



LIHS Mini Master Class

© Alexandru Nicusor Matei 2013 CC BY-NC-ND 2.0

An introduction to decision modelling

Alison Smith

Alison Smith © University of Leeds 2014. This work is made available for reuse under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/) License.

* Images courtesy of Microsoft Clip Art



Key Questions

- Why/when do we use models?
- What is an economic decision model?
- What are the main types of models?
- What are the key strengths and limitations of each type of model?

Why do we use models?

- Should a new health intervention be adopted?

- Effectiveness
- Equity
- **Cost-effectiveness**



Is the additional cost
“worth it”?

- Required by NICE and increasingly local and international decision makers

=> **Economic evaluation**

- A comparative analysis of the costs and health benefits of a new intervention compared to current standard care or alternative interventions

Why do we use models?

- If trial data is insufficient
 - Short time horizon
 - Inappropriate comparator/ population/ perspective
 - Missing data
- To combine data from several sources
- To assess & formalise uncertainty
 - Assess need for future research

What is a decision model?

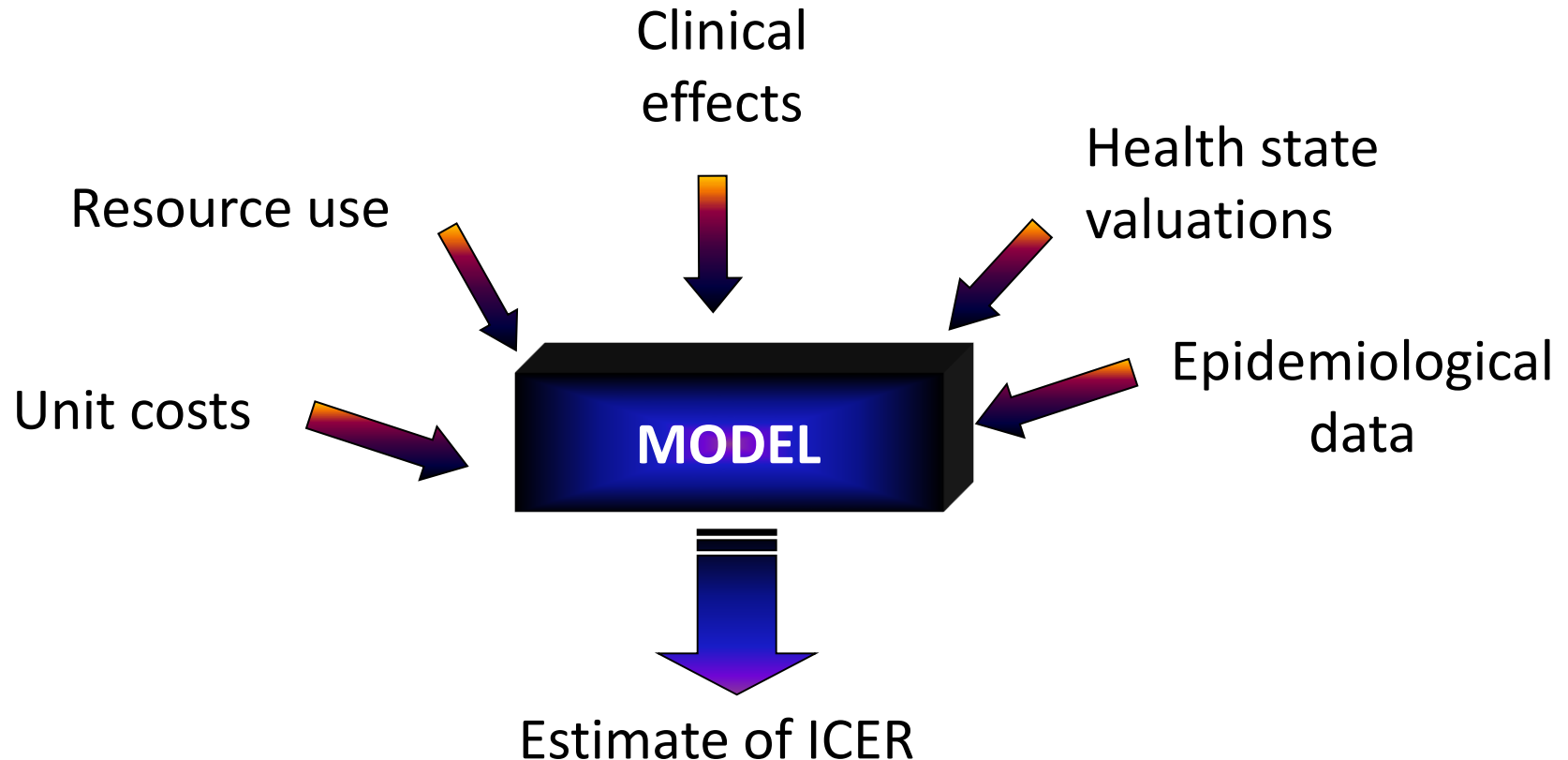
- Decision analytical models: A statistical method used to inform a decision process

More formally...

“a decision analytical model uses mathematical relationships to define a series of possible consequences that would flow from a set of alternative options being evaluated... For a given option, the expected cost (outcome) is the sum of the costs (outcomes) of each consequence weighted by the probability of that consequence.”

Brigg, Claxton and Sculpher, 2007; p6

What is a decision model?



$$\frac{\text{Incremental cost } (\Delta C)}{\text{Incremental effect } (\Delta E)}$$

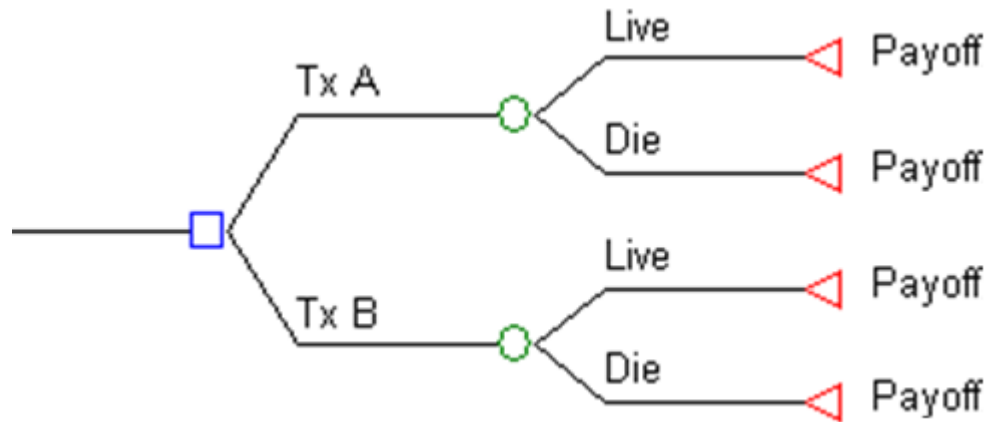
Types of models

LOTS of types of models, but the most common are:


- ❖ Decision Trees
- ❖ Markov Models
- ❖ A combination of both


Decision Tree


- A decision tree utilizes a flow diagram to show the logical structure of the problem



- Think of time flowing from left to right, with each of the branches depicting the possible patient pathways contingent on particular events.

 Decision nodes – the square nodes represent a choice for the decision maker

 Chance nodes – these circular nodes are used to represent uncertain events, with the branches emanating from the node indicating all the various possibilities (probabilities). Each of these chance events has an associated probability and these should sum to 1.0 (100%) for all events associated with a particular chance node

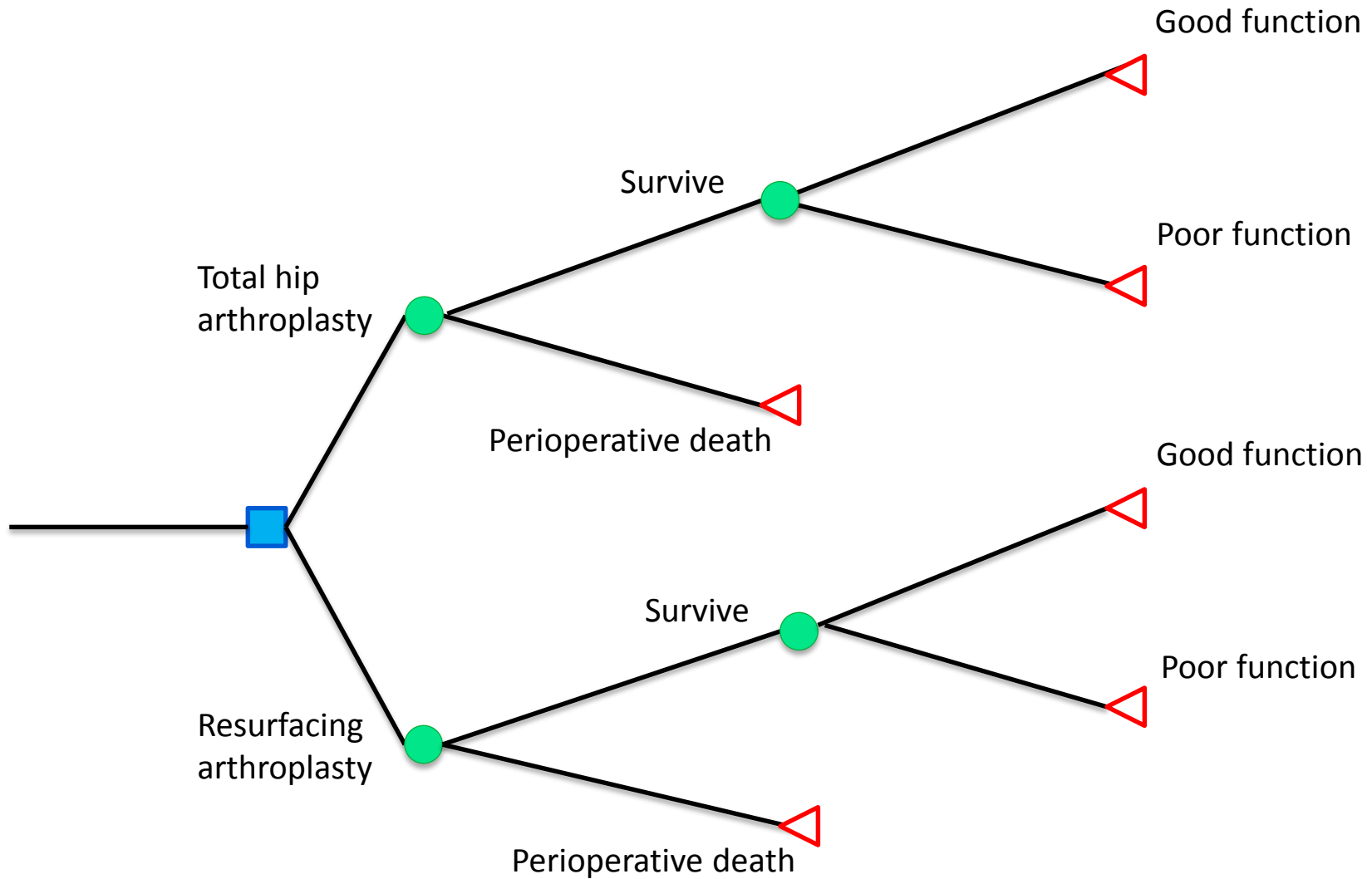
 Terminal nodes – these triangular nodes represent the endpoint of the model and are assigned value(s) or *payoff(s)*. These payoff can be utility, costs, or anything else thought to be a critical outcome for a particular scenario

Example

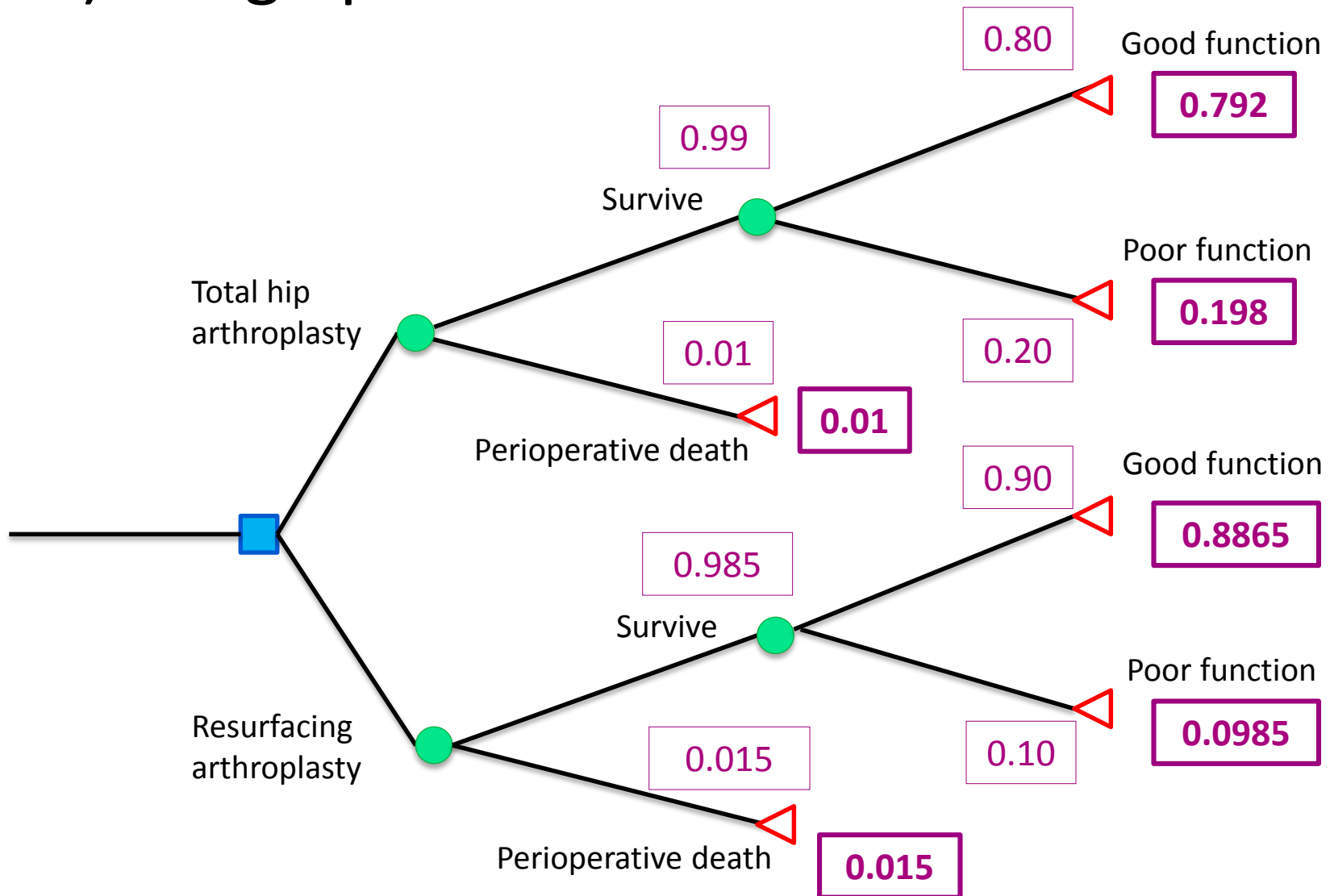
“Which method of operating on arthritic hips in young patients is the most cost-effective?”

- **Total hip arthroplasty**: replace the whole joint
- **Resurfacing arthroplasty**: replace part of the joint, making a smooth surface to allow more normal hip function

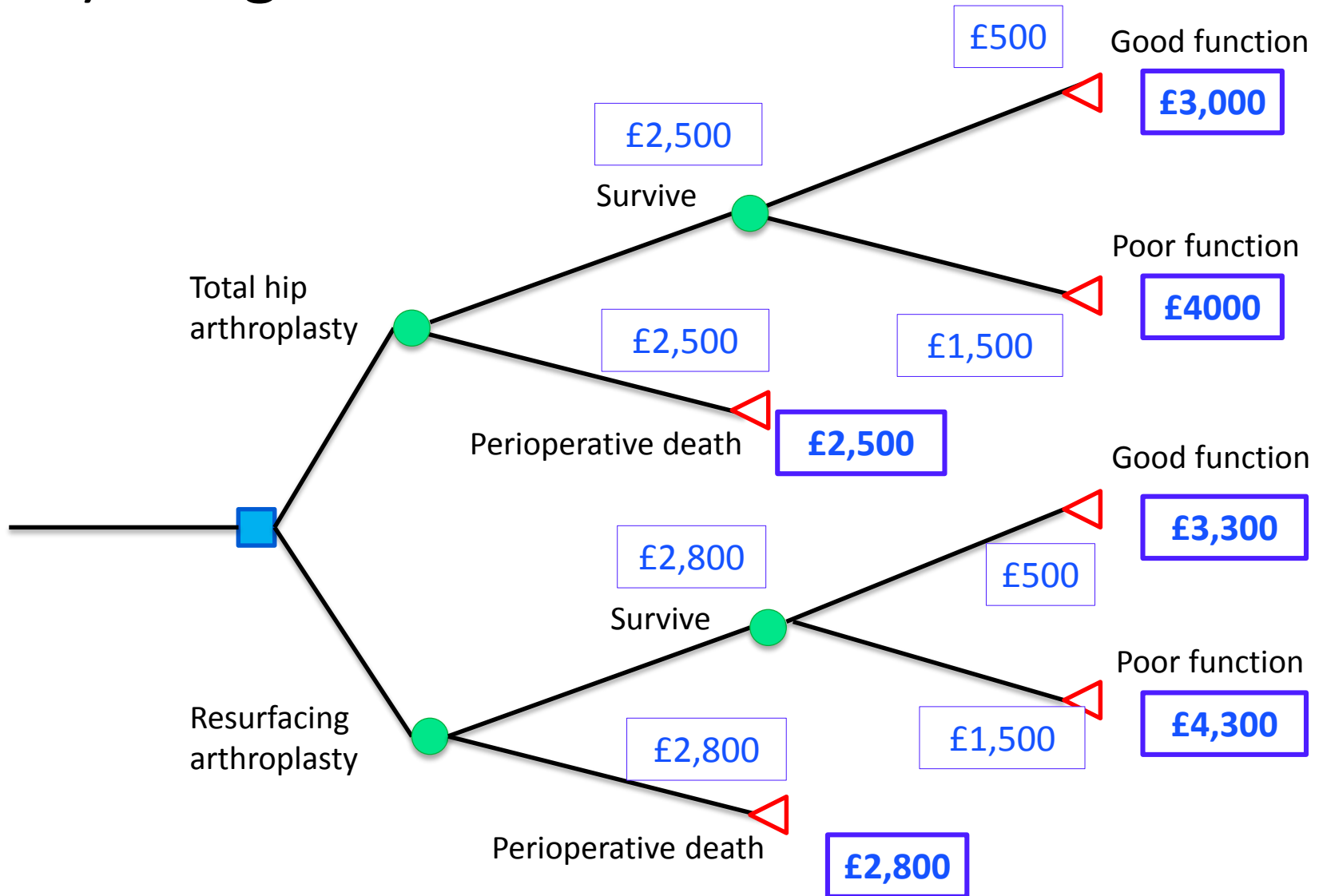
1) Formulate tree structure



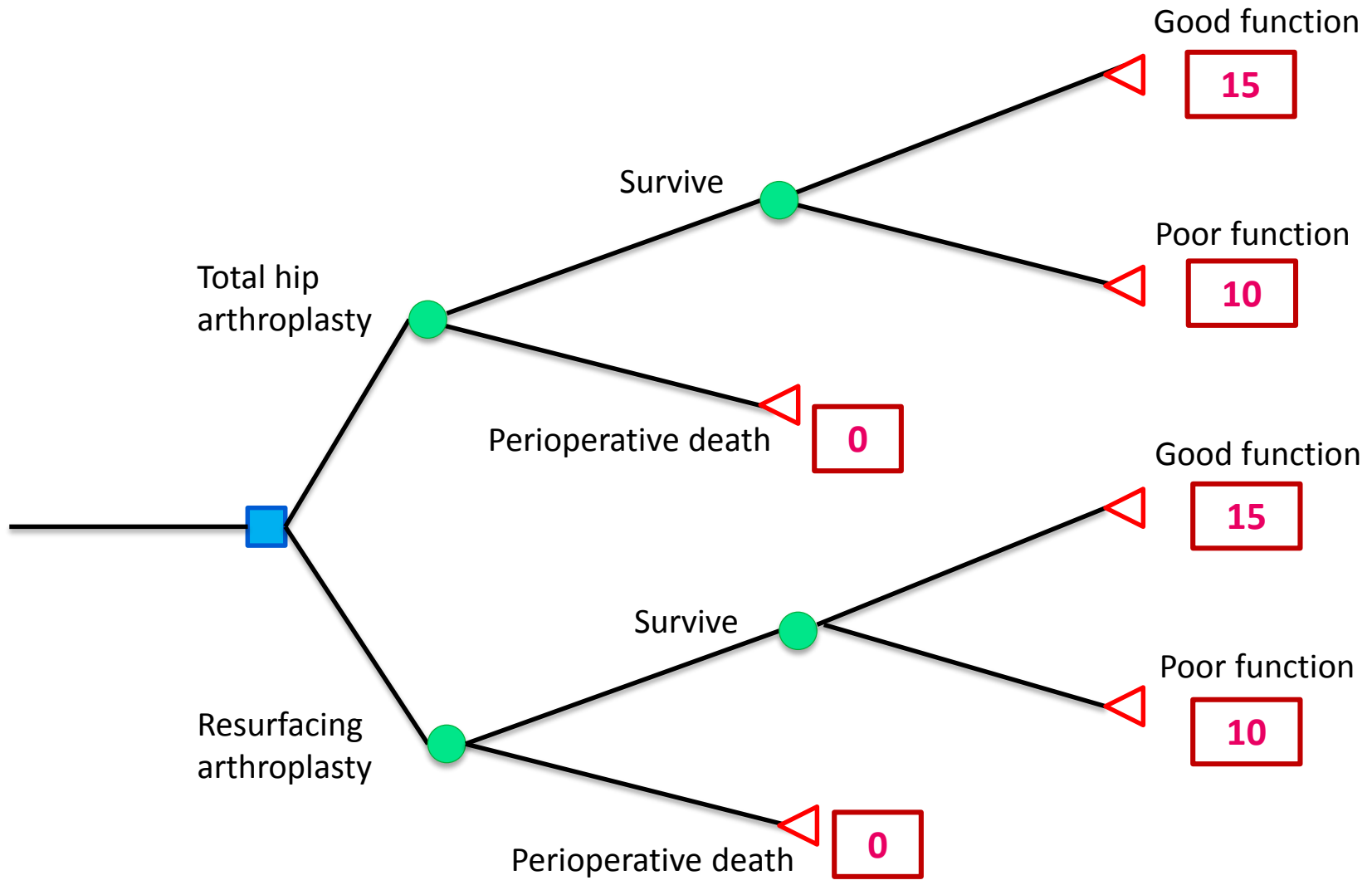
2) Assign probabilities



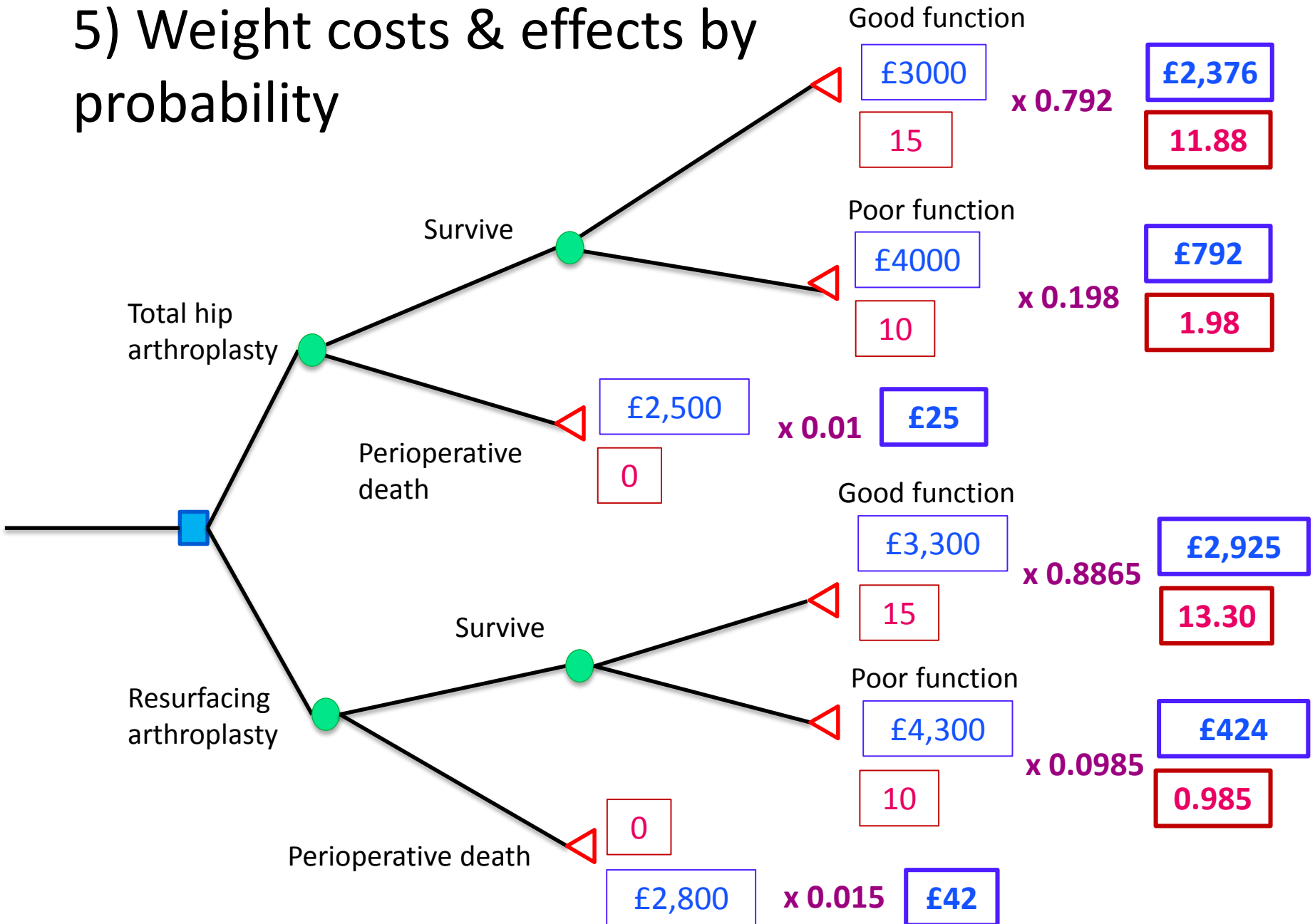
3) Assign costs



4) Assign effects (QALYs)



5) Weight costs & effects by probability



6) Calculate cost-effectiveness

Strategy	Total Cost	Total QALYs	Incremental Cost	Incremental QALY	ICER
Total Hip Anthroplasty	£3,193	13.56			
Resurfacing Anthroplasty	£3,391	14.285	£198	0.755	£262/QALY

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER)} &= \frac{\text{Incremental cost } (\Delta C)}{\text{Incremental effect } (\Delta E)} \\ &= 198 / 0.755 \\ &= \text{£262 per additional QALY}\end{aligned}$$

Decision Tree

Strengths

- Easy to interpret
- Relatively simple to develop

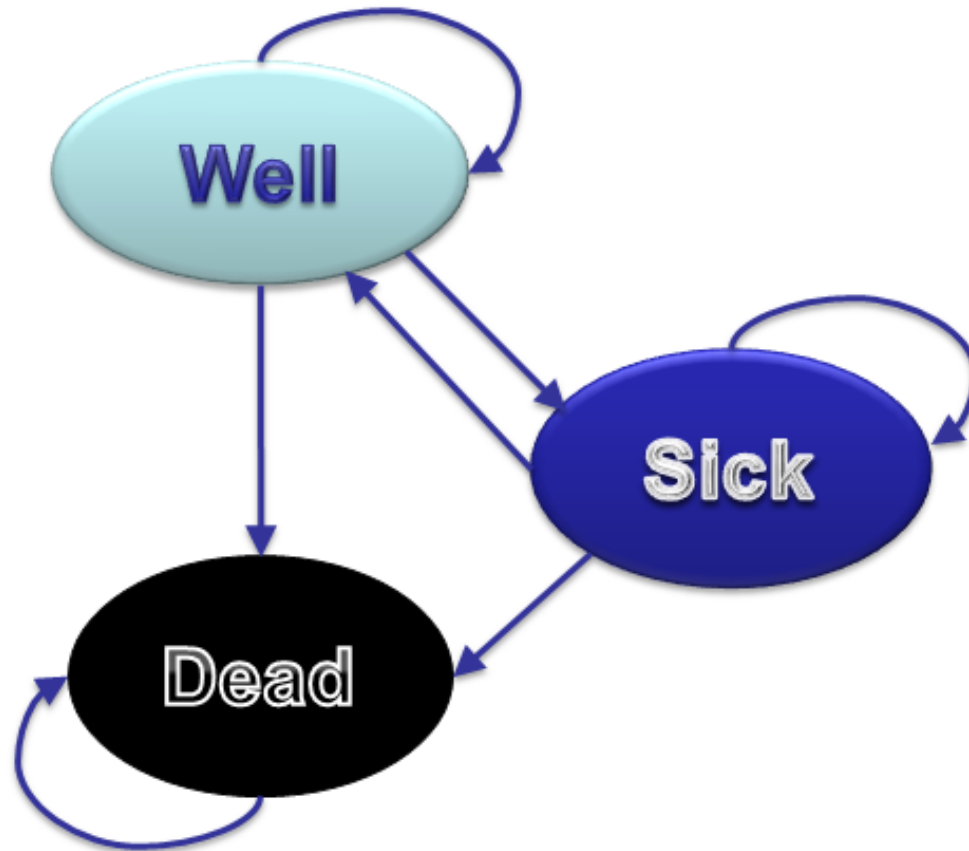
Limitations

- Cannot account for time (dynamic processes)
- Become unwieldy when dealing with reoccurring events (e.g. chronic diseases)

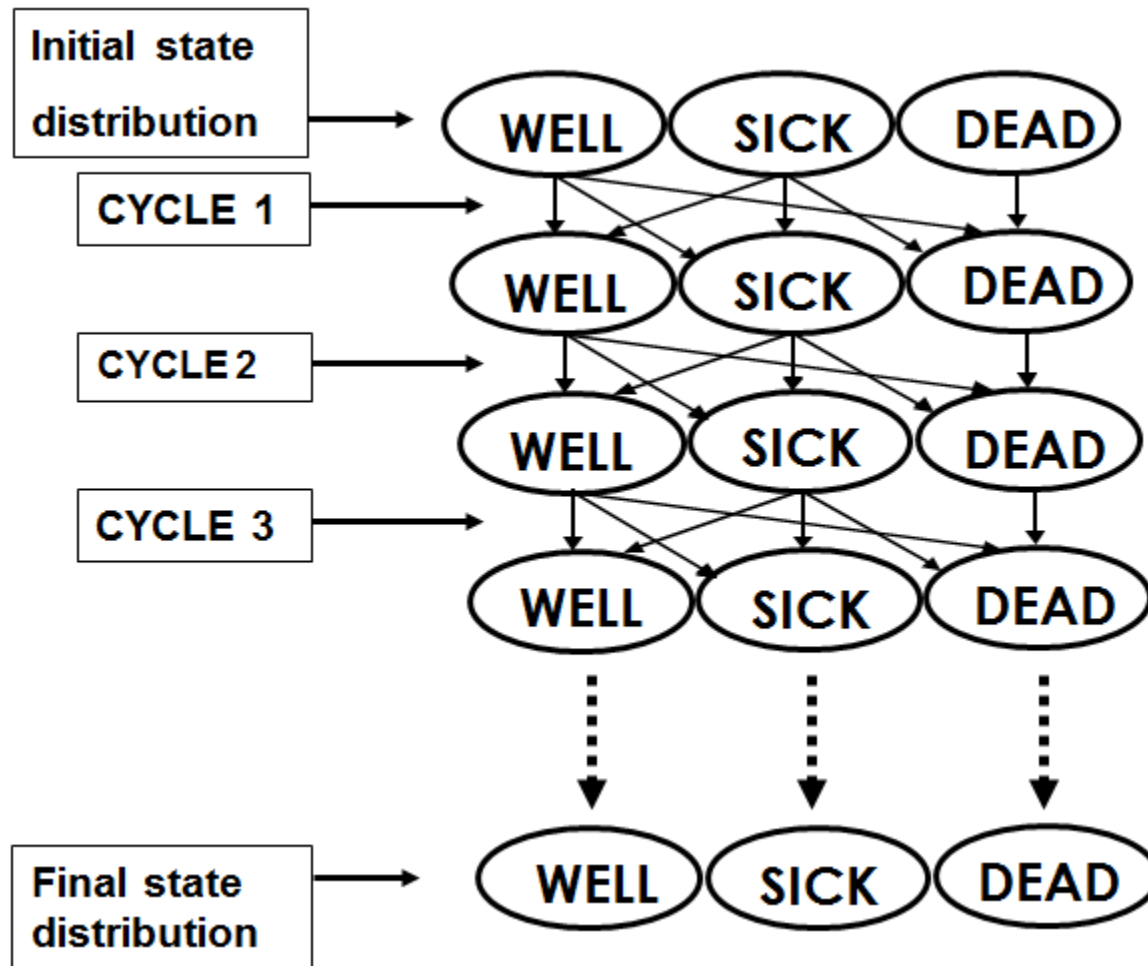
Markov model

- Also called “state-transition models”
 - Time-dependent
 - Consist of a number of mutually exclusive health states
 - At any specific time a patient is assumed to be in one of these health states for a fixed period of time – **one cycle**
 - At the end of each cycle patients move between states (or remain in the current state) according to a fixed set of probabilities

- Example of a Markov model with 3 health states:



- Example of the Markov process:



- A cost and benefit value is assigned to each health state
- At each cycle, the total costs and benefits are determined by the proportion of patients in each health state multiplied by the cost and benefit value associated with that state.
- Assume that the measure of benefit is patient utility, and in the well state utility is 1, in dead is 0, and in sick is 0.5.
- If each cycle is 1 year then 50 QALYs will be accumulated in the first cycle.

Cycle	Well	Sick	Dead	Total	Total utility	Cumulative utility
0	0	100	0	100	50	50
1	10	60	30	100	40	90
2	12	38	50	100	31	121

- A similar procedure would be carried out with costs to generate a cumulative cost column
- The cost-effectiveness is then calculated in a similar way as for the decision tree model

Markov model

Strengths

- Can deal easily with time-dependent, dynamic events
- Can deal with recurrent events
- Easy to use (as long as no. of states is manageable)

Limitations

- The Markovian assumption: The Markov model is 'memoryless' – we do not retain knowledge of which health states individuals come from.

A good decision model should...

- be populated with the most appropriate and good quality clinical data (e.g from meta-analysis)
- reflect a realistic picture of current clinical practice
- use the appropriate comparator(s)
- be run for an appropriate time period
- be valid, transparent and reproducible
- explore uncertainty
- be easily interpreted

“If they [models] were as **complex** and difficult to control as **reality** there would be no advantage in their use. Fortunately we can usually construct models that are **much simpler than reality** and still use them to **predict and explain** phenomena with a very high degree of accuracy. The reason is that although a very high number of variables may be required to predict a phenomenon with great accuracy, a small number of variables will usually account for most of it. The **trick**, of course, is to find the **right variables** and the **correct relationship** between them.”

Ackoff & Sasieni (1968)

Summary

- Models are a useful tool for extending clinical trial data, synthesising data from different sources, and assessing uncertainty
- The two main types of models are the decision tree and the Markov model
- All models are simplified representations of reality
- The 'robustness' of model results depends on the reliability of the data used, and the appropriateness of the model assumptions and structure