

COST-EFFECTIVENESS OF A 3-MONTH INTERVENTION WITH ORAL NUTRITIONAL SUPPLEMENTS IN DISEASE RELATED MALNUTRITION: A RANDOMIZED CONTROLLED PILOT STUDY

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1	COST-EFFECTIVE	ENESS OF A 3-MON	ITH INT	ERVENTION	WITH ORAL
2	NUTRITIONAL	SUPPLEMENTS	IN	DISEASE	RELATED
3	MALNUTRITION:	A RANDOMIZED CO	NTROL	LED PILOT ST	ΓUDY
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32 Abstract

Background: Nutritional intervention with oral nutritional supplements (ONS) has been shown to increase quality of life in malnourished patients. We investigated whether post-hospital supplementation with ONS is cost-effective according to international benchmarks in malnourished patients.

37 Methods: 114 malnourished patients (50.6±16.1 years, 57 female) with benign 38 gastrointestinal disease were included and randomised to receive either ONS for three 39 months and dietary counselling at discharge (intervention, n= 60) or only dietary 40 counselling at discharge (control group, n=54). Nutritional status was assessed with 41 Subjective Global Assessment. Intervention patients documented daily intake of ONS, 42 quality of life was assessed with SF-36 Health Survey and SF-36 values were 43 transformed into health-status utilities. Quality-adjusted life years (QALYs) were 44 calculated by adopting the area-under-the-curve method. We used 2 different pricing 45 scenarios for ONS (minimum price: 2.30€ and maximum: 2.93€/tetra pack). The 46 incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER) of supplementation with ONS was 47 calculated for both price scenarios. All analyses were corrected for age and gender.

48 Results: Intervention patients consumed 2.4 ± 0.8 ONS per day. Intervention and 49 control patients did not differ in their health-status utilities at baseline (0.594 ± 0.017 vs. 50 0.619 ± 0.018), but after three months the health-status utilities were significantly higher 51 in intervention patients than control patients (0.731 ± 0.015 vs. 0.671 ± 0.016 , p=0.028).

Intervention was associated with significantly higher costs (ICER: €9,497 and €12,099
/additional QALY, respectively) but deemed cost-effective according to international
thresholds (<€50,000/QALY).

55 Conclusions: Three month intervention with ONS increases quality of life in 56 malnourished patients. This treatment appears to be cost-effective according to 57 international benchmarks.

58	Keywords
59	Disease-related malnutrition, cost-effectiveness, quality of life, nutritional supplements,
60	quality of life adjusted life years
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84 Introduction

85 Disease related malnutrition remains a major challenge in hospital despite the growing 86 body of evidence demonstrating both its clinical and economical consequences. 87 Depending on the population, malnutrition affects approximately 25 to 50% of 88 hospitalized patients (Norman et al. 2008b) and is associated with higher in-hospital 89 and post-hospital mortality as well as increased morbidity. This is reflected by longer 90 length of stay in hospital, more in-hospital complications, longer convalescence 91 periods and higher non-elective readmission rates which invariably results in 92 increased costs for the health care system (Norman et al. 2008b; Russell, 2007).

93 However, although malnutrition undeniably promotes morbidity and appropriate 94 nutritional therapy is available in affluent countries, there is evidence that only a small 95 percentage of malnourished patients is receiving nutritional support (McWhirter et al., 96 1994). Moreover, disease related malnutrition is frequently already present on 97 admission and nutritional status deteriorates further during hospital stay due to 98 progression of disease, lack of awareness or education of attending staff or simply 99 adverse clinical routines (McWhirter et al., 1994). Consequently, patients are often 100 discharged in even worse nutritional or functional status than when admitted to 101 hospital. Malnutrition itself is therefore clearly associated with increased costs for the 102 health care system; hospitalized patients suffer more infectious and non-infectious 103 complications, exhibit longer stay in and more frequent readmissions to hospitals 104 whereas malnourished patients in the community have increased use of health care 105 resources (Russell et al., 2007).

106 Despite the cost burden of malnutrition and despite the growing body of evidence of 107 the clinical benefit of nutritional intervention, there is still very limited evidence of 108 economic benefit of nutritional therapy.

109	We attempted to assess the costs and the cost-effectiveness of three mont
110	intervention with oral nutritional supplements in malnourished patients in a prospectiv
111	randomised controlled trial.
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135 Methods

136 This study was conducted at the Department of Gastroenterology, Hepatology and 137 Endocrinology, Charite University Medicine between March 2004 and July 2007. 138 Patients classified malnourished according to the Subjective Global Assessment 139 (Detsky et al., 1987) (SGA B or C) and suffering from a benign gastrointestinal disease 140 were recruited and randomised to either dietary counselling alone (control group) or 141 oral nutritional supplements (ONS) in addition to dietary counselling for three months 142 after hospital discharge (intervention patients). The study protocol was approved by 143 the Ethics Committee of the University Medicine Berlin, Charite. All patients signed 144 written informed consent. The results of the study concerning impact on body 145 composition and muscle function in 80 of the study patients are published elsewhere 146 (Norman et al. 2008a), this paper focuses on the cost-effectiveness of the study; for 147 this, the original study was continued to reach a total of 120 patients.

Exclusion criteria were malignant disease, renal insufficiency (serum creatinine > 1.3 mg/dl), and life expectancy less than three months or age under 18 years.

Patients were randomised according to a computer generated randomisation list kept by a co-worker not involved in the study. Quality of life at discharge (baseline) and after three months was investigated; intake of ONS during the study period was documented by the patients; non elective readmissions during the study period were also recorded.

155 <u>Nutritional status</u>

Nutritional status was assessed according to the Subjective Global Assessment (SGA)
using the protocol developed by Detsky et al. (Detsky et al., 1987). Patients were

158 classified well nourished (A), moderately (B) or severely malnourished (C). Weight and

height were documented and used to calculate BMI (weight [kg] / height [m]²).

160 Supplementation and dietary counselling

161 Both intervention and control patients received a standard dietary counselling session 162 (45 minutes) by a registered dietician. The patients were advised how to improve their 163 protein and energy intake with normal food. The session took place in hospital within 164 48 h before hospital discharge. Intervention patients were asked to consume up to 3 165 ONS (à 200 ml) per day (Fresubin Protein Energy DRINK, Fresenius Kabi) according 166 to possibility and to record their daily intake. Patients were told to drink their 167 supplements slowly and in between meals, but were not prescribed individual ONS 168 amounts according to nutritional intake.

169 During the study period, all patients were provided with a contact person (study 170 assistant) and were actively contacted once a month.

171 Quality of life

Quality of life was assessed employing the validated Medical Outcomes Study 36-item Short-Form General Health Survey described in detail elsewhere (Ware et al., 1987). The questionnaire consists of 36 questions, is self administered and assesses quality of life and wellbeing in 8 multi item scales regarding physical functioning and perception of physical role, vitality, general and mental health, perception of emotional role, social functioning and bodily pain.

178 Economic analyses

179 The effectiveness level was measured as changes in quality of life and related to the

- 180 costs of the intervention with ONS.
- 181 Effectiveness measurement

SF-36 quality of life values were transformed into a single mean values, i.e. health state utilities, by using an algorithm developed by Brazier (Brazier et al., 2002). In a hypothetical framework, the health state utility can range from 1 (complete health) to 0 (death). In addition to the time a person lives in a specific health state, it is possible to calculate quality adjusted life years (quality of life adjusted life years, QALYs). The QALYs gained were calculated by employing the area-under-the-curve method using
 the following formula for all patients who survived during the year after study onset:

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$$QALYs_{gained for intervention group} = \left(\frac{\alpha_{Intervention} + \beta_{Intervention}}{2}\right) - \left(\frac{\alpha_{Control} + \beta_{Control}}{2}\right)$$

The analysis is based on utility values at each time point (α = baseline utility, β = utility after three months) and uses the common assumption of a linear change over time (Richardson et al. 2004) (Figure2). After the intervention period of three months, we conservatively assumed a linear decrease of intervention effects returning to baseline level 12 months after study onset.

During the three month intervention period; no fatal casualties were observed. One intervention and three control patients died after study intervention, for these patients we assumed a linear decrease in health state utilities reaching zero at the month of death. The following calculation was used for these patients (i = month of death after baseline):

200 QALYs_{deceased patients} =
$$\frac{3\alpha + \frac{3(\beta - \alpha)}{2} + \frac{\beta(i - 3)}{2}}{12}$$

For all patients, the respective area-under-the-curve reflects the quality life years experienced during the one-year period. QALYs gained for intervention group was calculated as QALY-group differences:

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206 Cost measurement

We employed two different pricing scenarios for ONS, using high and low prices ($2.93 \in$ and $2.30 \in$ per tetra pack, respectively) which are based on research of the assortment of German online pharmacies representing the highest and the lowest price per tetrapack at the time of searching (2010). The total costs of ONS were calculated by multiplying number of packages used during the study period and the price per unit in both pricing scenarios. Resource consumption in other areas was not collected within this pilot study. Data on acute readmissions to hospital were collected from our hospital system or from the patients themselves if admitted to other hospitals as dichotomous variable only (yes/no). We were therefore not able to include the readmission days in the cost analysis,

There was no need to discount any costs or effects, because the observation period was shorter than one year. The study is focused on direct intervention costs; the economic perspective taken in this study is that of German statutory health insurance systems.

221 Cost-effectiveness

We calculated the incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER, cost/QALY), by using the following relation (Claxton et al., 1999).

224
$$ICER = \frac{\text{mean costs}_{\text{Intervention}} - \text{mean costs}_{\text{Control}}}{QALYs}_{gained for intervention group}$$

225

226 The ICER can be interpreted as additional costs associated with realizing one 227 additional QALY compared to the control patients. In the UK, a threshold of 30,000 228 GBP per QALY gained is found to be consistent with decisions of adopting new 229 technologies by NICE (National Institute for Clinical Excellence) (Raftery et al. 2001). 230 In Germany, such a threshold does not yet exist, so we used a hypothetical threshold 231 of max. €50,000 per QALY originally suggested by health care economists and in 232 accordance with other German studies (Willich et al., 2006; Witt et al., 2009), due to 233 comparability within one health care system.

Further, the net benefit approach (Zethraeus et al., 2003) was used to measure the incremental cost-effectiveness against a societal threshold value λ , that is often described as society's willingness to pay for one extra QALY gained.

237 Net benefit = (QALYs_{gained for intervention group} * λ) - (mean costs Intervention – mean costs _{Control})

For a given value of λ , an intervention would be considered cost-effective if its net benefit is greater than zero or in other words, the ICER lies below λ . Thus, a new treatment should replace the existing one when the net benefit under λ is greater than zero (Lothgren et al., 2000).

To reach information on the probability of cost-effectiveness, 1,000 bootstrapped costeffectiveness results (see statistical analyses) were transformed into net benefit values under varying threshold values and then plotted in a cost-effectiveness acceptability curve.

246 Statistical analyses

Student t-test and Pearson's chi-square test was used for comparisons on sociodemographic baseline characteristics. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used for health state utilities data as well as costs. The analysis was adjusted for age and gender. Three month data were further adjusted for differences in baseline health state utilities.

To derive cost-effectiveness acceptability curves, we used non-parametric bootstrapping (Efron et al.,1979). The original sample was bootstrapped 1,000 times to obtain 1,000 means for cost and effect differences and the resulting ICERs. These bootstrap results were used to build the cost-effectiveness acceptability curves as described above. The analysis was based on intention to treat approach.

For inferential statistics, we used PASW statistics version 18.0. Bootstrap-analyses were applied using MS EXCEL[©] 2007. The predefined significance level was P < 0.05.

259 **Results**

644 consecutively admitted patients of the Dept. of Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Endocrinology, Charite University Medicine were screened, whereof 201 were eligible for the study. 160 patients were recruited for the study, whereof 120 patients completed the study, but only 114 patients (60 intervention) also provided complete SF 36 quality of life questionnaires and could therefore be included in the cost analysis (see Figure 1 for trial diagram).

Average intake was 2.4±0.8 ONS per day; three intervention patients discontinued use of ONS and two control patients reported consumption of ONS during the study period.

269 Clinical characteristics and diagnoses are given in Table 1. At baseline, intervention 270 and control patients did not differ significantly in regard to age, gender distribution, and 271 nutritional status as defined by SGA or BMI. Length of stay, co-morbidity count and 272 number of drugs on discharge were comparable between the groups. Acute 273 readmission rate during study period was significantly higher in control patients 274 compared to intervention patients. One intervention patient died six months after the 275 intervention period and three control patients died at one, five and nine months after 276 the intervention period.

277 Quality of life

Information on quality of life, costs and ICER is given in Table 2. Health status utilities were not different at baseline between intervention and control patients, but increased in both groups during the study. The mean improvement was significantly higher in intervention patients (0.128 (CI: 0.095-0.161) vs. 0.067 (CI: 0.031-0.103)), resulting in significantly higher health status utilities than control patients after three months. As shown in Figure 2, the resulting difference in QALYs (0.045) was in favour of

intervention patients. This gain can be interpreted as additional 16 days of full qualityof life per year.

286 <u>Costs</u>

The mean costs were calculated for both price scenarios and are presented in Table 288 2. The mean costs in our intervention group were \in 561.42 in the high price and 289 \notin 440.71 in the low price scenario. Since two control patients also received oral 290 nutritional supplements, the costs in this group were between \notin 21.56 and \notin 16.89, 291 respectively. The additional costs were between \notin 540.16 and \notin 424.02 according to 292 cost scenario.

293

294 <u>Cost-effectiveness</u>

295 Depending on the price scenario the calculation is based on, the ICER was between 296 €9,497 (low price scenario) and €12,099 per additional QALY (high price scenario). 297 Figure 3 shows the results of our 1,000 bootstrap samples. Approximately 95% of the 298 results are located in the upper right hand quadrant of the cost-effectiveness-plane, 299 showing intervention with ONS is more effective and more costly than dietary 300 counselling alone. Otherwise, the bootstrap results further indicate the remaining 301 bootstrap-samples (5%) as more expensive but not more effective. The overall 302 probability that the intervention is cost-effective (cost per additional QALY lower than 303 the society's willingness to pay) was approximating 89.9% (high price scenario) resp. 304 91.5% for the assumed threshold value of €50,000 (Figure 4). Assuming the 305 willingness to pay would be lower than the assumed €50,000, the probability of cost-306 effectiveness will also decrease.

308 **Discussion**

309

In this prospective pilot study, we have shown that three month nutritional supplementation with ONS increases quality of life in malnourished patients with benign gastrointestinal disease and that the intervention appears to be cost-effective according to international thresholds.

314 There is evidence that early and adequate treatment of malnutrition is fundamental for 315 improving patients' prognosis and wellbeing and international evidence-based 316 guidelines have been developed to standardize nutritional therapy (Lochs et al., 2006). 317 Several clinical trials have shown that supplementation with oral nutritional 318 supplements are beneficial in the perioperative setting (Beattie et al. 2000; Smedley et 319 al. 2004). However, the impact on clinical routine still remains moderate. This has 320 been attributed to low awareness and poor education (McWhirter et al., 1994) as well 321 as resistance to change, high workload, limited resources and slow administrative 322 processes (Jones et al., 2007) Although various studies have demonstrated that 323 disease related malnutrition is associated with major costs for the health care system. 324 few studies have investigated cost-effectiveness of nutritional therapy (Darmon et al., 325 2008; Russell, 2009). Within the current climate of cost constraint in health care, 326 however, evidence of economic benefit of nutritional interventions is necessary to 327 convince health administrators and thereby contribute to promote and implement 328 nutritional therapy in clinical routine.

Russell et al summarized results of studies on costs of ONS in hospital and community. Pooled results from the studies in abdominal and orthopaedic surgery as well as elderly revealed net cost savings per patient both in term of inpatient stay and complications (Russell 2007). Enteral and oral immunonutrition has also been associated with reduced postoperative complication rates and thus substantially reduced treatment costs in patients undergoing major abdominal surgery (Senkal et

335 al., 1999) or cancer surgery (Braga et al., 2005) despite higher costs of the product. In 336 nursing homes, offering snacks has been shown to be associated with greater cost-337 effectiveness than intervention with ONS (Simmons et al., 2010). In patients with 338 cerebrovascular events, long term home enteral tube feeding was also shown to be 339 cost-effective (Elia & Stratton, 2008). Varying but mostly high cost-effectiveness has 340 also been demonstrated in the field of life style intervention and obesity and diabetes 341 prevention programmes as summarized by Dalziel et al (Dalziel & Segal, 2007). 342 Different settings and specific forms of nutritional therapy are prone to be associated 343 with different cost-effectiveness scenarios. In our malnourished study population with 344 benign gastrointestinal disease, nutritional therapy was a supportive measure in order 345 to accelerate improvement of nutritional and functional status. The intervention was 346 found to be cost-effective from the point of view of the German statutory health 347 insurance systems; nevertheless, some potential limitations resulting from the design 348 of economic evaluation must be kept in mind while interpreting the results of our study. 349 Since we only considered direct costs of the intervention, the intervention was 350 associated with significantly higher costs than the control arm. Further costs such as 351 medication, rehospitalisation, use of other health care resources or indirect costs were 352 not included in the pilot study design. Our findings do therefore not allow conclusions 353 about potential additional expenses in other areas of health care. However, 354 considering the significantly higher readmission rate in the control group, it is likely that 355 cost-impact in favour of ONS would have been greater if all costs had been included. 356 Another uncertainty arises from the methodology of QALY calculation: in consistency 357 with other studies (Willich et al., 2006; Witt et al., 2009) we conservatively assumed 358 that quality of life would decrease in a linear way after nutritional intervention returning 359 to baseline level 12 months after study onset. Data on quality of life was only available 360 at month 6 in 60% of patients after study intervention, due to loss of follow up. Patients

361 were asked to send in the questionnaires at month 6, but not all questionnaires were 362 correctly filled out and could be evaluated. Sum scales of the SF 36 quality of life 363 questionnaire, however, did not differ significantly between month 3 (end of 364 intervention period) and month 6 (data not shown) in intervention and control patients. 365 We still used a very cautious approach to interpret the further development of quality 366 of life in order not to overestimate effects. Theoretically, quality of life could however 367 have remained stable throughout the subsequent six months or immediately dropped 368 to baseline, which would affect the area-under-the-curve and thus the QALY 369 calculation.

370 In general, a number of factors can further limit the transferability of cost-of-illness 371 study results from one country to another (Reinhold et al., 2010). It is well known that 372 e.g. individual patient characteristics have at least indirect influence on resource use 373 and induced costs. Examples include socioeconomic or demographic factors, both of 374 which may exhibit systematic country-specific differences. Differences in design and 375 organisation of healthcare systems are further factors that may limit the transferability 376 of study results. It is important to keep in mind that problems related to transferability 377 affect the interpretation of international health economic findings. Since our results 378 cannot indiscriminately be translated into other settings and other countries, further 379 studies are needed to contribute to the evidence of cost utility of nutritional therapy.

When considering economic benefit of nutritional therapy, economic perspective has to be taken into account. Restricted to direct intervention costs, we concluded ONS to be a cost-effective intervention from the German statutory health insurance perspective. This conclusion is further supported by the reduced rehospitalisation rate in our intervention patients. Whereas reducing the number of inpatient stays is attractive from the point of health insurance systems, for a single hospital centre artificial nutrition might, however, be considered a potential economic burden through

increased resource consumption. These different viewpoints reveal a basic problem in health policies. It seems necessary to find incentives for inpatient care providers to decide on a special treatment, although this might not appear to be economically useful from their point of view.

In conclusion, we have shown that nutritional intervention with ONS increases quality of life in malnourished patients and, for the German health care system, our study provides evidence that use of ONS in malnourished patients is a cost-effective investment resulting in good value for money.

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- 399 Conflict of interest
- 400 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest concerning this paper.

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486	Figure legends
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488 489	Figure 1: Trial diagram of patients from inclusion to analysis
490 491 492 493	Figure 2: Concept of quality adjusted life years (the area-under-the-curves can be interpreted as the quality adjusted life years associated with intervention or control strategy)
494 495 496	Figure 2: Cost-effectiveness plane of n=1,000 bootstrap samples (each for both scenarios)
490 497	Figure 3: Cost-effectiveness acceptability curves
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Table 1: Clinical characteristics of study patients at baseline and readmissions during

the intervention period

	Intervention group	Control group	P-value
Age [years]	50.6±15.3	50.9±15.9	n.s.
Diagnoses			
IBD Liver disease Biliary disease Pancreatic disease Gastritis others	21 16 6 4 9	17 16 3 4 7 7	n.s.
BMI [kg/m²]	21±3.9	21.9±3.7	n.s.
Gender distribution [m/f]	27/33	30/24	n.s.
Severity of malnutrition (SGA B/SGA C)	29/31	34/20	n.s.
Length of hospital stay [days]	17.2±14.8	14±9.6	n.s.
Comorbidity count [n]	5±3.6	4.6±3.1	n.s.
Number of drugs/d	5±2.8	3.9±2.4	n.s.
CRP [mg/dl]	2.63±3.50	2.27±2.54	n.s.
Readmissions within intervention period	17	26	0.029

538 539 540 Abbr. IBD: inflammatory bowel disease, SGA : subjective global assessment, CRP: C-reactive Protein

- Table 2: Costs, quality of life and incremental cost effectiveness in the study population

	High price scenario	Low price scenario
Costs (Euro))	
Intervention	561.42 (513.77 to 609.08)	440.71 (403.30 to 478.12)
Control	21.56 (0 to 72.70)	16.89 (0 to 57.07)
Difference	540.16 (468.39 to 611.94)	424.02 (367.68 to 480.36)
P-value	≤0.001	≤0.001
Utilties		
baseline		
Intervention	0.594 (0.556 to 0.632)	
Control	0.619 (0.579 to 0.659)	
P-value	n.s.	
3 months afte	er study onset	
Intervention	0.731 (0.698 to 0.764)	
Control	0.671 (0.635 to 0.706)	
P-value	0.022	
Quality of L	ife adjusted Life Years	
Intervention	0.659 (0.643 to 0.676)	
Control	0.615 (0.597 to 0.633)	
Difference	0.045 (QALYs gained for intervention)	
P-value	0.003	
ICER (cost	s to reach one QALY gained due	to the intervention) (Euro)
	12.000	0.407



Figure 1



Figure 2





Cost differences in Euro (costs_intervention - costs_controls)





Societies willingness to pay (in Euro) for one additional QALY compared to control patients

Figure 4