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Failed Initial Tumor Necrosis Inhibitor (Tnfi) Therapy – What Next For Rheumatoid Arthritis Patients?

Aliza Matusevich UTHealth School of Public Health

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FAILED INITIAL TUMOR NECROSIS INHIBITOR (TNFI) THERAPY – WHAT NEXT

FOR RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS PATIENTS?

by

ALIZA MATUSEVICH, BSN, BA, MPH

APPROVED:

JOHN M. SWINT, PHD

LINCY S. LAL, PHD

WENYAW CHAN, PHD

DEAN, THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS SCHOOL OF PUBLIC HEALTH

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DEDICATION

To Alter & Hannah Karpes

FAILED INITIAL TUMOR NECROSIS INHIBITOR (TNFI) THERAPY – WHAT NEXT

FOR RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS PATIENTS?

by

ALIZA MATUSEVICH BSN, Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Israel, 1996 BA, University of South Africa, 2004 MPH, Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Israel, 2010

Presented to the Faculty of The University of Texas

School of Public Health

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PUBLIC HEALTH

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS SCHOOL OF PUBLIC HEALTH Houston, Texas May, 2019

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FAILED INITIAL TUMOR NECROSIS INHIBITOR (TNFI) THERAPY – WHAT NEXT FOR RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS PATIENTS?

Aliza Matusevich, BSN, BA, MPH, PhD The University of Texas School of Public Health, 2019

Dissertation Chair: Lincy S..Lal, PhD

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is a chronic inflammatory disease of the joints affecting over 1.3 million Americans with annual societal costs estimated at \$39.2 billion, rising faster than medical inflation. Therapy with tumor necrosis factor inhibitors (TNFi) has greatly improved the management of patients with rheumatoid RA; however, substantial numbers of patients do not experience an adequate response to these drugs, necessitating a change in treatment regimen. There are two basic approaches for TNFi failure: cycling (switching to a second TNFi) or swapping (to a drug with another mechanism of action) but the choice is controversial due to questions of comparative efficacy and pervasive resource constraints.

The initial goal of this study was to follow the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) statement and systematically review the methodology of decision analyses aimed at determining the most cost-effective sequence of treatment for refractory RA in order to gauge best modeling practices and sources of disagreement in terms of techniques and parameters. The second goal was to analyze the Truven Health Analytics MarketScan® Databases to obtain real-world estimates for cost and drug survival parameters for all ten targeted drugs. Ultimately, the aim was to apply the

lessons learned from the systematic review and the estimates calculated from claims data in order to develop an original decision analysis model that will assist physicians and patients in determining the most cost-effective course of care.

Seven publication met the criteria for inclusion into the systematic review. They had a largely homogenous model structure and their efficacy estimates were from the same set of randomized clinical trials. Reporting quality was fair and the median ICE for the swapping strategy was \$70,332/QALY.

The claims analysis demonstrated that 63% of patients cycle to a second TNFi but those who swap to a non-TNFi drug are more likely to persist on treatment, even after controlling for covariates. There were no differences in time to discontinuation for subsequent lines of drugs. While non-TNFi drugs seem to be more effective, they are more costly. Adalimumab and abatacept are the most common second-line TNFi and non-TNFi respectively.

Lastly, we built a Markov microsimulation model based on the Truven cohort and conclude that swapping to a non-TNFi is likely to be cost-effective at a \$100,000/QALY threshold across a variety of scenarios. Probabilistic sensitivity analysis estimates that the basecase has an 80% probability of being cost-effective at \$100,000/QALY. Our results calibrate well with those seen in the systematic review and have the advantage of being based on long-term follow up of a large real-world cohort.

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Literature Review

The overall goal of RA therapy is to "treat to target" *i.e.* to remission or low disease activity. The most current treatment guidelines, as published by the ACR (1), recommend beginning with methotrexate (MTX) monotherapy, moving to combination conventional synthetic disease modifying antirheumatic drug (csDMARDs) therapy or a targeted drug (preferably together with MTX) and then adding low-dose corticosteroids. While there is no recommendation to use a TNFi versus a biological with another mechanism of action or tofacitinib (a targeted synthetic DMARD (tsDMARD)), most clinicians begin with a TNFi.

For patients who fail their initial TNFi and are not on concurrent csDMARDs, the ACR strongly recommends adding combination therapy with one or two conventional synthetic DMARDs. No double-blind randomized controlled study has directly addressed whether to use another TNFi versus a non-TNFi biologic for persons failing their first TNFi while on combination therapy. The results from observational studies are mixed and seem to indicate greater clinical improvement for non-TNFi drugs but possibly more serious infections. No study has compared TNFi to non-TNFi to tofacitinib. Thus, based on panelists' expertise, the ACR conditionally recommend swapping to a non-TNFi biological (1).

The EULAR recommendations are similarly equivocal, making no distinction between a second TNFi and different classes of biologic agents (2).

If a patient has failed to more than one TNFi, indirect observational studies appear to show greater effectiveness for non-TNFi's (with or without MTX) in terms of achieving the EULAR "good response" criteria but no difference in the DAS28 nor has a difference been shown in terms of serious infections.

Effectiveness

Switching between TNFi can be effective as, despite belonging to the same class, they have differences in formulation, molecular structure, pharmacokinetics and the induction of antibodies thereby inhibiting the inflammatory effects of tumor necrosis factor alpha in different ways. Targeted drugs with other mechanisms of action block the inflammatory effects of cytokines such as interleukin-1 (anakinra (ANA)), interleukin-6 (tocilizumab (TCZ)). They inhibit T-cells (abatacept (ABA)) or deplete B-cells (rituximab (RTX)). The drugs also differ in their methods of administration (injected, infused or ingested) and dosing schedules (from daily to six-monthly) which may contribute to differences in effectiveness, adherence, persistence, switching and dose escalation. That said, when restricting their analysis to patients starting their second targeted treatment after 2005, Ramiro et al (3) found no difference between the eight (their study excluded tofacitinib and anakinra) survival curves (p=0.239).

Randomized controlled trials (RCTs) show that both TNFi (OPPOSITE – infliximab (IFX) (4) GO-AFTER – golimumab (GOL) (5), CERT-001 – certolizumab (CTZ) (6)) and non-TNFi (ATTAIN – abatacept (7), REFLEX – rituximab (8), RADIATE – tocilizumab (9) and tofacitinib (TOF) (10)) are superior to placebo for patients who have failed their first

TNFi, with non-TNFi drugs appearing to be more effective than a second TNFi. Safety profiles are similar. Salliot et al (11) performed an indirect comparison of four of these RCTs (REFLEX, ATTAIN, RADIATE, GO-AFTER) as well as DANCER (rituximab) and report no significant difference between rituximab, tocilizumab, abatacept and golimumab. Schoels et al (12) arrived at a similar conclusion after performing an indirect pairwise meta-analysis of REFLEX, ATTAIN, RADIATE and GO-AFTER.

Cycling strategies

Most studies comparing the different TNFi's have found no difference between them (13, 14), indeed, one Veterans Administration study even found no added benefit to cycling to a new TNFi compared to restarting the initial drug after a gap of three months or longer (15). However there does appear to be a slight advantage to etanercept (ETN) according to the ARTIS study, based on the Swedish national registry (16) as well as a study based on the LOHREN registry in northern Italy (17). Similarly, in the US, Ramiro et al (3) found a significant difference, when comparing the survival curves of the three earliest TNFi (p=0.044) with infliximab and etanercept having an advantage over adalimumab (ADA).

Swapping strategies

The ROC trial (18), was a pragmatic, open-label, randomized controlled trial (RCT) comparing cycling to swapping in 300 participants. It included a sub-analysis evaluating the difference in disease response among abatacept, rituximab and tocilizumab and found no significant difference between them. Similarly, the discontinued SWITCH trial found similar improvement in outcomes for patients receiving rituximab and abatacept (19). However, a

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network meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials in RA patients who had inadequate response to TNFi found that tocilizumab 8mg performed best in terms of ACR20 response rate and safety, followed by rituximab, abatacept and tofacitinib (20). This result has not been reflected in reports from the few observational studies that have compared outcomes between non-TNFi drugs as second-line targeted therapy (rituximab versus abatacept (21), rituximab versus tocilizumab (22) and abatacept versus tocilizumab(23)) which have not shown clear differences between them.

Cycling versus Swapping

The ROC trial (18), mentioned above, the only completed RCT found that directly compares cycling (to infliximab etanercept, adalimumab) versus swapping (to abatacept, rituximab or tocilizumab) and it found that significantly more patients receiving a non-TNFi drug achieved a good or moderate response at 24 weeks. There appears to be a trend towards more adverse events in the swapping group but other than for serious adverse events $(p=0.1)$ the statistical significance was not reported. The British SWITCH open-label RCT was discontinued due to slow enrolment. Based on the 122 randomized patients, they could not conclusively determine a clinical difference between rituximab and a second TNFi (19). Lastly, an analysis of 32 RCTs using meta-regression determined that cycling results in better clinical response (24). Ramiro et al (3) report a somewhat lower discontinuation rate for TNFi as second line versus non-TNFi but this was not significant when restricted to patients beginning treatment after 2005.

Most comparative observational studies comparing rituximab to TNFi's in patients who have failed their first tumor necrosis factor inhibitor conclude that rituximab is more effective (22, 25-33). Gomez-Reino et al (31) believe that at least part of their result can be attributed to the poorer response they observed in patients cycling to adalimumab or infliximab compared to etanercept or rituximab. The SWITCH-RA study (29) did however go on to note that patients receiving rituximab had, on average, higher disease activity and had discontinued their previous TNFI due to inefficacy rather than adverse events. Finckh et al (26, 32) found significantly better improvement in disease activity among those rituximab patients who switched due to inadequate response, and no difference between RTX and TNFi if the switch was for any other reason. Rubbert-Roth et al (27) performed a prospective observational study of 728 patients and found significant improvement over six months for seropositive patients (anti-CCP+ n=559) swapping to rituximab versus cycling to a second TNFi. No difference was found for seronegative patients (anti-CCP- n=169).

Favalli et al (14) found that, regardless of the reason for the switch, those swapping to abatacept, rituximab or tocilizumab had better retention rates, with no significant difference between the three agents, a Dutch cohort study similarly reports higher effectiveness when swapping to non-TNFi's (34) whereas Ramiro et al (35) report no significant difference in discontinuation rates between cyclers and swappers. Strehblow et al (36) report a trend of longer survival on anakinra compared to TNFi but this did not reach statistical significance and Yoshida et al (37) report no significant difference between tocilizumab and TNFi's as second line treatment. The latter two studies were limited by small sample size (49 – 85 patients). Rotar and Tomsic (22, 33) found that tocilizumab is superior to TNFi's. Lastly,

Meissner (38) found that abatacept as second-line treatment had lower rates of switching than ADA, ETN and IFX as did Rosenblatt et al (39), who calculated that patients swapping from first-line TNFi to abatacept had a third of the odds of failing compared to those cycling to another TNFi. Schabert et al (40) report a more favorable efficacy profile for abatacept compared to adalimumab, etanercept and infliximab. In the same vein, both Du Pan et al and Elkin et al show favorable results for swapping versus cycling (41, 42). However, Harrold et al (43) found no difference between a second TNFi and abatacept. Only Studenic et al (44) report a higher retention rate for TNFi's compared to non-TNFi drugs for the second through fourth line of treatment. Virkki et al (45) distinguished between reasons for initial failure and found that switching to a second TNFi would be most beneficial to those experiencing secondary failure. Wakabayashi et al (46) report no significant difference in efficacy between tocilizumab and etanercept in 38 Japanese patients who had failed to respond to infliximab.

The most comprehensive studies compared survival times across eight or nine second-line drugs using Thomson Reuters MarketScan® Research Databases: the earlier study (47) (n=3049) calculated that etanercept and rituximab had the lowest switch rates and infliximab had the highest while the updated study (48) (n=6841) found highest persistence for rituximab and lowest for adalimumab with no significant differences between the other agents. The latter was the only study to include certolizumab pegol and no study has been found comparing tofacitinib as a second line targeted therapy.

In their systematic review of four studies and 41 abstracts looking at rituximab, abatacept, adalimumab, etanercept and infliximab as second line biologics, Moots et al (49) conclude that significant benefit can be derived from all of them, qualifying their remarks by stating a need to possibly stratify patients according to biomarkers (such as seropositivity) in order to optimize therapy for specific subgroups.

Particularly when looking at observational studies, one needs to asses results in terms of regression to the mean: because the change to a new medication is triggered by an increase in disease activity, regardless of treatment, or lack thereof, any subsequent measure of disease activity is likely to reflect the patient's average disease activity which can be incorrectly attributed to drug efficacy.

That said, the evidence appears skewed in favor of the swapping strategy but, despite this, US patients tend to cycle to another TNFi rather than swap (3, 30, 50, 51) to a drug with another mechanism of action although this trend does appear to be changing (3, 52).

Comparators	Reference	Data source	More efficacious				
TNFi versus TNFi							
IFX vs. ETN vs.	Ramiro (3)	US prospective cohort	IFX, ETN				
ADA							
	Chatzidionysiou (16)	Swedish Registry	ETN				
	Caporali (17)	Northern Italy registry	ETN				
	Favalli (14)	Italian retrospective cohort	No difference				

Table 1: Comparative effectiveness of second-line biologic drugs

Cost

Very few studies were found comparing costs of second line biological drugs for RA. Among the first three tumor necrosis factor inhibitors (ETN, IFX, ADA), etanercept appears to be consistently associated with the lowest drug cost per treated patient as well as the lowest all-cause healthcare costs. Infliximab is the most expensive (40, 55-57). This result must be treated with caution as only one study specifically looked at second line treatment, the others differentiated between new and continuing patients with no information on the treatment history of the continuing patients. Johnston et al (58) specifically compared first and second line treatment of sub-cutaneous (SC) targeted drugs and observed the lowest

costs for abatacept. Another paper by the same authors compared changes from baseline and concluded that while patients receiving abatacept as second line treatment were sicker than those receiving etanercept or adalimumab, their relative increase in healthcare costs was the lowest (59). When comparing among second line infused drugs, tocilizumab had significantly lower per person, per month (PPPM) and all-cause healthcare costs than abatacept and infliximab (60).

Overall, cycling appears to be a cheaper strategy than swapping. Patients who swap to non-TNFi drugs tend to be older, with more comorbidities and higher steroid use, but even after controlling for baseline characteristics, swapping results in approximately 35% higher annual all-cause medical costs (61) with 49-63% of the difference being attributed to the cost of the drug (51). This latter is attributed to the intravenous (IV) route of administration associated with many non-TNFi requiring office visits, facility fees and administration costs (51, 61, 62) . No significant difference was found in emergency department or inpatient visits (51).

Table 1: Comparative cost of second-line targeted drugs

Cost effectiveness

Joensuu et al (63) reviewed cost-utility analyses of biologics in RA across five categories of patients, one of which included studies that compared biologics in patients with an inadequate response to TNFi's. Four studies met their inclusion criteria all of which compared rituximab to one or more TNFi's (adalimumab, etanercept and/or infliximab), one also included abatacept as a treatment option. All of them are European studies. Three studies (64-66) included indirect costs while Merkesdal et al (64) and Kielhorn et al (67) were the only analyses of treatment sequences although in both cases the only difference in the sequences presented was the inclusion of rituximab as the first biological after initial TNFi failure in one arm. The analyses including rituximab conclude that RTX compared to TNF's is either cost-effective at the ϵ 30,000 incremental cost effectiveness ratio (ICER) threshold or is the dominant option (cheaper and more effective). The ICERs for abatacept ranged from ϵ 47,663 to over 1.2 million euros. No clear best choice emerges among the three TNFi's included in the models.

Sullivan et al (68) conclude from their review of 15 articles that cycling to a second TNFi is less likely to be cost-effective whereas swapping to abatacept or rituximab results in an ICER below willingness to pay thresholds and may even be cost-saving.

An initial literature search revealed a further five cost-utility (19, 65, 69-71) and four cost-effectiveness (72-75) analyses all comparing treatment arms consisting of TNFi's, abatacept and/or rituximab. Three studies were performed in Central America, the rest are based on European populations. The overall conclusion appears to be that swapping to a non-TNFi biological is more cost-effective than cycling to a second TNFi. Four cost-utility analyses (CUA) favored rituximab whereas half of the six cost-effectiveness analyses (CEA) did so. The incomplete SWITCH study concluded that an alternative TNFi might be costeffective when compared to rituximab but that abatacept is unlikely to be cost-effective when compared to TNFi (19). Given the substantial uncertainty inherent in assumptions about disease progression under the different treatment options complicated by the diverse populations of the nine countries represented and the different modelling assumptions and structures used, it is not possible to reach an unequivocal conclusion.

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Drug	Comparator	Study	Country	ICER
RTX	TNFi	Brodszky (65)	Hungary	RTX dominant
	$TNFi \Rightarrow TNFi$	Carlos (69)	Mexico	RTX dominant
	TNFi	Diamantopolous (70)	Netherlands	RTX dominant
	ABA	Diamantopolous (70)	Netherlands	RTX dominant
	TNFi	Manders (71)	Netherlands	RTX dominant
	TNFi	Brown (76)	United Kingdom	TNFi: £5,332/QALY
ABA	TNFi	Brown (76)	United Kingdom	ABA: £253,967/QALY

Table 2: Comparative cost-utility of second-line targeted drugs

Table 3: Comparative cost-effectiveness of second-line targeted drugs

Drug	Comparator	Study	Country	Result
RTX	TNFi	Carlos (73)	Costa	RTX: lowest cost/ACR70
			Rica	
	TNFi	Carlos (75)	Mexico	RTX: lowest cost/ACR70
	TNFi	Ryazhenov (74)	Russia	RTX: lowest cost/unit DAS reduction
	ABA	Ryazhenov (74)	Russia	RTX: lowest cost/unit DAS reduction
ABA(3 rd line)	RTX	Emery (72)	UK	£8/day in $LDAS*$

* LDAS: low disease activity state

Public Health Significance

Annual health care costs in the United States have exceeded the \$3 trillion mark accounting for 17.5% of Gross National Product in 2014 (77) which is approximately double the OECD per capita average. Americans are paying more for health care but this is not reflected in superior health outcomes. One of the primary goals of the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act (ACA) of 2010 was to improve the efficiency of the US health care system. The increase in the number of insured individuals as well as the overall aging of the population mean not only that more people will have access to targeted disease-modifying anti-rheumatic drugs, but they will be needing them for longer. There is no consensus on the most effective second line treatment, and a paucity of information on the most cost-effective. The uncertainty of treatment success, coupled with risk and high expense make these therapies an important target for economic evaluations as it is important for patients that their physicians have guidance on the most cost-effective options for controlling their disease. This study aims to provide such a tool by providing a systematic synthesis of the relative costs and benefits of alternative rheumatoid arthritis treatments for patients who have failed their initial TNFi agent.

Hypothesis, Research Question, Specific Aims or Objectives

The essential purpose of this research project is to build a cost-utility model that will assist physicians and rheumatoid arthritis patients in treatment selection after failing their initial TNFi. In order to be relevant and valid, the model needs to be based on best decision analysis practices. To that end a systematic methodological review of analyses on the topic is necessary to glean those approaches and parameter sources that most successfully model real world situations. To inform cycle lengths and possibly group treatments, it was thought prudent to examine actual usage of second line targeted therapies, length of time on them and their per person costs. Thus, this analysis will consist of three linked aims:

- 1. Systematic review of modeling methodologies for the cost-effectiveness of targeted drugs as second line treatment for rheumatoid arthritis.
- 2. Determine real world utilization patterns and costs of targeted drugs.
- 3. Cost-utility analysis of RA treatment options after initial TNFi failure.

The question to be answered is this: What is the most cost-effective treatment for rheumatoid arthritis patients who have failed their first TNFi drug?

METHODS

Human Subjects, Animal Subjects, or Safety Considerations

This study was approved by the University of Texas M.D. Anderson Cancer Center Institutional Review Board (PA17-0789) under expedited review. Waivers of informed consent and authorization were granted as only de-identified and previously published data was used.

The project was also determined as qualifying for exempt status by the Committee for Protection of Human Subjects of University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston (HSC-SPH-18-0164).

JOURNAL ARTICLE 1

Systematic review of economic evaluations of cycling versus swapping in patients with rheumatoid arthritis after failure to tumor necrosis factor inhibitors Annals of Rheumatologic Disease

ABSTRACT

Objective: To systematically review the modeling approaches and quality of economic analyses comparing cycling tumor necrosis factor-alpha inhibitors (TNFi) to swapping to a therapy with a different mode of action in patients with rheumatoid arthritis whose initial TNFi failed.

Methods: We searched electronic databases, gray literature, and references of included publications until July 2017. Two reviewers independently screened citations. Reporting quality was assessed using the Consolidated Health Economic Evaluation Reporting Standards (CHEERS) statement. Data regarding modeling methodology were extracted.

Results: We included 7 articles comprising 19 comparisons. Three studies scored $\geq 16/24$ on the CHEERS checklist. Most models used a lifetime horizon, took a payer perspective, employed a 6-month cycle length, and measured treatment efficacy in terms of the American College of Rheumatology improvement criteria. We noted possible sources of bias in terms of transparency and study sponsorship. In the cost-utility comparisons, the median incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER) was US \$70,332/quality-adjusted life-year (QALY) for swapping versus cycling strategies. Rituximab was more effective and less

expensive than TNFi in 7 of 11 comparisons. Abatacept (intravenous) compared to TNFi was less cost-effective than rituximab. Common influential parameters in sensitivity analyses were the rituximab dosing schedule, assumptions regarding disease progression, and estimation of utilities.

Conclusion: Differences in the design, key assumptions, and model structure chosen had a major impact on the individual study conclusions. Despite the existence of multiple reporting standards, there continues to be a need for more uniformity in the methodology reported in economic evaluations of cycling versus swapping after TNFi in patients with RA.

SIGNIFICANCE AND INNOVATION

- First study to review cost-effectiveness analyses comparing cycle versus swap strategies in rheumatoid arthritis patients who have failed their first tumor necrosis alpha inhibitor.
- Reiterates need for standardization and transparency in cost-effectiveness studies.
- Highlights the need of further studies evaluating cost-effectiveness with swapping choices other than rituximab or intravenous abatacept that better reflect current clinical practices.

Therapy with tumor necrosis factor inhibitors (TNFi) has greatly improved the management of patients with rheumatoid arthritis (RA); however, substantial numbers of patients do not experience an adequate response to these drugs, necessitating a change in treatment regimen. The choice of a subsequent therapy is controversial for many reasons, among them doubts about efficacy, concerns about safety, and pervasive resource constraints; adalimumab and etanercept together accounted for over 5% of US pharmaceutical spending in 2013 (1).

Two basic approaches are used after TNFi failure: patients can switch either to another TNFi (cycling strategy) or to a drug with a new mechanism of action (MOA) (swapping strategy). While systematic reviews of randomized controlled trials show that targeted drugs have similar effectiveness and safety profiles (2, 3), evidence from a randomized controlled trial (4) and multiple observational studies (5-13) has supported a swapping strategy. Despite this, physicians tend to cycle rather than swap (10, 14-16), though this trend may be changing (14, 17).

Results from economic evaluations comparing the cycling and swapping strategies have been inconclusive. Cycling appears to be the cheaper strategy (16, 18, 19), but costeffectiveness analyses show that swapping has an incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER) below willingness-to-pay thresholds and may, in some circumstances, be cost-saving (20, 21).

Our objective was to systematically review the modelling approaches and quality of economic evaluations comparing cycling versus swapping in patients with RA who have failed TNFi therapy.

METHODS

We followed the 27-item checklist of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) statement to report our results (22).

Eligibility criteria

We included: 1) economic evaluations (cost-effectiveness, cost-utility, or cost-benefit analyses); 2) published before July 2017; 3) comparing TNFi (adalimumab, certolizumab, etanercept, golimumab, or infliximab) to non-TNFi biologics (abatacept, anakinra, rituximab, tocilizumab) or tofacitinib (oral small molecule inhibitor); and 4) consisting of patients with RA who had failed a TNFi. We excluded studies: 1) if the comparator group was a diseasemodifying anti-rheumatic drug (DMARD); 2) if they were conference abstracts or poster presentations; or 3) if model details were not provided.

Information sources

The search aimed to find published and unpublished studies and was developed with the assistance of a health sciences librarian experienced in developing strategies for systematic reviews. Searches were not limited by year or type of publication but were restricted to articles published in English. The databases searched were MEDLINE (Ovid), EMBASE (Ovid), Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature, Cochrane Library, Database of Abstracts of Reviews of Effects, Health Technology Assessments, Web of Science, National Guideline Clearing House, National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence, Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, Turning Research into Practice,

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Health Economic Evaluations Database, EconLit, National Health System Economic Evaluations Database, and Academy of Managed Care Pharmacy Abstracts. In addition, the reference lists of included articles were hand-searched. DistillerSR software (Evidence Partners) was used to store all citations for duplicate checking and screening.

Search

The initial keywords included "rheumatoid arthritis," the generic and brand names of the 10 drugs of interest, their mechanisms of action, "comparative effectiveness research," "costs," and "cost analysis." The detailed MEDLINE search strategy can be found in Appendix B.

Study selection

Two reviewers (ARK, MLO) performed eligibility assessments independently, blinded to author and journal. Disagreements at all stages were resolved through discussion. If agreement could not be reached, a third reviewer (SBC) made a final decision.

Data collection process

To systematically extract data, we developed a form based on the Guide to Community Preventive Services' standard abstraction document (23) and RA-specific guidelines (24, 25). The form was pilot-tested on 5 randomly selected studies and refined accordingly. Data extraction was performed by one reviewer (ARK) and crosschecked by another (MLO).
Data items

We extracted: i) general information such as title, authors, publication year, country, study sponsor; ii) study characteristics: analytic technique, perspective of the study, funding source, reporting quality; iii) modeling features: participants' characteristics, intervention characteristics, disease states (i.e., health states and pathways), cycle length, time horizon, parameters of effectiveness/safety, and costs (drug and non-drug costs), model outcomes (i.e., quality-adjusted life year (QALY) where one QALY is equivalent to one life year spent in full health- and/or cost per responder; iv) ICERs (i.e., the estimated difference in cost between the competing interventions divided by the difference in QALY's gained); and v) assessment of uncertainty and model validation.

Quality appraisal

The selected studies were appraised for reporting quality using the Consolidated Health Economic Evaluation Reporting Standards (CHEERS) (26) checklist, which consists of 24 items evaluating 6 aspects of an economic study. Items were assessed as "true," "false," or "not applicable or partly true". Because many items consisted of more than one question, if a sub-item was not reported, the entire item was marked as "partly true". The reporting quality of the studies was assessed as the total number of "true" ratings and expressed as a percentage.

Synthesis of results

Data were analyzed using narrative synthesis. Extracted data were tabulated from the studies. Quantitative meta-estimates were not calculated given the heterogenic nature of

economic evaluations. However, we estimated the median and provide the maximum and minimum values as reference. To facilitate comparability, all ICERs were adjusted to 2017 US dollars according to rules specified by the Community Guide (27): costs per QALY were first converted to US dollars using purchasing power parity rates as published by the World Bank (28) and then revised to 2017 values using the U.S. Department of Labor's medical care consumer price index (MCPI) (base period 1982-1984) (29).

We considered an intervention cost-effective if the incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER) fell below a threshold of \$100,000/QALY (30). A threshold of \$50,000/QALY has been used historically but, recently, thresholds of \$100,000 - \$300,000 per QALY gained are being considered more appropriate (30-32). Strategies costing less and at least as effective as the comparator are dominating.

RESULTS

Study selection

After exclusion of duplicates, 5221 citations were screened. The 7 included publications comprised 19 comparisons, as four articles examined more than one treatment strategy. Figure 1 shows the study selection flowchart.

Figure 1.1. Flowchart illustrating the study screening and eligibility evaluation.

This flowchart is modeled after the PRISMA statement (22)

Study characteristics

The 7 included studies represented 4 European countries and the United States. There was one decision tree, three microsimulations, two discrete event simulations and one trialbased study. Four studies were from the perspective of a third-party payer, two took a societal perspective and the 7th did not report perspective. Six models were cost-utility analyses, the last was a cost-effectiveness analysis. Five studies were sponsored by the pharmaceutical industry; all reporting favorable ICERs for their marketed strategy (Table 1).

Table 1.1. Methods and modeling features of the included studies.

Study, year	Country	Model type	Sponsor	Perspective	Horizon	Outcome	Comparisons
Claxton, 2016 (38)	USA	Decision tree	Pfizer	Private payer	1 year	Cost/responder	
Hallinen, 2010 (39)	Finland	Microsimulation	Roche Oy	Society	Lifetime	OALY	6
Kielhorn, 2008 (37)	UK	Microsimulation	F. Hoffman-La Roche AG	Public payer	Lifetime	OALY	
Lindgren, 2009 (33)	Sweden	DES	Roche AB	Society	Lifetime	OALY	
Malottki 2011 (34)	UK	DES	National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence	Public payer	Not reported	QALY	6
Manders, 2015 (35)	Netherlands	Trial-based	Netherlands Organisation for Health Research and Development	Not reported	1 year	OALY	2
Merkesdal, 2010 (36)	Germany	Microsimulation	Roche Pharma AG, Grenzach-Wyhlen and F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd	Public payer	Lifetime	OALY	$\overline{2}$

Quality of reporting

While most studies reported their parameters as required by CHEERS (Figure 2), few justified their choices as also recommended by the guideline; for example, most described the study perspective (5 studies), time horizon (6 studies), discount rate (5 studies), health outcomes (all studies) and choice of model (6 studies), but not all gave reason for their choices. No study explained their selection of model. Characterization of uncertainty was another weak point; only 2 studies characterized population heterogeneity. The mean score

(number of "true" answers on the 24-item checklist) was 15 (63.7%), with a range of 11 to

18.

Figure 1.2. Results of CHEERS quality of reporting checklist.

Modeling features

Patient characteristics

Study cohorts were modelled on registries (33, 34), clinical trials (35-37) or

epidemiological data (38, 39). Cohorts modelled a population that was predominantly female

(median 81%, range, 67-81%), with a median age of 52 years (range, 48-56), disease

duration of 10.2 years (range, 6.3-14.1) and baseline Health Assessment Questionnaire

Disability Index (HAQ-DI) of 1.88 (range, 1.4-1.9), and weight of 73.8 kg (range, 70.0-77.7).

No study reported all characteristics; 2 studies reported 4 (33, 35), three studies did not report baseline HAQ-DI and one study did not report any patient characteristics at all (38).

Treatment Strategies

Eleven of nineteen comparisons evaluated rituximab versus TNFi, either as a class (33, 35) or individually, with adalimumab being the most common comparator (34, 36, 37, 39). Seven comparisons evaluated abatacept versus TNFi. In one study, tofacitinib was compared to adalimumab.

Health states and pathways

The three microsimulations and two discrete event simulations had at least two health states/events: "on treatment" and "death" (33, 34, 36, 37, 39). Patients on treatment could have varying degrees of response, those not responding moved to the next treatment in sequence or to palliative treatment. One study (33) allowed patients to be off treatment and another (36) had a separate state for palliative treatment. In all cases, costs and utilities were not allocated based on the disease state itself, but on the specific drug, cycle (first vs subsequent) and the associated HAQ-DI score. In all cost-utility analyses the HAQ-DI improved upon new treatment initiation and deteriorated over time, rebounding to its original value upon treatment discontinuation.

One study (35) was not a decision analysis model but was based on a pragmatic randomized controlled trial. In the decision tree study, (38) patients experiencing an ACR20 response would continue treatment for the next 6 months before being reassessed. 75% of those not responding or experiencing an adverse drug related reaction would switch to the next treatment in sequence and the pattern would then be repeated.

Discontinuation was either after a predetermined treatment time (36, 37, 39) or determined based on observational data (33, 34). Only one study explicitly modeled probability of serious adverse events as a reason for discontinuation (38).

Cycle length

Cycle length represents the minimum amount of time an individual will spend in a health state before the possibility of transition to another. The length of the cycle needs to reflect the underlying disease process such that it can represent the frequency of clinical events and interventions. The three microsimulations and one decision tree used a 6-month cycle length. Of these, only one study stated that the cycle length was determined based on the effectiveness data (6-month clinical trials) (37).

Time horizon

Four of the seven included studies used a lifetime horizon and one is presumed to have done so (34). This is consistent with the International Society for Pharmacoeconomics and Outcomes Research (ISPOR) best practices (40). One study (35) tracked outcomes over one year, and one study (38) used both one- and two-year frameworks. Shorter frameworks are preferred by the Outcome Measures in Rheumatology initiative (25) which cautioned against extrapolating beyond the duration of the clinical trial, stating that efficacy estimates past 10 years are unlikely to be clinically acceptable.

Effectiveness and safety

ACR criteria were used by four studies to determine treatment efficacy (36-39). One study (38) only considered whether patients achieved at least an ACR20 response or not. One study (33) used HAQ-DI scores only, and another (33) combined the HAQ-DI with the DAS28 score. One study (35) used the EuroQol 5-dimensional questionnaire (EQ-5D), a standardized instrument for measurement of health-related quality of life (QoL) that can be converted to utilities. In six studies, the effectiveness measures were based on clinical trial data (34-39); however, one used registry data (33) (Appendix C).

Three studies mentioned adverse events: one (33) explicitly excluded them from the model, one (38) incorporated adverse event data from a meta-analysis into the model structure and costed them, and the third (34) reported using them in the sensitivity analysis without providing further detail. Six models (33, 34, 36-39) did consider treatment discontinuations, which are considered particularly important because they can affect the total treatment cost and thereby the overall cost-effectiveness of treatment.

Costs

Cost parameters were unevenly included across studies: in terms of direct medical costs, all studies included drug costs and at least one other component. Two studies each mentioned direct non-medical costs (38, 39) or indirect costs (33, 36). Drug costs were sourced from national price lists while other medical costs and expected resource use were derived from surveys, literature reviews, national fee schedules and guidelines (Appendix C). Given the large disparity in reporting, it was not possible to reconcile amounts for nondrug cost components.

Drug costs. Medication costs were recorded per dose in five studies, and two simply recorded annual (Appendix D). Regarding the latter, studies often differentiated the first and subsequent years/cycles to accommodate loading doses. Drug costs reported in the only study

from the United States were consistently twice the reported by studies from the European countries. Table 2 shows the per (subsequent) 6-month cycle costs of the 5 most commonly reported biologic drugs in the included studies. Rituximab and infliximab were consistently the least expensive drugs, whereas adalimumab and etanercept were the most expensive. One study did not report drug costs (33).

	Drug					
Value	Abatacept IV	Adalimumab	Etanercept	Infliximab	Rituximab	
Mean	11,289	15,325	15,140	8,214	8,471	
Median	10,050	11,513	10,986	7,335	7,216	
Minimum	8,787	8,647	8,649	6,078	4,482	
Maximum	16,268	26,260	25,786	12,107	16,471	
Standard deviation	3,394	7,472	9,293	2,674	4,183	
Number of studies	4	5	3	4	6	

Table 1.2. Distribution of drug costs per 6-month cycle in 2017 US dollars.

*Only includes drugs that were analyzed in at least 3 studies

Non-medication cost components. Costs other than those of targeted drugs were categorized into 22 different components (Table 3) and studies reported 1-10 of them (median: 8). The most commonly reported direct medical costs were laboratory tests and primary care visits (5 of 7 studies), followed by administration, monitoring, and radiology costs (4 studies each). However, in some studies, administration and monitoring were bundled with medication costs, increasing the difficulty of reconciling the study parameter outputs. Direct nonmedical costs, such as patient time costs and training and education costs, were only included in one model each (38, 39). In general, costs were portrayed broadly; few studies noted the cost assigned per item, and fewer still described the derivation of that cost.

Exacerbating the situation was the studies' use of disparate definitions of each of the components. For example, the radiology category might have included only x-rays in one study, but computed tomography scans, magnetic resonance imaging, ultrasonography, and bone densitometry in another study.

a Included "direct and indirect costs" with no further details ^bExcluded: assumed similar in both arms ^cOnly included in sensitivity analysis

Model outcomes

Quality-adjusted life-years (QALYs) were the model outcome in all cost-utility analyses. They are derived by multiplying the life-years gained from an intervention by the utility of those years. No study reported total life-years gained. Utilities were derived from

the EQ-5D (35) or from regression formulae predicated on HAQ-DI, the most common (36, 37, 39) was Bansback's equation (41). The outcome of the single cost-effectiveness analysis (38) was measured in terms of cost per responder.

ICERs

In the 18 cost-utility analyses, the median ICER was \$70,332/QALY for the swapping strategy, with a range of \$24,770 to \$239,104/QALY. In 7 of the 11 comparisons between rituximab and TNFi, rituximab dominated TNFi, that is, rituximab was both more effective and less expensive than TNFi (Appendix E). The median ICER for the remaining 4 comparisons of rituximab and TNFi was \$24,934/QALY. The comparison of intravenous abatacept and TNFi yielded a higher median ICER of \$86,334/QALY. The abatacept ICERs fell into 2 distinct groups: one composed of 4 comparisons from two studies (34, 35), with a median ICER of \$73,961/QALY (minimum \$42,058/QALY, maximum \$86,334/QALY), and the other comprising three comparisons from one study (39), with a median ICER of \$223,850/QALY (minimum \$195,443/QALY, maximum \$223,850/QALY). The source of this discrepancy could not be ascertained because the models differed in terms of their type, structure, assumptions, and variables. Table 4 shows the ICERs for the cost-utility analyses comparisons, including the adjustment rates for conversion to 2017 US dollars. In the single cost-effectiveness analysis comparison (38), swapping to tofacitinib dominated cycling to adalimumab in both the one- and two-year-time horizons.

Study	Swap	Cycle	Original ICER	Currency, year	PPP ^a	MC inflation factorb	Final ICER
Hallinen (39)	RTX	IFX	18,179	ϵ , 2008	0.91	364.07	\$26,021
Hallinen (39)	RTX	ADA	RTX dominant	ϵ , 2008	0.91	364.07	RTX dominant
Hallinen (39)	RTX	ETN	RTX dominant	ϵ , 2008	0.91	364.07	RTX dominant
Hallinen (39)	ABA	IFX	156,388	ϵ , 2008	0.91	364.07	\$223,850
Hallinen (39)	ABA	ADA	136,542	ϵ , 2008	0.91	364.07	\$195,443
Hallinen (39)	ABA	ETN	167,044	ϵ , 2008	0.91	364.07	\$239,104
Kielhorn (37)	RTX	ADA	11,601	£, 2004	0.69	310.10	\$25,847
Lindgren (33)	RTX	TNFi	RTX dominant	ϵ , 2008	0.91	364.07	RTX dominant
Malottki (34)	RTX	ADA	RTX dominant	£, 2008	0.70	364.07	RTX dominant
Malottki (34)	RTX	ETN	RTX dominant	£, 2008	0.70	364.07	RTX dominant
Malottki (34)	RTX	IFX	RTX dominant	£, 2008	0.70	364.07	RTX dominant
Malottki (34)	ABA	ADA	46,400	£, 2008	0.70	364.07	\$86,334
Malottki (34)	ABA	ETN	37,800	£, 2008	0.70	364.07	\$70,332
Malottki (34)	ABA	IFX	41,700	£, 2008	0.70	364.07	\$77,589
Manders (35)	RTX	TNFi	RTX dominant	ϵ , 2013	0.80	425.13	RTX dominant
Manders ^c (35)	ABA	TNFi	29,998	ϵ , 2013	0.80	425.13	\$8351
Merkesdad ^c (36)	RTX	ADA	15,565	ϵ , 2008	0.82	364.07	\$24,770
Merkesdal ^e (36)	RTX	ADA	24,517	ϵ , 2008	0.82	364.07	\$39,017

Table 1.4. Incremental cost-effectiveness ratios (ICERs). "Final ICER" is reported in 2017 US dollars.

Assessment of uncertainty

Methodological uncertainty, which pertains to the appropriateness of analytic decisions, was addressed by six (33, 34, 36-39) studies; the most common items (3 of 6 studies) addressed were the HAQ-DI-to-QoL equation, rebound effect, allowing negative

QoL (states worse than death), and discount rate (adjustment for differential timing of events). Structural uncertainty, which pertains to the theory and assumptions underlying the model, was addressed by changing rituximab scheduling (33, 34, 37, 39) and drug dosage (36) assumptions. One study (34) addressed heterogeneity (first-order uncertainty), which accounts for variability among individuals, by running the model separately for different populations. Six models (33, 34, 36-39) included sensitivity analyses to assess parameter (second-order) uncertainty, which focuses on the imprecision of data inputs: six performed one-way sensitivity analyses, including one (38) that also performed a two-way analysis, and half (33, 34, 36, 37) performed probabilistic sensitivity analysis. One study included a 2 dimensional simulation that combined first- and second-order uncertainty (33). The rituximab dosing schedule (repeated treatments being given every 4-9 months) significantly affected results in five of the six studies evaluating the drug. Other influential parameters were assumptions regarding HAQ-DI, such as progression, rebound effects, and the conversion-to-preference weights.

Validation

Internal and external consistency are important in determining model validity (42). Only one study (34) demonstrated the internal validity of the model by verifying its mathematical logic. No studies established the external validity of their models; no model was calibrated against independent data or tested for predictive validity. All model results did appear valid given the data presented (face validity), and five studies (34, 36-39) reported that their results were consistent with previous models (cross-validity).

DISCUSSION

This systematic review included seven studies that made 19 comparisons between TNFi and agents with other mechanisms of action. Adherence to the CHEERS reporting standard among these studies was moderate, with clear, detailed explanation of modeling choices, methodology, and data sources being suboptimal. Despite the substantial uncertainty inherent in assumptions about disease progression under different treatment options, the included publications agreed that swapping to a non-TNFi targeted agent is a cost-effective alternative to cycling to another TNFi at the \$100,000/QALY threshold.

This consensus can, at least partly, be attributed to the largely homogenous structure and efficacy parameters of the included models. The efficacy estimates, while expressed differently, were derived from the same set of randomized clinical trials (Appendix F). However, studies did not take into account safety data as most models are based on results from individual trials comparing an experimental drug to a csDMARD and not on metaanalyses and as such, there is a paucity of data comparing safety differences among the different treatments. The validity of the efficacy parameters would be enhanced had it been possible to base them on meta-analyses rather than on single trials.

Drug's relative ranking per study did differ. While this may reflect price differences across time and countries it may also indicate sponsorship bias (43, 44). More problematic are the large discrepancies and lack of transparency in both the reporting and the inclusion of other cost components which further impedes understanding of differences in results. This opacity around cost estimates and the preponderance of studies funded by one

pharmaceutical company leads to concerns regarding bias: in general assessments performed by independent organizations have been found to result in less favorable ICERs than those funded by pharmaceutical companies (45).

The choice of comparator may be another source of bias: 11 of the 19 comparisons evaluated rituximab versus TNFi which is interesting given that, at least in the United States, 70% of patients who swap to an agent with other mechanisms of action switch to abatacept (19). Furthermore, although golimumab and certolizumab pegol have been on the market since 2009, only the latter was analyzed as an alternative to agents with other mechanisms of action (46); however, new non-TNFi drugs, tocilizumab (model excluded because the patients were TNFi-naïve at entry to model (47)) and tofacitinib, have been explicitly considered. A recent analysis reported non-biologic triple therapy (methotrexate, sulfasalazine, and hydroxychloroquine) to be cost-effective in comparison to etanercept when used as first line therapy (48). However, no publications have reported on this approach in patients who have already failed biologic therapy.

Whereas previous systematic reviews (21, 34, 49, 50) have looked at treatment options after the failure of the initial TNFi, the current study is the first to specifically compare the cycling and swapping strategies and the only one to comprehensively assess reporting quality and to investigate modeling differences. Our study was, however, limited by the inherent heterogeneity of the economic evaluations and the need to include only those that could be comparable. Furthermore, while we recognize that it is not always possible to present model details in full, we could only compare information explicitly reported in the

papers this may have resulted in more negative quality assessments than the actual models warrant. Also, only one study from US met our eligibility criteria, therefore, the cost per QALY range reported may not entirely reflect US populations-based cost-utility studies.

Future research should determine the treatment sequences used in real-world clinical practice and the length of time patients continue taking each agent. More detailed analysis of the associated nondrug costs would be helpful, as would guidelines regarding the cost components to be included and standardization of efficacy estimate adjustments. Much of the uncertainty in the models could be attributed to a lack of knowledge regarding how commonly used disease activity, disability, and QoL measures change over time, in reaction to new treatment, and with disease progression as well as how these measures should be converted to utilities. Lastly, as noted, adverse events, a major issue of concern, had not been adequately assessed in the majority of these models owing to a lack of evidence on long-term safety. This is yet another fruitful area for investigation.

CONCLUSION

Despite the findings showing that swapping to non-TNFi targeted agents is cost-effective at the \$100,000/QALY threshold, our study highlights the need for further studies evaluating cost-effectiveness with swapping choices other than rituximab or intravenous abatacept that better reflect current clinical practices, of longer-term studies on the progression of RA, of RA costs over time and for greater standardization and transparency in the reporting of economic evaluation studies.

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JOURNAL ARTICLE 2

Real-world treatment sequences, effectiveness and costs of tumor necrosis factor alpha inhibitor (TNFi) cycling versus swapping to a disease-modifying anti-rheumatic drug with a new mechanism of action among rheumatoid arthritis patients who have failed their first TNFi

Arthritis Care and Research

ABSTRACT

Objective: Use a large, commercial administrative claims database, Truven Health MarketScan®, to evaluate sequences of therapeutic drugs used by rheumatoid arthritis (RA) patients who failed their initial tumor necrosis factor inhibitor (TNFi) therapy, mean time until therapy discontinuation and the costs associated with TNFi versus non-TNFi drugs. **Methods**: Using the Truven Health MarketScan® Research database we analyzed claims of adult RA patients who switched to their second biological or targeted DMARD (diseasemodifying antirheumatic drug) between January 2008 and December 2015. We determined the most common treatment sequences and used survival analysis techniques to **estimate time to therapy discontinuation. We compared costs between adherent and nonadherent patients considering drug and other healthcare costs.**

Results: Of the 10,442 RA patients identified to have failed TNFi, 36.4% swapped to a non-TNFi, of which, a majority (66.8%) switched to abatacept. The remaining 63.5% switched to a cycling regimen (second TNFi), a plurality of whom received adalimumab (41.1%). For subsequent lines, non-TNFi was more frequent. Patients who swapped were significantly (p < 0.001) older and sicker than those who cycled. Survival analysis showed longer time to discontinuation for second line non-TNFi versus TNFi (median: 471 versus 370 days, p < 0.001) but no difference in subsequent lines.

While non-TNFi drugs were less expensive for adherent patients, cycling was associated with lower costs overall.

Conclusion: Our study reinforces previous work which found that, while patients are more likely to cycle to a second TNFi, those who swap to a non-TNFi, are more likely to persist on second line treatment. However, cycling appears to be the less expensive strategy overall.

MeSH terms: arthritis, rheumatoid/drug therapy; treatment failure; biological products/therapeutic use

INTRODUCTION

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is a chronic inflammatory disease of the joints affecting 0.4-1.3% of the United States population (1). Total annual societal costs of the disease are approximately \$39.2 billion (2) and are rising faster than medical inflation (3). Compared to the general population, RA is associated with increased all-cause mortality and greater morbidity. Currently, there is no curative treatment and, as such, therapy to control symptoms is usually required for life.

The discovery of tumor necrosis factor alpha inhibitors (TNFi) and other biological and targeted synthetic therapies brought new hope to RA patients. More people respond to these drugs, and the response is superior to that attained by conventional synthetic disease modifying anti-rheumatic drugs (csDMARDs). However, biologic and targeted therapies are associated with increased side effects and can cost over \$20,000 per year (4).

Over the course of their lifetime, most patients are required to switch medication several times due to the side effects of the drug or lack or loss of efficacy in managing symptoms. A systematic review of studies of TNFi discontinuation rates, based on registry and administrative databases, calculated a mean discontinuation rate of 27% (range 23-32%) after one year and increasing to 52% (46-57%) after five years (5).

There are two basic approaches for TNFi failure: cycling (switching to another TNFi: adalimumab, certolizumab, etanercept, infliximab, golimumab) or swapping (to a drug with another mechanism of action: abatacept, anakinra, rituximab, tocilizumab, tofacitinib) but neither strategy conclusively affects the cost-effectiveness of the second-line drug. As new drugs are showing efficacy and being approved (sarilumab and baracitinib were approved in

2017 and 2018 respectively. Filgotinib, upadacitinib, perficitinib, olokizumab are among those in Phase III trials) there is increased controversy regarding the most effective regimen. There is also much concern over the rising price of these drugs: wholesale acquisition costs for etanercept, adalimumab and tofacitinib increased 80.3%, 68.6% and 44.3% respectively between 2013 and 2016 (6). It is increasingly important to address the issue of value and arrive at a consensus regarding the most cost-effective second-line therapeutic option.

Time to discontinuation of treatment, calculated from administrative data sets have become an acceptable proxy for effectiveness in the absence of randomized clinical trials (7, 8). Many studies have calculated survival times and cost of various treatment strategies based on utilization date but they have been limited in terms of length of follow-up (9-12) and sample size (10, 13-15). Only one study was found that investigated all ten drugs approved by the FDA as of 2017 (13).

Furthermore, existing studies have used a limited lead time which makes it difficult to differentiate between second and subsequent line therapies, instead categorizing treatment as first or non-first line (9, 12, 14, 15).

The objectives of this study were to describe sequences of use of treatment strategies, time to drug discontinuation, drug and other healthcare costs for adult patients with RA who have failed initial TNFi therapy.

METHODS

Data source

This retrospective observational cohort study utilized **individual-level, de-identified, fully adjudicated healthcare claims information from employers and health plans** collected from 1998-2016 in t**he Truven Health Marketscan®** Commercial Claims & Encounters **database. The Marketscan claims databases are fully compliant with the health insurance portability and accountability act of 1996 (HIPPS) (16) hence an institutional waiver from IRB approval was granted.**

Study cohort

We used a validated claims-based algorithm (17-20) to identify adult enrollees (age \geq 18) with RA, using at least two claims, greater than two months apart, with RA diagnosis codes (ICD-9-CM: 714.x; ICD-10- CM: M05.x, M06.x) (Appendix G) who received their first TNFi between January 1, 2008 and December 31, 2015.

All patients were required to have at least one year of continuous enrolment prior to the first claim for a TNFi and at least one year after initiation of the second drug. The index date was the first claim for a TNFi. Because of left censoring, we cannot account for possible biologic use prior to inclusion in the MarketScan database.

Of this initial cohort, we included only those who subsequently switched to a new drug of interest between January 1st 2008 and December 31st 2015 (Appendix H) . This timeframe was chosen to maximize sample size while mitigating the bias caused by not all ten drugs of interest being available on the market (certolizumab, and golimumab were

approved in 2009 while subcutaneous (SC) abatacept was approved in July 2011 and tofacitinib in November 2012).

We excluded patients with overlapping episodes of targeted drugs (defined as more than one drug within the effective period for that drug) as both American and European guidelines explicitly discourage this concomitant dual therapy (21, 22). Furthermore, we excluded ra patients who, at any time, had at least 2 claims, 60 days apart for non-ra indications of biologic drugs (ankylosing spondylitis, chronic lymphocytic leukemia , non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, Crohn's disease, juvenile idiopathic arthritis, multiple sclerosis, polyarteris nodosa, psoriasis, psoriatic arthritis, spondyloarthropathy, systemic lupus erythematosus, ulcerative colitis, Wegener's granulomatosis) as well as those with severe comorbidities involving immune-suppression such as HIV, organ transplant and malignancies (Appendix I).

Lastly, we deleted claims with a zero or negative allowed amount. If a patient's index claim was deleted, we removed the patient from analysis.

Study measures

The primary study outcome was time to discontinuation for TNFi (cyclers) versus non-TNFi (swappers) after failure of the first TNFi. Secondary outcomes were time to discontinuation of third through sixth treatment lines, the determination of common treatment sequences after tnfi-failure, drug and all-cause healthcare costs associated with each therapy for all versus adherent and non-adherent patients.

Baseline characteristics

We assessed patient age, gender, year of index TNFi, geographic region, plan type and mean follow-up time. We calculated the Deyo-Charlson comorbidity index (23), from claims in the six months prior to index. Rheumatologic diseases were not counted towards the index.

Sequences

We determined the frequency of patients using different drug sequences to establish the most commonly used treatment patterns after TNFi failure.

Treatment persistence

We compared time to discontinuation between TNFi and non-TNFi drugs. This was calculated as the number of days from initiation to drug switching or discontinuation. Switch date was the date of a new biologic minus one day.

A patient was considered to have discontinued treatment if there was greater than 180-day gap in treatment. We defined the discontinuation date as the last claim date plus days' supply. For claims with a procedure code from the Healthcare Common Procedure Coding System (HCPCS), days' supply was imputed as the dosing interval for intravenous (IV) administration as stated in the product insert. For drugs administered subcutaneously (SC) only, the SC dosing interval was used. For claims using a National Drug Code (NDC), the "DAYSUPP" field was used to determine days' supply. In cases where DAYSUPP was zero or one day, we imputed days' supply as the recommended dosing interval. In cases where the dosing interval was variable, the smallest interval was used.

Previous studies (24-36) used gaps of 30-90 days to determine drug discontinuation but this precludes the possibility of patients stopping treatment due to remission (37) or side effects and restarting after a flare or the side effect has resolved. Many studies reported patients restarting TNFi after 140-207 days (38-40). **We chose 180 days based on our preliminary results showing that more than 25% of patients had gaps longer than 90 days.**

Costs

We calculated two categories of costs comparing adherent and non-adherent patients who cycled versus switched after TNFi failure**:** 1) Direct drug-related costs comprised drug acquisition costs for the drugs of interest; 2) other healthcare costs consisted of all other claims. Adherent patients were those with a medication possession ratio (MPR) of over 80%. For oral and subcutaneous drugs MPR was calculated as the total number of days' supply within the six-month period, divided by 183 days. For intravenous drugs, which do not have days' supply variable, we followed Popp et al and defined adherence as receiving at least 80% of the expected doses, based on the dosing schedules for these drugs (see Appendix 5.) (41). Net payments as reported by the carrier were the primary source for calculating the costs.

Statistical Analysis

We stratified the cohort based on mechanism of action of the second targeted drug (cycling versus swapping) and evaluated unadjusted associations with covariates using t-tests and the Wilcoxon rank-sum test (for non-normally distributed variables) for continuous

measures and the Pearson X^2 test for categorical measures. All calculations were based on two-tailed significance level set at 0.05.

Covariates that differed significantly between cyclers and swappers were entered in a Cox Proportional Hazards model as detailed below.

Survival analysis

Differences between cyclers and swappers in time to discontinuation were compared using the non-parametric Kaplan Meier method. When the difference was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) we ran a Cox Proportional Hazards model to determine to what extent covariates affect time to discontinuation.

Patients were censored if they were continuously treated with the second (or subsequent) drug. Where we were unable to ascertain discontinuation, patients were censored at the end of the study period or disenrollment.

Because rituximab is given every six to nine months, results may be biased in favor of non-TNFi's, hence the models were run both with and without rituximab.

Cost per treated patient per six months

Six-month healthcare costs were calculated for the first and second 180-day postindex period by aggregating payment for individual claims for each of the second line targeted drugs and dividing by the number of patients receiving each drug for the full period. We calculated these costs for all patients as well as subgroups of adherent and non-adherent patients.

All data analysis was conducted using SAS ® Enterprise Guide, Version 7.15. (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

RESULTS

Baseline characteristics

A total of 10,442 patients with a mean follow-up time of almost three years (1,059 days, $SD = 583.1$) met the study criteria (Figure 1). Of these, 6,626 (63.46%) people cycled to a new TNFi while 3,816 (36.54%) swapped to a drug with a different mechanism of action. Patients who swapped to non-TNFi drugs were significantly older (53.4 years, versus 51.1, $p < 0.001$) and had higher Deyo-Charlson scores (8.44% with two or more comorbidities, versus 4.63% , $p < 0.001$) than those who cycled. Their mean follow-up time was shorter than patients who cycled $(1,023.4 \text{ days}$ versus $1,079.9, p < 0.001)$. There were also significant differences in start year of first TNFi, region and plan type (Table 1.) but none in terms of gender.

Figure 2.1: Patient selection flowchart

Table 2.1: Demographic characteristics

Sequences

Etanercept (n=4551, 43.6%) and adalimumab (n=3305, 31.6%) accounted for 75.2% of first-line drugs. Sixty-three percent of patients cycled to a second TNFi (Figure 2), with a plurality switching to adalimumab (41.2%) followed by etanercept (24.3%) (Figure 3). Slightly more than half of cyclers (52.9%) subsequently switched to a third-line drug, the most common being abatacept (30.1%) and etanercept (14.2%).

More than half of swappers (54.2%) switched to abatacept and under half (46.3%) went on to a third-line drug, of which 18.5% switched to tocilizumab and 11.8-14.3% switched to etanercept, tofacitinib or adalimumab. Overall, while TNFi were most often prescribed as second line treatment for RA patients who had failed their initial TNFi, non-TNFi drugs were most common in subsequent lines for both cyclers and swappers (Tables 2 & 3) In all treatment lines approximately 25% of both cyclers and swappers who discontinued treatment did not switch to a new biological or targeted DMARD.

Figure 2.2: Most common sequences by drug class

Figure 2.3: Most common sequences by drug

	Third line TNFi											
	adalimumab		certolizumab		etanercept		golimumab		infliximab		TOTAL	
Second line	N	$\frac{0}{0}$	N	$\frac{0}{0}$	N	$\frac{0}{0}$	N	$\frac{0}{0}$	N	$\frac{0}{0}$	N	$\frac{0}{0}$
TNFi	303	6.5%	242	5.2%	499	10.7%	251	5.4%	240	5.2%	1,535	14.7%
adalimumab	$\overline{}$	-	120	6.3%	310	16.3%	107	5.6%	109	5.7%	646	6.2%
certolizumab	59	11.9%	$\overline{}$		64	12.9%	29	5.8%	18	3.6%	170	1.6%
etanercept	139	12.0%	71	6.1%	$\overline{2}$	0.2%	81	7.0%	66	5.7%	359	3.4%
golimumab	62	9.8%	40	6.3%	95	15.0%	$\overline{}$		37	5.8%	234	2.2%
infliximab	43	9.2%	11	2.4%	28	6.0%	34	7.3%	10	2.1%	$126*$	1.2%
non-TNFi	209	24.1%	105	12.1%	253	29.1%	111	12.8%	191	22.0%	869	8.3%
abatacept	110	23.5%	74	15.8%	119	25.4%	66	14.1%	99	21.2%	468	4.5%
anakinra	$\overline{2}$	40.0%	1	20.0%	1	20.0%	1	20.0%	$\overline{}$		5	0.0%
rituximab	28	26.9%	11	10.6%	30	28.8%	10	9.6%	25	24.0%	104	1.0%
tocilizumab	22	18.0%	9	7.4%	33	27.0%	20	16.4%	38	31.1%	122	1.2%
tofacitinib	47	27.6%	10	5.9%	70	41.2%	14	8.2%	29	17.1%	170	1.6%
TOTAL	512	21.3%	347	14.4%	752	31.3%	362	15.1%	431	17.9%	2,404	23.0%

Table 2.2: Second to third line transitions

* Ten infliximab patients restarted infliximab after >180 days

* Two tofacitinib patients restarted tofacitinib after >180 days

TNFi											
LINE	adalimumab		certolizumab		etanercept		golimumab		infliximab		TOTAL
2	2,729	41.1%	740	11.2%	1,612	24.3%	852	12.8%	702	10.6%	6,635
3	512	21.3%	347	14.4%	752	31.3%	362	15.1%	431	17.9%	2,404
4	186	23.3%	129	16.1%	180	22.5%	167	20.9%	137	17.1%	799
5	45	16.8%	62	23.1%	53	19.8%	61	22.8%	47	17.5%	268
6	15	15.3%	22	22.4%	19	19.4%	27	27.6%	15	15.3%	98
7	6	15.8%	7	18.4%	7	18.4%	8	21.1%	10	26.3%	38
8	۰			16.7%		$\overline{}$	3	50.0%	2	33.3%	6
9		33.3%		33.3%		$\overline{}$		33.3%			3

Table 2.3: Drug frequency by treatment line

Looking across treatment lines we found a significant $(p < 0.0001)$ trend to shorter time to discontinuation for lines two through five (Appendix K). There was no difference for lines five and six.

	$2nd$ line	3rd line	4 th line	5 th line	$6th$ line	
	$n = 10,442$	$n = 5,276$	$n = 2,186$	$n = 756$	$n = 281$	
	Median	Median	Median	Median	Median	
	(IQR)		(IQR)	(IQR)	(IQR)	
ALL	399 (149-760)	313 (147-644)	252 (112 - 539)	200 (93-405)	194 (112-389)	
	p (compared to previous line)	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	NS	
	370 (133-1,175)	504 (166-	402 (144-1,235)	304 (118-653)	379 (139-	
TNFi		1,374)			1,150)	
	331 (120-1,007)	439 (151-	392 (123-1,122)	238 (92-820)	$n/a (847-n/a)$	
adalimumab		1,157)				
certolizumab	339 (128-1,003)	273 (104-813)	237 (83-1,000)	232 (59-507)	210 (139-798)	
	398 (124-1,343)	722 (223-	447 (189-1,015)	353 (175-552)	189 $(90-n/a)$	
etanercept		1,649				
	394 (149-1,263)	461 (183-	419 (189-1,926)	265 (147-942)	308 (168-	
golimumab		1,027			1,150)	
	542 (214-1,509)	619 (200-	550 $(178 - n/a)$	$417 (248 - n/a)$	553 (130-759)	
infliximab		2,011)				
	471 (180-1,321)	441 (186-	426 (173-1,217)	339 (156-979)	397 (156-	
non-TNFi		1,438)			1,013)	
	457 (178-1,316)	393 (175-	377 (160-885)	244 (153-634)	$244 (155-n/a)$	
abatacept		1,415)				
anakinra	87 (44-799)	88 (54-162)	84 (84-181)	$111(71-158)$	n/a	
	634 (195-1,776)	768 (201-	$1,157(341-2,051)$	1,102 (366-	830 (683-	
rituximab		2,306		n/a)	1,237)	
	493 (169-1,384)	466 (171-	384 (145-1,1254)	$287(137 - n/a)$	260 (84-951)	
tocilizumab		1,408)				
	391 (83-1,049)	431 (125-	339 (102-1,116)	333 (111-901)	352 (116-985)	
tofacitinib		1,132)				

Table 2.4: Median time to discontinuation (in days) for drugs

Survival analysis

Following Peduzzi et al (42), the minimum sample size for a cox proportional hazards regression is 10k/p where k is the number of predictor variables and p is the proportion of positive cases (failure events) in the population. A further suggestion is that this number be at least 100 (43). We included five predictor models and there were 7,580/10,442, 3,108/5,230, 1,229/2,234, 425/767 and 137/282 failure events for the second through sixth line analyses respectively, hence models could be run for all of them.

The resulting formula for the Cox model for estimating the hazard ratio for discontinuation can be presented as follows:

h(t) = H₀(t)*exp(β *drug group + β *age + β *age² + β *TNF_start_year + β *region + β*deyo)

where $H₀(t)$ represents the baseline hazard, the failure rate when all covariates are set to zero.

The median time to discontinuation for second line TNFi was significantly lower (p<0.0001) than that for second line non-TNFi: 370 days (Interquartile range (IQR): 133- 1,1175) versus 471 days (IQR: 180-1,321). The Cox model corroborated this. Furthermore, patients with more than two comorbidities were less likely to continue taking their second line drug while older patients were more likely. Thirteen patients did not have verified discontinuation dates and were assumed to be censored.

Figure 2.4: Kaplan Meier survival curve for cycling vs swapping

Table 2.5: Cox PH analysis of predictors for second line drug discontinuation

There was no significant difference in time to discontinuation for third-, fourth- or sixth-line drug classes. Fifth line non-TNFi (n=495) did have a significantly longer time to discontinuation in the Kaplan Meier model (median 339 days, 95% IQR: 156-979) than TNFi (n=272, median 304 days, 95% IQR: 118-653) but this disappeared when taking covariates into account in the multivariate model.

We conducted a sensitivity analysis by removing the 367 patients who received rituximab. The results changed conclusions for the third line non-parametric analysis, making time to discontinuation significantly longer for patients on third line TNFi. This difference disappeared in the Cox model and seems to be largely accounted for by age and year of first TNFi (See Appendix L. for full results). Conclusions were unchanged for other treatment lines.

For specific second line drugs, the longest-lasting was etanercept among TNFi (mean $=$ 398 days, IQR: 124-1,343) and rituximab among the non-TNFi (mean $=$ 634 days, IQR: 195-1,176). When comparing the most common second line drugs, median time to discontinuation was significantly longer for abatacept (457 days (IQR: 178-1,1316)) compared to adalimumab (331 days (IQR 120-1,007).

Among the most prescribed third line drugs, etanercept (n=752) had a significantly longer median time to discontinuation (722 days (IQR: 223-1,649) than abatacept (n=1213) (393 days (IQR: 175-1,415).

Cost per treated patient

Mean costs across most categories were significantly lower for patients who cycled to a second TNFi. Among patients with a medication possession ratio of at least 80%, mean drug costs were lower for non-TNFi swappers, both for the first six months (not statistically significant) and the second six-month period ($p < 0.001$): \$16,128 (SD \$6,742) and \$15,645 (SD \$8.213) for TNFi versus \$16,046 (SD \$7,129) and \$14,454 (SD \$6324) for non-TNFi. Other costs tended to be significantly lower for adherent cyclers (for full details see Appendices M $\&$ N.) This trend was replicated when looking at the most common secondline-drugs: adalimumab (TNFi) and abatacept (non-TNFi) and could not be accounted for by the higher number of comorbidities among swappers (see Appendix O).

Table 2.6: Mean cost differences between cyclers and swappers

 $* NS = not significant$

Table 2.7: Mean cost differences between adalimumab and abatacept

 $*$ NS = not significant

When looking at all ten drugs there were stark differences among adherent and nonadherent patients with tocilizumab and golimumab being the least costly for adherent patients but the costliest for non-adherent patients in the first 6 months. A somewhat more ambiguous pattern was seen when looking at the second six-months and at annual costs, with adalimumab being the costliest for adherent patients (Appendix 9.).

DISCUSSION

This claims-based retrospective analysis assessed treatment sequences, time to discontinuation and costs for 10,442 patients for up to eight years. Our initial results

corroborate those of previous authors who found non-TNFi to be associated with higher persistence despite being prescribed less (9, 11, 13-15, 44). We found one other report of high overall discontinuation rates for biologicals (44). Similarly, while we reported lower drug costs for adherent swappers, like other studies (11, 12, 14, 15), we found that other categories of cost favored TNFi cycling. Despite other studies reporting improved adherence among swappers (9, 14) we found similar adherence between cyclers and swappers.

Patients who began their first TNFi in later calendar years, when there was a greater variety of choices, had shorter times until discontinuation. Prescribing patterns and access issues may explain why patients in the Western and Southern part of the United States were also more likely to discontinue treatment earlier.

The advantages of this study include a larger sample as well as an extended follow-up time and inclusion of all ten targeted DMARDs available on the market at the end of the study period. The most significant strength is the clear identification of second-line versus non-first-line or continuing treatment. Previous publications that made this differentiation were limited by other factors such as reliance on self-report (45) small sample size $(n<201)$ (46), follow-up of less than three years (38, 47) or few drugs (47, 48).

As with any data source, MarketScan claims data have limitations. Some have to do with the nature of claims data and others with the nature of the MarketScan sample population. The usefulness of all administrative data sets is constrained in that their purpose is to support reimbursement and not to serve as a research tool; as such there is no

information regarding baseline disease activity, disease severity or response to treatment. The lack of clinical and demographic information precludes propensity score matching which could theoretically compensate for channeling bias whereby specific groups of patients may be more likely to receive (or not receive) certain drugs than others such that results are incorrectly attributed to the drug instead of unmeasured characteristics of the patients. While multivariate modeling does control for some patient characteristics, the nonrandomized allocation of the study groups and baseline heterogeneity introduces bias and confounding. Our study was limited by the number of covariates analyzed compared to similar studies, such as concurrent and pre-index use of csDMARDs, pre-index costs and a greater number of treatment effectiveness criteria.

Accuracy is also a concern in that the diagnosis and procedure codes that do exist may be subject to up-coding, miscoding or may simply be missing if they are not reimbursable. In that vein, Fisher et al (49) report errors in recording days' supply – this supports using a more conservative (shortest possible) cut-off to determine failure.

Regarding MarketScan specifically, because it underrepresents medium and small firms in favor of large employers, the sample is not random, possibly leading to biases and impaired generalizability.

The sample may undercount the newer drugs as claims for newly licensed medications use a non-specific HCPCS code (e.g., J3490 and J3590) until a unique HCPCS code specific to each drug is assigned – this can take up to two years. Because physicians tend to prescribe more familiar drugs first, we believe that this is unlikely to impact results significantly.

Lastly, while time to drug discontinuation is commonly used as a surrogate marker for efficacy, there are other factors that influence retention rates, such as cost (in terms of absolute cost and also patient co-payments), insurance coverage, access to alternative treatments and patient/provider preferences (50). Studies have shown a lowering of the threshold of disease activity before switch over time (50) and a trend of decreasing time to switch (5, 35, 45), specifically, an increasing rate of discontinuations due to inefficacy with no concomitant change in discontinuation rate due to adverse events (51), supporting the contention that the availability of more choices leads to increased switch rates.

Areas for future research include expanding the covariates used in the analysis while preserving the long-follow-up time and analyzing clinical databases which will allow for better matching of patients using more pertinent characteristics such as sero-marker status. Another avenue for study is to determine how, if at all, reasons for switching, affect time to discontinuation of subsequent lines of treatment. Additional data analysis is required first, to corroborate our finding regarding discontinuation of biological and targeted treatment altogether and, secondly, to determine what alternative treatments patients are prescribed. We would also like to further examine reasons for differences in costs between the treatment options.

CONCLUSION

The retrospective claims-based analysis of commercially insured patients adds to the knowledge base by demonstrating how RA patients change treatment over an extended period of time with TNFi being the treatment of choice for second-line treatment while non-

TNFi's are preferred after that. We showed that patients who swap to a drug with a different mechanism of action have longer times to discontinuation compared to those who cycle to a second TNFi. No differences were found for subsequent treatment lines. We report a tendency to lower costs for cycling with the exception of drug costs for adherent patients which were lower for swappers. Our analysis substantiates previous studies that support the use of non-TNFi biological DMARDS for patients who have failed their first TNFi. Patientspecific clinical factors, not available in administrative databases, are needed for more unequivocal evidence.

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JOURNAL ARTICLE 3

Failed initial tumor necrosis inhibitor (TNFi) therapy – what next? Cost-utility analysis of cycling versus swapping to a disease-modifying anti-rheumatic drug with a new mechanism of action among rheumatoid arthritis patients who have failed their first

TNFi

Annals of Rheumatologic Disease

ABSTRACT

Objective: To analyze sequences of therapeutic drugs used by rheumatoid arthritis (RA) patients who failed their initial tumor necrosis factor inhibitor (TNFi) therapy in terms of cost-utility, using a microsimulation model following best practice guidelines with parameter inputs based on real-world data.

Methods: We simulated 10,000 RA patients beginning second line biological treatment with adalimumab or abatacept and followed them for up to ten years. In each strategy, patients could either respond or fail to respond to therapy. Those not responding switched to the next drug in a sequence of three. Costs and utilities were assigned based on patients' changing disability status over time. Demographics, treatment sequences, direct medical costs and transition probabilities derived from a cohort of RA patients in the Truven Health MarketScan® Research database were entered into a Markov model using TreeAge Pro 2019.

Results: Switching to a sequence that begins with abatacept versus adalimumab results in an incremental discounted cost of just over \$8,000 over ten years and achieves a discounted QALY benefit of 0.14. The incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER) of \$61,245/QALY is within current willingness to pay thresholds (WTP). Scenario analysis produced an ICER range of \$40,659/QALY to \$129,587/QALY. Probabilistic sensitivity analysis results showed that swapping to abatacept after TNFi failure has a 80.6% likelihood of being cost-efficient at a WTP of \$100,000/QALY.

Conclusion: Swapping to a treatment sequence beginning with the non-TNFi abatacept was estimated to be a cost-effective strategy for RA patients who have failed their first TNFi therapy.

MeSH terms: cost-utility analysis, arthritis, rheumatoid/drug therapy; treatment failure; biological products/therapeutic use

INTRODUCTION

The promise of rheumatoid arthritis (RA) remission, first seen as a possibility two decades ago when etanercept was approved, has not quite been realized. While many patients do respond and sustain a response to their initial TNFi, many do not (1-4). As of March 2019, there are ten biological and two targeted synthetic disease modifying anti-rheumatic drugs (bDMARDs and tsDMARDs respectively) competing to be a second line agent, all proven efficacious in randomized clinical trials compared to placebo or conventional synthetic disease modifying anti-rheumatic drugs (csDMARDs) and all expensive. In the absence of, and extreme difficulty in designing, head-to-head randomized controlled trials of complicated treatment sequences, decision analytic models are able to synthesize and extrapolate from the available data. To-date few cost-effectiveness models have considered options after failure of initial TNF-inhibitor. The 30% of patients (1) experiencing this scenario is faced with an expanding range of choices which greatly complicates clinical decision making. There are two basic approaches for TNFi failure: cycling (switching to another TNFi: adalimumab, certolizumab, etanercept, infliximab, golimumab) or swapping (to a drug with another mechanism of action: abatacept, anakinra, baracitinib, sarilumab, rituximab, tocilizumab, tofacitinib) but neither strategy conclusively affects the costeffectiveness of the second-line drug.

The uncertainty of treatment success, coupled with risk and high expense make these therapies an important target for economic evaluations. These can help fill knowledge gaps regarding population-level effects of the alternative therapies, providing a framework for the comparison of competing interventions thereby assisting decision makers to determine which best serves their needs.

This study aims to provide such a tool by applying best practices to evaluate realworld practice in terms of incremental cost per quality adjusted life year (QALY) of alternative treatments for adult RA patients in the United States who have failed their first TNFi.

METHODS

Philips et al's (5) guidelines for good practice in decision-analytic modeling were followed, with model structure based on best practices as set out in the reference case recommendations made by the U.S. Panels on Cost Effectiveness in Health and Medicine (6, 7). Both of these are, by design, broad and as such, RA-specific methodology will follow Modelling and the Outcome Measures in Rheumatology Clinical Trials (OMERACT) consensus-based reference case for rheumatoid arthritis (8, 9) with input from a systematic review of the rheumatoid arthritis cost-effectiveness literature (10).

Model description and structure

A probabilistic cost-utility microsimulation Markov (state-transition) model was developed in TreeAge Software (TreeAge Software Inc, Williamstown, Mass.). Microsimulation, as opposed to cohort models, allows for the incorporation of heterogeneity and the tracking of events. Markov models are particularly suited to chronic diseases as they allow the mapping of long periods of time while taking into consideration disease progression and varying probabilities. Patients transition between mutually exclusive health states representing clinically and economically distinct events in the disease course. The state transition diagram (Figure 1) shows the transitions among health states with the arrows on the arc representing the direction of the possible movements. These transitions can occur once per 'Markov cycle'. Figure 2 demonstrates the full Markov model. In keeping with most literature on the subject, cycles were six months long. The first cycle of new treatment is associated with higher cost due to loading doses of the drugs. It is also potentially associated with the highest utility. Under these circumstances we chose not to implement a half-cycle correction which would entail eliminating half of the upfront cost and utility of a new treatment.

Treatment sequences and model input parameters were determined from an analysis of 10,442 patients derived from the Truven Health MarketScan® Commercial Claims & Encounters Databases. The model begins after failure of the patients' first TNFi. Patients pass through sequences of up to three biological drugs after which they shift to palliative treatment.

The analysis was from the perspective of a U.S. private health care payer and, as such only included costs incurred by insurers. The model followed patients from initiation of the second bDMARD for ten years or until death. For the sensitivity analysis we used a lifetime perspective. Theorists prefer a lifetime perspective to reflect the chronic nature of the disease (5) but, for RA specifically, the OMERACT consensus conference cautions against extrapolating beyond available data (8).

Figure 3.1: State transition diagram

Figure 3.2: Model structure

Population and setting

The cohort consisted of 10,000 individuals, demographically similar to that seen in a large U.S. administrative claims data base in terms of age and gender, who have failed their initial TNFi therapy. Baseline HAQ-DI was derived from a computation of patients' age adjusted comorbidity index (CCIa) which has been shown to correlate with HAQ-DI (11-14). Each CCIa score was mapped to a corresponding HAQ-DI distribution (11) such that patients with the same CCIa could have a range of HAQ-DI scores. Scenario analyses were run
using HAQ values derived from the Birmingham Rheumatoid Arthritis Model (BRAM) (15) and ROC (16) and ATTAIN (17) clinical trials, all of which comprised patients who were refractory to at last one prior TNFi (Table 2).

Table 3.1: Baseline demographic characteristics of the model cohort

Demographical variables	Value	Source
Females (%)	79.9%	MarketScan
Age (mean \pm SD) years	52.03 (11.76)	MarketScan
HAQ-DI score (mean \pm SD)	1.46(0.29)	MarketScan

Treatment sequences

Both the U.S. Panels on Cost Effectiveness in Health and Medicine (6, 7) and the OMERACT consensus-based reference case for rheumatoid arthritis (8, 9) recommend modelling treatment sequences as this is more realistic, with the proviso that these sequences be based on actual practice.

The literature on patterns has mostly concentrated on TNFi's and even then, there is no consensus on the most common second line TNFi: adalimumab (18-21), etanercept (22- 24) or infliximab (25). This is likely due to several factors including methodology (selfreport versus registry or patient records), country of origin and its treatment guidelines, payment rules and population preferences, as well as availability of alternatives at the time the study was performed. Only one study (18) was found that examined non-TNFi drugs: Baser et al (18) examined data from 3,497 patients starting a second-line agent between 2004-2010 in the Truven Health MarketScan Commercial Claims and Encounters Database and the Medicare Supplemental and Coordination of Benefits database and report that abatacept was used 19% of the time, compared to adalimumab, etanercept and infliximab

(31%, 23% and 15% of patients, respectively) and over 70% of the time in those swapping to a non-TNFi. This is a particularly interesting finding given that most studies have concentrated on rituximab as a second line drug (10).

The comparators for this study consist of the most common sequence in each of the cycle and swap categories as ascertained by the analysis of administrative claims data.

- Strategy A: Cycle: adalimumab (ADA) > abatacept (ABA) > tocilizumab (TCZ)
- Strategy B: Swap: abatacept (ABA) > tocilizumab (TCZ) > rituximab (RTX)

We found that while most patients cycle to a second TNFi after initial TNFi failure, non-TNFi drugs predominate in subsequent treatment lines.

Patients who survive the full treatment sequence will continue with palliation. Given the paucity of evidence on the efficacy of csDMARDs following biological or targeted DMARDs, we have not specified what form palliation takes (26).

Health outcomes

Initial and continued treatment response (transition) probabilities were determined from the claims data on a six-monthly basis. They were calculated by dividing the number of patients still on treatment at the end of each six-month treatment by the total number of patients still being followed up in that period. Rates were assumed to be constant after four years.

Responding patients experienced a once-off improvement in disability (HAQ-DI reduction) followed by a disease progression until loss of efficacy (return to baseline HAQ-DI) at which point they switch to the next treatment in sequence.

The HAQ-DI is measured in most RA trials, it is assessed in clinical practice and has been shown to be a close approximation of patients' own evaluation of their health (27), having a fundamental relationship to utility, and a strong correlation with costs and mortality (28, 29)

The term 'utility' refers to cardinal values that represent the strength of an individual's preferences for specific outcomes under conditions of uncertainty. Health utilities specifically, are preferences for distinctive health states or treatments and they allow for the comprehensive measurement of health-related quality of life (30).

QALY's take into consideration both the duration of the effect and its utility. While the validity of QALYs is not uncontroversial it remains the most commonly used measure of health states that facilitates comparisons across diseases.

We converted HAQ-DI to utilities using the formula utilized by the Birmingham Rheumatoid Arthritis Model (BRAM) (15). Sensitivity analyses used 2 other formulas: Bansback (31) because is it the most commonly used and Carreño (32) because it gives much higher values than these and other commonly used formulas (Table 2).

Resource use

Cost parameters and their distributions were gleaned from the analysis of administrative claims data. Net payments as reported by the carrier were the primary source for the calculation. **We calculated two categories of costs**: 1) Direct drug-related costs comprised drug acquisition costs for the drugs of interest; 2) other healthcare costs consisted of all other claims. Each category was further subdivided into initial cycle versus subsequent cycles to account for loading doses and extra monitoring associated with starting a new treatment. Total costs for each cycle was the sum of drug and other healthcare costs. For palliation, costs were other healthcare costs only. These include costs for csDMARDs and symptomatic treatment.

Costs for the 33 individuals aged over 80 with two or more comorbidities (CCIa=6) were excluded from the base case analysis as they were more than double the next highest CCIa category and likely include end-of-life costs. This impact of this was checked in scenario analysis.

As with utilities, other health related costs were attributed to each individual based on their functional disability score in each cycle. This correlation has been demonstrated in the literature (33, 34).

Given the paucity of studies on productivity losses for the target population, the technical challenges of aggregating outcomes and the debate over methodology and social welfare, this economic evaluation will be from a health-system perspective and as such, will focus on direct medical costs (7, 8, 35).

Table 3.2: Health Assessment Questionnaire Parameters

Table 3.3: Transition probabilities

Relative risk of mortality due to RA

Standard US Life tables 2015 (36) * RA risk modifier (29)

Table 3.4: Drug cost parameters

Costs and outcomes were discounted at a rate of three percent per annum as recommended by Second Panel on Cost-Effectiveness in Health and Medicine (7).

Model Assumptions

Certain assumptions are required as modelers need to find a balance between accuracy, computability and comprehensibility. In the current analysis, like others (10), we assume that there is an immediate loss of treatment effect after discontinuation. This is based on the expectation that the withdrawal is due to loss of effect or adverse events, both of which imply loss of therapeutic effect. Furthermore, there is no information on differential returns to baseline between the competing agents.

Due to limited long-term data, and evidence demonstrating similar safety profiles between abatacept and adalimumab (37) the costs and disutilities of adverse events have not been explicitly included in the model. There is also little consensus and standardization within clinical trials and observational studies on how, or even which, adverse events should be reported. Our analysis captured them in the calculation of overall healthcare costs and discontinuation probabilities (38).

Analysis

TreeAge's microsimulation sums the utilities and costs of individual patients (trials) taking a random walk through the model's chance nodes. It uses a Monte Carol pseudorandom series to generate a new state configuration from the current one. A key assumption of Markov models is that this is a memory-less system: the new configuration does not depend on any history prior to the current cycle. This is circumvented somewhat by the use of trackers which count how many new treatments patients have been on and how many cycles they have been in the 'Respond' state. Drug costs differ per treatment, and transition probabilities depend on treatment as well as number of cycles. For the first eight cycles in the 'Respond' state, the Markov chain can thus be said to be non-stationary. Subsequently, the transition probabilities are constant and the chain can be considered stationary although the probability of dying increases over time, with increasing patient age.

Two-dimensional simulation was used to account for both first-order i.e. variability among individuals (trials) and second-order uncertainty i.e. parameter uncertainty (sampling),

Pairwise comparisons were made between treatment sequences and the model outcome will be expressed in terms of the incremental cost effectiveness ratio (ICER), i.e. the marginal cost per Quality Adjusted Life Year gained.

Sensitivity Analysis

An essential step in the modelling process is the sensitivity analyses. Conflicting source data, poor internal or external validity and the necessity of extrapolating or making assumptions lead to uncertainty in most economic evaluations. It is thus necessary to

systematically vary the input parameters and probabilities across their possible ranges and calculate the ICERs based thereon. If the conclusion remains unchanged the result can be said to be robust. If the results are not robust, the sensitivity analysis can point to areas where more information is needed, where uncertainty is most crucial and to variables that have greatest bearing on the conclusion

Threshold analysis seeks to identify the critical value of parameter that would need to be achieved in order for an intervention to be deemed cost-effective. Debate exists over the appropriate benchmark for societal willingness to pay (WTP) per quality-adjusted life year (QALY) gained as well as the appropriateness of the measure itself. It is generally acknowledged that the prevalent \$50,000/QALY cost-effectiveness threshold criterion, one that has not been revised to allow for inflation and national variation, is not based on wellformulated justifications for a specific dollar value. For the purposes of this analysis, we have thus also used a \$100,000/QALY threshold.

Probabilistic Sensitivity Analysis (PSA) assesses the joint uncertainty across all parameters. Costs, transition probabilities and HAQ-DI changes were assigned distributions and the Monte Carlo simulation recalculated expected values for repeatedly sampling parameter values from these distributions. By iterating this process thousands of times distributions of the incremental costs and effects were obtained.

RESULTS

The model comparing two common strategies after initial TNFi failure show that switching to a sequence that begins with abatacept, an anti-T lymphocyte recombinant fusion protein, will cost approximately \$224,000 (discounted) over ten years, compared to \$216,000 for the sequence that begins with cycling to adalimumab, a tumor necrosis factor inhibitor. The incremental cost of just over \$8,000 achieves a discounted QALY benefit of 0.14 over those ten years for an ICER of \$61,245/QALY for the basecase (Table 4).

Scenario analysis resulted in an ICER range from \$40,659/QALY to \$129,587/QALY with a median of \$67,483/QALY (Table 5). This is within the realm of current willingness to pay thresholds. These results calibrate nicely with the BRAM model, keeping in mind their higher baseline disability (15). Their comparison of abatacept versus adalimumab resulted in an ICER of £46,4000 (95% credible interval: £23,100-£152,000) which is equivalent to \$86,334 (\$42,981 - \$282,818) (2017 USD).

Probabilistic sensitivity analysis suggests that the swapping strategy has an 80.6% probability of having an ICER below \$100,000 compared with a 37.1% probability at the more conservative \$50,000/QALY threshold.

The cost-effectiveness acceptability curve (Figure 2) summarizes some of the uncertainty in the analysis by demonstrating the probability of an alternative being costeffective across a range of willingness-to-pay thresholds – given the available data. The abatacept strategy becomes more likely to be cost-effective at just under \$60,000/QALY.

Figure 3.3: Cost-Effectiveness Acceptability Curve

Looking at the incremental cost effectiveness scatterplots, one sees that while the ABA>TCZ>RTX can be cost-effective at the \$50,000/QALY threshold (Figure 3a), it is more likely to be so with a higher willingness-to-pay threshold (Figure 3b).

Figure 3.4: ICE Scatterplots

$(A: WTP = $50,000/QALY B: WTP = $100,000/QALY)$

DISCUSSION

Few studies have compared cycling to swapping, those that have utilized a variety of methodologies and parameters, resulting in a wide range of ICERs. None were based on a US population. In addition, transparency regarding data sources and methodological details is an issue. This leads to concern about biases, particularly since it has been found that assessments performed by independent organizations result in less favorable ICERs than those funded by pharmaceutical companies (39). Publicly funded studies are not yet available for all agents, indeed, for the newer agents, no analysis of their cost-effectiveness as secondline treatment was found at all.

Our baseline mean HAQ-DI was lower than that of other CUAs (10) and this can be explained by their reliance of clinical trial data and, in one case, a British cohort: people enrolling in randomized clinical trials tend to have higher disease activity than those in general practice (40, 41) and biologic drugs are used less frequently in the United Kingdom (41). As the primary outcome is incremental effectiveness, this is unlikely to affect direction of results.

The ICER of the swapping strategy was lower over a longer time period and was higher when baseline HAQ-DI was higher. Both can be explained by the greater probability of continuing treatment in the ABA>TCZ>RTX arm. In the former case, the advantages of staying on treatment and continued lower HAQ-DI leads to decreased costs over time. However, when HAQ-DI is high, the higher costs associated with this strategy counter this.

Joensuu et al (42) reviewed cost-utility analyses of biologics in RA including four studies comparing rituximab or abatacept to one of more TNFi's. All were European studies. The analyses including rituximab conclude that, compared to TNF's, it is either cost-effective at the ϵ 30,000 incremental cost effectiveness ratio (ICER) threshold or is the dominant option (cheaper and more effective). The ICERs for abatacept ranged from ϵ 47,663 to over 1.2 million euros.

Sullivan et al (43) conclude from their review of 15 articles that cycling to a second TNFi is less likely to be cost-effective whereas swapping to abatacept or rituximab results in an ICER below willingness to pay thresholds and may even be cost-saving.

Our systematic review also found that swapping to a non-TNFi agent is a costeffective alternative to cycling to a second TNFi, at the \$100,000/QALY threshold (10). The median ICER was \$70,332/QALY, compared to this model's \$67,483/QALY.

Decision-analysis models are, by definition, simplifications of complex processes and as such cannot capture the full nuance of real-life situations. For example, trials have not had the statistical power necessary to determine differences in treatment-specific mortality and adverse event between arms. Likewise, models are only as good as the data that are available to be incorporated into it. So, while population risk stratification is recommended for increased generalizability and application of the model to sub-groups (e.g. seropositivity), the lack of individual demographic and clinical data hampers this. Similarly, treatment sequences were fixed and do not account for the fact that the choice of the next drug may depend on the

reason for failure of its predecessor: adverse event or primary versus secondary nonresponse. It is difficult to predict how this would affect results.

The HAQ-DI deterioration rate has been shown to have an impact on study results, and like many others, this study modelled slow, universal HAQ-DI deterioration while on therapy. Lack of data on HAQ-DI progression per second line agent likely impacts the accuracy of the model. Similarly, pain has been shown to be an independent predictor of health-related quality of life and should be incorporated into the HAQ-DI to utility conversion formula (44). This information is not available from administrative databases.

The greatest strength of this model lies in its use of real-world data. Firstly, treatment sequences were chosen in an objective manner with no implicit preference for a particular outcome. This is in contrast to most cost-effectiveness analyses performed. Our systematic review found these to be largely funded by pharmaceutical companies and, either by design or due to publication bias, to favor the sponsor's product. Our analysis allows clinicians to assess actual clinical practice thereby making conclusions particularly pertinent and valid.

An additional advantage of real-world data is the longer-term follow-up which reduces reliance on extrapolation. Randomized clinical trials are limited to one drug and are usually conducted over 6 months. Optional long-term extension studies of up to two years do exist but, overall, there is a paucity of head-to-head studies for second line drugs.

Administrative data also gives access to a more diverse population than that available from strictly controlled clinical trials. Our costs and discontinuation probabilities are derived from community practice. These factors increase the generalizability of our findings to the

larger population. It has also been reported that using data from randomized controlled trials results in lower ICERs than community-based settings (45).

CONCLUSION

To our knowledge, this is the first full cost-utility analysis investigating cycling to a second TNFi versus swapping to a non-TNFi biological drug after failure of first-line TNFi that synthesizes evidence from a United States commercial claims database. Our independent study determined treatment sequences based on an appraisal of real-life prescribing patterns with no preconceived notions of what drugs those sequences should consist of. Similarly, parameter inputs were derived solely from the data. Despite being limited in terms of clinical data our results support and add credence to the existing literature that shows swapping to be a cost-effective strategy for this population.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Summary of biological and targeted synthetic therapies

 $MAb =$ monoclonal antibody $IL =$ interleukin JAK =

 $SC = subcutaneous IV = Intravenous PO = per os XR = extended release$
Appendix B: Search strategy. Database(s): Ovid MEDLINE(R) In-Process & Other Non-

Indexed Citations and Ovid

Appendix C: Parameter sources

*Effectiveness for all included economic evaluations was derived from specific trials of specific medications (in all cases it was biological DMARD vs conventional synthetic DMARD).

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Appendix D: Drug costs

TOCILIZUMAB SC

^a Purchasing power parity, data from World Bank

^b Medical Consumer Price Index, data from US Bureau of Labor Statistics

Appendix E: Point estimates of the cost-utility comparisons

Figure 4a represents the point estimates of the cost-utility comparisons of rituximab (RTX) – a swapping strategy. Health outcomes (incremental quality-adjusted life year (QALY)) are plotted on the x axis and the incremental costs on the y axis. The studies were rituximab generated more health gains reported higher costs. Rituximab was cost-saving in seven of the reported estimates. ADA, adalimumab; ETN, etanercept; IFX, infliximab; TNFi, RTX, rituximab; Tumor Necrosis Factor alpha inhibitor.

Figure 4b represents the point estimates of the cost-utility comparisons of abatacept (ABA) – a swapping strategy. Health outcomes (incremental quality-adjusted life year (QALY)) are plotted on the x axis and the incremental costs on the y axis. The studies were intravenous abatacept generated more health gains reported higher costs. ABA, abatacept; ADA, adalimumab; ETN, etanercept; IFX, infliximab; TNFi, Tumor Necrosis Factor alpha inhibitor.

Appendix F: Efficacy and utility parameters

ACR, American College of Rheumatology; ADA, adalimumab; ABA, abatacept; bDMARD, biologic Disease Modifying Antirheumatic Drug; cDMARD, conventional Disease Modifying Antirheumatic Drug; ETN, etanercept; EULAR, European League Against Rheumatism; HAQ, Health Assessment Questionnaire; IFX, infliximab; MTX, methotrexate; n/a, not applicable; OR, odds ratio; RTX, rituximab; TNFi, Tumor necrosis factor alpha inhibitor; TOF, tofacitinib.

Appendix G – RA ICD-10 codes

Appendix I – Excluded conditions

Appendix J – Adherence criteria for IV drugs

Appendix $K - Time$ to discontinuation comparison per treatment line

2nd vs 3rd line

The NPAR1WAY Procedure

Kruskal-Wallis Test Chi-SquareDFPr > ChiSq 52.4292 1 <.0001

3rd vs 4th line

The NPAR1WAY Procedure

Average scores were used for ties.

4th vs 5thline

Chi-SquareDFPr > ChiSq 19.7015 1 <.0001

5th vs 6th line

The NPAR1WAY Procedure

Appendix L – Survival analysis results

Including rituximab Second line

Kaplan Meier

Third line

Kaplan Meier

Third line Cox Proportional Hazards Model

Fourth line

Kaplan Meier

Summary of the Number of Censored and Uncensored Values

Cox Proportional Hazards Model

Fifth line

Kaplan Meier

Cox Proportional Hazards Model

Sixth line

Kaplan Meier

Cox Proportional Hazards Model

Excluding rituximab Second line

Kaplan Meier

Third line

Fourth line

Fifth line

Sixth line

Appendix M – Costs: TNFi vs non-TNFi

	Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Min	25 _{th} Pctl	Median	75th Pctl	Max	p
TNFi	Drug costs 06 mon	6,626	12,709	7,321	$\overline{4}$	7,795	11,821	16,421	150,267	0.023
non-TNFi	Drug costs 06 mon	3,816	13,053	7,604	$\mathbf{0}$	8,366	12,512	16,407	73,905	
TNFi	Other costs 06mon	6,626	6,138	13,962	$\mathbf{0}$	1,215	2,730	5,857	433,647	< 0.001
non-TNFi	Other costs 06mon	3,816	8,228	16,709	$\mathbf{0}$	2,080	3,941	7,814	307,414	
TNFi	Drug costs $_712$ mon	6,626	7,683	8,732	$\mathbf{0}$	$\overline{}$	6,246	12,561	141,679	0.237
non-TNFi	Drug costs _712mon	3,816	7,886	7,960	$\mathbf{0}$	$\overline{}$	7,233	13,113	84,903	
TNFi	Other costs 712mon	6,626	5,100	13,502	θ	275	1,742	4,690	408,690	< 0.001
non-TNFi	Other costs _712mon	3,816	7,474	19,140	$\overline{0}$	852	2,761	6,578	505,420	
TNFi	Drug costs \lbrack lyr	6,626	20,392	14,514	$\overline{4}$	9,222	18,906	27,729	291,946	0.058
non-TNFi	Drug costs \lbrack lyr	3,816	20,939	13,678	$\overline{0}$	10,775	20,322	28,412	151,091	
TNFi	Other costs $_1yr$	6,626	11,238	22,798	$\overline{0}$	2,190	5,118	11,731	745,918	< 0.001
non-TNFi	Other costs $_1yr$	3,816	15,702	29,226	θ	3,731	7,581	16,112	723,371	

Appendix N – Drug specific costs

Mean drug costs in descending order

adherent06	LINE2_drg	Mean
0	GOLIMUMAB	11841.8
	TOCILIZUMAB	11711.8
	CERTOLIZUMAB	10494.2
	RITUXIMAB	10339
	ABATACEPT	9775.6
	ADALIMUMAB	7653.6
	ETANERCEPT	7297.9
	INFLIXIMAB	6925.5
	TOFACITINIB	6094
	ANAKINRA	4400.6
1	RITUXIMAB	17730.1
	ADALIMUMAB	16841.6
	CERTOLIZUMAB	16539.6
	TOFACITINIB	16538.5
	ETANERCEPT	15852.2
	ABATACEPT	15513.1
	INFLIXIMAB	15266.4
	ANAKINRA	14421
	GOLIMUMAB	14249.9
	TOCILIZUMAB	13808.7

Drug costs for the first 6 months

Drug costs for the second 6 months

Annual drug costs

Appendix O – Drug specific costs per Deyo score

In descending cost order

