

General Methods^a

Version 5.0 of 10 July 2017

^a This translation is based on the German document *Allgemeine Methoden* (Version 5.0) of 10 July 2017. Please note: The translation is provided as a service by IQWiG to English-language readers. However, solely the German original text is absolutely authoritative and legally binding. You can find the current German version on www.iqwig.de.

Address of publisher:

Institut für Qualität und Wirtschaftlichkeit im Gesundheitswesen
Im Mediapark 8
50670 Köln
Germany

Tel.: +49 221 35685-0

Fax: +49 221 35685-1

E-Mail: methoden@iqwig.de

Internet: www.iqwig.de

Preamble

The Institute for Quality and Efficiency in Health Care (IQWiG^b) is an establishment of the Foundation for Quality and Efficiency in Health Care. IQWiG is a professionally independent scientific institute. Information on the structure and organization of the Foundation and the Institute is available on the website www.iqwig.de.

The *General Methods* explain the legal and scientific basis of the Institute. Its tasks are described in this document, as are the scientific tools applied in the preparation of its products. Hence, the Institute's methods paper provides an important contribution towards transparency in the Institute's mode of operation.

The *General Methods* are primarily directed at researchers. In order to make the information on the Institute's mode of operation accessible to as many interested persons as possible, the authors have aimed to produce a comprehensible document. However, as with any scientific text, a certain level of prior knowledge on the topic is assumed.

The *General Methods* aim to describe the Institute's procedures in a general manner. What specific individual steps the Institute undertakes in the assessment of specific medical interventions depend, among other things, on the research question posed and the available scientific evidence. The *General Methods* should therefore be regarded as a kind of framework. How the assessment process is designed in individual cases is presented in detail for each specific project.

The Institute's methods are usually reviewed annually with regard to any necessary revisions, unless errors in the document or relevant developments necessitate prior updating. Project-specific methods are defined on the basis of the methods version valid at that time. If changes are made to the general methodological procedures during the course of a project, then it will be assessed whether project-specific procedures need to be modified accordingly. In order to continuously further develop and improve its mode of operation, the Institute presents its *General Methods* for public discussion. This applies to the currently valid version, as well as to drafts of future versions.

^b Institut für Qualität und Wirtschaftlichkeit im Gesundheitswesen

What is new?

In comparison with Version 4.2 of the Institute's *General Methods* of 22 April 2015, in Version 5.0, minor errors were corrected and editorial changes made. The following changes to content were made:

- amendments on HTA reports according to §139b (5) Social Code Book (SGB) V in Section 1.1
- abandonment of regular new publication of the report plan after a hearing if no change of the planned methodological procedure was necessary, as well as amendment in certain cases of the variant of the production of a report without a hearing on the report plan in Section 2.1.1
- amendments on the assessments according to §137h SGB V in Sections 2.1, 3.4, 3.8 and Chapter 8
- amendment of Section 2.1.6 on assessments according to §137h SGB V
- amendment of Section 2.1.10 on health technology assessment (HTA) reports according to §139b (5) SGB V,
- amendment of Section 2.2.1 about the involvement of affected persons in the production of IQWiG products
- shifting of notes on the commenting procedure from Section 2.1.1 to the new section 2.2.5
- amendment of Section 2.2.7 about the provision of scientific advice to study sponsors
- amendment in Section 3.1.4 on proof from one study
- amendment in Section 3.5 on the benefit assessment of diagnostic tests
- amendment in Section 3.6 on the recording of overdiagnoses
- amendment in Section 3.8 on the principles of the assessment regarding the determination of a potential
- thorough revision of Chapter 5 on guideline synopses and health care analysis
- amendment of Chapter 6 on HTA reports according to §139b (5) SGB V
- thorough revision of Chapter 7 on health information
- thorough revision of Chapter 8 on information retrieval
- update of Chapter 9.1.4 on aspects of the assessment of the risk of bias
- merging and update of the previous sections on subgroup analyses for the new Section 9.3.10
- update of Section 9.3.8 on meta-analyses

- update of Section 9.3.9 on indirect comparisons
- amendment of Section 9.3.13 on dependent data
- update of Section 9.4 on qualitative methods

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List of abbreviations

| Abbreviation | Definition |
|---------------------|--|
| AGREE | Appraisal of Guidelines Research and Evaluation in Europe |
| AHP | analytic hierarchy process |
| AMNOG | Arzneimittelmarktneuordnungsgesetz (Act on the Reform of the Market for Medicinal Products) |
| AMSTAR | A Measurement Tool to Assess Systematic Reviews |
| ANV | AM-NutzenV. Arzneimittel-Nutzenbewertungsverordnung (Regulation for Early Benefit Assessment of New Pharmaceuticals) |
| BIA | budget impact analysis |
| CA | conjoint analysis |
| CONSORT | Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials |
| DMP | disease management programme |
| DRG | Diagnosis-related groups |
| EBM | evidence-based medicine |
| EMA | European Medicines Agency |
| EU-CTR | EU Clinical Trials Register |
| FDA | Food and Drug Administration |
| G-BA | Gemeinsamer Bundesausschuss (Federal Joint Committee) |
| GoR | grade of recommendation |
| GRADE | Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation Working Group |
| HEE | health economic evaluation |
| HTA | health technology assessment |
| ICTRP | International Clinical Trials Registry Platform Search Portal |
| IPD | individual patient data |
| IQR | interquartile range |
| IQWiG | Institut für Qualität und Wirtschaftlichkeit im Gesundheitswesen (Institute for Quality and Efficiency in Health Care) |
| ISPOR | International Society for Pharmacoeconomics and Outcomes Research |
| ITT | intention to treat |
| LoE | level of evidence |
| NHB | net health benefit |
| NICE | National Institute for Health and Care Excellence |
| PRESS | Peer Review of Electronic Search Strategies |

| Abbreviation | Definition |
|---------------------|--|
| PRISMA | Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses |
| PRO | patient-reported outcome |
| PSA | probabilistic sensitivity analysis |
| QALY | quality-adjusted life year |
| RCT | randomized controlled trial |
| ROBIS | Risk of Bias in Systematic Reviews |
| SGB V | Sozialgesetzbuch – Fünftes Buch – Gesetzliche Krankenversicherung (Social Code Book – Book V – Statutory Health Insurance) |
| SHI | statutory health insurance |
| STE | surrogate threshold effect |
| WHO | World Health Organization |

A chief cause of poverty in science is mostly imaginary wealth. The aim of science is not to open a door to infinite wisdom but to set a limit to infinite error.

Bertolt Brecht. Life of Galileo. Frankfurt: Suhrkamp. World premiere, first version, Zurich theatre, 1943.

1 The Institute for Quality and Efficiency in Health Care

1.1 Legal responsibilities

The Institute was founded within the framework of the German Health Care Reform of 2004 [158] as an establishment of the Foundation for Quality and Efficiency in Health Care. The legal basis and responsibilities of the Institute have been anchored in Social Code Book Fifth Book – Statutory Health Insurance (SGB V¹) [2] and adapted and extended several times in the course of further health care reforms. More information on the Institute's structure and organization is available on the website www.iqwig.de.

The Institute addresses issues of fundamental relevance for the quality and efficiency of statutory health insurance (SHI) services. Its specific responsibilities are outlined in detail in §139a SGB V:

- search for, assessment and presentation of current scientific evidence on diagnostic and therapeutic procedures for selected diseases
- preparation of scientific reports, expert opinions, and comments on quality and efficiency issues of SHI services, taking age, gender, and personal circumstances into account
- appraisal of evidence-based clinical practice guidelines on the most relevant diseases from an epidemiological point of view
- issue of recommendations on disease management programmes (DMPs)
- assessment of the benefit and cost of drugs
- provision of easily understandable information for all patients and consumers on the quality and efficiency of health care services, as well as on the diagnosis and treatment of diseases of substantial epidemiological relevance
- involvement in international projects on the collaboration and further development in the field of evidence-based medicine (EBM)

¹ Sozialgesetzbuch: regulates the statutory health care services.

The modalities of the commissioning and performance of tasks are specified in §139b SGB V. According to this law, only the Federal Joint Committee (G-BA²) or the Federal Ministry of Health³ may commission the Institute. In the case of commissioning by the Ministry, the Institute can reject a commission as unfounded, unless the Ministry funds the project.

The Institute must ensure that external experts are involved in the work on commissions. In order to ensure the Institute's scientific independence, these experts are required to disclose all connections to associations and contract organizations, particularly in the pharmaceutical and medical devices industries, including details on the type and amount of any remuneration received (see Section 2.2.3).

The Institute submits the results of the work on commissions awarded by the G-BA to this body in the form of recommendations. According to the law, the G-BA must consider these recommendations in its decision-making processes.

The Institute is largely funded by contributions of SHI members. For this purpose, a levy is determined by the G-BA in accordance with §139c SGB V. This levy is paid by all German medical practices and hospitals treating SHI-insured patients.

Within the framework of the Act on the Reform of the Market for Medicinal Products (AMNOG⁴), at the beginning of 2011, the Institute's responsibilities were extended to the assessment of the benefit of drugs with new active ingredients shortly after market entry [159]. For this purpose, manufacturers must submit dossiers summarizing the results of studies. The G-BA is responsible for this "early benefit assessment"; however, it may commission the Institute or third parties to examine and assess the dossiers.

The new regulations in §35a SGB V are the basis for these assessments. They are supplemented by a legal decree of the Federal Ministry of Health [94], which has also been effective since the beginning of 2011, and the G-BA's Code of Procedure [251].

In connection with a benefit assessment, the G-BA can also commission the Institute to conduct a health economic evaluation (HEE). The framework of these HEEs is specified in §35b SGB V and §139a SGB V.

² Gemeinsamer Bundesausschuss: The G-BA is the decision-making body of the self-government of the German health care system. More information on the Committee's responsibilities is provided at <http://www.english.g-ba.de>.

³ Bundesministerium für Gesundheit, BMG

⁴ Arzneimittelmarktneuordnungsgesetz

In this context, cost-effectiveness ratios of medical technologies are compared with the aim of providing information on the basis of which the appropriateness and reasonableness of cost coverage by the community of SHI insurants can be considered.

The HEE itself is based on a comparison with other drug or non-drug interventions. In particular, the following criteria to determine the benefit for patients are named in the law: increase in life expectancy, improvement in health status and quality of life (QoL), and reduction in disease duration and adverse effects. The definition of a “patient-relevant benefit” valid for the Institute is inferred from the above specifications in the law (see Section 3.1).

Within the framework of the Structure of Health Care Act, in 2012 changes were made to §137c SGB V and §137e SGB V was added. This gives the G-BA the option to initiate clinical studies on new examination and treatment methods (testing), provided that the benefit of a method has not yet been sufficiently proven but its potential as a necessary treatment alternative can be recognized. External applicants (e.g. manufacturers of medical devices) can also apply for a testing procedure by submitting informative documents to the G-BA on the potential of the method. The determination of the potential of a method is the responsibility of the G-BA, which has specified criteria for this purpose [251]. The G-BA usually commissions the Institute to evaluate testing applications according to §137e (7) SGB V in view of whether a potential of the method can be inferred from the application documents.

With the Promotion of Health Care Act, in 2015 an assessment of new examination and treatment methods⁵ with high-risk medical devices was introduced via §137h SGB V. This assessment refers to methods that a) follow a new theoretical-scientific concept [95,251], b) are particularly invasive [95,251], and c) lead to a first request according to §6 of the Hospital Reimbursement Act (“NUB⁷ request”). The G-BA receives documents on such methods from hospitals and medical device manufacturers. The G-BA generally commissions the Institute to assess documents according to §137h SGB V in respect of whether a benefit or a potential can be recognized in them.

Due to the Promotion of Health Care Act, in 2015 §139b SGB V was extended by Paragraph 5. §139b (5) SGB V specifies that insured persons and other interested individuals can propose assessments of medical examination and treatment methods for selected diseases as well as assessments of questions of the quality and efficiency of services provided within the framework of SHI. According to §139b (5) SGB V, this excludes topic proposals where the focus is on the separate assessment of a drug. It is IQWiG’s task to select topics from these proposals that are particularly important for the health care of patients and for which

⁵ Neue Untersuchungs- und Behandlungsmethoden, NUB

health technology assessment (HTA) reports commissioned by IQWiG are then produced (see Chapter 6).

According to §139a (4) Sentence 1 SGB V, the Institute is legally obliged to ensure the “assessment of the medical benefit [of interventions] following the internationally recognized standards of evidence-based medicine and the economic evaluation following the relevant internationally recognized standards for this purpose, in particular of health economics”. Depending on the commission, the Institute determines the methods and criteria for the preparation of assessments on the basis of the international standards of evidence-based medicine (EBM) and health economics recognized by the relevant experts. The term “evidence-based medicine”, its development and the underlying concept are described in detail in Section 1.2. The term “health economics” and the underlying concept are described in detail in Section 1.3.

During the preparation of its reports, the Institute ensures the high transparency of procedures and appropriate involvement of third parties. In all important phases of report preparation, the law obliges the Institute to provide the opportunity of comment to experts, manufacturers and relevant organizations representing the interests of patients and self-help groups of chronically ill and disabled persons, as well as to the Federal Government Commissioner for Patients’ Affairs. The Institute goes beyond this obligation by allowing all interested persons and institutions the opportunity to submit comments on its reports, and considers these comments in its assessments.

The implementation of these regulations is described in Section 2.1.1 in connection with the production of report plans (protocols) and preliminary reports.

In addition, the Institute publishes the results of its work and supplementary information on its publicly accessible website. Those interested can also subscribe to the Institute’s e-mail service (info service), where subscribers themselves can specify what type of information they would like to receive from the Institute.

1.2 Evidence-based medicine

EBM refers to patient health care that is not only based on opinions and consensus, but considers evidence – i.e. proof (e.g. of the benefit of a medical intervention) determined with the most objective scientific methods possible. EBM comprises tools and strategies designed to safeguard against false decisions and false expectations. In this context, a false decision can mean that beneficial interventions are not implemented in health care (or implemented with delay), or that useless or even harmful interventions are widely applied [20,215,280,281].

However, tools designed to prevent subjective (and therefore often biased) assessments (see also Chapter 7) were not first invented with the introduction of the term EBM, but originated decades ago. In Germany, as early as 1932 Paul Martini described the main elements of a fair assessment of drug effectiveness in his monograph *Methodology of Therapeutic Studies* [455].

In the early 1960s, the method of randomly allocating study participants to comparator groups (randomization) in order to assess the effectiveness and safety of medical interventions became the internationally accepted standard [326]. Starting in the United States, in this period this type of study became the precondition for the approval of drugs and (in some cases) medical devices regulated by authorities, legislation and other regulations [37]. About 20 years later, clinical epidemiologists attempted to establish this methodology in clinical practice [221]. Accompanied at times by serious controversy, this was not actually achieved until the 1990s, at the same time as the concept was defined as EBM. Since this time, clinical studies and the systematic search for and assessment of these studies (systematic reviews) have formed the basis of the international scientific standard for HTAs [35].

EBM is not a rigid concept: which standard tool is to be applied, and when, depends on the question to be answered and the decision to be made. Despite the application of standards, decisions for which no international specifications are (as yet) available have to be made repeatedly in the search for, and the processing and assessment of studies. EBM also includes the freedom to define one's own specifications in such situations. However, this freedom is linked to the obligation to define such specifications preferably a priori, and to explain assessments in a transparent manner, so that the rationale is comprehensible. The following sections explain that in the implementation of EBM and the definition of specifications, an institution such as IQWiG is in a different situation from clinicians seeking support for a treatment decision.

1.2.1 Practical evidence-based medicine

The EBM concept is a strategy for physicians who, from a range of possible interventions, seek the most promising alternatives suited best to the needs of their patients, and who aim to offer prospects of success in an objective manner. This implementation of EBM in daily clinical practice for individual patients was defined by David Sackett et al. [559] as follows: "EBM is the conscientious, explicit and judicious use of current best evidence in making decisions about the care of the individual patient. It means integrating individual clinical expertise with the best available external clinical evidence from systematic research" (1996).

However, the "best available evidence" is often incomplete or unreliable. EBM has developed instruments to assess uncertainty; evidence levels are often used for illustration. In this way, EBM helps physicians and patients to recognize the type and degree of uncertainty; they can then discuss how to deal with this. Especially in uncertain situations, personal preferences are important and determine what option patients choose. Apart from being based on evidence, decisions are also ideally based on the clinical condition and circumstances of the individual patient, as well as on his or her preferences and actions [313]. At the same time, the description of the identified gaps in knowledge creates the precondition for medical research targeted towards patients' needs.

EBM is based on a critical approach [394]. The importance of scepticism is underlined by the fact that over the past few decades, several insufficiently tested but widely applied therapies

have been assessed with EBM methods; these assessments have shown that a hasty, overoptimistic approach to a new intervention can have dangerous consequences for patients [183,540]. It is the Institute's task to assess objectively with what certainty the benefit of medical interventions has been demonstrated, in order to counter inappropriate judgements.

1.2.2 The relevance of evidence-based medicine for the Institute

The Institute's main task is to provide the most reliable answer possible to the question specified by the contracting agency as to whether evidence is available of the benefits or harms from an intervention. The aim is to present sufficiently reliable proof that "Treatment A" is better for patients than "Alternative B" for a specific disease. In short: What is the benefit of A compared with B?

The Institute's remit is therefore intentionally not aimed towards treating individual patients with their potential specific characteristics, but towards determining for which patient groups proof of a benefit of an intervention is available. In its decisions, the G-BA then considers aspects of patient care that are beyond the scope of a benefit assessment [251].

1.2.3 Strategies of evidence-based medicine

A characteristic standard element of EBM is the structured and systematic approach to the search for a response to a medical question:

- 1) The medical question must be worded precisely. Medicine (nearly) always deals with the choice between at least 2 alternatives. This can refer to treatments, diagnostic tests or complex changes in life style. From this, the following question is always inferred: Is Option A better than Option B? In this context, the decision not to undergo treatment can also be an option that should be thoroughly reviewed. However, it should be stressed that such an option (e.g. watchful waiting) is not the same as doing nothing.
- 2) It must be defined how the benefit of treatment (or diagnosis or lifestyle change) should be measured. A standard element of EBM is the question about relevant consequences for patients: Can life expectancy be increased? Can symptoms and quality of life be improved?
- 3) In EBM it is explicitly noted that in medicine, only probability statements or only conclusions about groups of patients are usually possible with regard to the benefit of treatment, diagnostic procedures, or lifestyle changes. Benefit is demonstrated by showing that an intervention increases the probability of a beneficial outcome and/or reduces the risk of a non-beneficial outcome. In order to prove the benefit of an intervention, studies in sufficiently large groups of suitable patients are required. International researchers have developed a range of rules and tools for the planning, conduct, and analysis of such studies. The most important aim is to minimize (or, if this is impossible, at least document) factors that can distort the results of a comparison. The effects of such confounding factors are referred to as "bias". The rules and tools that are internationally

accepted as the prevailing standard, and are under continuous development, are the methodological basis of EBM and the Institute's work.

- 4) A further key EBM strategy is to identify all "appropriate" studies (i.e. whose design and conduct are of appropriate quality) on a question and, in this way, to summarize the reliable evidence available. In this context, if large differences are shown between the results of individual studies (heterogeneity), an attempt should be made to explain them. The findings of these summaries and assessments are referred to as systematic reviews; the statistical analyses are referred to as meta-analyses.

1.2.4 The relevance of certainty of results

A specific characteristic of EBM is that it allows assessment as to what extent the available evidence is reliable. Decisions made by the G-BA must be based on highly reliable scientific evidence, as they have far-reaching consequences for all SHI members (e.g. exclusion of services from reimbursement).

The assessment of the certainty of results therefore plays a key role in the Institute's reports. Numerous details on how studies are planned, conducted, analysed, and published have an impact on how reliable the available results are. It is an international EBM standard to test and assess these aspects critically. However, how the certainty of results needed to answer a question can be achieved also depends on the disease and on the effect size of an intervention: If 2 athletes pass the finishing line of a fair race with a great distance between them, no stopwatch is needed to identify the winner. For example, the benefit of a new therapy that results in the cure of a previously always fatal disease can be proven by a relatively small number of surviving patients. In this case, the judgement is also ultimately based on a comparison, but in interventions with such dramatic effects, the comparison between historical and current patients may already provide sufficient certainty. However, therapies that show such dramatic benefits are very rare in modern medicine.

In chronically ill patients in particular, differences between 2 therapy alternatives are mostly smaller and may be easily confounded by a fluctuant course of disease. In these cases, precise methods and appropriate study designs are required in order to be able to recognize therapy effects under such fluctuations.

It can be assumed that the Institute will be specifically commissioned to compare such interventions where it is not immediately recognizable which alternative will be more beneficial. However, the smaller the expected differences between 2 alternatives are, the more reliable the studies must be in order to be sufficiently certain that an observed effect is not caused by chance or measurement errors (a world record in a 100 metre race can no longer be measured with an hourglass). In the event of small differences, their clinical relevance must also be judged.

The following requirements for precision and reliability determine the Institute's mode of operation:

- 1) For every question investigated, it is an international EBM standard to specify the study type (measuring tool) that minimizes the risk of unjustifiably discriminating against one of the alternatives.
- 2) The Institute's assessments on the benefits and harms of interventions are therefore normally based only on studies with sufficient certainty of results. This ensures that the decisions made by the G-BA, which are based on the Institute's recommendations, are supported by a sound scientific foundation. Moreover, an assessment that includes a literature search for studies with insufficient certainty of results would be costly and time consuming.
- 3) If it emerges that studies of the required quality and precision are generally lacking, it is the core task of the Institute to describe the circumstances and conclude that on the basis of the "currently best available" evidence, it is not possible to make reliable recommendations.
- 4) It is the G-BA's responsibility to take this uncertainty into account in its decision-making processes. In addition to considering scientific evidence, the G-BA also considers other aspects in its decisions, such as the efficiency of interventions as well as the needs and values of people [271]. In an uncertain scientific situation, such aspects become more important. In addition, the G-BA also has the option to call for or initiate studies in order to close the evidence gaps identified.

1.2.5 The connection between certainty of results and proximity to everyday conditions

The great value placed on the assessment of the certainty of results is often criticized. One argument is that studies with a high certainty of results (especially randomized controlled trials, RCTs) may have high internal validity, but often do not represent patient care under everyday conditions, and are therefore not transferable, i.e. have only low external validity. In this context it must be examined how well the patient population investigated in the studies, the interventions applied, and the outcome criteria analysed are in accordance with everyday conditions in health care. This criticism is then often connected to the call to include other study types without randomization, in order to better consider everyday conditions.

However, this criticism conflates levels of arguments that should be clearly separated. The following aspects should be taken into account:

- 1) The basis of a benefit assessment is the demonstration of causality. An indispensable precondition for such a demonstration is a comparative experiment, which has to be designed in such a way that a difference between intervention groups – an effect – can be ascribed to a single determining factor – the intervention tested. This goal requires considerable efforts in clinical trials, as there are numerous confounding factors that feign

or mask effects (bias). The strongest of these distorting influences are unequal baseline conditions between comparator groups. Randomization (together with careful concealment) is currently the best available tool to minimize this type of bias. Random allocation of participants to groups ensures that there are no systematic differences between groups, neither regarding known factors (e.g. age, gender, disease severity), nor unknown factors. For this reason, RCTs provide a basic precondition for the demonstration of causality. However, randomization alone does not guarantee high certainty of results. To achieve this, the unbiased assessment, summarization and publication of results, for example, are also required.

- 2) Study types other than RCTs are usually not suited to demonstrate causality. In non-randomized comparative studies, as a matter of principle structural equality of groups cannot be assumed. They therefore always provide a potentially biased result and mostly cannot answer with sufficient certainty the relevant question as to whether a difference observed is caused by the intervention tested. The use of non-randomized studies as proof of the causality of an intervention therefore requires particular justification or specific preconditions and special demands on quality.
- 3) It is correct that many randomized studies do not reflect aspects of everyday patient care, for example, by excluding patients with accompanying diseases that are common in everyday life. However, this is not a consequence of the randomization technique, but of other factors (e.g. definition of narrow inclusion and exclusion criteria for the study, choice of interventions or outcome criteria). In addition, patients in randomized studies are often cared for differently (more intensively and more closely) than in everyday practice. However, these are intentional decisions made by those persons who wish to answer a specific question in a study. Dispensing with randomization does not change these decisions. There is also a selection of participants in non-randomized studies through inclusion and exclusion criteria and other potential design characteristics, so that external validity is not given per se in this study type any more than in RCTs.
- 4) Even if patient groups in an RCT differ from everyday health care, this does not mean the external validity of study results must be questioned. The decisive issue is in fact whether it is to be expected that a therapy effect determined in a population varies in a different population.
- 5) It depends on the individual case how the intensity of care provided in a study influences outcomes. For example, it is conceivable that a benefit of an intervention actually exists only if patients are cared for by specially qualified physicians, as under everyday conditions too many complications may otherwise occur. However, it is also possible that intensified care of patients is more likely to reduce differences between groups. For example, differences in treatment adherence may be smaller in studies where, as a matter of principle, patients are cared for intensively.
- 6) However, the initiators of a clinical trial are responsible for the specification of study conditions. They can define research questions and outcomes rated as so relevant that they

should be investigated in a study. If, for example, a drug manufacturer regards treatment adherence to be an important aspect of the benefit of a product, the obvious consequence would be to initiate studies that can measure this aspect with the greatest possible certainty of results and proximity to everyday conditions, and at the same time demonstrate its relevance for patients.

The above remarks show that certainty of results and proximity to everyday conditions (or internal and external validity) have no fixed relationship. High certainty of results and proximity to everyday conditions do not exclude one another, but only require the appropriate combination of study type, design and conduct.

Even if criticism of the lack of proximity to everyday practice may actually be justified for many studies, nothing would be gained by dispensing with high certainty of results in favour of greater proximity to everyday practice, because one would thereby be attempting to compensate one deficit by accepting another, more serious, one [311].

Studies that combine proximity to everyday conditions and high certainty of results are both desirable and feasible. RCTs are indeed feasible that neither place demands on patients beyond everyday health care nor specify fixed study visits. Such studies are being discussed at an international level as real world trials, practical trials or pragmatic trials [239,241,266,452,657]. However, such so-called pragmatic trials may themselves also lead to interpretation problems. For example, if very broad inclusion criteria are chosen, the question arises as to whether the (overall) study results can be applied to the overall study population [696], which, at least to some extent, would ultimately have to be answered by means of appropriate subgroup analyses.

1.2.6 Benefit in individual cases

The aim of a benefit assessment is to make robust predictions for future patients using results of studies suited to demonstrate causal effects. The conclusions drawn always apply to groups of patients with certain characteristics. Conclusions on the benefit of an intervention in terms of predictions of success for individual cases are, as a matter of principle, not possible. Vice versa, experiences based on individual cases (except for specific situations, e.g. dramatic effects) are unsuitable for a benefit assessment, as it is not possible to ascribe the results of an individual case (i.e. without a comparison) to the effect of an intervention.

For certain research questions (therapy optimization in individual patients) so-called (randomized) single patient trials (or N-of-1 trials) can be conducted [282,286,379,580]. However, these are usually not suited to assess the benefit of a treatment method for future patients.

1.3 Health economics

Two issues can be expressed with the term “health economics”.

In the wider sense it is about “the analysis of economic aspects of the healthcare system using concepts of economic theory” [582]. For this purpose, among other things, concepts are used from the areas of microeconomic behavioural theory, competition theory, economic theory of politics, and management theory [582]. The subject of such a study could be, for example, how players in the healthcare system change their behaviour after the setting of incentives (e.g. practice charges)⁶ or whether the results of price negotiations following the Act on the Reform of the Market for Medicinal Products (AMNOG⁷) actually prevent excessive prices for new drugs. It can be discussed both from a methodological and from an ethical point of view to what extent such studies can and should be used to steer the healthcare system, but this is not a subject of this short presentation.

In the narrower sense, health economics is here viewed to be a health economic evaluation (HEE) as a comparative analysis and a budget impact analysis (BIA) as a non-comparative analysis [186]. These analyses serve to inform decision makers on the cost-effectiveness ratios of interventions and, besides the benefit assessment of interventions, thus represent an area of HTA.

1.3.1 Relevance of health economics for the Institute

With the establishment of the Institute in 2004, the G-BA and the Federal Ministry of Health were free to commission an HEE. Until the change in the law in 2007, an HEE of drugs was not intended. With the SHI Act to Promote Competition⁸ the HEE of drugs was anchored in §35b SGB V to gain information on the recommendation for a so-called ceiling price. New drugs were to be reimbursed up to this ceiling price, as this price was to represent the appropriate costs for the added benefit of a new drug in comparison with other drugs and treatment forms in a therapeutic indication. The precondition for the commissioning of an HEE was thus to be proof of the added benefit of a new drug, which had to have been shown in an IQWiG benefit assessment. The development of the methods resulting from this health economic question has been extensively documented [343,345,346,349-353].

With AMNOG, which became effective on 1 January 2011, the relevance of the HEE shifted within the procedure of the early benefit assessment of drugs. An HEE is primarily intended for cases where price negotiations fail between the SHI umbrella organization⁹ and pharmaceutical companies and where no agreement is reached in the subsequent arbitration procedure. However, the question of the HEE remains: according to §35b (1) Sentence 4 SGB V in connection with the 5th Chapter §32 (3) of the G-BA's Code of Procedure [251], the

⁶ In Germany, previously a quarterly flat-rate charge of €10 to SHI patients for outpatient treatment (abolished in 2013).

⁷ Arzneimittelmarktneuordnungsgesetz

⁸ Gesetzliche Krankenversicherung (GKV)-Wettbewerbsstärkungsgesetz

⁹ Spitzenverband Bund der Krankenkassen, GKV-Spitzenverband

appropriateness and reasonableness of cost coverage by the community of SHI insurants must be considered. For the G-BA to consider these factors in an appropriate manner, it must receive the corresponding information. This information is provided by the HEE (appropriateness) and the budget impact analysis (reasonableness). The assessment of the appropriateness and reasonableness of cost coverage is conducted with regard to whether, under observance of the principle of proportionality, a justifiable relation between the costs and the benefit of the drug exists. In this context, according to the 5th Chapter §32 (2, 3) of the G-BA's Code of Procedure, IQWiG is to present a recommendation on the basis of which the G-BA is to make a decision [251]. The presentation of a justifiable relation between the costs and the benefit must thus ensue from the HEE.

1.3.2 International standards of health economics

As in every science, international standards also exist in health economics. These include the classification of HEE into the study types of cost-effectiveness analysis, cost-utility analysis, and cost-benefit analysis (in the narrower sense). Sometimes the cost-cost, cost-consequences, and cost-minimization analyses are also named as separate types; however, they are rarely used. With regard to the latter type it is also discussed whether it represents an independent type [187].

International standards also exist for the methods applied in HEE. With regard to the benefit assessment, the Institute follows the principles of EBM and the resulting specifications that are established as the corresponding international standards. Before one speaks of international standards in health economics, one must distinguish between clearly methodological questions and questions based on value judgements, opinions or surveys. This can be illustrated using the example of the discounting rate. With a discounting rate, benefits and costs incurred in different periods are discounted to one period so that they are comparable for a decision. The pure performance of discounting is clearly regulated mathematically and thus a methodological question. The choice of discounting rate and particularly the decision as to whether the costs and benefits are to be discounted with the same rate or possibly even with a non-constant rate is, among other things, subject to issues concerning the appraisal of the future economic development and intergenerational fairness [122,308,484,494,496,507,524], and is thus a value judgement.

As shown by internationally recognized instruments for the evaluation of health economic analyses [120,185,339,515], there are many steps and aspects for which methodological requirements exist and which must be processed in a transparent and comprehensible way. These include:

- Definition of the interventions under assessment and their comparators. A choice must be justified to prevent wrong decisions on the basis of an interest-driven choice of comparators.
- Perspective of the HEE.

- Time horizon of the HEE.
- Type of HEE (see above) and preferably justification of the study type.
- Costs with presentation of resource use and resource evaluation.
- Adjustment for inflation and conversion of currency (if necessary).
- Development and explanation of the model and preferably also justification of the choice of model, e.g. decision tree, Markov model.
- Discounting rate.
- Presentation of results, e.g. in an aggregated or a disaggregated form.
- Investigation of the uncertainty of results by means of deterministic and probabilistic sensitivity analyses.
- Presentation of uncertainty, e.g. with cost-effectiveness-acceptance curves or the net benefit.

For some of these topics or subtopics, requirements for good methodological practice are available in textbooks and also, for example, in the guidelines of the International Society for Pharmacoeconomics and Outcomes Research (ISPOR).

1.3.3 Methodological standards in health economics

Furthermore, other aspects of an HEE are also understood to be the international standard. For instance, in the healthcare system a decision based on a threshold per quality-adjusted life year (QALY) gained is often presented as the international standard in health economics. However, this should be seen critically. On the one hand, the vast majority of countries in which HEEs contribute to decision-making do not have a (fixed) threshold [238,587]. On the other, this would be a value judgement, and would thus not fall under the international methodological standards following §139a (4) Sentence 1 according to which only methodological standards apply in the assessments of the Institute.

Furthermore, the question of the measure of overall benefit arises not only as a methodological question, but also always under the aspect of a value judgement. In this context, the research question and aim of a health economic analysis have an influence on which instrument should be used as a measure of overall benefit. This also means that the question as to whether the QALY should be used must be highlighted under ethical, legal, and cultural aspects. In turn, from a scientific or methodological point of view it can be discussed which assumptions are considered in the QALY concept, for example, the assumption that the assessment of a state is independent of its duration (= constant proportional [time] trade off), and whether these assumptions are sustainable. Likewise, it can be investigated methodologically whether the various measurement methods applied, for example, indirect versus direct or various indirect and direct procedures in different combinations, lead to different results and what this can mean. A question of value judgement on the basis of legal

requirements (e.g. SGB V) is again the question in which persons the utility values to generate QALYs should be elicited; in those actually affected by a disease or in the general population.

Ultimately, the following question needs to be raised: How should resources in the health care system be distributed? That is, on the basis of which rights, claims or needs, with which aim, and which impact on the allocation of goods or services? This question is only understood as a value judgement, and this in turn determines which scientific standards and methods should be applied.

1.4 Evidence-based decision-making in health care

The Institute's reports are to serve the G-BA as a basis for decisions that in principle apply to all SHI insurants. Other products of the Institute are, for example, to serve as information for the G-BA. The type of decisions made by institutions like the G-BA has an effect on the application of methods of EBM and of health economics.

2 The Institute's products

According to its legal remit, the Institute prepares a variety of products in the form of scientific reports and easily understandable health information for consumers and patients. This chapter describes procedures and general methods applied in the preparation of the Institute's products. At first the individual products are named and product-specific procedures presented (Section 2.1). The next section outlines further aspects independent of products (Section 2.1.10).

2.1 Product-specific procedures

The Institute's products include

- report
- rapid report
- dossier assessment
- health economic evaluation (HEE) according to §35b SGB V
- assessment of potential
- assessment according to §137h SGB V
- addendum
- health information
- working paper
- HTA report

The preparation of reports and rapid reports is conducted on the basis of the award of individual commissions through the G-BA or Federal Ministry of Health. The basis of this are the Institute's responsibilities described in §139a SGB V (see also Section 1.1). Accordingly, reports and rapid reports can be prepared on the benefit assessment of drug and non-drug interventions, on HEEs, and on the appraisal of clinical practice guidelines. The main difference between reports and rapid reports is that a public commenting procedure (hearing) is only conducted for reports, but not for rapid reports. Accordingly, rapid reports are particularly intended for recommendations at short notice, for which, from the point of view of the contracting agency, no hearings by the Institute are required.

Dossier assessments are commissioned by the G-BA. The foundation for this is §35a SGB V, which regulates the assessment of the benefit of new active ingredients on the basis of a dossier by the pharmaceutical company (see also Section 3.3.3). No hearing by the Institute is intended for dossier assessments according to §35a SGB V. A commenting procedure is conducted in the further process by the G-BA.

Furthermore, according to §35b SGB V, the Institute can be commissioned by the G-BA to conduct HEEs of drugs. For such evaluations, it is intended that IQWiG conducts hearings. A further commenting procedure is conducted at the G-BA.

Assessments of potential are commissioned by the G-BA and refer to applications for testing according to §137e SGB V. No hearing by the Institute is intended. If a testing is performed, the G-BA conducts a commenting procedure on the testing directive.

Assessments according to §137h SGB V are commissioned by the G-BA and refer to new examination and treatment methods with high-risk medical devices. No hearing by the Institute is intended. If a directive is decided on, the G-BA conducts a commenting procedure in this regard.

Addenda can be commissioned by the G-BA or Federal Ministry of Health in cases where, after the completion of a product, the need for additional work on the commission arises during the course of consultations.

Health information can be prepared on the basis of an individual commission; it can also be the consequence of a commission in other areas of the Institute's work (easily understandable version of other products of the Institute, e.g. a report) or be prepared within the framework of the general legal remit to provide health information.

Working papers are prepared under the Institute's own responsibility; specific commissioning by the G-BA or Federal Ministry of Health is not required. This takes place either on the basis of the general commission (see Section 2.1.9), with the aim of providing information on relevant developments in health care, or within the framework of the legal remit to develop the Institute's methods. The Institute's *General Methods* are not to be understood as a working paper in this sense, and are subjected to a separate preparation and updating procedure, which is outlined in the preamble of this document.

HTA reports are produced on topics proposed by insured persons or other interested individuals. The Institute selects topics from the proposals that are particularly important for the health care of patients in Germany. In this context, the perspectives of both consumers and patients as well as the scientific perspective are considered. HTA reports on the selected topics are produced. This is based on §139b (5) SGB V. A hearing by the Institute is intended for the HTA reports.

An overview of the Institute's various products is shown in Table 1 below. Product-specific procedures are described in the subsequent Sections 2.1.1 to 2.1.10.

Table 1: Overview of the Institute's products

| Product | Objective | Procedure | Commissioned by |
|--|--|----------------------------|--|
| Report | Recommendations on tasks described in §139a SGB V, including hearing | Described in Section 2.1.1 | G-BA, Federal Ministry of Health |
| Rapid report | Recommendations on tasks described in §139a SGB V, insofar as no hearing on interim products is required; in particular provision of information at short notice on current topics | Described in Section 2.1.2 | G-BA, Federal Ministry of Health |
| Dossier assessment | Assessment of the benefit of drugs with new ingredients according to §35a SGB V | Described in Section 2.1.3 | G-BA |
| Health economic evaluation according to §35b SGB V | Assessment of the relation of the cost and benefit of drugs according to §35b SGB V, including a hearing | Described in Section 2.1.4 | G-BA |
| Assessment of potential | Assessment of the potential of new examination and treatment methods according to §137e SGB V | Described in Section 2.1.5 | G-BA |
| Assessment according to §137h SGB V | Assessment of the benefit and potential of new examination and treatment methods with high-risk medical devices according to §137h SGB V | Described in Section 2.1.6 | G-BA |
| Addendum | Supplementary information provided at short notice by the Institute on issues that have arisen during the consultation on its completed products | Described in Section 2.1.7 | G-BA, Federal Ministry of Health |
| Health information | Easily understandable information for consumers and patients; wide scope of topics | Described in Section 2.1.8 | G-BA, Federal Ministry of Health/own initiative of the Institute |
| Working paper | Information on relevant developments in health care or methodological aspects | Described in Section 2.1.9 | Own initiative of the Institute |

(continued)

Table 1: Overview of the Institute's products (continued)

| Product | Objective | Procedure | Commissioned by |
|--|---|-----------------------------|---|
| HTA report | Assessment of medical examination and treatment methods according to §139b (5) SGB V, including a hearing | Described in Section 2.1.10 | Initiation by the Institute on the basis of proposals of interested individuals |
| G-BA: Gemeinsamer Bundesausschuss (Federal Joint Committee); HTA: health technology assessment; SGB: Sozialgesetzbuch (Social Code Book) | | | |

2.1.1 Report

The procedure for report production is presented in Figure 1. All working steps are performed under the Institute's responsibility and regularly involve external experts (see Section 2.2.2). If necessary, the Institute's Scientific Advisory Board is also involved. The internal quality assurance process is not outlined in this flow chart.

After **commissioning** by the G-BA or Federal Ministry of Health, the research question is formulated. Depending on the topic, the determination of outcome criteria is also required (e.g. in benefit assessments). As a rule, affected persons are involved, especially in the definition of patient-relevant outcomes. Affected persons may include patients (potentially represented by their parents or other relatives) as well as potential participants in prevention measures. Subsequently, the report plan (protocol) is prepared.

The **report plan** forms the basis for the production of the preliminary report and contains the precise scientific research question, including the outcome criteria (e.g. patient-relevant outcomes), as well as the inclusion and exclusion criteria of the information to be used in the assessment. This plan also includes a description of the project-specific methodology applied in the retrieval and assessment of information. The report plan is first forwarded to the contracting agency as well as to the Foundation's Board of Directors, the Foundation Council and the Board of Trustees. It is normally published on the Institute's website 5 working days later.

The report plan is subject to a hearing. The hearing is conducted by requesting **written comments**, which can be submitted within a period of at least 4 weeks. The hearing particularly refers to the project-specific methodological approach applied to answer the research question. The research question itself is usually specified by the commission, and is not an object of the hearing.

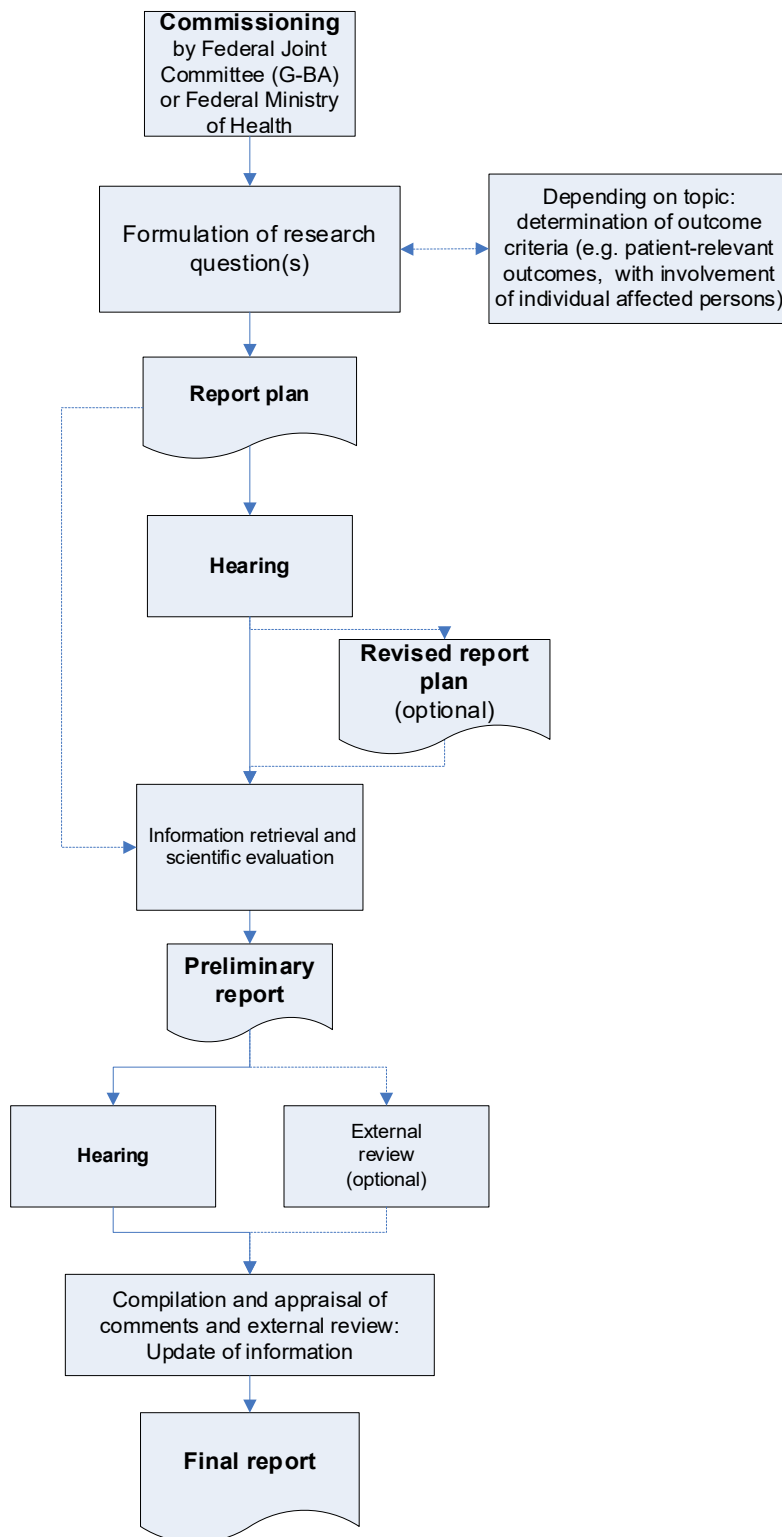


Figure 1: Procedure for the production of a report

The comments are analysed and published in order to document the hearing. If a change in the methodology of the report is required, a revised new version of the report plan is prepared, which is first forwarded to the contracting agency, the Foundation’s Board of Directors, the

Foundation Council and Board of Trustees, together with the documentation of the hearing on the report plan. This document is usually published on the Institute's website 5 working days later. The revised version of the report plan is the basis for the preparation of the preliminary report.

The results of the information retrieval and the scientific assessment are presented in the **preliminary report**. In order to avoid undue delay in the Institute's work, the retrieval and assessment of information already start before completion of the hearing on the report plan on the basis of the criteria formulated in the report plan. However, the result of the hearing is explicitly not anticipated, as these criteria may be modified on grounds of the hearing on the report plan. This may also lead to supplementation and/or modification of the retrieval and assessment of information.

The preliminary report includes the preliminary recommendation to the G-BA. After completion, it is first forwarded to the contracting agency as well as to the Foundation's Board of Directors, the Foundation Council and the Board of Trustees. The preliminary report is usually published on the Institute's website 5 working days after it is sent to the contracting agency.

The preliminary report is subject to a hearing. As a matter of principle, the hearing is conducted by means of requesting **written comments**, which can be submitted within a period of at least 4 weeks. Optionally, an oral scientific debate with those submitting comments may be held. This debate serves the potentially necessary clarification of aspects of the written comments. The hearing in particular refers to the results of the retrieval and assessment of information presented in the preliminary report.

The **final report**, which is based upon the preliminary report and contains the assessment of the scientific findings (considering the results of the hearing on the preliminary report), represents the concluding product of the work on the commission. The final report and the documentation of the hearing on the preliminary report are first forwarded to the contracting agency, as well as to the Foundation's Board of Directors and Foundation Council, and subsequently (usually 4 weeks later) forwarded to the Foundation's Board of Trustees. These documents are then published on the Institute's website (usually a further 4 weeks later). If comments are received on final reports containing substantial evidence not considered, or if the Institute receives information on such evidence from other sources, the contracting agency will be sent well-founded information on whether, in the Institute's opinion, a new commission on the topic is necessary (if appropriate, a report update) or not. The contracting agency then decides on the commissioning of the Institute. Such an update is conducted according to the general methodological and procedural requirements for the Institute's products.

In certain cases, a hearing on the report plan can be dispensed with. The further procedure, including publication, is conducted as described above. A procedure without a hearing is

particularly eligible for commissions on the production of health information containing information materials on already existing directives. For other commissions, such a procedure can be particularly eligible if the methodological approach applied has already been the subject of a hearing within the framework of a completed IQWiG report on the same topic.

2.1.2 Rapid report

The procedure for the production of a **rapid report** is presented in Figure 2. All working steps are performed under the responsibility of the Institute, involving external experts where appropriate (see Section 2.2.2). If necessary, the Institute's Scientific Advisory Board is also involved. The internal quality assurance process is not presented in this flow chart.

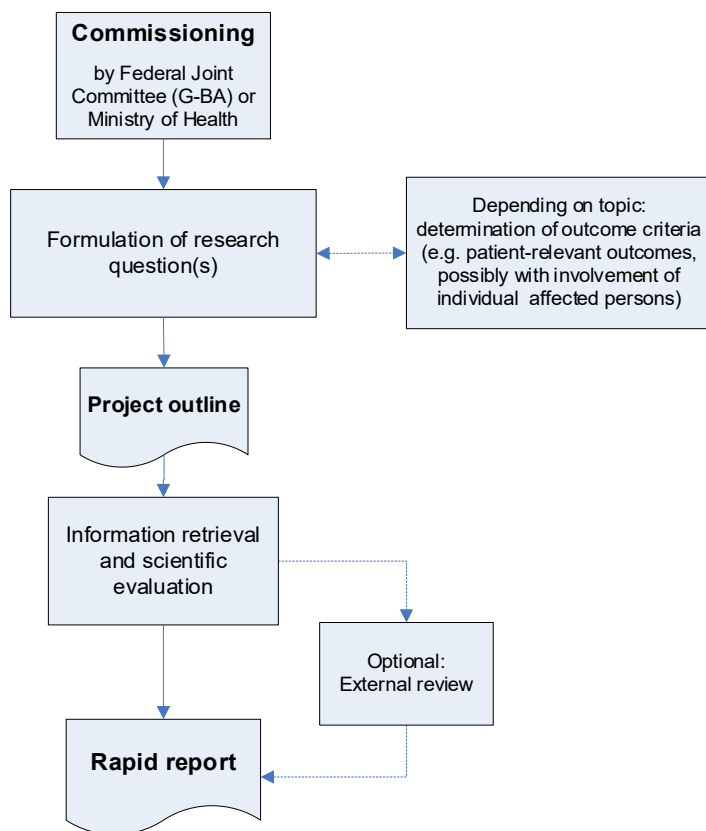


Figure 2: Procedure for the production of a rapid report

Rapid reports are primarily produced with the aim of providing information at short notice on relevant developments in health care (e.g. new technologies, publication of milestone studies). A shorter production period is usually required here. Interim products are therefore not published and are not the subject of a hearing.

After **commissioning** by the G-BA or Federal Ministry of Health, the research question is formulated. Depending on the topic, the determination of outcome criteria is also required (e.g. in benefit assessments). In this context, the opinion of affected individuals can be sought,

especially for the definition of patient-relevant outcomes. Subsequently, the project outline is prepared.

The **project outline** summarizes the main steps of the information retrieval and scientific assessment. It forms the basis for the production of the rapid report. The project outline is not published.

The **rapid report** presents the results of the information retrieval and scientific assessment. Before completion, as a further quality assurance step, optionally a draft of the rapid report may be reviewed by one or more external reviewers (see Section 2.2.4) with proven methodological and/or topic-related competence. After completion the rapid report is then sent to the contracting agency, the Foundation's Board of Directors and Foundation Council, as well as (usually a week later) to the Board of Trustees. The rapid report is usually published on the Institute's website 4 weeks after it is sent to the contracting agency and Board of Directors. If comments on rapid reports are received that contain substantial evidence not considered, or if the Institute receives such evidence from other sources, the contracting agency will be provided with well-founded information on whether, in the Institute's opinion, a new commission on the topic is necessary (if appropriate, a rapid report update) or not. The contracting agency then decides on the commissioning of the Institute. Such an update is conducted according to the general methodological and procedural requirements for the Institute's products.

2.1.3 Dossier assessment

The procedure for the production of a dossier assessment is presented in Figure 3. All working steps are performed under the Institute's responsibility and regularly involve external expertise (see Section 2.2.2). If necessary, the Institute's Scientific Advisory Board is also involved. The internal quality assurance process is not outlined in this flow chart.

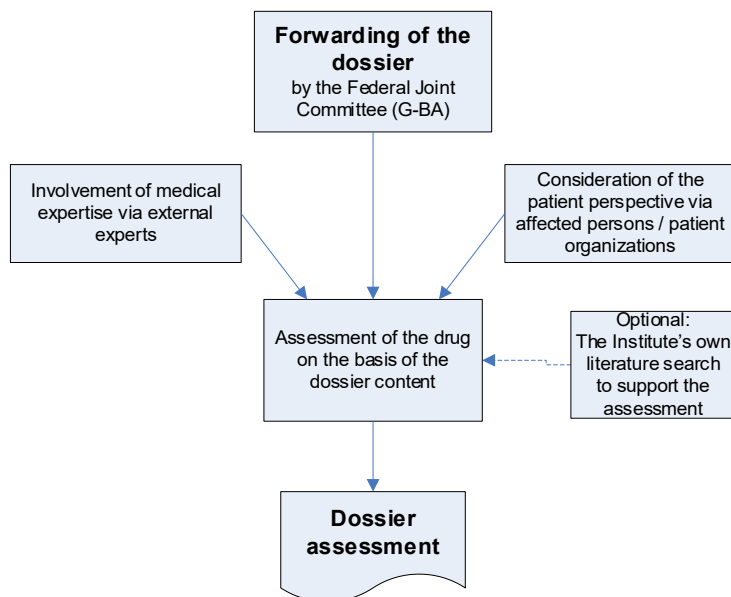


Figure 3: Procedure for the production of a dossier assessment

After the **forwarding of the dossier** by the G-BA, the assessment of the dossier content is conducted under the responsibility of the Institute. In this context, medical expertise and the patient perspective are as a rule involved via external experts and affected persons/patient organizations respectively.

Medical expertise is primarily involved on the basis of a questionnaire sent to external experts at the beginning of the assessment. In its assessment the Institute considers the external experts' feedback. In addition, external experts may if necessary be drawn upon to clarify specific questions arising during the course of the assessment. External experts are identified via the Institute's own database for external experts (see Section 2.2.2).

The **patient perspective is considered** on the basis of a questionnaire sent to affected persons/patient organizations at the beginning of the assessment. In its assessment the Institute considers the information provided in this questionnaire, e.g. on relevant outcomes and important subgroups. Affected persons/patient organizations are identified via the relevant organizations named in §140f SGB V.

The basis of the assessment is the dossier submitted to the G-BA by the pharmaceutical company and then forwarded to the Institute. The Institute may optionally perform its **own literature search** to support the assessment.

The preparation of the **dossier assessment** is the final step in the process. In accordance with §35a SGB V, the assessment must be completed no later than 3 months after the relevant date for the submission of the dossier. After its completion, the dossier assessment is delivered to the G-BA. Shortly afterwards it is subsequently forwarded to the Foundation's Board of Directors, the Foundation Council and the Foundation's Board of Trustees and then published

on the Institute's website.

2.1.4 Health economic evaluation according to §35b SGB V

The procedure for an HEE according to §35b SGB V is presented in **Figure 4**. All working steps are performed under the Institute's responsibility. The procedure regularly involves external experts. If necessary, the Institute's Scientific Advisory Board may also be involved. The internal quality assurance process is not outlined in this flow chart.

Before **commissioning** by the G-BA, the G-BA prepares the main contents of the commission (during the course of scoping, see Section 4.9.1) and gives those entitled to comment the opportunity to do so. Simultaneously to commissioning, in its decision the G-BA discloses whether health services research studies that the G-BA agreed upon with the pharmaceutical company are to be considered.

In parallel the G-BA requests the **submission of the dossier** by the pharmaceutical company. This dossier is considered in the assessment.

The results of the information retrieval and the scientific assessment are presented in the **preliminary report**. In the assessment of content, as a rule medical expertise is involved via external experts and the patient perspective is involved via affected persons and/or patient organizations.

Medical expertise is primarily obtained on the basis of a questionnaire sent to external experts at the beginning of the assessment. The feedback provided by external experts is considered in the assessment. Moreover, if necessary, external experts may be involved to clarify specific questions arising during the course of the assessment. External experts are identified via the Institute's own database for external experts (see Section 2.2.2).

The **patient perspective** is determined on the basis of a questionnaire sent to affected persons and/or patient organizations at the beginning of the assessment. The information provided in this questionnaire (e.g. on relevant outcomes and on important subgroups) is considered in the assessment. Affected persons and/or patient organizations are identified via the relevant organizations named in §140f SGB V.

The **preliminary report** includes the preliminary recommendation to the G-BA. After completion, it is first forwarded to the G-BA, the Foundation's Board of Directors, the Foundation Council, and the Board of Trustees. It is published on the Institute's website soon after it is sent to the G-BA.

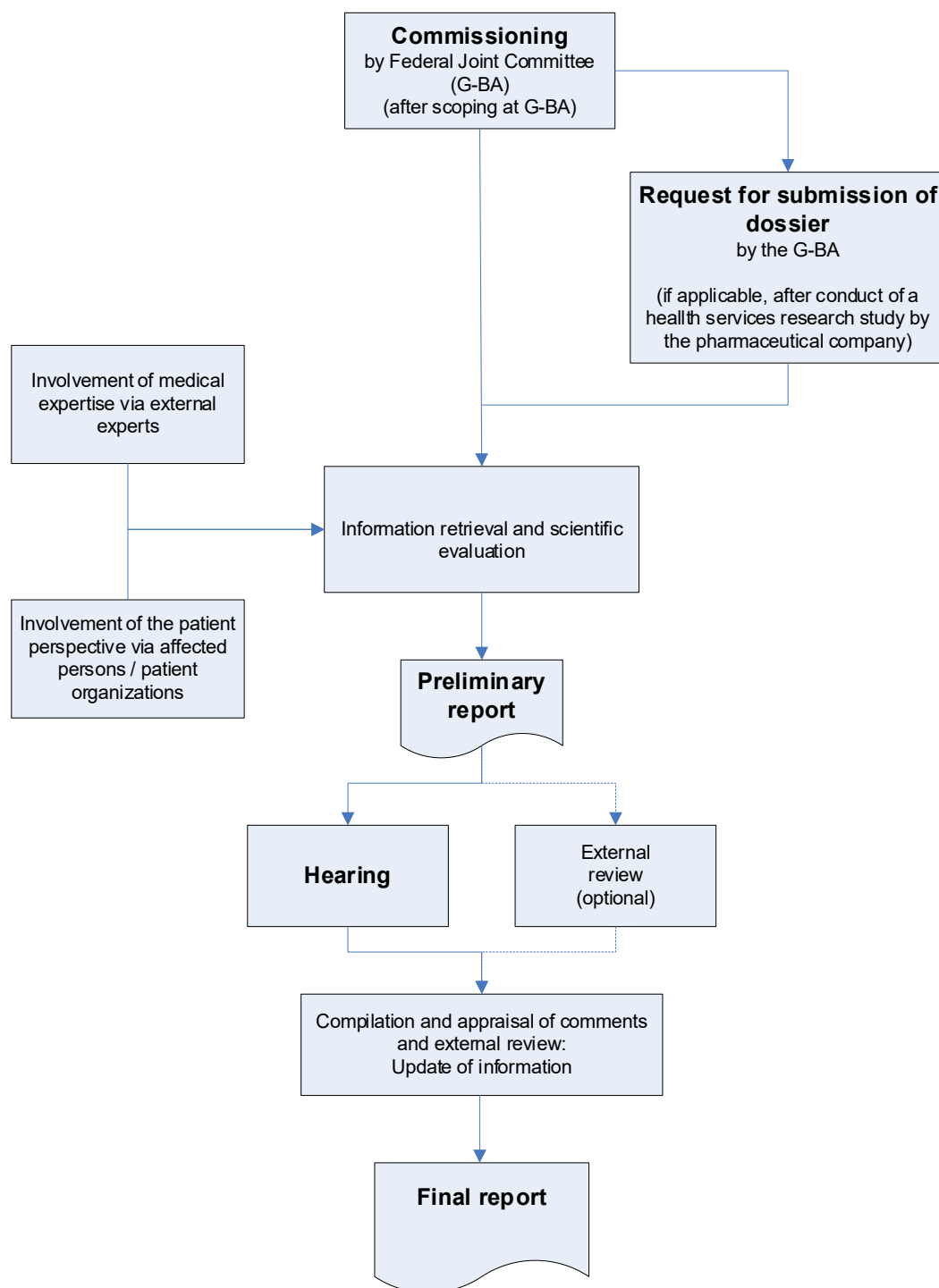


Figure 4: Procedure for the health economic evaluation according to §35b SGB V

The preliminary report is subject to a public hearing. As a matter of principle, the hearing is conducted by requesting written comments, which can be submitted within a period of 3 weeks. Optionally, an oral scientific debate with those submitting comments may be held.

This debate serves the potentially necessary clarification of aspects of the written comments. The hearing refers in particular to the results of the retrieval and assessment of information presented in the preliminary report.

The **final report**, which is based upon the preliminary report and contains the assessment of the scientific findings (considering the results of the hearing on the preliminary report), represents the concluding product of the work on the commission. The final report must be forwarded to the G-BA within 3 months after the initiation of the commenting procedure on the preliminary report (see the G-BA's Code of Procedure 5th Chapter §31 [251]). The final report and the documentation of the hearing on the preliminary report are first forwarded to the G-BA, as well as to the Foundation's Board of Directors and Foundation Council, and subsequently forwarded to the Foundation's Board of Trustees. These documents are then published on the Institute's website. If comments are received on final reports that contain substantial evidence not considered, or if the Institute receives information on such evidence from other sources, the G-BA will be sent well-founded information on whether, in the Institute's opinion, a new commission on the topic is necessary (if appropriate, a report update). The G-BA then decides on the commissioning of the Institute. Such an update is conducted according to the general methodological and procedural requirements for the Institute's products.

2.1.5 Assessment of potential

The procedure for the production of an assessment of the potential of a non-drug intervention is presented in Figure 5. All working steps are performed under the responsibility of the Institute. External experts can be involved in the procedure (see Section 2.2). The internal quality assurance process is not presented in this flowchart.

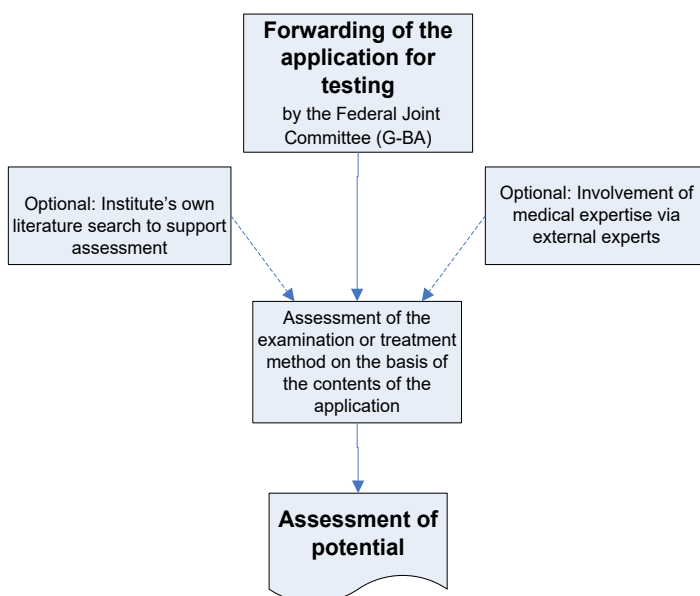


Figure 5: Procedure for the production of an assessment of potential

After the **forwarding of the application for testing** by the G-BA, the assessment of the content of the application is performed under the Institute's responsibility. External medical expertise can be involved for this purpose. This is done in the same way as in dossier assessments, but under consideration of the specific requirements for the protection of the strict confidentiality within the framework of assessments of potential.

The basis of the assessment is the application submitted by the applicant to the G-BA and then forwarded to the Institute. To support the assessment the Institute may optionally conduct its **own literature search**. As the key points of the testing study are an optional part of the application, the Institute may specify these points if the applicant provides no corresponding information.

The process is completed by the preparation of the **assessment of potential**. According to §137e SGB V, within 3 months the G-BA must make a decision on the potential of the examination or treatment method applied for. As a rule, assessments of potential are therefore completed by the Institute within 6 weeks. After completion, the assessment of potential is sent to the G-BA. The assessment is not published as, according to §137e SGB V, the assessment procedure is subject to strict confidentiality. The assessment of potential is only published if the G-BA issues a testing directive during the further course of the procedure.

2.1.6 Assessment according to §137h SGB V

The procedure for the production of an assessment according to §137h SGB V largely corresponds to that of an assessment of potential (Figure 5): The Institute is responsible for all working steps; in this context, external experts may be involved (see Section 2.2.2). However, in contrast to assessments of potential, for assessments according to §137h SGB V, neither the topic of the assessment nor the main documents are confidential.

A hospital submits documents to the G-BA on a new examination or treatment method¹⁰ that is largely based on the use of a high-risk medical device. These documents are made public by the G-BA. After potential supplementation of the documents by further hospitals and affected medical device manufacturers, the G-BA transfers all of the documents providing the basis of the assessment to the Institute.

The Institute conducts an assessment of benefit, harm and potential. The basis of the assessment is formed by the documents submitted to the G-BA by a hospital or medical device manufacturer. Optionally, the Institute can conduct its own literature search to support the assessment. External medical expertise can be involved to clarify specific questions. For this purpose, external experts are identified via the Institute's own expert database.

¹⁰ Neue Untersuchungs- oder Behandlungsmethode, NUB

The Institute evaluates whether either a benefit or at least a potential (or neither a benefit nor a potential) can be recognized by means of the documents. As the G-BA is legally obliged to decide on the benefit or the potential within 3 months, according to §137h SGB V the Institute prepares its assessments within 6 weeks. The respective report is transferred to the contracting agency, the G-BA. The assessment is generally published 6 weeks after the report was transferred to the G-BA.

2.1.7 Addendum

The procedure for the production of an addendum is presented in Figure 6. All working steps are performed under the responsibility of the Institute, involving the Institute's Scientific Advisory Board where appropriate. The internal quality assurance process is not outlined in this flow chart.

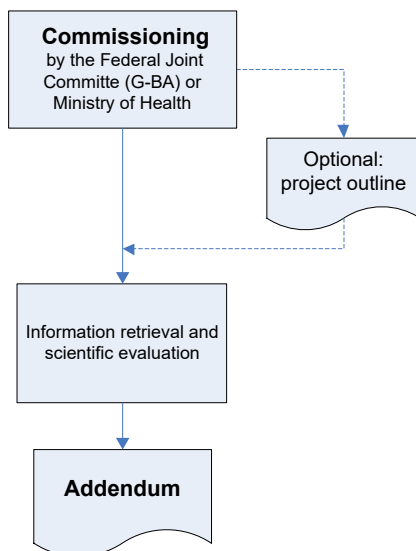


Figure 6: Procedure for the production of an addendum

An addendum can be commissioned if the need for additional work on the commission arises during the consultations on products completed by the Institute. Depending on the type and extent of the research question, it may be meaningful to prepare a **project outline** in which the main steps of the information retrieval and scientific assessment are summarized. The project outline is not published.

In the work on the **addendum**, depending on the type and extent of the research question, it may be meaningful to involve those external experts who were involved in preparing the underlying product of the Institute.

The procedure for publication of an addendum follows that of the original product of the Institute. For example, an addendum on reports is first sent to the contracting agency, as well as to the Foundation Council and the Board of Directors. It is usually forwarded to the

Foundation's Board of Trustees 1 week later and published on the Institute's website a further 3 weeks later.

2.1.8 Health information

The Institute produces **health information** for the general public in various formats, which are presented in more detail in Section 7.15.

This information is provided to the public primarily via the website www.gesundheitsinformation.de (and the English-language version www.informedhealth.org). The website's main focus is on topics related to health and illness. Depending on the breadth and depth of a topic, it may combine several different types of article formats.

The process for the production of health information is presented in Figure 7. External experts are involved at various stages. Their tasks are described in more detail in Chapter 7.

The Institute's health information is produced

- to fulfil its statutory responsibility to provide the general public with health information, as well as on its own initiative within the framework of the G-BA's general commission
- in response to commissions received directly from the G-BA or German Federal Ministry of Health
- to summarise (information accompanying) other products published by the Institute

The Institute's general commission was amended in July 2006 and in March 2008 regarding the production of health information, to specifically include informing the general public. After deciding on the aspects the topic is to cover, the next step is the **gathering of information**, followed by **scientific evaluation** of the identified publications. Chapter 7 describes the methodology concerning the gathering of information for the production of health information, the scientific review, and patient involvement.

When it comes to the production of accompanying information, the underlying IQWiG review provides the evidence it is based on. Additional gathering of information and scientific review are optional in this case, for example as regards an expansion of the topic, supplementary background information or aspects of qualitative research.

After the **production of the text, editorial work** and a departmental quality assurance process, the drafts are sent out for **external review**. Information accompanying IQWiG reports is reviewed internally by the respective department's project management.

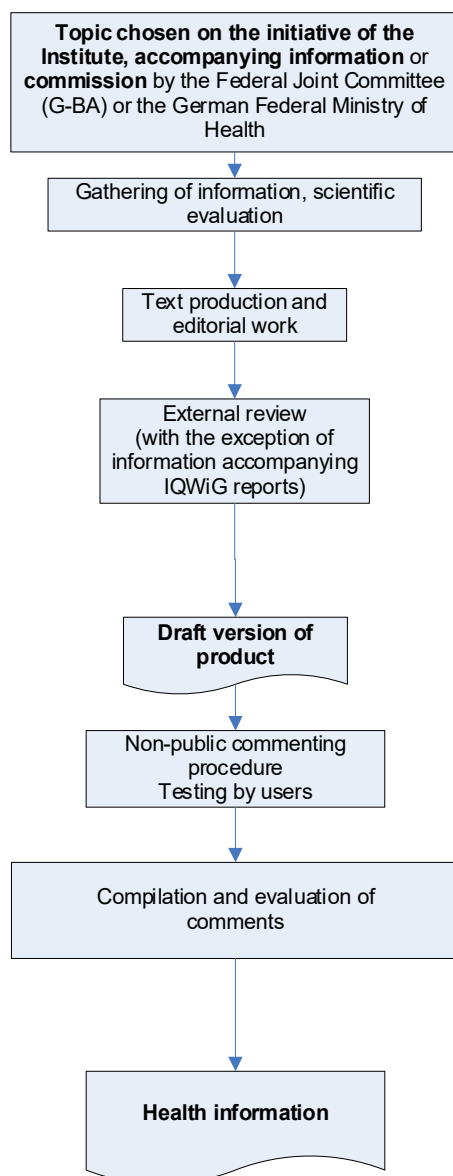


Figure 7: The process for the production of health information

The draft version of a new piece of health information is submitted to those who it was commissioned by, the Board of Trustees, the Foundation's Board of Directors and the Foundation Council as well as the Scientific Advisory Board for non-public **comments**. Before publication, a health information article undergoes standardised external testing by users – generally at the same time as the commenting procedure. The comments submitted during the 4-week commenting period and the results of the testing by users are summarized

and reviewed with regard to any resulting necessary changes to the health information, either content-wise or editorial.

If directly commissioned by the G-BA or the Federal Ministry of Health, the health information is produced in the form of a report, rapid report or addendum. The production and publication of the information follow IQWiG's standard procedure. Usually, the corresponding health information is subsequently published on www.gesundheitsinformation.de / www.informedhealth.org. The readily understandable information explaining the G-BA directives is also published on www.gesundheitsinformation.de / www.informedhealth.org, only after publication of the directives themselves.

As a rule, corrections, improvements, and updates of published health information are carried out internally. If extensive or substantial changes to content are made, external experts are consulted. In this case, another non-public commenting procedure and further external testing by users may also follow.

2.1.9 Working paper

The procedure for the production of a **working paper** is presented in Figure 8. All working steps are performed under the responsibility of the Institute, involving external experts or the Institute's Scientific Advisory Board, where appropriate. The internal quality assurance process is not presented in this flow chart.

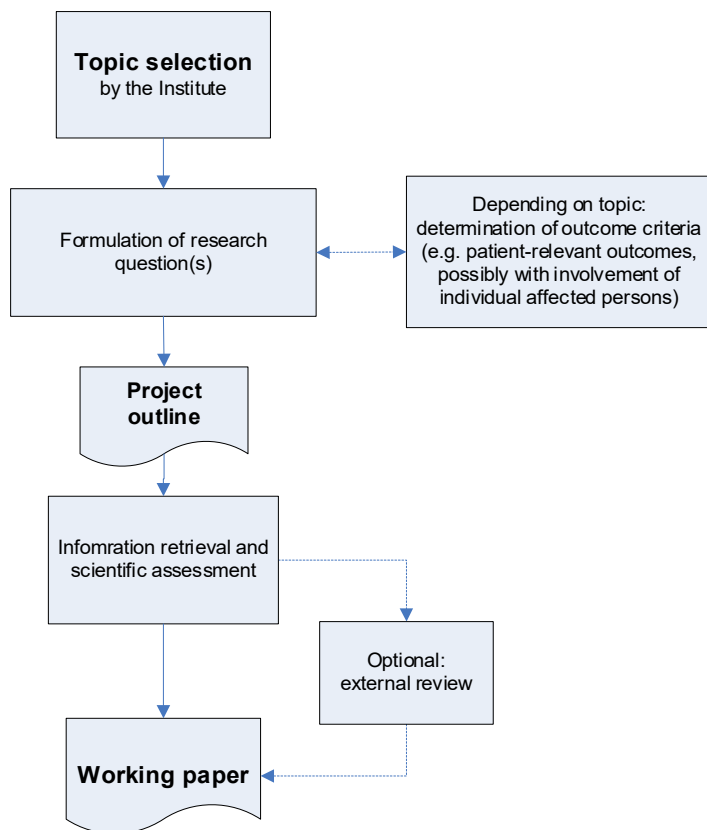


Figure 8: Procedure for the production of a working paper

The production of working papers is conducted (among other things) within the framework of the **general commission** awarded by the G-BA on 21 December 2004. This commission was further specified and adapted in July 2006 and March 2008 with regard to the production of health information. According to the general commission, the Institute was commissioned “by means of documenting and analysing the relevant literature, continuously to study and assess medical developments of fundamental importance and their effects on the quality and efficiency of health care in Germany, and to relay its findings to the G-BA on a regular basis. In this context, the G-BA assumes that, within the framework of the tasks assigned in accordance with §139a (3) SGB V, the Institute will work not only on individual commissions awarded by the G-BA, but will also take on scientific projects on its own responsibility, and relay essential information on relevant health care developments to the G-BA so that it can fulfil its legal obligations. Against the background of this information, the Institute will also develop concrete proposals for individual commissions that it considers relevant.”

The need to conduct independent scientific projects therefore results from the Institute’s legal remit and the general commission. This also includes projects on the further development of methods, which can also be published as working papers.

The **topic selection** takes place within the Institute, particularly on the basis of the criteria defined in the general commission. The formulation of the research question may take place

by involving patient organizations or seeking the opinion of individual affected patients, especially for the definition of patient-relevant outcomes. The project outline is then prepared.

The **project outline** summarizes the main steps in the information retrieval and scientific assessment. It forms the basis for the preparation of the working paper. The project outline is not published.

The working paper presents the results of the information retrieval and scientific assessments. The quality assurance process can (optionally) include an external review. After completion, the working paper is first sent to the G-BA as well as to the Foundation's Board of Directors and Foundation Council. It is then forwarded to the Foundation's Board of Trustees (usually a week later) and after 3 further weeks published on the IQWiG website. If comments on working papers are received that contain substantial unconsidered evidence, or if the Institute receives such evidence from other sources, the Institute assesses whether it considers it necessary to update the document or not. The general methodological and procedural requirements for the Institute's products apply to such an update.

2.1.10 HTA report

The procedure for the production of HTA reports according to §139b (5) SGB V is shown in Figure 9. The HTA report consists of 2 elements, namely, the basic report prepared by external experts (see Section 2.2.2) using IQWiG's methods, including their own conclusion and a publisher's comment prepared by IQWiG. The internal quality assurance processes are not included in this flow chart.

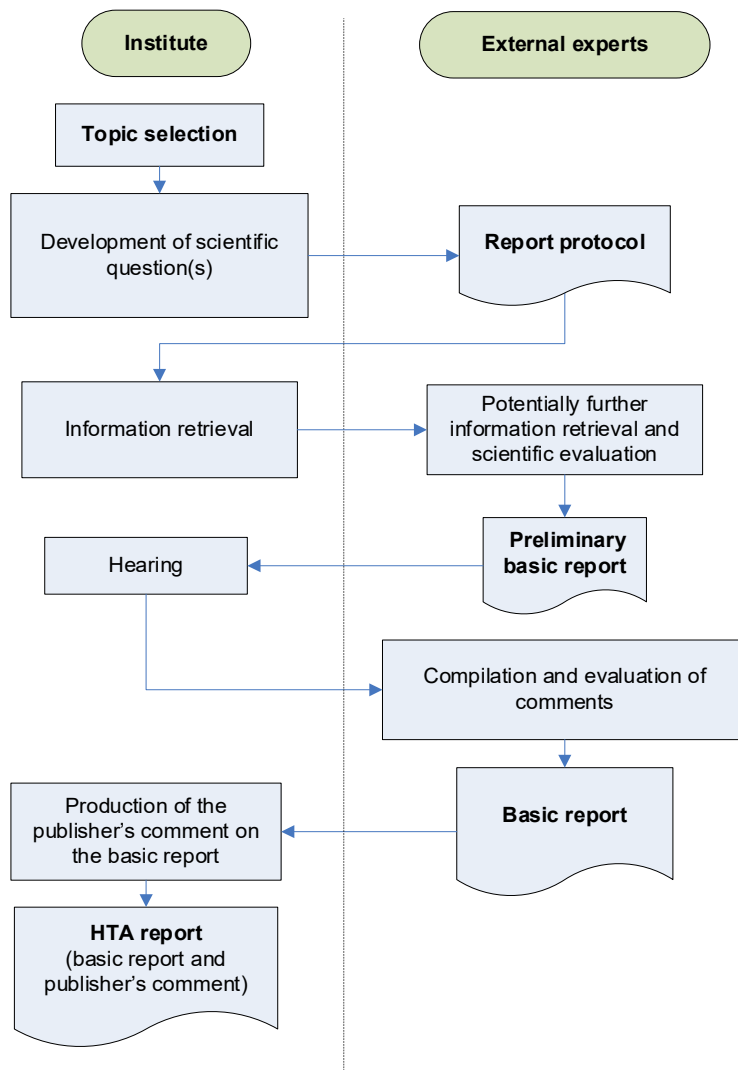


Figure 9: Procedure for the production of an HTA report

After the Institute has completed the topic selection for the HTA reports (see Section 6.3), the scientific HTA question is formulated.

The **report protocol** is prepared by external experts. It contains the precise scientific question including the outcome criteria (e.g. patient-relevant outcomes), the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the information to be used in the assessment, as well as the presentation of the project-specific methods for the retrieval and assessment of this information according to the Institute's methods. It forms the basis of the production of the preliminary basic report. The report protocol is first sent to the Foundation Board, the Foundation Council, and the Board of Trustees. It is generally published on the Institute's website 5 working days later.

In the **preliminary basic report** the external experts present the results of the information retrieval and the scientific assessment, including their own conclusion. After completion, it is

first sent to the Foundation Board, the Foundation Council and the Board of Trustees. It is generally published on the Institute's website 10 working days later.

The preliminary basic report is subject to a hearing. The hearing is as a matter of principle conducted by means of requesting written comments, which can be submitted within a period of at least 4 weeks. Optionally, an oral scientific debate with persons who submitted comments is conducted. If necessary, this debate serves to clarify issues of the written comments. Besides the project-specific methodological approach to answer the research question, the hearing particularly addresses the results of the retrieval and assessment of information presented in the preliminary basic report. The hearing is administered and conducted by IQWiG. The comments are evaluated and appreciated by the external experts in the basic report.

Building on the preliminary basic report, the **basic report** contains the assessment of scientific findings, under consideration of the results of the hearing on the preliminary basic report, and represents the final product of the external experts.

The **publisher's comment** contains a classification of the results by the Institute.

The basic report and the publisher's comment together form the **HTA report**. The HTA report and the documentation of the hearing on the preliminary basic report are first sent to the Foundation Board as well as the Foundation Council and Board of Trustees. These documents are generally published on the Institute's website 4 weeks later.

2.2 General aspects in the preparation of products

The following procedures and aspects that are valid for all products are presented in this chapter:

- the involvement of affected persons in the preparation of IQWiG products
- selection of external experts for collaboration in the preparation of products
- guarantee of scientific independence in the preparation of products
- review of products
- the commenting procedure
- publication of products

Moreover, the provision of scientific advice in relation to the preparation of products is described.

2.2.1 Involvement of affected persons in the preparation of IQWiG products

The involvement of affected persons within the preparation of systematic reviews and HTA reports is now an established international standard of benefit assessment [129,217,404]. The

involvement of affected persons at IQWiG primarily takes place in the beginning of the work on a report within the framework of the specification of patient-relevant outcomes and relevant subgroups. Moreover, within the framework of the hearing procedure, affected persons have the option of being involved in the report production. Within the framework of the production of health information, self-help organizations can be questioned about the need for information of affected persons and about the challenges arising in coping with the disease. The drafts of the health information products regularly undergo external user testing. Moreover, topic-specific experience reports by affected persons are recorded.

Affected persons can particularly be patients (if appropriate, represented by their parents or other relatives) as well as potential participants in prevention measures.

In the selection of participants the focus is placed on persons actually affected, as patient representatives or representatives of self-help groups are sometimes not patients themselves and cannot assess in a comparable way how affected persons perceive symptoms, functions and activities, or are impaired in their quality of life.

In order to find affected persons the patient representation in the G-BA is regularly asked to name affected persons for a topic directly or via its member organizations. In addition, the Institute may contact or search for affected persons via national or local self-help organizations or groups, hospitals or medical practices, external experts or other routes.

Two different ways exist for involving affected persons: Firstly, a personal consultation meeting can be held where affected persons and IQWiG employees talk about a disease in a small circle of people. Secondly, the perspectives and experiences of affected persons can be requested in writing. In both cases, potential conflicts of interest of affected persons are documented (in the same way as in the approach described in Section 2.2.2). However, affected persons with conflicts of interests are not excluded from the consultation. The names of affected persons who participated in the consultation meeting or filled in the questionnaire on the consultation are as a matter of principle not published, unless they explicitly approve that their names are published.

In what form affected persons can be involved in the Institute's work primarily depends on how much time is available for the report production and whether the report topic is confidential. Furthermore, the renewed involvement of affected persons can be dispensed with if a report topic has already been addressed within an earlier consultation. Table 2 shows the types of involvement of affected persons for all of the Institute's products.

Table 2: The Institute's products and types of involvement of affected persons

| Institute's product | Type of involvement of affected persons |
|---|--|
| Report Rapid report | Oral consultation |
| Dossier assessment Health economic evaluation according to §35b SGB V | Written consultation |
| Assessment of potential Assessment according to §137h SGB V Addendum | No involvement |
| Health information | Oral consultation, user testings, experience reports |
| Working paper | Oral or written consultation, as required |
| HTA report | Oral consultation |
| HTA: health technology assessment; SGB: Sozialgesetzbuch (Social Code Book) | |

2.2.2 Selection of external experts

In accordance with its legal remit, the Institute involves external experts in its work. External experts are persons who are awarded research commissions within the framework of the preparation of the Institute's products or their review or who advise the Institute on medical or other topic-related research questions. The Institute awards these commissions following general procurement principles in a transparent and non-discriminating competition.

Announcements for research commissions according to §139b (3) SGB V as well as §139b (5) SGB V are published on the Institute's website. Exceptions are possible, for example, in the case of a particularly urgent commission. Commissions with a volume above the current threshold value of the procurement regulations of the European Union (EU) are advertised throughout the EU. The specific requirements regarding the suitability of applicants are published in the corresponding announcements or tendering documents.

The commissioning of external experts for dossier assessments, HEEs according to §35b SGB V, assessments of potential, assessments according to §137h SGB V, and the production of health information is conducted on the basis of information provided by interested persons in a database for external experts. For inclusion in the database for external experts, the Institute's website offers an access point via which interested experts can enter their profile, including details of their specialty and professional expertise. For the projects to be awarded, in each case the most suitable applicant of the relevant specialty is selected from this expert database by means of a criteria list and then commissioned. Further information on the selection procedure is published on the Institute's website.

2.2.3 Guarantee of professional independence

The scientific and professional independence of the Institute and of the products it is responsible for and publishes have their legal basis in §139a SGB V, as well as in the *Charter* of the Foundation.

A) Guarantee of internal professional independence

The Institute's scientific staff are prohibited from performing external assignments that could in principle query their professional independence. Details are specified in employment contracts and internal regulations.

B) Guarantee of the independence of external experts

Before a contract is signed between the Institute and an external expert or external institution with regard to the preparation of a product, in accordance with §139b SGB V, "all connections to associations and contract organizations, particularly in the pharmaceutical and medical devices industries, including details on the type and amount of any remuneration received" must be disclosed to the Institute.

Following the usual practice in research to disclose such connections as potential conflicts of interest [429,435], within the framework of the selection of external experts, the Institute interprets this regulation as a responsibility to assess these disclosures with regard to the professional independence and impartiality of applicants. In this context, the Institute assesses whether a conflict of interest for the specific topic of a commission exists due to the connections reported. If this is the case, in a second step it is assessed whether this conflict of interest leads to serious concerns with regard to appropriate collaboration on the commission. If this is the case, collaboration on the topic of this commission is usually not possible or only possible under specific provisions. As this assessment is performed in relation to a specific commission, collaboration on topics of other commissions is indeed possible. The further process for the selection of external experts is outlined in Section 2.2.2.

The main basis of the assessment of conflicts of interest is self-disclosure using the *Form for disclosure of potential conflicts of interest*, which is published on the Institute's website. Self-disclosure refers to the following types of connections:

- employment relations/self-employed activities/voluntary activities
- advisory activities
- payments, e.g. for presentations, comments, as well as organization and/or participation in conferences and seminars
- financial support for research activities, other scientific services or patent registrations
- other financial or other cash-value support (e.g. for equipment, staff or travel expenses, without providing scientific services in return)
- shares, equity warrants or other shares in a business, patents, registered designs

- other circumstances that, from the perspective of an unbiased observer, could be assessed as a conflict of interest (e.g. activities in health-related interest groups or self-help groups)

The Institute reserves the right to draw upon additional information and verify the completeness and correctness of the reported information.

The names of external experts involved in the preparation of the Institute's products are usually published in these products. As a matter of principle, these publications are freely accessible via the Institute's website. The information on conflicts of interest is only published in a summarized form. In this context, for the types of connections covered by the *Form for disclosure of potential conflicts of interest*, it is only stated whether this type of connection existed or not. Specific details, for example, concerning the names of business partners or the amount of any remuneration received, are not published.

2.2.4 Review of the Institute's products

The review of the Institute's products aims in particular at ensuring their high scientific quality. Moreover, other aims may be relevant for individual products, such as comprehensibility for the general public.

All products (including interim ones) are subjected to a comprehensive multi-stage internal quality assurance process. In addition, during the preparation of products, an external review procedure may be performed as an optional further quality assurance step. The choice of internal and external reviewers is primarily made on the basis of their methodological and/or professional expertise.

External reviewers can be identified by a literature search, the expertise of the project group, by contacting scientific societies, or by application during the tendering procedure for work on a commission, etc. In each case, external reviewers must also disclose potential conflicts of interest.

External reviewers are selected by the Institute and their number is not limited. The external reviews are assessed with regard to their relevance for the particular product; they are not published. The names of the external reviewers of final reports and rapid reports are usually published in these documents, including a presentation of their potential conflicts of interests, in analogy to the procedure for external experts.

In addition to the external quality assurance processes described above with the involvement of reviewers selected and commissioned by the Institute, an open and independent reviewing process is guaranteed by the publication of the Institute's products and the associated opportunity to submit comments.

2.2.5 Commenting procedure

A) Organizations entitled to submit comments

In accordance with §139a (5) SGB V, the Institute must ensure that the following parties are given the opportunity to submit comments in all important phases of the assessment procedure: medical, pharmaceutical, and health economic experts (from research and practice), drug manufacturers, relevant organizations representing the interests of patients and self-help groups for the chronically ill and disabled, as well as the Federal Government Commissioner for Patients' Affairs. Their comments must be considered in the assessment. These requirements are taken into account by the fact that hearings are conducted and that the circle of people entitled to submit comments is not restricted. Moreover, all the Institute's products, in accordance with §139a SGB V, are sent to the Board of Trustees before publication. The following parties are represented in the Board of Trustees: patient organizations, the Federal Government Commissioner for Patients' Affairs, organizations of service providers and social partners, as well as the self-government bodies of the supporting organizations of the G-BA.

B) Course of the public commenting procedure (hearings)

As a matter of principle, hearings are conducted by means of requesting written comments. Optionally, a scientific debate with those submitting comments may be held with the aim of clarifying the content of written comments.

In order to avoid inappropriate delays in the Institute's work, the comments must fulfil certain formal requirements. The deadlines are outlined in the respective sections on the product-specific procedures (see Section 2.1). Further information on the commenting procedure, including the conditions for participation in a scientific debate, can be found in the corresponding guidelines on the Institute's website.

Comments that fulfil the formal requirements are published in a separate document on the Institute's website (*Documentation of the hearing*). In order to ensure transparency, documents that are submitted together with the comments and are not publicly accessible (e.g. manuscripts) as well as, if applicable, the meeting minutes of the oral scientific debate, are also published.

Within the framework of the hearing there is the option to submit documents of adequate quality of any type that, from the perspective of the respective person submitting comments, are suitable to answer the research question. For example, if a search strategy defined in a preliminary report plan is restricted to RCTs, non-RCTs can still be submitted within the framework of the commenting procedure. But in such cases, adequate justification is additionally required of the validity of the causal interpretation of the effects described in such studies.

2.2.6 Publication of the Institute's products

One of the Institute's main tasks is to determine the available evidence on a topic by performing a careful assessment of the information available, and to publish the results of this assessment. It is legally specified that the Institute "must at regular intervals publicly report on its working processes and results, including the bases for decision-making" (§139a (4) SGB V).

To maintain the Institute's independence, it must be ruled out that the contracting agencies or any other interested third parties can exert any influence on the content of the reports. This could lead to conflation of scientific findings with political and/or economic aspects and/or interests. At the same time, it must be avoided that the Institute itself withholds certain findings. All the results obtained by the Institute within the framework of its legal responsibilities are therefore published as soon as possible (with the exception of assessments of potential, see Second Chapter §19 of the G-BA's Code of Procedure [251]). In the case of reports, this also includes the report plan. Product-specific features are noted in those sections in which the procedures are described. In justified exceptional cases, timelines may deviate from the stipulated norm (period between completion and publication of a document).

Unless otherwise agreed, all copyright is held by the Institute.

2.2.7 Scientific advice

In special cases the Institute is involved in the provision of scientific advice to study sponsors, for example within the framework of its collaboration in the European network EUnetHTA. In this context the primary goal is to support the design of studies that provide informative data for benefit assessments. In order to ensure the independence of the assessment, including those cases in which a benefit assessment contains studies on which the Institute has provided advice, an appropriate organizational separation of advice and assessment is ensured.

3 Benefit assessment of medical interventions

3.1 Patient-relevant medical benefit and harm

3.1.1 Definition of patient-relevant medical benefit and harm

The term **benefit** refers to positive causal effects, and the term **harm** refers to negative causal effects of a medical intervention on patient-relevant outcomes (see below). In this context, “causal” means that it is sufficiently certain that the observed effects can be ascribed solely to the intervention to be tested [695].

If a comparison is not explicitly named, the terms “benefit” and “harm” refer to a comparison with a placebo (or another type of sham intervention) or no treatment. In the case of a comparison between the medical intervention to be assessed and a clearly defined alternative medical intervention, the following terms are used in the comparative assessment of beneficial or harmful aspects (the terms are always described from the point of view of the intervention to be assessed):

- Beneficial aspects:
 - In the case of an advantage, the term “greater benefit” in comparison with the other intervention is used. Dossier assessments are an exception; in these cases the term “added benefit” is used instead of the term “greater benefit”.
 - In the case of a disadvantage, the term “lesser benefit” is used.
 - In the case of comparable effects, the term “comparable benefit” is used.
- Harmful aspects:
 - The terms “greater harm”, “comparable harm” and “lesser harm” are used.

The assessment of the evidence should preferably come to a clear conclusion that either there is proof of a(n) (added) benefit or harm of an intervention, or there is proof of a lack of a(n) (added) benefit or harm, or there is no proof of a(n) (added) benefit or harm or the lack thereof, and it is therefore unclear whether the intervention results in a(n) (added) benefit or harm. In addition, in the case of (added) benefit or harm that is not clearly proven, it may be meaningful to perform a further categorization as to whether at least “indications” or even only “hints” of an (added) benefit or harm are available (see Section 3.1.4).

As the benefit of an intervention should be related to the patient, this assessment is based on the results of studies investigating the effects of an intervention on patient-relevant outcomes. In this connection, patient-relevant refers to how a patient feels, functions or survives [50]. Consideration is given here to both the intentional and unintentional effects of the intervention that in particular allow an assessment of the impact on the following patient-relevant outcomes to determine the changes related to disease and treatment:

- 1) mortality

- 2) morbidity (symptoms and complications)
- 3) health-related quality of life

These outcomes are also named in SGB V as outcomes primarily to be considered, for example, in §35 (1b) SGB V. As supplementary information, consideration can be given to the time and effort invested in relation to the disease and the intervention. This also applies to patient satisfaction, insofar as health-related aspects are represented here. However, a benefit or added benefit cannot be determined on the basis of these 2 outcomes alone.

For all listed outcomes it may be necessary that an assessment is made in relation to information on how other outcomes are affected by the intervention. In the event of particularly serious or even life-threatening diseases, for example, it is usually not sufficient only to demonstrate an improvement in quality of life by application of the intervention to be assessed, if at the same time it cannot be excluded with sufficient certainty that serious morbidity or even mortality are adversely affected to an extent no longer acceptable. This is in principle consistent with the ruling by the highest German judiciary that certain (beneficial) aspects must be assessed only if therapeutic effectiveness has been sufficiently proven [96]. On the other hand, in many areas (particularly in palliative care) an impact on mortality cannot be adequately assessed without knowledge of accompanying (possibly adverse) effects on quality of life.

In accordance with §35b (1) Sentence 4 SGB V, the following outcomes related to patient benefit are to be given appropriate consideration: increase in life expectancy, improvement in health status and quality of life, as well as reduction in disease duration and adverse effects. These dimensions of benefit are represented by the outcomes listed above; for example, the improvement in health status and the reduction in disease duration are aspects of direct disease-related morbidity; the reduction in adverse effects is an aspect of therapy-related morbidity. Those outcomes reliably and directly representing specific changes in health status are primarily considered. In this context, individual affected persons are especially involved in the topic-related definition of patient-relevant outcomes. In the assessment of quality of life, only instruments should be used that are suited for application in clinical trials and have been evaluated accordingly [208]. In addition, valid surrogate endpoints can be considered in the benefit assessment (see Section 3.1.2).

Both beneficial and harmful aspects can have different relevance for the persons affected; these aspects may become apparent through qualitative surveys or the Institute's consultations with affected persons in connection with the definition of patient-relevant outcomes (examples of corresponding methods are listed at the end of Section 3.1.4). In such a situation it may be meaningful to establish a hierarchy of outcomes. General conclusions on benefit and harm are then primarily based on proof regarding higher-weighted outcomes. Planned subgroup and sensitivity analyses are then primarily conducted for higher-weighted outcomes, whereas such analyses are not routinely conducted for the remaining ones.

Diagnostic tests can be of indirect benefit by being a precondition for therapeutic interventions through which it is possible to achieve an effect on the patient-relevant outcomes mentioned above. The precondition for the benefit of such tests is therefore the existence and the proven benefit of a treatment for patients, depending on the test result.

Interventions can also have consequences for those indirectly affected, for example, relatives and carers. If appropriate, these consequences can also be considered within the framework of the Institute's reports.

The term **benefit assessment** refers to the whole process of the assessment of medical interventions with regard to their positive and negative causal effects compared with a clearly defined alternative treatment, a placebo (or a different type of sham intervention), or no treatment. In this context, beneficial and harmful aspects of an intervention are initially assessed on an outcome-specific basis and then presented. In addition, a combined evaluation of outcome-related beneficial and harmful aspects is possible (see Section 3.1.4) so that, for example, when the effects on all other outcomes have been analysed, the outcome-specific lesser harm from an intervention (in terms of a reduction in adverse effects) can lead to the balanced conclusion of an added benefit.

3.1.2 Surrogates of patient-relevant outcomes

Surrogate endpoints are frequently used in medical research as a substitute for patient-relevant outcomes, mostly to arrive at conclusions on patient-relevant (added) benefits earlier and more simply [17,232,522]. Most surrogate endpoints are, however, unreliable in this regard and can be misleading when used in a benefit assessment [121,268,277]. Surrogate endpoints are therefore normally considered in the Institute's benefit assessments only if they have been validated beforehand by means of appropriate statistical methods within a sufficiently restricted patient population and within comparable interventions (e.g. drugs with a comparable mode of action). A surrogate endpoint can be regarded as valid if the effect of an intervention on the patient-relevant outcome to be substituted is explained to a sufficient degree by the effect on the surrogate endpoint [33,683]. The necessity to evaluate surrogate endpoints may have particular relevance within the framework of the early benefit assessment of drugs (see Section 3.3.3), as regulatory approval procedures primarily investigate the efficacy of a drug, but not always its patient-relevant benefit or added benefit.

There is neither a standard procedure for surrogate endpoint validation nor a general best estimation method nor a generally accepted criterion which, if fulfilled, would demonstrate validity [451]. However, the current methodological literature frequently discusses correlation-based procedures for surrogate validation, with estimation of correlation measures at a study level and individual level [344]. The Institute's benefit assessments therefore give preference to validations on the basis of such procedures. These procedures usually require a meta-analysis of several randomized studies, in which both the effects on the surrogate endpoint and those on the patient-relevant outcome of interest are investigated [100,469]. Alternative methods [683] are only considered in justified exceptional cases.

For correlation-based procedures the following conditions are normally required to demonstrate validity: on the one hand, a high correlation between the surrogate and the patient-relevant outcome at the individual level, and on the other hand, a high correlation between effects on the surrogate and effects on the patient-relevant outcome at a study level [100,102]. As in the Institute's benefit assessments, conclusions related to groups of patients are drawn, the assessment of the validity of a surrogate endpoint is primarily based on the degree of correlation at the level of treatment effects, i.e. the study level. In addition to the degree of correlation, for the assessment of validity of a surrogate endpoint the reliability of results of the validation process is considered. For this purpose, various criteria are drawn upon [344]. For example, associations observed between a surrogate endpoint and the corresponding patient-relevant outcome for an intervention with a specific mode of action are not necessarily applicable to other interventions used to treat the same disease, but with a different mode of action [231,268,277,451]. The studies on which the validation was based must therefore have been conducted with patient populations and interventions that allow conclusions on the therapeutic indication investigated in the benefit assessment as well as on the test intervention and comparator intervention. In order to assess transferability, in validation studies including various disease entities or interventions, analyses on heterogeneity should at least be available.

In the event that a surrogate endpoint cannot be validated conclusively (e.g. if correlation is not high enough), it is also possible to apply the "surrogate threshold effect (STE) concept" [99,344]. For this purpose, the effect on the surrogate resulting from the studies included in the benefit assessment is related to the STE [102,469].

For the Institute's benefit assessments, conclusions on patient-relevant outcomes can be drawn from the effects on the surrogate, depending on verification of the validity of the surrogate or the evaluation of the STE. The decisive factor for the first point is the degree of correlation of the effects on the surrogate and the patient-relevant outcome and the reliability of validation in the validation studies. In the evaluation of an STE, the decisive criterion is the size of the effect on the surrogate in the studies included in the benefit assessment compared with the STE. In the case of a statistically significant effect on the surrogate endpoints, all gradations of conclusions on the (added) benefit with regard to the corresponding patient-relevant outcome according to Section 3.1.4 are possible, depending on the constellation.

Surrogate endpoints that are not valid or for which no adequate validation procedure was conducted can nevertheless be presented in the Institute's reports. However, independent of the observed effects, such endpoints are not suited to provide proof of verification of an (added) benefit of an intervention.

Depending on the proximity to a corresponding patient-relevant outcome, the literature uses various other terms to describe surrogate endpoints (e.g. intermediate endpoint). However, we dispense with such a distinction here, as the issue of the necessary validity remains unaffected by this. In addition it should be considered that an endpoint can represent a patient-relevant

outcome and, beyond this, can also be regarded as a surrogate (i.e. a substitute) for a different patient-relevant outcome.

3.1.3 Assessment of the harm of medical interventions

The use of any type of medical intervention (drug, non-drug, surgical, diagnostic, preventive, etc.) carries per se the risk of adverse effects. In this context, the term “adverse effects” refers to all events and effects representing individually perceived or objectively detectable physical or mental harm that may to a greater or lesser extent cause a short- or long-term reduction in life expectancy, an increase in morbidity, or impairment in quality of life. It should be noted that if the term “adverse effects” is used, a causal relationship to the intervention is assumed, whereas the issue of causality still remains open with the term “adverse events” [128].

The term “harm” describes the occurrence of adverse effects when using a medical intervention. The description of harm is an essential and equal component in the benefit assessment of an intervention. It ensures the informed, population-related, but also individual weighing of benefit and harm [704]. A prerequisite for this is that the effect sizes of a medical intervention can be described by means of the data available, both for its desired as well as its adverse effects, and compared with therapy alternatives, for example.

However, in a systematic review, the analysis, assessment, and reporting of the harm of a medical intervention are often far more difficult than those of the (added) benefit. This applies in particular to unexpected adverse events [128]. Studies are typically designed to measure the effect of a medical intervention on a few predefined outcomes. In most cases, these are outcomes representing effectiveness, while adverse effects are concomitantly recorded as adverse events. The results for adverse events depend heavily on the underlying methods for data collection. For example, explicit queries on defined adverse events normally result in the determination of higher event rates than do general queries [46,363]. To detect unexpected adverse events in particular, general queries about the well-being of patients are however required. In addition, studies designed to specifically detect rare, serious adverse effects (including the description of a causal relationship to the medical intervention) are considerably underrepresented in medical research [54,193,362]. Moreover, reporting of adverse events in individual studies is of poor quality, which has also led to amendment of the CONSORT¹¹ statement for RCTs [361]. Finally, the systematic assessment of the adverse effects of an intervention is also made more difficult by the fact that the corresponding coding in bibliographic databases is insufficient, so that the specific search for relevant scientific literature often produces an incomplete picture [150].

¹¹ Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials

The obstacles noted above often make the investigation of harm more difficult. In cases where complete clinical study reports are available for the assessment, at least sufficient data transparency is also given for adverse events. However, it is still necessary to find a meaningful balance between the completeness of the evaluation of aspects of harm and the resources invested. Consequently, it is necessary to limit the evaluation and reporting to relevant adverse effects. In particular, those adverse effects can be defined as relevant that may

- completely or almost completely offset the benefit of an intervention
- substantially vary between 2 or more otherwise equivalent treatment options
- occur predominantly with treatment options that may be particularly effective
- have a dose-effect relationship
- be regarded by patients as especially important
- be accompanied by serious morbidity or even increased mortality, or be associated with substantial impairment in quality of life

The Institute observes the following principles when evaluating and reporting adverse effects: In the benefit assessment, the initial aim is to compile a selection of potentially relevant adverse effects that are essential in deciding for or against the use of the intervention to be assessed. In this context, the selection of adverse effects and events is made in accordance with the criteria outlined above. This compilation is made within the framework of the preliminary literature search for the particular research question, especially on the basis of data from controlled intervention studies in which the benefit of the intervention was specifically investigated. In addition, and if appropriate, the compilation is made on the basis of available epidemiological data (e.g. from cohort or case-control studies), as well as pharmacovigilance and regulatory data, etc. In individual cases, data obtained from animal trials and experiments to test pathophysiological constructs may be useful. The compilation of potentially relevant adverse effects described above forms the foundation for assessment of harm on the basis of the studies included in the benefit assessment. In this context, if possible and meaningful, pooled analyses (e.g. overall rates of serious adverse events) may also be drawn upon.

3.1.4 Outcome-related assessment

The benefit assessment and the estimation of the extent of the (un)certainty of results generally follow international EBM standards as developed, for example, by the GRADE¹² group [27].

Medical interventions are compared with other interventions, sham interventions (e.g. placebo), or no intervention in respect of their effects on defined patient-relevant outcomes, and their (added) benefit and harm are described in summary. For this purpose, on the basis of the analysis of the scientific data available, for each predefined patient-relevant outcome separately a conclusion on the evidence base of the (added) benefit and harm is drawn in 4 levels with regard to the respective certainty of the conclusion: The data provide either “proof” (highest certainty of conclusions), an “indication” (medium certainty of conclusions), a “hint” (weakest certainty of conclusions) in respect of the benefit or harm of an intervention, or none of these 3 situations applies. The latter is the case if no data are available or the data available do not allow any of the other 3 conclusions to be drawn.

Depending on the research question, the conclusions refer to the presence or lack of a(n) (added) benefit or harm. The prerequisite for conclusions on the lack of a(n) (added) benefit or harm are well-founded definitions of irrelevance ranges (see Section 9.3.6).

The certainty of results is an important criterion for the inference of conclusions on the evidence base. In principle, every result from an empirical study or systematic review of empirical studies is potentially uncertain and therefore the certainty of results must be examined. In this context, one distinguishes between qualitative and quantitative certainty of results. The qualitative certainty of results is impaired by systematic errors (bias; see Section 9.3.12) such as information errors, selection errors and confounding. The quantitative certainty of results is influenced by random errors caused by sampling (statistical uncertainty).

The qualitative certainty of results is thus determined by the study design, from which evidence levels can be inferred (see Section 9.1.3). It is also determined by (outcome-related) measures for further prevention or minimization of potential bias, which must be assessed depending on the study design (see Section 9.1.4). Such measures include, for example, the blinded assessment of outcomes, an analysis based on all included patients (potentially supported by the application of adequate imputation methods for missing values), and, if appropriate, the use of valid measurement instruments.

The quantitative certainty of results is directly connected to the sample size (i.e. the number of patients investigated in a study or the number of [primary] studies included in a systematic review), as well as to the variability observed within and between studies. If the underlying

¹² Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation

data allow for this, the statistical uncertainty can be quantified and assessed as the standard error or confidence interval of parameter estimates (precision of the estimate).

The Institute uses the following 3 categories to grade the degree of qualitative certainty at the individual study level and outcome level:

- **high qualitative certainty of results:** results on an outcome from a randomized study with a low risk of bias
- **moderate qualitative certainty of results:** results on an outcome from a randomized study with a high risk of bias
- **low qualitative certainty of results:** results on an outcome from a non-randomized comparative study

In the inference of the evidence base for an outcome, the number of available studies, their qualitative certainties of results, as well as the effects found in the studies are of crucial importance. If at least 2 studies are available, it is first distinguished whether, due to existing heterogeneity within a meta-analysis (see Section 9.3.8), a common effect estimate can be meaningfully formed or not. In the case of homogenous results that can be meaningfully pooled, the common effect estimate must be statistically significant to infer proof, an indication or a hint according to the existing certainty of results. If the estimated results are too heterogeneous to meaningfully form a pooled common effect estimate, one distinguishes between effects that are not in the same direction, moderately in the same direction, and clearly in the same direction. These are defined as follows:

Effects in the same direction are present if the prediction interval for displaying heterogeneity in a meta-analysis with random effects (see Section 9.3.8) is presented and does not cover the zero effect. In other cases (no presentation of the prediction interval or this interval covers the zero effect) effects in the same direction are present in the following situation:

The effect estimates of 2 or more studies point in the same direction. For these “directed” studies, all of the following conditions apply:

- The overall weight of these studies is 80% or greater.
- At least 2 of these studies show statistically significant results.
- At least 50% of the weight of these studies is based on statistically significant results.

In this context, the weights of these studies generally come from a meta-analysis with random effects (see Section 9.3.8). If no meta-analysis is meaningful, the relative sample size corresponds to the weight.

If effects in the same direction are moderately or clearly in the same direction, if possible, a decision is made on the basis of the location of the prediction interval. As the prediction

interval is generally only presented if at least 4 studies are available (see Section 9.3.8), the classification into effects that are moderately or clearly in the same direction depends on the number of studies.

- **2 studies:** Effects in the same direction are always clearly in the same direction.
- **3 studies:**
 - All studies show statistically significant results. The effects in the same direction are clearly in the same direction.
 - Not all of the 3 studies show statistically significant results. The effects in the same direction are moderately in the same direction.
- **4 or more studies:**
 - All studies show statistically significant results in the same direction of effects: The effects in the same direction are clearly in the same direction.
 - The prediction interval does not cover the zero effect: The effects in the same direction are clearly in the same direction.
 - The prediction interval covers the zero effect: The effects in the same direction are moderately in the same direction.

For the case that the available studies show the same qualitative certainty of results or only one study is available, with these definitions the regular requirements for the evidence base to infer conclusions with different certainties of conclusions can be specified. As described above, the Institute distinguishes between 3 different certainties of conclusions: proof, indication and hint.

A conclusion on proof generally requires that a meta-analysis of studies with a high qualitative certainty of results shows a corresponding statistically significant effect. If a meta-analysis cannot be conducted, at least 2 studies conducted independently of each other and showing a high qualitative certainty of results and a statistically significant effect should be present, the results of which are not called into question by further comparable studies with a high certainty of results (consistency of results). These 2 studies do not need to have an exactly identical design. Which deviations in design between studies are still acceptable depends on the research question. Accordingly, a meta-analysis of studies with a moderate qualitative certainty of results or a single study with a high qualitative certainty of results can generally provide only an indication, despite statistically significant effects.

On the basis of only one study, in exceptional cases proof can be inferred for a specific (sub)population with regard to an outcome. This requires the availability of a clinical study report according to the International Conference on Harmonization (ICH) guidelines and the fulfilment of the other requirements stipulated for proof. In addition, the study must fulfil the following specific requirements:

- The study is a multi-centre study, at least 1000 patients were included in each study arm and there are at least 10 centres. The number of 1000 patients as well as the number of 10 centres serve as orientation for the Institute and do not mean rigid limits.
- The effect estimate observed has a very small corresponding p-value ($p < 0.001$).
- The result is consistent within the study. For the (sub)population of interest, analyses of different further subpopulations are available (particularly subpopulations of study centres), which in each case provide evaluable and sufficiently homogeneous effect estimates. This assessment of consistency is only possible for binary data if a certain minimum number of events has occurred.
- The analyses for the subpopulations addressed above are available for all relevant outcomes, i.e. these analyses are not restricted to individual selected outcomes

It is possible that in the case of the existence of only one study, which alone provides only an indication or a hint, the evidence base may be changed by additional indirect comparisons. However, high methodological demands must be placed on indirect comparisons (see Section 9.3.9). In addition, in the case of a homogeneous data situation, it is possible that by adding indirect comparisons the precision of the effect estimate increases, which plays an important role when determining the extent of added benefit (see Section 3.3.3).

A meta-analysis of studies with a low qualitative certainty of results or an individual study with a moderate qualitative certainty of results (both with a statistically significant effect) generally only provides a hint.

An overview of the regular operationalization is shown in Table 3. In justified cases further factors influence these evaluations. The assessment of surrogate endpoints (see Section 3.1.2), the presence of serious deficiencies in study design or justified doubts about the transferability to the treatment situations in Germany may, for example, lead to a reduction in the certainty of conclusions. On the other hand, great effects or a clear direction of an existing risk of bias, for example, can justify an increase in certainty.

Table 3: Certainty of conclusions regularly inferred for different evidence situations if studies with the same qualitative certainty of results are available

| | | Number of studies | | | | |
|----------------------------------|----------|--|---|--|------------|---|
| | | 1 (with statistically significant effect) | ≥ 2 | | | |
| | | | Homogeneous | Heterogeneous | | |
| | | | Meta-analysis statistically significant | Effects in the same direction ^a | | |
| | | | Clear | Moderate | No | |
| Qualitative certainty of results | High | Indication | Proof | Proof | Indication | – |
| | Moderate | Hint | Indication | Indication | Hint | – |
| | Low | – | Hint | Hint | – | – |

a: See text for explanation of term.

If several studies with a different qualitative certainty of results are available, then first only the studies with the higher-quality certainty of results are examined, and conclusions on the evidence base are inferred on this basis according to Table 3. In the inference of conclusions on the evidence base for the whole study pool the following principles then apply:

- The conclusions on the evidence base, when restricted to higher-quality studies, are not weakened by the addition of the other studies, but at best upgraded.
- The confirmation (replication) of a statistically significant result of a study with a high qualitative certainty of results, which is required to infer proof, can be provided by one or more results of moderate (but not low) qualitative certainty of results within the framework of a conjoint meta-analysis. In this context the weight of the study with a high qualitative certainty of results should have an appropriate size (between 25 and 75%).
- If the meta-analytical result for the higher-quality studies is not statistically significant or if no effects in the same direction are shown in these studies, then conclusions on the evidence base are to be inferred on the basis of results of the whole study pool, whereby the certainty of conclusions is determined by the minimum qualitative certainty of results of all studies included.

According to these definitions and principles, a corresponding conclusion on benefit is inferred for each outcome separately. Considerations on the assessment across outcomes are presented in the following section (see Section 3.1.5).

3.1.5 Summarizing assessment

These conclusions, drawn separately for each patient-relevant outcome within the framework of the deduction of conclusions on the evidence base, are then summarized (as far as possible) in one evaluating conclusion in the form of a weighing of benefits and harms. If proof of a(n)

(added) benefit and/or harm exists with regard to Outcomes 1 to 3 of Section 3.1.1, the Institute presents (insofar as is possible on the basis of the data available)

- 1) the benefit
- 2) the harm
- 3) (if appropriate) the weighing of benefit and harm

In this context, characteristics related to age, gender, and personal circumstances are considered.

One option in the conjoint evaluation of benefit and harm is to compare the outcome-related beneficial and harmful aspects of an intervention. In this context, the effects on all outcomes (qualitative or semi-quantitative as in the early benefit assessment according to §35a SGB V) are weighed against each other, with the aim of drawing a conclusion across outcomes with regard to the benefit or added benefit of an intervention. A further option in the conjoint evaluation is to aggregate the various patient-relevant outcomes into a single measure or to reach an overall conclusion by weighting them. The conjoint evaluation of benefit and harm is specified depending on the topic of interest (see also Section 4.3.3).

3.2 Special aspects of the benefit assessment

3.2.1 Impact of unpublished study results on conclusions

An essential prerequisite for the validity of a benefit assessment is the complete availability of the results of the studies conducted on a topic. An assessment based on incomplete data or possibly even selectively compiled data may produce biased results [216,353] (see also Section 9.3.12).

The bias in published evidence through publication bias and outcome reporting bias has been described comprehensively in the literature [189,462,616]. In order to minimize the consequences of such bias, the Institute has extended information retrieval beyond a search in bibliographic databases, for example, by screening trial registries and sending requests to manufacturers (see also Section 8.1.2 and 8.1.3).

This transfer of information by manufacturers can only solve the problem of bias caused by unpublished evidence if the transfer is itself not selective but complete. An incomplete transfer of information carries a risk of bias for the result of the benefit assessment. This risk should be considered by the Institute in the conclusions of a benefit assessment.

Table 4 below describes what constellations carry a risk of bias for assessment results, and what consequences arise for the conclusions of a benefit assessment.

Table 4: Scenarios for data transfer by third parties and consequences for the conclusions of a benefit assessment

| Scenario | Data transfer by third parties (e.g. manufacturer data) | Evidence that a relevant amount of data is missing | Bias | Assessment / Impact on the conclusions |
|----------|---|---|------------|--|
| 1 | Complete | No | Improbable | No limitation of the conclusions of the benefit assessment |
| 2 | Incomplete | No | Possible | Conclusions are made with reservations |
| 3 | Incomplete | Yes | Probable | Description of the available and missing data; no proof (or indication or hint) of benefit or harm |
| 4 | Complete | Yes (e.g. other manufacturers, investigator-initiated trials) | Possible | Conclusions are drawn with reservations |

If the data transfer was complete and no evidence is available that a relevant amount of data is missing, bias seems improbable (Scenario 1). The inferences drawn from the assessment of data can therefore be adopted without limitation in the conclusions of the benefit assessment.

If the data transfer is incomplete, the consequences for the conclusions depend on whether additional search steps demonstrate that a relevant amount of data is missing. If this is not the case (Scenario 2), bias may still be possible, as data transfer may have been selective and further unpublished data may exist that were not identified by the search steps. In such cases the conclusions are therefore drawn with reservations. If it was demonstrated that a relevant amount of data is missing (Scenario 3), it can be assumed that the data transfer was selective. In this situation, further analysis of the available limited data and any conclusions inferred from them with regard to benefit or harm are probably seriously biased and therefore do not form a valid decision-making basis for the G-BA. Consequently, no proof (nor indication nor hint) of a benefit or harm of the intervention to be assessed can be determined in this situation, independently of whether the available data show an effect of the intervention or not.

If the manufacturer completely transfers data and additional literature searches demonstrate that a relevant amount of data from studies inaccessible to the manufacturer is missing (Scenario 4), then no selective data transfer by the manufacturer is evident. In this situation, bias caused by missing data is still possible. The conclusions are therefore drawn with reservation.

3.2.2 Dramatic effect

If the course of a disease is certainly or almost certainly predictable, and no treatment options are available to influence this course, then proof of a benefit of a medical intervention can

also be provided by the observation of a reversal of the (more or less) deterministic course of the disease in well-documented case series of patients. If, for example, it is known that it is highly probable that a disease leads to death within a short time after diagnosis, and it is described in a case series that, after application of a specific intervention, most of those affected survive for a longer period of time, then this “dramatic effect” may be sufficient to provide proof of a benefit. An example of such an effect is the substitution of vital hormones in diseases with a failure of hormone production (e.g. insulin therapy in patients with diabetes mellitus type 1). An essential prerequisite for classification as a “dramatic effect” is sufficiently reliable documentation of the fateful course of the disease in the literature and of its diagnosis in the patients included in the study to be assessed. In this context, possible harms of the intervention should also be taken into account. Glasziou et al. [262] have attempted to operationalize the classification of an intervention as a “dramatic effect”. In a first approach they propose to regard an observed effect as not explicable solely by the impact of confounding factors if it was significant at a level of 1% and, expressed as the relative risk, exceeded the value of 10 [262]. This magnitude serves as orientation for the Institute and does not represent a rigid threshold. Glasziou et al. [262] made their recommendation on the basis of results of simulation studies, according to which an observed relative risk of 5 to 10 can no longer be plausibly explained only by confounding factors. This illustrates that a corresponding threshold also depends on the attendant circumstances (among other things, the quality of studies used to determine the existence of a dramatic effect or consistent results on an outcome category). This dependence is also reflected in the recommendations of other working groups (e.g. the GRADE group) [410].

If, in the run-up to the work on a specific research question, sufficient information is available indicating that a dramatic effect caused by the intervention to be assessed can be expected (e.g. because of a preliminary literature search), then information retrieval will also include a search for studies that show a higher uncertainty of results due to their design.

3.2.3 Study duration

Study duration is an essential criterion in the selection of studies relevant to the benefit assessment. In the assessment of a therapeutic intervention for acute diseases where the primary objective is, for example, to shorten disease duration and alleviate acute symptoms, it is not usually meaningful to call for long-term studies, unless late complications are to be expected. On the other hand, in the assessment of therapeutic interventions for chronic diseases, short-term studies are not usually suitable to achieve a complete benefit assessment of the intervention. This especially applies if treatment is required for several years, or even lifelong. In such cases, studies covering a treatment period of several years are particularly meaningful and desirable. As both benefits and harms can be distributed differently over time, in long-term interventions the meaningful comparison of the benefits and harms of an intervention is only feasible with sufficient certainty if studies of sufficient duration are available. However, individual aspects of the benefits and harms may quite well be investigated in short-term studies.

With regard to the selection criterion of minimum study duration, the Institute primarily follows standards for demonstrating the effectiveness of an intervention. In the assessment of drugs, the Institute will in particular resort to information provided in guidelines specific to therapeutic indications, which are published by regulatory authorities (e.g. [210]). As the benefit assessment of an intervention also includes aspects of harm, the generally accepted standards in this respect are also relevant when determining the minimum study duration. Moreover, for long-term interventions as described above, the Institute will resort to the relevant guidelines for the criterion of long-term treatment [341]. In individual cases, the Institute may deviate from this approach (and will justify this deviation), for example, if a topic requires longer follow-up, or if specific (sub)questions apply to a shorter period. Such deviations may also be indicated if short-term effects are a subject of the assessment (e.g. in the assessment of newly available/approved interventions and/or technologies where no appropriate treatment alternative exists).

3.2.4 Patient-reported outcomes

The patient-relevant dimensions of benefit outlined in Section 3.1.1 can also include patient-reported outcomes (PROs). In addition to health-related quality of life, PROs can also cover other dimensions of benefit, for example, disease symptoms. As in the assessment of quality of life, instruments are required that are suitable for use in clinical trials [208]. In the selection of evidence (especially of study types) to be considered for the demonstration of an effect, the same principles as with other outcomes usually apply [236]. This means that also for PROs (including health-related quality of life, symptoms, and treatment satisfaction), RCTs are best suited to demonstrate an effect.

As information on PROs is subjective due to their nature, open (i.e. non-blinded) studies in this area are of limited validity. The size of the effect observed is an important decision criterion for the question as to whether an indication of a benefit of an intervention with regard to PROs can be inferred from open studies. Empirical evidence shows a high risk of bias for subjective outcomes in open studies [702]. This should be considered in their interpretation (see also Sections 9.1.4 and 9.3.4). However, situations are conceivable where blinding of physicians and patients is not possible. In such situations, if possible, other efforts are required to minimize and assess bias (e.g. blinded documentation and assessment of outcomes). Further aspects on the quality assessment of studies investigating PROs are outlined in [236].

3.2.5 Benefits and harms in small populations

In small populations (e.g. patients with rare diseases or special subgroups of patients with common diseases), there is no convincing argument to deviate in principle from the hierarchy of evidence levels. In this connection, it is problematical that no international standard definition exists as to what is to be understood under a “rare” disease [698]. Independent of this, patients with rare diseases also have the right to the most reliable information possible on treatment options [202]. Non-randomized studies require larger sample sizes than randomized

ones because of the need of adjustment for confounding factors. However, due to the rarity of a disease it may sometimes be impossible to include enough patients to provide the study with sufficient statistical power. A meta-analytical summary of smaller studies may be particularly meaningful in such cases. Smaller samples generally result in lower precision in an effect estimate, accompanied by wider confidence intervals. Because of the relevance of the assumed effect of an intervention, its size, the availability of treatment alternatives, and the frequency and severity of potential therapy-related harms, for small sample sizes it may be meaningful to accept a higher p-value than 5% (e.g. 10%) to demonstrate statistical significance, thus increasing quantitative uncertainty. Similar recommendations have been made for other problematical constellations [207]. Such an approach must, however, be specified a priori and well justified. Likewise, for small sample sizes it may be more likely that is necessary to substitute a patient-relevant outcome that occurs too rarely with surrogate endpoints. However, these surrogates must also be valid for small sample sizes [209].

In the case of extremely rare diseases or very specific disease constellations, the demand for (parallel) comparative studies may be inappropriate [698]. Nevertheless, in such cases it is also possible at least to document and assess the course of disease in such patients appropriately, including the expected course without applying the intervention to be assessed (e.g. using historical patient data) [97]. The fact that a situation is being assessed involving an extremely rare disease or a very specific disease constellation is specified and explicitly highlighted in the report plan.

3.3 Benefit assessment of drugs

One main objective of the benefit assessment reports on drugs is to support the G-BA's decisions on directives concerning the reimbursement of drugs by the SHI. For this purpose, it is necessary to describe whether a drug's benefit has been demonstrated (or whether, when compared with a drug or non-drug alternative, a higher benefit [added benefit] has been demonstrated).

The G-BA's decisions on directives do not usually consider particular cases, but the general one. Consequently, the Institute's reports do not usually refer to decisions on particular cases.

Because of the objective of the Institute's benefit assessments, these assessments only include studies with an evidence level principally suited to demonstrate a benefit of an intervention. Thus, studies that can only generate hypotheses are generally not relevant for the benefit assessment. The question as to whether a study can demonstrate a benefit mainly depends on the certainty of results of the data analysed.

3.3.1 Relevance of the drug approval status

The commissioning of the Institute by the G-BA to assess the benefit of drugs usually takes place within the framework of the approval status of the drug to be investigated (therapeutic indication, dosage, contra-indications, concomitant treatment, etc.). For this reason, the

Institute's recommendations to the G-BA, which are formulated in the conclusions of the benefit assessment report, usually refer to the use of the assessed drug within the framework of the current approval status.

It is clarified on a project-by-project basis how to deal with studies (and the evidence inferred from them) that were not conducted according to the use of a drug as outlined in the approval documents. In principle, it is conceivable that studies in which a drug was used outside the scope of the approval status described in the Summary of Product Characteristics ("off-label use"), over- or underestimated a drug's benefit and/or harm. This may lead to a misjudgement of the benefit and/or harm in patients treated within the framework of the drug's approval status. However, if it is sufficiently plausible or has even been demonstrated that the results obtained in these studies are applicable to patients treated according to the drug's approval status, these results can be considered in the benefit assessment.

Therefore, for studies excluded from the assessment only because they were off-label studies (or because it was unclear whether they fulfilled the requirements of the approval status), each case is assessed to establish to what extent the study results are applicable to patients treated according to the approval requirements.

Results from off-label studies are regarded as applicable if it is sufficiently plausible or has been demonstrated that the effect estimates for patient-relevant outcomes are not greatly affected by the relevant characteristic of the drug approval status (e.g. the pretreatment required). As a rule, the equivalence of effects should be proven with appropriate scientific studies. These studies should be targeted towards the demonstration of equivalence of the effect between the group with and without the characteristic. Results applicable to patients treated according to a drug's approval status can be considered in the conclusion of the assessment.

Results from studies are regarded as not applicable if their applicability has not been demonstrated and if plausible reasons against the transferability of results exist. As a rule, study results are regarded to be not applicable if, for example, the age range or disease severity treated lay outside the approved range or severity, if off-label combinations including other active ingredients were used, or if studies were conducted in patients with contraindications for the intervention investigated. The results of these studies are not presented in the reports, as they cannot be considered in the assessment of the drug.

If results from off-label studies are regarded as applicable, this is specified in the report plan. As a rule the results of studies showing the following characteristics are discussed, independently of the applicability of study results to the use specified in the approval of the drug:

- They refer to patients with the disease specified in the commission.
- They refer to patients treated with the drug to be assessed.

- They are of particular relevance due to factors such as sample size, study duration, or outcomes investigated.

3.3.2 Studies on the benefit assessment of drugs

The results of the Institute's benefit assessment of drugs may have an impact on patient health care in Germany. For this reason, high standards are required regarding the certainty of results of studies included in the benefit assessment.

The certainty of results is defined as the certainty with which an effect (or the lack of an effect) can be inferred from a study. This refers to both "positive" aspects (benefit) as well as negative aspects (harm). The certainty of results of an individual study is essentially influenced by 3 components:

- the study design
- the internal validity (which is design-specific and determined by the specific way the study was conducted)
- the size of an expected or observed effect

In the benefit assessment of drugs, not only individual studies are assessed, but the results of these studies are incorporated into a systematic review. The certainty of results of a systematic review is in turn based on the certainty of results of the studies included. In addition, it is determined in particular by the following factor:

- the consistency of the results of several studies

The study design has considerable influence on the certainty of results insofar as a causal association between intervention and effect cannot usually be shown with prospective or retrospective observational studies, whereas controlled intervention studies are in principle suited for this purpose [276]. This particularly applies if other factors influencing results are completely or almost completely eliminated. For this reason, an RCT represents the gold standard in the assessment of drug and non-drug interventions [495].

In the assessment of drugs, RCTs are usually possible and practically feasible. As a rule, the Institute therefore considers RCTs in the benefit assessment of drugs and only uses non-randomized intervention studies or observational studies in justified exceptional cases. A reason for exception can be the fact that other study types may also provide sufficient certainty of results for the research question posed. For diseases that would be fatal within a short period of time without intervention, several consistent case reports, for example, may provide sufficient certainty of results that a particular intervention prevents this otherwise inevitable course [428] (dramatic effect, see also Section 3.3.2). The special obligation to justify a non-randomized design when testing drugs can also be found within the framework of drug approval legislation in the directives on the testing of medicinal products (Directive 2001/83/EC, Section 5.2.5 [400]).

In the preparation of the report plan (see also Section 2.1.1), the Institute therefore determines beforehand which study types can be regarded as feasible on the basis of the research question posed, and provide sufficient certainty of results (with high internal validity). Studies not complying with these minimum quality standards (see also Section 9.1.4) are not given primary consideration in the assessment process.

Sections 3.1.4 and 9.1 present information on the assessment of the internal validity of studies, as well as on further factors influencing certainty of results, such as the consistency of the results of several studies and the relevance of the size of the effect to be expected.

In addition to characterizing the certainty of results of the studies considered, it is necessary to describe whether – and if yes, to what extent – the study results are transferable to local settings (e.g. population, health care sector), or what local study characteristics had (or could have had) an effect on the results or their interpretation. From this perspective, studies are especially relevant in which the actual German health care setting is represented as far as possible. However, the criteria for certainty of results outlined above must not be ignored. Finally, the transferability of study results (generalizability or external validity) must be assessed in a separate process initially independent of the study design and quality.

3.3.3 Benefit assessment of drugs according to §35a SGB V

A benefit assessment of a drug according to §35a SGB V is based on a dossier of the pharmaceutical company in which the company provides the following information:

- 1) approved therapeutic indications
- 2) medical benefit
- 3) added medical benefit compared with an appropriate comparator therapy
- 4) number of patients and patient groups for whom a therapeutically relevant added benefit exists
- 5) cost of treatment for the SHI
- 6) requirements for quality-assured usage of the drug

The requirements for form and content of the dossier are outlined in dossier templates, which are a component of the G-BA's Code of Procedure [251]. In the dossier, specifying the validity of the evidence, the pharmaceutical company must describe the likelihood and the extent of added benefit of the drug to be assessed compared with an appropriate comparator therapy. The information provided must be related both to the number of patients and to the extent of added benefit. The costs for the drug to be assessed and the appropriate comparator therapy must be declared (based on the pharmacy sales price and taking the Summary of Product Characteristics and package information leaflet into account).

The probability of the added benefit describes the certainty of conclusions on the added benefit. In the dossier, the extent of added benefit should be described according to the categories of the Regulation for Early Benefit Assessment of New Pharmaceuticals (ANV¹³) (major, considerable, minor, non-quantifiable added benefit; no added benefit proven; benefit of the drug to be assessed smaller than benefit of the appropriate comparator therapy) [94].

In the benefit assessment the validity and completeness of the information in the dossier are examined. It is also examined whether the comparator therapy selected by the pharmaceutical company can be regarded as appropriate in terms of §35a SGB V and the ANV. In addition, the Institute assesses the effects described in the documents presented, taking the certainty of results into account. In this assessment, the qualitative and quantitative certainty of results within the evidence presented, as well as the size of observed effects and their consistency, are appraised. The benefit and cost assessments are conducted on the basis of the standards of evidence-based medicine described in this methods paper and those of health economic standards, respectively. As a result of the assessment, the Institute presents its own conclusions, which may confirm or deviate from those arrived at by the pharmaceutical company (providing a justification in the event of deviation).

The operationalization for determining the extent of added benefit comprises 3 steps:

- 1) In the first step the probability of the existence of an effect is examined for each outcome separately (qualitative conclusion). For this purpose, the criteria for inferring conclusions on the evidence base are applied (see Section 3.1.4). Depending on the quality of the evidence, the probability is classified as a hint, an indication or proof.
- 2) In the second step, for those outcomes where at least a hint of the existence of an effect was determined in the first step, the extent of the effect size is determined for each outcome separately (quantitative conclusion). The following quantitative conclusions are possible: major, considerable, minor, and non-quantifiable.
- 3) In the third and last step, the overall conclusion on the added benefit according to the 6 specified categories is determined on the basis of all outcomes, taking into account the probability and extent at outcome level within the overall picture. These 6 categories are as follows: major, considerable, minor, and non-quantifiable added benefit; no added benefit proven; the benefit of the drug under assessment is less than the benefit of the appropriate comparator therapy.

The quality of the outcome, as well as the effect size, are essential in determining the extent at outcome level in the second step. The rationale for this operationalization is presented in the Appendix *Rationale of the methodological approach for determining the extent of added*

¹³ Arzneimittel-Nutzenbewertungsverordnung, AM-NutzenV

benefit as well as in Skipka et al. [610]. The basic approach aims to derive thresholds for confidence intervals for relative effect measures depending on the effects to be achieved, which in turn depend on the quality of the outcomes and the extent categories.

It will not always be possible to quantify the extent at outcome level. For instance, if a statistically significant effect on a sufficiently valid surrogate is present, but no reliable estimate of this effect on a patient-relevant outcome is possible, then the (patient-relevant) effect cannot be quantified. In such and similar situations, an effect of a non-quantifiable extent is concluded, with a corresponding explanation.

On the basis of the case of a quantifiable effect, the further approach depends on the scale of the outcome. One distinguishes between the following scales:

- binary (analyses of 2x2 tables)
- time to event (survival time analyses)
- continuous or quasi-continuous, in each case with available responder analyses (analyses of mean values and standard deviations)
- other (e.g. analyses of nominal data)

In the following text, first the approach for binary outcomes is described. The other scales are subsequently based on this approach.

On the basis of the effect measure “relative risk”, denominator and numerator are always chosen in such a way that the effect (if present) is realized as a value smaller than 1, i.e. the lower the value, the stronger the effect.

A) Binary outcomes

To determine the extent of the effect in the case of binary outcomes, the two-sided 95% confidence interval for the relative risk is used; if appropriate, this is calculated by the Institute itself. If several studies are pooled quantitatively, the meta-analytical result for the relative risk is used.

Depending on the quality of the outcome, the confidence interval must lie completely below a certain threshold for the extent to be regarded as minor, considerable or major. It is thus decisive that the **upper** limit of the confidence interval is smaller than the respective threshold.

The following 3 categories for the quality of the outcome are formed:

- all-cause mortality
- serious (or severe) symptoms (or late complications) and adverse events, as well as health-related quality of life

- non-serious (or non-severe) symptoms (or late complications) and adverse events

The thresholds are specified separately for each category. The more serious the event, the bigger the thresholds (i.e. closer to 1). The greater the extent, the smaller the thresholds (i.e. further away from 1). For the 3 extent categories (minor, considerable, major), the following Table 5 shows the thresholds to be undercut for each of the 3 categories of quality of the outcomes.

Table 5: Thresholds for determining the extent of an effect

| | | Outcome category | | |
|-----------------|--------------|---------------------|---|---|
| | | All-cause mortality | Serious (or severe) symptoms (or late complications) and adverse events, as well as health-related quality of life ^a | Non-serious (or non-severe) symptoms (or late complications) and adverse events |
| Extent category | Major | 0.85 | 0.75 and risk \geq 5% ^b | Not applicable |
| | Considerable | 0.95 | 0.90 | 0.80 |
| | Minor | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.90 |

a: Precondition (as for all patient-reported outcomes): use of a validated or established instrument, as well as a validated or established response criterion.
b: Risk must be at least 5% for at least 1 of the 2 groups compared.

The relative risk can generally be calculated in 2 ways, depending on whether the risk refers to events or counter-events (e.g. survival vs. death, response vs. non-response). This is irrelevant for the statement on significance specified in Step 1 of the approach (conventional, non-shifted hypotheses), as in such a case the p-value of a single study is invariant and plays a subordinate role in meta-analysis. However, this does not apply to the distance of the confidence interval limits to the zero effect. To determine the extent of effect for each binary outcome (by means of content criteria under consideration of the type of outcome and underlying disease), it must therefore be decided what type of risk is to be assessed, that of an event or counter-event.

B) Time to event

The two-sided 95% confidence interval for the hazard ratio is required to determine the extent of the effect in the case of the outcome representing a time to event. If several studies are pooled quantitatively, the meta-analytical result for the hazard ratio is used. If the confidence interval for the hazard ratio is not available, it is approximated on the basis of the available information, if possible [651]. The same limits as for the relative risk are set for determining the extent (see Table 5).

If a hazard ratio is neither available nor calculable, or if the available hazard ratio cannot be interpreted meaningfully (e.g. due to relevant violation of the proportional hazard assumption), it should be examined whether a relative risk (referring to a meaningful time point) can be calculated. It should also be examined whether this operationalization is adequate in the case of transient outcomes for which the outcome of time to event was chosen. If appropriate, the calculation of a relative risk at a time point is also indicated here.

C) Continuous or quasi-continuous outcomes, in each case with available responder analyses

Responder analyses are used to determine the extent of added benefit in the case of continuous or quasi-continuous outcomes. For this purpose, a validated or established response criterion or cut-off value is required. On the basis of the responder analyses (2x2 tables) the relative risks are calculated directly from them. According to Table 5 the extent of the effect is then determined.

D) Other outcomes

In the case of other outcomes where no responder analyses with inferable relative risks are available either, it should be examined in the individual case whether relative risks can be approximated [136] to set the corresponding thresholds for determining the extent. Otherwise the extent is to be classified as non-quantifiable.

For the third step of the operationalization of the overall conclusion on the extent of added benefit, when all outcomes are examined together, a strict formalization is not possible, as no sufficient abstraction is currently known for the value judgements to be made in this regard. In its benefit assessment the Institute will compare the conclusions on probability and on the extent of the effects and provide a justified proposal for an overall conclusion.

3.4 Non-drug therapeutic interventions

Non-drug therapeutic interventions are assessed in detail within the framework of reports (see Section 2.1.1) or rapid reports (see Section 2.1.2) or in the form of HTA reports (see Section 2.1.10). The procedure and methods of these assessments are applied according to the general principles of the methods paper. Furthermore, new examination and treatment methods that are largely based on the use of a high-risk medical device can also be evaluated within the framework of an assessment according to §137h SGB V (see Section 2.1.6). As §137h assessments are primarily based on documents submitted (and not on information retrieval conducted by the Institute itself) and have to be produced in a markedly shorter period of time, the methodological depth of the work on the assessment and the certainty of a potential conclusion on benefit or harm is as a rule lower than is the case for reports and rapid reports. In particular, §137h assessments do not distinguish between different certainties of conclusions (proof, indication, hint). However, the requirements for a benefit are the same for reports and rapid reports in comparison with assessments according to §137h SGB V and

generally require the availability of RCT results on patient-relevant outcomes (see Sections 1.2.5, 3.1 and 3.2).

Even if the regulatory preconditions for the market access of drugs and non-drug therapeutic interventions differ, there is nevertheless no reason to apply a principally different standard concerning the certainty of results in the assessment of the benefits and harms of an intervention. For example, the G-BA's Code of Procedure [251] envisages, as far as possible, the preferential consideration of RCTs, independent of the type (drug/non-drug) of the medical intervention to be assessed. For medical devices, this is weakened by the conformity evaluation in the current norm DIN EN ISO 14155 (Section A.6.1 [162]), where RCTs are not presented as the design of choice; however, the choice of design must be justified.

Compared with studies on drug interventions, studies on non-drug interventions are often associated with specific challenges and difficulties [461]. For example, the blinding of the staff performing the intervention will often be impossible, and the blinding of patients will either be difficult or also impossible. In addition, it can be assumed that therapists' and patients' preferences for certain treatment options will make the feasibility of studies in these areas particularly problematic. In addition, it may be necessary especially in the assessment of complex interventions to consider the possibility of contamination effects. It may also be necessary to consider the distinction between the effects caused by the procedure or (medical) device to be assessed on the one hand, and those caused by the expertise and skills of those applying the intervention on the other. Moreover, depending on the time of assessment, learning effects need to be taken into account.

In order to give consideration to the aspects outlined above, studies of particularly good quality are required in order to achieve sufficient certainty of results. Paradoxically, the opposite has rather been the case in the past; i.e. sound randomized studies are often lacking, particularly in the area of non-drug interventions (e.g. in surgery [461]). In order to enable any conclusions at all to be drawn on the relevance of a specific non-drug therapeutic intervention, it may therefore also be necessary to consider non-randomized studies in the assessment. Nonetheless, quality standards also apply in these studies, in particular regarding measures taken to ensure structural equality. However, such studies will usually at best be able to provide hints of a(n) (added) benefit or harm of an intervention due to their inherently lower certainty of results. The inclusion of studies with lower evidence levels is consistent with the corresponding regulation in the Chapter 2 §13 (2) of the G-BA's Code of Procedure [251]. However, the specific obligation to provide a justification is emphasized. In this regulation it is noted: "However, in order to protect patients, recognition of a method's medical benefit on the basis of documents with lower evidence levels requires all the more justification the greater the deviation from evidence level 1 (in each case, the medical necessity of the method must also be considered). For this purpose, the method's potential benefit for patients is in particular to be weighed against the risks associated with the demonstration of effectiveness based on studies of lower evidential value" [251]. This means that the non-availability of studies of the highest evidence level alone cannot generally be

viewed as sufficient justification for a benefit assessment based on studies with lower evidence levels.

In the assessment of non-drug therapeutic interventions, it may also be necessary to consider the marketability or CE marking (according to the German Medical Devices Act) and the approval status of drugs (according to the German Pharmaceutical Act), insofar as the test interventions or comparator interventions comprise the use of medical devices or drugs (see Section 3.3.1). The corresponding consequences must subsequently be specified in the report plan (see Section 2.1.1).

3.5 Diagnostic tests

Diagnostic tests are characterized by the fact that their health-related benefit (or harm) is in essence only realized if the tests are followed by therapeutic or preventive procedures. The mere acquisition of diagnostic information (without medical consequences) as a rule has no benefit from the perspective of social law.

This applies in the same way both to diagnostic information referring to the current state of health and to prognostic information (or markers) referring to a future state of health. In the following text, procedures to determine diagnostic or prognostic information are therefore jointly regarded as diagnostic tests.

In general, the evaluation process for diagnostic tests can be categorized into different hierarchy phases or levels, analogously to the evaluation of drugs [244,395]. Phase 4 prospective, controlled diagnostic studies according to Köbberling et al. [395], or Level 5 studies according to Fryback and Thornbury [244] have an (ideally random) allocation of patients to a strategy with or without application of the diagnostic test to be assessed or to a group with or without disclosure of the (diagnostic) test results. These studies can be seen as corresponding to Phase 3 (drug) approval trials (“efficacy trials”). Accordingly, they are allocated to the highest evidence level (see, for example, the G-BA’s Code of Procedure [251]). The US Food and Drug Administration also recommends such studies for specific indications in the approval of drugs and biological products developed in connection with diagnostic imaging techniques [235]. Examples show that they can be conducted with comparatively moderate effort [18,665].

The Institute follows this logic and primarily conducts benefit assessments of diagnostic tests on the basis of studies designed as described above that investigate patient-relevant outcomes. The main features of the assessment comply with the explanations presented in Sections 3.1 to 3.4. In this context, patient-relevant outcomes refer to the same benefit categories as in the assessment of therapeutic interventions, namely mortality, morbidity, and health-related quality of life. The impact of diagnostic tests on these outcomes can be achieved by the avoidance of high(er) risk interventions or by the (more) targeted use of interventions. If the collection of diagnostic or prognostic information itself is associated with a high(er) risk, a lower-risk diagnostic test may have patient-relevant advantages, namely, if (in the case of

comparable test accuracy) the conduct of the test itself causes lower mortality and morbidity rates, or fewer restrictions in quality of life.

Conclusions on the benefit of diagnostic tests are ideally based on randomized studies, which can be conducted in various ways [56,57,226,430,449,571]. In a study with a strategy design including 2 (or more) patient groups, in each case different strategies are applied, which in each case consist of a diagnostic measure and a therapeutic consequence. A high informative value is also ascribed to randomized studies in which all patients initially undergo the conventional and the diagnostic test under investigation; subsequently, only those patients are randomized in whom the latter test produced a different result, and thereby a different therapeutic consequence, than the former test (discordance design). Studies in which the interaction between the diagnostic or prognostic information and the therapeutic benefit is investigated also have a high evidence level and should as a matter of priority be used for the benefit assessment of diagnostic tests (interaction design [571,638]). Many diagnostic or prognostic characteristics – especially genetic markers – can also be determined retrospectively in prospective comparative studies and examined with regard to a potential interaction (so-called “prospective-retrospective” design [608]). The validity of such “prospective-retrospective” designs depends especially on whether the analyses were planned prospectively (in particular also the specification of threshold values). Moreover, in all studies with an interaction design it is important that the treatments used correspond to the current standard, that the information (e.g. tissue samples) on the characteristic of interest is completely available for all study participants or at least for a sample that is clearly characterized and for which the structural equality between groups still exists, and that if several characteristics are analysed the problem of multiple testing for significance is adequately accounted for (see also Section 9.3.2) [572].

Overall, it is less decisive to what extent diagnostic or prognostic information can determine a current or future state of health, but rather that this information is of predictive relevance, namely, that it can predict the greater (or lesser) benefit of the subsequent treatment [226,609]. For this – necessarily linked – assessment of the diagnostic and therapeutic intervention it is important to note that overall, a benefit can normally only arise if both interventions fulfil their goal: If either the predictive discriminative capacity of the diagnostic intervention is insufficient or the therapeutic intervention is ineffective, a study will not be able to show a benefit of the diagnostic intervention.

Besides a strategy and interaction design, a third main form of RCTs on diagnostic questions is available with the enrichment design [450,638]. In this design, solely on the basis of the diagnostic test under investigation, only part of the patient population is randomized (and thus included); for example, only test-positive patients, who then receive 1 of 2 treatment options. In comparison with an interaction design, such a design lacks the investigation of a potential treatment effect in the remaining patients (e.g. in the test-negative ones). Robust conclusions can thus only be drawn from such designs if, on the basis of other information, it can be

excluded that an effect observed in the randomized patient group could also have existed in the non-randomized group.

In specific cases an interaction between the diagnostic or prognostic marker and the treatment effect can be inferred with sufficient certainty, even if the treatment effect is only known for the whole group (i.e. test-positive and test-negative persons together). In the (theoretically) extreme case, a test result allows certain exclusion of the disease, so that the treatment of a disease is useless and at most produces side effects. However, statistically it cannot be demonstrated with absolute certainty that a certain test result indicates or excludes a certain health state. But if it can be shown for a test in this situation that test-negative persons have a sufficiently low (or test-positive persons a sufficiently high) risk of reaching key outcomes, then, under consideration of a treatment's benefit and harm, the test can allow a sufficiently certain decision against (or for) a treatment [506]. For example, a treatment that has a positive benefit-harm ratio in the overall group of patients might not be meaningful in a subgroup of test-negative patients, because the (absolute) treatment effect in this low-risk group can at most be negligibly small. For such a linked observation of the treatment effect in the overall group and the outcome risk in a subgroup to be sustainable, it must be excluded with sufficient certainty that the (relative) treatment effect in the subgroup differs markedly from that in the overall group. Furthermore, data on patient preferences can be considered in order to specify appropriate thresholds for the assessment of the benefit-harm ratio. In addition, it can be meaningful to specify a topic-specific minimum size (expressed as a percentage) of the subgroup of test-negative or test-positive persons.

The comments above primarily refer to diagnostic tests that direct more patients towards a certain therapeutic consequence by increasing the test accuracy (i.e. sensitivity, specificity or both). In these cases, as a rule it is necessary to examine the impact of the diagnostic test on patient-relevant outcomes by covering the whole diagnostic and therapeutic chain. However, it is possible that the diagnostic test under investigation is only to replace a different and already established diagnostic test, without identifying or excluding additional patients. If the new test shows direct patient-relevant advantages, for example, is less invasive or requires no radiation, it will not always be necessary to re-examine the whole diagnostic-therapeutic chain, as the therapeutic consequences arising from the new test do not differ from those of the previous test [48,57,465]. To demonstrate benefit, in these cases test accuracy studies could be sufficient in which it is shown that the test result of the previous test (= reference standard) and that of the test under investigation (= index test) are identical in a sufficiently high proportion of patients (one-sided question of equivalence).

For a comparison of 2 or more diagnostic tests with regard to certain test accuracy characteristics the highest certainty of results arises from cohort or cross-sectional studies in which the diagnostic tests are conducted independently of one another in the same patients and the test results are assessed under mutual blinding [431,690]. Additionally, in patients with rapidly progressing diseases, a random sequence of the conduct of the tests can be important. Besides studies that allow an intra-individual comparison of test results, RCTs are

also conceivable where in each case one part of the patient population is only examined with the one or the other index test before preferably all results are verified by means of a uniform reference standard. Similar to other study designs, this study design allows the determination of test accuracy characteristics with the highest certainty of results.

If a study is to provide informative data on the benefit, diagnostic quality or prognostic value of a diagnostic test, it is essential to compare it with the previous diagnostic approach [639]. Only in this way can the added value of the diagnostic or prognostic information be reliably determined. For studies on test accuracy this means that, besides sensitivity and specificity of the new and previous method, it is of particular interest to what extent the diagnostic measures produce different results per patient. In contrast, in studies on prognostic markers multifactorial regression models often play a key role, so that Section 9.3.7 should be taken into account. When selecting non-randomized designs for diagnostic methods, the ranking of different study designs presented in Section 9.1.3 should as a rule be used.

In the assessment of the certainty of results of studies on diagnostic accuracy, the Institute primarily follows the QUADAS-2¹⁴ criteria [690,691], which, however, may be adapted for the specific project. The STARD¹⁵ criteria [59,60] are applied in order to decide on the inclusion or exclusion of studies not published in full text on a case-by-case basis (see also Sections 9.1.4 and 9.3.12). Despite some individual good proposals, there are no generally accepted quality criteria for the methodological assessment of prognosis studies [12,309,310,607]. Only general publication standards exist for studies on prognostic markers [677], however, there are publication standards for prognostic markers in oncology [16,464].

Level 3 and 4 studies according to Fryback and Thornbury [244] are to investigate the effect of the (diagnostic) test to be assessed on considerations regarding (differential) diagnosis and/or subsequent therapeutic (or other management) decisions, i.e. it is investigated whether the result of a diagnostic test actually leads to any changes in decisions. However, such studies or study concepts have the major disadvantage that they are not sharply defined, and are therefore of rather theoretical nature. A principal (quality) characteristic of these studies is that it was clearly planned to question the physicians involved regarding the probability of the existence of the disease (and their further diagnostic and/or therapeutic approach) *before* the conduct of the diagnostic test to be assessed or the disclosure of results. This is done in order to determine the change in attitude caused by the test result. In contrast, retrospective appraisals and theoretical estimates are susceptible to bias [244,287]. The relevance of such ultimately uncontrolled studies within the framework of the benefit assessment of diagnostic (or prognostic) tests must be regarded as largely unclear. Information on management changes

¹⁴ Quality Assessment of Diagnostic Accuracy Studies

¹⁵ Standards for Reporting of Diagnostic Accuracy

alone cannot therefore be drawn upon to provide evidence of a benefit, as long as no information on the patient-relevant consequences of such changes is available.

It is also conceivable that a new diagnostic test is incorporated in an already existing diagnostic strategy; for example, if a new test precedes (triage test) or follows (add-on test) an established test in order to reduce the frequency of application of the established test or new test, respectively [56]. However, against the background of the subsequent therapeutic (or other types of) consequences, it should be considered that through such a combination of tests, the patient populations ensuing from the respective combined test results differ from those ensuing from the individual test results. This difference could in turn influence subsequent therapeutic (or other types of) consequences and their effectiveness. If such an influence cannot be excluded with sufficient certainty – as already described above – comparative studies on diagnostic strategies including and excluding the new test may be required [235,436].

Several individual diagnostic tests or pieces of information are in part summarized into an overall test via algorithms, scores, or similar approaches. In the assessment of such combined tests the same principles should be applied as those applied for individual tests. In particular, the validation and clinical evaluation of each new test must be performed independently of the test development (e.g. specification of a threshold, weighting of scores, or algorithm of the analysis) [626].

Biomarkers used within the framework of personalized or better stratified medicine should also be evaluated with the methods described here [327,638]. This applies both to biomarkers determined before the decision on the start of a treatment (or of a treatment alternative) and to those determined during treatment in order to decide on the continuation, discontinuation, switching, or adaptation of treatment [614,664]. Here too, it is essential to distinguish between the prognostic and predictive value of a characteristic. Prognostic markers provide information on the future state of health and normally refer to the course of disease under treatment and not to the natural course of disease without treatment. The fact that a biomarker has prognostic relevance does not mean that it also has predictive relevance (and vice versa).

Finally, in the assessment of diagnostic tests, it may also be necessary to consider the result of the conformity assessment procedure for CE marking and the approval status of drugs used in diagnostics (see Section 3.3.1). The corresponding consequences must subsequently be specified in the report plan (see Section 2.1.1).

3.6 Early diagnosis and screening

Screening programmes are composed of different modules, which can be examined either in part or as a whole [141,603]. The assessment of a screening test generally follows internationally accepted standards and criteria, for example, those of the UK National Screening Committee (UK NSC [662]), the US Preventive Services Task Force (US PSTF [297,512,577]), or the New Zealand National Health Committee (NHC) [480].

According to the criteria outlined above, the Institute primarily assesses the benefit of screening tests by means of prospective comparative intervention studies on the whole screening chain, which include the (ideally random) allocation of participants to a strategy with or without application of the screening test (or to different screening strategies) and which investigate patient-relevant outcomes. In this context, the main features of the assessment comply with the explanations outlined in 3.1 to 3.1.4.

If such studies are not available or are of insufficient quantity or quality, an assessment of the single components of the screening chain can be performed. In this context, the accuracy of the diagnostic test is assessed by means of generally applied test accuracy criteria, determined in studies showing sufficient certainty of results (usually Phase 3 according to Köbberling et al. [395]) (see Section 3.1.5), and it is reviewed to what extent it is proven that the consequences resulting from the test outcomes are associated with a benefit. In the case of therapeutic consequences (which are mostly assumed), proof can be inferred from randomized intervention studies in which an early (earlier) intervention was compared with a late(r) one. The benefit of an early (earlier) vs. a late(r) intervention may also be assessed by means of intervention studies in which the interaction between the earliness of the start of the intervention and the intervention's effect can be investigated. This can be performed either directly within a study or indirectly by comparing studies with different starting points for the intervention, but with otherwise comparable study designs. Here too, the main features of the assessment comply with the explanations outlined in Sections 3.1 to 3.1.4.

A particular aspect of harm from screening is the fact that screening produces overdiagnoses. An overdiagnosis is defined as an actually true-positive diagnosis which, however, without screening would not have caused symptoms during a person's life [111]. For instance, overdiagnoses occur in screening for slowly progressing diseases, because in these cases, there is a high probability that a person will die of a different cause before developing symptoms. Since overdiagnoses are inevitable as a harmful effect of any screening, but can only be recorded indirectly, specific methods for recording this outcome are required [110,201].

3.7 Prevention

Prevention is directed at avoiding, reducing the probability of, or delaying health impairment [679]. Whereas primary prevention comprises all measures employed before the occurrence of detectable biological impairment in order to avoid the triggering of contributory causes, secondary prevention comprises measures to detect clinically asymptomatic early stages of diseases, as well as their successful early therapy (see also Section 3.6). Primary and secondary prevention measures are characterized by the fact that, in contrast to curative measures, whole population groups are often the focus of the intervention. Tertiary prevention in the narrowest sense describes specific interventions to avoid permanent (especially social) functional deficits occurring after the onset of disease [312]. This is not the focus of this

section, but is addressed in the sections on the benefit assessment of drug and non-drug interventions (see Sections 3.3 and 3.4).

The Institute also primarily performs benefit assessments of prevention programmes (other than screening programmes) by means of prospective, comparative intervention studies that have an (ideally random) allocation of participants to a strategy with or without application of the prevention measure, and that investigate patient-relevant outcomes. Alternatively, due to potential contamination between the intervention and control group, studies in which clusters were allocated to the study arms may also be eligible [652].

In individual cases, it needs to be assessed to what extent the consideration of other study designs is meaningful [367]. For example, mass-media campaigns are often evaluated within the framework of interrupted time-series analyses (e.g. Vidanapathirana et al. [671]), and the use of this study design is also advocated for community intervention research [49]. In the quality assessment of these studies, the Institute uses for orientation the criteria developed by the Cochrane Effective Practice and Organisation of Care Review Group [124].

For the benefit on the population level, not only the effectiveness of the programme is decisive, but also the participation rate. In addition, the question is relevant as to which persons are reached by prevention programmes; research indicates that population groups with an increased risk of disease participate less often in such programmes [412]. Special focus is therefore placed on both of these aspects in the Institute's assessments.

3.8 Assessment of potential

The following text first addresses assessments of potential according to §137e SGB V, before the determination of a potential in assessments according to §137h SGB V is explained. In contrast to benefit assessments, assessments of potential according to §137e SGB V aim to investigate whether new examination or treatment methods potentially show a benefit. In this context, "potential" means that firstly, the evidence available so far indicates that a potential benefit may exist, and secondly, that on the basis of this evidence a study can be planned that allows an assessment of the benefit of the method on a sufficiently reliable evidence level; see Chapter 2 §14 (3, 4) of the G-BA's Code of Procedure [251].

An assessment of potential according to §137e (7) SGB V is based on an application for which the G-BA has defined the form and required content. Those entitled to apply are manufacturers of a medical device on which the technical application of a new examination or treatment method is largely based, as well as companies that in another way as a provider of a new method have an economic interest in providing their service at the expense of the health insurance funds. The application must contain informative documents especially referring to the current evidence on and the expected benefit of the new examination and treatment method (see §20 (2) No. 5 of the G-BA's Code of Procedure [251]). Optionally a proposal can be submitted on the key points of a testing study. An application for a method can refer to one or several therapeutic indications.

Within the framework of the assessment of potential the Institute evaluates the plausibility of the information provided by the applicant. This evaluation especially refers to the meaningfulness of the medical question(s) presented in the application, the quality of the information retrieval conducted by the applicant (see Section 8.5), the assessment of the certainty of results of the relevant studies, and the correctness of the results presented in the application. The Institute can conduct its own literature searches to support the assessment; however, it is not the Institute's responsibility or goal to complete the documents presented. The assessment leads to a conclusion on the potential of the examination or treatment method applied for. If a potential is determined from the Institute's point of view, the testing study proposed by the applicant is evaluated; if the application does not contain such a proposal or an unsuitable one, the Institute specifies the key points of a possible testing study.

Due to the particular aim, considerably lower requirements for the evidence are imposed in assessments of potential compared with benefit assessments. Ultimately, the aim of testing is first to generate an adequate data basis for a future benefit assessment. Accordingly, a potential can be justified, in particular also on the basis of non-randomized studies. Moreover, further methodological principles of benefit assessments are not used or only used to a limited extent in assessments of potential, as described in the following text.

In contrast to benefit assessments, due to lower requirements for the evidence, in assessments of potential an extended assessment of the qualitative certainty of results of non-randomized studies is performed. In this context, besides the levels mentioned in Section 3.1.4 for randomized studies (high or moderate certainty of results) the following grades are used:

- **low qualitative certainty of results:** result of a higher quality non-randomized comparative study with adequate control for confounders (e.g. quasi-randomized controlled studies, non-randomized controlled studies with active allocation of the intervention following a preplanned rule, prospective comparative cohort studies with passive allocation of the intervention),
- **very low qualitative certainty of results:** result of a higher quality non-randomized comparative study (see point above), but without adequate control for confounders or result of another non-randomized comparative study (e.g. retrospective comparative cohort studies, historically controlled studies, case-control studies),
- **minimum qualitative certainty of results:** result of a non-comparative study (e.g. one-arm cohort studies, observational studies or case series, cross-sectional studies or other non-comparative studies), which allows an indirect comparison with the results of other studies (literature controls).

An important aspect of the certainty of results is the control for confounders, which can in particular be achieved through the use of multifactorial statistical methods – as described in Section 9.3.7. Further factors are also taken into account in the assessment of the certainty of results (see Section 9.1.4).

High-quality non-randomized studies may also show a considerable risk of bias. When deriving the potential of an intervention from such studies, it must therefore be evaluated whether the available studies show differences regarding the intervention of interest in a magnitude suggesting that a benefit can be demonstrated in suitable future studies, and that these differences cannot be solely explained by the average expected influence of bias. A potential thus particularly arises if studies of a low certainty of results show at least small effects, if studies of a very low certainty of results show at least medium effects, and if studies with a minimum certainty of results show at least large effects. For the relative risk, values of 0.8 and 0.5 can serve as rough thresholds between small, medium and large effects [174,508]. Deviating from the procedure in benefit assessments (see Section 3.1.2), in assessments of potential, surrogate endpoints are also considered for which no sufficient validity has yet been shown. However, surrogate endpoints should be established and plausible so as to be able to justify a potential.

If the potential of diagnostic methods is to be evaluated, data on test accuracy are also considered. In this context, the certainty of results of the underlying studies must be examined (see Sections 3.5 and 9.3.12). In a second step, an evaluation of the plausibility of the diagnostic method is performed with regard to the effects postulated by the applicant in respect of patient-relevant outcomes, that is, possible direct effects of the method, as well as therapeutic consequences via which the diagnostic method could influence patient-relevant outcomes.

With regard to the determination of a potential, assessments according to §137h SGB V follow the principles presented previously for §137e SGB V. The procedure differs in 3 points:

- In §137h assessments, the basis of the assessment is not an application by a medical device manufacturer or another company, which is the case for the procedure following §137e SGB V; assessments according to §137h SGB V are based on documents compiled by a hospital, which can then be supplemented at the G-BA by further hospitals and medical device manufacturers.
- In §137h assessments, a potential arises precisely if the findings so far available allow a potential benefit to be recognized [251]. In assessments according to §137h SGB V, the feasibility of a study does not represent a decision-relevant criterion for a conclusion on a potential [251], but proposals for a testing study contained in the documents submitted are also evaluated and the key points of a potential testing are specified.
- If a benefit of the method in terms of §137h SGB V is recognizable in the assessment, evaluating the potential and addressing a possible testing study become superfluous.

4 Health economic evaluation of medical interventions

4.1 Introduction

According to SGB V, in relation to the specific commission the Institute determines the methods and criteria for the preparation of health economic evaluations (HEEs) on the basis of the international standards of evidence-based medicine and health economics recognized by the respective experts in these fields. For each HEE, decisions must be made, among other things, on the perspective, the time horizon, the choice of comparators, the underlying care pathway, the model, the data basis, and the presentation of uncertainty. These basic criteria for an HEE are briefly explained against the background of commissioning by the Federal Joint Committee (G-BA). All deviations from the methods presented here must be justified in the individual case.

4.1.1 Legal basis for a health economic evaluation according to SGB V

According to §139a (3) No. 2 SGB V, the Institute can be commissioned with regard to questions concerning the quality and efficiency of services provided within the framework of statutory health insurance (SHI). HEEs of drugs can also be commissioned by the G-BA according to §35b SGB V. Furthermore, an HEE can be commissioned by the Federal Ministry of Health according to §139b (2) SGB V.

In the following text, at first methodological aspects generally applying to HEEs are addressed. In Section 4.9 the deviations are then explained that arise from HEEs of drugs performed according to §35b SGB V.

4.1.2 Perspective

Depending on the commission, the following perspectives can be considered: the (pure) perspective of statutory health insurance (SHI), the perspective of the community of SHI insurants (short: “SHI insurant perspective”), the social insurance perspective or the perspective of individual social insurance branches, as well as the societal perspective. In contrast to the pure SHI perspective, in the SHI insurant perspective the costs borne by the insurants (e.g. from co-payments) are also considered (see Section 4.4.1). Depending on the commission, it can be required for an HEE to consider the perspective of individual social insurance branches in addition to the SHI insurant perspective. The decision on whether further perspectives are included in an HEE depends solely on the question as to whether this is relevant for the decision maker. The results of the assessment from an extended perspective are presented separately to the decision maker.

4.1.3 Time horizon

The time horizon must at least represent the average study duration and thus consider the differences in costs and benefits between the interventions of an HEE that are relevant for the reimbursement decision. A longer time horizon should preferably be chosen in particular for chronic diseases [77,187,448,653]. Decision-analytic models are often applied for health

economic evaluations over longer time horizons [601]. Costs and benefits should always be modelled over the same time horizon.

The appropriate time horizon is often longer than the period covered by the available primary data from prospective studies. In these cases, under consideration of the duration of the studies, a time horizon appropriate for the disease should be chosen [316,653].

4.1.4 Choice of comparators

For the derivation of an efficiency frontier, the presentation form chosen by the Institute for results of an HEE (see Section 4.6), all healthcare-relevant interventions in a therapeutic area should be considered in an HEE. Active ingredients can, for example, be pooled into drug classes, if this seems meaningful from a medical point of view and if homogeneity is sufficient (see Section 9.3.8).

4.1.5 Care pathway

For each HEE, at first one or more care pathways should be developed for the therapeutic area. A care pathway describes treatment processes for patients with one or more specific therapeutic indications in a chronological sequence and structures them according to sectors, professions involved, stages, and, if applicable, further aspects. This care pathway serves as a basis for developing the decision-analytic model (see Sections 4.1.6 and 4.2). Furthermore, the literature searches for data on costs and further data required for the model are also based on the care pathway.

At first, for each specific commission the course of disease and the provision of health care in Germany should be briefly described for the relevant therapeutic indication, together with the sources used. The relevant interventions and treatment steps in the different areas of service, including the service providers, must be rendered within the limits of the approval status and the efficiency principle. Moreover, their application must be evaluated within the specifications of the directives and treatment advice that apply in the SHI system. Furthermore, the current treatment recommendations for Germany should be presented, using valid (clinical practice) guidelines. The relevant components for the HEE should be distinguished from the healthcare context described, so that a care pathway relevant to the model can be described. If individual components are specifically not included in the care pathway, this decision should be justified.

A piggy-back study is a clinical study in which, in addition to the determination of the benefits and harms of a health technology, the costs are also simultaneously determined. Even if such a study is available, concomitantly a care pathway should also be depicted, so that the costs and further data collected in the piggy-back study can be comprehended by means of the attached care pathway.

4.1.6 Model

Piggy-back studies are very rarely available. Moreover, economic data are mostly not collected in clinical studies. The data are often insufficient to comprehensively analyse the costs of an intervention. This is because on the one hand, clinical studies rarely provide information on the long-term economic consequences accompanying the introduction of a new intervention. On the other, they do not always adequately and completely address the healthcare aspects relevant for the cost side in Germany. Moreover, a protocol-induced use of resources within the context of clinical studies can also induce misjudgements on the cost side. For these reasons, the modelling of the costs of an intervention is an important component of an HEE (see Section 4.4). Likewise, in an HEE the benefit can be modelled if a longer time horizon than the one used in the underlying studies is supposed to be used in the HEE (see Section 4.3).

4.1.7 Specific data sources of health economics

Data considered in the HEE to illustrate the provision of health care, epidemiology, and costs, can be collected in various ways and originate from various sources (see also Sections 4.4.4 and 4.5.2).

Analyses of secondary data should follow guidelines and recommendations on the good practice of secondary data analysis [22]. In particular, the choice of data basis, the size and relevant characteristics of the sample and the study population (incl. inclusion and exclusion criteria), the statistical methods, and the control of confounding factors, should be described transparently and justified. The generalizability and representativeness of results should be explained. The individual analysis steps must be comprehensible; plausibility checks should be ensured.

If guidelines are used, they should originate from the German healthcare system and preferably be evidence-based. This refers to guidelines whose recommendations are based on a systematic literature search, are provided as a matter of principle with a level of evidence (LoE) and/or grade of recommendation (GoR), and are linked to the citations of the underlying primary and/or secondary literature (modified according to AGREE¹⁶) [5]. If they are not available in the therapeutic area to be assessed, it is to be considered and presented transparently whether other German guidelines can be used or whether expert surveys should be drawn upon.

Expert surveys follow the generally recognized methods and procedures of quantitative social research. This means that in expert surveys, explicit information should be provided on the recruitment, number and expertise of experts, the research question, individual answers (not

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only mean values), the manner of achieving a consensus, as well as on the presentation and handling of results. Price catalogues or lists must be current and represent the prices relevant for the SHI.

4.1.8 Uncertainty

Following common international practice, one distinguishes between the following types of uncertainty in health economic decision analysis [70]:

Table 6: Concepts of uncertainty in health economic decision analysis^a

| Term | Concept | Other terms sometimes employed | Analogous concept in regression |
|------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|---|
| Stochastic uncertainty | Random variability in outcomes between identical patients | Variability, first-order uncertainty | Error term |
| Parameter uncertainty | The uncertainty in estimation of the parameter of interest | Second-order uncertainty | Standard error of the estimate |
| Structural uncertainty | The assumptions inherent in the decision model | Model uncertainty | The form of the regression model (e.g., linear, log-linear) |

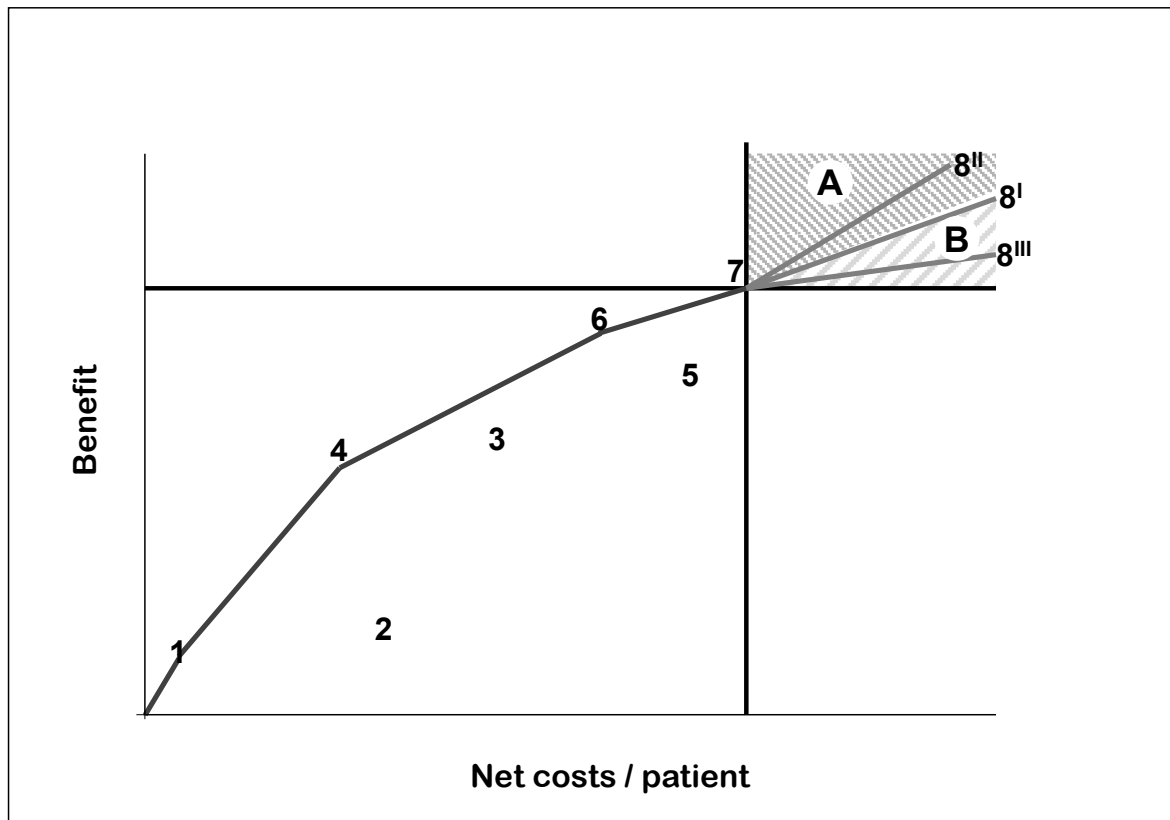
a: Table content = extract from Briggs et al. [70].

Due to the complexity of an HEE, the investigation of uncertainty must be considered in all areas. For this purpose, the Institute follows the classification of uncertainty (see Table 6). To this end, at first basic comments on uncertainty and the distribution assumptions are made in Sections 4.2 to 4.5. The conduct and presentation of the investigation of uncertainty are then presented in Section 4.7.

4.1.9 Interpretation of results

The results are presented in tables and graphs in the form of an efficiency frontier (see Figure 10). Interventions 1 to 7 are plotted as comparators with their cost-effectiveness ratios. Interventions 1, 4, 6, and 7 span an efficiency frontier. The last segment of the efficiency frontier can be linearly extrapolated on the assumption that it represents the reciprocal of the current willingness-to-pay. Then the following applies: Interventions that, related to an outcome, lie on Area A (see Intervention 8^{II}) have, according to their cost-effectiveness ratio, a better cost-effectiveness ratio versus the extrapolated last segment of the efficiency frontier and can thus be reimbursed at the price specified. Interventions on Area B (see Intervention 8^{III}) have, according to their cost-effectiveness ratio, a less favourable cost-effectiveness ratio versus the extrapolated last segment of the efficiency frontier, so that their price based on the

efficiency frontier can be regarded as inappropriate, since the existing efficiency would deteriorate. Under consideration of the criterion of the appropriateness of the costs of interventions on Area B, the decision maker can negotiate a reimbursement price. Interventions with a constant cost-benefit relation (see Intervention 8^I) also fulfil the criterion that their price would be appropriate in comparison with the extrapolated last segment of the efficiency frontier.



Net costs = costs arising from health care, adjusted by cost savings, so-called cost offsets.

Figure 10: Presentation of the areas relevant to decisions

The efficiency frontier illustrates which interventions show the comparatively greatest benefit in relation to the costs incurred. Inefficient interventions are, for example, both more expensive and in relation to an outcome of lesser benefit than other interventions. If both costs and the benefit generated by the new intervention are higher than those already depicted in the efficiency frontier, the costs appropriate for this intervention are not directly inferable from the efficiency frontier itself. Further criteria must thus be drawn upon to assess whether the use of a new treatment that produces an added benefit, but is also more cost-intensive, is appropriate. The Institute assumes that the deterioration of efficiency in a therapeutic indication through inclusion of new interventions is inappropriate. This efficiency is implemented through the linear extrapolation of the gradient of the last segment of the efficiency frontier. Hence, in the event of a given benefit of an intervention under assessment, those cost-effectiveness ratios are regarded to be appropriate that, as measured by the

efficiency frontier, do not lead to a deterioration of efficiency in a given therapeutic area (see Figure 10).

If a measure of the overall benefit is specified (see Section 4.3.3), this is to be regarded as the primary result. If the determination of several efficiency frontiers is required for the assessment of an intervention, the decision maker is entitled to conduct a weighting of results, under observation of the relevance of patient-relevant outcomes. A similar approach can also be considered for the approval of an intervention in several therapeutic areas.

The reasonableness of cost coverage by the community of SHI insurants depends on the one hand on the appropriateness of an intervention's price, but on the other, also on the associated future overall costs depending on the financial capacity and willingness-to-pay of the community of SHI insurants. As neither the financial capacity nor the willingness-to-pay of the community of SHI insurants is assessed, no specific recommendation is issued on the reasonableness of cost coverage. To depict the future financial impact of a cost coverage, a budget impact analysis should be conducted that can serve as an information basis for the decision maker concerning the decision on reasonableness.

4.2 Modelling

4.2.1 Basic principles

In a health economic decision model as the key component of an HEE, data on benefits and costs are merged from different sources in order to calculate the cost-effectiveness ratios of interventions during the course of the disease. Merging of data from different sources by means of a model is often required for numerous reasons. In most cases not all variables relevant for the decision are recorded in a study. A health economic model is also explicitly used to extrapolate benefits and costs beyond the period covered by a study.

Health economic models, like mathematically-formalized models, are thus a simplified depiction of reality. Moreover, analytic clarity is achieved by intentionally reducing complexity to the decision factors and variables relevant for the decision problem.

Thorough documentation is of key importance for health economic models. This documentation should generally consist of 2 parts: on the one hand, a general descriptive documentation of the approach, in which the decisions made and the data (sources) chosen are presented and justified, and on the other, a technical documentation in which the functional/mathematical relations of the model components are presented, so that an expert third party can replicate the results of the model independently of a specific software.

The degree of complexity or the degree of the reduction of a model always depends on the research question posed and cannot be specified a priori. For this reason, besides the internal validity of a model, the applicability should be described and proven. The model structure (e.g. health states), which must be covered by the approval status of the intervention and the

framework of the provision of services according to SGB V, is as a rule developed in agreement with external clinical experts to ensure external validity.

4.2.2 Basic aspects of model development

The results of the models must provide a detailed depiction of the benefits and costs incurred in Germany for the intervention under assessment. For this purpose, the following information must be included in the model:

- results on effects (benefits and harms) of the interventions
- complete recording of disease costs and
- all aspects of the disease and treatment that may have a relevant impact on the benefit or cost components of the model, e.g. in the areas of demographics, epidemiology, and care pathway(s)

As data on individual aspects are often lacking, it is particularly important to explore the impact of assumptions and of the model input on the results by means of sensitivity analyses.

The following conditions must be fulfilled to ensure the validity and formal/content-related comprehensibility of a model:

- complete transparency with clearly described and justified model input and assumptions
- sufficient depth to adequately depict the disease modelled as well as the associated costs and the respective care pathways
- sufficient flexibility to calculate multiple scenarios for varying assumptions and settings
- option of determining uncertainty in the predicted cost and benefit components

4.2.3 Influence diagram and model concept

On the basis of deliberations and information leading to the creation of the care pathway, the basic principles of the model are presented in an influence diagram and a model concept.

An influence diagram graphically depicts the essential relationships of the model between the course of the disease, the patient characteristics, the pathophysiological processes, and the treatment. It displays the factors that have or might have an influence on the research question(s) to be modelled. Despite its name, the influence diagram does not per se show causal associations.

The model concept is based on the influence diagram and presents the intended design in much greater depth. As even the most sophisticated models are simplifications of reality, with required assumptions and limitations referring to the content included [4,187], the model can only be properly understood if the model concept is specified and documented in a comprehensible manner.

4.2.4 Data basis

Published models can be used as a basis for a model concept. These are identified within the framework of a focused information retrieval on health economic evaluations. For the creation of the impact diagram an exploratory search is conducted, among other things, for German guidelines in the therapeutic area investigated (see Section 4.1.7). Results of expert surveys or an analysis of SHI routine data can be considered as supplementary information.

4.2.5 Choice of modelling technique

The choice of the appropriate modelling technique depends on the research question posed, the characteristics of the intervention under assessment, the respective disease, and the general framework. When choosing the modelling technique the guiding principle for the Institute is that the economic model should be as sophisticated and complex as required to adequately answer the research question(s) posed. The evidence base itself should not determine the choice of modelling technique. If the choice of a modelling technique requires a modification of the model concept, this choice should be re-evaluated [101].

The modelling technique chosen must also be compared with those techniques already conducted/published for the same or closely related decision problems. If the model applied deviates from the models already existing, this should be discussed and justified. However, as the appropriate modelling technique always depends on the underlying research question, fixed requirements specified a priori are not meaningful, the more so as the international standard of health economics is being continuously further developed [359]. As a matter of principle, the following key problem areas should be considered:

- Temporal dimension: For which time horizon are conclusions drawn and extrapolations performed, and how is time structured within the model (e.g. continuously/discretely, length of cycle)?
- Analysis unit: Which analysis or experimental unit is depicted (e.g. individuals, cohorts) and which characteristics are considered (age, sex, etc.)?
- Interactions: Which interaction is depicted between the analysis units themselves (i.e. patients) or other elements of the model?

As data from different sources are often merged for modelling, it might be necessary to transform these data into the same format, e.g. relating to the same period of time.

4.2.6 Model documentation and model validation

A) Model validation and structural uncertainty

A simulation model that is valid for one research question might not be valid for another [418]. The external validation process must therefore cover each intended use of the model and, if used for other research questions, the model must be validated again. There is

disagreement on the appropriate approach for model validation; however, there are some basic steps that must be followed [573].

A key element of validation addresses the question as to whether the model adequately depicts the reality of the course of the disease and of treatment. The plausibility check (face validity) refers to the influence diagram, the model concept, data acquisition, the processing of functional relationships, and the choice of modelling technique.

A further key element of validation is the correct technical implementation of the model (internal or technical validation). This aspect refers to the question as to whether the technical implementation actually implements the model concept correctly, for example, whether the results are numerically correct and robust.

A third element of validation is the predictive validity: To what extent does the model predict the future, that is, are the predicted results reflected in the “real world”? This is certainly the most desirable form of validity, but the most difficult to prove, if at all possible [668]. However, a comparison of the model’s results with previous, comparable studies is meaningful and differences should be explicable. This also applies to comparisons with other health economic models (cross validity).

A specific form of uncertainty in model development or validation is the so-called structural uncertainty, with regard to which it is scrutinized to what extent the functional relationships underlying the model are actually valid and whether other functional forms would not be more appropriate. If it becomes obvious in the planning and development of a model that the structural uncertainty is relevant for the underlying research question, it may be necessary to develop several (alternative) models in order to quantify the consequences of this form of uncertainty on the result [637].

B) General documentation

A detailed technical report must be prepared describing all the modelling steps from the development of the influence diagram to the final validation. In addition, a fully executable version of the model must be made available, along with a user manual. In line with recommendations from guidelines [125,483,681], the documentation of the model should include the following:

- The influence diagram used to guide model development.
- Details of the model concept:
 - description of the target population(s) considered in the evaluation, including subgroups
 - description of the interventions evaluated
 - choice of the model settings (simulation size, time horizon, discounting rates, etc.) and justification

- overview of current health economic evaluations in the therapeutic area investigated.
- Description of all data sources. Justification for choice of data sources must be provided.
- Details of all functional relationships used in the model. If they were custom-developed for the model, detailed information on the methods used must be provided.
- Listing of all assumptions with regard to data sources and model structure. Especially important is a detailed account of any assumption and technique used to project beyond the period to which the data apply.
- Rationale for the modelling technique adopted
 - description of how the technique conforms to the required features.
- Overview of the validation techniques used and their results.
- Detailed presentation of results, including an assessment of the impact of the
 - use of the intervention in relevant subgroups
 - uncertainty in input data (see Section 4.7 on sensitivity analyses).
- Interpretation of the results, including a description of the limitations of the approach used.

C) Technical documentation and electronic version of the model

The technical documentation is crucial for the understanding and the assessment of the underlying health economic model. All variables used should be named and defined. The functional/mathematical relationships of the model components should be presented and, if applicable, justified. The formal-mathematical relationships should connect all input variables considered in the model (e.g. health states) with the respective operators (e.g. age-specific transition probabilities). In addition, the derivation of interim and final values must still be presented.

All calculation steps within the software should be documented in a comprehensible manner. This is generally performed by documentation of the program code with which the electronic version of the model is implemented. In table calculation programs (e.g. Excel), the sequence of the calculation steps cannot be directly obtained from the electronic version. If applicable, these steps must then be documented in writing in a way that the sequence of the calculation steps is evident.

An electronic version of the model must be made available under the precondition that the model will be made publicly available and, if required, can be adapted for future evaluations. The electronic version of the model must be fully accessible and enable the reviewers, as well as the public, to view all formulae and relationships used in the model and to execute the model with different input data. To facilitate the review of the model, the electronic version should include a user manual describing which software and hardware is required, how the

inputs into the model can be changed, how these inputs can be found in the model, how the model can be executed, and how results can be extracted.

4.3 Benefit

The methods used to determine the benefit of interventions within the framework of benefit assessments are described in Chapter 3. If the time horizon of the HEE is longer than the one used in the studies that are included in the benefit assessment, the benefit proven by studies is to be distinguished from the modelled benefit.

4.3.1 Transfer and presentation of the benefit

For the integration of the benefit into the HEE by means of the efficiency frontier, the benefit needs to be approximately cardinally scaled. In the HEE the approximately cardinally scaled benefit (derived directly from study results when applicable) or a transformed approximately cardinally scaled benefit can be plotted on the vertical axis. Limiting the condition that a benefit “only” has to be approximately cardinally scaled is based on the following consideration: A scale used to measure benefit does not have to be cardinally scaled across its entire range. It is sufficient if it fulfils the criterion of being cardinally scaled across the range relevant for the definition of the patient-relevant added benefit. For instance, different measurement instruments often show so-called floor or ceiling effects at the margins of their value ranges, yet are cardinally scaled across the remaining range [64,220,532].

No specific approach to determine the valuation of benefit on a cardinal scale is recommended here, as each therapeutic area can offer different options that fulfil the requirement of assessing benefit on a cardinal scale.

4.3.2 Outcomes

The benefit can be presented on the vertical axis of the efficiency frontier by means of individual or aggregated patient-relevant outcomes (see Section 3.1.1 for the definition of patient-relevant medical benefit or harm). If several patient-relevant outcomes are presented next to each other, a separate efficiency frontier is created for each patient-relevant outcome. Alternatively, the benefit is aggregated into a single measure of overall benefit, which is subsequently plotted in an efficiency frontier. In a very general definition, a measure of overall benefit is an aggregation of the assessment of benefit and harm into one dimension, whereby different patient-relevant outcomes are summarized into a single measure. It can be considered both in the benefit assessment and in the HEE. The requirements presented in this chapter for the determination of a measure of overall benefit also apply if it is used within the framework of the benefit assessment.

4.3.3 Measure of overall benefit

On an international level, different measures exist to express or determine the overall benefit. These include the quality-adjusted life year (QALY) and the disability-adjusted life year (DALY). Other measures such as the saved young life equivalent [489] or healthy years

equivalent (HYE) [246] were introduced with the objective of correcting weaknesses in the QALY, the most widely distributed instrument.

In this context, depending on the methodological approach or economic theory, the terms “preferences”, “utilities” and “values” are used in the scientific literature [187]. We refer to the further debate of the terms and relevance of measurement instruments in relation to the issue of a welfarist versus an extra-welfarist framework [78], but do not discuss this issue further here. Following SGB V, the following text speaks of weights by means of which individual patient-relevant outcomes can be transferred into a measure of overall benefit.

If the G-BA specifies the measure of overall benefit for an HEE according to §35b (1) Sentence 2 SGB V (see Section 4.9), a respective instrument and, if applicable, the measurement methods specified for this purpose or an already specified weighting of outcomes are used following the requirements of the commission. The results should be made available to the decision maker together with the weighting of outcomes. The option hereby arises for the decision maker to negotiate a reimbursement price weighted by means of several added benefit-based reimbursement prices.

A) QALY as a measure of overall benefit

To calculate QALYs, weights for health states are determined. In this context respondents balance how they perceive or value these health states. The result is then an index score for each health state. Under integration of the duration of the corresponding health states, these weights, largely referred to as utilities (or utility values), can be transformed into QALYs. The determination and calculation of utility values is, for example, presented in Puhan et al. [523], Lipscomb et al. [432], and Tierney et al. [651].

The Institute does not rule out the possibility of using QALYs in HEEs as a measure of overall benefit. QALYs should only be used if the incorporated utility values on the health states are determined in affected persons who currently or in the past experienced these health states. The data on the existing health states for which the utility value is determined should have been collected from participants of clinical studies. If generic index instruments are used, a scale validated in Germany must be used for the determination of the utility value. The use of QALYs, as well as their determination and conversion into a German scale, must in each case be presented in a comprehensible manner and justified. Apart from that, all usual standards for the respective procedures and instruments apply: i.e. evidence of objectivity, reliability, validity, and responsiveness must be available. Parallel to the use of a generic instrument, disease-specific instruments to determine quality of life in clinical studies should be applied. The mapping of disease-specific to generic instruments is therefore discouraged.

In view of the ongoing discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of different instruments, particularly the multi-attribute utility instruments (MAUI), with which quality of life, subjective well-being or utility values can be (or are supposed to be) determined or depicted, one has to say that no general recommendation can be issued. The choice of

instrument depends on which of these 3 concepts is to be the most prominent one and which dimensions of quality of life are preferably to be determined [529].

There is no resumption here to the scientific debate about the ethical and methodological problems of the QALY concept itself and their solution or a linked willingness-to-pay threshold in an HEE, nor of the use of the QALY for the pure weighing of benefit and harm. In this context we refer to a number of publications [160,177,178,296,432,446,463,490,672].

B) Determination of preferences to establish a measure of overall benefit

If a measure of overall benefit for the comparison of interventions is to be determined, in addition to the disease-spanning measures named above, procedures for multi-criteria decision-making or determining preferences can be applied. For outcomes weighted by means of these procedures, all requirements according to SGB V and the Regulation for Early Benefit Assessment of New Pharmaceuticals (ANV¹⁷) apply. Surrogates can only be used if validity is proven. In the area of health care, the analytic hierarchy process (AHP) and the conjoint analysis (CA) have largely established themselves as methods for multi-criteria decision-making or determining preferences [69,143,336,453,551]. In relation to a specific therapeutic indication, the Institute can thus resort to these procedures to generate a measure of overall benefit. However, there are still unsolved methodological problems in the use of these procedures, so that currently it is not planned to use them routinely.

For the AHP [175,176] a problem in decision-making is broken down into so-called criteria. These are then arranged in a hierarchy. For example, a drug can be assessed by means of the criteria “mortality”, “morbidity”, and “quality of life”. The criteria can be broken down into further subcriteria that can correspond to outcomes [336]. Participants in the AHP then respond to questions about the criteria in a binary way, i.e. on a specified scale they choose how much more a certain criterion means to them than another. By means of a procedure for matrix multiplication [553,554,556] the weights for the criteria and subcriteria can be determined via a so-called “right eigenvector”; these weights must add up to 1. A further development of the method, the analytic network process (ANP), also allows to weight criteria that are dependent of each other [552,555].

The CA belongs to the group of stated-preference techniques [69]. A decision is broken down into so-called attributes that can correspond to outcomes. For each attribute levels are specified. For a discrete choice experiment (DCE = choice-based CA), the choice alternatives (stimuli) are compiled from the attributes with different levels. The respondents are then confronted with a set of (theoretical) scenarios (choice scenario = choice set) consisting of at least 2 stimuli. On the basis of the choice of scenarios, coefficients for the levels of the

¹⁷ Arzneimittel-Nutzenbewertungsverordnung, AM-NutzenV

attributes are then determined in a regression model. The influence of the attributes on the decision can be presented by subsequently forming weights for the attributes. These weights can in turn be standardized to 1.

In its development, the AHP was targeted towards decision-making in the event of opposing aims in committees, for example, the management of a company, and the CA was targeted towards determining preferences to predict purchasing decisions and enable product adaptation. Meanwhile, both procedures play a role in the identification and prioritization of patient-relevant outcomes, for example, before the planning of a study, and in the determination of the net benefit (measure of overall benefit) of interventions [139,473].

A clear allocation with regard to which procedure should be preferred in which situation can thus hardly be inferred. An AHP seems to be more suitable if a decision is to be made in a closed group [337]. In contrast, one would conduct a CA if one also wanted to consider compensation for lost benefit if an intervention is not reimbursed. Incidentally, it is also possible to calculate QALYs by means of CA [234,278]. However, when choosing either procedure the following criteria should be used: For the CA a maximum of 6 to 7 attributes can be included; no such limit applies to the AHP. Furthermore, the AHP seems to require lower cognitive effort from the respondents, which, depending on the therapeutic indication, could be considered. These evaluations can currently only partly be based on empirical data so that an evidence-driven choice of either procedure is not currently possible. In addition, there is a need for research on some issues, such as the reliability of both procedures.

The strength and weaknesses of both methods cannot be described in detail here [485]. Comprehensibility with regard to the planning, conduct, analysis, and evaluation of each implementation is thus crucial. For the CA there is a basic list of criteria to ensure high quality, transparency, and reliability of the results of a CA [68]; several of the requirements also apply to the conduct of an AHP.

The following requirements should be fulfilled in detail in the planning, conduct, analysis, and evaluation of the results of surveys using either procedure:

- completeness of the criteria or attributes
- comprehensive documentation of the approach of selecting the respondents and description of the extent to which they are representative (based on sociodemographic and disease-specific factors) for the collective of affected persons

It must be reported not only who participates in the survey, but also how they were recruited. Furthermore, a sample size must be planned. For the CA there are rules of thumb for a sample size estimation [376]. For the AHP there is currently no method for estimating a sample size; however, at least criteria of representativeness can be used here that are also used for other surveys (sample size, method of drawing of the sample, etc.):

- investigation of the population surveyed with regard to homogeneity
- comprehensive documentation of the analysis, together with the handover of raw data, including the verbatim questions
- language, selection and supervision of the implementation, including an assessment of bias through the type of design (a language appropriate for the respondents should be chosen)
- investigation of the consistency and uncertainty of the results by conduct of suitable analyses (e.g. sensitivity analyses).

4.3.4 Data basis

The procedure for the information retrieval for data that are considered on the benefit side in an HEE is described in Sections 8.1 and 8.2. Publications from which conclusions on the measure of overall benefit arise are identified via a focused information retrieval (see Section 8.2.3). Results from surveys on the derivation of weights and utility values can be considered as supplementary information (see Section 4.1.7).

4.3.5 Uncertainty and distribution of benefit data

For estimated effects within the framework of a benefit assessment, confidence intervals or credible intervals (if Bayesian methods are chosen, see Sections 9.3.2 and 9.3.9) can generally be calculated that indicate the precision or uncertainty of the point estimates. Appropriate assumptions should be made for the further investigation of uncertainty, as many effects are not normally distributed.

Estimates from indirect comparisons (see Section 9.3.9) are more subject to uncertainty than estimates from direct comparisons; this is pointed out in the assessment of uncertainty. For estimates from indirect comparisons that, for example, deviate from each other due to different assumptions on a-priori distributions, scenario analyses are potentially performed.

Also in particular for the measure of overall benefit, the investigations of uncertainty (sensitivity analyses) stipulated in Section 4.7 must be conducted.

4.4 Costs

4.4.1 Perspective and costs to be considered

Depending on the commission, the following perspectives can be considered: the (pure) SHI perspective, the SHI insurant perspective, the social insurance perspective or the perspective of individual social insurance branches, as well as the societal perspective. In the following text the relevant costs to be considered are distinguished according to perspectives.

According to the (pure) SHI perspective all direct reimbursable costs and transfer payments (e.g. sickness allowance) are considered. Furthermore, insofar as relevant for the HEE, the proportions can be considered of contributions to pension insurance, long-term care insurance,

and unemployment insurance that the SHI must bear in the case of a disease after 6 weeks of incapacity for work, as well as losses in contributions (during the payment of sickness allowance).

In the SHI insurant perspective, in addition to the direct reimbursable costs, insurants' own non-reimbursable co-payments need to be considered (see Section 4.4.2). In contrast, sickness allowance is not calculated, as the payments are merely redistributed from the SHI to the insurants, so that no additional costs for the community of insurants are incurred [550]. Likewise, losses of contributions for the SHI due to sickness are not considered.

Table 7: Perspective and relevant costs to be considered¹⁸

| Cost category \ Perspective | Direct medical costs | | Direct non-medical costs | | Indirect costs | Transfer payments |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------|------------------|--------------------------|------------------|----------------|-------------------|
| | Reimbursable | Non-reimbursable | Reimbursable | Non-reimbursable | - | - |
| Society | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | No |
| Social insurance | Yes | No | Yes | No | No | Yes |
| Community of SHI insurants | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | No |
| SHI | Yes | No | Yes | No | No | Yes |

SHI: statutory health insurance

In contrast to the SHI insurant perspective, in the social insurance perspective or that of individual social insurance branches, no co-payments of insurants are calculated. Disease-related, reimbursable expenses including transfer payments are considered.

In the societal perspective, cost components are considered independently of who bears them and who is affected by the effects of an intervention. In general, costs should be considered that are incurred by all social insurance branches and other affected parties (see Table 7). Time expenditure of patients (and/or potentially their relatives) representing loss of working time is not considered once again as time expenditure. Together with the consideration of productivity losses this would lead to double counting. Likewise, transfer payments and SHI-funded contributions to social insurance branches are not considered, as they are merely redistributed and no additional costs are incurred from an economic point of view [550].

¹⁸ Depending on the perspective adopted, the content of the respective cost category can differ. In a narrower interpretation of the community of SHI insurants, co-payments, for example, are considered, but no further expenditure of the insurants. This is specified in the G-BA's commissions.

In general, when determining costs it should be evaluated in each perspective whether these costs and, if applicable, cost savings, are relevant for the interventions, therapeutic areas, and patient groups investigated.

4.4.2 Distinction of costs

A) Direct costs

Direct medical costs refer to the resource use in the current and future provision of healthcare services. They are further divided into direct medical and direct non-medical costs. Direct medical costs are understood to be resource use arising from the provision of health care in the healthcare sector. They include costs, for example, for hospital stays, outpatient visits, drugs, and medical remedies and aids. Direct non-medical costs comprise resources supporting the provision of healthcare services in the healthcare sector, for example, travel costs to clinics where medical interventions are performed or the evaluated disease-related time expenditure of affected patients and their care-providing relatives

Reimbursable costs comprise expenditure for healthcare services funded by the SHI or other social insurance branches. Non-reimbursable medical costs are services directly borne by the insureds, such as co-payments for drugs, medical remedies and aids, and outpatient visits. Non-reimbursable non-medical costs are, for example, disease-related net losses of income¹⁹ (e.g. financial losses of patients receiving sickness allowance below their net income) or the time expenditure of affected patients and relatives.

Most empirical studies do not consider the effects on the leisure time of affected patients and relatives. In this respect the Institute does not regularly consider the time expenditure of these persons in the societal perspective. In case representative and valid information sources on time expenditure are nevertheless available, this expenditure can be considered in sensitivity analyses from the societal perspective. The quality of life of relatives is generally not considered on the benefit side. If their losses of leisure time are investigated, they should also be assessed on the cost side [77,375,497,682].

B) Indirect costs

Indirect costs refer to productivity losses in the event of incapacity for work, occupational invalidity (in the event of long-term disease or disability), and premature death.

¹⁹ Strictly speaking the disease-related losses of net income refer to the difference between the net income of healthy persons and that of sick persons, taking into account co-payments for healthcare services to treat the disease. However, within the framework of the SHI insured perspective, co-payments are not considered as reimbursable costs, so that the net losses of income can be determined from the difference between the sickness allowance paid and the net income of a healthy person.

The Institute primarily considers productivity losses on the cost side. This is also largely recommended by the literature [79,80,107,187,375,588,589]. To avoid double counting, productivity losses due to premature death (mortality costs) should not be recorded on the cost side if mortality is already considered on the benefit side. Mortality costs are only represented on the cost side in those cases in which the outcome investigated does not refer to mortality or survival time. Costs for society (losses of taxes and contributions to social insurance) are always represented on the cost side [375,588,589].

On an international level it is being discussed whether unpaid work (e.g. housework) should also be taken into account in an HEE. As a rule, this is currently not considered by the Institute.

C) Transfer payments

Transfer payments can be considered, insofar as relevant for the HEE. Generally, transfer payments should not be considered if payments are only redistributed and thus no additional costs are incurred for the perspective selected.

D) Intangible costs

Intangible costs are experiences not directly calculable as resource use or evaluable in monetary units, such as pain or anxiety on the part of the patients treated. Following international health economic standards they should be reported on the benefit side, insofar as data on these details are available.

E) Future costs

Furthermore, the health economic literature often proposes a distinction between intervention-associated and non-intervention-associated (future) costs. Intervention-associated costs are, for example, costs incurred for drugs or check-ups after a heart attack, whereas non-intervention-associated costs would be, for example, treatment costs for cancer occurring years later, where treatment has no connection to that for the heart attack.

The consideration of non-intervention-associated costs is the subject of controversial debate [77,187,247,440]. Intervention and non-intervention-associated costs are distinguished from each other depending on the commission. If the extension of life is relevant for the HEE, in the base case the intervention-associated future costs are considered (both for given life expectancy and for life years gained). Non-intervention-associated future costs can be considered in separate sensitivity analyses (not for given life expectancy, as this is identical for all strategies, but for life years gained).

F) Investment and implementation costs

If one-off costs to finance the provision or implementation of healthcare services arise explicitly for the SHI or the community of SHI insurants, the investment and implementation costs should be appropriately considered. This should be investigated via sensitivity analyses.

4.4.3 Steps for cost estimation

In principle, costs should be determined as precisely as possible. Methods and sources used, as well as results, should be described for the individual steps of cost estimation. The estimation of the costs considered in the model usually follows a 4-step process:

- identification of resources
- quantification of resources
- assessment of resources and
- calculation of the costs considered in the model according to health states and, if applicable, cycles

A) Identification of resources

Within the framework of the identification of resources the healthcare services used for treating the disease must be determined (see Section 4.1.5). The information should preferably be up to date and can be obtained from the sources described in Section 4.4.4.

B) Quantification of resources

The frequency of use, the proportion of the relevant patient populations using each service, and the duration of the service must be determined. Costs for services that are used very infrequently and/or have only a slight impact on the results should be described, but are not necessarily considered in the calculation [187].

Both a micro- or macro(gross)-costing approach [640,641] can be applied and combined to quantify resource use. The degree of precision of quantification is determined, among other things, by the reimbursement system and the corresponding degree of aggregation of the services.

Both approaches can be applied as a bottom-up or top-down approach [581,640,641] if either the resources used are measured on the basis of the individual patients or an (average) distribution to patients is performed on the basis of highly aggregated data (expenditure for a disease).

C) Evaluation of resources

SHI insurant perspective

In general, regulated and negotiated prices (i.e. prices that have not been exclusively developed via market mechanisms) determine expenditure and represent the opportunity costs of the community of SHI insurants. As described before, the reimbursement system determines the maximum degree of precision in the determination of expenditure of

reimbursable costs. For instance, from the SHI insurant perspective, diagnosis-related groups (DRGs, i.e. reimbursement through case fees) and the Uniform Value Scale²⁰ represent the best-possible evaluation for the inpatient and outpatient sector, respectively.

In the cost estimation for drugs, one distinguishes between the inpatient and outpatient sector. In the inpatient sector, drugs are normally part of the corresponding lump sum reimbursement. If additional fees are negotiated for relevant drugs or these are reimbursed via “new examination and treatment methods”²¹, the corresponding costs should be determined and considered in the HEE. In the outpatient sector, at first the pharmacy retail prices are used as a basis for price calculation. If reference prices are available, these must be provided and are reduced by pharmacy and manufacturer discounts. Discounts that were negotiated by a single SHI fund or a group of funds and thus subject to confidentiality are not depicted in the HEE. As a general rule, following the principle of efficiency the most economical representative of a drug or drug class is selected. Relevant price changes over time must be considered.

Non-reimbursable costs are partly regulated, so that here one can draw upon the corresponding standardization in the evaluation of resources (e.g. co-payment regulations in the inpatient sector and for drugs). These costs are presented separately in the SHI insurant perspective.

Specific features of further perspectives

Only aggregated data may be available in the social insurance perspective, depending on the insurance branch. In this case the resources should be assessed by means of a top-down approach on the basis of the respective statistics.

When calculating costs from the societal perspective, theoretically one should consider that the societal opportunity costs normally differ from the administrative prices, as these prices only represent the perspective of the payer. For instance, case fees do not include costs for the building of hospitals; from a societal perspective, these costs would need to be allocated to each case fee. The Institute is aware of this theoretical discussion. However, it follows international standards of other HTA organizations, which also use administrative prices in the societal perspective, as a different approach (due to missing data, e.g. on the actual costs that would need to be allocated to case fees for the building of hospitals) would be subject to great uncertainty. It is usually international practice in HEE only to additionally investigate indirect costs. If the time expenditure of affected persons or relatives is considered in the cost estimation, this is evaluated with the net wage.

²⁰ Einheitlicher Bewertungsmaßstab

²¹ Neue Untersuchungs- und Behandlungsmethoden, NUB

Evaluation of indirect costs

For productivity losses, in the base case the Institute considers the friction cost approach [275,401], as the human capital approach is based on some unrealistic assumptions (particularly full employment on the labour market). This estimation can be compared with the human capital approach in sensitivity analyses.

In the HEE the evaluation of indirect costs is based on individual labour costs (i.e. gross wage rate and non-wage labour costs – in Germany, employer contributions to social insurance) or the average labour costs. The calculation of the average labour costs per working day is based on the weighted average labour costs of people employed full-time and part-time in Germany. Approximatively, the “employee remuneration in Germany per year” divided by the “number of employees x 365” can be used (whereby Sundays and public holidays must be considered in the work incapacity days). Applying this approach to self-employed people should be discussed [269]. The friction costs are assumed as being 80% of the wage costs (as in the Netherlands [401]). The friction period is, insofar as no current data are available, set at 82 days; this corresponds to the average period in Germany for the year 2012 [65] within which a position can be filled. If the human capital approach is to be investigated in a sensitivity analysis, the future productivity losses are calculated on the basis of the average age of patients up to attainment of the standard retirement age.

D) Presentation of the costs considered in the model according to states or cycles

Before the costs can be fed into the model they must be available as average costs per patient according to health states and, depending on the model, also according to cycles.

Depending on the therapeutic indication, intervention, outcomes, and model, no direct information on the costs of the respective health states in the model is possibly available. On the basis of assumptions from further sources (see Section 4.4.4), the average costs of an intervention per patient and cost category (service areas and indirect costs) for the observation period can then be distributed to the different health states and cycles of the model.

For absorbing states in a Markov model it may be necessary to calculate transition costs that are incurred only once in the transition to this health state. This is then to be recommended if it is to be assumed that the costs in this state are considerably higher in the first cycle than in the subsequent cycles.

4.4.4 Data basis

Costs to be fed into the model must, as described above, be calculated for the different health states and, if applicable, for cycles of a model. The procedure for data collection and analysis, as well as all calculations and results, should be presented in a transparent manner.

A focused information retrieval (see Section 8.2.3) is conducted to retrieve publications and analyses on the identification and quantification of resources.

If current analyses cannot be obtained from the literature, those applying the model should preferably perform their own analyses. In this context, secondary data in the form of analysed SHI routine data based on a representative sample are the data source of first choice (see Section 4.1.7).

Guidelines or results from expert surveys can be used as supplementary information if routine data do not sufficiently depict the provision of health care in all states of the model (see Section 4.1.7). Expert surveys are an option only if data cannot be obtained from more representative sources or if these data do not fully cover the level of detail required in the health states (see also Section 4.1.7).

To determine prices, by means of exploratory literature searches the Institute uses the respective relevant prices regulated or negotiated, for example, from the database of the Information Service on Drug Specialities²², the Uniform Value Scale, the DRG catalogue or from the statistics of the Pension Insurance or the Federal Statistical Office.

Due to system differences, the transferability of care pathways and cost data from other healthcare systems is rarely given and is only possible under very strict preconditions [422,600]. The transferability of cost data from the following countries is not excluded as a matter of principle, as their inpatient and outpatient healthcare sectors are similar to those of the German system: Austria, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Belgium, and France. However, the use of data from these countries must in each case be justified and discussed. Cost data from other countries must not be used in an HEE.

4.4.5 Uncertainty and distribution of cost data

The uncertainty in cost data should be addressed in an adequate manner. Cost data are inherently continuous, positive, without an upper limit and generally not normally distributed, but skewed to the right [187].

4.4.6 Adjustment for inflation and discounting

A) Adjustment for inflation

If cost data originate from different time periods, they must be adjusted for inflation. The Harmonised Index of Consumer Prices (HICP) of the Federal Statistical Office should be used as the source for annual inflation [621]. Further price increase rates for individual areas of health care (e.g. drugs) can be considered from other sources within the framework of a sensitivity analysis.

²² Informationsstelle für Arzneispezialitäten, IFA

B) Discounting

If costs and benefits are incurred in periods lasting longer than a year, in the base case they are discounted after the first year with an identical constant rate of 3% to the current period [36,103,152,187,433]. Likewise, identical constant rates of 0 and 5% should be used in sensitivity analyses; any deviations must be justified.

4.5 Epidemiological data

4.5.1 Data

Current epidemiological data are indispensable for an HEE. Besides being used to estimate disease burden, data on the prevalence and incidence in Germany are also used to quantify changes in the SHI budget in a budget impact analysis. Statements are therefore required on whether changes in incidence, prevalence or mortality are to be expected within the next 5 years. Furthermore, data on mortality are important in order to illustrate disease-related mortality and so-called background mortality.

The basic probabilities for events play a special role in modelling. In a model, details on the outcome-related event frequencies or probabilities are required for each outcome, which are considered as baseline values in the decision-analytic model.

4.5.2 Data basis

If available and obtainable in an appropriate form (e.g. suitable age groups), public data collections of epidemiological data (e.g. from the Robert Koch Institute) should be primarily considered due to their high methodological consistency. Furthermore, epidemiological data can be obtained from secondary data such as SHI routine data as well as registry data (see Section 4.1.7). In this context, registry data take a special position. Independently of the assessment of the quality of a registry, these data are often related only to a specific region. Their applicability must therefore be evaluated. Results from expert surveys can be considered as supplementary information.

If no epidemiological data from Germany are available, a focused information retrieval (see Section 8.2.3) is conducted. If this identifies scientific publications in which epidemiological data were determined, these data can potentially be used directly. Usability must be clarified in the individual case, as the studies often use approaches that are methodologically different. Cohort studies or sufficiently large and representative samples are to be preferred. The methodological quality of the underlying study can, among other things, be assessed by means of the requirements of good epidemiological practice.

4.5.3 Uncertainty and distribution of epidemiological data

The uncertainty in epidemiological data should be addressed in an adequate manner. In particular the uncertainty of data on the baseline risk and on mortality must be adequately considered both in the sensitivity analyses and in the distributions

4.6 Presentation of results as an efficiency frontier

An efficiency frontier is drawn on the basis of the economic evaluation of interventions within a therapeutic area. It is generated from the most efficient interventions of the available comparators and can serve to infer recommendations on decisions for the intervention(s) under assessment. It can provide information on the negotiation of reimbursement prices without recurring to a threshold for the willingness-to-pay, for which there is currently no consent in Germany.

4.6.1 Definition

The efficiency frontier graphically compares the outcome-related benefit of available interventions within a therapeutic area with the net costs of these interventions. In this context, if required, the benefit is transferred into an approximately cardinally scaled measure.²³ Those interventions that are most efficient in respect of benefits and costs form the efficiency frontier.

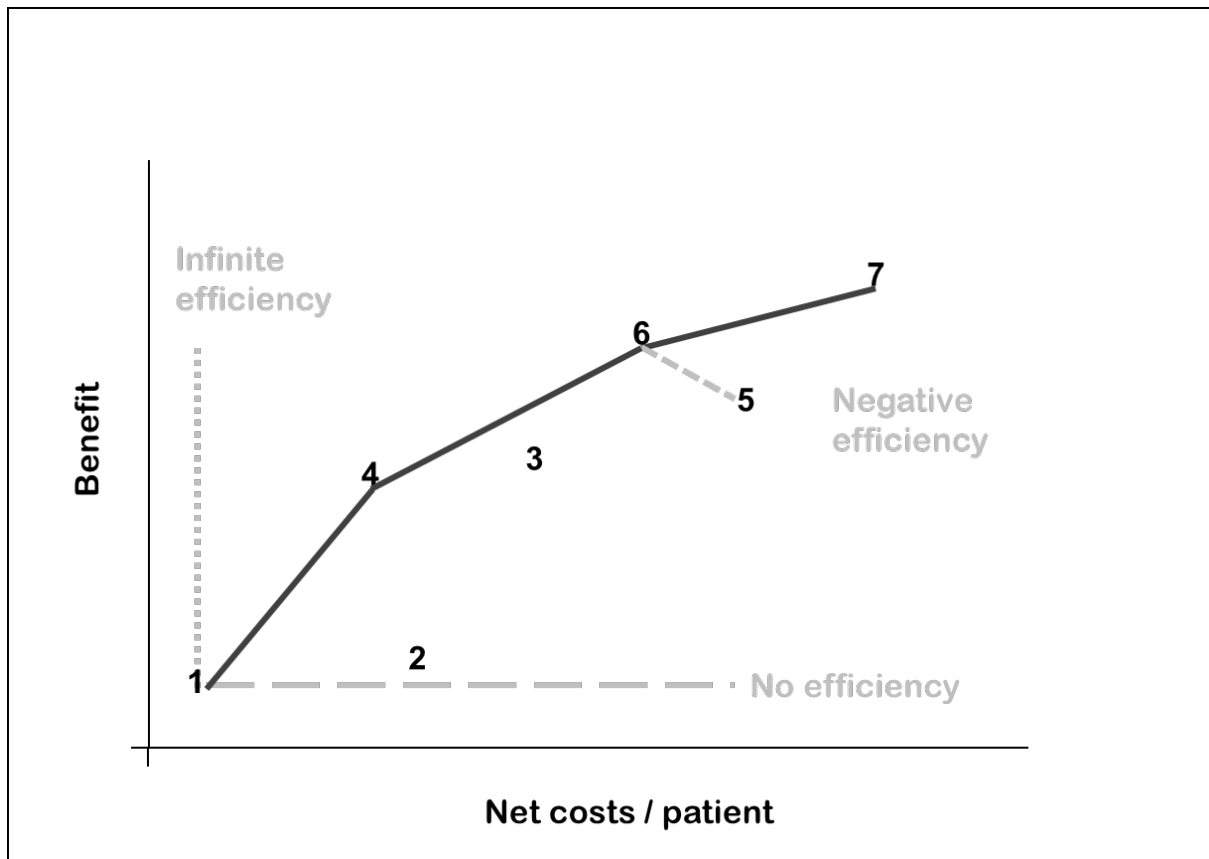
4.6.2 Course of the procedure

In the procedure it must be distinguished between the new intervention(s) under assessment and the interventions that form the efficiency frontier (comparators). The latter are those interventions currently used and reimbursed in Germany for the therapeutic area under assessment. Their costs and benefits are determined and depicted graphically.

In the presentation of the efficiency frontier, the interventions with greater efficiency are plotted from left to right. The gradient of the theoretical connecting line between 2 interventions (the line segment) provides the incremental benefit per incremental costs (see Figure 11).

The positions of the interventions, such as Intervention 3 in Figure 11, require further interpretation, as they do not show negative efficiency in comparison with interventions already introduced (e.g. Intervention 4). In Figure 12, the area below the theoretical efficiency frontier is further divided by a series of rectangles (A to D). Each of these rectangles contains all interventions showing negative efficiency (higher costs with lesser benefit) on the theoretical efficiency frontier versus at least one intervention already available in the market. Interventions in these subareas (e.g. Intervention 2 or Intervention 5 in Figure 12) are clearly inefficient. This leaves 3 triangles (E, F and G) in which the interventions are not clearly inefficient. Usually, interventions plotted in these triangles are not part of the efficiency frontier because a theoretical combination of both interventions forming the hypotenuse of the triangle will provide a greater benefit with lower costs (so-called extended dominance).

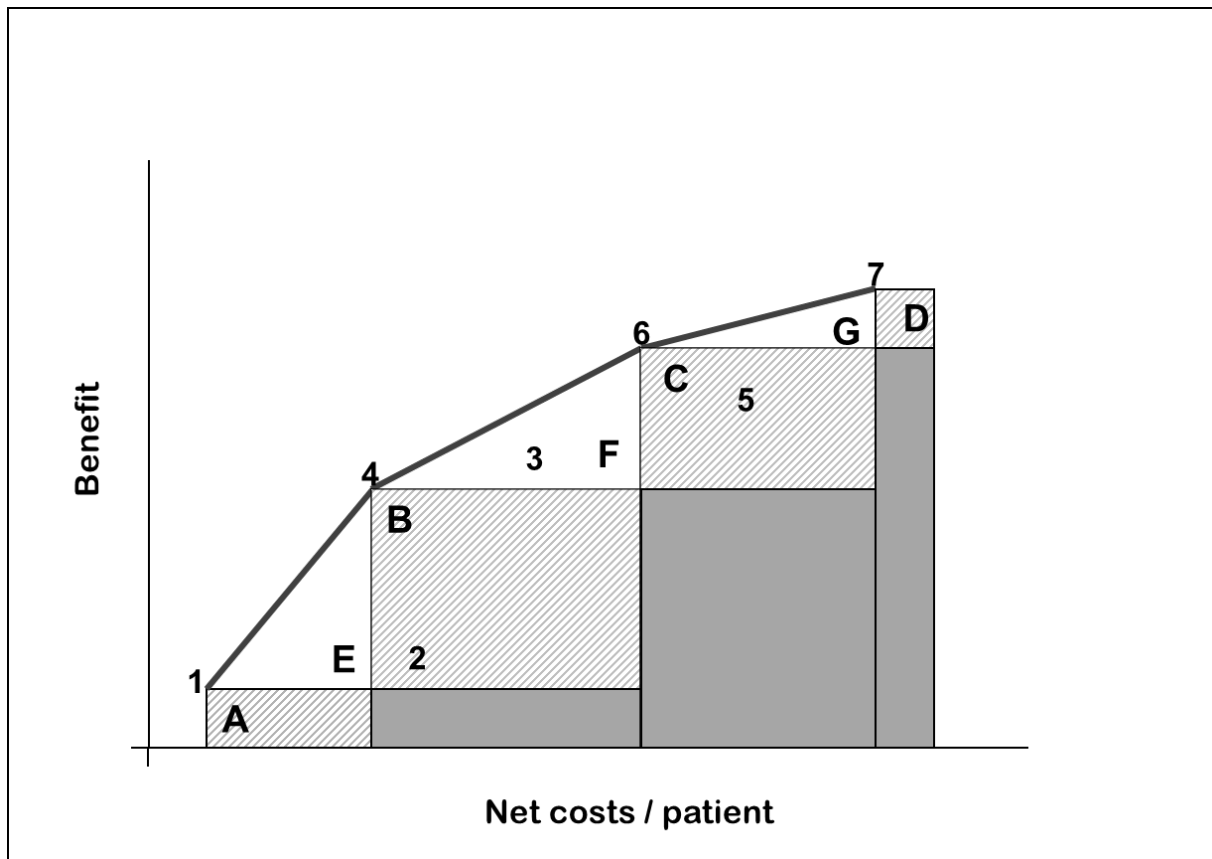
²³ If the patient-relevant added benefit determined in the prior benefit assessment already shows approximately cardinally scaled characteristics, it may be directly transferred into the HEE.



A horizontal line (gradient angle = 0°) indicates no efficiency, while a vertical line (gradient angle = 90°) indicates infinite efficiency. A positive gradient in ascending order (e.g. between Intervention 6 and Intervention 7) indicates an incremental benefit with higher costs, whereas a negative gradient (e.g. between Intervention 6 and Intervention 5) indicates lesser benefit with higher costs.

Figure 11: Interpretation of the gradient of the theoretical efficiency frontier

Such a combination is not always possible in practice. This would imply that if the price of Intervention 3 is fixed, then the beneficiaries would need to be redistributed to Intervention 4 and Intervention 6 to achieve greater efficiency. This may be clinically undesirable and difficult to justify, since it would lead to those receiving Intervention 4 being in a worse position. The alternative of allowing beneficiaries to switch between both therapies over time is clearly not possible with most surgical interventions, and presumably not for many drug interventions either. Thus, there may be many situations where interventions within the triangular areas constitute part of the practical efficiency frontier. If the criterion of extended dominance is not applied, then this results in a stepped absolute efficiency frontier arising from the connection of the upper segments of the shaded rectangles as opposed to the triangular areas. However, in this context it needs to be considered that the absolute efficiency frontier no longer provides a gradient in the sense of a reciprocal of the willingness-to-pay and thus no threshold values would be determined.



The theoretical efficiency frontier (solid line) joins those interventions that are efficient relative to any other intervention or to their combinations. Interventions in Rectangles A to D (e.g. Intervention 2 or Intervention 5) are clearly inefficient. Intervention 3 is in one of the remaining triangular areas (E to G) and is not clearly inefficient. Theoretically an extended dominance would result from the combination of Intervention 4 and Intervention 6, but this may not be feasible in practice.

Figure 12: Absolute versus extended dominance

4.6.3 Construction of the efficiency frontier

The efficiency frontier is constructed in such a way that it represents the relevant interventions in a given therapeutic area. This involves:

- Full, detailed specification of the therapeutic area of interest. This may include the specific disease, the conditions of treatment (e.g. inpatient care), target population, sequence of therapy (first, second-line therapy, etc.), and the information on whether it is a mono-therapy or combination therapy.
- Positioning of existing therapies on the basis of their benefits and costs.

- Plotting of the interventions on a coordinate system with the benefit on the vertical (y-) axis and the costs on the horizontal (x-) axis.²⁴ In this context, in accordance with good scientific practice, one should ensure constant scaling (at least per outcome) of the axes.
- Drawing of the efficiency frontier.

When evaluating new interventions, their health effects and costs in the therapeutic area in question are then additionally presented.

A) Vertical axis

- Benefit and harm are plotted on a vertical axis. In this context, one should observe a positive value range, so that the efficiency frontier depicts the increased benefit or decreased harm (if applicable, e.g. multiplication with “-1” may be required or conversion to the complementary event “1-harm”).
- Benefit or harm is presented by means of patient-relevant outcomes that must be operationalized in an appropriate manner (e.g. quality-of-life scores).
- Benefit or harm is transferred onto the vertical axis. This transfer can be performed with inclusion of modelling.

B) Horizontal axis

- The total net costs per patient are plotted on the horizontal axis.
- As a rule the costs are calculated from the SHI insurant perspective. Depending on the commission, they may contain additional costs arising from extended perspectives, (e.g. social insurance perspective, societal perspective).
- The costs currently to be expected are used as costs.

In order to estimate the costs of each intervention and plot them on the coordinate system of the efficiency frontier, several conditions must be met. The costs should correspond to those that would be incurred in current practice. The total net cost per patient must be plotted on the efficiency frontier.

To determine the cost-effectiveness ratio of (new) interventions with more benefit and more costs than the comparators, the last segment of the efficiency frontier is extended (see Section 4.1.9 as well as Figure 10 and Figure 13).

²⁴ This could also be presented as a table. However, the relationships would not be so graphically visible.

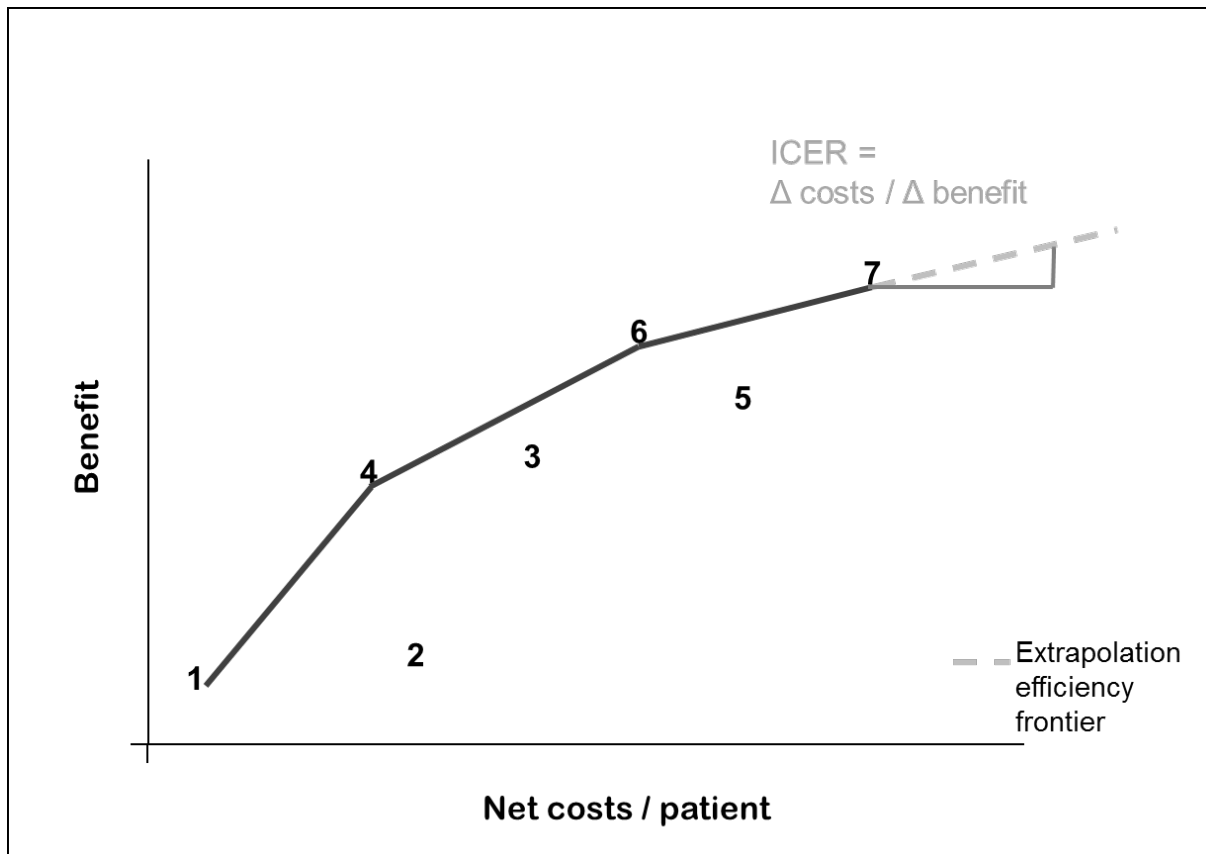
Depending on the number of outcomes taken from the benefit assessment previously conducted, several efficiency frontiers can be derived and presented.²⁵ If outcome weighting was performed, this is also presented. If a measure of overall benefit was specified, this is to be regarded as the primary result.

C) Definition of the origin of the coordinate system

The point of no intervention (i.e. the natural course) also requires an assessment. Although it could possibly be regarded to be the coordinate origin (zero benefit and zero costs), this is rarely appropriate, as the non-conduct of an intervention may still produce costs and health effects, for example, due to the untreated disease, monitoring, etc. Data on the natural course should therefore also be collected. In this context a common assumption is that the intervention with placebo most likely corresponds to the natural course. This should be assessed in relation to each commission.

If the origin of the efficiency frontier does not correspond to the zero point, the efficiency frontiers (at least per outcome) must be plotted in equally scaled coordinate systems. The intervention that lies the furthest down and to the left will generally become the origin of the efficiency frontier (see Figure 13). For reasons of comparability of the presentation of different efficiency frontiers, a shifting of the zero point (of the coordinate system) should be rejected.

²⁵ This also refers to the separate presentation of divergent aspects of harm in distinction from the patient-relevant added benefit.



The efficiency frontier starts in a different origin from the zero point of the coordinate system. The extension shows the incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER) at which a (new) intervention with more benefit and more costs than the comparators is measured.

Figure 13: Presentation of the efficiency frontier

4.6.4 Special constellations

There are 2 special constellations in which, despite complete information, a recommendation for a new intervention cannot be directly inferred on the basis of the efficiency frontier:

- 1) The last intervention on the efficiency frontier dominates all other interventions and generates the same costs as the reference scenario. The gradient would thus be infinite (see presentation in Figure 11).
- 2) The last intervention on the efficiency frontier before the introduction of the innovation is more cost-efficient and has more benefit than all comparators, including the origin.

Both cases would result in a new origin, on which in each case the last intervention before the introduction of the innovative intervention would lie.

The budget impact analysis might deliver further data here by depicting the impact on the budget (see Section 4.1.9 and Section 4.8).

4.7 Uncertainty (sensitivity analyses)

The types of uncertainty are presented above (see Section 4.1.8). The uncertainty of many model parameters results from the fact that their value is estimated from samples. This type of uncertainty is often captured by confidence intervals or other statistical approaches for describing variability.

4.7.1 Quantification of uncertainty

For costs, uncertainty may exist regarding assumptions on resource use, for example, on dosage of a drug over time. The model can also be of a stochastic design (i.e., it uses random numbers in the Monte Carlo draws). Different techniques can be applied to restrict this type of uncertainty [417,539,597].

Uncertainty also arises from the type of potential variability in the model structure described in Section 4.2, which needs to be considered in the investigation. Finally, even input parameters specified a priori, such as the discounting rate, can be varied to depict uncertainty arising from different discounting rates (see Section 4.4.6).

4.7.2 Sensitivity analyses

Parameter uncertainty as well as types of uncertainty that cannot be reduced are quantified. The Institute considers both univariate and multivariate deterministic as well as probabilistic sensitivity analyses (PSAs), and in its work follows the recommendations of the conjoint Modeling Good Research Practices Task Force Working Group of ISPOR and the Society for Medical Decision Making (SMDM) [70].

All analyses performed for this purpose should be fully documented, with minimum and maximum values for the parameters used and underlying assumptions. The following aspects must be specified for PSAs: probability distributions used and their sources, correlations between input parameters, and any structural variants.

Structural sensitivity analyses are performed to investigate the impact of a variation of assumptions in the model structure, for example, the number or type of the model states.

Presentation of the results of the sensitivity analyses

For the deterministic sensitivity analysis, extreme levels of the input parameters should be provided for which the new intervention possibly saves costs or lies above or below the efficiency frontier. For univariate and multivariate analyses the results must be presented in a table and in a tornado diagram in which the levels of the results are displayed as an interval for the corresponding intervals of the input parameters.

For PSAs the proportion of simulations for which cost savings or a position above or below the efficiency frontier arises is provided as a percentage. In the case of PSAs the results are presented as cumulative cost distributions.

4.7.3 Presentation of uncertainty by means of the net health benefit

When presenting results of sensitivity analyses, attention should be paid to the fact that the consideration of parameter uncertainty can on the one hand change the position of several or all interventions forming the efficiency frontier. On the other, the position of the intervention under assessment, which is contrasted with this efficiency frontier, can also change.

The net health benefit (NHB), an established procedure for presenting results from PSAs, [627] can account for this problem, as the NHB is a function both of the added benefit and added costs, and also of the efficiency frontier, and depicts the position of the intervention under assessment as the distance to the shifting efficiency frontier or to the shifting last segment of the efficiency frontier. For this reason, both the base case analyses, as well as the deterministic and probabilistic sensitivity analyses, should be conducted on the basis of the concept of the NHB calculation.

4.8 Budget impact analysis

A budget impact analysis (BIA) is an assessment of the direct financial consequences related to the reimbursement of an intervention in a healthcare system [655]. In a calculation model for a BIA, the proportion of patients who will potentially receive a new intervention is considered, as well as the dissemination of the intervention in the healthcare system, including its use in previously untreated patients. In particular, a BIA predicts how a change in the mix of interventions used for a certain disease might in future influence expenditure for a therapeutic area [458].

The purpose of a BIA is not so much to produce exact estimates of the financial consequences of the use of an intervention, but rather to provide a reliable calculation framework that allows the decision maker to understand the possible expenditure effects of a new intervention (or of a change in the usage of existing interventions) [458]. Such a model is necessary, as many of the parameters vary depending on the constellation and are also subject to uncertainty. Thus, the result of the BIA is not a single value for the estimation of expenditure but rather a range resulting from the model.

4.8.1 Perspective in the budget impact analysis

The BIA should be undertaken from the perspective of the SHI or another relevant payer (see also Section 4.4.1). Any expenditure incurred or cost savings achieved outside this perspective are not included.

4.8.2 Time horizon in the budget impact analysis

The BIA should cover the time horizon most relevant to payers in view of their expenditure [458]. Since the impact on expenditure is likely to change over time after the new intervention has been introduced – both because of market adjustment and of long-term effects on the disease in question – this horizon should be estimated and presented for a period of 1 and 3 years [457]. The results must be presented as expenditure and cost savings per year instead of

in the form of a single net current value [458]. Thus in this case no discounting of financial flows is allowed to be performed. If the result is presented as a total amount of costs for 3 years, the costs can be discounted accordingly (see Section 4.4.6).

4.8.3 Scenarios in the budget impact analysis

A BIA compares health care scenarios – each defined by a compilation of interventions – rather than specific individual interventions [458]. At least 2 scenarios must be considered: on the one hand the reference scenario, defined by the current mix of interventions, and on the other, the predicted new mix of interventions.

4.8.4 Population in the budget impact analysis

The size of the insured population likely to take advantage of the new intervention is one of the key factors determining the expected expenditure for the new intervention. The anticipated number of users results from the predicted utilization of the intervention within the target population. Any expected off-label use of the new intervention should not be considered in the primary BIA, but may be considered in sensitivity analyses [499].

When predicting the number of users, both the substitution of existing interventions and induced demand need to be taken into account.

4.8.5 Costs to be considered in the budget impact analysis

The costs (net costs, i.e. adjusted for cost savings, so-called cost-offsets) should be estimated according to the methods described in Section 4.4.

For the BIA, investment and implementation costs are – as far as possible and borne by the SHI – identified and quantified. They should be presented separately and organized according to cost categories, whereby a complete explanation of the method and the sources used for cost estimation must be included.

4.8.6 Presentation of results in the budget impact analysis

The results (in €) should be presented as a value range and not as single point estimates. Furthermore, both the total amount and the proportion related to annual expenditure should be displayed.

4.9 Specific aspects of a health economic evaluation according to §35b SGB V

4.9.1 Legal requirements and course of procedure

Some specific requirements apply for the HEE according to §35b SGB V. By default there are 2 constellations that can lead to an HEE within the framework of the benefit assessment of drugs according to §35a SGB V:

- 1) If a pharmaceutical company disagrees with the decision by the G-BA that the drug under assessment has no added benefit or does not represent a therapeutic improvement,

according to §35a (5a) SGB V, the pharmaceutical company can demand that the G-BA commissions an HEE according to §35b SGB V or to §139a (3) No. 5 SGB V.

- 2) After a decision by the arbitration board, according to §130b (8) SGB V, both the pharmaceutical company and the SHI umbrella organization²⁶ can commission an HEE according to §35b SGB V.

If a pharmaceutical company and/or the SHI umbrella organization submit an application to the G-BA for an HEE according to §35b SGB V, further specific aspects arise during the course of the procedure, which are described in Section 2.1.4.

According to §130b (8) Sentence 3 SGB V, an HEE of drugs according to §35b SGB V serves the purpose of negotiating a reimbursement price that is to be negotiated in comparison with (an) appropriate comparator therapy or therapies. According to §35b SGB V, the G-BA specifies the following points in its commission on an HEE:

- appropriate comparator therapy and other drugs and treatment forms with which the drug under assessment is to be compared
- patient groups
- time period
- type of benefit and of costs and
- measure of overall benefit

The basis of the HEE are 1) the results of clinical studies, 2) the results of health services research studies agreed upon with the G-BA or recognized by the G-BA after application by the pharmaceutical company, and 3) evidence provided by the pharmaceutical company (see §35b (1) Sentence 3 SGB V). Moreover, due to the legal situation in Germany (§35b (1) SGB V), as a rule the SHI insurant perspective is adopted. More details are described in the G-BA's Code of Procedure (see Chapter 5, Section 2) [251].

4.9.2 The net health benefit for calculation of added benefit-based reimbursement prices

As explained in Section 4.7.3, the NHB can be used to present uncertainty. On the basis of the expected value of the NHB of the intervention under assessment, an added benefit-based reimbursement price can also be derived via the further calculation of the cost-adjusted (added) benefit of the intervention under assessment [628].

²⁶ Spitzenverband Bund der Krankenkassen, GKV-Spitzenverband

The incremental NHB is calculated by means of the effect estimate for the benefits and the costs of the respective interventions as well as a threshold value. In this application the threshold value corresponds to the reciprocal of the gradient of the last (and potentially extrapolated) segment of the efficiency frontier for cost-effective interventions (see Figure 14). If the NHB were about zero, then Intervention 8 would lie on the efficiency frontier determined by the gradient ($1/\lambda$) of the last segment of the efficiency frontier, and can also be assessed as cost-effective in comparison with the (per definition cost-effective) interventions forming the efficiency frontier. Accordingly, an added benefit-based reimbursement price is determined by means of the NHB by conversion and calculation of the maximum intervention costs that are necessary to ensure that the NHB is at least zero. The NHB can be estimated practically with the help of the model through iterative calculations.

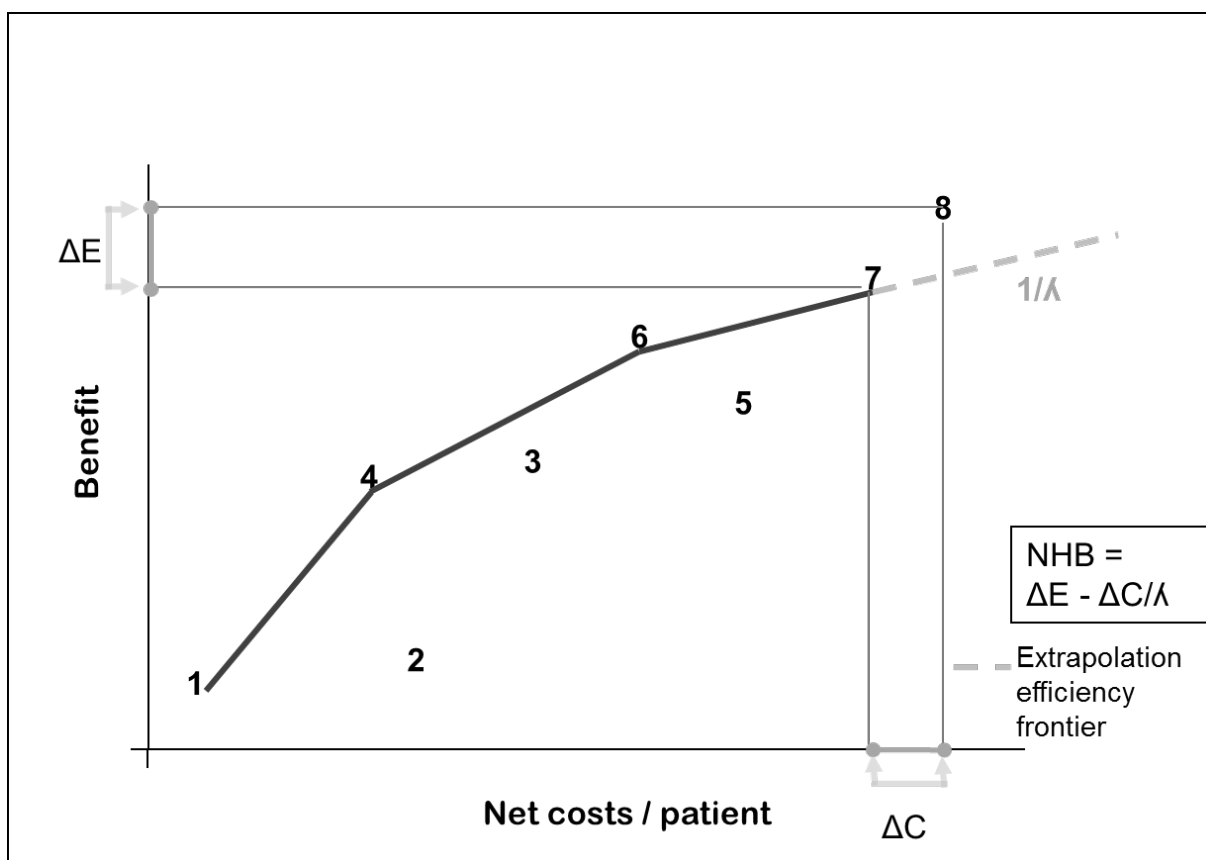


Figure 14: Presentation of an $NHB > 0$

4.9.3 Sensitivity analyses for the calculation of added-benefit based reimbursement prices

For the added benefit-based reimbursement price, price acceptance curves [225] and/or NHB values can be presented per efficiency frontier (see Section 4.9.2).

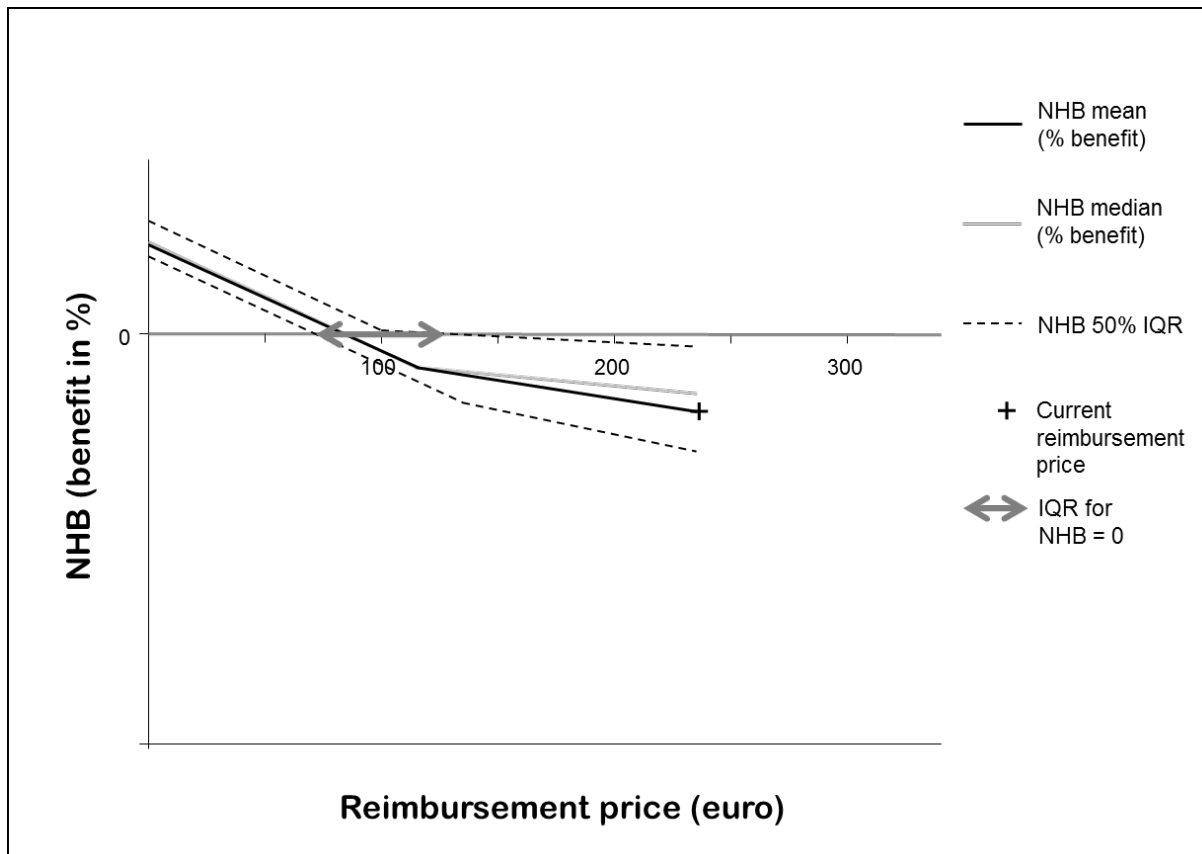
When using the NHB the results of the PSAs should be presented via the calculation and averaging of the respective expected NHB values for the intervention under assessment for a

sufficiently large number of runs. In each run both the efficiency frontier and the position of the intervention under assessment relative to the efficiency frontier, and thus the respective NHB value, can change. From these values, the averaged NHB value of the intervention under assessment, as well as an interquartile range (IQR), can be calculated (see Section 4.9.4). In combination with the IQR, the expected NHB value indicates how large according to expectation the cost-adjusted (added) benefit is for the current added benefit-based reimbursement price, under consideration of the model uncertainty.

4.9.4 Interquartile range as a measure of dispersion for price negotiations

An IQR is provided to give the SHI umbrella organization and the pharmaceutical company a measure of dispersion for the negotiations on the basis of the results of the sensitivity analyses (see Section 4.7). The IQR includes all values of the NHB from the simulations margined by the lower and upper quartile (see Section 4.9.3). This means that the IQR covers those 50% of simulations in the PSAs that lie above the 25% lowest results and below the 25% highest results (see Figure 15). In principle it can also be meaningful to provide other areas of distribution with other measures.

Under consideration of the total uncertainty (implemented through PSAs), the IQR allows room to open possible reimbursement price negotiations within whose margins the uncertainty of the effect estimates and the costs are also considered.



For each possible reimbursement price the solid line indicates the average NHB to be expected (x-axis). At the position where the solid line crosses the x-axis, an added benefit-based reimbursement price can be read off in which the average NHB to be expected is zero, that is, neither positive nor negative.

Figure 15: Interquartile range of possible added benefit-based reimbursement prices (based on PSAs) as a measure of dispersion for price negotiations

5 Guideline synopses and health care analysis

5.1 Background

Clinical practice guidelines are systematically developed decision aids for service providers as well as patients enabling an appropriate approach to specific health problems. Their aim is to improve patient care. Ideally, their recommendations are informed by a systematic review of the evidence and an assessment of the benefits and harms of alternative treatment options [229,270].

If they were developed in a systematic procedure and the development process was documented transparently, guidelines can promote the normative formation of expectations for all areas of the health care chain (prevention, diagnostics, treatment, rehabilitation and after-care) [300]. These recommendations contain essential information on the quality of care aimed for in a health care system.

Health care standards are identified and described in guideline synopses in which the guideline recommendations are summarized from high-quality guidelines retrieved by a systematic search [423,479,520] (see Section 5.2.5). These guideline synopses serve as a basis for different scientific analyses (see Sections 5.2.5, 5.3 and 5.4).

The systematic comparison of guideline recommendations with health care structures, processes and results allows conclusions to be drawn on the quality of health care in a health care system (see Section 5.4). In the following text, this is described as a health care analysis. Such an analysis enables conclusions on quality and efficiency issues of services provided within the framework of SHI (see §139a SGB V (3) No. 2).

Guideline synopses are particularly suitable to provide an overview of normative health care requirements for selected diseases.

5.2 Identification of health care standards

5.2.1 Evidence-based guidelines

Evidence-based guidelines are normally used to answer questions on health care standards. Guidelines are referred to as evidence-based if their recommendations are based on a systematic literature search and selection, if their recommendations are generally linked to a grade of recommendation (GoR) and/or level of evidence (LoE), and if their recommendations are generally linked to citations of the underlying primary and/or secondary literature (modified according to AGREE²⁷ [5,6]). An evaluation of these formal criteria, but no evaluation of content, is performed.

²⁷ Appraisal of Guidelines Research and Evaluation in Europe

5.2.2 Applicability to the German health care system

If national as well as international guidelines are searched for in the production of guideline synopses, it is in principle assumed that guidelines from member states of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) are particularly relevant. The OECD was originally established in 1961 as the follow-up organization of the Organization for European Economic Co-operation. It currently comprises 35 mainly European countries that conclude a range of agreements in nearly all areas of politics [498]. The OECD member states are characterized by a similar democratic constitution (principle of general free and secret elections, separation of powers etc.) and adopt liberal and market-based principles with regard to the economy. Besides a high per-capita income by global standards, these member states have high-performing health care systems. Since 2003 the OECD has been aiming to compare the quality of health care in the different member states via the common reporting of selected quality indicators (Health Care Quality Indicators [HCQI] project [456]).

In principle all guidelines from the OECD member states can be considered. However, the applicability of recommendations from international guidelines can be problematical if they represent specific recommendations that, for instance, are not compatible with the funding principles of the German health care system or with the special features of the SHI system in Germany with regard to the legal regulations for professional conduct or for the provision of health care services.

5.2.3 Information retrieval

Information retrieval is performed according to the procedures described in Section 8.4.

5.2.4 Appraisal of methodological guideline quality

On an international level different instruments are used for the appraisal of methodological guideline quality [676]. Special attention is paid to the AGREE instrument [5,445] and its further development (AGREE II instrument) [6,81-83]. The instrument was developed by an international group of researchers and is the most comprehensively validated instrument in comparison with other guideline appraisal instruments. The AGREE II instrument, which is also the most widespread tool internationally, is regularly used for guideline appraisal. It consists of 23 appraisal criteria (items) assessed by means of a multi-step scale. These items are organized in 6 domains, which are independent of each other; each domain covers a separate dimension of methodological guideline quality [6]:

- Domain 1: scope and purpose
- Domain 2: stakeholder involvement
- Domain 3: rigour of development
- Domain 4: clarity and presentation
- Domain 5: applicability

- Domain 6: editorial independence

All domains are usually evaluated. The AGREE instrument specifies the calculation of standardized domain scores for each of the 6 domains. Furthermore, it includes one question each on the overall methodological quality of the guideline and on the suitability of the guideline for use in clinical practice [6].

The instrument does not specify cut-offs for the evaluation of domains, the overall methodological quality and the recommendation for use. In addition, the quality of the content of individual recommendations cannot necessarily be inferred from the methodological quality of a guideline [680].

Each guideline appraisal is performed by 2 reviewers independently of each other.

Each standardized domain score is presented in the report. In addition, an appraisal of overall methodological quality is usually conducted; the corresponding results are then also presented in the report.

Besides the AGREE instrument, the German-language DELB²⁸ instrument is also used in Germany [21]; the Institute is actively involved in the further development of this instrument.

5.2.5 Structured processing and evaluation of recommendations

A) Guideline recommendations, levels of evidence and grades of recommendation

A guideline recommendation is defined as a proposal for action concerning the clinical decision in a specific situation or for system decisions. The recipients are generally professionals. In guidelines those statements are generally identified as recommendations that are clearly formally indicated as such by the guideline authors.

The authors of evidence-based guidelines use different systems to classify the LoEs or GoRs of their recommendations [28,191,284,409,586].

GoRs provide information on the strength of a recommendation. They are generally based on a weighing of the benefit and harms of a (medical) intervention and on the specific health care context based on an evaluation of the respective evidence. LoEs focus on the internal validity of the underlying studies; in this context, systematic reviews of RCTs usually receive the highest LoE. The systems of evidence classification may attribute a differing relevance within the LoE classification to clinical and epidemiological studies, the characteristics of study conduct, and the respective risk of bias [28,85-87,284,586].

²⁸ Deutsches Leitlinien-Bewertungsinstrument

B) Processing of recommendations

For the structured processing of recommendations, the recommendations from the guidelines included are first listed in tables in their original language and separately for the health care aspects examined. In addition, the GoR and/or LoE for a recommendation are listed in the extraction tables, insofar as they were awarded by the guideline developers and can clearly be linked to a recommendation. Depending on the research question, further information may be presented.

As there is to date no internationally consented standardization of grading systems for evidence and recommendations, the LoEs and GoRs used by the individual guideline developers are generally noted and the corresponding grading systems documented. In order to better compare the different systems of different author groups of guidelines, the classification of GoRs and LoEs is simplified through dichotomization (e.g. high or low GoR, high or low LoE). Different reference systems are used for this classification. In the Institute's work, the grading system from the procedure of the National Disease Management Guidelines²⁹ is relevant for the assessment of GoRs [91]; the evidence classification applied by the G-BA is used for the classification of LoEs [251]. A high GoR exists if the measure recommended can be allocated to the strength of recommendation "A" (strong recommendation). All other recommendations are allocated to the category "non-high GoR". An LoE allocated by the guideline authors is classified as high if the LoE is based on at least one RCT. This corresponds to evidence levels Ia and Ib of the evidence classification used by the G-BA.

If the guideline authors use a classification system according to the GRADE Working Group, the highest evidence level according to GRADE is generally allocated to the category "high LoE". All other LoEs provided by the guideline authors that cannot be allocated to the category "high" are allocated to the category "non-high LoE".

C) Structured synthesis of information

Synthesis of recommendations

At first, recommendations are extracted from the original guideline documents and allocated to health care aspects (e.g. diagnostics, non-drug and drug interventions). In this context – insofar as mentioned in the guidelines – both the GoR and the LoE are presented, as well as the corresponding classification of the GoR and/or LoE as high, non-high or unclear.

During the preparation of the synthesis, key statements are developed by means of the recommendations. If inconsistent recommendations on a key statement are found in the comparison of the different guidelines selected, these recommendations are explicitly

²⁹ Nationale VersorgungsLeitlinie (NVL)

designated. These deviations may, among other things, indicate an uncertain evidence base or state of consensus for a distinct aspect or the influence of context-specific factors.

5.3 Recommendations on disease management programmes

The normative recommendations from evidence-based guidelines identified by means of the procedure described in Section 5.2 can be used by the decision makers in the G-BA as a basis for the development of new disease management programmes (DMPs). The comparison of the guideline recommendations with the G-BA requirements for a DMP offers a basis for the evaluation of the need for updating in respect of an existing DMP.

The recommendations of the guidelines contained in the guideline synopsis are summarized into key statements to determine whether these key statements are suitable for a new DMP or whether key statements already included in existing DMPs need to be updated. The GoR of the individual guideline recommendations is used to evaluate the key statements on the suitability for a new DMP or on the need for updating existing DMPs.

Key statements summarizing recommendations that are consistent in content and have high GoRs are assessed as being particularly suitable for a new DMP. If such key statements describe aspects not contained in an existing DMP or deviate from the content of an existing DMP, they justify a need for updating the existing DMP.

Key statements are assessed as being suitable for a new DMP if the recommendations from different guidelines underlying a key statement are consistent in content, but only in part have a high GoR. This also applies to key statements summarizing the recommendations of only one guideline in which all or some recommendations have a high GoR. If the key statements describe aspects not contained in an existing DMP or deviate from the content of an existing DMP, they justify a potential need for updating of the existing DMP.

In all other cases:

- If, in the case of a new DMP, the key statements are assessed as being only suitable to a limited extent, a further evaluation of the suitability of the key statement is proposed or the suitability of the key statements is described as being non-evaluable.
- If, in the case of an existing DMP, no need for updating is determined, a further evaluation of the need for updating is proposed or an evaluation of the need for updating is not possible.

Only if solely recommendations with unclear GoRs are available for a key statement, it is additionally evaluated whether most of these recommendations (> 50%) have high LoEs. In this case or in the case of inconsistent recommendations, a further evaluation is proposed to assess the suitability for new DMPs or to assess the need for updating existing DMPs. Moreover, relevant IQWiG products are screened, which may be considered in the guideline synopsis.

5.4 Health care analysis

5.4.1 Background

A) Health care

Health care comprises the medical and psychosocial care of sick people, as well as measures for prevention and health promotion offered by medical and non-medical providers of health care services. Medical care comprises the diagnosis, treatment, nursing care, rehabilitation and after-care. The care provided offers all measures within the health care system that are directly or indirectly targeted towards improving or sustaining the health status (e.g. mortality, morbidity, and quality of life) of certain individuals or populations [23].

B) Health care standard and real-world health care

In medicine, the term “standard” is preferably understood in a normative sense as a binding benchmark that reflects the medical state of knowledge at the time of treatment. In a legal context, the medical standard is understood to be the medical treatment that (taking scientific findings and medical experience into account) is required in a specific treatment situation to reach the medical treatment goal, has been successfully tested, and thus can be expected from an expert point of view (see also verdict by the German Federal Court of Justice³⁰ of 15 April 2014, Az.: VI ZR 382/12).

As the professional standard is constantly undergoing scientific progress, norms inferred from the current state of knowledge must be examined in appropriate intervals with regard to their need for updating. In addition, real-world health care should always be re-examined regarding to what extent these professional standards guide actions in practice and are applied in a binding manner.

In clinical daily practice, the term “standard” is also associated with the phenomenon of similar actions and behaviour of health care professionals with similar responsibilities.

Medical actions that, according to medical and scientific evidence and/or clinical experience, are accepted in the profession, represent the medical standard [299]. This normative standard is here referred to as the health care standard, which may be specified by laws, regulations and directives, or identified in guidelines (see also Section 5.1). The reference values of quality indicators can also be interpreted as health care standards [228].

C) Quality of health care

For the assessment of quality of care, real-world health care, referring to structures, processes and outcomes is compared with the particular health care standard which, among other things, is specified through norms, directives and guidelines [301,356]. By comparing the target

³⁰ Bundesgerichtshof, BGH

status with the actual status, conclusions on the current quality of health care become possible; in this context, current real-world health care represents the actual status and the aspired health care standard identified represents the target status, whereby the latter describes the goals to be achieved in health care. This health care analysis is usually conducted for a defined area of health care. The precondition for determining the quality of health care is the availability of suitable data on current real-world health care that were systematically collected and analysed, and that these data allow the derivation of justified conclusions on the implementation of the corresponding health care standard. In this context, “systematic” is, among other things, understood to be a planned data collection with uniform documentation instructions (coding instructions), standardized data collection forms, as well as a complete, and, if possible, comprehensive collection of data (depending on the research question).

5.4.2 Content aspects of a health care analysis

Health care analysis comprises the current and systematic description, analysis and assessment of health care aspects (often from the perspective of the appropriateness [557], quality and efficiency of services provided within the SHI) of a defined population group regarding a specific medical or system-related research question (see §139a SGB V (3) Nos. 1 and 2). Depending on the commission, the level of detail of this analysis can vary.

Besides individual interventions, complex interventions referring to both patient-relevant outcomes and outcomes related to the health care system can be investigated. For a planned health care analysis, different individual medical as well as population and health system-related data and studies can be used in a modular system. In health sciences the term “individual medicine” is used for “classical” medicine (involving a patient); this is to distinguish it from public health.

The analysis of the health care situation in Germany can be supplemented by an international comparison.

The health care analysis can describe and assess different levels and/or several health care aspects. Basically, one distinguishes between 3 main areas: an epidemiological and a health economic area as well as an area comprising the social organization of health care. The first area describes the distribution and frequency of diseases in the population, on the basis of which the need for medical services can be inferred. In this context, special focus can be placed on certain subgroups in the population. The second area addresses the limited financial resources made available in the health care system. Finally, the third area addresses, for example, issues of the qualitative organization of health care-related structures and processes of service provision, as well as their health-related results.

5.4.3 Aims of a health care analysis

The superordinate aim of a health care analysis is to assess the quality of care.

The following points can be subgoals of a health care analysis:

- examination of whether the health care provided meets the demand and is appropriate, as well as examination of indications of potential over-, under- or inappropriate provision of health care [557]
- examination of the implementation of standards within health care and identification of possible potential for improvement on the basis of selected quality indicators
- investigation of the effects of health care models or measures of quality assurance on the population or on patient groups/population groups
- identification of a potential need for research (e.g. clinical research, HTA, health care system research)

For feasibility reasons, the focus within the framework of a project is usually on one or a small number of the aims described above with regard to a certain disease or a certain health care aspect.

5.4.4 Research questions of a health care analysis

The precondition for the systematic description, investigation, and assessment of health care areas is the formulation of specific research questions. The definition of research questions comprises the specification of the following points

- population (age; gender; disease; if relevant, subgroup or severity of disease)
- the interventions to be investigated (e.g. care of diabetic patients in general practice)
- outcome measures/patient-relevant outcomes (e.g. structural characteristics or health-related quality of life, costs of SHI services)
- health care setting (e.g. outpatient care, acute inpatient care, long-term inpatient care, or cross-sector care)

When formulating the research question it needs to be specified from which perspective (e.g. patients, society, cost carriers, etc.) health care is to be described and assessed, as the focus of the investigation and the selection of outcomes may change depending on the perspective. In this context, specific attention may be paid to the interests of vulnerable groups.

Regional variations, international comparisons, as well as temporal developments (trends) may be addressed according to the research question.

5.4.5 Potential health care parameters

Different parameters can be used within the framework of a health care analysis. Health care parameters are, for example, epidemiological indices or indicators that help describe various areas of the health care system. On the basis of the case fatality rate it can be described which proportion of patients with a certain disease dies of this disease over a defined period of time [314]. The consequences of a disease can be assessed by means of data according to the

International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) and pension fund data (e.g. on invalidity pensions) [156,622]. Health care studies, as well as data from cost carriers or service providers (health insurance funds, associations of SHI physicians, etc.), also depict patients' utilization of health care services. They thus provide information on how often which medical services are requested, provided or made use of. Quality indicators for the structural, process and outcome quality of inpatient and/or outpatient care provide the opportunity to compare between the demand (specified goal of health care) and to what extent the goal was reached in different health care areas. They primarily serve quality assurance purposes and may indicate specific health care problems related to individual structural characteristics or individual outcomes.

Occasionally evidence-based guidelines also include quality indicators. These are indicators to distinguish between the high and low quality of health care structures, processes and/or outcomes. They allow the indirect display of the quality of an institution by means of numbers or numerical proportions and can be used as a basis for an optimized management and, if necessary, correction of health care.

In addition, patient safety data from hospital quality reports, registries and clinical trials may be incorporated into a health care analysis. They cover, for example, the extent of avoidable or adverse events.

Evaluation reports on model projects according to §63 SGB V may indicate potential further developments of the measures, organization, funding and suitable types of reimbursement of health care services. Selected indicators for describing the health care situation can be compared within the framework of international health system comparisons. Examples are vaccination rates, disease-specific life expectancy, the number of hospital beds per 1000 inhabitants, and the proportion of expenditure on health care services in relation to the gross domestic product [385,391,684].

Depending on the research question, the above-mentioned parameters (and possibly others) can be combined and thus enable a comprehensive overview of individual health care areas. The health care standards allocated to these areas are identified as described in Section 5.4.8.

5.4.6 Procedure for a health care analysis

An example of a procedure for a health care analysis is presented in Figure 16.

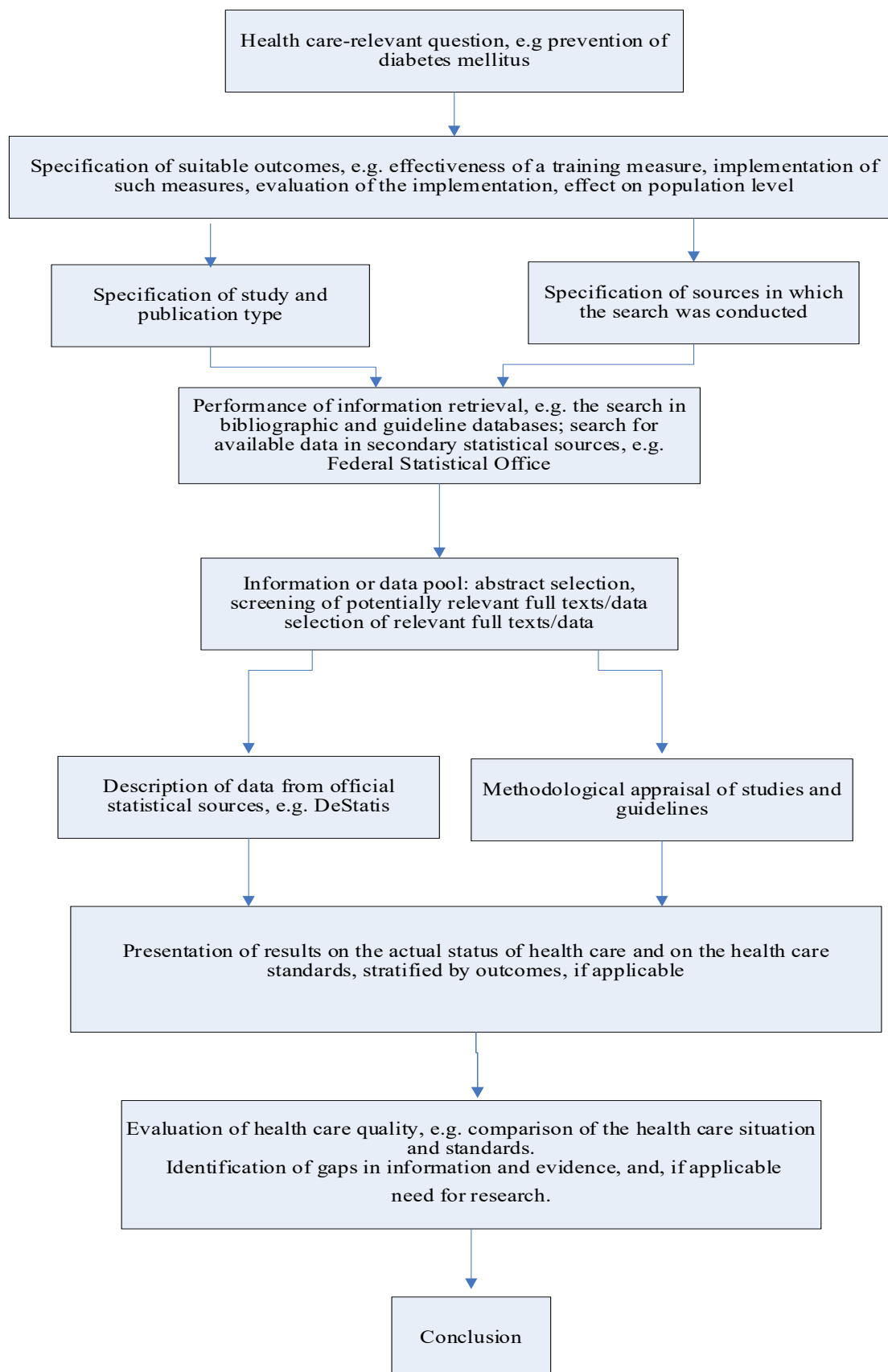


Figure 16: Example of a procedure for a health care analysis

5.4.7 Levels of a health care analysis

Health care can be described by means of the above-mentioned parameters relating to 3 different levels: that of individual medicine, of public health and of the health care system.

The first level refers to individual patients or patient groups in a clinical setting under certain conditions for the provision of health care services and/or interventions. Typical outcome measures on this level are patient-relevant outcomes such as mortality, morbidity and health-related quality of life.

The second level refers to population-based studies in the sense of public health [317,415]. Outcome measures on this level are also patient-relevant outcomes such as mortality and morbidity, referring, however, to the health care of the general population or certain subpopulations, without usually referring to a specific intervention [415]. Beyond this further outcome measures can be investigated, for example, rates of or subjective reasons for participation in screening or vaccination programmes or in health care models such as DMPs.

The third level is the health care system [24,148]. Outcome measures on this level can be certain indicators on the use of resources or on service provision such as the utilization of health care services or the provision of services in different settings (inpatient/outpatient care) by different professions/providers.

Depending on the research question, the description of health care can refer to information from all 3 levels (individual medicine, public health, health care system). In addition, at all levels, temporal developments and regional variations (disparities) can be investigated [154]; for this purpose, geographic information systems can be used, amongst other things.

5.4.8 Methodological features of a health care analysis

With regard to the complexity of the health care system and the above-mentioned levels (see Sections 5.4.4 and 5.4.7), different study and publication types may be considered within the framework of a health care analysis.

In addition, it may be necessary to examine different research questions on health care with different quantitative and qualitative methods. Moreover, data from several sources are drawn upon (see Section 5.4.9) and processed with different methods. As far as possible, the methodological assessment is performed with suitable instruments (see Section 5.4.10).

In addition, the consideration of sociocultural and ethical aspects may be necessary in the assessment of quality of health care in certain groups of patients, for example, the consideration of access to health care.

5.4.9 Information retrieval

Depending on the research question, different sources of information may be searched within the framework of a literature search (see Section 8.3). These are described using examples.

A) Determination of the health care standard

The type of health care standard is inferred from the research question for the health care analysis. The first preference is to identify health care standards via evidence-based guidelines. The systematic approach to identify health care standards via guidelines is described in Section 5.2. Laws, regulations and directives define the legally binding framework of health care/medical care.

Structures and processes are mostly assessed by means of quality indicators. High-quality guidelines designate quality indicators, among other things. These refer to measures that indirectly represent the quality of health care. They can be applied to the quality of structures, processes and outcomes. The reference range of the quality indicator specifies the health care goal, i.e. the health care standard. An indicator always only refers to one health care area, therefore it is meaningful to combine several indicators in order to assess quality [11]. Table 8 provides an overview of potential sources for identifying health care standards.

Table 8: Information sources for identifying German health care standards

| Information on | Examples of data providers |
|--|---|
| Health care/medical standards (clinical practice guidelines) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Association of the Scientific Medical Professional Societies (AWMF) ▪ Guidelines International Network (G-I-N) ▪ National Guideline Clearinghouse (NGC) |
| Laws (Social Code Book, SGB) and regulations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Federal Ministry of Justice and Consumer Protection (BMJV) ▪ Federal Ministry of Health (BMG) |
| Directives | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Federal Joint Committee (G-BA) ▪ German Medical Association (BÄK) |
| Indicators for the quality of structures, processes and outcomes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ National Association of Statutory Health Insurance Physicians (KBV), e.g. Ambulatory Quality Indicators and Key Measures (AQUIK) ▪ Federal Office for Quality Assurance (BQS) ▪ Institute for Applied Quality Promotion and Research in Health Care (AQUA) ▪ Institute for Quality Assurance and Transparency in Health Care (IQTIG) |
| <p>AQUA: Institut für angewandte Qualitätsförderung und Forschung im Gesundheitswesen; AQUIK: Ambulante Qualitätsindikatoren und Kennzahlen; AWMF: Arbeitsgemeinschaft der Wissenschaftlichen Medizinischen Fachgesellschaften; BÄK: Bundesärztekammer; BMJ: Bundesministerium der Justiz und für Verbraucherschutz; BMG: Bundesministerium für Gesundheit; BQS: Institut für Qualität und Patientensicherheit (previously Bundesgeschäftsstelle Qualitätssicherung); G-BA: Gemeinsamer Bundesausschuss; IQTIG: Institut für Qualitätssicherung und Transparenz im Gesundheitswesen; KBV: Kassenärztliche Bundesvereinigung; SGB: Sozialgesetzbuch</p> | |

B) Identification of data sources for health care data

All relevant data sources for the particular research question should be identified and, as far as possible, used to describe the provision of health care. Potential data sources for identifying health care data are named below (see Table 9).

Table 9: Data sources for identifying health care data

| Information on | Examples of sources |
|--|---|
| Morbidity and mortality, e.g. incidence and prevalence rates (population level) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Health report of federal and state organizations (e.g. German Health Survey for Children and Adolescents [KiGGS] of the Robert Koch Institute) ▪ Report of the Federal Statistical Office (e.g. hospital discharge diagnoses, statistics on causes of death). ▪ Morbidity registries (e.g. epidemiological and clinical cancer registries) ▪ Routine data, e.g. of health care funds and Associations of Statutory Health Insurance Physicians |
| Health care needs (e.g. regional needs analyses) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Health care studies |
| Utilization and prescription behaviour | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Drug prescription report (Research Institute of the Local Health Care Fund, WIdO) ▪ Hospital report (WIdO) ▪ Remedy report (WIdO) ▪ ICD-10 key codes according to specialty groups (Central Research Institute of Ambulatory Health Care in Germany) ▪ Routine data, e.g. of health care funds or Regional Associations of Statutory Health Insurance Physicians |
| Patient safety | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Arbitration boards of the Regional Medical Associations ▪ Quality indicators of the OECD ▪ Further publications of the statutory health insurance funds |
| Measurement of health care quality with indicators <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Quality of health care at a system level ▪ Quality of outpatient medical care ▪ Quality of inpatient care ▪ Quality of nursing care | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ OECD (e.g. access to health care) ▪ Quality reports of the Associations of Statutory Health Insurance Physicians ▪ Hospital quality reports according to §137 SGB V ▪ Publications of the Institute for Quality Assurance and Transparency in Health Care (IQTIG) ▪ Nursing care reports of the Medical Review Board of the Statutory Health Insurance Funds (MDK) |
| DMP | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Evaluation reports of DMPs |
| Health care system / comparison of systems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ WHO publications (e.g. World Health Report) |
| <p>AQUA: Institut für angewandte Qualitätsförderung und Forschung im Gesundheitswesen; BQS: Institut für Qualität und Patientensicherheit (previously Bundesgeschäftsstelle Qualitätssicherung); DMP: disease management programme; ICD: International Classification of Diseases; IQTIG: Institut für Qualitätssicherung und Transparenz im Gesundheitswesen; KiGGS: Studie zur Gesundheit von Kindern und Jugendlichen in Deutschland; MDK: Medizinischer Dienst der Krankenversicherung; OECD: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development; WIdO: Wissenschaftliches Institut der Allgemeinen Ortskrankenkasse; WHO: World Health Organization</p> | |

C) Search procedure for health care data

Health care data, e.g. from official statistical sources or morbidity registries, are specifically searched for. The search and search result are documented.

Depending upon the specific research question, in addition further information sources such as bibliographic databases or websites of guideline providers can be used to describe health care (see Sections 8.3 and 8.4).

5.4.10 Assessment of data identified

The following aspects need to be considered in the assessment of the data identified:

- Assessment of the study and publication quality of the studies included: Studies are assessed following the Institute's *General Methods*. Supplementations, e.g. regarding evaluation studies or qualitative studies [256], need to be justified.
- Assessment of studies with constructs as endpoints: For patient-relevant outcomes that are constructs, e.g. health-related quality of life, the validity of the questionnaire-based assessments is assessed. Non-validated instruments are not suitable for comparison.
- Assessment of official statistics: Such data, e.g. from the Federal Statistical Office, are not assessed methodologically, as it is often impossible to assess such statistics (e.g. on mortality) in this way. In addition, they are already subjected to strict quality criteria by the issuing organizations [92,504]. Publication of these data through third parties, e.g. in journal articles, are assessed according to the Institute's *General Methods*.
- Assessment of registry data: If endpoints are presented by means of registry data, the validity of the registry should be addressed (data quality [i.e. completeness and plausibility of data sets], completeness, currentness) [504,659].
- Conclusive assessment of study and publication quality: The evaluation of the potential risk of bias in the studies/publications to be assessed is conducted following the Institute's *General Methods*.
- Assessment of the methodological quality of the clinical practice guidelines: see Section 5.2.4.

5.4.11 Information synthesis and analysis

The synthesis and analysis of information is conducted as follows: At first the available literature is checked for relevant information on the outcome measures specified in the report plan, and is assessed and described according to the principles of the methods paper formulated on the evaluation of the evidence base (Chapter 2 and Section 5.2.4). Starting from the guideline recommendations shaping the formation of expectations, the achievement of a health care goal is examined on a numerical basis. The results are subsequently summarized. On the basis of the results of the health care analysis an assessment of health care quality is conducted.

5.4.12 Description and assessment of health care quality

The assessment of health care quality comprises 3 steps:

Step 1: description of the actual status

The actual status of health care is described as specified in the report plan. In this context, the following questions need to be considered:

- Are data, studies or publications available on the goals or health care aspects of the investigation?
- How reliable are the results found?

Step 2: description of the target status

In a further step, health care standards are identified and described. Here too, the availability and the methodological quality of standards are checked.

- Does a health care standard exist for the goals/health care aspects stated in the report plan?
- How reliable are the results found?

Step 3: comparison between actual and target status

Then the actual health care status is compared to the health care standards. Taking the following questions into account, this leads to the assessment of health care quality:

- Is the health care standard implemented in everyday health care?
- How great are the deviations between the actual and the target status? In which direction does the actual status deviate from the target status (over- or underprovision of health care)?
- What conclusions can be drawn from the above comparison?

A final evaluation is made in the conclusions of the report. The evaluation enables us to judge whether gaps in information and/or evidence exist, whether there is a need for research, and/or whether potential for improvement exists.

6 HTA reports

6.1 Background and aim

According to §139b (5) SGB V, persons insured in the statutory health insurance (SHI) and other interested individuals can propose assessments of medical examination and treatment methods for selected diseases as well as of questions of quality and efficiency. According to §139b (5) SGB V, this excludes topic proposals where the separate assessment of a drug is the primary focus.

The Institute's task is to select topics from these proposals that are of particular importance to the health care of patients and to process these topics in the form of HTA reports.

The following text describes the process from topic submission to report production.

6.2 Topic collection

Topic proposals for HTA reports can be submitted by persons insured in the SHI and other interested individuals via the website www.themencheck-medizin.iqwig.de (only available in German).

6.3 Selection of topics for the HTA reports

The topics that are proposed up to a yearly deadline run through a multi-step selection procedure (Figure 17). In this context, the perspectives of both the general public and patients as well as the scientific perspective are considered.

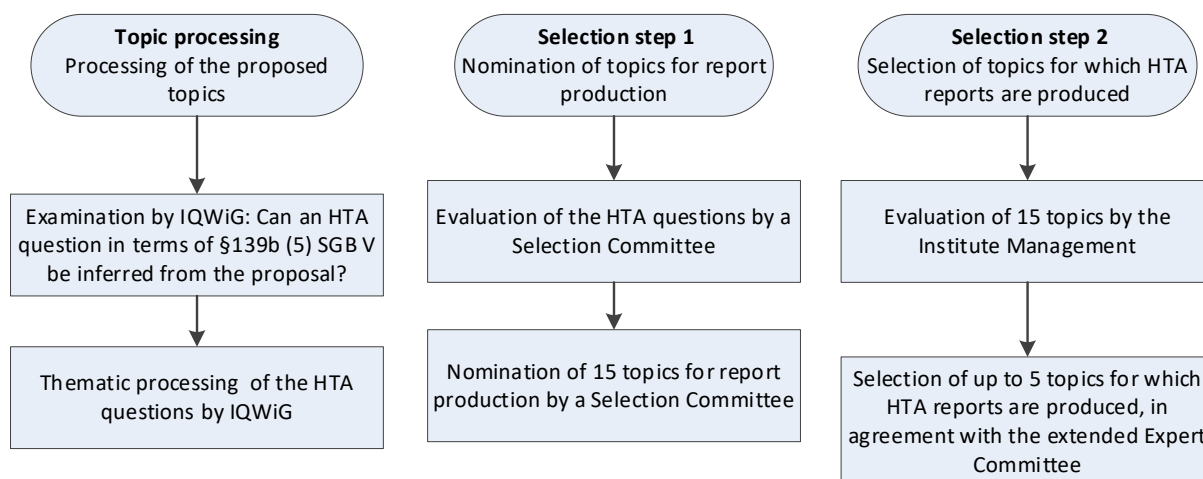


Figure 17: Schematic illustration of the multi-step selection procedure

6.3.1 Selection criteria

For the examination and weighting of topic proposals, as well as after each of the 2 selection steps, the topics proposed are evaluated by means of predefined criteria.

The aim is to select topics that are particularly relevant for the health care of patients. Likewise, as a matter of principle it is specified that medical examination and treatment methods are evaluated. Further criteria and questions that are considered in the selection are, among other things:

- How large is the number of affected persons?
- How great is the disease burden or the severity of disease?
- How comprehensive is the available evidence on the research question?
- Has the research question already been investigated in current German HTA reports?
- What costs are related to an intervention?

6.3.2 Evaluation of the research question and processing of topics

The proposals submitted are assessed by the Institute in a timely manner and, if necessary, editorial and qualitative changes are made.

In accordance with §139b (5) SGB V, topic proposals where the focus is on the separate assessment of a drug are excluded from further processing. Therefore only those topic proposals from which an HTA question can be inferred in terms of §139b (5) SGB V are processed further.

For the selection criteria mentioned above (see Section 6.3.1), information on all topics with an HTA question in terms of §139b (5) SGB V is collected and summarized in the processing of topics.

6.3.3 First step of the selection procedure: nomination of topics

In the first step of the selection procedure, a Selection Committee nominates topics for the production of HTA reports. For this purpose, the processed topic proposals are made available to the Committee. On this basis the Committee selects 15 topics for the production of HTA reports. In this context, the perspectives of both the general public and patients as well as the scientific perspective are considered.

The Selection Committee members comprise firstly, the representatives of organizations recognized on the federal level as relevant for the representation of the interests of patients and self-help groups of chronically ill and disabled persons, secondly, a representative of the Federal Government Commissioner for Patients' Affairs and Delegate for Long-Term Care, and thirdly, members of the general public.

6.3.4 Second step of the selection procedure: selection of topics for which HTA reports are produced

A preliminary search (see Section 8.1.1) for the topic proposals nominated in the first selection step is conducted in the second step of the selection procedure. On this basis, in

agreement with representatives of organizations forming the Foundation Board of the Foundation for Quality and Efficiency in Health Care, as well as a representative of the Ministry of Health (extended Expert Committee), up to 5 topics specified in the first step of the selection procedure are chosen for which HTA reports are produced.

6.4 Ensuring the quality of HTA reports

The following measures, among others, ensure a high quality of the HTA reports:

- structuring of the content of the HTA reports by the Institute as well as the provision of templates for the report protocol and the preliminary basic report
- approval of the report protocol and the preliminary basic report after a conformity evaluation by the Institute
- production of the basic report following the Institute's methods
- conduct of systematic searches in the Institute for information in relation to the HTA reports
- conduct of a commenting procedure
- classification of the results of the basic report in a publisher's comment produced by the Institute

6.5 Processing of topics (HTA reports)

As a rule, the HTA reports address all HTA-relevant aspects. Besides the obligatory assessments of the benefit and harm of interventions, following international HTA definition, the economical, ethical, social, legal and organizational aspects of the intervention are also presented in the HTA reports [214,405,443,509].

The level of detail of the investigation of the health economical relevance of the respective examination or treatment method, as well as its ethical, social, legal and organizational aspects, depends on the research question and is specified in the report protocol. As a matter of principle, the benefit and harm of examination and treatment methods, as well as their economic, ethical, social, legal and organizational aspects, are interlinked. In the processing of topics, the individual aspects therefore cannot be examined separately from each other.

6.5.1 Benefit assessment

The production of the sections of the HTA report referring to the benefit and harm of examination and treatment methods is conducted using the procedure described in Chapter 3, Chapter 8, and Chapter 9.

6.5.2 Health economics

If a separate health economic analysis is to be prepared in the HTA reports, the requirements of Sections 4.2 to 4.5, 4.7 as well as 4.8 must be considered and the results presented graphically in a coordinate system.

A further option is to generate a systematic review of the available evidence on health economic analyses. In this context, the analyses are in particular assessed with regard to the applicability of the results to Germany, the classification of results under consideration of the methodological requirements described in sections 4.2 to 4.5, as well as the completeness of the data basis.

6.5.3 Ethics

In medicine, but also in public health and health services research, the 4 principles of beneficence, nonmaleficence, respect for patient autonomy, and justice following Beauchamp und Childress [39] are widely disseminated [190,288]. This approach has also been commonly used for the analysis of ethical aspects of medical interventions following HTA methods [38,454]. In recent years further methodological approaches have also been applied. These include, for instance, the Socratic approach, the social shaping of technology, virtue ethics or the triangular approach [25,332]. Depending on the research questions to be processed, the methodological concepts available are suitable in different ways.

The Socratic approach delivers detailed results and has been used for many different medical interventions [184,331,444]. The questionnaire by Hofmann 2005 [329,330] is based on the Socratic approach and is as a rule to be used for the HTA reports, possibly in a simplified version. If other methodological approaches are better suited, they can also be applied, with corresponding justification in the report protocol.

6.5.4 Social aspects

Social and sociocultural aspects in HTA address the mutual interactions between the examination or treatment method and the social environment (e.g. distribution of resources in a society, access to technologies, patient preferences, societal norms and values). Four approaches for identifying social aspects in HTAs are being discussed: checklists, literature reviews, participatory approaches, and empirical research [254,472]. The framework of Mozygamba et al. [472] is recommended for the examination or exploratory assessment of sociocultural aspects in HTA reports. A generic questionnaire (e.g. Gerhardus und Stich [254]) or the checklist from the HTA Core Model of EUnetHTA [214] may also possibly be helpful.

6.5.5 Legal aspects

Legal aspects in HTA refer on the one hand to the legal framework in which the examination or treatment method and its assessment are embedded, and on the other hand to the legal

aspects related to the implementation and use of the health technology. One distinguishes between technology- and patient-related legal aspects [198,298,693].

6.5.6 Organizational aspects

An HTA report can also examine which interactions arise through an examination or treatment method for the organization of health care and which determinants can influence the implementation of an examination or treatment method. In principle, one can distinguish between the interaction of organizational conditions, procedures and processes and the requirements, as well as the increase or decrease in the burden for healthcare professionals [510]. However, no methodological standard so far exists whereby the organizational interactions of examination or treatment methods in the health care system can be examined [510].

The grid template proposed by Perleth et al. [510] for the assessment of organizational consequences of examination and treatment methods can provide support for the processing of organizational questions.

7 Evidence-based health information for consumers

7.1 Background and goals

The Institute has a statutory responsibility to provide readily understandable health information to consumers, but not direct advice to individuals.

In the production of its health information, the Institute adheres to the principles of evidence-based medicine as presented in Section 1.2. This includes applying systematic methods for the scientific assessment of medical interventions as well as integrating the perspective of people affected.

The methods used in the production of evidence-based health information are based on a systematic approach that aims to present the current state of scientific knowledge in an easy-to-understand way, minimise systematic errors (bias) and remain neutral.

To achieve this, evidence-based information is based on the following principles:

- systematic search in the form of targeted information retrieval based on the research questions relevant to the target audience,
- justified selection of evidence appropriate to the research question,
- reasonable and – as far as possible – objective reporting of results that are relevant to patients, such as mortality, symptoms and complications (morbidity) and health-related quality of life,
- appropriate factual and linguistic communication of uncertainties and unclear issues,
- avoidance of any direct recommendations,
- consideration of current evidence concerning risk communication.

The primary goal of the Institute’s health information is to provide easily understandable medical knowledge that is relevant to decision-making. This knowledge is meant to support the users of information in their autonomy and competency to make an informed decision between different options. This way, users are free to make their own decisions. The information is written based on the concept of “shared decision-making”, according to which users aren’t told how to make decisions [196]. Whether to delegate the decision to a doctor or to decide together with others or alone is left up to the individual.

Moreover, the information is to be provided in a way that promotes general health and scientific literacy.

In summary, these are the Institute’s goals:

- to provide information that is relevant to medical decisions and easy to understand, even if it concerns complex scientific issues,

- to facilitate active and informed decision-making,
- to promote the critical use of health care services,
- to improve understanding of physical and mental health,
- to improve understanding of medical and scientific information, including the concept of evidence-based medicine,
- to promote the support of patients by family and friends,
- to provide information on handling practical and emotional issues in everyday life,
- to emotionally support people who are affected and
- to help navigate the health care system.

These goals can be summarized as “empowerment”. According to the definition of the World Health Organization (WHO), empowerment within a health care system includes the competency to make choices and take actions in accordance with your own goals [492]. Empowering health communication addresses what consumers want to know, shows interest in and respect for patients’ opinions, and acknowledges their competence [169,386,674].

The particular challenge of evidence-based health information is in meeting these requirements and goals while being attractive and understandable to users [164]. It is important not to allow the various requirements to result in an overload of information. So it is sometimes not possible to reach all the goals and fulfil all the quality requirements in a single piece of information.

One solution is to combine individual texts and other formats that have different priorities, in order to create information packages of appropriate breadth and depth. This is realised on the websites www.gesundheitsinformation.de (in German) and www.informedhealth.org (in English).

7.2 Selection of topics and identification of information needs

§139a (3) Sentence 6 of the German Social Code Book V (SGB V) sets the following task for the Institute: “Provision of easily-understandable general information to citizens on the quality and efficiency of health care services, as well as on the diagnosis of and therapy for diseases of substantial epidemiological relevance”. The Institute’s general commission was amended in July 2006. According to this, it must “continuously monitor and evaluate fundamentally important developments in medicine” and report on these. This general commission was adapted to include the Institute’s health information in 2008 [252].

Generally, this results in the following reasons for the Institute to address a topic:

- to fulfil its statutory responsibility to provide consumers with health information, as well as on its own initiative within the framework of the G-BA’s general commission,

- in response to direct commissions received from the G-BA or Federal Ministry of Health (for information on the processing of these commissions, see Section 2.1.8),
- in response to other commissions given to the Institute and the related accompanying information (see Section 2.1).

7.2.1 Topic catalogue in accordance with the general commission

It is not possible to arrive at a broadly acceptable definition or a clear list of “diseases of substantial epidemiological relevance” based on the literature. One fundamental aspect of epidemiological relevance is a measure of how common a particular illness is. When deciding on which diagnoses or group of diseases to cover, those that affect at least one percent of the public at any given time (prevalence) or within a given year (incidence) are prioritised. This threshold is applied to different subpopulations according to sex and age (0 to 17 years old, 18 to 59 years old, 60 years old and above) in order to reflect the sex- and age-specific particularities of these groups as accurately as possible [397].

The topic catalogue is primarily based on the biannually updated health care report produced by the AOK³¹ Research Institute (WIdO³²) [255]. The report contains information on prevalence and hospitalization rates for the 1500 most common illnesses (grouped according to 3-digit ICD³³-10 codes), based on about 24 million members of the statutory health insurance fund “AOK”. The Institute’s topic catalogue is reviewed regularly and subsequently amended as needed. This topic catalogue can be expanded, e.g. depending on the topics commissioned to IQWiG or to include medical conditions whose significance and burden of disease cannot be satisfactorily reflected by prevalence or incidence data.

7.2.2 Identification of information needs / Production of information about personal experiences with medical conditions

Ideally, evidence-based health information should be guided by the information needs of the target group. In addition to the general aspects that are relevant to all target groups, such as prevalence and the course of the disease, the information should address topic-specific questions and issues, common misunderstandings and gaps in knowledge.

Patient-centred health information shouldn’t just answer medical questions and enable an informed decision. It should also answer questions about health care services and dealing with the disease, as well as offer emotional support [224]. To do this, it is necessary to know the questions users might be interested in. It is also important that the authors at the Institute have an understanding of the situation and the burdens that an illness may cause for patients and

³¹ Allgemeine Ortskrankenkasse (Local Healthcare Fund)

³² Wissenschaftliches Institut der Allgemeinen Ortskrankenkasse

³³ International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems

their family members. They should develop an understanding of what it means to live with a certain illness.

Therefore, to prepare a topic, qualitative literature is typically searched for and analysed as part of targeted information retrieval (see Section 8.2) in order to identify personal experiences with the condition as well as questions and knowledge gaps that are relevant to the users. The relevant results from Germany are analysed first. If none are available [517], then information needs are derived from studies conducted in similar countries.

Furthermore, freely available health information from other sources on the Internet (e.g. statutory health insurance funds, health authorities, research institutes and commercial businesses) are also reviewed. This provides an impression of the current availability of health information and its main areas of focus. In addition, for different topics, different self-help organisations are contacted and asked about the information needs of patients and the challenges of coping with the illness.

This approach provides a picture of the different stages that a person who is affected by a certain health problem goes through, the associated psychological and emotional problems that can occur, which information is needed, and the points at which decisions need to be made.

7.2.3 Multidimensional patient pathways

Especially for chronic diseases, a sort of map is created to navigate the issues and decisions associated with a given illness. This map shows the possible “pathways” that patients with the disease might take. It should attempt to show as comprehensively as possible how the patient’s life may be affected by the illness, and at what points critical decisions are expected.

This approach will be referred to as “multidimensional patient pathways” below.

The decision regarding whether a multidimensional patient pathway will be created for a specific topic will depend on the following criteria, among others:

- Is the illness a long-term or chronic disease that is associated with different stages for the patient (e.g. the processing of a serious diagnosis, unpleasant and difficult treatments, the need for aftercare)?
- Do some of these stages involve complex decisions, such as choosing between various treatment options with specific risk/benefit profiles?
- Are several physicians or other health care professionals involved in the process? Are there different health care options (outpatient or inpatient)?

Multidimensional patient pathways summarize the different social, emotional, cognitive and clinical dimensions that can be associated with an illness. The information is presented in a table. It should illustrate what challenges and decisions patients may face over the course of

the illness. The multidimensional patient pathway approach shares similarities with the medical-sociological “illness trajectory” model [130] and the “patient career” model [253,408], as well as various “patient journey” models [414].

One of the aims of multidimensional patient pathways is to determine the scope of a topic and the main areas of focus when producing the Institute’s health information. The following questions can be helpful here:

- Who might read the information?
- What questions might the readers have?
- What might be the emotional state of the reader?
- What information might be needed at different points during the course of the disease?
- What decisions are patients faced with, and when and where will they have to make these decisions?
- What effects might health information on this topic have?

This approach mainly aims to help the authors of the Institute’s health information systematically develop a good understanding of patients and those close to them, as well as of their interaction with information. Consideration of the dimensions shown in Table 10 supports this aim.

Table 10: Different dimensions of a patient pathway

| | |
|--|--|
| (Everyday) life | Effects of the disease on social relationships and roles: family and partners, friends, job, quality of life, “performance”, etc. |
| Doing / coping | Any activities related to the illness, such as visiting a doctor, taking medication, looking for information, self-help |
| Feeling | Feelings that come up during the course of the disease and the treatment, such as grief, fears, worries, etc. |
| Knowledge | What do consumers already know? What information might they need? |
| Decisions | What decisions must the person affected make in each phase? |
| Medical / clinical aspects | Description of the medical phases, such as risk factors, symptoms, diagnosis, treatment, rehabilitation |
| Contact point in the health care system | Who in the health care or social welfare system can offer help and guidance in each phase, for example, doctors, nurses, physiotherapists, psychotherapists, social workers, information centres, insurance funds? |

Various sources are used when producing draught patient pathways. These may include other qualitative literature (qualitative studies and systematic reviews), evidence-based guidelines

of national and international scientific associations, evidence syntheses, literature on the information needs of patients and the health care situation, as well as reports of personal experiences with a medical condition [403].

7.3 Gathering of information for the production of health information

When producing evidence-based health information, systematic searches are a key part of the process. They involve scanning current scientific literature for information that is relevant to the research question. As a rule, 2 searches are performed for every topic:

- A search for qualitative literature (see Section 8.2.2): The results are used to identify any needs for additional relevant information, such as personal experiences with the condition. This search is meant to enable the authors to empathize as much as possible with the people affected.
- A search for systematic reviews (see Section 8.2.1): The results provide the basis for drawing conclusions about the benefits and harms of medical interventions.

In addition to these searches, simplified searches (see Section 8.3) are performed to answer specific questions, for instance about the prevalence of the condition.

Searches for systematic reviews aim to identify such overviews of research on all aspects covered in a piece of health information, such as the causes, the course of a medical condition, the prognosis, treatments and epidemiological data. In general, only systematic reviews that are based on searches that were performed in the last 3 years are accepted as a source of information [598,599]. If the searches were performed more than 3 years ago, they may be out-of-date, considering the short half-life of medical knowledge. This time period can be adjusted for specific topics, for example if there is a lack of more recent research.

The identified reviews are then matched with the research questions. In an internal editorial and scientific scoping process, the results of the literature search are used to cover the identified information needs.

If an important information need, such as a need for long-term data, cannot be met with recent systematic overviews, a targeted search for primary studies may be considered.

7.4 Selecting evidence

When producing evidence-based health information, the available relevant scientific knowledge from current and sufficiently reliable studies is to be considered. The type of studies that are appropriate depends on the question being asked. Conclusions about the benefits and harmful effects of interventions are generally based on systematic reviews of randomized controlled trials (RCTs – see Section 8.2). In order to use a systematic review on the effect of an intervention in a piece of health information, the systematic review must meet certain minimum quality standards [368,501,503]. The quality is assessed using the Oxman-Guyatt Index [500,501,503]. Nine items are assessed, including the quality of the information

retrieval, the selection of studies and the synthesis of evidence. In order to qualify as a suitable basis for drawing conclusions about the benefits and harmful effects of a medical intervention, a systematic review may have at most minor flaws here. That corresponds to a minimum score of 5 points. The potential for bias in the included studies must also be assessed regularly at the level of endpoints. In addition, the review authors' handling of possible publication bias must be assessed. For example, was a specific search for unpublished data performed, or were statistical tests used to identify publication bias? Failing to address publication bias or handling it inadequately may lead to a description of the qualitative uncertainty of the results in the health information, or even to the exclusion of the systematic review.

The selection will also be influenced by the question of whether the results are applicable in the context of the German health care system. Aspects taken into consideration include the study population, approval status and how common the intervention is. If conclusions only apply to certain groups, this will be explained in the text.

If a health information article contains conclusions that are based on evidence syntheses of varying qualitative certainty, then this will be addressed in the article.

When more than one systematic review of adequate methodological quality addresses a particular subject or outcome, a further assessment of the systematic reviews is carried out. This way, the qualitatively best reviews can be identified. In addition to the previously mentioned aspects, the following are also considered:

- The main areas of focus of the review, especially with regard to its relevance for patient information
- Sensitivity analyses and handling of heterogeneity

The results of the highest-quality review for a particular research question are taken as the source of the numerical data described in the health information. If reviews come to different conclusions, the possible reasons are explored [369]. These may include differences in the study pool, the statistical analysis or the interpretation of the results.

For research questions on aetiology or prognosis, for instance, systematic reviews on the basis of types of studies other than RCTs can also be used [264]. When assessing such systematic reviews, the criteria of the Oxford Centre for Evidence-Based Medicine are used [112,312]. The methods for assessing qualitative research are described in Section 8.4.

7.5 Choosing the results (endpoints) to be presented

Information on treatment outcomes is based on endpoints that are relevant to patients – in particular mortality, symptoms and complications (morbidity), as well as health-related quality of life. The principles described in Sections 3.1 and 3.2 of these Methods generally apply here.

Further information that is often important to patients includes circumstances surrounding the treatment (e.g. the time involved, physical, mental, social, as well as financial burdens).

7.6 Choosing and presenting comparisons

In order to enable users of gesundheitsinformation.de / informedhealth.org to consider the benefits and harms of an intervention concerning the patient-relevant outcomes described in Section 7.5, a comparison is drawn between having the intervention and forgoing it or using a different standard treatment.

7.7 Handling numerical data and information about risks

Producing a balanced description of the possible benefits and harms of an intervention generally requires a quantification of the effects and risks. This involves taking care to limit the use of numerical data and information about risks so as not to overload the health information, or affect the flow of reading and comprehension.

Because describing probabilities in words often does not lead to a realistic assessment, numbers are preferred [90].

The following principles are followed when providing numbers and probabilities:

- The effect of a medical intervention is described by showing the absolute event frequencies in the comparison groups. Any uncertainties are mentioned. If possible, the reference values will be selected so that the magnitude of the effect is readily apparent.
- The same reference value is used for the descriptions of the benefits and harms, if possible. The starting point for the comparison is the baseline risk, e.g. the natural course of an illness. Here we mean the likelihood that, in the absence of treatment, symptoms will improve, worsen or stay the same. The users will be informed if the symptoms may improve without treatment as well.
- If it is helpful, relative changes will be described in addition to the changes in the absolute risk.

Whether the effects are presented as a “gain” or a “loss” will depend on the particular intervention and the perspective of the person affected by the condition. Here, a uniform frame of reference concerning the benefits and harms is selected. Studies on the benefits of also using diagrams to present numerical information do not clearly show how this affects the endpoints knowledge, risk perception or understandability. The German-language evidence-

based guideline *Evidence-based Health Information*³⁴ arrives at a recommendation that this is optional, based on the low quality of the evidence [441].

In the production of health information, illustrations are mainly used for the supplementary presentation of complex subject matter, e.g. generally in cancer screening decision aids.

For the purpose of presenting them in health information, the relative measures of effect that are used in meta-analyses are converted to absolute measures. The absolute effect measure is calculated using a similar approach to that used to produce the results tables within a Cochrane review [323]. The uncertainty of the effect measure is thereby taken into account, but not the uncertainty of the baseline risk [146,617].

The basis of the calculation is a pooled effect estimate from a sufficiently homogeneous meta-analysis. If the effect measure is already a risk difference, it will be used in the further consideration. If a relative effect measure is given, then a plausible baseline risk will first be selected to derive the absolute risk difference. This is typically based on the median of the control group risk in the included individual studies.

In justified cases, the baseline risk can also be derived from a suitable individual study (e.g. the study with the largest by far population or the highest external validity) from the included study pool or from a valid external source (e.g. a German prevalence study, or from registry data). In the event that the baseline risk is taken from an external source and shows a high degree of uncertainty, this uncertainty will be taken into account. The method described by Newcombe and Bender is applied in that case [486].

Based on the assumed baseline risk, the absolute risk in the intervention group and the absolute risk difference are calculated using the relative pooled effect size estimator (OR, RR, HR) from the meta-analysis.

If the included individual studies have heterogeneous baseline risks, then each absolute effect for the various assumed baseline risks is presented (e.g. for a low and high baseline risk). If it does not make sense to include an absolute effect measure, then it can be left out.

7.8 Taking into account differences related to age and gender

The natural course of a disease, risk factors, symptoms, morbidity, mortality, effects and side effects of interventions, health-related quality of life and accompanying circumstances of an intervention can vary depending on age or gender. If the literature that has been identified as relevant to a condition describes significant differences related to age and gender, these are taken into account while producing health information.

³⁴ Evidenzbasierte Gesundheitsinformation

For many topics, the epidemiology of the condition already results in aspects specific to gender and age. If a piece of information is aimed at the group that is mainly affected by a condition, this target audience is not explicitly mentioned in the information.

If no relevant differences between the different groups can be identified, this lack of difference is not specifically pointed out.

If, however, any results apply to subgroups, this is made explicit.

A neutral style of language should ensure that information reaches both women and men and that both genders feel addressed in the same way. Continuously referring to people in the masculine form leads to a mental underrepresentation and linguistic discrimination of women [364]. The information published at gesundheitsinformation.de / informedhealth.org uses a gender-neutral style of language, which avoids the use of generic masculine forms whenever possible. Both genders are explicitly named if both are meant, or gender-neutral expressions are used.

7.9 Adaptation to the target group

A key challenge when producing evidence-based health information is communicating in a way that is understandable while remaining scientifically accurate and objective. Additionally, the Institute's health information is aimed at a heterogeneous target group in terms of literacy, abilities, current health problems, education, personal background, age, and sex. Aspects such as native language and cultural background are also important for some target groups.

When preparing a given topic, a check is done to see whether the epidemiology of the condition results in special requirements for particular target groups.

To meet the needs of specific target groups, the information can be adapted by combining the following options:

- surveys, primary qualitative research and reviews of qualitative research on people's information needs
- experiences of other information providers, patient advice services and self-help groups
- interviews with those affected by the health problem (see Section 9.4.2)
- collection of real-life stories as a separate format (see Section 7.15.2)

7.9.1 Involvement of those affected

There is some evidence that involving the people affected by a particular health problem in the development of health information can increase its relevance [488]. One of the requirements of evidence-based health information [163] is that it takes the consumers' perspective and information needs into consideration. This is a key element when producing

health information [706]. This can be achieved in various ways, including the following: When prioritising and narrowing down the aspects to be covered by a topic, ideas proposed by website users and experiences from consultations with self-help groups are taken into account.

Those affected by the medical condition are contacted through the patient representative organisation in the G-BA and through contact with self-help groups.

For suitable topics, the individual stories of patients, as well as those close to them, are presented in order to enable patients and other interested people to find out about the different aspects of living with a condition and nursing care. This is intended to complement the other health information (see Section 7.15.2).

7.9.2 Non-public commenting procedure

After the internal quality assurance processes and the external expert peer review have been concluded, the Board of Trustees is given the opportunity to comment on the draft version in a non-public commenting procedure. The Board of Trustees also includes representatives of patients' interests and representatives of self-help organizations of chronically ill and disabled people. After the deadline for the submission of comments has passed, the members of the team involved in producing the information and the Head or Deputy Head of the department view the comments submitted and discuss their relevance for the health information. At an editorial conference, the remarks and arguments made in the comments are discussed and – if available – the evidence is reviewed. Any need for revision is agreed upon and documented. The comments are acknowledged close to the time of publication of the final version of the information. If received prior to the deadline, suggestions regarding changes to the content are acknowledged. Comments containing only a few editorial remarks and comments that are received after the deadline are generally not acknowledged. Comments and acknowledgments are not published.

7.9.3 Testing by users

The primary means of testing the understandability of the health information are reviews of drafts by groups of test readers. The standardised external testing by users generally occurs during the same time period as the commenting procedure. It is conducted by an external service provider in the form of focus groups or individual interviews. Depending on the specific topic, patient organisations or other associations or institutions may also participate. The testing by users is based on a combination of methods involving documented individual assessments and summaries of group discussions or individual interviews. Based on a partly structured guide, a group of people affected by the given condition or disease, or potential users, comment on the texts regarding their content and understandability. The results of this testing by users are taken into consideration when revising the health information drafts.

7.9.4 Users' feedback comments

In addition, users of the website www.gesundheitsinformation.de / www.informedhealth.org can contact the publisher with their feedback. Various channels are offered on the website for this purpose:

- the opportunity to leave comments on individual articles
- a general online contact form
- a randomly generated survey asking individual users to rate the website.

7.9.5 Accessibility

Because the information is primarily offered on the Internet, the website gesundheitsinformation.de / informedhealth.org fulfils the German Barrier-Free Information Technology Regulation (BITV³⁵) [93].

The health information is published in both German and English. The availability of an English version improves access for non-German speakers and broadens possibilities for translation into further languages.

7.10 Neutral presentation

Information related to decisions about diagnostic and therapeutic procedures should convey a realistic overview of current knowledge while using non-directive, non-judgmental language and providing an appropriate contextual frame. Any biased and in particular any inappropriately alarming phrasing is to be avoided, as is trivialisation. Both content and language should appropriately reflect significant uncertainties.

In order to convey this requirement to the authors in their daily work, a style guide on text production is used [481]. This guide undergoes continuous development based on the evaluation of our information and emerging evidence in the field of evidence-based communication.

To achieve the goal of neutral presentation, our health information undergoes a multi-stage editorial process including internal quality assurance, external expert review, user testing and commenting (see Section 7.9).

³⁵ Barrierefreie-Informationstechnik-Verordnung

7.11 Inferring assessments and recommendations

Individual benefit-risk assessments are based on accurate information concerning patient-relevant outcomes. This aims to enable patients to make decisions in line with their own values and preferences.

Explaining evidence and remaining neutral in communicating health-related information pose a special challenge [200,387,585,654]. As a rule, recommendations are not made in the health information. This is achieved by using non-directive and non-judgmental language. Exceptions are possible, for instance when discussing how to act in the event of an emergency.

7.12 The development of decision aids

One tool to help people individually weigh benefits and harms are decision aids. The general requirements when producing health information also apply to the content of decision aids. The decision aids are developed according to the International Patient Decision Aid Standards (IPDAS) [197,333].

7.13 Transparency regarding author and publisher

On the websites gesundheitsinformation.de / informedhealth.org and iqwig.de, the Institute outlines its principles and funding as a non-profit and scientifically independent publisher of health information. The information provided exceeds legal requirements and fulfills further transparency criteria.

7.14 Disclosure of conflicts of interest

The Institute requires that its staff strictly avoid conflicts of interest.

Insofar as patients and external reviewers are involved in the production of health information, the same general standards apply as for any other of the Institute's products (see Section 2.2).

When mentioning medications and medical procedures and devices, generic names are to be preferred. However, as the general public often may not know the names of active ingredients, and instead use colloquial trade names, the Institute's health information may also include trade names.

7.15 Description of typical formats and contents

The website gesundheitsinformation.de / informedhealth.org focuses primarily on the presentation of topics relating to health and illness. One topic may comprise different types of articles and information formats. These different formats are intended to cover the main aspects of a topic and answer central questions users may have. They are also intended to meet the different information needs of different audiences.

The main types of articles include the following:

- **Overview:** The overview introduces the topic and provides background information and links to the types of articles (described below) that further explore the topic. The overview has a fixed structure.
- **Learn more:** This format provides further information on more specific aspects of the topic, such as treatment options with or without medication, or certain diagnostic tests. If possible, a “Learn More” will also describe the advantages and disadvantages of individual treatment options or, if there is not enough good evidence, the resulting uncertainties. A “Learn More” may also offer insights into aspects of living or coping with a particular health problem. The article will then attempt to take into account both the perspective of the person directly affected by the illness and that of family members or other people who are close to them. “Learn more” articles may be supplemented by illustrations or multimedia content.
- **Research summaries:** These articles are objective summaries of the current knowledge about the question posed in the title. As a rule, they are based on the results of good-quality, systematic evidence syntheses. They provide in-depth descriptions of the studies and explain how the answer to the research question was found.

7.15.1 Supplementary formats

The main formats can be supplemented by additional formats, e.g. to expand on individual aspects of a topic or to try to present certain information in a different way. For example, using images, sound and animated films may increase the attractiveness and understandability of the website, especially for people with lower literacy levels.

The supplementary formats include the following:

- real-life stories of people affected by the medical condition (see Section 7.15.2 for more information),
- illustrations, photos and other images,
- animated films with text and sound,
- quizzes,
- glossary,
- “In brief“: general articles explaining anatomy, bodily functions, treatment approaches and diagnostic measures, as well as the principles and methods of evidence-based medicine,
- calculators.

The goals of these supplementary items include the following:

- promote general understanding of health and medical issues
- help users to understand and weigh up the potential benefits and harms of medical interventions
- facilitate self-management strategies

As a rule, interactive items are also subjected to external testing by users.

7.15.2 Real-life stories

The real-life stories represent one means of conveying scientific evidence and making it accessible to the general public [265]. The importance of real-life stories in medical practice and in health care is increasingly recognized [272,623,703]. Many patients would like to hear or read about the experiences of people affected by the same health condition as them [315,635].

The essential part of a real-life story is to show how an individual experiences and deals with their situation. Real-life stories provide the following [635]:

- They offer people the opportunity to compare their own experiences with those of others.
- Reading about the feelings of others might “allow” acceptance of similar emotions.
- They can show people who are affected by the medical condition that they are not alone.

By presenting the individual stories of patients as well as those close to them, the Institute makes it possible for patients and other interested people to find out about the different aspects of living with a condition and nursing care. This is intended as a complementary source of health information, in addition to the other products.

Some people may see the real-life stories as a recommendation to make similar decisions. This effect may be in conflict with the aim of creating neutral information. For the real-life stories published on gesundheitsinformation.de / informedhealth.org to first and foremost offer insights into how people experience a medical condition and cope with its effects, the articles are edited to ensure that they

- do not contain any passages that contradict the statements on the scientific evidence contained in the other articles,
- do not make any explicit recommendations, and
- only mention options that are commonly used.

Real-life stories are put together as follows:

- Interview partners are found, most often via self-help organisations, patient universities and doctor’s offices.

- Written informed consent is sought regarding the interview procedure and how the interview will be used.
- The interview is conducted (usually by telephone).
- The interviews are documented and edited, and the interview partners give their informed consent for the publication of the final version.
- Publication on the website.

The editing of the interviews includes the transcription of the audio material into German and the reduction of the content to an amount that is suitable for the Internet. The contents are shortened and summarised on the basis of predefined areas of focus, especially in the areas of living with the condition, experiencing the symptoms, and coping with the diagnosis, course and effects of the disease. This process is carried out in close cooperation with the interview partners.

The methods used to record, edit and publish the real-life stories are guided by the established methods followed by the creators of the Database of Individual Patient Experience (DIPEX) [168].

The decision on whether to include real-life stories in the information on a particular topic is based on various criteria, including the following:

- the possible effects of the illness on patients' lives in terms of physical, emotional and social aspects,
- the possible duration of the medical condition and the likelihood of it becoming chronic,
- the extent to which aspects of the illness are taboo in society, which may make talking about them in a social environment difficult (such as mental illness or conditions affecting the genitals).

7.15.3 Website

The main tool for the dissemination of the health information is the bilingual website www.gesundheitsinformation.de / www.informedhealth.org. High website standards are to be maintained in the following areas:

- usability and accessibility [342,407,487]
- privacy and data protection [347]
- transparency
- search engine visibility [648]
- attractiveness to users

The website includes a free electronic newsletter, with the choice of a fortnightly or monthly subscription. The newsletter contains information on what is new on the website, including when information is updated. The content of the website is also available in Atom and RSS formats, and can be read using the customary readers. In addition, website content can be automatically integrated into other suitable websites through an iFrame or XML interface.

The Institute's website is certified by the "Health On the Net" (HON) Foundation, fulfilling the 8 requirements of the HON Code of Conduct (HONcode) for medical and health-related websites. It also complies with the principles of good practice in the development of health information defined by the German *Good Practice Health Information*³⁶ [164].

7.16 Updating content

A critical part of providing evidence-based health information is making sure that its conclusions are not out-of-date. Regular updates are one of the quality criteria determined by the EU for health-related websites [127] and described by the German position paper *Good Practice Health Information* [163].

A study of guideline recommendations concluded that after 3 years, over 90% of recommendations may still be up-to-date, compared to only about 50% after 6 years [598]. For some topics, for example where the evidence is very strong, the half-life of evidence may be much longer, and in other areas it may be less than 3 years [599]. The Institute generally considers it necessary to review its information every 3 years. On the basis of this time period, as early as the initial publication of a topic, a deadline is specified for when an update search is to be performed.

Notwithstanding the above, the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (Cochrane Reviews) and the McMaster Online Rating of Evidence (MORE) are checked regularly as part of an orientating evidence scan. German, European, and U.S. regulatory agencies are monitored for health warnings as well.

If a systematic review, study, or announcement found through evidence scanning is identified as being relevant, its effect on the need for an update to health information on related topics is evaluated. The consequences depend on how much the statements in a health information would have to change. This may result in an update ahead of time or go as far as a withdrawal of the health information affected.

³⁶ Gute Praxis Gesundheitsinformation

7.17 Updating the methods of gesundheitsinformation.de / informedhealth.org

The methods used in the production of health information are reviewed as part of the general update process of the Institute's methods, and revised if there is a need for an update.

8 Information retrieval

Information retrieval for the generation of the Institute's products is conducted in a systematic manner. This can follow quite different goals. The type of goal determines whether comprehensive (see Section 8.1) or focused (see Section 8.2) information retrieval is conducted. In addition, exploratory searches are conducted (see Section 8.3) to search for suitable data on specific research questions in a targeted manner. Starting from a detailed description of the quality standards for comprehensive information retrieval in Section 8.1, only the changes are presented in Sections 8.2 and 8.3. Section 8.4 explains the search for guidelines for the generation of guideline synopses.

In Section 8.5 the approach for assessing information retrieval is described, as conducted within the framework of dossier assessments and assessments of potential as well as assessments according to §137h SGB V.

8.1 Comprehensive information retrieval

Comprehensive information retrieval aims to identify all **relevant** studies and related documents for the respective research question. For this purpose, a systematic search is conducted in several databases as well as in other information sources. The search is usually not limited to specific years or languages. However, for a non-English or non-German publication, the existence of an English title and usually an English abstract are required from which the relevance of the study is visible.

Information retrieval is presented in detail in the methods and results section of the report.

Preliminary note: handling reporting bias (including publication bias)

In information retrieval, superordinate aspects such as reporting bias (including publication bias) should be taken into account as they have a fundamental effect on the selection of the different information sources. In this context it should be considered that many research results are never or only partly published [462,533,538,616] and published studies tend to overestimate the positive effects of interventions and underestimate the negative effects [462,616] (see Section 9.3.12).

In benefit assessments a search for unpublished data is therefore also conducted as a standard component (see Sections 8.1.2 and 8.1.3). Besides unpublished studies, this search should also identify unpublished data from published studies.

Published studies usually appear in scientific journals and thus can largely be searched for via bibliographical databases such as MEDLINE or Embase.

Indications of the existence of unpublished studies and data can, for instance, arise from trial registry entries as well as from clinical study reports prepared by the manufacturers of medical interventions.

If clinical study reports are available, they represent the primary source for the benefit assessment, as only clinical study reports contain nearly all information on a study [398]. In contrast, the information from other sources is often insufficient for a targeted evaluation according to the underlying research question or exhibits discrepancies [144,302,521,530,630,642]. However, data from registry entries and publications can supplement each other [694] or unpublished data can be used to check the correctness of published data [34].

If data are submitted that, according to the will of the persons submitting, are not allowed to be published, these data cannot be considered in assessments, as this would contradict the principle of transparency.

Likewise, the unrequested submission of data, that is, outside the hearing procedures or outside other existing regulations (e.g. queries to manufacturers), are not considered. The unrequested submission of study data bears the risk of selective submission and thus also of subsequent bias in the result of the benefit assessment.

8.1.1 Searches in bibliographic databases

Searches in bibliographical databases (besides searches in trial registries) represent a main source for identifying study results, especially if no clinical study reports are available. The detailed procedure is described below.

A) Conduct of a preliminary search

At the start of a project, before the development of the actual search strategy, a preliminary search is usually conducted. This preliminary search serves to prepare the project, in order to, for example, identify already available systematic reviews [114,237,620] or potentially relevant primary studies on the topic. This also enables more precise determination of the resources required for the conduct of the project. In addition, the result of the preliminary search is used to develop a test set for the development of search strategies.

For the conduct of a preliminary search, sources such as the Cochrane Library as well as websites of HTA agencies such as the UK National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) or the US Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ) can be searched to identify systematic reviews [114,237,620,692]. In addition, if appropriate, earlier IQWiG reports, published manufacturer dossiers as well as resolutions by the G-BA can be screened. To identify **ongoing** HTA reports and systematic reviews, further databases such as the Planned and Ongoing Projects (POP) Database [213] and the Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews (PROSPERO) [113] can be considered. Furthermore, guidelines or clinical information systems such as Dynamed or UpToDate can be used as an information source.

If no relevant systematic reviews are found, an iterative process is conducted using different search techniques (see Section 8.1.4) such as “snowballing” [273,527,578] or the “similar

articles” function in PubMed [493,569,678]. The starting point is formed by several relevant articles that are already known or were found by a very precise search. In several runs articles are then identified and tested for relevance [527,578].

B) Structure of a search strategy

Before the development of a search strategy the structure of the search must be specified. For this purpose a clearly formulated PICOS question is required (PICOS: population, intervention, comparison, outcome, study type) [420]. At first the search components contained in the research question are identified and defined. In this context only the most important search components are used to develop the search strategy [579]. The search strategy mostly contains search terms on the therapeutic indication, intervention and study type [420].

C) Selection of databases

A systematic search in several bibliographic databases is required for the production of systematic reviews. Previous research has shown that, for instance, a sole search in MEDLINE is insufficient to find all published relevant studies on a topic; this approach can therefore lead to biased results [543,545,563,631].

A search thus usually comprises MEDLINE, Embase and CENTRAL, as most published studies can be found in these 3 databases [544,545,611].

Depending on the research question of the benefit assessment, regional or topic-specific databases can also be considered.

D) Development of search strategies

A combination of subject headings (including publication type) and free-text terms is necessary for the development of search strategies [249,374,382]. An objective approach for developing search strategies is characterized by the fact that text analysis procedures are used for identifying free-text terms and subject headings [306,307,514,606,645]. For instance, IQWiG’s objective approach is based on the analysis of relevant articles already known [306,307]. In this context Wordstat [261,514], EndNote [258] and AntConc [19] are used as text analysis tools. In a next step the search terms selected are allocated to the single concepts of the search strategy [567,579].

If available, validated search filters are used. For instance, this applies to RCTs [420,701] or systematic reviews [701]. For other study types or questions, it should be checked in the individual case whether validated study filters are available that can be applied reliably. For example, there is a controversial discussion about the use of search filters in the search for studies on diagnostic accuracy [47].

Furthermore, an additional search for non-indexed data sets in PubMed can be conducted. This especially aims to identify very recent citations or other information that is only available in PubMed. This search is based on free-text terms with an adaption of study filters

[138,373], as these filters are usually optimized for a combination of subject-heading and free-text searches.

E) Quality assurance of search strategies

A high-quality search strategy is a prerequisite for ensuring the completeness of the evidence base of a benefit assessment [566,567]. Due to their complexity, search strategies for bibliographic databases are error prone [564]. The Peer Review of Electronic Search Strategies (PRESS) checklist is therefore used to support the process of quality assurance [459].

Quality assurance with the PRESS checklist is initially a formal evaluation and is always performed before the conduct of searches. In addition to the PRESS checklist, the search strategy is tested against an independent set of relevant citations [565]. It is thus evaluated in advance whether the set of relevant citations can be found by the search strategy.

F) Study selection

Due to the primarily sensitive approach, the literature search in bibliographic databases results in a large number of citations that are not relevant to the assessment. The selection of relevant publications is made in several steps:

- Exclusion of definitely irrelevant publications (i.e. publications not fulfilling the inclusion or exclusion criteria of the report plan or project outline) through perusal of the titles, and, if available, the abstracts.
- The full texts of the remaining potentially relevant publications are obtained. The decision on the inclusion of the study in the assessment concerned is then made on the basis of these documents.

All selection steps are performed by 2 persons independently of each other. Discrepancies are resolved by discussion. In the first selection step, if doubts exist as to the relevance of a study, the corresponding full text is obtained and assessed.

The documentation of study selection is performed as transparently as possible and contains the decisions on the inclusion or exclusion of each citation (only on the full-text level) [114,192]. Study selection is performed in IQWiG's internal web-based trial selection database (webTSDB [305]).

G) Documentation in the report

A clear and transparent presentation of all aspects of the search enables the assessment of the quality and completeness of the systematic search [427,568] as well as the conduct of later search updates.

As a standard, roughly based on Mullins et al. [475] the following items are documented:

- databases used, as well as database providers and search interfaces

- the search period and the last search date
- the search strategies with all search limitations

In addition, the selection process is presented in the results section of the report by means of a flowchart [114,192,527] (see PRISMA template [427,467]) and the citations of the studies or documents included or excluded are presented in separate reference lists [321,595].

8.1.2 Searches in trial registries

The importance of trial registries has strongly increased in the past years. For instance, since 2005, the International Committee of Medical Journal Editors has required the prospective registration of clinical studies as a precondition for publication in scientific journals [142]. In addition, since 2007 there has been a legal obligation in the United States to register nearly all clinical studies regulated by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) as well as their results [1]. Since 2011, the European Medicines Agency (EMA) has also been publishing a large part of its approval studies for drugs via the EU Clinical Trials Register (EU-CTR) [212] and has also been publishing study results in this registry since July 2014 [204].

A) Structure of a search strategy

Searches in trial registries should show high sensitivity, be simple, and, if possible, only consider one concept (usually the therapeutic indication or intervention) [260,355]. Firstly, terms for the concept that can best be depicted (generating the least number of hits, despite high sensitivity) are included in the search. The search is only further restricted with the second concept if too many hits are retrieved. Due to the differing quality of the individual entries, a further restriction (according to status or phase) is only to be undertaken in exceptional cases.

B) Selection of trial registries

A systematic search always considers several trial registries, as no trial registry includes all studies [119,260,636]. The search is at least conducted in ClinicalTrials.gov and the International Clinical Trials Registry Platform (ICTRP) Search Portal of the WHO [34,116,260]. The ICTRP is a meta-registry that includes a large part of clinical studies [119,293]. However, the search functions are very limited [257] and the trial registry regularly produces error messages [304]. Important trial registries such as ClinicalTrials.gov are therefore searched directly, even though they are also covered via the ICTRP [257].

In addition, trial registries of the pharmaceutical industry (registries of individual companies) as well as EMA's registry (EU-CTR) should be considered for benefit assessments of drugs. The Drug Information System³⁷ of the German Institute of Medical Documentation and

³⁷ Arzneimittel-Informationssystem, AMIS

Information³⁸ is also searched [161]. This database includes results reports of studies conducted outside Europe and the United States.

C) Further procedure

The procedure for trial registries regarding quality assurance, conduct of the search, study selection, documentation, as well as search updates largely follows the search in bibliographic databases. There is one exception: the trial registry entries are selected in a one-step procedure, as the complete information is directly available via the website of the trial registry.

8.1.3 Requests to manufacturers

For the benefit assessment of drugs or procedures largely based on a medical device, the manufacturers of the technologies to be assessed are usually asked to provide previously unpublished information. The aim of this request is to identify all relevant information on these studies, independent of their publication status.

The basis for the incorporation of previously unpublished information into the benefit assessment is the conclusion of an agreement on the transfer and publication of study information. This agreement is made between the Institute and the manufacturer involved before the submission of data (see sample contract for drugs [legally-binding German version and English translation] [348]). It specifies the procedure, the requirements for the documents to be submitted, and their confidential and non-confidential components.

This request is usually made in 2 steps. In the first step, the Institute asks the manufacturer to supply a complete overview of all studies conducted by the manufacturer. In this context, the Institute defines the project-specific inclusion criteria for this overview. In the second step, the Institute identifies studies relevant to the benefit assessment from the overview, and requests detailed information on these studies. This may refer to a request for unpublished studies, or for supplementary, previously unpublished information on published studies. Previously unpublished information considered in the benefit assessment is also published in the Institute's reports in order to ensure transparency.

If the manufacturer concerned does not agree to this contract and therefore does not agree in particular to the complete transfer of all information requested by the Institute, or does not completely transfer the information requested despite conclusion of the agreement, no further requests to the manufacturer will be made. This is to prevent biased results due to the selective provision of information (see Section 3.2.1).

³⁸ Deutsches Institut für Medizinische Dokumentation und Information, DIMDI

8.1.4 Further information sources and search techniques

To identify further relevant studies or documents, depending on the research question, further information sources are used and further search techniques applied.

With regard to study selection and documentation in the report, differences arise that result partly from the limited search options and partly from the type of data searched. For instance, certain information sources are only screened by one reviewer with regard to studies, who then assesses these studies in respect of their relevance; a second reviewer checks the whole process including the assessments (e.g. publicly accessible documents of regulatory authorities, screening of reference lists).

The following text presents further information sources and search techniques that are considered either as a standard or optionally in the benefit assessment.

A) Publicly accessible documents from regulatory authorities

If drug assessments or treatment methods largely based on a medical device are assessed, publicly accessible documents from regulatory authorities are a potential source for information retrieval.

Information on drugs approved centrally in Europe (e.g. European Public Assessment Reports, EPARs) is searched for via the EMA website [205]. This also includes clinical study reports published by EMA [203]. In the United States, access to the FDA's Medical Reviews and Statistical Reviews is provided via Drugs@FDA [661].

In contrast to the United States, there is no central approval procedure for medical devices in Europe. Publicly available information on medical devices is only occasionally available in individual countries, for example at NICE via the "List of interventional procedures" [482]. In the United States, information on medical devices evaluated by the FDA, including the information on the underlying data basis, can be searched for via Devices@FDA [660].

B) Selected scientific journals and conference proceedings

Depending on the research question, it can be useful to conduct a handsearch in selected scientific journals. This is decided on a case-by-case basis. A search of conference proceedings is usually dispensed with, as these documents usually contain little information on study methods and results [188].

C) Documents transferred by the G-BA or Ministry of Health

If documents are provided by the contracting agency (G-BA or Ministry of Health), they are evaluated with regard to whether studies are mentioned that fulfil the inclusion criteria of the assessment [181].

D) G-BA website and IQWiG website

Depending on the research question, it can be useful to screen the G-BA and IQWiG websites for previous IQWiG products, publicly accessible manufacturer documents (e.g. Modules 1 to 4 of dossiers on early benefit assessments pursuant to §35a SGB V), as well as G-BA resolutions with regard to whether studies are mentioned that fulfil the inclusion criteria of the assessment.

E) Application of further search techniques

Different search techniques have been established for preliminary searches, for research questions that are difficult to search for (e.g. complex interventions), and for the evaluation of search strategies in bibliographic databases [181]. These include the screening of reference lists, citation tracking, as well as the use of the “similar articles” function. For all benefit assessments, the screening of reference lists of systematic reviews is usually conducted as an additional search technique.

F) Hearing

Studies or study information transferred within the framework of the hearing on the preliminary report plan or on the preliminary report are considered.

G) Requests to authors

If the available information on a study is incomplete, unclear, or contradictory, it may be useful to contact the authors of study publications. These requests can be undertaken to better evaluate the suitability, the methodological quality or results of a study [192,474,527]. Such requests are usually undertaken only if a relevant impact on the report can be expected.

8.2 Focused information retrieval

It is not necessary or possible to conduct information retrieval targeted towards completeness for all research questions. In such cases, so-called focused information retrieval is conducted, especially if the requirement of a systematic and transparent approach still exists.

Focused information retrieval is, for example, conducted 1) for projects with a short processing time (e.g. dossier assessments), 2) if a research question is not targeted towards completeness (e.g. in qualitative research), or 3) if the assessment is based on systematic reviews.

Focused information retrieval aims to achieve a balanced relation between sensitivity (i.e. completeness) and precision (i.e. accuracy). In this context a sensitivity of > 80% is aimed for. The rationale for this is given by the sensitivities specified by Glanville [259] for precise filters.

The approach regarding the development of the search strategy, quality assurance, conduct of the search, study selection and documentation roughly follows the search in bibliographic

databases (see Section 8.1.1). However, restrictions or adaptations can be undertaken in the following areas:

- in the selection of databases
- in the selection of study filters
- in the restriction of search periods (publication years) and/or languages
- in the selection of studies (performed by one person; quality assurance of the results by a second person)
- in the presentation of methods and results

In addition, fewer information sources are often considered.

8.2.1 Search for systematic reviews

In the search for systematic reviews it is sufficient if a large proportion of the high-quality and current systematic reviews on a research question is identified. In this context the search is conducted in at least the following databases:

- MEDLINE
- the Database of Abstracts of Reviews of Effects
- the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, and
- the Health Technology Assessment Database

Precise study filters are applied in the development of search strategies (e.g. Wong 2006 “High specificity strategy” [700]). If necessary, the search period of the search is restricted. For example, as a rule searches for systematic reviews used as a basis for health information are restricted to the last 3 years.

In addition, systematic reviews can be used as a source for primary studies in order to conduct a benefit assessment based on these studies [534]. For this purpose, an assessment of the information retrieval in the systematic review(s) identified is conducted beforehand (see Section 8.5). One (or potentially several) high-quality and current systematic review(s) is/are then chosen, and the primary studies considered are extracted and then selected. In this approach only the search results of the systematic review used are taken over, but not the assessment of the primary studies included or the data extraction. In addition, an update of the information retrieval according to Section 8.1 is conducted for the period not covered by the systematic review(s) (see Section 8.2.1).

8.2.2 Search for qualitative research

In the search for literature on qualitative research, among other things, experiences related to a certain disease are to be recorded, problems in coping with the disease and its treatment identified, as well as potential needs for information inferred.

A search is conducted in at least the following bibliographic databases:

- MEDLINE
- PsycINFO, and
- Cinahl

8.2.3 Search for health economic questions

There are very different health economic questions for which focused information retrieval is to be conducted. These include the search for health economic evaluations, decision analytic models, the measure of overall benefit, cost determination, as well as, if necessary, epidemiologic data, if no data from Germany are available.

A search is conducted in at least the following bibliographic databases:

- MEDLINE
- Embase, and
- the Health Technology Assessment Database

In addition, manufacturers can be asked to provide health economic evaluations.

8.2.4 Searches within the framework of addenda to §137e or §137h assessments

Focused information retrieval is conducted within the framework of addenda to §137e or §137h assessments.

A systematic search is conducted in bibliographic databases:

- MEDLINE
- Embase, and
- Central

In addition, a search is conducted in the trial registries ClinicalTrials.gov and the ICTRP Search Portal.

8.2.5 Checking the completeness of a study pool

An assessment of the information retrieval in dossiers is performed within the framework of dossier assessments (see Section 8.5). Depending on the result, a check of completeness is

performed, which aims to check the completeness of the study pool presented; it does not aim to identify the complete data basis.

A search in the following trial registries is conducted

- ClinicalTrials.gov
- the ICTRP Search Portal
- the EU-CTR, and
- PharmNet.Bund – Klinische Prüfungen (clinical evaluations)

As a supplementary search, in certain cases (e.g. search for studies of drugs approved before 2005; search for study types other than RCTs [355]) a bibliographic search is additionally conducted using the combination of different search techniques (simple Boolean search as well as the “similar articles” function in PubMed [570,678]).

8.3 Exploratory searches

An exploratory search is a targeted search for suitable data. The search ends as soon as the information required is available.

The information sources are very topic dependent and often comprise clinical information systems such as Dynamed and UpToDate or guideline databases. In addition, depending on the research question, specific data collections are used, such as those of the Robert Koch Institute, the Federal Statistical Office or the Research Institute of the Local Health Care Fund (WIdo³⁹), as well as data from regional registries, laws, regulations or directives.

In contrast to comprehensive information retrieval, the search for and selection of data is performed by one person. Quality assurance of the result is performed by a second person. Documentation in the report is restricted to the presentation of specific results.

Examples of exploratory searches are preliminary searches (see Section 8.1.1), searches for cost data (see Section 4.4.4), for epidemiological data (see Section 4.5.2) as well as for health care standards or data (see Section 5.4.9).

8.4 Search for guidelines for the production of guideline synopses

If the aim of the search is to identify clinical practice guidelines, it is conducted in guideline databases (e.g. the Association of the Scientific Medical Professional Societies [AWMF⁴⁰] or

³⁹ Wissenschaftliches Institut der Allgemeinen Ortskrankenkasse

⁴⁰ Arbeitsgemeinschaft der Wissenschaftlichen Medizinischen Fachgesellschaften

the National Guideline Clearinghouse [NGC]) and on the websites of providers of specialist and multi-disciplinary guidelines.

For the search in guideline databases or websites of guideline providers, the search strategy to be applied is targeted towards the structure and options of the particular websites. Only a few websites allow a search with key words, so that generally the complete list of a website's published guidelines is screened. In addition, for the search in guideline databases or websites of guideline providers, a standardized export is often not possible. For this reason, the search and number of hits are documented in a standardized search protocol. The potentially relevant hits are documented in a reference management programme. The procedure of the selection of guidelines is conducted as presented in Section 5.2. However, within the framework of the search in guideline databases and websites of guideline providers, depending on the research question, in a supplementary step it is evaluated whether a methodological system was used in the development of the guideline. This usually means whether a guideline is evidence based or not (see Section 5.2.1). Within the framework of the production of the report plan, the inclusion and exclusion criteria are specified a priori.

Title and abstract screening is performed by one person; the quality assurance of this step is performed by a second person. The following steps (from the full-text screening) are performed by 2 persons independently of each other.

Within the framework of guideline appraisal it can be useful in the individual case to contact authors of publications on guidelines or guideline developers. The requests can refer, for example, to specific details of individual guidelines or to non-published partial aspects of publications.

8.5 Assessment of information retrieval

In the preparation of a dossier or application for testing, a search in bibliographic databases and a search in publicly accessible trial registries must as a matter of principle be conducted by the applicant; the precise requirements are provided in the G-BA's Code of Procedure [250,251]. In a similar way, hospitals preparing information on an assessment in accordance with §137h SGB V must systematically search for information on the method requested.

The Institute conducts an evaluation of the information retrieval documented in the presented documents for dossier assessments, assessments of potential, and assessments in accordance with §137h SGB V. For all 3 assessment procedures, the searches in bibliographic databases and trial registries, as well as the study selection, are evaluated. This evaluation is based on the procedure described in Section 8.1.1 regarding the quality assurance of search strategies, as well as on the document templates included in the requirements of the G-BA's Code of Procedure [250,251].

Noticeable issues in the assessment of dossiers

Depending on the results arising from the assessment of the dossiers, different strategies are available to check the completeness of information retrieval. For example, random checks of the literature citations excluded in the dossier can be performed or the Institute can conduct its own search and/or study selection by means of a check of completeness (see Section 8.2.3). If a high number of hits is retrieved, the comparison can also be performed on the basis of systematic reviews (see Section 8.3 or 8.2.1). The result of the check of the completeness of information retrieval and the description of the approach in this regard form part of the dossier assessment.

9 Assessment of information

As a matter of principle, the step of information retrieval (see Chapter 8) is followed by an assessment step in which the information retrieved is systematically assessed with regard to its informative value. This chapter primarily explains the aspects that apply to the assessment of information within the framework of benefit assessments.

In research the term “bias” means a systematic deviation between research results and the “truth” [558]. For example, this may refer to an erroneously too high (or too low) estimation of a treatment effect. A main objective in the benefit assessment of medical services is to estimate the actual effect of therapies and interventions as reliably and unbiasedly as possible. In order to minimize bias in the benefit assessment of medical services, different approaches are adopted internationally; these include using scientifically robust methods, ensuring wide participation in the relevant studies, as well as avoiding conflicts of interest [123]. All these methods also form the legal basis of the Institute’s work.

9.1 Quality assessment of individual studies

9.1.1 Criteria for study inclusion

The problem often arises that studies relevant to a benefit assessment do not completely fulfil the inclusion criteria for the patient population and/or the test and comparator intervention defined in the systematic review. In this case the Institute usually proceeds according to the following criteria:

For the inclusion criterion with regard to the study population, it suffices if at least 80% of the patients included in the study fulfil this criterion. Corresponding subgroup analyses are drawn upon if they are available in such studies. Studies in which the inclusion criterion for the study population is fulfilled in less than 80% of the patients included in the study are only included in the analysis if corresponding subgroup analyses are available, or if it has been demonstrated with sufficient plausibility or has been proven that the findings obtained from this study are applicable to the target population of the systematic review (see Section 3.3.1 for applicability).

Studies are also included in which at least 80% of patients fulfil the inclusion criterion regarding the test intervention (intervention group of the study) and at least 80% fulfil the inclusion criterion regarding the comparator intervention (comparator group of the study). If 1 of the 2 criteria is violated in a study, it is excluded from the benefit assessment.

9.1.2 Ranking of different study types / evidence levels

Only the most relevant study designs that play a role in benefit assessments in medical research (depending on the research question posed) are summarized here.

It is primarily the inclusion of a control group that is called for in the benefit assessment of interventions. In a design with dependent samples without a control group, proof of the effect

of an intervention cannot usually be inferred from a pure “before-after” comparison. Exceptions include diseases with a deterministic (or practically deterministic) course (e.g. ketoacidotic diabetic coma; see Section 3.2.1). Randomization and blinding are quality criteria that increase the evidential value of controlled studies. Parallel group studies [519], cross-over studies [378], and cluster randomized studies [180] are common designs for clinical trials. If interim analyses are planned, the use of appropriate sequential designs must be considered [687]. Case reports or case series often provide initial information on a topic. These are susceptible to all kinds of bias, so that, depending on the research question, only limited reliable evidence can be inferred from this type of study. The prevalence of diseases can be estimated from population-based cross-sectional studies. Other fundamental and classical study types in epidemiology are case-control studies [66] to investigate the association between exposures and the occurrence of rare diseases, as well as cohort studies [67] to investigate the effect of an exposure over time. Cohort studies designed for this purpose are prospective, although retrospective cohort studies are also conducted in which past exposure is recorded (this type of study is frequently found in occupational or pharmacological epidemiology). In principle, prospective designs are preferable to retrospective designs. However, case-control studies, for example, are frequently the only feasible way of obtaining information on associations between exposures and rare diseases. Newer study designs in modern epidemiology contain elements of both case-control and cohort studies and can no longer be clearly classified as retrospective or prospective [381].

Diagnostic and screening studies may have very different aims, so that the assessment depends on the choice of an appropriate design (see Sections 3.5 and 3.6).

9.1.3 Ranking of different study types / evidence levels

Different approaches exist within the framework of systematic reviews or guideline development for allocating specific evidence levels to particular study types [285,291]. These levels can be used to create a ranking with regard to the validity of evidence from different study types. However, no system of evidence assessment currently exists that is generally accepted and universally applicable to all systematic reviews [383,685]. Due to the complexity of the appraisal of studies, no conclusive judgement on quality can be inferred from the hierarchy of evidence [28,699]. In general, the Institute follows the rough hierarchy of study types, which is widely accepted and is also largely consistent with the evidence classification of the Fourth Chapter §7 (3) of the G-BA’s Code of Procedure [251] and has been incorporated in the regulation on the benefit assessment of drugs according to §35a SGB V [94]. At least for the evaluation of intervention effects, the highest evidence level is allocated to RCTs and systematic reviews of RCTs. In some classifications, individual RCTs are further graded into those of higher or lower quality (see Section 3.1.4).

However, at the latest in the classification of non-randomized studies with regard to their risk of bias, the study design alone can no longer provide sufficient orientation [283,318,675], even if the basis distinction between comparative and non-comparative studies seems

meaningful. As described in Section 3.8, in the classification of non-randomized studies, besides other design aspects the Institute will primarily evaluate the control for potential confounders. However, this grading refers to the risk of bias (see Section 9.1.4) and not to the evidence level of the study.

9.1.4 Aspects of the assessment of the risk of bias

One main aspect of the interpretation of study results is the assessment of the risk of bias (see qualitative uncertainty of results, Section 3.1.4). In this context, the research question, the study type and design, and the conduct of the study play a role, as well as the availability of information. The risk of bias is substantially affected by the study quality; however, its assessment is not equivalent to the quality assessment of a study. For example, individual outcomes may also be considerably biased in a high-quality study. Other studies, however, may provide high certainty of results for specific outcomes in individual cases, despite being of low quality. As a rule, the Institute will therefore estimate the extent of the risk of bias in a problem-orientated manner for all relevant results (both for the study and the specific outcomes).

In principle, a recognized standardized concept should be followed in a study; from planning to conduct, data analysis, and reporting. This includes a study protocol describing all the important methods and procedures. For (randomized) clinical trials, the usual standards are defined by the basic principles of good clinical practice (GCP) [358,399]; for epidemiological studies, they are defined by guidelines and recommendations to ensure good epidemiological practice (GEP) [155]. In this context, a key criterion to avoid bias is whether the study was actually analysed in the way planned. This cannot usually be reliably concluded from the relevant publications. However, a section on sample size planning may at least provide indications in this regard. In addition, a comparison with the study protocol (possibly previously published) or with the corresponding publication on the study design is useful.

The following important documents were developed to improve the quality of publications:

- the CONSORT⁴¹ statement on RCTs [583] and the corresponding explanatory document [466]
- a proposal for an extension of the CONSORT statement for randomized studies on non-drug interventions [62] and the corresponding explanatory document [61]
- the CONSORT statement on cluster-randomized trials [106]
- the CONSORT statement on the documentation of adverse events [361]
- the CONSORT statement on non-inferiority and equivalence studies [516]

⁴¹ Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials

- the CONSORT statement on pragmatic studies [707]
- the CONSORT PRO extension for patient-reported outcomes [105]
- the TREND⁴² statement on non-randomized intervention trials [151]
- the STROBE⁴³ statement for observational studies in epidemiology [677] and the corresponding explanatory document [667]
- the TRIPOD⁴⁴ statement for prognostic studies [126] and the corresponding explanatory document [471],
- the STARD⁴⁵ statement on diagnostic studies [58,59] and the corresponding explanatory document [60]
- die ISOQOL⁴⁶ reporting standards for patient-reported outcomes [88]

If a publication fails to conform to these standards, this may be an indicator of an increased risk of bias of the results of the relevant study. Additional key publications on this issue describe fundamental aspects concerning the risk-of-bias assessment [194,280,322].

Key aspects of the Institute's risk-of-bias assessment of the results of RCTs comprise

- adequate concealment, i.e. the unforeseeability and concealment of allocation to groups (e.g. by external randomization in trials that cannot be blinded)
- blinded outcome assessment in trials where blinding of physicians and patients is not possible
- appropriate application of the "intention-to-treat" (ITT) principle

There must be a more cautious interpretation of the results of unblinded trials, or of trials where unblinding (possibly) occurred, compared with the interpretation of blinded studies. Randomization and the choice of appropriate outcome variables are important instruments to prevent bias in studies where a blinding of the intervention was not possible. In studies that cannot be blinded, it is crucial to ensure adequate concealment of the allocation of patients to the groups to be compared. It is also necessary that the outcome variable is independent of the (non-blinded) treating staff or assessed in a blinded manner independent of the treating staff (blinded assessment of outcomes). If a blinded assessment of outcome measures is not possible, a preferably objective outcome should be chosen which can be influenced as little as

⁴² Transparent Reporting of Evaluations with Non-randomized Designs

⁴³ Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology

⁴⁴ Transparent Reporting of a Multivariable Prediction Model for Individual Prognosis or Diagnosis

⁴⁵ Standards for Reporting of Diagnostic Accuracy

⁴⁶ International Society of Quality of Life Research

possible (with regard to its dimension and the stringency of its recording) by the (non-blinded) person assessing it.

Standardized assessment forms are used to assess the risk of bias. As a rule, for controlled studies on the benefit assessment of interventions the following items across and specific to outcomes are considered in particular:

Items across outcomes:

- appropriate generation of a randomization sequence (in randomized studies)
- allocation concealment (in randomized studies)
- temporal parallelism of the intervention groups (in non-randomized studies)
- comparability of intervention groups and appropriate consideration of prognostically relevant factors (in non-randomized studies)
- blinding of patients and treating staff/staff responsible for follow-up treatment
- reporting of all relevant outcomes independent of results

Outcome-specific items:

- blinding of outcome assessors
- appropriate implementation of the ITT principle
- reporting of individual outcomes independent of results

On the basis of these aspects, in randomized studies the risk of bias is summarized and classified as “high” or “low”. A low risk of bias is present if it can be excluded with great probability that the results are relevantly biased. Relevant bias is understood to be a change in the basic message of the results if the bias were to be corrected.

In the assessment of an outcome, the risk of bias across outcomes is initially classified as “high” or “low”. If classified as “high”, the risk of bias for the outcome is also usually classified as “high”. Apart from that, the outcome-specific items are taken into account.

The classification as “high” of the risk of bias of the result for an outcome does not lead to exclusion from the benefit assessment. This classification rather serves the discussion of heterogeneous study results and affects the certainty of the conclusion.

No summarizing risk-of-bias assessment is usually performed for non-randomized comparative studies, as their results generally carry a high risk of bias due to the lack of randomization. The Institute specifically deviates from this procedure in assessments of the potential of new examination and treatment methods (see Section 3.8).

If a project of the Institute involves the assessment of older studies that do not satisfy current quality standards because they were planned and conducted at a time when these standards did not exist, then the Institute will present the disadvantages and deficiencies of these studies and discuss possible consequences. A different handling of these older studies compared with the handling of newer studies that have similar quality deficits is however only necessary if this is clearly justifiable from the research question posed or other circumstances of the assessment.

The assessment of formal criteria provides essential information on the risk of bias of the results of studies. However, the Institute always conducts a risk-of-bias assessment that goes beyond purely formal aspects in order, for example, to present errors and inconsistencies in publications, and to assess their relevance in the interpretation of results.

9.1.5 Interpretation of composite outcomes

A so-called composite outcome comprises a group of events defined by the investigators (e.g. myocardial infarctions, strokes, cardiovascular deaths). In this context the individual events in this group often differ in their severity and relevance for patients and physicians (e.g. hospital admissions and cardiovascular deaths). Therefore, when interpreting composite outcomes one needs to be aware of the consequences thereby involved [131,227,242]. The following explanations describe the aspects to be considered in the interpretation of results. However, they specifically do not refer to a (possibly conclusive) assessment of benefit and harm by means of composite outcomes, if, for example, the potential harm from an intervention (e.g. increase in severe bleeding events) is included in an outcome together with the benefit (e.g. decrease in the rate of myocardial infarctions).

A precondition for consideration of a composite outcome is that the individual components of the composite outcome all represent patient-relevant outcomes defined in the report plan. In this context surrogate endpoints can be only included if they are specifically accepted by the Institute as valid (see Section 3.1.2). The results for every individual event included in a composite outcome should also be reported separately. The components should be of similar severity; this does not mean that they must be of identical relevance. For example, the outcome “mortality” can be combined with “myocardial infarction” or “stroke”, but not with “silent myocardial infarction” or “hospital admission”.

If a composite outcome fulfils the preconditions stated above, then the following aspects need to be considered in the interpretation of conclusions on benefit and harm:

- Does the effect of the intervention on the individual components of the composite outcome usually take the same direction?
- Was a relevant outcome suited to be included in the composite outcome not included, or excluded, without a comprehensible and acceptable justification?
- Was the composite outcome defined a priori or introduced post hoc?

Insofar as the available data and data structures allow, sensitivity analyses may be performed by comparing the exclusion versus the inclusion of individual components.

If the relevant preconditions are fulfilled, individual outcomes may be determined and calculated from a composite outcome within the framework of a benefit assessment.

9.1.6 Assessment of data consistency

To assess the evidential value of study results, the Institute will review the consistency of data with regard to their plausibility and completeness. On the one hand, implausible data are produced by the incorrect reporting of results (typing, formatting, or calculation errors), and on the other hand, by the insufficient or incorrect description of the methodology, or even by forged or invented data [10]. Inconsistencies may exist within a publication, and also between publications on the same study.

One problem with many publications is the reporting of incomplete information in the methods and results sections. In particular, the reporting of lost-to-follow-up patients, withdrawals, etc., as well as the way these patients were considered in the analyses, are often not transparent.

It is therefore necessary to expose potential inconsistencies in the data. For this purpose, the Institute reviews, for example, calculation steps taken, and compares data presented in text, tables, and graphs. In practice, a common problem in survival-time analyses arises from inconsistencies between the data on lost-to-follow-up patients and those on patients at risk in the survival curve graphs. For certain outcomes (e.g. total mortality), the number of lost-to-follow-up patients can be calculated if the Kaplan-Meier estimates are compared with the patients at risk at a point in time before the minimum follow-up time. Statistical techniques may be useful in exposing forged and invented data [10].

If relevant inconsistencies are found in the reporting of results, the Institute's aim is to clarify these inconsistencies and/or obtain any missing information by contacting authors, for example, or requesting the complete clinical study report and further study documentation. However, it should be considered that firstly, enquiries to authors often remain unanswered, especially concerning older publications, and that secondly, authors' responses may produce further inconsistencies. In the individual case, a weighing-up of the effort involved and the benefit of such enquiries is therefore meaningful and necessary. If inconsistencies cannot be resolved, the potential impact of these inconsistencies on effect sizes (magnitude of bias), uncertainty of results (increase in error probability), and precision (width of the confidence intervals) will be assessed by the Institute. For this purpose, sensitivity analyses may be conducted. If it is possible that inconsistencies may have a relevant impact on the results, this will be stated and the results will be interpreted very cautiously.

9.2 Consideration of systematic reviews

Systematic reviews are publications that summarize and assess the results of primary studies in a systematic, reproducible, and transparent way. This also applies to HTA reports, which normally aim to answer a clinical and/or patient-relevant question. HTA reports also often seek to answer additional questions of interest to contracting agencies and health policy decision makers [182,421,511]. There is no need to differentiate between systematic reviews and HTA reports for the purposes of this section. Therefore, the term “systematic review” also includes HTA reports.

9.2.1 Classification of systematic reviews

Relying on individual scientific studies can be misleading. Looking at one or only a few studies in isolation from other similar studies on the same question can make treatments appear more or less useful than they actually are. High quality systematic reviews aim to overcome this form of bias by identifying, assessing and summarizing the evidence systematically rather than selectively [182,194,264,511].

Systematic reviews identify, assess and summarize the evidence from one or several study types that can provide the best answer to a specific and clearly formulated question. Systematic and explicit methods are used to identify, select and critically assess the relevant studies for the question of interest. If studies are identified, these data are systematically extracted and analysed. Systematic reviews are non-experimental studies whose methodology must aim to minimize systematic errors (bias) on every level of the review process [194,322].

For systematic reviews of the effects of medical interventions, RCTs provide the most reliable answers. However, for other questions such as aetiology, prognosis or the qualitative description of patients’ experiences, the appropriate evidence base for a systematic review will consist of other primary study types [264]. Systematic reviews of diagnostic and screening tests also show some methodological differences compared with reviews of treatment interventions [145].

For the work of the Institute, systematic reviews are mostly used to identify potentially relevant (primary) studies. However, an assessment can be based partially or even solely on systematic reviews (see Section 9.2.2). Health information produced by the Institute for patients and consumers is to a large part based on systematic reviews. This includes systematic reviews of treatments, and reviews addressing other questions such as aetiology, adverse effects and syntheses of qualitative research (see Section 9.4).

The minimal prerequisite for a systematic review on the effects of treatments to be used by the Institute is that it has only minimal methodological flaws according to the Oxman and

Guyatt index [370,501,503], the AMSTAR⁴⁷ [594-596] or the ROBIS⁴⁸ instrument [689]. In addition to considering the strength of evidence investigated in systematic reviews, the Institute will also consider the relevance and applicability of the evidence. This includes investigating the question as to whether the results have been consistent among different populations and subgroups as well as in different healthcare contexts. The following factors are usually considered: the population of the participants in the included studies (including gender and baseline disease risk); the healthcare context (including the healthcare settings and the medical service providers); and the applicability and likely acceptance of the intervention in the form in which it was assessed [53,140].

9.2.2 Benefit assessment on the basis of systematic reviews

A benefit assessment on the basis of systematic reviews can provide a resource-saving and reliable evidence base for recommendations to the G-BA or the Federal Ministry of Health, provided that specific preconditions have been fulfilled [132,416]. In order to use systematic reviews in a benefit assessment these reviews must be of sufficiently high quality, that is, they must

- show only a minimum risk of bias
- present the evidence base in a complete, transparent, and reproducible manner

and thus allow clear conclusions to be drawn [27,501,692]. In addition, it is an essential prerequisite that the information retrieval conducted in the systematic reviews does not contradict the Institute's methodology (see Section 8.2.1) and that it is possible to transfer the results to the research question of the Institute's report, taking the defined inclusion and exclusion criteria into account.

The methodology applied must provide sufficient certainty that a new benefit assessment based on primary literature would not reach different conclusions from one based on systematic reviews. For example, this is usually not the case if a relevant amount of previously unpublished data is to be expected.

A) Research questions

In principle, this method is suited for all research questions insofar as the criteria named above have been fulfilled. The following points should be given particular consideration in the development of the research question:

- definition of the population of interest

⁴⁷ Assessment of Multiple Systematic Reviews

⁴⁸ Risk of Bias in Systematic Reviews

- definition of the test intervention and comparator intervention of interest
- definition of all relevant outcomes
- if appropriate, specification of the health care setting or region affected (e.g. Germany, Europe)

The research question defined in this way also forms the basis for the specification of the inclusion and exclusion criteria to be applied in the benefit assessment, and subsequently for the specification of the relevance of the content and methods of the publications identified. On the basis of the research question, it is also decided which type of primary study the systematic reviews must be based on. Depending on the research question, it is possible that questions concerning certain parts of a commission are answered by means of systematic reviews, whereas primary studies are considered for other parts.

B) Minimum number of relevant systematic reviews

All systematic reviews that are of sufficient quality and relevant to the topic are considered. In order to be able to assess the consistency of results, at least 2 high-quality publications (produced independently of each other) should as a rule be available as the foundation of a report based on systematic reviews. If only one high-quality publication is available and can be considered, then it is necessary to justify the conduct of an assessment based only on this one systematic review.

C) Quality assessment of publications, including minimum requirements

The assessment of the general quality of systematic reviews is performed with Oxman and Guyatt's validated quality index for systematic reviews [500,501,503] or with the AMSTAR [594-596] or the ROBIS instrument [689]. According to Oxman and Guyatt's index, systematic reviews are regarded to be of sufficient quality if they have been awarded at least 5 of 7 possible points in the overall assessment, which is performed by 2 reviewers independently of one another. No such threshold is defined for the AMSTAR or the ROBIS instrument and therefore should, if appropriate, be defined beforehand. In addition, as a rule, the sponsors of systematic reviews, as well as authors' conflicts of interests, are documented and discussed. Depending on the requirements of the project, the particular index criteria can be supplemented by additional items (e.g. completeness of the search, search for unpublished studies, for example in registries, or additional aspects regarding systematic reviews of diagnostic studies).

D) Results

For each research question, the results of a benefit assessment based on systematic reviews are summarized in tables, where possible. If inconsistent results on the same outcome are evident in several publications, possible explanations for this heterogeneity are described [369].

If the compilation of systematic reviews on a topic indicates that a new benefit assessment on the basis of primary studies could produce different results, then such an assessment will be performed.

E) Conclusion / recommendations

Benefit assessments based on systematic reviews summarize the results of the underlying systematic reviews and, if necessary, they are supplemented by a summary of up-to-date primary studies (or primary studies on questions not covered by the systematic reviews). Independent conclusions are then drawn from these materials.

The recommendations made on the basis of systematic reviews are not founded on a summary of the recommendations or conclusions of the underlying systematic reviews. In HTA reports, they are often formulated against the background of the specific socio-political and economic setting of a particular health care system, and are therefore rarely transferable to the health care setting in Germany.

9.2.3 Consideration of published meta-analyses

Following international EBM standards, the Institute's assessments are normally based on comprehensive information retrieval for relevant primary studies, which is specific to the research question posed. If it is indicated and possible, results from individual studies identified are summarized and evaluated by means of meta-analyses. However, the Institute usually has access only to aggregated data from primary studies, which are extracted from the corresponding publication or the clinical study report provided. Situations exist where meta-analyses conducted on the basis of individual patient data (IPD) from relevant studies have a higher value (see Section 9.3.8). This is especially the case if, in addition to the effect caused solely by the intervention, the evaluation of other factors possibly influencing the intervention effect is also of interest (interaction between intervention effect and covariables). In this context, meta-analyses including IPD generally provide greater certainty of results, i.e. more precise results not affected by ecological bias, when compared with meta-regressions based on aggregated data [605]. In individual cases, these analyses may lead to more precise conclusions, particularly if heterogeneous results exist that can possibly be ascribed to different patient characteristics. However, one can only assume a higher validity of meta-analyses based on IPD if such analyses are actually targeted towards the research question of the Institute's assessment and also show a high certainty of results. The prerequisite for the assessment of the certainty of results of such analyses is maximum transparency; this refers both to the planning and to the conduct of analyses. Generally valid aspects that are relevant for the conduct of meta-analyses are outlined, for example, in the PRISMA⁴⁹ statement on meta-analyses of randomized trials [467] and in the corresponding explanatory document

⁴⁹ Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses

[427], in the PRISMA-IPD statement for meta-analyses with IPD [625], in the PRISMA-P statement for protocols of systematic reviews [468] and in the corresponding explanatory document [593], in the PRISMA harms checklist [705], as well as in a document published by EMA [206]. In its benefit assessments, the Institute considers published meta-analyses based on IPD if they address (sub)questions in the Institute's reports that cannot be answered with sufficient certainty by meta-analyses based on aggregated data. In addition, high certainty of results for the particular analysis is required.

9.3 Specific statistical aspects

9.3.1 Description of effects and risks

The description of intervention or exposure effects needs to be clearly linked to an explicit outcome variable. Consideration of an alternative outcome variable also alters the description and size of a possible effect. The choice of an appropriate effect measure depends in principle on the measurement scale of the outcome variable in question. For continuous variables, effects can usually be described using mean values and differences in mean values (if appropriate, after appropriate weighting). For categorical outcome variables, the usual effect and risk measures of 2x2 tables apply [40]. Chapter 9 of the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* [147] provides a well-structured summary of the advantages and disadvantages of typical effect measures. Agresti [7,8] describes the specific aspects to be considered for ordinal data.

It is essential to describe the degree of statistical uncertainty for every effect estimate. For this purpose, the calculation of the standard error and the presentation of a confidence interval are methods frequently applied. Whenever possible, the Institute will state appropriate confidence intervals for effect estimates, including information on whether one- or two-sided confidence limits apply, and on the confidence level chosen. In medical research, the two-sided 95% confidence level is typically applied; in some situations, 90% or 99% levels are used. Altman et al. [15] give an overview of the most common calculation methods for confidence intervals.

In order to comply with the confidence level, the application of exact methods for the interval estimation of effects and risks should be considered, depending on the particular data situation (e.g. very small samples) and the research question posed. Agresti [9] provides an up-to-date discussion on exact methods.

9.3.2 Evaluation of statistical significance

With the help of statistical significance tests it is possible to test hypotheses formulated a priori with control for type 1 error probability. The convention of speaking of a "statistically significant result" when the p-value is lower than the significance level of 0.05 ($p < 0.05$) may often be meaningful. Depending on the research question posed and hypothesis formulated, a lower significance level may be required. Conversely, there are situations where a higher significance level is acceptable. The Institute will always explicitly justify such exceptions.

A range of aspects should be considered when interpreting p-values. It must be absolutely clear which research question and data situation the significance level refers to, and how the statistical hypothesis is formulated. In particular, it should be evident whether a one- or two-sided hypothesis applies [51] and whether the hypothesis tested is to be regarded as part of a multiple hypothesis testing problem [656]. Both aspects, whether a one- or two-sided hypothesis is to be formulated, and whether adjustments for multiple testing need to be made, are a matter of repeated controversy in scientific literature [223,393].

Regarding the hypothesis formulation, a two-sided test problem is traditionally assumed. Exceptions include non-inferiority studies. The formulation of a one-sided hypothesis problem is in principle always possible, but requires precise justification. In the case of a one-sided hypothesis formulation, the application of one-sided significance tests and the calculation of one-sided confidence limits are appropriate. For better comparability with two-sided statistical methods, some guidelines for clinical trials require that the typical significance level should be halved from 5% to 2.5% [357]. The Institute generally follows this approach. The Institute furthermore follows the central principle that the hypothesis formulation (one- or two-sided) and the significance level must be specified clearly a priori. In addition, the Institute will justify deviations from the usual specifications (one-sided instead of two-sided hypothesis formulation; significance level unequal to 5%, etc.) or consider the relevant explanations in the primary literature.

If the hypothesis investigated clearly forms part of a multiple hypothesis problem, appropriate adjustment for multiple testing is required if the type I error is to be controlled for the whole multiple hypothesis problem [44]. The problem of multiplicity cannot be solved completely in systematic reviews, but should at least be considered in the interpretation of results [41]. If meaningful and possible, the Institute will apply methods to adjust for multiple testing. In its benefit assessments (see Section 3.1). The Institute attempts to control type I errors separately for the conclusions on every single benefit outcome. A summarizing evaluation is not usually conducted in a quantitative manner, so that formal methods for adjustment for multiple testing cannot be applied here either.

The Institute does not evaluate a statistically non-significant finding as evidence of the absence of an effect (absence or equivalence) [13]. For the demonstration of equivalence, the Institute will apply appropriate methods for equivalence hypotheses.

In principle, Bayesian methods may be regarded as an alternative to statistical significance tests [618,619]. Depending on the research question posed, the Institute will, where necessary, also apply Bayesian methods (e.g. for indirect comparisons, see Section 9.3.9).

9.3.3 Evaluation of clinical relevance

The term “clinical relevance” refers to different concepts in the literature. On the one hand, at a group level, it may address the question as to whether a difference between 2 treatment alternatives for a patient-relevant outcome (e.g. serious adverse events) is large enough to

recommend the general use of the better alternative. On the other hand, clinical relevance is understood to be the question as to whether a change (e.g. the observed difference of 1 point on a symptom scale) is relevant for individual patients. Insofar as the second concept leads to the inspection of group differences in the sense of a responder definition and corresponding responder analyses, both concepts are relevant for the Institute's assessments.

In general, the evaluation of the clinical relevance of group differences plays a particular role within the framework of systematic reviews and meta-analyses, as they often achieve the power to "statistically detect" the most minor effects [666]. In this context, in principle, the clinical relevance of an effect or risk cannot be derived from a p-value. Statistical significance is a statement of probability, which is not only influenced by the size of a possible effect but also by data variability and sample size. When interpreting the relevance of p-values, particularly the sample size of the underlying study needs to be taken into account [542]. In a small study, a very small p-value can only be expected if the effect is marked, whereas in a large study, highly significant results are not uncommon, even if the effect is extremely small [222,338]. Consequently, the clinical relevance of a study result can by no means be derived from a p-value.

Widely accepted methodological procedures for evaluating the clinical relevance of study results do not yet exist, regardless of which of the above-mentioned concepts are being addressed. For example, only a few guidelines contain information on the definition of relevant or irrelevant differences between groups [413,644]. Methodological manuals on the preparation of systematic reviews also generally provide no guidance or no clear guidance on the evaluation of clinical relevance at a system or individual level (e.g. the *Cochrane Handbook* [322]). However, various approaches exist for evaluating the clinical relevance of study results. For example, the observed difference (effect estimate and the corresponding confidence interval) can be assessed solely on the basis of medical expertise without using predefined thresholds. Alternatively, it can be required as a formal relevance criterion that the confidence interval must lie above a certain "irrelevance threshold" to exclude a clearly irrelevant effect with sufficient certainty. This then corresponds to the application of a statistical test with a shifting of the null hypothesis in order to statistically demonstrate clinically relevant effects [697]. A further proposal plans to evaluate relevance solely on the basis of the effect estimate (compared to a relevance threshold), provided that there is a statistically significant difference between the intervention groups [389]. In contrast to the use of a statistical test with a shifting of the null hypothesis, the probability of a type 1 error cannot be controlled thorough the evaluation of relevance by means of the effect estimate. Moreover, this approach may be less efficient. Finally, a further option in the evaluation of relevance is to formulate a relevance criterion individually, e.g. in terms of a responder definition [390]. In this context there are also approaches in which the response criterion within a study differs between the investigated participants by defining individual therapy goals a priori [535].

Patient-relevant outcomes can also be recorded by means of (complex) scales. A prerequisite for the consideration of such outcomes is the use of validated or established instruments. In the assessment of patient-relevant outcomes that have been operationalized by using (complex) scales, in addition to evaluating the statistical significance of effects, it is particularly important to evaluate the relevance of the observed effects of the interventions under investigation. This is required because the complexity of the scales often makes a meaningful interpretation of minor differences difficult. It therefore concerns the issue as to whether the observed difference between 2 groups is at all tangible to patients. This evaluation of relevance can be made on the basis of differences in mean values as well as responder analyses [584]. A main problem in the evaluation of relevance is the fact that scale-specific relevance criteria are not defined or that appropriate analyses on the basis of such relevance criteria (e.g. responder analyses) are lacking [470]. Which approach can be chosen in the Institute's assessments depends on the availability of data from the primary studies.

In order to do justice to characteristics specific to scales and therapeutic indications, the Institute as a rule uses the following hierarchy for the evaluation of relevance, the corresponding steps being determined by the presence of different relevance criteria.

- 1) If a justified irrelevance threshold for the group difference (mean difference) is available or deducible for the corresponding scale, this threshold is used for the evaluation of relevance. If the corresponding confidence interval for the observed effect lies completely above this irrelevance threshold, it is statistically ensured that the effect size does not lie within a range that is certainly irrelevant. The Institute judges this to be sufficient for demonstration of a relevant effect, as in this case the effects observed are normally realized clearly above the irrelevance threshold (and at least close to the relevance threshold). On the one hand, a validated or established irrelevance threshold is suitable for this criterion. On the other hand, an irrelevance threshold can be deduced from a validated, established or otherwise well-justified relevance threshold (e.g. from sample size estimations). One option is to determine the lower limit of the confidence interval as the irrelevance threshold; this threshold arises from a study sufficiently powered for the classical null hypothesis if the estimated effect corresponds exactly to the relevance threshold.
- 2) If scale-specific justified irrelevance criteria are not available or deducible, responder analyses may be considered. It is required here that a validated or established response criterion was used in these analyses (e.g. in terms of an individual minimally important difference [MID]) [528]. If a statistically significant difference is shown in such an analysis in the proportions of responders between groups, this is seen as demonstrating a relevant effect (unless specific reasons contradict this), as the responder definition already includes a threshold of relevance.
- 3) If neither scale-specific irrelevance thresholds nor responder analyses are available, a general statistical measure for evaluating relevance is drawn upon in the form of standardized mean differences (SMD expressed as Hedges' g). An irrelevance threshold

of 0.2 is then used: If the confidence interval corresponding to the effect estimate lies completely above this irrelevance threshold, it is assumed that the effect size does not lie within a range that is certainly irrelevant. This is to ensure that the effect can be regarded at least as “small” with sufficient certainty [219].

9.3.4 Evaluation of subjective outcomes in open-label study designs

Various empirical studies have shown that in non-blinded RCTs investigating subjective outcomes, effects are biased on average in favour of the test intervention. These subjective outcomes include, for example, PROs, as well as outcomes for which the documentation and assessment strongly depend on the treating staff or outcome assessors. Wood et al. provide a summary of these studies [702]. According to this such results show a potential high risk of bias. A generally accepted approach to this problem within the framework of systematic reviews does not exist. In this situation the Institute will normally infer neither proof of benefit nor harm from statistically significant results.

One possibility to take the high risk of bias for subjective outcomes in open-label studies into account is the definition of an adjusted decision threshold. Only if the confidence interval of the group difference of interest shows a certain distance to the zero effect is the intervention effect regarded as so large that it cannot only be explained by bias. The usual procedure for applying an adjusted decision threshold is to test a shifted null hypothesis. This procedure has been applied for decades; among other things, it is required in the testing of equivalence and non-inferiority hypotheses [207]. The prospective determination of a specific threshold value is required in the application of adjusted decision thresholds. If applied, the Institute will justify the selection of a threshold value on a project-specific basis by means of empirical data from meta-epidemiological research [576,702].

9.3.5 Demonstration of a difference

Various aspects need to be considered in the empirical demonstration that certain groups differ with regard to a certain characteristic. It should first be noted that a demonstration (of a difference) should not be understood as proof in a mathematical sense. With the help of empirical study data, statements can only be made by allowing for certain probabilities of error. By applying statistical methods, these probabilities of error can, however, be specifically controlled and minimized in order to statistically demonstrate a hypothesis. A typical method for such a statistical demonstration in medical research is the application of significance tests. This level of argumentation should be distinguished from the evaluation of the clinical relevance of a difference. In practice, the combination of both arguments provides an adequate description of a difference based on empirical data.

When applying a significance test to demonstrate a difference, the research question should be specified a priori, and the outcome variable, the effect measure, and the statistical hypothesis formulation should also be specified on the basis of this question. It is necessary to calculate the sample size required before the start of the study, so that the study is large enough for a

difference to be detected. In simple situations, in addition to the above information, a statement on the clinically relevant difference should be provided, as well as an estimate of the variability of the outcome measure. For more complex designs or research questions, further details are required (e.g. correlation structure, recruitment scheme, estimate of drop-out numbers) [52,153].

Finally, the reporting of results should include the following details: the significance level for a statement; a confidence interval for the effect measure chosen (calculated with appropriate methods); descriptive information on further effect measures to explain different aspects of the results; as well as a discussion on the clinical relevance of the results, which should be based on the evaluation of patient-relevant outcomes.

9.3.6 Demonstration of equivalence

One of the most common serious errors in the interpretation of medical data is to rate the non-significant result of a traditional significance test as evidence that the null hypothesis is true [13]. To demonstrate “equivalence”, methods to test equivalence hypotheses need to be applied [377]. In this context, it is important to understand that demonstrating exact “equivalence” (e.g. that the difference in mean values between 2 groups is exactly zero) is not possible by means of statistical methods. In practice, it is not demonstration of exact equivalence that is required, but rather demonstration of a difference between 2 groups that is “at most irrelevant”. To achieve this objective, it must, of course, first be defined what an irrelevant difference is, i.e. an equivalence range must be specified.

To draw meaningful conclusions on equivalence, the research question and the resulting outcome variable, effect measure, and statistical hypothesis formulation need to be specified a priori (similar to the demonstration of a difference). In addition, in equivalence studies the equivalence range must be clearly defined. This range can be two-sided, resulting in an equivalence interval, or one-sided in terms of an “at most irrelevant difference” or “at most irrelevant inferiority”. The latter is referred to as a “non-inferiority hypothesis” [135,357,537].

As in superiority studies, it is also necessary to calculate the required sample size in equivalence studies before the start of the study. The appropriate method depends on the precise hypothesis, as well as on the analytical method chosen [536].

Specifically developed methods should be applied to analyse data from equivalence studies. The confidence interval approach is a frequently used technique. If the confidence interval calculated lies completely within the equivalence range defined a priori, then this will be classified as the demonstration of equivalence. To maintain the level of $\alpha = 0.05$, it is sufficient to calculate a 90% confidence interval [377]. However, following the international approach, the Institute generally uses 95% confidence intervals.

Compared with superiority studies, equivalence studies show specific methodological problems. On the one hand, it is often difficult to provide meaningful definitions of

equivalence ranges [413]; on the other hand, the usual study design criteria, such as randomization and blinding, no longer sufficiently protect from bias [590]. Even without knowledge of the treatment group, it is possible, for example, to shift the treatment differences to zero and hence in the direction of the desired alternative hypothesis. Moreover, the ITT principle should be applied carefully, as its inappropriate use may falsely indicate equivalence [377]. For this reason, particular caution is necessary in the evaluation of equivalence studies.

9.3.7 Adjustment principles and multi-factorial methods

Primarily in non-randomized studies, multi-factorial methods that enable confounder effects to be compensated play a key role [384]. Studies investigating several interventions are a further important field of application for these methods [460]. In the medical literature, the reporting of results obtained with multi-factorial methods is unfortunately often insufficient [42,476]. To be able to assess the quality of such an analysis, the description of essential aspects of the statistical model formation is necessary [295,546], as well as information on the quality of the model chosen (goodness of fit) [334]. The most relevant information for this purpose is usually

- a clear description and a-priori specification of the outcome variables and all potential explanatory variables
- information on the measurement scale and on the coding of all variables
- information on the selection of variables and on any interactions
- information on how the assumptions of the model were verified
- information on the goodness of fit of the model
- inclusion of a table with the most relevant results (parameter estimate, standard error, confidence interval) for all explanatory variables

Depending on the research question posed, this information is of varying relevance. If it concerns a good prediction of the outcome variable within the framework of a prognosis model, a high-quality model is more important than in a comparison of groups, where an adjustment for important confounders must be made.

Inadequate reporting of the results obtained with multi-factorial methods is especially critical if the (inadequately described) statistical modelling leads to a shift of effects to the “desired” range, which is not recognizable with mono-factorial methods. Detailed comments on the requirements for the use of multi-factorial methods can be found in various reviews and guidelines [31,43,384].

The Institute uses modern methods in its own regression analysis calculations [294]. In this context, results of multi-factorial models that were obtained from a selection process of variables should be interpreted with great caution. When choosing a model, if such selection

processes cannot be avoided, a type of backward elimination will be used, as this procedure is preferable to the procedure of forward selection [294,632]. A well-informed and careful preselection of the candidate predictor variable is essential in this regard [149]. If required, modern methods such as the lasso technique will also be applied [650]. For the modelling of continuous covariates, the Institute will, if necessary, draw upon flexible modelling approaches (e.g. regression using fractional polynomials [547,575]) to enable the appropriate description of non-monotonous associations.

9.3.8 Meta-analyses

A) General comments

Terms used in the literature, such as literature review, systematic review, meta-analysis, pooled analysis, or research synthesis, are often defined differently and not clearly distinguished [194]. The Institute uses the following terms and definitions:

- A non-systematic review is the assessment and reporting of study results on a defined topic, without a sufficiently systematic and reproducible method for identifying relevant research results on this topic. A quantitative summary of data from several studies is referred to as a pooled analysis. Due to the lack of a systematic approach and the inherent subjective component, reviews and analyses not based on a systematic literature search are extremely prone to bias.
- A systematic review is based on a comprehensive, systematic approach and assessment of studies, which is applied to minimize potential sources of bias. A systematic review may, but does not necessarily have to, contain a quantitative summary of study results.
- A meta-analysis is a statistical summary of the results of several studies within the framework of a systematic review. In most cases this analysis is based on aggregated study data from publications. An overall effect is calculated from the effect sizes measured in individual studies, taking sample sizes and variances into account.
- More efficient analysis procedures are possible if IPD are available from the studies considered. An IPD meta-analysis is the analysis of data on the patient level within the framework of a general statistical model of fixed or random effects, in which the study is considered as an effect and not as an experimental unit.
- The Institute sees a prospective meta-analysis as a statistical summary (planned a priori) of the results of several prospective studies that were jointly planned. However, if other studies are available on the particular research question, these must also be considered in the analysis in order to preserve the character of a systematic review.

The usual presentation of the results of a meta-analysis is made by means of forest plots in which the effect estimates of individual studies and the overall effect (including confidence intervals) are presented graphically [425]. On the one hand, models with a fixed effect are applied, which provide weighted mean values of the effect sizes (e.g. weighting by inverting the variance). On the other hand, random-effects models are frequently chosen in which an

estimate of the variance between individual studies (heterogeneity) is considered. The question as to which model should be applied in which situation has long been a matter of controversy [199,591,673]. If information is available that the effects of the individual studies are homogeneous, a meta-analysis assuming a fixed effect is sufficient. However, such information will often not be available, so that in order to evaluate studies in their totality, an assumption of random effects is useful [592]. Moreover, it should be noted that the confidence intervals calculated from a fixed-effect model may show a substantially lower coverage probability with regard to the expected overall effect, even if minor heterogeneity exists when compared with confidence intervals from a random-effects model [73]. If the existence of heterogeneity cannot be excluded with sufficient certainty, a random-effects model should be chosen. Several methods exist for the conduct of meta-analyses with random effects [669]. According to newer recommendations, as a rule, the Knapp-Hartung method [303,392] should be used to conduct meta-analyses with random effects [360,670].

However, the use of meta-analyses with random effects reaches its limits in the event of very few studies (fewer than 5). As heterogeneity then cannot be reliably estimated [319], the use of meta-analyses with random effects can lead to very broad confidence intervals that potentially no longer allow conclusions on the evidence base. Especially in the event of very few studies, a fixed-effect model or a qualitative summary (see Section 3.1.4) should be considered. Depending on the context, alternative procedures could also be an option, such as Bayesian approaches [32,243,613] or methods from the area of generalized linear models [411,518]. As described in the following text, the Institute will only perform a meta-analytical summary of strongly heterogeneous study results if the reasons for this heterogeneity are plausible and still justify such a summary.

B) Heterogeneity

Before a meta-analysis is conducted, it must first be considered whether the pooling of the studies investigated is in fact meaningful, as the studies must be comparable with regard to the research question posed. In addition, even in the case of comparability, the studies to be summarized will often show heterogeneous effects [325]. In this situation it is necessary to assess the heterogeneity of study results [263]. The existence of heterogeneity can be statistically tested; however, these tests usually show very low power [366,396]. In addition, it is also important to quantify the extent of heterogeneity. For this purpose, specific statistical methods are available, such as the I^2 measure [324]. Studies exist for this measure that allow a rough classification of heterogeneity, for example, into the categories “might not be important” (0 to 40%), “moderate” (30 to 60%), “substantial” (50 to 90%) and “considerable” (75 to 100%) heterogeneity [147]. If the heterogeneity of the studies is too large, the statistical pooling of the study results may not be meaningful [147]. The specification as to when heterogeneity is too large depends on the context. A pooling of data is usually dispensed with if the heterogeneity test yields a p-value of less than 0.05. In this context, the location of the effects also plays a role. If the individual studies show a clear effect in the same direction, then pooling heterogeneous results by means of a random effects model can also lead to a

conclusion on the benefit of an intervention. However, in this situation a positive conclusion on the benefit of an intervention may possibly be drawn without the quantitative pooling of data (see Section 3.1.4). In the other situations the Institute will not conduct a meta-analysis. However, not only statistical measures, but also reasons of content should be considered when making such a decision, which must be presented in a comprehensible way. In this context, the choice of the effect measure also plays a role. The choice of a certain measure may lead to great study heterogeneity, yet another measure may not. For binary data, relative effect measures are frequently more stable than absolute ones, as they do not depend so heavily on the baseline risk [245]. In such cases, the data analysis should be conducted with a relative effect measure, but for the descriptive presentation of data, absolute measures for the specific baseline risks may possibly be inferred from relative ones (see Section 7.7).

In the case of great heterogeneity of the studies, it is necessary to investigate potential causes. Factors that could explain the heterogeneity of effect sizes may possibly be detected by means of meta-regression [646,663]. In a meta-regression, the statistical association between the effect sizes of individual studies and the study characteristics is investigated, so that study characteristics can possibly be identified that explain the different effect sizes, i.e. the heterogeneity. However, when interpreting results, it is important that the limitations of such analyses are taken into account. Even if a meta-regression is based on randomized studies, only evidence of an observed association can be inferred from this analysis, not a causal relationship [646]. Meta-regressions that attempt to show an association between the different effect sizes and the average patient characteristics in individual studies are especially difficult to interpret. These analyses are subject to the same limitations as the results of ecological studies in epidemiology [274]. Due to the high risk of bias, which in analyses based on aggregate data cannot be balanced by adjustment, definite conclusions are only possible on the basis of IPD [513,605,646] (see Section 9.2.3).

The Institute uses prediction intervals to display heterogeneity within the framework of a meta-analysis with random effects [279,319,531]. In contrast to the confidence interval, which quantifies the precision of an estimated effect, the 95% prediction interval covers the true effect of a single (new) study with a probability of 95%. In this context it is important to note that a prediction interval cannot be used to assess the statistical significance of an effect. The Institute follows the proposal by Guddat et al. [279] to insert the prediction interval – clearly distinguishable from the confidence interval – in the form of a rectangle in a forest plot. The use of meta-analyses with random effects and related prediction intervals in the event of very few studies (less than 5) is critically discussed in the literature, as potential heterogeneity can only be estimated very imprecisely [319]. The Institute generally presents prediction intervals in forest plots of meta-analyses with random effects if at least 5 studies are available and if the graphic display of heterogeneity is important.

If no pooled effect is displayed because heterogeneity is too large, prediction intervals are also used in order to evaluate whether the effects observed in the available studies are moderately

or clearly in the same direction (see Section 3.1.4). In this case, as a rule prediction intervals are used if at least 4 studies are available.

C) Small number of events

A common problem of meta-analyses using binary data is the existence of so-called “zero cells”, i.e. cases where not a single event was observed in an intervention group of a study. The Institute follows the usual approach here; i.e. in the event of zero cells, the correction value of 0.5 is added to each cell frequency of the corresponding fourfold table [147]. This approach is appropriate as long as not too many zero cells occur. In the case of a low overall number of events, it may be necessary to use other methods. In the case of very rare events the Peto odds-ratio method can be applied; this does not require a correction term in the case of zero cells [63,147]. However, the use of this method is only adequate if the effects to be estimated are not too large and the design is not unbalanced [71,72].

If studies do exist in which no event is observed in either study arm (so-called “double-zero studies”) then in practice these studies are often excluded from the meta-analytic calculation. This procedure should be avoided if too many double-zero studies exist. Several methods are available to avoid the exclusion of double-zero studies. The absolute risk difference may possibly be used as an effect measure which, especially in the case of very rare events, often does not lead to the heterogeneities that otherwise usually occur. Further potential methods comprise logistic regression models with random effects [604,658], beta-binomial models [411], exact methods [649] or the application of the arcsine difference [549]. Depending on the particular data situation, the Institute will select an appropriate method and, if applicable, examine the robustness of results by means of sensitivity analyses.

D) Meta-analyses of diagnostic studies

The results of studies on diagnostic accuracy can also be statistically pooled by means of meta-analytic techniques [165,365]. However, as explained in Section 3.5, studies investigating only diagnostic accuracy are mostly of subordinate relevance in the evaluation of diagnostic tests, so that meta-analyses of studies on diagnostic accuracy are likewise of limited relevance.

The same basic principles apply to a meta-analysis of studies on diagnostic accuracy as to meta-analyses of therapy studies [165,525]. Here too, it is necessary to conduct a systematic review of the literature, assess the methodological quality of the primary studies, conduct sensitivity analyses, and examine the potential influence of publication bias.

In practice, in most cases heterogeneity can be expected in meta-analyses of diagnostic studies; therefore it is usually advisable here to apply random-effects models [165]. Such a meta-analytical pooling of studies on diagnostic accuracy can be performed by means of separate models for sensitivity and specificity. However, if a summarizing receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve and/or a two-dimensional estimate for sensitivity and specificity are of interest, newer bivariate meta-analyses with random effects show advantages

[290,526]. These methods also enable consideration of explanatory variables [289]. Results are presented graphically either via the separate display of sensitivities and specificities in the form of modified forest plots or via a two-dimensional illustration of estimates for sensitivity and specificity. In analogy to the confidence and prediction intervals in meta-analyses of therapy studies, confidence and prediction regions can be presented in the ROC area in bivariate meta-analyses of diagnostic studies.

E) Cumulative meta-analyses

For some time it has been increasingly discussed whether, in the case of repeated updates of systematic reviews, one should calculate and present meta-analyses included in these reviews as cumulative meta-analyses with correction for multiple testing [55,74,75,491,647,686]. As a standard the Institute applies the usual type of meta-analyses and normally does not draw upon methods for cumulative meta-analyses.

However, if the conceivable case arises that the Institute is commissioned with the regular update of a systematic review to be updated until a decision can be made on the basis of a statistically significant result, the Institute will consider applying methods for cumulative meta-analyses with correction for multiple testing.

9.3.9 Indirect comparisons

Methods for indirect comparisons are understood to be both techniques for a simple indirect comparison of 2 interventions as well as techniques in which direct and indirect evidence are combined. The latter are called mixed treatment comparison (MTC) meta-analysis [437-439], multiple treatments meta-analysis (MTM) [104], or network meta-analysis [442,548,561]. These methods represent an important further development of the usual meta-analytic techniques [560]. However, there are still several unsolved methodological problems, so that currently the routine application of these methods within the framework of benefit assessments is not advisable [30,248,562,615,634]. For this reason, direct comparative studies are primarily used in benefit assessments of interventions (placebo-controlled studies as well as head-to-head comparisons); this means that conclusions for benefit assessments are preferably inferred from the results of direct comparative studies. Adequate justification is required if methods for indirect comparisons are to be used. In addition, an essential precondition for consideration of an indirect comparison is that it is targeted towards the overall research question of interest and not only towards selective components such as individual outcomes.

In certain situations, as, for example, in assessments of the benefit of drugs with new active ingredients [159], as well as in health economic evaluations (HEEs, see below), it can however be necessary to consider indirect comparisons and infer conclusions from them for the benefit assessment, taking a lower certainty of results into account.

For the HEE of interventions, conjoint quantitative comparisons of multiple (of more than 2) interventions are usually required. Limiting the study pool to direct head-to-head comparisons

would mean limiting the HEE to a single pairwise comparison or even making it totally impossible. In order to enable an HEE of multiple interventions, it can be necessary to regularly consider indirect comparisons to assess cost-effectiveness ratios (see Chapter 4), taking into account the lower certainty of results compared with the approach of a pure benefit assessment.

However, appropriate methods for indirect comparisons need to be applied. The use of non-adjusted indirect comparisons (i.e. the use of single arms from different studies) is disapproved [45]. This also applies to methods for indirect comparisons in which, via modelling with strong assumptions about unknown effects [108] or by means of methods from the area of causal models for observational studies with non-testable assumptions [602], it is attempted to enable estimations of effects despite missing common comparators. Only adjusted indirect comparisons via adequate common comparators are accepted. These particularly include the approach by Bucher et al. [89], as well as the network meta-analysis methods mentioned above.

Besides the assumptions of sufficient similarity and homogeneity of the pairwise meta-analyses, which must also be fulfilled here, in network meta-analyses sufficient consistency of the effects estimated from the direct and indirect evidence is additionally required. The latter is a critical point, as network meta-analyses provide valid results only if the consistency assumption is fulfilled. Several methods are available for examining the consistency assumption [167,179,438]. However, they have not yet been insufficiently investigated and no methodological standard has so far been established here [629]. In addition, consistency cannot always be examined, as a comparison of direct and indirect evidence is not possible (e.g. in the method following Bucher et al. [89]). In these cases in particular, a very careful evaluation of similarity and homogeneity is therefore required. If serious doubts exist whether one or several of the basic assumptions are fulfilled to a sufficient extent, then indirect comparisons should not be used [388]. In practice it is necessary to describe completely the model applied, together with any remaining unclear issues [634]. These issues should be carefully examined in sensitivity analyses. The guidelines available in the literature on the conduct and assessment of indirect comparisons should be observed [3,328,340,371,372,388].

9.3.10 Subgroup analyses

With subgroup analyses it is examined whether the results of one or several studies differ between the different subpopulations included in these studies (e.g. patient with versus patients without renal dysfunction). This difference can be qualitative (reversal of the effect in one subgroup, but not in another) or quantitative (different effect sizes).

Such subgroup analyses are useful for the targeted use of medical interventions, as with these analyses subpopulations can potentially be defined for whom an intervention has a benefit or for whom the same intervention is more likely to be harmful than beneficial. This information can also lead to a restriction of the therapeutic indication of an intervention, for example in

the approval of drugs. Even though subgroup analyses are useful for treatment optimization, they are in part a matter of controversy in the methodological literature [26,502].

- Lack of power: The sample size of a subgroup is often too small to enable the detection of moderate differences (by means of inferential statistics), so that even if effects actually exist, the result within a subgroup does not necessarily have to be statistically significant [267]. The situation is different if an adequate power for the subgroup analysis was already considered in the sample size calculation and a correspondingly larger sample size was planned [76].
- Multiple testing: If several subgroups are analysed, results in a subgroup may well reach statistical significance, despite actually being random.
- Comparability between treatment groups within the subgroups: If randomization was not stratified according to the subgroup characteristic, in the event of small sample sizes within the subgroups the treatment groups could differ with regard to prognostic factors [134,633]. In this case, the comparability between treatment groups within the subgroups is jeopardized, so that (non-) existing differences between subgroups can be caused by this imbalance alone.
- Effect modification through more than one subgroup characteristic (interaction of higher order): If for one outcome there is a difference, for example, between 2 age groups, as well as between men and women, to interpret the results separate analyses are required for each age group as well as for men and women (i.e. analyses of 4 subgroups). However, such analyses are rarely available.

Moreover, it is being discussed that subgroup analyses generally have no characteristic of proof, particularly if they were not planned a priori. If subgroup analyses with regard to more or less arbitrary subgroup-forming characteristics are conducted post hoc, their results cannot be regarded as a methodologically correct testing of a hypothesis. Whereas in general subgroup analyses conducted post hoc on a study level should be viewed critically (also in view of the methodological limitations named above), in a systematic review one still depends on the use of the results of such analyses on a study level if the review is supposed to investigate precisely these subgroups. Such subgroup analyses are not to be designated as “post hoc” in terms of the systematic review, but correspond to a hypothesis to be tested in this review. In this respect the analysis of heterogeneity between the individual studies (and thus potentially the analyses of subgroups) are a scientific necessity. Subgroup analyses of characteristics not recorded before randomization but during the course of the study (e.g. patients with versus patients without myocardial infarction under the treatment investigated) are as a matter of principle unreliable.

On the one hand the aspects mentioned above require the assessment of the credibility of subgroup analyses; Sun et al. [633] identified criteria for this purpose. On the other hand, despite these limitations, for some research questions subgroup analyses may represent the best scientific evidence available in the foreseeable future in order to assess effects in

subgroups [240], since, for example, factors such as ethical considerations may argue against the verification of the observed findings in further studies.

Expected differences in effects between different, clearly distinguishable patient populations are an important reason for conducting subgroup analyses [402,541]. If a-priori information is available on a possible effect modifier (e.g. age, pathology), it is in fact essential to investigate possible heterogeneity in advance with regard to the effect in the various patient groups.

Subgroup analyses can also be a necessity from the perspective of social law: According to §139a (2) SGB V, the Institute is obliged to consider characteristics specific to age, gender, and life circumstances. In addition, it should also be elaborated in which patient groups a new drug is expected to lead to a relevant improvement in treatment success, with the aim of providing these patients with access to this new drug [157]. A corresponding objective can also be found in §35a SGB V regarding the assessment of the benefit of drugs with new active ingredients [159]. In this assessment, patient groups should be identified in whom these drugs show a therapeutically relevant added benefit.

When interpreting subgroup analyses it should be considered that a statistically significant effect in one subgroup, but no effect or a reversed effect in another subgroup, cannot on its own (by means of inferential statistics) be interpreted as the existence of different effects between subgroups. Instead, first of all the statistical demonstration of different effects between different subgroups should be conducted by means of an appropriate homogeneity or interaction test. If a certain probability for such a demonstration is to exist at all, as a rule subgroup analyses are only conducted if each subgroup comprises at least 10 people and, in the event of binary data, at least 10 events occurred in one of the subgroups. An “event” means an event that occurred during the course of the observation period and was not detectable at baseline (e.g. achievement of viral clearance in infected persons).

If the result of a heterogeneity or interaction test between important subgroups is significant at the level of $\alpha = 0.05$, an effect modification (i.e. different effects between subgroups) is present. In this case the results of subgroups are not pooled to a common effect estimate. In the case of more than 2 subgroups, pairwise statistical tests to detect interactions are conducted, if meaningful. Pairs that are not statistically significant at the level of $\alpha = 0.05$ (with simultaneous statistical significance of the remaining pairs) are summarized into one group. The results of the remaining groups are reported separately and separate conclusions on the benefit of the intervention for these groups are inferred. If no pairs can be found that are not statistically significant at the level of $\alpha = 0.05$, no pairs are formed; instead a separate conclusion is drawn for each subgroup.

An exception to the requirement for an adequate homogeneity or interaction test exists if a necessity according to social law arises for subgroup analyses through the approval status of drugs. On the one hand, this may be the consequence of the decision by regulatory authorities

that, after balancing the efficacy and risks of a drug, may determine that it will only be approved for part of the patient populations investigated in the approval studies. These considerations may also be based on subgroup analyses conducted post hoc. On the other hand, studies conducted after approval may include patient groups for whom the drug is not approved in Germany; the greater the differences between approvals on an international level, the more this applies. In such cases, subgroup analyses reflecting the approval status of a drug may need to be used, independently of whether these analyses were planned a priori within the study or not.

9.3.11 Handling of unpublished or partially published data

In the quality assessment of publications, in practice the problem frequently arises that essential data or information is partially or entirely missing (see Section 8.1). Moreover, it is possible that studies have not (yet) been published at the time of the Institute's technology assessment.

It is the Institute's aim to conduct an assessment on the basis of a data set that is as complete as possible. If relevant information is missing, the Institute therefore tries to complete the missing data, among other things by contacting the authors of publications or the study sponsors (see Sections 3.2.1 and 8.1.3). However, depending on the type of product prepared, requests for unpublished information may be restricted due to time limits.

A common problem is that important data required for the conduct of a meta-analysis (e.g. variances of effect estimates) are lacking. However, in many cases, missing data can be calculated or at least estimated from the data available [166,335,505]. If possible, the Institute will apply such procedures.

If data are only partly available or if estimated values are used, the robustness of results will be analysed and discussed, if appropriate with the support of sensitivity analyses (e.g. by presenting best-case and worst-case scenarios). However, a worst-case scenario can only be used here as proof of the robustness of a detected effect. From a worst-case scenario not confirming a previously found effect it cannot be concluded that this effect is not demonstrated. In cases where relevant information is largely or completely lacking, it may occur that a publication cannot be assessed or a study cannot be used in the analysis. In such cases, it will merely be noted that further data exist on a particular topic, but are not available for a quality assessment or for the analysis.

9.3.12 Description of types of bias

Bias is the systematic deviation of the effect estimate (inferred from study data) from the true effect. Bias may be produced by a wide range of possible causes [117]. The following text describes only the most important types; a detailed overview of various types of bias in different situations is presented by Feinstein [221].

Selection bias is caused by a violation of the random principles for sampling procedures, i.e. in the allocation of patients to intervention groups. Particularly in the comparison of 2 groups, selection bias can lead to systematic differences between groups. If this leads to an unequal distribution of important confounders between groups, the results of a comparison are usually no longer interpretable. When comparing groups, randomization is the best method to avoid selection bias [320], as the groups formed do not differ systematically with regard to known as well as unknown confounders. However, structural equality can only be ensured if the sample sizes are sufficiently large. In small studies, despite randomization, relevant differences between groups can occur at random. When comparing groups with structural inequality, the effect of known confounders can be taken into account by applying multi-factorial methods. However, the problem remains of a systematic difference between the groups due to unknown or insufficiently investigated confounders.

Besides the comparability of groups with regard to potential prognostic factors, equality of treatment and equality of observation for all participants play a decisive role. Performance bias is bias caused by different types of care provided (apart from the intervention to be investigated). A violation of the equality of observation can lead to detection bias. Blinding is an effective protection against both performance and detection bias [380], which are summarized as information bias in epidemiology.

If not taken into account, protocol violations and study withdrawals can cause a systematic bias of study results, called attrition bias. To reduce the risk of attrition bias, in studies that aim to show superiority, the ITT principle can be applied, where all randomized study participants are analysed within the group to which they were randomly assigned, independently of protocol violations [380,406].

Missing values due to other causes present a similar problem. Missing values not due to a random mechanism can also cause bias in a result [434]. The possible causes and effects of missing values should therefore be discussed on a case-by-case basis and, if necessary, statistical methods should be applied to account or compensate for bias. In this context, replacement methods (imputation methods) for missing values are only one class of various methods available, of which none are regarded to be generally accepted. For example, EMA recommends comparison of various methods for handling missing values in sensitivity analyses [211].

When assessing screening programmes, it needs to be considered that earlier diagnosis of a disease often results only in an apparent increase in survival times, due to non-comparable starting points (lead time bias). Increased survival times may also appear to be indicated if a screening test preferably detects mild or slowly progressing early stages of a disease (length bias). The conduct of a randomized trial to assess the effectiveness of a screening test can protect against these bias mechanisms [233].

Reporting bias is caused by the selective reporting of only part of all relevant data and may lead to an overestimation of the benefit of an intervention in systematic reviews. If, depending on the study results, some analyses or outcomes are not reported or reported in less detail within a publication, or reported in a way deviating from the way originally planned, then selective or outcome reporting bias is present [115,189,320]. In contrast, publication bias describes the fact that studies finding a statistically significant negative difference or no statistically significant difference between the test intervention and control group are not published at all or published later than studies with positive and statistically significant results [624]. The pooling of published results can therefore result in a systematic bias of the common effect estimate. Graphic methods such as the funnel plot [195] and statistical methods such as meta-regression can be used to identify and consider publication bias. These methods can neither certainly confirm nor exclude the existence of publication bias, which underlines the importance of also searching for unpublished data.

In studies conducted to determine the accuracy of a diagnostic strategy (index test), results may be biased if the reference test does not correctly distinguish between healthy and sick participants (misclassification bias). If the reference test is only conducted in a non-random sample of participants receiving the index test (partial verification bias) or if the reference test applied depends on the result of the index test (differential verification bias), this may lead to biased estimates of diagnostic accuracy. Cases in which the index test itself is a component of the reference test may lead to overestimates of diagnostic accuracy (incorporation bias) [419].

Spectrum bias is a further type of bias mentioned in the international literature. This plays a role in studies where the sample for validation of a diagnostic test consists of persons who are already known to be sick and healthy volunteers as a control group [431]. The validation of a test in such studies often leads to estimates for sensitivity and specificity that are higher than they would be in a clinical situation where patients with a suspected disease are investigated [688]. However, the use of the term bias (in the sense of a systematic impairment of internal validity) in this connection is unfortunate, as the results of such studies may well be internally valid if the study is conducted appropriately [688]. Nonetheless, studies of the design described above may have features (particularly regarding the composition of samples) due to which they are not informative for clinical questions in terms of external validity.

As in intervention studies, in diagnostic studies it is necessary to completely consider all study participants (including those with unclear test results) in order to avoid systematic bias of results [419]. While numerous investigations are available on the relevance and handling of publication bias in connection with intervention studies, this problem has been far less researched for diagnostic accuracy studies [419].

A general problem in the estimation of effects is bias caused by measurement errors in the study data collected [109,118]. In practice, measurement errors can hardly be avoided and it is known that non-differential measurement errors can also lead to a biased effect estimate. In the case of a simple linear regression model with a classical measurement error in the

explanatory variable, “dilution bias” occurs, i.e. a biased estimate in the direction of the zero effect. However, in other models and more complex situations, bias in all directions is possible. Depending on the research question, the strength of potential measurement errors should be discussed, and, if required, methods applied to adjust for bias caused by measurement errors.

9.3.13 Analysis of dependent data

Simple standard procedures of medical statistics assume independent experimental units within a treatment arm. In certain situations (e.g. in cluster-randomized studies or studies of eyes or teeth) in which several experimental units of a cluster or a patient within a treatment arm are included in the analysis, this independency does not apply. The application of simple standard procedures for independent experimental units within a treatment arm then leads to an underestimation of variance and possibly to incorrect conclusions on significance, as the p-values calculated are too small [14]. Evidence from studies that used simple standard procedures despite correlated data can potentially still be considered, if the related error can be properly classified. If this is not the case, then results from studies with correlated data cannot be interpreted adequately. In the event of dependent data within a treatment arm, then the related correlation structure must be considered by applying suitable methods for dependent data. In practice, the Generalized Estimating Equations [98] as well as methods from the class of mixed models [84] are commonly used methods.

Dependencies can also arise between the treatment arms to be compared, for example through matching. They need to be considered in the data analysis by the use of statistical methods for paired samples.

9.4 Qualitative methods

Qualitative research methods are applied to explore and understand subjective experiences, individual actions, and the social world [170,292,447,478]. They can, among other things, enable access to opinions and experiences of patients and their relatives with respect to a certain disease or intervention.

The instruments of qualitative research include focus groups conducted with participants of a randomized controlled trial, for example. Qualitative data can also be collected by means of interviews, observations, and written documents, such as diaries.

An analysis follows collection of data, which mainly aims to identify and analyse overlapping topics and concepts in the data collected. Among other things, qualitative methods can be used as an independent research method, in the preparation of or as a supplement to quantitative studies, within the framework of the triangulation or mixed-method approach, or after the conduct of quantitative studies, in order to explain processes or results. Qualitative research is seen as a method to promote the connection between evidence and practice [172].

9.4.1 Qualitative research in the production of health information

In the development of health information, research findings from qualitative primary studies and reviews of qualitative studies are used to identify (potential) information needs, as well as to investigate patients' experiences with a certain disease or intervention and to investigate how they cope with a disease. In particular, the following questions should be answered:

- What questions do people have with regard to this disease/this topic?
- How do people perceive this disease/this intervention?
- When do people visit a doctor and how do they perceive their symptoms?
- What experiences, problems, challenges and questions do people have with regard to diagnostic procedures and the diagnosis?
- What experiences have people made with the treatment or the treatment decision?
- What experiences, problems, challenges and questions do people have with regard to coping with daily life?
- What information do people need?
- How can information support people (e.g. by the processing and format)?

For this purpose, focused information retrieval in bibliographic databases is conducted (see Section 8.2.2).

The study quality is assessed by means of criteria defined beforehand. In recent years various instruments for evaluating the quality of qualitative studies have been developed [137]. The assessment of qualitative studies aims to determine whether the study design, study quality, and reliability are appropriate for the research question investigated. No general consensus exists yet with regard to the criteria for the conduct, assessment, and synthesis of qualitative studies when compared with other research areas [170,173,292,478]. The Institute monitors the methodological developments and currently uses the Confidence in the Evidence from Reviews of Qualitative Research (CERQual) instrument.

The quality of the qualitative studies identified is assessed by means of the following aspects, which are based on the Critical Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) checklist [133]:

- Are the research question and/or the aims of the study described?
- Is the sampling strategy described?
- Is the sample described and suitable for the research question?
- Are the methods for data collection described and are they suitable for the topic?
- Are the methods for data analysis described?
- Were at least 2 researchers involved in the data analysis?

- Is the process of data analysis described transparently and comprehensibly?
- Are the study results presented clearly?

After extraction of the studies included, an overarching analysis and a descriptive summary of the results are performed. Furthermore, potential information needs are derived from the results.

9.4.2 Qualitative studies in the production of other IQWiG products

Different sources of information can support the production of systematic reviews [171,426,643]. One possible source are research results from qualitative studies [292,426,480,643]. Qualitative research can, among other things, provide information on the acceptance, suitability and implementation of interventions in clinical practice [29,170,424,477]. The results of qualitative research can be helpful in the interpretation of a systematic review [643] and may be used in the context of primary studies or systematic reviews in order to determine patient-relevant outcomes [170,172,405,478,480].

The Institute can use qualitative research findings to identify patient-relevant outcomes, and to present background information on patients' experiences and on the patient relevance of the intervention to be assessed. The Institute can also use these findings in the discussion and interpretation of results of a systematic review.

Appendix A – Rationale of the methodological approach for determining the extent of added benefit

This appendix describes the rationale of the methodological approach for determining the extent of added benefit according to the Regulation for Early Benefit Assessment of New Pharmaceuticals (ANV⁵⁰).

According to §5 (4) Sentence 1 of ANV, the dossier must present and consequently also assess “the extent to which there is added benefit”. For this purpose, §5 (7) ANV contains a classification into 6 categories: (1) major added benefit, (2) considerable added benefit, (3) minor added benefit, (4) non-quantifiable added benefit, (5) no added benefit proven, (6) less benefit. For the Categories 1 to 3, §5 (7) ANV also provides a definition, as well as examples of criteria for particular consideration, as orientation for the presentation and assessment. These criteria describe qualitative characteristics (type of outcome) and also explicitly quantitative characteristics (e.g. major vs. moderate increase in survival time). In addition, a hierarchical ranking of outcomes is obviously intended, as sometimes the same modifier (e.g. relevant) results in a different extent of added benefit for different outcomes. The corresponding details of the primarily relevant extent categories of added benefit (minor, considerable, major) are shown in Table 11. On the basis of these requirements, it was IQWiG’s responsibility to operationalize the extent of added benefit for the benefit assessment.

The criteria provided in §5 (7) ANV for the extent of added benefit designate (legal) terms. Some of these terms are clearly defined (e.g. survival time, serious adverse events) and some are not (e.g. “alleviation of serious symptoms”). In addition, the criteria listed are not allocated to all categories. For instance, examples of survival time are given only for the categories considerable and major added benefit.

By using the wording “in particular” in §5 (7) with regard to the Categories 1 to 3, the legislator makes it clear that the criteria allocated to the categories are not to be regarded as conclusive. For instance, even if an increase in survival time is classified as less than moderate, it cannot be assumed that the legislator would not at least acknowledge a minor added benefit. Furthermore, the outcome “(health-related) quality of life”, which is explicitly defined as a criterion of benefit in §2 (3) ANV, is not mentioned at all in the list of criteria for the extent of added benefit.

⁵⁰ Arzneimittel-Nutzenbewertungsverordnung, AM-NutzenV

Table 11: Determination of extent of added benefit – Criteria according to the ANV

| | | | | | |
|---|---|--|------------------------------------|---|---|
| Extent category | Major sustained and great improvement in the therapy-relevant benefit, which has not previously been achieved versus the appropriate comparator therapy | Cure | Major increase in survival time | Long-term freedom from serious symptoms | Extensive avoidance of serious adverse events |
| | Considerable marked improvement in the therapy-relevant benefit, which has not previously been achieved versus the appropriate comparator therapy | Perceptible alleviation of the disease | Moderate increase in survival time | Alleviation of serious symptoms | Relevant avoidance of serious adverse events Important avoidance of other adverse events |
| | Minor moderate and not only marginal improvement in the therapy-relevant benefit, which has not previously been achieved versus the appropriate comparator therapy | | | Reduction in non-serious symptoms | Relevant avoidance of adverse events |
| ANV: Arzneimittel-Nutzenbewertungsverordnung (Regulation for Early Benefit Assessment of New Pharmaceuticals) | | | | | |

In a first step it is thus reasonable to extend the list of criteria by means of criteria that are qualitatively and quantitatively comparable. These amendments to the ANV requirements are shown in Table 12. In this context, the criteria “cure” and “perceptible alleviation of the disease” were not explicitly considered. The former generally requires operationalization. This should in principle be based on criteria referring to the outcomes “mortality” and “morbidity” (e.g. survival over a defined minimum period in patients with oncological diseases). As the ANV links “cure” solely to a major added benefit, the respective specific operationalization, on the basis of the outcomes used, must be examined with regard to whether this equals a relevant improvement in mortality or serious events. In this sense, a reduction in the duration of symptoms, for instance, in patients with simple infections, is not regarded as a “cure”.

On the basis of the above amendments the outcome categories are restructured to illustrate the ranking of outcomes intended in the ANV and to consider disease severity according to §5 (7) ANV. For this purpose, the outcomes are grouped as follows, according to their relevance (see Table 13):

1. all-cause mortality
2.
 - serious (or severe) symptoms (or late complications)
 - serious or (severe) adverse events
 - health-related quality of life
3.
 - non-serious (or non-severe) symptoms (or late complications)
 - non-serious (or non-severe) adverse events

Health-related quality of life is regarded to be of equal importance as serious (or severe symptoms), late complications and adverse events. The potential categories of extent of added benefit for non-serious outcomes are restricted to minor and considerable.

The requirements of the ANV make it clear that to determine the extent of added benefit, first the effect sizes must be described at outcome level. For each outcome separately the effect size – independent of its direction – is classified into 1 of the 3 extent categories (minor, considerable, major). Within the overall weighing of benefits and harms, these individual outcomes are then summarized into a global conclusion on the extent of added benefit. This step-by-step approach is described in Section 3.3.3.

Table 12: Determination of extent of added benefit – Criteria according to the ANV plus amendments^a

| | | Outcome category | | | |
|---|---|--------------------------------------|---|---|--|
| | | <i>All-cause mortality</i> | <i>Symptoms (morbidity)</i> | <i>Health-related quality of life</i> | <i>Adverse events</i> |
| Extent category | Major sustained and great improvement in the therapy-relevant benefit, which has not previously been achieved versus the appropriate comparator therapy | Major increase in survival time | Long-term freedom from serious (<i>or severe</i>) symptoms (<i>or late complications</i>) | <i>Major improvement in quality of life</i> | Extensive avoidance of serious (<i>or severe</i>) adverse events |
| | Considerable marked improvement in the therapy-relevant benefit, which has not previously been achieved versus the appropriate comparator therapy | Moderate increase in survival time | Alleviation of serious (<i>or severe</i>) symptoms (<i>or late complications</i>) <i>Important reduction in non-serious (or non-severe) symptoms (or late complications)</i> | <i>Important improvement in quality of life</i> | Relevant avoidance of serious (<i>or severe</i>) adverse events Important avoidance of other (<i>non-serious or non-severe</i>) adverse events |
| | Minor moderate and not only marginal improvement in the therapy-relevant benefit, which has not previously been achieved versus the appropriate comparator therapy | <i>Any increase in survival time</i> | <i>Any reduction in serious (or severe) symptoms (or late complications)</i> Reduction in non-serious (<i>or non-severe</i>) symptoms (<i>or late complications</i>) | <i>Relevant improvement in quality of life</i> | <i>Any statistically significant reduction in serious (or severe) adverse events</i> Relevant avoidance of (<i>other, non-serious or non-severe</i>) adverse events |
| a: Amendments to the ANV in <i>italics</i> . ANV: Arzneimittel-Nutzenbewertungsverordnung (Regulation for Early Benefit Assessment of New Pharmaceuticals) | | | | | |

Table 13: Determination of extent of added benefit – Ranked criteria according to the ANV plus amendments^a

| | | Outcome category | | | |
|---|---|--------------------------------------|---|--------------------------------|---|
| | | All-cause mortality | Serious (or severe) symptoms (or late complications) and adverse events | Health-related quality of life | Non-serious (or non-severe) symptoms (or late complications) and adverse events |
| Extent category | Major sustained and great improvement in the therapy-relevant benefit, which has not previously been achieved versus the appropriate comparator therapy | Major increase in survival time | Long-term freedom or extensive avoidance | <i>Major improvement</i> | Not applicable |
| | Considerable marked improvement in the therapy-relevant benefit, which has not previously been achieved versus the appropriate comparator therapy | Moderate increase in survival time | Alleviation or relevant avoidance | <i>Important improvement</i> | Important avoidance |
| | Minor moderate and not only marginal improvement in the therapy-relevant benefit, which has not previously been achieved versus the appropriate comparator therapy | <i>Any increase in survival time</i> | <i>Any reduction</i> | <i>Relevant improvement</i> | Relevant avoidance |
| a: Amendments to the ANV in <i>italics</i> . ANV: Arzneimittel-Nutzenbewertungsverordnung (Regulation for Early Benefit Assessment of New Pharmaceuticals) | | | | | |

In accordance with §2 (3) ANV, the term benefit is defined as an effect and in §2 (4) ANV the term added benefit is defined as such an effect compared with the appropriate comparator therapy. It can be inferred from these definitions that the extent of added benefit must be determined by taking into account both the hierarchy of outcomes and effect sizes.

The ANV provides no details on the questions as to which effect sizes for the individual outcomes result in which extent category, or which effect measures should be chosen for the assessment. In principle, these questions can only be partly answered from a methodological point of view. Nevertheless, IQWiG is required to assess the extent of added benefit presented in the dossiers (§7 (2) ANV) and to draw its own conclusions on the extent. To restrict to a minimum at this stage the value judgements that will necessarily be made in the further deliberation process and to reveal them, the following measures are required:

- explicit operationalization to ensure a transparent approach
- abstract operationalization to achieve the best possible consistency between benefit assessments

Against this background a suitable effect measure must first be chosen. The initial focus is on the situation with binary data (analysis of 2x2 tables). In this context, relative effect measures – these mainly comprise the relative risk (RR) and the odds ratio (OR) – show the following advantages over absolute measures such as the risk difference (RD):

- The risk difference does not describe the effectiveness of therapy as such, as this difference strongly depends on the baseline risk in the control group. However, the baseline risk varies between regions, populations and over the course of time, as well as particularly between control groups receiving different comparator therapies. A risk difference should thus be interpreted as a descriptive measure of a specific study, not as a fixed measure of a specific treatment procedure; this is also and primarily a problem in meta-analyses [612]. This great susceptibility to external conditions calls into question the transferability of absolute effect measures from clinical studies to the daily healthcare setting. It is therefore common practice preferably to express effects shown in clinical studies as relative risks, odds ratios or hazard (or incidence) ratios [146].
- The degree of the risk difference is limited by the degree of the baseline risk (absolute risk in the control group). If this baseline risk is 1%, then the risk difference can never exceed 0.01 (or if it is 10%, the risk difference can never exceed 0.1 etc.). The risk difference could only reach the optimum value of 1 if the baseline risk was 100%. For instance, if an absolute risk reduction of at least 20% was defined as a substantial therapeutic improvement, then, for this example of a requirement, in diseases with (long-term) survival rates of greater than 80%, generally a major added benefit (for the corresponding outcome) would no longer be presentable.
- A further disadvantage of the use of the absolute risk reduction as an effect measure to operationalize the determination of the extent of added benefit is that an exact time point

must be defined at which this absolute risk reduction is determined (e.g. after 1, 2, 5 or 10 years), if no generally accepted definitions are available (e.g. 30-day mortality for myocardial infarction).

In summary, absolute risk reductions may have more of an impact in a situation of individual decision making, but relative effect measures are more suitable for general conclusions in terms of an assessment of the added benefit of a drug.

Relative measures have in common that the zero effect (no group difference) is 1. In the following text we address effects below 1, from which effects above 1 can be calculated by using the reciprocal. For the result to be classified as a minor, considerable or major added benefit, the approach stipulates that the (two-sided) 95% confidence interval of the effect undercuts the respective threshold in terms of a shift in the hypothesis boundary. In comparison with the examination of point estimates, such an inferential statistical approach has 2 main advantages: (i) The precision of the estimate is considered in the assessment; and accordingly, (ii) the probability of statistical errors can be limited to the usual small values (e.g. 5%).

The thresholds vary with regard to the 2 dimensions “outcome category” and “extent category (of the effect)” displayed in Table 13. The greater the relevance ascribed to the outcome, the closer the thresholds should lie to 1 (below 1). This takes into account the requirement from the ANV to consider disease severity. In contrast, the greater the determined extent of the effect, the further the thresholds should lie from 1 (below 1).

Following the explicit and abstract operationalization above, a division of the thresholds in step sizes of 0.05 is planned [354]. The further development of the methodological approach leading to these thresholds is briefly explained in the following text. The further deliberations will show that the choice of 0.05 is applicable in practice and leads to reasonable conclusions.

The starting point was formed by the question as to how large the actual effects have to be in order to be classified, for instance, as effects of a major extent. For this purpose, a relative risk of 0.50 – proposed by Djulbegovic et al. [174] as a requirement for a “breakthrough” – was defined as an effect of a major extent for the outcome “all-cause mortality” [354].

For this actual effect (0.5) the question arises as to how the threshold should be chosen to really achieve the extent “major” with adequate power. Details of the corresponding considerations can be found in the first dossier assessment conducted by the Institute [354], but are also addressed again at the end of this appendix. Following these considerations, the simultaneous requirements for feasibility and stringency can be regarded as fulfilled for a threshold of 0.85.

In a next step, for the matrix of the extent, the other actual effects are specified and the corresponding thresholds determined. In this context it should be considered that, on the basis of the outcome category “mortality”, the requirements should increase for less serious

outcomes, and on the basis of the extent category “major”, should decrease for lower extent categories. In this context, a division into sixths for the actual effects was shown to be a pragmatical solution. The thresholds for the respective extent categories are described in the following text.

1. All-cause mortality

With the usual significance level of 5%, any statistically significant increase in survival time is at least classified as minor added benefit, since for all-cause mortality the requirement that an effect should be “more than marginal” is regarded to be fulfilled by the outcome itself. The threshold referring to the 95% confidence interval is thus 1 here. An increase in survival time is classified as a considerable effect if a threshold of 0.95 is undercut. An increase in survival time is classified as being major if the threshold of 0.85 is undercut by the upper limit of the 95% confidence interval.

2. • Serious (or severe) symptoms (or late complications)

- **serious or (severe) adverse events**
- **health-related quality of life**

For serious (or severe) symptoms (or late complications) and serious (or severe) adverse events, any statistically significant reduction also represents at least a minor effect, as the requirement of “more than marginal” is already fulfilled by the quality of the outcome itself. In contrast to the desired effects on all-cause mortality, a considerable effect requires that a threshold of 0.90 must be undercut and a “major” effect requires that a threshold of 0.75 is undercut. To derive a major effect from these outcomes also requires that the risk of the examined event should be at least 5% in at least one of the groups compared. This additional criterion supports the relevance of the event at population level and allows for the special requirements for this category of added benefit.

The precondition for determining the extent of added benefit for outcomes on health-related quality of life (as for all PROs) is that both the instruments applied and the response criteria must be validated or at least generally established. If these results are dichotomous in terms of responders and non-responders, the above criteria for serious symptoms apply (the risk for the category “major” should be at least 5%).

3. • Non-serious (or non-severe) symptoms (or late complications)

- **non-serious (or non-severe) adverse events**

The specification of thresholds for the non-serious (or non-severe) symptoms (or late complications) and the non-serious (or non-severe) adverse events takes into account the lower severity compared with Categories 1 and 2.

As a matter of principle, the effect for non-serious outcomes should not be classified as major. To classify an effect as considerable or minor the thresholds of 0.80 or 0.90 respectively must be undercut. In the latter case, this is based on the requirement for minor added benefit specified in §5 (7) ANV that there must be a moderate, and not only marginal, improvement.

The procedure thus implies that effects (also statistically significant ones) only assessed as marginal lead to classification into the category of no added benefit.

The corresponding thresholds for all extent categories and outcome categories are presented in the following Table 14.

Table 14: Inferential statistical thresholds (hypotheses boundaries) for relative effect measures

| | | Outcome category | | |
|-----------------|--------------|---------------------|--|---|
| | | All-cause mortality | Serious (or severe) symptoms (or late complications) and adverse events, as well as quality of life ^a | Non-serious (or non-severe) symptoms (or late complications) and adverse events |
| Extent category | Major | 0.85 | 0.75 and risk $\geq 5\%$ ^b | Not applicable |
| | Considerable | 0.95 | 0.90 | 0.80 |
| | Minor | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.90 |

a: Precondition (as for all patient-reported outcomes): use of a validated or established instrument, as well as a validated or established response criterion.
b: Risk must be at least 5% for at least 1 of the 2 groups compared.

Detailed methodological rationale for determination of thresholds

The starting point is the planning of a (fictional) study to test the conventional hypotheses

$$H_0: RR \geq RR_0 \text{ vs. } H_1: RR < RR_0$$

on the basis of the relative risk $RR_0 = 1$. The required sample size is calculated by specifying the significance level, the power, the risk in the control group, and the actual effect (RR_1).

For all hypothesis boundaries shifted from 1 ($RR_0 < 1$) a study of this sort has reduced power. In order to maintain the same power for the shifted hypothesis boundary of interest (the thresholds named above) as specified for the testing of the conventional (non-shifted) hypotheses, the sample size must be increased – either within the study or through the combination of several studies. Assuming the normal case of 2 (e.g. pivotal) studies, it can be assumed that the sample size is twice as large.

The hypothesis boundary for the shifted hypotheses is then precisely selected so that the power for the conventional hypotheses of the 2 individual studies corresponds to the power for the shifted hypotheses of the combined (pooled) analysis. This hypothesis boundary serves as the threshold for the upper limit of the two-sided 95% confidence interval for the relative risk. For instance, the specification of a significance level of 5% (two-sided) and a power of 90% (both for the conventional and for the shifted hypothesis boundary), as well as a doubling of the sample size for the shifted hypothesis boundary resulted in a threshold of

(rounded) 0.85 for the actual effect of 0.5 postulated for the outcome “mortality” and the extent category “major”.

The formula included in Appendix A of the benefit assessment on ticagrelor [354] for the relationship between the actual effect and the threshold is independent of the other requirements and is based on the algorithm used in the “power” procedure of the software SAS. The corresponding documentation for this algorithm [574] refers to the work by Fleiss et al. [230]. A query to Mr Röhmel (former Speaker of the Working Group “Pharmaceutical Research” of the German Region of the International Biometric Society), as well as directly to the Technical Support Section of SAS, showed that documentation of the validity of this algorithm has evidently not been published. The question arises as to which actual effects are required in more precise calculations to reach the respective extent category with high probability.

The actual effects were thus determined by means of Monte Carlo simulations as follows:

- 1) The significance level for the above hypothesis is 2.5% and the power is 90%. The parameter RR_1 runs through all values between 0.2 and 0.95 at a step size of 0.01. The risk in the control group p_C runs through all values between 0.05 and 0.95 at a step size of 0.05. For each of these tuples (RR_1, p_C) the required sample size n is calculated using $RR_0 = 1$ according to the formula by Farrington and Manning [218] and then doubled ($m := 2n$).
- 2) For each triple (RR_1, p_C, m) a threshold T runs through all values between 1 and 0 in a descending order with a step size of -0.005 . For each T the power for the above hypothesis is approximated with $RR_0 = T$. The significance level is 2.5%. For this purpose 50 000 2x2 tables are simulated with a random generator, the upper confidence interval limit for the relative risk is calculated by means of the normal distribution approximation and the delta method for estimation of variance. Subsequently, the proportion of simulation cycles is determined for which the upper confidence interval limit is smaller than T . The T cycle is stopped as soon as an approximated power is smaller than 90%. The corresponding triple (RR_1, p_C, T) is documented in a list.
- 3) After the cycle of all parameters in Steps 1 and 2, all triples are chosen from the list for which the threshold T deviates less than 0.01 from one of the values 0.75, 0.80, 0.85, 0.90 and 0.95.

Figure 18 shows the resulting (more precise) actual effects, depending on the risk in the control group for all thresholds specified above (points approximated by smoothed curves).

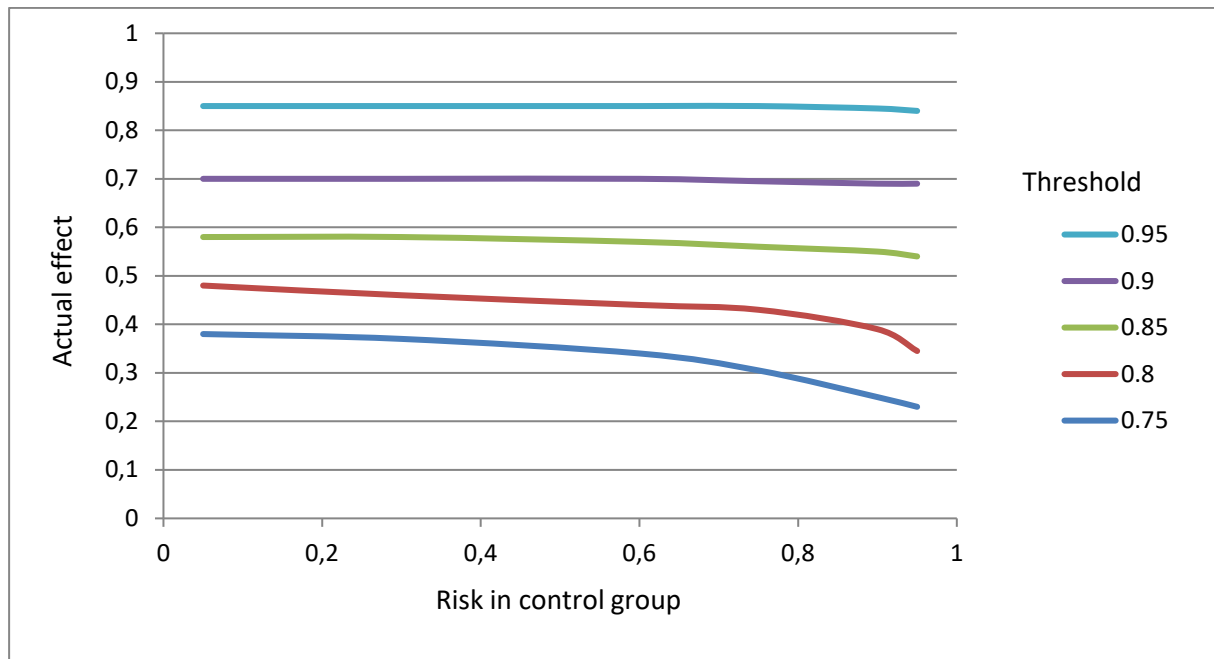


Figure 18: Actual effects depending on the baseline risk

Table 15 again contains the ranges (depending on the risk of the control group) in which the actual effects are realized, per outcome category and extent category.

Table 15: Actual effects for the relative risk

| | | Outcome category | | |
|-----------------|--------------|---------------------|--|---|
| | | All-cause mortality | Serious (or severe) symptoms (or late complications) and adverse events as well as quality of life | Non-serious (or non-severe) symptoms (or late complications) and adverse events |
| Extent category | Major | 0.53–0.58 | 0.24–0.38 | Not applicable |
| | Considerable | 0.84–0.85 | 0.69–0.71 | 0.34–0.48 |
| | Minor | Not applicable | Not applicable | 0.69–0.71 |

In relation to all-cause mortality, actual relative risks of about 0.55 – i.e. still corresponding to about a halving of the risk – are to be specified for the extent “major”. For the extent “considerable” the actual effect must lie at about 0.85. For serious symptoms and comparable outcomes, to be classified as a “major” extent, an actual reduction in risk to about a quarter to a third of the risk is required. Compared with the originally specified actual effects [354] good consistency is provided for thresholds lying close to 1. For the thresholds lying further away from 1, the simulation results show slightly more moderate requirements for the strength of the actual effects. The division of the thresholds as defined in Table 14 seems reasonable and practicable.

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