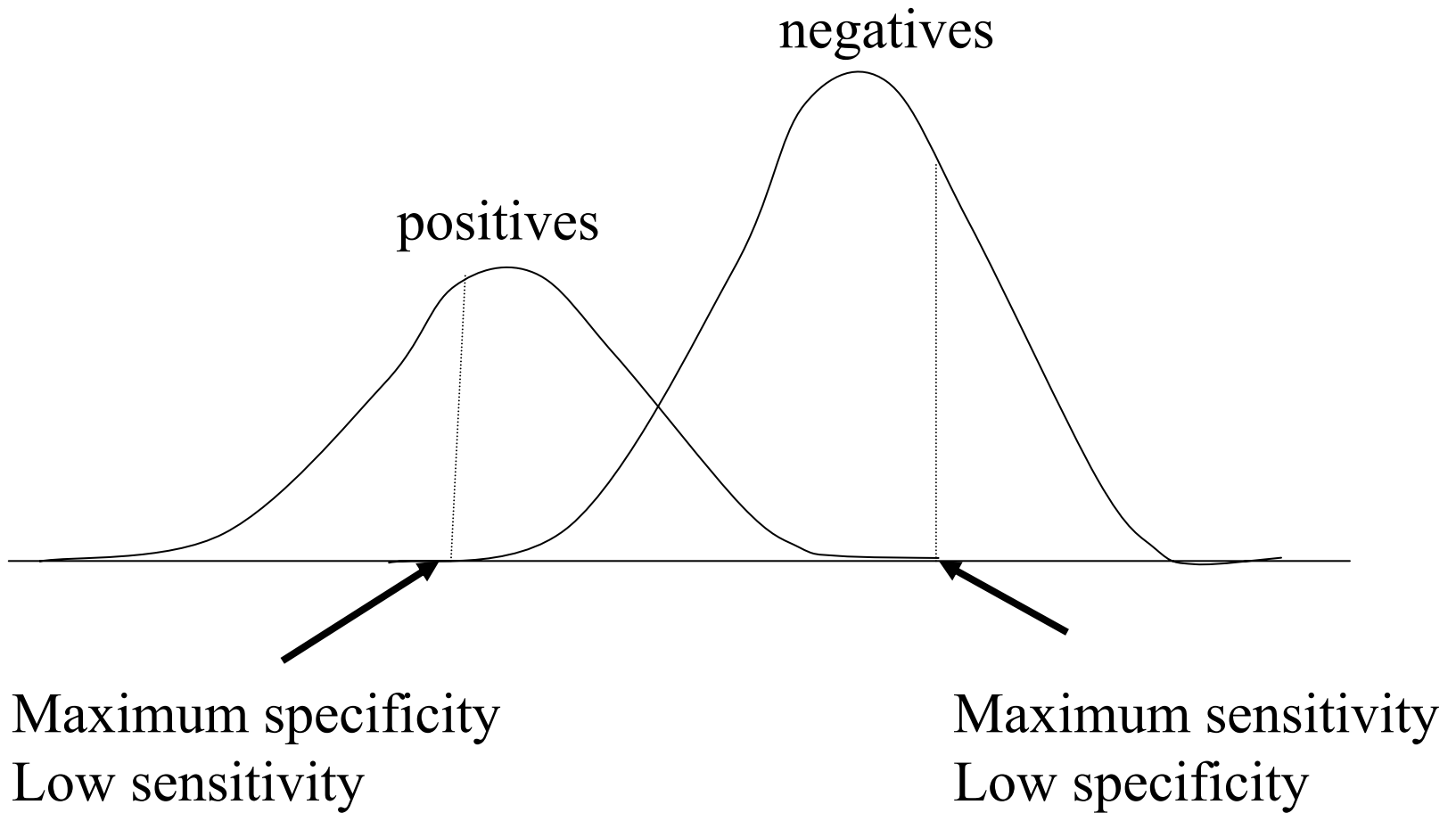
Decision line D

$$\int_D^{\infty} p(s | d) \cdot p(d)$$

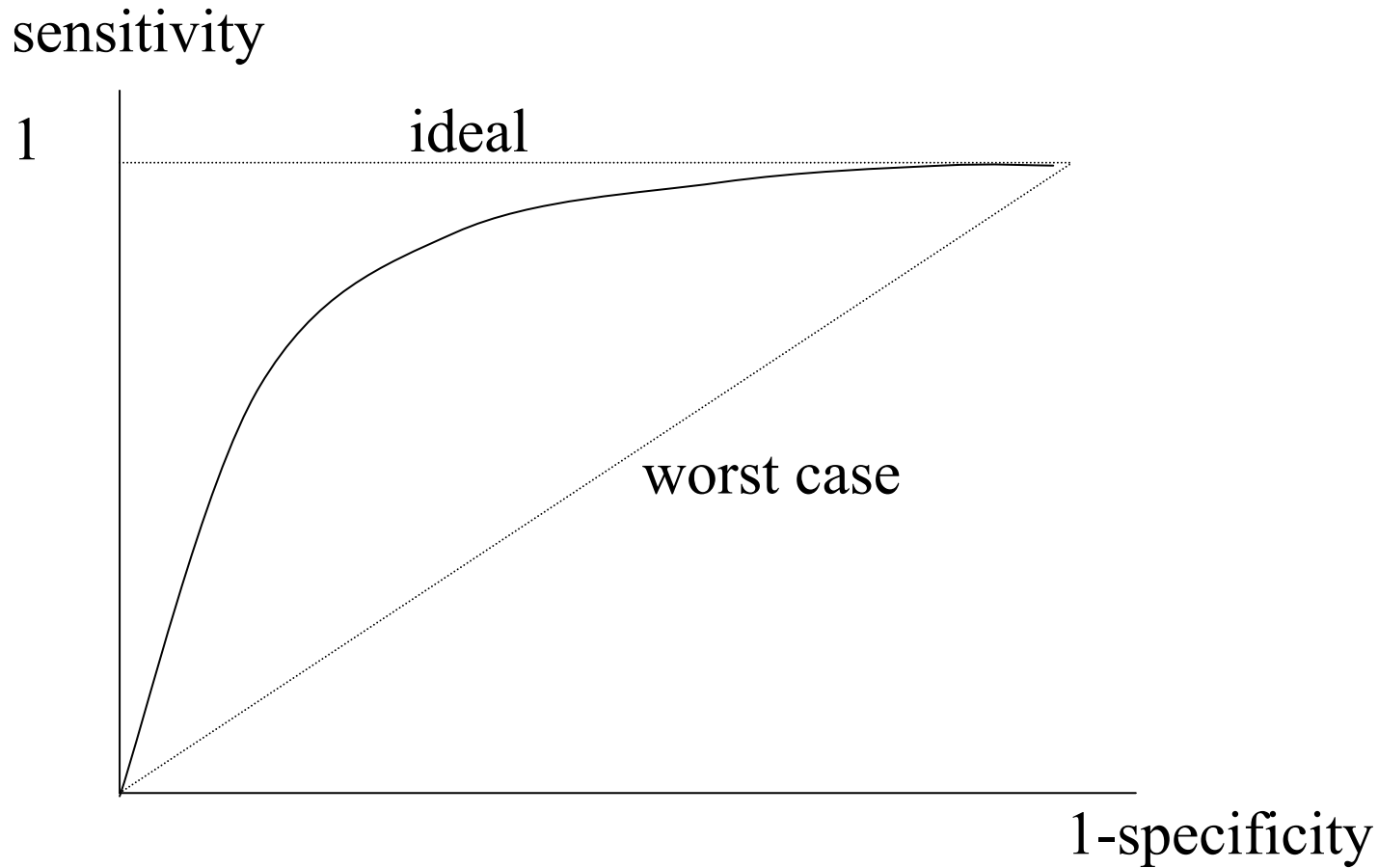


$$\text{Sensitivity} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

$$\text{Specificity} = \frac{TN}{TN + FP}$$



# ROC Analysis



# **Assessment of Antenatal Screening**

# Glossary

- Cut-off Level: Value of screening variable distinguishing positives from negatives.
- DR: Detection Rate (sensitivity).
- FPR: False-Positive Rate (specificity).
- MoM: Multiple of Median:

Serum marker concentration for a woman / median concentration for unaffected pregnancies with same GA

- Risk: Expressed in two ways:
  - 1:3 One affected for every 3 unaffected
  - 1:4 One affected in every 4 pregnancies.

# Background

- Extra chromosome 21 (1959)
- Cut-off age between 35-37 years
- Amniocentesis carried out at weeks 16-18 of pregnancy
- Amniocentesis offered to oldest 5% gives DR of 30% (1968)
- Low AFP: maternal serum  $\alpha$ -fetoprotein (1983)
- Combining maternal age and AFP yielded DR of 35% and FPR of 5%
- Human chorionic gonadotrophin (hCG) and unconjugated oestriol (uE3) (1987)
- Performed between weeks 15-22 it could identify DR of about 60% of with a 5% FPR
- Ultrasound screening (1992)

# Factors affecting serum marker levels

- Gestation age
- Weight
- Insulin-dependent diabetes
- Twin pregnancies
- Ethnic origin
- Smoking
- Previous pregnancies
- Recurrence risk
- Repeat testing
- Screen positives from previous pregnancies
- Assisted reproduction

# **Two-step screening: rescreen positives**

- Women above 30 - serum test
- Overall DR of 46%
- FPR: 2.7% for two step vs 1% for 1 step equivalent

# Problems with current screening practice in the UK

- Inconsistency
- Lack of access
- Stepwise screening
- Problems with ultrasound
- Staff training
- Organisation



# Recommendations

- Organisation
  - Screening centres
  - National network
  - Budget
  - Agreed criteria
- Equal access
- Avoidance of multistep screening
- Screening policy
- Education and training
- Further research

# Assignment

Assess the use of one of these technologies:

- Dialysis therapy
- Mammography
- Bone density measurement

1000-word essay

- Usefulness
- CE analysis
- CB analysis
- Clinical audit data
- Statistical analysis
- Alternative technologies in the third world