© 2007 Adis Data Information BV. All rights reserved.

Economic Evaluations of Cholesterol-Lowering Drugs A Critical and Systematic Review

Pearl D. Gumbs,^{1,2} *Monique W.M. Verschuren*,² *Aukje K. Mantel-Teeuwisse*,¹ *Ardine G. de Wit*,² *Anthonius de Boer*¹ and *Olaf H. Klungel*¹

- 1 Department of Pharmacoepidemiology and Pharmacotherapy, Utrecht Institute for Pharmaceuticals Sciences (UIPS), Utrecht University, Utrecht, The Netherlands
- 2 Centre for Prevention and Health Services Research, National Institute for Public Health and the Environment, Bilthoven, The Netherlands

Contents

Abstract	
. Method of Review	8
1.1 Search	8
1.2 Inclusion Criteria	
1.3 Analysis	9
2. Results of Review	
2.1 Identification of Publications	
2.2 General Characteristics of Included Studies	
2.3 Quality of the Included Studies	
3. Discussion	3
I. Conclusion	4

Abstract

The wide availability of economic evaluations and their increasing importance for decision making emphasises the need for economic evaluations that are methodologically sound. The aim of this review was to provide users of economic evaluations of cholesterol-lowering drugs with an insight into the quality of these evaluations. By focusing on the most relevant studies, the gap between research and policy making may be narrowed.

A systematic review was conducted. All Dutch and English publications on economic evaluations of cholesterol-lowering drugs were identified by searching PubMed, the Centre for Reviews and Dissemination database (CRD), the NHS Economic Evaluation Database (NHS EED), the Health Technology Assessment database (HTA) and the Database of Abstracts of Reviews of Effects (DARE). A search strategy was set up to identify the articles to be included. The quality of these articles was assessed using Drummond's checklists. The scoring was performed by at least two reviewers. When necessary, disagreement between these reviewers was decided upon in a consensus meeting. We calculated an average quality score for the included articles.

The search identified 1390 articles, of which 23 were included. Most studies measured the costs per life-year gained. The overall score per study was disappointing and varied between 2.7 and 7.7, with an average of 5.5. Most studies scored high on the measurement of costs and consequences, whereas the establishment of effectiveness left room for improvement. Only two studies included a well performed incremental analysis.

This study noted an increase of quality of economic evaluations over time, suggesting the value of cost-effectiveness studies for policy decisions increases over time. In general, piggy-back evaluations tended to score higher on quality and may therefore be more valuable in decision making.

The WHO^[1] predicts a large and global increase of cardiovascular disease (CVD), including coronary heart disease (CHD). Expectations for the next 2 decades are a 3-fold increase of ischaemic heart disease in Latin America, the Middle East and sub-Saharan Africa.^[1,2] These expectations imply an increase in the financial pressures on healthcare services regarding both treatment and prevention of CVD. This increased financial burden of CVD prevention raises the question of cost effectiveness of drug therapy. Currently, an elevated risk of myocardial infarction (MI) and stroke is considerably lowered with (a combination of) drugs: lipid-lowering drugs (mainly HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors [statins]) for serum cholesterol lowering, blood pressure-lowering drugs and aspirin (acetylsalicylic acid).[1]

Hypercholesterolaemia is one of the major CVD risk factors, which is currently mainly treated with rather costly statins. Policy makers faced with priority setting and resource allocation in this area have to take both the health effects and the costs into consideration in the decision-making process. Numerous economic evaluations of lipid-lowering drugs have been performed over time in different countries. These analyses pertain to a broad spectrum of initial risk profiles and settings. The large availability of economic evaluations combined with the increased interest in economic evaluations underpins the need for evaluations that are methodologically sound.^[3-5] The leading scoring system to assess the quality of economic evaluations is Drummond's checklist.^[5] To our best knowledge there is one similar study by Gazzaniga and Garattini.^[6] However, this study was published in 1992 and is outdated.

The aim of the present study was to systematically review the quality of economic evaluations of lipid-lowering drugs.

1. Method of Review

1.1 Search

The following databases were searched for relevant publications in Dutch and English: PubMed and the Centre for Reviews and Dissemination database (CRD); the latter is a compilation of the NHS Economic Evaluation Database (NHS EED), the Health Technology Assessment database (HTA) and the Database of Abstracts of Reviews of Effects (DARE), which contains part of the Cochrane Database.

Even though the NHS EED was searched, samples from other NHS databases, namely the main NHS database and the National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE) database, were also used to assure full coverage.

Search terms included 'hypercholesterol(a)emia', 'hyperlipidaemia', 'cholesterol', 'statins', 'fibrates', 'bile acid sequestrants', 'lipids', 'cholesterol lowering' and 'lipid lowering', combined with 'economic evaluation', 'cost-effectiveness', 'costutility' or 'QALY'.

This search included all publications until October 2005.

1.2 Inclusion Criteria

To assure a minimum quality, studies were included if they (i) were a full economic evaluation (cost-effectiveness analysis and/or cost-utility analysis) of drug treatment of hypercholesterolaemia, (ii) used effectiveness data based on long-term outcome measurements from randomised, controlled trials (RCTs) [MI, stroke, etc.] and (iii) defined cost effectiveness and cost utility as costs per life-year gained (LYG) or costs per QALY gained.

A full economic evaluation is defined as an evaluation that compares two or more alternatives considering both the costs (including savings) and effects of an intervention.^[5]

Studies were excluded if they (i) evaluated cotherapy for CVD risk factors even when this included treatment with lipid-lowering drugs, (ii) were restricted to those with familial hypercholesterolaemia, (iii) were not written in English or Dutch, or (iv) used surrogate endpoints to compare statin treatment with low-dose aspirin,^[7] antihypertensive drugs or diets.

1.3 Analysis

Quality assessment is a subjective method; therefore, two reviewers assessed all publications included. The quality of different publications reporting the same study was assessed separately. The criteria/ questions applied to the scoring system (see Appendix for details) were established in preliminary meetings of the two reviewers. All studies were reviewed independently. Disagreement between reviewers was decided upon in a consensus meeting.

As the discussion during the preliminary meetings showed, it was not always possible to provide clear answers to the questions in the checklist. Therefore, we scored the questions as follows: potential responses to the questions were adequate (score 1), partly adequate (score 0.5) or inadequate (score 0) [see Appendix]. Furthermore, these meetings showed that certain questions were redundant owing to the methodology used in the study. These were scored as 1.00. When it was impossible to rate a criterion/question based on the article it was assumed not to be favourable and scored as 0.00. Drummond's checklist provides an average score with each of the ten questions weighted equally. During the preliminary meetings, the criteria were decided all to be equally important to the overall quality of an article. Subsequently, the sub-criteria were regarded as equally important within a question. Therefore, the lowest overall score possible was 0.0 and the highest overall score possible was 10.0. The results were analysed by means of linear regression to determine whether there was a time trend in the quality scores of the included studies.

The results were ordered according to the 'best level of evidence principle' regarding the methods used to establish cost effectiveness. The best evidence of cost effectiveness would be a piggy-back evaluation. The second best option would be to base the cost-effectiveness assessment on effectiveness data derived from literature. Within this option, literature based on RCTs or meta-analysis of RCTs are preferred to literature based on observational studies. Our analysis did not include cost-effectiveness assessments based on observational studies.

2. Results of Review

2.1 Identification of Publications

Initially, our literature search identified 1390 publications. By reviewing titles and abstracts, 81 articles were selected. After reviewing the full papers, 23 articles were chosen.^[8-30]

This review excluded 58 articles.^[31-88] These did not comply with at least one of the inclusion criteria:

- did not measure the costs/LYG or costs/QALY gained: 26 studies,
- did not use effectiveness data based on long-term outcome measurements derived from RCTs: 49 studies,
- did not meet the inclusion criteria for the comparator: four studies,
- evaluated treatment other than the monotherapeutic drug treatment of hypercholesterolaemia: two studies, and
- derived the efficacy data from trials in patients with familial hypercholesterolaemia: one study.

Study	Comparator	Original data for effectiveness	Stated perspective	Country	Time horizon (y)	Discount rates (%)	Included costs	Base case ICER range ^a	Quality score
Primary prevention									
Piggy-back evaluatio	n								
Caro et al.[14]	PL	WOSCOPS	NHS	UK	5	C = 6; E = 6	DM	£20 375/LYG	5.3
Caro et al.[23]	PL	WOSCOPS	NHS	Belgium UK	5	C = 5	DM	€29 900/LYG €31 400/LYG	7.2
Published data from	RCTs								
Lim et al.[25]	NC	WOSCOPS	Health system	Australia	20	C = 3; E = 3	DM	\$A(80 000-150 000)/LYG	5.7
Johannesson ^[28]	NC	WOSCOPS	Societal	Sweden	5	C = 5; E = 5	IDM and DM	\$US(40 000-100 000 000)/ QALY	5.1
Secondary preventi	on								
Piggy-back evaluatio	n								
Scuffham and Chaplin ^[10]	NT	LIPS	NHS	UK	10	C = 6; E = 1,5	DM	€4352/LYG €4527/QALY	6.6
Glasziou et al.[8]	PL	LIPID	Health system	Australia	6	C = 5; E = 5	DM	\$A10 938/LYG	6.4
Tsevat et al.[13]	PL	CARE	Societal	US	6	C = 3; E = 3	DM	\$US(16 000-32 000)/LYG	6.8
Jonsson et al.[22]	PL	4S	NM	Sweden	5.4	C = 3; E = 3	DM	ECU5422/LYG	5.3
				Denmark				ECU5673/LYG	
				Norway				ECU3556/LYG	
				Finland				ECU8566/LYG	
				UK				ECU6476/LYG	
				Germany				ECU6928/LYG	
				France				ECU4243/LYG	
				Italy				ECU6002/LYG	
				Portugal				ECU6047/LYG	
				Belgium				ECU6743/LYG	
				Spain				ECU5504/LYG	
Muls et al.[18]	PL	PLAC	NM	Belgium US	3	C = 5; E = 5	DM	\$US(13 274–24 359)/LYG \$US(7124–12 665)/LYG	3.7
Johannesson et al.[16	[]] PL	4S	NM	Sweden	5	C = 5; E = 5	IDM and DM	\$US(3800-27 400)/LYG	5.5
Ashraf et al.[27]	NC	PLAC	Societal	US	3	C = 5; E = 5	DM	\$US(7124–12 665)LYG	3.8
Jonsson et al. ^[9]	PL	4S	Societal	Sweden	5.4	C = 5; E = 5	DM	£5502/LYG	5.6
				Norway				£6361/LYG	
				Belgium				£5165/LYG	
				France				£4137/LYG	
				Germany				£7827/LYG	

Continued next page

_

190

Study	Comparator	Original data for effectiveness	Stated perspective	Country	Time horizon (y)	Discount rates (%)	Included costs	Base case ICER range ^a	Quality score
				Italy	())	. ,		£5869/LYG	
				Portugal				£8312/LYG	
				Spain				£6418/LYG	
				UK				£6983/LYG	
				Australia				£5970/LYG	
				NZ				£8824/LYG	
Published data from	n RCTs								
Chau et al.[21]	NC	CARE	Health system	China	5	C = 4 & 6; E = 6	DM	\$HK65 280/LYG	5.2
Ganz et al.[30]	Usual care	CARE	Societal	US	Lifetime	C = 3; E = 3	DM	\$US18 800/LYG	4.9
Riviere et al.[15]	Usual care	4S	Ministry of Health	Canada	15	C = 5; E = 5	DM	\$US6108/LYG	5.7
Primary and secon	dary prevention								
Published data from	n RCTs								
Caro et al.[29]	NT	WOSCOPS	Policymakers	US	5	C = 3	DM	\$US(1100-2900)/LYG	6.3
van Hout and Simoons ^[12]	PL	Meta-analysis	NM	The Netherlands	5	C = 5; E = 5	DM	€18 151/LYG	5.3
Prosser et al.[17]	NT	Review	Societal	US	30	C = 3; E = 3	DM	\$US(1900-1 400 000)LYG	5.3
Pickin et al.[20]	NC	WOSCOPS/4S	NM	UK	Lifetime	C = 6; E = 6	DM	£(5100-12 500)/LYG	5.6
Hinzpeter and Lauterbach ^[24]	NC	CARE/4S	Societal	Germany	5	C = 4	DM	\$US(40 800-74 700)/LYG	4.5
Pharoah and Hollingworth ^[19]	NC	WOSCOPS/4S	3rd party payer	UK	Lifetime	C = 5	DM	£(6000-361 000)/LYG	2.7
Type of prevention	unclear								
Piggy-back evaluation	on								
CDC ^[11]	NT	WOSCOPS/CARE	Health system	US	10	C = 3; E = 3	DM	\$US51 889/LYG	6.8
Published data from	n RCTs								
Lindholm et al.[26]	PL	WOSCOPS	NM	Sweden	5	C = 5; E = 5	DM	ECU(47 200–803 100)/ LYG	5.9
General average of overall score	f								5.5

a After disounting.

\$A = Australian dollars; C = costs; CDC = Centers for Disease Control; DM = direct medical; E = effects; ECU = European Currency Unit; ICER = incremental cost-effectiveness ratio; IDM = indirect medical; LIPID = Long-term Intervention with Pravastatin in Ischaemic Disease; LIPS = Lescol Intervention Prevention Study; LYG = life-year gained; NC = not clear; NHS = National Health Service; NM = not mentioned; NT = no treatment; NZ = New Zealand; PL = placebo; PLAC = Pravastatin Limitation of Atherosclerosis in the Coronary Arteries; RCT = randomised controlled trial.

Item ^a	Average score	Minimum score (%) ^b	Maximum score (%)	
1. Well defined question in answerable form?	0.76	0	22	
2. Comprehensive description of competing alternatives?	0.37	35	9	
3. Establishment of effectiveness?	0.18	0	39	
4. Identification of costs and consequences?	0.37	22	0	
5. Measurement of costs and consequences?	0.82	0	70	
6. Valuation of costs and consequences?	0.76	4	39	
7. Adjustment for differential timing?	0.59	0	17	
8. Incremental analysis?	0.09	91	9	
9. Allowance for uncertainty?	0.48	0	0	
10. Presentation and discussion of results?	0.63	4	0	

Table II Average score per question across all economic evaluations

Percentage of articles with a minimum or maximum score on this item (total of sub-items).

2.2 General Characteristics of Included Studies

Most of the studies measured the costs/ LYG.^[8,9,14-16,18-20,22-27,29] a few measured the costs/ QALY gained^[11,13,17,21,28,30] or both.^[10,12] The publications that measured costs/QALY gained were all published during or after the year 2000.

All the included studies evaluated statins; however, the setting varied over different countries. Studies were conducted in the US,[11,13,17,27,29,30] the UK,^[10,14,19,20] Sweden,^[16,26,28] Australia,^[8,25] The Netherlands,^[12] Belgium,^[23] Canada,^[15] China^[21] and Germany,^[24] and some studies placed their results in an international setting.^[9,18,22]

The included studies contained primary prevention studies^[14,23,25,28] and secondary prevention studies.^[8-10,13,15,16,18,21,22,27,30] and some combined both.^[12,17,19,20,24,29] Two papers did not comment on the type of prevention investigated.^[11,26]

Most studies used no treatment or placebo as a comparator; a few did not clearly mention the comparator they used,^[19-21,23-25,27,28] and one used usual care as a comparator.^[15] Most studies including primary prevention based their effectiveness on data from the WOSCOPS (West of Scotland Coronary Prevention Study) trial.^[11,14,19,20,23,25,26,28,29]

The included studies dated from 1996 to 2004. Table I provides additional information.

With the exception of three articles,^[10,26,29] most results were published in journals with a medical rather than economic orientation.

2.3 Quality of the Included Studies

The overall score per study varied between 2.7 and 7.7. Table I presents the outcome per study and table II presents the average score per question for all included articles as well as the percentage of included articles with a minimum or maximum score for each question. Not all articles consistently scored positive or negative on the sub-items within a question. For example, when considering question 1, no article had a minimum score on all the subitems, whereas 22% of the included articles had a maximum score and 78% did not consistently have a minimum or maximum score on the sub-items.

The average quality score of the included studies was 5.5. The average quality scores for articles published in medical- and economics-oriented journals were 5.3 and 6.3, respectively. A trend of improvement for the scores was noticed with time of

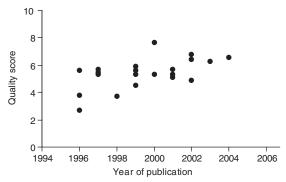


Fig. 1. Trend of quality score over time.

publication (figure 1) [Pearson's R = 0.564, p = 0.005]. When this increase over time is studied for the separate questions we find a statistically significant improvement over time for the identification of costs (question 4) [Pearson's R = 0.550, p = 0.007]. Yet, as shown in table II, the average score for this question was low. Most studies scored high on the measurement of costs and consequences and low on the identification of these costs and consequences and the establishment of effectiveness.

Only two studies^[8,11] included a well performed incremental analysis (table II). Furthermore, studies based on piggy-back evaluations tended to have higher quality scores (table I), although not statistically significant (p = 0.257). Piggy-back studies tended to score higher on items 2 and 7 (p = 0.031and p = 0.046, respectively). For piggy-back studies the alternatives are more clear and better described. This difference is statistically significant. This may be because of the stringent protocols in a trial setting. Additionally, the adjustment for costs and consequences for differential timing seems to be justified better for studies conducted in a piggy-back setting.

3. Discussion

Although this study used inclusion criteria that would assure a minimum quality of the selected studies, we found a disappointing average quality score (5.5). The explanation for most studies scoring low on establishment of effectiveness is that these studies lacked comment on daily practice implications. It was not always clear if and how the study had dealt with the noncompliance occurring in daily practice.

Our findings are consistent with other reviews.^[89,90] Similar results are also found in the quality assessment of epidemiological studies.^[91,92] This present review shows that, contradictory to expectations,^[93] most economic evaluations score well on the measurement and valuation of costs, probably because researchers have a tendency to omit the costs that are difficult to measure and value. Consequently, the reviewed articles had a low score on the identification of costs. Furthermore, several articles did not mention the comparator. We assumed this comparator was doing nothing. It seems that when the comparator is doing nothing, researchers sometimes forget to mention this. Some studies did not adjust for differential timing, did not mention whether discounting was done for effects as well as costs, or state where they derived the discounting rate from. Fewer than half of the studies included well performed sensitivity analyses. Most studies did not discuss the possibilities and difficulties regarding implementation of the preferred programme/treatment. However, the greatest flaw appeared to be that most studies present the costeffectiveness ratios as incremental cost-effectiveness ratios (ICERs). Table II shows that only two studies presented the ICERs as the incremental benefits for incremental costs incurred.

By reviewing the articles with two reviewers, the results become less 'reviewer-dependent'. Additionally, this is enhanced further by deciding upon disagreement in consensus meetings. Furthermore, the fact that the criteria for the scoring system were established in preliminary meetings (see Appendix) protects the objectivity of both reviewers. Although we did not validate the categorical approach of this scoring system, we have identified another article that also applied a categorical approach to the Drummond checklist.^[5]

A limitation of this review was that if the reporting was not accurate and complete, this review evaluated the quality of reporting rather than that of the included studies. We were only able to analyse the information presented in the articles. For example, when study authors commented they were not able to measure all of the identified costs, the studies got a lower score than when no comment was made, because not commenting on the inability to measure identified costs makes it seem as if these costs were measured as well. Another minor limitation is that this review is limited to economic evaluations regarding cholesterol-lowering drugs. For other economic evaluations the quality may be different. Furthermore, long-term data may not be available for other drugs, and decision-makers may need to rely

on short-term studies. However, in the case of lipidlowering agents the long-term data are abundant.

More recent articles tend to have higher quality scores. This may be the result of an increasing quality demand from the accepting journals over the years. The three articles published in journals with an economic or management background scored above average. The objective of this review was to provide a quality ranking. Nevertheless, differences in settings among studies are equally as important as the quality of the study for those using economic evaluations. For example, differences in healthcare systems among different countries might make it impossible to apply the results of economic evaluations from one country to another.^[94] Decision-makers should look not only at the quality of the articles but also at the transferability of the results to their specific population and healthcare system. The articles from van Hout and Simoons^[12] and Johannesson^[28] meet our inclusion criteria but were aimed at guideline development and may not be useful to decision-makers in determining whether treatment is cost effective for their population.

4. Conclusion

Policymakers who want to use economic evaluations should use those that employed appropriate methodology and produced valid results. In that regard it seems that policymakers are better informed using recent publications, as the quality of studies appears to have increased over time. However, policymakers should remain critical regarding the methodology employed as the overall quality of economic evaluations is disappointing. This review focused on the methodology employed by the studies but policymakers should also consider whether the results are applicable to their own setting.

Acknowledgements

No sources of funding were used to assist in the preparation of this review. The authors have no conflicts of interest that are directly relevant to the content of this review.

Appendix: Scoring Method Based on Drummond's Checklist

The 10 questions are assigned equal weights in determining the overall score. Correspondingly, within one question the sub-items are assigned equal weights. The nature of question 3 means it is impossible to score on several sub-items.

1. Was a well defined question posed in an answerable form?

a. If the article examined both costs and effects, the score was 1.00 and if not, the score was 0.00.

b. If the study involved a comparison of alternatives, the score was 1.00 and if not the score was 0.00.

c. If the article stated the viewpoint and placed the study in a decision-making context, the score was 1.00. If the study did only one of the two, the score was 0.50 and if it did neither, the score was 0.00.

2. Was a comprehensive description of the competing alternatives given?

a. If the article omitted alternatives important from the stated viewpoint or the policy setting the study was conducted in, the score was 0.00. If there was no viewpoint, policy context or alternative stated, the score was 0.00 because the legitimacy of the choice of the alternatives is based on the viewpoint and policy context. If all the alternatives were included, the score was 1.00, and if it was not clear what the alternatives were, the score was 0.00.

b. If a do-nothing alternative was considered, the score was 1.00. If a do-nothing alternative was not considered but should have been, the score was 0.00 and if it was not necessary to consider this alternative, the score was 1.00. If the article did not clarify the policy context or mention the chosen alternative, the score was 0.00.

3. Was the effectiveness of the programmes or services established?

a. If an RCT was conducted or primary data from an RCT were used and allowances were made for regular practice (meaning the effect was adjusted for noncompliance either by assumptions or by using practice data), the score was 1.00. If no allowances were made but the authors clearly described how they derived their effectiveness data, the score was

0.5, and if neither requirement was fulfilled, the score was 0.00.

b. If the effectiveness was established through a meta-analysis or a systematic review of RCTs or obtained through publications concerning a certain trial and allowances were made for regular practice, the score was 1.00. The score was 0.50 if no allowances were made and 0.00 if the effectiveness was not established through a meta-analysis or systematic review of RCTs.

c. If the effectiveness was established through an observational study and the biases were discussed and corrected for as much as possible, the score was 1.00. If the effectiveness was established through an observational study but the potential biases were not discussed, the score was 0.5, and if neither requirement was met, the score was 0.00.

4. Were all the important and relevant costs and consequences for each alternative established?

a. If the range was wide enough, the score was 1.00. If the study range was not wide enough for either costs or effects, the score was 0.50, and if the range was not wide enough for costs and effects, the score was 0.00. If the study did not state a research question, aim, viewpoint or policy context, the score was 0.00. When studies only stated the type of costs without identifying these costs, the score was 0.00. b. If the study covered all the relevant viewpoints (based on the research question), the score was 1.00; if not, the score was 0.00. If the study did not clearly state a research question it was impossible to decide if the range was wide enough; therefore, the score was 0.00.

c. If the identified costs included capital and operating costs, the score was 1.00, and if not, the score was 0.00. When it was unclear whether both types of costs were included, it was assumed they were not and therefore the score was 0.00.

5. Were costs and consequences measured accurately in appropriate physical units?

a. If any of the identified items were omitted and the reason was commented on, and this carried no weight in the subsequent analysis, the score was 0.50; without any comment the score was 0.00. If all the items were included, the score was 1.00. If the

article did not mention excluded items we assumed that none of these items were excluded.

b. If there were circumstances that made measurement difficult, the score was 1.00 if they were handled appropriately and 0.00 if not or if the article did not explicitly mention how the difficulties were overcome. If there were no special circumstances, the score was 1.00.

6. Were costs and consequences valued credibly?

a. If all sources of values were clearly identified, the score was 1.00. When only some of the sources were identified, the score was 0.50, and when none of the sources were identified, the score was 0.00.

b. When market values were employed, the score was 1.00. If not all prices represented market values, the score was 0.50. If no market values were employed, the score was 0.00. If it was unclear for a portion of the values, the score was 0.50. If it was unclear for all values, the score was 0.00.

c. If the study attempted to approximate market values when these were absent or missing, the score was 1.00, and if they did not, or did not comment on this, the score was 0.00. If the study approximated market values but not for all items, or it was unclear for a portion of the values whether they represented market values, the score was 0.50. If the values were not absent, this item was redundant; therefore the score was 1.00. If it was impossible to tell whether this item was redundant, the score was 0.00.

d. When all the consequences were valued appropriately and methodologically sound, the score was 1.00; if only a portion of the consequences were valued appropriately, the score was 0.50; and if none of the items were valued appropriately, the score was 0.00 (i.e. wrong type of analysis used). If the article did not state a research question, viewpoint, aim or policy context of the decision under consideration, the score was 0.00 because the legitimacy of the valuation of the consequences was unclear.

7. Were costs and consequences adjusted for differential timing?

a. If both costs and consequences were discounted, the score was 1.00. When only costs or consequences were discounted, the score was 0.50, and when neither was discounted, the score was 0.00. When it was clear that the study applied the discounting method but unclear whether both costs and effects were discounted, the score was 0.00.

b. When justification was given for both discount rates, the score was 1.00. When justification was given for only one rate, the score was 0.50, and when no justification was given at all, the score was 0.00. If the study did not discount at all, the score was 0.00.

8. Was an incremental analysis of costs and consequences of alternatives performed?

a. If the analysis assessed the incremental benefits that were incurred for any incremental costs, the score was 1.00; if not, the score was 0.00. If it was not clear whether the analysis performed was incremental (because of the way it was reported), the score was 0.00.

9. Was allowance made for uncertainty in the estimates of costs and consequences?

a. If data on costs or consequences were stochastic and the statistical analysis performed was appropriate, the score was 1.00. If neither were stochastic, the score was 1.00. If the appropriate analysis was not performed, the score was 0.00.

b. If a sensitivity analysis was employed and the article provided justification for the range of values, the score was 1.00. If the article provided no justification or a justification for only a portion of the ranges chosen, the score was 0.50, and when the study did not include a sensitivity analysis at all, the score was 0.00, unless there was no uncertainty in the estimates of costs and consequences. If the study did not perform a sensitivity analysis on all uncertain items, the score was 0.50.

c. If no sensitivity analysis was performed, this item was redundant and the score was 1.00. When a result provided the same conclusion, in the sensitivity analysis, regarding the cost effectiveness of the evaluated items, the score was 1.00, and if not, the score was 0.00.

10. Did the presentation and discussion of study results include all issues of concern to users?

a. If the conclusion was based on an overall index (i.e. ICER) and interpreted intelligently, the score was 1.00. If the conclusion was based on a range of

cost-utility or cost-effectiveness ratios and the results were interpreted intelligently, the score was 1.00. If the results were interpreted in a mechanistic fashion, the score was 0.00. If it was hard to tell how the results were interpreted, the score was 0.00.

b. If the results were compared with those of others who had investigated the same question and allowances were made for potential differences, the score was 1.00; if no allowances were made after comparison, the score was 0.50. If no comparison was made or the article did not pose a research question, the score was 0.00. If no similar studies were available with which to compare the results and the article mentioned this, the score was 1.00.

c. If the study discussed the generalisability of the results, the score was 1.00; if not, the score was 0.00.

d. If the study took into account considerations other than those derived from the economic evaluation (e.g. organisational aspects), the score was 1.00; if not, the score was 0.00. When studies mentioned these other considerations but did not elaborate on them, the score was 0.00 as well.

e. If the study discussed the possibilities and difficulties regarding implementation of the preferred programme, the score was 1.00; if not, the score was 0.00.

References

- 1. WHO. Cardiovascular disease: prevention and control. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2004
- Yach D, Hawkes C, Gould CL, et al. The global burden of chronic diseases: overcoming impediments to prevention and control. JAMA 2004; 291 (21): 2616-22
- Drummond MF, Aguiar-Ibanez R, Nixon J. Economic evaluation. Singapore Med J 2006; 47 (6): 456-62
- Moher D, Schulz KF, Altman DG. The CONSORT statement: revised recommendations for improving the quality of reports of parallel-group randomised trials. Lancet 2001; 357 (9263): 1191-4
- Drummond MF, Stoddart GL, Torrance GW. Methods for the economic evaluation of health care programmes. Oxford: Oxford Medical Publications, 1987
- Gazzaniga P, Garattini L. Economic evaluation of pharmaceuticals: a critical appraisal of seven studies on cholesterol-lowering agents. Pharmacoeconomics 1992; 2 (4): 270-8
- Pignone M, Earnshaw S, Tice JA, et al. Aspirin, statins, or both drugs for the primary prevention of coronary heart disease events in men: a cost-utility analysis. Ann Intern Med 2006; 144 (5): 326-36
- 8. Glasziou PP, Eckermann SD, Mulray SE, et al. Cholesterollowering therapy with pravastatin in patients with average

cholesterol levels and established ischaemic heart disease: is it cost-effective? Med J Aust 2002; 177 (8): 428-34

- Jonsson B, Johannesson M, Kjekshus J, et al. Cost-effectiveness of cholesterol lowering: results from the Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study (4S). Eur Heart J 1996; 17 (7): 1001-7
- Scuffham PA, Chaplin S. An economic evaluation of fluvastatin used for the prevention of cardiac events following successful first percutaneous coronary intervention in the UK. Pharmacoeconomics 2004; 22 (8): 525-35
- CDC Diabetes Cost-effectiveness Group. Cost-effectiveness of intensive glycemic control, intensified hypertension control, and serum cholesterol level reduction for type 2 diabetes. JAMA 2002; 287 (19): 2542-51
- van Hout BA, Simoons ML. Cost-effectiveness of HMG coenzyme reductase inhibitors: whom to treat? Eur Heart J 2001; 22 (9): 751-61
- Tsevat J, Kuntz KM, Orav EJ, et al. Cost-effectiveness of pravastatin therapy for survivors of myocardial infarction with average cholesterol levels. Am Heart J 2001; 141 (5): 727-34
- Caro J, Klittich W, McGuire A, et al. The West of Scotland Coronary Prevention Study: economic benefit analysis of primary prevention with pravastatin. BMJ 1997; 315 (7122): 1577-82
- Riviere M, Wang S, Leclerc C, et al. Cost-effectiveness of simvastatin in the secondary prevention of coronary artery disease in Canada. CMAJ 1997; 156 (7): 991-7
- Johannesson M, Jonsson B, Kjekshus J, et al. Cost effectiveness of simvastatin treatment to lower cholesterol levels in patients with coronary heart disease: Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study Group. N Engl J Med 1997; 336 (5): 332-6
- Prosser LA, Stinnett AA, Goldman PA, et al. Cost-effectiveness of cholesterol-lowering therapies according to selected patient characteristics. Ann Intern Med 2000; 132 (10): 769-79
- Muls E, Van Ganse E, Closon MC. Cost-effectiveness of pravastatin in secondary prevention of coronary heart disease: comparison between Belgium and the United States of a projected risk model. Atherosclerosis 1998; 137 Suppl.: S111-6
- Pharoah PD, Hollingworth W. Cost effectiveness of lowering cholesterol concentration with statins in patients with and without pre-existing coronary heart disease: life table method applied to health authority population. BMJ 1996; 312 (7044): 1443-8
- Pickin DM, McCabe CJ, Ramsay LE, et al. Cost effectiveness of HMG-CoA reductase inhibitor (statin) treatment related to the risk of coronary heart disease and cost of drug treatment. Heart 1999; 82 (3): 325-32
- Chau J, Cheung BM, McGhee SM, et al. Cost-effectiveness analysis of applying the Cholesterol and Recurrent Events (CARE) study protocol in Hong Kong. Hong Kong Med J 2001; 7 (4): 360-8
- Jonsson B, Cook JR, Pedersen TR. The cost-effectiveness of lipid lowering in patients with diabetes: results from the 4S trial. Diabetologia 1999; 42 (11): 1293-301
- 23. Caro JJ, Huybrechts KF, De Backer G, et al. Are the WOSCOPS clinical and economic findings generalizable to other populations? A case study for Belgium: the WOSCOPS Economic Analysis Group. West of Scotland Coronary Prevention Study. Acta Cardiol 2000; 55 (4): 239-46
- 24. Hinzpeter B, Klever-Deichert G, Lauterbach KW. Cost-effectiveness of treating high-risk individuals aged 45–65 years with statins in Germany for primary and secondary prevention of coronary heart disease from the perspective of the social security system. Eur Heart J Suppl 1999; 1 M Suppl. M: M33-8

- Lim SS, Vos T, Peeters A, et al. Cost-effectiveness of prescribing statins according to pharmaceutical benefits scheme criteria. Med J Aust 2001; 175 (9): 459-64
- Lindholm L, Hallgren CG, Boman K, et al. Cost-effectiveness analysis with defined budget: how to distribute resources for the prevention of cardiovascular disease? Health Policy 1999; 48 (3): 155-70
- Ashraf T, Hay JW, Pitt B, et al. Cost-effectiveness of pravastatin in secondary prevention of coronary artery disease. Am J Cardiol 1996; 78 (4): 409-14
- Johannesson M. At what coronary risk level is it cost-effective to initiate cholesterol lowering drug treatment in primary prevention? Eur Heart J 2001; 22 (11): 919-25
- Caro J, Huybrechts KF, Klittich WS, et al. Allocating funds for cardiovascular disease prevention in light of the NCEP ATP III guidelines. Am J Manag Care 2003; 9 (7): 477-89
- Ganz DA, Kuntz KM, Jacobson GA, et al. Cost-effectiveness of 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase inhibitor therapy in older patients with myocardial infarction. Ann Intern Med 2000; 132 (10): 780-7
- Tarraga-Lopez PJ, Celada-Rodriguez A, Cerdan-Oliver M, et al. A pharmacoeconomic evaluation of statins in the treatment of hypercholesterolaemia in the primary care setting in Spain. Pharmacoeconomics 2005; 23 (3): 275-87
- Hay JW, Sterling KL. Cost effectiveness of treating low HDLcholesterol in the primary prevention of coronary heart disease. Pharmacoeconomics 2005; 23 (2): 133-41
- 33. Nyman JA, Martinson MS, Nelson D, et al. Cost-effectiveness of gemfibrozil for coronary heart disease patients with low levels of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol: the Department of Veterans Affairs High-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol Intervention Trial. Arch Intern Med 2002; 162 (2): 177-82
- Plans-Rubio P. Cost-effectiveness of cardiovascular prevention programs in Spain. Int J Technol Assess Health Care 1998; 14 (2): 320-30
- Hamilton VH, Racicot FE, Zowall H, et al. The cost-effectiveness of HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors to prevent coronary heart disease: estimating the benefits of increasing HDL-C. JAMA 1995; 273 (13): 1032-8
- Grover SA, Coupal L, Zowall H, et al. Cost-effectiveness of treating hyperlipidemia in the presence of diabetes: who should be treated? Circulation 2000; 102 (7): 722-7
- 37. Ellis SL, Carter BL, Malone DC, et al. Clinical and economic impact of ambulatory care clinical pharmacists in management of dyslipidemia in older adults: the IMPROVE study. Impact of Managed Pharmaceutical Care on Resource Utilization and Outcomes in Veterans Affairs Medical Centers. Pharmacotherapy 2000; 20 (12): 1508-16
- Grover SA, Coupal L, Zowall H, et al. How cost-effective is the treatment of dyslipidemia in patients with diabetes but without cardiovascular disease? Diabetes Care 2001; 24 (1): 45-50
- Hilleman DE, Phillips JO, Mohiuddin SM, et al. A populationbased treat-to-target pharmacoeconomic analysis of HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors in hypercholesterolemia. Clin Ther 1999; 21 (3): 536-62
- Huse DM, Russell MW, Miller JD, et al. Cost-effectiveness of statins. Am J Cardiol 1998; 82 (11): 1357-63
- Smith DG, McBurney CR. An economic analysis of the Atorvastatin Comparative Cholesterol Efficacy and Safety Study (ACCESS). Pharmacoeconomics 2003; 21 Suppl. 1: 13-23
- Russell MW, Huse DM, Miller JD, et al. Cost effectiveness of HMG-CoA reductase inhibition in Canada. Can J Clin Pharmacol 2001; 8 (1): 9-16

- Hay JW, Wittels EH, Gotto AM. An economic evaluation of lovastatin for cholesterol lowering and coronary artery disease reduction. Am J Cardiol 1991; 67 (9): 789-96
- 44. Grover SA, Ho V, Lavoie F, et al. The importance of indirect costs in primary cardiovascular disease prevention: can we save lives and money with statins? Arch Intern Med 2003; 163 (3): 333-9
- Elliott WJ, Weir DR. Comparative cost-effectiveness of HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors in secondary prevention of acute myocardial infarction. Am J Health Syst Pharm 1999; 56 (17): 1726-32
- Gonzalez ER. The pharmacoeconomic benefits of cholesterol reduction. Am J Manag Care 1998; 4 (2): 223-30
- Field K, Thorogood M, Silagy C, et al. Strategies for reducing coronary risk factors in primary care: which is most cost effective? BMJ 1995; 310 (6987): 1109-12
- Nagata-Kobayashi S, Shimbo T, Matsui K, et al. Cost-effectiveness of pravastatin for primary prevention of coronary artery disease in Japan. Int J Cardiol 2005; 104 (2): 213-23
- 49. Spaans JN, Coyle D, Fodor G, et al. Application of the 1998 Canadian cholesterol guidelines to a military population: health benefits and cost effectiveness of improved cholesterol management. Can J Cardiol 2003; 19 (7): 790-6
- Martens LL, Guibert R. Cost-effectiveness analysis of lipidmodifying therapy in Canada: comparison of HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors in the primary prevention of coronary heart disease. Clin Ther 1994; 16 (6): 1052-62; discussion 1036
- Johannesson M, Borgquist L, Jonsson B, et al. The cost effectiveness of lipid lowering in Swedish primary health care: the CELL Study Group. J Intern Med 1996; 240 (1): 23-9
- 52. Grover SA, Coupal L, Paquet S, et al. Cost-effectiveness of 3hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A reductase inhibitors in the secondary prevention of cardiovascular disease: forecasting the incremental benefits of preventing coronary and cerebrovascular events. Arch Intern Med 1999; 159 (6): 593-600
- Goldman L, Weinstein MC, Goldman PA, et al. Cost-effectiveness of HMG-CoA reductase inhibition for primary and secondary prevention of coronary heart disease. JAMA 1991; 265 (9): 1145-51
- 54. Plans-Rubio P. Cost-effectiveness analysis of treatments to reduce cholesterol levels, blood pressure and smoking for the prevention of coronary heart disease: evaluative study carried out in Spain. Pharmacoeconomics 1998; 13: 623-43
- Martens LL, Rutten FF, Erkelens DW, et al. Cost effectiveness of cholesterol-lowering therapy in The Netherlands: simvastatin versus cholestyramine. Am J Med 1989; 87 (4A): 54S-8S
- 56. Martens LL, Rutten FF, Erkelens DW, et al. Clinical benefits and cost-effectiveness of lowering serum cholesterol levels: the case of simvastatin and cholestyramine in The Netherlands. Am J Cardiol 1990; 65 (12): 27F-32F
- Martens LL, Rutten FF, Kuijpens JL, et al. Cost-effectiveness of lowering of blood cholesterol using simvastatin and cholestyramine. Ned Tijdschr Geneeskd 1991; 135 (15): 655-9
- Oster G, Epstein AM. Cost-effectiveness of antihyperlipemic therapy in the prevention of coronary heart disease: the case of cholestyramine. JAMA 1987; 258 (17): 2381-7
- Kinosian BP, Eisenberg JM. Cutting into cholesterol: costeffective alternatives for treating hypercholesterolemia. JAMA 1988; 259 (15): 2249-54
- 60. Spearman ME, Summers K, Moore V, et al. Cost-effectiveness of initial therapy with 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase inhibitors to treat hypercholesterolemia in a pri-

mary care setting of a managed-care organization. Clin Ther 1997; 19 (3): 582-602; discussion 538-9

- 61. Buller N, Gillen D, Casciano R, et al. A pharmacoeconomic evaluation of the Myocardial Ischaemia Reduction with Aggressive Cholesterol Lowering (MIRACL) study in the United Kingdom. Pharmacoeconomics 2003; 21 Suppl. 1: 25-32
- 62. Brandle M, Davidson MB, Schriger DL, et al. Cost effectiveness of statin therapy for the primary prevention of major coronary events in individuals with type 2 diabetes. Diabetes Care 2003; 26 (6): 1796-801
- 63. Athyros VG, Papageorgiou AA, Mercouris BR, et al. Treatment with atorvastatin to the National Cholesterol Educational Program goal versus 'usual' care in secondary coronary heart disease prevention: the GREek Atorvastatin and Coronaryheart-disease Evaluation (GREACE) study. Curr Med Res Opin 2002; 18 (4): 220-8
- Smart AJ, Walters L. Pharmaco-economic assessment of the HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors. S Afr Med J 1994; 84 (12): 834-7
- Maclaine GD, Patel H. A cost-effectiveness model of alternative statins to achieve target LDL-cholesterol levels. Int J Clin Pract 2001; 55 (4): 243-9
- 66. Black D, Davidson M, Koren M, et al. Cost effectiveness of treatment to National Cholesterol Education Panel (NCEP) targets with HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors: trial design. Pharmacoeconomics 1997; 12 (2 Pt 2): 278-85
- Hilleman DE, Heineman SM, Foral PA. Pharmacoeconomic assessment of HMG-CoA reductase inhibitor therapy: an analysis based on the CURVES study. Pharmacotherapy 2000; 20 (7): 819-22
- Wilson K, Marriott J, Fuller S, et al. A model to assess the cost effectiveness of statins in achieving the UK National Service Framework target cholesterol levels. Pharmacoeconomics 2003; 21 Suppl. 1: 1-11
- Jacobson TA. Cost-effectiveness of 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase inhibitor therapy in the managed care era. Am J Cardiol 1996; 78 (6A): 32-41
- Plans-Rubio P. Allocation of resources between smoking cessation methods and lovastatin treatment of hypercholesterolaemia: based on cost effectiveness and the social welfare function. Pharmacoeconomics 2004; 22 (1): 55-69
- Oster G, Borok GM, Menzin J, et al. Cholesterol-reduction intervention study (CRIS): a randomized trial to assess effectiveness and costs in clinical practice. Arch Intern Med 1996; 156 (7): 731-9
- Farmer JA. Economic implications of lipid-lowering trials: current considerations in selecting a statin. Am J Cardiol 1998; 82 (6A): 26M-31M
- Jacobson TA, Schein JR, Williamson A, et al. Maximizing the cost-effectiveness of lipid-lowering therapy. Arch Intern Med 1998; 158 (18): 1977-89
- 74. Schwartz GG, Ganz P, Waters D, et al. Pharmacoeconomic evaluation of the effects of atorvastatin on early recurrent ischemic events in acute coronary syndromes. Am J Cardiol 2003; 92 (9): 1109-12
- Lim MC, Foo WM. Efficacy and cost-effectiveness of simvastatin and gemfibrozil in the treatment of hyperlipidaemia. Ann Acad Med Singapore 1992; 21 (1): 34-7
- Casciano R, Tarride JE, Breton MC, et al. A pharmacoeconomic evaluation of the myocardial ischemia reduction with aggressive cholesterol lowering (MIRACL) study in Canada. Can J Clin Pharmacol 2004; 11 (1): e179-90

- 77. Gomez-Gerique JA, Casciano R, Stern L, et al. A pharmacoeconomic evaluation of the effects of atorvastatin on early recurrent ischemic events in acute coronary syndromes in Spain. Eur J Health Econ 2004; 5 (3): 278-84
- Olsson A, Casciano R, Stern L, et al. A pharmacoeconomic evaluation of aggressive cholesterol lowering in Sweden. Int J Cardiol 2004; 96 (1): 51-7
- Miller PS, Smith DG, Jones P. Cost effectiveness of rosuvastatin in treating patients to low-density lipoprotein cholesterol goals compared with atorvastatin, pravastatin, and simvastatin (a US analysis of the STELLAR trial). Am J Cardiol 2005; 95 (11): 1314-9
- Perreault S, Levinton C, Le Lorier J. Efficacy and cost of HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors in the treatment of patients with primary hyperlipidemia. Can J Clin Pharmacol 2000; 7 (3): 144-54
- Perreault S, Hamilton VH, Lavoie F, et al. Treating hyperlipidemia for the primary prevention of coronary disease: are higher dosages of lovastatin cost-effective? Arch Intern Med 1998; 158 (4): 375-81
- Blake GJ, Ridker PM, Kuntz KM. Potential cost-effectiveness of C-reactive protein screening followed by targeted statin therapy for the primary prevention of cardiovascular disease among patients without overt hyperlipidemia. Am J Med 2003; 114 (6): 485-94
- Caro J, Klittich W, McGuire A, et al. International economic analysis of primary prevention of cardiovascular disease with pravastatin in WOSCOPS: West of Scotland Coronary Prevention Study. Eur Heart J 1999; 20 (4): 263-8
- Delea TE, Jacobson TA, Serruys PW, et al. Cost-effectiveness of fluvastatin following successful first percutaneous coronary intervention. Ann Pharmacother 2005; 39 (4): 610-6
- Cleland JG, Walker A. Therapeutic options and cost considerations in the treatment of ischemic heart disease. Cardiovasc Drugs Ther 1998; 12 Suppl. 3: 225-32
- Schrott HG, Stein EA, Dujovne CA, et al. Enhanced low-density lipoprotein cholesterol reduction and cost-effectiveness by

low-dose colestipol plus lovastatin combination therapy. Am J Cardiol 1995; 75 (1): 34-9

- Lindholm L, Rosen M, Weinehall L, et al. Cost effectiveness and equity of a community based cardiovascular disease prevention programme in Norsjo, Sweden. J Epidemiol Commun Health 1996; 50 (2): 190-5
- Mihaylova B, Briggs A, Armitage J, et al. Cost-effectiveness of simvastatin in people at different levels of vascular disease risk: economic analysis of a randomised trial in 20 536 individuals. Lancet 2005; 365 (9473): 1779-85
- Evers SM, Ament AJ, Blaauw G. Economic evaluation in stroke research: a systematic review. Stroke 2000; 31 (5): 1046-53
- Neumann PJ, Greenberg D, Olchanski NV, et al. Growth and quality of the cost-utility literature, 1976–2001. Value Health 2005; 8 (1): 3-9
- Pocock SJ, Collier TJ, Dandreo KJ, et al. Issues in the reporting of epidemiological studies: a survey of recent practice. BMJ 2004; 329 (7471): 883
- Assendelft WJ, Hay EM, Adshead R, et al. Corticosteroid injections for lateral epicondylitis: a systematic overview. Br J Gen Pract 1996; 46 (405): 209-16
- Drummond M, Sculpher M. Common methodological flaws in economic evaluations. Med Care 2005; 43 (7 Suppl.): 5-14
- 94. Welte R, Feenstra T, Jager H, et al. A decision chart for assessing and improving the transferability of economic evaluation results between countries. Pharmacoeconomics 2004; 22 (13): 857-76

Correspondence and offprints: Dr *Olaf H. Klungel*, Pharmaceutical Sciences (F&F), Utrecht University, Sorbonnelaan 16, Utrecht, 3584 CA, The Netherlands. E-mail: o.h.klungel@pharm.uu.nl