

Interpersonal comparability of health state utilities: why it is unfair to measure preferences in units of full-health-time, and what we can do about it

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Abstract

Individual health state preferences are commonly measured using the time trade-off (TTO) method. Elicited health state utilities are then aggregated across individuals to derive a social value set, which is used in economic evaluations to value health outcomes in terms of QALYs. Underlying this procedure is the notion of fairness: the value of one year in full health and the value of being dead is the same for everyone, which presumably aims to ensure equality between individuals. On closer inspection, however, the current methodology fails to make utilities interpersonally comparable.

This work is motivated by the observation that in empirical health valuation studies, utility differences between individuals are mainly driven by their general willingness to trade survival time for quality of life: while some refuse to give up any lifetime (non-traders), others consider time with slightly impaired health not worth living (high-traders). When utilities are aggregated across individuals, high-traders have significantly more influence on the resulting cardinal ordering of health states; or put more generally, when utilities are measured in units of *full-health-time*, health state preferences are contaminated by preferences over survival time, and vice versa.

Here, we argue that this property of health state utility comparisons is neither necessary nor desirable. We demonstrate that it is not sufficient to assert that the utility difference between one year in full health and being dead is the same for all individuals; to be able to make utilities in all respects interpersonally comparable, it is also required that the utility difference between full health and the worst possible health state is the same for all. We propose a simple, multi-step procedure for enabling a fair comparison of health state utilities across individuals, while retaining the properties of the QALY scale, where 1 is full health and 0 is the equivalent to being dead.

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1 Introduction

The concept of health-related quality of life (hrqol) is central to health economic evaluations [1, 2]. It is taken to be a measure of the social value of being in a given health state. Combined with (survival) time, it allows the computation of QALYs, which are widely used to inform health policy decision-making [3, 4].

Hrqol is commonly assessed using the time trade-off method (TTO) [5]. The widely used EQ-5D 3L and 5L instrument are partly or entirely based on it [6–8]. The general procedure is the following: a group of individuals (e.g. patients, general public) is surveyed and their preferences over health states are elicited using the TTO method. Subsequently, health state utilities are aggregated across individuals, in order to derive a social value set, which maps health states to (social) hrqol values. The method of choice to aggregate utilities is the arithmetic average [9, 10]. For this, and other cardinal aggregation procedures, to yield fair social value sets, utilities need to be measured on the same scale; they need to be fully interpersonally comparable [11, 12]. To avoid confusion, we should state that this paper is not concerned with the comparability of QALYs, but of the utility values that determine how many QALYs any given health states is worth [13, 14].

In this paper, we challenge the often uncritically accepted assumption that TTO health states utilities are comparable across different individuals [15]. We argue that when preferences are measured on a scale between full health and ‘being dead’, elicited utility values do not only reflect an individual’s evaluation of hrqol, but also of survival time [16–18]. This causes the measurement units for hrqol to differ between individuals, which, in turn, makes comparing health state utilities difficult. When these conceptually incomparable utilities are aggregated using averages, individuals with a low preference for survival time (relative to hrqol) may have more, potentially undue weight in the estimation of social value sets. We thus propose a multi-step aggregation procedure, in which every individual’s preference has equal weight in the outcome.

32 The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: First, we briefly describe
 33 the TTO method and our perspective on the utility aggregation procedure
 34 (section 2). Subsequently, we point out its conceptual flaws and demonstrate
 35 how these create interpersonally incomparable utility values (section 3). In
 36 section 4, we discuss the role of dead for the measurement of hrqol, before
 37 we finally propose an alternative multi-step aggregation procedure (section
 38 5) and outline some further considerations and next steps (section 6).

Glossar

Health state utilities: Utility of living in some state, in units of full-health-time, i.e. measured on the TTO scale, between full health and dead, which may include an evaluation of aspects other than health.

Health-related quality of life (hrqol): The part of the health state utility that is attributable to the health component.

Relative value of health states: The value of a particular health state, relative to another, expressed as a multiple or a fraction, without reference to survival time.

2 The time trade-off method

2.1 Elicitation of individual health state preferences

39
 40
 41
 42 TTO is a choice-based method to elicit individual health state preferences
 43 under certainty. While the specific methodology varies between different
 44 protocols and applications [5, 6, 8, 19], the following description may outline
 45 the general concept (also see figure 1).

46 In TTO exercises, individuals are asked to choose between living t years in
 47 some health state h_i (and then be dead), and $t - k$ (with $k \geq 0$) years in a
 48 state of full health, denoted h^* (and then be dead). By definition, a value
 49 of 1 is assigned to full health. The value of any other state is determined
 50 by guiding the individual through a series of choices, in which the value of k
 51 is adaptively increased or decreased, until a point is identified, at which the
 52 individual is indifferent between the two alternatives. The value of $\frac{(t-k)}{t}$ at
 53 the point of indifference reflects the proportion of the utilities that would be
 54 derived from being in full-health for the same amount of time – which then
 55 interpreted as the hrqol of state h_i . For example, being indifferent between
 56 10 years in state h_i (moderate pain) and 6 years in h^* (full health), would

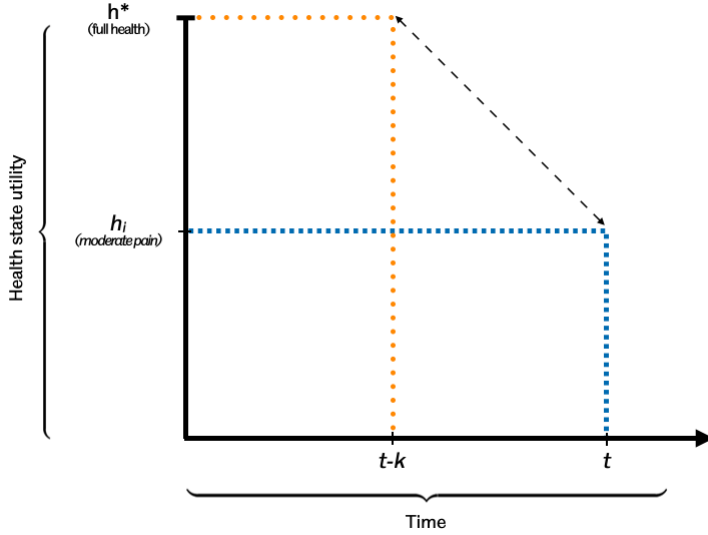


Figure 1: Time trade-off method for states better than dead (adapted from Torrance[21]).

Equality at the point of indifference between t years in state h_i and $t-k$ years in full health (h^*): $u(h^*) * t - k = p(h_i) * t$ With constant proportional trade-off and $u(h^*) = 1$, the utility of state h_i is: $u(h_i) = \frac{t-k}{t}$

yield a utility of $\frac{10-4}{10} = 0.6$., i.e. for a given amount of time, being in state h_i is assumed to provide 60% of the utility of being in full health.

When the point of indifference is at $k = t$, the state is taken to be equal to ‘being dead’. If the individual is willing to give up additional full health time to avoid being in h_i , the state is assumed to be worse than dead and gets assigned a negative value – however, the way in which negative values are elicited differs between protocols [19]. Furthermore, consistent valuation rests on the constant proportional trade-off assumption, which means that individuals trade the same proportion of survival time to gain hrqol, irrespective of the absolute amount of time [20].

2.2 Interpersonal health state utility comparisons

When health state preferences are elicited from a group of individuals, there can be reasonable disagreement about whether some health state h_i is better or worse than another health state h_j , not least about the exact utility values. To determine the health state preferences of the group as a whole, TTO utilities are aggregated, usually by taking the average, into a set of social values, which maps each health state to a single hrqol value.

Cardinal aggregation procedures, such as the arithmetic average, can only be applied when utilities are fully interpersonally comparable [11, 12]. Anal-

ogous to the in-comparability of degrees Celsius and degrees Fahrenheit, the aggregation of utility values that are measured on different scales would not be meaningful [22]. The TTO method aims to achieve interpersonal comparability by anchoring the utility scale at full health (=1) and ‘being dead’ (=0). For these two states it is defined that preference levels are the same for every single individual. The values for all other health states are determined by making relative comparisons with respect to these two, so that by implication, a one-unit change means the same for all individuals.

Supposedly, the rationale for the normalisation of utilities between 1 and 0 is not that different individuals are actually assumed to experience full health in exactly the same way. Rather, it is posited on normative grounds, as a matter of fairness. Whether some individuals are able to enjoy being in full health more or less should play no role in the social evaluation of health states. Instead, all individuals should carry equal weight in the estimation of the social hrqol value set [12, 23]. The TTO method differs in this regard from other preference elicitation methods, such as Willingness-to-Pay, in which preference intensities can systematically vary between individuals, based on their ability to pay, for example, so that the preferences of some individuals have more weight than the preferences of others.

3 (Un)fair utility comparisons

3.1 Distortions in the hrqol measurement scale

Having established that we believe that one of the underlying principle of interpersonal health state utility is, or at least should be, equality, we now proceed to demonstrate that the current methodology fails to achieve it. We should begin to lay out our argument by noting that health outcomes can be evaluated along two dimensions: survival time and hrqol. Even though the QALY combines both into a uni-dimensional score, conceptually, they refer to different aspects of life. The question how valuable it is to go from state h_i to state h_j only requires an evaluation of the hrqol dimension – a reference to survival time is not needed. The question how valuable is it to gain one additional year of life in in state h_i , on the other hand, involves

107 an evaluation of the state's hrqol, but it may also involve the evaluation
 108 of many other aspects (meaning, family, contentment, etc). This is to say,
 109 individuals can derive utilities from living in a particular health state, even
 110 if they derived no utilities from their health, or if it caused severe suffering.
 111 It follows that choosing between living t years in state h_i and $t - k$ years in
 112 h_j requires an additional, third type of evaluation, namely about the **R**ate of
 113 **S**ubstitution between health-related **Q**uality and **Q**uantity of life (RSQQ):
 114 'how valuable is a unit change in hrqol compared to a unit change in survival
 115 time?'.

116 The relevance of these conceptual distinctions become apparent in light of the
 117 results from empirical research [16–18]. An analysis of preference data from
 118 the UK EQ-5D 3L health valuation study [14, 24] suggests that the RSQQ
 119 greatly differs across individuals: while some individuals refuse to give up
 120 any time for gains in hrqol, others seem to be willing to sacrifice a large
 121 proportion of their remaining life years for relatively minor improvements;
 122 and, overall, only very few individuals consider the worst health state to be
 123 equivalent to dead, i.e. to have a value of zero. Differences in the RSQQ
 124 actually explain a considerable proportion of the variability in utility values
 125 between individuals, whereas the relative order of health states appears to
 126 be much more consistent. Figure 3.1 illustrates the respective phenomenon
 127 in a sample of nine participants.

128 Since the TTO method measures utilities in units of full-health-time equiva-
 129 lents, which include both, hrqol and quantity of life, it is impossible to infer
 130 the RSQQ from a single value. A value of 0.9 for state h_i , for example, could
 131 mean that the individual thinks the hrqol of that state is high; but it could
 132 also mean that the hrqol is low, and the individual is just unwilling to give
 133 up much lifetime to gain hrqol; or something in-between. However, if we
 134 consider the full health states preferences of two individuals and find that
 135 for one individual, all utilities range between 1 and 0.9, and for the other,
 136 they range between 1 and 0, it appears unlikely that individual one is unable
 137 to notice much differences in the health component of these states. It seems

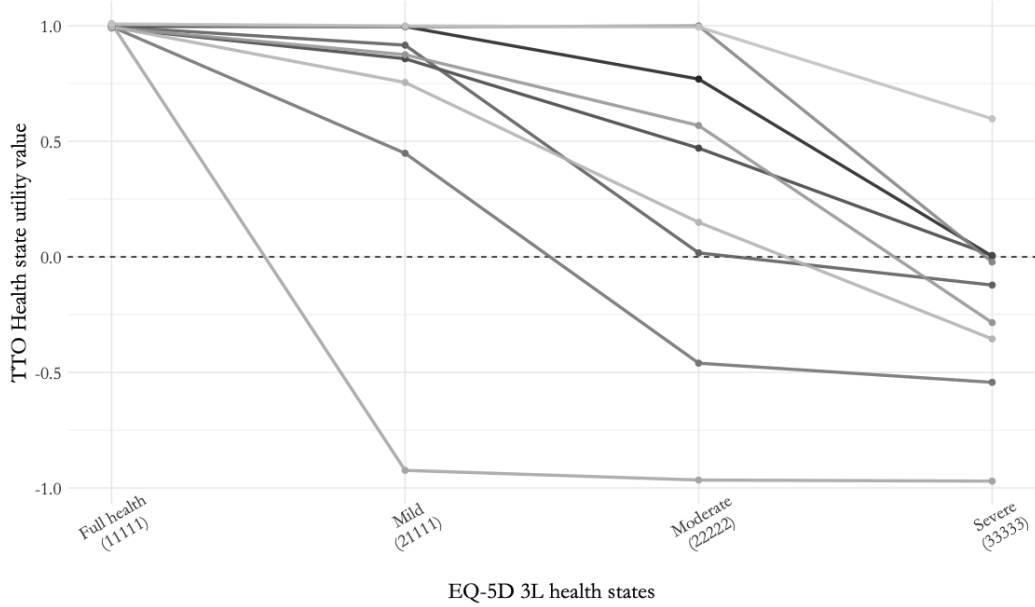


Figure 2: EQ-5D 3L preferences profiles of four individuals with different quality-quantity substitution rates. The figure shows the TTO preferences of nine individuals over four EQ-5D 3L health states. Each line represents the preference profile of one individual. The health states have a hierarchical order and are correspondingly labeled as full health (EQ-5D 3L code ‘1111’); minor (‘2111’); medium (‘2222’); and severe health problems (‘3333’).

rather more plausible that even though the hrqol of some states is very low for individual one, it is not worth sacrificing many years of life for them.

3.2 Implications for interpersonal utility comparisons

The problem with the TTO method is that differences in the RSQQ are not captured as such. Since utilities are measured in units of full-health-time, with ‘being dead’ as an anchor point at zero – not only for the time, but also for the hrqol dimension – the RSQQ is fixed at 1:1. Consequently, differences in the RSQQ are (mis)interpreted as differences in hrqol values. This distorts the scale on which hrqol is measured, and makes utility values interpersonally in-comparable. When utility values are nevertheless aggregated across different individuals, the weight of an individual’s hrqol ‘measurements’ in the estimation of the social hrqol value set depends on their RSQQ. This is the case, because the RSQQ determines the effective range of utility values: Individuals who place a (relatively) higher value on survival time (e.g. because they value other aspects than health in life), have, ceteris paribus,

153 higher values and a narrower range of values than individuals who place a
154 (relatively) higher value on hrqol. Yet, individuals with a wider range of
155 utility values have – simply for arithmetic reasons – more leverage, i.e. they
156 have more influence on the (relative) social hrqol values of health states (in
157 section 5.3, an example is provided to illustrate the effect).

158 When negative health state utilities are used for states considered worse than
159 dead, the problem is further aggravated, since the effective range of values is
160 no longer bound between 1 and 0. Moreover, the nature of negative utilities
161 is different from their positive counterparts, in that they are not measured
162 as a proportion of the utilities derived from full health. Rather, they reflect
163 actual preference intensities and thereby defy the rules of utility normalisa-
164 tion. Although the range of negative values is often restricted, either by the
165 experimental setup or by (arbitrarily) rescaling values to a minimum of -1,
166 conceptually, negative values have no lower limit [25]. Depending on the in-
167 dividual’s ability to derive disutility from poor health, negative utilities may
168 take values up to minus infinity. Besides the conceptual inconsistency that
169 negative values introduce into the valuation of health, the wider, potentially
170 infinite, range of utility values of individuals with negative utilities pose a
171 problem for the interpersonal comparability of health state utilities [25, 26].

172 We argue that there is no theoretical justification for why an individual’s
173 RSQQ, or their ability to derive negative utilities from poor health, should be
174 taken into account in the derivation of (relative) social hrqol values of health
175 states. Doing so violates the notion that everyone’s preferences should be
176 equally important. To make interpersonal utility comparisons fairer, we thus
177 propose an alternative aggregation procedure, which overcomes this problem,
178 by (temporarily) normalising individuals’ utilities between full health and the
179 worst health state.

180 This evidently goes against the conventional conception that ‘being dead’ is
181 a natural zero point on the hrqol measurement scale. Before we go on to
182 outline our method in more detail, it will be necessary to consider the role of
183 ‘being dead’ on the measurement scale, and demonstrate that our alternative
184 normalisation procedure is at all permissible.

185 **4 The role of being dead in the valuation of health**

186 If ‘being dead’ were a health state with an absolute hrqol value of zero, our
187 proposal had little substance. The normalisation between full health and
188 dead would then provide the only valid yardstick to measure hrqol, and the
189 concept of a RSQQ would be futile. However, there are several arguments
190 for rejecting this conception.

191 First of all we want to make an ontological argument by noting that ‘being
192 dead’ is an oxymoron in it-self. To ‘be’ dead actually means nothing less
193 than to be not. When an individual dies, they cease to exist, so that it
194 might just not bear any meaning to say ‘someone is dead for one year’. The
195 question how many utilities are derived from this state of ‘not being’ during
196 this period seem equally pointless.

197 Suppose dead were a state of being, it still does not follow that dead should
198 also be considered a health state. A move from one health state to another
199 usually involves changes in the health status, which may or may not have
200 impact on other domains. Moving from some health state to dead, however,
201 involves changes in literally all aspects of life, including relationships, income,
202 and, of course, being alive itself [16–18]. As argued above, these additional
203 aspects, and the valuation thereof, do not seem relevant for the measurement
204 of hrqol [27]. Comparing health states with ‘being dead’ does, therefore,
205 provide little information about hrqol, but only about the relative value of
206 changes in health compared to changes in survival time.

207 Even if ‘being dead’ were a health state, there is no conclusive argument for
208 why every individual should assign a hrqol value of zero to it. Although it
209 is common practice to assume this were the case, a theoretical foundation
210 for this is missing [27–29]. Notwithstanding, only recently Roudijk et al.[28]
211 proposed that hrqol were measured on a ratio scale for which being dead
212 were a ‘natural’ zero. We would argue that their conclusion does not follow
213 from their premises. However, since it is not within the scope of this paper to
214 provide a full technical response, we will confine ourselves to challenge their
215 proposition on a conceptual level.

216 The ‘natural’ zero point of a ratio scale, e.g. for measuring physical quanti-
 217 ties, such as mass or time, has an unambiguous meaning. It defines the point
 218 at which the quantity is completely absent, where there is no mass or no
 219 time. Yet, when ‘being dead’ is set to zero on the hrqol measurement scale,
 220 it seems have different properties. For some individuals, it divides utilities
 221 into positive and negative values, while for others it does not [8]. In fact,
 222 individuals, who value being alive irrespective of their health, cannot even
 223 move to any health state with a zero value (while they are alive). Such a
 224 scale does not seem to measure hrqol in some natural units, but in relation
 225 to some external reference. In this regard, it appears rather similar to the
 226 zero points in degrees Celsius or degrees Fahrenheit, which divide the (in-
 227 terval) scale for temperature into negative and positive values, at different,
 228 arbitrarily chosen points [22].

229 To conclude, conceptualising dead as a health state and setting it to zero is
 230 by no means ‘natural’. It thus does not seem a priori illegitimate to use a
 231 different scale to measure hrqol. Of course, to be useful for the valuation of
 232 health outcomes in economic evaluations, hrqol values have to be anchored
 233 on the full health-dead scale of the QALY at some point. However, for
 234 the relative comparison and aggregation of hrqol values across individuals,
 235 normalising health state utilities between the best and the worst health state
 236 appears to be a much better, because fairer, method.

237 **5 Alternative multi-step health state utility aggregation procedure**

238 **5.1 Overview and notations**

239 The alternative procedure that we propose to aggregate individual health
 240 state preferences into a social hrqol value set is based on the principle of
 241 relative utilitarianism [23]. The aim is to give everyone’s preferences equal
 242 weight in the social preference function that determines the value of a health
 243 state. The procedure consists of four steps, which are outlined below. A
 244 simple example is then provided to demonstrate its advantage over the ‘tra-
 245 ditional’ method.

For convenience, we shall introduce some notations. Suppose there are n individuals $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and a descriptive system of mutually exclusive health states, denoted $H \in \{h_1, h_2, \dots, h_k\}$. Individuals' preferences $u(\cdot)$ over these states are measured on the TTO utility scale, between full health, dead, and negative values are limited to -1 . Individual j 's preference for state h_i is denoted $u_j(h_i) : \mu \{1 \leq \mu \leq -1\}$, and $u_j(H) \in \{u_j(h_1), u_j(h_2), \dots, u_j(h_k)\}$ denotes j 's preferences over the entire set of health states in H . Further, let $\min u_j(H)$ denote the lowest, and $\max u_j(H)$ denote the highest value in $u_j(H)$. To avoid division by zero during the normalisation procedure, we define that $\min u_j(H) < \max u_j(H) = 1$. Finally, an individual's RSQQ, which can be interpreted as a scaling factor that expands or shrinks the range of utility values, is denoted r .

5.2 Model formulation

The 'traditional' social welfare function $U(h_i) : \mu \{1 \leq \mu \leq -1\}$ to map health state h_i to a social value is given by:

$$U(h_i) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n u_j(h_i)}{n}, \quad (1)$$

Our alternative social welfare function $S(h_i) : \mu \{1 \leq \mu \leq -1\}$ can be derived through the following four simple steps:

1. **Normalisation:** the health state utility values of each individual are normalised between their best and their worst health state, so that everyone's values have the same range (1-0).

$$u'_j(h_i) = \frac{u_j(h_i) - \min u_j(H)}{\max u_j(H) - \min u_j(H)} \quad (2)$$

2. **Aggregation:** The provisional social preference function $S'(\cdot)$ is derived by aggregating the normalised utilities across individuals. The *relative* social value of state h_i is then given by the following formula:

$$S'(h_i) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n u'_j(h_i)}{n} \quad (3)$$

3. **Scaling factor:** RSQQ values r_j are also aggregated across individuals to determine the social RSQQ, denoted R . In addition, an anchor point

270 A is used, to relate the normalised hrqol scale to the full-health-dead-
 271 scale.

$$r_j = \min u_j(H) - \max u_j(H) \quad (\text{Individual RSQQ}) \quad (4)$$

$$R = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n r_j}{n} \quad (\text{Social RSQQ}) \quad (5)$$

$$A = 1 - R \quad (\text{Anchor point}) \quad (6)$$

272 4. **Rescaling:** Finally, the alternative social social welfare function $S(\cdot)$
 273 is derived by using the social RSQQ R to rescale the provisional social
 274 preference function $S'(\cdot)$ to the full health-dead scale between 1 and 0.

$$S(h_i) = R * S'(h_i) + A \quad (7)$$

275 5.3 A simple example

276 Suppose a TTO is conducted among just two individuals (1 and 2), to derive
 277 a social value set for a simple descriptive system, with two attributes (pain
 278 and mobility) which have two levels each (no problems, problems): h^* (full
 279 health); h_i (immobile); h_j (pain); h_0 (immobile and pain). Further suppose
 280 that individual 1's utility for h_i is higher than for h_j (0.9 vs 0.8), while indi-
 281 vidual 2's preferences are the other way around (0.66 vs. 0.33). By definition,
 282 h^* has a value of 1, and both individuals also agree that h_0 is dominated by
 283 the other states, yet individual 2 assigns it a much lower value (0.00 vs 0.7).
 284 When their utilities are aggregated using the traditional method, the social
 285 values for h_i and h_j are 0.62 and 0.73, indicating that, as a group, the two
 286 individuals prefer h_j over h_i . The social values for h^* and h_0 are 1 and 0.35,
 287 respectively.

288 In our interpretation of health state preferences, the aggregate results are
 289 unfair towards individual 1. When their preferences are normalised between
 290 the best and the worst state, it can be seen that – relative to the other
 291 health states – individual 1's preference intensity for h_i is exactly as strong
 292 as individual 2's preference for h_j (0.66 vs 0.66). It is only because indi-
 293 vidual 2 has a higher RSQQ (1.00 vs 0.30) that makes their preference for

294 h_j seem stronger. When our alternative aggregation procedure is applied,
 295 the individuals' relative health states preferences receive equal weight in the
 296 derivation of the social preference function. The respective alternative social
 297 hrqol values for h_i and h_j are 0.68 and 0.68. The values for h^* and h_0 are
 298 unchanged.

299 Table 1 shows the health state utility values of both individuals and the
 300 corresponding traditional and alternative social value sets. In addition, the
 301 results are visually depicted in Figure 3.

Table 1. Individual and social health state preferences

		h^*	h_i	h_j	h_0	r
'Traditional' utility aggregation procedure	u_1	1	0.90	0.80	0.70	
	u_2	1	0.33	0.66	0.00	
	U	1	0.62	0.73	0.35	
Alternative utility aggregation procedure	u'_1	1	0.66	0.33	0.00	0.30
	u'_2	1	0.33	0.66	0.00	1.00
	$S' / [R]$	1	0.50	0.50	0.00	[0.65]
	S	1	0.68	0.68	0.35	

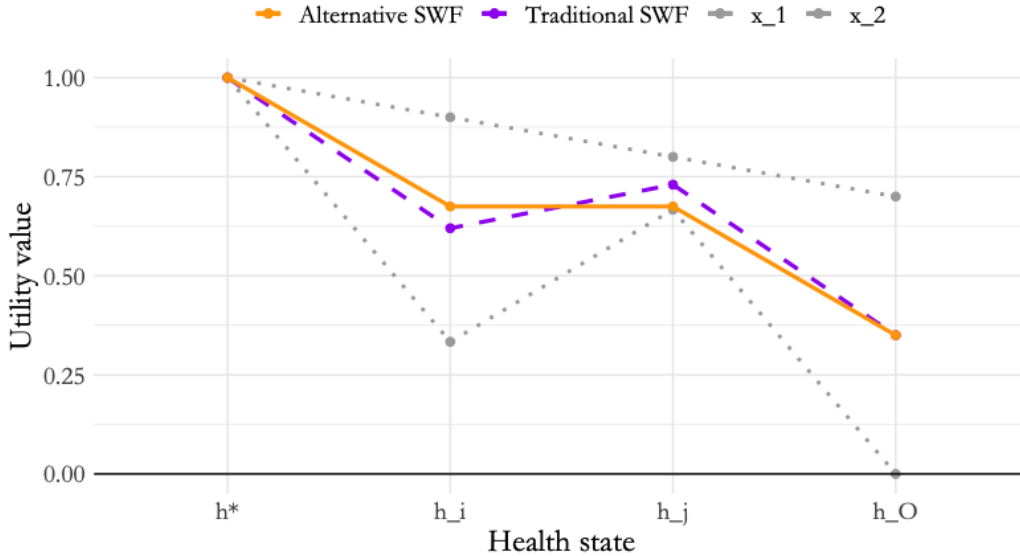


Figure 3: Shown are the two individual preference profiles (gray), the traditional social welfare function (purple), and our alternative social welfare function (orange).

302 6 Discussion

303 We outlined potential flaws in the procedure that is commonly used to com-
304 pare and aggregate individual TTO health state utilities for use in economic
305 evaluations. The main argument of our paper is that the conventional method
306 is unfair, because it fails to give every individual equal say in the outcome.
307 Social value sets predominantly represent the preferences of those individuals
308 who place a low value on survival time, compared to hrqol. Our alternative
309 multi-step aggregation procedure aims to overcome this problem, by explic-
310 itly taking into account differences in RSQQ. Thereby, it is possible to dis-
311 entangle the aggregation of hrqol from the aggregation of the RSQQ values.
312 Even though this paper focuses exclusively on TTO, our approach should be
313 equally applicable to utilities elicited through the standard gamble method.

314 Currently, our critique of the conventional method is only theoretical. We
315 have not yet empirically tested whether our method yields any different re-
316 sults than the traditional method. It should be noted that this can only be
317 expected, if the health state preferences of individuals with a high RSQQ sys-
318 tematically differ from those with a low RSQQ (e.g. individuals with a high
319 RSQQ prioritise mobility, while individuals with low RSQQ prioritise being
320 free from pain). The next step will thus be to apply our alternative method
321 on actual preference data and to compare the results with the traditional
322 method.

323 Our conceptual approach links directly to two other recently proposed alter-
324 native utility rescaling/re-weighting methods: Jakubczyk et al.[30] suggest
325 to equalise utilities based on 'worst fears'. For each individual, utilities are
326 normalised between full health and either 'being dead' or the worst health
327 state, which ever has a lower utility value. A whole series of alternative mea-
328 surement scales for hrqol were suggested by Sampson et al.[27]. They argue
329 that dead should not be considered relevant in the derivation of the social
330 value of health states, and, therefore, they reject the use of 'being dead' in
331 the TTO altogether. Instead, they recommend a range of other outcomes,
332 such as being unconscious, the worst health state, or minimum endurable
333 quality of life, which could be used in TTO exercises instead. Unfortunately,

334 the works of Jakubczyk et al. and Sampson et al. have not yet been fully
335 published, so that their approaches cannot be examined in more detail at
336 this point.

337 For the purpose of this paper, we have accepted the arithmetic mean as a
338 valid aggregation method. From a (utilitarian) welfare economic perspec-
339 tive, the average might also appear to be the method of choice, as it max-
340 imises the sum of utilities. However, it must be acknowledged that aggregate
341 health state utilities are actually not used to choose a particular course of
342 action, but only to derive a set of social hrqol values. These social values
343 are then used to evaluate changes in the health status and the survival time
344 in terms of QALYs, which, combined with information on costs and a cost-
345 per-QALY threshold, ultimately inform societal decision-making. It seems
346 unclear whether the utilitarian justification for using the average as an ag-
347 gregate function is applicable in this context, or whether other aggregation
348 methods might be more appropriate [9, 10, 31, 32].

349 With regard to the broader theoretical background of this paper, it is also
350 worth mentioning that in Welfare Economics, Social Choice Theory and cer-
351 tain parts of philosophy, the problem of interpersonal utility comparisons ap-
352 pears to have been addressed with much more sophistication than in health
353 economics. In these fields, considerable effort has been devoted to rigor-
354 ously investigate which types of utility comparisons are permissible, within
355 and between individuals, for different sets of assumptions. We are convinced
356 that research on the valuation of health would benefit from a closer consid-
357 eration of this extensive body of work (for an introduction and overview,
358 readers may refer to [12] and [33]), and from being more explicit about its
359 underlying values.

360 **7 Conclusion**

361 We have shown that the conventional method used to aggregate TTO health
362 state preferences across individuals is unfair. The preferences of individuals,
363 who are more willing to trade survival time for gains in hrqol, have more

weight in the estimation of the social value set. We propose an alternative procedure, which overcomes this type of bias, by separating the utility aggregation in multiple steps. However, whether our method actually provides significantly different results still needs to be tested empirically, as this depends on the extent to which preferences for certain health dimensions are correlated with the general willingness to trade survival time for hrqol.

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