

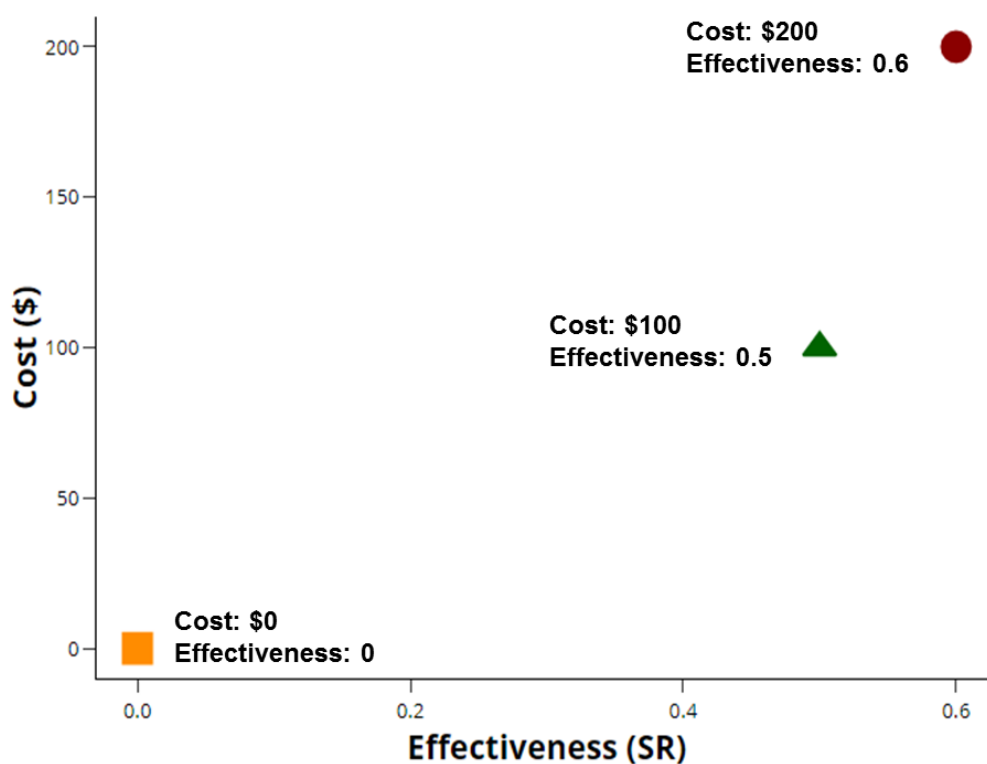
STATISTICS AND STATISTICAL SOFTWARE

Meta-analyses were performed with R, version 3.4.1 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria: www.R-project.org)¹ and the meta², tidyr³, and ggplot2⁴ packages. In a meta-analysis, the sample size of each study and the between-studies heterogeneity influence the weight of the study on the pooled estimate. Because of expected heterogeneity between the populations of different studies (for example, in age, etiology, neurodevelopment, etc.), we considered a priori a random-effects model. This a priori choice was supported by the results of between-study heterogeneity as measured by the I^2 index⁵.

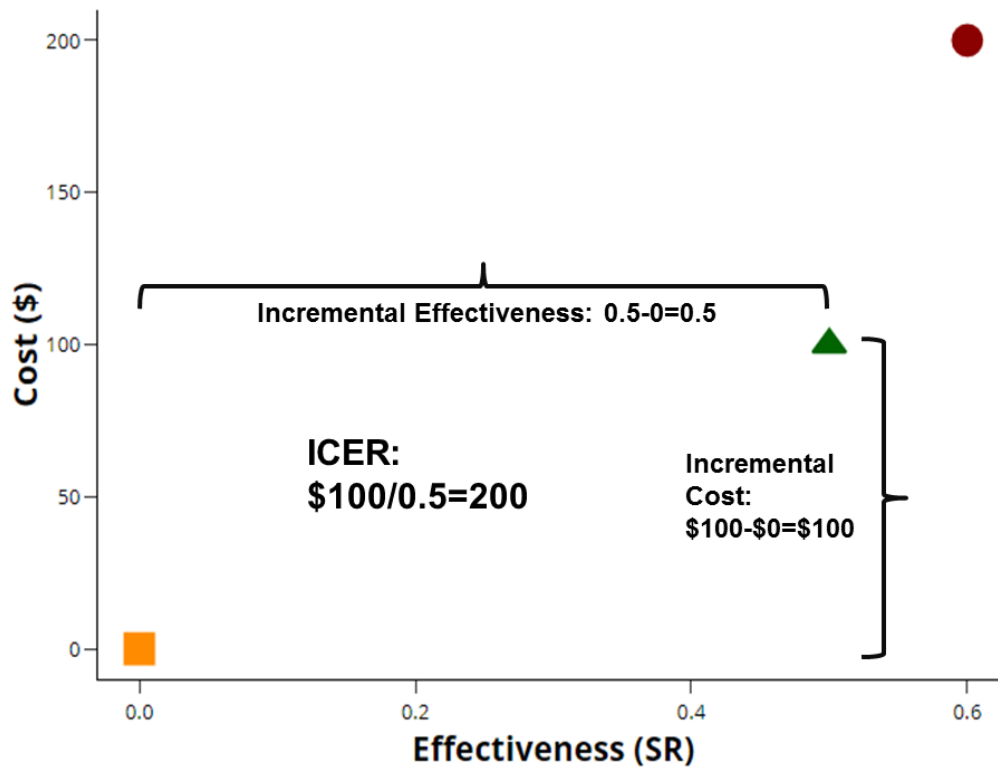
We evaluated potential publication bias with funnel plots, and performed sensitivity analyses adjusting for publication bias using the trim and fill method by Duval and Tweedie with the L_0 estimator⁶, and identified the direction of potentially missing studies with the Egger method⁷. For the trim and fill method, we used a fixed-random model, which is a fixed-effect model (less likely to be influenced by small biased studies: publication bias) to trim and fill studies and a random-effects model (more appropriate for studies coming from heterogeneous populations) to estimate the pooled effect of the studies once they are trimmed and filled⁸. In the Duval and Tweedie trim and fill method, the fixed-random model performs better than the fixed-fixed model and no worse and marginally better in certain situations than the random-random model⁸.

For the cost-effectiveness model, input parameters for effectiveness (estimated from the meta-analysis of multiple studies) were modeled with a beta distribution and input parameters for cost (estimated from a more limited number of cost sources) were modelled with a triangular distribution. All cost-effectiveness analyses were performed using TreeAge Pro 2015 (TreeAge Software, Inc., Williamstown, MA)⁹. Interactive versions of the meta-analysis and the cost-effectiveness models were created with R packages shiny¹⁰, ggplot2⁴, and plotly¹¹.

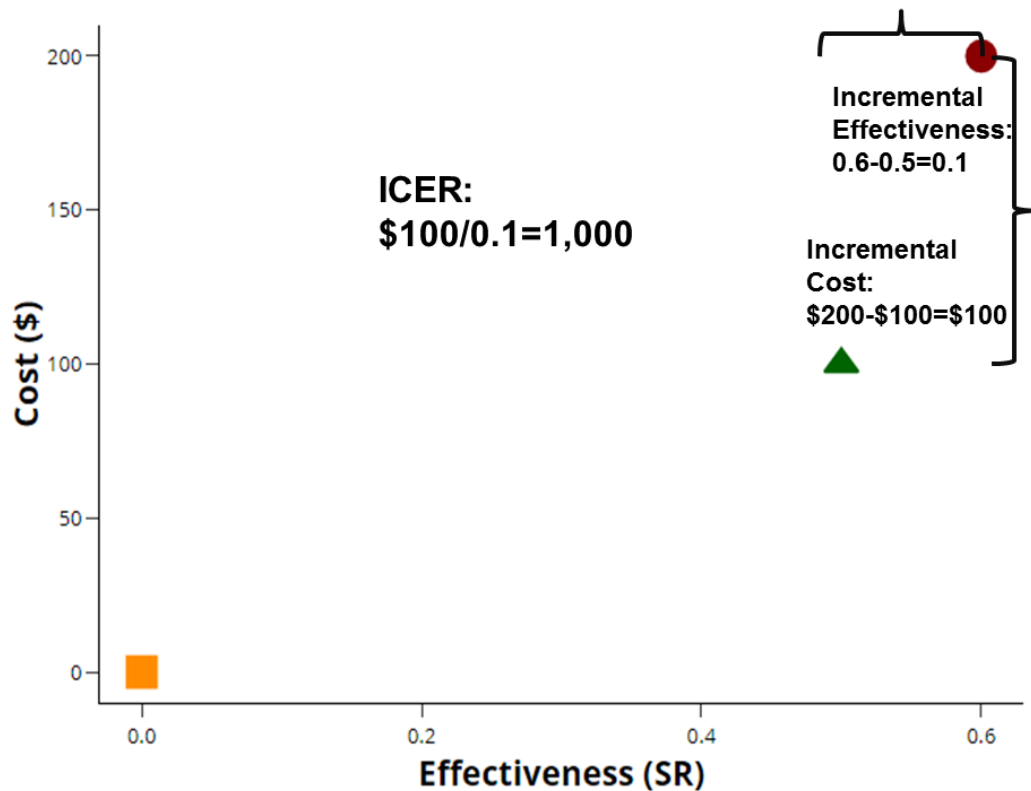
We quantified cost-effectiveness with the incremental cost-effectiveness ratio (ICER). The ICER measures the relative cost-effectiveness of competing treatments by dividing the incremental cost of a treatment (compared to the next most cost-effective treatment) by the incremental effectiveness (compared to the next most cost-effective treatment) ¹². Although detailed explanations of ICER, the efficiency frontier, and dominance are beyond the scope of this study, we provide a graphical explanation to roughly grasp these concepts and we refer the interested reader elsewhere to more in-depth explanations and calculations ¹². First, the ICER is a comparative measure between treatments, not a characteristic of any individual treatment. For illustration purposes, let's calculate the ICER for three treatments with simulated data.



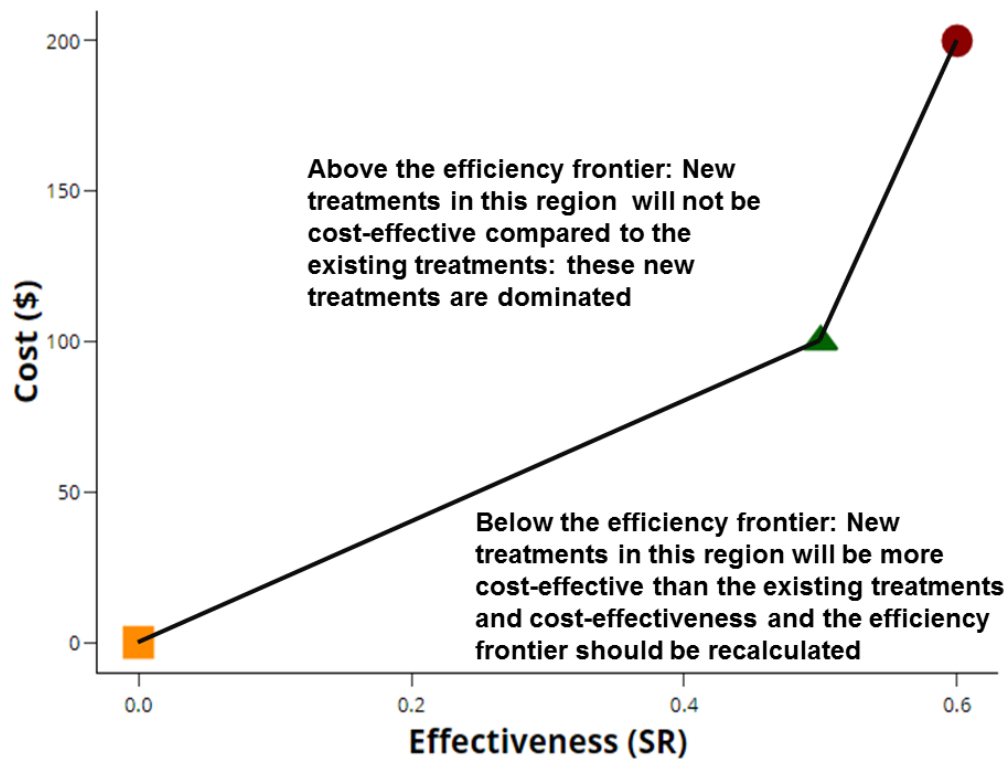
The baseline “no treatment” is the orange square with \$0 cost and 0 probability of spasm resolution (SR); the green triangle represents “treatment A” with \$100 cost and 0.5 probability of spasm resolution; and the brown circle is “treatment B” with \$200 cost and 0.6 probability of spasm resolution.



To calculate the ICER of “treatment A” we have to reference cost and effectiveness to the next most cost-effective alternative, which is “no treatment”. The incremental cost is $\$100 - \$0 = \$100$ and the incremental effectiveness is $0.5 - 0 = 0.5$. The ICER is $\$100 / 0.5 = 200$, that is, \$200 will have to be spent per each case of infantile spasms resolved with “treatment A”.



To calculate the ICER of “treatment B” we have to reference cost and effectiveness to the next most cost-effective alternative, which is “treatment A”. The incremental cost is $\$200-\$100 = \$100$ and the incremental effectiveness is $0.6-0.5 = 0.1$. The ICER is $\$100/0.1 = 1,000$, that is, \$1,000 will have to be spent per each case of infantile spasms resolved with “treatment B”. It may seem more intuitive to compare the cost and effectiveness of “treatment B” with the baseline of “no treatment”, but that comparison is incorrect in a competing choice problem because it does not take into account that one can obtain an effectiveness of 0.5 at a cost of \$100 with “treatment A”.



The efficiency frontier is determined by the line that joins the most cost-effective treatments: new treatments above and to the left of the efficiency frontier are not cost-effective compared to the existing treatments. In contrast, new treatments below and to the right of the efficiency frontier are more cost-effective than the existing treatments and, in case that these new treatments appear, a new calculation of cost-effectiveness and of the efficiency frontier should be performed.

For more details on how ICER is calculated, the difference between a competing choice and a shopping spree problem, implications of the efficiency frontier, and the difference between absolute dominance and extended dominance, we refer the reader to a more in-depth textbook on decision analysis

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