1	FEDERAL TRADE COMMISSION
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3	PROVIDER COMPETITION AND QUALITY:
4	LATEST FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS
5	FOR NEXT GENERATION OF RESEARCH
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14	Wednesday, May 28, 2003
15	8:30 a.m.
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19	Federal Trade Commission
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PROCEEDINGS

DR. CLANCY: Good morning. I'm Carolyn Clancy from the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, and I very much want to thank Chairman Muris, David Hyman, Sarah Mathias, and others from the FTC for joining us in this research agenda development meeting, and also for the fabulous work they've done in organizing the hearings on health care, many of which focus on health care quality. I particularly want to give thanks to David Hyman, who not only has done a terrific job but makes it all look very, very easy.

And I also want to note that our being here today is something that we've discussed a number of times at the agency, although I must say it sort of felt like a fantasy then. So it's quite lovely to be here concretely. And it's very much, I think, a product of Warren Greenberg when he spent a few years with us as a visiting scholar at the agency, starting this series of conversations, since he had been at the FTC before. So thank you for that, Warren.

There are a couple, at least, important aims of today's discussion. The first is to share and discuss the latest findings from some very recent research related to provider competition and quality, and implications that they have for antitrust policy. This

is clearly squarely within the jurisdiction of the Federal Trade Commission.

And the second is to develop an agenda to anticipate the near future policy challenges and where we're going to need a better evidence base to address some of the challenges facing the healthcare system.

We have a very wonderful group today. A couple of folks I had the opportunity to testify with at one of the hearings yesterday, including Marty Gaynor, who did a fabulous job, and almost persuaded me of some things I wasn't sure I believed. So I have a feeling that today's discussions will be really wonderful.

We have researchers here; some policy-makers who rely on research. We have quantitative researchers and qualitative researchers, and legal and policy analysts. So I think this is going to be a really terrific conversation.

I see this very much as fitting within AHRQ's agenda because we're very proud of the work that we've done to be able to develop evidence to inform policy decisions.

We don't regulate health care or make policy, but we do consider it a very important priority for us to be able to work closely with those who do so that we can anticipate their needs and make sure that the research

investments we're making fit very squarely with the needs of policy-makers. Timing is sometimes a little bit of a challenge here, but we're still working on that.

I also wanted to leave you with one provocative thought, and actually risk embarrassing myself in front of a couple of my colleagues. I got my issue of the New England Journal this week early. Normally this only happens when all of the articles are focused on submolecular topics. But actually, this week there are two articles on quality of care.

And so I wanted to make you aware, particularly those of you who believe that competition inexorably leads to better quality of care, one of the articles compares the performance of the Veterans Affairs health care system to Medicare. And I have to say that the performance ratings, that is to say, the percentage of evidence-based care that is provided for the VA, are about the best numbers I've ever seen anywhere.

Now, it does make you wonder a little bit about some of the competitive aspects here. I interpret this as underscoring the importance of our understanding how that happened and why, and what can be replicated and so forth. So you'll probably read about it in the headlines tomorrow, but I just wanted to bring that to this conversation as well.

1	We've asked Larry Bartlett here to facilitate
2	today's discussions, and Larry has always done a really
3	fabulous job of doing this. So I want to thank you for
4	being here today as well.
5	So without further ado, it gives me great
6	pleasure to introduce to you Chairman Tim Muris.
7	CHAIRMAN MURIS: I'm an on-leave college
8	professor, so I have to stand in front of the class.
9	I want to welcome you here today.
10	VOICE: Microphone.
11	CHAIRMAN MURIS: Here's another one. Is this
12	one working? Okay. Thanks. I wanted to welcome you all
13	here today for this research conference, which we're
14	sponsoring jointly with AHRQ. We're certainly pleased to
15	host the conference.
16	And I want to acknowledge to begin, to thank
17	Carolyn and her team, and to acknowledge the hard work
18	and planning that goes into any effort such as this.
19	This conference had its origins in a proposal by Warren
20	Greenberg, who is an FTC alum, to AHRQ for a conference
21	on are we getting some more? I'm going to have
22	multiple ones here now? Okay.
23	Warren had this idea for a conference. When he
24	left AHRQ for the GAO, Peggy McNamara took over the
25	project. She reconceptualized the conference, and worked

tirelessly to pull everything together. Here at the FTC,

David Hyman, Sarah Mathias, Cecile Kohrs, and Nicole

Gorham of the General Counsel's office assisted in

several ways. And again, I want to thank everyone. I

hope it's the first in a series of collaborations between

I suspect that many of you are wondering,

particularly those of you who don't know a lot about the

FTC -- we may be somewhat mysterious to you. In the

history of dealing with some of these health care issues,

I think the Commission has done well.

AHRO and the FTC.

But there are times when I think we felt a little bit like the famous American philosopher, Lawrence Yogi Berra. When he was in high school, he was confronted -- he wasn't doing very well, and he was confronted by the nuns, who were actually berating him. And they finally said, "Lawrence, don't you know anything?" And he looked back and he said, "I don't even suspect anything."

I think at the beginning, at least some could assert that about the FTC and quality. But I think actually we have become fairly sophisticated. And let me just tell you briefly about us, those of you who don't know, and a refresher course for those who do.

We enforce competition in consumer protection

law and policy at the federal level. And that means that we enforce antitrust laws and a large number of federal statutes involving consumer protection and consumer information.

We're alleged to be an expert administrative agency. Part of that means that we research and report on the state of competition in the performance of various markets. We often advocate statutory and regulatory improvements to make markets work better. We promote informed consumer choice and public understanding of the competitive process. We enforce prohibitions on business practices that are, under our statutes, anticompetitive, deceptive, or unfair to consumers.

The seal of the FTC indicates that we've been in business since 1915. We often make headlines when we oppose a large corporate merger or bring consumer fraud against internet scam artists and psychic hotlines.

Believe it or not, we even sued Miss Cleo but, you know, surprisingly, she didn't see it coming.

We make fewer headlines in matters involving health care quality. In a recent article, and an excellent article which I commend to everyone, in Health Affairs, co-authored by three people sitting in this room, competition law was described as the forgotten stepchild of health care quality. I think this

conference is a first step toward familial
reconciliation. It's also a continuation of our efforts
to understand the latest research about healthcare
quality.

To be sure, our enforcement and research efforts in health care are extensive and long-standing. In the mid-1970s, when I was an assistant to the director of the FTC's planning office, we established a task force to investigate occupational regulation in several industries, including healthcare.

In the intervening three decades, the FTC has been a constant presence in health care. Each of our three bureaus -- competition, consumer protection, and economics -- plays an important role.

The Bureau of Competition has sued hospitals, physicians, trade associations, pharmaceutical companies, and other entities engaged in anticompetitive conduct.

The Bureau of Consumer Protection has a long history of attacking deceptive advertising and marketing of a wide range of health care goods and services, including miracle cancer cures and weight loss diets and pills. The Bureau now faces new and challenging initiatives involving direct-to-consumer advertising of prescription drugs, health claims on food products, and consumer patient privacy.

The Bureau of Economics assists the other

Bureaus in pursuing these enforcement initiatives. It's also published several important papers on health care and competition, and the Bureau of Economics supervised several of the research papers you will hear today.

As many of you know, this is not our first conference in the intersection between health care and quality. We're about halfway through seven months of hearings on the subject. Not coincidentally, we are now focusing on quality. We held hearings yesterday, at which Carolyn spoke. Tomorrow and the day after, we will hold hearings on hospital and physician markets from a consumer information and quality perspective.

Of course, you are all invited to attend these hearings or any of the sessions that we are holding.

We're always looking for speakers, so you should feel free to volunteer, and many of you in fact have spoken or will speak.

In the last year, we've also sponsored two other relevant workshops, one last September, which focused extensively on health care and competition law and policy, and the other last November involved e-commerce. It included sessions on telemedicine and pharmaceutical sales over the internet.

Around the FTC, we call these endeavors policy

research and development. Our goals for the health care policy R&D include information gathering, dialogue, and consensus-building.

The skeptics among you may wonder whether competition law is the forgotten stepchild of health care quality for a good reason. Stated differently, if one believes that the Commission exercises its enforcement powers based primarily on how the conduct in question affects price, one could fairly ask how serious we are about quality and about non-price competition more generally.

Let me assure you that the commission recognizes that quality is a crucial part of the competitive mix when purchasing health care, or anything else, for that matter. A sensible competition policy must include issues of quality.

Of course, our recent health care cases have mostly not required a sophisticated analysis of quality because the challenged conduct was naked price-fixing. Such conduct is summarily condemned under the antitrust laws because it has no pro-consumer justifications.

It doesn't follow, however, that all collective conduct by competitors is problematic. For example, when competitors such as physicians join together to create efficiencies and improve the quality of care, we will

1 examine that conduct under a different lens.

Last year, Commission staff closed an investigation in which physician collaboration resulted in a large degree of market concentration. Nevertheless, the group demonstrated that considerable efficiencies resulted from their collaboration, including substantial improvements in the quality of care.

Our staff also issued a favorable advisory opinion to an organization of independent physicians in Denver who proposed an innovative form of clinical integration to enhance quality. The staff concluded that the physicians' collective negotiation of fees appeared to be reasonably related to the physicians' proposed clinical integration and quality objectives, even though there was no financial integration.

Now, as these two matter demonstrate, competition law supports collaborative efforts to improve health care quality. We will always listen to anyone who can articulate how a particular transaction or specific conduct will lead to efficiencies in the financing or delivery of health care services.

We'll pay close attention to such arguments in weighing the competitive implementations. Moreover, because quality is so important in health care, we will aid on the side of conduct that promises to improve

1 patient well-being.

Now, to be sure, antitrust enforcers are appropriately suspicious of concerted conduct by competitors. As the Supreme Court noted in an FTC case, Indiana Federation of Dentists, there is always the danger that self-interested providers will preempt "the working of the market by deciding that customers do not need that which they demand."

Quality encompasses a range of issues, from objectively defined professional norms for quality, to service quality, to matching the care that is provided to patient preferences. In the future, we expect to confront more arrangements involving challenging issues of quality and non-price competition.

Not surprisingly, we have more familiarity with some aspects of health care quality than others. In keeping with the basic medical insight that diagnosis must precede treatment and that knowledge is necessary both to diagnose and to treat, we are using our hearings and this conference to study quality issues in the evolving health care market. We will use this information in future investigations and cases.

Finally, although the Bureau of Consumer

Protection emphasizes out-and-out fraud, consumer

information in health care raises issues that are

obviously not limited to miracle cancer cures.

2 Information asymmetries in health care are pervasive,

3 particularly with respect to quality.

Concerns about patient privacy are common place. The hearings in this conference help us study these issues. We are considering, with your help, the role the Commission should play in ensuring that Americans have access not just to high quality care but to high quality information to assist them in making decisions about their own health.

There is no question that applying competition law and policy to health care is challenging and sometimes quite controversial, particularly when the issue is privacy -- I'm sorry, is quality. As Bob Pitofsky, my good friend and immediate predecessor as Chairman, noted in a speech he gave in 1997 to the National Health Lawyers Association, "As markets have become more competitive and our antitrust law analysis more sophisticated, and even as policy-makers rely more and more on competition as a useful tool for improving the delivery of health care, the question continues to be raised: Is competition a good idea in this context?"

This conference, our hearings, and our broader research and enforcement agenda reflect the Commission's continued commitment to promoting competitive health care

1	markets. They reflect our efforts to ensure that
2	Chairman Pitofsky's rhetorical question will continue to
3	be answered in the affirmative.
4	Thank you for your attention and your
5	willingness to assist us in this challenging endeavor.
6	Let me now turn, I guess, to Larry, and we can
7	spend the rest of the day learning more about quality and
8	competition. Because of the miracles of modern
9	technology, I'm actually going to sit in my office and be
10	able to in between meetings, which I haven't scheduled
11	too many hear a lot of what you're going to do today.
12	So thank you very much.
13	(Applause.)
14	DR. BARTLETT: Good morning, everybody. I'm

DR. BARTLETT: Good morning, everybody. I'm

Larry Bartlett. I've had the pleasure over the years to

work with AHRQ in facilitating a number of agenda

development meetings. So I'm delighted to be here again.

As opposed to Chairman Muris, whose experience, academic experience, is that of a professor, my experience is very much that of a student. So I'm used to sitting and trying to make myself look small and inconspicuous. So I will play that role here.

I'd like to take a few minutes in just a moment to operationalize the agenda that you have all seen. But before I do that, I think the most important thing that

1	we can do at this moment is to make sure we all introduce
2	ourselves to one another. Because what I think is unique
3	about this meeting is just the quality of the
4	participants and the intellectual capital and
5	perspectives that you bring.

So what I'd like to do is ask each of us to go around the room very briefly and introduce ourselves.

Then we'll talk about the agenda, and then we'll move on to the good stuff.

Irene, how about we start with you, please.

DR. FRASER: Good morning. I'm Irene Fraser.

I'm director of the Center for Organization and Delivery

Studies at AHRQ. And many of my staff are here, and

many -- I see many of our grantees here as well.

Our center does research and supports research on delivery, organization, and markets. And the whole issue of competition in markets is a very high priority for us, both in the research and in the databases that we accumulate to support that research.

DR. ROMANO: My name is Patrick Romano. I'm a general internist as well as a general pediatrician and health services researcher at U.C. Davis in Sacramento, California. And I'm here because of my work related to outcomes measurement in quality of care.

DR. IEZZONI: I'm Lisa Iezzoni. I'm in the

- division of general medicine and primary care of Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center in Boston. And I'm a health services researcher interested in quality measurement.
- DR. ROSENTHAL: Hi. I'm Meredith Rosenthal.

 I'm a health economist from the Harvard School of Public

 Health, and I'm a co-investigator on one of AHRQ's PO1

 grants on markets.

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- DR. SAGE: I'm Bill Sage. I'm a law professor at Columbia Law School, and I've done a lot of work on antitrust law and non-price competition in healthcare, most with Professor Peter Hammer, who's across the way.
- DR. MILSTEIN: I'm Arnie Milstein. I'm

 medical director at the Pacific Business Group on Health

 and head of their clinical consulting practice at Mercer.

 I've written about the psychological dimensions of

 quality perception.
 - DR. VOGT: Hi. I'm Bill Vogt. I'm an economist at Carnegie Mellon University. Presently I'm on leave at the FTC. I'm interested in competition in health care markets.
- DR. STRYER: Good morning. I'm Dan Stryer.

 I'm a general internist at AHRQ. I'm the acting director

 for the Center for Quality Improvement and Patient

 Safety.

1	DR. TOWN: I'm Bob Town, an economist at
2	University of Minnesota, and broadly interested in
3	competition in health care markets.
4	DR. WONG: I'm Herb Wong. I'm an economist
5	with the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. And
6	my primary responsibilities are involved in getting the
7	HCUP databases out to all of you.
8	DR. PAULY: My name is Mark Pauly. I'm a
9	health economist. I'm chair of the Department of Health
10	Care Systems in the Wharton School at University of
11	Pennsylvania.
12	DR. VITA: Hi. I'm Mike Vita. I'm an
13	assistant director for antitrust in the FTC's Bureau of
14	Economics.
15	DR. YOUNG: My name is Gary Young. I'm a
16	professor at Boston University School of Public Health,
17	and direct the program on health policy and management
18	there. And one of our interests is competition law.
19	DR. HYMAN: I'm David Hyman. I'm a professor
20	at the University of Maryland School of Law, and in my
21	free time I'm special counsel at the Federal Trade
22	Commission. And I'm coordinating the extended set of
23	hearings that we're doing over the course of this year on
24	health care and competition.

25

MS. McNAMARA: Good morning. My name is Peggy

- McNamara. I'm a policy analyst at the Center for Organization and Delivery Studies at AHRQ.
- DR. KESSLER: Good morning. I'm Dan Kessler.
- I'm a professor at Stanford Business School, currently visiting at the Wharton School at the University of
- 6 Pennsylvania.
- 7 DR. BARTLETT: If anybody cannot hear anything
- 8 that's being said around the room, just wave wildly.
- 9 Thank you. So if I could ask, Brent, if you'd just belt
- 10 it out.
- 11 DR. JAMES: Brent James from Intermountain
- 12 Health Care in Salt Lake City. I head the Institute for
- 13 Health Care Delivery Research. We're a large integrated
- 14 delivery system that's made clinical quality our core
- business strategy, so this is dead-on topic for us.
- 16 Heavily involved with AHRQ as well.
- 17 MR. MUTTER: Ryan Mutter at the AHRQ's Center
- for Organization and Delivery Studies. I'm also a Ph.D.
- 19 candidate in health economics.
- DR. HAMMER: Peter Hammer. I'm a professor at
- 21 the University of Michigan Law School, and work with Bill
- Sage. We've done a lot of work on how antitrust courts
- and judges deal with quality issues in health care.
- DR. GREENBERG: My name is Warren Greenberg.
- 25 I'm a professor of health economics at George Washington

	23
1	University. And I was scholar in residence at AHRQ part-
2	time for the last four years preceding this. And I spent
3	my beginning career with the Federal Trade Commission for
4	eight years.
5	MR. GEPPERT: Hi. My name is Jeffrey Geppert.
6	I'm a senior analyst at the Center for Primary Care and
7	Outcomes Research in the Center for Health Policy at
8	Stanford University.
9	DR. GAYNOR: I'm Marty Gaynor. I'm an
10	economist at Carnegie Mellon University. And I'm
11	interested in competition in healthcare markets and
12	antitrust.
13	DR. ENCINOSA: William Encinosa, health
14	economist at the agency. I've been working on hospital
15	finances and patient safety indicators.
16	DR. CHRISTIANSON: Jon Christianson, University
17	of Minnesota.
18	DR. CASALINO: Larry Casalino. I'm a family
19	physician at University of Chicago.

22 Commonwealth University.

23 DR. BARTLETT: Thank you. Well, the

24 conversation today, much of the discussion is going to

25 really be centered around the people at this table. We

professor of health administration at Virginia

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DR. BAZZOLI: And I'm Gloria Bazzoli, a

1	have a wonderful group of individuals sitting off the
2	table and listening to this discussion. I want to give
3	them an opportunity to very briefly introduce themselves
4	as well.
5	Sarah, how about we start over here?
6	MS. MATHIAS: Sarah Mathias with the FTC.
7	MS. KOHRS: Cecile Kohrs with the FTC.
8	DR. BARTLETT: Please. Denise?
9	DR. REMUS: Denise Remus with AHRQ.
10	MS. ORLEFSKY: Tamara Orlefsky, AHRQ and UNC
11	Chapel Hill, Ph.D. candidate.
12	DR. FRIEDMAN: I'm Gary Friedman and I'm at
13	AHRQ also.
14	MR. HAGAN: Mike Hagan. I'm an economist. I
15	work with external investigators at AHRQ.
16	DR. BARTLETT: Please.
17	MS. MORLAND: Annika Morland with the FTC.
18	MR. VOLPER: Paul Volper with the Bureau of
19	Economics at the FTC.
20	MR. SILBERG: Seth Silberg, FTC.
21	MR. IOSO: Bob Ioso, economics, FTC.
22	DR. BARTLETT: Okay. Thank you very much.
23	Just touching very quickly on the objectives of this

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disciplines represented. We have economists, clinicians,

meeting, you have a good sense that we have many

24

25

1 health services researchers.

What we are trying to do is really sort of bring those different perspectives together and look at what is known and understand better what the health services research tells us about competition and quality in the health care field.

We're also going to be spending time today looking at some new research, sharing it, discussing it. And very importantly, as we build on this discussion, our hope is that this afternoon we will begin to talk about what's referred to here as the next generation of research, and talk about what you folks from your different perspectives would suggest would be the high priority health services research that should be conducted in this area, health care competition and quality.

Let me give you a quick take on how the agenda is set up. And I should tell you that my main role here is making sure that all the good information, all the good discussion, that we hope to share today occurs, and one thing doesn't crowd out the others.

This agenda, if you take a look at it -- I
think it's in Tab 1 -- really has four major components.

In a few minutes, we will turn to a series of three
presentations. They're referred to as overview

1 presentations in the agenda.

Actually, when Peggy and I were talking,
they're much more foundation presentations, I think
really building a solid foundation for the different
disciplines represented here so we can move forward.
I'll talk about them in just a second.

In subsequent sessions, we will talk about some new research dealing with physician competition and quality. And I regret to tell you that Carol Simon, who was going to present her work today, is unable to attend. So we will use the time that she would have had for her presentation to make sure that we have adequate discussion.

We then have a series of presentations on hospital competition and quality, presenting new research. And in each of those -- each of those particular segments, what we have done, we've asked the people making the presentations to talk for not more than 20 minutes. And I'll be the time traffic cop, if you will. That's why I'm sitting here. I'll be passing notes. We haven't quite figured out the timing system here.

We then have a series of commentators who will share their thoughts on the material that's presented.

I'm going to ask them to limit their remarks to ten

minutes apiece. And then we're going to go out to the group for any thoughts or observations or implications for new research that are generated by the presentations.

After we go through those panel presentations on new research concerning physician competition and hospital competition and quality, the latter part of the agenda is going to focus on what does it mean in terms of what's the new research agenda? What are the priorities for new work that needs to be done in the area of competition and quality?

We will hear from a number of folks who will share with us FTC's perspectives on what work is needed, and then we're going to open it wide open to the group for their thoughts as well. And then, Irene, we're going to come back to you at the end of the day to wrap things up.

The last thing I'd say before we move into the good stuff is I think you found a number of loose materials at your place. In many cases, those are updates to presentation materials that you'll find in the book, so they'll replace certain drafts that you have, or they're new material. Carol Simons work, while she's not going to be presenting it is nonetheless included so you can stick that in the appropriate tab.

Let me just stop here and ask if there are any

questions from anybody about the objectives of the meeting, what we're trying to do, or how we're going to go about trying to accomplish those objectives.

(No response.)

DR. BARTLETT: We're okay? All right. Then let us then move to the first segment of the agenda, those foundation presentations. We're going to hear from Mark Pauly in just a second, who's going to talk with us about the underlying conceptual models and some history about competition in medical services and quality of care.

We're then going to move right from Mark's presentation to Patrick Romano, who's going to talk about quality measurement issues. And then from there, Marty, we're going to go to you, who will provide us with an overview of the appropriate literature, both the conceptual and the empirical literature, in this area as well.

So we will take those three presentations in sequence, and then we'll open it up for discussion.

So Mark, can I turn to you, please, if you want to come on -- swing up this way?

DR. PAULY: I'm happy to be here to give one of the first talks about foundations. That means, at least for me, that I'll be able to listen more attentively to

what look like a fascinating set of subsequent talks and not have to worry about what I'm going to say.

And I need to warn you, as probably most people who know me have already guessed this: I'm a congenital economist. Oh, missed all the great jokes there. I'm a congenital economist, so my definitions and concepts will be economic ones.

And it's actually interesting, I think, to compare what I'm going to say with what Dr. Romano is going to say next. I believe it's possible to translate one set of language into the other, and that's probably a large part of what we'll be about today.

So this is what I intend to talk about. I want to provide some benchmark economic definitions of key terms like quality and competition. I do want to say a bit about the normative economics of optimal quality and the optimal level of quality from the viewpoint of economics for any product, and might as well assume for medical care, too, is the Goldilocks definition: neither too high nor too low, but just right. So that's what we want to look at.

I want to talk a little bit about some positive models of alternative institutional settings in which competition occurs and quality gets determined, primarily two, one that I called unfettered competition and one I

call administered prices. And then I was also asked to show some basic data on trends in competition and discuss what is lacking in research. So I'll try to do all of that in about 20 minutes.

Okay. Well, the basic definition of competition in economics actually has a number of different flavors. Usually the kind of person in the street, or for some cases the judge in the street definition, usually focuses on the number of sellers or some measures of the concentration of sellers. But a sophisticated interpretation of what competition can mean can suggest that you can have competition even without very many sellers if, for example, barriers to entry are unusually low.

So in Philadelphia, formerly known as the City of Brotherly Love, now known as the City of Health Insurance Duopoly, we actually -- at least I don't lay awake nights worrying about that. As an employee of the University of Pennsylvania, I figure if we get persecuted too much, since we're the largest private employer in town, we can self-insure and organize our own health insurance, which we have to some extent, to avoid some of those nasty things.

Because health insurance is child's play.

Anybody can do it. You just have to get a lot of people

together and get them to agree to share their medical expenses. Of course, not quite that simple, but that's the idea.

And then finally, sometimes we measure competition or its absence -- mostly its absence -- by the ability to sustain above-normal profits. And at least depressed hospital administrators sometimes wonder why we're picking on them about competition. Look at our profit margins. Look at how terrible they are. How can you believe that it's not competitive? Otherwise, we'd make a lot more money. So there's -- and there's some truth to that, I guess.

Definition of quality: I think in economics it's whatever matters that isn't quantity. And by matters, I mean primarily matters to consumers, although it's something we'll obviously talk about a lot here because healthcare consumers are not necessarily perfectly informed. This can be whatever matters to people who have to care about the well-being of uninformed consumers.

And I think that's important. Sometimes, at least, it bothers me, and I think that it's worth noting, people will talk about we have low quality healthcare in the United States because many people are uninsured.

I tend to look at that as low quantity; at

least for the most part, what happens to people who are uninsured is that they use less of the services that the rest of us use. Probably they use somewhat different services as well, but primarily the adverse consequences that flow from being uninsured are probably correctly described as low quantity, not low quality. And you can have low quantity. You can also have too high a quantity as well.

Ordinarily, it's easiest to think about quality when it follows a kind of ordered characteristics version so that informed buyers -- so you could say higher quality is what informed buyers would prefer at equal prices. I presume, for the most part, something like the mortality rate meets that criteria. And almost everybody would prefer lower mortality to higher mortality at equal prices.

Some other things, like the color of the room, the color of the Jello in the hospital meal, and so forth, may not be able to be ordered in such a way. But for the most part, I'll be talking about these ordered characteristics.

And I guess, to try to make a bridge to general health services research, this broad definition of economist quality certainly includes clinical quality, but it also includes other things which we might call

1 amenities.

And I suppose, in a way, the most important practical one that I see is -- it includes something like travel time. So if, in fact, the mortality rate, even holding costs constant, is lower in hospitals in Philadelphia than in Scranton, there will be some consumers who will rationally choose to stay in Scranton -- at least they might be rationally choosing that -- because they don't want to pay the time cost.

So that's another definition of quality, having a hospital close by. We may debate at some point whether that's higher or lower quality, but at least it affects quality.

And then the final punch in with a land mine slightly buried in it, efficient quality from an economic point of view is where marginal benefit equals marginal cost. That means that quality can definitely be too low; that's where it would be worth more than what it would cost to produce it. It also means that -- economists have to say this -- it can also be too high.

When I first started teaching health economics and doing research here, we talked about Cadillac quality care to show that we weren't total Neanderthals. What we usually meant was trying to make the case for physician substitutes and arguing that some of the dimensions of

what physicians at the time claimed was quality could -were not that important. That was Cadillac quality.

I find when I talk to my undergraduates now, I get a blank stare. So this is Lexus quality care we may not want to have. But quality can be too high as well as too low, and there's some reason to pay attention to that.

I'm going to show the picture here. You can follow along with this little narrative. This is the way I think of competition and quality, and try to get everything or almost everything in one chart. And, oft, there is sort of real world analogue of this.

assume, many other cities based on their price or cost and something like their mortality rate for coronary artery bypass grafting or some inpatient procedure that has a high enough mortality rate that it varies, you tend to get points like the Xs. And one of the issues here is, does cost and quality trade off? Economists are fond of talking about tradeoffs. We're brought up on tradeoffs. We're put on this earth to talk about tradeoffs. But are there tradeoffs in cost and quality when it comes to health care?

And maybe not. Coming down on the train, I passed Mike's Collision Repair, and Mike's slogan is,

"High quality doesn't cost. It pays." And the same thing might be said for health care. And, in fact, if you fit a least squares line between the quality/cost combinations that I've indicated on that diagram, ignoring for the moment -- assuming Os are points and Xs too -- you'd probably find that a higher cost goes along with a worse mortality rate. Far from trading off, better quality saves money.

What I think, though, that economists might be thinking of when they talk about tradeoffs, and I guess the message here is, quality and cost don't always trade off, but the punch in is they eventually trade off or they should trade off if the system is highly competitive.

Because what ought to happen-- and now we kind of start the trumpets -- what ought to happen with competition to make life beautiful is that those Xs would start to -- first, consumers would start to move away from the Xs in the high right-hand corner toward the frontier, so at least from their point of view that would be good for them. They'd get higher quality at the same cost or lower cost for the same quality.

Some of the Xs might disappear. They don't seem to do that much in Philadelphia, even though they should. Some capitalist hospital chain comes in and buys

them and keeps them in existence. But maybe they should disappear.

But maybe a more upbeat way of viewing this is we love all those hospitals. Let's have them migrate toward the frontier. So that's what they ought to do. And then, finally, maybe even the frontier hospitals, under the pressure of competition and the incentives associated with it, would push the frontier further toward the point of origin.

So that's what you'd like to see happen. And I guess that is what we hope will happen under competition. It's worth noting, and I actually need to correct my slides here a bit, what can -- well, I need to say first of all it's kind of hard oftentimes to define -- if you ask the question, is quality higher under competition, compared to what?

But it certainly is possible, especially if you give economists enough time and enough rope, to think of a model in which the impact of competition on quality can be negative. But it can still be better off for consumers. That would be the case in which quality fell but price fell by a lot.

Or, of course, it could be that quality will rise and price will stay the same. It could be that quality will rise and price will fall. The only thing

that's ruled out, actually, is quality falling and price rising. That's not supposed to happen under competition.

But other sorts of combinations are possible, and from the viewpoint of normative economics, as long as they represent something that's preferred from the point of view of consumers like, for example, Mrs. A with an indifference curve indicated by IA in that diagram, that level of quality and cost is right for her, and some higher level of quality down to the right there, some lower mortality rate at a higher cost, would not necessarily be desirable. So that's sort of the punch line on unfettered competition. I could actually deliver a whole lecture on this diagram, but I'm sure people don't want me to.

The alternative model is the model of administered pricing, where some entity -- let's call it Medicare just for fun -- that's not only -- that's big -- a lot of insurers set prices, but if they're small insurers, who cares? But if it's a big insurer setting prices or if it would be government setting prices for everyone, as has occasionally been contemplated in this country and exists in other countries, what's supposed to happen?

Well, this is a way to think about that. If we think about setting the price at P star -- it can't go

below P star; it can't be above P star; that's the
easiest way to think about it -- what's going to happen
is that some of the points to the right of P star will no
longer be observed. Some of them may be points of lower
quality, higher mortality rate. But one of the little Os
floating over there to the right forlornly would probably
disappear if price was set at P star.

So setting price at some level can actually reduce quality compared to some alternative benchmark, like maybe unfettered competition. The other main point that this diagram is supposed to illustrate, though, or maybe convey by osmosis, is that if you raise the regulated price you should get more quality. So the O that wasn't feasible when price was maxed at P star because that particular hospital could no longer cover its cost of very high quality would be feasible if price was shifted up to P double star.

The model that generates this kind of behavior has a history in economics. It's what I call the airline pub lounge war model. And the philosophy or the thought there was that back in the old days, when airlines were price regulated, quality was too high. That was hard to believe. They left on time. They had pub lounges. They had interesting flight attendants.

And they no longer have any of those things.

But the argument from sour-faced economists was, that's too high a level of quality. And every time the government tried to get the rate of return up to its target level, which I guess in retrospect we thought was too high, the excess profits would be competed away in terms of quality.

There are some pub lounge war models for health care, again, somewhat ancient now, one by me and Phil Held, one by Paul Joskow, showing that where prices were higher, at least some dimensions of what some consumers might think of as quality, like the ability to get a hospital bed when you needed one, or the ability to get your dialysis on weekends or at night when it was more convenient, were actually more common in places where the administered price was set high compared to where the administered price is set low. What we don't know certainly is whether that applies to clinical quality. But anyway, those are the two main models that I wanted to talk about by way of foundation. And this just mentions them.

There is a third model, price discrimination and selective contracting, that I mentioned in the paper but I won't talk about here. And I guess this is the points that I've just made. Depending, of course, on what happens to the price, the quality may either rise or

fall compared to unfettered competition. And at least some of us who occasionally work on end stage renal disease think that the very tight limits that the government has put on payment for dialysis at some points in time might actually have led to something that looked like low quality rather than high quality, although those have been relaxed somewhat, and thank goodness for technological change.

Here are some other considerations that might matter. Ordinarily you wouldn't think that a monopolist -- although it's theoretically possible -- a profit-seeking monopolist would provide higher quality than profit-seeking competitors.

But if it's a nonprofit monopolist who gets its jollies from quality as opposed to quantity, then it's certainly possible that the nonprofit monopolist may have higher quality even than the nonprofit competitive market or certainly than the for-profit competitive market.

And the second line is one that actually is,

I'm sure, something we'll be talking about a lot today.

All of these normative conclusions about high and low

quality and how competition can lead to either one and

how it can all be great imply or assume that consumers

know what they're doing and that buyers know what they're

doing.

And I guess certainly in healthcare, we wouldn't assume that of individual patients. We might not even assume it of other proxy buyers like HMOs and kindly health care benefits managers for large firms. And the paradox is, sometimes a little information can actually be worse than none at all, so we're not even sure which way is up when it comes to information. So that's an important point.

And the final theoretical point that I just wanted to lay on the table is, it's also worth thinking about, in addition to competition versus monopoly, it's worth thinking about monopsony not only because that's fun to say but also because potentially it is a possibility with large insurers, especially if they dominate a market for managed care as opposed to just risk pooling.

So a little bit of ancient history. I'll go through this very quickly. It used to be in non-rural areas many disintegrated sellers -- the hospitals were separate from physicians' practices, and there were almost walls of separation that sort of kept it that way, and everybody knew their place in the world and it was lovely. But thank goodness things have changed -- and it was cost-plus reimbursement because obviously nobody was in this for the money and so we just needed to cover

1 their costs.

And things have changed, obviously, since then. Part of the problem is at least a lot of the research that has been done, and even some I think we may talk about today, tries to compare some new arrangement, particularly the arrangements that prevailed after the abolition of anti-selective contracting laws in California and elsewhere, with the old situation. least I don't know how to describe the old situation. But Medicare-administered pricing and selective contracting did upset the good old days.

Recent history: Broad trends in industrial structure is hospitals have integrated, both up and down, for -- at least according to the research I've done, and I'll also blame my colleague, Rob Burns, at Wharton for this -- for no good reason other than maybe market power, hint hint, but for no good efficiency reason. There has been some horizontal consolidation, and M.D.'s are grouping up, although the typical size group is still relatively small.

Broad trends in payment environment: Medicare is starting to throw its weight around. That's what I interpret as a lot of the consequence of the Balanced Budget Act. The private insurers tried to push forward on pressuring providers to charge lower prices and

succeeded, but for various reasons, including at least
health economist patients sitting in their underwear got
harangued by their providers and therefore offered advice
to the HMOs, backed off.

Markets have segmented more, and there are some hints of consumer control or more active consumer participation, although I think at the moment they remain more hints than facts.

A little bit of basic data and then I'll sit down. What's been happening to horizontal concentration? Well, let me show figure 3 and table 1, and I'll show both of them.

So this is actually some data from Rob Burns.

And these are unweighted averages, I need to say, of

Herfindahl-Hirschman indexes across cities in the United

States. And the blue line is just basing this on

inpatient days and treating each hospital that's listed

by the AHA as a separate hospital as a separate hospital.

And you can see -- I guess I don't know exactly what's modest and what's large here, and I'll even backpedal on that a bit. But it doesn't look like there's been an enormous change in concentration, although there has been a slight upward trend.

If you take account of the system factor, that some of the hospitals have been grouped into systems, and

assume that the hospitals within a system don't compete with each other -- I actually know from experience that's not necessarily true -- but if you were willing to assume that, you could get more worried, especially after 1997 when everything started to fall apart, that the level of competition was diminishing.

That doesn't look too terrible, though. Here is some evidence on vertical integration. I'm assuming everybody knows most of these acronyms here except maybe GPWW, group practice without walls. And the main message here is that except for acquisition, most of these other ways of integrating healthcare systems rose and then fell, reaching a peak around 1996 and then some of them actually dropping off quite dramatically, others more slowly.

But vertical integration seems to be ebbing rather than flowing except, of course, for the acquisition route. So that's the main point that I wanted to make there for our future discussion.

Let's see. I'm missing one chart. I'll go back to that other one. I hope I can go back. So I said that the aggregate data show that the level of competition hasn't changed all that much. But I started worrying about that, and every time I go through this, I get a little more worried.

Maybe that's hiding some things. After all, if a very large city has a lot of hospitals, a few more, more or less, won't make much of a difference. But my very crude interpretation of the Breznehan-Rice argument is that around four is the number of sellers where more than four is good and fewer than four is bad.

And so I tried to tabulate in all U.S. metropolitan areas that started out with four or more hospitals in 1990, what had happened, and you can see good news and bad news here. For the great bulk of metropolitan areas -- in fact, for 90 percent of them -- they stayed above five in both years.

But about 10 percent of the market areas, the numbers actually slipped below four, either from five to three or four to three or less. And if you lived in a small city, which are generally the ones that have those small numbers of hospitals, actually a relatively large proportion of them did slip below the competitive level. So if you did want to worry about even what's happening to competition, in some cases it does seem like it's potentially worrisome.

The last thing that I wanted to say a bit about was competition in certain selective procedures. One of my arguments, which I'm kind of hinting at already and is in the paper, is that as usual, looking at things in the

aggregate can be misleading because products in
healthcare are very different products, although they're
kind of sort of related.

And so I thought I'd look at something the Pennsylvania's famous for in various ways, data on coronary artery bypass grafting and its concentration. And here's what the data says on that.

And you can basically see the message here, that the number of hospitals doing CABG, in almost all cities except Harrisburg where they keep the data, and I guess they can keep their thumb on those hospitals -- although we're not actually sure about the Harrisburg data; it looks a little squirrely -- but in almost all cities in Pennsylvania, the number of hospitals doing CABG either increased or stayed the same.

There was definitely an increase if we measure competition by the number of people getting into the act, in competition for coronary artery bypass grafting in Pennsylvania. And generally, the explanation for that, the intuitive explanation that is usually offered, is it's a lucrative procedure given the way Medicare reimburses it, and it paid to get into the act.

And so this does the same thing at the physician point of view, and basically makes the same point, that competition did increase, not as dramatically

as for hospitals because publication of the data on CABG did cause some low-performing physicians to drop out.

But nevertheless, the number who entered exceeded the number who dropped out. So there's also more competition among physicians for doing this procedure.

And, let's see, let me go back here. I guess the basic message then is the high profit margin on CABG that caused this to happen. And I think an important message for thinking about competition is that as I've already said, in models of administered pricing, you need to note that the extent or level of quality will be determined by the price level.

What this experience also suggests is that the extent of competition will be determined by the price level. Pay a higher price, Medicare, and you're going to get more people supplying this particular service. And I guess the thing to worry about -- I think I have this on my next slide -- the thing to worry about here is that there may be economies of scale under the practice makes perfect idea. So having more hospitals and surgeons getting into the act doing open heart surgery, bypass grafting, in Pennsylvania may not be the greatest thing in the world, although it certainly makes it a lot more convenient than it used to be. But that may not be the only dimension of quality that we want to look at.

So here's my checklist for research. One, kind of going along with what I've just said, I think competition in quality is probably best interpreted at the product level. So you need to look at it that way.

It's probably also interpreted differently at the payment type level. I would interpret, even for a given procedure, competition to work differently for Medicare than for competing indemnity or even HMO insurers.

Administered price can cause competition to be a function of quality. That was the point I just made. And the journalistic -- or the headline on the stories about the proliferation of CABG in Pennsylvania is, medical arms race restarts.

We usually look at arms races, appropriately, as undesirable. But somebody must like what the hospitals are arming themselves with, so there must be some positive value. If we're going to make some normative judgments here, we need to worry about that, something to attract people to the hospitals that are doing these things.

Some further thoughts. Economies of scale in hospitals: I, along with a number of others, have looked for many years for economies of scale in hospitals.

Generally, what we find is above about 100 or 150 beds,

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there aren't any. In fact, the average cost curve may tweak up a little.

But one possibility is that that finding is affected by our inability with the data generally available to adjust for quality. If you did adjust for quality, you might find economies of scale. Or I cite some literature in the paper that suggests that if hospitals compete with quality, if you don't properly adjust for quality you'll find constant returns to scale no matter what is true in reality.

And then the two other things that I do worry about, and maybe these will be a special on TV pretty soon, the strange case of hospital outpatient care. It's growing rapidly. What's going on there? What's the competitive situation? What's quality got to do with that? And likewise, the rise of hospitalists and salaried docs. Again, why is that happening and what's quality got to do with it?

Thank you.

DR. BARTLETT: Thank you, Mark. We'll now turn to Patrick Romano, who I think will be able to provide a complementary presentation focusing on quality measurement.

DR. ROMANO: Okay. So I'm going to talk a little bit about the evolving science of quality

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1 measurement: promises and cautions. We'll start with a 2 clinical perspective or definition of quality.

Dr. Pauly has talked about quality from the economist's perspective as everything that isn't price. From the clinical perspective, a variety of definitions that I'll offer to you.

We really have to credit the work of Avedis
Donabedian, who was one of the forefathers, if you will,
in the field of quality measurement. And he originally
defined quality as a management that's expected to
achieve the best balance of health benefits and risks,
taking into account the patient's wishes, expectations,
and the distribution of that benefit within the
population.

The Institute of Medicine defined quality as the degree to which health services increase the likelihood of desired health outcomes -- of course, desired by whom? That's an open question -- and are consistent with current professional knowledge, which of course may be wrong.

Brook and McGlynn: Similarly, the emphasis is on high quality care producing positive changes or slowing the decline in health.

There are three general approaches to quality measurement that have been described in the literature,

originally by Donabedian. The first approach focuses on structure, that is, the conditions under which care is provided. Here we talk about the material resources that we use to provide care, the human resources, and the organizational characteristics, the characteristics of the organizations in which care is provided.

Process features are the activities that constitute healthcare itself, what we do in screening and diagnosis, treatment and rehabilitation, education and prevention, our use of medications, our use of laboratory tests, our use of visits and hospital days.

Finally, outcomes are changes attributable to health care, things such as mortality and morbidity functional status. Knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors, of course, are outcomes of certain types of health care delivery. If our goal is to reduce smoking, we need to look at changes in smoking behavior as a consequence. And finally, satisfaction may also be viewed as an outcome.

So let's think about this a little bit in the context of competition and consolidation. Structural measures, I think, most of us really view as enabling factors that make it easier or harder for professionals to provide high quality care.

In empirical studies, these measure are often

weakly associated with process and outcome measures, and usually explain relatively little of the observed variability in processes and outcomes.

We also have a problem because structural measures are easy to measure but they're often hard to modify. If we're looking at features of hospitals such as teaching characteristics or staffing characteristics, these things cannot be studied typically in randomized controlled trials. Therefore, we don't really know whether these structural measures improve quality. We assume that they do from observational studies. But in the absence of randomized trials, we're working with limited data.

The causal relationships are often unclear. Do better structures lead to better processes? Or, conversely, do better processes create a demand for better structures? The classic example is the relationship between volume and outcome. Does higher volume actually lead to better quality of care, that is, practice makes perfect? Or does better quality lead to selective referral, therefore the aggregation of patients in higher-volume, better quality hospitals?

So structural measures really should probably be viewed as markers or facilitators of quality rather than as true measures. The empirical studies of

competition and quality have really not relied on structural measures, as we'll see in a minute.

And we also have a problem in this area because pro-competitive and anticompetitive interventions may directly affect structural measures. So as hospitals consolidate, they often consolidate services.

One hospital becomes the orthopedic hospital.

Another hospital becomes the women and children's hospital. Therefore, volumes change. Teaching affiliations change. Contractual relationships change. These are all inherent in the consequences of market transactions.

So structural measures really aren't promising for evaluating the impact of competition and consolidation on quality except to the extent that they help us understand the pathways. So if we can say that a certain consolidation in a market, for example, reduced quality of care -- or increased quality of care by increasing the volume of patients going to high quality providers, that may be a mediating variable.

So let's shift to outcome measures. Outcome measures have several attractive features. They're really what matter to patients, families, and communities. They're intrinsically meaningful. They're easy to understand. We all know what it means when a

1 patient dies or experiences a postoperative complication.

Outcomes reflect not just what was actually done, but how well it was done. This is something that's very difficult to measure directly. When we look at process measurement, typically we're actually measuring underuse or overuse. We're measuring medications that should have been prescribed that weren't, tests that should have been done that weren't; or procedures that were inappropriately performed.

But in many cases, we're really more interested in how well something was done. How well did the surgeon really deal with the problems that came up in the operating room and stop bleeding? Those features of how well care is provided are reflected in outcomes even though they're difficult to measure directly.

Finally, we have tools for ascertaining outcomes using administrative data such as the HCUP data offered by AHRQ.

Of course, there are a number of problems with outcomes measurement. Morbidity measurement tends to be particularly difficult because complications are often documented and reported inconsistently.

Two major reasons for that: One is that coders in hospitals can only code what physicians document, and physicians are often reluctant to document their

complications clearly. The coding rules are very clear
that coders cannot make up diagnoses. They have to code
only what physicians diagnose.

So that requires, first, the physician explicitly diagnose a complication, and second, that that diagnosis be entered explicitly in the record. There's also, of course, variability in coding practices across hospitals which may also interfere with our ability to ascertain morbidity.

Both mortality and morbidity measures may be confounded by variation in transfer rates and length of stay. So if, for example, you have market changes that lead to higher transfer rates, if you don't track the outcomes of those transfers, you may believe that mortality is going down when in fact it's simply being shifted to a different setting.

That was shown very nicely in Cleveland looking at the impact of the Cleveland health quality choice program on hospital mortality. They found that inpatient mortality dropped for most of the conditions that were analyzed, but it was largely explained by a reduction in length of stay and shifting of mortality to post-hospital settings.

Of course, severity of illness varies widely across providers and administrative data capture little

of this variation. Many adverse outcomes are rare or delayed. So if we're trying to look at the impact of interventions in the market, it may be very difficult to measure that impact if we rely on outcome measures. The outcomes may appear years down the line, and our initial analyses may be markedly underpowered.

Finally, there's a question that always lurks in the back of our minds as to to what extent outcomes are really under the control of providers. In may cases, providers will argue justifiably that there's nothing that they can do, nothing that they know how to do, to prevent certain bad outcomes. And therefore, in many cases, it's not really appropriate to look at bad outcomes as a quality measure.

Now, where are we going with outcomes measurement? A few ideas that may be relevant to this field of competition. First of all, recent studies suggest that certain complications may be better coded and reported than others. So we may be able to focus on certain types of complications that may be more accurately measured, particularly complications that require specific therapies or extend hospital stays. A good example would be, for example, postoperative blood clots, deep vein thromboses or pulmonary emboli.

Postoperative acute MIs.

Data linkages are now available in many data sets which allow us to minimize confounding due to variation in transfer rates and length of stay. Because we now have the ability with many data sets to look at post-hospital outcomes and to attribute those outcomes back to the original hospital.

We can also capture readmissions. In some data sets, such as the state data sets in New York and California, we can not distinguish comorbidities that were present at admission from complications that develop after admission. This is useful both for ascertaining the complications of care and for better adjusting for differences in severity of illness at admission.

Finally, we've learned more about how to measure comorbidity and how to include those measures in risk adjustment models. Many of the earlier studies used the Charlson comorbidity index. More recent work suggests that the comorbidity developed by Elixhauser and colleagues at AHRQ may be better in terms of capturing a wider range of comorbidities and being more adaptable across a broader range of conditions and procedures.

Finally, we're on the verge of seeing largescale patient satisfaction surveys. And I really shouldn't use the word satisfaction here. The focus really is more on patients' reports of the quality of care that they receive. It's the patients' perspective on process of care, and the hospital CAPS work is really pushing the field forward.

Okay. What about process measures? Can we use process measures to look at the impact of pro-competitive or anticompetitive interventions? Process measures are directly actionable by health care providers. They represent opportunities for intervention. So they're very attractive to health care providers.

They've generally been tested and validated in randomized trials, so we know that they work. They really help elucidate the pathways by which market forces affect patient outcomes. So we want to understand not just whether a certain market change has affected outcomes, but how it's done so. This will allow policymakers to monitor the potential adverse effects in a more timely manner.

The problem is that process measures are often costly to collect. They require chart review or participant interviews. Sometimes they require patient surveys.

There are two general categories of process measures. We talk about implicit measures, which are based on some kind of a global rating by health care providers. The typical question here is: Would you send

your mother to this hospital? So the idea is that we ask for some kind of a global assessment.

The problem is that these measures often lack reliability. If you're going to do this right, you need to have at least five people or seven people, peer reviewers, reviewing each medical record.

Also, if you don't blind the reviewers to the outcome of the patient, which is a very tricky thing to do, the reviewers tend to be biased. In other words, if they know that the patient died, they're more likely to find quality problems during the hospitalization. But in many cases, blinding is infeasible.

Implicit process measures also aren't directly actionable. Just because a provider says they wouldn't send their mother to a hospital, well, so what? You don't know what to do about that.

So explicit process measures are preferable in many cases. But you have to again ask some key questions. Are they really evidence-based? If you look at the process measures that are out there, I've seen a number of process measure sets that claim to be evidence-based.

But when you look at the evidence on which they're based, it's really not very strong evidence. It really comes down to professional opinion or "consensus."

Some processes that seem important or that clinicians think are important probably aren't, and many important processes haven't yet been recognized.

So where are we going? What's the potential that we have in this field? Well, electronic medical record systems and linked pharmacy and laboratory claims really have dramatically reduced the cost of collecting process measures. So hopefully over the next few years we'll be able to incorporate process measurement into more studies while looking at the impact of competition.

We've also developed patient surveys, thanks to the work of Cleary and the Picker Institute and others, that really reliably measure patient-centered processes of care. And hopefully these kinds of surveys can be used to evaluate the impact of competition.

And finally, there's new and growing emphasis on the use of randomized trials and systematic reviews to make sure that when we say a process of care is good, that we really know it's good.

So how do we put this all together? Well, we want outcome measures, of course, that are relevant to the objectives of care. So if a patient is terminally ill, the primary objective may be comfort rather than extending life. And therefore, mortality may not be an appropriate outcome measure.

The outcome should be partially attributable, both conceptually and empirically, to health care organizations. We could actually look at that empirically, look at hospital-level variability in outcomes after adjusting for severity of illness.

We'd like to integrate outcome and process measures because this will provide a more complete assessment of quality and clarify these causal pathways. We'd also like to see agreement. We'd like to see that the hospitals that perform better on process also perform better on outcomes. That makes us more confident in our measurement of both phenomena.

If we don't find agreement, we get concerned. We get concerned about the quality of our data. We get concerned about whether we've adequately adjusted for severity of illness; whether there are some strange selection factors such as low risk patients getting pulled off to go into ambulatory surgery centers, for example; or perhaps our conceptual model is flawed and these processes really don't affect outcomes.

The next series of slides I'm going to run through very quickly. It's really just an example of the measures that have been promulgated by different organizations. JCAHO, of course, is responsible for accrediting hospitals and other health care

organizations. These are its core measures for evaluating inpatient care.

In blue are the measures that focus on process. In white are measures that focus on outcomes. You can see that the great majority of these measures for acute MI and heart failure are process-oriented measures, with the exception of AMI mortality. Similarly, for pneumonia, these are all process measures. For pregnancy, there's a mix.

I was actually on the panel that reviewed surgical procedures and complications. We did suggest a couple of core measures in this area for JCAHO, but they weren't able to implement them for a variety of reasons.

The National Quality Forum is the new standard-setting organization for health care quality measurement. It's basically borrowed much of the work that JCAHO and other organizations have done. But it's added a few indicators of its own.

It did move forward with surgical procedure and complication-related measures that JCAHO has not yet done so. And it also developed some indicators related to pediatric conditions, which are also focusing on process of care.

In group 2, which is the next group that's currently under review, you'll see that there are a

number of structural measures shown in yellow that have been added to the measure set, as well as the outcome measures in white.

CMS in its current statement of work for QIOs again borrows from these JCAHO and NQF core measures.

The Leapfrog Group is really a coalition that's spearheaded by large business organizations, and it's really put an emphasis on structural measures and process features closely related to those structural measures. So you can see evidence-based hospital referral focusing very much on volume for specific conditions and procedures for which a volume/outcome association has been demonstrated.

Finally, AHRQ has been active in the field of quality measures. These are the inpatient quality indicators, which include a set of both volume, process, and outcome measures. Most recently, we've put forward a set of patient safety indicators, which are really measures of morbidity or complications. And these are all outcome measures. So that gives you a sense of the field.

Now, this just shows, if you believe that there may be competition effects, it may be interesting to look at rural hospitals because, of course, most of these rural hospitals are operating in noncompetitive markets

or relatively noncompetitive markets.

And so when we looked -- this is a paper that came out last month in Health Affairs -- we looked at the rate of these patient safety indicators across different categories of hospitals to see how rural hospitals compared with urban teaching and non-teaching hospitals.

And you can see there's a fair amount of heterogeneity. For some outcomes, such as anesthesia complications and postoperative hip fractures, it appears that rural hospitals do have higher rates. But for others, it appears that rural hospitals are very similar or perhaps even lower, as for iatrogenic pneumothorax.

Here again, you can see the rural hospitals are sometimes lower for line infections, postoperative respiratory failure. Of course, our ability to risk adjust here is limited because we only used the comorbidity measures and demographic measures that were available from the administrative data. However, you can see these data don't create a clear picture as to whether these outcomes, in any case, are better at rural hospitals or urban hospitals.

So a key research policy question is: Why are some of these indicators less frequent at rural hospitals, which operate in less competitive environments and which are thought to offer poorer quality of care

based on prior studies?

It may be that there's worse documentation in coding of complications. So we have to consider that our measurement may be flawed. There may be issues related to severity of illness, that the urban hospitals may be seeing sicker patients. And, of course, there may be true differences in quality of care.

So the next set of slides just briefly review some of the studies that will be presented at this conference. And Ryan Mutter really summarized this very nicely. You can see that only two of the studies have looked at process measures. The great majority of the studies have focused on outcome measures and, of course, mortality has been the predominant outcome measure, with a few studies looking at readmission, particularly after MI. More recently, a couple of studies have looked more broadly at outcome measures that include morbidity based on the AHRO measures.

So finally, we'd like to kind of pull this together with some concluding thoughts. What we'd like to do is to find quality measures that may be especially sensitive to the effects of decreasing competition and consolidation. We'd like to find -- before patients start dying right and left from the effects of decreased competition, we'd like to find the canaries in the mine

1 to warn us that that's going to happen.

Perhaps we could study existing monopoly markets to identify quality measures that may be sensitive to these extreme effects. We'd also like to select quality measures that are intrinsically meaningful, as we discussed, avoiding surrogate outcomes.

And we'd like to avoid over-reliance on a single data system. We have a number of different data systems that are available to us, administrative data, but also patient survey data, medical records monitoring systems. In the future, we may have more active reporting systems for medical errors, in particular.

We have a variety of hypotheses that we'd like to test. Consolidation may decrease quality. It may increase quality, depending on the specific mechanisms here.

So if hospitals compete on quality, we may expect to find the greatest effects for measures that are observable to consumers, purchasers, or both. In other words, more competitive markets should show the greatest benefits in terms of the measures that are observable to consumers and purchasers.

Publicly reporting outcomes therefore should enhance the impact of competition. There should be an interaction between public reporting and competitive

1 markets.

Patient-centered measures may be the most promising in markets in which public reporting does not occur because these measures may be more likely to be disseminated by word of mouth.

On the other hand, if hospitals compete based on the hotel services model, the amenities model, then we may expect to find the greatest effects for measures that capture observable amenities. An increasing competition may unleash a medical arms race by hospitals that are attempting to signal higher quality by offering services.

So offering bypass services, for example, may be a way for a hospital to signal that it's a higher quality hospital, and therefore make itself appear better in a market in which hospitals compete based on hotel services rather than based on true quality.

Finally, if our practice makes perfect hypothesis is true, we have a completely different framework for thinking. And here we expect the greatest effects for the conditions and procedures in which volume is an important predictor of mortality. Actually, we would expect that if consolidation increases volume, that it will lead to higher quality rather than lower quality.

So in the future studies, should apply both process and outcome measures whenever possible. We

should apply patient-centered measures when possible,
based on the availability of data. And we now have in
California, for example, data from about 180 hospitals
that have participated in a statewide study of patients'
experiences with care.

This will expand, I think, to more states. And these kinds of studies will really lead to better understandings of which dimensions of care are most susceptible to the effects of provider competition, and therefore which measures we should track after mergers and consolidations.

Thank you.

DR. BARTLETT: Thank you, Patrick, very much.

The third presentation in this segment of the agenda, we're going to turn to Marty Gaynor, who will talk with us about what we know and what we don't know with respect to quality and competition.

DR. GAYNOR: Thank you. It's a pleasure to be here. I appreciate it.

Let me tell you a little bit about what I'm going to do. There's just an outline. There are roughly two parts to my presentation. I first want to talk about some general issues concerning competition and health care markets, and then turn specifically to quality and competition. Also, the overheads today are different,

somewhat different, than are in your packet. I'm certainly happy to make those available to anybody who's interested.

We can see evidence of the impact of lack of competition on quality. If you take a look at the little symbols to the left of the lettering here, those are not the symbols that I put on my presentation, but Microsoft, not facing any significant competition in the software presentation market, doesn't bother to have to make the things compatible across different computers. So we get these symbols that are not what I put on.

In any event, let me talk a little bit first about whether health care is different. At one level, there's a trivial answer: Yes, it's different. It's not like the competitive market that you saw in your econ I textbook. But so what? Nothing is. Even pencils, toothpaste, chewing gum, things like that, may be pretty close, but they're certainly not exactly like what's in the textbook market.

All markets are different. All brides are beautiful. These are truisms. The markets for computer operating systems and cement are very different. That certainly implies different economic analyses. I don't think we treat cement and operating systems markets in the same way as economists, nor would antitrust analysis

1 proceed in the same way.

So the fact that health care markets are different from other markets or different from perfectly competitive markets at one level is not a surprise and doesn't necessarily imply anything particularly different from what economists or antitrust analysts would do.

It is nonetheless true, of course, that health care has some specific characteristics we must take account of in economics and antitrust. As I said, at one level this is totally consistent with a standard antitrust view of case-specific analysis.

Of course, quality assumes particular prominence in health care. If we're talking about cement, it may not be such a big deal -- although you can alter the proportions of the mix in cement and produce lousy cement, which gives you lousy roads such as we have in western Pennsylvania because of lack of competition over the contracts for road construction. But that's another market, not the health care market.

So let me briefly say something, or at least stress something, that I think is germane to the issue surrounding quality and competition, an overall question of whether markets can give us what we want in health care. And I just want to address this from an antitrust policy perspective.

At present, for better or for worse, depending on one's political perspective, perhaps, the U.S. relies on a market system for healthcare financing and delivery, certainly for delivery and for financing for the most part. And that appears unlikely to change any time soon.

I'm not sure that I'm the most astute in hearing the drums beating along the Potomac, but my guess is that we're unlikely to see command and control policies emanating from Washington any time in the near future.

The presumption of antitrust is that monopoly, unregulated monopoly, is bad. Now, is this true in health care markets? That is a question that we have to ask. Well, again, relative to what?

Let me propose at least two alternatives for a thought exercise. One is no regulation at all. And I'll just contend flat-out that unchecked monopoly is clearly bad, that it's possible that you could get a benevolent hospital monopolist or physician cartel, but that it's unlikely that across the board that unchecked monopoly would do what's best for consumers and society as a whole.

Another alternative is self-regulation. And this is certainly a relevant alternative. It's certainly an alternative that's proposed quite frequently in this

1 market: Let the market participants basically regulate 2 themselves.

Again, we have to ask ourselves how likely this is to give us what we want. I'll contend it's very hard for market participants to self-regulate in a global fashion in the market in a way that promotes social welfare. There are certainly areas of activity where market participant self-regulation is the best way to go. Technical standardization is a prominent area where that's clearly a beneficial activity. Regulating the market as a whole, allowing the participants to do that again is not too hard to see it's like putting the fox in charge of a chicken coop.

So if we put firms' goals in conflict with those of society, which will win? I'll contend that the experience of medicine is not particularly reassuring. There are antitrust violations on the part of -- in medicine that go back a long way, at least to the 1930s. A Supreme Court case decided against the AMA. I think that goes back to 1936. All the legal scholars can correct me on this.

All the recent brouhaha about medical errors and so forth again is not particularly reassuring. Self-regulating efforts are important, but they're clearly, in my mind, not sufficient. We do need market incentives.

And again, there are self-regulatory efforts that I think are complimentary with markets.

So a conclusion, just to draw this section to a close: I think antitrust enforcement is a critical element of health policy. It preserves the functioning of the markets on which the health care system is based in the U.S. and it's relevant not just for private payors but also for public payors, Medicare and Medicaid, because they do rely on the functioning of these markets as well. And I think you'll see, when I get to talking about some of the evidence on competition and quality and health care, how that plays out.

So let me now move more directly to quality and competition. In health care, why is this important?

There's probably not even a need for this slide, but certainly quality is one of the aspects that is particularly prominent in health care.

It's been very, very extensively documented. There's a lot of variation in quality. The consequences of variation can matter a great deal. There is variation in the quality of cement and toothpaste and things like that, but a batch of bad toothpaste, assuming it's not poisonous, doesn't have the negative implications for consumers that really bad health care can have, again, for certain kinds of health care.

Well, now, what do we know? Let me divide what

I want to say into what we know from economic theory

because, after all, it may work in practice, but as an

economist we really want to know is if it works in

theory, and then move on to empirical evidence.

And what I will contend is that theory tells us something, but it doesn't provide a particularly strong guide to what we should expect. And so empirical evidence does become extremely important here.

I'm going to divide both my discussion of what we know from theory and from empirical evidence into situations where prices are fixed, where sellers of health care are facing fixed prices such as selling to Medicare, versus variable prices where prices can fluctuate.

So in general, competition does not necessarily have to result in lower prices and higher quality be a good thing. Some people may be willing to accept lower quality if price is low enough, and some people may be willing to pay more if quality is high enough. So there does not have to be necessarily a single price, a single quality level, in the market. There could be variation, and that can be a good thing.

With regard to fixed prices, here's what we know. Competition, that is obviously over the non-price

aspects of the product, as Mark Pauly said, what we'll
call quality for want of a better word. Theory is very
clear here that competition will lead to more quality.
The level of quality will vary with the fixed price.
Higher prices will generally call forth higher levels of

7 However, welfare inferences are unclear.

quality.

Quality can be too high. In particular, if the price is too high, quality will be too high. There would be an excessively high level of quality that firms are producing more quality than it's actually worth to society. It could be too low, or it could be just right.

It's also very clear that monopoly will result in insufficient quality. And there's a lot of literature on this. Again, as Mark said, this goes back to the regulated airline literature, for those of you who may remember when airlines were regulated. My recollection of that literature is one of the prominent papers was a model of competition among airlines for consumers in which the number of meals was the quality measure that was used, and it actually seemed to work empirically. So that is an amusing anecdote.

What about variable prices? Well, if firms choose both price and quality, anything can happen. With regard to social welfare, monopoly can under- or over-

produce quality. A competitive market, the same thing; just about anything can happen.

Let me clarify a little bit. In most models, it will be true that more competition will call forth higher levels of quality and lower prices. That doesn't happen universally, but in a lot of models that will happen.

And it also is true that consumers will benefit but society does not necessarily benefit. So we can get excessive levels of quality production. For example, that can happen in the sense of costing more than it's worth, but if those costs are borne by producers in the form of reduced profits, then that many be a reduction in social welfare but not necessarily a reduction in consumer well-being.

Anyway, the overall welfare results in this literature are definitely, maybe, and that's final. So in terms of trying to understand whether competition will make society better off or worse off, it's really not clear from this literature. You can find specific papers that have specific findings, but they tend to be all over the map.

Let me say a little something about monopsony. With regard -- monopsony would be buyer market power. Monopsony is clearly a bad thing, just like monopoly is.

Countervailing power is an issue that often comes up, the notion that there's market power on one side of the market and we might want to increase market power on the other side of the market.

Most recently, it's been in the context of physician groups asking for relaxation of antitrust enforcement to allow them to bargain collectively with health insurers, but it can go the other way as well.

It's possible for countervailing power to make things better. It can also make things worse. Again, there are results on both sides in this theory. While I wouldn't say this is a specific result from theory, if bargaining between buyers and sellers is only over price and quantity is set freely in the market, it seems unlikely that countervailing power will make matters better.

If bargaining is over both price and quantity, then it's more likely that there will be welfare improvement. But even that's not a guarantee. So the circumstances under which countervailing power will improve matters seem to be actually fairly narrow, but there are some circumstances that theory says under which that would be the case.

Impacts on quality: I don't know of any theoretical papers that explicitly look at impacts of

buyer power on quality. Intuitively we'd expect
monopsony to make things worse, but there are no such
results, to my knowledge.

Let me turn to empirical evidence. I said -because that's particularly important here because of the
fuzziness of theory with regard to welfare predictions.
So the evidence that I'm aware of at this point comes
from econometrics, statistical studies using secondary
data.

Actually, the initial version of these slides -- I thought I had a different version. The first version said not a lot of evidence at this point, but actually the more I read, the more the papers piled up. And there a bunch more papers that we'll hear today.

I'd actually say that there's a fair amount of evidence at this point. It's all still relatively new, stuff that's been produced in the past few years. But actually, there are quite a few studies out there.

Now, entirely on hospitals, that's not

100 percent accurate. But for the most part on
hospitals, again, I'm going to divide the studies into
those of markets where prices are fixed and studies where
prices are variable because of the way they correspond to
theory and because of the way the studies divide up. And
because it's a little easier to think about those studies

in a market where prices are fixed, let's start there.

So the first study, in my opinion the best study in this literature thus far, is by Dan Kessler, who's here today, and Mark McClellan. And I think this study sets the gold standard for studies in this area. It's a very careful study, very competent study. And I think the results are very, very solid.

So what did Dan and Mark do? They looked at Medicare enrollees with AMI, so it's a fixed price market. They looked at all non-rural Medicare beneficiaries with heart attacks in this ten-year period. And they looked at mortality as an outcome.

They found that patients in the most concentrated markets had significantly higher mortality than those in the least concentrated markets, a pretty big difference. They also found that the expenses to Medicare were lower in more concentrated markets before 1991 and after than -- and higher after 1991.

So this study, I think, establishes pretty clearly a relationship between how concentrated the market is and heart attack outcomes for Medicare beneficiaries. There's no price variation to the Medicare beneficiaries, so they have no reason to go to one hospital versus another based on price. There is some question about exactly what the nature of

competition is for heart attacks, but certainly this establishes this relationship in a very strong and believable way.

Now, there are a number of other studies, and they certainly do not all point in the same direction. A study by Bob Town, who's also here, and Gautam Gowrisankaran also looked at Medicare enrollees with AMI and looked at pneumonia. They looked at mortality risk adjusted in Los Angeles County, and they found that it was significantly lower in more concentrated parts of Los Angeles County for AMI pneumonia for the years that I indicate here.

So this seems to go the other way, which provides some different results. There's a study by Phil Held and Mark Pauly which goes back a ways that looked at dialysis facilities and found that fewer dialysis machines per patient were provided in more concentrated markets. Presumably more dialysis machines per patient is a good thing.

There's the medical arms race literature, which goes back to the mid-80s or prior to the mid-80s. And papers in that literature look at a number of dimensions of -- trying to indicate non-price competition -- hospital cost, length of stay, service offerings, excess capacity. And these studies pretty consistently find

these things are higher in less concentrated markets. 1 2

This appears to be over by the early '90s.

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Now, what about evidence in markets where prices are variable? A study that I've done with Jean Abraham and Bill Voqt, we looked at the effect of market structure and number of hospitals on hospital profits and quantity in the market. We looked at isolated markets in the U.S. in 1990 so that the markets are clearly selfcontained.

And what we find is that quantity increases with the number of hospitals in the market and profits Why? Well, one possible explanation is that decrease. quality and/or price changed in a way that made people want to consume more, not less. Hence, they must be better off.

The study by Hamilton and Ho looked at hospital mergers in California in the mid-1990s. They did not find any detectable impact on heart attack or stroke inpatient mortality. They did find that some mergers increased readmission rates for heart attack patients, and early discharge of newborns.

A recent study by Huckman looked at, again, heart conditions in New York State over the 1990s. I must confess I'm not entirely clear I understand this study, but what Huckman found is that risk adjusted

mortality was lower as a result of a hospital acquisition where the acquiring hospital provided the service, PTCA or CABG, but the target hospital did not. There were 28 such acquisitions. But for those particular types of acquisitions, the impact of those acquisitions was that risk mortality was lower as a result of that.

A study by Volk and Waldvogel, which I think was mentioned earlier, compares New Jersey and New York in the early to mid '90s. What is going on in this study is that New Jersey deregulated hospital rates during this time period and New York did not change. So they're comparing the change in New Jersey to the change in New York.

They find that risk adjusted inpatient mortality increased in New Jersey post-deregulation relative to New York. So if we believe that the rate deregulation is associated with greater competition or price competition, then associated with that is a decrease in quality or a decrease in positive outcomes.

Gowrisankaran and Town, same study but looking at HMO enrollees -- I'm categorizing this here under variable prices -- with AMI and pneumonia found that risk adjusted mortality was significantly lower in more concentrated parts of Los Angeles County. So they find different results for Medicare enrollees who face fixed

prices and HMO enrollees who face variable prices. Of course, those are not the only differences between those two populations.

A recent study by Sohn and Rathouz, looking at California hospitals, again finding mortality lower for PTCA patients in less concentrated markets.

And let me just say something. One last class of studies, volume/outcome, there has been a positive relationship between volume and outcome, as has been observed, for a very, very long time. And intuitively, it makes a lot of sense.

It's pretty hard to identify a causal relationship in secondary data because, of course, volumes could be causing outcomes, or it could go the other way around. And probably both are occurring to some degree at the same time.

A recent study by Ho looking at PTCA in California, in terms of looking at outcomes, didn't really find a particularly large volume/outcome relationship. There are a number of other studies, and we'll hear from Bob Town later today on a recent study that he's done.

But this area is important, and it's particularly important for antitrust analyses, in that if, say, we're considering a hospital merger and that

merger would increase volume at the merged entity postmerger, then if there are improvements in outcome
associated with that, that that's something that
certainly should be considered.

So what do we know? Well, again, perhaps this is a little too strong, the evidence only for empirical for hospital markets. But that's where most of the evidence is at this point. There's a lot of evidence on heart attacks and not so much evidence on other kinds of conditions.

The empirical evidence is mixed, but again my read is the strongest evidence thus far is that quality is higher in less concentrated hospital markets. But I do want to be clear there are conflicting results across studies, and perhaps that shouldn't be too surprising. We're still early on in this effort, and things are evolving. So that's not perhaps a particular surprise.

Well, what don't we know? There's lots of stuff we don't know. We don't really know how complaint affects both quality and price. There are lots of studies that look at price, and there are a growing number of studies that look at quality. But there aren't studies thus far that look at both quality and price.

We don't have models that really lay out in a precise way the nature of quality competition. So, for

example, do we think that hospitals actually compete for heart attack patients and heart attack patients choose hospitals, or do we think more that hospitals compete for other kinds of patients?

There is some overall level of quality it's hard to vary quality across specific conditions. And so heart attack quality or heart attack outcomes are an indicator of overall quality levels, management levels, things like that in the hospital.

And though either of those interpretations are possible -- but they do make a difference. So I think one area to work on is thinking about, more precisely, exactly the nature of competition in these markets and trying to develop models of quality competition.

There are other aspects of quality, as Patrick so ably talked about. We don't at present have much evidence on other markets, doctors, and relatively little on insurers. Quality is certainly an important aspect of performance in healthcare markets. It should absolutely be considered in economic and antitrust analyses of competition.

The presumption in antitrust is that monopoly is bad and competition is good. My read of the scientific evidence at this point is not sufficient to reverse that presumption with regard to quality, but it's

1	a very important area for further research, and in
2	antitrust analyses, quality should certainly be
3	considered in assessing competitive impacts.
4	Thank you.
5	DR. BARTLETT: Join me in thanking Marty and
6	Patrick and Mark.
7	(Applause.)
8	DR. BARTLETT: I'm just going to open up the
9	floor for purpose that at this time in the agenda
10	VOICE: Use the microphone. Larry
11	DR. BARTLETT: it was really put out on the
12	table what we know, to talk about where we are in terms
13	of quality and competition.
14	So what I'd like to is offer anybody around the
15	table the opportunity to comment, either to add to some
16	of the remarks that were made, to emphasize work that may
17	not have been mentioned. Warren, we'll start with you.
18	DR. GREENBERG: Thank you very much, and thank
19	you for the kind comments at the beginning.
20	Obviously, Patrick Romano did a terrific job
21	talking about the quality indicators of a very difficult
22	product to measure. However, I would like to make a
23	statement, and then perhaps will follow with a question
24	that we'll answer throughout the day, and also maybe even
25	refer to Mark Pauly's paper as well.

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That is, looking back to George Stigler's suggestion of 1961 in his Economics of Information, why don't we have the department store approach to quality in health care? George Stigler is the Nobel laureate in economics some years ago from the University of Chicago.

You go in to buy jewelry. You're not keen on the quality of the gold. You're not keen on the quality of the particular aspects of the jewelry. If you go to K-Mart, you know what kind of jewelry you're going to get. If you're going to go to Bloomingdale's or Lord & Taylor, you know what kind of jewelry you're going to get. Same thing with men's apparel. Same thing with women's apparel.

What's happened to brand names, trademarks, for difficult, complex items? Why don't we have this in health care? We have it for universities. We know such things as Ivy League universities, University of Pennsylvania, University of Michigan, other such universities, a whole complex of professors and courses and offerings.

And yet we have brand names. Why don't we have such things in health care? Yes, we have some university hospitals, and yes, there's a Mass General Hospital out there. But why not more of these in health care?

We even have it among ourselves. I like to

1	play with Mark Pauly. Why was Mark Pauly selected to
2	lead off this conference? Because of his brand name.
3	Because he's a distinguished contributor to micro
4	economics and health economics all these years. I didn't
5	have to look at every single one of his articles. But he
6	comes around with brand names, as do most of the people
7	in this paper. Why not brand names in healthcare to give
8	us an idea of quality from K-Mart to Nordstrom's?
9	DR. BARTLETT: I think Arnie wants to take that
10	one on.
11	DR. MILSTEIN: I'll respond to it, and then I
12	have another point I'd like to put out on the table.
13	First, one of the interesting phenomena in
14	America over the last 20 years is we have occasionally
15	inched toward scientifically valid quality reporting, as
16	it had suggested that some of the brand names don't stand
17	up. And I would cite, for example, Medicare putting its
18	toe in the water first with risk adjusted outcomes for

organ transplants.

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You know, some of the top brand names in the country didn't do too well, and many of them -- their public comment acknowledged that they had some work to do and that they, in essence, didn't deserve their brand name with respect to some types of organ transplantation.

My primary challenge as a -- I'll call myself a

quality change agent for purchasers and consumer
organizations is, to invoke another metaphor, somewhat
lower on the Maslow scale than lack of knowledge about
the effects of competition on quality.

Health care quality is going to require a lot more provider cooperation if we're going to measure it and compare it validly. So in addition to research on the effects of competition on quality, I need research on the effects of competition on provider willingness to collect and report information needed to measure and compare provider quality adequately.

DR. BARTLETT: We'll keep, Warren, your file, your question, open if people would like to swing back to it. But I'd be interested in other comments in terms of where we are in terms of understanding competition and quality and those relationships.

Other takers? Yes, go ahead.

DR. GAYNOR: Just a brief comment. Mark presented a table with overall change in the Herfindahl Index, and actually one thing I didn't mention in my paper, that thus far most of the paper, empirical evidence on quality and competition has used concentration measures, the Herfindahl Index. And again, I think that's totally appropriate for these studies.

If we look at studies of price competition in a

hospital market, there are sort of some second generation studies that show that hospitals have quite a bit of local market power, even in relatively unconcentrated markets, with regard to pricing power.

And so one thing to suggest is that the Herfindahl Index is suggestive but certainly not dispositive, and one thing we might want to think about for second generation studies in this area are studies that take off on the results of these first generation studies that use concentration indices but try to go beyond them and see whether what we've seen with the degree of market power in pricing is also reflected in quality.

DR. BARTLETT: Thank you, Marty. Others? Yes, Larry? And I'm going to ask everybody, if you would, this is being transcribed. So if you'd use the mikes, please.

DR. CASALINO: Yes. I'd just like to comment on the brand name question. I think, leaving aside the question about whether brand name hospitals are in fact better than non-brand name hospitals, which Arnie just asked, I think actually if you go around to local markets, as we do in the community tracking study, for example, there are in every market very clear brand name hospitals that may or may not be better, but everybody

thinks they are. There's usually one or two.

So I would argue that there are brand names on a metropolitan area level in hospital care, but not for health plans and not very much for physicians; maybe in some places a group or two.

So one thing to think about that's interesting, I think, is why there are -- and I think the answer is maybe fairly obvious -- why hospitals can develop brand names. Health plans, for the most part, haven't been able to do that, and not physicians either, for the most part.

DR. BARTLETT: Other comments? And again, this morning this is what we'd like to do is really say this is where we are in terms of our understanding of competition and quality. We'll talk about some new research in upcoming panels, and then we'll talk about the gaps and where we need to go later in the afternoon.

But any comments in terms of what you've heard?

Anything that you'd like to emphasize? Were there

exceptions you'd like to take to some of the

interpretations of the literature? Anything at all?

Mark?

DR. PAULY: Just one comment on brand names. This isn't an answer, but I think it's a difference between health care and department stores.

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1	And that is, there is no hospital I know of
2	that would want to bill itself as the K-Mart or Sears of
3	health care. The statement I mean, I have a Philly-
4	style advertising slogan for that hospital, which is,
5	"We're not that great, but we sure are cheap. Do you
6	have a problem with that?"
7	But I think the dilemma in part is
8	philosophical. When it comes to health, nobody wants to
9	say, we're willing to give up on quality to save money,
10	although all of the time in every way all of us do do
11	things that indicate we are willing to do that but we
12	don't want to say it.
13	And then it also gets to the point that Marty
14	raised, that we don't know what's the socially optimal
15	level anyway. So we're not sure whether it would be a
16	good or bad thing to have a hospital K-Mart chain.
17	But I think part of it is that the willingness
18	to speak in polite company about trading off cost and
19	quality in health care is low, and maybe it should be.
20	But that's at least a difference, I think. Whether it's
21	a legitimate difference or not, I don't know, but it is a
22	difference.
23	DR. BARTLETT: Gary, did you want to hop in?

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DR. YOUNG: No. I thought that was very much

You seem like you were leaning toward the mike.

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on point. I think, right, we don't have the kind of quality scheme that maybe Warren Greenberg was -- the range of quality that's being put out. We don't have the K-Marts. I think we do have brand names.

I think the closest thing that hospitals have when you talk about a K-Mart is that they avoid the -- you know, the tertiary care, high complex types of procedures. They focus more on routine kinds of procedures. And that's the closest thing that we have really to what might be described as a K-Mart.

And the brand names are the hospitals that -you know, the big university hospitals, the Mass

Generals, which is in my back yard, which are known for
doing, you know, very, very high complex types of
procedures. You know, the chief medical officer of Mass

General once said to me, "You know, by the time people
are brought into our hospital, they're already dead and
we bring them back to life." And it's that kind of, you
know, an orientation. They take on the toughest cases.

But I do think that represents somewhat of a different dimension of quality from the department store orientation where you talk about jewelry or something like that.

DR. BARTLETT: Other thoughts? Yes. We'll go to Patrick, and Bill, I'll come your way right after.

DR. ROMANO: Yes. I think another issue that we have to think about is the information that's available in the market, or the lack thereof. The department store example is an interesting one.

I mean, the fact is that when you buy jewelry, you can easily go to a jewelry store, and then you can take what you bought and take it to an appraiser and have it assessed. And similarly, when you buy men's apparel, you know, you can take it home and you can look at it and you can see what the quality of the stitching is and the quality of thread and so forth.

I think we all appreciate it's more difficult to do that with health care. And so in markets where information about quality of care is not readily available, consumers may easily think that they're getting Cadillac care. They think they're getting the best quality care because that's what hospitals are trying to convince them of. But they really may be getting poor care when you look at professional norms and standards and outcomes.

DR. BARTLETT: So you're taking this back, I think, appropriately to a measurement issue in terms of some type of measures that are valid and understandable from the consumer perspective?

DR. ROMANO: Right. And as Arnie said, the

issues about, you know, what information is out there, 1 2 it's very interesting what's happened in certain markets. 3 And the Cleveland example is a classic one where, you know, I think -- I don't know if anyone is here from 4 Cleveland, but, I mean, basically the health care quality 5 reporting initiative in that market disappeared largely 6 because of the market power of one hospital organization 7 8 that was able to say, we think we're number one but we're not showing up that way on the ratings. And so we're not 9 going to play this game any more. And so that's -- you 10 11 know, that can be what happens when there's lack of effective competition. 12

DR. BARTLETT: Bill?

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DR. SAGE: I'd just like to flag a different issue that Mark Pauly's comments made me think about. I'm sort of used to being able pretty cleanly to divide price, quality, and output. And things that Mark was saying made me actually think that the line between quality and output is kind of hazy in health care in ways that the line between price and output isn't. And this all had to do with nonprofit hospitals and other nonprofit providers.

Mark talked about lack of insurance as being an output rather than a quality problem, but then we talked about nonprofits as being perhaps quality maximizers

rather than price maximizers.

And while I was trying to reconstruct my exact thinking process for you, the bottom line that I come to here is that when we do look at a nonprofit hospital, in some ways everyone really wants health care providers to have good intentions and their intentions matter to us. And a lot of the manifestations of those intentions are in terms of charity care and access to those who can't pay.

And it occurs to me that it's going to be very hard to model the line between what's a quality effect with nonprofits and what's an output effect, especially where charity care and the uninsured are concerned.

DR. BARTLETT: Yes. Jon?

DR. CHRISTIANSON: Yes. This is just a comment to put on the research agenda, I guess. I think we're seeing in some communities a fairly interesting experiment with the development of specialty hospitals entering the market. And I think we need to add that to our research agenda.

What effect is that going to have on quality of outcomes? Are there differences in the quantity of outcomes in those facilities and the existing facilities? What happens overall to the community in terms of quality of care when that happens? And kind of teasing out the

sort of effect of volume versus specialization, and trying to figure out what would possibly be driving quality changes.

DR. BARTLETT: Other comments? Other folks who want to hop into this discussion? Michael Hagen? If you would, since we're transcribing this, come up to the mike, if you would, please.

MR. HAGEN: Yes. You had brought back the issue on measurement on the outcomes side, the quality side. I'm interested in terms of the review of the literature that's been done whether there are similar issues on the competition side in measuring. The workhorses that we used in this kind of -- these kinds of studies over time, do they stand up to the need? Is there a complexity in there that we need to deal with? And so comments from Marty or Mark on that.

DR. BARTLETT: Peter, do you want to hop in on that? Then, Marty, I'll come to you right after.

DR. HAMMER: Yes. I would just say that's a real outstanding issue to be raising, that we're going to be spending a lot of time talking about how complex quality is. But thinking about what is competition is just as hard of a question. What's the appropriate measure of output, as Bill is raising, very hard.

One of the things here is what the unit of

production is. What is the supply function? What do we mean by a firm? One interesting thing: We've already accepted the division in the structure of the agenda that physicians are separate from hospitals, that we're going to talk about hospital competition and we're going to talk about physician competition.

In fact, one of the most important things, really, is how do we redefine new markets, new products, new commodities, and new forms of competition, and what implication will those new forms then have on quality, is a very, very important part of the dimension.

DR. BARTLETT: Thank you. Marty, did you want to hop in on that issue?

DR. GAYNOR: Sure. Well, I think that's an important issue. Again, I think the studies we have at this point are first generation studies and have worked with existing measures. And I think that's the right thing to do and the obvious thing to do.

As we proceed forward, we want to think more carefully, perhaps, about issues of product market definition and geographic market definition, and again perhaps not rely as heavily on workhorse measures of concentration, which are not measures of competition, after all. They're just a measure of the structure of the market.

We're trying to draw an inference about the relationship between market structure and outcomes or quality here through some mediation of behavior, competitive conduct, which we can't actually see. There are a number of different ways to get at that, and I expect we'll see a lot of activity in this area building upon these studies.

But I think Mike's dead right. It's not just working on dealing with the quality measurement, which is, of course, extremely important, but also thinking about quality in a careful way. And I think for that we need to go to first principles and think about exactly what we mean by competition for specific products and try and write down models that we can ultimately bring to the table and estimate.

DR. BARTLETT: Mark?

DR. PAULY: My guess is that playing with more sophisticated measures of the numbers or division of the market between existing sellers probably won't pay off that much. But one thing that might is the potential entry idea. That would be nice to be able to formulate and incorporate.

And the other, as Marty mentioned, is what exactly is the market here. I've heard some speculation that, well, the reason that CABGs make money is because

hospitals price angioplasty as a loss leader. So what's
the price? Well, it all depends on which product you're
looking at. And when products are related, as they often
are in this area, you kind of want to look at the package
price rather than the individual price.

DR. BARTLETT: Mark, let me push you a little bit more. Talk a little bit more about the potential entry idea.

DR. PAULY: Well, particularly for -- in some ways it's related to the point Jon made. Particularly for specialized hospital services, at any point in time you can see how many hospitals are furnishing those services.

But we know that more hospitals get into the act and hospitals withdraw. And so some measure of sort of how thick or thin that margin of entry is around where we currently are might give a better idea of what the true state of competition is.

DR. BARTLETT: Others? Yes, Warren, then Marty.

DR. GREENBERG: When I was talking about department store, I was mostly focusing, as you suggest, on health plans. We don't have brand names in health plans. And I don't see a K-Mart health plan, but I also don't see a Lexus health plan, either. I don't know one

1 plan from another.

And I think one of the objectives today, or at least one of my objectives when I have a chance to talk again as a commenter, is to ask what are the incentives of the health plans to develop trademarks, to develop a department store name. And I might say right now they're kind of weak at this point.

And so among the health plans is where I see the department store approach as the name of a university, as the name of a Bloomingdale's department store.

DR. BARTLETT: And I'm assuming, given the geographic spread of plans -- I don't mean to take away from the comments that you'll make later on -- the issue there would be that you would expect some similarity across those geographic markets, an Aetna being an Aetna on the west coast and on the east coast as well.

DR. GREENBERG: They would build up that name if they wanted to.

DR. BARTLETT: Yes. Marty, did you want to hop back in?

DR. GAYNOR: Yes. Just briefly, to pick up on one aspect of Bill's point. And again, I think one important direction to go with studies of the area is to look at the behavior of not-for-profit versus for-profit

versus public hospitals with regard to quality.

There's been a fair amount of work on this with regard to pricing and the exercise of market power in pricing, which has turned up pretty much no difference between for-profits and not-for-profits. But at this juncture, I don't think we know very much about where there's a difference between for-profits and not-for-profits in the exercise of market power and quality.

There is some evidence on quality levels and differences between for-profits and not-for-profits, but I don't think specifically with regard to the exercise of market power and quality.

DR. BARTLETT: I want to use this time -- I know we're going to talk about a future research agenda this afternoon. But I think, again, these series of presentation, this discussion, sets a good foundation for thinking about that. We'll break in a couple minutes.

But I just want to perhaps tap into some of the thinking around the room from folks we haven't heard and ask you -- and Gloria, I'll give you a heads up, I'm coming your way first -- ask you to perhaps pull out the one thing or two that you heard from this morning's presentations, from reviewing the papers, from your own work, that you would flag in terms of our current understanding, the current work being done with respect

to competition and quality, that you'd want to flag as
being a salient point that may be something that we hang
a future agenda on or that we need to address in terms of
future work.

Any thoughts?

DR. BAZZOLI: Well, I think, especially when I'm thinking about studies that use Herfindahl indices to measure concentration or competition, to me there's this jump, this leap of faith, between mergers and what happens through a merger, consolidation of volume and things like that, to what we see in a concentrated versus unconcentrated market.

And I think there's more -- some need to think about what actually happens when hospitals merge, when we see markets concentrate, what actually happens in the flow of volume across hospitals. Do we see the concentration of services in one place versus another when there's a merger? That kind of thing.

So I think there's a need to look at that intermediate step first to understand what happens, and then think about the quality implications.

DR. BARTLETT: Bill or Jeff? I'll just pick up on some folks we haven't heard from on this side.

Anything that you'd like to throw into the hopper?

DR. ENCINOSA: Especially from Marty's

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presentation, it's clear that we don't have any guidance on how to do a welfare analysis. For example, even if concentration rates increase, we can't even tell if costs will increase or if costs will decrease. That's a big chunk that's missing. We can't tell -- we can't really compare price and quality tradeoffs if we don't have a good foundation for some type of welfare analysis.

DR. BARTLETT: Jeffrey?

M. GEPPERT: Yes. I guess just to emphasize that as well, that, you know, a lot of the, you know, using volume measures as sort of general aggregate measures of quality could have some very sort of unintended consequences. Hospitals vary in terms of the quality they provide depending on what dimension you're looking at, what kinds of diseases you're looking at. So I think there might be some very unintended welfare consequences to some of these.

DR. BARTLETT: Brent, anything you'd like to throw into the hopper?

DR. JAMES: Given the ask, I have four or five things.

DR. BARTLETT: Go right ahead.

DR. JAMES: First is, as a practical experience level, very often patients and physicians define quality as spare no expense. It's a very common definition of

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1 quality in actual practice.

Second idea: Best estimates we have, which are quite poor, is there's a massive amount of waste in the health care delivery system, estimated to be 25 to 40 percent of all health care delivery costs. It certainly implies that you can increase medical and service outcomes while decreasing costs on a broad scale.

And as a system, we've been unable to get after that waste. And I'm sometimes -- I don't know -- disappointed that particularly the macroeconomics of health care don't talk about that or examine that because I think it has a potentially very important role.

We've talked a lot about competition, especially price competition. And as a non-expert, I believe that that depends upon volume. The reason that you'd engage in price competition was a hope to increase your patient volume or your treatment volume.

But an important thing to recognize is in health care, very often volume is mediated. And something like Medicare, it's mediated primarily by physicians. And they work on a completely different set of incentives, price largely being immaterial.

And I think you have to look at that level where the actual decisions are made. When you come into commercial insurers, of course, there's a different set

of mediators. And it muddies the water a little bit, but

I think they have to be considered at some level.

Just another comment: We were looking at -Dr. Romano reviewed some of the PSI data from AHRQ.
There's good reason to believe that most of those
measures are substantially and systematically biased.
Even in the good hospitals, they grossly underestimate
injury rates, for example, quality failure rates.

And then the question becomes: Is that bias stable over time and across different groups? And I don't think that we know that very well yet. And that's a real measurement challenge that we have. It at least implies the need for independent clinical data audit before we can make statements about those sorts of measures, before we have a reliable basis to even talk. So just a few ideas.

DR. BARTLETT: Good. Thank you. And I hope we'll come back. I think you had -- somebody else had also mentioned this notion of not looking at, say, physicians and hospitals separately. But I think you talked about the interaction between those two provider types in terms of competition of behavior. Hopefully we'll come back to that.

Dan, anything you'd like to add?

DR. KESSLER: Sure. I'd just like to -- this

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is working. Good.

DR. BARTLETT: Just pull it a little closer to you, please. Thanks.

DR. KESSLER: I'd just like to highlight a couple things that Mark and Marty said that I found very interesting. One thing that Marty said was that where we should go next with this research is to try to start to identify some of the mechanisms through which competition affects quality.

And it's easy to say that it does if we have these very coarse measures like Herfindahls. And as Marty pointed out, they don't really capture a lot of what economic theory suggests the way that competition affects quality. Understanding better exactly how it's working, I think, could be an important area to do some more work.

One of the things that Mark said that I also found very interesting was that our focus on price in understanding how competition works has also been misplaced. And I think that's part of what this day is about, is that price, given the complementarity of so many of the products that we get when we get what we think of as medical care, it's very hard to know what that means.

Because really, the true price of an episode of

care is a combination of some prices and some quantities and some qualities and lots of different things. And so I think that's another reason why we would focus the day as we're doing.

DR. BARTLETT: Good. Peggy? David? Anything you'd like to hop in? Feel free.

DR. HYMAN: Just a couple of thoughts. One is, I think we talked a little bit about incentives under competition and a little bit about -- not enough about how information influences incentives and how peoples' behavior is influenced by the availability of information and the form that it takes and who it's targeted at.

And just to be very concrete, if you think the information has a -- if you're shooting to have a supply side effect, you're going to structure things very differently than if you're looking at a demand side effect. And the sort of overlay on that, different types of health care. You may have very different impacts. So supply-sensitive care may play out very differently than preference-sensitive care, to use the Wenberg formulation.

The last point I wanted to make, though, is much of the discussion about how we develop measures and how we sort of verify their utility has proceeded on an implicit assumption that the measures are a public good

and they need to be developed in a top-down approach.

And part of the difficulty is, or at least phrased as a question, are the measures useful to health services researchers but not to patients and other consumers of them? And hence they don't rely on them precisely because they were developed in a way that's more driven off of the availability of the underlying medical records to give them validity from the health services research perspective, but not utility from a purchaser perspective.

DR. BARTLETT: Thank you. Again, I'm just hopping to folks that hadn't had an opportunity to throw some thoughts out on the table. Michael, anything you'd like to add?

DR. VITA: Yes. Just to sort of echo a little bit what David said. As I was looking through some of the studies that are summarized in some of the presentations we're going to see this afternoon, especially on the competition and outcome measures, we find that a number of the papers have found that there is a positive relationship between competition and these different outcome measures.

And as I was looking at those, it struck me: I don't really know, when you think about how would consumers become well-informed about those outcomes and

1 how would they act on them?

And if we don't really understand how that happens, then I find it a little bit difficult to infer that firms have the incentive to -- you know, have the usual incentives in attracting more patients to make those kinds of quality improvements if it doesn't elicit the kind of reaction that we would expect in other markets where quality is more easily measured and assessed by consumers.

So that's where I think -- you know, the biggest gap so far that I can see in the research.

DR. BARTLETT: Good. I'm going to focus on this inner table, and come back and take a couple of other comments from around the room. Herb, anything you want to throw on the fire?

DR. WONG: Yes. Just to pick up on the measurement of quality sort of issue, one of the things that Marty kind of highlighted in review of his studies was the notion that people have used mortality rates as the proxy for quality.

And I think that, you know, the next generation of research in this particular area might want to focus on other measures. And I think that, you know, the AHRQ patient safety indicators is a good way to basically kind of get this jump-started in some ways because there are

1 really different dimensions of quality out there.

Mortality is one dimension, but I think that

there are other dimensions that might give different

insights. Even if you do an analysis, looked at the

impact of competition on quality, well, there are

different dimensions and there could be different results

that -- one dimension could be increasing quality and the

other could be decreasing quality.

So I think that, you know, that's the next train or next generation of research, I think, that would be kind of valuable here.

DR. BARTLETT: Let me -- Robert, before we go your way, let me just sort of state the obvious. I think we have begun a discussion and we've begun pulling out of the presentations and your own work and experience some real good suggestions in terms of where we go with the future research agenda.

Let me suggest that you take your little marginal notes -- my sense is that this conversation is only going to get better and richer during the course of the day -- but toward the tail end of this afternoon, we'll come back and try to assemble the pieces and sort of see what the suggestions and what the priorities might be across this group.

25 Robert?

1			DR. T	OWN:	I	think	Ι	want	to	build	on	something
2	both	Dan	raised	and	Mar	ty me	nt:	ioned				

DR. BARTLETT: Robert, bring that mike a little closer to you, please. Thank you.

DR. TOWN: Sure. I'd like to build on something that Dan mentioned and Marty mentioned in his talk, and that is what I think is the deep policy challenge in translating the research into policy practice is that the correlations that at least we're finding early between hospital competition and quality might not be easily translated into a merger analysis for the simple reason that each hospital merger is going to be very different.

And furthermore, the identification that's occurring in studies I've done and Dan and other people have done -- and there are some exceptions where people have looked at the effect of mergers -- that identification is not the same identification that's going to occur. This change in concentration is not the same that's going to occur in a merger.

And I think that's going to be tricky. I think it's going to be very hard to separate out, jeez, a high quality hospital merges with a low quality hospital; what's going to happen? Or two medium quality hospitals merge; what's going to happen?

Those might be very different analyses, and I

don't think we have very much guidance from the work done

on how we should think about those things.

DR. BARTLETT: I don't want to lose the fact, when we're talking about these measurement issues, that it seems to me that the measure is going to be different if we're talking about hospitals, if we're talking about physicians, if we're talking about plans or insurers, that we have to -- this is an issue that sort of is -- cross-cuts all these different focuses and probably has different implications.

Dan?

DR. STRYER: I just wanted to very briefly raise two things. One was to reiterate Herb's point on the many dimensions of quality, that things can look very good in one dimension and have no effect or a negative impact in another dimension, and we really need to focus on the big picture.

The other aspect is to try -- I've been toying in my mind with how professionalism amongst healthcare providers relates here, and that this may be totally independent of competition or it may be related somehow. And I don't understand how it fits.

Because professionalism is one of the major drivers of quality, I think, from the clinical side. So

1 I'd be interested in any thoughts about that.

DR. BARTLETT: Bill?

DR. VOGT: So the comment that I have is about the idea of the welfare analysis of quality. So the simple way to think about it is that if, for example, we found that increasing concentration led to a decrease in -- sorry, that a decrease -- an increase in concentration led to a decrease in quality, that that would necessarily be a bad thing, where quality here is inevitably in these studies some kind of average quality over a whole bunch of units in the market.

And playing off Mark Pauly's scatter plot, where he showed different price/quality points and the fact that people can have different preferences over price and quality -- I mean, it isn't the case that welfare necessarily goes up when average quality goes up, or welfare necessarily goes up when average quality goes down.

If people have heterogeneous preferences over quality and money, it's actually a good thing to have both high quality and low quality providers in a market. So any intervention that increases average quality, say, by hacking off the bottom end of the quality distribution is likely actually to be a welfare-decreasing intervention rather than a welfare-increasing

1 intervention.

So I think it's important to think about the whole distribution of quality when thinking about the effects of competition on, and think about whether an intervention which increases quality does it by increasing quality at every point of the distribution or by cutting off the bottom of the distribution or the top of the distribution.

DR. BARTLETT: Very interesting. Meredith?

DR. ROSENTHAL: I was saving some of my

comments for my later opportunity. But I did just want

to repeat what a few others have said. I think it seems

to me the most obvious absence here is literature on

physician competition and understanding what those

physician markets look like, which are obviously going to

be very different by specialty.

And it also strikes me that we might see consolidation of the type that Larry's going to talk a little bit about, which is very much about price leverage. And such consolidation might lead to increased fees, but there might still be competition for patients within that, depending on how physicians within those consolidated organizations are paid. And that competition might be quality-enhancing.

And I'll talk a little bit more about what kind

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of quality that kind of competition is likely to produce.

So I think it may be important to look at how competition

3 affects these things differently.

DR. BARTLETT: Thank you. Lisa?

DR. IEZZONI: I'm just thinking about the research agenda that AHRQ is going to have to come up with. And I'd like to play off of something that Arnie Milstein said. And that is we've talked a lot about quality measurement, and a number of people have talked about quality improvement.

I think it would be very important for AHRQ as they define their research agenda to tie this to the quality chasm work that has been coming out of the Institute of Medicine. And the quality chasm work, for those of you who don't know it, was a big IOM report that came out in 2001, and talked about six aims for improving quality of care and the healthcare system.

And among those six aims were two things -- and since I'm not an economist I don't know how this fits with competition -- but one of them was equity, that people are treated equally regardless of their race, ethnicity. You know, disparities is a really big issue right now. Disability, et cetera, other characteristics that they might have.

And a second aim that I don't know how that

would work with competition as well is patientcenteredness. And this kind of ties onto Brent's

comment, that for a lot of people, you know, "Throw

everything that you can possibly do for me, Doctor," is

how some patients do define quality, although this is

going to vary from patient to patient.

And so as AHRQ, I think, defines the research agenda, tying it to not only how to measure quality but the six aims for improving quality, and then going to the next quality chasm report, which was the ten -- or I think it was maybe 15 or 20 priority areas for improvement might be also really important.

DR. BARTLETT: Good. Thanks, Lisa. Irene?

DR. FRASER: I've been struck by a couple of things. One is the multi-dimensionality of both parts of what we're trying to measure here, both on the competition side and on the quality side, which starts out right there making the task of setting a research agenda more complex.

Secondly, that the issue of causality is one that will be one that will plague us. And this has come up in several different ways, that, for example, looking at varying levels of competition and equating that with varying levels of quality is not the same thing as looking at what happens when there's a merger.

1	Similarly, if you're looking at the
2	relationship between volume and outcomes, and even if you
3	assume all of the the veracity of much of the
4	literature that's been produced on that, that still
5	doesn't necessarily tell you what happens when a
6	particular hospital increases its volume. That's a
7	different issue than the question of having a correlation
8	across these.
9	So I guess I would conclude from that that it's
10	probably I'm glad I'm on the research side and not on
11	the regulatory side because the questions for research
12	are continuing. The task of trying to draw from that to
13	make a decision in a particular market in a particular
14	case about a certain type of provider and whether that
15	merger would be appropriate is certainly awe-inspiring.
16	DR. BARTLETT: I want to get you into a break
17	but I want to take a comment from the gentleman behind
18	you, Brent, and then I'll swing your way in just a
19	second. And sir, if you wouldn't mind introducing
20	yourself and using the mike.
21	MR. DANGER: My name is Ken Danger. I'm from
22	the Department of Justice.
23	DR. BARTLETT: Great. Thanks.
24	MR. DANGER: And in today's comments, people
25	have been talking about competition. But it's not clear

to me exactly what they mean.

A while back, Bob Town and Gowrisankanan wrote a paper about two-stage competition, where you had competition to get in the network and then competition for patients, conditional upon being in the network. And it's not clear what people are meaning when they're talking about competition.

If I was to follow up on that, lately I've been hearing reports that networks, from an insurance point of view, have been getting broader in the sense that there's been less exclusion and providers are getting included. And that would seem in some sense to moot the incentives to provide high quality care, and then similarly to price low. So that seems somewhat important.

Secondly, there's this old literature on procedure rates. I remember something about hysterectomies, and that there are a lot of hysterectomies up in the New England area and not so many in other areas. And yet when you look at competition indices, they don't seem to have very much variation or as much variation.

So that seems in some sense to say that competition as measured by those kinds of indices doesn't seem to say anything at all about those kinds of at least procedure rates and quality in general, perhaps. So I'd

just be interested in seeing what people have to say about those two comments.

DR. BARTLETT: Anybody want to pick up on either of those two comments? Yes, Gary, and then, Brent, I'll come your way, and then we'll break after that.

DR. YOUNG: I think that's because -- to play off this point, which is that, you know, a number of people have commented on the importance of information in ascendence and how that does play out in terms of competition among health care providers.

And I think in terms of developing a research agenda, we do need to think very carefully about the whole issue of consumer behavior and how that relates to information and incentives. You know, when people choose a Taurus, buy a Taurus, I think they recognize that's not a Lexus.

And, you know, they can talk about the fact that it's less expensive and they've chosen that and they understand that it doesn't have the quality of a Lexus, let's say. But when people choose their health care providers, I don't think they necessarily recognize that kind of tradeoff. And then when people choose a health care provider, even though that health care provider may be a Taurus, they still tend to think of it as a Lexus.

I know that I always find it amusing that when

I get together with sort of my extended family and I meet

a lot of my older uncles and aunts, you know, it's always

interesting that every one of them has managed to find

the best cardiologist in the world.

And, you know, they're all very lucky that they've been able to do that. But I think that there may be a lack of information, which I think economic theory may help us think through a little bit. But there also may be an element of what psychologists call cognitive dissonance. And, you know, that's something where probably economic theory can't help us that much to understand how that's going to relate to this type of topic.

So I think we need to think about the whole issue of consumer behavior and how that relates to information in ascendence, as well.

DR. BARTLETT: Brent, I'm going to come to your knowledge. But know that the gentleman from DOJ -- his two questions are still out there. We'll leave them as open files if folks want to come back and discuss them later in the morning or the afternoon, too, because I think these are issues on the table.

Brent?

DR. JAMES: I think there's just some more

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background that we should consider as we move ahead, and that's building on what we just heard. You can divide traditional quality, the general term, into two subsets, medical outcomes and service outcomes.

There's a pretty good literature that suggests that patients do not pay attention to simple, directly applicable, easy to understand medical outcome statistics -- emphasis on statistics -- when choosing a physician or hospital, that they will choose people who clearly have higher mortality rates in simple, easy to understand data.

One of the problems I think we have as health services researchers particularly is that we're enculturated to think in particular ways, and we tend to project those views out on patients. When you carefully measure what patients seem to value, they appear to value their relationship with a physician, usually more than they value the medical outcome statistics.

And I think we just heard a little bit of that.

That's why everybody in your family can choose the best cardiologist. And the reason is it's not defined in terms of medical outcomes.

But we need to remember that there's a pretty good literature that demonstrates that patients don't appear to pay attention to simple, directly applicable,

easy to understand medical outcome statistics when choosing hospitals or physicians, and that they appear to value something else. And maybe one of the questions is, what do patients really value, as opposed to what do we as policy-makers or health services researchers try to impose upon them or think that they should value.

DR. BARTLETT: We will miss Carol Simon. She would have given us a wonderful presentation. But I'd suggest we used her time very well in terms of getting issues out on the table.

We're a bit off, but I think, again, this was time well spent. I could suggest a ten-minute break; no one would pay a lick of attention to me. So let us say it's ten after 11:00 now. We'll come back at 11:25 and we'll pick up the first panel or the first presentation looking at new research, focused on physician competition and quality. Larry, you'll be in the driver's seat on that. So 15 minutes. We'll start up at 25 after.

(A brief recess was taken.)

DR. BARTLETT: Welcome back, everybody.

Earlier this morning you heard a number of very good summaries about where we are in terms of our knowledge base about competition and quality.

These next two segments, what we want to do is introduce some new research on these topics. And we have

divided the presentations. The first one that you will
hear, focusing on physician competition and quality, I

told you that Carol Simon cannot be with us. But I'm

going to turn the floor over to Larry Casalino to share
with you some new research findings that he has
developed.

From this presentation, which will follow that same format as previous presentations, we're then going to ask three of your colleagues around the table for quick commentaries, not more than ten minutes. We're going to go to Peter Hammer, Lisa Iezzoni, and Meredith Rosenthal. And then we'll roll into discussion as well about this new research.

From there, on the far side of lunch, we'll look at several new pieces of research focusing on hospital competition and quality.

So Larry, it's all yours.

DR. CASALINO: Thanks. Well, I would say that things are pretty much of a mess right now in health care. And in response to the person from DOJ's earlier on, I would say physicians for the most part don't have an incentive to improve quality, although they may sometimes have an incentive to look good. Nor do they -- they certainly don't have an incentive to price low.

It reminds me actually of the situation in

health care now, with double-digit premium increases
several years in a row and quality very questionable. It
reminds me of apparently a true story about Churchill.

After Britain had won the war and Churchill was -- his
party was up for election not long afterward, as most of
you probably know, they were expected to win easily and

they actually lost very badly.

And it was clear by lunchtime that that was going to happen. And Churchill was sitting at 10 Downing Street with his wife and some of his staff, and everybody was quite glum. And his wife was trying to cheer people up and she said, "Well, Winston, perhaps this loss is really a blessing in disguise." And Churchill said, "Yes, perhaps it is a blessing in disguise. But if so, it appears to be very effectively disguised."

And, you know, I think in health care, for physicians, I think they would also be in the situation of looking for a blessing in disguise. And I think there is one in the mess that we have now, which is there are some incentives for medical groups to form, which can be a good thing or a bad thing. And that's basically what I'm going to talk about today.

I think it can be good if medical groups form because I would argue that for most kinds of medical care, groups of some size -- they don't necessarily have

to be very large -- have capabilities to improve quality,
the potential to improve quality, that individual
practitioners or small groups of practitioners simply
cannot develop. They don't have the management systems.

They don't have the expertise. They don't have the

They don't have the expertise. They don't have the information systems.

I would also argue that no medical groups, no competition on quality, at least at the physician level, for most physicians. I mean, for bypass surgery, you can measure the performance with some difficulty of individual surgeons and probably do a pretty good job on it.

But for most of the quality indications you'd like to measure, especially in outpatient care, you just don't have the volume for any individual physician to get statistically reliable and valid measurements. So the measurements really should be at the group level and the rewards at the group level. So that means no competition -- if you want competition, you have to have medical groups of some size, I believe, competition on quality or cost.

So those are the good thing about groups. Now, the bad thing about groups is that the main reason that large groups are forming right now is indeed to get negotiating leverage with health plans.

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And the system -- the main competitive incentive in our health care system now for most physicians is what I would call -- and for health plans and hospitals as well -- is what I would call a negotiating leverage arms race. The idea is to get big so you can have more leverage than the person who you're negotiating against.

And this can lead, given the imperfect competition in the market, to the optimal size of a medical group for negotiating being larger, maybe a lot larger, than its optimal size would be for efficiency, for low cost, or for high quality. And I believe that's happening now, and I believe it's a real danger.

My comments today will be mostly based on work from the community tracking study site visits, a little bit from the surveys, and then a bit from the national survey of physician organizations that I did with some colleagues at Berkeley, which I'll talk about in a minute.

But in our site visits -- and Jon Christianson and Gloria Bazzoli are colleagues on these visits -- mostly what you hear about, especially in relation to health plans but sometimes in relation to physician groups or hospitals -- it depends on the site -- is the two-ton gorilla or the 800-pound gorilla or the 1200-

1 pound gorilla or the 1400-pound gorilla.

This comes up again and again and again in interviews. It's very often the first thing that comes up. In fact, for the next round, we're going to make one of our main questions in interviews is, how many pounds is the gorilla really? Because we get really conflicting information about this and we want to know how many pounds these gorillas are. So that's really what's going on out there.

Now, I am forgetting to move the slides here. So that's the one I just talked about. What I'll talk about is, briefly, the -- and very briefly, all of this -- the extent and type of physician consolidation; the reasons for it; the extent of use of organized processes by physician groups to improve quality, insofar as we can determine; what physician groups actually compete on; the effects of consolidation on quality, if we can tell anything about that; and some antitrust implications.

Now, physicians have been consolidating for many decades, way before managed care, mostly into pretty small groups -- you know, moving from solo or two-physician practices to four-, five-, seven-physician practices. And that still continues. I'll show you a slide about that in a moment.

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What we saw during the '90s is a move to create large primary care-based, multi-specialty groups and IPAs. Actually, a lot of this was -- there was less of this than you might have expected, given the incentives to do it.

But given that people thought there was going to be risk contracting, given the importance of gatekeeping, and given the importance of negotiating leverage, the way to go seemed to be to create these large groups, multi-speciality, and that were primary care-based.

But as soon as it became apparent in the late '90s, 2000, that risk contracting wasn't coming along and gatekeeping was receding, what we found in the community tracking studies is creation of large multi-specialty groups has just stopped. I'm talking about medical groups now. IPAs are struggling to find a reason to exist; without risk contracting, it's not clear that there is a reason for IPAs to exist.

So they're really having some trouble. And as I say, the motivation to create large multi-specialty groups has really been reduced because specialists now no longer have much reason to be in a group with primary care physicians. If they're in a group with primary care physicians, they might have to share income with them and

also they have to share decisions. And there's all kinds of complications in a multi-specialty group.

And you can get a lot of negotiating leverage if you're a group of 20 orthopedists -- you don't have to be that big -- or ten in some places, whereas you have to be pretty big in most places to be a multi-specialty group.

So specialists are much less willing to do this now. And what we've been seeing over the last three years especially, although a head start even a little bit before that, is formation of large single-specialty groups in the community tracking study areas.

These are actually some results from the physician survey side of the community tracking study, where 12,000 physicians in private practice are surveyed every couple of years. And what you see in the last round is still about 90 percent of physicians in private practice are in groups of 19 or fewer. So really large groups is about 9.6 percent.

And to break it down by size a bit more, this slide says a bit what I was just talking about.

Obviously, this is not broken down by specialty. But you can see that even between '97 and 2001, the movement that's been going on for decades of physicians in one-and two-physician groups into the three- to nine-

physician group size, the kind of small to moderate size, that's continuing; and also into some what I will call moderate size groups, actually, the 10- to 19-physician groups. But there really wasn't movement in those four years into the larger sized medical groups.

Now, if you look at the single specialty groups by site in the community tracking studies, there are some -- you can see that in quite a few of the sites, there is one large orthopedic group. Several of the sites have a number of large cardiac groups. And by large, I mean usually at least 20, but some of these are as large as a hundred or more physicians.

There are some ophthalmology groups. You can see there's quite a difference in the number of large sized single-specialty groups by site. Indianapolis has a lot. Indianapolis also has a bunch of specialty hospitals, four of them, four heart hospitals and an orthopedic hospital, that have been created in the last few years or are being created.

And I think that's not an accident in terms of the number of single-specialty groups that are there. We have a paper coming out on this soon, I believe. The orthopedic hospital there is solely owned by orthopedists.

But there are some large sites with almost no

single-specialty groups. In New Jersey, for example,
there's basically nothing in the northern New Jersey area
centering around Newark.

And again, this just -- these percents are -- it's just another way of looking at it. These are for physician groups of ten or larger. You can see that even if you look at groups of ten or larger, in the twelve metropolitan areas of the community tracking study the number of truly large groups, 25 or more or certainly 50 or more, is certainly quite small. These are single-specialty groups.

One thing I think for the regulators here to be aware of is that the physicians are extremely aware of antitrust liability, and so it's quite common for a single-specialty group leader to mention to us that they know what percent of the market they have, and they're below that, and they talk to their lawyers about that so they won't have antitrust problems.

So it's probably not going to be very common to find someone who, in terms of percent of specialists in a market, is going to look like an antitrust problem from there. I think the combination of size and brand name, insofar as medical groups can establish a brand name, is pretty potent, just as it is for -- can be for hospital systems.

I'm going to skip the next -- no, I'm not going to skip the next slide. Okay. Now, in terms of why physicians are forming groups, this slide -- this is for -- when we went around and interviewed people this time on round four site visits, we also gave them a little survey to fill out just so we'd have some semi-quantitative results.

And you can see that the leaders of the medical groups rated lifestyle and improving quality and economies of scale very high, and they rated leverage with health plans very low -- well, not low, still up at 3-1/2, but lowest; whereas if you asked hospital administrators about the physician groups, what they thought were the motivation for physicians to form single-specialty groups, they thought -- they ranked quality, improving quality, as a motivation for forming these groups quite low and leveraging plans quite high.

And indeed, in the interviews themselves, which ranged in length usually from 60 to 90 minutes, there was almost invariably a lot of talk from the physicians about leverage, about they had to deal with the 1200-pound gorilla in the market. But now they are the 1200-pound gorilla in the market, or I should say they're a 1200-pound gorilla, too, to quote one orthopedist.

And I think they sincerely believe that their

groups are going to improve quality. But most of them still have the individual physician view of quality, I'll call it, where they still believe that quality is purely what the individual physician does for the individual patient, whoever happens to show up for them in the ten minutes they're in the office with them.

And they mostly -- there are exceptions, but mostly they don't have an idea that they should develop some organized, systematic processes to improve quality either in their offices or in the ambulatory surgery facilities that almost all of them have created. And if you ask them directly, well, what specific -- as we did -- what processes are you using to improve quality in your facilities or in your group, you really didn't get just about any specific answers.

One other point about this slide: I think economies of scale, some of you may know that the studies were done -- they're quite old now -- on economies of scale in medical groups, and they say, well, economies of scale is pretty much exhausted at -- and I get 20 more for Carol's time, right? -- at four to six physicians.

You know, I think that probably has changed because even leaving the possibility of risk contracting aside, I think because of the need for information systems, the need to deal with more regulations, so to

have better management and economies of scale in management, and certainly to improve quality, economies of scale are probably a lot larger than four to six. It will depend on the specialty.

But, you know, economies of scale are probably not 500 for a physician group, but whereas 500 can be pretty good -- I'm talking about a multi-specialty group now -- if you want to negotiate with a health plan.

In the national survey of physician organizations that I mentioned, we got the most complete census that we could get by combining five databases, including the AMA's, to develop a list of medical groups in the United States of 20 or more physicians, and also all the IPAs we could find. So we found about 1,040 physician organizations with more than -- 20 or more physicians, leaving out hospital-based specialists like anesthesiologists, radiologists, pathologists.

And then we -- this is the article that was published in JAMA in January that some of you may have seen -- and we have five kinds of care management processes that we asked about. And I think in terms of what Patrick said earlier, for each of these there's some evidence that they actually affect outcomes. But, you know, if I had to stand up here for the next hour and say the evidence was really great and defend it in detail,

I'd have a hard time because there just isn't that much evidence yet.

But there is some for each of these and they had face validity, and we used them. And we asked about care for chronic diseases. So with the four processes and the four diseases, they could have a total score of 16. They could be using a maximum of 16 care management processes.

And we found an average of 5.1 out of the 16 nationally. And these are in groups of 20 or more. We are pretty sure if we asked smaller groups, the mean would have been a lot lower than 5.1. And actually, we believe the 5.1 is even an exaggeration because although we tried to ask questions in such a way -- we didn't just say, "Do you use guidelines?"

We had some pretty specific questions so that they couldn't just wave a hand and say, "Oh, yes, we do that." Still, we think this is probably a bit of an exaggeration. Nevertheless, a sixth of these medical groups of 20 or more physicians and IPAs used zero of these 16 care management processes.

In terms of the factors that were associated with a group using more care management processes, size really wasn't important. So it really didn't matter if you were 20 physicians or 500 physicians. You really

didn't do more care management processes, basically.

The most important thing by far was: Did the groups -- were they rewarded for improving quality? Did they have external incentives? And we actually -- we asked about seven incentives. We found if they had two more incentives, for example, they did 40 percent more care management processes.

This is not, obviously, an issue that antitrust can deal with directly. But I think it's an important finding. Getting publicly recognized for quality actually was one of the most potent predictors of whether groups would use care management processes.

However, by and large these groups didn't report that they had incentives to improve quality. The mean was less than two out of the seven possible incentives that we asked about. And fully a third of these physician organizations reported that they didn't have any external incentives to improve quality at all.

Now, in terms of what physicians compete on, as I said, in the interviews they talked much more about competing with plans in negotiating leverage than competing with other physician groups. That, by and large, was less of a factor. They don't have it, by and large. Brent James has talked about this and written about this a lot.

1	By and large, as you can see from the incentive
2	data, they don't have a business case for investing in
3	organized processes to improve quality, and they're aware
4	of that. A lot of them said, you know, we'd really like
5	to do this, but again, I mean, we'll put money into it.
6	We won't get any money back. Why should we do it?
7	There's some competition on perceived quality,
8	on having a brand name. And there's really no
9	competition to speak of except in places where there's
10	risk contracting on controlling utilization or
11	controlling costs. So incentives are really key.
12	Without them, I think physician groups will compete on
13	perceived quality only.
14	Now, in terms of effects of physician
15	consolidation on quality, just to wrap up, first of all,
16	has there been enough physician consolidation to decrease

I mean, it is true that, you know, the Palo Alto Medical Clinic, for example, has increased about three times or more in size in the last decade, and it was purely to get negotiating leverage because they thought their quality was plenty high before. So they have size and they have a brand name.

consumer choice? I don't think that's really so much of

a concern at present.

And, you know, if you're a health plan, it's

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hard to sell to Silicon Valley firms if you don't have
the Palo Alto Medical Clinic. So I suppose you could say
that that could have effects on consumer choice if Palo
Alto decided, you know, they're not going to contract
with Aetna. Plans do report problems in rural areas
where there just aren't alternatives in physicians. Oh,
here's some Microsoft symbols. Thanks.

Now, there is a somewhat subtle effect. For example, if you create a large single-specialty group, you may get increased volume for some of your specialists. And I'm not talking about really the group having an ASC and running volumes through there, which could be a good thing. But it could permit specialization within specialties. So, for example, in some of the large orthopedic groups, you'll have orthopedists who only do spines, or only certain kinds of procedures on spines, or only operate on these. And that probably is good.

And I'm going to skip the effects of overcapacity.

I think one way that increased consolidation for anyone -- health plans, physicians, hospitals -- hurts consumers is there's so much contract dispute brinkmanship, where in many markets it's just routine now to terminate a contract. And especially between

hospitals and health plans, it just comes down to fullpage newspaper ads right until the last day, saying, you
know, you're not going to be able to come to your
favorite hospital any more because of those greedy health
plans, and vice versa.

Again, just going to my original point about why I think it is useful to have medical groups of some size, it's useful to have them large enough so they can implement organized processes to improve quality, and in the twenties may be plenty large for that. And also, it's important to have groups of some size sufficient to serve as units of analysis for measurement of quality and rewards for quality, and therefore competition on quality.

Just a quick mention of hospital-based specialists. We hear about this a lot from health plans. This is something that really should be studied, I think. Anesthesiology groups, ER groups, really have monopolies, more or less, in certain areas. Radiologists.

And as you can see from this quote from a health plan CEO, they're able to do a lot better than primary care physicians, for example, in their negotiations. Primary care physicians mostly don't get to negotiate. They take what the health plans give them. But the hospital-based specialists don't.

Okay. And then to conclude, what are the antitrust implications? Well, so far I would say the effects of physician consolidation, unlike of hospital consolidation, where it's a huge factor right now -- but that's been talked about in previous hearings here -- I would say the effects on choice are pretty small so far and the health plans are much more concerned in general with hospital rather than physician leverage except for the hospital-based specialists that I just mentioned.

I think in terms of leverage versus quality, I think the FTC has been wise to oppose permitting physicians in independent practice to negotiate jointly with health plans because of health plans' market power. I do believe that most physicians are at a huge disadvantage in negotiating with plans.

However, if they want to get into a group where they can have some leverage, they can either form a medical group, which does have the potential to improve quality, or there's the FTC kind of safe harbor now where if a group of independent physicians, not a medical group, clinically integrates, they have a good chance of being allowed to negotiate jointly with health plans.

So if physicians want to improve quality, as they say, and that's the reason they want to be able to negotiate jointly with health plans, they can do it now.

They don't need another antitrust exemption.

In terms of evaluating clinical integration, I would look for evidence that organized processes to improve quality are being used. And then as an antitrust regulator, I would scrutinize organizations that use messenger models very, very carefully. I think those are basically negotiating cartels.

I just mentioned the second point. The third, the position of the hospital-based physicians. And most important of all, I think, and partly an antitrust problem and partly perhaps a problem for purchasers, the system now is really -- the main competitive incentive is the negotiating arms race, negotiating leverage arms race. And so strict antitrust enforcement against health plans, physicians, and hospitals could help with that.

But it may be that the negotiating model of determining prices, what providers get paid, isn't the best model. Now, whether the alternative is administered prices, that may not be so good. There are people like the Buyers Healthcare Action Group in Minneapolis or other areas where people are working on tiered pricing schemes where there may be ways to get around this negotiating model which basically leads to organizations striving for size that's probably bigger than their efficient size for quality or cost.

1	Thanks.
2	DR. BARTLETT: Thank you, Larry, very much. We
3	appreciate it.
4	We're going to turn now to the three commenters
5	who are going to offer brief remarks on
6	VOICE: Microphone.
7	DR. BARTLETT: Yes. Thank you on Larry's
8	presentation, but also sort of moving into the broader
9	area of physician competition and quality. And Peter
10	Hammer, we'll start with you, please. And you can just
11	do it from your seats.
12	DR. HAMMER: You're going to need a bigger
13	hook, then, for getting me in the time limits. But I'll
14	try to keep this short.
15	I thought the most useful thing that I could do
16	is talk not just about physician competition and quality,
17	but also speak generally about the role of antitrust law
18	in trying to facilitate quality competition. And I'll
19	try to cover both of those fronts in my comments.
20	First is, if you're going to try to use
21	antitrust law to better deal with quality, you have to
22	underline that there's an underlying conflict in the way
23	that economists and antitrust lawyers approach questions

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Some of that might be ideological. Some of

of quality than health services research.

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that's from professional training. Some of that's just
the way different disciplines define topics. But from a
professional paradigm or health services research
paradigm, there's an absolutist or objective nature of
what quality is.

And I use it in teaching purposes for students to think of quality as apart from competition. Right? That we have competition, and then we have quality, and that they're two distinct things. And quality is really apart from competition.

That's not the way that antitrust law and that's not the way that most economists think about quality. The antitrust paradigm, quality is very much a part of competition. And if you ask an antitrust lawyer or economist what quality is, they would look to the market itself as the process through which to define what quality is and what levels of quality are appropriate. And at some level, we're trying to define research agenda, understanding at least that chasm between approaches to quality is also important.

We saw in the presentation this morning the breakdown for health services research and the structure/process/outcomes paradigms as a way to approach quality problems.

If you look at economic perspectives or

antitrust, they frequently speak in terms of choice.

2 Right? Product differentiation. Location. Emphasize

3 the role of information as a non-price dimension.

4 Credentialing. As well as the need for innovation.

Right? So you sort of think about the multi-dimensions

of quality. What would be listed in different parameters

7 is going to depend upon the audience that you talk to.

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If we think specifically about antitrust law and physicians, I have a couple of comments. I'll sort of segregate them into both data and then doctrine.

In terms of data, it's also important to remember that private litigation is, at least in terms of raw numbers, far more common than public litigation.

We're being cosponsored by the FTC, the Department of Justice, all do very important antitrust enforcement.

But private cases, if you look at medical antitrust litigation, constitute about 95 percent of all litigation. All right? So there's a lot of activity out there on the antitrust front apart from federal enforcement policies. And there's also the potential for private litigation to be used for anticompetitive purposes. Right? So antitrust is not always about building competition. It has a darker side, potentially, in actually trying to sometimes inflict harm upon competitors.

1 Within the realm of private antitrust
2 litigation, about two-thirds of the activity still
3 focuses upon hospital and physician relations. And
4 that's broken down about evenly into staff privileges
5 cases and exclusive contracting cases. And those don't
6 go away.

If you look at the past 15 years, they're pretty constant in their numbers, despite the fact that plaintiffs -- and the plaintiffs here are typically physicians -- lose vast numbers. I think the numbers are about 9 percent for some type of successful outcome in the antitrust litigation for staff privileges, and about 14 percent for exclusive contracting. So you have a huge number of cases, large failure rates, and they don't go away.

If you think then about the way in which antitrust law approaches physicians -- and this is where we go from data to doctrine -- most physicians don't have market power. I think Larry's data is interesting as it's showing the building of specialty physician groups start pushing the envelope on whether and when physicians can have market power.

But by and large, physicians don't have market power, and most people would agree that barriers to entry into physician markets are substantially lower than would

be comparable barriers to entry into hospital markets.

2 And so even if they do form large groups, there's a

question about how long they could sustain exercising

4 that market power.

That's not to say that leverage isn't important, and not that Larry's findings are not very much on point, that a lot of this is about leveraging. And a lot of leveraging does not violate the antitrust laws, which is also a good reminder.

But in terms of doctrine, most of the antitrust punch comes with physicians from the per se rules -- per se rule against price fixing, per se rule against territorial divisions, per se rule against group boycotts. And there the important dividing line is classification.

And as Commissioner Muris pointed out today, whether something is viewed as in a per se box or whether it's in the rule of reason -- and this is where the Department of Justice and the FTC guidelines become very influential.

Permitting clinical integration is actually a fairly radical step from antitrust doctrine as a basis of integration that would move you from a per se box when negotiating price into the rule of reason. And those are important distinctions.

But I would say other than sort of policing naked restraints -- no price-fixing, no group boycotts, no territorial divisions -- antitrust law in terms of physicians will have a less important effect than it may have on the fronts of health plans, and certainly of hospitals and hospital mergers.

The next series of comments I'd like to make go now to thinking about systemically or institutionally how well antitrust law and antitrust courts can deal with quality concerns generally in health care. And if we're going to be making policy or thinking about policy in this area, it's important to calibrate and think about what courts do well in respects to medical quality and what antitrust courts can accomplish.

Antitrust law -- and this is a fair history of the last 15 years, 30 years, perhaps, in health care -- can create a space for private markets. They can police naked restraints, and they can get fairly active price competition running. And I think that we've seen that. And a lot of the price competition that we do have in healthcare may be credited in part to active antitrust enforcement.

They can protect a very narrow range of productive efficiencies. Right? So to the extent that a

hospital can document and prove an economies of scale argument, and the argument about quality and scale fits comfortably within that model, if the evidence suggested that existed, that would be something antitrust doctrine could fairly easily accommodate even as it goes from productive efficiency into protecting quality in terms of scale.

Antitrust law can only afford quality, in the sense of health services research, fairly limited protection. If you look at how antitrust courts deal with quality concerns, we're now going back to that chasm and the different paradigms I spoke of earlier.

Antitrust law when it thinks about protecting quality is trying to protect choice. Right? It's trying to protect the flow of information and the supply of information.

And it has an ability to protect quality and non-price concerns to the extent that they fit in what I call demand-side models of quality competition.

So an economist will sort of write their demand curve up, and if you can identify an aspect of quality that would stimulate demand and shift the demand out, that's a framework in which antitrust courts and lawyers can think. And to the extent that you can fit quality concerns into that demand-side model, then there's an effective basis within doctrine and understanding to try

1 to accommodate that from an antitrust perspective.

There's a whole lot else that antitrust courts do not do well. And if you're trying to define research agendas and policy in this area, it's important to understand limitations of antitrust law as well as strengths.

Antitrust law does not deal well with market failures, and market failures are endemic in health care. Antitrust actually privileges simple rules for very good reasons. They have to be applied by non-specialists. They have to speak generally to all aspects of the economy. So there is not a well-established ability or sophisticated ability to deal with market failures in antitrust law.

Antitrust law also doesn't deal well with what I call supply side quality concerns. These are basic questions as to what is the health care production function? What's the role of technology? What's the role of innovation? What's the role of knowledge-based medicine, practice guidelines, medical errors?

Most of the things that are going to be tripping off the tongues of participants here when they think about quality, and very important in real senses, don't have nice analogues within antitrust doctrine and courts can't deal with them or have not dealt with them

very well to date.

The last area which they don't do well is the area of price/quality tradeoffs. Part of that is because, as we saw with Marty's presentation, economic theory doesn't tell us a whole lot about what's going to happen when both price and quality are variable.

And antitrust law usually lags very substantially developments in economic theory, and without clear theory and guidance from economics, antitrust law is not going to be able to deal with price/quality tradeoffs very effectively.

Typically, antitrust courts tend to assume that if there's active price competition, well, then, that will protect quality as well. So more likely than not, they try to protect quality concerns or non-price concerns by trying to fair it out and protect active price competition.

A few comments on antitrust treatment of quality, and then I'll stay well within my limits and silence myself, self-censorship, because the moderator is too far away to stop me.

Antitrust and quality: Courts -- and this is interesting; Bill and I did a lengthy survey of all medical antitrust litigation from 1985 to 1999, trying to code judicial opinions and how they treat quality.

Almost no -- right? -- almost zero attention to quality as defined in the high tech services literature. All right? And that's sort of an important take-home point for people here.

The idea of clinical structure, clinical process outcomes, were quoted in a handful of occasions in over 500 opinions. All right? So there's not good communication or penetration into a judicial realm or antitrust realm. And if you're going to get more sophisticated treatment in antitrust courts, you're going to have to be doing a lot of education and there's got to be an infusion of that research into the litigation in various ways.

When they do deal with choice, and this reiterates what I've said earlier, it's all about -- or deal with quality, it's all about choice and innovation and information and the way that economists deal with it, not the way that health care services research deals with it.

And the last sort of just sort of side comment, and more from an empirical perspective, antitrust law has played only a minor role so far in dealing with quality-related concerns in the context of managed care. All right? Most of the cases again are mired into these hospital/physician relationships. Very little attention

so far, at least in actively litigated cases, in
exploring the various implications that managed care has
in the context of quality. But that's all the comments
that I had prepared.

DR. BARTLETT: Great. Thank you, Peter.

Let's now turn to Lisa Iezzoni for --

DR. IEZZONI: Okay. Lisa Iezzoni. Thanks

To get to the point of physicians being able to compete on quality, you need five things. First of all, you need an evidence base that is scientifically rigorous. Second, you need quality measurement metrics. Third, you need data that are comparable across the units of observation. Fourth, you need meaningful units of observation. And fifth, you need motivation.

And I'd like to take each of these five briefly in turn and argue that, in fact, to achieve each of them, you need cooperation, collaboration, or at least collegiality across physicians, maybe even along with our hospitals, and maybe even health plans.

Now, I'm going to come up with a couple of examples from where I happen to be from, which is Harvard Medical School. And we can argue here whether Philadelphia or Boston or some other city has the more kind of unusual medical market, but Harvard Medical School is one of the three medical schools in Boston. I

would argue that probably the Boston market is dominated by academic medical centers affiliated with these three medical schools.

And for those of you who don't know, about seven years ago two major Harvard affiliates, the Brigham and Women's Hospital and Massachusetts General Hospital, combined together to create something called Partners.

And then my hospital, Beth Israel Hospital, joined about a year later with the Deaconess Medical Center and a number of other smaller hospitals, like the Mount Auburn, which is a community Harvard affiliate, to crate something called Care Group. So I'll have a couple of examples based on that experience.

Okay. So, number one, creating an evidence base. What I'm talking about is the scientific evidence that tells you that one treatment is better than another treatment. Rarely will a single institution, and almost never a single physician, be able to have an adequate number of patients or diversity of patients to be able to rigorously test medical treatments. So they're going to have to cooperate.

Now, in our instance, our dean forced cooperation. Dean Joseph Martin of Harvard Medical School said that Partners and Care Group could not go independently to the NIH to create a clinical oncology

center to test cancer treatments, but we had to go in together.

And so what has been happening ever since is that Harvard-affiliated physicians at Care Group and Harvard-affiliated physicians at Partners have been trying to cooperate on coming up with cancer trials.

Obviously, we're good academics. We salute our dean and we try to do that.

But, in fact, it is very difficult to have academics get together and cooperate in kind of an academic setting, and then turn around and go back to their day jobs, which is kind of competing with the people across the street. So that's just one example where creating the scientific evidence base requires cooperation that sometimes is compromised by competing the rest of the time.

Okay. Number two, you need to develop reasonable quality measurement metrics. Now, sometimes on developing quality measurement metrics, especially those that are statistically based, will require large data sets. Now, a number of the studies that you've quoted this morning have relied on data from state hospital discharge abstracts, from the HCUP, or from Medicare. But, in fact, that only looks at limited numbers of -- or limited types of patients, like Medicare

beneficiaries, obviously an important group. But it also
may just only look at hospitalized patients.

We, a number of years ago, also wanted to look at outpatient care and among working-age people and their families. And trying to come up with data to be able to develop quality measurement metrics for working-page people and their families is actually very difficult.

So in the mid-1980s, I approached a Harvard professor whose name you would all know, for those of you who know anything about health services research at Partners, to ask him if he would be willing to work with me on looking at risk adjustment, which is a statistical technique to assure that when you're comparing outcomes across groups of patients, that you're accounting for differences in the disease mix across your units of observation.

Now, this Harvard professor said, "Well, I'd better ask my bosses at Partners whether it would be okay for me to work with you, another Harvard professor, because you're a Care Group." And, in fact, it came back that no, he was not allowed to work with me because we were viewed as a competitor and they didn't want to combine Partners and Care Group data because they didn't want these two competing organizations to do this.

So I said, okay, you know. For academics no

longer to be able to collaborate within the same university is an interesting outcome of this. But I waited my time, and a couple of years later I asked him again if he would like to collaborate on a project where we would use the risk data from Partners and Care Group.

By that point, Partners had tried to do this themselves, and what they found was that even though they are very, very big, that their data set, even, was not big enough to be able to have the statistical robustness to be able to develop good risk adjustment techniques.

And so at that point they said, sure. Why don't you combine together the Partners and Care Group data in this project.

And so there is just an example, where even a very, very big organization was simply not big enough to be able to develop the metrics without collaboration with a competitor across town.

Okay. Now, the third thing that you need is comparable data cross your units of observation. And there is no single agreed-upon standard medical computerized information system. I'm sure that when you go out to do your interviews with the physicians in the tracking survey, that you ask them whether they have computerized information systems, and they are all over the map. There's no uniformity.

Partners and Care Group have found this out, to their large cost -- there have been large cost implementations, to trying to have the MGH and the Brigham, for example, get even on the same platform for hospital-based computerized information systems. And it's even more difficult for physicians' offices to develop uniform information systems.

But you need that uniformity to be able to compare and to be able to compete on comparable data.

And so you might be able to come in, like HIPAA has done, the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act, which is to now impose data standards on physicians, for example, is you want to create comparable physician data.

But if you're going to be looking at those 45 percent of physicians who are still in one- or two-person practices, you're going to have to collaborate somehow to come up with medical information systems that are going to be practical for that 45 percent of physicians who are still in solo practice or in combined practices with one other person. And so there's a situation where again you have to get together with other types of physicians to come up with a reasonable way to collect information.

Fourth, the unit of observation issue Larry talked about a bit, that you simply cannot do reasonable, rigorous quality measurement when you're talking about a

solo practice. Although maybe you can do that for a cardio-thoracic surgen. Even there, your sample size is simply not going to be big enough.

I'm not a statistician. I can't make the technical argument. But I guarantee to you that my statistician colleagues would come in here and pound the table and say that having just one physician or even a couple of physicians together is simply not going to have an adequate sample size.

However, there are some exceptions to that.

Patrick talked this morning about satisfaction measures or patient experience measures, like the CAPS measure.

Every single patient has perceptions of what their care was like. And so if the kind of metric that you're going to use is going to be a metric that applies to every single patient, maybe in fact an individual physician could be your unit of observation, assuming that that physician has at least maybe 30 patients. That's the kind of magic number that's plucked from the air.

But once you get down to even kind of the standard condition, usual suspect conditions -- congestive heart failure, diabetes, asthma -- even once you look at those very high volume conditions, often, even in a busy primary care practice, there simply are not going to be enough patients to be able to do

1 something rigorous.

And so here's a situation where if you don't have physicians practicing together willingly, you're not going to be able to measure competitively, for competing -- to support competition. And so you do have to think about combining data across physicians.

So then, finally, the fifth thing that you need is motivation. Now, obviously you folks are probably better able than I am to come up with all sorts of economically-based motivations. Pay for performance is one that I hear is kind of taking flight, and Arnie Milstein might be able to tell us a little bit more about that.

But somebody, I think, kind of plaintively early in the morning talked about professionalism among physicians. I remember you said that, and it kind of went into the air around the room. And I think that actually physicians, yes, they probably are economically motivated.

But they're people, too, you know, and they have complex motivations, just like other people do. And a lot of times people think about physicians as solo actors, but in fact physicians are herd animals in some sense as well. And one of those ways is that they like to feel that they are meeting kind of community

standards, and that they're doing what the guys and gals around town are doing as well. And I gather that that actually is even a malpractice standard, you know, that if you say that you're practicing to some community standard.

And so if in fact there becomes some community standard that quality measurement will be something that physicians will do through some other, maybe more nefarious, motivation that we could come up with, that I think physicians will begin to see that other people are doing this and that that is in fact important.

And let me just close by saying that if you look at surveys of patients and you actually talk individually to patients about what they want from their physicians, they want a lot of different things.

But especially for the vast majority of older adults, who have multiple coexisting conditions, who often see many different physicians, they don't want their physicians competing with each other. They want their physicians to be talking to each other. And they want their physicians to be collaborating with other.

And in fact, even the notion of second opinions now and third opinions is a very well-established one, especially in some specialties, and patients are always going out and getting second and third opinions. And

they want those doctors to actually talk to each other,
to think about the patient being the person who's the
most important person in this relationship.

And so I think that any effort that is undertaken that would be perceived by the public as trying to get physicians to compete with each other I think would undermine a sense of patients about their physicians and trust in them as the person who's important in that relationship.

Thank you.

DR. BARTLETT: Thanks, Lisa. And since we're in the Boston area, why don't we go to Meredith Rosenthal.

DR. ROSENTHAL: Thank you. I'd like to say that since I'm the third discussant after a wonderful series of presentations this morning, I'm not going to pretend that I'm going to say anything that you haven't heard before. But hopefully, I'll sort of organize and amplify some of the points that I think are most salient to this discussion.

And I'd also like to mention that in addition to drawing on the reasons from this morning, my comments are in part informed by joint work that I'm doing right now under the AHRQ PO1 grant that I mentioned before with Joe Neuhaus, Tom McGuire, and Richard Frank. So just to

cite them a bit here.

So first, since Marty and Mark have lifted the responsibility from my shoulders of making the point that economists in a room like this have to make, which is that all levels of quality -- you know, more quality is not always good, I'm going to stick with the positive issue about how competition might be used to increase quality, assuming we wanted to increase quality.

And the first thing I'd like to talk about is sort of what kind of quality are we talking about, a point that was raised by a number of speakers this morning. One suggestion was that it's sort of everything that's not quantity, which is probably true. And if you look at the health economics literature or the economics literature more generally, that's certainly -- the case models deal with quality in many different ways.

But I'd just like to focus on one particular dichotomy, again, which has been noted already, which is sort of thinking about quality on the service side, and patient experience is probably a better way to describe it, versus some expert judgment of technical quality.

So in particular, I think what's really important for the discussion around competition is that some elements of quality are observable to consumers.

Some could be made observable to consumers, potentially.

And some elements of quality are observable to experts,
who again might inform health plans and other payors
about these elements of quality. And sort of how
observable quality is and to whom is really important for
thinking about how competition might or might not
increase the quality of care.

And so in the economics jargon, we're kind of looking at different models of contracting with observable but not contractible quality, for the most part, and in some cases unobservable. And without getting into some major extra welfarist discussion, I think that most of the people around the table, if not all, would agree that there are some elements of quality that are -- about technical quality that maybe can never be conveyed to consumers.

Consumers, even if we try to inform them, will not value these, will not act on these measures of quality. But from a social perspective, these things are still important. So I'm going to carry that notion with me, and again, if you disagree with that, that sort of affects how you should interpret some of what I'm going to say.

So now thinking about how quality might be affected by competition using this rough dichotomy of sort of patient observable quality versus quality that's

not observable to the patient but again might be observable to payors, we have to think that first competition for patients, to the extent that physicians and physician groups are competing to attract patients, there's no reason to believe that that kind of competition is going to improve the kinds of quality that's not observable to patients, but it may in fact improve service quality.

And that may be consistent with the general notion, if you look at the quality chasm and in other places, that most of what we think of as the quality crisis is in the clinical technical quality side and not as much on the patient experience side, although I think serious quality problems have been noted in both areas.

There is one caveat, and that is, to the extent that patient experience is sort of correlated with or reflects clinical quality, that may be hopeful that there are going to be some indirect effects of competition on clinical quality. But I'm not too optimistic about that.

It seems to me that some of the patient experience has to do with, you know, walking out of the doctor's office with a prescription, for example, which may not reflect good clinical quality and often, I think, may be inversely correlated with good clinical quality.

And getting back a little bit to the question

of, well, using my dichotomy, maybe everything could be pushed over into the observable segment of this problem, if we could inform consumers better, I think a point that Brent James made earlier is very key there, that there have been a lot of efforts to measure technical quality and report it in such a way that consumers might use it. And these efforts do not provide very encouraging results.

Although I think that -- in fact, my view of the literature is a little bit less pessimistic because I don't think a lot of that has been done at the physician level, or there's the surgical evidence and some in hospitals. But not so much about patients choosing primary care physicians or medical groups, where I think that the patients might actually use that information. I think it's an empirical question, clearly. But that seems to be one area that might be important.

And just a final note on that. It's not important that all consumers use this information. It's only important that some consumers use this information. I don't compare prices among Whole Foods, Star Market, and Stop 'N Shop, but I know that some lady out there in Watertown is doing that, and therefore that the prices are kept to a reasonable level.

So I think a really important question, then,

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is: Do good report card interventions increase quality competition among physicians and other providers, even if most consumers don't use the report cards?

And of course, in this whole discussion about whether patient competition or competition for patients can improve quality, even service quality, patient experience type measures, this really depends on marginal revenue from getting these patients.

Now, if, as I think some economists have noted, that we're in this administered price world -- Medicare is a big share of the market and those fees have been held down for a long time -- if you believe those fees make patients unprofitable, then you wouldn't really expect providers to try to compete for those patients to, you know, so to speak, make it up on volume.

And this is an argument I heard quite a bit in California in the late 1990s. The medical groups said, you know, so what if you're going to offer me more market share? I'm losing on every enrollee. Why do I want to lose on a larger number of them?

So the other half the story, then, is obviously, you know, we're emerging from an era in which competition for patients was really not the focus of sort of how we thought competition might be driving, for example, prices.

We really thought that competition for health plan contracts was the way to go, and we didn't really want to see that much competition for patients because of selection and a variety of other concerns. And the notion was that physicians and physician groups would compete to get the contract.

And a point that I think Lisa made really well is, will this kind of competition, if it were to happen, improve healthcare quality? Well, that's only if the plans know who's a high quality provider and who isn't a high quality provider. If we don't have good measures, how could that possibly work?

And, you know, there's certainly another point that was made earlier: In a selective contracting environment, then this seems more plausible. If we had good quality measures and plans could selectively exclude physicians, in particular we're talking about here, then perhaps that kind of competition could be effective. But selective contracting seems to have declined to a large degree, and certainly for physicians in most markets -- I think maybe Larry and Jon and Gloria can speak to this -- in most markets, it seems that all the major plans have to have all the major physicians.

And again, the question of if plans knew who is a high quality provider, even if they couldn't

selectively contract could they do something to shift volume from some providers to others to take advantage of quality? And that's a potential.

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And the last important institutional context that was raised a little bit that I think could be a positive for competition for contracts here is the payfor-performance trend that appears to be increasing to a large degree over the past couple of years.

Larry's work suggests that external incentives are very important for adoption of care management processes. If we see a lot more external incentives, trying to make the so-called business case for quality by paying directly on those clinical quality measures, and the sort of major if, if those pay-for-performance mechanisms are designed well with good risk adjustment using the right kinds of measures and trying to avoid multi-tasking problems -- these are a lot of ifs -- then we might see that competition for health plan contracts in a pay-for-performance environment might in fact be quality-enhancing on those sort of technical quality measures, as well as some of these pay-for-performance schemes pay on patient satisfaction, which is something that I'm not clear why they do that if consumers vote with their feet. But perhaps they just don't.

So I'd just like to end with a few -- on my

research agenda, again, this is sort of easy for the physician competition question. There's no research out there except for, you know, the work that the folks across the table have begun. It seems like trying to figure out what physician markets look like would be really important, geographic markets.

As Marty suggested, there's Kessler and McClellan is the gold standard on the hospital side. I think something like that needs to be replicated on the physician side. And I think there's still work to be done in terms of how patients use quality information on different types of physicians for their decisions.

I understand why patients don't use quality information on their heart surgeons. They trust their PCP or their cardiologist. But I think that maybe there's a chance that patients will use it to choose a medical group or a primary care provider.

And finally, I think the interaction between pay for performance and competition, and the extent to which competition inhibits pay for performance, is a very important area for future research.

DR. BARTLETT: Thank you very much, Meredith.

Let's take about 10 minutes, if we will. We should be into lunch soon. But I'd like to open the floor for comments on Larry's presentation, comments on

the comments, or just anything that people would like to stir into the mix. Any takers? Go ahead, Marty.

DR. GAYNOR: This is a question, really, I guess, directed to Larry and his colleagues. You mentioned the importance of external incentives on one hand, and physician practice leverage versus plan leverage on the other.

And what I'm wondering about is the impact of leverage on the external incentives. So one might imagine a possibility that practice leverage, physician leverage, would be counterproductive with regard to getting the right kind of incentives in place. I don't know whether there's any evidence on that that you turned up.

DR. CASALINO: Yes. I think that's a very good point, and Gloria may want to say something about this especially. But on the physician side -- and I'll let Gloria comment about hospitals -- I think you're right.

I think, for example, suppose you wanted to tell physician groups, you know, we're not -- we won't negotiate prices with you any more. We'll put you in tiers A, B, or C, depending on your quality and the price you want to charge. Then you can charge that, but consumers will have to pay more to go see you.

Well, a physician group with enough leverage

will just say, no. We won't do that. We just want you
to -- we like this negotiated model, and just pay us
high. And so that hasn't come up much on the physician
side yet, although you could see how it would. And I
think that's what you're getting at. But Gloria can talk
about the hospital side.

Just before I turn it over to her, I just want to reiterate the point again which shows that the optimal size for a physician group -- and this could be true for hospitals or health plans as well -- for efficient, high quality operations is probably way, way, way smaller than the optimal size for negotiating with the gorilla on the other side.

DR. BAZZOLI: In terms -- on the hospital side, you're absolutely right, Marty. We've been seeing this in the community tracking study. Definitely hospitals that have market power, either because of the system they're in or because of the hospital themselves and their reputation in the market, are definitely affecting terms of trade.

They're willing to walk away from certain contracts. They're in some instances negotiating back to percent of charges with some of their smaller health plans. So they are making those decisions, and they're using their power in that way.

DR. BARTLETT: Yes. Go ahead, Mark.

DR. PAULY: I married a doctor's daughter but I still don't understand physicians. I don't understand the doctor's daughter completely, either.

But the puzzle to me is, I think I agree with Peter that from a structural point of view, setting aside the occasional orthopedic group that's cornered the market, structurally it doesn't look like doctors ought to have market power. And yet they seem to behave as if they do. That's sort of the puzzle.

They seem to think they negotiate these prices, that there's something to negotiate here, whereas really there shouldn't be, I guess. And at least this is from talking to Grandpa. They seem to feel pressure to give discounts to health plans that cover very small fractions of their patient population.

I guess I'm just expressing a fundamental question here: Is this a competitive market or not? I guess I've always called it monopolistic competition, which of course is an oxymoron. But it does have some of the structural features of competition but some of the behavioral features of monopoly. And maybe that's the answer.

But I just wonder whether anybody else can shed any light on why physicians seem to behave as if they are

not competitors, when structurally it looks like they are.

DR. CASALINO: If I can speak up again, I think, Mark, that -- I mean, there are the large -- the large physician groups, and these are really the exceptions. I mean, you saw in the markets I'm showing one, two, three. They believe they have some leverage, okay, although few of them would say they have as much leverage as the largest plan in the markets where there's a large, dominant plan.

But most physicians in most markets that I've talked to through the community tracking study -- also probably in about 500 other interviews I've done in the last five or six years -- they don't think they have any leverage at all. They don't negotiate contracts. They just sign them or don't. And basically, throughout the '90s, they signed them because they were afraid they'd be left out.

Now in some cases they're saying, well, you know, I have enough patients. I'm just not going to sign this contract with this dinky little health plan that's offering low rates. But very few physicians feel like they can negotiate prices now.

And it's actually surprising, from one point of view, that more physicians aren't trying to get into

groups where they might be able to negotiate some prices.

And there's a whole other talk that could be given about that because you'd think the incentives to do so would be very high.

But most physicians are price takers and feel like victims, very much so, very explicitly so, in their relations with health plans.

DR. PAULY: Is this because they used to be monopolists and now they're not?

DR. CASALINO: That's right. Yes.

DR. BARTLETT: Warren?

DR. GREENBERG: You know what? Peter, you said something very, very interesting. In your survey of antitrust cases with Bill Sage, you said very few courts have taken up the issue of quality, and it's not been involved in any of the decisions from the courts. And yet we hear the Chairman this morning said he would like to institute more quality in the Commission's decision-making, and perhaps in his antitrust actions.

How about this group here? And let me ask you first, Peter, how can we help the Chairman? If all of us agree that quality should be a variable here, how can we help the Chairman or the FTC integrate quality into its equations? Can we do a better job of measuring it? Should we take some of Dr. Romano's measures and

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incorporate some of them for the chairman? Should we take others? How can we help the FTC in trading off the quality, cost, and price that he seems to want to do?

DR. HAMMER: Yes. I mean, there's not a lot of easy answers to some of these questions. One interesting thing would be to have the FTC and the DOJ base their enforcement agency guidelines on evidence. I mean, there's all this talk in medicine about evidence-based medicine. The exercise in producing guidelines is not necessarily one as sensitive to the health services research as it might be. I mean, sort of one obvious one is the extent they're going to start making or changing the guidelines. Let's make that at least based upon empirical, defensible evidence.

One interesting illustration of that that's been brought up a couple of times already today is this concept of clinical integration. Should you permit clinical integration to be a sufficient justification to enable then the physicians to negotiate collectively visavis price? Most people would say that the Department of Justice and FTC give on that issue for fear of litigation that would allow unions. All right? So it's a political move in which we'll give you greater leeway within the guidelines on these dimensions in order to counterbalance the possibility of possible legislative

action in the area, not on a careful assessment of what would the best evidence be as to the need for extent of clinical integration that would be appropriate; and therefore to define the guideline based upon what would further quality, and free up physicians to motivate on that end. And whether that would then lead to the same type of exception or not is an interesting question.

I know later they're going to be talking about dissemination in some of these issues as well. How do you just get people better information? You do want policy-makers making decisions that have implications on health care quality and structure to have the information, and part of it is to have better answers.

The other sort of thing I would just simply say, for courts, at least, they have to be simple answers. And you have to also appreciate the degree to which policy-makers and courts need to be operating on heuristics that are manageable. And so simplification and easy answers are great, and these are complicated problems, and therefore we see how far we have to go.

DR. BARTLETT: I just want to emphasize that Warren's question is, I think, a very good one. I liked your response as well. And my hope is -- I think everybody's hope is -- when we start talking about a future research agenda, and we are going to start that

session by hearing from FTC representatives, that we get a sense of what are -- how they would sort of identify their research needs, what questions would be -- if they were addressed would be most helpful in terms of these deliberations.

So I think that's a nice setup, Warren, in terms of your question, in terms of what we can do now.

But what's the -- how do we add to the body of research?

So it's more useful downstream.

Any other commenters, takers on anything to be stirred into the mix? Arnie?

DR. MILSTEIN: I just want to walk through sort of a line of reasoning that I'm sort of pulling out of these discussions and trying to bring it back to what large purchasers and consumer organizations are trying to make happen in local markets in order to improve quality and efficiency.

And the logic train goes something like this, that if the IOM is right, quality failure in the United States is severe and it's mostly invisible -- it isn't like, you know -- we don't have, you know, mobs circling hospitals over bad quality even though the quality is bad -- so the quality failure is severe and invisible.

I also believe, and I don't think -- I mean,
I'd love to hear a dissenting point of view -- that

quality is not going to massively improve without a
business case for re-engineering at the provider level.

I mean, I take Lisa's point about professionalism, but
we've had a lot of years for professionalism to solve
this problem and it doesn't seem to be doing too well.

Third is that this business case at the provider level is going to require measurement and either volume and/or price incentives.

And last, I think this really gets to the research question that I still remain focused on:

Provider measurement and incentives, I believe -- at least many in my situation believe -- is more successfully opposed in more concentrated health care markets.

It's only in concentrated health care markets that when plans step forward and announce that they are going to create tiers among doctors or among hospitals, that provider -- large provider organizations stand up and say to the health plans, who ultimately are their revenue sources, I don't think so. We're not going to let you. If you do, we won't be in your networks, and you try to sell health insurance product without us in the network.

That is our empirical observation. We'd love to see, you know, some research interest in whether

1	that's true, that in more concentrated markets, providers
2	are more successful in opposing quality measurement and
3	differentiation in terms of reward structure.

DR. CASALINO: May I just ask Arnie a question? Arnie, how much, in your experience, have you seen that come from hospitals, and how much from physician groups?

DR. MILSTEIN: I think more often from hospitals, but I've seen it happen among physician groups in geographies where a big, in this case integrated multi-specialty group really dominates a county.

And so you cannot get away with a commercial insurance product without having a given medical group in your network and the medical group says, no, I think we're happy to ride on our reputation rather than actually be measured and run the risk that our reputation might not be supported.

DR. ROMANO: Yes. I wanted to pick up on Arnie's point, and perhaps address Mark's point a little bit as well, which is, just by example, this issue of market power and leverage seems to work in some very interesting ways. And I'm not an economist so I'm just kind of a spectator as a physician on the outside, sort of looking at how this works.

But my own health system, the UC Davis Health System, is clearly the high cost health care provider in

the Sacramento market. And yet year after year, UC Davis
Health System has been able to resist contracts in which
tiering would be included, as well as exclusion from
networks.

There have been a number of brinkmanship kind of cases where they've been the -- you know, full-page ads in the newspapers and so forth. But in the end, to be honest, almost every time the health plans have caved. So why have they caved? UC Davis Health System only controls about 10 to 15 percent of the market in the Sacramento area.

But I would suggest there are a couple of reasons why the health plans have caved. One is that UC Davis Health System is the academic medical center. It has the brand name. So for a health plan to go out on the market and say, well, we're going to offer you everybody but we're not going to offer you the academic system in the market, well, that kind of looks bad. And I think that affects their ability to compete and offer their products to employers in the marketplace.

The other thing is that we have an interesting system where UC Davis Health System has a monopoly in one particular service, which is trauma care. And that gives our system a tremendous amount of leverage because they can go to all the health plans and say, well, if you

don't want to deal with us, that's fine. We'll pay you

full charges any time any of your patients gets into a

crash on the highway.

And we're in a very nice situation, and we have these major highways that go through Sacramento. So any time anybody wants to go through the central valley or go up to the mountains and Lake Tahoe, they have to go through Sacramento.

So it's an incredible deal. I hate to reveal our CEO's market strategy. But basically, they are able to use their monopoly in one particular service to exercise leverage over a large number of services where you wouldn't think that they would have market power based on the structural characteristics.

So it's just very interesting to see these examples and how things play out in the market.

DR. BARTLETT: Arnie, just to play out your point, it seems to me that Patrick's -- when you talked about the UC Davis, that's a little bit different. It might be exactly the same. It might be a different attribute of a marketplace that is very concentrated. You're talking about sort of the brand name player not wanting to play. So that's a slight variation on what you were talking about.

DR. MILSTEIN: Right. I mean, I think a

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1	situation in which you don't, as a health plan or a
2	purchaser, play along with a hospital's notion as to what
3	they think is fair measurement or fair competition, that
4	that's fine. But you can then pay, you know,
5	unrestricted retail, is what has been termed, you know,
6	an offer you can't refuse. I mean, that is you know,
7	it's impossible to deal with.

DR. BARTLETT: And I know Larry talked a bit about incentives in your study. But I think that the extension of your -- the research that you are proposing would be in fact to then look at whether these strategies, the incentives, the tiering, all this, do indeed result in higher levels of quality.

DR. MILSTEIN: Yes. And the only thing I would add about Patrick's example is -- it really ties in to Warren's comment -- is that we perpetuate this equilibrium where we're nowhere near that tradeoff curve that Mark described in his presentation, not even close.

We perpetuate it partly by allowing, you know, brand names to continue to make a difference when in fact underlying the brand names is likely substantial -- I mean, actually we know, based on health services research, that there may not be anything as a great hospital.

There can be great service lines within some

hospitals and not others. But the probability of there being a great hospital that warrants a great brand name, based on the current evidence, is close to zero.

So we have this -- the current equilibrium sort of sustained by unwarranted, you know, brand names that are a by-product of consumer ignorance. But to offset the consumer ignorance, you would need provider cooperation to begin collecting better performance measures and publicly reporting them. But the current equilibrium allows providers to resist participation in such performance reporting and incentive programs.

DR. BARTLETT: Let's take a couple more comments on this, and we'll pick up this conversation on the far side of lunch. Let's go to Brent, then Larry.

DR. JAMES: I just have a question for Arnie.

Arnie, that mechanism that you just described, do you think you could work it the other direction, where you'd go into a market and find one provider, even just a medium-sized provider, who was willing to share measures, and use it the other way? Have you seen that or is that a possibility? What do you think about that?

DR. MILSTEIN: I think it is a possibility. I mean, there is, you know, such a thing as, you know, quality-progressive providers, providers who are willing to report either, you know, based on professionalism or

1	out of fear that if your behavior is too bad, competition
2	might get, you know, stirred up and, you know, outside
3	providers might be brought in by angry customers,
4	although angry customers have been few and far between in
5	health care so far.
6	DR. JAMES: That can force the resisters to the
7	data table, is what you're saying?
8	DR. MILSTEIN: Yes.
9	DR. BARTLETT: Larry, we'll make yours the
LO	last, then we'll break for lunch. Larry?
L1	DR. CASALINO: Yes. I mean, I think Arnie's
L2	remarks really show how far we really are from being able
L3	to produce a system where there's competition on quality
L4	or even incentives to improve it. You need because
L5	and how powerless antitrust is to really do something
L6	about this, because by and large the hospitals that
L7	Arnie's thinking of, and certainly UC Davis, would not by
L8	any stretch of the imagination be in violation of
L9	antitrust law, even of kind of a populist kind of

You know, part of the reason they have that power is the fragmentation of purchasers. And, you know, the idea of sponsors has disappeared since the failure of the Clinton health plan. There are groups like CalPERS

antitrust law, which we don't have now. Yet they have

the power to resist being made to negotiate on quality.

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or PBGH or BCEG in Minneapolis that try to function as sponsors, and they actually, I think, not by accident have had, in my opinion, the most success in actually creating some moves to increase quality.

But by and large, just as I would say no medical groups, no unit of analysis, no capability to improve quality, no competition on quality, I actually also believe -- and this is not a popular topic these days; no one really talks about it -- no sponsors, no competition on quality, basically.

Arnie does the best he can with what he has, and he has the best there is. But in fact, we don't really have, on the sponsor side, someone who can really make there be competition on quality.

DR. BARTLETT: Thank you to Larry and to our commentators who have started a very good discussion.

We'll come back -- actually, we're scheduled to start up at 20 after 1:00, and I would like to keep us on schedule. So lunch is out here. Sit wherever you'd like. Talk with whomever you'd like. And we'll start it promptly at 1:20.

(Whereupon, at 12:50 p.m., a luncheon recess was taken.)

1 AFTERNOON SESSION

DR. BARTLETT: Much the way we did it in this

last session, we want to move to share with you and

discuss with you several new studies focused on hospital

competition and quality.

We've got three studies to present. We'll do them in sequence, each of the presenters taking up to 20 minutes. We will follow that with commentaries by Brent James, Warren Greenberg, and Bill Encinosa.

And our first presentation will be by Herb Wong from AHRQ. We'll have the presentations from up here, and then we'll go to the -- the commenters can stay at their seats.

DR. WONG: Thank you very much. The title of my presentation today is the effects of hospital consolidation on the quality of care. And this is actually part of a larger research effort that I'm undertaking at AHRQ that looks at hospital competition, consolidation, and quality. This is joint work with Ryan Mutter, and I want to emphasize that this is very preliminary work, that this is very much a work in progress. We recognize that there is still a significant amount of work that we need to perform for this.

And with that caveat, let me provide you with some background information on this particular study.

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This is actually something that I'd been thinking about for some time now. And I guess when Warren Greenberg, who ironically is a discussant on this panel, was at the agency as a visiting scholar, one of the questions that he was always fond of asking was how would hospital mergers impact hospital quality?

And from a social welfare point of view, this was an intriguing question because what this meant was that hospital consolidation could be in fact welfare-enhancing if quality increased sufficiently to offset any negative effects of an increase in price, that the combination of quality and price was in fact socially preferred to the one that was currently existing.

Now, the literature in this particular area is actually quite limited. The only published study that I know of is a study by Hamilton and Ho, and they directly look at the impact of mergers on hospital quality.

Now, there are a strain of literature that basically addresses this issue, but very indirectly. Basically, the studies that Marty mentioned earlier today that looked at competition and quality gets to this issue. After all, a hospital consolidation leads to lower competition and therefore some impact on quality.

But I think that looking at this literature is really incomplete, that there are other literatures out

there that might add to this overall discussion about how
hospital consolidation could impact quality. For
example, if you have two institutions that are merging
together and that their total number of admissions are
basically the same before and after merger, does the
literature on volume outcomes contribute to this
particular discussion?

So in this particular slide, what I wanted to do is try to frame the question a little bit about the different competing hypotheses about how hospital consolidation could in fact impact hospital quality.

Now, one of the things I want to highlight here is that this list is not all-inclusive. What I'm trying to demonstrate here is that hospital consolidation could have different impacts on different elements of quality depending on the hypothesis that you're looking at.

I think that the typical hypothesis out there is that the hospital market is characterized by quality competition, and that if there is a hospital consolidation of sorts, this would mean less competition, less quality competition, and therefore less quality in the market.

Now, a competing hypothesis out there is a recent one by Mukamel, et al., in a 2002 publication, where they argued that the relationship between

competition and quality may be in fact inverse. And their argument is that it is very difficult for consumers to in fact observe clinical quality.

And what happens is that hospitals really compete based on what they called hotel services, that those are the amenities out there such as, you know, is the room nicely painted or furnished, things of that nature that doesn't really get to clinical quality.

So if the market is in fact characterized by hotel services competition, what that implies for a hospital on consolidation is that you have less competition in terms of hotel services, but hospitals would respond by increasing their clinical services and therefore increase clinical quality because now they are spending less resources focusing on hotel services and more on clinical services and clinical quality.

Another argument of a competing hypothesis here is hospital consolidation leads to greater efficiency through the volume/outcomes relationship. So quality can in fact increase under that scenario.

And finally, I threw up here one other possibility, and that is, is it possible that quality is in fact not a choice variable for the hospital? Under this scenario, then, what we should observe is that quality would remain the same before and after

consolidation.

So the particular research questions that I'm going to try to address in my study are the following:

Do hospitals involved in consolidation experience changes in hospital quality after consolidation? Are changes in hospital quality different between acquired and purchasing hospitals? And does hospital consolidation affect the hospital quality in the overall market area?

Some of the contributions I think that this particular study will try to make to the literature are the following. The first thing I want to emphasize is that this particular study is not looking to prove or disprove any of those competing hypotheses I listed.

This is a study that looks at the reduced form effects of consolidation, that is, even if you assume that there are these competing hypotheses out there and they're all to some extent valid, what I'm trying to do is to take a look at a situation where a consolidation happens, and all the effects basically works its way out and we get to a new equilibrium. And those are the effects that I try to focus on.

A second contribution I think that this study makes to the existing literature is the expansion of different quality measures, that basically the current literature has a tendency to focus on mortality rates as

1 a competition -- or as a quality measure.

There are a few exceptions. I think that there are others that have looked at readmissions and things of that nature. But the mortality rates are basically used as a proxy for hospital quality. And so this study expands beyond that particular world.

Another contribution is the geographic representation of this particular study. In the existing studies, there's a tendency to focus in on a particular state or two or three states. In this study, I look at consolidation occurring in eight states.

Another shortcoming or limitation of existing studies is they're sometimes a method where they only look at particular payor types, such as Medicaid patients. In my study, I'm going to take a look at all payors at the hospital level.

And finally, this particular study looks at more recent data. Now, let me just say that the existing studies have different elements of these features.

However, I think that the study that I'm trying to employ here is to try to make it universal, that we capture more

So here's the empirical strategy that I'm going to employ. First of all, I'm going to have -- my analysis is basically at the hospital level. And this I

of these elements than some of the other studies.

1 put in parentheses here as an initial investigation.

Other studies have basically focused on the patient level analysis, and that is something that I'll consider in the

4 future.

The second element in this empirical strategy is to create proxy measures for hospital quality. And then what I want to do is to empirically estimate the average hospital quality of the consolidating hospitals before consolidation and after consolidation. And what I want to do is to compare what the relative averages are between these two periods.

So here's the basic empirical specification.

And I'll emphasize the word "basic" because I kind of recognize that there will probably be modifications to this specification to address a number of empirical issues.

But in general, what I want to do is to have independent -- my dependent variable is some measure of quality, and regress that with a dummy variable that characterizes whether or not the hospital is involved in consolidation; a set of hospital characteristics and socioeconomic characteristics to capture potential differences in case mix severity; health status of the community; and then a dummy variable to control for state level effects.

The strategy here is to estimate the same equation before and after consolidation. The parameter of interest here is basically the betas. The beta is going to basically tell us that relative to the hospitals in my sample, how are consolidating hospitals performing in terms of quality? And what I want to do is to estimate these two equations and then compare and see whether or not the betas are different across the two periods.

The data that I'll be using for this particular study: First of all, I need to determine what hospital consolidations are. And we focus in on 1999 hospital consolidations. We limit our studies to only community hospitals. We look at mergers and acquisitions that are transpiring in 1999.

We use four data sources to hone in to verify our information. We use Modern Healthcare. Modern Healthcare annually updates or provides a list of consolidations that occurs during the previous year. We verify this information with a report put out by Irvin Levin & Associates. We use the AHA Annual Survey of Hospitals to further hone in our set of consolidations. And finally, for situations where it is uncertain, we actually go onto the hospital websites and see whether or not we can pull off additional information from there.

The proxy measures for hospital qualities: 1 We use the AHRQ patient safety indicators. We use all 20 of And in general, as Patrick had mentioned in his earlier slides, that these indicators basically captures adverse events and complications that are following surgery procedures and childbirth.

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We take this software or these different measures and we apply it to the Healthcare Costs and Utilization Project state inpatient databases for 1997 and 2001. Again, we're doing a two-year post- and twoyear pre-study. These databases that we use are basically from these eight states that we listed here. And from that, we're able to calculate individual hospital rates for each of the hospitals in all of these states.

Our hospital characteristics come from the AHA Annual Survey of Hospitals. We include as hospital characteristics for-profit and teaching status. From the area of resource file, as a basic proxy for health status of the community, we use per capita income, unemployment, percent black, percent college educated.

Here are some of the characteristics of our analytical file. There are 22 consolidations in 1999 in the eight states that I had listed. This involves 29 hospitals being acquired, 46 purchases. The number of

hospitals in our 1997 data set is 1436, and for our 2001 data set is 1357.

Our estimation strategy: We estimate the empirical equation that we had that I mentioned earlier basically using OLS. We also employed a number of different other estimation techniques to kind of hone in to check for robustness.

And before I show you some of our preliminary results, I just want to remind you what we're -- the test statistic that we're interested in. We're looking at the difference between the betas across these two periods.

Beta one is basically the parameter estimate in 1997, and beta two is the parameter estimate in the year 2001.

Now, because these are basically rates of adverse event, a higher rate is bad. A lower rate is good. And if the difference between these two is greater than zero, that implies the quality had increased during this time frame. If it is less than zero, that implies that it has deteriorated. And of course, if the parameter estimate is zero, that means -- that implies that there's no change.

So what are some of our preliminary results?

Of the 20 QIs that we estimated the equation on, only two of them came in statistically significant. And the two measures are basically indicated here. And in both

cases, we discovered that there was an increase in quality after consolidation.

When we ran separate models where we looked at whether or not -- what is driving this results, we discovered that in one case, it was driven by purchaser quality increasing, and the other, the acquirer quality increasing.

Now, one of the things I don't have up here in terms of my preliminary results is that basically all the other equations where they were not statistically significant. In fact, there were about three or four of them that were getting close to the border of being significant at the 10 percent level, but didn't quite make it. And it turns out that for those, they basically had the same sign.

So let me emphasize the point -- and I can't emphasize this enough -- is that these are preliminary results. We recognize that there are a broad -- we broadly recognize that there are a number of empirical issues that still remains for us to resolve.

Basically, we recognize that there might be some situation where there is some biases that are introduced into our equations. We're looking at different techniques to kind of address that. But this is an area that we'll explore in the future.

Once we completed that aspect of it, I think that there are a number of other directions that this research is going to move into. We kind of emphasized or looked at preliminarily what's happening with the acquired and the purchasers, but what's happening overall in the market? Are there basically some spillover effects after consolidation?

One of the things that Mark Pauly had mentioned in his remarks was, well, what about different types of consolidation? That is, does it really matter if a firm is part of a multi-hospital system? So one of the things that we want to try to explore is the different types of consolidation that is happening, that is, systems buying independent hospitals or independent hospitals merging together, and whether or not those different aspects in fact matter in our investigation.

Another way to kind of head into in terms of this research is to look at the mortality measures.

Basically, the RQI mortality measure can see whether or not that there are different dimensions of quality that's going to be impacted differently by consolidation.

And other areas that we'll explore are basically to look at whether or not we need to go to a patient-level analysis. As I mentioned before, we began with a hospital-level analysis, but a lot of the

1	literature out there basically use a patient level
2	analysis. And I think that there are pros and cons for
3	both methods. One of the advantages of going to a
4	patient level analysis is that you can better control for
5	severity at the patient level case.

So with that --

DR. BARTLETT: Thank you. Let's now turn to

Robert Town to share with us work that he has done on the

volume-outcome relationship.

DR. TOWN: It's a pleasure to be here. I'll try not to move around. I tend to pace when I talk, but I realize that I leave the microphone behind, and that's probably a bad idea.

So the title of the paper is Causality and the Volume/Outcome Relationship. And this is joint work with Gautam Gowrisankaran, who is the wind -- he keeps traveling around; he's at Yale now and will be at Olin School come the fall -- Vivian Ho at the University of Alabama, and myself. And to continue the theme of preliminary results, these results are very, very preliminary, and I'll just leave it at that.

So I think the issue has been raised earlier today, and its importance has been highlighted in previous discussions. But I'll reiterate that importance. This is a -- the relationship between volume

and outcomes for various procedures has a relatively long history in health services research.

There's a recent review by Helms which finds

125 articles on this relationship between 1980 and 2000.

That's a lot. And the -- of course, Hal Left was

probably the one who first populized this idea with his

paper in 1971, with several co-authors. I'll leave them

out. And 70 percent of these studies find that there is

a positive correlation between outcomes and volume. That

is, the more you do, the better the outcomes.

And here's a typical -- this is actually from the data we used in our analysis. For CABG in California, and these are just risk-adjusted mortality rates on the Y axis and actual volume by the hospital's annual volume on the X axis, and you can see there -- and the red line is kind of the fitted values of quadratic regression, or actually cubic. It turns on the mortality. And you can see that there's actually a pretty significant decreasing relationship: The more you do, the better you seem to be at it.

And there are two causal mechanisms that have been previously mentioned here that might explain this correlation. One is that practice makes perfect, or learning by doing, as economists like call it. And Hal Left proposed that in his '79 paper, along with his co-

authors. And he's actually perfectly hedged here on the hypothesis. He also is the one who proposed, with coauthors, the selective referral hypothesis.

The selective referral hypothesis essentially states that the reason you observe this correlation is that people like to go to good hospitals, or at least their physician agents like to send them to good hospitals, so that there is not a causal relationship between that drug goes from volume to outcomes, but the causal mechanism goes from outcomes to volume, as I just said here. So learning by doing implies that volume causes outcomes, and selective referral implies that outcomes cause volume.

Now, the policy implications of these two hypotheses are very different. And actually, the magnitudes of many of the studies suggest that if learning by doing is the right explanation of the data, then we really should be encouraging a lot of hospital mergers because the effects are dramatic often. However, if selective referral is the right explanation of the day, then there's no drive, at least on this account, to regionalize procedures.

However, you know, I think both ideas have been around for quite some time. But the literature really assumes, either explicitly or implicitly, that the

learning by doing hypothesis is the right one. And you see it in, you know, all the abstracts from these studies.

They say, well, you know, what's the policy implications? And they always say, well, suggest that we should encourage more people to go to higher volume hospitals, which is implicitly saying that there's a relationship, a causal relationship, between volume and outcome.

Because volume is actually -- as you can see from the previous graph, it's a pretty poor signal of quality. And if that's what you want to use as your signal of quality, it's not a very good one. Certainly we could come up with better ones. So that doesn't seem to be a very good motivator to drive people to go to high volume hospitals.

And also, in the Leapfrog Group, they're explicitly suggesting you go to high volume hospitals.

And again, it's not a very good quality indicator if that's what you're using. So it suggests that they believe the learning by doing hypothesis.

So what we're going to do in the study is allow for the mortality/volume relationship, estimate the mortality/ volume relationship, allowing for the possibility that volume is endogenous. In economic-

speak, that means that we're allowing for the causal relationship to go from mortality to volume.

3 So we're going to study two procedures.

They're a bit different, and from different data sets:

the Whipple procedure, which is a pretty complicated

pancreatic cancer surgery, which can take eight to nine
hours to perform, and CABG, which I think most of us
know.

So in our estimates, if volume is endogenous -- and again, this is in economist-speak -- that implies selective referral. We're going to use linear instrumental variables and maximum likelihood analog of instrumental variables. Actually, it's simulated maximum likelihood.

So our findings, which again are very tentative -- and I was talking to Bill and Marty earlier, and they're doing something very similar, and they're getting some different results using very similar data. So take the results with some caution.

We find that actually, for the Whipple, the learning by doing hypothesis seems to be right. It seems to be explaining the data. However, for CABG, volume appears to be endogenous, and that selective referral seems to be implied by the coefficients.

So here's our empirical framework.

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1		DR.	BARTLETT:	Do	you	have	a	hypothesis	about
2	why those	two	would be da	iffe	erent	:?			

DR. TOWN: Yes. I'll get to that. And the answer is, they're very different volumes initially.

So our mortality equation is -- here's our latent mortality. So we only observe mortality as 1.0, but there's a latent mortality. And this is an unobservable hospital characteristic that we don't observe. This is the quantity of procedures at the hospital. And these are going to be risk adjusters.

Our second equation is going to be hospital volume. I'm going to say that hospital volume is going to be a function of predicted hospital volume, which we will estimate. So if selective referral is right, this omega is going to be correlated with Q. And that's why you're going to have biased coefficients if you're going to interpret this as a causal relationship.

So we're going to estimate -- as I mentioned before, we're going to estimate this using simulated maximum likelihood, which allows for the mortality to be binary. So we're going to estimate essentially a probit model but allows for the endogenating. And we have to use simulated maximum likelihood because it's kind of complicated, like tricky.

So our instrument, which is the OHATs from the

previous equation, is going to be predicted volume. And predicted volume just is going to come from the multinomial logit hospital choice model. And that's going to be a -- and in that choice model, we're going to include distance, functions of distance, and patient characteristics.

And so we think that volume should be a good instrument for actual volume. Now, what makes it a good instrument? One, it will be highly correlated with actual volume, which almost by definition it should be. And also, it will be uncorrelated with the omega of the previous slide.

Now, that won't be the case, and we can tell stories of why that might be the case, that is, that omega may in fact be correlated with predicted volume, and when those would be patients tend to live near good hospitals or bad hospitals; good hospitals tend to locate next to each other. If those things were true, that would suggest our instrument is maybe not so good.

So our data comes from two spots. The Whipple data comes from Florida. And our outcome, actually, for both cases is going to be in-hospital mortality. And the reason we use in-hospital mortality is -- well, it's easy to observe; and two, it's the primary outcome in almost all the volume/outcome relationships. And so it would

just be consistent with the previous literature. We're going to follow it, although there's obviously problems within hospital mortality.

For Whipple, the important difference here besides the degree of difficulty of these two procedures is the number of procedures in aggregate are very different between the two. From over ten years of data, we have 3,000 Whipple procedures performed in Florida, where in California over a much shorter time frame, we have 122,000 CABGs performed.

So here's some summary stats. The mortality -this is in-hospital mortality -- for the Whipple is about
10 percent, and for CABG it's about 4 percent. The
volume is very different between these two.

From the Whipple, a typical hospital is doing three to four a year, where for the CABG, it's quite a bit more. This is the distance to the hospitals. They travel roughly 20 miles. And similar hospital sizes are pretty similar. Teaching are also similar.

So here's the parameters from the multinomial trace model, which I won't go over but, you know, the parameters are basically what you think. The further away the hospital is, the less like you are to go to it. The bigger the hospital is, the more likely you are to go to it.

1	So here this is for Whipple. This is I'm
2	going to present kind of the graphs, the instrumental
3	variable version graphically. So this is actual volume,
4	and this is the risk adjusted mortality for each hospital
5	here. And again, there's and the red line is the
6	fitted values. And you get sort of the standard
7	volume/outcome relationship there.

In this graph, this is the instrumental variable version of that. We have -- the X axis now is the predicted volume instead of actual volume. So here this predicted volume should be unrelated to the unobserved quality, and thus would be a good instrument.

And here we still -- and the sort of volume/outcome relationship is still preserved, although the curvature is much more severe. It's adjusting that learning by doing hypothesis is the right one.

Now, here's the statistical version of that.

Here's the -- this is just the maximum likelihood probit, so not correcting for endogenating. And you get a negative coefficient here and some curvature. Under the maximum simulated likelihood, you have -- where we're treating volume as endogenous, you get the same, you know, sign of coefficient. It's just the severity -- the curvature is much more severe.

Also, these correlations down here are the

1 correlations between the error term across equations, and 2 those are insignificant, again suggesting that learning 3 by doing is the right explanation of the data.

So this is the graph I showed before for CABG.

And again, that's just mean -- actual volume on

mortality. So here's the IV version off that. So this

is the predicted volume projected on actual volume and

mortality. And basically, it's just a cloud. So the

relationship between mortality and volume goes away here,

suggesting that it is selective referral for CABG that's

driving those relationships.

We haven't done the maximum simulated likelihood for CABG because the number of observations is a lot higher than Whipple, and this is actually a computationally intensive program. So we're moving to a different software to be able to estimate it. But you can do it by linear IV.

And here we see that we get negative coefficient on actual volume, and these are some of our risk adjusters. We actually have a much bigger list of them than the ones I put here. And here's the IV estimates. And the coefficient size goes down significantly and standard error goes up quite a bit, again suggesting that it is selective referral for CABG.

So, now, those results don't say that learning

by doing is not necessarily important for CABG. It's
just that the volumes that we observe most hospitals
operating at, they've gone past that threshold so that,
at least revealed in the data, learning by doing wouldn't
be important.

So here are our conclusions. And the first one is, you know, kind of the thing you learn in your very first stats class, that correlation is not causation.

And I think that's something that's been a little bit forgotten in the health services research on this topic.

And I think it's important to note.

But for the Whipple, it is. Volume does seem to cause outcomes. And this is primarily, at least in our view, it's a very complicated procedure and it's very rarely performed. For CABG, we find the causality works the other way, that outcomes are driving volume. CABG is also a complicated procedure, but it's much more frequently performed.

So in our last bullet here is that our results,

I think, do drive -- call into question a drive to

regionalize, and we should rethink about -- at least

begin to think about what is really behind these

relationships that we're observing, and that the causal

mechanisms really matter for policy. And that's where

the, you know, rubber should meet the road on this issue.

_	ind i ii boop enere.
2	DR. BARTLETT: Thank you very much, Robert.
3	Now let's turn to Dan Kessler to share his work
4	looking at competition and its impact on utilization.
5	DR. KESSLER: Thank you very much. Thank you
6	for having me here today. I'm going to talk about the
7	effects of hospital competition on variation in
8	utilization and quality of care. This is joint work with
9	Jeff Geppert, who's a colleague of mine at Stanford
10	University.
11	And also, this is I wouldn't say joint work,
12	but a lot of people in this room have contributed
13	substantially to the work on this paper. Just to go
14	around the room and name a few, Bill Sage, Bill Vogt,

And I'll stop there

And so I'd like to take this opportunity to say that they're responsible for any errors or misstatements that we might make in connection with this, not Jeff and me. If you have any trouble, go talk with them.

Mike Vita, Paul Volper, and David Hyman, through many

much, much better paper.

conversations, have helped Jeff and me make this into a

Also, I would like to thank the Federal Trade Commission and the National Institutes on Aging for generous support. But the institutions are not responsible for anything that we might say.

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Well, this paper is about one way that competition affects quality, by affecting variations in care across patients. And just by way of introduction, everybody in this room is familiar with the Dartmouth Atlas studies, which find tremendous variations in care across geographic areas, much of which is likely wasteful, tremendous variations in care not correlated with any differences across areas and outcomes.

Now, economic theory suggests that the competitiveness of hospital markets might be part of the cause of this. They might lead to more variation or less variation. The theory is indeterminate. And as well, the theory is indeterminate for the consequences for costs and quality of competition.

So for that reason, identifying empirically how competition affects variation and its consequences is important for antitrust policy. And that's really what we're going to be about today.

So what I'm going to do is step you through briefly the data and the methods that we use, and then tell you what our main results are and our conclusions.

And to give you the punch line before I start, I'm going to -- I hope to leave you with the point that competition leads to increased variation in the treatment given to the sickest versus the healthiest patients, that is to

say, spreads out the distribution of care provided to patients, and does so in a way that reduces expenditures but improves health outcomes. So I'm going to leave you with the thought that competition leads to more variation, and that this is a good thing.

Well, just to put a little more details on the introduction that I started with, tremendous variation in medical care. And you can look at the Dartmouth Atlas website to get a sample of some of these numbers. For example, Medicare spending per enrollee in 1996 was about \$8400 in Miami, but only \$3400 in Minneapolis, and no associated differences in health outcomes after adjusting for a whole basket of things.

And yet everybody agrees that it would be undesirable to eliminate variation in medical care. I mean, frankly, tailoring of treatment to individual patient circumstances is essential, obviously, to getting people the care that they need.

So we're left with -- well, I have one question on this slide, but really with two questions. First, what variation is good and what variation is bad? Right? Some variation is clearly not so good, and some good. But second, once we identify what the bad variation is, how do we get rid of it? And that turns out to be, I think, a pretty hard problem. One way to get rid of it

is through practice guidelines.

Practice guidelines, which is, you know, one of the main things that many of the people in this room work on, are unquestionably a valuable tool for getting rid of bad variation. But everybody here knows that doctors and hospitals are famously resistant to practice guidelines.

So is there another thing we can use, another policy tool we can use, that might help us complement the use of practice guidelines to get rid of this bad variation? And I'd like to suggest competition as this tool.

Economic theory, starting with a long line of papers from Michael Spence and Joe Stieglitz to our Nobel prize-winning colleagues, suggests that competitiveness of markets is a key determinant of product variety, in general terms, and in some sense variation in medical care is a kind of product variety.

And what we're going to attach this to in this paper is looking at variety in the dimension along with difference in treatment received by less severely versus more severely ill patients, and then ask the question, what happens to the expenditures and the costs of treating those patients, and what happens to the sick versus the healthy patients' health outcomes?

Well, to give you a brief sort of graphical

presentation of what the theory is -- and I think people
have a handout because I know this print is -- it's
almost too small for me to see standing up here, so it
must be too small for everyone else to see --

intensity.

DR. BARTLETT: Everybody have a handout?

DR. KESSLER: Some people have handouts? Okay.

That's good. So in theory, you know, as Marty talked about in his initial talk, the effect of competition on welfare is indeterminate, and that carries through to the vehicle of the effect of competition of welfare through variation. More competition could shrink the variation in treatment intensity between more and less severely ill patients, or it could expand the variation in treatment

And I've got this presented graphically as flattening out the line that provides a correspondence between illness severity on the X axis and treatment intensity on the Y axis. That would be if you had a more competitive market that shrinks variation, you'd get pretty much the same treatment intensity across illness severities.

On the other hand, competition could steepen that line, could mean that more severely ill people get more intensive treatment relative to less severely ill people. We just don't know. And furthermore, we don't

1 know if this is going to be good or bad for aggregate 2 social welfare.

These bottom two pictures sort of expand on the upper right-hand picture and say, well, let's suppose that competition expands variation; is that good or bad for patients? The bottom two pictures graph illness severity on the X axis and health outcomes on the Y axis.

And so competition, let's suppose, expands variation; that could be good for aggregate social welfare if it lifts the health outcomes of the sickest people and doesn't hurt the health outcomes of the relatively healthier people. Or it could be bad for welfare if it doesn't change any outcomes at all, if you just have needless variation due to competition, which theoretically is another possibility.

So I don't mean these pictures to be too literal, but just to provide you with an illustration of how it might be true that competition could have ambiguous effects on both variation and the consequences of variation for quality.

Let me tell you a little bit about what Jeff and I did in this paper, and then give you a sampling of the results. What we did was analyze longitudinal individual level data on essentially all Medicare beneficiaries who were hospitalized -- Medicare fee-for-

service beneficiaries who were hospitalized with a heart attack between 1985 and 1996.

And about these people, we know their zip code, their demographic characteristics, their utilization of hospital care in the year before and after their heart attack, their readmission rates, and their mortality both in and out of hospital.

And what we did was classify beneficiaries as more severely ill if they had a hospital admission in the year prior to their AMI. And I'll say more about this measure of illness severity in a moment, which I realize is, you know, purely a claims database to utilization based measure, and so in many ways, you know, quite limited. But I'll say more about why -- well, why we think it's not absolutely terrible in a moment.

And what we did was match these patient level data on market level data that Mark McClellan and I had constructed and used in some previous work on the competitiveness, the ownership structure, the size structure, and the capacity of hospitals in various small area hospital markets over this same period.

Well, this is definitely too small to see. But I felt like I should put the regression equation up here, at least, and talk you through it so that those people who are aficionados of regressions will at least know

1 what exactly we did.

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What we did was estimate the effects of competition and market composition on eight different measures of utilization and patient health outcomes. So on the left-hand side of the slide are the eight different measure of utilization and outcomes that we used in the paper: total hospital expenditures in the year after the patient's heart attack, including the expenditures incurred in their initial admission; their acute care hospital expenditures; their non-acute care, mostly skilled nursing, expenditures; then the days that they spent in the acute care hospital and in the skilled nursing facility in the year following the onset of their heart attack. And then, finally, three measures of health outcomes, three measures of quality and, you know, again I realize that -- I'll say a few more words about the limited nature of these in a moment as well -whether or not they were readmitted with heart attack within one year of their initial onset of illness; whether or not they were readmitted with heart failure within year of the onset of their illness; and their mortality within one year of their illness.

And we model each of those dependent variables as a function of a small area and year in time, fixed effects. The demographic characteristics of patients,

that's XIZT. AIZT, which is an indicator variable that
equals one if the patient had a hospital admission in the
year prior to the onset of his or her illness, that's our
measure of illness severity. So if you had that
utilization in the year prior, then you're more severely
ill.

HHIZT, which is these measures of the competitiveness of markets that Mark and I constructed in our earlier work. JZT, which is some measures of the ownership and size distribution of area hospitals. And KZT, which is a measure of market size or capacity that the hospital market in zip code Z at year T had.

Well, these are results. And this is sort of a replication of table 2 from the paper. It's selected pieces of table 2 from the paper. And let me just talk you through these. You can see these in your handouts or you can look directly to table 2.

And what I've done here in this slide is excerpt five of the eight dependent variables that we analyzed. Remember, we had the total utilization, acute and non-acute utilization, and then the three outcome variables. What I'm going to do here is just talk about total expenditures as a measure of utilization, non-acute expenditures, and then the three outcome variables, in the interest of time and space.

And I'm also not going to talk about all of the regressors that I just mentioned. I'm just going to focus us on the competitiveness effects and a couple of the other area characteristics that I think are interesting in the interest of trying to stay somehow within my allotted 20 minutes. So what I'm going to do is present you with the estimates of those independent variables on the dependent variables, the outcomes that we talked about.

The first row of this table, this slide here, is the effect of having a prior year's hospital admission on each of the dependent variables that we talked about, the effect of illness severity on each of the variables that we talked about. And the reason I present this is to try to at least convince you preliminarily about the validity of this measure, this claims-based measure, of illness severity as a way to separate patients into a sick versus healthy group.

So what this first row tells you is that hospital utilization in the year prior to your AMI is very strongly correlated with your subsequent expenditures post-AMI. People who had hospital utilization in the year prior to their AMI had about 8.7 percent higher hospital expenditures in the year subsequent relative to patients who didn't have a prior

1 year admission.

And it's also very strongly correlated with your health outcomes after AMI. Patients who had a prior year hospitalization were 1.866 percentage points more likely to have an AMI readmission in the year subsequent, 6.2 percentage points more likely to have a readmission for heart failure, and about 11 percentage points more likely to die in the year after their heart attack than patients who didn't.

And those are very big effects. Just to give you a sampling, the sample average mortality probability here is about 36.5 percent. So we're talking about separating patients into a group -- one group that had 11 percentage patients higher mortality than the other.

And one other fact just to give you is that about 30 percent of AMI patients had hospital utilization in the year prior to their AMI; 70 percent didn't. So this separates people into two baskets, you know, 30/70, with the top 30 being substantially more sick than the bottom 70.

Okay. Well, what about people, the healthier people, people who didn't have hospital utilization the year prior to their AMI? What were the effects of competition for them?

Well, for them, competition reduces

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expenditures but doesn't lead to any adverse health outcome consequences. So the way that I'm reading that out of this table is that patients from areas that were very concentrated or somewhat concentrated relative to the omitted group, the omitted kind of area, which is a competitive area, an unconcentrated area, patients from areas that were very concentrated or somewhat concentrated had higher Medicare expenditures in the year after the AMI, about 1.2, 1.4 percent higher total hospital expenditures. That's the leftmost column.

And also, that amounts to somewhat higher acute expenditures. Total expenditures are mostly acute care hospital expenditures, so I didn't really lose much by omitting that column; but also higher non-acute expenditures, about 4 to 7 percent higher non-acute expenditures. But really no statistically significant or economically important outcome differences, mortality differences, across relatively -- for relatively healthy patients across competitive versus noncompetitive markets.

I'll come back to the latter two rows in a moment. But let me just fill in the rest of this table, which shows you the effects of competition and hospital area market characteristics on patients who had hospital utilization in the year prior to their AMI, patients who

were relatively sicker.

For these patients, the effects of competition are very different. These patients have competition leading to higher expenditures and better health outcomes. So I'm reading that out of these rows by seeing that patients, the relatively sicker patients in more concentrated areas, have negative coefficients -- that's minus 1.443, 1.461 -- on expenditures, but if you move all the way to the right-hand column of the table, positive significant effects on mortality.

So patients, relatively sicker patients from more competitive markets, higher Medicare expenditures, more intensive treatment, lower mortality, and substantially lower mortality that's about, depending on whether you're comparing patients in very concentrated or just somewhat concentrated markets, between .5 percentage points and .8 percentage points, less mortality.

And that's on a base of, you know, as I said, something like 36, 37 percent one-year mortality for elderly people with heart attack. So that's about 2 or 3 percent better for sicker patients in more competitive areas.

Now, that's a little bit qualified by those middle columns, the effects of competitiveness on the readmission rates for heart failure and for subsequent

1 MI. Those coefficients suggest that patients from -2 sicker patients from competitive areas have slightly
3 higher rates of readmission with complications.

But people in this room, many people in this room, know that these kind of claims database readmission rates are really a combination of both an outcome effect conditional on utilization and a measure of subsequent utilization itself. I mean, a lot of the readmissions that occur, or at least some of the readmissions that occur, may be due to just trying to deliver more services and not necessarily due to the patients really being, you know, in some true sense having worse outcomes or being sicker.

So, you know, I just want to qualify that a little bit. The mortality measure, although coarse, of course, is more objective and absolute, doesn't suffer from that problem.

How much time do I have, really? Five minutes? Okay. Let me say a couple words about these other rows that I haven't quite talked about yet. There's a row labeled "Above median density of for-profit hospitals" here, and what this -- the coefficients in this row say is that areas that have a presence of for-profit hospitals have lower overall hospital expenditures without having any worse health outcomes. And this is

consistent with other work that Mark and I have recently completed and published in the RAND Journal.

What's interesting about this -- a couple things interesting. First is the opposite sines of the coefficients on total hospital expenditures and non-acute expenditures, which says that the way that for-profits -- or the way that areas that have for-profits seem to be economizing is by shifting people from the acute care to the non-acute care setting.

They have higher non-acute expenditures but lower acute expenditures. You don't see the lower acute expenditures in this table because I omitted that column, but that's the way you get the negative overall expenditure effect, is by lowering acute expenditures.

The other interesting thing about this result, which wasn't in Mark and my earlier paper, is that this effect is the same across the distribution of illnesses, in contrast to the effects of competition, which appear quite different for sick versus healthy people.

Similarly, the effects of capacity being expenditure-increasing, same across the distribution of illnesses, roughly the same in percentage terms for sick versus healthy people. You know, also quite different from competition, which seems to have these different effects across patients.

Well, one extension to this which I'll just mention briefly -- you can read about in the paper if you'd like -- is to ask whether the source of variation in treatment across individuals that we identified here is due to variation within hospitals in an area, or due to variation across hospitals.

And what we find is that the variation in treatment caused by competition is due primarily to across-hospital variation in care, but the variation caused by other characteristics like for-profit penetration is due to variation within -- changes in variation within hospitals. And so that, too, is another reason to think that the mechanisms through which competition and these other area effects are working are quite different.

So in conclusion, what would I like to leave you with? Most important point of what I have to say here today is that patients from competitive hospital markets have greater variation in care, where variation is defined as the difference in treatment that you get if you're sick versus if you're healthy. And this is a good thing.

Healthy patients in more competitive markets get less intensive treatment, but don't have any adverse outcome consequences. Sick patients in more competitive

markets get more intensive treatment and have better outcomes. And since these effects are net, on net expenditure-reducing and outcome-improving, and the calculations for all that's in the paper, we're going to say they improve welfare.

This, in our view, supports a policy of strict antitrust enforcement in hospital markets. There's no evidence of a welfare down side to competition from increased wasteful treatment variation à la Dartmouth Atlas kind of thing. And there's no evidence also that competition generates aggregate benefits at the expense of any sub-group of patients.

That's another important question,
distributional question, about competition: Does raising
the level of competition in the market help some patients
but hurt others? We don't see any evidence of that.

For the future, I think the interesting questions here is why these other characteristics, like for-profit -- presence of for-profits, presence of capacity in a market, seem to have very different effects on expenditures and outcomes across a distribution of patients than does competition. You know, why is that? How are these other characteristics working? That's for next time. Thank you.

DR. BARTLETT: Great. Thank you, Dan.

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Let's get our commentators queued up. We're going to go first to Brent James. Then, Warren, we'll come to you, and then Bill Encinosa, we'll come your way.

DR. JAMES: Just a little bit of background in these comments. First, you have to understand that I live inside the black box. Very often in health services research, people tend to see things from a distance and measure large-scale effects, and then try to impute what's happening. I think it's a little bit different when you're right down there at the molecular level watching the interactions take place; it really does make a difference on how you think about things.

For background, Intermountain Health Care

System of 22 hospitals, nine of them are in intensely

competitive urban areas, and the rest tend to be very

small rurals. So mostly I'm going to be talking about

the nine.

We have about, oh, well over a hundred primary care delivery locations, 400 employed physicians, about 800 community-based tightly-aligned physicians that I'll be talking about, and our own insurance plan. IHC Health Plans is about 50 percent of the commercial market, all told, but it's about 20 percent of our total care delivery volume by the time you roll in Medicare, which is not particularly directed. So I'm talking in terms of

1 that kind of a system.

So a few comments on the specific studies or ideas that I see from inside the box. Dr. Wong and Ryan Mutter's study really showed, of course, that there was an association between consolidation and quality, at least on two variables. The question I ask is where did that improvement in quality of care arise?

Having watched inside the box, I can think of two ideas. One is benchmarking. Just the idea that when you're working as part of a consolidated system, especially if you've standardized your data systems, you get comparable data and you can use it to learn from one another within a system.

One thing that concerned me was the short time over which the effects were seen. I would have expected it to take a little bit longer, believe it or not, if that mechanism were hard at work, or maybe the effects would grow over time if you tracked it over a longer period of time. Because it usually takes a while to put together those systems. There are easy, fast ways of benchmarking, but really the data consolidation makes a difference.

The other is just the idea of economies of scale, not just scale in terms of efficiencies of care, the cost of care, but also scale in terms of the medical

outcomes of care. As you get more volume running through a program, sometimes it makes a difference.

I would say that the idea of data consolidation is a necessary but not sufficient condition. But it probably is necessary, and that may be one of the factors that you're seeing lying in behind that.

The second study -- just looking at volume outcomes directly, Dr. Town's study, an idea. You talked about learning by doing. We're starting a new bypass graft program in St. George, Utah. For its first couple of years of operation, it's going to be small. I think we'll do -- I don't know if we have 50 hearts a year down there.

Interestingly, we don't think of it as a standalone program 300 miles to the south. We think of it as a direct extension of an 1800-hearts-per-year program located up in Salt Lake City. Well, wait a minute. We're going to pull particular surgeons from Salt Lake City to work in St. George. We're going to pull pump techs, pull ICU nurses, operative nurses, in a fully combined program.

This idea first cropped up when the Institute of Medicine, the Committee on Quality of Healthcare in America, we were looking at the volume/outcome relationship, and we found a little anomaly in the data.

We found small programs that had wonderful results, and started to ask the question, how is it that this small program is getting as good results as the great big programs?

Well, realize, learning by doing, rather than just letting that happen, you can make it explicit. You can start to learn by measurement and explicit process management, in other words, which is one of the new things that are really cropping up these days.

A prediction -- I hope I'm not going too far out on a limb here -- looking at the way the program in St. George will start, I expect its mortality rates to be essentially the same as our 1800-heart program pretty much from the start. And let's put it this way: If it's not immediately, it will get a very fast response because we can track that and understand that. See that idea?

I think a very interesting follow-on area of research of volume/outcomes is to take a close look at those anomalies and see if there's a functional difference down at the front line, and if this idea of process management that crops up so often that's been mentioned several times really does play a significant role.

Dr. Kessler's study, a few thoughts on that.

First of all, I really like it. Two ideas that may make

it stronger. You may have picked a clinical condition where doing more makes a big difference to patients. We know of four evidence-based things that make a difference in AMI outcomes. The big one is rapid restoration of blood flow to the heart. PCI, primary percutaneous intervention, primary PTCA, has a slightly better result than rapid thrombolysis at a substantially higher cost.

I wonder how your models would work if you applied them to some areas where there's a high rate of variation for things where there's not good evidence of positive relationship. The one that sprang to mind was spinal fusion for low back pain, for example, and that it might be very profitable to examine some of those other areas.

AMI, you may have fallen into an area where there is a clear demarcation. And the incentives, the financial incentives to the physicians, match the evidence for the patients. But there are other areas of health care where it goes the opposite direction, potentially. So that might be very interesting to look at.

An operative mechanism, potentially -- you know, Jack Wenberg talks a lot about supplier-induced demand and that comes to bed capacity. And I'm curious about bed capacity in those competitive communities.

What we know is if the beds are there, physicians tend to use them. And if they're not there, they don't.

One of the effects of an intensely competitive market is that hospital administrators try to get their fixed costs down, which means that they basically wring out beds from the system. And that might be another explanatory variable that would fall back into your models.

A final idea comes back to that concept of the business case, with apologies to Arnie and others who've heard this example before. Some years ago, we ran a protocol that significantly reduced variation in care for community-acquired pneumonia, for hospitalized patients with community-acquired pneumonia. In fact, today we get about 90 percent compliance across about 2000 physicians in about an 800-mile diameter for choice of initial antibiotics. Still Cephtriaxilin and -- I think it's not Azithromycin, but some macrolyte.

So massive reductions in variation. That was associated with a decrease in complication rates of about 25 percent, a fall in mortality rates of 26 percent in the initial quasi-experiment. Among patients where they followed the recommended antibiotics, it was a decrease in mortality of about 40 percent, a decrease in cost of 12.3 percent, and a decrease in our net operating

revenues of about 1 percent. It turns out that relative to a business model, all of the savings flowed back to purchasers, carrying additional money with it, you see.

I think that we somewhere along the line need to talk about perverse payment mechanisms. How could we talk about competition without talking about perverse payment mechanisms? Because, frankly, if we were behaving on a financial model, we probably would not have widely implemented that pneumonia protocol when we knew how it operated, you see.

We were attempting to optimize patient experience and patient medical outcomes at the expense of our financial bottom line, and it damaged our competitive position relative to our -- in our urban markets, primarily the Columbia HCA. We own about 50 percent of the beds in the state. They own about 30 percent.

In that line, though, a few other ideas, to move away from the specific studies. Some years ago, we discovered that we could price our health plan 3 to 7 percent higher than competing health plans and still get the contracts. If we went over 7 percent, we lost them. Seven percent was the upper margin of that. And we had pretty good internal measurement for that.

Interestingly, the main driver in the competitive areas, the highly urbanized areas of Utah,

was a general background perception of quality. On our health plan, we have about a 4 percent turnover rate, 2 percent discretion rate, 2 percent nondiscretion, where our closest competitor had about 12 percent turnover rate.

And it was because of general perceptions of clinical quality, which differs from direct technical measures of technical quality, and also, very, very good service quality, where people like their overall experience, as opposed to technical measures of medical outcomes. Again, the key word is patient perceptions or service quality in and that whole thing.

Interestingly, probably the target group when we're talking technical quality is referring physicians and commercial health plans. We don't go straight to patients. We do to go referring physicians.

An illustration that this group might find interesting: A little over a year ago, a group of orthopedic surgeons in a northern Utah community organized themselves -- well, 17 orthopedic surgeons and neurosurgeons. Some members of the group were there unwillingly. They were threatened with call coverage, that if they didn't join the economic group, they would not get call coverage, which makes it very, very difficult to practice medicine.

But they eventually rolled up all of the orthopedic and neurosurgeons in that community. It was strictly an economic collaborative, and then they set out to fix prices by threatening boycotts. They chose IHC Health Plans, demanded a 38 percent increase in their rate structure. Otherwise, they would not care for patients in that community.

We thought it was an illegal boycott but understand that the legal authority, the Department of Justice, the FTC, have bigger fish to fry than a small community in Utah. There are five mechanisms that we could have used to deal with that, but the key one turned out to be referring physicians, the primary care network.

We just took the problem back to the referring physicians, pointed out that it was a fixed-size pie, that if we increased their rates, they would come out of some other part of the market.

Of course, the orthopedic surgeons and neurosurgeons, the one who was doing the poorest in volumes coming through our hospital as opposed to the competing HCA hospital in their town would have been taking home about \$300,000 a year, or should have, the one doing the best about 1.5 million. And we just went to those primary care physicians averaging about \$150,000 a year in take-home income and asked them what we should

1 do.

Well, two choices: One is we give the rate

hike to the orthopods. Number two is that we arrange a

transportation network to move patients down to the next

city where our other orthopedic surgeons could deliver

care.

It took about a New York second for the primary care folks to make their decision. And this was an interesting thing. We rerouted not just their IHC health plans patients, we changed the whole referral pattern. So their Medicare patients moved as well, if you see that idea.

That's probably why four of the orthopods who led that basically poisoned the well so badly that they couldn't practice in the community any more, and ended up leaving the community because they could not maintain a practice in the face of the primary care physicians' response to their boycott, if you see that idea.

Well, the message that I think I learned from this is that maybe in those circumstances, my primary target group is the referring physicians. Interestingly, you know -- I hesitate to say this -- we never involved the patients in the decision. We sorted it out internally, if you see that idea.

And so I think that concept of referring

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physicians and commercial health plans is a very, very important idea. Within that, patients choose insurance plans. They usually make a choice at a point in time when they don't know what healthcare needs they'll have in the future.

They base that upon access to primary care physicians, and once they hit those primary care physicians, the primary care physicians seem to be the primary determinant of secondary usage and hospital usage. And that might be just a really useful concept, I think, along the way in terms of a refined model for this whole thing.

With that, I'm done. Thanks.

DR. BARTLETT: Thanks, Brent.

Warren, we'll come to you.

DR. GREENBERG: Thank you very much. It's a pleasure being here today in this conference entitled, "Provider Competition and Quality." I think the title of this conference is what perhaps almost all of us would agree we should have, more provider competition and an injection of more quality. I'd like to make three points from microeconomics which may help us out, touch on the papers a bit, and then go into the papers in detail before my ten minutes.

First, from microeconomics, incentives make a

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great deal of difference. If we have the employer who in survey after survey says they're lining up their health care plans for the choice of employees based on cost, their interest is not in quality. Their interest is in bottom line cost. I know about Leapfrog. I know about a couple other firms out there. I know about a couple unions. But survey after survey shows the employers are interested in cost only.

Incentives: Incentives of the health care plan. Incentives of the health care plan, they do a good job. They collect the best providers, and I heard what you said about getting in the university affiliates and so forth. The next enrollment period, the next enrollment period they're going to be adversely selected against with people who are chronically ill, driving up their health care costs and driving them out of business. They're not interested particularly in high quality.

Therefore, we come to the providers. And how will the providers respond? They have the professional norms. They want to do a good job. But they don't have the kind of incentives lined up for higher quality healthcare.

Not to say that quality is the only thing that matters. As economists, we're concerned about trading off, as Mark and others have said, of course, quality and

cost and price. But we don't have the right incentives for quality as yet.

Second point is, I think one to blame is the economists -- I am one those -- as learning microeconomics teaches us almost nothing about market structure and quality of care. I'm not sure what economics says about having a monopoly market structure and the quality of care. And always, in economics, we're talking about only quantity and talking about price. And that's why I think, again, why this conference is so important, to inject quality into the equation.

The third point I'd like to make is that firms and hospitals and health care firms don't all behave in the same way in regard to quality within the same market structure or within the same geographic area. We had heard before, for example, when -- or one of the papers had suggested when DRGs came in, and therefore a cap on prices of hospital care, that therefore hospitals would no longer compete on quality as they did under the feefor-service setup.

Under fee-for-service, prior to prospective payment and prior to the rise of managed care, we had firms out there with supposedly terrific quality. We had firms and hospitals out there with sub-par quality. All firms, all hospitals, behaving differently.

1 Under the DRG, under the managed care
2 framework, again we have a whole host of physician
3 practices and hospital firms in different areas, however
4 you would measure quality, and we saw attempts to measure
5 quality throughout the afternoon.

So those are three of the points I did want to make. The papers themselves were superb shots at -- all of them at trying to clear up episodes of what we know and what we don't know in regards to these tradeoffs between quality, cost, and price.

I think, for example, in Gaynor's paper, Martin looks at all hospitals and then recalls the Kessler-McClellan study about the concentration of the industry leading to lower quality and the lesser concentration leading to higher quality.

My answer -- my question to Martin and to Dan sitting here is, what are the incentives when -- or even Herb, who has now looked at this area -- what are the incentives of hospitals which merge to provide better quality?

What's driving them to provide better quality, if indeed these are your results and indeed we have the incentives of the health plan and the employer? Yes, they want to do a good job. But many hospitals out there want to do a good job as well.

Again I'd like to talk about the idea that we have an array of different sellers out there, all providing different prices and different quality and different tradeoffs among those different hospitals out there.

Mark asked about vertical integration. Here's an area we know almost nothing about in terms of quality. Mark had asked why firms may integrate. Perhaps some hospitals and health plans have integrated in order to fill some of those empty beds in some of those hospitals.

Okay. Certainly Mark is correct when he says that the level of quality can be too high or low relative to the efficient level as we balance off, again, against cost and prices and quality.

Okay. In Dan's and Jeff's study of the hospital marketplace, I find that to be quite interesting about competition leads to more variation. I haven't seen that before. And it's -- I find it to be quite an interesting outcome of your results.

I would ask: It seems that in measuring competition, the more firms in the marketplace, the greater the variety of different kinds of outcomes you're going to get. Perhaps using the number of hospitals leads simply to a greater variety in the outcomes that one would receive.

In Herb's paper, Herb Wong's paper, we also
find again an attempt to look at hospital mergers and its
effects on quality. One of the problems in this study, a
difficult problem, is defining what a hospital merger is.
So difficult to get these data.

If a hospital acquires 40 percent of another hospital, does this count as a merger? Suppose the hospital has bought only the outpatient unit of another hospital. Is this a joint operation agreement with another hospital? How about a contractual arrangement with another hospital?

Very, very difficult to get the data, and I know Herb has gone through a great deal of work verifying this. And I guess he can't do enough of that in doing the paper, and I applaud him for checking and checking a difficult concept to define, actual mergers.

Again, we could ask the question, what are the incentives on a hospital merger for hospitals to improve the quality? The Whipple study by Dr. Town, Whipple versus the CABG, again quite interesting. I would only ask perhaps -- this is a seminal study in many respects, but I think we only used Florida and Georgia here, and I think only inpatient mortality, as I read it. How about mortality rates after ten days out of the hospital?

Okay. And I think these are basically my

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remarks. I also was given Ryan Mutter's very, very
comprehensive examination of the quality measures, and
I've already said something about the department store
approach, yet nevertheless I think the department store
approach is one approach.

But when the FTC comes down to a merger between two hospitals in a defined area, and as the chairman said, he wants to use quality now, what can we tell the Chairman when we want to trade off, yes, this hospital has lower prices, yet it has lower cost, yet it has higher quality? How do we tell the Chairman to measure quality? We can't use the department store approach then. Maybe some of Dr. Romano's literature will be quite helpful there.

DR. BARTLETT: Thank you, Warren.

Bill Encinosa, we come to you.

DR. ENCINOSA: First, some technical comments. First, the Kessler/Geppert paper. The basic assumption in this paper is essentially that the coefficient of variation and expenditures can be interpreted as variation in the care for heart attacks.

Now, this essentially works because they focus on Medicare or fee-for-service patients, which gets rid of any price variation. If you did this in the private sector, you couldn't -- you essentially couldn't tell if

the variation in expenditures was due to variation in quality or variation in prices.

Okay. So this is a clever paper. Just three points about this assumption. Excuse me. First, it seems like you didn't have any kind of case mixing index in your hospital and zip code regressions. It seems that at least you could include the percentage of patients that had the prior hospitalization.

The second point: It seems like you might not be capturing some possible variation in Medicare reimbursement across the hospitals. You might capture that with your teaching hospital variable.

The third situation is that some of the variation might actually be due to people that have supplemental insurance. It could be the case that in your competitive markets, there's a lot of large employers who essentially give their retirees really good benefits, supplements to Medicare. It seems like that would be something you could easily control for.

Concerning your conclusion that competition reduces total expenditures, it seems like that might be a little sensitive to the bias that you introduce when you retransform the log. It seems like you might want to use some kind of smearing estimator or some type of link.

And then once you do that, you could predict your

expenditures, and with those predictions, you could come
up with your effect of competition. And that would also
give you a standard error essentially with your
prediction.

Now we come to Bob Town's paper. The only suggestion I have is you might want to control for the insurance, especially for HMO patients. That would help control for any type of restriction they might have of hospitals, plus it might control for whether or not they're healthier patients.

Also, you might want to consider some spectrum of outcomes. For example, currently I'm looking at CABG patients using a similar type of instrument based on distance to the hospital. Looking at patient safety, I find that as volume increases, patient safety outcomes -- the rate of patient safety events decreases. That's also with the instrument.

Now, I get the same result with mortality.

Mortality goes away with the instrument. But also, if I look at failure to rescue, if I look at death after you have a complication, there seems to be a volume effect. So with your Whipple, you might find it of interest to look at failure to rescue, since it seems like there's quite a bit of complication with the Whipple.

Now, with your paper, you can only predict what

might happen with a merger. Now, when you come to Herb's paper, he has the advantage where he can actually see what happens under a merger. So with Herb's paper, I would suggest you focus on CABG, and you could compare your prediction of volume and see what actually happens under the mergers. And that would really help us see whether or not the whole volume literature sheds any light on actual merger behavior.

So those are my technical comments. One major component missing from these papers is they don't look at the outpatient. I think currently about 60 to 70 percent of surgeries are outpatient surgeries. And most -- well, in 2001, 37 percent of the growth in health care spending was actually due to outpatient hospital spending. Excuse me.

Now, this was much more than prescription drug and inpatient care spending combined. So it seems like it would be of interest if we could develop some kind of Herfindahl concentration measure based on outpatient care and not just on inpatient care.

Then the question would be, how do we combine those two? Because obviously the linkage between the two is endogenous. You know, you switch between inpatient and outpatient. That would be a controlled vary of the hospital.

1	So those are the comments I have.
2	DR. BARTLETT: Okay. Thank you, Bill, very
3	much.
4	Let's open it up for comments that anybody
5	might have on the papers, on the comments themselves,
6	anything at all. Yes. Go ahead, Marty.
7	DR. GAYNOR: I have two questions for Bob and
8	one for Dan and Jeff.
9	First, Bob, did you find a volume/outcome
10	relationship in volume/outcome research? You said there
11	have been 125 studies. Are they getting better?
12	But a little more seriously, if the hypothesis
13	is learning by doing, it seems to me that implies that
14	there's a dynamic relationship. Specifying an amount
15	like that fully is going to be complicated, and doing it
16	right. But just a real quick back-of-the-envelope
17	specification test might be sticking a measure of
18	cumulative volume, tagging it onto the equations you have
19	right now and seeing whether it explains any additional
20	variation.
21	I'm just curious. Have you guys looked at that
22	or thought a bit about that issue?
23	DR. TOWN: Yes. I mean, ultimately we want to
24	estimate a forgetting part of this, which would get at
25	your issue. Putting cumulative volume, it's so highly

correlated with annual volume that the identification goes away.

But I think in general, the processes by which learning occurs and how it's -- you know, how it's happening -- you know, where is it happening? At the physician level, which I think goes to the point that was raised earlier, or at the hospital level, or some combination of the two, really hasn't been teased out well, partly because to do that, the data -- it requires a lot more data collection, which is painful.

And so in discharge data, it's easy to ask the questions that, you know, we attempted to address. But I think, you know, those are kind of the next stages I think that the research has to go.

DR. GAYNOR: A question for Jeff and Dan, and this is with regard to sort of welfare inferences.

I'm not entirely clear about the welfare inferences. And let me try and articulate what I'm thinking or not clear about. It seems to me that for AMI patients, quality competition has to be purely business dealing.

I'm presuming that people don't go out and get treated for heart attacks in less concentrated markets because quality is better there. I could be wrong, but it's got to be mostly business dealing. And that's fine.

I mean, that's going to increase consumer welfare, I think, if quality is higher in those markets.

It seems like then a lot of the welfare inferences revolve around whether they're fixed costs and how large they are, and that takes us back to the theory literature, where again the conclusions about welfare revolve often, although not always, around fixed costs.

And I wonder if you just have a sense -- it's not clear to me what the right measure would be, but I'm just wondering if you have any qualitative sense about the magnitude of fixed costs. Are they insignificant, or something that you would expect to be fairly large, or what?

DR. KESSLER: Well, I mean, I think what you're saying is right, that fixed costs are a big component of the story. I guess the conclusion that I draw from these results is that monopolists are under-providing variety even though it's valuable to consumers and to society because provision of the variety in the presence of fixed costs reduced profits.

So I don't -- is that responsive?

DR. GAYNOR: Yes, I think, in part. But, of course, it's conceivable that there may be still overprovision in the least concentrated markets. I think that could be consistent with what you just said. I

1	don't think those things necessarily contradict each
2	other.
3	DR. KESSLER: Over-provision of variety
4	DR. BARTLETT: Right into the mike, if you
5	wouldn't mind.
6	DR. KESSLER: Over-provision of variety? Why
7	is there too much variety in
8	DR. GAYNOR: Well, because of the fixed costs
9	associated with that. If they're and I just don't
10	I don't have any idea about what the magnitudes might be.
11	And like I said, this is sort of this is speculative
12	on my part. Just curious what your thinking might be.
13	DR. KESSLER: Because we haven't subtracted off
14	the fixed costs in this analysis. I see. I'm going to
15	have to think do you have an answer to that? Okay.
16	I'm going to have to think. That's a good question. I
17	don't know. Let me think about it.
18	DR. BARTLETT: Go ahead, Warren.
19	DR. GREENBERG: Why would monopolists under-
20	provide quality in general? What's your what would be
21	the economic theory behind that?
22	DR. KESSLER: If there are fixed costs.
23	DR. GREENBERG: In General. Fixed costs
24	DR. KESSLER: Well, if there are fixed costs,

then -- fixed costs to providing extra new products and

25

you're a monopolist, why bother providing the extra new
product, which is just going to have a fixed cost for you
but you're not going to get any more business because you
get all the because anyway if you're a monopolist?
Right?

In that case, provide too little variety, keep the fixed costs that you save in your own pocket, and raise profits. That's the --

DR. GREENBERG: That's helpful.

DR. BARTLETT: Let me bring into this, you had made a comment earlier on -- I just want to get Bill into this real quickly -- that sort of went to the issue about the welfare implications, and you talked about whether, you know, increasing average quality, what impact it had on overall welfare. Does the paper by Dan and Jeff start getting to some of the issues that you were concerned about when you made that comment?

DR. STRYER: Yes, absolutely.

DR. BARTLETT: Use that mike, if you would, Bill.

DR. STRYER: Absolutely. It gets at it quite explicitly. Because the point I was making is that variety in product offerings can be good for its own sake because different people prefer different bundles of attributes in their consumption.

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And what they demonstrate in their paper is not only that variety is more provided in more competitive markets, but that that more provision comes mostly from different hospitals providing different bundles of goods. Because most of the variation comes from between-hospital variation, so that it's actually having the extra hospitals in the market that's a good thing Because one hospital can't easily provide two different varieties of care, but two different hospitals can easily provide two different varieties of care. So I think that Dan and Jeff's paper gets to that point exactly.

DR. ROSENTHAL: Can I just clarify? Marty, were you getting at sort of the fixed costs associated with tailoring care to sick versus healthy patients? Is that -- because it seems like the analogy to sort of the very generic economics literature.

We're talking about sort of offering, you know, high-end cars, low-end cars. You have a totally different production line. But here it's the same production line, and you're just, you know, maybe having more intensive nursing care and PT/OT for the sicker patients and shorter lengths of stay for the healthier patients, which is the kind of variation I think that Dan was really looking at.

And it's not clear to me that there are fixed

costs to doing business that way. But maybe I'm not fully understanding what you were getting at.

DR. GAYNOR: Yes. I hadn't thought that deeply about it, Meredith. That well could be. If what's happening is product variety is obtained by -- via entry, then there are going to be some fixed costs associated with that. And there's nothing in theory -- actually, theory tells us we can get too much with free entry. And that's what my comment was directed at, just asking Dan and Jeff whether they had any sense of that.

DR. BARTLETT: Bill, and then Mark.

DR. SAGE: Well, I'll let Mark, if he wants to punch into the debate among economists right now.

DR. PAULY: Well, let me try a little bit, both on the fixed costs, and I'll try to get Dan to go out on a limb a little further about something else.

The fixed cost argument, well, if it's across hospitals, unless these hospitals in the competitive markets are unusually small, there shouldn't be much in the way of fixed costs there.

I guess I'd be more worried about these are Medicare reimbursements, and that's not necessarily costs. So we don't know what's happening to cost at those hospitals. We only know what's happening to Medicare reimbursements. And so to make a real welfare

judgment, you'd have to know what was happening to costs.

The go-out-on-a-limb point, though, was, you know, we've been talking a lot about consumers don't care about quality, and they're sort of perpetual adolescents when it comes to quality and never pay attention. But is this right, Dan?

The way to interpret your results, especially in terms of the choice across hospital, is when I visit my daughter in Chicago -- and say I had a hospital admission last year; I haven't, but say I did -- and I suddenly feel chest pain, I know about and I'm able to choose a hospital in Chicago that specializes in the care of people with heart attacks who had a previous hospital admission; whereas if I was in a small town, I wouldn't find that match?

It almost seems too good to be true. Somehow, there's a selective matching that's going on here. And unless that's just due to divine providence, somebody must be knowing something to do it.

DR. KESSLER: Why does there have to be matching?

DR. PAULY: Well, if the difference across hospitals is that some treat the sicker patients with more intensity and some treat the healthier patients with less, then I must know the hospitals that specialize in

1	sicker patients. Is that the right way to interpret it?
2	DR. KESSLER: I don't think so. I mean
3	DR. PAULY: Otherwise we're back to fixed
4	costs, and Marty's maybe got something.
5	DR. KESSLER: No, no. I mean, the point that
6	you and Marty are making, that we've only measured
7	revenues and not costs here, is a good one. I think I
8	can get out of that by saying if I assume that costs
9	never exceed revenues well, maybe I can't make a
10	welfare conclusion anyway. No. I mean, this is a good
11	point overall.
12	But I don't think I don't see why it needs
13	to be true that consumers match themselves.
14	DR. PAULY: Well, the idea is that when
15	DR. KESSLER: Maybe it's just chance that some
16	hospitals do well
17	DR. PAULY: Oh, I see.
18	DR. KESSLER: and some hospitals do lousy.
19	And maybe you got a good draw of the card and went to the
20	hospital that matches treatment well, and then you get a
21	better outcome at a lower cost and expectation. But
22	maybe you picked the wrong hospital, in which case
23	DR. PAULY: So in a place with more variety,
24	I've got a better chance at hitting one that's closer to
25	what I need?

1	DR. KESSLER: Yes. Yes.
2	DR. BARTLETT: Denise, did you want to wade in
3	on this particular issue?
4	DR. REMUS: On their study. I had a question
5	about some of their adjustments that
6	DR. BARTLETT: Go ahead, and then we'll go back
7	to Bill.
8	DR. REMUS: I just had a question from more of

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the clinical perspective. In looking at what you were talking about for severity and the relationship to cost and some of the other outcomes, when you noted that severity was described as a hospitalization in the year prior, my question is, was it any hospitalization or did you actually look at the reason and whether that was related to a cardiac disease or anything else that might be considered a little more complex?

And then the second would be, when you were looking at costs, did you control for medical only versus surgical management? Because the AMI patient who goes on to have a CABG and some other procedures is going to use more resources than that which is only a medically managed patient.

DR. KESSLER: Well, in response to your first question, the measure of severity was just whether or not you had any hospital admission at all. So it's a very

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coarse measure of severity. We could actually extend that to be more specific, whether or not you had a cardiac admission.

In response to your second question, the Medicare DRG expenditures number is essentially a medical versus surgical treatment path indicator. I mean, that's not exactly true, but mostly what post-MI expenditures are capturing are the extent to which you got some kind of surgical intervention versus not.

DR. BARTLETT: Bill Sage, back to you.

DR. SAGE: Thanks. I'd like to take about four steps back from this economics discussion and try to put some of this in context of the generalized ability of each of the results that we've been hearing about.

And I think it's actually -- generalizability is an interesting subject of its own for this group because although the health policy people here, myself included, tend to want generalizable results, the antitrust enforcement people here, myself also sometimes included, want results that are specific to particular products and particular geographies.

But it seems to me that in sort of the generalizability of this line of research, I mean, we've got three easy analytic steps. One is the correlation statistically, two is the clinical mechanism, and three

is the financial incentive, to pick up a little on what
Warren was saying.

Here my best example is from Dan's paper. But I think I could probably draw the same lessons from the other two as well. Dan has the correlations, and I agree, they're gold standard just like everything else he does, and Jeff, too.

The clinical mechanism is what -- and then sort of you get the question of AMI and the generalizability of this to overall lessons about competition and quality. So then Brent weighed in on the clinical mechanism, saying, well, AMI may be unusual if not unique because doing more for patients correlates with better clinical outcomes.

And then we have the piece on financial incentives, which is again a question of the generalizability of Dan's AMI example for sort of overall policy-making. And here it's interesting because I had written in the margin before Dan finished, in my own notes, whether the increase in variation was a reduction for the -- in care and costs for the less severely ill, or an increase in case and costs for the more severely ill.

And then Dan told me it was both. So I had to think about what the mechanisms are and what the

incentives -- I should say, to stay with my own organization here -- what the financial incentives are for each of those two pathways.

And in a competitive market, to say that everyone would like to reduce cost where cost is not relevant to outcome seems easy. But then I also have to account for that high-end increase, and there I have to ask myself, well, what are the incentives for people to engage in that?

And here I come back and I think, well, maybe

AMI is unusual. AMI is -- I mean, hearts in general are
a service that hospitals want to provide and want to
advertise. And they're also a service that have
attracted a fair amount of public reporting and other
things that would actually induce hospitals with the most
severely ill people to provide clinically beneficial
additional care.

And I use this by way of sort of an overall framework for stepping through how you have to take this research and make conclusions about its generalizability, the correlation, the clinical mechanism, and then the financial incentives.

DR. BARTLETT: Patrick and Irene. Irene, is yours on Bill's also? Go right ahead, and then we'll go to Patrick.

DR. FRASER: Just one quick thing on the issue of generalizability. I was also noticing on the Whipple/CABG study, one was done in Florida and one of the studies was using California data, very different markets and very different payor mixes. And so that could be another kind of element that could affect generalizability.

DR. BARTLETT: Patrick?

DR. ROMANO: Yes. I'd like to throw out a couple of comments. First, on Dr. Wong's paper, I think it's great that people are starting to use the patient safety indicators and other measures that really go beyond just looking at mortality to assess the impact of competition.

I have to be a little careful with what I say with Denise Remus in the back of the room. But Lisa Iezzoni and I were sort of conferring a little bit.

Actually, her group did much of the initial work on developing what was called the complication screening program. And we, with AHRQ's help, took some of that work and picked some of the best indicators from her work and added some other indicators and turned it into what's now called the AHRQ patient safety indicators.

I think, though, that we have to be a little bit skeptical about those results because, after all, we

have 20 indicators, and 18 of them, according to -- if I understand your analysis correctly, showed no effect. Two did show an effect.

One of those indicators that showed an effect was foreign body left in, which was an indicator that is really extremely rare, and showed no provider level variation in our previous analyses of -- empirical analyses using NIS and SID data. So I find it a little hard to believe that hospital mergers would actually affect the rate of that when we couldn't find any evidence of variation at the hospital level.

So the iatrogenic pneumothorax, I don't have any theory as a clinician that would help me understand why that one indicator would be more responsive to the effect of mergers than any other indicator.

So I think that my interpretation of the results is basically negative, which is okay. You know, I mean, I think it's okay that hospital mergers haven't had an observable effect on these morbidity outcomes. But I would just be cautious about, you know, getting too excited about a couple of positive findings there.

One other comment about Dr. Town's paper. I'm not sure if this has made it into print yet, but in California we now have a CABG mortality reporting program which uses detailed clinical data, very similar to the

programs that have been existent in New York and New

Jersey and Northern New England. And there have now been

one, going into two, public reports based on those data.

One of the things that they've found is that with the better risk adjustment using the clinical variables that are available in the data set, that the volume/outcome effect goes away among the California hospitals participating in that program.

And that's actually consistent with the results of a literature synthesis that was published in the BMJ a few years ago by the NHS group, in which they argued that the better the researchers adjusted for severity of illness, the smaller the observed volume/outcome effect.

So I would posit that perhaps in this case of CABG, what we're seeing is that this instrumental variable is actually capturing otherwise unmeasured quality effects. Distance, in particular, may be a measure of quality -- of severity of illness, I'm sorry. The patients who come from longer distances tend to be less severely ill patients. And so in some ways, that IV may be capturing severity of illness in a way that doesn't otherwise get into the model.

I don't know. That's just speculation. But

I'm just a little bit puzzled because of the fact that

more recent literature, literature looking at severity of

illness more carefully, suggests that the volume/outcome relationship for CABG in particular may be dwindling.

DR. BARTLETT: Other comments? Yes, go ahead,
Meredith.

Dr. ROSENTHAL: I'd just like to follow up on some comments that have been made, and address it to Dan or anybody else who wants to address this. It's sort of the question of what is it that hospitals compete on?

And, for example, why would you expect higher quality in whatever way you might find it for AMIs? Is it because patients are sensitive to it? Is it because plans are sensitive to it? Or, as was suggested -- we haven't talked too much about that -- referring physicians may be sensitive to quality?

Because depending on which mechanism you think it is, then I was trying to think how the FTC might generalize up from your excellent results that look at AMI. You know, when they look at a hospital merger, they want to know more than just AMI, of course.

And so should they look at the competition for sort of the least common denominator? Because Patrick's description of what happened in UC Davis sort of made me start thinking, well, maybe what matters is, is there a service for which there is zero competition, and that's how concentrated the market is, so, for example, where

they were the only trauma hospital in the market; or should we be thinking about these things sort of -- and that sort of goes to competition for the contract.

So then competition for patients wasn't really the relevant measure to understand how competition might affect overall quality there. That's a lot of stuff, but any thoughts on that? Sort of how hospitals compete. Or anybody else.

DR. KESSLER: My response? I mean, I think a large part of the answer is that there's plans to go to the earlier part of your question. In earlier work that I did with Mark, with Mark McClellan, what we found was that the quality effects that Marty talked about earlier were more pronounced in areas that had high managed care penetration.

I don't think that you've got, I mean, a tremendous amount of mileage from patients choosing their hospital of AMI. I do think that there are other mechanisms besides plans, though.

I think that doctors have some information on the quality of different hospitals, and when there's competition among hospitals, I think that that, you know, both gives them more choices and lets them -- you know, lets them better match to their patient needs, and gives hospitals incentives to improve.

2	and plans are more the story than patients. But I don't
3	have hard evidence on that.
4	DR. BARTLETT: Marty?
5	DR. GAYNOR: This doesn't get at this directly,
6	but actually a paper that didn't get up in my slides,
7	unfortunately, is a paper by Abigail Tay that Dan
8	certainly knows, which estimates which hospital AMI
9	patients go to based on hospital characteristics,
10	including outcomes, and finds that these things do have a
11	big kick.
12	It doesn't directly answer the question of sort
13	of who is the deciding entity or which amalgam of
14	doctors, patients, and plans are. But it does provide

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question.

So, you know, I think probably the providers

DR. ROSENTHAL: Sorry. Can I just follow on that? So if you think that referring provider or patients or some combination of that matters as well as the plan level, so does that mean that we should look at Herfindahls across a bunch of DRGs, weighted by patient volume or importance? Or what does that imply for what's important to make a judgment about a particular merger?

evidence that at least gets a little bit more at this

I mean, the only way to aggregate across service lines to

DR. KESSLER: I mean, I don't think you can --

evaluate a merger is to calculate the welfare gain or
loss from the merger for each service line. I mean, I
realize that is an impossibly complicated standard, but
beyond -- you know, I don't know what else to say, kind
of. Maybe pick the three most important ones and focus
on those. Hearts, you know, whatever the -- babies, and
something else.

DR. BARTLETT: Any last comments before we break and then we move into the next segment? Warren, how about I give you give the last --

DR. GREENBERG: I'd just like to -- it's really a question. Do we have any data at all on physician referrals? Are there data available on physicians referring to certain hospitals at all? I just don't know. I haven't seen it, but I don't know all that --

DR. CASALINO: Hasn't the New York cardiac surgery data shown that referring physicians have not changed their pattern in response to the publicized data?

DR. GREENBERG: I haven't seen it.

DR. CASALINO: Yes. My understanding of the results from New York is that the worst hospitals improved, but not because volumes shifted at all. And in particular, there was no evidence that cardiologists or primary care physicians were changing their referrals in terms of the publication of the data. Bad hospitals

1	didn't	lose	patients,	didn't	lose	volume;	good	hospitals
2	didn't	gain	volume.					

Nevertheless, the bad hospitals improved, either because of regression to the mean or, more likely, from the qualitative data because they thought, we'd better improve. We might lose some volume. But, in fact, they didn't.

DR. BARTLETT: Would you folks join me in thanking our presenters and our discussants?

(Applause.)

DR. BARTLETT: We're remarkably on schedule. Let's take a quick 10-minute break, just actually to gather energy rather than to dissipate it. Come back to the fourth segment, which is really looking at a future research agenda. We're going to kick off by hearing from a couple people who'll talk about research needs from an FTC perspective.

(A brief recess was taken.)

DR. BARTLETT: The final part of our agenda is to take a look at a research agenda for the next generation, as it says here. I don't want to give you the impression that we're missing the fact that we've already had a full host of good ideas out there, put out there on the table. We'll add to that, and we'll look for some additive discussion.

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But I'm looking forward, as I know other folks 1 are, for kicking off the segment of the agenda by hearing from our friends from the FTC to talk about research needs and priorities from their perspective.

> So I'd like to turn the floor over, the same way we've done it with the discussants earlier in the session, first to David Hyman; then, Michael, we come to you, Michael Vita; and then Bill, we'll come your way for thoughts that you might have to share with us about future research needs.

> > All yours, David.

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Thanks. I want to start by DR. HYMAN: thanking AHRQ and Peggy for their hard work in putting this together. Although it says AHRQ/FTC up at the top of the first page, I think our contribution has been limited to providing the physical facility and claiming credit. So it's nice to free ride for a change; having put on about 15 of these in the last three or four months, I know how hard it is. And Peggy's made it look easy, which is even harder to do.

I guess the next point I think I'm supposed to make, the obligatory disclaimer, which is -- and I quess I don't know whether I have to make a disclaimer.

VOICE: Everybody does. You don't mean it.

DR. HYMAN: Let me make the disclaimer on

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1	behalf of myself and the two subsequent speakers from the
2	FTC so they don't have to use up their time doing it,
3	which is, we're speaking for ourselves, not for the
4	Commission or any one of the commissioners. And given
5	what I have to say, I think you'll

DR. BARTLETT: David, do me a favor. Just not to get the disclaimer on the record again, but pull that mike a little closer to you.

DR. HYMAN: I'm certainly not repeating it.

But I think you'll see the logic of the disclaimer when I go through my remarks.

Just an initial prefatory remark, which is, around here we talk about competition policy or competition law. To us, that means really two distinct bodies of law, antitrust and consumer information or protection. And a lot of the discussion has, I think, implicitly assumed an antitrust context for the use of the health services research and information about quality.

It's important to remember consumer information and consumer protection as an adjunct, its own freestanding body of law, and its own opportunities for addressing anticompetitive conduct. And I'll come back to that.

I've got, I guess, bad news and good news. The

bad news, which you've already heard from a couple of the prior speakers, is that the literature on quality and most of the research really hasn't factored into competition law and policy in the last, you know, 20, 25 years of use, engagement of competition law with the healthcare sector. And that's why the article that Bill Warren and I wrote had described it as the forgotten stepchild of health care, quality.

The good news from the research perspective is that means it's virgin territory. There's lots of things to be done. There's lots of interesting projects to pursue. And instead of saying, "Me, too," you can say, "I'm here first."

But the bad news too is that -- and the unpleasant reality is for lots of cases in competition law, quality research is not going to be dispositive. It's going to make a difference at the margins, but it's not going to be the core issue. And that's because it really just won't make a big difference in the case at all, or it will offer a better justification for some of the existing practices.

But even there, I think translation problems from the research to policy are going to be daunting, particularly given some of the differing perspectives in the room as well as in the larger world on what we mean

1 by quality.

Now, there's a whole bunch of empirical claims in there, so let me just go through a couple of them.

Why hasn't it mattered in the past and why do I think it's not likely to matter that much in the future for lots of cases?

A couple of ways of slicing the data. The first is, competition law has both private and public litigants involved, or plaintiffs. On the private side, you've already heard from the work that Bill and Peter have done. Most of those cases are exclusive contracting and privilege cases.

And those cases are not about quality. And health services research, as a practical proposition, isn't really going to add very much to that. Those are straight economic foreclosure cases, and they get framed that way. And even if quality enters into it, it's quality at the level of a single individual provider, and you're unlikely to have the research available on a realtime basis to get involved in that case.

On the public side, most of the cases other than hospital cases and pharmaceutical cases, which we haven't really touched on at all, are resolved with consent judgments or with advisory opinions or business review letters. That's the Department of Justice version

of advisory opinions.

And you get consent judgments either because the conduct in question is a per se violation of the law -- that means it's overt anticompetitive conduct, indefensible under the law. Okay? Turn your back on physicians, they'll start price-fixing. That's the way the market works and that's why we have per se rules in order to cut through it and resolve these things quickly.

Even if it isn't a per se violation, if it's a rule of reason case, it's usually very costly to defend these cases and it's usually cheaper -- it's always cheaper and it's usually economically sensible to settle the case rather than contest it. The exceptions are where the defendant has a fair amount of resources and it thinks it's got a good shot if it's willing to stay the course.

And that's why hospitals play out very differently than physician cases in competition law, and hospitals do much better, partly because of -- I think there are a variety of reasons, some of which have been touched on already.

But there aren't very many hospital cases. I actually went back and looked, and in the last 20-odd years, the Commission has brought 20-odd cases against hospitals. Add in the Department of Justice, you pick up

a couple more. The state attorney generals, a couple more. All fifty states, one and a half a year maximum.

DR. CASALINO: Do you know how many consents?

DR. HYMAN: Consents against hospitals?

DR. CASALINO: Yes. How many times has it been settled before going to court?

DR. HYMAN: Well, consents, I actually didn't look at consents against hospitals. Consents against physicians, we have, I think, six in the last year -- actually, in the last six months. And that tends to wax and wane as well, depending upon what else is going on in the market. But the frequency is just much higher for physicians for some of those reasons.

The other problem, which I think has been alluded to already, is a lot of the health services research focuses on problems at a level that isn't necessarily the same level as what's in dispute in the cases. And even if you could structure a study to do it at the correct level, having it in time for the dispute that you're actually going to have to resolve is another matter entirely.

And I think that emphasizes another point, which is that competition law tends to be transaction-oriented. It's very flexible, but it flows from sometimes conduct, sometimes transactions that are

proposed. But it isn't an ongoing regulator of what's going on in the market in quite the same way that, say, Medicare is or a state licensing authority has the potential to be. It gets involved on a very periodic basis in what's going on in the market.

Now, there is one other -- one factor that I think suggests that the agencies are going to be interested in quality. Certainly, you heard the Chairman talk about his interest in the importance of quality. And I think that flows both from the agency's desire to be on the right side of these issues, and also its desire to look like it's looking at the right things under the circumstances. All right?

No matter what, providers engaged in anticompetitive conduct will argue, we're only doing this to ensure maximum quality. All right? It's their first and best defense, and the per se rule cuts it out. But if you're on the other side of that, you don't want to concede that ground. You want to say, we're in a position to look at the quality data.

And the challenge here is to come up with a model and sufficient data to operationalize the model to allow the agencies, I think, more than the private parties to meet those challenges.

Now, institutional competence is going to be an

issue. It's an issue partly because the agency is -- I
think the Chairman said is perceived to be an expert, but
it's certainly not an expert in health services research.
And even when it tries to implement its expertise, it's
going to be looking for relatively simple rules of the
sort that Peter had described previously.

Certainly, if it has to persuade an Article 3 judge to do something or not do something, it doesn't want to come in with very complicated econometrics if it wants to win, which is part of the reason why we're looking -- doing a hospital merger retrospective currently.

And if results come out of that that indicate there's anticompetitive conduct in the hospital market, we'll be looking to pursue those administratively with an administrative law judge within the agency rather than going back to district court where we're 0 for 7.

So what are the challenges? I don't want to suggest that it's all bad news all the time. I think there are opportunities here both for research and for, even more importantly, dissemination strategies. We've actually spent a lot of time talking about research and not nearly as much talking about dissemination, and I think we may want to rethink that balance if we want the health services literature and what we know about quality

to really have an impact.

The first challenge for both research and dissemination has been touched on already. It's the fundamental distinction between the way in which providers and health services researchers think about quality and the way that economists and antitrust lawyers think about quality. Several people have mentioned this already.

This is part of a sort of larger and ongoing debate. When professionals talk about collaboration, antitrust lawyers hear collusion. Okay? And I think Bill Vogt actually had a sort of wonderful example of this.

He talked about the problem of addressing quality by "whacking off the bottom," the low-performing providers, that that was not going to be a good thing. And I sort of looked around the room at the people who were health services researchers and, even more so, physicians, and saw them shifting uncomfortably in their seats because for providers, quality is a binary operation.

You either have it or you don't, and if you don't have it, you ought to figure out how to get it, and if you can't figure it out, you shouldn't be providing healthcare services, is sort of the big picture thing.

Now, all of these performance-based approaches 1 to try and move people are based on the notion that there's high quality and there's unacceptable quality. That's really the binary approach. The economists and the antitrust lawyers essentially view it as just another term in the transactions.

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You ought to be able to get, as Mark puts it periodically, last year's medicine at last year's prices. And someone may well want to buy that, and we ought to make it available to them. This is a fundamental distinction in the way that I think the different professions look at quality.

Second is, I think -- and this goes back to the point I made in the morning -- it's a good idea to try and come up with measures that people care about, that consumers care about. Okay? A big part of the problem with measurement that we heard alluded to already is that the providers won't cooperate. They engage in a group boycott.

If the measures are measures that people actually care about, it's going to be very hard for providers to play that game because you can just see the newspaper ads. We wanted to tell you which hospital is better for you, but the hospitals won't cooperate. Nobody is going to want to take that hit. When it's

something like, we want data on how quickly you get suchand-such drug after you arrive with such-and-such condition if you have the following confounding conditions, very hard to sell that.

So I think an important challenge for health services research is to come up with good measures that people actually care about. And the tradeoff here is sort of between validity and utility.

The last one which I think is something important, and just take another second here, is Medicare. Medicare -- I mean, we've heard some talk about 800-pound gorillas and 1600-pound gorillas.

Medicare is that sort of squared or cubed or, you know, logarithmically enhanced.

And Medicare eliminates the market for some things. It has spillover effects that limit or make it extraordinarily difficult to have a market in other things. But it's simultaneously a huge opportunity for enhancing quality through whatever you want to call it, prudent purchasing, information dissemination.

And part of the challenge for the people who spend their time doing quality -- and this is in the time-honored tradition of, stop looking at the Commission and go look at CMS -- persuading Medicare to use its purchasing power to enhance the competitiveness of the

markets. Whether that entails scrapping the
administrative pricing system is, of course, a different
question entirely.

But I think even with that, there are changes you can do that will ensure that the, you know, hundreds of billions of dollars that get spent by Medicare will go to make more competitive markets, not just for Medicare beneficiaries but for everybody.

DR. BARTLETT: Thank you, David.

Michael, we'll go to you.

DR. VITA: Yes. Thanks. I'll avoid the
disclaimer. I talk only for myself, and maybe not even
that.

As I was preparing for the conference, I wasn't terribly familiar with the literature on competition and quality. So it was a real opportunity to take a look at it, see what people had found.

And as I began to read some of the things that were submitted, I thought it sort of both comforting and also a bit puzzling, comforting in that there seemed to be, in a lot of the studies, a fairly reliable relationship between the kind of measures of competition that we rely on, the antitrust analysis, and a variety of different clinical outcome-based measures of quality.

And that seems like a pretty good thing, and I think

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everybody probably wouldn't argue against the proposition that that's a good thing.

But as I thought more about it and thought about -- and sort of thinking about it from the perspective not only as an antitrust economist but also as an economist who works at an agency where we're very interested in the mechanisms by which information is conveyed to consumers, it wasn't obvious to me how the information -- how the competitive process would work to induce the supply of that kind of outcome. Because those types of outcomes, I suspect, are not that easily observed by the decision-makers. Or they may be, depending on who the relevant decision-maker is.

I mean, basic economics tells us the provider's incentive to provide quality, whatever that measure of quality is, is basically determined by the additional revenues, additional marginal profits, that it would earn by incurring the costs producing the higher quality.

And so the incentives to produce it, to provide whatever the relevant measure of quality is, is going to be a function of the ability of the provider to credibly convey information about that quality to the consumers or the decision-makers who value it.

And following that line of reasoning, competition is going to induce firms to supply outputs or

quality levels that are easily observable, and could also supply quality attributes that are less easily observed.

And as I looked through -- I was looking through the materials Ryan Mutter from AHRQ had prepared on, and looking again at sort of these different measures of quality that are used in a lot of these competition quality studies, again, my immediate conjecture was the typical consumer, if the consumer is the patient, can't easily observe those sorts of things absent some special kind of institutional mechanism that I'll speak to in a minute that would allow them to assess those levels of quality.

And there's some research that suggests that people don't observe those things very well. There's a recent paper in the 2002 RAND by Frank Sloan and several of his colleagues suggesting that when hospitals are converted from not-for-profit to for-profit status, the inability of consumers to actually measure or to observe with any degree of accuracy the clinical quality of the hospital leads to diminished quality and higher -- and poorer measures of performance on various measures of mortality and morbidity.

So I think, you know, as I look at this research, I think it's very interesting. But I think to make it completely convincing, and completely convincing

to an agency like the FTC, it has -- I would like to see some corroboration of the finding with some fleshed-out detail on how -- who makes the decisions and how do those decision-makers form expectations about quality.

A few days before this conference, I sat down and read Dan Kessler's paper that he wrote with some -- that was just published in the JEPE on healthcare report cards, and I found it very interesting. Because that -- you know, that's a specific institutional mechanism by which fairly complicated information about quality could be conveyed to consumers.

And what the paper found is that both providers and consumers react to it, in some ways that are good, that involve better matching of consumers with providers. Also, it precipitated some adverse selection behavior as well, which potentially, you know, is probably not desirable.

So I guess, you know, if I was to give you a list of the sort of things that -- the sort of general kind of things I think people should be looking at as this research has continued, I would like to see more information, more research done on how consumers -- to start with, patients -- form expectations about quality, and see how quickly and how accurately those perceptions of quality react to the kinds of changes in quality that

1 some of these papers have found.

You know, is that information transmitted accurately and quickly, or is there a very slow reaction time? And maybe people don't react at all.

Similarly, to the extent that physicians are the relevant decision-maker here, again I'd like to see what physicians know. I mean, how quickly does their -- do they incorporate information about changes in quality that might be induced by a change in market structure, and how does that affect their -- you know, their admissions behavior?

One of the other panelists over there said the information on the New York experience suggested that they may not react very well at all. They continued to -- they referred people to bad hospitals before the information came out, and continued to refer people to some of the same hospitals after the information came out.

And that's not particularly comforting if you're relying on the expertise of physicians to make the decisions for you and they don't -- and they're the experts but they don't take into account the information. You have to wonder, then, who will?

Similarly, I'd be interested to know if the quality -- you know, to the extent that physician

referrals are the relevant mechanism for channeling people to higher quality institutions, how does that relationship between quality and competition vary depending upon the level of integration with physicians -- between physicians and hospitals?

There is some recent research that suggests that when there is substantial integration between physicians and hospitals, it can lead to distorted incentives. And I can just say, you know, without getting into too many details, some of these hospital merger retrospectives that we're currently undertaking at the FTC, we found one case where concurrent with the merger with a local hospital rival, the hospital in question also was actively engaged in the policy of acquiring a lot of physician practices. And looking at the documents of the hospital, it was clear that a principal motivation for doing that was to increase the flow of referrals.

So to the extent we're relying on expert physician opinion to channel people to high quality hospitals, to the extent there are these other factors at work, it would be nice to know how that affects things. And again, generally, it would be also interesting to know how quickly physicians incorporate information about quality, even assuming that they're neutral arbiters of

1 hospital quality.

I would like to know to the extent -- you know, getting back to the issue of, you know, what can people observe and how can they act on the information, earlier several of the panelists talked about how the focus might be more on sort of the provision of hotel services by hospitals versus quality of care.

And it would be nice, you know, if Dan or somebody else could follow up on the research he's already done. Looking at the markets where there are health care report cards, does that cause more of a focus by hospitals on clinical type measures of quality as contrasted with nonclinical measures? You know, it would suggest that since people would react more to clinical quality in those environments, that that would induce a change, and that would be a very interesting thing to know.

Two more points, quickly. Not much was said today about how the makeup of the market in terms of notfor-profit and for-profit providers affects the provision of quality. But again, there is some research that suggests -- the Sloan paper that I referred to earlier -- that not-for-profit hospitals may in fact provide different levels of quality from for-profit hospitals.

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And another paper in that same issue of the

RAND by Mark Dugan suggests that when not-for-profit hospitals compete closely in a geographic sense with for-profit hospitals, they begin to look very much like for-profit hospitals. So to the extent -- that particular paper, I think, was looking more at some measure of price, but you would expect the same sort of thing to happen on non-price dimensions as well.

Lastly, I had one specific suggestion for the studies, the studies of hospital consolidation, how that affects quality. I think those kinds of papers are really important because those speak directly to the kind of issues that we're concerned with here at the commission. You know, how does the world change when there's a merger-induced change of market structure?

I don't know if you're already looking at this. I wanted to ask you about it before but I didn't get a chance to. But there's a recent paper by Dranove and Lindrooth looking at how cost changes -- you know, do mergers between competing hospitals generate cost-based efficiencies?

And one of the things they found was that a really important determinant of whether or not there was cost-based efficiencies was whether or not the license of the hospitals were merged. Because that's what allowed the kind of transfer of assets and the transfer of

operations that facilitated volume-related cost differences.

To the extent volume is a driver of quality, you would expect to find the same sort of thing. And so, you know, I don't know that any -- there aren't a lot of previous papers in this literature. I don't know that anybody's sort of broken it down and looked at it in that level of detail. But I would suggest that, you know, in your paper, that that's something. If you can get data on that, you focus on that. And that could be a pretty important explanatory variable.

And that's it for me.

DR. BARTLETT: Thanks, Michael.

Bill Vogt?

DR. VOGT: So to start with, I include herein by reference David's disclaimer.

And I think that I'll start off by giving an incredibly compressed description of what happens in an analysis of a merger. So what happens, say, when two hospitals want to merge is that they notify the federal antitrust authorities, hey, we want to merge. And the federal antitrust authorities then decide either they're going to challenge it or they're not.

When they go through deciding whether or not they're going to challenge it, and then later when the

judge or the administrative law judge tries the case,
they go through an analysis of whether or not this merger
will be a bad thing. And that analysis traditionally
takes the form of defining a geographic and a product
market, counting up how many firms there are in the
market before the merger and after the merger, and
asking, did the number of firms go down enough to make us
think there's a competitive problem?

And then at the end, if the answer to that question was yes, the number of competitors went down too much, the other side gets to say, well, there are efficiencies which will be passed along to consumers so consumers won't be harmed, or a variety of other defenses.

Central to that process, and the thing that's usually most contentious, is the definition of the market, so the definition of the product market and the definition of the geographical market. And that definition invariably turns on estimates of demand.

Now, they may not be econometric estimates of demand produced by economists, but instead they'll be practical indexes of demand that the court finds persuasive. So that's my first brief for the centrality of demand to the actions of the antitrust law.

There's another way that these analyses

sometimes go, which is to do a much more econometricintensive investigation and to estimate a model of
competition in the industry where the merger is going to
happen -- in the hospital industry, it would be here,
although this hasn't been done in the hospital
industry -- and then to simulate what would happen were
these firms to merge.

This also places an estimate of demand at the center because in order to estimate what will happen when these two firms merge, we have to know to what extent did the products of those two firms compete with one another before the merger happened? And to know that, we have to know about demand. We have to know where these two products -- were these two firms' products substitutes for one another? If they were strong substitutes for one another, then prices will probably go up a lot when the merger happens. So again, by that method of analyzing merger, demand is central.

So the first thing that I'd like to suggest that AHRQ focus on in thinking about what kind of research it wants to fund that would be relevant to competition policy is research on demand, and in particular, on how quality affects demand. This is a literature that is small. There are very few papers that look at this question of how quality affects demand, and

most of this literature is really quite unpersuasive.

So there's another reason that we might be interested in -- or another way of thinking about why we might be interested in demand. So there are two kinds of issues surrounding demand. So one is sort of what I'll call gross issues of how quality affects demand.

And the gross issue of how quality affects demand is, are the people sitting around this table who have expressed grave skepticism about whether quality influences demand at all are right? If the truth is that a hospital improves its quality and it has absolutely no impact on the demand for its services, then antitrust analysis need not really think about quality very much because if the elasticity of demand is zero, surely it's not going to get less than zero after the merger happens.

There are also fine reasons why an analysis of the effect of quality on demand is important. And to talk about the first one, I'm going to be sort of a lone voice in the wilderness in this discussion defending what Peter Hammer described as the usual antitrust doctrine on quality, which is, if you get price competition right, you don't have to worry about quality.

There is a version of quality competition where that's exactly right. If you imagine a world in which everyone's preferences are pretty much homogeneous about

quality, everyone pretty much agrees that reducing my chance of mortality by one percent is worth \$10,000, then that usual antitrust doctrine is exactly right.

A monopolist is going to increase the quality of his service right up until it would cost him \$10,000 to increase the quality of his service by one more percent. A competitor will do the same thing. A duopolist, a triopolist, will do the same thing.

So in cases where consumers can all agree with one another on how much quality is worth, there really isn't much of an antitrust problem, except in the case of administered pricing when the monopolist or competitor can't pass along the improved quality in the form of price.

So for that reason, it's interesting to know about how quality affects demand. There's also a second fine-grained point, which is, if we were to estimate the effect of quality on demand and find that it was heterogeneous so that there actually is something interesting about the analysis of quality in an antitrust case, then what's going to happen in a model where firms are -- sorry, where consumers are heterogeneous in their evaluation of quality is that firms are going to pick different places in price quality space to position themselves.

Well, mergers among such firms are going to -the desirability of mergers among such firms are going to
be different depending on whether they're close or far
from one another in this quality space.

Two high quality hospitals merging is likely to be a much bigger competitive problem than a high quality and a low quality hospital merging because the high quality and the low quality hospital don't share any patients -- any potential patients in common. The low quality -- people who like low quality are going to the low quality hospitals; people who like high quality are going to the high quality hospitals.

So that's my brief for demand. AHRQ should fund lots of studies of how quality affects demand. Both does it affect it in general, and are consumers heterogeneous, whoever consumers happen to be, in their evaluations of quality? Exactly how does that heterogeneity work?

The second thing is the efficiency defense, aka the volume/outcome relationship. So as I said, in these merger analyses, right at the end of the analysis, if the government has done a good job of showing that the merger shouldn't happen, the merging parties get to try to argue, oh, no, well, we are going to get market power, but we're going to generate these huge efficiencies by

the merger which will make us not want to increase our prices, or which will cause us to produce really high quality output which will offset the effects of the price increase. Okay?

And in hospital cases, the government loses sufficiently early on in this chain of reasoning that they go through that the efficiency defense hasn't come up very much. But in some imaginary world where the government did really well in these cases up until the efficiency defense, it's I think pretty clear that the volume/outcome relationship would be a powerful argument that the government would actually have to worry about the merging parties making.

And let me give a back-of-the-envelope calculation to illustrate that fact. So let's suppose that we believe that the volume/outcome relationship is all practice makes perfect, so that what will happen is if two firms merge, their volume will double, and as a result of that, their quality will go way up. The strength of the volume/outcome relationship, as it's typically estimated in the literature at this point, really can't be overestimated. So let me give an example of numbers that, you know, I've rounded off for convenience, but are broadly representative of what the literature on CABG, for example, says. And in

particular, the numbers I'm going to use are basically between Bob's estimate and his instrumental variables estimate. And they're only twice as big as his instrumental variables estimate.

Suppose we had two hospitals, each doing 200 CABGs. If these two hospitals merged, the mortality reduction caused by that merger would be on the order of about 0.2 percentage points. 0.2 percentage points times 400 CABGs is .8 lines. And using a very conservative estimate of \$5 million as the value of a human life, that means \$4 million per year would be saved by this merger.

Four million dollars per year is pretty big as far as an efficiency claim goes in a hospital merger case. Furthermore, if you just compare it to the amount of money spent on a CABG, so if we pick \$30,000 as a halfway reasonable amount that a hospital is going to get for performing a CABG, that's only \$12 million in everyone that these two hospitals generate by CABGs. So it would be a \$4 million efficiency on \$12 million in revenue. All right?

And this is only looking at mortality, not at morbidity. And it's only looking at CABGs, not all the other procedures that hospitals do and which also there's some evidence of a volume/outcome relationship on.

So it seems to me that the antitrust

enforcement authorities should be deeply interested in the question of whether the volume/outcome relationship is indeed practice makes perfect, in which case there's actually a really good case for backing off on merger enforcement, or whether it's selective referral, in which case there's actually a case in the other direction, that would show that demand indeed does respond to quality, which means that we should pay a lot of attention to quality competition.

So my two recommendations are: demand studies, lots of demand studies; and figuring out whether volume/ outcome is selective referral or practice makes perfect.

DR. BARTLETT: Let's open it up. You know, we've talked about lots of ideas for further research.

Let's leaven that discussion with what we've heard just a few minutes ago. Larry, then Warren.

DR. CASALINO: Just a simple point which just occurred to me in response to the last thing Bill said, which would be pretty straightforward research to do.

The calculation you just made, Bill, of course, depends on the institutions merging their cardiac surgery programs. And it would be a very interesting study to do to see, okay, after hospitals merge, how often do they merge their cardiac services and various other services where we would care about the volume/outcome

1	relationship. And my guess is we'd find seldom,
2	actually, which would be interesting for antitrust
3	regulators and judges to know, if indeed this argument
4	was ever made.
5	DR. VOGT: Although they could promise to do
6	it.
7	DR. CASALINO: They could promise, yes.
8	DR. BARTLETT: Warren?
9	DR. GREENBERG: I think someone early on
10	DR. CASALINO: They could promise not to raise
11	prices.
12	DR. GREENBERG: made the comment oh,
13	okay. I think someone made the comment that every
14	industry comes into the FTC and says they're unique, and
15	therefore don't bring any anticompetitive action against
16	us.
17	Could I ask the people here, physicians,
18	economists, health policy researchers, people with the
19	government, to take off their healthcare hat for maybe
20	five minutes and say we're talking about mergers in the
21	toothpaste industry. And the Chairman says, I would like
22	to introduce quality into the equation, price, costs,
23	quality, into the toothpaste industry. Okay?
24	What would we maybe we could look at can
25	we just look at it this way for five minutes? What might

we example when a toothpaste manufacturer comes in and says, they have striped toothpaste. That's appealing to a lot of people. Another one says, we have fluoride.

Another one smells very good.

How do we inject -- looking at this without any difference than 99 percent of the industries in the economy, how do we inject -- what kind of advice can we give the FTC on how to inject quality into the toothpaste industry? Can we use some economic theory here? Can we use survey data? What can we use?

I just thought for a second -- I'm not sure I agree with this, but I just thought for a second, one economic analysis we might be able to use is that maybe high market shares indicate high preferences, strong degree for quality. Of course, we have to hold prices constant.

Therefore, mergers between firms with high market shares, holding prices constant, maybe it's going to be quality-enhancing, overwhelming any increases in prices or increases in cost.

But would it be proper to ask people to spend two or three minutes in the simplest industry that I can think of, consumer industry, toothpaste, and ask what kind of recommendation might we give the Chairman of the FTC on injecting quality into a toothpaste merger or a

1	cereal merger or of this nature?
2	DR. BARTLETT: Any takers?
3	DR. VOGT: Can I ask a question about the
4	hypothetical?
5	DR. GREENBERG: Sure.
6	DR. VOGT: Are there 125 studies that say that
7	there are vast increases in toothpaste quality when more
8	is produced?
9	DR. GREENBERG: Yes. There have been studies
10	all along that say consumers enjoy the taste of a
11	particular toothpaste. Others enjoy the health content
12	attributes of a particular toothpaste. A whole broad
13	variety of reasons why people may select a particular
14	toothpaste.
15	DR. VOGT: Let me just make one remark. What
16	we would require of anyone, whether it's a hospital
17	making a volume/quality/efficiency argument, or a
18	toothpaste maker making some sort of a quality argument,
19	we would require for that claim to have any credibility
20	some good argument as to, you know, A, that the
21	efficiency could be gotten, and B, that it's merger-
22	specific.
23	And that's a standard to which we hold anybody
24	who comes in and makes an efficiency claim, whether it's
25	about quality, whether it's about cost. You have to

show -- you know, explain at some level of detail with some supporting data that in fact, yes, this is a real efficiency and we can really get it; and B, there's really no other way to get it except through this.

And, you know, if the toothpaste maker could satisfy those two prongs, you know, again speaking for myself, not for the agency, I think the agency would -- you know, would attach some weight to that.

DR. GREENBERG: How much? How much weight would you attach?

DR. VOGT: I can't say that. I mean, nobody can say that. You know, it depends on the quality of the evidence, the quality of the argument, and, you know, the structure of the market. I mean, if it's a -- you know, a lot of these -- you know, if it's a merger taking place in a not too concentrated market, it doesn't take a lot of efficiency to offset any incentive to raise price.

If it's -- you know, if we're going from, you know, duopoly to monopoly, you'd need a lot and probably, you know, you couldn't get there, I suspect, most of the time.

DR. BARTLETT: Let's go to Mark. But before we do that, can we just stipulate for the record that everybody here from the FTC, all their remarks will be preceded by the statement that they speak for themselves

and not for the commission? Just to take the pressure off.

Go ahead, Mark.

DR. PAULY: I have a response which is semiserious. If you think that bigger is always better, given cost -- which is that practice makes perfect, bigger is always better, given cost -- then it also is true that bigger is always cheaper, given quality. If that's true, you have economies of scale and this is obviously a case for regulated public utility. So the FTC can withdraw and turn it over to an appropriate state or federal regulatory commission.

And I think the serious part about that is, that can't be right forever. That is to say, if there are some economies of practice makes perform, they must be exhausted at some point. And the fact that some firms may or may not -- as we saw from some of the studies here, more likely not than may -- but may be operating in a range where improvements in volume do improve quality, well, we just have to figure out where that curve stops falling and turns up again.

I think that probably would be useful to do.

There must be diminishing returns at some point, and

maybe even, if nothing else, fatigue or boredom must set

in.

DR. BARTLETT: Thanks, Mark. I want to move to
Bill Sage. But let me also ask all of you to think

about, again, during the course of the day there were

lots of suggestions made about the type of research that

could be done.

We talked about research that really focused on the welfare implications and changes in the marketplace. We talked about, certainly on the measurement side, refining measures in terms of competition and concentration. There's a whole bunch of different comments made there.

There was certainly, I think, generated from Patrick's presentation, a real focus on quality -- improving quality measurement and the like. There was discussion about testing the impact of paying for performance and also looking at market conditions as barriers that might preclude incentives from being put in place.

So there are a whole host of different issues and suggestions that were made during the course of the day. What I'd like you all to do to help the researchers and others in the room, to take those thoughts, take them through the lens, through the prism of some of the comments that we just got from our friends at the FTC, and come back and say, well, given what we just heard,

maybe we'd modify X, or we'd shift the focus, or you've got notions in terms of strategically how you might put some of those pieces together. I'd love to hear it.

So it's a thought that I'd put out for anybody who wants to pick up on it. Bill?

DR. SAGE: Your instruction has rendered anticlimactic any response I was going to give to Mark. I will say that I agree, but it's exactly Mark's question, which has a lot of truth in it, that makes all of this interesting.

You know, as I might have responded to Warren, well, there wasn't 100 years of toothpaste professionals telling us the market wouldn't work in toothpaste. And there may be things that in the volume/outcome relationship that tend toward a regulated public utility. But we're not going that way exclusively, and we need to figure out what the balance is. So that's my rejoinder.

My comment on research agenda, just to carve out a small place for the law professors here, is that there is a role, I think, for translational research between the health services type research and the economic modeling research and the legal institutions involved.

And this really comes to David Hyman's observations. In some ways, it's hard, but I don't think

at all impossible, to figure out how you incorporate this research in antitrust practice. I actually think one thing that's been sort of under-engaged in nationally is judicial education. I mean, you don't need to take all the cases away from those Article 3 judges. You might just bring them to a place and explain to them how certain types of cases work.

Another that is interest here is, I think, in some ways it's ironic, as people have pointed out, to have this discussion in this setting because most of the arguments that are generated by this research are of the greatest use to the defendant. But that, of course, makes them extremely useful in the investigations process even if they're not as useful in the direct enforcement process.

It also, though, tends to the more regulatory and less prosecutorial approach to antitrust enforcement generally, which is one of those core legal institutional questions that antitrust has to grapple with.

DR. BARTLETT: Bill has come back to, David, your point about dissemination being important. And I want to keep that as an open file, if others would like to come in with suggestions in terms of what might be effective dissemination of health services research that might make sense in this context.

And I know, Peter, you've had some discussions and some thoughts on that.

DR. HAMMER: A number of them are things I've already mentioned throughout the day. But the important thing, and this is one of the things that's exciting about a meeting like this, is almost everybody here comes from a different constituency.

I mean, you answer to different constituents. You're asking questions that are relevant to who those constituents are. And yet it's like the old story about the elephant, we only see one part of it.

One of the exciting things is that a lot of people have information that is useful to others, and there's no communication or dialogue. And it may be useful to sort of create an inventory of what that multiple sets of audiences are.

I think the challenge that you're giving to look at this through the prism of the FTC is to really say, can I creatively think of ways to frame the questions that I am interested in and identify areas where that overlaps with the similar sets of questions that others do?

And when I identify the overlapping frames, it both gives me interesting sets of new research perspectives and angles, but also obvious ways to

disseminate the information. Because if it's relevant to
the two audiences because the frames are overlapping,
then it gives me the sort of intuition to say, well,
then, I need to be speaking to these multiple audiences.

Bill's point about translation is very important because you have to speak to them in different terms. Right? We sort of start thinking of ourselves. These are foreign languages when you're going through the Donabedian structure -- you know, process/outcome type of language, different from how an antitrust court thinks.

They have to get not only identification of different audiences, but also think very seriously about how you then translate these stories into forms of information -- I think, David, it's also very important emphasizing this -- that are useful to those people. All right? So if it's not useful, they're not going to have the time or patience to digest it, and it's not going to have a policy impact.

DR. BARTLETT: Other comments? Other thoughts? Yes. Go ahead, Bill.

DR. ENCINOSA: It seems like most of the FTC people here are from antitrust. But are there any consumer protection FTC people that might be interested in AHRQ funding research on malpractice reform, liability caps? I don't know what kind of interest FTC has, or if

- they have any jurisdiction on quality issues that have malpractice issues.
- DR. HAMMER: I'm going to defer to Paul

 Pautler, who's on the consumer protection side.
- DR. BARTLETT: And I bet you Paul is just going
 to speak from his own perspective and not on behalf of
 the Commission. Right, Paul?
- 8 MR. PAUTLER: You are absolutely correct.
- 9 DR. BARTLETT: Come on up.

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MR. PAUTLER: The FTC's approach to consumer

protection is generally, in some sense, the same as on

the competition side, informed choice, and has to do with

the problems that we deal with are deception and

unfairness.

Now, unfairness can be taken to be very broad or very narrow. We tend to look at it fairly narrowly so it's not -- on the consumer protection side, we aren't trying to say that any particular type of medical practice is unfair. We're usually looking at deception, and as I think the Chairman talked about this morning, a lot of the cases we've done on the consumer protection side have been more advertising that goes over the top for various healthcare remedies of one type or another.

Having said that, I don't think it's true that the FTC's uninterested in these issues. But it's not the

1	kind of thing that we would have direct jurisdiction over
2	or the kind of things we've handled in the recent past.
3	DR. BARTLETT: Other thoughts? Yes, Larry?
4	DR. CASALINO: Yes. I need to withdraw my
5	earlier suggestion that Irene should fund research into
6	what happens after hospitals merge in terms of them
7	consolidating services because Gloria has very politely
8	informed me that she's already done that research. You
9	want to say what you found?
10	DR. BAZZOLI: Well, with an AHRQ grant that I
11	had a number of years ago, we did look at mergers just to
12	see what kind of reorganization/restructuring occurred
13	after merger. It was in health care management review.
14	But quite frankly, what we found is very little
15	restructuring. There's quite a bit of administrative
16	restructuring. That makes a lot of sense. The
17	administrative structures of two hospitals that come
18	together under one license are very they're
19	hierarchical. They're easy to streamline. What do you
20	need two legal departments for, two accounting
21	departments, that kind of thing, two CEOs? So that
22	part's easy.
23	But in terms of the clinical side, it gets back

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combining of departments -- cardiac surgery, I think, is

to the clinical integration. You see very little

24

25

one that Larry brought up. That's been very difficult for hospitals to merge.

And in some ways, that's why I think it's really important to get a sense of what happens through the merger because I'm not sure sometimes the volume is combined. What if you have 1,000 CABGs in hospital A and hospital B, and now you have 2,000 but they still are 1,000 in facility A and 1,000 in facility B? So you may not really get much change that occurs through the merger.

DR. CASALINO: It could be worse because the surgeons are spending half their time fighting to not be the part that gets consolidated into the other part. I'm serious. That's a lot of what goes on in these situations.

DR. BARTLETT: David, do I recall correctly that you talked about the vast majority of the cases or the issues that come to the Commission deal with physicians rather than institutions or hospitals?

DR. HYMAN: I think I actually said the vast number of cases that the Commission has pursued in the sense of either, you know, voting out a consent judgment with the defendants or actually litigating the cases. As to the mix of cases that comes in the front door, I don't think I said anything about that.

1	DR. VOGT: I have no idea how that breaks down.
2	DR. HYMAN: I mean, it's just a sort of
3	numerator/denominator problem not a problem,
4	observation. If you look at the number of mergers of
5	hospitals, last time I remember looking at the data, you
6	know, there were for a period of years seventy or a
7	hundred per year, some as high as 150.
8	And the Commission and Department of Justice
9	jointly issued what they call second requests, where they
10	sort of expressed additional interest to get
11	documentation in maybe 2 percent of those cases, and
12	challenged one a year.
13	DR. BARTLETT: Yes, Larry?
14	DR. CASALINO: Since the MedSouth opinion last
15	year where the FTC said, okay, you can negotiate together
16	because you're clinically integrated even though you're
17	competitors, has there been any notice of that taken
18	among physicians? Have you had any more physicians come
19	to you and say, hey, we want to do this, too?
20	DR. VITA: I don't know. I mean, my shop
21	doesn't do the physician cases, so I really couldn't say.
22	I don't know if you've seen them, Dave.
23	DR. HYMAN: Let me answer in the following way.
24	Physicians, you know, don't need an advisory opinion
25	unless they decide they want one. And if they're willing

to rely on the advisory opinion that somebody else has gotten, they can go off and seek to do that as well.

I know there's been a lot of attention in the antitrust press to the MedSouth advisory opinion, and we've had complaints at the hearings by the payors that they're unhappy with the advisory opinion. And I don't think they would be bothering to complain unless they were getting reaction in the marketplace from physicians seeking to clinically integrate and then respond.

So I actually am not -- I don't think the Commission comments on pending matters, and so I can't really answer that part of your question. But physicians don't need to seek their own advisory opinion to go off and do that.

DR. BARTLETT: Go ahead, Marty.

DR. GAYNOR: Yes. Well, just coming back to the question of some thoughts on research agenda, I can think of a couple directions that are not exclusive.

One, my read is that most of the empirical evidence at this point on quality has to do with hospitals.

And we have again what I called previously a first generation set of studies that I think, of the best studies, establish patterns between concentration and measures of quality in a strong way. So in that area, I'd concur with what Bill Voqt said a few minutes ago,

that the obvious next step is to peel things back and try and understand much more clearly what the economic mechanisms are that are driving those findings that are underneath that.

And that means demand and supply is -- it's not exactly right, but that's a way to think about it. And that's not necessarily going to be an easy thing to do, mind you. But I think that's what's called for and that's critically important.

At the same time, I think there's not a lot of evidence, if we divide healthcare up into hospitals, doctors, and insurers, not that that's necessarily the best or the only way to go, not a lot of evidence in those other two sectors. Now, that may be a bit more challenging, but not necessarily impossible. Certainly there have been a lot of insurer-planned measures of quality that have been collected, whether you like them or not or what have you. I'm not venturing an opinion on that. And there are some measures of market structure in that industry that are available, although more work needs to be done on that.

For physicians, I'm not particularly well informed about the measures of quality. And I'm not -- on market structure, we can get reasonably, I guess, decent counts of numbers or practices. But I'm not sure

how well that does or doesn't reflect market structure, given that lots of practices are members of networks that are not fully integrated firms and won't show up in standard databases.

This may very well be something that Larry and his colleagues know something about, have some opinions about. So there, in those areas, we may be more in need again of some first generation foundational basic facts studies, where in the hospital industry, sort of trying to get deeper and understand the more basic mechanisms strikes me as an important next step.

DR. BARTLETT: Before we go to you, some have been having a couple of sidebar conversations with Irene, who we'll turn to in a few minutes to wrap things up.

But let's step back for a second. I think
we've had a wonderful set of discussions today around the
issue of competition and quality. We've heard
advancement of the state of the art, where we are in
terms of the research. We've heard some new research
pieces shared with you. We've already got some really
good feedback from the FTC folks about what their needs
would be in terms of carrying on their work.

What I'd like to do, and Warren, I'll come back to you and maybe you can start us off. We had good comments from folks right before we broke for lunch about

1	research needs. As a way of wrapping up, let me try
2	going around the room one more time, very quick comments
3	in terms of your individual take-aways from this
4	discussion, from all aspects of this discussion, keeping
5	in mind what we have heard from the FTC folks about
6	promising avenues, promising directions to pursue.

And just looking for kind of quick takes in terms of what this might mean for AHRQ or anybody working on health services research in this area. What are your quick take-aways in terms of fruitful paths to pursue, whether it be measure development, whether it be a particular type of research, whatever it might be?

And Gloria, I'd be tempted -- you did such a nice job the first time, I could start with you if you'd like, or I can go someplace else.

DR. BAZZOLI: Yes, yes, yes. Okay.

DR. BARTLETT: Less than 30 seconds. I'd just like to get some thoughts on the table.

DR. BAZZOLI: Yes. I'm very intrigued by looking at the effects of quality on consumer demand. I think there's been some promising work looking at quality and hospital market concentration and mergers and things, and I think we're taking some baby steps there in the right direction.

But definitely an area that we don't

understand, and it gets to the information side as well
as just, you know, again, try and understand how
consumers define quality, react to quality, trade off
quality and price, I think that's really where research
is needed.

DR. BARTLETT: We'll go to Larry. If anybody wants to take a pass, feel free. But we'll sort of take a quick trip around the room. Larry?

DR. CASALINO: I guess two things -- one thing. I would just reiterate what Marty said a few moments ago, which is that there isn't much data on physicians. It's hard to get data on physicians. Actually, we spent very little time today talking about physicians, and that's pretty much always the way it is because there is data about hospitals. There's some data about health plans. And that's what most people use because they want to take data and do research on it. And there's just a lot more physicians and a lot less data on them, but they are the final common pathway through which care gets delivered.

I was going to say that funders should try to make it worth researchers' while to do more research on physicians, but actually I think the funders are pretty on to this. I think that it's just much more laborintensive on the part of the researchers. You can't just go get data and do an econometric analysis on it. So I

don't actually have a solution to that.

DR. BARTLETT: Bill?

DR. ENCINOSA: I guess basically we need to fund research on how quality impacts the demand function for inpatient, outpatient, and physician, and how they're interrelated. Because if prices for certain inpatient things go up, they might drop prices on the outpatient to induce movement to the outpatient. There's all kinds of these interactions that we usually don't fund research on. So it would be good to get a universal picture of the whole market.

DR. BARTLETT: Marty?

DR. GAYNOR: Well, I guess I already spoke to this a minute ago. I just think, you know, AHRQ has invested an awful lot over the past few years in developing outcomes and quality measures, and that's great. And I think we're now at the stage where a lot of these measures have been developed to the point that they can be used for analyses of functioning in markets. And I think that's a great opportunity both for AHRQ and the research community.

DR. BARTLETT: And as we go to Jeff, I want to make sure that on our plate as we're thinking about a promising direction, research measure development and dissemination activities. Jeff?

DR. GEPPERT: Just a quick thought, that maybe
there's an opportunity to do some demonstration projects
around dissemination. There's, you know, a couple
different alternatives in terms of signaling quality,
doing report cards, having Medicare sort of experimented
with sort of a seal of approval.

There's, you know, contracting options, and maybe Medicare could potentially try to look at some alternative signaling approaches in some different markets and look at what the impact is, how people respond, consumers and providers and health plans, and see what impact there is on demand with these different approaches.

DR. BARTLETT: Warren?

DR. GREENBERG: I thought I'd just add a little historical perspective because I don't want people to leave here in a glum mood. But I remember being with the FTC 25 years ago and trying to introduce market forces and competition into health care, and people saying, you can never have market forces or competition in this industry. We can only regulate this industry. Are you kidding? This industry is much different than any other industry. And for good or for ill, look what has happened over the last 25 years.

The same way, I must disagree, David -- I mean,

I don't have to even voice a disclaimer -- with your

point about quality will not be dispositive in antitrust.

I think there will be a time when quality will be just as important as price and cost in antitrust analysis in the health care sector.

DR. BARTLETT: Peter?

DR. HAMMER: The issue I would identify for a research priority or part of the research agenda is thinking much harder about mechanisms of facilitation of market activity. I would identify, in response to Warren's question, how is health care different, the asymmetries of information and the complex agency relationships make the facilitation process much more difficult and hard to identify.

So there has to be a lot of thinking through about not only what we mean by competition and quality, but what are the various ways in which they are actually interacting together? And that means we have to look at payor activity, physician referrals, which has been mentioned here as an important part, and then the incentives in contracting practices and integration, and those whole sets of things as the ways in which quality and competition actually are going to be intermediated.

DR. BARTLETT: Ryan, you've had lots of nice things to said about the work that you've done, so I'll

1	give you a	chance to throw something in. And then	
2	Patrick, s	o you don't complain that you're always las	st,
3	so we'll g	et to you next.	

DR. MUTTER: Okay. Thanks. I think Patrick made some really good points about the quality measures we're using in our analyses. I think that's certainly an area we need to continue to focus on.

One of the reasons that Herb and I chose the patient safety indicators is to avoid some of the econometric pitfalls that can plague this literature, stuff like censoring, stuff like selection bias. So to sort of continue to focus on that and to discuss that.

Another area I think is the social welfare. We've mentioned that before, looking at both price and quality. That's certainly important.

And finally, I'm just sort of curious. This may be a way to look at solving sort of the volume/outcome/causality controversy, and that is just to look at grander causality, streams of volume and streams of outcome sort of over time and see if that little tool would provide any possible answer to that.

DR. BARTLETT: Patrick?

DR. ROMANO: Sure. I think that one component that I think would be really interesting to investigate further is really to understand better the interplay of

processes and outcomes in relation to competition and consolidation.

So if we believe that consolidation reduces quality and competition increases quality, then as a clinician I'd really like to understand why. How does that work? How does that happen? What specific aspects of quality are affected? How does this actually lead me as a physician to prescribe different medications or to recommend different procedural interventions or order different lab tests?

Those relationships are not transparent to me. So I think it would be helpful, it would sort of tie everything together better, if we really understood the mechanisms by which competition exerted its purported effects on quality of care.

DR. BARTLETT: Meredith?

DR. ROSENTHAL: I guess I'd like to pick up on a point that Arnie Milstein made earlier, which is thinking about how competition -- in hospital markets, I think he was mostly talking about -- might inhibit efforts to measure quality and also potentially to pay on quality.

I think it would be interesting to look, for example, at the impact of competition in those hospital markets on update of Leapfrog measures or reporting to

1 Leapfrog. Those seem like feasible, easy studies to do.

And that would give some intuition as to how much we

3 should really care about this.

And then to reiterate what Larry said, there's just so much work to be done in defining physician markets. I mean, just one example: Do solo practice physicians really compete with these multi-specialty groups? Because they seem like very different animals to me. They're different products. And I think understanding that could be important as well.

DR. SAGE: Well, Judge Posner said they'd be competing to provide horse and buggy medicine.

I want to agree with Patrick and repeat the point about establishing the correlations, the clinical mechanisms, and the financial incentives, and getting all of that into the research.

The other thing I think I need to mention because it hasn't come up, even though it's a major part of the industry and a major part of what the FTC is doing, is innovation markets. We've really said nothing about pharmaceuticals or about clinical innovation or about anything else that's sort of dynamic quality, as we sometimes describe it. And I think that's an important part of the research.

DR. BARTLETT: Bill?

1	DR. VOGT: Well, I don't actually think I have
2	a whole lot to add to what I've just said, demand and
3	causation and volume outcome.
4	DR. BARTLETT: It doesn't hurt to say it again.
5	Dan?
6	DR. STRYER: Well, having missed a good part of
7	the day, I think I'll take a pass and just try to soak up
8	as much as I can.
9	DR. BARTLETT: Herb?
10	DR. WONG: I think I'll just pick up on the
11	point that Bill had basically highlighted and reiterate
12	that or re-highlight that as well. I think that that
13	draws really to the bigger question which everyone here
14	is sitting around and trying to think through from a
15	theoretical point of view, and that is social welfare.
16	Is the combination of price and quality increases in fact
17	a socially enhanced combination?
18	Having said that, I also think that you need to
19	continue going on the empirical route. You know, the
20	studies that Robert Town had presented, Dan Kessler, they
21	all contribute to basically building the theory. You
22	need some evidence of and some direction about how
23	volume/outcomes are behaving, variations, and things of

So I think that we can't lose sight of the

that nature to contribute to that literature.

24

25

1	empirical work that feeds into this as well.	And
2	personally, I would be thrilled if, you know, t	the FTC
3	finds that my study on consolidation would be	you
4	know, could contribute to some of your policy	issues that
5	you're addressing.	

DR. VITA: I'll just reiterate my comments from earlier. I think the work that's been done so far on devising measures of quality is very impressive, and I think it's amazing the progress that's been made.

I think where the gap needs to be filled is more research on how that information is transmitted and how it's acted on by decision-makers.

DR. BARTLETT: Gary?

DR. YOUNG: Yes. Well, I think at this point, you know, the comments have been pretty comprehensive. I'll refer back to the point that Gloria made and I think a point that I made earlier, which is I think, in terms of a research agenda, one that I think that AHRQ could be extremely influential in moving, is to do more research on consumer behavior.

I think we do need a much better understanding of the nature of competition in health care. Warren threw out toothpaste. Actually, toothpaste may not be that far afield. I mean, how do people choose toothpaste? Is it based on the physical appearances of

1	the toothpaste? Is it based do people go back and
2	look at technical information on cavity records
3	associated you know, cavity data associated with
4	toothpaste? Or do people choose toothpaste because
5	that's what their dentists tell them to choose, which
6	actually would bring us into the health care field, I
7	think, very quickly.
8	So I think we really need to understand that.
9	I don't think we do have a good understanding of the
10	nature of competition in healthcare, and I think that's
11	an agenda that AHRQ could really be extremely important
12	in moving forward.
13	DR. BARTLETT: David?
14	DR. HYMAN: I choose my toothpaste because that
15	was what my mother gave me when I was growing up. And

markets as well.

I think, you know, the basic research here is very important. It's, you know, the health services research version of policy R&D, what the Chairman referred to this morning as why the Commission funded some of these research endeavors and why it was interested in these areas.

that has some similarities to a variety of health care

I think you need to do that. You also need, though, to think through and operationalize an

- implementation strategy, dissemination, and translation.
- 2 And I think it's got to incorporate a lot of the things
- 3 that have already been said.
- DR. BARTLETT: Thanks. Peggy?
- 5 MS. McNAMARA: Well, I'm just struck today by
- the richness the various disciplines are bringing to the
- 7 discussion, and just would urge a lot of
- 8 multidisciplinary projects in the future.
- 9 DR. BARTLETT: Dan?
- DR. KESSLER: I'll go ahead and pass, give
- 11 Peggy the last word.
- DR. BARTLETT: Okay. Good. Anybody who's
- 13 sitting off the table that has something that they'd like
- to add? Any thoughts? Any suggestions?
- DR. FRIEDMAN: Well, I have to observe that --
- DR. BARTLETT: You've got to come up to the
- 17 mike.
- DR. FRIEDMAN: Sorry to do this to you, Warren.
- But I have to observe that with toothpaste, I'm paying my
- 20 own money for it and I'm not being covered by a third
- 21 party payor and an employer who may have objectives of
- their own in how they shop for health care.
- So I think if we -- you know, there have been
- 24 times there --
- DR. GREENBERG: I wanted to start there. I

wanted to start at toothpaste and see that even that can be complex.

DR. FRIEDMAN: Well, I think there's a pendulum going now to where the payor is losing a lot of -- lost some power compared to maybe five, six years ago. And those pendulums have swung from time to time, and employers have had different ideas from time to time as to how activist a role they should have in the buying of healthcare.

And I know when you say the buyer -- was it

Dave? -- I know when you say the buyer, you are including
employers and payors. But I think it's a complex market,
and so just to think of the consumer as an individual
who's the patient, you know, or the ultimate buyer is a
little too simplified.

DR. BARTLETT: Bernie, would you identify yourself for the record? Not that you've said anything controversial about toothpaste here. Just we've got it on tape. Bernie Friedman.

DR. FRIEDMAN: Bernie Friedman from AHRQ. Thank you.

DR. BARTLETT: And let me suggest, before we start moving on to dental floss at this late hour, I'd be swallowing this if I brought it any closer. But I can remedy that.

Let me turn -- maybe not this mike. I'll let

you use -- but let me turn the floor back over to Irene

Fraser from AHRQ to close things out, maybe some summary
thoughts.

DR. FRASER: Okay. This has been just an incredibly rich day. I feel like I've been at a mental smorgasbord for a full day, and it's the richness not only of disciplines but of different kinds of perspectives and so forth. I think we could convert the entire AHRQ research agenda into research -- pursuing research ideas that came out today.

And at the risk of being repetitive, what I'm going to try to do in about five minutes is just kind of pull together and kind of categorize a little bit some of the very highlights of what I heard. And I think Peggy and I and others on my staff will be poring over this for a while and having further thoughts and hopefully further conversations with some of you as we think this all through.

But it struck me that there were several different kind of packages of things suggested. One had to do with measurement development, which isn't always the sexiest kind of research to pursue, and in many cases seems like it's very far from what the ultimate users of research need.

But this seems like a field where there's still a great deal that's needed in that area, and several issues came up today, from the very basics of how you define a market itself to the utility of some of the measures that we use currently, moving past Herfindahl to looking at issues related to ease of entry into the market and trying to add in some of those other kinds of measures.

And that's just on the measures concentration/
competition, just with hospitals. As you start to move
into outpatient areas and non-hospital areas, our
measures are even more needy of further development.

Similarly, on the quality side, there's a great deal of need for continuing measure development. Within AHRQ, we've been avidly pursuing measurement development for quite a while, both on the CAPS side, where we're now moving to hospital-level CAPS, and in the quality indicator side, which you've heard a bit about today.

Obviously, even all of those rich quality indicators, which several of the people around this table helped to produce, those are still just on the inpatient side or just using inpatient data, so they measure the quality of inpatient care and of preventive care in the community but don't even get to the outpatient side, much less beyond the hospital. As we move towards more data

development in those areas, we're hoping to be able to move into quality indicators in those areas as well.

As you go from the measures to the data, I heard a lot of data needs. First of all, even just identifying, once you move past hospitals, who are the providers, what are the units of analysis that you would even want data on, and once you have those, where's the sampling frame for getting your arms around the totality of them?

Certainly, to expand research on physician group practices, we need a sampling frame for having the totality of those. We've been having discussions with folks, MGMA and others, about trying to find ways to have a sampling frame for that.

And then, finally, in the data realm, trying to find ways to link the data and to have a richer set of data at a market level because national data, of course, are not very helpful. If you're doing analysis of a merger or of changes in competition within the market, you need market-level data.

We have market-level data in some arenas. We have it for hospitals. There are other places where there are selected compendia of market data, but we need ways to integrate that so that people can look at the total picture. So we've been working with an idea and

have actually had a feasibility analysis of something that we call the market file, in which we would try to pull together data from varying sources so that researchers can use that.

So that has to do with the measures and the data. I think the harder things will be getting at the issues of causality and the links between concentration or competition and quality, and trying to get into that. The issue of report cards, I think, is really critical, and it's something that, from various perspectives, various parts of the agency have been working at over the years. Certainly there's been a lot of attention from the quality side and some funded research on the quality side looking at the impact of report cards.

My own personal -- not institutional -- thought here is that we need to reframe the question and not think about, do report cards work, but that the real question should be, when do report cards work? Under what circumstances, what kind of design, do reports cards work?

Because we know that they work for a lot of items in a lot of other industries, and it's, I think our -- it's not the consumer's fault, it's our fault, that we haven't come up with the right kinds of report cards. And there's actually, I think, been a little bit

of recent research by Judy Hibberd and others suggesting that if you really get it right, you can in fact have an impact on behavior.

We will actually have a couple of opportunities to look at some report cards. We now have two states, New York and Texas, that are using the quality indicators that AHRQ developed and are doing statewide reporting by hospital. That's somewhat of a off-label use of the quality indicators, but nevertheless will indeed provide a way for us to take a look at what the impact of that kind of thing might be.

I think in trying to get at these notions of causality, I think we also need to look to qualitative research as well as quantitative research because I think that's when we're going to get greater understanding of some of the issues of individual motivation and behavior of many of the parties, whether that be consumers or physicians or purchasers.

I think the volume/outcome stuff is fascinating, and I think that that is an area which is really begging for a good bit more research. I think there's been a good bit recently of methodological work suggesting that we need further closer examinations of the relationship between volume and outcomes and starting to question more and more the strength of that

relationship or at least the conditionality of that relationship. And again, we need to get at what lies -- to the extent that there is a relationship, what lies behind that. So I think that that is indeed something that could be very useful for us and others to look at.

And then finally, the whole area of kind of mediating factors. Because it seems to me that the issue isn't simply what level of competition leads to what level of quality, but under what circumstances different levels of competition lead to different levels of quality.

And so issues related to financial incentives, to the impact of market segmentation, it may well be that the impact on quality varies depending on the payor mix, et cetera -- I think that there's a lot of complexity there that could be very useful to try to explore.

I think running through all of this, though, the comments that have been made about dissemination, I think, are really right on. And what we need to try to find a way to do is not just do the research and then figure out how to get it out, but to start the research in exactly the way we're starting it right here, which is bringing the people who need the answers and the people -- some of the same people -- who know how to do the research to get those answers in the same room, and

1	really continue that dialogue throughout the research
2	process, so that there's no need for translation at a
3	later stage or for dissemination at a later stage because
4	you've already got all of the parties involved.
5	And I think part of the dialogue that I'd like
6	to follow up with many of you on is how do we make that
7	happen? How do we continue the kind of conversations
8	that we've had here and the richness of the experience
9	that we've had here so that when we go off and take your
10	ideas and start to try to fund and do some of this
11	research, you know, we get it right and we do it in a way
12	and in a time frame and so forth that will be most
13	useful?
14	So again, this has been just really wonderful,
15	to absorb all of this or to start to absorb it. I think
16	it will take several days to fully absorb it all. And
17	it's just it's been thank you so much for spending
18	your day like this.
19	DR. BARTLETT: We're adjourned.
20	(Whereupon, at 4:54 p.m., the meeting was
21	concluded.)
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