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Doutsen A. van der Burg, Maaïke Diepstraten, Bram Wouterse

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Doutsen A. van der Burg^a, Maaïke Diepstraten^a, Bram Wouterse^{a,b}

^a The Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis (CPB) – The Hague – The Netherlands

^b Erasmus School of Health Policy & Management, Erasmus University Rotterdam – Rotterdam – The Netherlands

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¹ Bram Wouterse is the corresponding author: Erasmus School of Health Policy & Management - Burgemeester Oudlaan 50, 3062 PA Rotterdam (the Netherlands) – wouterse@eshpm.nl, +31646900564

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2 Abstract

3 *Background:* There has been a shift from nursing home care towards home care, and from
4 formal to informal care to contain long-term care costs in many countries. However,
5 substitution to home care or informal care might be harder to achieve for some conditions than
6 for others. Therefore, insight is needed in differences in long-term care use, and the role of
7 potential informal care givers, across specific conditions. We analyze differences in long-term
8 care use of older patients after a fracture of femur and stroke in general, and examining to
9 what extent having a partner and children affect long-term care use for these conditions in
10 particular.

11 *Methods:* Using administrative data on Dutch elderly (55+) with a fracture of femur or stroke in
12 2013, we investigate their long-term care use in the year after the condition takes place. We
13 use administrative treatment data to select individuals who were treated by a medical specialist
14 for stroke or femoral fracture in 2013. Subsequent long-term care use is measured as using no
15 formal care, home care, institutional care or being deceased at 13 consecutive four-weekly
16 periods after initial treatment. We relate long-term care use to having a partner, having
17 children, other personal characteristics and the living environment.

18 *Results:* We find that the probability to use no formal care one year after the initial treatment is
19 equally high for both conditions, but patients with a fracture are more likely to use home care,
20 while patients with a stroke are more likely to use institutional care or have died. Having a
21 spouse has a negative effect on home care and institutional care use, but the timing of the
22 effect, especially for institutional care, differs strongly between the two conditions. Having
23 children also has a negative effect on formal care use, and this effect is consistently larger for
24 patients with a fracture than patients with a stroke.

25 *Conclusion:* As the condition and the effect of potential informal care givers matter for
26 subsequent long-term care use, policy makers should take the expected prevalence of specific
27 conditions within the elderly population into account when designing long-term care policies.

28

29

30 **Introduction**

31 In many countries, long-term care is under pressure due to ageing populations and limited
32 public budgets. This has led governments to stimulate elderly to live independently as long as
33 possible. As a result, there has been a shift from nursing home care towards home care^{1,2}, and
34 from formal to informal care³. However, substitution to home care or informal care might be
35 harder to achieve for some conditions than for others. Therefore, insight is needed in
36 differences in long-term care use, and the role of potential informal care givers, across specific
37 conditions.

38 So far, most studies focus on the determinants of long-term care use for the total
39 population of elderly⁴⁻⁸. Having a spouse and having a child are positively related to using less
40 formal care^{7,9,10}. Also the level of disability, health status, age, gender, household size and the
41 social network are important determinants of the use of care^{4,6,7-16}.

42 Others consider the determinants of nursing home use for one single disease^{17,18,19}. Van
43 Rensbergen and Nawrot (2010)²⁰ and Rapp et al. (2015)²¹ consider differences in nursing home
44 admissions across several acute conditions, but they do not take home care into account and
45 do not explicitly investigate the effect of confounders other than age and gender. Wong et al.
46 (2010)⁷ investigate the effect of different conditions on both home care and nursing home care
47 use among hospitalized patients, but they do not consider condition-specific effects of other
48 confounders such as having a spouse or children.

49 Femoral fracture and stroke are both severe acute conditions that have a lasting impact
50 on the functioning and wellbeing of elderly patients, and are strong predictors of long-term
51 care use^{7,21}. At the same time, stroke seems to be associated more strongly with functional

52 limitations than femoral fractures²². As a result, institutionalization rates for (female) stroke
53 patients seem to be higher than for patients with a femoral fracture²¹. Besides, health benefits
54 of different types of long-term care are different for both conditions^{23,24,25}.

55 We investigate whether there are differences in long-term care use of older patients
56 after a fracture of femur and a stroke. We first investigate whether both conditions are
57 associated with different levels of home care and nursing home use¹ at different points in time
58 after initial treatment, controlling for an extensive set of possible confounders. Second, we
59 examine to what extent having a partner and having children affect long-term care use for both
60 conditions.

61

62 **Methods**

63

64 **Study population**

65 We study the use of long-term care by Dutch elderly who were treated by a medical specialist
66 for stroke or a femoral fracture, during 13 consecutive four-weekly periods after initial
67 treatment. Our source data is administrative data on all Dutch elderly (55 years or older), from
68 which we select individuals who were treated for one of these two conditions in 2013.

69 The Netherlands has one of the most extensive collective long-term care (LTC)
70 arrangements in the world²⁶. In our study period (2013-2014), a social insurance, called the
71 exceptional medical expenses act (AWBZ), covered a broad range of both home care services
72 (social support, personal care, nursing) and institutional care (nursing homes and residential

¹ We use “nursing home care” and “institutional care” interchangeably.

73 care). Eligibility for long-term care was determined by an independent assessment agency,
74 based on health, limitations, and other relevant circumstances, such as the availability of
75 informal care.

76

77 **Data sources**

78 We combine data on an individual level from different administrative sources to construct our
79 dataset. These data have been collected by Statistics Netherlands and can be linked using a
80 personalized identification number. To identify individuals who were treated for a femoral
81 fracture or stroke, we use a dataset containing all declarations for treatments of medical
82 specialists financed by the basic health care insurance in 2013. The data contain *Diagnosis*
83 *Treatment Combination* codes (DTCs, comparable to DRGs) that include the diagnosis. This data
84 contains information on duration, type of care and diagnosis on declarable sub-trajectories
85 within the whole of treatments a patient receives for a particular diagnosis. The basic insurance
86 is compulsory and covers all Dutch inhabitants.

87 To measure care, we use data on LTC use in 2013 and 2014 from the Dutch Central
88 Administrative Office (CAK). The data include information on all publicly financed formal LTC
89 use in the Netherlands. We also include data on mortality records.

90 We include a number of additional datasets that contain relevant information on
91 confounding factors. Gender, age, ethnicity, and household composition are obtained from the
92 Dutch population register. Based on the address on January 1 2013, we include information on
93 the municipality of residence. We also include data on the suitability of the home for individuals
94 with mobility problems. We use data from the tax services to obtain gross income, net financial

95 wealth, and net housing wealth. To control for health, we include information on eligibility for
96 long-term care 14 days before treatment. We also include total curative health care costs in
97 2012 (based on administrative data for the basic insurance).

98

99 **Sample selection**

100 To select individuals who were treated by a medical specialist for stroke or femoral fracture, we
101 use the DTC-subtrajectory codes. The code consists of 12 digits, providing information on the
102 treating specialism, the diagnosis group and sub-group. The last four digits contain information
103 on the disease. Based on this last part, we select individuals with a fracture of femur, or a
104 hemorrhagic or ischemic stroke. We do not include TIAs. As we are interested in long-term care
105 use after initial treatment, we exclude follow-up treatment, inter colleague consults, and DTCs
106 that already started in 2012. We also exclude individuals who already use formal care in the
107 period just before treatment. Our sample contains 26,150 observations for stroke and 7,884
108 for fractural femur.

109

110 **Outcomes**

111 We consider four outcomes at 13 consecutive four-weekly periods after the DTC is opened: no
112 long-term care, home care, nursing home care, and death. For each period, we identify whether
113 the individual used any care or died after T periods ($T= 1, 2..13$). For nursing home care we
114 observe the exact date of use. Home care use is only registered on a monthly basis. As a result,
115 we assume that someone uses home care after T periods if one uses home care in that month.
116 When an individual uses both types of care at the same day, the outcome is set to nursing

117 home care. When an individual dies at a day he uses formal care, the outcome is always set to
 118 death.

119

120 **Confounders**

121 Table 1 contains the descriptive statistics for the confounders. Health care costs, income, and
 122 wealth are measured in quintiles. Municipality size and urbanity are categorical variables with
 123 five groups. Suitability of the home is measured in 4 categories.

124

125 Table 1: Descriptive statistics for both samples

	Fracture of femur (n=7,884)		Stroke (n=26,150)	
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Partner	0.541	0.498	0.669	0.471
Having children	0.842	0.365	0.872	0.334
Healthcare costs (in euros)	5,917	11,682	5,509	11,375
Eligibility for long-term care t-14	0.090	0.286	0.048	0.214
Man	0.348	0.476	0.568	0.495
Age	76.341	9.832	72.301	9.011
Number of children	2.187	1.589	2.209	1.474
Children living in the household	0.093	0.291	0.114	0.318
First generation immigrant	0.050	0.219	0.089	0.285
Second generation immigrant	0.050	0.217	0.055	0.228
Municipality size	4.867	1.887	4.905	1.854
Urbanity	2.821	1.393	2.850	1.367
Gross income (in euros)	46,313	42,053	50,087	45,055
Home ownership	0.532	0.499	0.556	0.497
Value of the house (in euros)	161,500	195,706	162,677	194,586
Financial wealth (in euros)	224,558	422,025	177,861	391,285
Adaptability home	1.960	1.186	1.917	1.145

126 Descriptive statistics of the two samples.

127 **Statistical analysis**

128 For both diseases, we run 13 separate multinomial logit models; one for each period. These
129 models estimate the log odds of using a particular type of care (or being deceased) in a
130 particular period after treatment compared to using no care in that period. We report two
131 types of outcomes. First, we compare the use of long-term care between elderly with the two
132 different conditions, controlling for differences in confounders between the two populations.
133 Using the estimated parameters, we make predictions for long-term care use in each period for
134 both conditions for a reference person with the same characteristics (woman aged 80, with a
135 spouse, 2 children (not living at home), who has average healthcare costs and average wealth,
136 and who lives in a 2-stars home (which she does not own) in an average sized municipality and
137 city).² Second, we focus on the differences in the effect of two confounders (having a spouse
138 and having children) on the use of long-term care between the two conditions. We report
139 relative risk ratios for these confounders for both conditions. We also show the average
140 marginal effects: the effect of a one unit increase in the confounder on the probability of the
141 outcome, averaged over all individuals in the population. The regression coefficients are
142 available on request.

143

144 **Results**

145 Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for both samples separately. In both samples, the
146 majority of patients have a spouse, with the proportion of patients with a partner being higher
147 in the stroke sample. Moreover, approximately 85% of the patients have children in both

² A 2-stars home is a house of which the front door is accessible without taking the stairs. The house consists of multiple levels and a chairlift can be installed.

148 samples. Elderly with a fracture of femur are more often female than male, while the opposite
149 is true for the stroke sample. Besides, elderly with a fracture of femur are on average older than
150 patients with a stroke, but are similar in terms of the living environment.

151

152 *Care use after a fracture of femur and stroke*

153 Figure 1 shows the predicted outcomes for the reference person having one of the two
154 conditions. At all moments in time, the likelihood to use home care after a fracture of femur is
155 higher than after a stroke (Panel B). Shortly after the condition takes place, there is not much
156 difference in the probability to use institutional care (Panel C). For example, three periods after
157 a stroke her probability to receive institutional care is 1.5% while this is 1.9% after a fracture of
158 femur. With time, the probability to use institutional care increases for stroke patients while it
159 stays constant for patients with a fracture of femur. Moreover, mortality is higher in the first
160 year after a stroke than after a femoral fracture.

161

162 *The effects of having a partner and children on care use*

163 Table 2 shows relative risk ratios for having a spouse and having children at 12, 24 and 52
164 weeks after a fracture of femur and stroke. For both conditions, having a partner and having
165 children decrease the probability of using home care and institutional care. Having a spouse is
166 also associated with lower mortality for stroke patients, and having children is associated with
167 lower mortality for both conditions.

168 To gain more insight in the timing of the effects, we consider the marginal effects in
169 Figure 2 and 3. Initially, having a spouse has a positive effect on home care use after a fracture

170 and a negative effect after a stroke. After three months, the effect is negative for both
 171 conditions, but larger for fractures. In the longer run, having a spouse has a small negative
 172 effect, equal for both conditions. Having a spouse has a negative effect on institutional care
 173 use in the first periods after a fracture, but this effect dies out over time. The time pattern for
 174 stroke is the reverse.

175 Having children has a consistently negative effect on both types of formal care use over
 176 time. The effect is also consistently stronger for patients with a fracture than for patients with a
 177 stroke.

178
 179
 180 Table 2: Relative risk ratios

		Having a partner			Having children		
		T=12	T=24	T=52	T=12	T=24	T=52
Fracture of femur	Home care	0.622***	0.679***	0.695***	0.839*	0.732***	0.762**
	Institutional care	0.519***	0.687***	0.778*	0.840	0.605***	0.537***
	Deceased	0.841	0.893	0.878	0.678**	0.626***	0.713**
Stroke	Home care	0.596***	0.575***	0.632***	0.886	0.852**	0.790***
	Institutional care	0.612***	0.531***	0.514***	0.789*	0.743***	0.710***
	Deceased	0.891**	0.845***	0.820***	0.875*	0.844**	0.839**

181 *Relative risk ratios of having a spouse and having children at 12, 24 and 52 weeks after a fracture of femur and stroke. ****
 182 *p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.*

183
 184
 185 **Discussion**

186 We have assessed the impact of fracture of femur and stroke on home care and institutional
 187 care use in the first year after diagnosis, using nationwide administrative data and controlling
 188 for an extensive set of confounders. We have also analyzed difference in the effects of having a
 189 spouse and having children between the conditions. We find that, after one year, the

190 probability to use no formal care is equally high for both conditions, but patients with a fracture
191 are more likely to use home care, while patients with a stroke are more likely to use
192 institutional care or have died. Having a spouse has a negative effect on home care and
193 institutional care use, but the timing of the effect, especially for institutional care, differs
194 strongly between the two conditions. Having children also has a negative effect on formal care
195 use, and this effect is consistently larger for patients with a fracture than patients with a stroke.

196 For as far as we can compare our results to other studies, our findings seem to be in line
197 with earlier findings. Both acute conditions have been established as strong predictors of long-
198 term care use^{7,21}. Rapp et al. (2015)²¹ compare institutional care use six months after different
199 conditions. They also find that the likelihood of the use of institutional care is higher after a
200 stroke than after a fracture of femur, especially for women. The negative effect of having a
201 spouse and children on long-term care use is also well established for the general elderly
202 population^{9,10} and after hospitalization⁷.

203 What is novel in our study, is that we condition the effects on having a particular
204 condition, and that we find that these effects indeed differ. The main strength of the study is
205 that we use administrative data on all Dutch patients with a stroke and femoral fracture in
206 2013, and that we are able to link this data to an extensive set of confounders.

207 The study also has limitations. First, we have only included two conditions. We do this
208 because these two conditions are acute and can be expected to have a direct impact on care
209 use. Dementia is another important condition, where the timing of care use and the impact of
210 family caregivers could be quite different, but the onset of that condition is much more gradual
211 and much harder to identify in administrative data. Second, our study is in the context of the

212 Dutch care system of 2013. The Dutch long-term care system is very extensive compared to
213 most countries²⁵, and eligibility for care, partly, depends on policy rules specific to the
214 Netherlands. This means that caution is needed in generalizing the finding to other countries, or
215 even to the current Dutch system (that was reformed in 2015). A specific issue is that geriatric
216 revalidation care, which one might consider long-term care, is actually part of curative care in
217 the Netherlands, and thus not included. Third, the fact that we sometimes find significant
218 effects of having a spouse or children on mortality, might indicate that these variables are
219 correlated with unobserved health. Caution is thus again needed in interpreting the effects as
220 causal.

221

222 **Declarations**

223 *Ethics approval and consent to participate:* Not applicable. Data is retrieved from Statistics
224 Netherlands (CBS). The Statistics Netherlands Act constitutes the legal basis for CBS. In addition,
225 CBS has Regulations of the board. Moreover it has multiple statutory provisions and acts
226 regarding data supply. The General Data Protection Regulation and the GDPR Implementation
227 Act in the Netherlands stipulate what is and what is not permissible with regard to personal
228 data. For more information see <https://www.cbs.nl/en-gb/about-us/organisation>

229 *Consent for publication:* Not applicable

230 *Availability of data and material:* The data that support the findings of this study are available
231 from Statistics Netherlands (CBS) but restrictions apply to the availability of these data, which
232 were used under license for the current study, and so are not publicly available. Data are

233 however available from the authors upon reasonable request and with permission of Statistics
234 Netherlands (CBS).

235 *Competing interests:* The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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238 *Authors' contributions:* BW and DvdB came up with the study design, BW and MD acquired the
239 data and drafted the manuscript. All authors analyzed and interpreted the data and read and
240 approved the manuscript.

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242

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