: Medicinrådet

Bilag til Medicinrådets anbefaling vedr. setmelanotid til behandling af svær overvægt og appetitkontrol i forbindelse med genetisk bekræftet Bardet-Bields syndrom (BBS)

*Vers. 1.0*



# Bilagsoversigt

- 1. Ansøgers notat til Rådet vedr. setmelanotid
- 2. Forhandlingsnotat fra Amgros vedr. setmelanotid
- 3. Ansøgers endelige ansøgning vedr. setmelanotid

### Attn: Danish Medicines Council (DMC)

We appreciate the DMC for the opportunity to comment on the assessment report of Imcivree<sup>®</sup> for treating obesity and control of hunger associated with genetically confirmed Bardet-Biedl syndrome (BBS) in adults and children 6 years of age and above.

We acknowledge that the DMC recognizes hyperphagia as a feature of BBS disease and the role of the MC4R pathway as a known mechanism leading to hyperphagia. This understanding is crucial for fully appreciating the potential of Imcivree® in improving the quality of life for affected patients.

In order to contribute constructively to the evaluation process, we wish to address the following key aspects related to the content of the assessment reports:

### **1. Rationale for study design and its significance in demonstrating Imcivree's Efficacy**

The DMC report points to uncertainties on the efficacy and patient benefits of Imcivree® related to the pivotal trial design. This design was the result of discussions with regulatory bodies and reflects a balance between the need to demonstrate patient benefits within methodological constraints.

A 14-week randomized period was considered appropriate, allowing demonstration of benefits on hyperphagia through the proxy endpoint of hunger measurement. Regulatory authorities advised against a longer randomized period due to the very small target population, the need to provide a therapeutic option to patients with high unmet need and no alternative therapy, and the potential risk of unblinding / loss of patients in the placebo group due to lack of effect on hyperphagia and lack of hyperpigmentation.

The primary endpoint of weight loss is assessed after 52 weeks of treatment vs. baseline, as data from the largest historical cohort of patients with BBS and obesity (CRIBBS registry) show that very few patients achieve spontaneous weight loss. For statistical purposes, a null hypothesis of 10% was chosen based on historical data of 6.4% of patients achieving the target 10% weight loss (153 patients for 313 patient years). Data at 52 weeks in the study are compared to that historical cohort leading to a positive p-value for the Imcivree® treated population. A 10% weight loss is at the high end of regulatory recommendations for assessing weight loss therapies (5 to 10%) is highly challenging in a trial that includes 50% of children and adolescent patients who are going through natural growth.

As pointed out by DMC there is no validated tool for the treatment of hyperphagia in patients with BBS. Thus, hunger was used as a measure of the effect of Imcivree® on satiety signals, but hunger is an imperfect measure as it is affected by food intake. However, reduction in hunger is only one element supporting reduction in hyperphagia. As pointed earlier, patients with obesity and BBS do not lose weight spontaneously. Weight loss can only result from a major change in eating habits that is itself resulting from a significant reduction in hyperphagia. This combination of reduction in hunger and reduction in weight is the best possible demonstration of reduction in hyperphagia given the lack of specific tool.

The DMC report also refers to the fact that trial patients did not receive treatment meeting Danish clinical practice: diet and exercise. In order to assess a single variable, the trial did not include specific diet and exercise counselling. But the very large majority of patients had been on diet and exercise at baseline for several years, being treated in large academic and specialized centers offering full multidisciplinary care.

Rhythm understands the limitation associated with study design but believes that the trial design was the best possible given regulatory, operational, clinical and ethical constraints and demonstrates the value of Imcivree® in patients with BBS and obesity and no alternative treatment options.

### **2. Exclusion on modeling effect of Imcivree® on hyperphagia**

We acknowledge the DMC's rationale for excluding the modelling effect of Imcivree® on hyperphagia from their main analysis due to the lack of specific hyperphagia data, and the measure of hunger instead.

Nevertheless, this approach significantly underestimates Imcivree's therapeutic benefits. The targeted mechanism of action on the MC4R pathway, identified as the primary root of hyperphagia, joined with clinical experiences and testimonials from patients and their families, shows that reduction in hyperphagia is essential for patients to achieve the weight loss documented in clinical trials and is felt by patients within days of therapy initiation. Hyperphagia also returns almost immediately in case of therapy interruption.

Such evidence and insights underpin our emphasis on a response-based model, with responders to treatment experiencing a considerable reduction in hyperphagia levels, as this would be necessary to drive a clinically meaningful improvement in their BMI/BMI Z-score.

Therefore, we request that DMC reconsiders the broader therapeutic benefits of Imcivree® beyond measurable weight-related outcomes. The impact of Imcivree® on hyperphagia has been recognized by most HTA bodies, including NICE, GBA, HAS and AIFA.

### **3. Imcivree® addresses a major unmet need for patients in Denmark**

A positive recommendation for Imcivree® would address a significant unmet for patients with hyperphagia and obesity associated with BBS in Denmark, as no other approved drugs are available for this condition.

BBS is a rare and disabling genetic disorder with multiple clinical features, exacerbated by the obesity resulting from hyperphagia [1,2] This condition severely affects patients' quality of life, daily functioning, and mental health, resulting in a significant burden that negatively impacts the lives of both patients and their caregivers [3]. It is widely recognized that obesity is associated multiple related complications and an increase in mortality [4], with the risks being even greater in cases of early-onset obesity [5,6].

Current strategies in Denmark focus on lifestyle changes, but these are limited by BBS symptoms, including impaired vision and cognitive function. Adherence to restrictive diets is challenging due to insatiable hunger. A Danish study demonstrates that children with MC4R mutations did not show improvement in obesity lifestyle treatment, highlighting the need for personalized treatment approaches [7].

Setmelanotide is the first and only approved therapy targeting the MC4R pathway impairment, addressing the root cause of the obesity and hyperphagia. It offers a potential reversal of the patients' weight gain trajectory. The unique value of Setmelanotide is not just in its ability to reduce hyperphagia and body weight but in its prevention of the weight gain and associated complications such as metabolic syndrome severity [8,9] that would inevitably occur without intervention [10,11]. We trust the DMC, will consider the innovative nature of Imcivree® to allow Danish patients to benefit from therapy.

## **4. Plans for resubmission**

The current assessment does not recognize the impact of hyperphagia and its effects on patients within the *Cost-Effectiveness Model* (CEM). We believe this significantly underestimates the value of Imcivree® for both patients and the healthcare system. As a result, we plan to resubmit a revised application that includes an *Alternative agreement Model* designed to ensure the inclusion of hyperphagia in the CEM. We expect this to lead to a substantial reduction in the Incremental Cost-Effectiveness Ratio (ICER), more accurately reflecting the benefits of Imcivree®.

### **References**

- 1. CARE-BBS, CARE-BBS study report. Caregiver burden in Bardet-Biedl syndrome (CARE-BBS): A survey of BBS-related obesity and hyperphagia impacts in the United States, United Kingdom, Canada, and Germany. 2022.
- 2. Forsythe, E., et al., Managing Bardet–Biedl syndrome—now and in the future. Frontiers in pediatrics, 2018. 6: p. 23.
- 3. Burden in Bardet-Biedl syndrome: findings from the CARE-BBS study. Orphanet J Rare Dis. 2023;18(1).
- 4. Bhaskaran, K., et al., Association of BMI with overall and cause-specific mortality: a populationbased cohort study of 3·6 million adults in the UK. Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol, 2018. 6(12): p. 944- 953.
- 5. Lindberg, L., et al., Association of childhood obesity with risk of early all-cause and cause-specific mortality: A Swedish prospective cohort study. PLoS Med, 2020. 17(3): p. e1003078.
- 6. Emerging Risk Factors Collaboration. "Life expectancy associated with different ages at diagnosis of type 2 diabetes in high-income countries: 23 million person-years of observation." The lancet. Diabetes & endocrinology vol. 11,10 (2023): 731-742. doi:10.1016/S2213-8587(23)00223-1
- 7. Trier, C., et al., *Obesity treatment effect in Danish children and adolescents carrying Melanocortin-4 Receptor mutations.* Int J Obes (Lond), 2021. **45**(1): p. 66-76.
- 8. Haqq, A.M., et al. , *Impact of Setmelanotide on Metabolic Syndrome Risk in Patients With Bardet-Biedl Syndrome. Accepted for "oral presentation"*, in *Obesity Society's Obesity Week*. 2023: Dallas, USA.
- 9. Haqq, A.e.a. *Impact of Setmelanotide on Future Metabolic Syndrome Risk in Pediatric Patients With Bardet-Biedl Syndrome. Accepted for "oral presentation"*. in *Annual Meeting of the European Society for Paediatric Endocrinology*. 2023. The Hague, The Netherlands.
- 10. Katsanis N, Lupski JR, Beales PL. Exploring the molecular basis of Bardet–Biedl syndrome. Hum Mol Genet [Internet]. 2001 Oct 1 [cited 2022 Nov 10];10(20):2293–9. Available from: <https://academic.oup.com/hmg/article/10/20/2293/559356>
- 11. Forsythe E, Beales PL. Bardet–Biedl syndrome. European Journal of Human Genetics 2013 21:1 [Internet]. 2013 Jun 20 [cited 2022 Oct 20];21(1):8–13. Available from: <https://www.nature.com/articles/ejhg2012115>



Amgros I/S Dampfærgevej 22 2100 København Ø Danmark

T +45 88713000 F +45 88713008

Medicin@amgros.dk www.amgros.dk

### 22.02.2024 BMC/CAF

# **Forhandlingsnotat**



## Prisinformation

Amgros har forhandlet følgende pris på Imcivree (setmelanotide):

*Tabel 1: Forhandlingsresultat*



Prisen er IKKE betinget af Medicinrådets anbefaling.



## Aftaleforhold

Amgros har indgået en aftale med leverandøren som gælder fra den 20.03.2024 til 31.03.2025. Leverandøren har mulighed for at sætte prisen ned i hele aftaleperioden.

## Informationer fra forhandlingen

### Konkurrencesituationen

Der er på nuværende tidspunkt ingen konkurrence på området.

### *Tabel 2: Sammenligning af lægemiddeludgifter pr. patient*



\*jf. Medicinrådets vurderingsrapport

## Status fra andre lande

*Tabel 3: Status fra andre lande*



### Konklusion



# <span id="page-7-0"></span>Version log





Application for the assessment of Imcivree® for treatment of obesity and control of hunger associated with genetically confirmed Bardet-Biedl Syndrome in adults and children aged ≥6 years in Denmark





# Contact information





# Table of contents













# <span id="page-15-0"></span>Tables and Figures









# <span id="page-18-0"></span>Abbreviations













 $\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array} \end{array}$ 

# <span id="page-21-0"></span>1. Regulatory information on the pharmaceutical





# <span id="page-22-0"></span>2. Summary table







# <span id="page-24-0"></span>3. The patient population, intervention, choice of comparator(s) and relevant outcomes

# <span id="page-24-1"></span>3.1 The medical condition

Bardet-Biedl syndrome (BBS) is a rare, autosomal recessive disease, which in many cases is characterised by hyperphagia (an overwhelming, heightened, and relentless hunger mimicking feelings of starvation) that leads to marked obesity. Obesity affects 72% to 92% of patients with BBS [3]. While most have normal birth weight, by 2 years of age it is estimated that >55% of children with BBS are overweight or obese, and by the age of 5 obesity rates exceed 90% [4]. The mechanisms of obesity in BBS are believed to involve disruption of the hypothalamic leptin-melanocortin (MC4R) signalling pathway [4] responsible for regulation of appetite and satiety illustrated by [Figure 1.](#page-25-0) Consequently,

patients with BBS often have severe hyperphagia, a complex condition incorporating insatiable hunger, longer time to reach satiety, shorter duration satiety, and distress if denied food [5], leading to excess energy intake and resulting in continual weight gain throughout the patients' lifetime.

### <span id="page-25-0"></span>**Figure 1. Dysregulation of the MC4R pathway by disrupted leptin signalling contributes to hyperphagia and obesity in patients with BBS**



Abbreviations: AGRP, agouti-related peptide; BBS, Bardet-Biedl syndrome; BBSome, complex of 8 BBS proteins; LEPR, leptin receptor; MC4R, melanocortin-4 receptor; MSH, melanocyte stimulating hormone; PCSK1, proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 1; POMC, pro-opiomelanocortin. Sources: [6-16].

Other symptoms of BBS include rod-cone dystrophy, which affects approximately 93% of patients [3] . It initially presents as night blindness at around the age of 7 to 8 years, and by the age of 16 years a significant proportion of BBS patients are legally blind [17]. Polydactyly is often present at birth, with other symptoms of BBS presenting variably and progressively throughout childhood [\(Figure 2\)](#page-25-1).

#### <span id="page-25-1"></span>**Figure 2. Development of characteristic BBS symptoms**



Source: 1 Forsythe 2013 [18], 2 Castro-Sanchez 2015 [19], 3 Katsanis 2001 [20], 4 Forsyth 2003 [21], 5 Agrawal 2018 [22], 6 Khan 2019[23], 7 Putoux 2012 [24], 8 Pomeroy 2021 [4], 9 Sherafat-Katzemzadeh 2013 [25], 10 Beales 1999 [26], 11 Weihbrecht 2017[27].

Diagnosis of BBS relies on the presence of clinical symptoms, which can be categorised as primary or secondary features [\(Table 1\)](#page-26-0). Obesity is one of six potential primary features and results from uncontrollable hunger/hyperphagia. It is widely accepted that the presence of four primary features or three primary features and two secondary features is clinical diagnostic of BBS. Whilst hyperphagia is not a diagnostic feature of BBS, it is increasingly accepted as an important disease feature that directly relates to obesity.



#### <span id="page-26-0"></span>**Table 1. Primary and secondary diagnostic features of BBS and their frequency (Forsythe 2018) [3]**

Following clinical diagnosis, BBS is confirmed in approximately 80% of patients using genetic testing [28]. To date, 22 BBS-associated genes have been identified; BBS1 and BBS10 are most commonly involved and account for approximately 23% and 20% of cases respectively [28]. Patients with BBS1 mutations generally experience later onset visual deterioration and are less likely to develop renal disease than those with other BBS mutations; however, the number and severity of symptoms is highly variable even between patients of the same genotype [3].

There is currently no published evidence informing on the life expectancy of BBS patients. UK experts experienced in the treatment of BBS, estimate that patients have approximately a 10-year reduction in life expectancy compared with the general population; however, this will vary depending on the severity of the individual's symptoms. Renal failure is historically a major cause of mortality; a third of BBS patients develop renal failure and approximately 10% progress to end-stage renal failure requiring dialysis and/or transplant [29]. It is widely accepted that increasing levels of obesity lead to higher mortality rates [30], however there is now a growing appreciation that obesity that begins in childhood further increases mortality risk. A recent Swedish study demonstrated that individuals who were obese in childhood had a 3-times higher risk of mortality in early adulthood compared with a population-based comparison group [31].

The impact of obesity on quality of life is well documented. Individuals with obesity are affected by numerous discriminations that impact on all dimensions of life [32]. Children with obesity are three times more likely than others to be victims of bullying, they have poorer school performance and find it more difficult to complete higher education [33]. Adults with obesity (BMI ≥30 kg/m2) are at increased risk of developing major depressive disorder [34]and some other mental disorders (low self-esteem, mood disorders, motivational disorders, eating problems, impaired body image and interpersonal communication issues)[35]. Adults with obesity are less likely to have a job, and when they do work they are more likely to be absent and be less productive [33]. Being obese also puts people at increased risk of comorbidities such as hypertension, T2DM, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and obstructive sleep apnoea, all of which contribute to reduced quality of life [35].

In addition to obesity, patients with BBS also have to deal with severe hyperphagia which can distract from activities of daily life [5]. Hyperphagia can be defined as the most extreme form of overeating, a relentless, overwhelming force, which due to the extreme level of food seeking behaviour causes not just obesity, but constant stress and frustration to the people experiencing it and the ones around them [36].

In 2022, Rhythm Pharmaceuticals conducted the real-world study CAREgiver Burden in BBS (CARE-BBS) [5]. This study was a multi-country, cross-sectional survey involving 242 adult caregivers of patients with BBS who have had hyperphagia and obesity. The survey consisted of questionnaires including Symptoms of Hyperphagia, Impacts of Hyperphagia, Impact of Weight on Quality of Life (IWQOL)-Kids Parent Proxy, and Patient-Reported Outcome Measurement Information System (PROMIS) v1.0-Global Health 7. In addition, clinical characteristics, medical history, and weight management questions were included [5].

The newly developed Impacts of Hyperphagia questionnaire consisted of two components, observer- and self-reported, with 10 total items measuring the extent of how hunger behaviour affects multiple aspects of life in patients and caregivers, respectively. The Impacts of Hyperphagia caregiver observer-reported version asked caregivers five questions on the extent to which hunger negatively affected the person in their care's sleep, mood or emotions, school, leisure or recreational activities, and relationships with family or friends over the past 7 days. The Impacts of Hyperphagia self-reported version asked caregivers 5 questions on the extent to which the person in their care's hunger negatively affected their own sleep, mood or emotions, work, leisure or recreational activities, and relationships with family or friends over the past 7 days. The item responses were "not at all," "a little," "moderately," or "a great deal." The questionnaire components are scored separately for patient impact and caregiver impact, with a score range from 0 to 15, where higher scores indicate greater impacts of hyperphagia [5].

Most caregivers reported numerous disruptive behaviours related to uncontrollable hunger occurring over the previous 24 hours. These included food negotiation during the day, eating extremely quickly, sneaking food, waking up and looking for food at night, and asking for more food just after finishing a meal or snack [5]. Approximately 80% of caregivers also reported that uncontrollable hunger impacted on the patient's focus at school at least 'sometimes'; 81% of children had missed at least 1 day of school in the previous week due to BBS [5].

In addition to the impact on schooling, other effects of hyperphagia included disruption of the following five domains: 1) sleep, 2) mood and emotions, 3) school, 4) leisure activities, and 5) relationships with friends and family. When asked about the impact of hyperphagia over these 5 domains, 96.3% of caregivers reported that the patient they cared for had been affected either 'moderately' or 'a great deal' in at least one domain over the previous 7 days and 15.7% were affected either 'moderately' or 'a great deal' over all 5 domains [\(Table 2\)](#page-28-1).



<span id="page-28-1"></span>**Table 2 Proportion of BBS patients impacted 'moderately' or 'a great deal' by hunger as assessed by the caregiver**

Caregivers of BBS patients with obesity and hyperphagia reported using an average of 8 weight management approaches including healthy meal planning, counting/ restricting calorie and fat intake, tracking weight, counting/restricting carbohydrate intake, and limiting the availability of certain foods. Notably, 44.2% reported locking up food at night and 26.4% reported using fasting with their child [5]. When asked specifically about the effect of the patient's hyperphagia on their own quality of life, caregivers reported the impact to be similar to that on their child; 90.9% of caregivers reported that their child's hyperphagia negatively affected them either 'moderately' or 'a great deal' in at least one domain (sleep, mood or emotions, work, leisure or recreational activities[; Table 3\)](#page-28-2).



<span id="page-28-2"></span>**Table 3 Proportion of BBS caregivers reporting being affected either 'moderately' or 'a great deal' by their child's hunger** 

# <span id="page-28-0"></span>3.2 Patient population

The currently approved indication for Imcivree® for BBS includes a patient population of adult or paediatric patients with genetically confirmed BBS aged ≥6 years.

The relevant population for the base case analysis is a paediatric treatment initation, and include patients. ≥6 years who have obesity and severe hyperphagia. Severe hyperphagia is caused by impairment of the MC4R pathway which leads to overwhelming, heightened, and relentless hunger that mimics feelings of starvation and results in excessive food consumption and a preoccupation with food that interferes with a patient's ability to function in daily life.

This is narrower than the marketing authorisation because this population reflects where Imcivree® provides the most clinical benefit and where the product will likely be used in real life in Denmark.

The future population will be comprised mainly of paediatric patients, identified through screening and genetic testing, which will promote the early diagnosis of BBS and, consequently, the treatment initiation, aiming to reduce or prevent the long-term consequences of childhood obesity on various aspects of health and mental well-being. While most individuals with BBS have a normal birth weight, it is estimated that by age two, over 55% of BBS children are overweight or obese, with obesity rates exceeding 90% by age 5 [4]. As a result, it is expected, and was confirmed by Danish clinical experts [37, 38], that most individuals will receive a diagnosis and will initiate treatment during early childhood. The treatment with Imcivree® is lifelong.

Although in the future most BBS patients will start Imcivree® treatment as children, the current population of BBS patients with hyperphagia and obesity could include adults, and reimbursement is sought for both adult and paediatric patients. The health economic base case analysis considered paediatric initiated patients with BBS in Denmark, aged ≥6 years who had severe hyperphagia and assumed starting treatment at the age of 6 years. As currently, treatment initiation with Imcivree® in the BBS population could include adults, a scenario analysis was, therefore, conducted to reflect the current setmelanotidetreatable population, which comprised 60% paediatric patients and 40% adult patients.

In Denmark, all children with BSS should be monitored and treated at one of the two Centres for Rare Diseases [38]. As described before, while most patients with BBS have normal birth weight, by two years of age it is estimated that >55% of children with BBS are overweight or obese and by the age of five years obesity rates exceed 90% [4]. This type of very early onset, dramatic weight gain is considered to be atypical, which should lead to early consideration, screening and diagnosis for BBS in childhood [4]. Early screening and genetic testing for BBS being implemented would contribute to early diagnosis and consequently, early treatment initiation. Of the patients with BBS with hyperphagia and obesity, approximately 20% are expected to have end stage renal disease (ESRD) and will be unsuitable for treatment with Imcivree.

The baseline characteristics of the modelled cohort relevant for this application were based on evidence from the pivotal Phase 3 trial Study RM 493-023 of patients with BBS aged ≥6 years, considered representative for the Danish population based on inputs from two Danish clinical experts (se[e Table 4\)](#page-30-0) [37, 38]. Hyperphagia is the driving force behind the onset of obesity in BBS patients. Fifteen of 16 adult patients in trials had a BMI of ≥35 kg/m<sup>2</sup> and 12 of 16 paediatric patients had a BMI Z-score of  $\geq$ 3. These are representative of patients with severe obesity. It was assumed that a high frequency of severe obesity was the result of severe hyperphagia. This assumption was made because baseline hunger score cannot be directly used as measurement of baseline hyperphagia i.e., hunger is a key component of hyperphagia but hyperphagia cannot be quantified by hunger alone. BBS patients with obesity often eat multiple times per day (up to 7-8 meals with additional snacking) and often wake up at night to eat. Due to the very high frequency of food intake, especially for patients who are not in a highly controlled environment, it is possible for patients to suffer from severe hyperphagia with only limited hunger. Nonetheless, the baseline maximal hunger score was 7.0 [39], and when combined with a mean BMI of 41.6 reflecting strong overeating, this is considered by clinical experts as representative of severe hyperphagia in the large majority of patients.



#### <span id="page-30-0"></span>**Table 4. Relevant baseline characteristics in Study RM-493-023**

Note: \*Corresponds to the expected patient population the will receive Imcivree® treatment,

BBS is a rare autosomal recessive disease which affects males and females equally. It has an estimated prevalence globally of 1 in 100,000. In Denmark the estimated prevalence is shown to be higher, 1 in 59,000 due to consanguinity [3, 41]. According to two Danish clinical experts it is likely that both adult and paediatric people are underdiagnosed.

Based on available literature of disease prevalence and the population size of Denmark, it is estimated that there are approximately 110 patients with BBS in Denmark [41-44] of which approximately 30-38 are eligible for Imcivree® treatment as per label. These patient estimates were validated with Danish clinical experts [37, 38].

The eligible population in Denmark was calculated as follows:

- It was estimated that there are 110 people with BBS in Denmark.
- 72% to 92% (79-101) of the people with BBS are estimated to have obesity [18].
- 80% (63-81) of these patients with BBS have had their diagnosis genetically confirmed, as required by the setmelanotide license [45].
- Approximately 20% of patients are expected to have end stage renal disease and will be unsuitable for treatment, as estimated by treatment centres. Thus, 80% (50-65) do not have end-stage renal disease (ESRD).
- 95% of patients are aged >6 years, as estimated at by treatment centres, which is estimated to be 48-62 individuals.
- Of these approximately 30-38 (~60%), are estimated to have severe hyperphagia, the population relevant for this assessment.

Not all eligible patients are expected to get Imcivree® the first years when the product is on the Danish market. Both paediatric patients and adults are eligible for Imcivree® treatment , but it is expected that all future patients will start Imcivree® treatment in the paediatric setting, which is why only paediatrics are considered in the patient estimates. In addition, these estimates may be conservative as clinical experts recognize that the condition is underdiagnosed. [Table 5](#page-31-0) below presents prevalence of BBS in the past five years in Denmark as well as the estimated number of eligible patients in the past five years. As pointed out before, according to Danish clinical expert input, it is likely that patients are underdiagnosed. Therefore, the budget impact calculations assume patients eligible for treatment. [Table 6](#page-32-1) present the estimated numbers of patients expected to be treated with Imcivree® over the next five years in Denmark.



#### <span id="page-31-0"></span>**Table 5. Incidence and prevalence in the past 5 years**



\*For small patient groups, also describe the worldwide prevalence. The **www.orpha.net** state; In the US, the prevalence for BBS is estimated at 1/100,000. Whilst epidemiological data is limited in Europe, a prevalence of 1/59,000 has been estimated in Denmark and 1/45,000-66,000 in the Reunion Island, France (due to a founder effect)

Source: Based on population growth [46] and estimation according to Imcivree® label. Incidence based on KOL input [38].

Abbreviations: BBS: Bardet-Biedl syndrome, ESRD: end-stage renal disease

#### <span id="page-32-1"></span>**Table 6. Estimated number of patients treated with estimated Imcivree®)**



### <span id="page-32-0"></span>3.3 Current treatment options

Denmark does not have national guidelines for treating and monitoring BBS. The Danish handbook for physicians (Lægehåndbogen) available at sundhet.dk [47] presents general recommendations for BBS that include follow-up and monitoring based on the individual symptoms that are present, highlighting the importance of an interdisciplinary coordination [18]. The current treatment for patients with BBS focuses on management of presenting features from different clinical services including ophthalmology, nephrology, urology, dietetics, endocrinology, clinical genetics and gynaecology [48]. Weight management is particularly important for patients with BBS as excess weight contributes to development of comorbidities such as T2DM, hypertension and metabolic syndrome [3].

There is currently no drug therapy approved for the management of hyperphagia and obesity associated with BBS. Rather, hyperphagia and obesity are managed symptomatically mostly through lifestyle modification. The Danish paediatric society recommend Holbaek model that currently is under development. The Holbaek model is based on lifestyle modification and reducing appetite, which are particularly important for the QoL and impact on the patients' social life. It is estimated that the Holbaek model is used by approximately 80% of municipalities in Denmark [37]. Whilst diet and exercise advice can be effective in the short term, it does not address the underlying mechanism of impaired MC4R pathway signalling and the resulting severe hyperphagia that drives the patient to overeat [3]. A study conducted to evaluate the effect of obesity treatment in Danish children and adolescents with genetic impairments in the MC4R pathway revealed that individuals carrying damaging or unresolved MC4R mutations failed to reduce their BMI SDS during obesity treatment, highlighting the need of personalized treatment approaches [49]. Imcivree® has potential to re-establish a healthy appetite and energy expenditure and thus aid body weight regulation [1]. In the RM-493-023 study patients were not subject to diet or lifestyle modification. With the current BSC it is anticipate

better results in real life than in the study since the "system" is in place to support patients once their hyperphagia is controlled

In addition to reduced hyperphagia and improved quality of life with Imcivree®, meaningful reductions in weight-related outcomes are associated with decreases in MetS-Z-BMI (Metabolic Syndrome severity Z-score employing BMI as its measure of adiposity) score in patients with BBS. These data suggest that early treatment initiation may lead to reduction in future risk of T2DM and cardiovascular disease (CVD) development [50]. Furthermore, Imcivree® treatment response is associated with reductions in metabolic syndrome severity score in paediatric patients with BBS, which are associated with reduced risk of metabolic syndrome, CVD, and T2DM. These data support the broad benefits of Imcivree® beyond weight loss and hunger reduction, thus supporting early initiation of treatment for potentially reducing future risk of CVD and T2DM [51].

Figure 3 presents the treatment algorithm for patients with BBS and how Imcivree® should be used as a part of BBS multidisciplinary care and as an addition to lifestyle management.



**Figure 3 Treatment algorithm for BBS with obesity and hyperphagia**

## <span id="page-33-0"></span>3.4 The intervention

<span id="page-33-1"></span>**Table 7. Overview of the intervention**









### <span id="page-35-0"></span>**3.4.1 The intervention in relation to Danish clinical practice**

As described in section [3.3,](#page-32-0) the current treatment for obesity in patients with BBS includes lifestyle management including dietary and physical activity advice. The main approach is based on lifestyle modification by changing diet habits and increasing physical activity. No therapy normalising satiety signals is currently available in Denmark. Whilst diet and exercise advice can be effective in the short-term weight management, it does not address the underlying mechanism of impaired MC4R pathway signalling and the resulting severe hyperphagia that drives the patient to overeat. Imcivree® has potential to re-establish a healthy appetite and energy expenditure and thus aid body weight regulation [1]. Patients with untreated BBS start to gain weight early in life, and the severity of obesity increases with age. Setmelanotide is not only effective in reducing body weight, but also have the potential to reverse the tendency of weight gain [21].

Also, Imcivree® as an addition to current BSC is expected to make the BSC (diet and exercise) more effective. In clinical trials Imcivree® has shown hunger reduction that was maintained throughout the 52 weeks of treatment, and clinically meaningful reductions in body weight and BMI/BMI-Z score [40]. In Danish patients with BBS above 6 years of age with obesity and severe hyperphagia, Imcivree® would offer a new effective treatment option in addition to current BSC.

## <span id="page-35-1"></span>3.5 Choice of comparator(s)

The relevant comparator to Imcivree® in Denmark is established clinical management/BSC without Imcivree® consisting of a reduced calorie diet and increased physical activity, in accordance with local treatment guidelines and clinical expert opinion [37, 38]. Bariatric surgery is not recommended for MC4R pathway diseases and does not address the genetic impairment and resulting insatiable hunger. It is also not a suitable treatment option for patients with cognitive impairment, and is not considered a comparator [52].



#### <span id="page-35-2"></span>**Table 8. Overview of comparator**


# 3.6 Cost-effectiveness of the comparator(s)

The comparator has not been evaluated by the DMC as no medicinal intervention has been approved for this indication.

# 3.7 Relevant efficacy outcomes

The efficacy outcomes considered relevant and necessary to evaluate the effect of setmelanotide plus BSC compared to BSC was based on study RM-493-023 and are included in [Table 9](#page-37-0) below.

The primary objective of study RM-493-023 was to assess the effect of setmelanotide on the proportion of patients ≥12 years of age at baseline treated with setmelanotide for ~52 weeks who achieve a clinically meaningful reduction from baseline (i.e., ≥10%) in body weight. Study RM-493-023 was conducted in both BBS and AS patients but the marketing authorisation was not sought for AS patients. As the relevant indication for this assessment is in patients with BBS, it is only the primary endpoint that is presented for the full trial population that includes both BBS and AS patients. Other outcomes are presented for pivotal patients ≥12 years of age BBS population only, in accordance with the protocol and SAP, and the study primary, key secondary, and other secondary efficacy analyses.

As previously described, the relevant population in this assessment consist of paediatric treatment initiation. Because children >12 years continue to grow and mature, it was important to examine setmelanotide effect on weight in the subgroup of patients who were largely finished growing, i.e., adults ≥18 years of age. Since reductions in body weight can be masked by concomitant increases in height and overall development in growing children and adolescents, setmelanotide effects in paediatric patients were primarily assessed using BMI scores which adjust weight for height. As the main population in this assessment consists of paediatric treatment initiation relevant outcomes are presented separately for patients aged ≥18 years and those aged <18 years. In addition, the economic model considered paediatric treatment initiation as the base case analysis and was informed by a post-hoc analysis to determine the proportion of patients who moved from one BMI Z-score category to another.

## **3.7.1 Definition of efficacy outcomes included in the application**



#### <span id="page-37-0"></span>**Table 9 Efficacy outcome measures relevant for the application**





 $\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array} \end{array}$ 



\* Time point for data collection used in analysis (follow up time for time-to-event measures)

#### **Validity of outcomes**

The Guideline on clinical evaluation of medicinal products used in weight management by EMA recommends documenting absolute and relative weight loss (kg and percentage), and states that at least 5% placebo-corrected weight loss from baseline after 12 months of treatment is a valid primary efficacy criterion [1]. Responder definitions for adults should include patients with at least 5% and 10% weight loss at the end of a 12-month period. In study RM-493-022 the 10% weight loss was used and considered clinically relevant. For paediatric BMI Z-score is a more commonly accepted standard for characterising obesity in paediatric patients [53]. BMI Z-scores and BMI 95th percentile scores were also examined since BMI is known to vary by age and sex in growing children and these scores are calculated using age and sex matched normative data. A  $\geq 0.2$ reduction in BMI-Z score is considered clinically significant. Several studies support this threshold: A study in children (median age 12.4 years) with severe obesity found that a reduction of 0.25 BMI Z-score units was required to improve adiposity and metabolic health [54], while improvements in cholesterol were observed in children (aged 7-17) with obesity with a BMI Z-score reduction of <0.1 units [55], and improvements in insulin and cholesterol were observed in 5 to 19 year-olds with obesity following a BMI Z-score reduction of 0.15 units [56].

Based on many of the above studies, the United States Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) has defined clinically important weight loss associated with cardio- metabolic improvements as a reduction in BMI Z-score of ≥0.2 units [57]. Consistent with this, in a large-scale German study to predict weight loss in overweight/obese paediatric patients, weight loss success was defined as a reduction in BMI SDS-score of ≥0.2 [58]. Similarly, a reduction in BMI Z-score of ≥0.2 was used to define success in a recent and relatively large study examining characteristics and lifestyle behaviours associated with achieving clinically important weight loss [59].

Measurements of central adiposity (waist circumference) can be used as a secondary outcome measure, which was used in the extension trial RM-493-022.

# 4. Health economic analysis

A cost-utility analysis was performed for this submission.

# 4.1 Model structure

The model was developed to assess the cost-effectiveness of setmelanotide plus standard of care (BSC) compared to best supportive care (BSC) alone for the treatment of patients with BBS, aged ≥6 years who have severe hyperphagia and obesity. This aligns with a subpopulation of the licensed indication for setmelanotide. The analysis uses a lifetime model. The analysis follows two patient populations, one with paediatric treatment initiation (at 6 years old) and the other with an adult treatment initiation (at 20 years old). This is because, currently, treatment initiation in the BBS population could include adults according to setmelanotide label. However, in the future, it is expected that BBS patients with severe hyperphagia and obesity will start setmelanotide treatment as children. This aims to reduce or prevent the long-term consequences of childhood obesity on other aspects of health and on mental well-being. The base case in the current assessment is paediatric treatment initiation. An additional scenario analysis considered the adult population, conducted to reflect the current setmelanotide-treatable population, which comprised 60% paediatric patients and 40% adult patients (see [Table 67\)](#page-110-0).

The model is comprised of eight disease states for both treatment arms to reflect the target patient populations (seven BMI Z-score categories along with a 'death' state). The seven BMI Z-score categories are stratified as follows:

- For paediatric patients (base case population) BMI Z-score categories were defined as: BMI Z-score 0.0-<1.0; BMI Z-score 1.0 to <2.0; BMI Z-score 2.0 to <2.5; BMI Z-score 2.5 to <3.0; BMI Z-score 3.0 to <3.5; BMI Z-score 3.5 to <4.0; and BMI Z-score ≥4.0.
- Adult (scenario analysis) BMI categories comprised: BMI <25; BMI 25 to <30; BMI 30 to <35; BMI 35 to <40; BMI 40 to <45; BMI 45 to <50; and BMI ≥50.

At model entry, patients are distributed across BMI/BMI Z-score categories based on clinical trial data [40]. Patients with paediatric treatment initiation transition from their BMI Z-score category to the correspondent BMI category at 18 years old. The mapping process from BMI-Z to BMI was implemented using calculations published by WHO [60]. [Table 10](#page-41-0) shows the transition matrix derived from the mapping.



#### <span id="page-41-0"></span>**Table 10. Methodology for mapping BMI Z-score to BMI**

\* There are no established curves to map BMI-Z to BMI for a BMI-Z over 4. As a result, the BMI Z-score ≥ 4 was split equally in three BMI categories.

Treatment with setmelanotide is assumed to alter the distribution of patients across BMI/BMI Z-score categories. Treatment with SoC alone is assumed to have no effect on the distribution of patients across the BMI/BMI Z-score categories. Once patients discontinue setmelanotide they revert immediately to their original BMI/BMI Z score category. This is a conservative assumption as, in real life, it will take some time for them to regain the lost weight Additionally, setmelanotide is also modelled to manage the BBS patients' hyperphagia. The model accounts for three different hyperphagia levels (mild, moderate, and severe) that are associated with unique utility multipliers. The influence of treatment with setmelanotide on hyperphagia is modelled separately from that for BMI/BMI Z-score, so that both influence quality of life independently.

Treatment with SoC alone is assumed to have no effect on the BBS patient's hyperphagia. The model considers the costs of treating obesity in patients with BBS, the medical costs and HRQoL impact associated with increased BMI, the HRQoL impact of living with hyperphagia, and the costs and utility decrements of obesity-related comorbidities, including sleep apnoea, osteoarthritis, NASH, T2DM, and cardiovascular events. The BMI/BMI Z-score category also drives mortality risk. Mortality probabilities by BMI/BMI Z score level and age were applied to reflect the higher risk of death for BBS patients compared with the general population. The mortality data was derived from an innovative process used to estimate the effect of early onset of obesity on comorbidities and mortality risk (see [Appendix K\)](#page-210-0). A conceptual diagram showing model drivers is presented in [Figure 4.](#page-42-0)



<span id="page-42-0"></span>**Figure 4. Drivers of the cost-effectiveness model of setmelanotide plus standard of care compared to standard of care alone for the treatment of patients with BBS**

BBS: Bardet-Biedl syndrome; BMI: Body mass index; SMR: Standardized mortality ratio

As the model progresses cycle by cycle for the duration of the time horizon, cost and utility data were summed per treatment arm, allowing for the calculation of differences in accumulated costs and effectiveness between model arms at model completion. The model approach is flexible and adequately quantifies the primary objectives of treating



individuals with BBS who have severe hyperphagia and obesity, particularly considering the scarcity of disease-specific data. Moreover, it uses clinical trial results [40] to inform baseline and treatment-effect data, which ultimately drives model outcomes.

# 4.2 Model features

<sup>-</sup>

[Table 11](#page-43-0) shows the features of the economic model.

### <span id="page-43-0"></span>**Table 11 Features of the economic model**







BBS: Bardet-Biedl syndrome; BMI: Body mass index; DMC: Danish Medicines Council

# 5. Overview of literature

# 5.1 Literature used for the clinical assessment

This application for Imcivree® concerns the treatment of obesity and the control of hunger associated with genetically confirmed BBS with severe hyperphagia and obesity in adults and children 6 years of age and above. This submission includes data from both publications associated with key studies and the clinical study reports. In addition, a systematic literature review (SLR) was conducted to identify any other data relating to the management of obesity and hyperphagia in BBS patients, see [Appendix H.](#page-176-0) Three articles reported on clinical outcomes comprising Haws 2020, [62] Haws 2021 [63] and Argente 2022 [64]. However, following completion of the SLR, a new article was published relating to trial NCT03746522 that superseded prior publications, Haqq 2022 (trial NCT03746522) [39]. The three clinical studies considering clinical outcomes in patients with BBS investigated the efficacy and safety of setmelanotide are:

- An international, randomized, double-blind placebo controlled followed by an open label treatment period Phase 3 trial, 38 individuals were enrolled with a genetically-confirmed diagnosis of BBS or Alström syndrome (AS) (trial NCT03746522, RM-493-023) [63].
- An open-label long-term extension trial was conducted (trial NCT03651765, RM-493-022) in patients aged ≥6 years who had been treated and shown clinical benefit with setmelanotide in either the Phase 2 or Phase 3 study (described above); outcomes were assessed after ~2 years of setmelanotide treatment (in both the index and extension trial) for change in body weight and various other weight-related measures [64].
- A single-arm, open-label, basket-design, pilot, Phase 2 study, patients with various rare genetic obesity disorders including BBS were enrolled (trial NCT03013543, RM-493-014) [62].

The health-economic model uses baseline and response data from study RM-493-023 which is the main study for efficacy and safety of Imcivree®. In addition, data from the extension study RM-493-022 was used to inform maintenance of efficacy of Imcivree® but is not used to inform the cost effectiveness model. This is because no special dietary counselling was a part of this trial. As a result, maintenance of efficacy in RM-493-022 only reflects the effect of the drug itself but does not reflect the overall real-life impact of treatment on the management of the patient, including the ability to establish an efficacious lifestyle management program following the resolution of hyperphagia. In addition, the number of patients with long-term follow-up is low due to variable inclusion dates in the index trial, weaking the interpretation of data. For example, for adult patients with BBS, patient numbers and maintenance rates are:

- Month 12: 11 of 11 patients (100.0%).
- Month 18: 7 of 11 patients (63.6%).
- Month 24: 6 of 10 patients (60.0%).
- Month 36: 3 of 3 patients (100.0%).

Therefore, it was decided to not use data from this trial in the health economic model, relying on clinical expert opinions instead.

Data from RM-493-014 are not used in the model, as this was a Phase 2 study which was not designed to assess efficacy. As no drug therapy is currently approved for the management of hyperphagia and obesity associated with BBS, the comparator used for modelling is standard management/best supportive care (BSC). No studies were identified by the SLR that compared setmelanotide directly with BSC. The RM-493-023 study was placebo controlled followed by an open label period, and considered to be representative of the efficacy of setmelanotide versus BSC without setmelanotide and of how patients are expected to be treated in the real-world.

[Table 12](#page-47-0) summarises the relevant literature used for efficacy and safety.



## **Table 12 Relevant literature included in the assessment of efficacy and safety**

<span id="page-47-0"></span>



\* If there are several publications connected to a trial, include all publications used.

# 5.2 Literature used for the assessment of health-related quality of life

Three (3) studies in the SLR reported on HRQoL or patient-/caregiver-reported outcomes related to obesity in BBS (se[e Appendix I\)](#page-204-0) but were not relevant to include in the health economic assessment. HRQoL was measured in RM-493-023 using EQ-5D and was measured after 52 weeks of treatment with setmelanotide (presented i[n Appendix F\)](#page-163-0). However, the EQ-5D was not deemed to capture the impact of hyperphagia (the biggest driver of quality of life in BBS patients) and these data were, therefore, considered inappropriate for use in the cost-effectiveness analysis. The table below presents the literature used for the health state utility values used in this assessment, and the relevant sections in the application where those are described. The results from the HRQoL reported in study RM-493-023 is presented in [Appendix F.](#page-163-0) The literature search for HRQoL is further described i[n Appendix I.](#page-204-0)

#### **Table 13 Relevant literature included for (documentation of) health-related quality of life**



[Appendix F](#page-163-0)











**Reference (Full citation incl. reference number)**

**Health state/Disutility Reference to where in the application the data is described/applied**

health economics : HEPAC : health economics in prevention and care 12(3),219-30 (2011) [75]

# 5.3 Literature used for inputs for the health economic model

The health economic model is informed by data from RM-493-023 for baseline and response data. Mortality was based on a disease model. Resource use and cost were based on publicly available literature relevant for Denmark. [Table 14](#page-51-0) summarizes the relevant literature used for input in the health economic model.

### <span id="page-51-0"></span>**Table 14 Relevant literature used for input to the health economic model**













# 6. Efficacy

# 6.1 Efficacy of setmelanotide compared to best supportive care for genetically confirmed Bardet-Biedl syndrome (BBS) in adults and children 6 years of age and above

## **6.1.1 Relevant studies**

As previously described, three clinical studies considering clinical outcomes in patients with BBS with severe hyperphagia and obesity investigated the efficacy and safety of setmelanotide, RM-493-023 [63], RM-493-022 [64] and RM-493-014 [62]. The main study used in the health-economic model is study RM-493-023, the extension study RM-493-022 was used for providing clinical evidence of the maintenance of efficacy. Data from RM-493-022 and RM-493-014 are not used in the model. Therefore only RM-493-023 [63] are included in the table below. All three studies are further described in [Appendix A.](#page-121-0)

The main study providing data relating to the use and efficacy of setmelanotide in patients with BBS is derived from Phase 3 pivotal Study RM-493-023. Study RM-493-023 had a 2-arm, parallelgroup design, with three treatment periods [\(Figure 5\)](#page-54-0):

- Period 1 was a 14-week, randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled treatment period. Patients were randomised in a 1:1 ratio, stratified by age group (≥12 years or <12 years) and disease (BBS or AS), to receive setmelanotide or placebo once daily via subcutaneous injection.
- Period 2 was a 38-week open-label treatment period in which all patients received setmelanotide.
- Period 3 was a 14-week open-label treatment period in which all patients received setmelanotide. The purpose of this period was to allow patients who received placebo in period 1 to receive 52 weeks of treatment. Those who received setmelanotide in Period 1 continued to receive setmelanotide after assessment of the Week 52 primary endpoint.

The trial was conducted in both AS and BBS patients, however, AS was not included in the setmelanotide marketing authorization and hence this submission focuses on post-hoc analysis of data in BBS patients only (see [Figure 5](#page-54-0) for an overview). Analysis populations specified for Study RM-493-023 are summarized i[n Table 15](#page-55-0) and the trial profile of pivotal patients in [Figure 6.](#page-55-1)



## <span id="page-54-0"></span>**Figure 5 Study RM-493-023 design schematic**

a Dose escalation up to 3.0 mg based on age



<sup>b</sup> For patients who received ≥52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment by end of study, the analysis was performed at Week 52.

<sup>c</sup>A multiple imputation model was used to impute data for patients who received <52 weeks of setmelanotide at the primary analysis timepoint

<sup>d</sup> Efficacy outcomes were assessed at 52 weeks of active treatment for each group (i.e. Week 0 to 52 for the setmelanotide group and Week 14 to 66 for the group assigned to placebo during the double-blind treatment period)

#### <span id="page-55-0"></span>**Table 15 Study RM-493-023 analysis sets**



#### <span id="page-55-1"></span>**Figure 6 Trial profile of pivotal patients**



Notes: Safety analysis set includes patients who received at least one dose of setmelanotide or placebo. Placebo-controlled analysis set includes randomly assigned patients who received at least one dose of setmelanotide or placebo and had baseline data. Full analysis set includes randomly assigned patients who received at least one dose of setmelanotide and had baseline data. \*Double-blind 14-week period. †Open-label treatment with only setmelanotide



## **Table 16 Overview of study design for studies included in the comparison**





## <span id="page-57-1"></span>**6.1.2 Comparability of studies**

This application is based on a head-to-head study RM-493-023.

#### **6.1.3 Comparability of patients across studies**

A summary of demographic and baseline information in the RM-493-023 study is presented for all patients with BBS (pivotal and supplemental) in [Table 17.](#page-57-0) Supplemental patients are the patients added into the protocol in the midcourse of the study. The purpose of the supplemental cohort was to gain more treatment experience. Overall, a total of 52 patients were enrolled in the study, including 38 patients in the pivotal cohort and 14 in the supplemental cohort. With respect to clinical diagnoses, 44 of the 52 patients had BBS and 8 had AS. The supplemental cohort included 12 BBS patients and 2 AS patients. However, unless stated otherwise, all analyses in the SAP refer to the pivotal cohort only.

The mean age of the BBS population at the start of the trial was 20 years of age, across a range of 6 to 46 years. Slightly more females than males were enrolled. Most patients were White. Of note, baseline most/worst hunger scores differed significantly between setmelanotide and placebo groups. Baseline hunger in the setmelanotide arm was 4.7 compared with 6.8 for placebo. Fifteen of 16 adult patients in trial had a BMI of ≥35 kg/m2 and 12 of 16 paediatric patients had a BMI Z-score of ≥3. These are representative of patients with severe obesity. It was assumed that a high frequency of severe obesity was the result of severe hyperphagia. The baseline characteristics of the modelled cohort relevant for this application were based on evidence from the pivotal Phase 3 trial Study RM 493-023 of patients with BBS aged ≥6 years (presented previously in [Table 4\)](#page-30-0)



<span id="page-57-0"></span>**Table 17 BBS patient characteristics on inclusion (Study RM-493-023, pivotal and supplemental patients)**



<sup>1</sup> Placebo-controlled period baseline.

<sup>2</sup> Patients aged ≥12 years without cognitive impairment; self reported. Assessed daily using a numeric rating score from 0 to 10, with 0 = not hungry at all and 10 = hungriest possible.

<sup>3</sup> At active treatment baseline.

The baseline distribution of patients by BMI category (adult patients) and BMI Z-score category (paediatric patients) is presented in [Table 18.](#page-58-0)



<span id="page-58-0"></span>**Table 18 Baseline BMI and BMI Z-score categories for BBS patients (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patient SAS)**



## **6.1.3.1 Comparability of the study population(s) with Danish patients eligible for treatment**

**The Danish patient population:** The patient population relevant in Denmark consists of adult or paediatric patients with BBS, aged ≥6 years who have severe hyperphagia and obesity; this aligns with the approved market authorisation and indication for Imcivree® and reflects where setmelanotide provides the most clinical benefit and where the product is likely to be used in real life in Denmark. Baseline characteristics in the health economic analysis were based on evidence from study RM 493-023, presented before in sectio[n 3.2,](#page-28-0) [Table 4](#page-30-0) and are considered representative for the Danish population according to Danish clinical experts. It is estimated that approximately  $\Box$  patients are eligible for treatment with Imcivree® confirmed by two clinical experts in Denmark [37, 38].

**Patient population in the health economic analysis submitted:** As previously described, patient characteristics for the modelled population were informed by baseline data from study RM-493- 023 [40] that reflects the Danish patient population[37, 38]. Model inputs related to patient characteristics are age at treatment initiation, % female and baseline BMI Z-score distribution. It was assumed that patients who responded to setmelanotide (i.e. adults who achieved ≥10% weight reduction and paediatric patients who achieved ≥0.2 BMI Z-score reduction) must also have experienced a significant reduction in their hyperphagia levels, sufficient to classify their on-treatment hyperphagia as mild. It was assumed that in order to lose the clinically significant amount of weight required to qualify as a 'responder' that hyperphagia severity was reduced from 'severe' to 'mild'. This assumption was validated with Danish clinical experts [37, 38].



**Table 19 Characteristics in the relevant Danish population and in the health economic model**



### <span id="page-60-0"></span>**6.1.4 Efficacy – results per Study RM-493-023**

As previously described study RM-493-023 was conducted in both BBS and AS patients but marketing authorisation was not sought for AS patients, and this submission relates only to the use of setmelanotide in BBS patients. However, the primary endpoint is presented for the full trial population (BBS and AS patients) in addition to BBS patients only; all other data are presented for the BBS population only. The summary results for the primary and secondary analysis are presented in [Table 20](#page-61-0) and [Table 21,](#page-61-1) respectively. Results throughout this section are presented separately for patients aged ≥18 years and those aged <18 years (in contrast with the results from the main trial endpoints that are presented for ≥12 years). In growing children, body weight is heavily influenced by physical development and maturation. Body weight is, therefore, primarily used for patients aged ≥18 years, whilst weight-related parameters that account for differences in height (such as BMI) and those that account for differences in age and sex (such as BMI Z-score and the percentage of the BMI 95<sup>th</sup> percentile score) are used for patients aged <18 years.

The model considers paediatric treatment initiation as base case and adult treatment initiation is tested in a scenario. in order to inform the economic model, a post-hoc analysis was carried out to determine the proportion of patients aged ≥18 years who moved from one BMI category to another and the proportion of patients aged <18 years who moved from one BMI Z-score category to another. Only data from setmelanotide 'responders' i.e., adult patients who achieved ≥10% weight loss (The response criterion of ≥10% weight loss over a 52 week period is greater than the 5% threshold noted in the FDA and EMA guidance regarding selection of primary endpoints for the development of medicinal products for weight management [82, 83]) or paediatric patients who achieved ≥0.2 reduction in BMI Z-score after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment) were used to inform on these transitions, as patients who do not meet such thresholds would not continue setmelanotide treatment in clinical practice. Of the 15 pivotal adult patients in Study RM-493-023, 7 were considered responders; of the 16 paediatric patients, 12 were considered responders.

## <span id="page-61-0"></span>**Table 20 Pivotal ≥12-year-old Full Analysis Set, after last enrolled patient in the pivotal cohort has completed period 2 (W52)**



Abbreviations: CI, Confidence interval; FAS, Full analysis set; SD, Standard deviation.

<span id="page-61-1"></span>**Table 21 Pivotal ≥12-year-old Placebo Controlled Analysis Set (not cognitively impaired for hungerbases SE 2), after last patient completes the 14 Week Double Blind Placebo Controlled period (W14)\***





Abbreviations: CI, Confidence interval; FAS, Full analysis set; SD, Standard deviation.

\*Differences to placebo after 14 weeks do not impact the health economic analysis. The health economic analysis is based on efficacy at 52 weeks of therapy.

The primary, secondary and exploratory efficacy endpoints in RM-493-023 study are presented in [Appendix B.](#page-132-0) The following sections present the post-hoc analysis used to inform the economic model (response used in the model). For the other endpoints, the results are presented per adults and paediatric to reflect the populations relevant for this assessment.

# **6.1.4.1 Proportion of pivotal patients aged ≥12 years who achieved a ≥10% reduction in body weight after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment**

The primary endpoint comprised the proportion of pivotal patients (BBS and AS) aged  $\geq$ 12 years in the FAS population who achieved a clinically meaningful reduction in body weight (≥10%) from active-treatment baseline after ~52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment. The estimated proportion (32.3%) of pivotal patients ≥12 years of age with BBS or AS who achieved a ≥10% reduction in body weight from the active-treatment baseline was statistically significant (p=0.0006) compared with a historical control rate of 10%; the study, therefore, met its primary efficacy endpoint [40]. Despite the fact that the primary endpoint captures the proportion of patients with a weight change ≥10% vs. baseline, the true value of setmelanotide lies in the difference between the weight reduction achieved with treatment and the weight that would have been gained had treatment not been



initiated. See further details on how the setmelanotide treatment effect was modelled for adult patients in Section [8.1.1.](#page-70-1)

**Table 22 Proportion of BBS or AS patients aged ≥12 years who achieved a ≥10% reduction in body weight (Study RM-493-023, pivotal BBS and AS patient FAS)**



Source: [40].

Analysis of the primary endpoint for BBS patients is presented in [Table 23.](#page-63-0) Approximately of BBS patients aged ≥12 years achieved a ≥10% reduction in body weight from the active-treatment baseline after ~52 weeks of setmelanotide along with 47% of patients aged ≥18 years.

<span id="page-63-0"></span>**Table 23 Proportion of BBS patients aged ≥12 years or ≥18 years with a 10% reduction in body weight (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patient FAS)**



Source: [40].

#### **6.1.4.2 Change in body weight after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment**

In pivotal patients aged ≥18 years, 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment resulted in a significant reduction from active-treatment baseline in body weight compared with the reference value of 0% reduction [\(Table 24\)](#page-63-1). The reduction in body weight over time is presented in [Figure 7.](#page-64-0) Mean weight loss at Week 52 was -9.42 kg and mean percent change was -7.57%; a change of ≥5% is considered clinically meaningful.

<span id="page-63-1"></span>**Table 24 Change in body weight from baseline after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment in patients aged ≥18 years (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patient FAS)**





<sup>1</sup>95% CI and p-value based on Rubin's rule. p-value is one-sided and compared with alpha = 0.025. Source: [40].

<span id="page-64-0"></span>



# **6.1.4.3 Change in body weight after 14 weeks of setmelanotide treatment compared with placebo**

In all patients (pivotal and supplemental) aged ≥18 years, treatment with setmelanotide over 14 weeks resulted in significantly greater reduction in body weight from the placebo-controlled period baseline compared with placebo-treated patients [\(Table 25\)](#page-64-1). Patients receiving setmelanotide had a mean reduction in body weight of  $x_k$ , whilst mean weight for the placebo group remained virtually unchanged from baseline

over the 14-week treatment period. Change in body weight after 14 weeks of setmelanotide treatment is presented in **[Figure 8](#page-65-0)**.

<span id="page-64-1"></span>**Table 25 Change in body weight from baseline after 14 weeks of setmelanotide treatment in patients aged ≥18 years (Study RM-493-023, all patient PCAS)**





Abbreviations: CI, Confidence interval; PCS placebo-controlled analysis set; PCPB, placebo-controlled period baseline; SD, Standard deviation. Source: [40].

<span id="page-65-0"></span>



# **6.1.4.4 Change in BMI Z-score after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment in patients <18 years**

In pivotal patients aged <18 years, 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment resulted in a significantly greater reduction in mean change in BMI Z-score from active-treatment baseline as compared with a reference value of 0% reduction [\(Table 26\)](#page-65-1). Mean change over time is presented in [Figure 9.](#page-66-0) The mean change in BMI Z-score at Week 52 was -0.75 points. Literature data suggest that a reduction in BMI Z-score of at least -0.15 to -0.20 is clinically meaningful in paediatric patients.

<span id="page-65-1"></span>







<span id="page-66-0"></span>**Figure 9 Mean change in BMI Z-score from active treatment baseline in BBS patients <18 years (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patient FAS)**

Overall, 85.7% of patients aged <18 years achieved at least a 0.2-point reduction from baseline in BMI Z-score with setmelanotide treatment and 71.4% achieved at least a 0.3-point reduction [\(Table 27\)](#page-66-1).

after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patient FAS)				
Parameter	<b>Statistic</b>	<b>Result</b>		
$\geq$ 0.2 change from ATB $(n=14)$	n(%)	12(85.7)		
	(95% CI)	(57.2, 98.2)		
$\geq$ 0.3 change from ATB $(n=14)$	$n (\%)$	10(71.4)		
	(95% CI)	(41.9, 91.6)		

<span id="page-66-1"></span>**Table 27. Proportion of patients aged <18 years achieving a BMI Z-score reduction from baseline after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patient FAS)**

See further details on how the setmelanotide treatment effect was modelled for paediatric patients in Sectio[n 8.1.1.](#page-70-1)

# **6.1.4.5 Change in BMI 95th percentile after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment in patients <18 years**

In pivotal patients aged <18 years, 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment resulted in a statistically significant mean reduction in the BMI 95<sup>th</sup> percentile score of -17.30 from active-treatment baseline [\(Table](#page-66-2) 28); this shifted the mean from Class 3 (≥140% of the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile) to Class 2 (120% to <140% of the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile) obesity based on Kumar 2019.

<span id="page-66-2"></span>**Table 28 Change in BMI 95th percentile from baseline after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment in patients aged <18 years (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patient FAS)**





### **6.1.4.6 Change in BMI after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment**

In pivotal patients aged ≥18 years, 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment resulted in a statistically significant mean BMI change from active-treatment baseline of -4.22 kg/m<sup>2</sup> and a mean percent change of -9.09%. In pivotal patients aged <18 years, 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment resulted in a statistically significant mean reduction in BMI from active-treatment baseline of -3.36 kg/m<sup>2</sup> and -9.50% [\(Table](#page-67-0) 29).

<span id="page-67-0"></span>**Table 29 Change in BMI from baseline after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment in patients aged <18 years or aged ≥18 years (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patient FAS)**

Parameter	Statistic <sup>1</sup>	<18 years	$\geq$ 18 years
BMI at ATB $(kg/m2)$ N		16	15
	Mean (SD)	37.44 (9.439)	46.35 (5.857)
	Median (range)	36.62 (24.4, 61.3)	46.22 (39.2, 57.8)
Change after N 52 weeks ( $kg/m2$ )		14	12
	Mean (SD)	$-3.36(2.070)$	$-4.22(3.335)$
	Median (range) -3.56 (-6.9, 0.0)		$-4.62$ ( $-8.4, 3.0$ )



[Figure](#page-68-0) 10 shows individual patient data of percent change from baseline in BMI. All but 2 pivotal patients treated with setmelanotide for 52 weeks showed reductions from active-treatment baseline in percent change in BMI. All patients included in the figure (n=26) received setmelanotide over 52 weeks. Six patients in the pivotal cohort discontinued and therefore did not receive 52 weeks of setmelanotide, and are not represented in the Figure.

<span id="page-68-0"></span>**Figure 10 Waterfall plot of percent change in BMI from baseline after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patient FAS)**





# 7. Comparative analyses of efficacy

The head-to-head study RM-493-023 was included as evidence of efficacy, the following section describing the comparative analysis was considered not relevant to this application and chapter 7 have been omitted, as per the DMC guideline. However, as requested in the template, [Table 32](#page-71-0) below is filled in for comparative efficacy for setmelanotide and placebo in the placebo-controlled period of 14 eeks in RM-493-023. For the 52-week efficacy results see sectio[n 6.1.4.](#page-60-0)

#### **7.1.1 Differences in definitions of outcomes between studies**

No applicable.

### **7.1.2 Method of synthesis**

Not applicable. Results from the comparative analysis

**Table 30. Results from the comparative analysis of setmelanotide vs. placebo for genetically confirmed Bardet-Biedl syndrome in adults and children 6 years of age and above**



<span id="page-70-0"></span>

## **7.1.3 Efficacy – results per [outcome measure]**

Not applicable, see sectio[n 6.1.4](#page-60-0)

# 8. Modelling of efficacy in the health economic analysis

# 8.1 Presentation of efficacy data from the clinical documentation used in the model

## <span id="page-70-1"></span>**8.1.1 Patient characteristics**

Patient characteristics for the model population were informed by baseline data from Study RM-493-023 (as have been presented in section [6.1.2\)](#page-57-1). This included the initial patient distribution for BMI/BMI Z-score categories and sex. A hyperphagia severity parameter, stratified to low, moderate and high severity, served as an intermediate outcome that influenced patient quality-of-life score.

## **8.1.2 Setmelanotide treatment effect**

Setmelanotide treatment effect comprises improvements in BMI/BMI Z-score and hyperphagia score. The modelled treatment effect on BMI/BMI Z-score was quantified as the average number of BMI/BMI Z-score categories that treatment responders improved by, using 52-week clinical trial results [40], compared with baseline BMI/BMI Z-score categories.

The assumption that all paediatric patients who respond to treatment with setmelanotide would achieve a reduction in BMI-Z/BMI class of 2 levels is based on the following considerations:

- It is key to emphasize the limitations of the lower and upper BMI-Z score class ranges, which are less sensitive to changes in BMI-Z. The BMI-Z score classes defined in the study were <1, 1 to <2, 2 to <2.5, 2.5 to <3, 3 to <3.5, 3.5 to <4, and >4. At the extremities, the range in BMI-Z is greater than the 0.5 ranges in the middle classes.
- There were four patients with baseline BMI-Z >4 (some much greater than 4), and one patient with baseline BMI-Z 1-2. If classes at the extremities had a range of 0.5 (as the classes between 2 and 4), then for patients with BMI-Z >4, one would have experienced a 3-class reduction in BMI-Z, two patients would have

experienced a 2-class reduction in BMI-Z, and one patient would have experienced a 0-class reduction. The patient with baseline BMI-Z 1-2 lost 1.91 points in BMI-Z and was no longer obese, which would correspond to a 4-class reduction. Based on classes being defined by increments in 0.5 BMI-Z scores, the mean shift in classes is 1.92, which is in line with this approach (see [Table 31](#page-71-1) below).

- The mean difference in BMI-Z score from baseline is 0.87, which corresponds to a 1.75 class change (0.87/0.5), closer to a 2-class shift (see [Table 31](#page-71-1) below). Thus, a 2-class change reflects the impact on BMI-Z experienced by patients.
- The choice of the class ranges was based on the availability of published data to estimate the risk of comorbidities and the disutility of obesity.
- Furthermore, in clinical practice, which will involve multidisciplinary care including the management of obesity (incl. active management of diet and exercise), the effect of hyperphagia reduction on BMI-Z in patients treated with setmelanotide is anticipated to be greater than that observed in the clinical trial, in which changes to diet and exercise were not allowed. Additionally, the assumptions for hyperphagia transitions used in the base case analysis are conservative, as no transitions to a no hyperphagia state have been assumed.

<span id="page-71-1"></span>**Table 31. BMI Z-score shift data for individual BBS patients aged <18 years who were classified as 52 week responders (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patients), considering BMI-Z class intervals of 0.5**

[Table 32](#page-71-0) and [Table 33](#page-72-0) show the modelled treatment effect of setmelanotide on the BMI/BMI Z-score when paediatric (base case analysis) and adult treatment initiation are considered, respectively.

<span id="page-71-0"></span>**Table 32. Modelled treatment effect of setmelanotide on the BMI Z-score category (paediatric treatment initiation).**


85.7% xxxxxxxx Based on Clinical trial NCT03746522 (Study RM-493-023) data at 52 week time point [40]

BMI: Body mass index \*A paediatric treatment responder was defined as a patient aged <18 years at baseline who achieved a BMI Z-score decrease of ≥0.2 from baseline to the 52-week endpoint based on clinical trial results. The response rate using this definition was 85.7% \*\* In the model, the treatment effect on BMI is assumed to not occur until the end of the first year of treatment.

#### **Table 33. Modelled treatment effect of setmelanotide on the BMI category (Adult treatment initiation).**



BMI: Body mass index \*An adult treatment responder was defined as a patient aged >18 years at baseline who achieved a ≥10% weight loss from baseline to the 52-week endpoint based on clinical trial results. The response rate using this definition was 46.7% \*\* In the model, the treatment effect on BMI is assumed to not occur until the end of the first year of treatment.

BMI/BMI Z-score was assumed to be stable after responding to treatment. Consequently, setmelanotide treatment responders who do not discontinue treatment remain in the same BMI/BMI Z-score category (i.e., the one the transitioned to after the first year of treatment) for the rest of their lifetime. This assumption was based on Pomeroy, J. et al. (2021) [4], who showed that BMI Z-score for BBS patients peaked at 2 to 5 years of age and subsequently decreased or stabilized. Patients with response to setmelanotide who discontinue treatment are assumed to revert to their baseline BMI/BMI Z-score category immediately and remain in that category for the rest of their lifetime, with no tapering of treatment effect. No long-term data are available to inform on the effect of treatment waning and it was assumed to be negligible.

With regards to the effect of setmelanotide on hyperphagia, it is important to consider that validated methods of measuring hyperphagia in BBS patients do not exist. Consequently, hyperphagia was not measured in the pivotal trial and it was not possible to collect direct evidence of the impact of setmelanotide treatment on hyperphagia. As a result, assumptions were made based on the link between hyperphagia and weight. Hyperphagia is considered the underlying cause of obesity in BBS patients. This means that it must be reduced significantly for patients to experience the level of weight loss seen in clinical trials.

Consequently, the effect of setmelanotide on hyperphagia reflects that seen for BMI/BMI Z-score. It could be expected that responding patients would have a significantly reduced hyperphagia level, as this would be necessary to drive a clinically meaningful improvement in their BMI/BMI Z-score. Therefore, it is assumed that setmelanotide treatment responders transition from the baseline state of severe hyperphagia to a state of mild

hyperphagia. A clinically meaningful improvement in BMI/BMI Z-score is unlikely to occur through a shift to moderate hyperphagia, especially as lifestyle modifications were not allowed in the study.

As with the BMI/BMI Z-score category, setmelanotide treatment responders who do not discontinue treatment remain with the same hyperphagia state for the rest of their lifetime (i.e., mild hyperphagia). Patients with response to setmelanotide who discontinue treatment are also assumed to revert to their baseline hyperphagia state (i.e., severe hyperphagia) immediately and remain in that state for the rest of their lifetime, with no tapering of treatment effect.

Finally, patients who do not respond to setmelanotide discontinue treatment and do not experience treatment effect. In the base case analysis, setmelanotide non-responders are assumed to discontinue treatment after 14 weeks. Hunger levels fall rapidly on initiation of setmelanotide treatment. It is therefore assumed that clinicians can accurately identify patient response at 14 weeks based on changes in hyperphagia and other clinical parameters. Treatment discontinuation after 1 year for setmelanotide non-responders is explored in a scenario analysis.

#### **8.1.3 Discontinuation rate**

Setmelanotide is well tolerated and discontinuation rates for patients responding to treatment are assumed to be very low. Consequently, a discontinuation rate of 1% per year is used. This rate is considered reasonable as discontinuation due to adverse events or lack of efficacy occurs soon after treatment initiation (i.e., after 14 weeks of treatment with setmelanotide in the base case analysis) and it therefore should not be considered as contributor to the yearly discontinuation. The RM-493-023 clearly showed that response in hunger was seen after 10-12 weeks, and all early discontinuations are assumed to be accounted for before model entry. Patients who discontinue treatment with setmelanotide receive BSC alone.

#### **8.1.4 Extrapolation of efficacy data**

Not applicable.

#### **8.1.5 Calculation of transition probabilities**

Not applicable.

# 8.2 Presentation of efficacy data from additional documentation

#### **8.2.1 Best supportive care treatment effect**

Patients receiving only BSC (lifestyle, dietary interventions, and behavioural therapy) are assumed to have no treatment effect in terms of BMI/BMI Z-score or hyperphagia state. This is because management with diet and exercise has no impact on hyperphagia and

consequently, it is unlikely to have a meaningful effect on obesity for this population. Additionally, Danish clinical experts confirmed that patients with BBS and obesity do not experience spontaneous significant reductions in BMI Z-score or BMI over time [37, 38]. Therefore, these patients remain in their baseline BMI/BMI Z-score category and their baseline hyperphagia state (i.e., severe hyperphagia) their whole lifetime.

This assumption is also supported by data from the CRIBBS database (Clinical Registry Investigating BBS Database), which is a large registry of BBS patients treated in expert centres in the US and in other countries. The weight and hunger of the CRIBBS population is closely monitored by parents and caregivers. While on BSC, some of these patients are losing weight while others are gaining it. Clinical experts also confirmed that while some patients may lose some weight, more patients are actually gaining weight with worsening of obesity over time. Consequently, as a conservative proxy, a constant BMI-Z or BMI level across the model time horizon was assumed for patients receiving BSC.

#### **8.2.2 Mortality**

No mortality data specific to the BBS population with obesity was identified in the SLR. As a consequence, mortality data was derived from an innovative process by which a comprehensive model was built and used to estimate the effect of early onset of obesity on comorbidities and mortality risk (see [Appendix K\)](#page-210-0).

The Early Onset Obesity Model described in [Appendix K](#page-210-0) was used to derive mortality risks by age and BMI/BMI-Z score category. The resulting mortality risks increased with age and BMI/BMI-Z score category. The full description on how these mortality risks were obtained is presented in [Appendix K](#page-210-0) of the application.

As it is described in section [8.1.2,](#page-70-0) paediatric patients responding to treatment with setmelanotide experience a reduction of 2 levels in their BMI-Z score category. However, patients receiving BSC alone remain in the same BMI/BMI-Z score category for their entire lifetime. Consequently, patients responding to setmelanotide have, on average, a lower BMI/BMI-Z score category than patients receiving BSC alone.

As described before, the mortality risk derived from the Early Onset Obesity Model increases with age and BMI/BMI-Z score category. Therefore, patients responding to setmelanotide have, on average, a lower mortality risk than patients receiving BSC alone.

## 8.3 Modelling effects of subsequent treatments

No subsequent lines of treatment are modelled. Patients who discontinue treatment with setmelanotide receive BSC alone for the rest of their lifetime. Patients receiving BSC alone from model start keep receiving BSC alone for the rest of their lifetime. The modelled efficacy for the intervention and comparator is described above in section [8.1.](#page-70-1)

### 8.4 Other assumptions regarding efficacy in the model

Not applicable.

# 8.5 Overview of modelled average treatment length and time in model health state

[Table 34](#page-75-0) shows the modelled average treatment length and the average time spent in each BMI Z-score/BMI category by treatment arm.

<span id="page-75-0"></span>**Table 34 Overview of modelled average treatment length and average time spent in each BMI Zscore/BMI category, undiscounted and not adjusted for half cycle correction (paediatric treatment initiation)**



\*Patients who discontinue treatment with setmelanotide and start to receive BSC alone were not considered for this calculation.

BMI: Body mass index; BSC: Best supportive care

# 9. Safety

# 9.1 Safety data from the clinical documentation

Safety results are presented for the safety analysis set (SAS) population, defined as all patients who received at least 1 study drug dose [40]. Furthermore, the intensity of all adverse events (AE) including clinically significant treatment-emergent laboratory abnormalities, injection site reactions and potential systemic reactions were graded per the Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Events (CTCAE) Version 4.03 [40].

**[Table 35](#page-76-0)** presents the summary of adverse events at 14 weeks (double-blind period) for the SAS population, whilst **[Table 36](#page-77-0)** presents the summary of AEs at 52 weeks (end of the Study RM-493-023 study, designated as full study period). The majority of patients (96.2%)

experienced at least 1 treatment emergent adverse event (TEAE) during the double-blind period of the study and all patients experienced at least 1 TEAE during the full study. Overall, the majority of TEAEs were mild or moderate in severity. A total of 3 serious adverse events (SAE) were reported during the full study, one of which was considered by the Investigator to be treatment-related while patient was receiving placebo[40].

#### <span id="page-76-0"></span>**Table 35 Overview of safety events (14 weeks)**



\*A serious adverse event is an event or reaction that results in death, is life-threatening, requires hospitalization or prolongation of existing hospitalization, results in persistent or significant disability or incapacity, or is a birth defect.

§ CTCAE v. 5.0 must be used if available.

Abbreviations: CTCAE, Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Events; NA, Not applicable.

#### <span id="page-77-0"></span>**Table 36 Overview of safety events (52 weeks)**



\*A serious adverse event is an event or reaction that results in death, is life-threatening, requires hospitalization or prolongation of existing hospitalization, results in persistent or significant disability or incapacity, or is a birth defect.

§ CTCAE v. 5.0 must be used if available. Grade 3 events were classified as severe events in the trial.

Abbreviations: CTCAE, Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Events; NA, Not applicable.

Source: [40].

All SAEs occurring during the double-blind study period (14 weeks) are summarized by treatment group in **[Table 38](#page-78-0)** by MedDRA system organ class and preferred term for the SAS population. Overall, 3 (5.8%) patients experienced SAEs during the double-blind study period, 2 of whom were receiving placebo. One SAE was considered by the Investigator to be related to study drug (anaphylactic reaction in a placebo patient). The 1 SAE (anaemia) reported in a patient receiving setmelanotide was reported as being due to gynaecological bleeding and was judged by the Investigator to be most likely due to initiation of oral contraceptives. No SAEs were reported in >1 patient [40].

#### **Table 37 Serious adverse events (14 weeks)**





\*A serious adverse event is an event or reaction that results in death, is life-threatening, requires hospitalization or prolongation of existing hospitalization, results in persistent or significant disability or incapacity, or is a birth defect.

Note: this table summarises all SAEs that occurred as there was no data analysis for SAEs with a frequency of ≥ 5% recorded in the study.

Source: [40].

All SAEs occurring during the full study (52 weeks) are summarized by treatment group in **[Table 38](#page-78-0)** by MedDRA system organ class and preferred term for the SA population. Overall, 3 (5.8%) patients experienced a total of 5 SAEs during the full study. After the double blind treatment period, 1 patient (who experienced complete vision loss [blindness] during the double-blind period), had 2 events of suicidal ideation (verbalized suicidal thought [non-action]). The patient had no previous history of depression, and the events were judged by the Investigator to be unlikely related to study medication and attributable to concomitant disease [40].



#### <span id="page-78-0"></span>**Table 38 Serious adverse events (52 weeks)**



\*A serious adverse event is an event or reaction that results in death, is life-threatening, requires hospitalization or prolongation of existing hospitalization, results in persistent or significant disability or incapacity, or is a birth defect.

Note: this table summarises all SAEs that occurred as there was no data analysis for SAEs with a frequency of ≥ 5% recorded in the study.

#### Source: [40].

AEs that are included in the health economic model are shown in [Table 39.](#page-79-0) Included AE's only effect the utility of not the cost in the analysis. The main TEAEs experienced by patients receiving setmelanotide during study RM-493-023 were skin hyperpigmentation (59.1%), injection site erythema (45.5%), nausea (22.7%) and vomiting (27.3%) [40] However, the impact of skin hyperpigmentation is highly variable. According to Danish clinical experts, for some patients, skin hyperpigmentation could be welcomed while for others it may be less welcomed [37, 38]. Consequently, skin hyperpigmentation was excluded from the analysis. No treatment-related adverse events are included for the BSC arm, as BSC consists of lifestyle, dietary interventions, and behavioural therapy.

The event rate for nausea/vomiting in the model was calculated as the average of the observed rate of both events in the double-blind placebo-controlled period of study RM-493-023. The event rate for injection site reaction in the model was assumed to be equivalent to the observed rate of injection site erythema in the double-blind placebocontrolled period of study RM-493-023.



#### <span id="page-79-0"></span>**Table 39 Adverse events used in the health economic model**



BSC: Best supportive care

Refer to [Appendix E](#page-163-0) for further details on safety data.

# 9.2 Safety data from external literature applied in the health economic model

Not applicable. For the external literature used for disutilities for AE's see section [5.2](#page-48-0)

# 10. Documentation of health-related quality of life (HRQoL)

In this submission health effects were captured as utility values and were expressed in quality-adjusted life years (QALYs), as recommended by the DMC. HRQoL was measured in RM-493-023 using IWQOL Lite, PedsQL and Short Form (SF)-36 (or SF-10) Health Survey. HRQoL was also measured in RM-493-023 using EQ-5D after 52 weeks of treatment with setmelanotide.

In RM-493-023 participants with BBS treated with setmelanotide experienced and maintained substantial improvements. in measures of quality of life at 1 year. After 52 weeks of treatment, 85% of participants reported clinically meaningful improvements in or preserved their nonimpaired HRQoL; 75% of patients with impaired HRQoL at baseline experienced clinically meaningful improvement, and among patients with no impairment HRQoL at baseline all patients improved or preserved their non impaired HRQoL status:

- Among adult participants with BBS (≥18yo) who reported baseline and 52-week measurements, the majority (8/11) had impaired (note: Impairment was defined based on total score on IWQOL-Lite, with definitions for severe (<71.8), moderate (71.9–79.4), mild (79.5–87.0), or no (87.1–94.6). There were 63% (5/8) participants who experienced a clinically meaningful improvement after 52 weeks of setmelanotide therapy. The minimal clinically important difference is defined as > 7.7 improvement in total score on the IWQOL-Lite. Among adults without HRQoL impairment (3/11), all improved or preserved ((clinically meaningful improvement n=1, preserved n=2) their non impaired quality of life, [Table 82.](#page-163-1) Improvements were observed across all domains including publicdistress, self-esteem, sexual life and work.
- Among paediatric participants with BBS (<18yo), 4 of 9 had impaired HRQoL on the PedsQL at baseline and all experienced clinically meaningful improvements on their mean PedsQL score after 52 weeks of treatment with setmelanotide. Among participants with no impairment of HRQoL at baseline (n=5), all

preserved or improved their nonimpaired HRQoL status (clinically meaningful improvement: n=2; preserved HRQoL: n=3)[, Table 83.](#page-163-2) In line with published literature, the MCID was defined as >4.44 improvement in total score. (See further [Appendix F\)](#page-163-3).

As EQ-5D was not deemed suitable to capture the impact of hyperphagia (the biggest driver of quality of life in BBS patients) these data were, therefore, considered inappropriate for use in the cost-effectiveness analysis. In addition, no HRQoL data suitable for inclusion in the health economic analysis were identified by the SLR (see [Appendix I\)](#page-204-0).

Therefore, HSUV were derived from a vignette study and from targeted searches. The HRQoL results from the clinical trial are presented in [Appendix F.](#page-163-3) In the cost effectiveness analysis, the TTO from a vignette study was used to estimate the impact on hyperphagia. This resulted in utility multipliers indicating a greater severity of hyperphagia with lower utility multiplier. Literature-based EQ-5D values were used to estimate HRQoL for BBS patients with obesity and the impact of obesity-related comorbidities. Standard gamble (SG) adjusted utility scores was used to estimate the impact of adverse events on QoL. The utility value in each model cycle is calculated by applying a hyperphagia-severity utility-multiplier to utility values by BMI/BMI Z-score category and age, applying a QALY multiplier for non-obesity-related BBS symptoms, and then applying comorbidity disutilities by BMI/BMI Z-score category and adverse events (only the first model cycle). [Table 40](#page-81-0) shows an overview of the included HRQoL instruments used for deriving HSUV.



#### <span id="page-81-0"></span>**Table 40 Overview of included HRQoL instruments**

\* SG adjusted scores on a scale ranging from 0 (death) to 1 (perfect health). Adjusted scores were derived through a linear transformation of raw scores using the following formula: SG adj = (SG raw x (1 – worst)) + worst

BBS: Bardet-Biedl syndrome; BMI: Body mass index; EQ-5D: EuroQol 5 Dimension; QoL: Quality of life; TTO: Time trade-off



## 10.1 Presentation of the health-related quality of life

HRQoL instruments included from RM-493-023 were not informing clinical effectiveness and health state utilities were obtained from other sources, and multiple instruments, and is therefore not described below, refer to section 10.3 below.

#### 10.1.1 **Study design and measuring instrument not applicable**

Not applicable, see sectio[n 10.3](#page-85-0)

#### 10.1.2 **Data collection not applicable**

Not applicable, see sectio[n 10.3](#page-85-0)

#### **Table 41 Pattern of missing data and completion not applicable**



#### 10.1.3 **HRQoL results not applicable**

Not applicable, see section [10.3](#page-85-0)

#### **Table 42 HRQoL [instrument 1] summary statistics N/A**



# 10.2 Health state utility values (HSUVs) used in the health economic model

The HSUV forming the basis health economic analysis were derived from alternative sources, see further section [10.3.](#page-85-0)

#### 10.2.1 **HSUV calculation**

In this application Danish preference weights have not been used. According to the DMC [methods guide](https://medicinraadet.dk/media/5eibukbr/the-danish-medicines-council-methods-guide-for-assessing-new-pharmaceuticals-version-1-3.pdfhttps:/medicinraadet.dk/media/5eibukbr/the-danish-medicines-council-methods-guide-for-assessing-new-pharmaceuticals-version-1-3.pdf) section 7.1.3 use of EQ-5D-5L can be omitted when it is not appropriate.

While EQ-5D is a valid instrument for calculating HRQoL in patients with obesity, it is unlikely to be sensitive to the severe hyperphagia that patients with BBS and obesity experience. Previous HRQoL studies reflect the general obese population and do not characterize the impact of hyperphagia, independent of obesity, on HRQoL. In the case of BBS patients, hyperphagia is a serious condition that has substantial effect on HRQoL. However, none of the EQ-5D dimensions captures hyperphagia. Hyperphagia may be considered a sensory deprivation condition, as it is characterized by impaired satiety whereby patients constantly feel hungry, even after eating. EQ-5D has been shown to not be sensitive to sensory deprivation conditions [85].

In addition, certain disease populations may adapt to their condition. BBS is a genetic disease and hyperphagia is experienced from birth. Given the early manifestation of hyperphagia in patients with BBS, affected adult patients may be unable to fully recognize the severity of their hunger as it is their 'normal' state to which they have adapted to from an early age. Further, individuals with hyperphagia due to BBS may have developed coping strategies due to the early onset of symptoms, which could influence the ability of qualityof-life measures to detect health changes. Accordingly, EQ-5D may not be sensitive enough to detect the magnitude of quality-of-life impact in patients with hyperphagia and obesity due to BBS. This is likely to mean that the quality-of-life benefits of interventions to address hyperphagia will be similarly underestimated.

The QoL values reported in study RM-493-023 indicate that patients with BBS have a QoL slightly below population norms. This seems unreasonable in a disease whose manifestations can include obesity, hyperphagia, vision loss, undeveloped genitals, and kidney failure. It is therefore apparent that these QoL scores do not accurately reflect the lived experience of BBS patients.

In summary, It has previously been suggested that EQ-5D does not fully capture the impact of sensory impairment on QoL [85], and this may also be true for hyperphagia. This may explain the differences between how patients describe the impact of their condition and the EQ-5D values reported in the study. Additionally, patients with hyperphagia and BBS have experienced hyperphagia since infancy. Consequently, they are probably unaware of what it feels like to not be burdened by constant feelings of hunger and food-seeking behaviours or the impact these feelings have on their daily lives. It is also logical to assume that patients who have never experienced good health are inclined to find their life more bearable than it might appear to a person without disability.

HSUVs have been age-adjusted according to section 7.3 of the [methods guide.](https://medicinraadet.dk/media/mbtgpjjl/efter-1-januar-2021-appendiks-til-medicinr%C3%A5dets-metodevejledning-aldersjustering-adlegacy.pdf)



#### **10.2.1.1 Mapping**

As the HRQoL data from clinical trials were not used in the cost-effectiveness model. The health-utility data for hyperphagia were estimated using the vignette study. HRQoL data for utility values by BMI Z-score in the paediatric population were mapped from PedsQL to EQ-5D using evidence from Riazi 2010 [69] and the mapping algorithm presented by Khan 2014 [84]. Data from the early to post-pubertal subgroup with BMI Z-score averages of 3.5 (obese) and 0.3 (healthy) were used to populate the model BMI Z-score 0.0 to <1.0 and 3.5 to <4.0 category utility values, respectively. These values were mapped from PedsQL to EQ-5D using the ordinary least squares regression mapping algorithm shown in [Table 43,](#page-84-0) and linear extrapolation was used to calculate utility values for the remaining BMI Z-score categories [84].

#### <span id="page-84-0"></span>**Table 43 The ordinary least squares regression algorithm used to map BMI Z score category utility values**





#### 10.2.2 **Disutility calculation**

[Table 44](#page-85-1) below is not filled in the tables i[n 10.3](#page-85-0) below includes the same type of information.

#### 10.2.3 **HSUV results**

The steps required in this section have been completed under section 10.3

<span id="page-85-1"></span>

# <span id="page-85-0"></span>10.3 Presentation of the health state utility values measured in other trials than the clinical trials forming the basis for relative efficacy

In the cost effectiveness analysis HRQoL impact are captured through five pathways: 1) BMI/BMI Z-score category and age, 2) hyperphagia severity, 3) disutility due obesityrelated comorbidities, 4) disutility of non-obesity-related BBS symptoms, 5) disutility associated with treatment-related adverse events. Based on DMC guidelines, caregiver disutility is not included. The study design, data collection and HRQoL results for the different instruments applied in the health economic analysis are described below, and section 10.3.1-10.3.2 has been repeated for all instruments as per the template.

#### 10.3.1 **Study design TTO vignette study**

While utility values associated with obesity are available in published literature, no studies have estimated utilities associated with hyperphagia and impacts on patients' quality of life beyond obesity. The purpose of the vignette study was to estimate health state utilities associated with various levels of hyperphagia. The health state vignettes representing varying severity levels of hyperphagia were developed using published studies [36, 86], and iterative interviews with clinicians who had experience treating patients with hyperphagia. Clinicians were asked to define hyperphagia and its symptoms, impact, screening procedures, and concepts that may be included in screening tools. These interviews included open-ended questions designed to elicit description of the typical experience of a patient with hyperphagia and continued until all clinicians agreed on clearly described health states and accurate hyperphagia descriptions.

Four health states were developed: A (no hyperphagia), B (mild hyperphagia), C (moderate hyperphagia), and D (severe hyperphagia). The health states and utility assessment procedures were pilot tested with 21 individuals in April 2021 to ensure the health states and methods were clear to respondents before conducting the larger utility valuation study [87].

In time trade-off (TTO) interviews, participants from the United Kingdom general population valued the health state vignettes drafted from literature review and input from clinicians who treat patients with hyperphagia. A composite TTO (cTTO) approach was followed, with health states perceived to be better than dead valued via conventional trade-off methods and health states perceived to be worse than dead valued with a leadtime procedure.

#### **10.3.2 Data collection TTO vignette study**

In the Vignette study TTO interviews, with participants from the United Kingdom general population valued four health state vignettes drafted from literature review and input from clinicians who treat patients with hyperphagia. Health states described patients with no hyperphagia, as well as mild, moderate, and severe hyperphagia. A total of 215 participants completed interviews (39.5% male; mean [range] age 39.1 [18-76] years).

#### 10.3.3 **HRQoL Results TTO vignette study**

N/A see below for HSUV and disutility results.

#### 10.3.4 **HSUV and disutility results TTO vignette study**

No studies have estimated utilities associated with hyperphagia and impacts on patients' QoL beyond obesity. A Vignette study assessing the utilities associated with hyperphagia was done to estimate health state utilities associated with various levels of hyperphagia. Using a conservative alternative, accepted methodology, whereby any negative utility scores from responders for any of the health states were set to zero, a utility multiplier of 0.98 was derived for no hyperphagia, 0.91 for mild hyperphagia, 0.72 for moderate hyperphagia and for severe hyperphagia. The health state utility values derived from the vignette study are shown in **[Table 45](#page-86-0)**.

In addition, an assumption was made of a utility multiplier of 0.8 associated with symptoms such as blindness and cognitive impairment was applied.

#### <span id="page-86-0"></span>**Table 45 Overview of health state utility values [and disutilities]**





CI: Confidence interval; TTO: Time trade-off

#### 10.3.5 **Study design EQ-5D and EQ-5D-Y**

As no reliable HRQoL data for the BBS population were identified by literature search or in clinical trials, utility values were obtained from other literature on HRQoL impact within the general obese population using EQ-5D and EQ-5D-Y. The utility values decrease with increased BMI/BMI Z-score category and age, which is reasonable. Baseline utility values were calculated for each treatment arm based on the distribution of patients across BMI Z-score categories; these are impacted by whether the patient remains on or discontinues setmelanotide treatment.

Paediatric BBS patient population utility values for two BMI Z-score categories were taken from a clinical study of a UK obese paediatric population that completed PedsQL. Mapping of these data from PedsQL to EQ 5D is described, with the resulting utility values by BMI Z score category, in

HRQoL values by BMI score for BBS patients aged ≥18 years were based on Medical Expenditure Panel Survey data from published literature; these values varied with age, thereby addressing the tenet that quality of life generally decreases as patients age.

#### 10.3.6 **Data collection EQ-5D**

Not applicable.

#### 10.3.7 **HRQoL Results EQ-5D**

N/A, see below for HSUV and disutility results.

#### 10.3.8 **HSUV and disutility results EQ-5D**

The utility values by BMI Z-score and BMI category for by age for the paediatric patient population (1-18 years) and adults (18 to +70) are shown in [Table 46](#page-87-0) below.

<span id="page-87-0"></span>



**BMI Z-score category paediatrics (0-18 years)**



 $\begin{array}{ccc}\n\cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot & \circ & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot\n\end{array}$ 

 $\overline{a}$ 

 $\overline{a}$ 

 $\overline{a}$ 

 $\overline{a}$ 

 $\overline{a}$ 

 $\overline{a}$ 

 $\overline{a}$ 

 $\overline{a}$ 

 $\overline{a}$ 

 $\overline{a}$ 





\*The 95% CI was derived assuming that the standard error is 10% of the mean valueBMI: Body mass index; CI: Confidence interval; EQ-5D-Y: EuroQol 5 Dimension Youth, EQ-5D: EuroQol 5 Dimension

#### 10.3.9 **Study design EQ-5D-3L**

The impact of comorbidities on QoL were applied as comorbidity-specific disutilities to utility values using an additive approach, which aligned with published methodologies, Ara 2010 [88]. Disutility values were identified using multiple approaches, including an SLR for HRQoL data in the general obese population and targeted searches to fill data gaps. Data for sleep apnoea, osteoarthritis, and T2DM were obtained from the results of a multiple linear regression model of HRQoL based on Health Survey for England data reported by Søltoft 2009 [72].

#### 10.3.10 **Data collection EQ-5D-3L**

Not applicable.

#### 10.3.11 **HRQoL results EQ-5D-3L**

N/A, see below for HSUV and disutility results.

#### 10.3.12 **HSUV and disutility results EQ-5D-3L**

The cardiovascular event disutility (-0.066) was derived using individual event disutilities including myocardial infarction, angina, stroke, and transient ischaemic attack. A composite cardiovascular event disutility was calculated by weighting individual-event disutilities by the frequency of each when a cardiovascular event occurred. The disutilities associated with comorbidities are shown in [Table 47.](#page-91-0)

The impact of comorbidities on QoL increases with obesity severity. To account for this, the average disutility for each comorbidity shown in [Table 47](#page-91-0) was disaggregated along a log-linear distribution. This resulted in disutilities by BMI/BMI-Z score categories that increased as obesity severity increased [\(Table 48\)](#page-91-1). Here is a detailed explanation of this process:

Comorbidity disutilities were disaggregated along a log-linear distribution. This calculation was done by first determining the upper limits of each BMI-Z score category, while bounding our BMI-Z score categories with levels <0 and levels >4.5. The upper limit for level <0 was 0, and the upper limit for scores >4.5 was assumed to be 5. The cumulative distribution of each BMI-Z score category was then calculated using the NORM.DIST function where the arguments are the upper limit of each category, the mean BMI SDS score from the Lindberg, L et al. (2020) publication [31] (multiplied by 100 to allow the distribution function to calculate), and the standard deviation of the mean SDS score. These cumulative distributions were utilized to calculate probabilities of being in each category by finding the difference between each cumulative distribution. The disutility value for each category was calculated by exponentiating the product of the probability (which was used as a weight) and a calibration parameter. This calibration parameter was back-calculated using the goal seek functionality in Excel, to estimate disutilities for each category that would enable the weighted average of the comorbidity disutilities to equal the average comorbidity disutility. [Sleep apnoea example from the health economic model ("Detailed Inputs" tab): Goal Seek for cell I319 to equal the sleep apnoea disutility of 3.36 by changing the calibration variable in cell C310]. The adjusted disutilities were calculated by dividing the calculated disutilities by 100 to convert them back to the utility scale.

#### <span id="page-91-0"></span>**Table 47. Comorbidity-specific disutilities**



EQ-5D-3L: EuroQol 5 Dimension 3 Level; NASH: nonalcoholic steatohepatitis; T2DM: Type 2 diabetes mellitus

#### <span id="page-91-1"></span>**Table 48. Disutility values by BMI/BMI Z-score category for each comorbidity**





#### Cardiovascular events **by BMI/BMI/Z category**



\*The 95% CI was derived assuming that the standard error is 10% of the mean value

BMI: Body mass index; CI: Confidence interval ; EQ-5D-3L: EuroQol 5 Dimension 3 Level; NASH: nonalcoholic steatohepatitis; T2DM: Type 2 diabetes mellitus; BBS: Bardet-Biedl syndrome

#### 10.3.13 **Study design Standard gamble**

The main AEs experienced by patients taking setmelanotide during study RM-493-023 were skin hyperpigmentation (59.1%), injection site erythema (45.5%), nausea (22.7%) and vomiting (27.3%) [40]. However, the impact of skin hyperpigmentation on utility is highly variable. According to Danish clinical experts for most patients, skin hyperpigmentation could be acceptable while for others it may be less tolerable [37, 38]. Consequently, the effect of skin hyperpigmentation on QoL was excluded from the analysis. It is expected for the included AEs (nausea and vomiting and Injection site erythema) to resolve during the treatment titration period. Consequently, the disutilities associated with these AEs are applied for 2 weeks during the first year of the analysis. No treatment-related adverse events are included for the BSC arm. As disutilities associated with AEs were not explicitly collected in the RM-493-023 study, these values were sourced from published literature [74, 75].

#### 10.3.14 **Data collection Standard gamble**

Not applicable.

#### 10.3.15 **HRQoL results Standard gamble**

Not applicable, see below for HSUV and disutility results.

#### 10.3.16 **HSUV and disutility results Standard gamble**

Utility decrements associated with AEs were sourced from literature and are shown in

<span id="page-93-0"></span>[Table](#page-93-0) **49**.

#### **Table 49. Disutility associated with adverse events.**



\*The 95% CI was derived assuming that the standard error is 10% of the mean value

\*\* SG adjusted scores on a scale ranging from 0 (death) to 1 (perfect health). Adjusted scores were derived through a linear transformation of raw scores using the following formula: SG adj = (SG raw  $x (1 - worst)$ ) + worst

CI: Confidence interval

# 11. Resource use and associated costs

Costs considered in the analysis include drug acquisition costs, monitoring costs, BMI/BMI/Z score-related health care costs, comorbidity costs and non-medical costs. All costs are reported in DKK. Resource use was verified to be relevant to the Danish setting by two Danish clinical experts [37, 38].

## 11.1 Pharmaceutical costs (intervention and comparator)

Annual drug acquisition costs for setmelanotide are calculated using the average patient dose from the clinical trial for day 1 and during titration, combined with the expected posttitration dose for the real-world population. In the clinical trial, the average observed posttitration doses were 2.7 mg per day for paediatric patients and 2.9 mg per day for adult patients. However, clinical experts suggest a slightly lower dose in real life since:

- The trial protocol defined a target dose of 3mg per day for both adult and paediatric patients, whereas in real life physicians indicate that they will not continue to increase the dose if patients are responding well to therapy at 2mg per day, or even at 1mg per day in patients < 16.
- Reduction in dose can occur in patients achieving very high weight loss due to a change in therapeutic objective: from weight/BMI reduction to weight/BMI maintenance.
	- o This change in therapeutic objective is unlikely to occur in the first 12 months of therapy so it was not observed during the duration of the trial.
	- o However, it has been observed after a few years of therapy in several patients with POMC deficiency (the other label indication for setmelanotide).



As a result, the average post-titration doses used in the analysis were slightly lower than the observed at 12 months in the trial:

- 2,5 mg per day for paediatric patients (0.2 mg per day lower on average)
- 2,8 mg per day for adult patients (0.1 mg per day lower on average)

The starting dose, dose during titration, and post-titration dose are used to calculate the average year 1 dose and costs for both paediatric and adult patients with BBS:

- With an average starting dose for paediatric patients with BBS of  $\Box$  mg on day 1, a 2-week titration-period dose of  $\Box$  mg/day, and a predicted  $\Box$  mg/day post-titration dose, the average year 1 setmelanotide dose is  $\Box$  mg/day. The average daily setmelanotide dose for years 2 and onwards is assumed to be equivalent to the  $\Box$  mg/day post-titration dose.
- With an average starting dose for adult patients with BBS of  $\Box$  on day 1, a 2week titration-period dose of  $x + y = mg/d$ ay, and a predicted  $x + y = mg/d$ ay posttitration dose, the average year 1 setmelanotide dose is  $\Box$  mg/day. The average daily setmelanotide dose for years 2 and onwards is assumed to be equivalent to the  $x = \frac{mg}{day}$  dose post-titration dose.

In turn, drug acquisition for BSC is assumed to be 0. This is because diet and exercise instruction are expected to occur during regular physician visits and be encompassed in monitoring costs (see **[Table 52](#page-96-0)**)

[Table 50](#page-95-0) shows the pharmaceutical costs used in the model. [Table 51](#page-95-1) shows the annual costs of treatment with setmelanotide for year one and year two and onwards for paediatric and adult patients in Denmark, respectively.



<span id="page-95-0"></span>**Table 50 Pharmaceutical costs used in the model**

Abbreviations: BSC, Best supportive care; DKK, Danish krona; NA, Not applicable.

<span id="page-95-1"></span>**Table 51 Annual treatment cost with setmelanotide for paediatric and adult patients in Denmark (DKK)**



Abbreviations: DKK: Danish Krona.

The analysis assumes that treatment with setmelanotide does not lead to any waste as the remaining medication can be used for additional doses.

### 11.2 Pharmaceutical costs – co-administration – not applicable

Not applicable.

### 11.3 Administration costs

Setmelanotide administration costs are assumed to be negligible, as patients are expected to be able to self-administer their dose once daily with the help of their caregiver, if needed (for paediatric patients and/or those with visual or cognitive impairment), at the patient´s home. Therefore, no healthcare visits are required for the administration of setmelanotide and consequently, no administration costs are included in the analysis.

Furthermore, administration costs for BSC are assumed to be 0. This is because diet and exercise instruction are expected to occur during regular physician visits and be encompassed in monitoring costs, described in the following section.

## 11.4 Disease management costs

The disease management costs are divided in monitoring costs, BMI-related health care costs and comorbidity costs. Monitoring resource utilization frequencies and unit costs are presented in **[Table 52](#page-96-0)**. The monitoring resource use and frequencies were based on Danish clinical expert input [37, 38]. It is expected for setmelanotide patients to experience approximately 3 additional physician visits compared to BSC patients in year 1. In the remaining years on treatment with setmelanotide, a reduction in physician visits to 1 per year is expected. This was also confirmed by a Danish clinical expert.



<span id="page-96-0"></span>**Table 52 Monitoring resource use unit costs used in the model**



Abbreviations: BSC, Best supportive care; DKK, Danish krona

The annual monitoring costs for setmelanotide plus BSC and BSC alone for year 1 and year 2 onwards are presented in **[Table 53](#page-97-0)**.

<span id="page-97-0"></span>**Table 53 Annual monitoring costs per patient (paediatric treatment initiation) in DKK for setmelanotide plus BSC and BSC alone for year 1 and year 2+**



Abbreviation: BSC: Best supportive care

BMI-related health care costs are also part of the disease management costs. The average annual healthcare costs per person for each BMI/BMI Z-score category were informed by a Danish register-based study [76]. This study included adults (≥18 years) who had been registered in the Danish National Patient Register (NPR) from 2002 through 2018 with a primary or secondary BMI-specific diagnosis of obesity at a hospital. The study population was categorized according to the World Health Organization's (WHO) classification of obesity as obesity class I (BMI 30-34.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup>), obesity class II (BMI 35-39.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup>), or obesity class III (BMI≥40 kg/m<sup>2</sup>). The average annual healthcare costs per person reported in the study [\(Table 54\)](#page-98-0) included: costs of primary care visits, inpatient hospitalization(s), outpatient visit(s), home care and prescription medicines [76]. These costs reflect healthcare utilisation by obese patients and do not inform on use for non-obesity related BBS comorbidities that are likely to be present in the modelled population.

## <span id="page-98-0"></span>**Table 54 Average annual healthcare costs per person for adult treatment initiation by BMI category in Denmark**



\*The costs were converted from EUR to DKK using the last six months (December 2022- May 2023) average exchange rate (7,455393). Abbreviations: DKK, Danish krona.

The Danish register-based study did not report the average annual healthcare costs per person for individuals with a BMI of 25 to <30 kg/ $m^2$ . The average annual healthcare costs per person for this group were estimated to be bKK. This value was obtained by linear extrapolation of the costs associated to the BMI categories of 30 to <35 kg/m<sup>2</sup> and 35 to <40  $kg/m<sup>2</sup>$ . The average annual healthcare costs per person for individuals with a BMI of 20 to <25 kg/m<sup>2</sup> were assumed to be 0. The average annual healthcare costs per person for paediatric patients by BMI Z-score category [\(Table 54\)](#page-98-0) are assumed to be equivalent to the costs for adult patients by BMI score category [\(Table 55\)](#page-98-1). These numbers were considered reasonable by a Danish experts [37].

<b>BMI Z-score category</b>	Average annual healthcare costs per person [DKK]*	Source
$0.0$ to $< 1.0$	$\Omega$	Assumption
$1.0$ to $< 2.0$		
$2.0$ to $< 2.5$		
$2.5$ to $<$ 3.0		
$3.0$ to $< 3.5$		
$3.5$ to $< 4.0$		
$\geq 4.0$		

<span id="page-98-1"></span>**Table 55 Average annual healthcare costs per person for paediatric treatment initiation by BMI Z-score category**

\* The costs were converted from EUR to DKK using the last six months (December 2022- May 2023) average exchange rate (7,455393). Abbreviations: BMI, Body Mass Index; DKK, Danish krona





#### **Table 56 Average annual healthcare costs per adult treatment initiation by BMI category**

\* The costs were converted from EUR to DKK using the last six months (December 2022- May 2023) average exchange rate (7,455393). Abbreviations: BMI, Body Mass Index; DKK, Danish krona

The final costs included in the disease management costs were the comorbidity costs. The prevalence of comorbidities is relative to the different BMI/BMI Z-score categories and age. Given the lack of published data for BBS patients, the comorbidity prevalences for T2DM, CV, NAFLD and Sleep Apnoea were derived from an innovative process used to estimate the effect of early onset of obesity on comorbidities and mortality risk (see [Appendix K\)](#page-210-0). The prevalence inputs for osteoarthritis were taken from a cross-sectional survey of adults eligible for bariatric surgery in England [92], and were included in the health economic analysis based on the assumptions noted in [Table 57.](#page-99-0)



#### <span id="page-99-0"></span>**Table 57. BMI-based prevalence values for osteoarthritis**



Osteoarthritis prevalence for paediatric patients aged <18 years was calculated using the values for bounding BMI categories (20 to <25 kg/m<sup>2</sup> and ≥50 kg/m<sup>2</sup>) from the adult population for the lowest and highest BMI Z-score categories (0.0 to <1.0 and ≥4.0). A linear increase in prevalence with each BMI Z-score category was assumed. The resulting paediatric osteoarthritis prevalence values are shown in [Table 58.](#page-100-0)

#### <span id="page-100-0"></span>**Table 58. Osteoarthritis prevalence for pediatric patients**



Five comorbidities are included in the cost effectiveness analysis: sleep apnoea, osteoarthritis, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), type 2 diabetes (T2DM) and cardiovascular (CV) events.

[Table 59](#page-101-0) shows the average annual comorbidity costs per person, which were used to derive the comorbidity costs by age and BMI/BMI-Z category, based on comorbidity prevalence.



#### <span id="page-101-0"></span>**Table 59. Average annual comorbidity costs per person**



 $\vdots$  :

\* Inflated from 2009 Euros and converted to DKK using the last six months average exchange rate (December 31, 2022 - May 14, 2023; Exchange rate: 7.455393).\*\* Inflated from 2013 Euros and converted to DKK using the last six months average exchange rate (December 31, 2022 - May 14, 2023; Exchange rate: 7.455393). \*\*\*Inflated from 2016 SEK and converted to DKK using the last six months average exchange rate (December 31, 2022 - May 15, 2023; Exchange rate: 0.66411). \*\*\*\*Inflated from 2016 DKK (inflation rate: 1.06723532363271) \*\*\*\*\*Inflated from 2012 Euros and converted to DKK using the last six months average exchange rate (December 31, 2022 - May 14, 2023; Exchange rate: 7.455393).

# 11.5 Costs associated with management of adverse events- not applicable

Not applicable, as AEs were assumed to not affect cost only utilities

#### **Table 60 Cost associated with management of adverse events - not applicable**



## 11.6 Subsequent treatment costs – not applicable

Not applicable.



#### **Table 61 Pharmaceutical costs of subsequent treatments – not applicable**

## 11.7 Patient costs

The analysis adopts an extended payer perspective. As a result, the following costs are included in the analysis:

- Costs associated with the patient's and carer's use of time in connection with treatment.
- Transportation costs linked to travelling to and from treatment.

The patient's and carer's hourly rate and the transportation costs are presented in **[Table](#page-103-0)  [62](#page-103-0)**.

#### <span id="page-103-0"></span>**Table 62 Patient costs used in the model**



Source: DMC, Værdisætning af Enhedsomkostninger 2023: Patient- og pårørenderelaterede omkostninger [93] . Abbreviations: NA, Not applicable

The indirect costs are applied according to the use of time for the disease management (number of physician visits) and the proportion of patients and carers incurring in indirect costs. A physician visit was assumed to take one hour. It was assumed that 100% of the patients and 50% of the carers incur in indirect costs (**[Table 63](#page-104-0)**).

Time spent by caregivers on administrating setmelanotide was also considered. Conservatively, it was assumed that caregivers spend 30 minutes each time setmelanotide is administered to paediatric patients. However, it is important to note that the time required to perform a subcutaneous injection is limited, and this time

investment is likely offset by the time gained from not constantly dealing with foodrelated issues, such as monitoring patients for sneaking food into the house or implementing food-related restrictions.

<span id="page-104-0"></span>



Abbreviations: BSC: best supportive care.

# 11.8 Other costs (e.g. costs for home care nurses, out-patient rehabilitation and palliative care cost) – not applicable

Not applicable.

# 12. Results

### 12.1 Base case overview

[Table 64](#page-105-0) includes an overview of the base case.

#### <span id="page-105-0"></span>**Table 64 Base case overview**



#### **12.1.1 Base case results**

The results of the base case show that the cost of an additional QALY gained from using setmelanotide + BSC compared to BSC alone is predicted to be DKK 4,453,966. Treatment with setmelanotide + BSC is predicted to lead to  $\blacksquare$  additional QALYs and  $\blacksquare$  additional life years compared to treatment with BSC alone. Treatment with setmelanotide + BSC is predicted to lead to additional costs of DKK compared to treatment with BSC alone (see [Table 65\)](#page-105-1).

<span id="page-105-1"></span>**Table 65 Base case results, discounted estimates (DKK)**





# 12.2 Sensitivity analyses

#### **12.2.1 Deterministic sensitivity analyses**

The impact of individual parameters on the ICER was tested in one-way deterministic sensitivity analyses. Driving model variables were varied over a plausible range. Model inputs were varied by 20% in either direction when logical. When this variation did not align with variable constraints, an absolute change was considered for the input. Some variables (such as hyperphagia, utility multipliers or comorbidity costs) were varied in groups, when varying all inputs of that type was more logical than varying one alone. Parameter variation is detailed i[n Table 66.](#page-106-0) The ICER was recorded at the upper and lower values to produce a tornado diagram.

The results of the deterministic sensitivity analyses are presented in [Table 66](#page-106-0) and [Figure](#page-110-0)  [11.](#page-110-0) The parameters that had the greatest impacts on the ICER were the baseline hyperphagia category distribution, the setmelanotide QALY multiplier and the baseline BMI Z-score category distribution.



#### <span id="page-106-0"></span>**Table 66 One-way sensitivity analyses results**




#### **Nausea and vomiting probabilit y** See<br>Percentage Change: (-20%/20%) above DKK xxxxxx / DKK DKK 4,453,812 .44/ DKK 4,454,118 .94 **Nausea and vomiting disutility** See<br>Percentage Change: (-20%/20%) above DKK xxxxxx / DKK DKK 4,453,812 .44/ DKK 4,454,118 .94 **Injection site erythema probabilit y** See<br>Percentage Change: (-20%/20%) above DKK xxxxxx / DKK DKK 4,453,888 .99/ DKK 4,454,042 .39 **Injection site erythema disutility** Percentage Change: (-20%/20%) above DKK xxxxxx / DKK DKK 4,453,888 .99/ DKK 4,454,042 .39 **Setmelan otide Monitori ng Cost Year 1** See<br>Percentage Change: (-20%/20%) above DKK xxxxxx / DKK DKK 4,453,915 .92/ DKK 4,454,015 .46 **BSC Monitori ng Cost** See<br>Percentage Change: (-20%/20%) above DKK xxxxxx / DKK DKK 4,453,992 .81/ DKK 4,453,938 .56 DKK

 $\ddot{\cdot}$ 





#### Tornado Diagram- Paediatric ICER Baseline hyperphagia category Setmelanotide QALY multiplier<br>Baseline BMI z-score category Hyperphagia Utility Multiplier **BBS OALY multiplier** Setmelanotide unit cost Hyperphagia treatment effect Comorbidity disutilities by BMI SMR for Setmelanotide Treatment Discontinuation Comorbidity costs by BMI BMI-Related Health Care Costs Setmelanotide Monitoring Cost Years 2+ Nausea and vomiting probability Nausea and vomiting disutility<br>Injection site erythema probability Injection site erythema disutility<br>Setmelanotide Monitoring Cost Year 1 BSC Monitoring Cost Baseline BMI category<br>Early onset obesity SMRs by BMI Number of caregivers Percent female DKK 3.450,000.00 DKK 7,125,000.00 DKK 10,800,000.00 DKK 14,475,000.00 Higher Value Lower Value

### **Figure 11. Tornado diagram one-way sensitivity analysis results**

[Table 67](#page-110-0) shows different scenario analyses results. The analyses indicate that the base case results are stable to changes in key parameters. The results are most sensitive to the discount rates, the exclusion of comorbidities and the inclusion of caregiver burden.

<span id="page-110-0"></span>





The impact of the price of Imcivree® on the ICER is illustrated in

<span id="page-111-0"></span>[Figure](#page-111-0) 12.

**Figure 12. Impact of setmelanotide price on ICER**





### **12.2.2 Probabilistic sensitivity analyses**

To evaluate uncertainty associated with parameter precision, probabilistic sensitivity analyses (PSA) were conducted. The PSA included all relevant model parameters; estimates of uncertainty were based on the uncertainty in the source data where data availability permitted. The appropriate distribution for each parameter included in the probabilistic sensitivity analysis (PSA) was chosen based on expected and plausible values for each [\(Table 86](#page-165-0) i[n Appendix G](#page-165-1) summarizes all the parameters used in the PSA).

A second-order Monte Carlo simulation was run for 1,000 iterations including the simultaneous variation of all parameters. Multiple sets of parameter values were sampled from predefined probability distributions to characterize the uncertainty associated with the precision of mean parameter values. The results of the PSA are presented graphically in [Figure 13.](#page-112-0) The incremental cost-effectiveness scatterplot presents the variation in incremental costs and incremental QALYs over 1,000 replications of setmelanotide + BSC vs. BSC alone. Based on the results of 1,000 simulations, the mean ICER is DKK 4,460,829. The cloud of points falls within the northeast quadrant, indicating higher costs and better outcomes.

[Figure](#page-113-0) **14** shows the cost-effectiveness acceptability curve (CEAC) comparing setmelanotide + BSC to BSC alone. The curves indicate that setmelanotide + BSC has a 50% probability of being cost-effective at a willingness to pay of approximately 4,500,000 DKK.

<span id="page-112-0"></span>

**Figure 13. Cost-effectiveness plane**



<span id="page-113-0"></span>**Figure 14. Cost-effectiveness acceptability curve**



## 13. Budget impact analysis

Based on the prevalence and incidence numbers for BBS in Denmark, Rhythm Pharma is assuming that approximately paediatric patients in Denmark have BBS with obesity and severe hyperphagia and are eligible for treatment in Year 1 (see section [3.2](#page-28-0) [Table 6\)](#page-32-0). A constant prevalence rate of vas assumed over the five-year period used for the budget impact calculations. The numbers presented in [Table 68](#page-113-1) represent the number of patients expected to be on setmelanotide + BSC or BSC treatment each year when setmelanotide is introduced and when it is not introduced. In the scenario where setmelanotide is introduced, a xxx market share was assumed in year 1, increasing to  $\overline{\phantom{x}}$  in year 2,  $\overline{\phantom{x}}$  in year 3,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in year 4 and  $\frac{1}{2}$  in year 5. In the scenario where setmelanotide is not introduced, every year, 100% of patients receive BSC alone.

<span id="page-113-1"></span>**Table 68. Number of patients expected to be treated over the next five-year period if the pharmaceutical is introduced and not introduced (adjusted for market share)**





### **Budget impact**

For the budget impact calculations [\(Table 69\)](#page-114-0), drug acquisition, monitoring, BMI-related health care and comorbidity related costs were considered. For the calculations it was assumed that 100% of the population has a paediatric treatment initiation (i.e., at 6 years old). All included drug acquisition costs are in pharmacy selling price (PSP) including value added tax (VAT).

<span id="page-114-0"></span>**Table 69. Expected budget impact of recommending setmelanotide for the treatment of obesity and the control of hunger associated with genetically confirmed BBS, in adults and children 6 years of age and above with obesity and severe hyperphagia.**



## 14. List of experts

- 1. Jens Christian Holm, consultant in Paediatrics, PhD, head of research, and clinical- and research associate professor at the University of Copenhagen.
- 2. Signe Beck-Nielsen, Consultant, PhD, Center for Rare Diseases, Skejby, Aarhus University Hospital



## 15. References

- 1. EMA, *Summary of product characteristics - Imcivree*. 2022.
- 2. EMA. *EU/3/19/2192: Orphan designation for the treatment of Bardet-Biedl syndrome.* and *Availble* and *availble* at: *at: at: at: [https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/orphan-designations/eu-3-](https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/orphan-designations/eu-3-19-2192) [19-2192](https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/orphan-designations/eu-3-19-2192)*. 2019.
- 3. Forsythe, E., et al., *Managing Bardet–Biedl syndrome—now and in the future.* Frontiers in pediatrics, 2018. **6**: p. 23.
- 4. Pomeroy, J., et al., *Bardet‐Biedl syndrome: weight patterns and genetics in a rare obesity syndrome.* Pediatric Obesity, 2021. **16**(2): p. e12703.
- 5. CARE-BBS, *CARE-BBS study report. Caregiver burden in Bardet-Biedl syndrome (CARE-BBS): A survey of BBS-related obesity and hyperphagia impacts in the United States, United Kingdom, Canada, and Germany.* 2022.
- 6. Farooqi, I.S., *Monogenic Obesity Syndromes Provide Insights Into the Hypothalamic Regulation of Appetite and Associated Behaviors.* Biol Psychiatry, 2022. **91**(10): p. 856-859.
- 7. Yazdi, F.T., S.M. Clee, and D. Meyre, *Obesity genetics in mouse and human: back and forth, and back again.* PeerJ, 2015. **3**: p. e856.
- 8. Vaisse, C., J.F. Reiter, and N.F. Berbari, *Cilia and Obesity.* Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol, 2017. **9**(7).
- 9. Guo, D.F. and K. Rahmouni, *Molecular basis of the obesity associated with Bardet-Biedl syndrome.* Trends Endocrinol Metab, 2011. **22**(7): p. 286-93.
- 10. Seo, S., et al., *Requirement of Bardet-Biedl syndrome proteins for leptin receptor signaling.* Hum Mol Genet, 2009. **18**(7): p. 1323-31.
- 11. Geets, E., M.E.C. Meuwissen, and W. Van Hul, *Clinical, molecular genetics and therapeutic aspects of syndromic obesity.* Clin Genet, 2019. **95**(1): p. 23-40.
- 12. da Fonseca, A.C.P., et al., *Genetics of non-syndromic childhood obesity and the use of high-throughput DNA sequencing technologies.* J Diabetes Complications, 2017. **31**(10): p. 1549-1561.
- 13. Wang, L., et al., *Bardet-Biedl syndrome proteins regulate intracellular signaling and neuronal function in patient-specific iPSC-derived neurons.* The Journal of Clinical Investigation, 2021. **131**(8).
- 14. Guo, D.F., et al., *The BBSome Controls Energy Homeostasis by Mediating the Transport of the Leptin Receptor to the Plasma Membrane.* PLoS Genet, 2016. **12**(2): p. e1005890.
- 15. Feuillan, P.P., et al., *Patients with Bardet-Biedl syndrome have hyperleptinemia suggestive of leptin resistance.* J Clin Endocrinol Metab, 2011. **96**(3): p. E528-35.
- 16. Loos, R.J.F. and G.S.H. Yeo, *The genetics of obesity: from discovery to biology.* Nat Rev Genet, 2022. **23**(2): p. 120-133.
- 17. Forsythe, E., et al., *Genetic predictors of cardiovascular morbidity in Bardet–Biedl syndrome.* Clinical genetics, 2015. **87**(4): p. 343-349.
- 18. Forsythe, E. and P.L. Beales, *Bardet–Biedl syndrome.* European Journal of Human Genetics, 2013. **21**(1): p. 8-13.
- 19. Castro-Sánchez, S., et al., *Exploring genotype-phenotype relationships in Bardet-Biedl syndrome families.* Journal of Medical Genetics, 2015. **52**(8): p. 503-513.
- 20. Katsanis, N., J.R. Lupski, and P.L. Beales, *Exploring the molecular basis of Bardet– Biedl syndrome.* Human molecular genetics, 2001. **10**(20): p. 2293-2299.
- 21. Forsythe, E. and P. Beales, *Bardet-Biedl Syndrome. 2003 Jul 14 [updated 2015 Apr 23].* GeneReviews University of Washington, Seattle, 2003.
- 22. Agrawal, H., G. Dokania, and H.D. Allen, *Visual Diagnosis: Visual Impairment, Polydactyly, and Obesity: Red Flags in a Child.* Pediatrics in Review, 2018. **39**(5): p. e21-e23.



- 23. Khan, O.A., et al., *Rarity of Laurence Moon Bardet Biedl Syndrome and its poor management in the Pakistani population.* Cureus, 2019. **11**(2).
- 24. Putoux, A., et al., *Phenotypic variability of Bardet-Biedl syndrome: focusing on the kidney.* Pediatric Nephrology, 2012. **27**: p. 7-15.
- 25. Sherafat-Kazemzadeh, R., S.Z. Yanovski, and J.A. Yanovski, *Pharmacotherapy for childhood obesity: present and future prospects.* International journal of obesity, 2013. **37**(1): p. 1-15.
- 26. Beales, P., et al., *New criteria for improved diagnosis of Bardet-Biedl syndrome: results of a population survey.* Journal of medical genetics, 1999. **36**(6): p. 437- 446.
- 27. Weihbrecht, K., et al., *Keeping an eye on Bardet-Biedl syndrome: a comprehensive review of the role of Bardet-Biedl syndrome genes in the eye.* Medical research archives, 2017. **5**(9).
- 28. Mujahid, S., et al., *The endocrine and metabolic characteristics of a large Bardet-Biedl syndrome clinic population.* The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 2018. **103**(5): p. 1834-1841.
- 29. NHS Commissioning Board., *UK for Bardet-Biedl syndrome service*. 2013.
- 30. Bhaskaran, K., et al., *Association of BMI with overall and cause-specific mortality: a population-based cohort study of 3·6 million adults in the UK.* Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol, 2018. **6**(12): p. 944-953.
- 31. Lindberg, L., et al., *Association of childhood obesity with risk of early all-cause and cause-specific mortality: A Swedish prospective cohort study.* PLoS Med, 2020. **17**(3): p. e1003078.
- 32. Santé, H., *Overweight and obesity in adults: first-line medical management. Availble at: [https://www.has-sante.fr/upload/docs/application/pdf/2012-](https://www.has-sante.fr/upload/docs/application/pdf/2012-10/overweight_and_obesity_in_adults_first_line_medical_management_version_anglaise.pdf) [10/overweight\\_and\\_obesity\\_in\\_adults\\_first\\_line\\_medical\\_management\\_versio](https://www.has-sante.fr/upload/docs/application/pdf/2012-10/overweight_and_obesity_in_adults_first_line_medical_management_version_anglaise.pdf) [n\\_anglaise.pdf](https://www.has-sante.fr/upload/docs/application/pdf/2012-10/overweight_and_obesity_in_adults_first_line_medical_management_version_anglaise.pdf)*. 2011.
- 33. Estrada, E., et al., *PDB109 BURDEN OF ILLNESS ASSOCIATED WITH HYPERPHAGIA AND SEVERE OBESITY.* Value in Health, 2019. **22**: p. S592.
- 34. Nigatu, Y.T., U. Bültmann, and S.A. Reijneveld, *The prospective association between obesity and major depression in the general population: does single or recurrent episode matter?* BMC Public Health, 2015. **15**(1): p. 1-8.
- 35. Djalalinia, S., et al., *Health impacts of obesity.* Pakistan journal of medical sciences, 2015. **31**(1): p. 239.
- 36. Heymsfield, S.B., et al., *Hyperphagia: current concepts and future directions proceedings of the 2nd international conference on hyperphagia.* Obesity (Silver Spring), 2014. **22 Suppl 1**(0 1): p. S1-s17.
- 37. Holm, J.-C., *Interview*. 2023.
- 38. Signe Beck-Nielsen, *Interview*. 2023.
- 39. Haqq, A.M., et al., *Efficacy and safety of setmelanotide, a melanocortin-4 receptor agonist, in patients with Bardet-Biedl syndrome and Alstrom syndrome: a multicentre, randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 3 trial with an open-label period.* Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol, 2022a. **10**(12): p. 859-868.
- 40. Rhythm Pharmaceuticals Inc, *Clinical Study Report: RM-493-023 A Phase 3 Trial of Setmelanotide (RM-493), a Melanocortin-4 Receptor (MC4R) Agonist, in Bardet-Biedl Syndrome (BBS) and Alstrom Syndrome (AS) Patients with Moderate to Severe Obesity. [Data on file].* 2021. .
- 41. Bertelsen, M., et al., *Prevalence and diagnostic spectrum of generalized retinal dystrophy in Danish children.* Ophthalmic epidemiology, 2013. **20**(3): p. 164-169.
- 42. Hjortshøj, T.D., et al., *Bardet‐Biedl syndrome in Denmark—report of 13 novel sequence variations in six genes.* Human mutation, 2010. **31**(4): p. 429-436.

- 43. Hjortshøj, T.D., et al., *Risk for cancer in patients with Bardet‐Biedl syndrome and their relatives.* American Journal of Medical Genetics Part A, 2007. **143**(15): p. 1699-1702.
- 44. Orphanet. *Bardet-Biedl syndrome*. 2021 2023-03-13]; Available from: [https://www.orpha.net/consor/cgi](https://www.orpha.net/consor/cgi-bin/Disease_Search.php?lng=EN&data_id=3244&Disease_Disease_Search_diseaseGroup=bardet-biedl&Disease_Disease_Search_diseaseType=Pat&Disease(s)/group%20of%20diseases=Bardet-Biedl-syndrome&title=Bardet-Biedl%20syndrome&searc)[bin/Disease\\_Search.php?lng=EN&data\\_id=3244&Disease\\_Disease\\_Search\\_disea](https://www.orpha.net/consor/cgi-bin/Disease_Search.php?lng=EN&data_id=3244&Disease_Disease_Search_diseaseGroup=bardet-biedl&Disease_Disease_Search_diseaseType=Pat&Disease(s)/group%20of%20diseases=Bardet-Biedl-syndrome&title=Bardet-Biedl%20syndrome&searc) [seGroup=bardet](https://www.orpha.net/consor/cgi-bin/Disease_Search.php?lng=EN&data_id=3244&Disease_Disease_Search_diseaseGroup=bardet-biedl&Disease_Disease_Search_diseaseType=Pat&Disease(s)/group%20of%20diseases=Bardet-Biedl-syndrome&title=Bardet-Biedl%20syndrome&searc)[biedl&Disease\\_Disease\\_Search\\_diseaseType=Pat&Disease\(s\)/group%20of%20di](https://www.orpha.net/consor/cgi-bin/Disease_Search.php?lng=EN&data_id=3244&Disease_Disease_Search_diseaseGroup=bardet-biedl&Disease_Disease_Search_diseaseType=Pat&Disease(s)/group%20of%20diseases=Bardet-Biedl-syndrome&title=Bardet-Biedl%20syndrome&searc) [seases=Bardet-Biedl-syndrome&title=Bardet-Biedl%20syndrome&searc.](https://www.orpha.net/consor/cgi-bin/Disease_Search.php?lng=EN&data_id=3244&Disease_Disease_Search_diseaseGroup=bardet-biedl&Disease_Disease_Search_diseaseType=Pat&Disease(s)/group%20of%20diseases=Bardet-Biedl-syndrome&title=Bardet-Biedl%20syndrome&searc)
- 45. Forsythe, E. and B. PL, *Bardet-Biedl Syndrome. 2003 Jul 14 [updated 2015 Apr 23].* GeneReviews®[Internet]. Seattle (WA): University of Washington, Seattle, 1993. **2019**.
- 46. Bank, T.W. *Population total - Denmark*. 2022; Available from: [https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL?locations=DK.](https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL?locations=DK)
- 47. Lægehåndbogen., *Lægehåndbogen. Bardet-Biedls syndrom. Fagligt opdateret: 27.10.2021 Availble at: sundhet.dk*. 2021.
- 48. Buscher, A.K., et al., *Obesity in patients with Bardet-Biedl syndrome: influence of appetite-regulating hormones.* Pediatr Nephrol, 2012. **27**(11): p. 2065-2071.
- 49. Trier, C., et al., *Obesity treatment effect in Danish children and adolescents carrying Melanocortin-4 Receptor mutations.* Int J Obes (Lond), 2021. **45**(1): p. 66- 76.
- 50. Haqq, A.M., et al. , *Impact of Setmelanotide on Metabolic Syndrome Risk in Patients With Bardet-Biedl Syndrome. Accepted for "oral presentation"*, in *Obesity Society's Obesity Week*. 2023: Dallas, USA.
- 51. Haqq, A.e.a. *Impact of Setmelanotide on Future Metabolic Syndrome Risk in Pediatric Patients With Bardet-Biedl Syndrome. Accepted for "oral presentation"*. in *Annual Meeting of the European Society for Paediatric Endocrinology*. 2023. The Hague, The Netherlands.
- 52. Poitou, C., et al., *Long-term outcomes of bariatric surgery in patients with biallelic mutations in the POMC, LEPR, and MC4R genes.* Surgery for obesity and related diseases, 2021. **17**(8): p. 1449-1456.
- 53. Cole, T.J., J.V. Freeman, and M.A. Preece, *Body mass index reference curves for the UK, 1990.* Arch Dis Child, 1995. **73**(1): p. 25-9.
- 54. Ford, A.L., et al., *What reduction in BMI SDS is required in obese adolescents to improve body composition and cardiometabolic health?* Arch Dis Child, 2010. **95**(4): p. 256-61.
- 55. Kolsgaard, M.L., et al., *Reduction in BMI z-score and improvement in cardiometabolic risk factors in obese children and adolescents. The Oslo Adiposity Intervention Study - a hospital/public health nurse combined treatment.* BMC Pediatr, 2011. **11**: p. 47.
- 56. Kirk, S., et al., *The relationship of health outcomes to improvement in BMI in children and adolescents.* Obes Res, 2005. **13**(5): p. 876-82.
- 57. Grossman, D.C., et al., *Screening for Obesity in Children and Adolescents: US Preventive Services Task Force Recommendation Statement.* Jama, 2017. **317**(23): p. 2417-2426.
- 58. Wiegand, S., et al., *Predicting weight loss and maintenance in overweight/obese pediatric patients.* Horm Res Paediatr, 2014. **82**(6): p. 380-7.
- 59. Fiechtner, L., et al., *Characteristics of achieving clinically important weight loss in two paediatric weight management interventions.* Pediatr Obes, 2021. **16**(9): p. e12784.
- 60. WHO, *World Health Organization. Computation of Centiles and Z-Scores for Height-for-Age, Weight-for-Age amd BMI-for-Age.*
- 61. Finansministeriet, *Dokumentationsnotat – den samfundsøkonomiske diskonteringsrente*. 2021.
- 62. Haws, R., et al., *Effect of setmelanotide, a melanocortin‐4 receptor agonist, on obesity in Bardet‐Biedl syndrome.* Diabetes, Obesity and Metabolism, 2020. **22**(11): p. 2133-2140.
- 63. Haws, R., et al., *A Phase 3 Trial in Participants With Obesity Due to Bardet-Biedl Syndrome or Alström Syndrome: Efficacy and Safety of the Melanocortin 4 Receptor Agonist Setmelanotide.* 2021d(2472-1972 (Electronic)).
- 64. Argente, J., et al., *ODP606 Long-term Efficacy of Setmelanotide in Patients With Bardet-Biedl Syndrome.* J Endrocr Soc., 2022. **6**(A14).
- 65. Argente, J., Clement, K., Dollfus, H., Han, J., Haqq, A., Martos-Moreno, G., ... & Haws, R., *Phase 3 Trial of Setmelanotide in Participants With Bardet-Biedl Syndrome: Placebo-Controlled Results.* Hormone Research in Paediatrics 2021. **94**: p. 30-31.
- 66. Haws, R., Clement, K., Dollfus, H., Haqq, A., Martos-Moreno, G., Chung, W., Mittleman, R., Stewart, M., Webster, M., Yuan, G., Argente, J.. E, *Efficacy and safety of open-label setmelanotide in bardet-biedl syndrome: a phase 3 trial.* Obesity (Silver Spring, Md.), 2021c. **29**: p. 12.
- 67. Forsythe, E., Haws, R, Argente, J, et al. , *Quality of life in patients with bardetbiedl syndrome in a setmelanotide phase 3 trial.* Obesity (Silver Spring), 2021. **29150, Poster 257**.
- 68. Evidera, *Data on file. Assessment of Utilities Associated with Hyperphagia*. 2021.
- 69. Riazi, A., et al., *Health-related quality of life in a clinical sample of obese children and adolescents.* Health and Quality of Life Outcomes, 2010. **8**(1): p. 134.
- 70. Alsumali, A., et al., *Cost-Effectiveness Analysis of Bariatric Surgery for Morbid Obesity.* Obes Surg, 2018. **28**(8): p. 2203-2214.
- 71. Sullivan, P.W., et al., *Catalogue of EQ-5D scores for the United Kingdom.* Med Decis Making, 2011. **31**(6): p. 800-4.
- 72. Søltoft, F., M. Hammer, and N. Kragh, *The association of body mass index and health-related quality of life in the general population: data from the 2003 Health Survey of England.* Qual Life Res, 2009. **18**(10): p. 1293-9.
- 73. NICE, *Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD): assessment and management Appendix N, Cost-effectiveness analysis: diagnostic tests for NAFLD and advanced fibrosis*. 2016.
- 74. Matza, L.S., et al., *Utilities and disutilities for type 2 diabetes treatment-related attributes.* Qual Life Res, 2007. **16**(7): p. 1251-65.
- 75. Boye, K.S., et al., *Utilities and disutilities for attributes of injectable treatments for type 2 diabetes.* Eur J Health Econ, 2011. **12**(3): p. 219-30.
- 76. Spanggaard, M., et al., *The substantial costs to society associated with obesity - a Danish register-based study based on 2002-2018 data.* Expert Rev Pharmacoecon Outcomes Res, 2022. **22**(5): p. 823-833.
- 77. Jennum, P., R. Ibsen, and J. Kjellberg, *Social consequences of sleep disordered breathing on patients and their partners: a controlled national study.* Eur Respir J, 2014. **43**(1): p. 134-44.
- 78. Salmon, J.H., et al., *Economic impact of lower-limb osteoarthritis worldwide: a systematic review of cost-of-illness studies.* Osteoarthritis and Cartilage, 2016. **24**(9): p. 1500-1508.
- 79. Hagström, H., et al., *Health Care Costs of Patients With Biopsy-Confirmed Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease Are Nearly Twice Those of Matched Controls.* Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol, 2020. **18**(7): p. 1592-1599.e8.
- 80. Pulleyblank, R., M. Laudicella, and K.R. Olsen, *Cost and quality impacts of treatment setting for type 2 diabetes patients with moderate disease severity: Hospital- vs. GP-based monitoring.* Health Policy, 2021. **125**(6): p. 760-767.

- 81. Hallberg, S., et al., *Healthcare costs associated with cardiovascular events in patients with hyperlipidemia or prior cardiovascular events: estimates from Swedish population-based register data.* Eur J Health Econ, 2016. **17**(5): p. 591- 601.
- 82. EMA, *Guideline on clinical evaluation of medicinal products used in weight management* 2016.
- 83. FDA, *Guidance for Industry: Developing Products for Weight Management* 2007.
- 84. Khan, K.A., et al., *Mapping EQ-5D utility scores from the PedsQL™ generic core scales.* Pharmacoeconomics, 2014. **32**(7): p. 693-706.
- 85. Perneger, T.V. and D.S. Courvoisier, *Exploration of health dimensions to be included in multi-attribute health-utility assessment.* Int J Qual Health Care, 2011. **23**(1): p. 52-9.
- 86. Fehnel, S.E., et al., *Development Of The Hyperphagia Questionnaire For Use In Prader-Willi Syndrome Clinical Trials.* Value in Health, 2015. **18**(3): p. A25.
- 87. Howell, T.A., et al., *Health state utilities associated with hyperphagia: Data for use in cost-utility models.* Obes Sci Pract, 2023. **9**(4): p. 376-382.
- 88. Ara, R. and J.E. Brazier, *Populating an economic model with health state utility values: moving toward better practice.* Value Health, 2010. **13**(5): p. 509-18.
- 89. Rigshospitalet. *Rigshospitalets Labportal*. Available from: [https://labportal.rh.dk/Labportal.asp?ShowStart=Y.](https://labportal.rh.dk/Labportal.asp?ShowStart=Y)
- 90. Læger.dk, *Takstkort 29A Laboratorieundersøgelser*. 2023.
- 91. Læger.dk, *Takstkort 19A Pædiatri* 2023.
- 92. Ahmad, A., et al., *Eligibility for bariatric surgery among adults in England: analysis of a national cross-sectional survey.* JRSM Open, 2014. **5**(1): p. 2042533313512479.
- 93. Medicinrådet, *Værdisætning af enhedsomkostninger*. 2023.
- 94. Rhythm Pharmaceuticals Inc, *Clinical Study Report: RM-493-022 [Data on file].*
- 95. M'Hamdi, O., et al., *Prevalence of Bardet-Biedl syndrome in Tunisia.* Journal of Community Genetics, 2011. **2**(2): p. 97-99.
- 96. Reinehr, T., et al., *Definable Somatic Disorders in Overweight Children and Adolescents.* Journal of Pediatrics, 2007. **150**(6): p. 618-622.e5.
- 97. Webb, M.P., et al., *Autosomal recessive Bardet-Biedl syndrome: First-degree relatives have no predisposition to metabolic and renal disorders.* Kidney International, 2009. **76**(2): p. 215-223.
- 98. Moore, S.J., et al., *Clinical and genetic epidemiology of Bardet-Biedl syndrome in Newfoundland: a 22-year prospective, population-based, cohort study.* American Journal of Medical Genetics. Part A, 2005. **132A**(4): p. 352-60.
- 99. Hamlington, B., et al., *Characterization of courtesy stigma perceived by parents of overweight children with bardet-biedl syndrome.* PLoS ONE, 2015. **10**(10).
- 100. Saeed, S., et al., *Genetic causes of severe childhood obesity: A remarkably high prevalence in an inbred population of Pakistan.* Diabetes, 2020. **69**(7): p. 1424- 1438.
- 101. Martos-Moreno GA, et al., *OR22-05 Rare Biallelic Variants in Obesity-Related Genes in the Madrid Pediatric Obesity Cohort.* Journal of the Endocrine Society, 2020. **4**(Supplement\_1).
- 102. Haws, R., Clement, K., Dollfus, H., Freemark, M., Han, J., Haqq, A., Martos-Moreno, G., Webster, M., Stewart, M., Mittleman, R., Yanovski, J., Yuan, G., Argente, J.,, *Efficacy and safety of the melanocortin 4 receptor agonist setmelanotide in obesity due to bardet-biedl syndrome or alstrom syndrome: A phase 3 trial.* Hormone Research in Paediatrics, 2021b. **94**: p. 91.
- 103. Haws, R.M., et al., *The efficacy and safety of setmelanotide in individuals with Bardet-Biedl syndrome or Alstrom syndrome: Phase 3 trial design.* Contemporary Clinical Trials Communications, 2021a. **22 (no pagination)**.



- 104. Han, J.C., et al., *Comprehensive Endocrine-Metabolic Evaluation of Patients with Alstrom Syndrome Compared with BMI-Matched Controls.* Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism, 2018. **103**(7): p. 2707-2719.
- 105. Forsythe, E., et al., *The Multifaceted Burden Experienced by Caregivers of Individuals With Bardet-Biedl Syndrome: Findings from the CARE-BBS Study.* Hormone Research in Paediatrics, 2022a. **95**(SUPPL 2): p. 50-50.
- 106. Haws, R.M., et al., *Setmelanotide Treatment in Pediatric and Adolescent Patients With Bardet-Biedl Syndrome and Severe Obesity.* Hormone Research in Paediatrics, 2022. **95**: p. 118-119.
- 107. Forsythe, E., et al., *Quality of life improvements following one year of setmelanotide in children and adult patients with Bardet-Biedl syndrome: phase 3 trial results.* Orphanet J Rare Dis, 2023. **18**(1): p. 12.
- 108. Argente, J., et al., *Effects of Setmelanotide Treatment in Children and Adolescents With Proopiomelanocortin (POMC) Deficiency, Leptin Receptor (LEPR) Deficiency, and Bardet-Biedl Syndrome (BBS).* Hormone Research in Paediatrics, 2022b. **95**(SUPPL 2): p. 74-75.
- 109. Haqq, A.M., et al., *Exploration of Clinical Improvements Following Setmelanotide in Patients With Bardet-Biedl Syndrome.* Obesity, 2022b. **30**: p. 142.
- 110. Dykens, E.M., et al., *Assessment of hyperphagia in Prader-Willi syndrome.* Obesity (Silver Spring), 2007. **15**(7): p. 1816-26.
- 111. Forsythe, E., et al., *Caregiver Burden in Bardet-Biedl Syndrome: a Survey of Obesity and Hyperphagia Impacts.* Hormone Research in Paediatrics, 2022b. **95**: p. 104-105.
- 112. NICE, *Setmelanotide for treating obesity caused by LEPR or POMC deficiency*. 2022.



# Appendix A. Main characteristics of studies included

[Table 70](#page-121-0) - [Table 72](#page-129-0) present a summary of the main characteristics of the included studies.

### <span id="page-121-0"></span>**Table 70 Main characteristic of study RM-493-023**









### **Trial name: RM-493-023 NCT** number:

## **NCT03746522**

there is clear evidence of weight regain after an initial response to bariatric surgery. All patients with a history of bariatric surgery must be discussed with, and receive approval from, the Sponsor prior to enrollment.

- Diagnosis of schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, personality disorder or other Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders fifth edition (DSM-V) disorders that the Investigator believes will interfere significantly with study compliance. Neurocognitive disorders affecting ability to consent will not be disqualifying as long as an appropriate guardian able to give consent has been appointed.
- In patients with no significant neurocognitive deficits:
- A PHQ-9 score of ≥15 and/or
- Any suicidal ideation of type 4 or 5 on the C-SSRS, any lifetime history of a suicide attempt, or any suicidal behaviour in the last month.
- Current, clinically significant pulmonary, cardiac, or oncologic disease considered severe enough to interfere with the study and/or confound the results. Any patient with a potentially clinically significant disease should be reviewed with the Sponsor to determine eligibility.
- History of significant liver disease or liver injury, or a current liver assessment due to abnormal liver tests (as indicated by abnormal liver function tests, alanine transaminase [ALT], aspartate transaminase [AST], alkaline phosphatase, or serum bilirubin >1.5x the upper limit of normal [ULN] for any of these tests) for an aetiology other than non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD). Thus, any underlying aetiology besides NAFLD, including diagnosed non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), other causes of hepatitis, or history of hepatic cirrhosis is exclusionary, but the presence of NAFLD is not be exclusionary.
- Moderate to severe renal dysfunction defined as <30 mL/min (Appendix 11.6).
- History or close family history (parents or siblings) of skin cancer or melanoma (excluding non-invasive basal or squamous cell lesion), or patient history of ocular-cutaneous albinism.
- Significant dermatologic findings relating to melanoma or premelanoma skin lesions (excluding non-invasive basal or squamous cell lesion), determined as part of comprehensive skin evaluation performed by a qualified dermatologist during screening. Any concerning lesions identified during the screening period will be biopsied and results must be known to be benign prior to enrollment. If the pre-treatment biopsy





administered at each subsequent visit. Three aspects of



### **Trial name: RM-493-023 NCT** number:

## **NCT03746522**

hunger (average hunger in the last 24 hours, most/worst hunger in the last 24 hours, and morning hunger) were assessed daily using a numeric rating score for each from 0 to 10, with  $0 = not$  hungry at all and  $10 =$  hungriest possible.

The proportion of patients aged  $\geq$ 12 years reaching a daily hunger score reduction threshold of 25% after ~52 weeks of treatment.

Secondary efficacy analyses for the 14-week, placebocontrolled period comprised:

- Mean percent change in body weight from baseline in patients aged ≥12 years after ~14 weeks of treatment.
- Mean percent change in weekly average of daily hunger score from baseline in patients aged ≥12 years after ~14 weeks of treatment.

### **Exploratory Endpoints:**

- The proportion of patients of any age who achieved a ≥10% reduction from baseline in body weight after ~52 weeks of treatment.
- The proportion of patients aged ≥12 years reaching a daily hunger score reduction threshold of 25% at 14 weeks.
- Composite response rate, defined as patients who achieved either a ≥10% reduction in body weight or a ≥25% improvement in the weekly average of daily hunger score at ~52 weeks of treatment.
- The proportion of patients aged ≥12 years who met categorical thresholds of 5%, 15%, 20%, 25%, 30%, 35%, and 40% weight loss from baseline after ~52 weeks of treatment.
- The proportion of patients aged ≥12 years who achieved a ≥10% reduction from baseline in body weight or a ≥15% reduction in BMI after ~52 weeks of treatment.
- Change and percent change in BMI Z-score from baseline after ~52 weeks of treatment in paediatric patients by age group (6-11 years and/or 6-16 years).
- Descriptive statistics for change and percent change from baseline in waist circumference after ~52 weeks of treatment
- Descriptive statistics for change and percent change from baseline in total body mass (including body fat, non-bone lean mass, and bone density) after ~52 weeks of treatment.
- Summary statistics for global hunger response by activetreatment visit based on the questions: "Overall, how would you rate the hunger you experience now?" for patients aged ≥12 years; and "How hungry is your child acting now?" for patients aged <12 years.





### **Table 71 Main characteristic of study RM-493-022**





 $\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array} \end{array}$ 

# $\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array} \end{array}$

### <span id="page-129-0"></span>**Table 72 Main characteristic of study RM-493-014**





- Obese, defined as Body Mass Index (BMI) ≥ 30 kg/m2 for patients ≥16 years of age or BMI≥ 95th percentile for age and gender for patients 6 up to 16 years of age.
- Patient and/or parent or guardian is able to understand and comply with the requirements of the study and is able to understand and sign the written informed consent/assent.
- Female participants of child-bearing potential must be confirmed non-pregnant, and agree to use contraception as outlined in the protocol.
- Male participants with female partners of childbearing potential must agree to a double barrier method if they become sexually active during the study. Male patients must not donate sperm during and for 90 days following their participation in the study.

### **Exclusion criteria:**

- Recent intensive (within 2 months) diet and/or exercise regimen with or without the use of weight loss agents that has resulted in > 2% weight loss.
- Use of any medication that is approved to treat obesity within three months of first dose of study drug (e.g., orlistat, lorcaserin, phentermine-topiramate, naltrexone-bupropion).
- Gastric bypass surgery within the previous six months or any prior gastric bypass surgery resulting in >10% weight loss durably maintained
- Diagnosis of schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, personality disorder, major depressive disorder, or other psychiatric disorder(s)
- Suicidal ideation, attempt or behavior
- Clinically significant pulmonary, cardiac, or oncologic disease
- HbA1c >9.0% at Screening
- History of significant liver disease
- Glomerular filtration rate (GFR) <30 mL/min at Screening.
- History or close family history of melanoma or patient history of oculocutaneous albinism
- Significant dermatologic findings relating to melanoma or premelanoma skin lesions.
- Participation in any clinical study with an investigational drug/device within 3 months prior to the first day of dosing.
- Patients previously enrolled in a clinical study involving setmelanotide or any previous exposure to setmelanotide.
- Inability to comply with QD injection regimen.
- Females who are breastfeeding or nursing.





# Appendix B. Efficacy results per study

## B.1 Results per study RM-493-023

[Table 73](#page-132-0) show the results of the outcomes in study RM-493-023.

### <span id="page-132-0"></span>**Table 73 Results per study**



























**baseline in the weekly average of the daily hunger score, versus an** 

### **Results of Study RM-493-023 (NCT03746522) Estimated absolute difference in effect Estimated relative difference in effect Description of methods used for estimation References Outcome Study arm N Result (Cl) Difference 95% CI** *P* **value Difference 95% CI** *P* **value endpoint: Proportion**  impaired **of not cognitively impaired ≥12yo patients in the pivotal FAS populatio n who achieve a ≥25% improvem ent from active treatment**  cognitively meaningful, within-patient threshold for most/worst hunger score is a reduction of 1 to 2 points across the populations in whom setmelanotide has been tested in pivotal trials. 95% CI and pvalue are based on Rubin's Rule. p-value is one-sided and compared with alpha = 0.025





















### **Exploratory endpoints at 52 weeks**










































#### **B.1.1 Additional endpoints RM-493-023**

Below are additional endpoints from RM-493-023



**Table 74. BMI shift data for individual patients aged ≥18 years who were classified as 52 week responders (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patients)**

Light grey shading = baseline value; dark grey shading = end of study value

**Table 75. BMI Z-score shift data for individual patients aged <18 years who were classified as 52-week responders (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patients)**





Light grey shading = baseline value; dark grey shading = end of study value

#### **Table 76. Symptom improvement in patients with BBS aged ≥18 years after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment (Study RM-493-023)**





Light grey shading = disease stabilisation; dark grey shading = clinically-meaningful improvement

#### **Table 77 Symptom improvement in patients with BBS aged <18 years after 52 weeks of setmelanotide treatment (Study RM-493-023)**



Light grey shading = disease stabilisation; dark grey shading = clinically-meaningful improvement



### B.2 Results per study RM-493-022

[Table 78](#page-157-0) show the results of the outcomes in study RM-493-022.

#### <span id="page-157-0"></span>**Table 78 Results per study**













#### **B.2.1 Additional endpoints RM-493-022**

[Table 79](#page-160-0) and [Table 80](#page-160-1) summarize additional information from the RM-493-022.

<span id="page-160-0"></span>



Light grey shading = baseline value; dark grey shading = end of study value



#### <span id="page-160-1"></span>**Table 80 BMI Z-score shift data for individual patients aged <18 years who were classified as 52-week responders (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patients)**

Light grey shading = baseline value; dark grey shading = end of study value



## Appendix C. Comparative analysis of efficacy - not applicable

Not applicable.

#### **Table 81 Comparative analysis of studies comparing [intervention] to [comparator] for patients with [indication] – not applicable**





### Appendix D. Extrapolation – not applicable

Not applicable.



### Appendix E. Serious adverse events

All serious adverse events occurred during study RM-493-023 (at 14 and 52 weeks) are presented in Section [9.1.](#page-75-0) 

### Appendix F. Health-related quality of life

As the health economic model did not consider the HRQoL in study RM-493, these results were not included in the main body. These main results are presented in the tables below.

**Table 82. Impact of setmelanotide in adult participants with BBS (≥18yo) with available baseline and 52-week health related quality of life data**



Note: <sup>a</sup>IWQOL-Lite is 31-item, self-reported, obesity-specific, quality of life questionnaire which includes domains of physical function, self-esteem, sex life, public distress, and work. The results are reported on 0-100 scale where 100 represents the best quality of life

Abbreviations: IWQOL-Lite, Impact of Weight on Quality of Life-Lite; BMI, body mass index; SD, standard deviation.

Source: Forsythe et al ObesityWeek 2021 Virtual Conference 32

#### **Table 83. Impact of setmelanotide in paediatric participants with BBS (8-17 yo; self-reported) with available baseline and 52-week HRQoL data**



Note: PedsQL, Paediatric Quality of Life Inventory; BMI, body mass index; BMI Z-score, BMI standard-deviation score SD, standard deviation. Source: Forsythe et al Obesity Week 2021 Virtual Conference 32



EQ-5D-5L scores in the pivotal patients aged ≥16 years without cognitive impairment (n=13) are presented in [Table 84.](#page-164-0) Additionally, [Table 85](#page-164-1) shows the mean utilities and change in EQ-5D-5L from baseline for subjects ≥12 years old with EQ-5D-5L recorded at all three visits (n=19).

#### <span id="page-164-0"></span>**Table 84. Effect of setmelanotide on EQ-5D-5L score in patients aged ≥16 years with and without cognitive impairment (Study RM-493-023, pivotal patients)**



Note: There were 6 patients with cognitive impairment and 7 without cognitive impairment.

#### <span id="page-164-1"></span>**Table 85. Mean EQ-5D-5L utility by weeks using setmelanotide in patients ≥12 years old.**



Note: Only include subjects with EQ-5D-5L recorded at all three visits (n=19). The difference at week 52 relative to baseline is significant at 5% confidence level (p-value 0.011)



# Appendix G. Probabilistic sensitivity analyses

[Table 86](#page-165-0) summarizes the parameters used in the PSA.

#### <span id="page-165-0"></span>**Table 86. Overview of parameters in the PSA**



**Setmelanotide Efficacy**











#### BMI-Related Health Care Costs: 18-30







#### NASH (costs)





≥4.0 52,857.01 DKK 0 - Normal



### H.1 Efficacy and safety of the intervention and comparator(s)

An SLR was conducted to characterize the burden of obesity associated with BBS by collating and synthesizing evidence on: the epidemiology of BBS, patient and caregiver burden, the economic disease burden, and treatment outcomes. Research questions that were investigated to meet the study objective comprised:

- **Epidemiology:** What are the epidemiological outcomes (incidence, prevalence, mortality, and survival rates) in patients with obesity or hyperphagia caused by BBS or AS?
- **Health-related quality of life (HRQoL) burden**:
	- o How does the disease affect the quality of life of patients with obesity or hyperphagia caused by BBS and AS and their caregivers?
	- What are the HRQoL outcomes for this population?
	- o What utilities/disutilities are associated with this disease?
- **Economic burden**: What is the cost and medical resource use associated with these patients?
- **Economic models**: What are the cost-effectiveness outcomes among patients who receive conventional treatments, including current standards of care (e.g., pharmacological treatments, bariatric surgery)?
- **Clinical outcomes:** 
	- o What are the real-world treatment outcomes for patients with obesity or hyperphagia caused by BBS and AS who are treated with standard of care or other interventions?
	- o What are the efficacy and safety outcomes associated with the treatment of patients with obesity caused by BBS and AS, as investigated in clinical trials?

Initial systematic literature searches were conducted on June 3, 2021, followed by updates on August 4, 2022; January 10, 2023; and February 15, 2023 via Ovid.com in several electronic literature databases. The January and February 2023 literature search updates focused only on the clinical outcomes and humanistic burden among those with BBS. The searches used strategies developed specifically for BBS- and AS-related obesity, including a combination of free-text and controlled vocabulary terms. Recent proceedings (the last three years) from key conferences were also searched for abstracts of relevant studies. Supplemental searches of health technology assessment (HTA) bodies and trial registries were also conducted to identify reimbursement of treatments

for obesity in patients with BBS/AS and ongoing trials for which outcome data have not yet been published. Details of the databases, and conference sources are outlined in [Table 87](#page-177-0) an[d Table 89,](#page-178-0) respectively. Supplemental searches of ClinicalTrials.gov and orpha.net were also conducted to identify ongoing trials for which outcome data had not been published [\(Table 88\)](#page-177-1).



#### <span id="page-177-0"></span>**Table 87 Bibliographic databases included in the literature search**

\*Database of Abstracts of Reviews of Efficacy (DARE) and NHS EED are no longer updated but were searched.

CDSR: Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews; CENTRAL: Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials; CRD: Centre for Reviews and Dissemination; DARE: Database of Abstracts of Reviews of Efficacy; NHS EED: National Health Service Economic Evaluation Database

#### <span id="page-177-1"></span>**Table 88 Other sources included in the literature search**





#### <span id="page-178-0"></span>**Table 89 Conference material included in the literature search**






## **H.1.1 Search strategies**

Search terms used for Ovid algorithms are detailed in [Table 90.](#page-180-0)

<span id="page-180-0"></span>**Table 90. Electronic literature search strategies (2 June 2023)**

No.	<b>Query</b>	<b>Results</b>
<b>Embase</b>		
#1	exp alstrom syndrome/	425
#2	((alstrom or Alstrom-Hallgren) adj2 syndrom\$).ti,ab.	422
#3	exp bardet biedl syndrome/	1,851
#4	(bardet-biedl adj2 syndrom\$).ti,ab.	1,418
#5	$or/1-4$	2,473
#6	(obes\$ or hyperphag\$).ti,ab.	476,597
#7	obesity/	450,907
#8	exp hyperphagia/	6,209
#9	or/6-8	601,652
#10	5 and 9	1,033
#11	(exp animal/ or nonhuman/) not exp human/	6,590,082
#12	10 not 11	926
#13	conference abstract.pt.	4,096,658
#14	12 not 13	775
#15	limit 13 to yr="2019-current"	707,263
#16	12 and 15	32
#17	14 or 16	807
<b>Medline</b>		
#1	exp alstrom syndrome/	139
#2	((alstrom or Alstrom-Hallgren) adj2 syndrom\$).ti,ab.	295
#3	exp bardet-biedl syndrome/	665





## **Table 91. Conferences search strategies (2 June 2023)**





Furthermore, the results of the latest search update (15 February 2023) are presented in [Table 92.](#page-183-0)

<span id="page-183-0"></span>







## **H.1.2 Systematic selection of studies**

Studies were selected for inclusion in the SLR based on the PICOS: populations, interventions, comparators, outcomes, and study design (PICOS) framework as shown in [Table 93](#page-185-0) an[d Table 94](#page-187-0) (January 2023 and February 2023 search).

## <span id="page-185-0"></span>**Table 93. PICOS selection criteria for the systematic literature review (June 2021 and August 2022 Search)**



 $\overline{a}$ 

## • Adults aged 18 years and over: BMI > 30 kg/m<sup>2</sup>

• Pediatrics aged ≥17: weight ≥97th percentile for age on growth chart assessment or BMI z-score ≥+2SD for children ages 5-19, ≥+3SD for children under 5

• Patients with obesity due to other genetic deficiencies or syndromes, or those not meeting the agespecified obesity markers

• Mixed populations <sup>1</sup> of patients of interest plus patients not of interest without results reported separately





#### **Study design**



Note: Best supportive care included: behavioural interventions, psychological interventions, and strategies to reduce calorie intake and/or to increase physical activity, among others. Pharmacological therapies including setmelanotide, orlistat, and methylcellulose were also included in the SLR.

All PROs were captured, including disease-related measures of HRQoL.

ER: emergency room; ICER: incremental cost-effectiveness ratio; ICU: intensive care unit; LY: life-year; PRO: patient-reported outcome; QALY: quality-adjusted life-year

<sup>1</sup> The 80% threshold is in line with recommendations by the Institute for Quality and Efficiency in Health Care (IQWiG), a German body. (IQWiG), a German HTA body. <sup>2</sup> All PROs will be captured, including any disease-related measure of HRQoL.

## <span id="page-187-0"></span>**Table 94 PICOS selection criteria for the systematic literature review** (**January 2023 and February 2023 Search)**



Patients with obesity due to other genetic deficiencies or syndromes

Mixed populations of patients of interest plus patients not of interest without results reported separately



Abbreviations: HRQoL = health-related quality of life; MA = meta-analysis; NMA = network meta-analysis; PRO

= patient-reported outcome; SLR = systematic literature review

1 All PROs will be captured, including any disease-related measure of HRQoL.

A two-step approach was used for article selection: screening of titles and abstracts, followed by screening of full texts using Distiller Systematic Review software (Evidence Partners, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada), a web-based application that facilitates collaboration among reviewers during the study-selection process.

Standardized forms were used to screen the evidence at the first (title and abstract) and second (full-text) levels. These forms were developed based on the review inclusion and exclusion criteria and were piloted prior to the start of screening to ensure consistency and clarity among reviewers. Each publication was independently screened at both levels by two reviewers trained in the objectives of the project and familiar with the review protocol.

Any disagreements between reviewers about screening decisions were resolved by a third, senior researcher. Extraction of data from included studies into a pre-specified Microsoft Excel® template was conducted by one investigator and independently validated by a second, more senior researcher to ensure accuracy and consistency. Extraction of data from included studies into a pre-specified Microsoft Excel® template was conducted by one investigator and independently validated by a second, more senior researcher to ensure accuracy and consistency.

For studies with multiple publications, the most recent results, records with the longest follow-up period, or results reported in the primary full-text publication were extracted and summarized.

#### H.1.2.1 **Results**

In the original literature search, the database searches identified 1,397 records, of which 889 unique records were screened after removing duplicates. After screening the titles and abstracts for each record, 96 articles were selected for full-text review. Ultimately, 11 studies identified through the database searches met the SLR inclusion criteria. An additional two studies were identified through searches of relevant conference proceedings. Thirteen studies reporting on 10 unique studies were included in the SLR from the original literature search.

In the August 2022 literature search update, the database searches identified an additional 123 records, from which 86 unique records were screened after removing duplicates. After the title/abstract screening, eight full-text articles were reviewed. Four records identified through the database searches met the SLR inclusion criteria. All four records were related publications of a phase III trial (NCT03746522) that was included in the original literature search. An additional relevant study was identified through searches of relevant conference proceedings. This study was an open-label, long-term extension (LTE) of the phase II (NCT03013543) and phase III (NCT03746522) trials that were included in the original literature search.

In the January 2023 literature search update, the database searches identified 1,235 records, which encompassed literature up to the date of search (including literature from the original and August 2022 search update). Of those, 44 unique, new records were screened after removing duplicates. After the title/abstract screening, two full-text records were reviewed. Both records met the SLR inclusion criteria and were related publications of the phase III trial (NCT03746522) that was included in the previous literature searches.

In the February 2023 literature search update, the database searches identified 1,283 records which encompassed literature up to the date of search (including literature from the original, August 2022, and January 2023 search updates). Of those, 21 unique, new



records were screened after removing duplicates. After the title/abstract screening, seven full-text records were reviewed. Five records identified through the database searches met the SLR inclusion criteria. Three records were related publications of the phase III trial (NCT03746522) that was included in the previous literature searches. The remaining two records were cross-sectional surveys reporting on HRQoL outcomes.

Ultimately, 25 studies reporting on 11 unique studies were included in the SLR.A PRISMA diagram of studies included and excluded at each stage of the SLR is presented i[n](#page-190-0)

<span id="page-190-0"></span>[Figure](#page-190-0) **15** (database searches) and [Figure 16](#page-191-0) (grey literature searches).



**Figure 15. PRISMA diagram (database searches)**

Abbreviations: CDSR = Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews; CENTRAL = Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials; PRISMA = Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses; SLR = systematic literature review.



#### <span id="page-191-0"></span>**Figure 16. PRISMA diagram (grey literature searches)**



Abbreviations: HTA = health technology assessment; PRISMA = Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses; SLR = systematic literature review.

Of the 11 articles that met the inclusion criteria, five were epidemiology studies, one was an LTE trial reporting on clinical outcomes of setmelanotide, three were observational studies reporting only on humanistic outcomes of interest, and two were trials reporting clinical outcomes and information related to the humanistic burden of disease [\(Table 95\)](#page-191-1).

#### <span id="page-191-1"></span>**Table 95. Outcomes by study**





\*Included AS populations or a mixed population of BBS and AS.

 $\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array} \end{array}$ 

[Table 96](#page-192-0) summarises the studies identified throught he SLR that were included in this application.

<span id="page-192-0"></span>





Finally, the list of excluded studies is presented in [Table 97.](#page-194-0)



## <span id="page-194-0"></span>**Table 97 List of excluded studies at full-text screening**





















## **H.1.3 Quality assessment**

Quality assessments were performed for all interventional studies and economic evaluations, published as full-text articles, and deemed suitable for inclusion in the SLR. Studies published only as abstracts were deemed unsuitable for critical assessment because of the lack of details required to perform an accurate assessment of study quality. Randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and other randomized trial designs were critically



appraised using the Cochrane Risk of Bias Assessment Tool 2.0, as required by the Federal Joint Committee (G-BA). Non-randomized and non-controlled studies were assessed using the Critical Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) tool. The Drummond's Quality Assessment Tool was planned to be used to appraise any identified economic evaluations, but no studies with this design were included.Quality assessment was conducted by one reviewer and validated by a second reviewer.

#### **H.1.4 Unpublished data**

No relevant unpublished data were identified by the SLR.

# Appendix I. Literature searches for health-related quality of life

# I.1 Health-related quality-of-life search

The SLR conducted (see section [Appendix H\)](#page-176-0) aimed at gathering both clinical and HRQoL data. Therefore, not all of the following sections are applicable.





Abbreviations:

#### **Table 99 Other sources included in the literature search – not applicable**



<sup>1</sup> Papaioannou D, Brazier J, Paisley S. Systematic searching and selection of health state utility values from the literature. Value Health. 2013;16(4):686-95.

#### **Table 100 Conference material included in the literature search – not applicable**



#### **I.1.1 Search strategies**

#### **Table 101 Search strategy for [name of database] – not applicable**



Of the 11 articles that met the inclusion criteria, five studies [62, 63, 99, 104, 105] reported HRQoL or patient-/caregiver-reported outcomes related to obesity in BBS or AS [\(Table](#page-206-0)  [102\)](#page-206-0). In one study, the primary aim was to investigate the humanistic burden of disease via evaluation of the stigma surrounding obesity in children with BBS.[99] This qualitative study interviewed 28 caregivers from 20 families with a child with a genetically confirmed BBS diagnosis and conducted a thematic analysis of caregiver experiences.[99] A second, prospective, case-control study characterized the endocrine and metabolic features of AS.<sup>[104]</sup> It included 38 patients who fulfilled the clinical diagnosis criteria for AS with confirmed ALMS1 mutations and 76 body mass index (BMI)-matched control subjects, and compared hyperphagia scores (assessed using Dykens et al., 2007[110]) in the two populations.<sup>[104]</sup> A third cross-sectional survey characterized the burden experienced by 242 caregivers of individuals with BBS. The survey included several observer- and caregiver-reported instruments for adult caregivers who had cared for ≥6 month old individuals with BBS who had obesity (or were in the ≥95th weight percentile) and hyperphagia [105].

Finally, the two clinical trials investigating the efficacy and safety of setmelanotide described earlier-reported hunger scores at baseline and throughout the treatment period [62, 63]. The phase II trial assessed maximal hunger, morning hunger, and average daily hunger using a Likert-type scale to generate a hunger score. The phase III trial also assessed maximal hunger and average daily hunger score, although it was not explicitly stated whether the same Likert-scoring system was used. The phase III trial also examined the Impact of Weight on Quality-of-Life Questionnaire-Lite (IWQOL-Lite) among adults aged ≥18 years and the Pediatric Quality of Life Inventory (PedsQL) among children aged ≤17 years. No studies reporting on the quality-of-life impact of obesity in AS were identified.

## <span id="page-206-0"></span>**Table 102. Characteristics of studies informing on health-related quality of life in patients with BBS**





individ uals with

BBS



Abbreviations: AS = Alström syndrome; BBS = Bardet-Biedl syndrome; HRQoL = health-related quality of life; LTE = long-term extension; NA = not applicable; NIH= National Institute of Health; NR = not reported; US = United States.

Literature search results included in the model/analysis:

The HRQoL literature search results were considered to be not relevant and therefore were not used in the model/analysis. Alternatively, targeted searches were done to identify utility values for the general obese population. The utility values used and accepted by the NICE in HST21 [112], were considered representative for the Danish patient population.

## **I.1.2 Quality assessment and generalizability of estimates**

Not applicable

## **I.1.3 Unpublished data**

Not applicable



# Appendix J. Literature searches for input to the health economic model -not applicable

# J.1 External literature for input to the health economic model

## **J.1.1 Ex. Systematic search for […]**

Not applicable.

**Table 103 Sources included in the search – not applicable**



## **J.1.2 Ex. Targeted literature search for [estimates]**

Not applicable.

**Table 104 Sources included in the targeted literature search – not applicable**





## K.1 Summary

The obesity epidemic is a global issue characterized by excessive body fat and associated with various chronic diseases. Driven by unhealthy eating habits and sedentary lifestyles, obesity has doubled since 1980, affecting over one billion people worldwide.

This report focuses on early-onset obesity, which is associated with greater long-term weight gain and higher risk of remaining obese. Due to diverse individual and health factors, quantifying the impact of early-onset obesity on morbidity and mortality is complex. To address this challenge, the Early-Onset of Obesity-Model (EOObesity-Model) was developed, integrating data from clinical studies and demographic information. This model provides insights into the effects of early-onset obesity and its relation to long-term morbidity and mortality, particularly cardiovascular health. Factors such as obesity level, age, and obesity duration influence the risk of comorbidities and mortality, with recent studies suggesting that reducing obesity duration can lower the long-term risk and severity of comorbidities<sup>2</sup>.

This research assesses the consequences of obesity based on age, weight, and obesity duration. Data was extracted from studies that sufficiently quantified outcomes for incorporation into the EOObesity-Model. The study information was classified into three groups: Prevalence Information, Mortality Risk Information, and Duration Information.

Data on prevalence and mortality risk of various comorbidities such as Type 2 Diabetes, Cardiovascular Events, Non-Alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease, Cancer, Asthma, and Sleep Apnea were gathered for ages 0-100 years and BMI-Z 0.0-4.5. Impact of obesity duration information was collected for its effects on comorbidities and mortality risk. Prevalence and mortality risk information for all ages and weight classifications were tabulated, with missing information interpolated from existing data. Obesity duration tables were developed, containing risk increase Hazard Ratios for each year of obesity duration and obesity level. Irreversible risk accumulation due to obesity duration was also modeled based on studies assessing the effects of weight loss on comorbidity risk.

Comorbidity risk for each age is derived from by modifying prevalence with comorbidityspecific duration factors, further adjusted for irreversible risk accumulation to obtain a new risk profile following treatment for obesity (BMI reduction). This approach enables

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Norris et al. 2020, Duration of obesity exposure between ages 10 and 40 years and its relationship with cardiometabolic disease risk factors: A cohort study

BMI-Z = body mass index z score

the estimation of comorbidity risks and life expectancy based on changing the weight trajectory, with comorbidity risks used to calculate disability-adjusted life years (DALYs).

The model creates two weight trajectories for each case: one without change in obesity severity/duration and one with a modified weight trajectory, allowing for assessment of the impact of this change on future comorbidity risks, life expectancy, and DALYs. These trajectories are "plotted" onto a three-dimensional risk landscape, influenced by individual patient factors such as comorbidity prevalence, mortality risk, obesity duration, and irreversible risk accumulation, and shift according to changes in obesity severity and duration, enabling precise estimations of obesity-related morbidity and mortality over the patient's lifetime.

This model is unique in combining the currently best available evidence to allow for assessing the impact of early-onset obesity on mortality and morbidity, confirming the substantial impact of early-onset obesity on life expectancy and the benefits of early weight loss.

The model's capability lies in its systematic evaluation of a wide range of patient cases, validating findings for diverse scenarios. It reflects that increased weight and age, coupled with longer obesity duration, heighten the risk of comorbidities and mortality. The model's other ability is in assessing the risk reduction resulting from weight / BMI loss, linking greater and earlier weight / BMI loss to a larger reduction in comorbidity risk. This risk reduction decreases for each year of delay in change of weight trajectory, confirming the need for rapid diagnosis and intervention in early-onset obesity.

## K.2 Initial situation

The obesity epidemic is a global crisis that transcends borders, cultures, and socioeconomic classes. Characterized by an excessive accumulation of body fat, obesity is not merely a cosmetic concern but a complex medical problem. It has more than doubled since 1980 and now affects over 650 million adults worldwide. At its core, the epidemic is driven by a modern lifestyle that often promotes unhealthy eating habits and sedentary behavior. The accessibility of high-calorie, low-nutrient food, and a shift away from physical labor have played significant roles in the rise of this public health challenge. The consequences of obesity are severe, leading to various chronic diseases like heart disease, diabetes, and certain cancers.

This work focuses primarily on a relatively under-researched form of early-onset obesity. With increasing level of obesity and early-onset, obesity related risks are increasing as well. Thus, an earlier onset of severe obesity also accelerates the development of comorbidities, leading to an earlier onset of severe consequences of obesity compared to patients with later onsets of obesity. An early-onset of obesity is also tending to lead to a higher level of obesity itself in patients compared to same age patients with a later onset of obesity. This early and greater long-term weight gain also leads to a higher risk of remaining obese compared to those with a later onset of obesity. $3$  There is a paucity of work quantifying the impact of early-onset obesity on morbidity and mortality, especially on the long-term consequences, as the vast majority of work has been on general obesity and adult obesity, focusing on adulthood onsets and consequences in later adulthood.

Estimating the consequences of early-onset of obesity is a deeply intricate task that encompasses a broad spectrum of individual, health, economic, social, and methodological considerations. On the individual level, obesity's effects can vary widely due to different factors like genetics and lifestyle choices, making specific predictions difficult. Health-wise, obesity is linked to a diverse range of conditions, from heart disease and diabetes to certain types of cancer, complicating the task of estimating exact risks and interactions.

The economic impact, encompassing both direct costs like healthcare and indirect ones like productivity loss, requires nuanced understanding of various economic structures and societal values. The social and psychological facets of obesity, influenced by cultural norms and personal attitudes, add a layer of subjectivity that can be challenging to quantify. Further complexity arises from the necessity to differentiate between immediate and long-term consequences, as well as the complications introduced by co-morbidity with other health conditions. Lifestyle factors, such as diet and exercise, and the effectiveness of various interventions, can further muddy the waters in isolating obesity's consequences.

Finally, inconsistencies in defining and measuring obesity, such as the limitations of Body Mass Index (BMI), can lead to misclassification and challenges in assessing associated risks. In sum, the multi-dimensional nature of obesity, interwoven with various biological, psychological, economic, and societal factors, makes the task of estimating its consequences a complex and nuanced endeavor.

This technical report describes the innovative process by which we built a comprehensive model to estimate the effect of early onset of obesity on comorbidities and mortality risk. The Early-Onset of Obesity-Model (EOObesity-Model) adopts a multidisciplinary approach, synthesizing data from clinical studies and demographic information. The model is designed to navigate the inherent complexities and individual variations tied to obesity.

The subsequent sections detail the methodology, data sources, model architecture, validation processes, and key findings. This model was designed to serve not only as a sophisticated tool for healthcare professionals but also to inform Health Economic Modelling, as well as a foundation for future research in obesity's multifaceted consequences. Recent studies suggest that the long-term risk and severity of comorbidities linked to early onset obesity is lowered by reducing the duration of obesity**<sup>108</sup>**. Therefore, the main goal was to develop a disease estimation model to qualify and quantify the impact of early-onset obesity and its reduction on long-term morbidity and mortality with a specific focus on cardiovascular health & related diseases. In order to assess the consequences of early onset obesity in the light of all these factors and based

<sup>3</sup> Geserick et al. 2018, Acceleration of BMI in Early Childhood and Risk of Sustained Obesity



on current research, the first step was to identify obesity related factors that have been best studied and shown to influence mortality and comorbidity.

- The first and most obvious factor is the level of obesity**<sup>25</sup>**, which is measured by various methods in studies. Most common type of measurement is the BMI value, as well as the BMI Z-score in children and adolescents and the resulting percentile. Waist circumference and abdominal obesity have also been added recently. Although waist circumference and abdominal obesity are sometimes more accurate in assessing long-term risks, the overwhelming majority of studies measure BMI. In order to be able to draw on a larger pool of study results, BMI measurement was also chosen for the EOObesity-Model. The severity of obesity is directly related to an increase in the risk of comorbidities and an increase in the risk of mortality, therefore measuring the level of obesity allows a measurement of resulting risk increase in comorbidity risk as well as mortality risk.
- The second important factor is age<sup>1</sup>. Age in combination with weight defines a patient's risk of developing a certain comorbidity as well as their overall mortality risk. Being obese in old age increases these factors by a lot more than being obese in young adulthood.
- The combination of weight level and age directly leads to the third important factor, obesity duration. Besides the degree of obesity, the duration of obesity is important as well in developing comorbidities and increasing the mortality risk**<sup>108</sup>** . Someone who has been obese for 20 years has a significantly higher risk profile than someone of the same age and weight who has been obese for only 10 years. In order to better understand the effect of duration of obesity, numerous studies have been published in recent years that have precisely investigated this influence of duration.
- Living with severe obesity for a long period of time also leads to another development, namely the accumulation of irreversible processes that harm the organism and increase comorbidity risk. Juonala et al. (2014)**<sup>42</sup>** showed that these accumulated risks are irreversible when reducing the weight to average weight again. Thus, reducing the duration of obesity also decreases the time of this accumulation of irreversible risks, leading directly to smaller long-term risk.

#### **K.2.1 Methodical approach**

Below is a pictorial representation of the methodical approach used to determine the influence of the aforementioned factors on life expectancy and comorbidity risk. We have chosen two different approaches for the model, one for life expectancy and a separate approach for comorbidity risk determination. The reason for this is that a sufficient number of studies have quantified the impact of obesity on mortality and thus provide an accurate picture of the situation to provide the model with accurate information. In order to keep this mortality assessment as precise as possible, the comorbidity risk is assessed separately. [Figure 17](#page-214-0) shows the approach to modelling the impact of all the previously mentioned factors on mortality and thus on life expectancy[. Figure 18](#page-214-1) shows the approach



to modelling the impact of all the above factors on the risk of developing comorbidities across the lifespan.



<span id="page-214-0"></span>**Figure 17. Methodical approach to model the mortality effect of early onset obesity**

The first step is to gather all relevant patient information. This information yields comorbidity prevalence figures and mortality risks, which are combined to get one patient individual All-Comorbidity related Mortality risk. By further modifying this Mortality Risk with obesity duration, a patient individual trajectory is created that determines the Average and Maximum Life-Expectancy.

<span id="page-214-1"></span>



In the second approach the previously gathered information on prevalence is directly modified with the effect of obesity duration, yielding another patient trajectory only representing the comorbidity risk development of the patient's life course.

## K.3 Sources and Data Extraction

To assess the consequences of obesity based on age, weight as well as duration of obesity, we only considered studies that have quantified the resulting outcomes sufficiently enough to incorporate them into a model. Studies assessing the prevalence of comorbidities in relation to BMI (BMI-Z Score) and age, as well as studies assessing the duration of obesity in relation to the severity of obesity were selected to extract data. The data generated in this way, is the cornerstone of all estimates, as the estimation process itself only combines these data sets to produce a case-specific estimate of mortality and morbidity. The study information was classified in three groups: Prevalence Information, Mortality Risk Information and Duration Information. For technical reasons, the model works with BMI-Z Score for all age groups. Most studies report the weight of study participants over 18 years of age in BMI and that of those under 18 years of age in BMI-Z Score. In order to have a uniform weight unit for the entire life span, the BMI relevant study results were converted into BMI-Z score equivalents. As an intermediate step in this

conversion, the BMI percentiles were added in order to obtain a uniform comparative value and to be able to assign BMI over 18 to the respective BMI-Z Scores. The weight range studied is between BMI 20 and BMI 50, which corresponds to a BMI-Z score range of 0.0 - 4.5. The reason for this weight range is a technical one, namely that most studies investigating obesity have investigated BMI 30 to 40 and very few studies have investigated and quantified increased obesity. Due to a lack of reliable study results, it was decided to determine a BMI of up to 50. Conversely, this means that patients with a BMI above 50 have at least the same comorbidity risk as BMI 50 patients.

For the Prevalence Information, data for Type 2 Diabetes (T2DM), Cardiovascular Events (CV) (Fatal non-fatal Events, Cardiovascular disease, coronary heart disease), Non-Alcoholic fatty Liver Disease (NAFLD) (NAFLD+ Non-Alcoholic Steatohepatitis), Cancer (allcancer), Asthma, and Sleep Apnea were gathered for ages 0-100 years and BMI-Z 0.0-4.5. For the Mortality Risk Information, data for Type 2 Diabetes, Cardiovascular Events (Fatal non-fatal Events, Cardiovascular disease, coronary heart disease), Non-Alcoholic fatty Liver Disease (NAFLD+NASH), Cancer (all-cancer), Asthma, and Sleep Apnea was gathered for ages 0-100 years and BMI-Z 0.0-4.5.

Impact of obesity duration information was gathered for impact of duration on comorbidities and impact of duration on mortality risk. For the impact of duration on comorbidities, only studies for T2DM, CV, and cancer were available. Information for obesity duration between 0-20 years was available and one study provided risk increase data for each additional two years of obesity. Prevalence Information was needed for all ages 0-100 and all BMI-Z 0.0-4.5. Data extracted from the studies (Prevalence in %, Incidence in %, Hazard Ratios for BMI Classifications) was put into a table and missing information was interpolated only between given study results.

To create these fundamental tables showing comorbidity development in relation to age and weight, a prevalence figure is needed for each weight classification times each age from 0 to 100 years. To ensure that this information is as accurate as possible, careful attention was paid to the cohorts that the included studies examined. The main focus was thereby on the exact age and weight of the groups studied.

To explain the procedure to create these comorbidity risk tables in more detail, the NAFLD prevalence table is used as an example. Five studies were selected for NAFLD prevalence data extraction because they provided sufficient information on age and weight differences.

Anderson et al. (2015)<sup>15</sup> quantifies the differences of NAFLD prevalence in young age, from 0-19 years of Age, and in relation to weight differences, normal/average to obese levels. Age groups were characterized from  $0 \le 15$  and  $\ge 15$  years. Weight classifications were Normal weight, Overweight and Obesity. These figures were then combined to create the NAFLD comorbidity risk for ages 0 until 19 years and their corresponding weight category differences. For verry high obesity, the obesity weight category upper Confidence Interval (CI) figure was taken. The underlying rationale is that the confidence interval range reflects the NAFLD risk development within the assessed weight range. Thus, the lower CI represents the risk at the beginning of the obesity range and the upper CI the NAFLD Risk at the end of this obesity range. Next step was the integration of risk quantifications
assessing older ages and same corresponding weight classifications. For the next group, in this case 20 until 29 years, results from Arshad et al.  $(2021)^{17}$  were taken for low weight categories and for high obesity categories data from Mummadi et al. (2008)<sup>16</sup> was chosen. Arshad et al.  $(2021)^{17}$  assessed the impact of weight differences on the NAFLD risk between the ages 12 and 29 years. Age classifications were 12-17, 18-24, and 25-29 years. The last two age groups were included, representing the risk developments for the ages 20-24 years and 25-29 years. In these age groups the risk differs between the weight classifications but not between exact ages, meaning risk at 26 is the same as 29 years of age. Obesity was classified as BMI: ≥30Kg/m2 in Arshad et al. (2021)<sup>17</sup>. Another study was needed for a more precise risk assessment, providing data for the higher obesity realm. Mummadi et al. (2008)<sup>16</sup> is providing information on NAFLD risk for the higher obesity realm (BMI: 35-50) and was integrated as risk for the adult population for these weight categories. The same approach of data selection and integration was done for the remaining studies to create the whole NAFLD prevalence table.

A similar approach was applied to all comorbidities in order to map the development of the comorbidity risk as accurately as possible, based on available study data. If no data was available for an age group or weight classification, this gap was closed by interpolation. For example, data were available for 20 and 40 years and all corresponding weight classifications, but not for 30 years. In this case, interpolation was used to generate data for all weight classifications in the 30 years group. All prevalence figures are therefore directly related to study results and can be justified accordingly. For this reason, the same approach was used to create the mortality risk tables, with the difference that hazard ratios were increasingly used to model the impact of weight differences on mortality risk.

With the above-described approach, all risk tables on which the model is built on were created. The prevalence and mortality risk table creation process itself can therefore be described as a selection, integration, and combination process of already existing risks figures, in which missing risks were mathematically interpolated. This resulted in a table giving comorbidity prevalence information for all combinations of age and weight classifications required for modelling. For filling out the missing information in this table only interpolation was used and no extrapolation, to ensure the credibility of the results. The same approach was used to build the mortality risk tables for all comorbidities. For obesity duration only information for the years of being obese and the level of obesity was needed. The tables were therefore filled with a risk increase Hazard Ratio for each year of obesity duration combined with the level of obesity in that year. In addition to pure risk increase due to duration of obesity, an irreversible risk accumulation was modelled as well. Information was available for T2DM and CV from studies assessing the effect of weight loss on comorbidity risk. In the following section, each information extracted from study results is listed with a rationale for why which study was selected for data extraction.

## **K.3.1 T2DM Prevalence**

For the risk numbers at normal weight the DIABETES Surveillance of the Robert Koch Institute was used for ages 35 between 54. Tanamas et al. (2018)**<sup>1</sup>** was used to get information on younger ages and high BMI values. This Study was chosen as it provides prevalence and incidence numbers (5-year and 10-year incidence) for verry young and

obese individuals, as well as a long follow up period until 45 years of age. Ahmad et al. (2014)**<sup>2</sup>** was chosen as it depicts the prevalence in young adulthood for both sexes and obese individuals. Bjerregaard et al. (2018)**<sup>3</sup>** was chosen as it has a big number of participants (n = 62,565), therefore depicting age and BMI specific prevalence numbers most accurately. It also includes a verry long follow up period until 30-60 years of age. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 1 at the end).

## **Figure 19. T2DM Prevalence Study selection**



1) Hu et al. Duration of Obesity and Overweight and Risk of Type 2 Diabetes Among US Women, 2014 2) Ahmad et al. Eligibility for bariatric surgery among adults in England: analysis of a national cross-sectional survey, 201 al. Association of Obesity With Survival Outcomes in Patients With Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis, 2011 4) Luo et al. Age of obesity onset, cumulative obesity exposure over early adulthood and risk of type 2 2019 5) Abdullah et al. The duration of obesity and the risk of type 2 diabetes, 2010 6) Tanamas et al. Effect of severe obesity in childhood and adolescence on risk of type 2 diabetes in youth and early adulthood in an Am population, 2018 7) Bjerregaard et al. Change in Overweight from Childhood to Early Adulthood and Risk of Type 2 Diabetes, 2018

## **K.3.2 Cardiovascular Event Prevalence**

First study included is Ahmad et al. (2014)**<sup>2</sup>** , due to its information on highly obese individuals of both sexes. Second study, containing most information is Baker et al. (2007)**<sup>10</sup>**. This study included 276,835 individuals from the Danish CRS databank. Individuals from 7 to 60 years are included and all obesity classifications are included for both sexes. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 2 at the end).

## **Figure 20. CV Event Prevalence Study selection**



1) Ahmad et al. Eligibility for bariatric surgery among adults in England: analysis of a national cross-sectional survey, 2014 2) Baker et al. Childhood Body-Mass Index and the Risk of Coronary Heart Disease in Adulthood, Association between adiposity and cardiovascular outcomes: an umbrella review and meta-analysis of observational and Mendelian randomization studies, 2021 4) Sierra-Johnson et al. Relation of body mass index to fatal and n cardiovascular events after cardiac rehabilitation, 2005 5) Liu et al. Joint association of body mass index and central obesity with cardiovascular events and all-cause mortality in prediabetic population: A prospective co Li et al. Sex differences in the relationships between BMI, WHR and incidence of cardiovascular disease: a population-based cohort study, 2006 7) Khan et al. Association of Body Mass Index With Lifetime Risk of Cardiovascu and Compression of Morbidity, 2018

## **K.3.3 NAFLD Prevalence**

For childhood ages Anderson et al. (2015)<sup>15</sup> was used as it included children from 1 to 19 years of age and nearly all obesity classifications. Schwimmer et al. (2006)**<sup>51</sup>** and Arshad et al. (2021)**<sup>17</sup>** were taken to model the prevalence at young adulthood as they included participants between 2 and 29 years of age. Data from Younossi et al. (2016)**<sup>18</sup>** provided information for all ages between 30 and 79 years of age, but no information on BMI

differences. To model the BMI differences as well, Information from Mummadi et al. (2008)**<sup>16</sup>** was included as it depicted the prevalence of NAFLD in highly obese adult individuals. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 3 at the end).



## **Figure 21. NAFLD Prevalence Study selection**

review: the epidemiology and natural history of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and non-alcoholic steatohepatitis in adults, 2011

1) Anderson et al. The Prevalence of Non-Alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease in Children and Adolescents: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis, 2015 2) Schwimmer et al. Prevalence of Fatty Liver in Children and Adolescents, 200 et al. Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease Prevalence Trends Among Adolescents and Young Adults in the United States, 2007-2016, 2021 4) Younossi et al. Global Epidemiology of Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease-Meta-Analytic As of Prevalence, Incidence, and Outcomes, 2016 5) Mummadi et al. Effect of Bariatric Surgery on Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis, 2008 6) Le et al. Prevalence of non-alcoholic fatty liver risk factors for advanced fibrosis and mortality in the United States, 2017 7) Stefan et al. Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: causes, diagnosis, cardiometabolic consequences, and treatment strategies, 2018 8) Vernon et a

## **K.3.4 Cancer Prevalence**

For childhood prevalence number, information from Ward et al. (2014)**<sup>24</sup>** was extracted and used to model the cancer prevalence for children and adolescents. This study provided a big part of the US population (SEER+NAACCR Cohorts) from birth onwards. For adulthood Yao et al. (2022)**<sup>25</sup>** was used as the study provides prevalence information for all ages between 20 and 90 years with a total cohort of n = 503,060. To model the differences caused by BMI classifications, Hazard Ratios were extracted from Jee et al. (2008)**<sup>26</sup>**. This study included 1,213,829 patients and therefore precisely depicts the impact of weight on cancer risk. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 4 at the end).

#### **Figure 22. Cancer Prevalence Study Selection**



1) Ward etal. Childhood and Adolescent Cancer Statistics, 2014, 2014, 210a etal. Short-term cancer prevalence in Canada, 2012 3) lee et al. Body mass index more rrisk in Korean men and women: Findings from the China Kadoor

#### **K.3.5 Asthma Prevalence**

2020

Information from the CDC Most recent national Asthma data 2020**<sup>30</sup>** was used to model the Asthma prevalence at normal weight from ages 0-65 years of age. For later ages Chen et al. (1999)**<sup>31</sup>** was used, as it provides information until 70 years of age. To model the differences caused by BMI classifications, Hazard Ratios from Kim et al. (2003)**<sup>32</sup>** were used. This study assessed the impact of BMI on the development of asthma in 45,973 individuals until a BMI of 45. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 5 at the end).



#### **Figure 23. Asthma Prevalence Study selection**



1) Km et al. Ser-race Differences in the Relationship between Obesity and Asthma: The Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System, 2000, 2003 2) Camargo et al. Ser-race Differences in the Relationship between Obesity and As Centers for Disease Control. Most recent national asthma data 2020 7) Huisstede et al. Underdiagnosis and overdiagnosis of asthma in the morbidly obese, 2013

## **K.3.6 Sleep Apnea Prevalence**

Verlhust et al. (2007)**<sup>36</sup>** provides an overview of obese children affected by Sleep Apnea. For modelling Adulthood ages Lopez et al. (2008)**<sup>37</sup>** and Young et al. (2002)**<sup>35</sup>** were used. Lopez provides data on all BMI classifications needed for modelling and Young provides all information needed for all ages after childhood. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 6 at the end).

## **Figure 24. Sleep Apnea Prevalence Study selection**



1) Young et al. Epidemiology of Obstructive Sleep Apnea A Population Health Perspective, 2002 2) Lopez et al. Prevalence of Sleep Apnea in Morbidly Obese Patients Who Presented for Weight Loss Surgery Evaluation: More Evid Routine Screening for Obstructive Sleep Apnea before Weight Loss Surgery, 2008 3) Verhulst et al. Sleep-disordered breathing in overweight and obese children and adolescents: prevalence, characteristics and the role of fat

#### **K.3.7 T2DM Mortality Risk**

2007

Carstensen et al. (2020)**<sup>4</sup>** and Salehidoost et al. (2018)**<sup>5</sup>** provides a broad spectrum of patient information regarding age and mortality risk due to diabetes. It assessed the mortality risk of 448,445 diabetic patients in Denmark and was chosen to model the age differences in mortality risk. To Modell the BMI differences Mulnier et al. (2005)**<sup>6</sup>** was used. This study provides data for all BMI Classifications and a broad diabetic cohort (n = 44,230) and a reference group without diabetes (n = 219,797). The mortality risk was adjusted by 58% for (Cardiovascular mortality 44% + Cancer 14%) based on Liu et al. (2019)**<sup>7</sup>** , to tackle double counting in the modelling. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 7 at the end).



## **Figure 25. T2DM Mortality Risk Study selection**



2) Salehidoost et al. Body mass index and the all-cause mortality rate i<br>onship of Early Onset Obesity and Prevalence of T2DM 4) Shan et al. A<br>in China. 2020 51 Lin et al. Impact of Lifestyle-Related Factors on All-Ca rates of type 2 diabetes mellitus and long-term exposure to ambient air pollution: A 12-year cohort study in northern China, 2020 5) Lin et al. Impact of Lifestyle-Related Factors on All-Cause and Cause-Specific Mortality Type 2 Diabetes, 2012

## **K.3.8 Cardiovascular Event Mortality Risk**

Data for all ages (0-70+) was provided by the Global burden of disease study 2019<sup>11,12</sup>. Information from Furer et al. (2018)**<sup>13</sup>** was taken to model the differences in mortality risk caused by increased BMI level. Furer included 2,294,139 patients to assess the impact of BMI on cardiovascular mortality risk between 1967 until 2010 (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 8 at the end).



## **Figure 26. Cardiovascular Event Mortality Risk Study selection**

1) Global Burden of Disease Study 2019 (GBD 2019) Results. Seattle, United States: Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME) 2) Furer et al. Sex-specific associations between adolescent categories of BMI with card and non-cardiovascular mortality in midlife, 2018 3) Gunnel et al. Childhood obesity and adult cardiovascular mortality: a 57-y follow-up study based on the Boyd Orr cohort, 1998 4) Lin et al. Impact of Lifestyle-Related F Cause and Cause-Specific Mortality in Patients With Type 2 Diabetes, 2012 5) Sierra-Johnson et al. Relation of body mass index to fatal and nonfatal cardiovascular events after cardiac rehabilitation, 2005 6) Khan et al. A Mass Index With Lifetime Risk of Cardiovascular Disease and Compression of Morbidity, 2018

## **K.3.9 NAFLD Mortality Risk**

Le et al. (2017)**<sup>22</sup>** and Simon et al. (2021)**<sup>21</sup>** were used to model age differences in mortality risk due to NAFLD, as all ages are covered by these two studies. To model the additional differences caused by BMI, information from Golabi et al. (2020)**<sup>23</sup>** is taken as it provides data for patients aged 20-74 years and uses data from NHANES III. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 9 at the end).



## **Figure 27. NAFLD Mortality Risk Study selection**



1) Le et al. Prevalence of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and risk factors for advanced fibrosis and mortality in the United States, 2017 2) Simon et al. Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease in children and young adults is

## **K.3.10 Cancer Mortality Risk**

Miller et al. (2020)**<sup>27</sup>** covers around 28% of US population with its study results and depicts the mortality risk for all ages needed for modelling. Calle et al. (2003)**<sup>28</sup>** was chosen for modelling the BMI differences because here too the cohort (n = 900,053) is exceptionally big, depicting a precises picture of BMI differences on cancer related mortality risk. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 10 at the end).

### **Figure 28. Cancer Mortality Risk Study Selection**



1) Miller et al. Cancer Statists for Adolescents and Young Adults, 2020, 2020 1 Calls et al. Overweight, Obesity, and Mortality from Cancer in a Prospectively Studied Cohort of U.S. Adults, 2003 3) Robert Koch installs, Mo

## **K.3.11 Asthma Mortality Risk**

Data on Asthma Mortality Risk for Age was gathered from the Supplementary material provided by Lemmetyinen et al. (2018)**<sup>34</sup>** and BMI specific data from Whitlock et al. (2009)**<sup>33</sup>**. The difference in mortality risk due to BMI was assessed based on a collaborative analysis of 57 prospective studies combining 894,576 patients. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 11 at the end).



#### **Figure 29. Asthma Mortality Risk Study selection**



1) Jordan et al. Obesity and Mortallity in Persons with Obstructive Lung Disease Using Data in the NHMES III, 2010 2) Zhang et al. The Burden of Childhool Asthma by Age Group, 1990–2019: A Systematic Anabay is given and su collaborative analyses of 57 prospective studies, 2009 5) Centers for Disease Control. Most recent national asthma data 2020

#### **K.3.12 Obesity Duration impact on Mortality Risk**

Abdullah et al. (2011)**<sup>38</sup>** provides a detailed analysis of the duration of obesity and the impact on all-cause mortality risk. It assesses under one year of duration until over 25 years of obesity duration and assessed obese individuals from 28 years until 62 years of age. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 12 at the end).

#### **Figure 30. Obesity Duration impact on Mortality Risk Study selection**



1) Abdullah et al. The number of years lived with obesity and the risk of all-cause and cause-specific mortality, 2011

## **K.3.13 Obesity Duration impact on T2DM Risk**

Hu et al. (2015)**<sup>39</sup>** assessed the impact of duration of obesity on the development of T2DM in 125,474 individuals (NHS+NHSII). The study adjusted results for all BMI classifications leaving only the effect of duration for observation. Hazard Ratios from this study were used to increase T2DM risk correspondingly to duration of obesity. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 13 at the end).

### **Figure 31. Duration impact on T2DM Study selection**



1) Hu et al. Duration of obesity and overweight and risk of type 2 diabetes among US women, 2015

## **K.3.14 Obesity Duration impact on Cardiovascular Event Risk**

In 48 years of observation Abdullah et al. (2014)**<sup>40</sup>** made clear, that the duration of obesity has a significant impact of on the development of Cardiovascular Events in obese



individuals. Hazard ratios were extracted and used to increase the risk accordingly to specific obesity durations. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 14 at the end).

#### **Figure 32. Duration impact on Cardiovascular Event Study selection**



eight. Obesity, and Cancer Risk in the Women's Health Initiative: A Longitudinal Study from the United States, 2016

## **K.3.15 Obesity Duration impact on Cancer Risk**

Arnold et al. (2016)**<sup>41</sup>**assessed the development of all cancer types linked to obesity duration in 73,913 individuals from the WHI cohort between 1993-1998. Hazard Ratios were extracted as well and considered when modelling the effect obesity duration. (For the resulting risk plane, see Graphic 15 at the end).

## **Figure 33. Duration impact on Cancer Study selection**



1) Arnold et al. Duration of Adulthood Overweight, Obesity, and Cancer Risk in the Women's Health Initiative: A Longitudinal Study from the United States, 2016

## **K.3.16 Irreversible Risk Accumulation Integration**

Juonala et al. (2008)**<sup>42</sup>** assessed the impact of weight loss on the cardiometabolic risk profile of 6328 participants. For T2DM and CV Events the risk profile of patients that have lost weight was higher than that of patients that were never obese, indicating a risk accumulation that is nonreversible. To Get Hazard Ratios needed for modelling, we compared those cases to the known impact of obesity duration and conservatively took the difference as new hazard ratios to be able to model the impact of varying durations of obesity and the resulting irreversible accumulated risk in that period. These new Hazard Ratios describing the irreversible risk accumulation share of comorbidity risks over time were implemented into the modelling process of estimating the case specific comorbidity burden. Risk accumulation for NAFLD was based on one study assessing effect of bariatric surgery by Mummadi et al. (2008)**<sup>46</sup>** (Graphics 16,17,18 at the end).

# K.4 Model Framework

### **K.4.1 Methodology of modelling outcomes of obesity and weight development**

The data tables described above allow access to all the information needed to generate all combinations of weight (BMI-Z 0.0-4.5), age (0-100 years) and duration of obesity (0- 100 years). These combinations allow the generation of patient specific trajectories and to assess future comorbidity risks and the corresponding life expectancy.

The prevalence and mortality risk tables serve as the basis for these assessments. The combination results in a mortality risk that is further modified by mortality specific duration factors to obtain a life expectancy estimation. By modifying the prevalence only, with comorbidity specific duration factors the comorbidity risk for each specific age is yielded. This comorbidity risk is further adjusted for the irreversible risk accumulated, to obtain the new risk profile after treatment (after weight loss). These processes are always the same and are only influenced by the age and weight development entered into the model. With this approach, it is possible to estimate how the comorbidity risks and life expectancy will develop based on the patient's weight development. The comorbidity risks are needed to further calculate the disability adjusted life years (DALYs).

In order to be able to see an effect resulting from a weight reduction, the model creates two weight development pathways for the same base case. One pathway without weight reduction and one pathway with new weight development. The resulting difference in risk and life expectancy as well as DALYs after weight reduction is the impact that this reduction has on the future development of comorbidity risks and life expectancy. The created pathways are located in a three-dimensional risk landscape. This risk landscape is a direct result of the individual patient factors, namely prevalence, mortality risk as well as obesity duration and irreversible risk accumulation. The pathway shifts on this risk landscape created by the model engine according to its weight development. The following is an example of a Mortality-Risk-Landscape with two different trajectories representing stable weight at BMI-Z 4.0 in yellow and a weight loss scenario to BMI-Z 3.0 represented in blue [\(Figure 34\)](#page-224-0).



#### <span id="page-224-0"></span>**Figure 34. Patient corresponding Mortality-Risk-Landscape**

#### **Source: EOObesity-Model**

The weight development trajectories are yielding risk information that are used to calculate the mortality risk and the comorbidity risk for all ages. As explained earlier, the difference in the results of the different pathways gives the effect of weight loss on mortality and comorbidity risks. Below is an example where the movement of trajectories on the mortality Risk-Landscape leads to different life expectancies [\(Figure 35\)](#page-225-0).





<span id="page-225-0"></span>**Figure 35. Patient corresponding Mortality-Risk-Landscape with Life-Expectancy**

**Source: EOObesity-Model**

## **K.4.2 Model Step-by-Step assembly**

The Actual Model consist of three main bodies: The Interface to create a case specific weight development pathway, the engine that is selecting case specific information based on the provided weight development pathway and calculates comorbidity risks as well as a life expectancy, and the database, which provides all the information extracted by the engine.

First step of building the model was to create the database containing all information needed to model different case scenarios. For each combination of age between 0-100 years and a BMI-Z Score of 0.0-4.5 a comorbidity risk is given. Depending on the onset of obesity for each year of obesity duration and BMI-Z between 0.0-4.5 a specific duration risk increase is given. The Duration Factor Table was created using the Hazard Ratios provided by the afore mentioned studies. These Hazard Ratios were then taken as values for the average study BMI and the upper Confident Intervals were taken as values for the maximum BMI value. The remaining BMI values were interpolated between these data points and no risk increase for BMI-Z of 0.0.

To counter overestimating when modifying the comorbidity risk with duration factors, we adjusted those duration factors for the average obesity duration in the corresponding study cohorts. This step was made based on the assumption, that in a relatively older cohort obesity duration is longer than in a cohort with younger individuals, resulting in an overestimation for the younger and an underestimation for the older patients when taking the same risk value for both age groups. (Graphics 19,20,21,22)

For the comorbidities: T2DM, CV, NAFLD, Cancer, and Asthma Disability Weights are given, needed for DALY calculation. To implement the irreversible risk accumulation of some comorbidities data was created for each age between 0-100 years and all BMI-Z Score 0.0- 4.5.

Second step was to create an engine capable of extracting data from the database and calculating Life-Expectancy as well as comorbidity risks for all ages. Another part is the DALYs calculation happening separately. Based on the Age and Weight at that point the

engine is calculating the duration of obesity. With The Age, BMI-Z, and Obesity Duration the engine can fill out all the missing information provided by the database.

The third and final step was to build an interface for data entry and to build an interface between the interface and the engine that generates the weight development paths based on the data entered into the interface. This generated weight development pathway is directly flowing into the engine which provides all the necessary information for the engine to start modelling. The user does not have to leave the interface to see the results, as all information generated by the engine is visible on the interface. In parallel with the data entry, the life expectancy, the DALY overview, and the comorbidity risks for all ages are presented for the treated and untreated patient (No weight loss and weight loss).

This resulting model does not take ethnic and sex differences as well as "healthy-obese" into account.

# K.5 Case example

To be able to compare our findings we created a base case example patient with early onset of obesity. Patient conditions were a BMI-Z of 2.5 at 2 years of age and BMI-Z of 4.0 at 4 years of age. This information was used to generate a first patient pathway resembling an untreated patient. With the same weight development at the early stages of life, the patient lost weight at 6 years of Age resulting in a new weight of BMI-Z 3.0, leading to the second Pathway resembling the treated patient. The weight loss at 6 years of Age resulted in a gain in Life-Years of  $x_i$  years and a reduction of  $x_i$  DALYs. Later Age years at weight reduction let to diminished treatment effects. Down below is a graphical representation of Three different case Scenarios: Untreated patient, Treatment at 6 years and 20 years:

#### **Figure 36. No Weight reduction**



**Figure 37. Weight reduction at 6 years of age**





# K.6 Model conclusions

The quantification of the model and the systematic run-through of a wide variety of patient cases is one ability of the model and provides validation for a wide variety of findings. The most important dynamics of the model reflect the findings already discussed in the afore mentioned studies. Increased weight as well as higher age is associated with a higher risk of all comorbidities. This risk increases additionally with higher duration of obesity. An additional dynamic that was not integrated into the model for technical reasons is the increase in risk due to multimorbidity. Having one specific morbidity increases the risk of developing another additional comorbidity, for example the onset of T2DM increases further the risk of CV events. The integration of this additional factor affected all calculations and thus had a severe impact on life expectancy and the overall assessment of comorbidity risk. However, the model results no longer correspond to the clinically verifiable reality, after implementation. Reason for this is double counting a certain number of comorbidities. If you add all prevalence numbers in the model for a certain age and specific weight, sometimes the total comorbidity prevalence exceeds 100%, for example at 15 years of age and a BMI-Z of 3.0 all comorbidities combined yield a prevalence of 120%. This means that at least 100% of all people have 1 comorbidity and at least 20% have 2 comorbidities. The model is already counting in those additional 20% in its equations to estimate comorbidity risk and Life expectancy. These 20% will be double counted when additional factors are implemented to increase the risk further due to multimorbidity factors.

Another capability of the model and one of its main tasks is the assessment of risk reduction resulting from weight loss. Here several dynamics are in play, with the greatest influence on risk reduction being the magnitude of weight reduction. The more weight is reduced, the greater the reduction in the risk of developing comorbidities. Another dynamic of risk reduction is the reduction of obesity duration. by reducing weight at an early stage, the time in which comorbidities can develop due to obesity is reduced, thus a reduction in obesity duration results in a direct decrease in the risk profile. Accordingly, our main finding is that the earlier and more severe you reduce the weight to a healthy level, the greater the risk reduction. This dynamic is influenced by all factors (age, weight, duration) and results in a non-linear progression. For example, the longer you wait to reduce weight, the lower the risk reduction, even if you reduce by the same weight level.



This effect is not linear, i.e. the risk reduction is less for each year of delay in weight loss than it was for the previous year.

This is the first and only model to assess the impact of early-onset obesity on mortality and morbidity. It confirms the major impact of early-onset obesity on life expectancy and the benefits of losing weight as early as possible.

# K.7 Model Graphics





**K.7.2 Graphic 2: Cardiovascular Event Prevalence**



**K.7.3 Graphic 3: NAFLD Prevalence**



# **K.7.4 Graphic 4: Cancer Prevalence**



**K.7.5 Graphic 5: Asthma Prevalence**



**K.7.6 Graphic 6: Sleep Apnea Prevalence**



## **K.7.7 Graphic 7: T2DM Mortality Risk**



**K.7.8 Graphic 8: Cardiovascular Event Mortality Risk**



**K.7.9 Graphic 9: NAFLD Mortality Risk**



**K.7.10 Graphic 10: Cancer Mortality Risk**



**K.7.11 Graphic 11: Asthma Mortality Risk**



**K.7.12 Graphic 12: Obesity Duration impact on Mortality Risk**





## **K.7.13 Graphic 13: Obesity Duration impact on T2DM Risk**



**K.7.14 Graphic 14: Obesity Duration impact on Cardiovascular Event Risk**



**K.7.15 Graphic 15: Obesity Duration impact on Cancer Risk**





## **K.7.16 Graphic 16: Irreversible T2DM Risk Accumulation**



**K.7.17 Graphic 17: Irreversible CV Risk Accumulation**



**K.7.18 Graphic 18: Irreversible NAFLD Risk Accumulation**



## **K.7.19 Graphic 19: T2DM Risk adjustment**



**K.7.20 Graphic 20: CV Risk adjustment**



**K.7.21 Graphic 21: Cancer Risk adjustment**



## **K.7.22 Graphic 22: NAFLD Risk adjustment**



# K.8 Literature Overview

## **K.8.1 Studies included**

- 1. Tanamas et al. 2018, Effect of severe obesity in childhood and adolescence on risk of type 2 diabetes in youth and early adulthood in an American Indian population
- 2. Ahmad et al. 2014, Eligibility for bariatric surgery among adults in England: analysis of a national cross-sectional survey
- 3. Bjerregaard et al. 2018, Change in Overweight from Childhood to Early Adulthood and Risk of Type 2 Diabetes
- 4. Carstensen et al. 2020, Prevalence, incidence and mortality of type 1 and type 2 diabetes in Denmark 1996–2016
- 5. Salehidoost et al. 2018, Body mass index and the all-cause mortality rate in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus
- 6. Mulnier et al. 2005, Mortality in people with Type 2 diabetes in the UK
- 7. Liu et al. 2019, Cause-Specific Mortality in Multiethnic South East Asians with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus
- 8. Hu et al. 2015, Duration of obesity and overweight and risk of type 2 diabetes among US women
- 9. Ahmad et al. 2014, Eligibility for bariatric surgery among adults in England: analysis of a national cross-sectional survey
- 10. Baker et al. 2007, Childhood body-mass index and the risk of coronary heart disease in adulthood
- 11. Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation, Global Burden of Disease, DEATHS STROKE SEX: BOTH - AGE: ALL AGES (RATE), Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network. Global Burden of Disease Study 2019 (GBD 2019) Results. Seattle, United States: Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME)
- 12. Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation, Global Burden of Disease, DEATHS CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASES - SEX: BOTH - AGE: ALL AGES (RATE), Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network. Global Burden of Disease Study 2019 (GBD 2019) Results. Seattle, United States: Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME)
- 13. Furer et al. 2018, Sex-specific associations between adolescent categories of BMI with cardiovascular and non-cardiovascular mortality in midlife, Supplementary Table 4
- 14. Abdullah et al. 2014, Estimating the risk of cardiovascular disease using an obese-years metric
- 15. Anderson et al. 2015, The Prevalence of Non-Alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease in Children and Adolescents: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis
- 16. Mummadi et al. 2008, Effect of bariatric surgery on nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: systematic review and meta-analysis
- 17. Arshad et al. 2021, Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease Prevalence Trends Among Adolescents and Young Adults in the United States, 2007‐2016
- 18. Younossi et al. 2016, Global Epidemiology of Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease—Meta-Analytic Assessment of Prevalence, Incidence, and Outcomes
- 19. Harrison et al. 2021, Prospective evaluation of the prevalence of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and steatohepatitis in a large middle-aged US cohort
- 20. Clark et al. 2005, Roux-en-Y gastric bypass improves liver histology in patients with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease
- 21. Simon et al. 2021, Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease in children and young adults is associated with increased long-term mortality
- 22. Le et al. 2017, Prevalence of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and risk factors for advanced fibrosis and mortality in the United States
- 23. Golabi et al. 2020, Mortality of NAFLD According to the Body Composition and Presence of Metabolic Abnormalities
- 24. Ward et al. 2014, Childhood and Adolescent Cancer Statistics
- 25. Yao et al. 2022, Short-term cancer prevalence in Canada, 2018
- 26. Jee et al. 2008, Body mass index and cancer risk in Korean men and women
- 27. Miller et al. 2020, Cancer Statistics for Adolescence and Young Adults, 2020
- 28. Calle et al. 2003, Overweight, Obesity, and Mortality from Cancer in a Prospectively Studied Cohort of U.S. Adults
- 29. Arnold et al. 2026, Duration of Adulthood Overweight, Obesity, and Cancer Risk in the Women's Health Initiative: A Longitudinal Study from the United States
- 30. Centers for Disease Control. Most recent national asthma data 2020
- 31. Chen et al. 1999, Increased Effects of Smoking and Obesity on Asthma among Female Canadians: The National Population Health Survey, 1994-1995
- 32. Kim et al. 2003, Sex-race Differences in the Relationship between Obesity and Asthma: The Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System, 2000
- 33. Whitlock et al. 2009, Body-mass index and cause-specific mortality in 900 000 adults: collaborative analyses of 57 prospective studies
- 34. Lemmetyinen et al. 2018, Higher mortality of adults with asthma: A 15-year follow-up of a population-based cohort
- 35. Young et al. 2002 Epidemiology of Obstructive Sleep Apnea A Population Health Perspective
- 36. Verhulst et al. 2007 Sleep-disordered breathing in overweight and obese children and adolescents: prevalence, characteristics and the role of fat distribution
- 37. Lopez et al. 2008 Prevalence of Sleep Apnea in Morbidly Obese Patients Who Presented for Weight Loss Surgery Evaluation: More Evidence for Routine Screening for Obstructive Sleep Apnea before Weight Loss Surgery
- 38. Abdullah et al. 2011, The number of years lived with obesity and the risk of all-cause and causespecific mortality
- 39. Hu et al. 2015, Duration of obesity and overweight and risk of type 2 diabetes among US women
- 40. Abdullah et al. 2014, Estimating the risk of cardiovascular disease using an obese-years metric
- 41. Arnold et al. 2016, Duration of Adulthood Overweight, Obesity, and Cancer Risk in the
- Women's Health Initiative: A Longitudinal Study from the United States
- 42. Juonala et al. 2011, Childhood Adiposity, Adult Adiposity, and Cardiovascular Risk Factors 43. Hu et al. 2015, Duration of obesity and overweight and risk of type 2 diabetes among US women
- 44. Abdullah et al. 2014, Estimating the risk of cardiovascular disease using an obese-years metric 45. Mummadi et al. 2008, Effect of bariatric surgery on nonalcoholic fatty liver disease:
- systematic review and meta-analysis
- 46. Juonala et al. 2011, Childhood Adiposity, Adult Adiposity, and Cardiovascular Risk Factors
- 47. Hu et al. 2015, Duration of obesity and overweight and risk of type 2 diabetes among US women
- 48. Abdullah et al. 2014, Estimating the risk of cardiovascular disease using an obese-years metric
- 49. Mummadi et al. 2008, Effect of bariatric surgery on nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: systematic review and meta-analysis
- 50. Schwimmer et al. 2006, Prevalence of Fatty Liver in Children and Adolescents

#### **K.8.2 Studies assessed but not included in the modelling**

1. Abdullah et al. 2011, The Duration of Obesity and the Risk of Type 2 Diabetes 2. Al-Saeed et al. 2016, An Inverse Relationship Between Age of Type 2 Diabetes Onset and Complication Risk and Mortality 3. Alfredsson et al. 2019, Lifestyle and Environmental Factors in Multiple Sclerosis 4. Aliakbarian et al. 2020, Pre-Operative Predictors of Weight Loss and Weight Regain Following Roux-En-Y Gastric Bypass Surgery 5. Alipoor et al. 2019, Association of Obesity with Morbidity and Mortality in Critically Ill Children 6. Alqahtani et al. 2023, Obesity Burden and Impact of Weight Loss in Saudi Arabia 7. Amini et al. 2021, Trend Analysis of Cardiovascular Disease Mortality, Incidence, and Mortality-to-Incidence Ratio 8. Avdagic-Terzic, et al. 2022, Diabetes Mellitus Type 2 and cardiovascular diseases-Risk Assessment 9. Basen-Engquist et al. 2011, Obesity and Cancer Risk 10. Batsis et al. 2016, Effect of Bariatric Surgery on Cardiometabolic Risk in Elderly Subjects 11. Bendor et al. 2020, Cardiovascular Morbidity, Diabetes and Cancer Risk among Children and Adolescents with Severe Obesity 12. Beuther et al. 2007, Overweight, Obesity, and Incident Asthma 2018, Association of BMI with overall and cause-specific mortality 14. Bhaskaran et al. 2018, Association of BMI with Overall and Cause-Specific Mortality 15. Boyer et al. 2015, Childhood Body Mass Index Trajectories Predicting Cardiovascular Risk in Adolescence 16. Brara et al. 2012, Pediatric Idiopathic Intracranial Hypertension and Extreme Childhood **Obesity** 17. Burstein et al. 2019, Mapping 123 million Neonatal, Infant and Child Deaths between 2000 and 2017 18. Burt et al. 2010, Obesity and the Pubertal Transition in Girls and Boys 19. Cali et al. 2009, Primary Defects in Beta-Cell Function Further Exacerbated by Worsening of Insulin Resistance Mark the Development of Impaired Glucose Tolerance in Obese Adolescents 20. Cameron et al. 2002, Critical Periods in Human Growth and Their Relationship to Diseases of Aging 21. Chan et al. 2009, Musculoskeletal Effects of Obesity 22. Chen et al. 2019, Weight Change across Adulthood in Relation to All Cause and Cause Specific Mortality 23. Cheng et al. 2021, Body Mass Index Trajectories during Mid to Late Life and Risks of Mortality and Cardiovascular Outcomes 24. Chiarelli et al. 2008, Insulin Resistance and Obesity in Childhood 25. Cho et al. 2018, Metabolic Risk Factors in Korean Adolescents with Severe Obesity 26. Chung et al. 2017, Growth and Puberty in Obese Children and Implications of Body Composition 27. Chung et al. 2018, Cardiometabolic Risk in Obese Children

 $\begin{smallmatrix}\cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot\end{smallmatrix}$ 





```
113. Peeters et al. 2011, Age-specific trends in cardiovascular mortality rates in the Netherlands 
     between 1980 and 200
114. Peter et al. 2016, Body Mass Trajectories, Diabetes Mellitus, and Mortality in a Large Cohort 
     of Austrian Adults
115. Petrelli et al. 2021, Association of Obesity with Survival Outcomes in Patients with Cancer
116. Pinhas-Hamiel et al. 2014, Advanced Bone Age and Hyperinsulinemia in Overweight and 
     Obese Children
117. Pomerantz et al. 2010, Injury Patterns in Obese versus Nonobese Children Presenting to a 
     Pediatric Emergency Department
118. Power et al. 2011, Changes in BMI, Duration of Overweight and Obesity, and Glucose 
     Metabolism
119. Prospective et al. 2009, Body-Mass Index and Cause-Specific Mortality in 900 000 Adults
120. Rafiq et al. 2009, Long-Term Follow-up of Patients with Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver
121. Roffi et al. 2013, Gender-Related Mortality Trends among Diabetic Patients with ST-Segment 
     Elevation Myocardial Infarction
122. Rolland-Cachera et al. 2006, Early Adiposity Rebound
123. Rosengren et al. 2017, Body Weight in Adolescence and Long-Term Risk of Early Heart 
     Failure in Adulthood among Men in Sweden
124. Saab et al. 2015, Evaluating the Cause of Death in Obese Individuals
125. Schreiner et al.2021, Obesity and Multiple Sclerosis-A Multifaceted Association
126. Schroeder et al. 2012, Incidence, prevalence, and hybrid approaches to calculating 
     disability-adjusted life years
127. Sciomer et al. 2020, Role of Gender, Age and BMI in Prognosis of Heart Failure
128. Seferović et al. 2018, Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus and Heart Failure
129. Sharifi et al. 2017, Cost-Effectiveness of a Clinical Childhood Obesity Intervention
130. Sierra-Johnson et al. 2005, Relation of Body Mass Index to Fatal and Nonfatal Cardiovascular 
     Events after Cardiac Rehabilitation
131. Simmonds et al. 2015, The Use of Measures of Obesity in Childhood for Predicting Obesity 
     and the Development of Obesity-Related Diseases in Adulthood
132. Skinner et al. 2015, Cardiometabolic Risks and Severity of Obesity in Children and Young Adults
133. Sopher et al. 2011, Bone Age Advancement in Prepubertal Children with Obesity and Premature 
     Adrenarche
134. Sun et al. 2019, Body Mass Index and All-Cause Mortality in HUNT and UK Biobank 
     Studies
135. The et al. 2013, Timing and Duration of Obesity in Relation to Diabetes
136. Thrainsdottir et al. 2005, The Association between Glucose Abnormalities and Heart Failure 
     in the Population-Based Reykjavik Study
137. Tirosh et al. 2011, Adolescent BMI Trajectory and Risk of Diabetes versus Coronary Disease
138. TODAY et al. 2013, Rapid Rise in Hypertension and Nephropathy in Youth with Type 2 Diabetes
139. Tsoi et al. 2022, Prevalence of Childhood Obesity in the United States in 1999-2018
140. Twig et al. 2020, Adolescent Obesity and Early-Onset Type 2 Diabetes
141. Umer et al. 2017, Childhood Obesity and Adult Cardiovascular Disease Risk Factors
142. Vernon et al. 2011, Systematic Review
143. Volkow et al. 2017, The Dopamine Motive System
144. Wang et al. 2005, Comparison of Abdominal Adiposity and Overall Obesity in Predicting Risk of 
     Type 2 Diabetes among Men
145. Ward et al. 2017, Simulation of Growth Trajectories of Childhood Obesity into Adulthood
146. Weihrauch-Blüher et al.2018, Risk Factors and Implications of Childhood Obesity
147. Wing et al. 2011, Benefits of Modest Weight Loss in Improving Cardiovascular Risk Factors in 
     Overweight and Obese Individuals with Type 2 Diabetes
148. Wrzosek et al. 2018, Early Onset of Obesity and Adult Onset of Obesity as Factors Affecting 
     Patient Characteristics Prior to Bariatric Surgery
149. Yoshioka et al. 2020, Effect of Weight Change and Lifestyle Modifications on the Development or 
     Remission of Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease
150. Yu et al. 2019, Prevalence of Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease in Children with 
     Obesity
151. Zhang et al. 2022, The Burden of Childhood Asthma by Age Group, 1990-2019
152. Zhang et al. 2019, Prevalence and the Association of Body Mass Index and Other Risk Factors 
     with Prediabetes and Type 2 Diabetes Among 50,867 Adults in China and Sweden
153. Yang et al. 2021, Trends in Cardiometabolic and Cancer Multimorbidity Prevalence and Its
```




162. Caussy et al. 2021, The Relationship Between Type 2 Diabetes, NAFLD, and Cardiovascular Risk 163. Kim et al. 2008, Fatty liver is an independent risk factor for the development of

- Type 2 diabetes in Korean adults 164. Sørensen et al. 2003, Risk of Cancer in Patients Hospitalized with Fatty Liver
- 165. Roh et al. 2022, A nationwide survey of the association between nonalcoholic fatty liver disease and the incidence of asthma in Korean adults
- 166. Greenlee et al. 2022, Risk of Cardiovascular Disease in Women with and Without Breast Cancer: The Pathways Heart Study
- 167. George et al. 2023, The Evidence Surrounding Non-Alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease in Individuals with Cancer: A Systematic Literature Review
- 168. Rayner et al. 2019, Type 2 Diabetes and Asthma: Systematic Review of the Bidirectional Relationship
- 169. Tattersall et al. 2015, Asthma Predicts Cardiovascular Disease Events: The Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis
- 170. Ioan et al. 2022, Evaluation of obesity and asthma as risk factors for moderate to severe obstructive sleep apnea in children
- 171. Pashou et al. 2022, Sleep Apnea and Cardiovascular Risk in Patients with Prediabetes and Type 2 Diabetes
- 172. Huang et al. 2018, A Population-Based Study of the Bidirectional Association Between Obstructive Sleep Apnea and Type 2 Diabetes in Three Prospective U.S. Cohorts
- 173. Kim et al. 2022, Obstructive Sleep Apnea and Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease in the General Population: A Cross-Sectional Study Using Nationally Representative Data
- 174. Brenner et al. 2017, Increased Risk for Cancer in Young Patients with Severe Obstructive Sleep Apnea
- 175. Brinke et al. 2005, Risk factors of frequent exacerbations in difficult-to-treat asthma



**Danish Medicines Council Secretariat**  Dampfærgevej 21-23, 3rd floor DK-2100 Copenhagen Ø

+ 45 70 10 36 00 medicinraadet@medicinraadet.dk

www.medicinraadet.dk