Cost-effectiveness of depression case management in small practices*


Background
Case management undertaken by healthcare assistants in small primary care practices is effective in improving depression symptoms and adherence in patients with major depression.

Aims
To evaluate the cost-effectiveness of depression case management by healthcare assistants in small primary care practices.

Method
Cost-effectiveness analysis on the basis of a pragmatic randomised controlled trial (2005–2008): practice-based healthcare assistants in 74 practices provided case management to 562 patients with major depression over 1 year. Our primary outcome was the incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER) calculated as the ratio of differences in mean costs and mean number of quality-adjusted life-years (QALYs). Our secondary outcome was the mean depression-free days (DFDs) between the intervention and control group at 24-month follow-up. The study was registered at the International Standard Randomised Controlled Trial Number Registry: ISRCTN66386086.

Results
Intervention v. control group: no significant difference in QALYS; significantly more DFDs (mean: 373 v. 311, P < 0.01); no significant difference in mean direct healthcare costs (€4495 v. €3506, P = 0.16); considerably lower mean indirect costs (€5228 v. €7539, P = 0.06), resulting in lower total costs (€9723 v. €11045, P = 0.41). The point estimate for the cost-utility ratio was €38,429 per QALY gained if only direct costs were considered, and ‘dominance’ of the intervention if total costs were considered. Yet, regardless of decision makers’ willingness to pay per QALY, the probability of the intervention being cost-effective was never above 90%.

Conclusions
In small primary care practices, 1 year of case management did not increase the number of QALYs but it did increase the number of DFDs. The intervention was likely to be cost-effective.

Declaration of interest
None.

Study design and participants
We designed a pragmatic cluster-randomised controlled trial with the primary care practice as the unit of randomisation in order to avoid potential contamination (trail registration: ISRCTN66386086). The study took place in central Germany between 2005 and 2008. We assessed patients at baseline, and after 6, 12 and 24 months. The intervention lasted 12 months (between baseline and the 12-month assessment). Details on the methods employed in the trial have been published elsewhere. The institutional review board of Goethe University Frankfurt am Main, Germany, approved the study protocol on 25 April 2005. We used written consent procedures for general practitioners (GPs) and patients.

Intervention
We designed our case management intervention in accordance with the chronic care model, which emphasises proactive support for the patient by the entire practice team. Primary care...
practice-based healthcare assistants, trained as depression case managers during a 2-day workshop, contacted their patients by telephone once a month for 1 year. They monitored symptoms of depression using a structured questionnaire and supported medication adherence. They also encouraged patients to undertake pleasant activities. The assistants then reported the results of the call to the GP in a structured manner, stratifying the urgency of contact in terms of symptom severity. This intervention was provided in addition to usual care. Patients in the control group received usual care.

Data collection
At each study assessment, patients completed the Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9), a 9-item questionnaire on depressive symptoms, as well as the EQ-5D. The EQ-5D is a simple questionnaire for the subjective description of perceived state of health. It also provides a preference-based utility score (EQ-5D index) for each of the EQ-5D health states with the best state (perfect health) and ‘death’ being assigned values of 1 and 0, respectively. In addition, patients completed a questionnaire on healthcare utilisation (including psychiatric in-patient care, out-patient care provided by psychologists, psychiatrists and family doctors/GPs as well as antidepressant drug use) and lost work days in the 12 months preceding the interview. Additional utilisation data were collected from the patients’ medical records. Intensive intervention practices were randomly selected to assess intervention costs using a structured questionnaire.

Data analysis
Following the concept of cost-utility analysis, we calculated quality-adjusted life-years (QALYs) as the primary outcome to measure health effects over 24 months. To calculate QALYs we used health state utilities based on the EQ-5D index provided by Dolan. Depression-free days (DFDs) were calculated for our secondary outcome, using the method of Lave et al. if patients had a PHQ-9 score of ≥15, they were assumed to have ‘full’ depression (100% depression or 0% DFDs); when scoring ≤4 they were assumed to have no depression (0% depression or 100% DFDs); if they scored between 4 and 15, the DFDs were weighted proportionately using linear interpolation. The QALY’s (DFDs) were calculated by multiplying the arithmetic average of EQ-5D index scores (DFD scores) from two neighbouring measurement points by the time period between these measurement points; in other words, we calculated the area under the curve of linearly interpolated EQ-5D index scores (DFD scores) over time. To calculate direct healthcare costs from a societal perspective, we assigned monetary values to patient care and missed fewer work days than patients in the control group (Table 2). The annual intervention costs were €276 per patient (Table 3), as reported elsewhere.22 During the 24-month follow-up period patients in the intervention group tended to spend more days in psychiatric in-patient care and missed fewer work days than patients in the control group (Table 2). The annual intervention costs were €276 per patient (Table 3), as reported elsewhere.22 During the 24-month follow-up period patients in the intervention group had a statistically significant, higher number of DFDs than the control group (373 vs. 311, P < 0.01). The mean PHQ-9 scores of the intervention group were lower after 6 months (11.9 vs. 13.2, P = 0.007) and 12 months (10.7 vs. 12.1, P = 0.009). After 24 months a difference between the groups was still apparent, but was not statistically significant (10.5 vs. 11.5, P = 0.085).

Depression outcome and utilities
There was no significant difference in EQ-5D index scores, and thus QALYs, between the intervention and the control group. But at the 24-month follow-up, the intervention group had a statistically significant, higher number of DFDs than the control group (373 vs. 311, P < 0.01). The mean PHQ-9 scores of the intervention group were lower after 6 months (11.9 vs. 13.2, P = 0.007) and 12 months (10.7 vs. 12.1, P = 0.009). After 24 months a difference between the groups was still apparent, but was not statistically significant (10.5 vs. 11.5, P = 0.085).

Resource use and costs
During the 24-month follow-up period patients in the intervention group tended to spend more days in psychiatric in-patient care and missed fewer work days than patients in the control group (Table 2). The annual intervention costs were €276 per patient (Table 3), as reported elsewhere.22 During the 24-month follow-up period patients in the intervention group had a statistically significant, higher number of DFDs than the control group (373 vs. 311, P < 0.01). The mean PHQ-9 scores of the intervention group were lower after 6 months (11.9 vs. 13.2, P = 0.007) and 12 months (10.7 vs. 12.1, P = 0.009). After 24 months a difference between the groups was still apparent, but was not statistically significant (10.5 vs. 11.5, P = 0.085).

Cost-effectiveness
The point estimate for the cost-utility ratio was £38 489 per QALY gained (which corresponds to £31 127 per QALY gained on the basis of an exchange rate on 31 December 2006 of £1 = £0.81) if only direct costs were considered, and the ‘dominance’ of the
intervention if total costs were considered (Table 3). Yet, regardless of decision makers’ willingness to pay per QALY, the probability of the intervention being cost-effective was never above 90% (Fig. 1). When only direct costs were taken into account, the probability of the intervention being cost-effective would be 31.1%, 93.3% or 98.3% (when only direct costs were considered), and 88.7%, 98.4% or 99.5% (when total costs were taken into account). We estimated a 90% probability that the intervention would be cost-effective, if decision makers were willing to pay €12 per DFD.

Although most research has examined academic or integrated settings as in health maintenance organisations, this study highlights the benefits of a low-intensity intervention in small, private primary care practices with limited resources. This trial indicates that the involvement of healthcare assistants in the care of patients with depression may be a cost-effective resource for small primary care settings. This is noteworthy, since the need for cost-effective healthcare interventions in primary care settings is increasing, and healthcare assistants (who have limited training) are employed in the majority of small primary care practices.

### Table 1 Practice and patient characteristics at baseline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Intervention group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participating practices, n</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum of two clinicians, n (%)</td>
<td>35 (100.0)</td>
<td>36 (92.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female clinicians, n (%)</td>
<td>16 (44)</td>
<td>17 (44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years at this practice, mean (s.d.)</td>
<td>13.3 (9.2)</td>
<td>10.7 (7.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of job experience of healthcare assistants, mean (s.d.)</td>
<td>17.3 (11.2)</td>
<td>18.8 (10.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location, n (%)</td>
<td>23 (66)</td>
<td>21 (54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>12 (34)</td>
<td>18 (46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of patients per 3 months, mean (s.d.)</td>
<td>1065 (427)</td>
<td>1051 (435)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of patient population at practice, %</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 18 years</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td>56.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18–65 years</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 65 years</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating patients, n</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age in years, mean (s.d.)</td>
<td>52.8 (14.0)</td>
<td>51.2 (14.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female, n (%)</td>
<td>201 (75.0)</td>
<td>230 (78.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married, n (%)</td>
<td>153 (57.1)</td>
<td>152 (51.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed, n (%)</td>
<td>119 (44.4)</td>
<td>143 (49.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression, PHQ-9 score: mean (s.d.)</td>
<td>17.3 (3.6)</td>
<td>17.3 (3.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2 Mean resource use and work-loss days during 24-month follow-up

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Intervention group (n = 268)</th>
<th>Control group (n = 294)</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Days in psychiatric in-patient care</td>
<td>10.33 (34.26)</td>
<td>6.87 (23.68)</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits to out-patient physicians (excluding psychiatrist)</td>
<td>29.64 (27.63)</td>
<td>29.10 (22.42)</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits to out-patient psychiatrist</td>
<td>3.63 (7.31)</td>
<td>3.42 (6.31)</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily defined doses of antidepressant drugs, per day</td>
<td>1.07 (1.15)</td>
<td>1.04 (1.16)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-loss days</td>
<td>57.66 (125.18)</td>
<td>83.14 (179.38)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3 Mean costs, mean number of depression-free days and incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER) during 24-month follow-up

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Intervention group (n = 268)</th>
<th>Control group (n = 294)</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct costs in €</td>
<td>4,495.26 (8490.79)</td>
<td>3,506.30 (6885.68)</td>
<td>988.96 (703.16)</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychiatric in-patient care</td>
<td>2,482.23 (8233.17)</td>
<td>1,651.44 (5691.01)</td>
<td>830.80 (601.71)</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-patient physician (excluding psychiatrist)</td>
<td>512.14 (477.52)</td>
<td>502.78 (387.46)</td>
<td>9.36 (61.63)</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-patient psychiatrist</td>
<td>107.73 (216.88)</td>
<td>101.32 (187.08)</td>
<td>6.41 (20.17)</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-patient psychologist</td>
<td>725.43 (1525.02)</td>
<td>870.88 (1870.90)</td>
<td>830.80 (601.71)</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacologicals</td>
<td>392.06 (418.67)</td>
<td>379.89 (423.10)</td>
<td>12.17 (43.68)</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intervention costs</td>
<td>495.26 (8490.79)</td>
<td>3,506.30 (6885.68)</td>
<td>988.96 (703.16)</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect costs in €</td>
<td>5,227.88 (11,349.82)</td>
<td>7,538.68 (16,264.15)</td>
<td>2,310.80 (1240.20)</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total costs (direct and indirect) in €</td>
<td>9,723.14 (16,212.95)</td>
<td>11,044.98 (18,920.81)</td>
<td>3,321.84 (1597.71)</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression-free days (DFDs)</td>
<td>372.67 (215.56)</td>
<td>310.66 (216.49)</td>
<td>62.01 (22.34)</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality-adjusted life-years (QALYs)</td>
<td>1.07 (0.54)</td>
<td>1.05 (0.56)</td>
<td>0.02 (0.05)</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| ICER of intervention for DFDs based on total costs (direct and indirect) | 15.95 | Dominant |
| ICER of intervention for QALYs based on total costs (direct and indirect) | 38,428.99 | Dominant |

For the ICER of the intervention was €50 or €100 per DFD, the respective probabilities of the intervention being cost-effective would be 31.1%, 93.3% or 98.3% (when only direct costs were considered), and 88.7%, 98.4% or 99.5% (when total costs were taken into account). We estimated a 90% probability that the intervention would be cost-effective, if decision makers were willing to pay €12 per DFD.

Discussion

Although most research has examined academic or integrated settings as in health maintenance organisations, this study highlights the benefits of a low-intensity intervention in small, private primary care practices with limited resources. This trial indicates that the involvement of healthcare assistants in the care of patients with depression may be a cost-effective resource for small primary care settings. This is noteworthy, since the need for cost-effective healthcare interventions in primary care settings is increasing, and healthcare assistants (who have limited training) are employed in the majority of small primary care practices.
Comparison with findings from other studies
Comparison of our results with cost-effectiveness studies of other – mostly more complex – collaborative care interventions for depression conducted in the USA\(^\text{25-33}\) is limited because of differences in healthcare systems and included cost categories. However, it is noteworthy that our rather simple model is the first collaborative care intervention in which dominance over usual care could be shown with regard to both costs per DFD and costs per QALY. This is mainly because of the reduction in indirect costs, which has not been included in any of the existing studies. Indirect costs are mainly attributable to lost work days, which is a relevant measure for working patients (about two-thirds in our study sample). Because of the close agreement with claims data that can be shown for the collection of data on resource utilisation by patients with mental illness via telephone interview, we assume that the collection of lost work days by patients with mental illness via personal interviews should be of sufficient quality.\(^\text{34}\)

When our cost data were converted to US dollar purchasing power parities and those of other studies are de-/inflated to the year 2006 to facilitate comparison, we found two other studies reporting lower direct costs per DFD than our study. Katon et al\(^\text{\text{25}}\) evaluated the IMPACT intervention, which focused on elderly patients and is based on a case manager who follows up the patient by telephone, coordinates antidepressant therapy and performs a 6- to 8-session psychotherapy programme, if necessary. Liu et al\(^\text{\text{26}}\) evaluated a team-based intervention incorporating a clinical psychologist, a psychiatrist, a social worker and a psychology technician. The intervention comprised diagnosis, treatment, patient education, patient support and progress evaluation. The more favourable ICER of these more complex interventions was as a result of greater effects (gain of 107 DFDs over 24 months) in the case of Katon et al and very low incremental costs for a gain of 15 DFDs over 9 months in the case of Liu et al. Direct costs per DFD similar to our study were reported by Rost et al\(^\text{\text{27}}\) who evaluated a management programme focusing on the encourage-ment of patients to follow a guideline-concordant therapy and on its maintenance, and by Simon et al\(^\text{\text{28}}\) who analysed a relapse prevention programme consisting of patient education and frequent visits, telephone and mail contacts. Rost et al showed a gain of 59 DFDs over 24 months whereas Simon et al found a gain of 14 DFDs over 12 months. The direct costs per DFD reported by three further studies\(^\text{\text{29-31}}\) were nearly twice as high as in our study.

Direct costs per QALY have been reported for six collaborative care interventions. Three of these interventions lead to more favourable ICERs than in our study,\(^\text{\text{25,27,32}}\) one had an ICER comparable with our results,\(^\text{\text{31}}\) and two had less favourable ICERs.\(^\text{\text{31,33}}\) The studies showing more favourable ICERs reported a QALY gain more than twice as high as found in our study.

Using DFDs as a measure
With regard to the difference of 62 DFDs between the groups over 24 months, we did not expect larger effects since the intervention was in addition to regular primary care and, unlike other trials, did not make use of expensive psychiatrist or psychologist contacts.\(^\text{\text{35}}\) Case management seemed to improve the symptoms of depression during its 12 months’ duration. One year after the end of the case management intervention, the effect was still apparent, but was not statistically significant. From a clinical point of view it may therefore be beneficial to the patient to extend the duration of this low-intensity, low-cost intervention, as has recently been suggested.\(^\text{\text{10}}\)

Depression-free days represent a patient-centred approach to measurement. Patients may benefit from DFDs, since they represent additional time for pleasant and work-related activities.\(^\text{\text{36}}\) However, decision makers may assess the value of depression interventions by direct and indirect costs as well as generic outcomes such as QALYs. Naturally, health state utilities based on the generic EQ-5D quality of life instrument capture different aspects of well-being than disease-specific DFDs based on the PHQ-9. Whereas DFDs focus on depression, depression is directly addressed by only one out of five dimensions of the EQ-5D, with the other dimensions measuring problems in other domains of quality of life. As a consequence DFDs might be more responsive to changes in depressive symptoms. This might explain why the ICER based on DFDs may appear more favourable than that based on QALYs. However, it should be pointed out that there is no threshold value for acceptable cost per DFD.

Pyne et al\(^\text{\text{\text{27}}}\) undertook an attempt to translate DFDs into QALYs. According to the formula developed by Pyne et al, the 373 DFDs in the intervention group and the 311 DFDs in the control group would translate into 1.01 and 0.94 QALYs, respectively. This would result in a difference of 0.07 QALYS between the two groups and hence a much more favourable ICER.

Limitations
Our study has several limitations. One limitation is that direct costs were restricted to the costs of psychiatric care whereas the cost of somatic care can also be influenced by depression. In addition, costs were calculated based on self-reported data of service use and work loss days, as has been done in many other cost-effectiveness analyses. Recall bias is likely to lead to an underestimation of costs. However, as both the intervention group and the control group were possibly affected by this bias, its effect on the ICER was probably small as the ICER was calculated from effects of the intervention on the main outcome remained statistically significant and stable under unfavourable assumptions with regard to non-participation in follow-up assessments.\(^\text{\text{13}}\) The use of LOCF for both costs and effects is likely to result in a conservative estimate. This is caused by patients in the inter-ventional group tending to withdraw earlier and more frequently. A complete-case analysis of our data (intervention group: \(n = 198\),

![Fig. 1 Cost-effectiveness acceptability curves for direct and total costs.](image-url)

Underlying regression models were bootstrapped with 1000 replications. Cluster structure of the data was taken into account. ICER, incremental cost-effectiveness ratio; QALY, quality-adjusted life-years.
control group: \( n = 216 \) resulted in larger treatment effects than those from LOCF (DFDs: 66.22 v. 62.01; QALYs: 0.04 v. 0.02), which supports our assumption. It also holds for the difference in the total costs between both study groups (€–1931 v. €–1322).

**Implications**

The results of this study suggest that in small primary care practices 1 year of case management may be cost-effective. After 24 months, patients who had received case management had 62 additional DFDs, although the DFD-gain did not significantly show up in a QALY gain. Since the crucial clinical effect seems to occur during the intervention period, it may be beneficial if patients receive this low-cost intervention for longer than 12 months. The active involvement of practice-based healthcare assistants in patient care may improve depression care at economically justifiable costs.

**References**

Abandoned

Bear Loveday Tyler

my white bird
flew away this morning
taking the windowlatch in her beak like
a sprig of olive

my yellow flower
died this morning
drooping over the vase
shedding petals like
a may shower

my green hills
crumbled this morning
taking my window through
shades of darkness like
the hand of a one-night lover

my brown ivy fled this morning
taking with him
my white bird
my yellow flower
my green hills

now I am left with red of passion and blue of pathos
neither of which is mine

sunset
and the rainbow
rises
soon

This poem is from Bear Loveday Tyler’s book Love Grenade, published by Survivors’ Poetry in 2006. Loveday was mentored by Robin Ford. Another of her poems, So This is Death, was published in the Journal in September 2012.

Chosen by Femi Oyebode.