ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Cost-Effectiveness of Competing Treatment Strategies for Clostridium difficile Infection: A Systematic Review

Phuc Le, PhD, MPH;¹ Van T. Nghiem, PhD;² Patricia Dolan Mullen, MLS, MPH, DrPH;³ Abhishek Deshpande, MD, PhD^{1,4}

BACKGROUND. Clostridium difficile infection (CDI) presents a substantial economic burden and is associated with significant morbidity. While multiple treatment strategies have been evaluated, a cost-effective management strategy remains unclear.

OBJECTIVE. We conducted a systematic review to assess cost-effectiveness analyses of CDI treatment and to summarize key issues for clinicians and policy makers to consider.

METHODS. We searched PubMed and 5 other databases from inception to August 2016. These searches were not limited by study design or language of publication. Two reviewers independently screened the literature, abstracted data, and assessed methodological quality using the Drummond and Jefferson checklist. We extracted data on study characteristics, type of CDI, treatment characteristics, and model structure and inputs.

RESULTS. We included 14 studies, and 13 of these were from high-income countries. More than 90% of these studies were deemed moderateto-high or high quality. Overall, 6 studies used a decision-tree model and 7 studies used a Markov model. Cost of therapy, time horizon, treatment cure rates, and recurrence rates were common influential factors in the study results. For initial CDI, fidaxomicin was a more cost-effective therapy than metronidazole or vancomycin in 2 of 3 studies. For severe initial CDI, 2 of 3 studies found fidaxomicin to be the most cost-effective therapy. For recurrent CDI, fidaxomicin was cost-effective in 3 of 5 studies, while fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) by colonoscopy was consistently cost-effective in 4 of 4 studies.

CONCLUSIONS. The cost-effectiveness of fidaxomicin compared with other pharmacologic therapies was not definitive for either initial or recurrent CDI. Despite its high cost, FMT by colonoscopy may be a cost-effective therapy for recurrent CDI. A consensus on model design and assumptions are necessary for future comparison of CDI treatment.

Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 2018;39:412-424

Clostridium difficile infection (CDI) is one of the most common healthcare-associated infections in North America and Europe.¹ In 2011, the estimated incidence of CDI in the United States was approximately 453,000.² The management of CDI remains complicated because of epidemic strains (BI/NAP1/ 027) introduced in 2005 and because disease severity varies.^{3,4} In addition, patients often have multiple and frequent recurrences,⁵ which exacerbate the disease burden and increase medical costs. The most common risk factors for CDI recurrence include age \geq 65 years, severe underlying comorbidities, and concomitant use of antibiotics.^{6,7} *Clostridium difficile* infection continues to impose a significant economic burden on the US healthcare system, estimated to be more than \$5.4 billion (2014 US dollars).⁸

The current guidelines for CDI management recommend either metronidazole, vancomycin, fidaxomicin, or fecal

microbiota transplantation (FMT), depending on disease severity and the presence and number of recurrences.^{3,9-11} Current treatment choices and available algorithms make it difficult for physicians to tailor individualized therapies for patients. While newer drugs and therapies may be more effective, they are also more expensive. In the past few years, several cost-effectiveness analyses of different CDI treatment strategies have been conducted to support evidence-based decision making,^{12–17} but the results were mixed. A previous review summarized the economics of CDI treatments, but it did not include study quality assessments and based recommendations on partial costing or comparative effectiveness studies.¹⁸ Therefore, the aim of this systematic review was to critically assess the available literature on economic evaluations of various treatment modalities for initial and recurrent CDI. Based on model comparison, we summarized the

Affiliations: 1. Center for Value-Based Care Research, Medicine Institute, Cleveland Clinic, Cleveland, Ohio; 2. Department of Management, Policy and Community Health, The University of Texas School of Public Health, Houston, Texas; 3. Department of Health Promotion and Behavioral Sciences, Center for Health Promotion and Prevention Research, The University of Texas School of Public Health, Houston, Texas; 4. Department of Infectious Disease, Medicine Institute, Cleveland Clinic, Cleveland, Ohio.

Received July 25, 2017; accepted December 5, 2017; electronically published February 21, 2018

^{© 2018} by The Society for Healthcare Epidemiology of America. All rights reserved. 0899-823X/2018/3904-0006. DOI: 10.1017/ice.2017.303

findings about treatment modalities and key issues for clinicians to consider when treating patients with CDI, to inform health policy makers, and to identify important areas for future cost-effectiveness research.

METHODS

We conducted a systematic review following the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analysis (PRISMA) reporting guideline¹⁹ and a measurement tool for the Assessment of Multiple Systematic Reviews (AMSTAR) standard for quality of execution.²⁰

Search Strategy

Studies were included if they (1) were original analyses; (2) were full cost-effectiveness analysis (CEA), cost-utility analysis (CUA), cost-benefit analysis (CBA), or a combination of CEA-CUA or CEA-CBA; and (3) examined treatment modalities that were approved for patient use. Studies were excluded if they (1) did not estimate cost per unit of health outcomes; (2) only addressed CDI diagnostic tests, prevention strategies, and hypothetical or under-investigation treatments; or (3) were an editorial, comment, review, letter to the editor, or conference abstract. In case of multiple publications using the same cost-effectiveness model and data, the more recent and comprehensive study was included. All studies using similar models for different treatments, populations, or types of CDI were included.

Independently, 2 investigators (P.L. and V.T.N.) identified relevant articles by searching PubMed/MEDLINE, Cochrane Library, Web of Science, EMBASE, and Scopus databases from inception through August 2016. We also searched the British National Health Service (NHS) Economic Evaluation database and the reference lists of included studies. The search terms were "*Clostridium difficile*," "*C. difficile*," "economic," "economic evaluation," "cost," "cost-effectiveness," "cost-utility," and "cost-benefit." The full PubMed search strategy is available as supplementary material. After reviewing the study title and abstract, P.L. and V.T.N. selected articles and independently reviewed the full text to determine inclusion. All disagreements were resolved through discussion with the third investigator (A.D.).

Data Extraction

Independently, 2 investigators (P.L. and V.T.N.) extracted relevant data using a uniform data extraction tool (available as Supplementary Table 1). We extracted information on study characteristics (authors, publication year, country, funding sources), type of CDI (initial, recurrent), treatment characteristics (types, medication dose and administration route, and mode of delivery of FMT), model structure (design, population, perspective, time horizon, discount rate), epidemiological data related to CDI and treatment effectiveness, types of costs and values, cost year and currency, outcome measures, the incremental cost-effectiveness ratio, decision threshold, and sensitivity analyses. We summarized data by type of CDI. Cost-effectiveness findings were additionally stratified by funding source.

Quality Assessment

We assessed study quality using the *British Medical Journal's* Drummond and Jefferson checklist.²¹ We adapted the checklist to include 3 additional items: generalizability, source of funding, and conflict of interest based on the Consolidated Health Economic Evaluation Reporting Standards checklist.²² Each item in the checklist has a 'Yes', 'No' or 'Not applicable' (NA) option and was scored 1, 0, or no score, respectively (available as Supplementary Table 2). The overall quality score was then calculated as the percentage of 'Yes' responses out of the total criteria applicable to each individual study. For example, if a paper had 27 Yes, 7 No, and 4 NA, the quality score was calculated as 71% (27 of 34). Based on its quality score, each study was ranked as either low quality (<50%), moderate quality (50%–64%), moderate-to-high quality (65%–80%), or high quality (>80%).

Conversion of Outcomes to a Standard Metric

For US-based studies, we converted reported costs and incremental cost-effectiveness ratios into 2016 US dollars, using the medical care component of the Consumer Price Index. For other countries, we inflated data to 2016 using the countryspecific Consumer Price Index²³ and converted the result to US dollars using relevant exchange rates.

RESULTS

Search Results

We retrieved 556 unique citations and screened all titles and abstracts, as well as full texts of 21 potentially relevant study reports. We excluded 7 studies after a full text review because they did not consider both cost and health outcomes, conducted burden-of-illness analyses, or did not report data with their analytical frameworks. A total of 14 eligible studies remained (Figure 1). No additional studies were found after we reviewed references of included studies and searched the NHS database.

Study Characteristics

Of the 14 studies reviewed, 13 were conducted in high-income countries within the past 5 years (Table 1). Federal or local governments sponsored 6 studies, and the pharmaceutical industry funded 5 studies. Furthermore, 7 studies evaluated treatments for initial CDI, 2 of which focused solely on severe infection. In addition, 4 studies considered treatments for recurrent CDI, while 2 others investigated both initial and

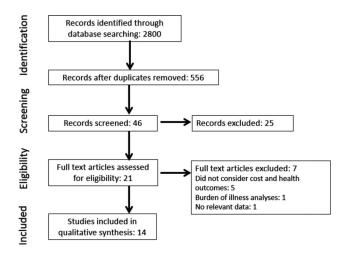


FIGURE 1. Flow diagram summarizing evidence search and selection

recurrent CDI. The final study evaluated *C. difficile*–induced colitis unresponsive to metronidazole. All available treatment modalities approved for patient use were evaluated for initial and recurrent CDI, irrespective of guideline recommendation. Notably, 1 study examined FMT use for initial CDI,¹⁵ and 2 others investigated metronidazole use for recurrent CDI.^{13,14} Fidaxomicin was evaluated in 10 studies, while vancomycin was examined in all studies.

Model Design

Overall, 13 studies employed either a Markov or decision-tree model. The common Markov cycle length was 10 days (Table 1). Also, 2 studies used the same model to evaluate CDI treatments in different patient populations.^{24,25} The analytical perspective was that of the healthcare provider/health system or third-party payer for most studies (k = 12). Discounting was not applied for most studies because of the short time horizon. Furthermore, 2 studies that followed patients throughout their lives used appropriate discounting rates,^{14,26} but 1 of these studies had discordant time frames for cost and quality-adjusted life years (QALY; 18 weeks for costs vs lifetime for QALY).¹⁴ Comorbidities (eg, cancer, concomitant antibiotics, renal impairment) were accounted for in 3 studies.^{17,24,27}

Study Quality

Most of the studies were deemed moderate-to-high or high quality (k = 13). The mean and median quality scores were ~ 80% (data not shown but available upon request). Most studies provided detailed information on study design and population. In 1 study, the analytical perspective was societal, but indirect costs were not included.¹³ Another study did not specify the perspective,²⁶ and 2 studies lacked information on cost year.^{28,29}

Health Outcomes

Quality-adjusted life years was the most common health outcome reported (Table 1). Other outcome measures were CDI cases/recurrences avoided, clinical cure, life years, or bed days saved. Of the 10 studies that estimated QALY, 8 specified a cost-effectiveness decision threshold, but none conducted primary data collection for utility measurement. Because of the lack of CDI-specific utility weights,^{14–17,27} alternative weights for noninfectious diarrhea or for grade 3–4 diarrhea associated with chemotherapy were used. Utility weights generally varied substantially across studies; for example, utility for CDI was between 0.319 and 0.880.^{14,17,24–27}

Treatment Effectiveness

Table 2 shows how reviewed studies differed on treatment effectiveness across CDI episode and severity. Studies used a range of probabilities (0.65–0.84) as the metronidazole cure rate. Perras et al³⁰ used the lowest value (0.65) based on the success rate of metronidazole for initial severe CDI reported in a conference proceeding.³⁰ In contrast, Varier et al¹⁵ used a higher cure rate of 0.80 based on 1997 American College of Gastroenterology guidelines. Bartsch et al¹² derived the highest rate from a randomized clinical trial (RCT) and assumed it to be the same for both initial and recurrent CDI.

The studies that compared vancomycin and metronidazole generally used higher cure rate estimates for vancomycin, from 0.817 to 0.916.^{13,15,30,31} These rates were, however, lower than that of fidaxomicin, except for severe CDI (NAP1/BI/027 strain) or patients with renal impairment.^{17,27} For recurrent CDI, Varier et al used a vancomycin cure rate of 0.69,¹⁶ which was lower than the 0.889–0.926 range used in other studies.^{13,17,29} Furthermore, 2 studies assumed that vancomycin and fidaxomicin were similarly effective,^{25,29} and in 1 study, both drugs had much lower cure rates for *C. difficile*–induced colitis.²⁸ The fidaxomicin cure rates for the NAP1/BI/027 strain were considerably different in 2 studies,^{12,27} whereas the cure rate of FMT was high (0.910–0.945) when delivered via colonoscopy but not other modes.¹³

Similarly, the probability of CDI recurrence after treatment varied significantly across studies. Recurrence rates after treatment with metronidazole ranged from 0.150 to 0.421 and were higher for recurrent CDI than for initial CDI. The CDI recurrence rate after vancomycin was lower than after metronidazole but higher than after fidaxomicin. While 2 studies modeled vancomycin with a higher recurrence rate for the NAP1/BI/027 strain than fidaxomicin,^{12,27,29} another study did the opposite.²⁷ The probability of recurrence after FMT via colonoscopy was comparable among studies but differed noticeably for other modes of delivery. Specifically, the recurrence rate of FMT by duodenal infusion or enema was 2–4 times higher in a study than in another, although the same reference source was cited in both.^{13,14} In some studies, recurrence rates were not stated explicitly.²⁶

TABLE 1. Characteristics of Included Economic Evaluations

Author (Veer)				Model Design		— Decision	
(Year) Country Funding	Comparisons	Population	Model Type No. of CDI recurrences	Perspective	Time Horizon Discount Rate	Threshold, US\$/QALY	Health Outcomes
Initial CDI (no specific Gidengil ³¹ (2014) United States Industry	 c disease severity) Metronidazole, then metronidazole for 1st recurrence Metronidazole, then vancomycin for 1st recurrence Vancomycin, then vancomycin for 1st recurrence Fidaxomicin, then fidaxomicin for 1st recurrence 	Adult inpatients	• Markov (no cycle length) • 0	Healthcare provider/ health system	• 1 y • None	NR	 No. of CDI recurrences No. of persistent CDI cases requiring tx change No. of readmissions No. of CDI-related deaths No. of VRE colonization cases No. of VRE infections
Rubio-Terres ²⁴ (2015) Spain Industry		Pts with cancer, concomitant antibiotic tx, renal impairment	• Markov (10-d cycle) • 1	Healthcare provider/ health system	• l y • None	\$31,800 (€30,000)	QALY
Stranges ²⁷ (2013) United States None	FidaxomicinVancomycin	Mean age, 59.9 y	 Decision tree ≥2 	Third-party payer	• 23 y • 3%	\$100,000	QALY
Varier ¹⁵ (2014) United States NGO	MetronidazoleVancomycinFMT colonoscopy	Adult outpatients	 Decision tree ≥2 	Third-party payer	• 90 d • None	\$100 000	QALY
Watt ¹⁷ (2016) Germany Industry	FidaxomicinVancomycin	Pts with severe initial CDI, recurrent CDI, concomitant antibiotic tx, age ≥65 y, cancer, renal impairment	 Markov (10-d cycle) ≥2 	Healthcare provider/ health system	• 1 year • None	\$63 000 (€50,000)	 QALY No. of bed days saved No. of CDI recurrences avoided
Initial CDI (severe) Perras ³⁰ (2011) Canada Public	• Metronidazole • Vancomycin • Fidaxomicin	Pts with severe CDI	 Decision tree 1	Healthcare provider/ health system	• 50 d • None	NR	Clinical cure
Wagner ²⁹ (2014) Canada Industry	• Vancomycin	Pts with severe CDI	 Decision tree 1	Healthcare provider/ health system	 2 months None	NR	No. of CDI recurrences avoided
Recurrent CDI Konijeti ¹³ (2014) United States Public	 Metronidazole Vancomycin Fidaxomicin FMT colonoscopy FMT duodenal infusion FMT enema 	Pts age ≥65 y	 Decision tree ≥2 	Societal	• 1 y • None	\$50,000	QALY

TABLE 1. Continued

Author (Year)				Model Design		Decision		
(Year) Country Funding	Comparisons	Population	Model Type No. of CDI recurrences Perspective		Time Horizon Discount Rate	Threshold, US\$/QALY	Health Outcomes	
Lapointe-Shaw ¹⁴ (2011) Canada Public	 Metronidazole and vancomycin for subsequent recurrences Vancomycin and vancomycin for subsequent recurrences Fidaxomicin and vancomycin for subsequent recurrences FMT by enema and repeated therapy using a different donor for recurrence FMT by nasogastric tube and repeated therapy using a different donor for recurrence FMT by colonoscopy and repeated therapy using a different donor for 		 Markov (6-week cycle) ≥2 	Healthcare provider/ health system	 18 weeks (CDI-related costs and complications); lifetime (QALYs) 5% (health benefits); none (costs) 	\$38,000 (CAD 50,000)	QALY	
Merlo ²⁶ (2016) Australia	recurrence • Vancomycin • Nasoduodenal FMT	Age \geq 65 y	• Markov (10-d cycle) • ≥2	NR	• Lifetime • 5%	NR	• QALY • No. of life years saved	
None Varier ¹⁶ (2015) United States Public	Colorectal FMTVancomycinFMT colonoscopy	Outpatient adults	 Decision tree 1	Third-party payer	• 90 d • None	NR	QALY	
Initial and Recurren	t CDI							
Bartsch ¹² (2013) United States Public	 Metronidazole (nonsevere) and vancomycin (severe) Fidaxomicin Fidaxomicin with strain typing 	Adults, age ≥18 y	• Microsimulation • 1	Third-party payer	• None • None (3% for cost conversion)	\$50,000	QALY	
Nathwani ²⁵ (2014) Scotland Industry	• Fidaxomicin • Vancomycin	Adults, age ≥18 y	• Markov (10-d cycle) • ≥2	Governmental	• 1 year • None	\$25,400 (£20,000) \$38,100 (£30,000)	QALY	
Other Markovic ²⁸ (2014) Serbia Public	FidaxomicinVancomycin	NR	• Markov (15-d cycle) • ≥2	Third-party payer	• 90 d • None	\$458,440/life saved (RSD 53,307,040/ life saved)	 No. of lives saved No. of subtotal colectomies avoided 	

NOTE. CDI, *Clostridium difficile* infection; d, day; FMT, fecal microbiota transplantation; NGO, nongovernmental organization; NR, not reported or not available; pt, patients; QALY, quality-adjusted life years; tx, treatment; VRE, vancomycin-resistant enterococci, venous thromboembolism; y, years.

Economic Parameters

Costs of CDI therapies and hospitalizations were included in all studies. Costs of laboratory tests were included in most studies, and costs of outpatient visits were included much less often (Table 2). Although excluding costs of treatment-related adverse events would bias results, only 3 studies included such costs.^{15,16,31} Most studies used official sources for cost estimates, and US studies had higher per-unit costs than studies in other countries. The cost of FMT therapy varied depending on the route of administration and often included associated pretreatment cost of oral vancomycin.

Cost-Effectiveness of CDI treatments

Table 2 summarizes the incremental cost-effectiveness ratios in 2016 US dollars per QALY gained stratified by type of CDI, wherever available. For initial CDI with no specific disease severity, fidaxomicin was cost-effective compared to vancomycin in 2 studies^{17,27} but not in the study accounting for severity.¹² For initial CDI in patients with concomitant antibiotics use, cancer, or renal impairment, 2 studies found fidaxomicin to be cost-effective.^{17,24} Although FMT has not been recommended for initial CDI, the study that examined the use of colonoscopy-delivered FMT found it not cost-effective.¹⁵ Also, 2 studies found fidaxomicin cost-effective for severe initial CDI,^{17,25} but another concluded differently.²⁷ While many factors might have influenced results, a much higher cure rate of vancomycin (0.886) and the double cost for fidaxomicin,²⁷ compared with the other 2 studies, were notable. For recurrent CDI, studies consistently reported that FMT via colonoscopy was a cost-effective treatment, whereas findings on other FMT delivery routes were inconsistent.^{13,14,16,26} When FMT was not available, fidaxomicin was a cost-effective option compared to other drugs in 3 studies^{14,17,25} but not in 2 other studies.^{12,13}

Stratified by funding source, all 5 industry-funded studies examined fidaxomicin, 3 of which concluded that fidaxomicin was either cost-effective or cost saving compared to metronidazole or vancomycin.^{17,24,25} The remaining 2 studies did not measure QALYs and made no conclusion about its costeffectiveness.^{29,31} For studies with other types of or no funding, fidaxomicin was found cost-effective in one study²⁷ but not the other,¹² whereas FMT was favored in most of them.^{13,14,16,26}

Sensitivity Analysis

Most studies reported that treatment effectiveness was an important factor in 1-way sensitivity analysis (Table 2). For example, if the cure rate after vancomycin was >95.5%, it would be the preferred treatment for recurrent CDL.¹³ Cost of therapy was another influential parameter; FMT would no longer be dominant if its cost was > $$3,205^{16}$ or if the fidax-omicin cost was < $$1,359.^{13}$ Some other important variables were treatment duration, complication rates, and CDI mortality rate.

Probabilistic sensitivity analysis was conducted in 79% of the studies, but final results were not reported in 2 of them.^{12,13} Some studies presented a cost-effectiveness acceptability curve, while others reported 95% CI around the mean cost and effectiveness. The probability of being cost-effective at a prespecified willingness to pay, defined as the maximum amount of dollars spent for an additional QALY gained, was between 60% and 96% for fidaxomicin, depending on CDI severity and population.^{24,25,27} FMT was either dominant or had a probability of cost-effectiveness between 38% and 87%.^{14,15}

DISCUSSION

Our study is one of the first systematic reviews to critically assess the quality of studies and cost-effectiveness of CDI treatment modalities, and we found substantial differences among the included studies. Because fidaxomicin is a newer drug, it was examined extensively for use in treating initial CDI. Results for fidaxomicin were inconclusive, however, except being cost-effective in some special and/or selective populations. The 3 studies of fidaxomicin for severe, initial CDI treatment had divergent conclusions, as did the 5 studies of fidaxomicin for recurrent CDI. FMT by colonoscopy was cost-effective for recurrent infection, but not for initial CDI. These cost-effectiveness findings did not hold true when FMT was delivered by other routes.

We identified important differences in study design among the included studies. Although QALY has become the most common outcome measure, one-third of the studies reviewed did not estimate QALY. Furthermore, studies accounted for CDI complications differently, and while some included costs of treating adverse events, none accounted for complications such as renal failure, which might bias the results in either direction. Another source of divergence was differences in healthcare resource utilization and costs among different settings. In particular, assumptions about treatment effectiveness contributed significantly to the diverging results. Two randomized controlled trials examined fidaxomicin.^{32,33} Both trials were conducted by OPT-80-003 Clinical Study Group investigators, and although the times and settings differed, they reported comparable cure and recurrence rates. These studies excluded patients with >1 CDI occurrence within 3 months before studies started, and only 16% of enrolled patients had 1 previous CDI. Therefore, it is possible that the results applied to patients with initial CDI and not to those with recurrence. To date, there has been no published RCT on fidaxomicin effectiveness in recurrent CDI. Similarly, 2 other RCTs investigated the efficacy and safety of FMT in patients with recurrent but not initial CDI,^{34,35} and there were no RCTs comparing delivery routes when conducting this systematic review. Therefore, any study that examined fidaxomicin for recurrent CDI or FMT for initial CDI or compared delivery routes for FMT would have assumed their effectiveness or used data sources other than the available RCTs. 36-38 Previous studies showed that comorbidities (eg, cancer, inflammatory

TABLE 2.	Effectiveness, Costs, Incremental Cost-Effectiveness Ratio, and Sensitivity Analyses of Included Economic Evaluations	
----------	---	--

Author (Year)	Effectiveness		Cost E	stimate	Incremental Cost-Effectiveness	Scenario Analysis,	
Country Funding	Probability of Cure	Probability of Recurrence	Types Source Original Cost Year	Treatment, 2016 US\$	Ratio, 2016 US\$/QALY (Original Values)	2016 US\$/QALY (Original Values)	Influential Variables
Initial CDI (no sp							
Gidengil ³¹ (2014) United States Industry ^a	MET: 0.735 VAN: 0.817 FID: 0.841	MET Initial episode: 0.267 1^{st} recurrence: 0.330 ≥ 2 recurrences: 0.308 VAN Initial episode: 0.253 1st recurrence: 0.308 FID Initial episode: 0.154 1st recurrence: 0.197 ≥ 2 recurrences: 0.308	 Hospitalization, tx, lab test, outpatient visit Manufacturer cost, expert interviews, literature 2010 	MET: \$27 VAN: \$1,255 FID: \$3,316	NR	NR	 Recurrence probability for initial episode with MET and VAN tx All VRE clinically related probabilities Recurrence probability (beyond the 1st 2) with VAN tx Cost of an invasive VRE infection Cost of FID PSA: yes
Rubio-Terres ²⁴ (2015) Spain Industry ^b			 Hospitalization, tx, outpt visit Spanish public healthcare prices, literature 2013 	VAN: \$40 FID: \$1,577	FID dominant	NR	 Duration of excess stay attributable to CDI, initial CDI or recurrent CDI PSA: yes
Stranges ²⁷ (2013) USA None	VAN Inpatient: 0.781 Outpatient: 0.975 Mild-to-moderate CDI: 0.839 Severe CDI: 0.886 Concomitant antimicrobials: 0.794 NAP1/BI/027: 0.807 FID Inpatient: 0.814 Outpatient: 0.975 Mild-to-moderate CDI: 0.920 Severe CDI: 0.821 Concomitant antimicrobials: 0.900	VAN Inpatient: 0.274 Outpatient: 0.227 With previous CDI episode: 0.312 Mild-to-moderate CDI: 0.244 Severe CDI: 0.266 Concomitant antimicrobials: 0.292 NAP1/Bl/027: 0.209 FID Inpatient: 0.179 Outpatient: 0.179 Outpatient: 0.128 With previous CDI episode: 0.214 Mild-to-moderate CDI: 0.168 Severe CDI: 0.130 Concomitant antimicrobials: 0.169 NAP1/Bl/027: 0.271	 Hospitalization, tx, lab test HCUP 2011 	VAN: \$1,335 FID: \$3,218	FID: \$77,661 (\$67,576)	ICER of FID • Severe CDI: \$405,676 (\$352,994) • Mild-to-moderate CDI: \$36,799 (\$32,020) • Initial tx as outpatient: \$44,328 (\$38,571) • Initial tx as inpatient: \$86,321 (\$75,111) • NAPI/BI/027 strain typing: FID dominated • Concomitant antimicrobials: \$1,709 (\$1,487)	 Recurrence rate of FID Recurrence rate of VAN First episode inpatient FID cure rate Rate of hospitalization Probability of CDI mortality PSA: yes
Varier ¹⁵ (2014) United States NGO ^c	NAP1/BI/027: 0.787 MET: 0.800 VAN: 0.900 FMT colonoscopy: 0.910	MET: 0.168 VAN: 0.084 FMT colonoscopy: 0.076	 Hospitalization, cost of tx Medicare, literature 2011 	FMT: \$1,248 MET: \$66 VAN: \$1,548	FMT colonoscopy: \$143,614 (\$124,964)	NR	 Cure rate of MET Cost of FMT Cost of MET PSA: yes

Watt ¹⁷ (2016) Germany Industry	VAN ≥ 1 recurrences: 0.889 Severe CDI: 0.826 Concomitant antibiotics: 0.755 Age ≥65 y: 0.845 Cancer: 0.740 Renal impairment: 0.760 FID ≥ 1 recurrence: 0.898 Severe CDI: 0.800 Concomitant antibiotics: 0.843 Age ≥65 y: 0.848 Cancer: 0.851 Renal impairment: 0.731	VAN ≥ 1 recurrence: 0.325 Severe CDI: 0.283 Concomitant antibiotics: 0.255 Age ≥65 y: 0.293 Cancer: 0.296 Renal impairment: 0.316 FID ≥ 1 recurrence: 0.203 Severe CDI: 0.114 Concomitant antibiotics: 0.174 Age ≥65 y: 0.161 Cancer: 0.135 Renal impairment: 0.147	• Hospitalization, tx • German drug tariff • 2014	VAN: \$69 FID: \$1,564	 ICER of FID Pts with ≥1 recurrence: \$49,482/QALY (€43,900) Pts with severe CDI: \$39,225/QALY (€34,800) Pts with concomitant antibiotics: \$34,603/QALY (€30,700) Age ≥65 y: \$50,159/QALY (€44,500) Pts with cancer: dominant Pts with renal impairment: \$30,320/QALY (€26,900) 	NR	 Recurrence rate Clinical cure rate CDI-attributable mortality rate PSA: no
Initial CDI (severe) Perras ³⁰ (2011) Canada Public ^d	MET: 0.649 VAN: 0.849	MET: 0.150 VAN: 0.150	 Hospitalization, tx, lab test, outpatient visit Provincial drug formularies 2010 	MET: \$3.10 VAN: \$279	NR	NR	 Infection populations (with or without NAP1 strain), efficacy rates in initial therapy with MET Cost of VAN Complication rate among tx failures PSA: yes
Wagner ²⁹ (2014) Canada Industry ^e	VAN Severe CDI: 0.813 With recurrence: 0.926 NAP1/BI/027: 0.813 Non-NAPI/BI/027: 0.912 FID Severe CDI: 0.813 With recurrence: 0.926 NAP1/BI/027: 0.813 Non-NAP1/BI/027: 0.912	VAN Severe CDI: 0.283 With recurrence: 0.323 NAP1/BI/027: 0.282 Non-NAP1/BI/027: 0.278 FID Severe CDI: 0.114 With recurrence: 0.203 NAP1/BI/027: 0.248 Non-NAP1/BI/027: 0.097	 Hospitalization, tx, outpt visit Canadian Agency for Drugs and Technologies in Health, Ontario Case Costing Initiative, Ontario Schedule for Physician Services NR 	NR	NR	NR	 Recurrence rate of FID Duration of tx, 10–14 d PSA: no
Recurrent CDI Konijeti ¹³ (2014) United States Public	MET: 0.710 VAN: 0.916 FID: 0.937 FMT colonoscopy: 0.945 FMT duodenal infusion: 0.813 FMT enema: 0.815	MET: 0.421 VAN: 0.355 FID: 0.197 FMT colonoscopy: 0.091 FMT duodenal infusion: 0.063 FMT enema: 0.091	 Hospitalization, tx, outpt visit Clinical diagnostic laboratory fee schedule from Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services, literature 2012 	MET: \$25 VAN: \$754 FID: \$3,104 FMT colonoscopy: \$2,495 FMT duodenal infusion: \$2,386 FMT enema: \$2,048	FMT colonoscopy: \$18,865/ QALY (\$17,016)	FMT duodenal available • FMT duodenal: \$107,927/QALY (\$97 352); • FID: \$109,136/QALY (\$98,443) FMT enema available • FID: \$110.709/QALY (\$99,862)	 Cure and recurrence rate of outpt oral VAN, FMT colonoscopy Costs of colonoscopy, FID, outpt oral VAN Probability of severe CDI if tx failure PSA: no

TABLE 2.	Continued
----------	-----------

Author (Year)	Effectiveness		Cost Estimate		Incremental Cost-Effectiveness	Scenario Analysis,	
Country Funding	Probability of Cure	Probability of Recurrence	Types Source Original Cost Year	Treatment, 2016 US\$	Ratio, 2016 US\$/QALY (Original Values)	2016 US\$/QALY (Original Values)	Influential Variables
Lapointe-Shaw ¹⁴ (2011) Canada Public ^f	MET: 0.776	MET: 0.400 VAN oral: 0.517 VAN pulse/taper: 0.178 FID: 0.321 FMT colonoscopy: 0.078 FMT duodenal infusion: 0.233 FMT enema: 0.185	 Hospitalization, tx, lab test, outpt visit, capital cost (equipment) University Health Network outpt database, Ontario Schedule of Benefits 2014 	MET: \$31.20 VAN: \$278 FID: \$1,923 FMT enema: \$6,504 FMT nasogastric: \$1,040 FMT colonoscopy: \$4,083	FMT colonoscopy dominant	All FMT routes available • FMT colonoscopy: \$18,865/QALY (\$17,016) No FMT available • FID: \$204 012/QALY (\$184,023) • Age ≥10 y: FMT colonoscopy dominant • FID off-patent: FMT colonoscopy dominant No FMT available • FID \$20 757/QALY (CAD 25,968) • No FMT colonoscopy: FMT by enema \$1,365/ QALY (CAD 1,708) 2 recurrences considered • FMT colonoscopy: \$411/QALY (CAD514)	 Probability of recurrence following fecal transplantation by enema PSA: yes
Merlo ²⁶ (2016) Australia None ^{h.g}	VAN: 0.308 Colorectal FMT: 0.939 Nasoduodenal FMT: 0.939		 Hospitalization, tx, lab test National databases, market prices, pharmaceutical benefits schedule, Queensland health wage rate 	VAN: \$494 Colorectal FMT: \$1,688 Nasoduodenal FMT: \$1,637	Nasoduodenal FMT and colorectal FMT dominant	NR	• None • PSA: yes
Varier ¹⁶ (2015) United States Public ^c	VAN taper: 0.690 FMT colonoscopy: 0.910	VAN taper: 0.260 FMT colonoscopy: 0.076	 2015 Tx, lab test (for recurrent CDI), hospitalization (only for tx of fulminant colitis) Medicare 2011 	VAN taper: \$2,378 FMT colonoscopy: \$1,248	FMT colonoscopy dominant	NR	 Cure probability of FMT colonoscopy, cost of FMT colonoscopy, cure probability of VAN PSA: yes

Initial and recuri	ent CDI						
Bartsch ¹² (2013) United States Public	MET: 0.835 VAN NAP1/BI/027: 0.820 Non-NAPI/BI/027: 0.897 FID NAP1/BI/027: 0.859 Non-NAP1/BI/027: 0.926	MET: 0.136 VAN NAP1/BI/027: 0.295 Non-NAP1/BI/027: 0.278 FID NAP1/BI/027: 0.247 Non-NAP1/BI/027: 0.098	 Hospitalization, tx, lab test HCUP, Redbook 2012 	MET: \$65 VAN: \$1,144 FID: \$3,725	NR, "No FID" was best	NR	 Proportion of <i>C. diff</i> infections caused by NAP1 strain versus other strains Cost of FID Tx guidelines recommends VAN as the first-line tx PSA: yes
Nathwani ²⁵ (2014) Scotland Industry ^{c,e}	VAN Severe CDI: 0.853 Recurrence: 0.889 FID Severe CDI: 0.853 Recurrence: 0.889	VAN Severe CDI: 0.267 Recurrence: 0.325 FID Severe CDI: 0.122 Recurrence: 0.172	 Hospitalization, tx, outpatient visit British National Formulary 2011 	VAN: \$312 FID: \$1,568	For severe CDI: FID \$27 225/QALY (£16 529) For recurrence CDI: FID dominant	NR	 OR of experiencing a recurrence with FID in pts who had already experienced >1 recurrence OR of experiencing a recurrence with FID in pts with severe CDI OR of having recurrent CDI if treated with FID Probability of a recurrence being treated in hospital PSA: yes
Markovic ²⁸ (2014) Serbia Public	VAN: 0.652 FID: 0.741	VAN: 0.221 FID: 0.130	 Hospitalization, tx, lab test, surgery Literature NR 	NR	NR	NR	Cost of FIDPSA: no

NOTE. C. diff, Clostridium difficile; CDI, Clostridium difficile infection; d, day; FID, fidaxomicin; FMT, fecal microbiota transplantation; HCUP, Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project; ICER, incremental cost-effectiveness ratio; MET, metronidazole; NGO, nongovernmental organization; NR, not reported or not available; outpt, outpatients; OR, odds ratio; PSA, probabilistic sensitivity analysis; pt, patients; QALY, quality-adjusted life-years; tx, treatment; VAN, vancomycin; VRE, vancomycin-resistant enterococci, venous thromboembolism; y, years.

^aProbabilities of cure estimated from published reports.

^bInsufficient information to derive the probability of either cure or recurrence from the published report.

^cProbabilities of recurrence estimated from published reports.

^dProbabilities of recurrence assumed to be similar for both treatments.

^eProbabilities of cure assumed to be similar for both treatments.

^fProbability of cure not listed for other treatments in the report.

^gProbability of recurrence not available from the published report.

^hThe vancomycin probability of cure for 10-d cycles. The FMT probability of cure assumed to be the same regardless of delivery modes.

bowel disease, and surgical burden) were strongly associated with increased risks for development and recurrence of CDI.^{39–43} However, most included studies did not account for such comorbidities in their models, which potentially biased the results. Lastly, studies modeled various numbers of recurrences following the initial episode, which might be another reason the results differed.

Our study has several limitations. Although we searched a wide range of databases, we may have missed some unpublished studies. In addition, because these studies differed in terms of study design, target population, model structure and input, our conclusions on the cost-effectiveness of CDI treatments were speculative. Finally, because we included industrysponsored studies, which tend to be published only when results are favorable,⁴⁴ our synthesis and interpretation of results might be biased toward positive findings.

Our review has highlighted certain areas that could be improved in future CDI cost-effectiveness analyses. While some of the models followed patients in the short term, those examining the long-term impact would present a more comprehensive assessment of interventions. Because there has been no widely accepted decision threshold for cost-effectiveness using effectiveness measures other than QALY, future studies should preferably estimate QALY change to facilitate comparison. The cost-effectiveness of fidaxomicin compared with other pharmacologic therapies was not definitive for either initial or recurrent CDI, and different studies have used different values for its effectiveness. Therefore, future research might include a comprehensive literature review and provide rationale for choosing specific effectiveness values. A wide range for effectiveness and threshold analyses could also help understand the impact of fidaxomicin in various treatment scenarios. More prospective studies are needed to establish the efficacy and safety of fidaxomicin for recurrent CDI. There is also an urgent need for specific CDI utility weights that consider different complications, other comorbidities, or infection/severity stages. Given that a validated instrument for CDIspecific, health-related, quality-of-life assessment is now available,⁴⁵ future research on utility weights will facilitate a more precise estimate of QALY change across CDI treatments.

In conclusion, CDI is a complex condition with a high recurrence rate, resulting in a significant burden of morbidity and mortality, as well as economic costs. Metronidazole and vancomycin have long been standard CDI treatment, but they are often associated with high rates of recurrence. New medications, such as fidaxomicin, and novel treatment modalities, such as FMT, have opened a new arena in CDI management. Because new treatments often come with a high cost, costeffectiveness analyses are important to aid clinicians in rational decision making and health policy makers. Our review has identified an important divergence in research findings, especially in cost-effectiveness of fidaxomicin for either initial or recurrent CDI, which arose from discrepancies in model design and methods. Finally, our review informs future research of areas that need improvement and may help policymakers and physicians to critically assess the costeffectiveness of different CDI treatments.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Cancer Institute or the National Institutes of Health.

Financial support: The study received no external funding. Van T. Nghiem was supported by a predoctoral fellowship from the Cancer Education and Career Development Program (NCI/NIH grant no. R25 CA057712) and research funding from the Center for Health Promotion and Prevention Research at the University of Texas School of Public Health. Patricia Dolan Mullen reported research funding from the National Cancer Institute and the Cancer Prevention Research Institute of Texas for research not related to this study. Abhishek Deshpande is supported by a grant from the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ grant no. K08 HS025026). He has also received research support from 3M, Clorox, Steris for research not related to this study.

Address correspondence to Abhishek Deshpande MD, PhD, Center for Value-based Care Research, Medicine Institute, Cleveland Clinic, 9500 Euclid Ave, G10, Cleveland, OH 44195 (deshpaa2@ccf.org).

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

To view supplementary material for this article, please visit https://doi.org/10.1017/ice.2017.303.

REFERENCES

- Loo VG, Poirier L, Miller MA, et al. A predominantly clonal multi-institutional outbreak of *Clostridium difficile*-associated diarrhea with high morbidity and mortality. *N Engl J Med* 2005;353:2442–2449.
- Lessa FC, Winston LG, McDonald LC, Emerging Infections Program C. difficile Surveillance Team. Burden of *Clostridium difficile* infection in the United States. N Engl J Med 2015;372:2369–2370.
- Cohen SH, Gerding DN, Johnson S, et al. Clinical practice guidelines for *Clostridium difficile* infection in adults: 2010 update by the society for healthcare epidemiology of America (SHEA) and the infectious diseases society of America (IDSA). *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* 2010;31:431–455.
- O'Connor JR, Johnson S, Gerding DN. Clostridium difficile infection caused by the epidemic BI/NAP1/027 strain. Gastroenterology 2009;136:1913–1924.
- McFarland LV. Alternative treatments for *Clostridium difficile* disease: what really works? *J Med Microbiol* 2005;54:101–111.
- Eyre DW, Walker AS, Wyllie D, et al. Predictors of first recurrence of *Clostridium difficile* infection: implications for initial management. *Clin Infect Dis* 2012;55(Suppl 2): S77–S87.
- Kelly CP. Can we identify patients at high risk of recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection? *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2012;18(Suppl 6): 21–27.
- Desai K, Gupta SB, Dubberke ER, Prabhu VS, Browne C, Mast TC. Epidemiological and economic burden of *Clostridium difficile* in the United States: estimates from a modeling approach. *BMC Infect Dis* 2016;16:303.

- Debast SB, Bauer MP, Kuijper EJ, European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases. European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases: update of the treatment guidance document for *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2014;20(Suppl 2):1–26.
- Bakken JS, Borody T, Brandt LJ, et al. Treating *Clostridium difficile* infection with fecal microbiota transplantation. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2011;9:1044–1049.
- Surawicz CM, Brandt LJ, Binion DG, et al. Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of *Clostridium difficile* infections. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2013;108:478–498; quiz 499.
- Bartsch SM, Umscheid CA, Fishman N, Lee BY. Is fidaxomicin worth the cost? An economic analysis. *Clin Infect Dis* 2013;57:555–561.
- Konijeti GG, Sauk J, Shrime MG, Gupta M, Ananthakrishnan AN. Cost-effectiveness of competing strategies for management of recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection: a decision analysis. *Clin Infect Dis* 2014;58:1507–1514.
- 14. Lapointe-Shaw L, Tran KL, Coyte PC, et al. Cost-effectiveness analysis of six strategies to treat recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *PLoS One* 2016;11:e0149521.
- Varier RU, Biltaji E, Smith KJ, et al. Cost-effectiveness analysis of treatment strategies for initial *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2014;20:1343–1351.
- Varier RU, Biltaji E, Smith KJ, et al. Cost-effectiveness analysis of fecal microbiota transplantation for recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* 2015;36:438–444.
- 17. Watt M, McCrea C, Johal S, Posnett J, Nazir J. A costeffectiveness and budget impact analysis of first-line fidaxomicin for patients with *Clostridium difficile* infection (CDI) in Germany. *Infection* 2016;44:599–606.
- Mergenhagen KA, Wojciechowski AL, Paladino JA. A review of the economics of treating *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Pharmacoeconomics* 2014;32:639–650.
- Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG, PRISMA Group. Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. *Ann Intern Med* 2009;151:264–269.
- Shea BJ, Grimshaw JM, Wells GA, et al. Development of AMSTAR: a measurement tool to assess the methodological quality of systematic reviews. BMC Med Res Methodol 2007;7:10.
- Drummond MF, Jefferson TO. Guidelines for authors and peer reviewers of economic submissions to the BMJ. The BMJ Economic Evaluation Working Party. *BMJ* 1996;313:275–283.
- 22. Husereau D, Drummond M, Petrou S, et al. Consolidated Health Economic Evaluation Reporting Standards (CHEERS) statement. *Value Health* 2013;16:e1–e5.
- Consumer price indices. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) website. http://stats.oecd. org/index.aspx?datasetcode=mei_prices. Accessed August 25, 2016.
- 24. Rubio-Terres C, Cobo Reinoso J, Grau Cerrato S, et al. Economic assessment of fidaxomicin for the treatment of *Clostridium difficile* infection (CDI) in special populations (patients with cancer, concomitant antibiotic treatment or renal impairment) in Spain. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 2015;34:2213–2223.
- Nathwani D, Cornely OA, Van Engen AK, Odufowora-Sita O, Retsa P, Odeyemi IA. Cost-effectiveness analysis of fidaxomicin versus vancomycin in *Clostridium difficile* infection. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2014;69:2901–2912.

- Merlo G, Graves N, Brain D, Connelly L. Economic evaluation of fecal microbiota transplantation for the treatment of recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection in Australia. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2016;31:1927–1932.
- Stranges PM, Hutton DW, Collins CD. Cost-effectiveness analysis evaluating fidaxomicin versus oral vancomycin for the treatment of *Clostridium difficile* infection in the United States. *Value Health* 2013;16:297–304.
- Markovic V, Kostic M, Ilickovic I, Jankovic SM. Costeffectiveness comparison of fidaxomicin and vancomycin for treatment of *Clostridium difficile* infection: a Markov model based on data from a South West Balkan country in socioeconomic transition. *Value in Health Regional Issues* 2014;4C:87–94.
- 29. Wagner M, Lavoie L, Goetghebeur M. Clinical and economic consequences of vancomycin and fidaxomicin for the treatment of *Clostridium difficile* infection in Canada. *Can J Infect Dis Med Microbiol* 2014;25:87–94.
- Perras C, Tsakonas E, Ndegwa S, Conly J, Valiquette L, Farrah K. Vancomycin or metronidazole for treatment of *Clostridium difficile* infection: clinical and economic analyses. Ottawa: Canadian Agency for Drugs and Technologies in Health; 2011 (Technology report; no. 136).
- Gidengil CA, Caloyeras JP, Hanson M, Hillestad R, Mattke S. Comparative effectiveness of fidaxomicin for treatment of *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Am J Pharmacy Benefit* 2014;6:161–170.
- 32. Cornely OA, Crook DW, Esposito R, et al. Fidaxomicin versus vancomycin for infection with *Clostridium difficile* in Europe, Canada, and the USA: a double-blind, non-inferiority, randomised controlled trial. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2012;12:281–289.
- Louie TJ, Miller MA, Mullane KM, et al. Fidaxomicin versus vancomycin for *Clostridium difficile* infection. N Engl J Med 2011;364:422–431.
- 34. Lee CH, Steiner T, Petrof EO, et al. Frozen vs fresh fecal microbiota transplantation and clinical resolution of diarrhea in patients with recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA* 2016;315:142–149.
- van Nood E, Vrieze A, Nieuwdorp M, et al. Duodenal infusion of donor feces for recurrent *Clostridium difficile*. N Engl J Med 2013;368:407–415.
- 36. Li YT, Cai HF, Wang ZH, Xu J, Fang JY. Systematic review with meta-analysis: long-term outcomes of faecal microbiota transplantation for *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2016;43:445–457.
- Kassam Z, Hundal R, Marshall JK, Lee CH. Fecal transplant via retention enema for refractory or recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Arch Intern Med* 2012;172:191–193.
- 38. Kassam Z, Lee CH, Yuan Y, Hunt RH. Fecal microbiota transplantation for *Clostridium difficile* infection: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2013;108:500–508.
- Hebbard AIT, Slavin MA, Reed C, et al. Risks factors and outcomes of *Clostridium difficile* infection in patients with cancer: a matched case-control study. *Support Care Cancer* 2017;25: 1923–1930.
- 40. Abrahamian FM, Talan DA, Krishnadasan A, et al. *Clostridium difficile* infection among US emergency department patients with diarrhea and no vomiting. *Ann Emerg Med* 2017;70:19–27.
- Bagdasarian N, Rao K, Malani PN. Diagnosis and treatment of *Clostridium difficile* in adults: a systematic review. JAMA 2015;313:398–408.

- 42. Ananthakrishnan AN, McGinley EL, Binion DG. Excess hospitalisation burden associated with *Clostridium difficile* in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *Gut* 2008;57:205–210.
- McDonald EG, Milligan J, Frenette C, Lee TC. Continuous proton pump inhibitor therapy and the associated risk of recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *JAMA Intern Med* 2015;175:784–791.
- 44. Bell CM, Urbach DR, Ray JG, et al. Bias in published cost-effectiveness studies: systematic review. *BMJ* 2006;332: 699–703.
- 45. Garey KW, Aitken SL, Gschwind L, et al. Development and validation of a *Clostridium difficile* health-related quality-of-life questionnaire. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 2016;50:631–637.