

This work was written as part of one of the author's official duties as an Employee of the United States Government and is therefore a work of the United States Government. In accordance with 17 U.S.C. 105, no copyright protection is available for such works under U.S. Law. Access to this work was provided by the University of Maryland, Baltimore County (UMBC) ScholarWorks@UMBC digital repository on the Maryland Shared Open Access (MD-SOAR) platform.

Please provide feedback

Please support the ScholarWorks@UMBC repository by emailing [scholarworks-group@umbc.edu](mailto:scholarworks-group@umbc.edu) and telling us what having access to this work means to you and why it's important to you. Thank you.



# WHY I'M AN OWNER



“At Vituity, I get to be a part of something bigger than myself. As an academic leader, I teach new physicians and aspiring leaders how to make a difference in healthcare.”

**Lori Winston, MD, FACEP**

*Vituity Partner & Director of Academic Affairs | Visalia, CA*

• Vituity has always been **100% owned** by its physicians, and you **join as a Partner from Day 1**.

Learn more at [vituity.com/EMcareers](https://vituity.com/EMcareers)

**Now hiring in:** Arizona, California, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Missouri, Minnesota, Nevada, New Jersey, Oregon, South Carolina, Texas, Washington, and Wisconsin.

Vituity® is a registered trademark of CEP America, LLC.  
© CEP America, LLC, All Rights Reserved.

## ORIGINAL CONTRIBUTION

# Costs Associated with Ambulatory Care Sensitive Conditions Across Hospital-based Settings

Jessica E. Galarraga, MD, MPH, Ryan Mutter, PhD, and Jesse M. Pines, MD, MBA

## Abstract

**Objectives:** Ambulatory care sensitive conditions (ACSCs) are acute care diagnoses that could potentially be prevented through improved primary care. This study investigated how payments and charges for these ACSC visits differ by three hospital-based settings (outpatient, emergency department [ED], and inpatient) and examined differences in payments and charges by their physician and facility components.

**Methods:** This was a secondary analysis of data (2005 through 2010) from the Medical Expenditure Panel Survey. Multiple linear regression models were used to assess differences in the mean-adjusted payments and charges for ACSC visits by clinical setting and further divided payments and charges into physician and facility components.

**Results:** Of all ACSC visits from 2005 through 2010, 41% were outpatient visits, 36% were ED visits, and 23% were hospital admissions. After adjusting for patient demographics and comorbid conditions, charges for an inpatient ACSC visit were four times higher (\$11,414 vs. \$2,563) and payments were five times higher (\$4,325 vs. \$859) when compared to an ED visit. By comparison, charges for an ACSC ED visit were two times higher (\$2,563 vs. \$1,084) and payments 2.5 times higher (\$859 vs. \$341) relative to an ACSC visit managed in an outpatient hospital-based clinic. Across all clinical settings, hospital facility fees account for 77% to 94% of the charge differences and 81% to 93% of the payment differences.

**Conclusions:** For hospital-based ACSC visits, inpatient hospitalizations are by far the most expensive. Finding ways to expand outpatient resources and improve the health management of the chronically ill may avoid conditions that lead to more expensive hospital-based encounters. Across all hospital-based settings, facility fees are the major contributor of expense.

ACADEMIC EMERGENCY MEDICINE 2015;22:172–181 © 2015 by the Society for Academic Emergency Medicine

The cost of U.S. health care has been increasingly in the forefront of the national dialogue on health care reform.<sup>1</sup> The clinical setting in which a patient receives care is an important determinant of the cost of medical encounters. Some conditions, such as time-sensitive critical illnesses, require treatment in emergency departments (EDs) and hospitals. For more minor conditions, there is flexibility in the setting where care can be safely provided.<sup>2–4</sup> There are also certain critical conditions, such as severe asthma exacerbations, that require timely ED or inpatient care, but are amenable to prevention through improved primary care. The

primary care capacity of communities continues to be a challenge,<sup>5–9</sup> and EDs have become increasingly the primary source for acute care, treating 28% of all acute care visits in the United States.<sup>8</sup>

The discussion on how to reduce health care costs has focused on the concept of improving health care delivery—specifically enhancing primary care—as a way to lower the burden of illness. The Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ) has defined a list of ambulatory care sensitive conditions (ACSCs), which are conditions “for which good outpatient care can potentially prevent the need for hospitalization or for

From the Department of Emergency Medicine (JEG, JMP) and the Department of Health Policy (JMP), George Washington University, Washington, DC; and The Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (RM), Rockville, MD.

Received April 9, 2014; revisions received July 2, August 26 and September 2, 2014; accepted September 2, 2014.

Presented at the American Academy of Emergency Medicine Annual Scientific Assembly, New York, NY, February 2014

The authors have no relevant financial information or potential conflicts to disclose

Supervising Editor: Sandra Schneider, MD.

Address for correspondence and reprints: Jessica E. Galarraga, MD, MPH; e-mail: jgala84@gwu.edu.

A related commentary appears on page 224.

which early intervention can prevent complications or more severe disease.”<sup>10</sup> AHRQ uses the prevalence of ACSC encounters to measure quality in health care systems and to assess demonstration projects aimed at improving care delivery. The rationale is that communities with better primary care and outpatient resources will have fewer avoidable health care encounters.<sup>10</sup> Researchers have expanded on the use of ACSCs as a targeted area for cost reduction through the prevention of avoidable encounters, specifically in high-resource settings such as EDs and hospitals.<sup>11–14</sup>

Comparing care settings and related costs for ACSC visits is important because it frames the discussion on quantifying how much cost savings could be achieved by interventions that minimize avoidable hospital-based encounters. Additionally, understanding the breakdown of ACSC costs in hospital settings by payment type—physician fees (i.e., separately billed provider services) versus facility fees—is important to understand what types of fees drive the costs for various hospital-based visits. Care in hospital-based settings is more expensive than nonhospital settings due to high fixed costs required to maintain an operational capacity 24 hours a day, 7 days a week.<sup>15</sup>

Data from the Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project demonstrated that potentially preventable hospitalizations may account for up to \$30.8 billion in annual health care costs.<sup>11,12</sup> Several regional studies have explored the charge and activity-based cost differences for ACSC visits across clinical settings. In five California Veterans Administration hospitals, activity-based costs for ACSC hospital admissions heavily outweighed ACSC ED visits, with costs approximately \$15,000 and \$500 per inpatient and ED encounter, respectively.<sup>13</sup> In a study in Charlotte, North Carolina, ED charges for ACSC-related visits were 320% to 728% higher than primary care clinic charges.<sup>14</sup> Although the higher costs incurred by managing ACSCs in higher resource settings may be intuitive, the magnitude of the cost difference for ACSC visits in different clinical settings and the relative contribution of provider versus facility fees has not been explored on a national level to the best of our knowledge.

The objective of this study was to identify the cost differences in payments and charges for ACSC visits in three different hospital-based settings: outpatient visits, ED visits, and inpatient admissions. We also assessed these differences by provider and facility components to identify their relative contribution to costs. Additionally, we examined the differences in payments and charges among two subgroups of ACSC visits: encounters due to acute medical conditions and encounters due to exacerbations of chronic disease. We conducted this subgroup analysis because acute and chronic ACSC nonoutpatient encounters may be preventable for different reasons. Acute ACSC encounters may reflect a lack of access to an outpatient setting to seek the same medical care. By comparison, chronic ACSC encounters not only may reflect the lack of access to outpatient care, but also may reflect suboptimal primary care management.

## METHODS

### Study Design

We conducted a secondary data analysis using the Medical Expenditure Panel Survey (MEPS), a publicly available data set from the AHRQ. MEPS is an ongoing nationally representative survey of the U.S. noninstitutionalized civilian population and provides data on health care use and expenditures. We combined MEPS data from January 1, 2005, through December 31, 2010.

The data used were from the household component of MEPS, which contains detailed information on individual outpatient, ED, and inpatient encounters. Information in the household component is supplemented and verified by the medical provider component. Details of the MEPS data collection procedures are described in Data Supplement S1 (available as supporting information in the online version of this paper).<sup>16</sup> The institutional review board at George Washington University determined that the study was not human subjects' research.

### Study Setting and Population

This study focused on clinical encounters by adults, ages 18 years and older, which were hospital-based outpatient, ED, or inpatient encounters. Clinical encounters paid by flat-fee arrangements were excluded ( $n = 3,998$ ) because the charges and payments do not reflect the costs of the encounters. Clinical encounters with missing cost data ( $n = 213$ ) and encounters with charges of \$0 ( $n = 678$ ) or payments of \$0 ( $n = 8,296$ ), which represent cases of charity care, no reimbursement, third-party payer restrictions on reimbursement, or reimbursements covered by clinical trials, were also excluded.<sup>17</sup> Additionally, respondents were excluded if they did not provide information for one or more of the covariates used in the regression models ( $n = 1,696$ ). The final unweighted sample included 94,595 encounters, with 7,465 ACSC (7.9%) encounters and 87,130 non-ACSC (92.1%) encounters. Outpatient visits comprised 64.1%, ED 22.7%, and inpatient 13.2% of all encounters.

### Study Protocol

The clinical setting of each encounter was the primary independent variable and was categorized as outpatient visits, ED visits, and inpatient admissions. Outpatient visits include outpatient encounters in hospital-based clinics. MEPS provides separate data on office-based outpatient encounters, which were not included in this study because the physician and facility components of fees are not provided for these encounters. ED visits included only encounters that resulted in treatment and routine discharge, because it is not possible to separate the inpatient and ED components of fees for ED encounters that result in admission, in MEPS. Hospital admissions include provider and facility data that pertain to both the ED encounter that resulted in the admission and the inpatient stay.

The main outcome measures were payments and charges. Payments for each ED visit were the total payments provided to treating physicians and facilities from both out-of-pocket expenses and other third-party



sources (primarily private insurance, Medicare, and Medicaid). Charges for each clinical encounter covered medical care, diagnostic tests, laboratory work, treatments, and any specialty services for each encounter. Charges reflect amounts before any negotiated discounts or adjustments for financial assistance are applied. Charges do not include prescribed medications purchased outside the hospital setting. Payments and charges were adjusted using the Consumer Price Index to convert all data to 2010 U.S. dollars. In addition, because the distribution of payments and charges was positively skewed, a typical characteristic of health expenditure data,<sup>18</sup> all payments and charges were winsorized for the 10% tails of each side of the distribution to minimize the effects of extreme outliers. Payments and charges were separated into their physician and facility components as secondary outcome measures.

Demographic factors previously identified as having associations with ACSC visits were used as covariates.<sup>19</sup> Covariates included age (continuous), sex (male, female), race/ethnicity (white non-Hispanic, African American, Hispanic, other), annual individual income (0–\$9,999; \$10,000–\$29,999; \$30,000–\$49,999; ≥\$50,000), insurance status (uninsured, Medicaid, Medicare, or privately insured), geographic region (Northeast, Midwest, South, or West), and residence in a metropolitan statistical area (yes, no). For insurance status, individuals with both Medicare and Medicaid coverage were classified as “Medicare” insurance. All analyses were also adjusted using the Charlson-Deyo score (0, 1, 2, ≥3) attributed to the patient involved in each clinical encounter, which was composed using the *International Classification of Diseases, 9th Revision, Clinical Modification* (ICD-9-CM) codes of the patient’s reported medical conditions.<sup>20</sup> The Charlson-Deyo score is a validated comorbidity risk adjustment index used to account for the disease severity of an individual.<sup>20–23</sup> The Charlson-Deyo score may range from 0 (no comorbidity risk) to a maximum score of 33, if the individual has all of the comorbid conditions pertaining to the algorithm. Based on comorbidity prevalence, the Charlson-Deyo score is commonly truncated to range from 0 to 3 or more, with the majority of study populations having a score of 0 or 1.<sup>19,20</sup> Survey year was also included as a covariate in all analyses to account for secular trends over the 6-year period.

### Data Analysis

The focus of the analyses was to compare mean total payments and mean total charges for ACSC visits by adults from three different clinical settings: outpatient, ED, and inpatient. ACSC visits included 11 of the 14 conditions identified by the AHRQ as Prevention Quality Indicators (PQIs), which are considered to be conditions for which hospitalizations may often be prevented through improved ambulatory care.<sup>10</sup> Two of the excluded PQIs were not based on adult populations: low birthweight (PQI9) and perforated appendix (PQI2). The third excluded PQI was only relevant to inpatient encounters: lower-extremity amputations among diabetic patients (PQI16). ACSC visits were identified using the ICD-9-CM codes specified in the numerator of the technical specifications for AHRQ PQI Version 4.5.<sup>24</sup> The ICD-9-CM codes used in this study represent the

first diagnosis of the clinical encounter. Although the AHRQ PQIs use five-digit ICD-9-CM diagnosis codes, only the first three digits of the diagnoses codes were available in MEPS for this analysis. The first three digits adequately identified eight of the PQIs: congestive heart failure, hypertension, angina, asthma, COPD or asthma diagnosed at age > 40 years, bacterial pneumonia, dehydration, and urinary tract infection. The remaining three PQIs, uncontrolled diabetes, short-term diabetes complications, and long-term diabetes complications, were combined as a “diabetes complications” category, which was identified using the ICD-9-CM codes corresponding to the diabetes complication categories in the Clinical Classification Software (CCS).<sup>25</sup>

We specified multiple linear regression models that incorporated the study’s covariates to predict the adjusted mean payments and charges for ACSC visits by clinical setting. We used six separate multiple linear regression models to estimate the adjusted means of: 1) total payments, 2) physician payments, 3) facility payments, 4) total charges, 5) physician charges, and 6) facility charges.

In addition to the cumulative analysis for all ACSC visits, we specified multiple linear regression models for ACSC visits by acute and chronic conditions. For each acuity category, an additional six separate multiple linear regression models were used to estimate the adjusted mean total payments/charges, physician payments/charges, and facility payments/charges. Acute ACSC visits were defined as visits for bacterial pneumonia (PQI11), dehydration (PQI10), or urinary tract infections (PQI12). Chronic ACSC visits were defined as visits for diabetes complications (PQI14, PQI1, and PQI3), congestive heart failure (PQI18), hypertension (PQI7), angina (PQI13), asthma (PQI15), or COPD or asthma diagnosed at age ≥ 40 years (PQI5). A total of 18 multiple linear regression models were used to conduct the study’s analyses. Multiple linear regression models were also specified for non-ACSC visits to provide a context for the ACSC visit results, and evaluate whether patterns were unique to ACSC encounters, which is provided in Data Supplement S1.

All multiple linear regression analyses used the sampling weights, strata, and primary sampling units provided by MEPS to account for the stratified multistage sampling design of the MEPS survey. Pearson correlations between the outcome measures and the independent variables, including covariates, were all statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). The Pearson correlation between the most common ACSC, hypertension (PQI7), and clinical setting was evaluated to test for coding disparities and determined to have no statistical association with clinical setting ( $p = 0.12$ ). Chi-square and Student’s *t*-tests were used to test proportional differences in demographic factors by clinical setting. We used SAS version 9.3 for the statistical analyses.

## RESULTS

### Characteristics of Clinical Encounters

Among the clinical settings, 2.4% of ED, 0.03% of outpatient, and 0% of inpatient encounters had charges of \$0. The ED had the highest proportion of visits unreimbursed, with 13.3% of ED, 6.7% of outpatient,

and 4.8% of inpatient encounters having payments of \$0. ACSC visits comprised 7.9% of all clinical encounters. Of all ACSC visits, 41% were outpatient visits, 36% were ED visits, and 23% were hospital admissions. All descriptive characteristics had significant proportional differences among comparisons across clinical settings. Of note, ED encounters had a larger proportion of uninsured (8.8%), compared to outpatient (5.2%) and inpatient (4.4%) encounters (Table 1).

All characteristics had significant proportional differences for comparisons among ACSC visit types. Chronic ACSC visits had a higher proportion of individuals with Charlson-Deyo scores  $\geq 3$  (24.0%) compared to acute ACSC visits (18.1%). Additionally, a larger proportion of acute ACSC visits took place in the ED setting (47.3%) compared to chronic ACSC visits (30.5%), while a larger proportion of chronic ACSC visits took place in the outpatient setting (49.2%), compared to acute ACSC visits (22.7%; Table 2).

### ACSC Visits

For all ACSC visits, the adjusted mean total payment provided for ED encounters (\$859, 95% confidence

interval [CI] = \$818 to \$901) was 2.5 times higher than for outpatient encounters (\$341, 95% CI = \$295 to \$388), and the adjusted mean total payment for inpatient encounters (\$4,325, 95% CI = \$4,265 to \$4,384) was five times higher than for ED encounters. The difference in mean total payments between ED and outpatient encounters was \$518 (95% CI = \$479 to \$557), of which 85% is due to differences in facility payments. The difference in mean total payments between inpatient and ED encounters was \$3,465 (95% CI = \$3,413 to \$3,518), with 83% of the disparity also accounted for by differences in facility payments (Table 3, Figure 1).

Charges for ACSC encounters among the various clinical settings also demonstrated extensive differences. For all ACSC visits, the adjusted mean total charge for ED encounters (\$2,563, 95% CI = \$2,459 to \$2,667) was two times higher than that for outpatient encounters (\$1,084, 95% CI = \$976 to \$1,193), and the adjusted mean total charge for inpatient encounters (\$11,414, 95% CI = \$11,257 to \$11,572) was four times higher than that for ED encounters. The mean difference in charges between ED and outpatient encounters was \$1,479 (95% CI = \$1,395 to \$1,562), of which 83% was

Table 1  
Descriptive Characteristics of ACSC Adult Visits By Clinical Setting: Medical Expenditure Panel Survey, 2005–2010

Characteristic	All ACSC Visits (n = 7,465)	Outpatient Clinic Visit (n = 3,068)	ED Visit (n = 2,660)	Hospital Admission (n = 1,737)
% All visits [non-ACSC + ACSC]	7.9	3.2	2.8	1.8
% ACSC visits	100.0	41.1	35.6	23.3
Age (yr), mean ( $\pm$ SD)*	58.6 ( $\pm$ 18.0)	61.3 ( $\pm$ 15.5)	52.6 ( $\pm$ 19.8)	63.0 ( $\pm$ 16.8)
Sex (%)*				
Female	63.0	58.7	68.8	61.7
Male	37.0	41.3	31.2	38.3
Race/ethnicity (%)*				
White, non-Hispanic	54.5	60.4	47.1	55.6
African American	16.2	14.1	19.2	15.3
Hispanic	24.1	20.2	28.2	24.7
Other	5.1	5.2	5.5	4.4
Income (%)*				
\$0–\$9,999	36.9	33.9	38.9	39.2
\$10,000–\$29,999	40.6	38.7	40.6	44.1
\$30,000–\$49,999	13.3	15.4	12.6	10.7
>\$50,000	9.1	12.0	7.9	6.0
Insurance status (%)*				
Uninsured	6.3	5.2	8.8	4.4
Medicaid	17.3	15.0	21.4	15.0
Medicare	50.6	53.2	39.5	62.9
Private	25.8	26.6	30.3	17.6
Charlson-Deyo score (%)*				
0	23.7	25.6	27.3	14.9
1	34.0	32.6	37.7	30.8
2	20.1	21.0	18.0	21.8
$\geq 3$	22.2	20.8	17.0	32.6
Region (%)*				
Northeast	20.1	27.2	14.6	15.9
Midwest	24.5	28.1	22.1	21.8
South	37.5	29.5	41.7	45.2
West	18.0	15.3	21.6	17.1
Metropolitan statistical area (%)*				
Yes	79.2	80.0	81.1	75.0
No	20.8	20.0	18.9	25.0

p-values from the chi-square statistic for sex, race/ethnicity, income, insurance status, Charlson-Deyo score, geographic region, and metropolitan statistical area and from the t-statistic for age  
ACSC = ambulatory care sensitive conditions

\*p < 0.05 for comparisons across outpatient, ED, and hospital admission groups.

Table 2  
Descriptive Characteristics of Adult Visits By ACSC Type: Medical Expenditure Panel Survey, 2005–2010

Characteristic	Acute ACSC Visit (n = 2,291)	Chronic ACSC Visit (n = 5,174)
Clinical setting*		
% Outpatient	22.7	49.2
% ED	47.3	30.5
% Inpatient	29.9	20.3
Age (yr), mean ( $\pm$ SD)*	56.9 ( $\pm$ 20.3)	59.3 ( $\pm$ 16.9)
Sex (%)*		
Female	67.5	61.0
Male	32.5	39.0
Race/ethnicity (%)*		
White, non-Hispanic	61.7	51.4
African American	15.5	16.5
Hispanic	16.8	27.3
Other	6.0	4.7
Income (%)*		
\$0–\$9,999	35.8	37.4
\$10,000–\$29,999	40.3	40.8
\$30,000–\$49,999	15.4	12.4
>\$50,000	8.5	9.4
Insurance status (%)*		
Uninsured	6.2	6.4
Medicaid	16.1	17.8
Medicare	48.9	51.3
Private	28.9	24.5
Charlson-Deyo score (%)*		
0	39.8	16.6
1	25.6	37.7
2	16.5	21.7
$\geq$ 3	18.1	24.0
Region (%)*		
Northeast	14.5	22.5
Midwest	26.4	23.6
South	36.8	37.8
West	22.3	16.0
Metropolitan statistical area (%)*		
Yes	75.2	81.0
No	24.8	19.0
p-values from the chi-square statistic for sex, race/ethnicity, income, insurance status, Charlson-Deyo Score, geographic region, and metropolitan statistical area and from the t-statistic for age.		
*p < 0.05 for comparisons between the acute and chronic groups.		
ACSC = ambulatory care sensitive conditions.		

due to differences in facility charges. The mean difference in charges between inpatient and ED encounters was \$8,851 (95% CI = \$8,711 to \$8,991), with 79% of the disparity also accounted for by differences in facility charges (Table 4, Figure 1).

Similar to ACSC visits, non-ACSC visits had 93% to 94% of the payment and charge differences between ED and outpatient encounters accounted for by facility fees. Also, 77% to 81% of the payment and charge disparity between inpatient and ED non-ACSC encounters was attributable to facility fees (Data Supplement S2).

#### Acute and Chronic ACSC Visits

Chronic ACSC visits incurred fewer charges and payments across all clinical settings compared to acute ACSC visits. Specifically, chronic ACSC visits in the ED setting were associated with payments of \$751 (95% CI = \$694 to \$809), while acute ACSC visits received

payments of \$1,019 (95% CI = \$951 to \$1,088). Additionally, charges incurred for chronic ACSC visits in the ED were \$2,408 (95% CI = \$2,274 to \$2,542), while acute ACSC charges were \$2,895 (95% CI = \$2,715 to \$3,076; Tables 3 and 4).

## DISCUSSION

With the nationwide focus on curtailing the growth of health care costs, there has been increased attention on identifying areas where the value of health care can be improved by reducing costs without compromising quality. In this study, we examined the financial side of the value equation and found dramatic, manyfold differences in charges and payments for ACSCs seen in three hospital-based settings: outpatient, ED, and inpatient. It was not our intention to suggest that all or even a large proportion of ACSC encounters are directly substitutable across settings in a 1:1 manner. Outpatient, ED, and inpatient settings have different focuses and resources, and we were not able to adequately adjust for several factors specific to the setting, such as the acuity of illness, referrals, or other choices that may have guided decision-making about the management of any specific ACSC encounter. Moreover, the prevention of ACSC encounters in higher-intensity settings is reliant on community health interventions early in the course of a patient's medical care, prior to the onset of the acute care episode.

However, comparing payments and charges across the three settings does highlight the manyfold differences that hospitals charge and are ultimately paid for potentially preventable encounters. It demonstrates the potential savings that could be accrued from preventing encounters in hospital-based settings. It also serves to focus attention on where policy interventions that aim to reduce spending related to ACSC encounters may have the greatest effect. There has been considerable attention on reducing ED encounters.<sup>14,26,27</sup> Our study suggests, however, that the greatest savings may be generated by minimizing inpatient encounters. Comparing ED to outpatient encounters, ED ACSC visits resulted in twofold higher payments. Comparing inpatient to ED ACSC visits, the inpatient setting resulted in payments that were fivefold higher than the ED setting. Also, considering the magnitude of the payment for an average inpatient visit (\$4,000), and the fact that hospitalizations currently make up the highest proportion of national health expenditures,<sup>28</sup> focus on these payments seems like a clear target for savings. In addition, given that recent studies have identified great variation at the hospital level and physician level in the ED regarding the decision to admit or discharge, replacing ACSC hospital admissions with ED-only encounters may be feasible.<sup>29,30</sup> A recent study by the Rand Corporation demonstrated that EDs may already be playing a constructive role in minimizing ACSC hospital admissions.<sup>31</sup> While nonelective admissions from the ED have been increasing at a rate of 27%, EDs curtailed the rate of ACSC admissions, with an increase of 13% during the same time period.<sup>31</sup>

There are several potential approaches to realize the savings from minimizing avoidable inpatient encounters.

Table 3  
Payments for ACSC Adult Visits by Clinical Setting: Medical Expenditure Panel Survey, 2005–2010

Setting	Outpatient Clinic Visit (n = 3,068)			ED Visit (n = 2,660)			Hospital Admission (n = 1,737)			Outpatient vs. ED			ED vs. Hospital Admission		
	Adjusted Means	95% CI		Adjusted Means	95% CI		Adjusted Means	95% CI		Mean Difference	95% CI		Mean Difference	95% CI	
All ACSCs (n = 7,465)															
Total payments	\$341	(295–388)		\$859	(818–901)		\$4,325	(4265–4384)		\$518	(479–557)		\$3,465	(3413–3518)	
Physician payments	\$46	(39–54)		\$117	(110–124)		\$446	(435–457)		\$71	(65–77)		\$329	(320–338)	
Facility payments	\$280	(238–321)		\$721	(683–759)		\$3,603	(3550–3656)		\$441	(406–477)		\$2,882	(2834–2930)	
Acute ACSCs (n = 2,291); PQI10, PQI11, PQI12															
Total payments	\$485	(408–561)		\$1,019	(951–1088)		\$4,435	(4363–4508)		\$835	(473–597)		\$3,416	(3343–3489)	
Physician payments	\$68	(56–79)		\$119	(109–128)		\$451	(439–463)		\$51	(42–60)		\$332	(319–345)	
Facility payments	\$401	(332–470)		\$878	(816–941)		\$3,700	(3628–3771)		\$478	(423–532)		\$2,821	(2753–2890)	
Chronic ACSCs (n = 5,174); PQI1, PQI3, PQI14, PQI5, PQI7, PQI8, PQI13, PQI15															
Total payments	\$299	(245–349)		\$751	(694–809)		\$4,248	(4169–4327)		\$455	(412–497)		\$3,496	(3437–3556)	
Physician payments	\$40	(31–49)		\$117	(108–126)		\$443	(430–456)		\$77	(70–83)		\$326	(314–337)	
Facility payments	\$240	(194–286)		\$617	(565–669)		\$3,539	(3473–3605)		\$376	(337–416)		\$2,922	(2871–2973)	

All amounts adjusted to 2010 U.S. dollars.

All means are adjusted for age, sex, race/ethnicity, insurance coverage, income, region, metropolitan statistical area, Charlson-Deyo score, and survey year.  
ACSC = ambulatory care sensitive conditions; PQI = prevention quality indicators.

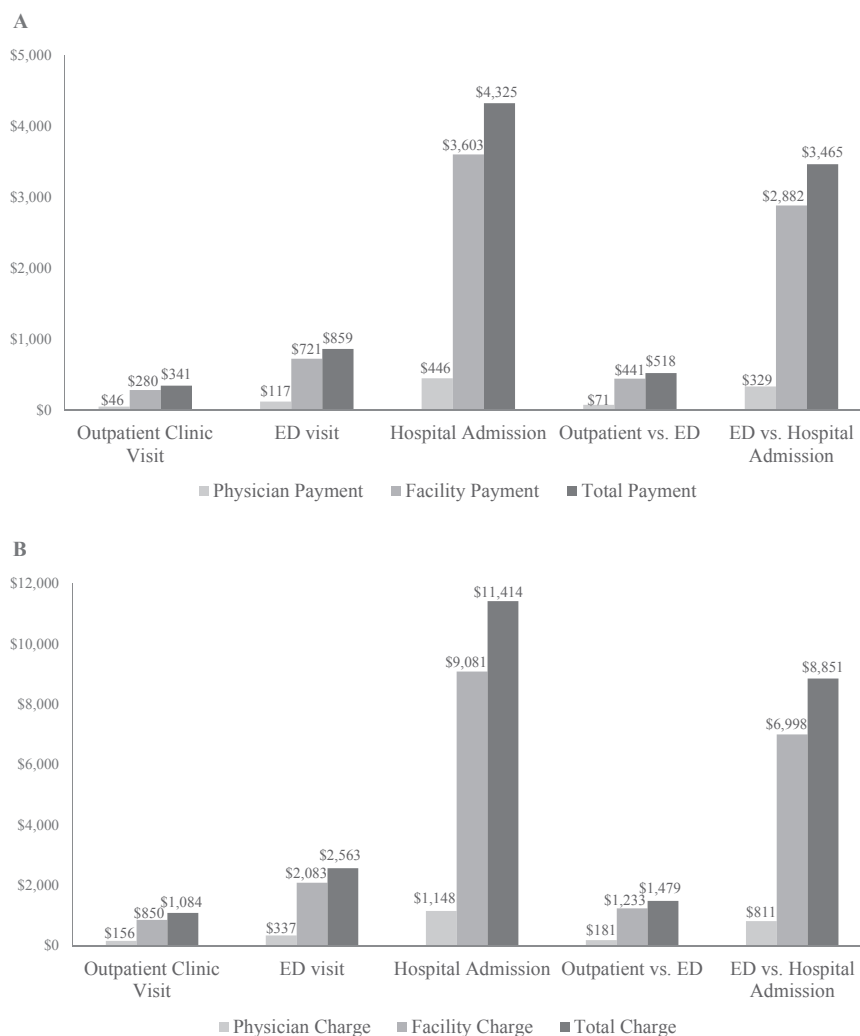
First, spending on inpatient care for ACSCs can be prevented with a push for improved primary care. Measures to strengthen the primary care of communities face a significant challenge, which is the national shortage of 25,000 primary care physicians and a projected deficit of 45,000 primary care physicians by 2020.<sup>5</sup> Despite primary care shortages, integrated health care delivery systems, such as Kaiser Permanente and pioneer accountable care organizations, have demonstrated promising results in creating safe alternatives to admission through enhancements in outpatient resources and effective systems with which clinicians can interface.<sup>32,33</sup> A second approach to minimize avoidable inpatient encounters is setting substitution for admissions. Observation units in EDs can provide a less resource-intensive setting for some short-term hospital stays. A recent study estimates that observation units have the potential to prevent 2.4 million avoidable inpatient encounters annually, translating to \$3.1 billion in health care cost savings per year.<sup>34</sup> However, observation stays can shift a greater proportion of the cost to patients, resulting in higher out-of-pocket payments.<sup>35,36</sup> Another option could be to improve connections between EDs and outpatient clinics to ensure follow-up for moderate risk encounters.<sup>37</sup> However, this would involve securing close follow-up, which can be challenging in many populations, particularly Medicaid patients and those without insurance. Additionally, pushing for ED discharges rather than admissions for many ACSCs will need to be carefully monitored, as some moderate-risk patients may be appropriate for outpatient management but could also experience complications if outpatient plans of care are unsuccessful.

Another important finding in this study is that facility fees, not physician fees, are the principle source for the charge and payment disparities seen across clinical settings, accounting for the greatest portion of the hospital payment (81% to 93%). Facility fees will be an important area for increased cost-efficiency, since they are driving the extensive spending differences for hospital-based encounters. Recently, the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS) changed its reimbursement structure for hospital-based outpatient visits to provide a flat rate for facility fees, which does not account for the level of services provided.<sup>38</sup> CMS is researching the use of this fixed-payment model for ED encounters to further minimize expense on facility fees.<sup>38,39</sup> A reduction in the facility fee variation that has been noted on the local level<sup>40,41</sup> may minimize expensive outliers and help constrain the increase in costs associated with higher-intensity settings.

## LIMITATIONS

This study was conducted at the visit level. There is a systematic undercounting of the national frequency of clinical encounters in the MEPS data set, particularly for ED encounters, because MEPS is a household-based survey that requires respondents to recall medical events.<sup>42</sup> For this reason, adjustments to the data cannot be made to account for visit frequencies by setting and examine total national payments and charges. Second, this study used the first reported ICD-9-CM codes,





**Figure 1.** Mean payments (A) and mean charges (B) for adult visits by clinical setting from the Medical Expenditure Panel Survey, 2005–2010. Payments and charges are adjusted for age, sex, race/ethnicity, insurance coverage, income, region, metropolitan statistical area, Charlson-Deyo score, and survey year.

which are likely to reflect the primary diagnosis and reason for the encounter. However, there may be records in MEPS in which the first diagnosis code does not accurately represent the primary diagnosis. Additionally, PQIs are based on the discharge diagnosis of the encounter, which has been demonstrated to not always correlate with the patient's reason for the encounter.<sup>43</sup> Third, the Charlson-Deyo score used for risk adjustment is based on household-reported medical conditions, which may be subject to recall bias. The comorbidity score is also subject to surveillance bias, such that hospitalized patients are likely to have more comorbid conditions. The adjustment of higher comorbidity scores among inpatient encounters yields more conservative inpatient cost estimates. Fourth, because MEPS data are derived from household surveys, individuals who died or are too disabled to respond to the survey may be under-represented in the sample; this group typically uses a significant amount of health care resources. Fifth, encounters with charges or payments of \$0 were excluded in this study, including cases of bad debt or charity care that are still associated with economic costs due to the utilization of health care resources.<sup>44</sup>

It is also important to note that PQIs have not been validated against medical records and therefore are not able to directly assess the appropriateness or preventability of clinical encounters. PQIs were originally devised as a measure of county-level hospitalization rates, which reflect the need for improvements in community health systems.<sup>45</sup> Also, the use of the consumer price index to adjust for inflation may underestimate the inflation of health care costs, which has historically outpaced inflation across the overall economy.<sup>46</sup> Additionally, this study does not take into account the quality of care provided in the clinical encounters. Varying acuity levels of the same condition will have different needs with regards to the intensity of services provided, and the quality of care may suffer if an ACSC encounter is not managed in a clinical setting appropriate for its acuity.

Another limitation of this study is that its inpatient group includes admissions classified as observation and inpatient status. This is because MEPS does not differentiate observation status hospitalizations. Short inpatient stays have been reported to incur greater total payments than comparable observation stays,<sup>35</sup> and so

Table 4  
Charges for ACSC Adult Visits by Clinical Setting: Medical Expenditure Panel Survey, 2005–2010

Charges	Outpatient Clinic Visit (n = 3,068)		ED Visit (n = 2,660)		Hospital Admission (n = 1,737)		Outpatient vs. ED		ED vs. Hospital Admission	
	Adjusted Means	95% CI	Adjusted Means	95% CI	Adjusted Means	95% CI	Mean Difference	95% CI	Mean Difference	95% CI
All ACSCs (n = 7,465)										
Total charges	\$1,084	(976–1,193)	\$2,563	(2,459–2,667)	\$11,414	(11,257–11,572)	\$1,479	(1,395–1,562)	\$8,851	(8,711–8,991)
Physician charges	\$156	(138–174)	\$337	(320–355)	\$1,148	(1,121–1,175)	\$181	(168–194)	\$811	(789–832)
Facility charges	\$950	(763–937)	\$2,083	(1,996–2,169)	\$9,081	(8,951–9,211)	\$1,233	(1,165–1,300)	\$6,998	(6,885–7,112)
Acute ACSCs (n = 2,291)										
Total charges	\$1,698	(1,507–1,889)	\$2,895	(2,715–3,076)	\$11,788	(11,594–11,982)	\$1,197	(1,050–1,344)	\$8,892	(8,699–9,086)
Physician charges	\$233	(201–266)	\$357	(331–382)	\$1,173	(1,140–1,205)	\$123	(98–149)	\$816	(783–849)
Facility charges	\$1,331	(1,169–1,492)	\$2,391	(2,233–2,549)	\$9,393	(9,231–9,555)	\$1,060	(943–1,178)	\$7,002	(6,848–7,157)
Chronic ACSCs (n = 5,174)										
Total charges	\$953	(833–1,073)	\$2,408	(2,274–2,542)	\$11,199	(10,982–11,416)	\$1,455	(1,364–1,546)	\$8,791	(8,617–8,964)
Physician charges	\$136	(116–157)	\$331	(309–352)	\$1,136	(1,101–1,171)	\$194	(181–208)	\$805	(778–832)
Facility charges	\$740	(646–835)	\$1,931	(1,823–2,040)	\$8,904	(8,727–9,081)	\$1,191	(1,115–1,268)	\$6,973	(6,832–7,114)

All means are adjusted for age, sex, race/ethnicity, insurance coverage, income, region, metropolitan statistical area, Charlson-Deyo score, and survey year.

All amounts adjusted to 2010 U.S. dollars.

ACSC = ambulatory care sensitive conditions; PQI = prevention quality indicators.

our study results likely underestimate inpatient costs that exclude observations.

This study used a national data set to make aggregate charge and payment comparisons across the nation. Variations exist in payments and charges on the state and local levels.<sup>47</sup> Local market variations in payments and charges would widen confidence intervals of the mean and likely increase mean payments and charges due to high-cost outliers. Also, there may be differences in the patterns of payments and charges for clinical encounters at the extremes of the distribution.

## CONCLUSIONS

As efforts are mobilized to meet ambulatory care sensitive conditions quality measures, it is important to recognize that the cost savings of minimizing these encounters will ultimately be constrained by its prevalence, with ambulatory care sensitive conditions comprising one out of 10 hospital admissions.<sup>48</sup> Nonetheless, interventions that bolster community health resources may realize substantial cost savings by preventing ambulatory care sensitive conditions visits in higher-intensity settings, and the prevention of ambulatory care sensitive conditions hospital admissions would provide the most extensive reduction in costs on a per-visit basis. In addition, facility fees are the major contributor for the cost differences seen among different clinical settings, and research of strategies that minimize facility fees will become increasingly important as the demand for cost efficiency heightens with health care reform.

We thank Steven Machlin, Director of the Division of Statistical Research and Methods for MEPS at the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, for his helpful contributions to the preparation of the manuscript. We also thank Irene Fraser and the quality improvement team of the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality for their comments, which have helped improve the manuscript.

## References

1. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Strategic Plan: Fiscal Years 2010 – 2015. Available at: [http://www.hhs.gov/secretary/about/stratplan\\_fy2010-15.pdf](http://www.hhs.gov/secretary/about/stratplan_fy2010-15.pdf). Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
2. Mehrotra A, Liu H, Adams JL, et al. Comparing costs and quality of care at retail clinics with that of other medical settings for 3 common illnesses. *Ann Intern Med* 2009;151:321–8.
3. Campbell SG, Patrick W, Urquhart DG, et al. Patients with community acquired pneumonia discharged from the emergency department according to a clinical practice guideline. *Emerg Med J* 2004;21:667–9.
4. Kessler CS, Joudeh Y. Evaluation and treatment of severe asymptomatic hypertension. *Am Fam Physician* 2010;81:470–6.
5. Association of American Medical Colleges. Physician Shortages to Worsen Without Increases in Residency Training. Available at: <https://www.aamc.org/download/286592/data/>. Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
6. Salsberg E, Grover A. Physician workforce shortages: implications and issues for academic health centers and policymakers. *Acad Med* 2006;81:782–7.

7. Colwill JM, Cultice JM, Kruse RL. Will generalist physician supply meet demands of an increasing and aging population? *Health Aff (Millwood)* 2008;27:w232–41.
8. Pitts SR, Carrier ER, Rich EC, et al. Where Americans get acute care: increasingly, it's not at their doctor's office. *Health Aff (Millwood)* 2010;29:1620–9.
9. Shipman SA, Sinsky CA. Expanding primary care capacity by reducing waste and improving the efficiency of care. *Health Aff (Millwood)* 2013;32:1990–7.
10. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. Prevention Quality Indicators Overview. Available at: [http://qualityindicators.ahrq.gov/Modules/pqi\\_resources.aspx](http://qualityindicators.ahrq.gov/Modules/pqi_resources.aspx). Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
11. Jiang H, Russo C, Barrett M. Nationwide Frequency and Costs of Potentially Preventable Hospitalizations, 2006. Available at: <http://www.hcup-us.ahrq.gov/reports/statbriefs/sb72.pdf>. Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
12. New England Healthcare Institute. Decreasing Hospital Admissions for Ambulatory Care Sensitive Conditions: A \$31 Billion Opportunity. Available at: [http://www.nehi.net/bendthecurve/sup/documents/ACSC\\_Brief.pdf](http://www.nehi.net/bendthecurve/sup/documents/ACSC_Brief.pdf). Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
13. Yoon J, Yano EM, Altman L, et al. Reducing costs of acute care for ambulatory care-sensitive medical conditions: the central roles of comorbid mental illness. *Med Care* 2012;50:705–13.
14. McWilliams A, Tapp H, Barker J, et al. Cost analysis of the use of emergency departments for primary care services in Charlotte, North Carolina. *N C Med J* 2011;72:265–71.
15. Medicare Payment Advisory Commission. Hospital Inpatient and Outpatient Services. In: Report to the Congress: Medicare Payment Policy. Available at: [http://www.medpac.gov/documents/reports/mar14\\_ch03.pdf?sfvrsn=0](http://www.medpac.gov/documents/reports/mar14_ch03.pdf?sfvrsn=0). Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
16. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. Design and Methods of the Medical Expenditure Panel Survey Household Component. Available at: [http://meps.ahrq.gov/data\\_files/publications/mr1/mr1.pdf](http://meps.ahrq.gov/data_files/publications/mr1/mr1.pdf). Accessed Nov 9, 2014.
17. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. MEPS HC-135E: 2010 Emergency Room Visits. Available at: [http://meps.ahrq.gov/mepsweb/data\\_stats/download\\_data/pufs/h135e/h135edoc.pdf](http://meps.ahrq.gov/mepsweb/data_stats/download_data/pufs/h135e/h135edoc.pdf). Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
18. Yu WW, Machlin S. Examination of Skewed Health Expenditure Data From the Medical Expenditure Panel Survey (MEPS). Available at: [http://meps.ahrq.gov/mepsweb/data\\_files/publications/working-papers/wp\\_04002.pdf](http://meps.ahrq.gov/mepsweb/data_files/publications/working-papers/wp_04002.pdf). Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
19. Johnson PJ, Ghildayal N, Ward AC, et al. Disparities in potentially avoidable emergency department (ED) care: ED visits for ambulatory care sensitive conditions. *Med Care* 2012;50:1020–8.
20. Deyo RA, Cherkin DC, Ciol MA. Adapting a clinical comorbidity index for use with ICD-9-CM administrative databases. *J Clin Epidemiol* 1992;45:613–9.
21. Cleves MA, Sanchez N, Draheim M. Evaluation of two competing methods for calculating Charlson's comorbidity index when analyzing short-term mortality using administrative data. *J Clin Epidemiol* 1997;50:903–8.
22. Schneeweiss S, Seeger JD, Maclure M, et al. Performance of comorbidity scores to control for confounding in epidemiologic studies using claims data. *Am J Epidemiol* 2001;154:854–64.
23. Zhang JX, Iwashyna TJ, Christakis NA. The performance of different lookback periods and sources of information for Charlson comorbidity adjustment in Medicare claims. *Med Care* 1999;37:1128–39.
24. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. Prevention Quality Indicators Technical Specifications - Version 4.5. Available at: [http://qualityindicators.ahrq.gov/Modules/PQI\\_TechSpec.aspx](http://qualityindicators.ahrq.gov/Modules/PQI_TechSpec.aspx). Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
25. Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project. Clinical Classifications Software (CCS) for ICD-9-CM. Available at: [www.hcup-us.ahrq.gov/toolssoftware/ccs/ccs.jsp](http://www.hcup-us.ahrq.gov/toolssoftware/ccs/ccs.jsp). Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
26. Baker LC, Baker LS. Excess cost of emergency department visits for nonurgent care. *Health Aff (Millwood)* 1994;13:162–71.
27. Weinick RM, Burns RM, Mehrotra A. Many emergency department visits could be managed at urgent care centers and retail clinics. *Health Aff (Millwood)* 2010;29:1630–6.
28. Hartman M, Martin AB, Benson J, et al. National health spending in 2011: overall growth remains low, but some payers and services show signs of acceleration. *Health Aff (Millwood)* 2013;32:87–99.
29. Pines JM, Mutter RL, Zocchi MS. Variation in emergency department admission rates across the United States. *Med Care Res Rev* 2013;70:218–31.
30. Abualenain J, Frohna WJ, Shesser R, et al. Emergency department physician-level and hospital-level variation in admission rates. *Ann Emerg Med* 2013;61:638–43.
31. Morganti KG, Bauhoff S, Blanchard J, et al. The Evolving Role of Emergency Departments in the United States. Available at: [http://www.rand.org/content/dam/rand/pubs/research\\_reports/RR200/RR280/RAND\\_RR280.pdf](http://www.rand.org/content/dam/rand/pubs/research_reports/RR200/RR280/RAND_RR280.pdf). Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
32. McCulloch A. Health Care Reform—An Integrated Health Care Delivery System Perspective. Available at: [www.willamette.com/insights\\_journal/13/winter\\_2013\\_5.pdf](http://www.willamette.com/insights_journal/13/winter_2013_5.pdf). Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
33. Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services. Pioneer ACO Model. Available at: <http://innovation.cms.gov/initiatives/Pioneer-ACO-Model/>. Accessed August Oct 29, 2014.
34. Baugh CW, Venkatesh AK, Hilton JA, et al. Making greater use of dedicated hospital observation units for many short-stay patients could save \$3.1 billion a year. *Health Aff (Millwood)* 2012;31:2314–23.
35. Wright S. Hospitals' Use of Observation Stays and Short Inpatient Stays for Medicare Beneficiaries. Available at: <https://oig.hhs.gov/oei/reports/oei-02-12-00040.asp>. Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
36. Hockenberry JM, Mutter R, Barrett M, et al. Factors associated with prolonged observation services stays and the impact of long stays on patient cost. *Health Serv Res* 2014;49:893–909.
37. Schuur JD, Baugh CW, Hess EP, et al. Critical pathways for post-emergency outpatient diagnosis and

- treatment: tools to improve the value of emergency care. *Acad Emerg Med* 2011;18:e52–63.
38. The Advisory Board Company. CMS to Pay Flat Rate for Hospital Outpatient Clinic Visits—Regardless of Severity. Available at: <http://www.advisory.com/daily-briefing/2013/12/02/cms-to-pay-flat-rate-for-all-outpatient-visits-regardless-of-severity>. Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
  39. Schulte F. Feds Propose Shakeup for Emergency Room Billing: New Rule That Would Standardize ER ‘Facility’ Fees May Be Aimed at Alleged Over-billing. Available at: <http://www.publicintegrity.org/2013/09/13/13420/feds-propose-shakeup-emergency-room-billing>. Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
  40. Hsia RY, Akosa Antwi Y. Variation in Charges for Emergency Department Visits Across California. *Ann Emerg Med* 2014;64:120–6.
  41. Division of Health Care Finance and Policy. Health Care Provider Price Variation in the Massachusetts Commercial Market. Available at: <http://www.mass.gov/chia/docs/cost-trend-docs/cost-trends-docs-2012/price-variation-report-11-2012.pdf>. Accessed Nov 5, 2014.
  42. Owens PL, Barrett ML, Gibson TB, et al. Emergency department care in the United States: a profile of national data sources. *Ann Emerg Med* 2010;56:150–65.
  43. Raven MC, Lowe RA, Maselli J, et al. Comparison of presenting complaint vs discharge diagnosis for identifying “nonemergency” emergency department visits. *JAMA* 2013;309:1145–53.
  44. Stimpson JP, Li T, Shiyanbola OO, Jacobson JJ. Financial sustainability of academic health centers: identifying challenges and strategic responses. *Acad Med* 2014;89:853–7.
  45. Davies SM, McDonald KM, Schmidt E, et al. Expanding Use of the AHRQ Prevention Quality Indicators. Available at: [http://www.qualityindicators.ahrq.gov/Downloads/Modules/PQI/PQI\\_Summary\\_Report.pdf](http://www.qualityindicators.ahrq.gov/Downloads/Modules/PQI/PQI_Summary_Report.pdf). Accessed Oct 29, 2014.
  46. Ubel P. How Good Is The Good News About Healthcare Inflation? Available at: <http://www.forbes.com/sites/peterubel/2013/10/02/how-good-is-the-good-news-about-healthcare-inflation/>. Accessed Oct 9, 2014.
  47. Mays GP, Smith SA. Geographic variation in public health spending: correlates and consequences. *Health Serv Res* 2009;44(5 Pt 2):1796–817.
  48. Stranges E, Stocks C. Potentially Preventable Hospitalizations for Acute and Chronic Conditions, 2008. Available at: <http://www.hcup-us.ahrq.gov/reports/statbriefs/sb99.pdf>. Accessed Oct 29, 2014.

### Supporting Information

The following supporting information is available in the online version of this paper:

**Data Supplement S1.** Supplementary information on the Medical Expenditure Panel Survey and regression analyses results for non-ambulatory care sensitive conditions (ACSC) encounters.

**Data Supplement S2.** Charges and payments for non-ACSC adult visits by clinical setting: Medical Expenditure Panel Survey, 2005–2010.





# PennState Health

## Emergency Medicine Residency Program Director

Penn State Health Milton S. Hershey Medical Center is seeking an Emergency Medicine Residency Program Director to join our exceptional academic team located in Hershey, PA. This is an excellent opportunity to join an outstanding academic program with a national reputation and impact the lives of our future Emergency Medicine physicians.

### **What We're Offering:**

- Competitive salary and benefits
- Sign-On Bonus
- Relocation Assistance
- Leadership for Emergency Medicine Residency Program
- Comprehensive benefit and retirement options

### **What We're Seeking:**

- MD, DO, or foreign equivalent
- BC/BE by ABEM or ABOEM
- Leadership experience
- Outstanding patient care qualities
- Ability to work collaboratively within a diverse academic and clinical environment



### **FOR MORE INFORMATION PLEASE CONTACT:**

**Heather Peffley, PHR CPRP**  
Physician Recruiter  
Penn State Health

**Email:** [hpeffley@pennstatehealth.psu.edu](mailto:hpeffley@pennstatehealth.psu.edu)

**Website:** [careers.pennstatehealth.org](https://careers.pennstatehealth.org)

### **What the Area Offers:**

Located in a safe family-friendly setting, Hershey, PA, our local neighborhoods boast a reasonable cost of living whether you prefer a more suburban setting or thriving city rich in theater, arts, and culture. Known as the home of the Hershey chocolate bar, Hershey's community is rich in history and offers an abundant range of outdoor activities, arts, and diverse experiences. We're conveniently located within a short distance to major cities such as Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, NYC, Baltimore, and Washington DC.