Are Ceramic Bearings Becoming Cost-Effective for all Patients?

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3 Abstract

4 Background: The purpose of this study was to analyze whether the cost for ceramic-on-5 polyethylene (C-PE) and ceramic-on-ceramic (COC) bearings used in primary total hip arthroplasty 6 was changing over time, and if the cost differential between ceramic bearings and metal-on-7 polyethylene (M-PE) bearings was approaching the previously published tipping point for cost-8 effectiveness of \$325. Methods: A total of 245,077 elderly Medicare patients (65+) who 9 underwent primary THA between 2010 and 2015 were identified from the United States 10 Medicare 100% national administrative hospital claims database. The inpatient hospital cost, 11 calculated using cost-to-charge ratios, and hospital payment were analyzed. The differential cost 12 of C-PE and COC bearings, compared to metal-on-polyethylene (M-PE), were evaluated using 13 parametric and nonparametric models. Results: After adjustment for patient and clinical factors, 14 and the year of surgery, the mean hospital cost and payments for primary THA with a C-PE or 15 COC was within $\pm 1\%$ of the cost for primary THA with M-PE bearings (p<0.001). From the 16 nonparametric analysis, the median hospital cost was \$318-360 more for C-PE and COC than M-17 PE. The differential in median Medicare payment for THA with ceramic bearings compared to 18 M-PE was <\$100. Cost differentials were found to decrease significantly over time (p < 0.001). 19 Conclusion: Patient and clinical factors had a far greater impact on the cost of inpatient THA 20 surgery than bearing selection. Because we found that costs and cost differentials for ceramic 21 bearings were decreasing over time, and approaching the tipping point, it is likely that the cost-22 effectiveness thresholds relative to M-PE are likewise changing over time and should be 23 revisited in light of the present study.

24 Keywords: Primary total hip arthroplasty, ceramic, bearing, cost, cost-effectiveness, economics

25 Introduction

26 Ceramic-on-polyethylene (C-PE) and ceramic-on-ceramic (COC) bearings are widely 27 used around the world as alternatives to metal-on-polyethylene (M-PE) bearings in total hip 28 arthroplasty (THA) [1, 2]. Ceramic bearings have well established long-term survivorship, and 29 recent studies have reported associations between the use of ceramic bearings and reduced metal 30 release, lower risk of dislocation and decreased infection [3-10]. Clinical concerns, such as 31 fracture and squeaking of ceramic bearings have been identified [11-15], but these risks are low 32 and well appreciated today. Consequently, the utilization of ceramics in the U.S., especially with 33 C-PE bearings, increased in hip arthroplasty after the decline of metal-on-metal hips in 2010 [16, 34 17]. However, researchers have identified cost as an important factor that continues to limit 35 access to ceramic bearing technology [11, 18, 19]. 36 Although cost remains the defining issue for ceramic bearings, relatively few published 37 studies have explored this topic in detail from a health economics perspective [18, 19]. Carnes 38 and colleagues [18] developed Markov models based on data from the 2012 Premier Research 39 Database. Carnes calculated cost-effectiveness thresholds for ceramic- versus metal-on-40 polyethylene bearings that varied between \$325 and \$600, based on patient age. Wyles and 41 coworkers performed cost-benefit analyses, in which the incremental cost of a ceramic head was 42 offset by the savings associated with trunnionosis. According to Wyles' complication avoidance 43 analysis, a \$500 cost differential for ceramic heads was justifiable on a population basis. Both of

these previous cost analyses [18, 19] focused on C-PE bearings and did not consider the cost-

45 effectiveness of COC hips for the US population.

Cost data must be timely to enable the reliable cost effectiveness assessments. Based on
an analysis of cost data from up to 180 hospitals, the cost of total hip replacements has fallen

48 between 2010 and 2015, in response to cost-containment pressure in orthopaedics. The previous 49 findings from a hospital network prompted us to examine the inpatient costs and reimbursements 50 associated with ceramic bearings for primary THA in a broader context. We tested the 51 hypothesis that the cost differential of primary THA procedures with ceramic bearings, relative 52 to M-PE, decreased between 2010 and 2015 in the Medicare population. Rather than focusing on 53 the cost of an individual component, we wanted to analyze whether bearing selection impacted 54 the total cost of a procedure from the perspective of a hospital or from a payer. We sought to 55 answer the following research questions: (1) How has utilization of bearings changed over time?; 56 (2) are the costs of THA procedures with ceramic bearings changing over time?; (3) how does 57 ceramic bearing usage compare with patient, clinical, and hospital factors in the total inpatient 58 cost of THA; and (4) what is the cost differential between primary THA procedures with C-PE 59 and COC bearings as compared with M-PE?

60

61 Methods

62 We used the Medicare 100% inpatient analytical dataset for hospital stays to identify 63 245,077 primary THA patients between January 1, 2010, and September 31, 2015 (Table 1). The 64 international Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification (ICD-9-CM: 65 81.53) procedure code was used to identify primary THA patients. Our focus was to investigate 66 costs as a function of bearing surface used in the primary THA, which was identified in the 67 primary THA claim record using an ICD-9-CM code of 00.74 (metal-on-polyethylene, M-PE); 68 00.76 (ceramic-on-ceramic, COC); and 00.77 (ceramic-on-polyethylene, C-PE). We applied the 69 same exclusion criteria as in our previous ceramic bearing studies [8, 10]. Specifically, we 70 excluded patients <65y old; those enrolled in a health maintenance organization (HMO); and

those living outside of the 50 states. A one-year pre-THA enrollment was also required to
compile health status and comorbidities prior to patients presenting themselves for primary THA.
According to the cost analysis of Carnes et al. [18], the Medicare population we selected for the
current study, being all greater than 65 years, would have an expected cost-effectiveness
threshold of less than \$600 for a ceramic vs. metal head. A small subset of the study population
(7.4%, Table 1), was greater than 85 years, and would have an expected cost-effectiveness
threshold of \$325 [18], according to Carnes and coworkers.

78 Propensity scores were developed to adjust for selection bias in the choice of bearing type 79 for primary THA surgery [8, 10]. A propensity score calculates a patient's chance of receiving a 80 C-PE or COC implant, given certain patient and hospital factors. The propensity score was 81 calculated for each patient using the following predictors: age, sex, region, race, Medicare buy-in 82 (a proxy for socioeconomic status), Charlson comorbidity score, surgery calendar year, length of 83 stay, hospital charge amount, hospital and surgeon joint replacement volume, hospital location 84 (urban/rural), hospital type (e.g., public, private), size of hospital, diabetes, heart disease, obesity 85 and two-way interactions among age, sex, race, Charlson score, hospital size, and hospital type. 86 Separate scores were calculated for patients receiving C-PE and COC implants.

We used hospital costs and payments as economic outcomes of our analysis, reflecting differing hospital and CMS perspectives. The Medicare dataset includes the aggregate inpatient charges as well as their payments received from CMS for the primary THA procedure. Hospital costs were calculated from charges using a publicly available, hospital-specific cost-to-charge ratio, which reflects their institutional overhead. Cost-to-charge data for hospitals were determined using the Medicare hospital cost reports published annually online by CMS. Costs

were inflation adjusted to January 2017 USD using the medical service component of the
consumer price index published monthly by the US Bureau of Labor Statistics.

95 The hospital cost and payment data were analyzed using parametric and nonparametric 96 statistical methods to determine the cost-differential between procedures incorporating C-PE vs 97 M-PE bearings or COC vs M-PE bearings. For each economic outcome, separate models were 98 constructed to compare C-PE with M-PE and COC with M-PE. Because the cost and payment 99 data were not normally distributed, in parametric models, the cost data were fitted using a 100 gamma distribution. The nonparametric models, on the other hand, did not rely upon any 101 assumed distribution of the cost data. Together, the two modeling approaches provided 102 complementary perspectives on the cost differential for THA procedures with ceramic bearings 103 relative to M-PE.

104 For the parametric approach, the cost differential was modeled as a ratio in a general 105 linear model in which the year, as well as patient, clinical, and hospital factors, were treated as 106 covariates. Propensity score weighting was incorporated into the general linear model regression 107 model, along with the main study variables: bearing type (C-PE, COC, or M-PE); as well as the 108 following potential confounding variables: patient age; sex; race; resident census region; patient 109 diagnosis of diabetes, heart disease or obesity; patient Charlson comorbidity index; hospital type, 110 location, and size; hospital procedure volume; surgeon procedure volume; total hospital charges; 111 length of stay; Medicare buy-in; operating room charges; and surgery calendar year. For the 112 parametric analysis, the outcome was the cost differential, expressed as a ratio of the conditional 113 mean costs between ceramic bearing surface and conventional bearing surface or between other 114 comparison groups (e.g., male vs female).

115	For the nonparametric approach, we used the quantile regression method to examine
116	difference in the median difference in costs between THA procedures with C-PE or COC
117	bearings and M-PE bearings. The nonparametric quantile regression approach does not involve
118	logarithmic transformation, and the cost differences were determined in the original (dollar) unit.
119	Expressing the cost differentials both as a ratio (for the parametric approach) as well as in actual
120	arithmetic difference (for the nonparametric approach) allows the absolute US\$ magnitude of the
121	difference to be better appreciated. All statistical analyses were performed using SAS statistical
122	software (Version 9.4, Cary, NC).
123	
124	Results
125	C-PE procedures increased between 2010-2015 while the number of COC or M-PE
126	procedures was relatively unchanged (Table 1). Of the primary THA surgeries considered in this
127	study, 6,058 patients received C-PE bearings in 2010 (representing 19.0% of the study
128	population), whereas 19,684 patients (46.1%) received C-PE bearings in Q1-Q3 2015. The
129	majority of patients receiving C-PE and COC implants for their primary surgery belonged to the
130	youngest cohort; the 65-69 year-old cohort constituted 40.9% of C-PE and 37.0% of COC
131	implants while constituting only 25.5% of M-PE (Table 1). The incidence of COC ranged
132	between 1.6% and 2.6% of the study population. M-PE, on the other hand, declined in incidence
133	from 78.4% to 51.8% of the study population between 2010 and 2015. More than half of the
134	patients considered in this study had Charlson scores of zero while different bearing types were
135	equally utilized within each Charlson score cohort. For each bearing type, the majority of
136	patients were white and did not receive Medicare buy-in. Urban and teaching hospitals

performed the majority of primary THA surgeries for all bearing types while public hospitals hadthe least amount of primary THA surgeries.

139 The hospital cost and the hospital payment decreased every year between 2010 and 2015 140 for all bearing types (Figures 1 and 2). After adjustment for patient factors, hospital factors, 141 clinical factors, and the year of surgery, the mean hospital cost and payments for primary THA 142 with a C-PE were 1% more than primary THA with M-PE (cost ratio: 1.01, 95% CI: 1.01 to 143 1.02, p<0.001). Based on F-model statistics, length of stay, census region, and hospital location 144 (urban/rural) were found to be the most important drivers of hospital cost in primary THA 145 procedures with C-PE and M-PE bearings while the year of surgery was the seventh most 146 important driver (Figure 3). Bearing selection was amongst the least important drivers of hospital 147 cost. Similarly, for Medicare payment, length of stay, census region, hospital type (teaching/not 148 teaching) were found to be most important drivers while year of surgery ranked seventh most 149 important driver of hospital payment. Bearing selection was found to be the least important 150 driver of hospital payment.

151 Compared to a THA with M-PE, the mean hospital cost for a THA with COC was 1% 152 less (cost ratio: 0.99, 95% CI: 0.99-1.00, p< 0.001) after adjusting for all covariates. The 153 Medicare payments were 1% more with COC compared to M-PE (cost ratio: 1.01, 95% CI: 1.01-154 1.02, p<0.001). Based on F-model statistics, length of stay, census region, hospital location 155 (urban/rural), and year of surgery were found to be the most important drivers of hospital cost in 156 primary THA procedures with COC and M-PE bearings (Figure 4). Bearing selection was the 157 second least important driver of hospital cost among the covariates we considered. Similarly, for 158 Medicare payment, length of stay, census region, and hospital THA surgery volume were found 159 to be most important drivers while year of surgery was ranked the seventh most important driver

of hospital payment. Bearing selection was found to be among the least important drivers ofhospital payment.

162	From the nonparametric analysis, the median hospital cost was \$360 more for C-PE (95%
163	CI: \$319-410, p < 0.001) and \$318 more for COC (95% CI: \$118-448, p < 0.001), respectively,
164	when compared with M-PE. The differential in median Medicare payment for THA with ceramic
165	bearings compared to M-PE was \$55.10 for C-PE (95% CI: \$31.50-78.70, p < 0.001) and \$76.40
166	for COC (95% CI: $2.20-150.70$, p < 0.001), respectively, when compared with M-PE. Cost
167	differentials were found to decrease significantly over time ($p < 0.001$). The differential in
168	median hospital cost between ceramic bearings and M-PE decreased by \$238-389 every year
169	while the differential in median hospital payment between ceramic bearings and M-PE decreased
170	by \$206-226 every year (p < 0.001).

171

172 Discussion

173 Since 2010, health care reform legislation, including the ACA, has emphasized quality 174 improvement and cost containment as major themes for the practice of Medicine, including in 175 orthopaedics. As expected, we observed clear evidence of cost reduction in terms of the hospital 176 cost and CMS reimbursement for primary THA during the 2010-2015 study period. However, 177 we were surprised to see that not only are the costs of primary THA declining over time, 178 regardless of bearing type, but also the cost differential between ceramic bearings and M-PE 179 bearings was also decreasing over time. Although previous studies [11, 18, 19] identify cost as a 180 factor limiting the usage of ceramic bearings in total joint replacement, the results of our study 181 suggest, to the contrary, that bearing selection has a relatively slight association with either the 182 total cost or reimbursement associated with primary THA in the Medicare population. Clinical

183 factors, most notably length of stay, has far greater impact on the costs (and payments)

184 associated with primary THA than bearing selection.

185 The increased utilization of C-PE bearings in the Medicare population, displacing M-PE 186 as the bearing of choice by 2014, is consistent with our findings and a general cost effectiveness 187 argument as posed by Carnes and coauthors [18]. We report here that C-PE costs \$360 more than 188 M-PE, which is similar to the lower cost-differential range of \$325 used by Carnes et al. We also 189 report that COC costs \$318 more than M-PE. If one accepts the same assumptions that Carnes et 190 al. used, a cost-differential of \$360 for C-PE and \$318 for COC would mean that both of these 191 bearing surfaces are cost-effective implant choices for patients younger than approximately 87 192 years of age. If the prices of ceramic bearings continue to decrease, they will be cost-effective 193 regardless of patient age.

194 It is difficult, however, to obtain cost data for ceramic components in the peer reviewed 195 literature, because hospitals and implant manufacturers generally consider such information 196 proprietary. Carnes and coauthors derived the cost of ceramic bearings using 3 different 197 methods. Both the lowest and highest cost-differences between C-PE and M-PE, \$325 and 198 \$1,003, respectively, were obtained from a national group purchasing organization database. The 199 middle value of \$600 was obtained from the 2013 Orthopedic Network News [23]. More 200 recently, Mendenhall [24] has reported cost data up to 2015 for ceramic components for a 201 network of approximately 180 hospitals. According to Mendenhall's database [24], the cost of 202 ceramic and metal femoral heads has decreased between 2010 and 2015, supporting the results of 203 our study. Because the cost of individual heads varies by size of the components (with larger 204 head sizes associated with a higher average selling price), as well as by hospital, it is not possible 205 to generalize the results of Mendenhall's dataset to the nationwide Medicare population. Overall,

available cost trends are consistent with our study findings, that ceramic implant costs, and thecost differentials relative to M-PE bearings, are decreasing over time.

208 Our study was limited to the analysis of total inpatient costs, which were calculated using 209 an institution's cost-to-charge ratio. This approach is used by CMS and the scientific literature 210 [20-22] so that hospital costs can be compared across institutions around the country. Alternative 211 approaches, such as analyzing an individual hospital's direct costs, are not readily generalizable 212 across institutions, especially with regard to implant prices. The economic data captured by the 213 Medicare Limited Data Set (LDS) is limited to total hospital charges and payments, and did not 214 include cost information for implant components or other costs (e.g., surgeon, post-op care, 215 rehabilitation) associated with a hip arthroplasty. We focused on analyzing the total hospital cost 216 of these procedures, which after adjustment for selection bias (with propensity scores) and 217 hospital and patient confounders, would allow us to examine the cost-differential between 218 ceramic bearings and M-PE in primary THA procedures. Because of the large number of patients 219 in the study, we have sufficient statistical power to detect even small cost differentials (<\$100) 220 that fall below the published cost effectiveness threshold for C-PE bearings in the literature.

221 The cost and payment data of this study are limited to the Medicare population, and likely 222 underestimate the costs associated with treating younger patients covered by private insurance. It 223 is well appreciated that patients less than 65y in age are associated with significantly higher costs 224 and reimbursements than patients covered by Medicare [21]. Thus, it is unclear whether the cost 225 differentials derived here will be reflected in the younger patient population. On the other hand, 226 the Medicare patient population represents approximately half of the overall volume of primary 227 THAs in the US [21], and according to cost-effectiveness studies, older patients have a lower 228 cost-effectiveness threshold than younger patients with private insurance. The present study also

229	shares all of the limitations associated with administrative datasets [20-22], which are intended
230	for billing purposes, and are not designed to capture clinical outcome measures, such as hip
231	society scores, pain scores, or radiographic information.
232	In summary, our findings demonstrate that the utilization of C-PE implants is increasing
233	and the cost analysis of primary THA with alternative bearings is not static, but a moving target
234	after 2010. These findings have important implications for cost-effectiveness analyses, in which
235	economic conditions are assumed to be constant over time. We also found that the cost
236	differential between ceramic bearings and M-PE was less than \$360, which compares favorably
237	with the cost-effectiveness threshold of ceramic heads reported by Carnes (\$325) for patients less
238	than 85 years old. We are unaware of similar cost-effectiveness thresholds for COC in the
239	Medicare population, making such comparisons difficult. The results of this study will provide a
240	useful basis for future cost-effectiveness analyses of ceramic bearings in the Medicare
241	population.
242	
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Figure 2 Click here to download high resolution image







Figures and Captions

Figure 1. Box plot and mean hospital cost for primary THA incorporating M-PE, COC, and C-PE bearings. Source: 2010-2015 100% Medicare LDS.

Figure 2. Box plot and mean hospital payment (reimbursement from CMS) for primary THA incorporating M-PE, COC, and C-PE bearings. Source: 2010-2015 100% Medicare LDS.

Figure 3. Relative importance of patient, hospital, and clinical factors on the hospital costs and payments for primary THA procedures with C-PE and M-PE bearings. The choice of bearing materials (C-PE vs. M-PE) was among the *least* important drivers of hospital cost or payment for THA procedures based on the model F-statistics.

Figure 4. Relative importance of patient, hospital, and clinical factors on the hospital costs and payments for primary THA procedures with COC and M-PE bearings. The choice of bearing materials (COC vs. M-PE) was among the *least* important drivers of hospital cost or payment for THA procedures based on the model F-statistics.

Table 1

Effect	Level	M+P	C+P	C+C	Total	% MP	% CP	% CC	% Total
	Total	161,890	78,156	5,031	245,077	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Age	65-69	41,309	31,930	1,861	75,100	25.5%	40.9%	37.0%	30.6%
	70-74	43,625	21,768	1,336	66,729	26.9%	27.9%	26.6%	27.2%
	75-79	36,674	13,322	924	50,920	22.7%	17.0%	18.4%	20.8%
	80-84	26,090	7,511	584	34,185	16.1%	9.6%	11.6%	13.9%
	85+	14,192	3,625	326	18,143	8.8%	4.6%	6.5%	7.4%
Charlson Index (CCI)	00	89,719	46,436	2,947	139,102	55.4%	59.4%	58.6%	56.8%
	1-2	56,262	25,801	1,659	83,722	34.8%	33.0%	33.0%	34.2%
	3-4	12,392	4,820	308	17,520	7.7%	6.2%	6.1%	7.1%
	5+	3,517	1,099	117	4,733	2.2%	1.4%	2.3%	1.9%
Discharge Type	Home	31,341	20,201	1,035	52,577	19.4%	25.8%	20.6%	21.5%
	Home w/HHS	55,630	31,599	1,893	89,122	34.4%	40.4%	37.6%	36.4%
	Other Facility	1,820	728	58	2,606	1.1%	0.9%	1.2%	1.1%
	Rehab Facility	15,103	5,723	522	21,348	9.3%	7.3%	10.4%	8.7%
	SNF	57,996	19,905	1,523	79,424	35.8%	25.5%	30.3%	32.4%
Hospital Annual TJA Volume	000-149	20,979	10,664	1,039	32,682	13.0%	13.6%	20.7%	13.3%
	150-300	42,341	20,789	1,087	64,217	26.2%	26.6%	21.6%	26.2%
	300-450	31,929	14,732	888	47,549	19.7%	18.8%	17.7%	19.4%
	450-600	18,828	8,278	643	27,749	11.6%	10.6%	12.8%	11.3%
	600+	47,813	23,693	1,374	72,880	29.5%	30.3%	27.3%	29.7%
Hospital Beds	001-149	101,318	52,811	3,391	157,520	62.6%	67.6%	67.4%	64.3%
	150-299	25,107	12,665	550	38,322	15.5%	16.2%	10.9%	15.6%
	300-499	20,421	7,411	730	28,562	12.6%	9.5%	14.5%	11.7%
	500+	15,044	5,269	360	20,673	9.3%	6.7%	7.2%	8.4%
Hospital Ownership	Non-Profit	74,166	37,302	2,828	114,296	45.8%	47.7%	56.2%	46.6%
	Private	74,265	34,260	1,935	110,460	45.9%	43.8%	38.5%	45.1%
	Public	13,459	6,594	268	20,321	8.3%	8.4%	5.3%	8.3%
Hospital Setting	Rural	15,911	5,943	235	22,089	9.8%	7.6%	4.7%	9.0%
	Urban	145,979	72,213	4,796	222,988	90.2%	92.4%	95.3%	91.0%
Hospital Stay	1-2	44,680	31,142	1,575	77,397	27.6%	39.8%	31.3%	31.6%
	3-4	101,936	42,006	2,949	146,891	63.0%	53.7%	58.6%	59.9%
	5+	15,274	5,008	507	20,789	9.4%	6.4%	10.1%	8.5%
Hospital Teaching	Ν	56,695	29,972	2,084	88,751	35.0%	38.3%	41.4%	36.2%
	Υ	105,195	48,184	2,947	156,326	65.0%	61.7%	58.6%	63.8%
Medicare Buy-In	No Buy-In	152,387	74,389	4,766	231,542	94.1%	95.2%	94.7%	94.5%
	State Buy-In	9,503	3,767	265	13,535	5.9%	4.8%	5.3%	5.5%
Race	Black	5,993	3,213	236	9,442	3.7%	4.1%	4.7%	3.9%

Effect	Level	M+P	C+P	C+C	Total	% MP	% CP	% CC	% Total
	Oth/Unk	3,407	2,077	211	5,695	2.1%	2.7%	4.2%	2.3%
	White	152,490	72,866	4,584	229,940	94.2%	93.2%	91.1%	93.8%
Resident Region	Midwest	43,977	16,035	1,056	61,068	27.2%	20.5%	21.0%	24.9%
	North East	38,549	16,098	949	55,596	23.8%	20.6%	18.9%	22.7%
	South	42,416	26,551	1,918	70,885	26.2%	34.0%	38.1%	28.9%
	West	36,948	19,472	1,108	57,528	22.8%	24.9%	22.0%	23.5%
Sex	Female	101,124	46,709	3,046	150,879	62.5%	59.8%	60.5%	61.6%
	Male	60,766	31,447	1,985	94,198	37.5%	40.2%	39.5%	38.4%
Year	2010	24,957	6,058	831	31,846	15.4%	7.8%	16.5%	13.0%
	2011	26,921	7,828	822	35,571	16.6%	10.0%	16.3%	14.5%
	2012	28,708	10,037	770	39,515	17.7%	12.8%	15.3%	16.1%
	2013	30,271	14,330	723	45,324	18.7%	18.3%	14.4%	18.5%
	2014	28,913	20,219	1,003	50,135	17.9%	25.9%	19.9%	20.5%
	2015	22,120	19,684	882	42,686	13.7%	25.2%	17.5%	17.4%