

Cost of Care Associated with BMI in Patients with Sickle Cell Disease

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Abbreviations:

BMI	Body mass index
SCD	Sickle cell disease
CoC	Cost of care
USD	United States dollar
EMR	Electronic medical record
CDC	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
GLM	Generalized linear model
GEE	Generalized estimated equations
MCAR	Missing completely at random
SD	Standard deviation
SE	Standard error
LS	Least-squares

36 Abstract

37 BACKGROUND:

38 Children with sickle cell disease (SCD) incur greater medical expenditures than children without
39 SCD. The prevalence of overweight has risen among children with SCD in recent years, but the
40 impact of excess weight on both the disease burden and economic burden of SCD has not been
41 determined.

42 PROCEDURE:

43 A convenience sample of patients with SCD under 18 years of age were asked to participate
44 during a routine medical check-up. All participants were from one SCD clinic in North Carolina.
45 Annual cost of care (CoC) in United States dollars (USD) was measured during four stages of
46 adolescence (pre, early, middle, and late) for two groups of patients with SCD who were either
47 above or below an age- and sex-specific 50th percentile for body mass index (BMI).

48 RESULTS:

49 A total of 33 African-American patients (mean age at enrollment 11.76 ± 3.13 , 15 (45.5%)
50 female) recorded 914 medical encounters spanning 306 patient-years. For patients over the 50th
51 BMI percentile, CoC was estimated to increase by an additional \$1,006 ($p < 0.001$) per year.
52 The estimated difference in annual CoC became most pronounced in late adolescence, wherein
53 patients in the higher percentile group incurred an additional annual CoC of \$11,695 ($p =$
54 0.019).

55 CONCLUSIONS:

56 The differences we measured in cost of care for patients with SCD gives weight to the hypothesis
57 that economic burden is exacerbated by excess bodyweight. Differences in the domain of
58 healthcare costs also suggest potential benefits of weight-management interventions. Further
59 studies implementing such interventions may provide insights for strategically managing SCD,
60 reducing economic burden and improving patient outcomes.

61

62 1 INTRODUCTION

63 Sickle cell disease (SCD), a family of inherited autosomal recessive genetic disorders, affects
64 approximately 1 in 500 African Americans and 100,000 individuals in the US.¹ Increasing life
65 expectancy for patients with SCD² has facilitated the study of health-related quality of life³
66 (HRQOL) and cost of care⁴ (CoC). Children with SCD utilize healthcare more frequently^{5,6} and
67 incur greater CoC than peers without SCD.⁷⁻⁹ Recent evidence suggests that overweight and
68 obesity are becoming more prevalent among children and adults with SCD in both the developed
69 and developing worlds,¹⁰⁻¹³ but there is limited understanding regarding the economic impact of
70 these health risk factors.

71 Obesity is associated with greater CoC amongst children in the US^{14,15} and other developed
72 nations.¹⁶⁻¹⁹ Several factors influence the impact of obesity on CoC, including gender²⁰ and
73 socioeconomic status.¹⁹ With increasing rates of overweight and obesity among persons with
74 SCD, there has been speculation regarding an association between excess weight and increased
75 CoC,^{11,13,21} and the current body of literature is in need of longitudinal studies to measure the
76 impact of sustaining excess weight during adolescence for patients with SCD.

77 In this article, we summarize a retrospective cohort study that extracted medical encounter data
78 from electronic medical records (EMR) for consecutive pediatric and adolescent patients with
79 SCD. We statistically estimate and compare (1) the rate of change in annual CoC for patients
80 with high and low standardized body mass index (BMI) values (*Z* scores) and (2) the expected
81 annual CoC during four stages of adolescence, controlling for sex, insurance type, year, age at
82 enrollment, and socioeconomic status. Our results make a case for further study of the
83 association between overweight and increased medical and economic burden for patients with
84 SCD in a more controlled setting involving one or more nutrition and exercise based
85 interventions.

86

87 2 METHODS

88 2.1 Recruitment

89 As part of a larger study on the adolescent transition period for adolescents with chronic medical
90 conditions, a convenience sample of patients with SCD under 18 years of age was recruited from
91 one comprehensive sickle cell clinic. Details of the longitudinal sample and study design and
92 inclusion and exclusion criteria have been previously published.²² This current study's inclusion
93 criteria included a confirmed diagnosis of SCD, ability to speak and understand English, and
94 freedom of cognitive impairment (determined by health care provider) that would inhibit ability
95 to complete study activities. After institutional review board approval, patients with SCD and
96 their parents were invited to participate and informed consents were obtained from study
97 participants and their parents.

98 2.2 Data Collection

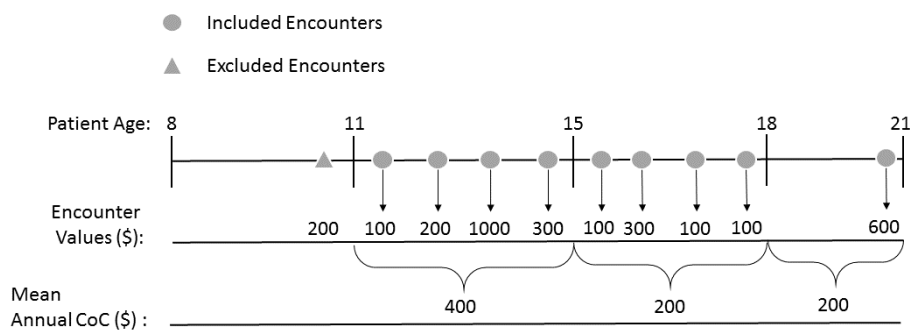
99 Data were collected from the EMR at University of North Carolina Pediatric Sickle Cell Clinic.
100 All participants' medical records were reviewed and anthropometric, financial, and demographic
101 data were extracted from WebCIS, a Legacy record, (2004-2014) and EPIC (2014-2016) systems
102 at each outpatient, inpatient, or emergency room visit.

103 2.3 Measures

104 The measurement of time is paramount in longitudinal studies, so we present results based on
105 two perspectives of patient age. More specifically, age was considered as both a continuous and
106 categorical variable. For the latter, we split numeric age values into a total of four stages of
107 adolescence based on guidelines set by the American Academy of Pediatrics²³: pre-adolescence
108 (age 8 to 11), early adolescence (age 11 to 15), middle adolescence (age 15 to 18), and late
109 adolescence (age 18 to 21). Regarding age as a continuous variable, we used the numeric values
110 of 9.5, 13, 16.5, and 19.5 years in place of the group identifiers. Annual CoC in United States
111 dollars (USD) for each stage was constructed by summing CoC at the encounter level for each
112 patient within each stage and dividing by the spanning number of years. For example, if a
113 patient's total CoC from age 8 to 11 was 99 dollars, their annual CoC would be $99 / (11-8) = 33$
114 dollars per year.

115 Some patients' data either began or ended near the borders of a stage (e.g., collection began at
116 age 10.8 or ended at age 18.1). Allowing these borderline encounters to represent CoC for an
117 entire stage leads to underestimation of the true CoC, yet overestimation results from pushing the
118 borderline values into the closest stage (i.e. using the initial encounter at age 10.8 as an
119 observation in the early adolescence stage). For these reasons we elected to exclude borderline
120 encounters, which were defined as encounters that occurred during a patient's final or initial
121 stage but did not cover more than half of the stage's duration. Figure 1 illustrates our inclusion

122 and exclusion process for a fictional set of encounters from one patient as well as the formulation
 123 of three annual CoC values. The fictional patient's initial encounter is a borderline case and is
 124 excluded. Since the spanning time between the onset of the late adolescence stage and the final
 125 encounter is greater than 75% of the stage duration, the final encounter is included.



126
 127 FIGURE 1 Data inclusion and exclusion process. NOTE: The cost values in the figure are
 128 fictional.

129

130 Standardized BMI values, often referred to as standard deviation or *Z* scores, were used to
 131 measure the weight status of patients throughout the study. The *Z* scores were formed by
 132 mapping BMI values into sex- and age-specific BMI percentiles that were based on reference
 133 data compiled by the Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).²⁴ The documentation of
 134 the *y2z* function in the *AGD* package²⁵ describes how these values were mapped in full detail.

135 We split the sample into two exposure groups by setting observations with *Z* scores above or
 136 below zero as the upper or lower weight group, respectively. We did not compare overweight to

137 non-overweight patients, which would require splitting along the 85th percentile ($Z = 1.1$).
138 Instead, we use the 50th percentile (1) to preserve statistical power and (2) because patients with
139 SCD have historically maintained lower BMIs relative to their peers without SCD.²⁶ With
140 regards to reason (2), a 'normal BMI' SCD patient according to standard growth charts may in
141 fact be in the upper BMI percentiles of the SCD population.

142 Additional variables included patient's median neighborhood income (based on patient zip code),
143 medical insurance type (private or public), sex (male or female), year at the onset of an age
144 period (e.g., 2009 when patient was 15, 2012 when patient was 18), and age at enrollment.

145 2.4 Statistical Analyses

146 All statistical analyses were produced with R version 3.3.0.²⁷ Descriptive statistics (e.g.
147 groupwise mean values and standard errors) were considered prior to application of the
148 generalized linear model (GLM)²⁸ with generalized estimating equations (GEE)^{29,30} and a log
149 link function.³¹ This technique is a generalization of analysis of variance with unequal sample
150 sizes and clustered outcomes that do not maintain a bell shaped distribution.³² Tests of difference
151 between two means³³ using the GLM with GEE generalizes the paired t-test by using all
152 observations from each participant (even if the participant had only one value) and also adjusting
153 for the correlation between observations within subjects. For these comparisons, we fixed each
154 of the continuous control variables (income and age at enrollment) upon their respective sample
155 means.

156 2.5 Missing Data

157 Missing data at the encounter level included 121 (13%) height values and 67 (7%) weight values.
158 We imputed these missing values using a weighted mean of previous and future values based

159 upon temporal proximity. Height values for patients over the age of 18 were carried forward for
160 all subsequent observations.

161 Missing data at the subject level included 6 (6%) income values. We assumed these data were
162 missing completely at random (MCAR) and conducted sensitivity analyses by separately
163 constructing a model using the complete cases (excluding subjects with missing values) data and
164 another using the full data (including imputed values). The complete cases model was in full
165 agreement with inferences made by the full data model, indicating that the MCAR assumption
166 was valid. After establishing the MCAR assumption, we applied multiple imputation using the
167 conditional specification implemented by the MICE algorithm³⁴ to impute the missing income
168 values.

169

170 3 RESULTS

171 3.1 Enrollment of Participants

172 A total of 33 patients recorded 914 medical encounters spanning 306 patient-years. After
173 collapsing the encounter level data to form the annual outcomes within age periods, we had a
174 total of 99 observations. Removing observations based on borderline encounters left a total of 96
175 observations.

176 3.2 Sample Characteristics

177 Mean age at entry and final encounter were 11.76 ± 3.13 and 18.74 ± 1.88 years, respectively.

178 The sample had a total of 15 (45.5%) female participants and 18 (54.5%) males. Most

179 participants (17 (51.5%)) were in the lower Z score group, and the mean Z score was $-0.14 \pm$

180 1.09. All participants were identified by parents or guardians as African American and 32 (97%)
 181 were not of Hispanic ethnicity. The mean reported income plus or minus one standard deviation
 182 (SD) was \$49,150.55 ± 13,787.84. Last, 22 (66.7%) patients were primarily insured with a type
 183 of public insurance (e.g. Medicaid) and 11 (33.3%) patients with a type of private insurance.
 184 Table 1 summarizes the sample characteristics for each Z score group.

185

186 TABLE 1 Sample Characteristics.

	Lower BMI n = 17 (51.5)	Higher BMI n = 16 (48.5)	All n = 33
Number of observations (p = 0.253)	3.1 ± 0.8	2.8 ± 0.7	2.9 ± 0.8
Age (years) at enrollment (p = 0.678)	12.0 ± 3.0	11.5 ± 3.4	11.8 ± 3.1
Age (years) at conclusion (p = 0.047)	19.4 ± 1.2	18.1 ± 2.3	18.7 ± 1.9
Income (USD) (p = 0.366)	47,008 ± 12,998	51,427 ± 14,650	49,151 ± 13,788
Z Value (p < 0.001)	-0.9 ± 1.0	0.7 ± 0.4	-0.1 ± 1.1
Sex (p = 0.024)			
Female	4 (23.5)	11 (68.8)	15 (45.5)
Male	13 (76.5)	5 (31.2)	18 (54.5)
Billing Party (p = 0.538)			
Public	10 (58.8)	12 (75.0)	22 (66.7)
Private	7 (41.2)	4 (25.0)	11 (33.3)

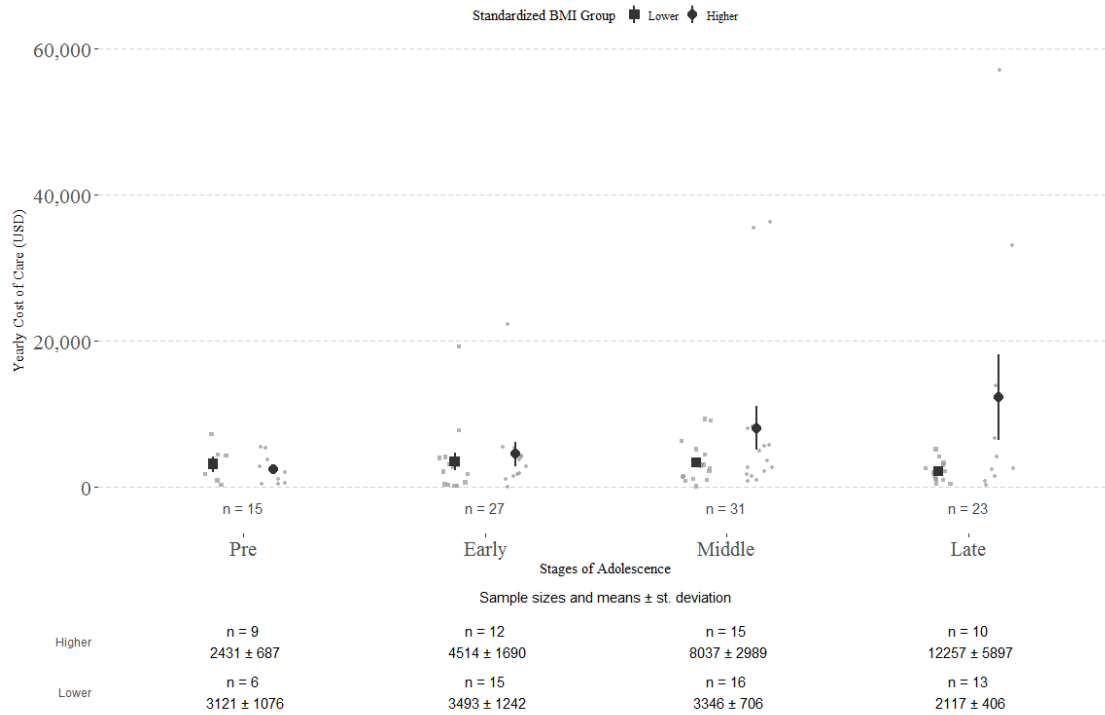
For continuous variables, values are mean ± standard deviation.

For categorical variables, values are frequency (%).

BMI: body mass index; USD: United States dollar

187

188 Figure 2 displays subject-specific annual CoC values (small grey points) for upper and lower
 189 BMI Z score groups across the four age periods. Mean annual CoC values are displayed as larger
 190 black points with error bars showing the width of one standard deviation above and below the
 191 mean. Observation counts and mean values plus or minus one standard deviation are also
 192 tabulated at the bottom of the figure.



193

194 FIGURE 2 Unadjusted mean annual CoC (USD) ± SD

195

196 3.3 Difference in Slopes

197 The rate of change per year in annual CoC was estimated from the GLM with a continuous age
 198 predictor. For the low Z score group, the estimated change in annual CoC from age 8 to 21 was
 199 \$42 (95% CI: -71 to 155). For the high Z score group, the estimated slope was \$1,047 (95% CI:
 200 488 to 1,607). To summarize, CoC was estimated to increase by an additional \$1,006 (95% CI:
 201 445 to 1,566) per year for high Z score patients.

202 3.4 Difference in Means

203 Using the categorical formulation of age, Table 2 presents estimated least-squares (LS) means
 204 and standard errors (SE) of annual CoC as well as estimated differences between annual CoC

205 between *Z* score groups for each age period. Difference values are computed by subtracting the
 206 estimated mean of the lower *Z* score group from that of the higher *Z* score group. In the two
 207 earliest age periods (pre- and early adolescence), we estimated modest difference in CoC
 208 between groups. During middle adolescence we measured a nontrivial difference of \$2,231 (95%
 209 CI: -1,768 to 6,230) that did not achieve statistical significance. A substantial and statistically
 210 significant ($p = 0.019$) difference of \$11,695 (95% CI: 1,759 to 21,632) was measured during
 211 late adolescence.

212

213 TABLE 2 Comparison of estimated cost of care means

Age Group	Lower LS Mean (SE)	n	Higher LS Mean (SE)	n	Difference	p-value
<i>Pre</i>	1,308 (598)	6	959 (403)	9	-349	0.488
<i>Early</i>	2,260 (862)	15	2,361 (1146)	12	101	0.926
<i>Middle</i>	2,877 (895)	16	5,108 (2338)	15	2,231	0.264
<i>Late</i>	1,659 (510)	13	13,354 (4953)	10	1,1695	0.019

Means presented in United States dollars
 LS: least-squares; SE: standard error

214

215 4 DISCUSSION

216 This retrospective cohort study aimed to estimate the rate of change in annual CoC for patients
 217 with high and low standardized BMI values and the expected annual CoC during four stages of
 218 adolescence. For higher *Z* score patients, CoC was estimated to increase by an additional \$1,006
 219 ($p < 0.001$) per year. The estimated difference in annual CoC became most pronounced in late
 220 adolescence, wherein patients with higher *Z* scores incurred an additional annual CoC of \$11,695
 221 ($p = 0.019$).

222 We experienced a number of challenges in the course of this study that may prove relevant for
223 future studies. Data collection through EMR proved to be very accurate for cost data, but less so
224 for data concerning age, weight, height, and other patient information relating to demographic
225 and socioeconomic factors. Improving the accuracy and consistency of information kept in
226 electronic medical records could potentially alleviate many of the limitations we experienced and
227 allow more studies such as this to be conducted. One of the primary limitations of this research
228 (in addition to a small number of patients) is that data were collected within a single hospital
229 system and patients may have visited multiple hospitals over their adolescence. Pooling patient
230 data from multiple institutions in future studies could alleviate this limitation.

231 These data suggest that at some point in adolescence, the CoC of patients with SCD becomes
232 highest in overweight patients and this trend carries forward into adulthood. One of the main
233 virtues of observational data is their capacity to generate relevant hypotheses for future research.
234 Previous research has associated overweight status with increases in the burden of SCD,¹¹ and
235 this has motivated exploration of how these patterns emerge over time. Based on these premises
236 we have summarized several points in this article to present evidence of association between
237 overweight and increased CoC for patients with SCD beginning in the late teen years. Our
238 findings should not be interpreted as causal association but should motivate exploration of data-
239 driven hypotheses.

240 A recent study⁴ estimated that the annual CoC for patients with SCD in the United States
241 exceeded one billion dollars. The authors also commented that a small proportion of patients
242 with SCD accounted for a large proportion of healthcare expenditures, which we have also found
243 to be the case in our sample. If excess weight plays a role in the development of severe
244 symptoms that in turn account for a large proportion of the total CoC for SCD, then there may be

245 both clinical and economic benefits to healthcare providers informing patients about the likely
246 consequences of the disease for different weight groups. Future research could address whether
247 there is potential to reduce the medical cost of SCD in young adults with weight management
248 interventions.

249 The relationship between excess weight and increased CoC may be supported by previous
250 literature. Overweight status is associated with comorbidities that may be of particular
251 significance for disease management and CoC in the SCD population. Recently, high BMI was
252 found to be associated with hypertension and increased risk of stroke within an adult population
253 with SS genotype.³⁵ Excess weight has also been associated with increased pain interference in
254 daily activities among adults with SCD.¹¹ Children with SCD experience much higher rates of
255 snoring and sleep apnea, associated in the general population with overweight status, than the
256 general population³⁶ and it has been shown that lower nocturnal hemoglobin saturations appear
257 to be associated with increased vaso-occlusive pain crises.²¹ There is also strong evidence that
258 snoring and sleep apnea are associated with increased cerebral, cognitive, and behavioral
259 morbidity.³⁶ However, studies conflict on the presence of a direct relationship between weight
260 status and sleep apnea or hypertension in children with SCD.^{13,36} It could then be hypothesized
261 that excess weight, through various mechanisms (e.g., metabolic syndrome, hypertension, and
262 hypoxic sleep disturbances), has negative consequences for morbidity and CoC.

263 Current SCD care guidelines from the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute only
264 superficially address weight management,³⁷ and we believe amendment of these guidelines to
265 reflect the main points of this study and others³⁵ would be an important step towards higher
266 quality healthcare and lower CoC for patients with SCD. Although we have mainly focused on
267 the implications of excess weight in patients with SCD, the relationship between growth failure,

268 delayed puberty, and underweight status in many patients with SCD^{26,38-41} should also be
269 considered in potential amendments.

270 Another implication of these findings is for the financing of SCD care. Two thirds of this study's
271 participants utilized public insurance, consistent with literature suggesting the majority of
272 patients with SCD in the US rely on Medicaid.⁴²⁻⁴⁴ If cost-effective weight management
273 interventions can be validated for the SCD population, stakeholders such as the Centers for
274 Medicare and Medicaid Services and other insurance and healthcare providers may be
275 encouraged to invest further in health promotion efforts for patients with SCD.

276

277 5 CONCLUSION

278 Sickle cell disease affects around 100,000 individuals in the US and amounts to over a billion
279 dollars of healthcare expenditures per year. Recent evidence suggests that the prevalence of
280 overweight and obesity status for these individuals is growing. The relationship between obesity
281 and rising healthcare costs has been studied thoroughly, but the nature of this relationship within
282 the SCD population remains unexplored. In this study, we analyzed longitudinal EMR data to
283 assess the association between standardized BMI values (Z scores) and CoC for patients with
284 SCD. For higher Z score patients, CoC was estimated to increase by an additional \$1,006 ($p <$
285 0.001) per year. The estimated difference in annual CoC became most pronounced in late
286 adolescence, wherein patients with higher Z scores incurred an additional annual CoC of \$11,695
287 ($p = 0.019$). These observational data have provided evidence that gives weight to the
288 hypothesis that preventative therapy of SCD-related health complications via weight

289 management interventions may substantially reduce the economic burden of SCD for pediatric
290 patients.

291

292 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

293 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

294

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299

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