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Surgeon Sex and Health Care Costs for Patients Undergoing Common Surgical Procedures

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IMPORTANCE Prior research has shown differences in postoperative outcomes for patients treated by female and male surgeons. It is important to understand, from a health system and payer perspective, whether surgical health care costs differ according to the surgeon's sex.

OBJECTIVE To examine the association between surgeon sex and health care costs among patients undergoing surgery.

DESIGN, SETTING, AND PARTICIPANTS This population-based, retrospective cohort study included adult patients undergoing 1 of 25 common elective or emergent surgical procedures between January 1, 2007, and December 31, 2019, in Ontario, Canada. Analysis was performed from October 2022 to March 2023.

EXPOSURE Surgeon sex.

MAIN OUTCOME AND MEASURE The primary outcome was total health care costs assessed 1 year following surgery. Secondarily, total health care costs at 30 and 90 days, as well as specific cost categories, were assessed. Generalized estimating equations were used with procedure-level clustering to compare costs between patients undergoing equivalent surgeries performed by female and male surgeons, with further adjustment for patient-, surgeon-, anesthesiologist-, hospital-, and procedure-level covariates.

RESULTS Among 1165 711 included patients, 151 054 were treated by a female surgeon and 1014 657 were treated by a male surgeon. Analyzed at the procedure-specific level and accounting for patient-, surgeon-, anesthesiologist-, and hospital-level covariates, 1-year total health care costs were higher for patients treated by male surgeons (\$24 882; 95% CI, \$20 780-\$29 794) than female surgeons (\$18 517; 95% CI, \$16 080-\$21 324) (adjusted absolute difference, \$6365; 95% CI, \$3491-9238; adjusted relative risk, 1.10; 95% CI, 1.05-1.14). Similar patterns were observed at 30 days (adjusted absolute difference, \$4228; 95% CI, \$2255-\$6202).

CONCLUSIONS AND RELEVANCE This analysis found lower 30-day, 90-day, and 1-year health care costs for patients treated by female surgeons compared with those treated by male surgeons. These data further underscore the importance of creating inclusive policies and environments supportive of women surgeons to improve recruitment and retention of a more diverse and representative workforce.

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 Supplemental content

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JAMA Surg. 2024;159(2):151-159. doi:10.1001/jamasurg.2023.6031 Published online November 29, 2023. Physician sociocultural characteristics, such as sex, are associated with outcomes important to surgical patients and may influence value-based surgical care delivery. Recent evidence has shown that patients treated by a female surgeon had significantly lower rates of death, rehospitalization, and adverse events after surgery compared with similar patients undergoing the same surgeries by a male surgeon.¹ Furthermore, there is an important interaction between the sex of the treating surgeon and the patient.² Women undergoing surgery showed significantly better short-term survival and fewer adverse postoperative events when undergoing surgery with a female surgeon compared with a male surgeon.² In contrast, male patients have more similar outcomes after surgery by a female or male surgeon.

While the metrics studied to date represent important clinical outcomes, there is a pressing need to evaluate a broader scope of outcomes in health care delivery. Value-based surgical care aims to maximize patient outcomes while minimizing health system costs.³ Value-based care incentivizes efficiency of health care delivery with alignment between pricing of care and patient outcomes.⁴ To our knowledge, no study has examined the association between surgeon sex and health care costs for patients undergoing surgery.

Thus, the objective of this study was to compare health care costs for patients undergoing common surgeries performed by female and male surgeons. In addition, we further examined the association between surgeon-patient sex concordance and health care costs.

Methods

Overview

The design of this study is consistent with prior work examining patient-level clinical outcomes.^{1,2,5,6} We conducted a populationbased, retrospective cohort study of adults undergoing common surgeries in Ontario, Canada, between January 1, 2007, and December 31, 2019. Ontario residents receive insurance for physician and hospital services through a single government payer, the Ontario Health Insurance Plan. We included patients undergoing 25 common elective and emergent procedures across the spectrum of all surgical subspecialties, including both open and laparoscopic approaches, to ensure generalizability (eTable 1 in Supplement 1). Multidisciplinary consultation was used to select the studied procedures, ranging from low to high perioperative risk. This study was reported according to the Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) reporting guideline⁷ and the Reporting of Studies Conducted Using Observational Routinely-Collected Health Data (RECORD) statement.⁸ The study protocol was approved by the Mount Sinai Hospital Research Ethics Board. Informed consent was waived by the Mount Sinai Research Ethics Board and ICES given the use of anonymized administrative data records.

Data Sources

We linked the Ontario Health Insurance Plan database (physician billings, laboratory tests, and out-of-province physicians⁹), the Canadian Institute for Health Information

Key Points

Question Is there an association between surgeon sex and costs of surgical care?

Findings In this population-based cohort study of 1165 711 patients, patients treated by female surgeons had lower health care costs at 30 days, 90 days, and 1 year following surgery compared with those treated by male surgeons.

Meaning In this study, patients treated by female surgeons had lower health care costs following surgery.

(CIHI) Discharge Abstract Database (hospitalizations¹⁰), the CIHI National Ambulatory Care Reporting System (emergency department visits), the Registered Persons Database (demographic information¹¹), and the Corporate Provider Database (physician characteristics). These data sets were linked using unique encoded identifiers and analyzed at ICES.

Cohort Derivation

We identified patients who underwent 1 of the 25 index procedures for whom the treating physicians could be identified. We excluded patients younger than 18 years, those who were not Ontario residents, those for whom the date of death preceded the date of surgery, and those for whom we could not reliably ascertain the treating institution. We further excluded those for whom we could not determine the sex or age of the treating surgeon or anesthesiologist, as each of these have been shown to have an association with perioperative outcomes.^{1,5,12} Finally, we excluded patients with multiple concomitant surgical procedures and those with unusual combinations of surgical specialty and procedure (eg, urology and abdominal aortic aneurysm repair), as these represent uncommon situations or miscoding that would diminish generalizability (Figure 1).

Outcomes

We examined total health care costs for included patients at 30 days, 90 days, and 1 year following surgery. The primary outcome was total costs at 1 year following surgery. In addition to total costs, we specifically examined a subset of cost categories (inpatient care, postdischarge continuing care, prescription medications, and physician professional fees).

Patient-level costs were determined using costing methods developed for health care administrative data in Ontario,¹³ an approach that has been extensively validated and used across health care contexts, including surgical care, chronic disease, critical care, spinal cord injury, and trauma.¹⁴⁻¹⁸ Costs are calculated using the CIHI resource intensity weight value and multiplying it by cost per weighted case, which is averaged across the province.^{13,19,20} All dollar figures are inflation adjusted to 2020 Canadian dollars.

Exposure

Physician sex was determined from the Corporate Provider Database, derived from physician self-report at the time of credentialing or registration with the Ontario Ministry of Health. Due to the data set, we were unable to assess surgeon selfreported gender. Primarily, we assessed the association between surgeon sex and patient-level health care costs. Secondarily, we considered the association between patientsurgeon sex concordance and costs. In keeping with prior work by some of us,² we considered a multilevel categorical variable with the 4 combinations of patient and surgeon sex: male patient and male surgeon, female patient and male surgeon, male patient and female surgeon, and female patient and female surgeon.

Covariates

Patient age, sex, geographic location (local health integration networks²¹), geographically derived socioeconomic status, rurality, and general comorbidity (Johns Hopkins Aggregated Diagnosis Groups)²² were obtained. We also collected data regarding surgeon sex, age, years in practice, specialty, and surgical volume. Surgical volume was determined for each surgeon and procedure by identifying the number of identical procedures that the operating surgeon performed in the previous year, operationalized in quartiles. We additionally collected data regarding anesthesiologist sex, age, years in practice, and annual case volume, as these have been associated with short-term perioperative outcomes.^{5,12} Hospital institution identifiers were used to account for facility-level variability. We defined a surgical procedure as emergent or elective using the CIHI Discharge Abstract Database. All same-day surgical procedures were considered elective. The duration of surgery (in minutes) was also collected.

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to compare the characteristics of patients, surgeons, anesthesiologists, and hospitals according to the sex of the surgeon. As traditional statistical measures are likely to demonstrate significant differences where no clinically important difference exists due to large sample size, we performed between-group comparisons using standardized differences, with a clinically important difference defined as greater than 0.10.²³

We used multivariable generalized estimating equations (GEEs) with an independent correlation structure and a negative binomial distribution with a log link to calculate both patient-level adjusted mean costs and adjusted relative risk, stratified by surgeon sex and patient-surgeon sex dyads and accounting for the aforementioned patient-, surgeon-, anesthesiologist-, and hospital-level covariates (determined a priori) and procedure year; clustering on the specific procedure performed was done to compare costs for patients undergoing the same procedure. When GEE negative binomial models did not converge (as was the case for subsets of costs, including inpatient costs, postdischarge care costs, and prescription medication costs), ordinary negative binomial models were used. Adjusted means costs were obtained with the LSMean option in proc genmod in SAS, version 6.1 (SAS Institute Inc). To obtain the difference in adjusted means, the NLMeans macro was used. The unit of analysis was the patient. We assessed model assumptions, including collinearity, and found no violations.

We performed a priori determined subgroup analyses to assess for heterogeneity of effect according to patient-,

1322525 Potentially eligible patients undergoing 1 of 25 included procedures 29845 Excluded for patient characteristics 29187 Aged <18 y 318 Died before index visit 340 Not Ontario, Canada, resident 1292680 Potentially eligible patients cohort 95725 Excluded for physician characteristics 48243 Surgeon age or sex missing 47482 Anesthesiologist age or sex missing 1196955 Potentially eligible patients 31244 Excluded for procedural characteristics 2618 Unable to link to hospitalization records 27802 Multiple surgical procedures at index visit 824 Unreliable procedural combinations 1165711 Included in final analytic cohort

Figure 1. Cohort Derivation

surgeon-, anesthesiologist-, procedure- (including urgency and complexity), and facility-level characteristics. We further performed sensitivity analysis by adding the duration of surgery as a covariate among the subset of patients with complete data on this variable.

Statistical significance was set at P < .05 based on a 2-tailed comparison. Analysis was performed from October 2022 to March 2023.

Results

Of the 1322 525 patients who underwent 1 of the 25 index procedures for whom the treating physicians could be identified, 156 814 were excluded (details given in Figure 1). Among the 1165 711 included patients, 151 054 were treated by a female surgeon and 1014657 were treated by a male surgeon. Female surgeons were younger, and their patients were also younger, were more likely to be female, and had fewer comorbidities compared with those treated by male surgeons (eTable 2 in Supplement 1). There were also differences in surgical specialties: patients treated by female surgeons were more likely to have undergone general, obstetric or gynecologic, or plastic surgeries, while those treated by male surgeons were more likely to have undergone cardiac, neurosurgical, orthopedic, or urologic procedures. Patients treated by male physicians were more likely to have a surgeon in the top quartiles of surgical volume. The median surgical duration was longer among patients treated by female surgeons (118 minutes; IQR, 82-169 minutes) than male surgeons (103 minutes; IQR, 74-144 minutes).

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Figure 2. Association Between Surgeon Sex and Health Care-Related Costs for Patients Undergoing Common Surgical Procedures in Ontario, Canada



Error bars indicate 95% Cls. The 2020 CAD to USD conversion was approximately 1.34 CAD per 1 USD.

Across the cohort, following multivariable regression accounting for patient-, surgeon-, anesthesiologist-, and hospital-level covariates, 1-year adjusted total health care costs were significantly higher for patients treated by male surgeons (adjusted mean cost, \$24 882; 95% CI, \$20 780-\$29 794) than those treated by female surgeons (adjusted mean cost, \$18 517; 95% CI, \$16 080-\$21 324) (adjusted absolute difference, \$6365; 95% CI, \$3491-\$9238; adjusted relative risk, 1.10; 95% CI, 1.05-1.14) (Figure 2). Similar patterns were seen at 30 days (adjusted absolute difference, \$3115; 95% CI, \$1682-\$4548; adjusted relative risk, 1.09; 95% CI, 1.05-1.13) and 90 days (adjusted absolute difference, \$4228; 95% CI, \$2255-\$6202; adjusted relative risk, 1.10; 95% CI, 1.06-1.14) following surgery (Table 1 and Table 2). Examining specific cost categories, we observed a higher adjusted relative risk (ARR) for surgeon sex and inpatient costs (ARR, 1.15; 95% CI, 1.13-1.16) and postdischarge continuing care (ARR, 1.08; 95% CI, 1.06-1.11) than for prescription medications (ARR, 1.04; 95% CI, 1.02-1.06) or physician costs (ARR, 1.08; 95% CI, 1.04-1.12).

In subgroup analyses assessing total health care costs at 1 year following surgery, there was no evidence of effect modification when analyses were stratified according to surgeon specialty, age, volume, or years in practice; hospital status; case complexity; patient age, sex, or comorbidity; anesthesiologist age, sex, volume, or years in practice; or era of surgery (**Figure 3**). However, the ARR was higher for elective surgeries (ARR, 1.08; 95% CI, 1.03-1.13) than for emergent procedures (ARR, 1.05; 95% CI, 1.01-1.09) (test for subgroup differences P = .04).

When adjusting for the same aforementioned covariates, 1-year adjusted total health care costs were highest for male patients treated by male surgeons (adjusted mean cost, \$28 869; 95% CI, \$23 172-\$35 966) followed by male patients treated by female surgeons (adjusted mean cost, \$25 050; 95% CI, \$18 945-\$33 123), female patients treated by male surgeons (adjusted mean cost, \$21 751; 95% CI, \$17 931-\$26 385), and female patients treated by female surgeons (adjusted mean cost, \$16 324; 95% CI, \$14 311-\$18 619) (eTable 3 in Supplement 1). For both female and male patients, across all time points, total health care costs were higher for patients treated by male surgeons than those treated by female surgeons (eTables 3-5 in Supplement 1).

Similar patterns were observed when we examined crude costs (eTables 6 and 7 in Supplement 1). Sensitivity analyses including surgical duration as a covariate (1100193 patients [94.3%]) were consistent with the primary analysis, demonstrating slightly higher ARRs (eTables 8 and 9 in Supplement 1).

Discussion

In this large, population-based multidisciplinary cohort study, total health care costs were significantly lower among patients treated by female surgeons than among patients treated by male surgeons. This association was observed across multiple time points and subgroup analyses defined by surgeon, patient, procedure, anesthesiologist, and hospital groups. When combined with prior work assessing rates of adverse postoperative outcomes,¹ the available data support better clinical outcomes and lower health care costs for patients treated by female surgeons. Additionally, we noted that costs of care were lower for female patients compared with men undergoing the same surgical procedures.

To our knowledge, this is the first study to assess the association between surgeon sex and patient-surgeon sex concordance with health care costs following common elective and emergent surgical procedures. Multiple prior studies^{1,24,25} have assessed the association between surgeon sex and short-term surgical outcomes. In the study most comparable to this one, patients treated by female physicians had better outcomes, including mortality, complications, reoperation, and readmission, after surgery.¹ Similar differences in patient outcomes according to physician sex have been seen among patients with myocardial infarction in emergency departments²⁶ and those admitted to internal medicine services with general medical diagnoses.²⁷ However, these studies did not investigate the association between physician sex and costs of care.

While the present study demonstrated differential health care costs based on surgeon sex, the underlying reasons are unknown. Observations from examining subsets of health care costs in this cohort revealed important drivers of differential costs: inpatient and postdischarge continuing care costs showed the greatest difference between patients treated by female surgeons and those treated by male surgeons. Many factors are likely to contribute to these costs, which may include differences in the preoperative and perioperative practices of surgeons, surgical decision-making, and the use of intraoperative equipment or technologies. Given prior data showing higher rates of adverse postoperative outcomes among patients treated by male surgeons,¹ management of these complications likely contributes to additional costs through higher health care needs and longer inpatient stays.^{28,29} Early evidence suggests different practice patterns between female and male physicians, with women demonstrating greater guideline concordance, patient-centric care, and open communication styles.³⁰⁻³⁴ Further qualitative research is needed among surgeons to better understand how

able 1. Multivariable-Adjusted Health Care	Costs for Patients Undergoing Common Elective an	nd Emergent Surgeries, Stratified by Surgeon Sex
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	Adjusted mean cost, \$ (95% CI)		Adjusted mean difference in cost
Period and outcome	Male surgeons	Female surgeons	(95% CI)
Within 30 d			
Total health care costs ^a	13 592 (11 250 to 16 423)	10 477 (9018 to 12 173)	-3115 (-4548 to -1682)
Inpatient costs ^a	8416 (6452 to 10 978)	6309 (4772 to 8340)	-2108 (-3182 to -1033)
Postdischarge care costs ^{b,c}	969 (960 to 977)	453 (443 to 463)	-515 (-528 to -502)
Prescription medication costs ^b	79 (79 to 80)	51 (50 to 51)	-29 (-30 to -28)
Physician costs ^{d,e}	2646 (2224 to 3148)	2169 (1914 to 2458)	-477 (-759 to -195)
Within 90 d			
Total health care costs ^a	16 898 (13 924 to 20 507)	12 670 (10 937 to 14 677)	-4228 (-6202 to -2255)
Inpatient costs ^b	8574 (8541 to 8608)	6407 (6342 to 6473)	-2167 (-2241 to -2094)
Postdischarge care costs ^{b,c}	1626 (1612 to 1639)	725 (709 to 741)	-901 (-922 to -880)
Prescription medication costs ^b	229 (227 to 230)	152 (150 to 154)	-77 (-79 to -74)
Physician costs ^{a,e}	3064 (2619 to 3584)	2494 (2250 to 2765)	-569 (-888 to -251)
Within 1 y			
Total health care costs ^a	24 882 (20 780 to 29 794)	18 517 (16 080 to 21 324)	-6365 (-9238 to -3491)
Inpatient costs ^a	11 600 (9073 to 14 830)	8256 (6498 to 10 490)	-3344 (-4779 to -1908)
Postdischarge care costs ^{b,c}	2837 (2813 to 2862)	1265 (1238 to 1292)	-1572 (-1608 to -1536)
Prescription medication costs ^b	872 (867 to 877)	612 (603 to 622)	-260 (-271 to -249)
Physician costs ^{c,e}	4289 (3712 to 4955)	3586 (3228 to 3984)	-702 (-1076 to -329)
Physician costs ^{c,e}	4289 (3712 to 4955)	3586 (3228 to 3984)	-702 (-1076 to -329)

^a Results from generalized estimating equation negative binomial modeling with clustering based on procedure fee code, adjusted for surgeon age, annual case volume, and years in practice; anesthesiologist age, annual case volume, and years in practice; patient age, comorbidity, rurality, and income quintile; and hospital status.

^b Results from ordinary negative binomial modeling, adjusted for surgeon age,

annual case volume, and years in practice; anesthesiologist age, annual case

long-term, and Home Care Database.

^d Results from generalized estimating equation negative binomial modeling with clustering based on procedure fee code, adjusted for surgeon age, annual case volume, and years in practice; anesthesiologist age, annual case volume, and years in practice; and patient age and comorbidity.

^e Includes fee-for-service billings payable through the Ontario Health Insurance Plan for general practitioners and specialist physicians.

^c Includes National Rehabilitation Reporting System, Continuing Care Costs,

volume, and years in practice; and patient age and comorbidity.

Table 2. Multivariable-Adjusted Relative Health Care Costs for Patients Undergoing Common Elective and Emergent Surgeries Treated by Male Surgeons vs Female Surgeons^a

	Within 30 d		Within 90 d		Within 1 y	
Costs	ARR (95% CI)	P value	ARR (95% CI)	P value	ARR (95% CI)	P value
Total health care costs	1.09 (1.05-1.13)	<.001	1.10 (1.06-1.14)	<.001	1.10 (1.05-1.14)	<.001
Inpatient costs ^b	1.15 (1.13-1.16)	<.001	1.16 (1.14-1.17)	<.001	1.15 (1.13-1.16)	<.001
Postdischarge care costs ^b	1.08 (1.06-1.11)	<.001	1.13 (1.11-1.16)	<.001	1.14 (1.11-1.17)	<.001
Prescription medication costs ^b	1.04 (1.02-1.06)	<.001	1.03 (1.01-1.05)	<.001	1.03 (1.02-1.05)	<.001
Physician costs	1.08 (1.04-1.12)	<.001	1.07 (1.04-1.12)	<.001	1.06 (1.03-1.09)	<.001

Abbreviation: ARR, adjusted relative risk.

^a Using generalized estimating equation modeling with clustering based on procedure fee code (negative binomial regression with log link), adjusted for surgeon age (continuous), annual case volume (quartiles), specialty, and years of practice (continuous); anesthesiologist age (continuous), sex, annual case volume (quartiles), and years of practice (continuous); patient age

(continuous), sex, comorbidity (categorical), rurality (rural vs urban), and income quintile; local health integration network; hospital status (academic vs community); and index year.

^b Results are from ordinary negative binomial models because the generalized estimating equation negative binomial models did not converge.

decision-making and practice style affect patient recovery after surgery and costs of care.

Despite the consistency of our findings across multiple subgroup analyses and generalizability seen in patient outcomes across health care settings, it is possible that our results may represent residual confounding or be due to chance alone. More important, we used GEEs with clustering according to the specific procedure performed to allow comparisons between patients undergoing the same procedures by male or female surgeons. Beyond this, we used robust case-mix adjustment accounting for patient factors, including age, sex, geographic location, socioeconomic status, rurality, and general comorbidity, as well as important surgeon, anesthesiologist, procedure, and hospital characteristics. We used negative binomial regression modeling, 1 of several accepted approaches for modeling cost data.³⁵ Additionally, the differences in patient

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$ \begin{array}{c cccc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 $	$ \begin{array}{ccccc} 1 \\ 3 \\ 3 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 4 \\ 4$	Variable	Adjusted RR (95% CI)	Lower costs for patients of male surgeons	Lower costs for patients of female surgeons	P value	Variable	Adjusted RR (95% CI)	Lower costs for patients of male surgeons	Lower costs for patients of female surgeons	P value
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Anesthesiologist age, 3	Å			.17	Patient age, y				.33
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	>61	1.07 (1.03-1.12)		+		>65	1.11 (1.06-1.16)		+	
$ \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{3} 1$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	51-60	1.10 (1.06-1.15)		+		36-64	1.10 (1.05-1.15)		ŧ	
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	41-50	1.09 (1.04-1.14)		+		18-35	1.04 (0.98-1.10)	1	ŧ	
$ \begin{array}{c cccc} {\rm Anden for degree at a constraint of the constraint$	$ \begin{array}{c cccc} \text{Automical distance} \\ \text{Antimical distance} \\ \text{Freed} & 110(106+114) \\ \text{Freed} & 100(106+114) \\ \text{Freed} & 100(106+113) \\ \text{Freed} $	≤40	1.11 (1.07-1.16)		+		Aggregate disease group				69.
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Anesthesiologist sex				.52	8-10	1.10 (1.06-1.14)		+	
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$ \begin{array}{c cccc} \mbox{matrix} \mb$	$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	Female	1.10 (1.05-1.15)		+		0-5	1.09 (1.04-1.14)		ŧ	
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c cccc} Reint & 100(105:113) & \bullet & $	Anesthesiologist volun	ne, quartile			.29	>11	1.09 (1.04-1.14)		ŧ	
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$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Anesthesiologist time	in practice, y			.44	>61	1.07 (1.02-1.11)		ŧ	
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populations between male and female surgeons may reflect surgical decision-making, with female surgeons potentially having better patient selection preoperatively. Thus, residual differences may represent the causal pathway rather than confounding, but this observational study could not assess causation. Although this more proximally would explain improved clinical outcomes, the cost of managing complications^{28,29} means that this may additionally affect health care costs.

Considering the importance of surgical care, these findings may have important health system implications. Among the sample of 1165 711 patients undergoing 25 different procedures over a 13-year period in Ontario, extrapolation of the per-cost difference between female and male surgeons corresponds to a cost difference of CAD \$3.14 billion over a 30-day horizon (2020 USD \$4.21 billion), CAD \$4.37 billion over a 90-day horizon (2020 USD \$5.86 billion), and CAD \$6.72 billion over a 1-year horizon (2020 USD \$9.01 billion). In the US, annual expenditures for surgical care exceeded USD \$120 billion as of 2014.³⁶ Thus, the relative difference in total health care costs following surgery between patients treated by female and male surgeons of approximately 10% (ARR, 1.10) demonstrated here represents potentially large cost savings.

Strengths and Limitations

This study has notable strengths that bolster both the external and the internal validity. First, we were able to provide generalizable results, as we used a large, population-based data set in a universal health care system and included all surgical subspecialties as well as both elective and emergent procedures. Second, we used a robust and validated approach to health care costing that leveraged administrative data to allow for comprehensive ascertainment of health care costs. This is particularly important for the assessment of long-term outcomes, as over time, patients are increasingly likely to seek care at institutions other than the one in which they initially underwent surgery. Third, this study is generalizable to many countries with public funded health care. The findings are also relevant to insurance-based privatized health systems, including in the US, which share similar models of surgical training and practice and a focus on improving value in health care delivery.

There are inevitable limitations due to the observational nature of this study. First, due to the administrative data sets

ARTICLE INFORMATION

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used, we captured binary biologic sex and were unable to assess either patient or surgeon gender. Furthermore, we were unable to capture other potentially important aspects of identity, including race and ethnicity, professional hierarchy, and disability, or other potentially important unmeasured physician sociocultural factors, individual characteristic traits, unconscious bias, and communication styles, which may have resulted in confounding. Additionally, the use of health administrative data precluded us from assessing qualitative differences in practice patterns either between male and female surgeons broadly or among individual surgeons specifically. Second, we used 1 of several accepted modeling strategies for cost data; while model fit parameters indicated that this was an appropriate choice, there are alterative approaches.³⁵ Third, while we accounted for the procedure performed (defined by billing codes), we were unable to capture granular metrics of case complexity, and thus, there may have been heterogeneity in complexity within procedure types that we were unable to capture. Fourth, we accounted for the role of anesthesiologists in the analysis but could not account for the potential effect of other team members (ie, residents, nurses) who are not captured in administrative data sets. Fifth, due to limitations of the data sets used, we were unable to granularly assess intraoperative resource and equipment use or waste. Sixth, while we used GEEs to account for procedure-level clustering for total health care costs at each time point, these models did not converge for several specific cost categories and we instead report ordinary negative binomial models.

Conclusions

This large, population-level cohort study found significantly lower short- and long-term costs of care for patients treated by female surgeons compared with male surgeons. These data further underscore the importance of creating inclusive policies and environments supportive of women surgeons to improve recruitment and retention of a more diverse and representative workforce. Furthermore, they justify work to better understand the personality traits and practice behaviors that underpin these sex-based differences in outcomes. Together, these actions are vital for offering the highest value care for all patients undergoing surgery.

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Author Contributions: Dr Wallis had full access to all of the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Concept and design: Wallis, Jerath, Aminoltejari, Salles, Coburn, Luckenbaugh, Bass, Detsky. Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data:

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Wallis, Jerath, Kaneshwaran, Buntin, Wright, Gotlib Conn, Heybati, Ranganathan, Riveros, McCartney, Armstrong, Bass, Detsky, Satkunasivam. Drafting of the manuscript: Wallis, Jerath, Aminoltejari, Kaneshwaran, Bass. Critical review of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Wallis, Aminoltejari, Salles, Buntin, Coburn, Wright, Gotlib Conn, Heybati, Luckenbaugh, Ranganathan, Riveros, McCartney, Armstrong, Bass, Detsky, Satkunasivam, Jerath. Statistical analysis: Wallis, Jerath, Kaneshwaran, Heybati.

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Supervision: Aminoltejari, Coburn, Detsky.

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material are based on data and/or information compiled and provided by CIHI and the Ontario MOH. The analyses, conclusions, opinions, and statements expressed herein are solely those of the authors and do not reflect those of the funding or data sources; no endorsement is intended or should be inferred.

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Invited Commentary

Empowering Surgeons to Help Increase Value in Health Care **Requires Better Data**

Ursula Adams, MD, MBA; Caprice C. Greenberg, MD, MPH; Jared Gallaher, MD, MPH

Surgery accounts for approximately 29% of health care expenditures in the United States, and the largest contributors to surgical expenditure are operating room and length-ofstay costs.^{1,2} The choices a surgeon makes in the operating

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room-approach, selection of equipment and instrumentscan double or triple the cost of

a procedure.³ Outside of the operating room, location factors, such as where a procedure is performed, drive more than one-third of the variation in surgical costs.¹

Although the current health care reimbursement system obscures the relationship between the surgeon and the cost of providing care, the surgeon can play a central role in cost efficiency. Research has shown that when presented with relevant data, surgeons can successfully and safely decrease the cost of surgical procedures.^{4,5} Without those data, surgeons make decisions based on how they were trained, local practice patterns, personal preferences, and best judgment. Personal experience and style, factors that vary based on surgeon demographics, unsurprisingly lead to demographicbased variations in care.

In their study, Wallis and colleagues⁶ examine data for patients in Ontario, Canada, who underwent 1 of 25 common surgical procedures spanning 13 years. After adjusting for patient, procedure, surgeon, anesthesiologist, and hospital factors, they found that total health care costs were higher for patients treated by male compared with female surgeons. These

differences were observed throughout all phases of care and along 30-day, 90-day, and 1-year time horizons.

This study joins evidence suggesting significant practice differences between male and female surgeons.⁷ Sex and other demographic differences between surgeons lead to divergent experiences and approaches to practice that influence clinical decision-making and cost. However, as the authors acknowledge, there are many potential confounding factors and possible explanatory mechanisms associated with surgeon sex that make it challenging to untangle influences on costs. Sex may be an easily captured data point, but is understanding the mechanism by which it affects cost the right next step? Surgeons control how and where they practice; they do not have control over their own demographics.

There is an urgent imperative to realign incentives to reward value (quality/cost) in surgical care, and this study of cost, like previous work in quality, demonstrates the variation in practice and opportunities for improvement that exist without much intervention. While recruiting and retaining women in surgery is important for many reasons, it is not a solution to controlling costs. We must provide surgeons with better data to understand how practice approach and decisions affect cost and support for practice improvement. Only with these insights will we ensure patients of male surgeons receive care that is just as cost-effective as that provided by female surgeons, while also helping to bend the cost curve and improve the quality of surgical care.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

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